

**EXPERIENCES OF CRIME IN  
THIRTEEN AFRICAN COUNTRIES:  
RESULTS FROM THE  
INTERNATIONAL CRIME VICTIM  
SURVEY**

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**2006**

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Naudé C.M.B, Prinsloo J.H., Ladikos A. *Experiences of Crime in Thirteen African Countries: Results from the International Crime Victim Survey*. Electronic Publication, Turin, UNICRI-UNODC, 2006.

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# PREFACE

The Criminal Justice System in many of the African countries has, for decades, been exclusively an offender oriented process. The victim has been totally set aside; while in the final analysis, it appears clearly that offender and victim are the different facets of the same social reality. That is why in African countries, the Criminal Justice System is generally perceived by the local communities as a foreign and indifferent way of solving interpersonal problematic situations, because of the absence of the victim from the scene. This often discourages the victim from reporting cases, because his/her concerns are not taken into consideration. On the other hand, the informal justice takes care of the victim. Cases are reported to the Criminal Justice System finally only when the upstream structures (family, neighbourhood, etc.) fail to overcome the problem or when the antagonists do not belong to the same social networks. It is worthy noting that some cases are only settled after the release of the offender, when the expectations of the victim (s) are taken care of by the local people.

Criminal victimization studies in Africa highlight the needed reform in the Criminal Justice System in the region: with a specific shift from “Exclusively Punitive” to “Restorative Justice”, which gives more room to the expectations of the victim and, mutatis mutandis, which is often the practise in the local communities. The only difficulty is its proper introduction in the Criminal Justice System, because it should be accompanied equally by an opening of the punitive logic to compensatory and reconciliatory logics, which are characteristic of “Restorative Justice”. Such a shift and the philosophy behind should lead to effective policies of crime prevention and treatment of offenders; effective mainly, because such policies involve the local communities’ members, especially the victim and all other related members of the concerned community.

The Experiences of Criminal Victimization in a number of African Countries (a comparative analysis) revealed by Beaty Naude, Johan Prinsloo and Anastasios Ladikos are timely, considering that the Secretariat of the United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) encourages and is mandated to offer technical assistance to its Member States, to address their Criminal Justice System reforms by introducing, inter alia, the “Restorative Justice” approach. The wealth of information contained in the study definitely will help UNAFRI in its advisory missions to its Member States and constitutes a precious data bank in this respect. The Secretariat commends the work done and proposes that the study be extended to other African countries in order to benefit from the findings of the study and confirm the trends thereof. In this regard, we wish to appeal to other stakeholders, associates and the donor community for the necessary support in developing this study.

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# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank the following institutions and persons:

The University of South Africa (UNISA) and the former Technikon Southern Africa (TSA), for the research grants that enabled us to participate in the international survey, specifically professors Danny Titus and Rika Snyman, UNISA (Previously Technikon Southern Africa).

The country coordinators and the specific student field workers in the respective countries.

United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI), Turin Italy, especially Dr. Ugi Zvekić, currently the Chief of the Strategic Planning Unit, Division for Policy Analysis and Public Affairs, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Vienna, Dr. Anna Alvazzi del Frate, Research and Analysis Section, Division for Policy Analysis and Public Affairs, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Vienna, Austria, for their support and encouragement as well as Mr John van Kesteren, UNICRI (currently at INTERVICT, International Victimology Institute, Tilburg, the Netherlands), for compiling the statistical database for Africa.

United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI), Kampala, Uganda.

Mr Paul Smit of the Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek- en Documentatiecentrum (WODC), Justice Ministry, the Netherlands for the permission granted to use the statistical data in table one (Appendix 4) in Van Kesteren, J, Mayhew, P and Nieuwbeerta, P, 'Criminal Victimization in Seventeen Industrialised Countries' (2000:179).

The views, opinions and conclusions contained and expressed in this report are those of the authors and are not necessarily those of the University of South Africa (UNISA), the (former) Technikon Southern Africa (TSA), United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI), United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) or the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

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# SUMMARY

This publication represents the first independent comparative crime survey conducted in Africa as part of the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS).

In 1987 a working group, consisting of a number of international experts in criminology, was set up to develop the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) questionnaire and fourteen industrialized countries participated in the first ICVS survey in 1989. At the same time the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Italy investigated the possibility of carrying out similar surveys in cities in a selection of developing countries with the main task to sensitize local governments to the dimensions and extent of crime in their urban areas. The ICVS working group was then broadened to include representatives from UNICRI resulting in five developing countries participating in the ICVS. Since then more than seventy two countries have participated in the ICVS - 24 industrialized countries and 48 cities in developing countries.

Greater participation of African countries in the ICVS, especially in southern Africa, emanated from the initiatives of the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Italy to conduct similar surveys in cities in a selection of developing countries with the main task to sensitize local governments to the dimensions and extent of crime in their urban areas. Collaboration with UNICRI and the United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) eventually led to an expansion of the ICVS in the Southern African region (funded by the University of South Africa (UNISA) and former Technikon Southern Africa (TSA) with a view to establish an independent crime database, create an awareness of the value of crime victim studies and to promote the sharing of expertise in the effective reduction of crime and to obtain a broader picture of crime problems in the region. Victim surveys were since 1998 conducted in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Swaziland, Uganda, and Zambia while the data base was expanded with additional data from Botswana, Egypt, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda and Zimbabwe.

Victimization surveys of individuals and households are regarded as the most credible source of information concerning conventional crimes such as burglary, assault, robbery and car theft, personal theft, consumer fraud and corruption which directly impact on the daily lives of citizens. Household crimes are crimes experienced by the household at large while personal crimes are crimes that have been experienced by the individual personally. The African questionnaire added questions about theft of livestock and car hijacking in 1998. The ICVS also measures citizens views of crime seriousness, crimes reported to the police, reasons for not reporting crime to the police, views of police functioning, feelings of safety in own neighbourhood, home security and attitudes to punishment.

The quantitative objective of the African surveys was based on the realization of a representative sample of approximately 1,000 respondents from the main urban area. It is believed that the more densely and potentially more cosmopolitan areas would facilitate a more inclusive and representative sample of the populace and their subsequent social behaviour. The qualitative objective of the study was to gather information about the occurrence and range of patterns of crimes against individual households in the main urban areas, usually capitals of sub-Saharan African countries, to explore and assess the situation in which victims of crime find themselves and in doing so to gain insight into their situations, make comparisons and evaluate their situations on a more idiographic level. The ICVS results can actually help to increase the sensitivity of criminal justice systems to victim needs and the participation and cooperation of victims in the system itself. The report remains therefore on



an exploratory and descriptive level to remain accessible to a diverse spectrum of beneficiaries.

Over a period of five years, burglary rates were the highest in Mozambique (48.2 percent) followed by Zambia (30.9 percent) Namibia (26.2 percent) and South Africa (24.8 percent) while Egypt (12.8 percent) and Nigeria (13.4 percent) recorded the lowest rates. The severity of the burglary offence was regarded as fairly serious to very serious by the great majority (88.2 percent) of the respondents of all countries with the exception of the Nigerian participants where 27.9 percent of them considered burglary as not very serious.

The attempted rates of burglary over a five year period were the highest encountered in Mozambique (32.3 percent) and Zambia (31.4 percent) while the lowest were recorded in Egypt (11.9 percent) and Lesotho (12.7 percent). Most African countries revealed a substantial majority of respondents who perceived the attempted burglary which befell them as fairly serious to very serious. Relatively low severity ratings were measured in Mozambique (51.7 percent) and Zimbabwe (56.9 percent).

The country with the highest rate of car theft over a five year period was South Africa (23.5 percent) followed by Mozambique (19.4 percent) and Swaziland (18.5 percent). The countries with the lowest rates were Zimbabwe (5.7 percent) and Uganda (7.1 percent). Almost six in ten car thefts (59.9 percent) occurred at or near the respondent's home while 27 percent of these offences were committed in cities. The great majority (94.3 percent) of car theft victims viewed this offence as very serious to fairly serious. Those who regarded car theft as not very serious were encountered mostly in Egypt (17.9 percent) and Nigeria (13.8 percent). The countries with the highest recovery rates were Egypt (73 percent), Botswana (69.4 percent) and Tunisia (68.3 percent) while those countries with the lowest recovery rates were Zambia (16 percent), Mozambique (30.6 percent), Zimbabwe (31.3 percent) and South Africa (35.6 percent).

Approximately four in ten car owners (39.8 percent) had been the victim, once or more, of theft from their car in the past five years. Fifteen percent (14.86 percent) of the car owners had been a victim, at least once, of a theft from their car in the year preceding the study. In the majority of cases (63.5 percent) thefts from cars were committed at or near the respondent's home while one in four (26 percent) offences of this nature occurred in the cities. Just as was the case with car thefts, thefts from cars were considered as very serious or fairly serious by the majority (78.7 percent) of the victims. Those respondents who regarded this offence as not very serious were 48.5 percent from Nigeria and 37.7 percent from Mozambique.

Car vandalism over a period of five years was most common in Tunisia (28.9 percent) followed by Tanzania (26.1 percent), Uganda (23.7 percent), Nigeria (22 percent) and Egypt (21.4 percent). The highest rates of car vandalism in cities were recorded in Zimbabwe (75.8 percent) and Tanzania (50.9 percent). Nil or very low rates of car vandalism in cities occurred in Lesotho (0 percent), Swaziland (0 percent), Namibia (0.9 percent) and Mozambique (2.3 percent). On average 20.6 percent of victims regarded car vandalism as not very serious while Nigeria (52.4 percent), Zimbabwe (42.4 percent) and Mozambique (38.6 percent) were well above the average in this respect.

Most incidents of motorcycle theft were reported by South Africans (20.4 percent) followed by motorcycle owners in Swaziland (17 percent) and Zimbabwe (17.6 percent). Countries with relatively low victimisation rates were Namibia (3.6 percent), Uganda (5.4 percent), Lesotho (5.9 percent) and Botswana (5.9 percent). The majority of these offences occurred at home or near the victim's home in Botswana (100 percent), Namibia (100 percent), Zambia (100 percent), South Africa (77.8 percent) and Swaziland (53.4 percent). Motorcycle thefts mostly occurred at work in Lesotho (100 percent) and Mozambique (54.5 percent).

For bicycle theft the highest risk occurred in South Africa (29.5 percent) and Namibia (28.4). The lowest five year rates of bicycle theft were recorded in Zimbabwe (10.1 percent), Nigeria (11.7 percent) and Lesotho (12.3 percent). The majority of bicycle thefts occurred at or near the homes of respondents in Namibia (92.2 percent), South Africa (88.9.8 percent), Swaziland (88.9 percent) and Botswana (81.4 percent). In Mozambique (13.6 percent) motorcycle thefts mostly occurred at work.

Respondents who owned livestock were mostly from Botswana (35.4 percent) and Namibia (26.5 percent). Only 7.2 percent of South African respondents owned livestock. The highest rates of livestock theft occurred in Zambia (43.6 percent), Lesotho (43.4 percent) and South Africa (34.4 percent).

The highest incidence of corruption was reported by Uganda (34.7 percent), Mozambique (30.5 percent) and Nigeria (29.8 percent) while Botswana (0.8 percent), South Africa (2.9 percent) and Namibia (5.5 percent) reported the lowest rates. The combined findings of the International Victimization Survey and the Corruption Perceptions Index of Transparency International confirm the fact that Botswana is the African country with the lowest level of perceived corruption and Nigeria the country with the highest.

The risk of car related hijacking incidents was the highest in Zambia (6.0 percent), Mozambique (5.2 percent), South Africa (5.0 percent) and Swaziland (4.9 percent) while the lowest risk was reported in Namibia (0.2 percent), Botswana (0.7 percent) and Lesotho (1.1 percent). On average most hijacking incidents occurred at or near the victim's home although there are considerable variations per country. Three or more offenders were involved in almost 50 percent of hijackings and in about 70 percent of all cases the offenders were armed while in 32.6 percent of these cases the weapon was actually used. Particularly high rates of armed offenders were reported by Botswana (91.7 percent), Mozambique (91.3 percent), Zambia (85.0 percent) and South Africa (84.0 percent).

The highest rates for robbery experiences were recorded in Mozambique (7.6 percent), Tunisia (5.6 percent) and South Africa (5.4 percent). Botswana (1.8 percent), Lesotho (2.0 percent) and Egypt (2.2 percent) recorded the lowest risk. Three or more offenders were involved in about a third of all cases and in about 50 percent of incidents the offenders were armed. Overall 51.4 percent of robbers were armed and in 33.5 percent of these cases the weapon was actually used while the highest level of armed offenders were recorded in South Africa (78.7 percent), Tanzania (77.2 percent) and Lesotho (65.6 percent) with Uganda (19.1 percent) and Mozambique (36.7 percent) reporting the lowest levels.

Zimbabwe (20.6 percent), Tanzania (17.8 percent) and Uganda (15.4 percent) experienced the highest rates of theft from the person although it is difficult to interpret theft of personal property due to the heterogeneous nature of this type of crime. The countries with the lowest risk are Namibia (7.1 percent), Lesotho (7.4 percent) and Botswana (7.6 percent).

Two types of sexual incidents were measured, i.e. offensive sexual behaviour (touch or grab in a sexually offensive way) and sexual assault (attempted rape, rape and indecent assault). Most sexual incidents involved offensive behaviour (43.7 percent) followed by attempted rape (23.0 percent), indecent assault (13.8 percent) and rape (13.5 percent). Most indecent assault cases were reported in Zimbabwe (34.1 percent), Nigeria (22.4 percent) and Namibia and Uganda (17 percent respectively). Females in South Africa (39.7 percent), Tanzania (23.6 percent), Uganda (22.9 percent) and Mozambique (20.6 percent) were the most at risk for rape with Egypt and Zimbabwe (0.0 percent respectively), Zambia (6.3 percent) and Tunisia (7.0 percent) had the lowest risk. Overall 14.4 percent of perpetrators were armed and in 40.8 percent of these cases the weapon was actually used. South Africa (39.7 percent), Mozambique (22.2 percent) and Lesotho (20.6 percent) recorded the highest level of armed offenders while the weapon was actually used in 75.0 percent of Zambian cases, 47.1 percent

of cases in South Africa and 42.9 percent of Mozambique cases. Only one offender was involved in most incidents of sexual offences (73.6 percent) in all the countries surveyed. Almost half of all the victims knew the offender by name or by sight. South Africa (39.7 percent), Mozambique (22.2 percent) and Lesotho (20.6 percent) recorded the highest levels of armed offenders. In about 75 percent of all recorded sexual offences the victim and the offender knew each other although the type of relationship differed considerably across countries. On average most sexual offences occurred in the city where the victim lived (43.9 percent) while 24.4 percent of incidents occurred near the victim's home and 15.8 percent at the victim's home.

As far as incidents of assault were concerned, an average 53.5 percent of victims indicated that they had been threatened while 43.9 percent reported that force was actually used against them. The use of force was the highest in Namibia (57.4 percent), South Africa (55.2 percent), Zambia (47.8 percent) and Lesotho (47.2 percent) while the lowest rates were recorded in Uganda (26.6 percent), Swaziland (33.0 percent) and Zimbabwe (38.5 percent). The rate of threat was high in most countries with Nigeria (71.3 percent), Tanzania (67.0 percent), Uganda (64.1 percent) and Zimbabwe (61.5 percent) reporting particularly high rates. Namibia (40.1 percent), Swaziland (43.1 percent) and South Africa (44.4 percent) reported the lowest incidence. Only one perpetrator was involved in 42.4 percent of incidents and in more than half of all the cases (53.0 percent) the offender was known by name or by sight. A weapon was used in 36.0 percent of cases and in 33.7 percent of incidents the victims had sustained injuries during the assault. About half of all assault incidents occurred at (21.9 percent) or near (29.2 percent) the victim's place of residence. A further 33.2 percent of incidents occurred in the city where the victim lived and 7.7 percent occurred at work.

Research results suggest that the repeated monitoring of the reporting of crime in countries can be used to identify and further explore specific trends within the domestic contexts and social dynamics in which they manifest. The behaviour and attitudes of respondents pertaining to the perceived seriousness of the victimization, the reporting of criminal victimization, as well as the reasons that motivated victims to do so, received attention.

Incidents of car theft were generally considered as very serious incidents and the overall majority of incidents were reported to the police, suggesting a general relationship between incidents of theft of car and the reporting thereof to the police. Almost two thirds of the respondents described victimization as a result of hijacking as very serious and a similar number of respondents reported these incidents to the police. Approximately 65 percent of the victims described theft of motorcycles as very serious. The fact that very few victims report sexual victimization to the police is well recorded. It was established that even though only one third of robbery victims reported their victimization to the police, more than twice the percentage robbery victims reported their victimization to the police compared with victims of sexual offences.

Theft from cars, vandalism to cars and theft of bicycles were considered the least serious offences. However, 42 percent of the respondents still considered the theft of a bicycle to be very serious. This must be viewed within the social and economic context of the African society where less serious criminal events still poses very serious infractions in the lives of Africans.

Car hijacking, theft from/out of cars, burglary and robbery victims were predominantly motivated by the seriousness of the events, the expectation to recover stolen property and with retribution in mind to report victimization to the police. In the cases of sexual offences and assault, the severity of the event, retribution and the prevention of similar future victimization, especially motivated victims to report these crimes to the police. This study confirms that a substantial number of respondents were not satisfied with actions taken by the police following the subsequent reporting of their victimization. Reasons for their

dissatisfaction were predominantly linked to their expectations for reporting it in the first place, namely, that the police did not do enough, that the police did not apprehend the offender, and in the case of property related offences, that the police did not recover their property. Reasons for not reporting criminal victimization to the police also reflect negatively on the police and were most often based on perceptions that the police could not assist them and/or that the police would not respond. A considerable number of victims also indicated that various crimes were not serious enough to report to the police.

Despite different definitions and understanding of victims support services and coinciding with differences in the willingness and capacity to render support services for victims of crime in the region, support services of this nature are generally deemed inadequate and often virtually non-existent. Subsequently victims are left vulnerable and prone to become repeat crime victims. This study illustrates the minimal extent to which victim support services actually exist and are utilized in the various countries. A diversity of generally negative feelings of safety and potential victimization were indicated by the respondents while their general attitudes of the performance of their local police remain critical.

Comparative crime victimization studies in Africa, although limited, are important as a means of establishing an independent crime database, especially in the light of the fact that official crime statistics are not always readily available. Some governments are also unwilling to make crime information regularly available for public scrutiny. The ICVS data can contribute to the sharing of expertise to effectively reduce crime and victimization risks. The challenge is to search for universal factors contributing to crime risk as it manifests in different contexts and comparative cross-national studies such as the ICVS can make an important contribution in this regard. Cross-national differences can be used to identify possible links between social, cultural, economical, political and criminal justice processes pertaining to the area or region that may explain crime and victimization risk differences. It is therefore important to extend the ICVS in Africa to monitor crime and victimization risks in the region which can serve as a basis for the development of appropriate programmes and strategies to reduce crime and victimization risks.

It is also important to conduct regular repeat surveys to monitor crime trends in the region. The pooling of resources and expertise will enable Africa to explain crime and to develop appropriate programmes to reduce crime and victimization effectively from an Africa perspective. The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the southern Africa Development Community (SADC) can make a meaningful contribution in this regard by encouraging member countries to participate in the ICVS and to fund their own surveys. Africa will not be able to attract sufficient foreign direct investment needed for sustainable economic development if it is not seen to be dealing effectively with crime in the region. Most potential investors cite crime as a detrimental factor to investing in Africa.

# CHAPTER 1: THE INTERNATIONAL CRIME VICTIM SURVEY IN AFRICA

**Beaty Naudé**  
**Johan Prinsloo**

## 1.1 Introduction

This publication represents the first independent comparative crime survey conducted in Africa as part of the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS). Although victim surveys have a long history in the Western world, they have received very little attention in Africa until the beginning of the 1990s when the ICVS was conducted in a selected number of African countries.

## 1.2 Brief historical background

The first known survey conducted in Europe was in Denmark in 1730. The town of Aarhus appointed six men to visit all households to ask whether anything had been stolen from the household during the last three years (Stangeland 1995:35). Since the 1960s, the survey has become an important measure of crime trends in many Western Countries to complement police-recorded crime statistics and to serve as a basis for more effective criminal justice and crime prevention policies. The United States took the lead with the first nation wide study conducted in 1966. The data was published in an extensive report on crime presented by the Johnson administration (Stangeland 1995:35). Households are randomly selected from U.S. census data (Schmallegger 1996:47) and, since 1972, the United States undertakes annual national surveys based on a sample of 60,000 household members over the age of twelve from randomly selected households to determine (Alvazzi Del Frate 1997a:3)

- the level of criminal victimization,
- the characteristics of crime incidents and victims, and
- the effects of criminal victimization on the population.

Other Western countries are now conducting regular household victimization surveys, for example, England (since 1982), the Netherlands (since 1974), Canada, Israel (since 1979) and Hong Kong (since 1978). The sample size in England varied between 10,000 to 20,000 since the first survey was conducted in 1982, but it has been increased to 40,000 since 2001 in order to monitor crime trends more accurately (The 2001 British Crime Survey 2002:1). In the mid-1980s, individual victimization studies became an important crime data gathering technique in Europe as city councils and individual researchers found them useful for the development of crime prevention and criminal justice policies and for testing criminological theories. These surveys also provide important information about the under reporting of crime to the police by victims. National surveys have, for example, been conducted in Finland, Hungary, Scotland, Sweden, and Switzerland (Alvazzi Del Frate 1997a:4). Researchers began comparing survey data from different regions and nations, but without a standardized survey instrument, they had little success (Stangeland 1995:42).

### 1.3 The International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS)

The Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development was the first to propose the development of an international victimization survey in the 1970s. To this end, pilot studies being carried out in the United States, the Netherlands, and Finland (Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate 1995:4).

In 1987 a working group, consisting of international criminologists, was set up under the guidance of Jan van Dijk from the Netherlands Ministry of Justice, Martin Killias of the University of Lausanne, and Pat Mayhew of the United Kingdom Home Office to develop the ICVS. Fourteen industrialized countries participated in the first ICVS in 1989. At the same time, the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Italy was considering conducting similar surveys in cities in a selection of developing countries. The key purpose was to sensitize local governments to the dimensions and extent of crime in urban areas. It was also felt that the collection of credible data about criminal victimization in developing countries—so far completely unavailable—would give a boost to comparative criminological research and theory (Alvazzi Del Frate, Zvekic, and van Dijk 1993:2). The ICVS working group was then broadened to include representatives from UNICRI resulting in five developing countries participating in the ICVS in 1992 and 1993 (Egypt, Uganda, Tanzania, South Africa, and Tunisia). Since then, more than seventy-two countries have participated in the ICVS: 24 industrialized countries and 48 cities in developing nations (Alvazzi Del Frate 2002:153). Many industrialized countries (for example, the United States, England, and Canada) participate in the ICVS while also conducting their own national surveys.

The United Nations funded the victim surveys in Botswana (first sweep), Egypt, Mozambique, Nigeria, South Africa (first sweep), Tanzania, and Tunisia. Collaboration with UNICRI and the United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) eventually led to an expansion of the ICVS in the Southern African region (funded by the University of South Africa (Unisa) and the former Technikon Southern Africa) with a goal of

- establishing an independent crime database
- creating an awareness of the value of crime victim studies, and
- promoting the sharing of expertise in the effective reduction of crime and to obtain a broader picture of crime problems in the region.

To date, only thirteen of Africa's 54 countries have participated in the ICVS, namely Botswana (twice), Egypt, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa (four times), Swaziland, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Unfortunately these surveys have received little attention in Africa for the following reasons:

- lack of financial funding is one of the biggest problems as countries in Africa are severely disadvantaged in terms of socioeconomic development. Most states are challenged to provide for the most basic needs of their citizens, such as housing, water, education, and health;
- the lack of a research culture and research capacity in many of these countries, owing to the financial constraints under which most universities and research institutes in Africa labour, poses another impediment; and
- political instability in the region and a poor understanding of the goal and objectives of the ICVS, coinciding with political suspiciousness, made surveys of this kind even more difficult. Many government representatives are hesitant to provide data that is perceived to be used at the disadvantage of a specific country/department and/or supposedly might reflect negatively on them.

The first national victim crime survey that was undertaken in South Africa in 1998 by Statistics South Africa was mostly based on the ICVS questionnaire, although the responses to certain questions were changed and some additional questions were added to adapt it to local needs. The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) conducted a second national survey in 2003.

The ICVS is considered as an important international instrument for measuring and comparing crime rates and criminal justice in industrialized and developing countries. It is also regarded as an established criminological data source and international agencies are increasingly making use of the data. Some of the ICVS results have, for example, been used in the European Sourcebook of Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics and in the World Health Organization’s Global Atlas of Violence.

### 1.4 Crimes measured by the ICVS

Victimization surveys of individuals and households are regarded as the most credible source of information concerning conventional crimes that directly impact on the daily lives of citizens such as burglary, assault, robbery, and car theft (van Dijk 2000:1; van Dijk and Shaw 2002:18). Citizens are questioned about their crime experiences during the preceding calendar year. The ICVS also covers crime experiences over the last five years which serves as a screening measure as it assists victims to contextualize their crime experiences so as to prevent telescoping, which can briefly be described as the “likelihood that either incidents which did not happen within the time boundaries established by the survey are mentioned by the respondents or, vice versa, that more distant events are forgotten” (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:9). A case in point is Japan (Oda 1993:576), which excluded the five-year screening questions for the 1992 ICVS. As a result, the one-year victimization rates trebled from 1989 to 1992.

The ICVS initially measured the following eleven crimes (Zvekic 1998:21):

**TABLE 1.1: Crimes measured by the ICVS**

Household property crime	Personal crime
Theft of car Theft from cars Vandalism to cars Theft of motorcycles Theft of bicycles Burglary with entry Attempted burglary Robbery	Theft of personal property Pickpocketing Non-contact personal theft Sexual incidents (women only) Sexual assaults Offensive behaviour Assaults/threats Assaults with force Assaults without force

Household crimes are crimes experienced by the household at large while personal crimes are crimes that have been experienced by the individual personally (Mayhew and van Dijk 1997:10).

In 1992, questions were also included about experiences of consumer fraud and corruption in developing countries and countries in transition, which were briefly defined as countries in a process of political and socioeconomic transition (i.e., previously communist countries in Eastern and Central Europe) and in industrialized countries since 1996 (Zvekic 1998:21; Alvazzi Del Frate 1998; Van Kesteren, Mayhew and Nieuwbeerta 2000:15). The African questionnaire added questions about theft of livestock and car hijacking in 1998. In 2000, an additional question regarding citizens’ views of the security industry was included. The ICVS also measures citizens’ views of crime seriousness, crimes reported to the police, reasons for not reporting crime to the police, views of police functioning, feelings of safety in one’s own neighborhood, home security and attitudes toward punishment (Mayhew and van Dijk 1997:3-6). In the case of crimes such as car theft, theft of personal property, assaults and sexual incidents, questions are also asked about where the crime occurred. Victims of assault and sexual incidents are also asked whether the perpetrator was known to them, the type of weapon used, and whether injuries were sustained.

An international commercial crime survey (ICCS) questionnaire was also developed in 1992 by the ICVS international working group to deal with the victimization of commercial institutions. To date, eleven

nations, including South Africa, have participated in the business crime survey (Naudé, Prinsloo, and Martins 1999:34).

## 1.5 The objectives of the ICVS

According to van Kesteren et al. (2000:11-12), the following are the main aims of the ICVS:

- to provide alternative statistical data to police-recorded crime statistics;
- to use the survey results for comparative purposes by using a standardized questionnaire and carefully controlled data management and analysis procedures; and
- to obtain additional information on who is most affected by crime.

The objectives of the ICVS are not to discredit police-recorded crime data but to supplement it and to provide a more comprehensive overview of crime rates nationally and internationally in order to accomplish the following:

- promote crime and criminal justice information for informed decision-making. According to Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate (1995:7), crime reduction and criminal justice policies cannot be developed, managed, and evaluated in the absence of comprehensive, reliable, and timely information. Criminal justice information is also essential for the rational allocation of scarce resources; efficient, effective, and equitable administration of justice; to facilitate research; to inform the public; and to forecast future developments and trends;
- obtain a more comprehensive overview of crime by gathering the information from the source (victim or household);
- obtain information on particular crimes that are known to be severely underreported (e.g., sexual offences);
- monitor crime trends independently of the trends released by the police;
- monitor crime trends regularly over a period of time;
- identify vulnerable or risk groups, particularly for crime reduction purposes;
- obtain information relating to the circumstances of some contact crimes, for example, where it occurred, by whom it was committed, when it was committed, injuries sustained, and weapons used;
- obtain information on the reasons for reporting/non-reporting of crime;
- obtain information on citizens' experiences and views of the police to improve police functioning;
- collect information on citizens' attitudes towards punishment; and
- assess risk factors and to develop appropriate and effective crime policies and reduction strategies.

According to Van Dijk and Shaw (2002:13), the ICVS provides greater knowledge about specific crime experiences, the criminal event, and certain criminal justice issues.

## 1.6 Measuring crime

Globally most countries measure crime by means of crimes recorded by the police, court statistics, and victim surveys. All these methods have certain benefits and limitations which are well-documented as is evident from the following.

### 1.6.1 *Benefits and limitations of police-recorded crime statistics*

Police statistics have a wide geographical spread, use specific legal definitions of crime and they have an existing infrastructure for gathering and collating crime data on an ongoing basis (daily, weekly, monthly, and annually), although the capacity to report and record crime may vary by region and from country to country. Many countries in Africa, especially in rural areas, do not have adequate communication and computer facilities at some police stations or the computers are not properly maintained, resulting in the equipment failing frequently, while illiteracy of police officers is also a problem that can limit the capacity to accurately gather and collate crime data. In South Africa about 30,000 police officers are functionally



illiterate, according to the National Commissioner of Police, making it difficult for them to handle the most basic of police tasks (Schönteich 2000:16).

Crime data and the functioning of the criminal justice system are, however, inevitably linked to politics and governments are under constant pressure to reduce their crime rates and to make sound policy decisions. “The validity of the data and the impression that it makes are often of great importance to governments at the national and international level” (Arlacci 2000:4). It is therefore not surprising that police crime statistics are often criticized for not reflecting crime trends as such but merely the objectives of government agents that record crime statistics. After researching long-term crime trends and patterns in various countries, Shelley (Stangeland 1995:71) observed that a nation’s crime patterns will be defined solely in terms of its legal definitions of criminality. Its total crime rates will be based on the crimes it chooses to report, and its conviction rates will be a reflection of the number of offenders that its criminal justice system chooses to prosecute. Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:6) points out that it is common knowledge that many crimes are not reported to the police and that many crimes that are reported to the police are not recorded. She further avers that many police departments do not record crime if a minimum standard of seriousness is not met. Interpretations of crime definitions and categories may differ from police officer to police officer and the data can be subject to manipulation by police authorities at station or national level to create a better (or worse) picture. Underreporting rates are particularly high in developing countries due to the lack of recording capacity and poor infrastructure, such as poor telecommunications and transportation and loss of faith in the police. The findings of the ICVS indicate that only between 30 and 40 percent of crimes, usually the most serious crimes, are reported to the police in developing countries (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:7). While most car crimes are reported (because of insurance), underreporting is particularly high in the case of crimes such as assault, sexual incidents, and bribery and corruption. According to Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:7), reporting may be as low as 1:10 in the case of sexual incidents.

Mayhew and van Dijk (1997:1) argue that offences recorded by the police are problematic as a result of the way in which police define, record, and count crime. Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:7) claims that police statistics reflect the crime categories and the legal system of the state in which they are produced. This makes it difficult to compare police-recorded crime statistics across countries. According to Barclay and Tavares (2000:2; also see van Dijk and Shaw 2002:12), comparisons of crime levels across countries are particularly problematic for these reasons:

- different legal and criminal justice systems;
- rates at which crimes are reported to the police and recorded by them;
- differences in the point at which crime is measured;
- differences in the manner in which multiple offences are recorded; and
- differences in the list of offences that are included in the overall figures and changes in the quality of data.

Police crime statistics are further deficient in that they do not reflect crimes such as organized crime, tax evasion and cyber crime and it only provides limited information on crimes committed against corporate or commercial institutions. The international commercial crime survey conducted in South Africa indicates that commercial institutions, compared to the first national victim crime survey, are considerably more at risk than individual households (Naudé, Prinsloo, and Martins 1999:52).

Police-recorded crime statistics also provide limited information about the victim or repeat victimization or the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim which is detrimental to the effective functioning of the criminal justice system and the development of successful crime reduction programs.

According to the British Crime Survey (2000:3) police-recorded crime statistics provide the following:

information about reported and recorded offences although this is influenced by changes in reporting behaviour and rules in recording practices;

- crime statistics on an annual basis;

- information on notifiable offences only;
- an indication of the police workload;
- data at area and police station level;
- crimes committed against young people under the age of 16, commercial and public sector establishments, people in institutions and the homeless;
- information on victimless crimes, murder and manslaughter, fraud and sexual offences if they have been reported to the police;
- information about the number of arrests, who has been arrested, the number of crimes detected, and by what method; and
- does not indicate which groups of the population are most at risk of victimization.

Mosher, Miethe, and Phillips (2002:85) point out that the police are more likely to record serious crimes, and research indicates that about 72 percent of serious crime and only about 53 percent of minor crimes are recorded by the police. The police are also inclined to defer to the complainant's wishes and they almost always agree to informal action if it is requested, while they are also more inclined to file an official report if the complainant has a high social status and there are considerable biases in terms of race and social class.

### 1.6.2 *Benefits and limitations of victim surveys*

Victimization studies give a more realistic count of how many people were affected by conventional crimes—crimes that mostly affect citizens on a daily basis. If conducted regularly, surveys can indicate trends in crime without being influenced by changes in victims reporting behavior or administrative and legal changes concerning the recording of crime. It gives a broader picture of the criminal event by indicating where the crime occurred, by whom it was committed in the case of crimes against the person, the type of weapon used as well as information about the victim (age, gender). This type of information is crucial for the development of effective crime reduction measures at government, local, and individual levels. It allows for international comparisons if a standardized questionnaire, such as the ICVS, is conducted simultaneously in several nations. This enables the sharing of international expertise in the effective control of crime and to counter inaccurate crime perceptions of, for example, the international business community, which can negatively affect direct-foreign investment.

Although in the post-modern era it cannot be accepted that all countries share the same norms for all crimes, victim surveys are still more reliable for comparative crime statistics than official statistics. However, survey data are less reliable for crimes such as domestic violence against women where definitions are more culturally bound. Research by van Dijk (1999:22) further notes that although the legal definitions of conventional crimes differ across countries, the meaning of basic concepts like street robbery, burglary or rape seem to be understood by the public in roughly the same way everywhere.

According to Van Dijk, Mayhew, and Killias (1990:1), the advantages of the victim surveys method are that it

- enables individual countries to see how they are faring in comparison with others in relation to crime levels;
- provides a rough picture of the extent to which survey-measured crime in different countries matches the picture from figures of offences recorded by the police;
- provides some basis for explaining major differences in crime experience in terms, for instance, of socio-demographic variables;
- allows some examination of the types of people, most at risk of victimization for different types of crime, and whether these vary across the jurisdictions in the survey; and
- provides information on responses to crime in different countries, such as opinions about the police, appropriate sentences, fear of crime, and the use of various crime prevention measures.

Winkel (1999:210) points out that one of the most significant survey findings of the decade with profound implications for more cost-effective crime reduction measures at the individual and area level of analysis,

is the extent to which a person is repeatedly victimized. Victims of multiple crimes are often young people with a more outgoing lifestyle who frequent public places of entertainment, especially in urban areas. Repeat victimization can briefly be described as the percentage of crime in a year that is repeated against the same targets. The first national victim survey in South Africa (Orkin 1998:43), for example, found that repeat victimization (two or more incidents in 1997) was very high for the crimes listed in Table 1.2.

**Table 1.2: Incidences of repeat victimization**

Offence	%
Assault	35.6
Sexual Offences	45.0
Fraud	21.8
Corruption	24.0
Robbery with force	19.4
Theft of personal property	20.0

In the Netherlands it was found that a minority of perpetrators is responsible for a substantial number of criminal incidents and that a minority of victims experienced a high rate of victimization in a given year. About 40 percent of victims experienced multiple victimizations, although this varies according to crime type. Only 8 percent of robbery incidents related to repeat victimizations, explaining 17 percent of the total number of incidents, whereas 43 percent of violence against the person related to repeat victimization (Winkel 1999:210).

According to Skogan (1999:44), the British Crime Survey found that 5 percent of the respondents experienced a burglary incident and that 6 percent of these victims have been repeatedly victimized. Victims of multiple burglaries account for 17 percent of all burglaries.

At the global level, Van Dijk (2000:2) notes that two out of three urban dwellers will be victims of crime over a five year period. The first South African national victim crime survey found that 1 in 5 households had been victimized during 1997 and 14.6 percent of individuals had been victimized. Respondents between the ages of 16 and 25 are most likely to be victims of violent crimes, while people between the ages of 26 and 35 are most likely to experience property crimes. The findings suggest that lifestyle factors such as alcohol and drug abuse and the frequenting of public places may play a role in the high rate of violence experienced by young people. The South African Victim Survey (Orkin 1998:49) further found that 50 percent of all sexual offences and 30 percent of all sexual assaults took place within the victims' homes. In the case of assault, 80 percent of all incidents were committed by a spouse/partner, relative or other acquaintance and 75.2 percent of sexual offences were committed by a spouse/partner, relative or other acquaintance. This kind of crime risk information is crucial for the development of effective crime reduction measures.

Victim surveys are, however, also prone to the following types of research or response errors (Stangeland 1995:53; Zvekić and Alvazzi Del Frate 1995:4; Kury, Obergfell-Fuchs, and Würger 2002:38)

- memory failure;
- inability or unwillingness of victims to talk about their crime experiences;
- recording events that are not defined as crime;
- sample loss (the part of the population not interviewed may be different from those who are); and
- telescoping (the effect of recalling the event as more recent than it actually was resulting in an overreporting of crime within the year under survey). Maung (1995:217) also distinguishes between

backward telescoping where an incident is remembered as happening earlier than it actually did and forward telescoping where the incident is placed in a later timeframe.

Renshaw (2002:155) points out the following problems relating to victim surveys:

- limitation and scope of the crimes covered which represent only a small number of all criminal offences;
- conceptual differences regarding the definition of different types of crimes by the researcher and the respondents;
- sample error and bias due to the possibility of discrepancy between the sample estimates and the true population parameters;
- different data collection methods (personal and telephone interviews, self-administered questionnaires);
- variations in response rates nationally and across countries;
- undercounting of certain crimes, such as crime committed by family members and friends.

In the light of these problems, Zvekic and Alvazzi Del Frate (1995:4) are of the opinion that, in general, the ICVS undercounts crime, although the count is more reliable than police crime statistics.

Victim surveys are furthermore limited in that they only measure conventional crimes and cannot measure crimes against institutions such as hospitals, schools, and old age homes; victimless crimes (prostitution, illegal gambling, and drug abuse); crimes against the environment; organized crime; public violence; tax evasion, crimes against the state; crimes against children or tourists; and crimes against the business sector.

The British Crime Survey (2000:3) states the following about victim surveys:

- they can measure both reported and unreported crimes;
- they indicate crime trends not affected by changes in reporting or changes in police recording practices;
- surveys collect information about the criminal event (what happened, where it occurred, effect of crime, property loss and injuries sustained);
- they provide information about the crime risk for different groups
- surveys do not measure crime annually in most countries;
- measures based on sample estimates of the population are subject to sampling error and other methodological limitations;
- they cannot measure crime at the small area level;
- do not measure crimes against those under 16, commercial and public sector institutions, those in institutions, and the homeless; and
- do not measure victimless crimes and crimes where the victim is no longer available to interview.

## **1.7 Comparison of police-recorded data and victim surveys**

Comparing the ICVS data with police statistics of violent crimes (i.e., serious assault, robbery, and rape) in twelve countries does indicate that victim surveys and police statistics reflect the same crime trends (Stangeland 1995:72). According to the British Crime Survey (2000:15), a comparison of police-recorded crimes and victim surveys for the period 1981-2000 reflect similar trends with regard to the crimes measured by their victim surveys. In Spain, Stangeland (1995:179) found that both police statistics and victim surveys (based on the ICVS) reflect the same crime pattern for certain types of crimes, namely, a high level of street robberies, low levels of physical and sexual assaults, and more robberies than burglaries. Lamon (2000:29) also points out that research in France, Switzerland, the Netherlands and Britain shows that victim surveys generally reflect the same crime trends as police recorded statistics in terms of crimes measured by victim surveys.

Research based on the profiles of countries in Europe and North America using police statistics and victim survey results as well as other data sources also found that police statistics often reflect crime trends reflected in victim survey results. See Kangaspuntta, Joutsen, Ollus, and Nevala (1999) for a full discussion of these findings.

## 1.8 Methodological issues

The ICVS national surveys normally comprise a sample of 2,000, while city surveys include a sample of 1,000. Interview teams are represented by male and female interviewers in order to reduce possible problems of sensitivity to issues raised by the questionnaire (Alvazzi Del Frate and Patrignani 1995:10). Regarding sample size for national surveys, “bigger is not necessarily better” as long as the sample is representative. Of course, cost factors also determine the size of the sample as well as the acceptable error estimate. Both small and large samples nevertheless have some disadvantages, which should be taken into consideration. According to Kury, Obergfell-Fuchs, and Würger (2002:40), The British Crime Survey (2000:5), Alvazzi Del Frate 1997a:5), and Farrel, Tseloni, and Pease (2000:3):

- small samples are more subject to sampling error;
- small samples do not allow small, high crime areas to be analyzed separately or in comparison to other areas;
- small samples are problematic for the studying of repeat victimization as the samples of repeat victimization can become very small;
- small samples cannot reflect the victimization experiences of specific groups such as minorities or young people;
- large samples are also subject to sampling error; relatively large samples are needed in highly industrialized countries where respondent suspicion or the frequent interviewing of citizens often yield a high refusal rate;
- large samples may also not accurately reflect the victimization experiences of certain groups. The British Crime Survey, using a national sample of 40,000, increases the representation of minorities (African and Asian) and young people in their sample to ensure better representation for analytical purposes;
- large and small samples may not adequately reflect certain sensitive crimes such as sexual offences due to respondents’ unwillingness to report such offences. For this reason the British Crime Survey has decided to exclude sexual offences from their victim surveys; and
- all samples are subject to distortion due to differential response rates and the influence that interviewers may have over the response rate (by encouraging certain responses or by misinterpreting the respondent’s response).

City and national surveys both provide important information. City samples are particularly relevant for local authorities wishing to gather alternative information on crime and victimization in their districts.

Ideally, national surveys should be conducted on an annual or biannual basis to establish crime trends, although because of the sheer magnitude of ICVS it is conducted every four years.

Surveys can be carried out in various ways and different survey methods can be combined. The 1992 Slovenia ICVS used telephone and face-to-face interviews (Kirchhoff, Kosovski, and Schneider 1994:391).

According to Kury and Würger (1993:137) the survey method used in a social-scientific empirical research project is generally influenced by the following four factors:

- the costs available for the data collection;
- the time required for answering the questions and for conducting the survey;
- the expected response rate; and the expected biases.

### 1.8.1 Self-administered and postal surveys

It has been argued that sensitive questions are answered more openly and respondents are less inclined to give socially desired responses if questionnaires are self-administered. The structure of the questionnaire and the subject of the research, however, play a role in this regard. It has, for example, been found that questions on personal health conditions are answered more openly and honestly in a self-completed questionnaire than telephone interviews (Kury and Würger (1993:137) as are questions about illicit drug use (Tourangeau and McNeely 2003:23). However, any uncertainties that respondents may have about some questions cannot be explained with the use of postal surveys. This may result in some questions not being answered or being answered incorrectly. The ICVS questionnaire is not suitable for postal surveys due to its structure. The Africa questionnaire consists of 239 questions with many sub-questions and a number of main sections, which require the skipping of some sections and then again returning to previous sections depending on the crime experience. It also includes a very specific technique to select the member of the household to be interviewed for the survey. Even fieldworkers need at least a week of intensive training and practicing before they are able to conduct interviews. According to research in America, the response rate for self-administered questionnaires was 68 percent (Kury and Würger 1993:139).

It is also known that the response rate to postal questionnaires is normally very poor in industrialized and developing countries. Moreover, many citizens in developing nations are illiterate, and postal lists are not an accurate reflection of the population, tending to under-represent the poor and rural inhabitants.

### *1.8.2 Telephone interviews*

Telephone interviews are very cost efficient, fast, and give rise to few rejections (Stangeland 1995:103). However, they are only effective in countries where a high proportion of the population own land line telephones. The response rate for telephone interviews are 69 percent compared to face-to-face interviews (75 percent) (Kury et al. 2002:42). The interviewer is able to explain any misunderstandings to respondents resulting in more accurate data being collected and there will be no skipping of questions. Responses can also be entered on a written questionnaire or keyed directly into a computer (this is also known as computer assisted telephonic interviewing (CATI).

The CATI method is very cost effective as the data is recorded more accurately and it provides greater control and assurances of standardization as well as anonymity and provides more trustful answers to sensitive questions (Renshaw 2002:159). The CATI survey method was used by all the industrialized countries which participated in the ICVS. It is also believed that it standardizes the interviewer-respondent interaction thereby contributing to the higher reporting of victimization experiences and more realistic crime rates as it has increased the reporting of crimes such as violence and theft by approximately 15 to 20 percent (Renshaw 2002:143). It also allows for better control as the data is correctly entered by a trained interviewer which means that there is no loss of data as may be the case with self-administered surveys. Van Dijk, Mayhew, and Killias (1990:6) are also of the opinion that it allows for tighter standardization and better questionnaire administration than the other survey methods.

According to Kury et al. (2002:42), telephonic interviewing tends to be less successful in obtaining sensitive information than face-to-face interviewing. On the other hand, Pavlovic (1994:394), who used both the CATI method and personal interviews for the ICVS in Slovenia, found that there was no significant difference between these two data collection methods as regards respondents' willingness to answer sensitive questions about experiences of sexual offences, robbery and assault/threat, although personal interviews yielded a slightly higher response rate. Kury et al. (2002:41) are of the opinion that a combined method of CATI and face-to-face interviews may negatively affect the survey results.

This method is not suitable for developing countries as many households do not have land lines. South Africa, which is regarded as one of the most developed countries in Africa, only has 107 land line telephones per 1,000 of the population compared to a world average of 144 per 1,000. In most industrialized countries approximately 90 percent of households have telephones.

### 1.8.3 *Personal interviews*

Personal or face-to-face interviews have been used in all the 13 African countries which participated in the ICVS as well as in all the other developing countries and so-called countries in transition (the old East Block countries) (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:14). As indicated in the previous paragraph, however, a dual system was used in Slovenia (personal interviews and the CATI method) (Pavlovic 1994:394). Interviewers need to be well trained and able to put respondents at ease by creating a feeling of confidence and trust. The quality and correctness of the collected data are ensured as the interviewer personally enters all the information on the questionnaire and is also able to clear up any misunderstanding or uncertainty regarding any questions on the part of the respondent.

Personal interviews have the advantage of building rapport with the respondent. Through personal interaction, subjects are more willing to provide information on sensitive crimes such as sexual offences.

According to Kury and Würger (1993:139), personal interviews yielded better results when respondents are willing to participate because they are then prepared to answer questions more openly and their replies are more reliable and consistent. Research findings in developed countries indicate that the response rate in the case of personal interviews was 75 percent, which is significantly higher than postal and telephone surveys (Kury et al. 2002:42). According to Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:27), the response rate of the ICVS in developing countries was about 90 percent. This high rate can be explained by the novelty of being surveyed—these populations are not yet saturated with research interviews, thus, they are willing to participate in such surveys.

On the negative side, respondents are more inclined to give socially desirable responses during personal interviews than is the case with postal and telephone interviews (Kury and Würger 1993:139). If good rapport is not established between the interviewer and respondent, the quality of the data obtained may be negatively affected. Interviewers may also subtly influence respondents to give specific answers favoured by the interviewer or the interviewer may inadvertently misinterpret certain questions. Personal interviews are much more expensive than postal or telephone interviewing methods as it involves transport and accommodation costs for fieldworkers to interview respondents at their homes.

The CAPI survey method (computer assisted personal interviewing) is also being used for victim surveys. This technique is used by the Home Office to collect crime data from victims (The British Crime Survey 2000:98). The interviewer enters the responses to the questionnaire directly into a laptop computer and the computer program specifies the questions, range and structure of answers and routing instructions. This ensures that responses are correctly entered and the combined data gathering technique appears to be very effective. Unfortunately, it is very expensive as it involves travel and accommodation expenses for the interviewers as well as the expense of acquiring laptop computers.

### 1.8.4 *Street surveys*

Street surveys have been used in South Africa to conduct victim surveys in some cities, for example, Pretoria and Cape Town (Louw 1998; Camerer, Louw, Shaw, Artz and Scharf 1998). An adapted form of the ICVS was used for these surveys. As far as could be ascertained this was the only country that conducted victim surveys in this manner. It is a quick and cost-effective manner of data gathering as it involves a sample of pedestrians being questioned by an interviewer who enters the responses on a written questionnaire. A laptop computer may also be used to enter the responses or the respondent can be requested to personally enter the answers into the computer which may provide better responses as it reduces personal interaction between fieldworker and respondent although this method can only be used in industrialized countries where high literacy and computer literacy rates exist.

Street surveys are regarded as unreliable as it can result in the sample not being representative in terms of socioeconomic and geographic demography. It is not recommended as a victim survey method as an added problem is that victims of sensitive crimes may be hesitant to relate their experiences in public where privacy may be lacking. Louw (1998:4) also points out that street surveys present more problems for comparability with other types of victim surveys and that they can result in higher crime counts as people

who have a more outgoing lifestyle are more likely to be interviewed while they are also more likely to be vulnerable of becoming victims of crime.

The refusal rate is also quite high as many pedestrians are not willing to participate in street surveys as it is inconvenient and time consuming. Victims of sensitive crimes are hesitant to relate their experiences in public to strangers as it is difficult to establish rapport. They often do not reveal crimes such as sexual abuse to anyone, even to close family members. It may be effective for marketing purposes involving only a few questions but it is not suitable for a long and complicated questionnaire such as the ICVS which on average takes between 20-30 minutes to complete.

A concern that is frequently raised by survey researchers and feminists is whether questions concerning domestic violence and sexual offences should be included in victim surveys. In the document, *Putting Women's Safety First*, prepared for the World Health Organization by Watts, Heise, Elsborg and Moreno in March 1999, the inclusion of such questions in victim crime surveys was viewed as inappropriate on the basis that

- such experiences will be underreported, thus compromising the reliability of the data and trivializing the problem, which is ethically unacceptable;
- such interviews can compromise the safety of the women;
- surveys can trigger severe secondary trauma in recalling the events; and
- surveys can emotionally impact on the interviewer.

Experiences with the ICVS worldwide do indicate difficulties with questions dealing with sexual offenses and violence against women. For example, in some cultures spouse abuse is not seen as a crime and Muslim women will not provide information about sexual offences. Women are also more likely to report sexual offences and assault committed by strangers than by relatives and close friends (Alvazzi Del Frate and Patrignani 1995:10-11; Stangeland 1997:50). The ICVS working group acknowledges these problems and emphasize in their training manual that interviewers must be trained to be sensitive, nonjudgmental, and supportive when asking respondents if they have been abused, but recommends that the questions should remain as it does provide a more reliable figure of the extent of these crimes than police recorded data resulting in more effective measures to deal with the problem.

It can also be averred that the incidence of sexual offences are so low that it is not of much use, although it does provide a baseline for longitudinal studies with the ICVS data. Another significant finding of the ICVS is that victims are more inclined to report offences committed by strangers to the police whereas victimization by relatives and other acquaintances are much less reported giving a distorted or biased official profile of the perpetrators of especially sexual and assault offences. According to Renshaw (2002:163), it was found that 76 percent of incidents were reported by victims when the offender was a stranger which decreased to 57 percent when the offender was known to the victim and 22 percent if the offender was a relative. This again can negatively influence crime reduction programs.

Since 1997, the coordinators of the ICVS in southern Africa have requested interviewers to specifically report on the number of cases where these questions triggered visible emotional and traumatic reactions during the interview. To date, very few incidents were reported. In cases where there was immediate visible trauma, the fieldworkers were instructed to provide support for the victim. Some victims expressed a need to tell the whole experience to the interviewer, which seemed to be therapeutic. Unfortunately, support services for victims of crime are very inadequate in Africa.

Although standardization of the ICVS questionnaire offers advantages for comparison, it can also create problems due to the peculiar social realities of the various countries that participated in the surveys. Translation of the questionnaire could have resulted in slight variations in the questionnaire, which is difficult to control, although Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:13) is of the opinion that it did not significantly impair the coherence and comparability of the data. Kury et al. (2002:41) are, however, of the opinion that



the translation of questionnaires can result in misinterpretation and error. Tanzania, for example, translated its questionnaire resulting in a number of questions being left out. Another problem is that many developing countries are multicultural and multilingual, which required interviewers to provide on the spot translations into some dialects during the interviewing process. For example, there are 75 dialects in Zambia and 33 in Uganda, while South Africa has 11 official languages. An English questionnaire was used in these countries as it is not feasible to translate the questionnaire into so many dialects due to financial and time constraints. As Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:25) points out, it is not possible to assess to what extent this affected responses and the situation requires closer monitoring and control. It would probably be unrealistic to assume that it had no effect at all.

### *1.8.5 Method and scope*

As in other developing countries, the surveys in Africa were carried out in accordance with the procedures outlined by UNICRI (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:17-19). Since 1992, victim surveys were conducted in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Swaziland, Uganda, and Zambia, while the data base was expanded with additional data from Botswana, Egypt, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda and Zimbabwe (see Table 1 in the Annexure).

The African surveys are based on a representative sample of approximately 1,000 respondents from main urban areas. It is believed that a sample drawn from densely populated cosmopolitan areas would be relatively inclusive and representative of the populace.

A face-to-face interview format of the ICVS was developed for Africa. Region-specific questions, for example, car hijacking and stock theft were added to collect information of crimes against individuals aged 16 years and above. As already indicated, the questionnaire also collects information on opinions and attitudes about reporting to the police, fear of crime, crime reduction and attitudes to punishment. According to Alvazzi Del Frate (1997:2), the ICVS could therefore be considered within the framework of the developmental profile of the participating country to reflect on the general quality of life of its citizens.

Surveys were carried out in major cities based on a stratified random sampling methodology (Berg 2001:30, 31) (see Table 1 in the Annexure).

It should be noted that many African States lack statistical and demographic information. In some cases, therefore, city districts and suburban areas were defined as high, middle or low residential status areas with the assistance of local coordinators familiar with demography. Designated residential areas were clustered proportionate to size and population density. Sampling units were then selected in accordance with the unique nature of residential areas, which varied in terms of housing units ranging from communal settings and collectives to single units. One household member (aged sixteen and over), whose birthday was closest to the interview date, was selected for questioning.

Senior (preferable) social science students fluent in English were trained as fieldworkers by the research coordinators. The fieldworkers conducted face-to-face interviews with the respondents in English. If a respondent was not fluent in English the fieldworkers would translate the question into the indigenous language. It should be noted that translating the questionnaire into different languages can introduce the chance of misinterpretation and error as indicated by Kury, Obergfell-Fuchs, and Würger (2002:41).

The interviewers were also trained in the objectives of the survey and administration of the questionnaire to minimize reporting errors. To ensure the reliability of data, field interviewers first practiced interviewing and completing questionnaires with fellow fieldworkers. The fieldworkers then conducted a small pilot study in the community to sharpen their skills.

The data collected during the various surveys were incorporated into the central ICVS/UNICRI database for the purposes of standardization and comparison. Regional comparisons are complicated as a result of differential responses while respondents from differential household sizes are subject to different probabilities of being selected (van Kesteren, Mayhew, and Nieuwbeerta 2000:21, 123). Corrective weighting of the data was done by the UNICRI data administrator to ensure that the responses of

respondents from differential samples are proportional to their respective populations. Apart from 'household to person translation', corrections have also been applied to optimize the representativeness of the samples (see van Kesteren et al. 2000:123, 124).

## **1.9 Demographic profile of the sample**

The following demographic profile emerged from the sample.

### **1.9.1 Age**

As can be expected, the age distribution of the research group is positively skewed in favor of the older and, therefore, economically active proportion of the population. Table 2 (see annexure) reveals that the largest proportion of respondents are in the age category 20 to 29 years of age (36.7 percent), followed by the 30 to 39 years of age (25.5 percent) category. The third largest category (bearing in mind that the age range of this category is only four instead of ten years is the age group 16 to 19 years (7.8 percent). The abovementioned three age categories represent 70 percent of the total research group.

### **1.9.2 Gender**

Table 3 (see Annexure) indicates that the sample is comprised of 47 percent males and approximately 52 percent females. Table 3 indicates the extent to which males are over represented in Egypt (56.5 percent), Tanzania (61.9 percent) and Tunisia (55.7 percent). Males are under represented in Lesotho (31.8 percent), Zambia (35.4 percent) and Zimbabwe (39.9 percent).

Females are especially over represented in Lesotho (68.2 percent), Zimbabwe (60.1 percent) and to a lesser extent, in Botswana (55.6 percent).

### **1.9.3 Employment status**

Table 4 (see Annexure) shows that almost 50 percent of the research group was employed at the time of the survey and 15.8 percent were unemployed. The employment rate is, however, also inclusive of the diverse informal sector and subsistence farming which cannot always be regarded as employment in terms of the economic livelihood these activities provide.

The average unemployment and underemployment rates are high in the SADC region. Between 30 and 40 percent of the labor force is either unemployed or underemployed (DPRU Policy Brief no. 1/P13, 2002:4). The economically active population in South Africa (Africa's largest economy) is about 16 million (business.iafrica.com 2002) of an official population of 44,819,782 (Crimsa Newsletter 2003:1). The unemployment rate in South Africa was close to 30 percent in September 2003 (29.5 percent) compared to 25.8 percent in September 2000 (business.iafrica.com 2002).

Unemployment is also "situational" and may well exceed the average statistical norm. For example, in the Cape Flats (South Africa) two unemployment surveys found that approximately 46 percent of the population was unemployment. For those under the age of 30 years, unemployment was recorded at 61 percent (Standing 2003:2).

It is extremely difficult to determine the income levels of traditional households in Africa. Household members other than the breadwinner often do not know the total household income. Moreover, asking about income is considered impolite and a social taboo. It is also risky to reveal one's income to a stranger. Even if real income levels could be determined, its significance remains questionable. According to Shorris (2000), indexes and percentages create "mirages." "People are poor one household, one family at a time" (p.18). Shorris (2000) believes that the best way to define poverty is perhaps "to listen to people who consider themselves poor" (Shorris 2000:21).

Despite a very general and common assumption, the relationship between poverty and crime is not a very consistent and predictable one. It is believed that relative deprivation is more of a criminogenic factor than

poverty in general. While the majority of poor people may not commit crime, those who feel deprived may resort to crime. Countries characterized by huge income disparities, especially if these occur across racial or ethnic lines, have high crime rates.

On the other hand, to believe like Gibson (2003:4), that because of socioeconomic and ideological conditions and circumstances as well as “the [high] levels of poverty in our society, high crime levels are to be expected,” is also flawed. Bizarre and brutal violence entwined with property crime, social predatory (corruption), organized and professional economic crimes which are rife in South Africa, has very little to do with high poverty levels *per se*.

#### 1.9.4 *Satisfaction with household's income*

Table 5 (see Annexure) indicates that the majority of the respondents in the sample of African countries (82 percent) were dissatisfied with their household's income level. Only 18 percent indicated their satisfaction with their income levels. At one extreme, respondents from Egypt (62.8 percent) and Tunisia (45.8 percent) are satisfied with their income. Namibian respondents are also conspicuously more satisfied (25.8 percent) than their sub-Saharan counterparts. More than half (51.1 percent) of all the respondents indicated that they were either dissatisfied (36.6 percent) or very dissatisfied (14.5 percent) with their household income levels. Respondents representing South Africa (28.3 percent) and Lesotho (24.9 percent) were very dissatisfied compared to the respondents from other nations. The same can be said for dissatisfied respondents from Zambia (41.8 percent), Botswana (43.9 percent), Uganda (45.8 percent), Zimbabwe (49.3 percent), and Mozambique (53.2 percent).

#### 1.9.5 *Housing*

It appears on face value (see Table 6, Annexure) that 84.4 percent of the respondents have access to basic housing in the form of an apartment (20.3 percent) or house (64.1 percent). Respondents representing households who reside in “informal housing” (i.e., shacks) were predominantly from South Africa (11.1 percent), Botswana (12.3 percent), Uganda (13.9 percent), Swaziland (22.9 percent) and Zambia (37 percent).

## 1.10 Conclusion

Over the past thirty years, victim surveys have made a significant contribution in the identification of high risk groups and areas resulting in more focused and cost effective crime reduction programs. Victim surveys play a crucial role in presenting a holistic view of crime and as a benchmark by which to monitor and measure changes over time. Reliable police statistics (where they do exist) provide only a partial understanding of crime patterns and trends. Official statistics do not reflect unreported crimes or explain why many crimes are not reported. Neither can official statistics measure or probe changing public perceptions of crime and police effectiveness (Barolsky 1999:26). ICVS studies supplement police-recorded crime statistics and provide important information on conventional crimes which afflict citizens most profoundly. If regularly repeated, it can indicate trends in crime uncontaminated by changes in victims' reporting behavior, or administrative and legal changes concerning the recording of crime.

The ICVS is regarded as particularly important as its standardization allows for reliable international comparisons. This enables the development of crime theories and the sharing of international expertise in the effective reduction of crime. Such data can counter inaccurate perceptions of crime that can deter direct foreign investment. The data also provides insight into regional and local crime and victimization trends. The longitudinal data can be used by policymakers to evaluate whether security and other related policies are having any impact (van Dijk and Shaw 2002:14).

Cross-national comparisons are often used to inform debates about crime, victimization, and criminal justice reactions to crime, and to evaluate the status of social policy. In particular, data on victimization are requested for international comparisons and inclusion in indexes and global reports (Alvazzi Del Frate 2002:157). By demonstrating different levels of crime in different societies and related aspects such as fear of crime and police performance, the ICVS provides a powerful tool to monitor responses to crime across societies. Such a cross-national perspective holds important lessons in understanding not only the unique features of each society but also the degree to which similar processes of political, economic, and social change produce outcomes in terms of crime levels and problems of police reform. It is therefore believed that comparing crime across societies will increasingly emerge as an essential international criminal policy tool (van Dijk and Shaw 2002).

# CHAPTER 2: HOUSEHOLD VICTIMIZATION RATES

**Anastasios Ladikos**

## 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the experiences of victimization at the household level are presented. Household crimes are crimes experienced by the household at large (i.e., “Did any household member experience victimization?”) as contrasted to personal crimes which are crimes that have been experienced by the individual personally (i.e., “Did you experience victimization?”).

Respondents were interviewed about their crime experiences during the calendar year prior to the survey and their experiences over the last five years. These time boundaries or screening measures are important to prevent telescoping or the tendency of crime victims to include crime experiences that happened before the time boundaries set by the survey or even to forget to mention some more distant crime incidents (see also Chapter 1).

The following aspects will be discussed and compared across countries:

- burglary
- attempted burglary
- car theft
- theft from cars
- car vandalism
- motorcycle theft
- theft of bicycles
- where the vehicle related incidents occurred
- theft of livestock
- security measures in place to protect household property

Incidents of consumer fraud and corruption will also be discussed.

## 2.2 Burglary

Respondents were asked a series of questions to distinguish between burglary and attempted burglary, and the severity of the crimes. The first question identifies if someone illegally entered the home. If the subject recalls such an event, he or she is then asked whether something was actually stolen. If something was stolen, it is determined how severe the offence was perceived.

Respondents were asked the following question:

*Over the past five years, did anyone actually get into your house or flat without permission and steal or try to steal something? I am not including here thefts from garages, sheds or lock-ups.*

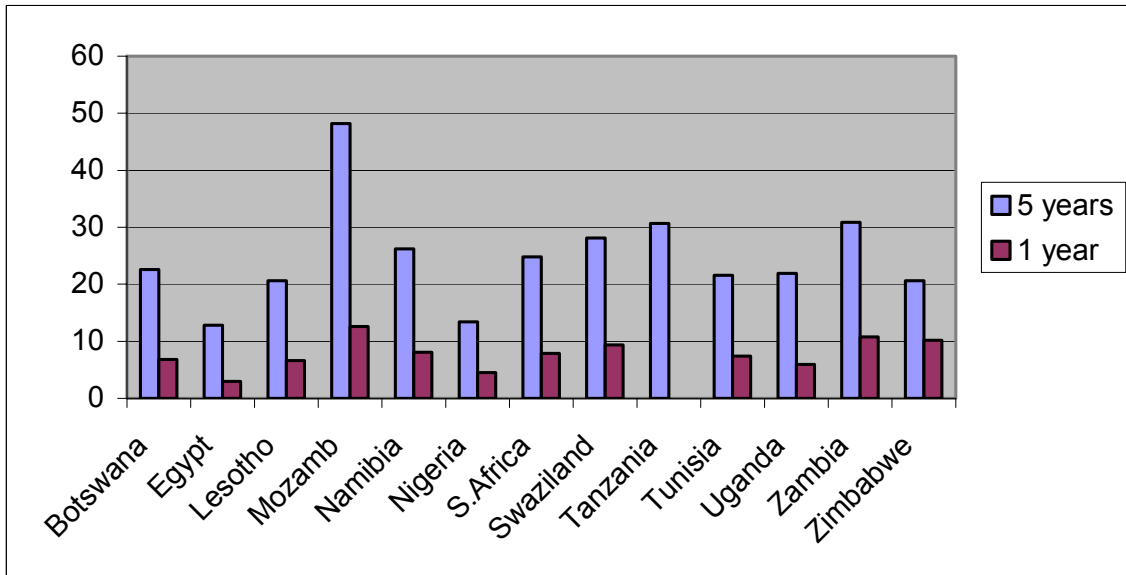
Over a period of five years, burglary rates were the highest in Mozambique (48.2 percent) followed by Zambia (30.9 percent), Namibia (26.2 percent), and South Africa (24.8 percent). The lowest rates were found in Egypt (12.8 percent) and Nigeria (13.4 percent).

During a one-year period (preceding the survey interview), Mozambique showed again the highest rate of household burglary (12.6 percent) followed by Zambia (10.8 percent) and Zimbabwe (10.2 percent). The lowest rates were recorded by Egypt (3.0 percent), Nigeria (4.5 percent) and Uganda (5.9 percent). (See Annexure Table 25 and also Figure 2.1. One year rates are not available for Tanzania).

Respondents who were burglarized more than once were asked when it occurred during the preceding five years. The question posed was as follows:

*You said a burglar got into your home without permission in the last five years. The last time was anything actually stolen?*

**Figure 2.1: Burglary incidents by country**



Respondents were also asked whether they felt that the last burglary was very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious. The majority (88.2 percent) of respondents from all countries rated the incident as fairly to very serious with the exception of Nigeria, where 27.9 percent of participants considered the incident as not very serious.

### 2.3 Attempted burglary

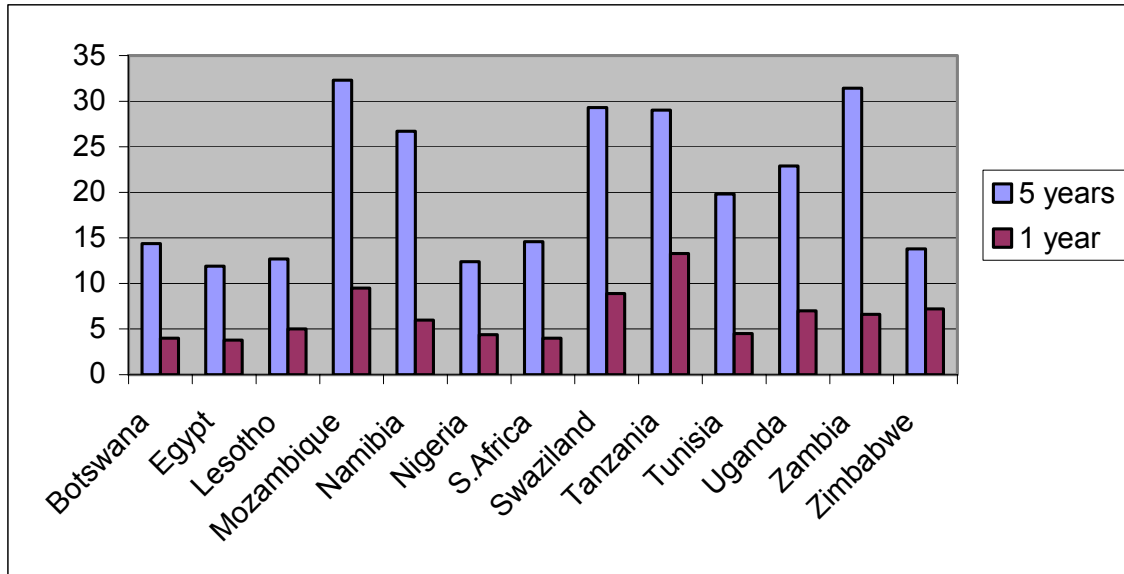
The ICVS measures burglary as an event where someone *actually* enters the home and steals something, while attempted burglary is construed as someone *tried* to enter your home. The survey question was worded as follows:

*Apart from this, over the past five years, do you have any evidence that someone tried to get into your house or flat unsuccessfully. For example, damage to locks, doors or windows, or scratches around the lock?*

Tanzanian households reported the highest one-year, attempted burglary rates (13.3 percent), followed by Mozambique (9.5 percent), and Swaziland (8.9 percent). The lowest rates are found in Egypt (3.8 percent), followed by 4 percent of households in Botswana and South Africa. The five-year rates are highest in Mozambique (32.3 percent) and Zambia (31.4 percent). The lowest rates are recorded in Egypt (11.9 percent) and Lesotho (12.7 percent). (See Annexure, Table 27).

A substantial majority of respondents from almost all the countries in the sample indicated that their experience with attempted burglary was fairly serious or very serious. Relatively low severity ratings were measured in Mozambique (51.7 percent) and Zimbabwe (56.9 percent).

**Figure 2.2: Attempted burglary incidents by country**



## 2.4 Vehicle ownership

The level of vehicle ownership among respondents was ascertained in order to provide a measure of the proportion of *vehicle owners* who have been a victim of a vehicle-related crime. It is more meaningful to determine whether a vehicle owner has been a victim of a vehicle crime than to measure victimization among the total sample, which includes people who do not own vehicles. The highest levels of car ownership (see Table 7 in the annexure) are found in Namibia (55.6 percent), Tanzania (50 percent), Tunisia (45.2 percent), South Africa (44.6 percent), and Swaziland (44.5 percent). The lowest rates of car ownership are found in Zambia (23.8 percent), Mozambique (25.4 percent), Lesotho (26.7 percent), Zimbabwe (28.1 percent), and Uganda (28.4 percent).

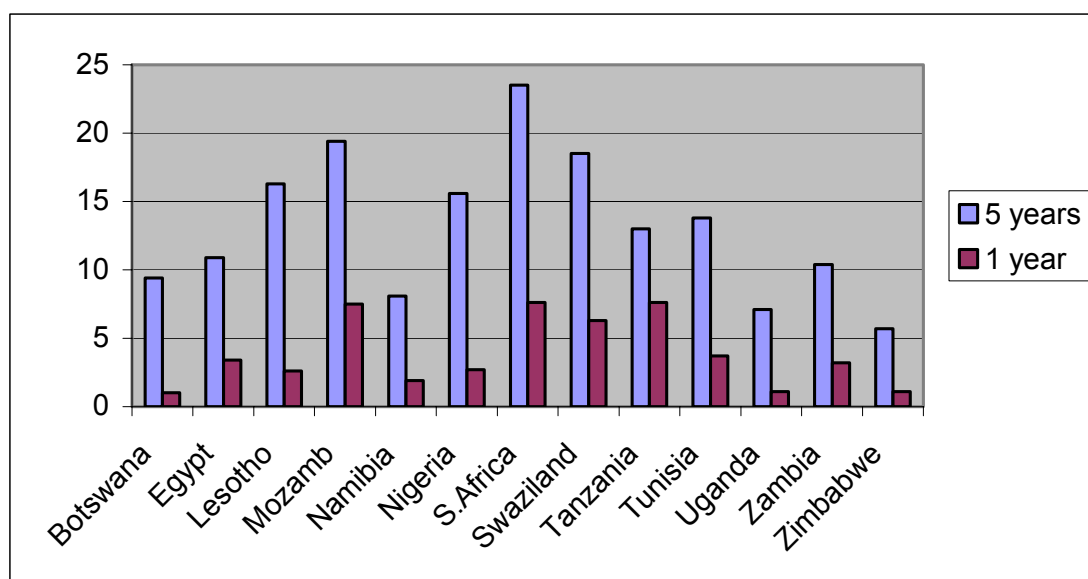
### 2.4.1 Car theft

Car theft was recorded by asking the following question:

*Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their cars/vans/trucks stolen when nobody was in the vehicle? Please take your time to think about it.*

The country with the highest rate of car theft over a five-year period was South Africa (23.5 percent) followed by Mozambique (19.4 percent), and Swaziland (18.5 percent). The countries with the lowest rate were Zimbabwe (5.7 percent) and Uganda (7.1 percent). It is noteworthy that Namibia, a country with the highest rate (55.6 percent) of car ownership, has one of the lowest (8.1 percent) rates of car thefts. This may be attributed to better proactive measures taken by car owners and/or more efficient police activities. The highest car theft rates over a one-year period are found in Tanzania and South Africa (7.6 percent each) and Mozambique (7.5 percent).

**Figure 2.3: Car theft incidents by country**



Almost six out of every ten car thefts (59.9 percent) occurred at or near the respondent’s home. Twenty-seven percent of these offences were committed in cities. In Namibia, 91.6 percent of the respondents had their vehicles stolen from them at home or near their homes. High rates of cars stolen close to home were also experienced by respondents in Lesotho (81.8 percent), Tunisia (76.6 percent), Swaziland (69.9 percent) and Zambia (69.2 percent). In Zimbabwe, more than two-thirds (68.7 percent) of the respondents had their cars stolen in the city. In Tanzania, more than one-half (55.9 percent) of the sample had a similar experience. Interestingly, a large percentage of Mozambican respondents (44.9 percent) had their cars stolen from them at their place of work. It is possible that inadequate security measures are available at work or that the employment sector is in an area where car-theft syndicates operate.

The great majority (94.3 percent) of victims of car theft viewed this offence as very serious to fairly serious. Those who regarded car theft as not very serious were encountered mostly in Egypt (17.9 percent) and Nigeria (13.8 percent). Moreover, the majority of the respondents (89 percent) reported their loss to the police. Ultimately, 49 percent of the cars were recovered. The countries with the highest recovery rates were Egypt (73 percent), Botswana (69.4 percent), and Tunisia (68.3 percent). Countries with the lowest recovery rates were Zambia (16 percent), Mozambique (30.6 percent), Zimbabwe (31.3 percent), and South Africa (35.6 percent) (see Annexure, Tables 7 and 8).

As car hijacking is a contact crime involving violence or threat, see Chapter 3, paragraph 3.2 for a discussion of this crime.

#### 2.4.2 Theft from car

Theft from car was measured by the following question:

*Over the past five years have you or other members of your household been the victim of a theft of a car radio, or something else which was left in your car, or theft of a part of the car, such as a car mirror or wheel?*

Approximately four in ten car owners (39.8 percent) had been the victim, once or more, of theft from their car in the past five years. Fifteen percent (14.9 percent) of the car owners had been a victim, at least once, of a theft from their car in the year preceding the study.

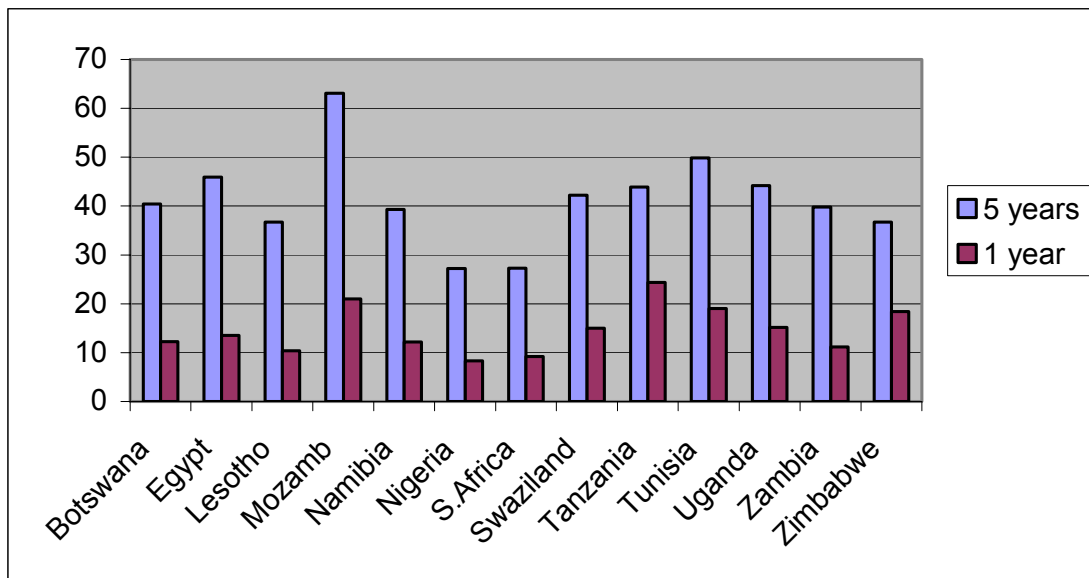
Over a five-year period, owners of cars were most likely to be victims of theft from cars in Mozambique (63.1 percent), Tunisia (49.9 percent), Egypt (45.9 percent), Uganda (44.4 percent), and Tanzania (43.9 percent). Countries with relatively lower levels of risk were Nigeria (27.2 percent) and South Africa (27.3 percent) (see Annexure, Table 7).



Over a one-year period, theft from cars occurred almost in one out every four households (24.4 percent). Mozambique (21 percent) and Tunisia (19 percent) show relatively high one-year rates. Countries with the lowest rates were Nigeria (8.3 percent), South Africa (9.2 percent), and Lesotho (10.4 percent). One may attribute the low occurrence of theft from cars in certain countries due to greater security measures taken in safeguarding the content of their vehicles. (See Annexure, Table 8).

Approximately two out of three cases (63.5 percent) of theft from cars were committed at or near the respondent's home while one in four (26 percent) thefts occurred in the cities (see Annexure, Table 14). Just as was the case with car thefts, thefts from cars were considered as very serious or fairly serious by the majority (78.7 percent) of the victims. Respondents from Nigeria and (48.5 percent) from Mozambique (37.7 percent) regarded this offence as not very serious (see Annexure, Table 15).

**Figure 2.4: Theft from cars by country**



### 2.4.3 Car vandalism

Respondents were asked the following question about car vandalism.

*Apart from thefts, have parts of any of the cars/vans/trucks belonging to your household been deliberately damaged (vandalized) over the past five years?*

In Tunisia, almost three out of ten (28.9 percent) car owners stated that they had experienced vandalism in the past five years. The other African countries with high five-year rates were Tanzania (26.1 percent), Uganda (23.7 percent), Nigeria (22 percent), and Egypt (21.4 percent) The lowest rates were found in Lesotho (7.8 percent) and Zambia (12 percent) (see Figure 2.4 and Table 7 in the Annexure).

The rates for car vandalism over a one-year period (most recent survey) are highest in Tanzania (13.2 percent), Tunisia (8.6 percent) and Nigeria (7.5 percent).

In over half of the total cases (57 percent) of car vandalism, vehicle owners reported that it happened at home or near the home. The highest occurrences were reported in Namibia (86.8 percent), Swaziland (80.2 percent), Lesotho (76.2 percent), and South Africa (71.3 percent). The lowest rates of car vandalism at home and near home were recorded in Uganda (21 percent). In Zimbabwe, 12.1 percent of victims revealed that their cars were vandalized near their homes. Mozambique is the only country where a high percentage of respondents (43.2 percent) indicated that car vandalism occurred at work. Three out of ten respondents from the total sample stated that their cars had been vandalized in a city region. The highest

rates of car vandalism in cities were recorded in Zimbabwe (75.8 percent) and Tanzania (50.9 percent). No incidents of car vandalism in cities to very low rates were found in Lesotho (0 percent), Swaziland (0 percent), Namibia (0.9 percent), and Mozambique (2.3 percent) (see Annexure, Table 16).

On average, 20.6 percent of victims regarded car vandalism as not very serious, 76.3 percent stated that it was very serious or fairly serious (see Annexure, Table 17). High rates were reported in Nigeria (52.4 percent), Zimbabwe (42.4 percent), and Mozambique (38.6 percent).

#### **2.4.4 Motorcycle theft**

Respondents were asked the following question:

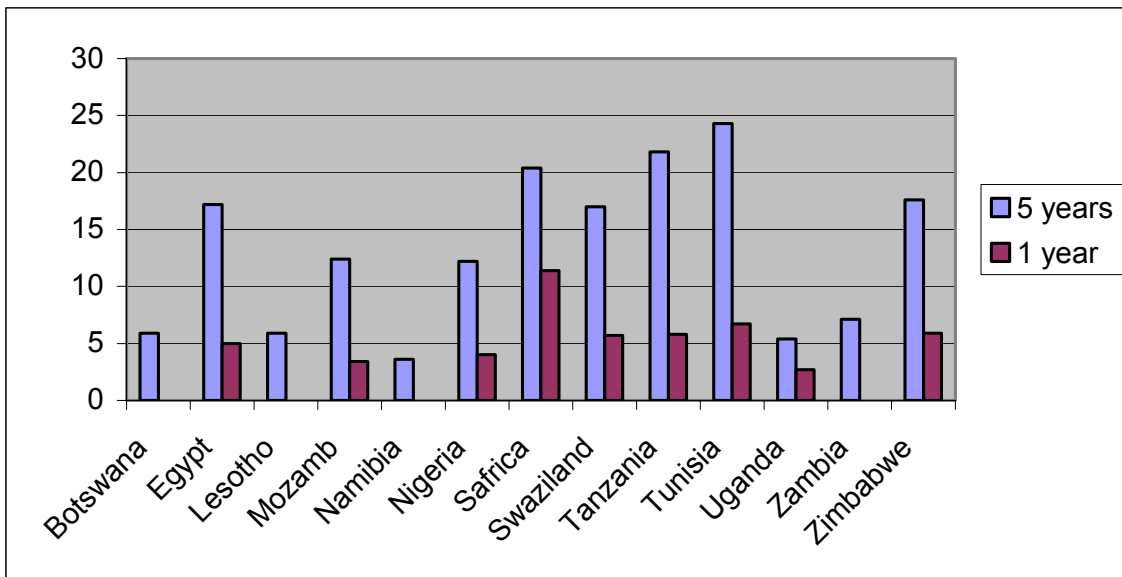
*Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their mopeds/scooter/motorcycles stolen?*

Motorcycle owners in South Africa experienced high rates of victimization considering that only 3.3 percent of the total respondents interviewed possessed motorcycles. One in five (20.4 percent) South African motorcycle owners had their motorcycle stolen in the past five years and 11.4 percent were victims in 2000. Respondents from Swaziland have an ownership rate of 8.7 percent. Their victimization rate was 17 percent over a period of five years and 5.7 percent were victims of motorcycle theft in 2000. The ownership rate in Zimbabwe is low (1.7 percent), but their five year victimization rate is relatively high (17.6 percent). Their one-year rate is 5.9 percent. Low five year victimization rates were found in Namibia (3.6 percent; 5.2 percent ownership rate), and a nil percent one-year rate; Uganda with 5.4 percent over five years and a 2.7 percent, one-year rate, and a 11.2 percent ownership rate; Lesotho has a 5.9 percent five-year rate, and a nil percent one-year rate (1.7percent ownership rate); and Botswana with a 5.9 percent five-year rate and a nil percent one-year rate (ownership rate 2.8 percent) (see Figure 2.5 and Table 18 in the annexure).

The majority motorcycle thefts occurred at home or near the victim's home in Botswana (100 percent), Namibia (100 percent), Zambia (100 percent), South Africa (77.8 percent), and Swaziland (53.4 percent). Motorcycle thefts mostly took place at work in Lesotho respondents (100 percent) and Mozambique (54.5 percent). Similar offences occurred mainly in the cities of Zimbabwe (100 percent), Uganda (50 percent), and Nigeria (44.4 percent) (see Annexure, Table 19).

The majority (91.5 percent) of victims rated motorcycle theft as very serious to fairly serious. Only 6.5 percent of respondents viewed this type of offence as "not very serious" (see Annexure, Table 20).

**Figure 2.5: Theft of motorcycles by country**



#### 2.4.5 Theft of bicycle

The question was phrased as follows:

*Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their bicycles stolen?*

The ownership rate of bicycles was the highest in Namibia (38.5 percent), followed by Uganda (29.8 percent) and Botswana (27.7 percent). Almost three in ten bicycle owners in South Africa (29.5 percent) and Namibia

(28.4 percent) had a bicycle stolen in the past five years while the ownership rate was 22.8 percent and 38.5 percent respectively. The one-year rate for South Africa was 6.9 percent and 10.3 percent for Namibia. The lowest five-year rates of bicycle theft were recorded in Zimbabwe (10.1 percent), Nigeria (11.7 percent), and Lesotho (12.3 percent). The lowest one-year rates were witnessed in Uganda (2.7 percent), Nigeria (3.3 percent), Lesotho (3.5 percent), Mozambique (3.5 percent), and Zimbabwe (3.9 percent) (see Annexure, Table 21).

In Namibia, 92.2 percent of bicycle thefts occurred at or near the homes of respondents, followed by 88.9 percent in South Africa, 88.9 percent in Swaziland and 81.4 percent in Botswana. Motorcycle thefts took place mostly at work in Mozambique as compared to other countries (13.6 percent). Moreover, motorcycle thefts occurred mainly in the cities of Zimbabwe (69.2 percent), Uganda (30.4 percent), and Zambia (27.3 percent) (see Annexure, Table 22).

The majority bicycle theft victims rated it as very serious to fairly serious. The total country average rate is 77.9 percent. Only 19.1 percent of all victims viewed this type of offence as not very serious (see Annexure, Table 20).

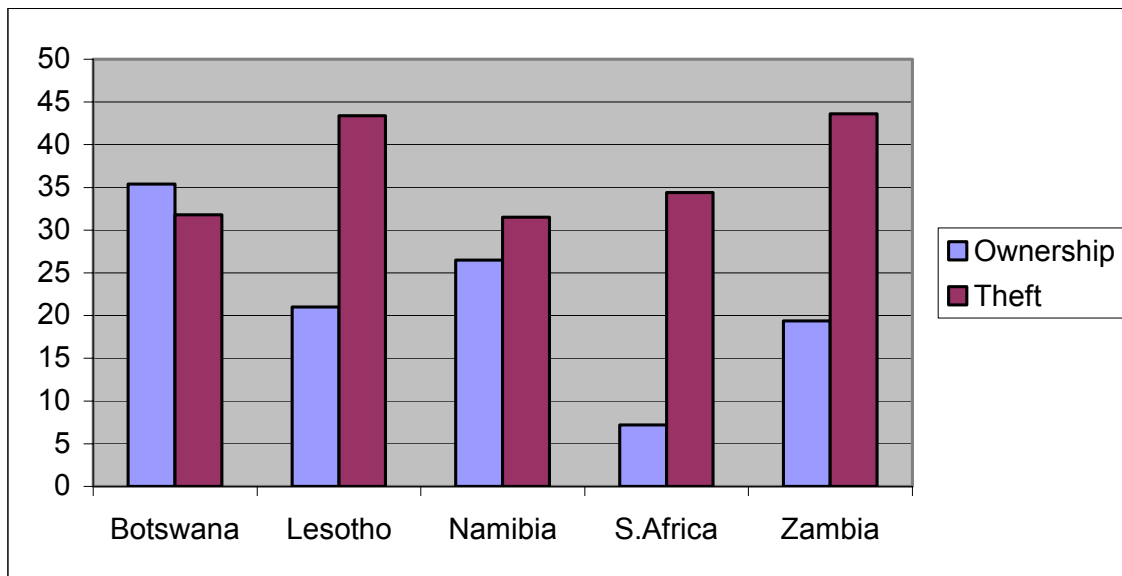
## 2.5 Theft of livestock

The following question was asked:

*Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their livestock stolen?*

Respondents who owned livestock came mostly from Botswana (35.4 percent) and Namibia (26.5 percent). Only 7.2 percent of South African respondents owned livestock. The highest rates of livestock theft occurred in Zambia (43.6 percent), Lesotho (43.4 percent), and South Africa (34.4 percent). The figure below portrays victimization percentages of livestock theft as it relates to livestock ownership in the respective countries (see Table 24).

**Figure 2.6: Theft of livestock by country**



*Note:* The statistics for theft of livestock was not available for the other countries as this question was added to the questionnaire at a later stage.

## 2.6 Consumer fraud

Respondents were asked the following question:

*Now changing the subject a little. Last year, were you the victim of a consumer fraud? In other words, has someone when selling something to you or delivering a service cheated you in terms of quantity of quality of the goods/service?*

Most of the countries surveyed experienced high rates of consumer fraud over a one-year period. The highest incidences were recorded in Tanzania (88 percent), Tunisia (58.4 percent), Uganda (50.2 percent), and Egypt (49.9 percent). The lowest rates were recorded in South Africa (9.5 percent), Namibia (19.8 percent), and Botswana (23.6 percent) (see Annexure, Table 46).

Most incidents of consumer fraud involved a shop/store. Botswana, Uganda, and Lesotho head the list as the following percentages indicate. Other incidents of fraud involved construction or repair work by a garage, hotels, restaurants and shops (information not available for Tanzania, Egypt, and Tunisia):

**Table 2.1: Consumer fraud incidents by country**

Country	%
Botswana	67.1
Lesotho	65.0
Mozambique	38.3
Namibia	45.7
Nigeria	44.9
South Africa	57.5
Swaziland	50.9
Uganda	65.5
Zambia	50.4
Zimbabwe	48.6

## 2.7 Corruption

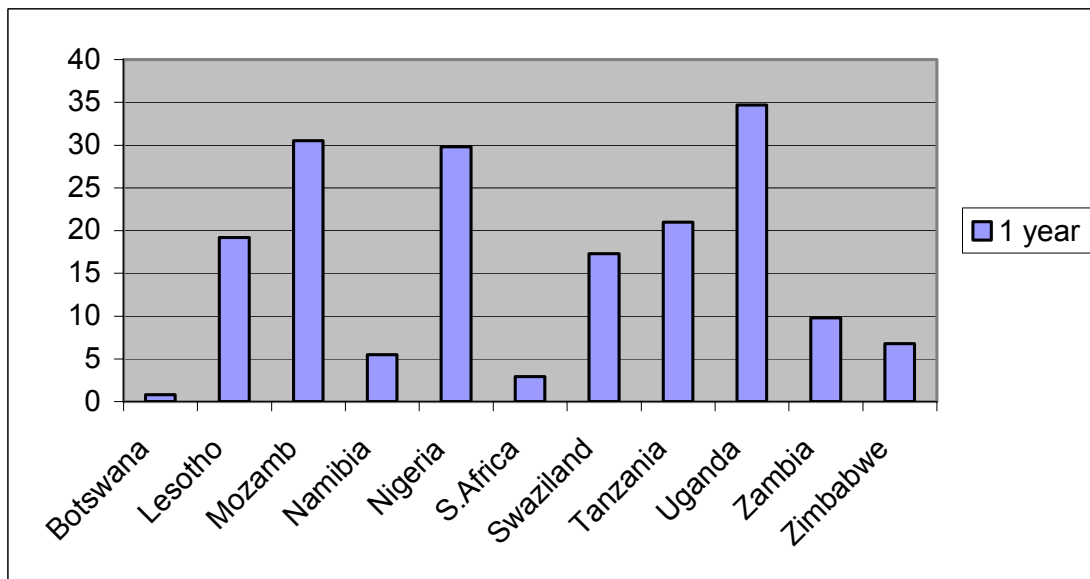
The question was phrased as follows:

*In some areas there is a problem of corruption among government or public officials. During last year, has any government official, for instance a customs officer, police officer, traffic officer, court official, pensions officer or building inspector in your own country, asked you or expected you to pay a bribe for his service?*

The highest rate of corruption was reported in Uganda (34.7 percent), Mozambique (30.5 percent) and Nigeria (29.8 percent). The lowest rates were found in Botswana (0.8 percent), South Africa (2.9 percent), and Namibia (5.5 percent) (see Annexure, Table 47).

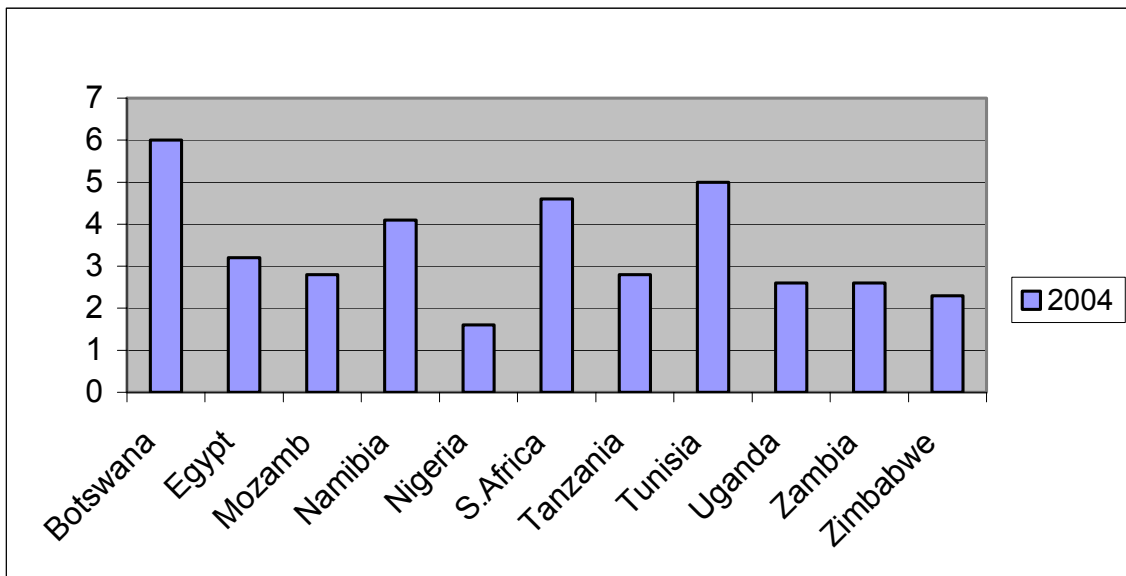
The Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) created by the Berlin-based organization, Transparency International (see [www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org)), is a poll of polls, reflecting the degree of corruption as seen by business people, risk analysts and the general public. The index ranges between 10 (highly clean) and 0 (highly corrupt). The index defines corruption as the abuse of public office for private gain, and measures the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among a country's public officials and politicians. Transparency International (TI) considers a score of 5 as the borderline between countries that do and do not have a serious problem with corruption. Botswana (6), Tunisia (5), and possibly South Africa (4.6) are the only countries to meet this requirement. Furthermore African countries that have improved their rating since the 2000 (TI) index were Mozambique (+27 percent), Tanzania (+12 percent), Uganda (+13 percent) and surprisingly Nigeria (+33 percent), a country languishing third from the bottom above Bangladesh and Haiti in the CPI of 146 countries. Countries on the African continent that have a worse rating since 2000 include Namibia (-24 percent), Zambia (-24 percent), Zimbabwe (-23 percent), and South Africa (-8 percent). However, when considering Figures 2.9 and 2.10, Botswana is confirmed as the African country with the lowest level of perceived corruption and Nigeria the country with the highest.

**Figure 2.7: Corruption incidents by country**



*Note: This information pertaining to corruption incidents by country is not available for Egypt and Tunisia.*

**Figure 2.8: Corruption Perception Index by country (Transparency International)**



*Note: This information pertaining to the CPI by country is not available for Egypt and Lesotho.*

Most experiences with corruption involved a police officer or some other government official. The following gives an indication of the percentage of police officers who received a bribe (question not asked in all countries):

**Table 2.2: Corruption incidents by country**

Country	%
Botswana	38.9
Nigeria	43.0
South Africa	53.6
Uganda	30.1
Zimbabwe	23.5
Mozambique	33.3

There was also a high rate of corruption by other government officials. Zimbabwe, for instance, reported a higher percentage of corruption by other government officials (27.9 percent) than the police (23.5 percent). Botswana (27.8 percent), Nigeria (31.1 percent), and Uganda (29.2 percent) also reported high rates of corruption by other government officials.

## **2.8 Security measures in place to protect household property**

Respondents were asked the following question:

*In order to help understand why some homes are more at risk of crime than others, could I ask you a few questions about the security of your house? Is your house protected by the following?*

Van Kesteren et al. (2000:84) maintain that residential differences may play a bigger part than deliberate precautionary behaviour in protecting household property. This survey concentrated on whether houses were equipped with a burglar alarm and special door locks. An overwhelming majority

(95.4 percent) of Namibian respondents stated they have a burglar alarm. However, it is still speculation as to whether the alarm and locks were installed before or after a burglary or attempted burglary. There were also above average percentages of burglar alarm ownership in Swaziland (62 percent) and Lesotho (48.7 percent). Levels of ownership were very low in Mozambique (1.1 percent), Zambia (4.9 percent), and Zimbabwe (5 percent). Almost one-third (32.4 percent) of all respondents confirmed they had installed special door locks. Countries with high ownership of special door locks included Zimbabwe (44.2 percent), South Africa (41.6 percent), Zambia (41.2 percent), Uganda (32 percent), and Namibia (31.9 percent).

The rate of special door locks was very low in Lesotho (5.8 percent), Swaziland (11.2 percent), and Mozambique (13.7 percent).

A large number of households were equipped with high fences in Zimbabwe (52.7 percent) and South Africa (32.4 percent). High levels of membership in formal neighbourhood watch schemes were reported in Namibia (67 percent), followed by Uganda (43.4 percent) and Nigeria (27.2 percent). Making use of watch dogs for the purposes of detecting and deterring potential burglars was a method employed mostly by households in South Africa (21.7 percent) and Zambia (17.3 percent).

## **2.9 Conclusion**

A comparison of overall household victimization rates found that theft from a car (over five years and one year) is the most frequent crime, followed by burglary, attempted burglary, car vandalism, and bicycle theft. The most serious household crimes, as experienced by the respondents, are theft of car, followed by burglary, theft of motorcycle, theft from car, and car vandalism. Reporting rates are highest for theft of cars, theft of motorcycle, and burglary. The majority of household offences were experienced by victims at home or near home.

The victimization rates, however, do not take account of multiple victimizations, that is, the number of respondents who were the victim of more than one type of offence or the number of respondents who were the victim of more than one incident of each type of offence. It in no way measures the relative seriousness of the victimization in the various countries as all offences contribute equally to the total, regardless of seriousness.

As corruption poses a problem to various African countries it would be advisable to form working partnerships by establishing national and regionally coordinated action in affected areas. Combating corruption requires strong and targeted integration of anti-corruption approaches and interventions.

As far as security measures to protect houses are concerned, the lower rate of burglar alarm installation as compared to the higher rate of special lock ownership does signal the possibility that despite the risk of burglary, lack of financial resources is the overriding factor in this respect.



# CHAPTER 3: INDIVIDUAL VICTIMIZATION RISK

Beaty Naudé

## 3.1 Introduction

Crimes against the person (also known as **contact crimes**) include minor crimes such as **theft from the person**, often referred to as **pickpocketing** or snatch-and-grab crimes, which normally involve personal property, for example, a purse, wallet, cell (mobile) phone, lap top computer, and sports equipment or clothing. Contact crimes also comprise major crimes such as **robbery** involving threat and injury by means of a weapon, **sexual incidents**, which consist of **offensive behavior** (touch or grab in a sexually offensive way) and **sexual assaults** (attempted rape, rape or indecent sexual assaults), and **assaults** (threats and attacks against the person).

This discussion highlights the five-year victimization prevalence rates based on the most recent crime incident experienced in the year preceding the survey. The focus will be on the following:

- a comparison of crime rates among the African countries that participated in the ICVS;
- how severe the incident was rated by the victim;
- where the incident occurred;
- whether a weapon was involved (hijacking, robbery, sexual offences, and assault victims);
- whether the weapon was actually used against the victim (hijacking, robbery, sexual and assault cases);
- number of offenders involved (hijacking, robbery, sexual offences, and assault victims); and
- the identity of the offender (hijacking, robbery, sexual and assault cases).

As car hijacking is an offence where the modus operandi involves violence or threat, it will be discussed in this section on contact crimes.

## 3.2 Car-related hijacking incidents

Respondents were asked the following question:

*Over the past five years, has anybody attempted to steal or actually stolen a car, van, truck or bakkie [small truck] by force, when you or other members of your present household were inside or just outside the vehicle?*

Hijacking was described as “theft of a vehicle by means of threat or force (e.g., firearm, knife, or other weapon, assault).”

Respondents were not asked this question in Egypt, Tanzania, Tunisia, and Zimbabwe. It was added to the southern Africa questionnaire after 1996 but it was not included in the Nigerian questionnaire.

Zambia (16.1 percent), Swaziland (14.5 percent) and South Africa (13.6 percent) experienced the most car hijacking incidents over five years (see Annexure, Table 7). Of the eight countries surveyed, Zambia (6 percent), Mozambique (5.2 percent), South Africa (5 percent), and Swaziland (4.9 percent) reported the highest incidence of car hijacking over a one-year period while Namibia (0.2 percent), Botswana (0.7 percent), and Lesotho (1.1 percent) had the lowest levels (see Annexure, Table 8).

**Figure 3.1: Car hijackings by country**

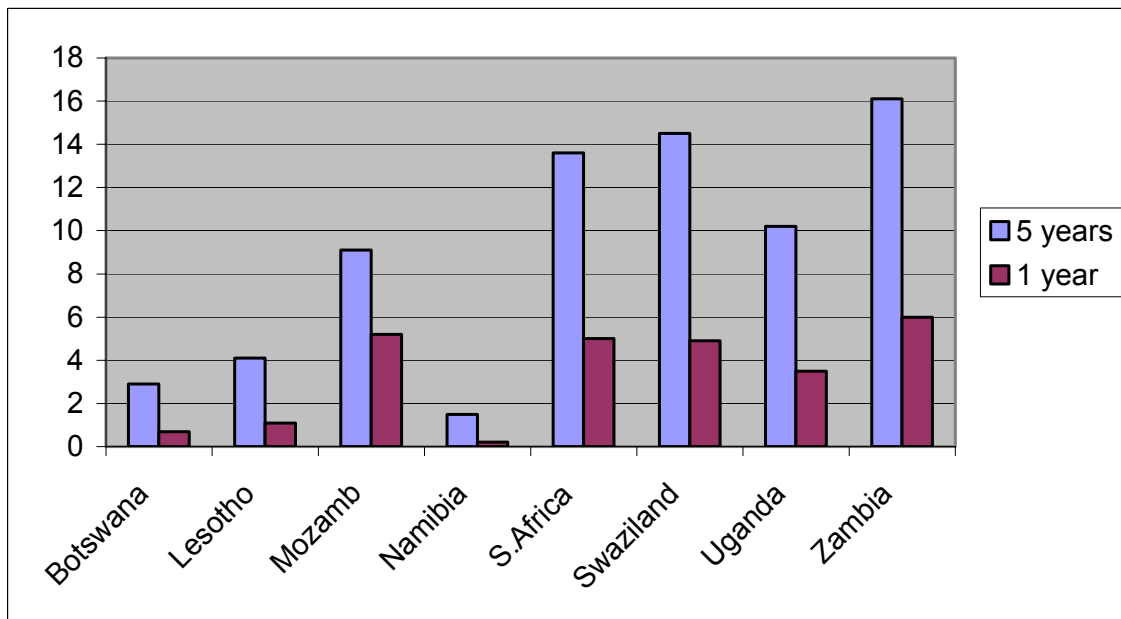
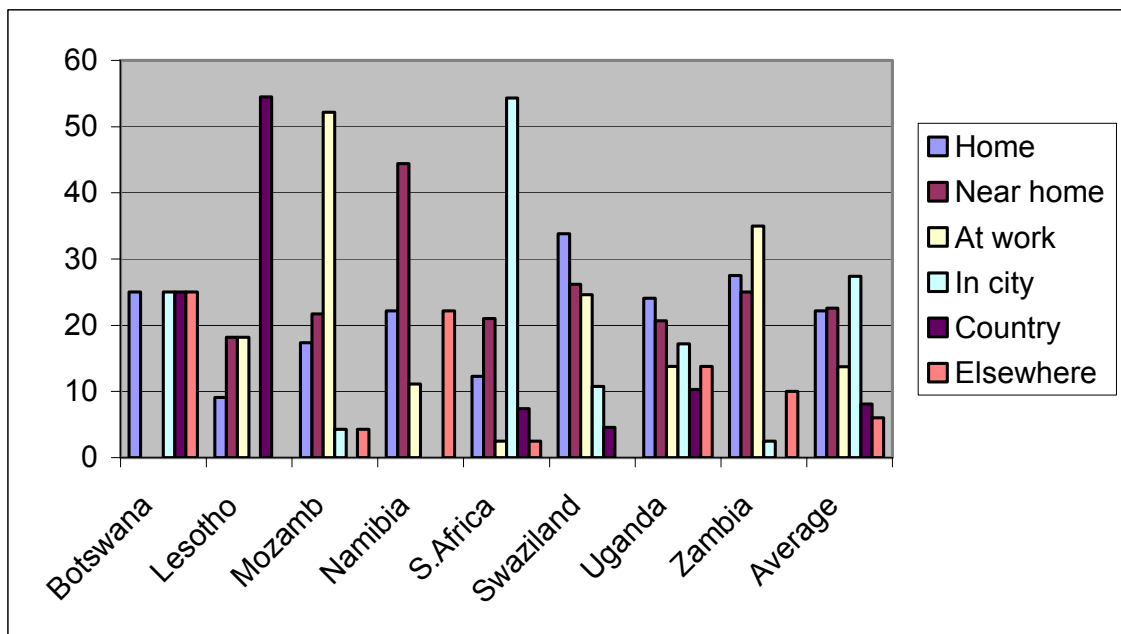


Figure 3.2: Car hijackings by locality



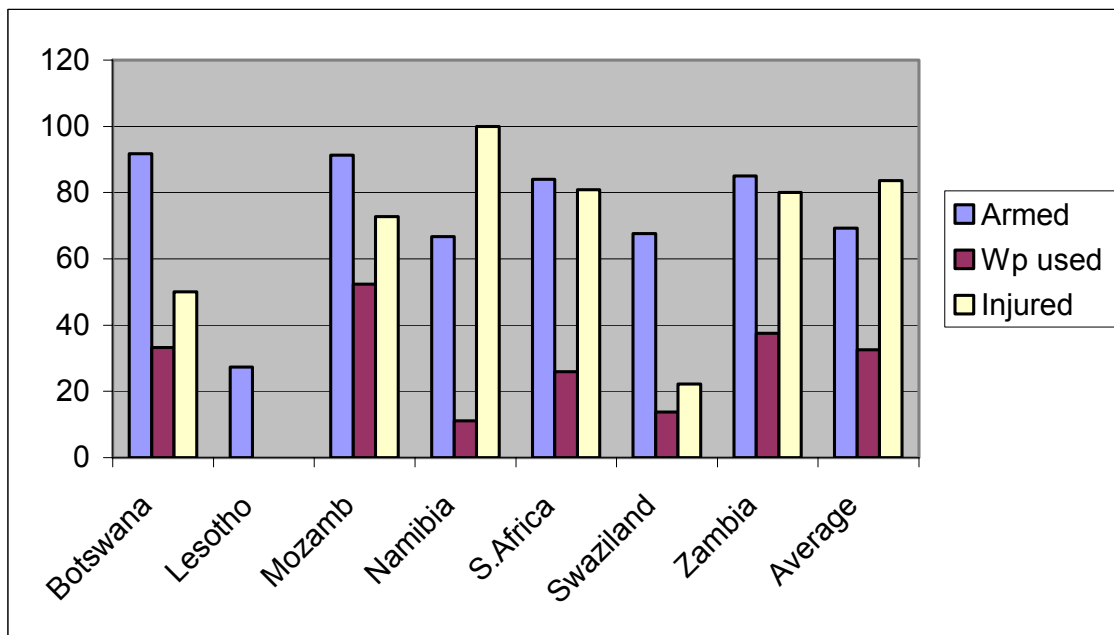
On

average, most hijacking incidents occurred at or near the victims' home (44.8 percent). A significant percentage (27.4 percent) of hijackings occurred in the city where the victim lived. Only 13.7 percent of all hijackings occurred at work and 8.1 percent occurred elsewhere in the country. There are, however, considerable variations per country. For example, in South Africa only 12.3 percent of hijackings occurred at the victim's home, 21 percent near the home, and 54.3 percent in the city where the victim lived. In Swaziland (33.8 percent) and Uganda (24.1 percent) most hijackings occurred at the victim's home. In Namibia, most hijackings occurred near the victim's home (44.4 percent) whereas in Mozambique (52.2 percent) and Zambia (35 percent), most incidents occurred at the victim's place of work (see Annexure, Table 11). The vehicle was taken in 54 percent of the incidents (see Annexure, Table 12).

On average, 64.8 percent of the victims regarded the hijacking incident as very serious and 65.9 percent of all hijackings were reported to the police (see Annexure, Table 12). The vehicle was recovered in 51.4 percent of cases. Botswana (91.7 percent), South Africa (82.7 percent), Mozambique (78.3 percent), and Zambia (75 percent) regarded the hijacking experience as very serious. In Lesotho, 90.9 percent of the

respondents did not regard the incident as very serious, which is difficult to explain. The answer perhaps lies in the finding that only 1.1 percent of hijacking incidents were reported to the police. Fear of the offender may have played a role in this regard or it may possibly have been a stolen vehicle in some cases as there are large numbers of stolen vehicles in circulation in southern Africa. See, for example, Prinsloo and Naudé (2001:71). It is also difficult to explain why 26.2 percent of Swaziland respondents did not regard vehicle hijacking as very serious despite a relatively high rate of hijacking incidents (4.9 percent) (see Annexure, Table 12).

**Figure 3.3: Use of weapons during hijacking incident**



*Note: Information about weapons is not available for Uganda.*

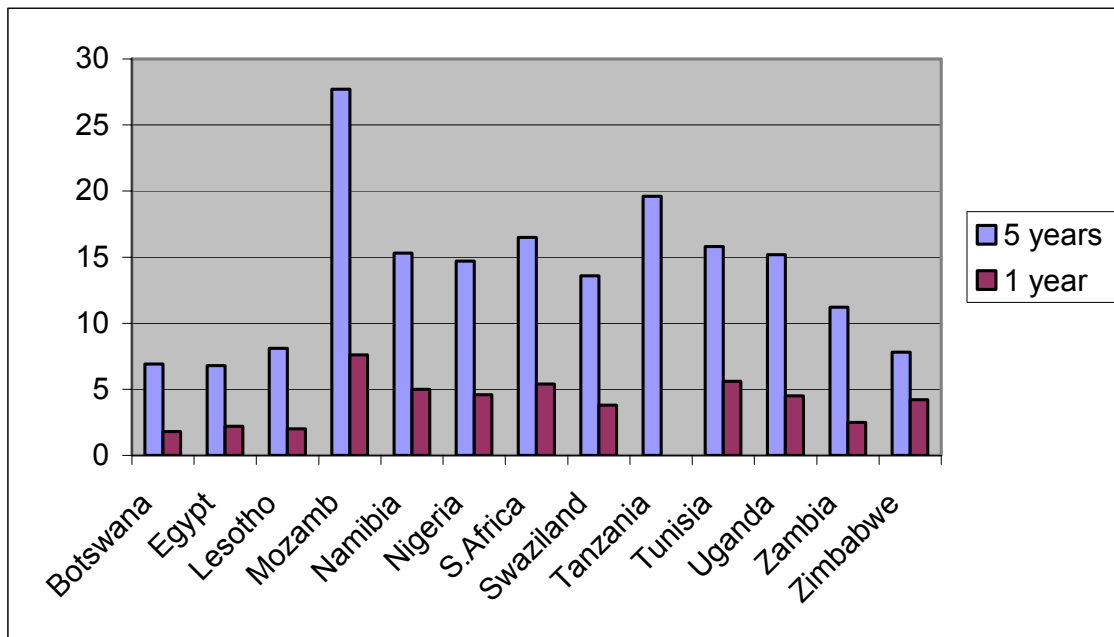
Three or more offenders were involved in the majority of hijackings (46.7 percent) while two offenders were involved in 26.3 percent of incidents. Most victims did not know the perpetrator. Only 1.5 percent knew the perpetrators by name and 6.7 percent by sight indicating that most hijackings are committed by strangers who are well organized to commit these crimes. In many instances these crimes are executed with military precision. The offenders were armed in 69.3 percent of cases and the weapon was actually used in 32.6 percent of these incidents. Particularly high rates of armed offenders were reported in Botswana (91.7 percent), Mozambique (91.3 percent), Zambia (85 percent), and South Africa (84 percent). The weapon was actually used in 52.4 percent of Mozambique cases, 37.5 percent of Zambian cases, and 33.3 percent of Botswana cases. A total of 83.6 percent of victims reported that they had sustained injuries during the hijacking indicating that vehicle hijacking is a very violent crime (see Annexure, Table 13).

### 3.3 Experiences of robbery

The question was phrased as follows:

*Over the past five years has anyone taken something from you, by using force, or threatened you or did anyone try to do so?*

**Figure 3.4: Robbery incidents by country**



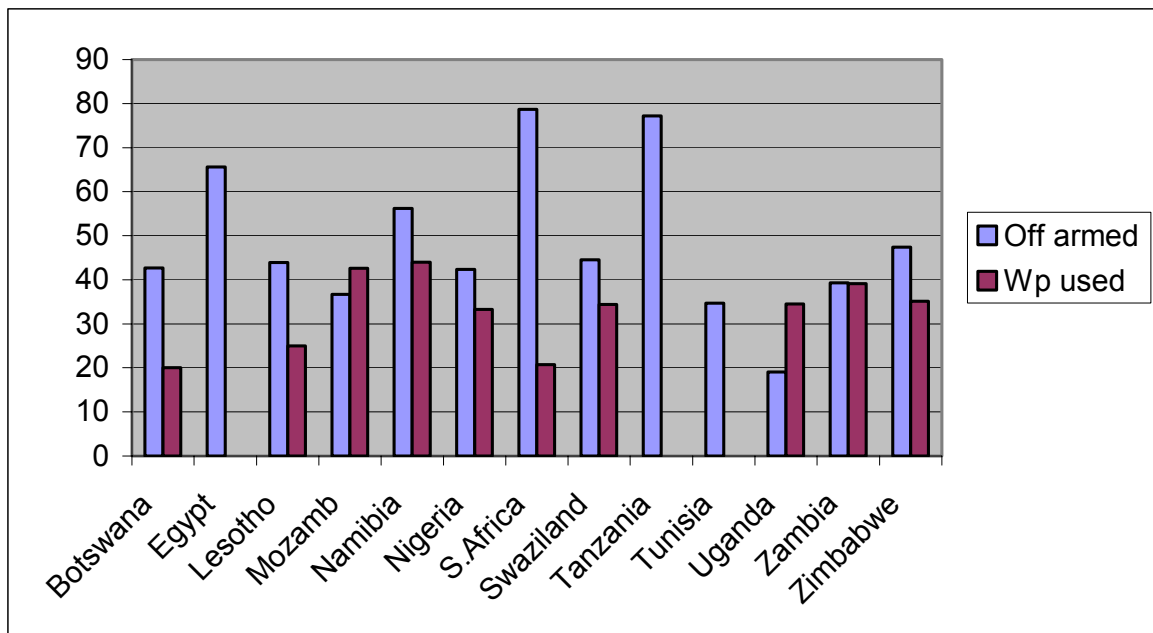
*Note: One-year rates for Tanzania are not available.*

Five-year rates were particularly high in Mozambique (27.7 percent), Tanzania (19.6 percent), Tunisia (15.8 percent) and Uganda (15.2 percent). The highest one-year rates of robberies were reported in Mozambique (7.6 percent), Tunisia (5.6 percent), and South Africa (5.4 percent), while the lowest levels were reported in Botswana (1.8 percent), Lesotho (2 percent), and Egypt (2.2 percent) (see Annexure, Table 29).

On average, 59.3 percent of victims regarded robbery as very serious and 24.3 percent felt it was fairly serious, but only 33.9 percent of all robbery cases were reported to the police. Of the cases reported to the police, only 37.7 percent of victims indicated that they were satisfied with the manner in which the police handled their case and it is clear that there is a high rate of dissatisfaction with the police (see Annexure, Table 30).

On average, three or more offenders (33.6 percent) were involved in the robbery incident while in 31.3 percent of cases two or more perpetrators were involved, although there is considerable variation across the countries surveyed. Almost half of all robbery incidents in Zimbabwe (48.7 percent), South Africa (47.1 percent), Mozambique (44 percent), and Zambia (43.6 percent) involved three or more robbers. In almost two-thirds of Tanzania's robbery cases, two offenders (65.6 percent) were involved whereas only one perpetrator was involved in 56.4 percent of Tunisian cases (Annexure, Table 31).

**Figure 3.5: Use of weapons during robbery incident**



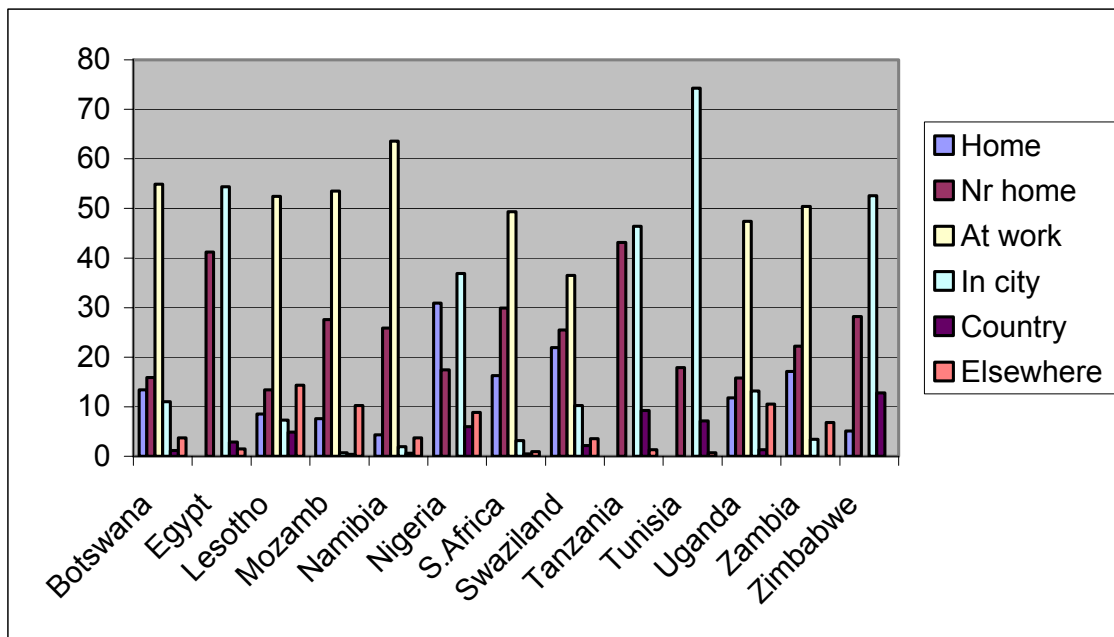
*Note: Information whether the weapon was actually used is not available for Egypt, Tanzania, and Tunisia.*

In almost one-fifth of the cases the perpetrators were known to the victim by name (6.4 percent) or by sight (12.8 percent). In Lesotho, 23.2 percent of the victims reported that they knew the offender either by name or by sight whereas considerably fewer offenders in the other countries knew the offender by name or by sight. Overall, 51.4 percent of the offenders were armed and in 33.5 percent of these cases the weapon was actually used. The highest level of armed offenders was reported in South Africa (78.7 percent), Tanzania (77.2 percent), and Lesotho (65.6 percent), whereas Uganda (19.1 percent) and Mozambique (36.7 percent) reported the lowest levels. The weapon was used in 33.5 percent of all cases. Namibia (44 percent) recorded the highest incidence of weapons actually used during the robbery incident followed by Mozambique (42.6 percent) and Zambia (39.1 percent). Weapons were the least used in Botswana (20 percent) and South Africa (20.7 percent) (see Annexure, Table 31).

In terms of locality, the average incidence of robbery was fairly evenly spread: near the victim's home (28.6 percent), at work (26.4 percent), and elsewhere in the city where the victim lived (26.1 percent). Clearly, the risk of robbery is widespread across most countries. Only 10 percent of robbery incidents actually occurred at the victim's home. Again, considerable differences across countries are discernible in that 30.9 percent of robbery incidents in Nigeria and 21.9 percent of Swaziland occurred at the victim's home whereas only 4.3 percent of Namibian cases and 5.1 percent of Zimbabwean cases occurred at victim's homes.

In Tanzania (43.1 percent), Egypt (41.2 percent), and South Africa (29.9 percent) most robbery experiences occurred near the victim's home. On the other hand, more than half of all robbery incidents occurred at work in the case of Namibia (63.6 percent), Botswana (54.9 percent), Mozambique (53.5 percent), Lesotho (52.4 percent), and Zambia (50.4 percent) (see Annexure, Table 32) indicating that business areas are high risk areas in these countries.

**Figure 3.6: Robbery incidents by locality**

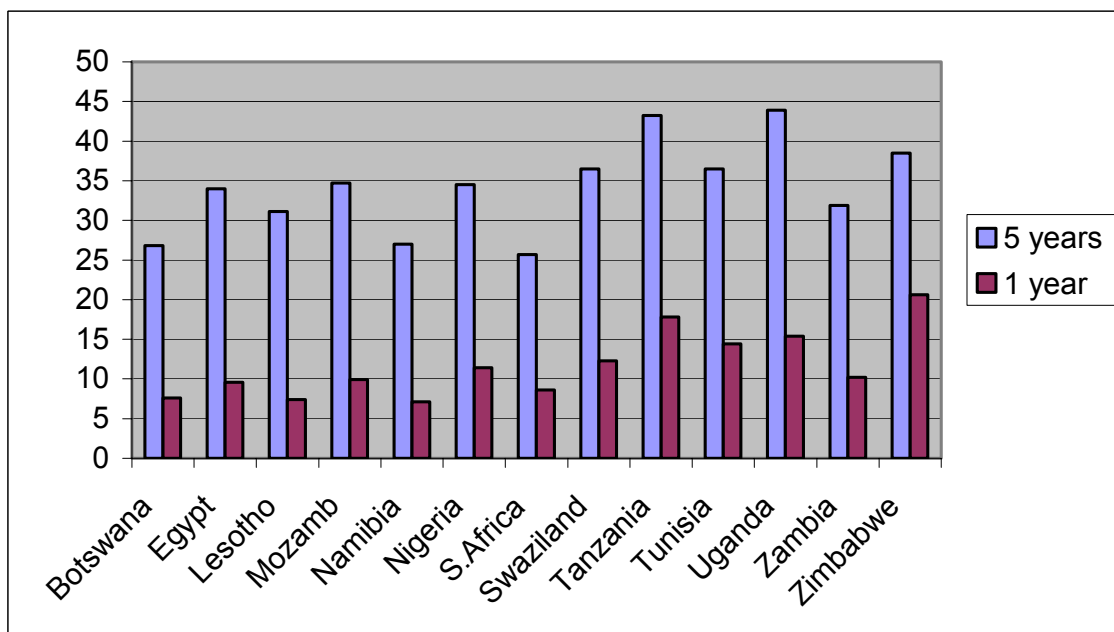


### 3.4 Theft from the person

Respondents were asked the following question:

*Apart from theft involving force, there are many other types of theft of personal property, such as pickpocketing or the theft of a purse, wallet, clothing, jewelry, sports equipment at one's work, at school, in a pub, on public transport, on the beach or in the street. Over the past FIVE years, have you PERSONALLY been the victim of any of these thefts?*

**Figure 3.7: Theft from the person by country**



Due to the heterogeneous nature of theft of personal property it is difficult to interpret national rates, however, taken as a whole over one year, victims in Zimbabwe (20.6 percent), Tanzania (17.8 percent), and Uganda (15.4 percent) experienced the highest rates of personal theft while the lowest levels were recorded by Namibia (7.1 percent), Lesotho (7.4 percent), and Botswana (7.6 percent). Victims in Uganda (43.9 percent), Tanzania (43.2 percent) and Zimbabwe (38.5 percent) experienced the highest levels of personal theft over five years (see Annexure, Table 33).

Victims in Tanzania (87.7 percent), Tunisia (87.3 percent), and Mozambique (82.6 percent) reported the highest rates of pickpocketing whereas Namibia (43.4 percent), Nigeria (47.6 percent), and Uganda (49.5 percent) reported the lowest levels (see Annexure, Table 33).

On average, 45.4 percent of all victims regarded theft of personal property as very serious while 33.7 percent regarded it as fairly serious and 18.4 percent regarded it as not very serious. The highest severity ratings were recorded by Tanzania (75.5 percent), South Africa (59.3 percent), Lesotho (51 percent), and Zambia (50.9 percent), whereas 45.4 percent of Nigerians, 23.7 percent of South Africans, and 21.4 percent of Zimbabweans did not regard theft from the person as very serious (see Annexure, Table 34).

On average, only 18.1 percent of theft of personal property was reported to the police with the highest reporting rates recorded by Tunisia (38.7 percent), Botswana (33.6 percent), South Africa (28.8 percent), and Tanzania (28.2 percent). The lowest reporting rates were recorded by Uganda (5.5 percent), Mozambique (9.9 percent), and Zambia (12.9 percent). It would appear as if the seriousness rating of the crime does not correlate with reporting the crime to the police, although there seems to be a weak link between severity ratings and the reporting of crime in South Africa and Tanzania (see Annexure, Table 34).

### **3.5 Sexual victimization**

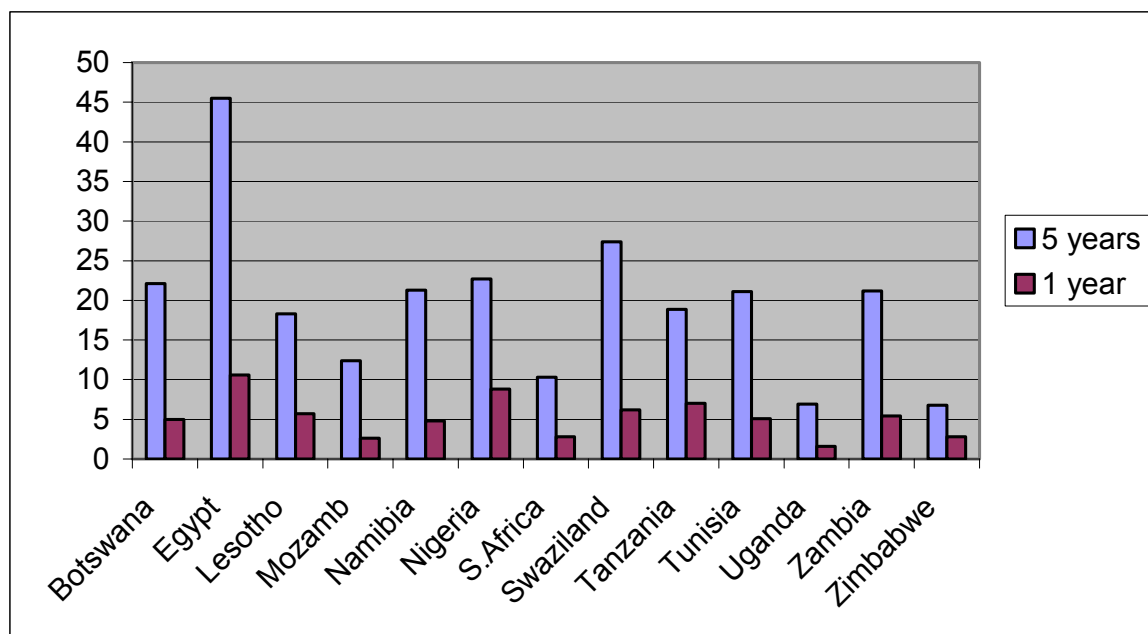
Female respondents were asked the following question:

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

Sexual assault was defined as rape, attempted rape or indecent assaults.

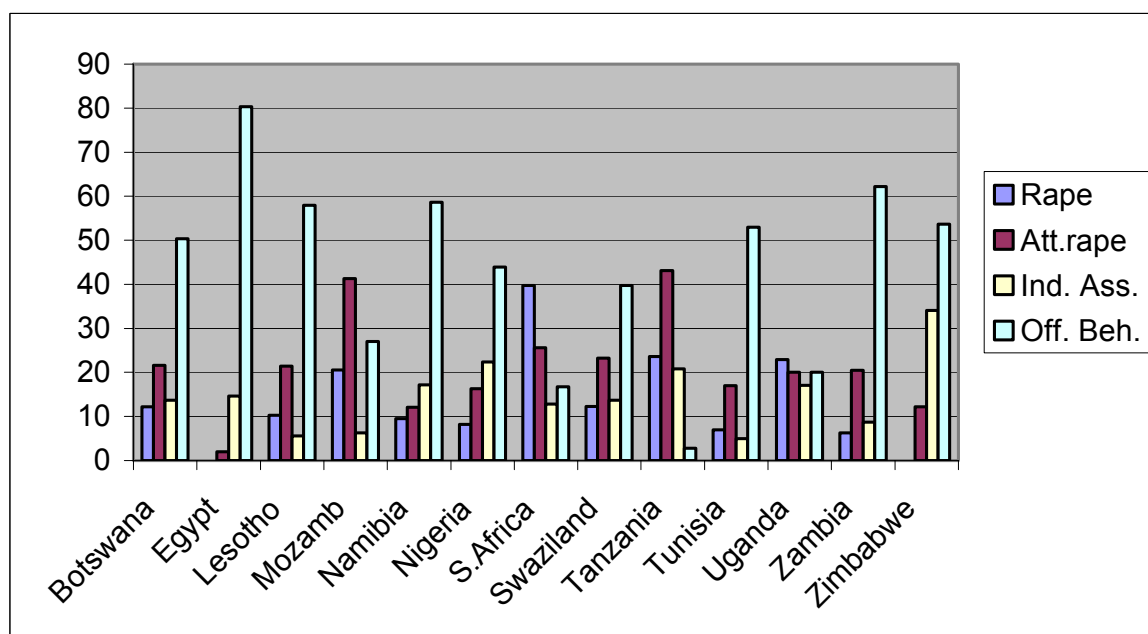
As perceptions of what is acceptable or unacceptable sexual behaviour differ across countries and different cultural and religious groups within a country, it is difficult to measure sexual offences accurately. Thus, the following findings must be treated with circumspection. For example, in some prevailing African traditions and customs, spouse abuse (which may include sexual abuse) is allowed as African females are expected to be subservient to their husbands. Men may physically chastise their spouses and Muslim women are inclined not to divulge experiences of sexual victimization (see Hammond-Took 1974; Alvazzi Del Frate and Patrignani 1995). There is a greater tendency to report victimization by a stranger than by someone known to the victim. Respondents may also differ in their readiness to disclose sexual or sensitive incidents to a stranger, especially in situations where the perpetrator may be present. In developing countries, it is often the case where families and even extended families share a one room dwelling (shack). In such cases, it is frequently impossible to interview the respondent in private.

**Figure 3.8: Sexual victimisation incidents by country**



On average respondents in Egypt (10.6 percent), Nigeria (8.8 percent), and Tanzania (7 percent) reported the highest incidence of sexual victimization over one year whereas the lowest levels were reported in Uganda (1.6 percent), Mozambique (2.6 percent), and South Africa and Zimbabwe (2.8 percent) respectively. Over a period of five years, Egypt (45.5 percent), Swaziland (27.4 percent), Nigeria (22.7 percent) and Botswana (22.1 percent) reported the highest rates of sexual victimization (see Annexure, Table 36).

**Figure 3.9: Type of sexual victimisation by country**



On average most sexual incidents involved offensive behavior (43.7 percent) followed by attempted rape (23 percent), indecent assault (13.8 percent), and rape (13.5 percent).

South Africa (39.7 percent), Tanzania (23.6 percent), Uganda (22.9 percent), and Mozambique (20.6 percent) reported the highest levels of rape while the lowest levels were reported by Egypt and Zimbabwe



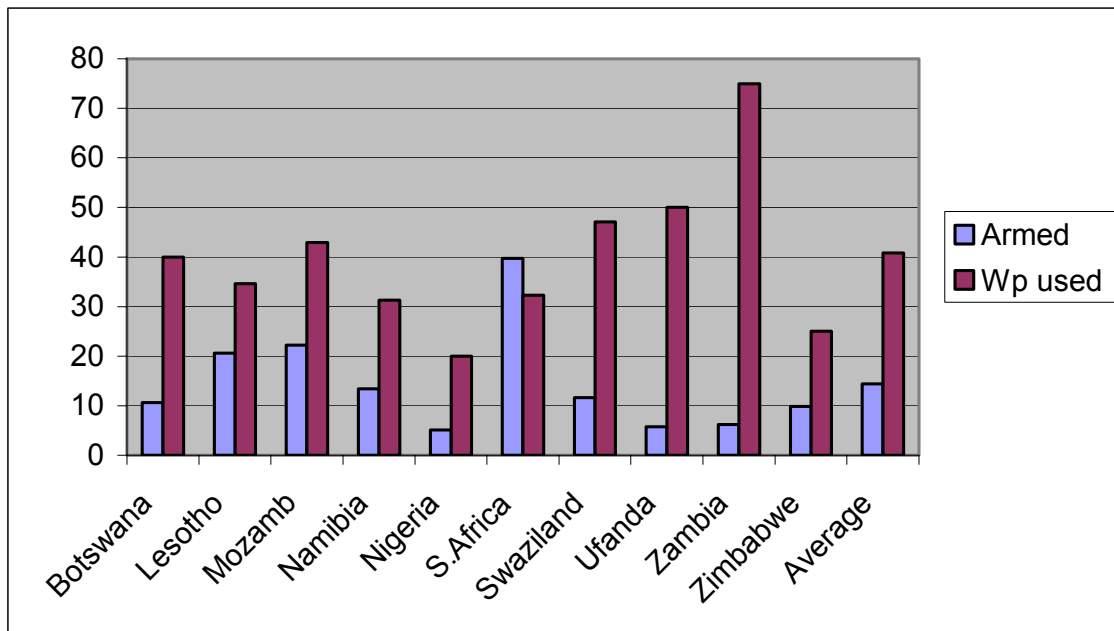
(0 percent respectively), Zambia (6.3 percent), and Tunisia (7 percent). Incidents of attempted rape were particularly high in Tanzania (43.1 percent) and Mozambique (41.3 percent), while Egypt recorded the lowest rate (2 percent).

Most indecent assault cases were reported by victims in Zimbabwe (34.1 percent), Nigeria (22.4 percent) and Namibia and Uganda (17 percent respectively). The lowest levels of indecent assault were reported in Tunisia (5 percent), Lesotho (5.6 percent), and Zambia (8.7 percent). Regarding offensive sexual behavior, Egypt (80.3 percent) and Zambia (62.2 percent) recorded the highest levels whereas Zimbabwe, Tunisia, Namibia, Lesotho, and Botswana all report levels in the region of 50 percent (see Annexure, Table 36).

It should be pointed out that the high incidence of rape in South Africa may partly be due to the efforts of authorities and feminist groups since the mid-1990s to encourage victims to report such crimes to the police. In addition, some well-known people such as journalist Charlene Smith have reported their victimization to the media. Their efforts seem to be effective given that the reporting rates of sexual offences have increased from the 1993 ICVS survey (15.2 percent) to 23.5 percent in the 1996 survey, and to 39.7 percent in the 2000 survey (see Annexure, Table 36). A report of the South African Police Service (2005:table 6) also confirms this trend as the reporting of rape incidents increased from 119.8 per 100,000 of the population in 1998/1999 to 121.7 per 100,000 of the population in 2001/2002. Kury (2002:2) also points out that police-registered sexual offences have increased in Germany in the past ten years due to increasing media attention given to the crime. Heightened public sensitivity to the crime seems to influence reporting rates. As was previously pointed out, cultural differences across countries may also influence the willingness of victims to report sexual incidents.

On average, 57.7 percent of all victims regarded sexual offences as very serious, while 24.3 percent regarded it as fairly serious. Only 14.5 percent of all sexual offences were reported to the police. Factors such as fear of stigmatization and knowing the perpetrator (see paragraph 3.6) may play a role in the reluctance to report sexual offences to the police. Intimidation of the victim by the perpetrator may also be a factor. Respondents in South Africa and Tanzania (76.9 percent respectively), Tunisia (64.4 percent), and Namibia (63 percent) regarded sexual offences as very serious.

**Figure 3.10: Use of weapons during sexual assault**



*Note: Information on the use of a weapon is not available for Egypt, Tanzania, and Tunisia*

On average most sexual offences involved only one perpetrator (73.6 percent). In all countries, except Zimbabwe (43.9 percent), the spread of single offender incidents was between 60 percent and 87 percent.

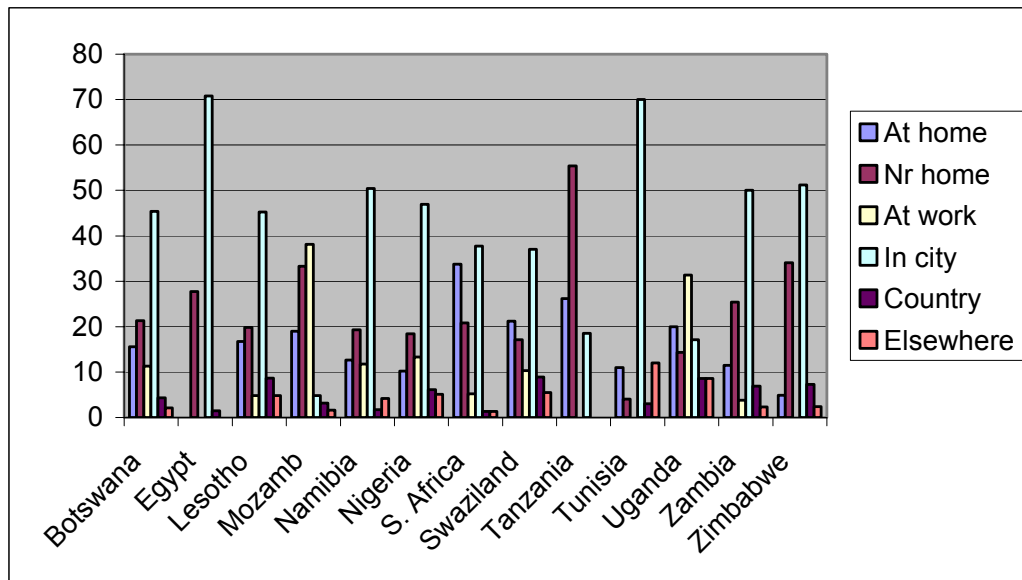
Almost half of all victims knew the offender by name or by sight. In almost one-third of all cases the victim knew the offender by name, while 16.8 percent knew the offender by sight. Just over half of the victims in Uganda and South Africa knew the offender by name, while about a quarter of all victims in Tunisia, Uganda, Tanzania, and Lesotho knew the offender by sight. It should be noted this is a global trend and it is therefore not unique to Africa (see Van Kesteren et al. 2000:5). Overall 14.4 percent of perpetrators were armed. In 40.8 percent of these cases the weapon was used against the victim. South Africa (39.7 percent), Mozambique (22.2 percent), and Lesotho (20.6 percent) recorded the highest levels of armed offenders. A weapon was used in 75 percent of Zambian cases, 47.1 percent in South Africa, and 42.9 percent in Mozambique (see Annexure, Table 38).

### 3.6 The identity of known sexual offenders

On average, 18.2 percent of sexual offenders were a close friend of the victim, 13.8 percent were a boss or colleague, and 12.3 percent were a former, regular male companion. In about ten percent of cases the offender was either a relative or a spouse/partner or a former spouse/partner. In almost 75 percent of all recorded sexual offences the victim and offender knew each other, although the type of relationship differed considerably across countries. Of all the countries surveyed, Zambia (27.5 percent) and Uganda (15 percent) reported the most incidents of sexual offences by a spouse/partner. In South Africa, most sexual offences (23.1 percent) were committed by a regular male companion, while respondents in Zimbabwe (21.4 percent) and Botswana (20 percent) experienced the most sexual offences by a former, regular male companion. A relative was implicated in 50 percent of cases in Tunisia and 28.6 percent in Zimbabwe. In about 20 percent of incidents, a close friend was the perpetrator in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Nigeria, and Uganda. A boss/colleague was involved in 35 percent of Ugandan cases, 27.6 percent of Nigerian cases, and 20 percent of cases in Namibia and Botswana (see Annexure, Table 39). The ability of women to safeguard themselves against sexual offences is seriously hampered given that most offenders are known to them.

### 3.7 The locality of sexual offences

Figure 3.11: Sexual offences by locality



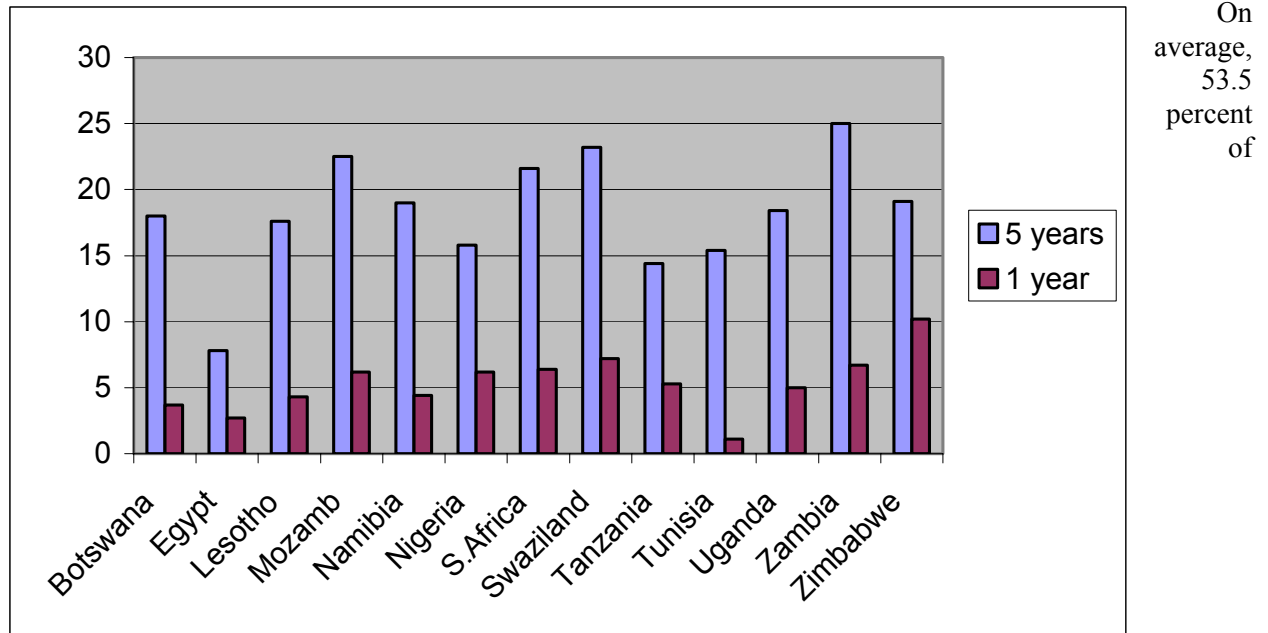
On average most sexual offences occurred in the city where the victim lived (43.9 percent), while 24.4 percent of incidents occurred near the victim's home, and 15.8 percent at the victim's home. Victims in South Africa (33.8 percent), Tanzania (26.2 percent), Swaziland (21.2 percent), and Uganda (20 percent) were the most at risk in their own homes. Most sexual incidents near the victim's home were recorded by Tanzania (55.4 percent), Zimbabwe (34.1 percent), and Egypt (27.7 percent). Victims in Mozambique (38.1 percent) and Uganda (31.4 percent) were particularly at risk at their place of work compared to the other countries (ten percent or less on average) (see Annexure, Table 40).

### 3.8 Incidents of assault or threat

All respondents were asked following question:

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

**Figure 3.12: Assault incidents by country**

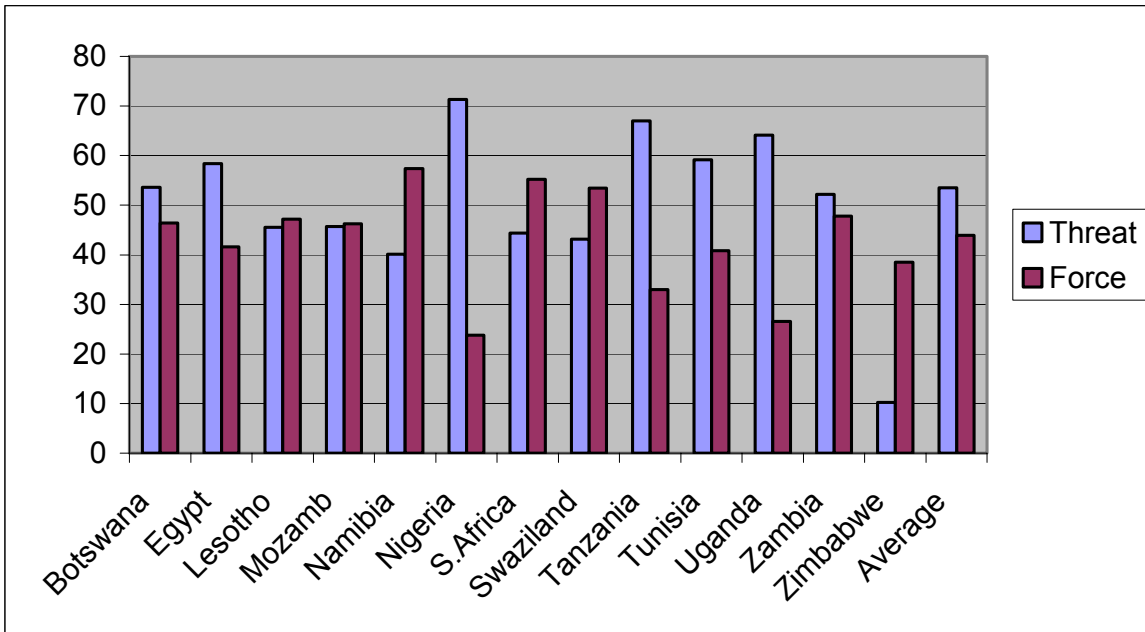


respondents indicated that they had been threatened, while 43.9 percent reported that force was actually used against them by the perpetrator. Although the rates of threat were high in most countries, Nigeria (71.3 percent), Tanzania (67 percent), Uganda (64.1 percent), and Zimbabwe (61.5 percent) recorded particularly high rates. Namibia (40.1 percent), Swaziland (43.1 percent), and South Africa (44.4 percent) recorded the lowest number of incidents.

Force was used in about 50 percent of cases in most countries with Nigeria (23.8 percent), Uganda (26.6 percent), and Zimbabwe (38.5 percent) being the exceptions (see Annexure, Table 41).

Force was actually used in 43.9 percent of all reported cases. The use of force was the highest in Namibia (57.4 percent), South Africa (55.2 percent), Zambia (47.8 percent), and Lesotho (47.2 percent), while it was the lowest in Uganda (26.2 percent), Tanzania (33 percent), and Zimbabwe (38.5 percent).

**Figure 3.13: Type of assault experienced by country**



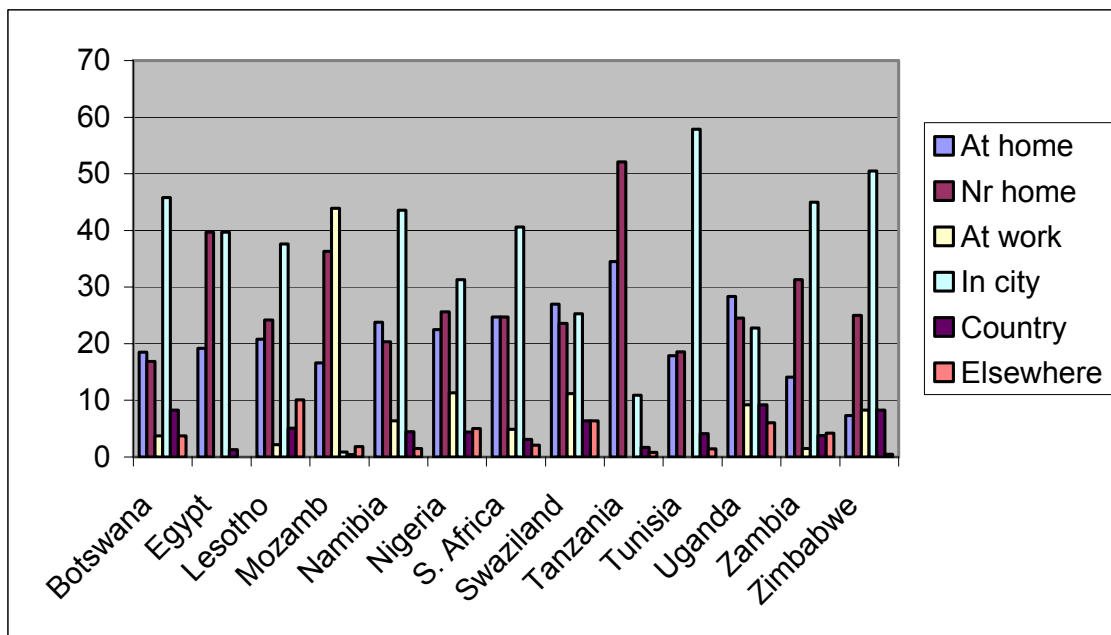
On average almost half (48 percent) of all victims regarded the incident as very serious and 30.7 percent regarded it as fairly serious, yet only 23.7 percent of incidents were reported to the police. As mentioned below, the low rate of reporting to the police may be due to the victim knowing the offender. The majority of victims in Tanzania (81.6 percent) and about 61 percent in Lesotho and South Africa regarded the incident as very serious, while most victims in Zimbabwe (37.5 percent) regarded the incident as not very serious (see Annexure, Table 42).

On average only one perpetrator (42.4 percent) was involved in the offence and in more than half of all cases (53 percent) the offender was known by name or by sight. A weapon was used in 36 percent of cases and 33.7 percent of the victims reported that they had sustained injuries during the assault (see Annexure, Table 43).

A further breakdown of the identity of the offender indicates that on average most assault incidents were committed by a close friend (20.6 percent), followed by a relative (10.7 percent), a boss/colleague (8.9 percent), and a spouse/partner (8.6 percent). It is evident that most incidents of assault and threat occurred in situations of intimate personal relationships or at the victim's place of work (see Annexure, Table 44). It is important to note that in assault cases it is some times difficult to distinguish the victim from the offender. In a bar fight, for instance, is the offender the one who throws the first blow and the victim the one who first reports the incident to the police?

Most assault incidents by a spouse/partner were recorded in Zambia (18.4 percent), Tunisia (14 percent), and South Africa (13.5 percent). The most incidents by a former spouse/partner were recorded in Zimbabwe (4.5 percent) and 3 percent in South Africa and Mozambique. Victims in Botswana (14.5 percent), South Africa (12.7 percent), and Namibia (9.5 percent) reported the most incidents of assault by a regular male companion. In Botswana (12 percent) and South Africa (5.6 percent) the largest number of incidents was attributed to a former, regular male companion. The highest incidence of assault by a relative was recorded in Uganda (21.8 percent), Tunisia (20.5 percent), and Zambia (17.2 percent). A particularly high rate of assault by a close friend was reported in Nigeria (40.5 percent), whereas most of the other countries reported rates between 20 to 25 percent. Swaziland (35.2 percent) and Lesotho (30 percent) recorded significantly higher incidents of assault by a boss/colleague compared to the other countries surveyed (see Annexure, Table 44).

**Figure 3.14: Assault incidents by locality**



About half of all assault incidents occurred at (21.9 percent) or near (29.2 percent) the victim’s place of residence. A further 33.2 percent of incidents occurred in the city where the victim lived, while only 7.7 percent of incidents occurred at work. About one-fifth of victims were most at risk of assault in their own homes (21.9 percent). Domestic violence probably plays a role in this regard. The risk of assault near the victim’s home was particularly high in Tanzania (52.1 percent) as well as in Egypt (39.7 percent) and Mozambique (36.3 percent) compared to the other countries where 20 to 25 percent of assaults occurred near the victim’s home. Victims in Mozambique (43.9 percent) were particularly at risk of assault at their place of work (see Annexure, Table 45).

### 3.9 Conclusion

Most contact crimes generate a high rate of fear amongst all victims, although pickpocketing is generally regarded as less serious. According to Aromaa and Heiskanen (2002:121), fear of crime refers to a “general concern, anxiety, worry or subjective assessments of victimization risks”. Since the 1990s, people in general have become more aware of their vulnerability to crime. This trend may in part be due to the media’s selective attention to gruesome violent crimes, as well as the many crime awareness campaigns launched by the police, security, and crime watch organizations urging people to take certain precautions to safeguard their person and property.

Fear of crime has many detrimental social consequences. Worldwide it is regarded as a major social problem as it can influence people’s behavior patterns. Some areas (e.g., city centers) may be avoided if they are perceived as dangerous, many women avoid going out at night, children’s activities are restricted, and some people may move away from certain areas which they regard as unsafe. Fear has also been found to intensify gun ownership, regional segregation of population groups, harsh punishment attitudes (Aromaa and Heiskanen (2002:120), tough anti-crime strategies, and pressure on politicians to take strong punitive action.

Most robbery incidents are committed by strangers involving more than one offender. In more than half of the cases a firearm was involved, which was used in close to one-third of all incidents. Fear of robbery is certainly to be expected as victims run a high risk of being injured during a robbery incident. Respondents in Mozambique, Tunisia, and South Africa are the most at risk of robbery offences.

About 36.5 percent of all sexual offences constitute rape and attempted rape. Offensive sexual behavior accounts for close to 43 percent of all cases. Only one offender was involved in about 75 percent of cases. Although more than half of all victims regarded their sexual experience as very serious, only about 14 percent of these offences were reported to the police. It would appear that victims are reluctant to report crimes to the police when they know the perpetrator. Intimidation and fear of being stigmatized may also play a role. In more than three-quarters of cases only one offender was involved. Forty percent of these offences occurred at or near the victim's home and 43 percent occurred elsewhere in the city where the victim resided.

More than half of assault victims were threatened by the perpetrator. A weapon was actually used in 44 percent of assault cases. Although more than three-quarters of assault victims regarded the incident as very serious, only about 24 percent of cases were reported to the police. Again, the perpetrator was known to the victim in about 63 percent of cases. More than half of all cases (53 percent) involved two or more offenders while only one offender was involved in about 43 percent of cases. About half of all assault cases occurred at or near the victim's home and about 33 percent in the city where the victim lived.

The findings indicate that opportunity structures such as lifestyle patterns and other factors including the availability of firearms play a role in the risk of victimization. For instance, Van Dijk's (1998:119) analysis of the ICVS data shows that an outgoing lifestyle, economic strain, level of education, and gun ownership increase the risk of violent crime. Verweij and Nieuwbeerta (2002:104) also found that individual differences in lifestyle can explain differences in victimization risk. The prevailing culture of violence, a general lack of respect for human rights, and the ongoing political instability in Africa contribute to levels of crime and victimization factors. Chapter 5 provides a fuller discussion of the correlates of crime.

# CHAPTER 4: REPORTING OF CRIME, THE POLICE, AND VICTIM SUPPORT

Johan Prinsloo

## 4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the focus will be on the reporting of criminal victimization experienced during the most recent (last) victimization. However, in countries where multiple surveys were conducted, previous results are also-discussed.

Table 48 in the Annexure provides a synthesis of the various offences as well as the reporting rate per country. In addition, the perceived seriousness of the victimization will be discussed, reporting to the police by victims, as well as their motivation for reporting the crime. In certain instances, the reactions of the police are also analysed

## 4.2 Victimization and the reporting of crime

### 4.2.1 *Theft of car*

Incidents of car theft (see Annexure, Table 10) were considered as very serious (83.8 percent), 10.5 percent described their victimization as fairly serious, and 4 percent did not consider it to be very serious. Subsequently, the majority of car theft incidents were reported to the police (89 percent), suggesting a general relationship between the seriousness of car theft and reporting to the police. Even so, the non-reporting of car theft reached significant proportions in Uganda in 2000 (25 percent) and Egypt (27 percent). Victims consider car theft to be particularly serious in Zimbabwe, Uganda (1992 and 1996), Zambia, Tanzania, and South Africa (1993).

### 4.2.2 *Car hijacking*

It is interesting to note that theft of car is perceived as more serious than car hijacking, even though hijacking often involves violence. Theft of cars was reported more often than car hijacking. As indicated in Table 12 of the Annexure, 64.8 percent of respondents described their victimization as very serious, compared to 11.9 percent who described it as fairly serious and 11.9 percent who said it was not very serious. Of these incidents, 65.9 percent were reported to the police. It is difficult to explain why the majority of respondents in Lesotho (90.9 percent) indicated that being car hijacked was relatively unimportant. However, it was considered especially serious in Zambia (75 percent), Mozambique (78.3 percent), South Africa (82.7 percent), and Botswana (91.7 percent). Incidents that were evaluated as “very serious” were often reported to the police. However, South Africa is a clear exception where fewer serious incidents were reported to the police (72.8 percent). Fifty-four percent of car hijackings resulted in the victim’s car actually being taken. About half (51.4 percent) of these cars were eventually recovered. Less than half (49.4 percent) of those who reported being hijacked to the police were satisfied with their response. As indicated in Table 49 of the Annexure, the recovery of property and the anticipated apprehension and punishment of offenders were the two most prominent reasons for reporting to the police. Table 51 of the Annexure shows that respondents were not satisfied with the police because they did not do enough, failed to apprehend the offender, failed to recover stolen property, and did not properly inform them throughout the reporting process.

As indicated in Table 54 (see Annexure), victims did not report being car hijacked to the police because they felt the police could not assist the victims, the police would not respond, and/or the incident was solved without the help from the police.

#### **4.2.3 Theft from car**

The highest reporting rates of theft from a car were found in Tanzania (76.9 percent), Tunisia (66.8 percent), and Botswana (2000)(65.1 percent). Below average reporting rates were recorded for Uganda (2000) (19.2 percent) and Mozambique (13.2 percent). An average of 44.2 percent of the victims who reported their victimization to the police were satisfied with the reaction of the police. Victims from Uganda (1996) (62.5 percent), Nigeria (55.2 percent), South Africa (48.2 percent), and Namibia (48.1 percent) reported above average satisfaction rates.

It is clear from the incidences reflected in Table 49 (see Annexure) that victims reported theft from cars (1) because they expected their property to be recovered, (2) to exact retribution (apprehend and punish offender), (3) as a result of the severity of the offense, and (4) for insurance purposes. Respondents who were dissatisfied with the police (see Annexure, Table 51) stated that they felt the police were inefficient, for instance, they did not do enough, failed to recover property, and did not apprehend the offender. Those respondents who decided not to report theft from cars to the police (see Annexure, Table 54) did so because the incident was not deemed serious enough and/or they felt that the police could not or would not do anything.

#### **4.2.4 Vandalism to cars**

An average of 43 percent of victims reported their victimization to the police. Respondents in Tanzania (70.3 percent), Lesotho (66.7 percent), and South Africa (2000) (60.4 percent) regarded car vandalism as very serious. The highest rates of reporting car vandalism to the police were found in Tanzania (68.7 percent), Botswana (2000) (61 percent) and (1997) (56 percent), Swaziland (58.1 percent), and South Africa (2000) (57.4 percent) (see Annexure, Table 17).

#### **4.2.5 Theft of motorcycle**

According to Table 20 (see Annexure), reporting of theft of motorcycles and car hijacking appear to be similar. Approximately 65 percent of the victims described both categories as very serious. It is also noteworthy that more victims of motorcycle theft (79.1 percent) reported their victimization to the police than victims of car hijacking (66 percent). Perhaps the mere trauma of car hijacking and fear of retaliation sways victims to not involve the police.

Motorcycle theft is considered especially serious by victims of Lesotho (100 percent), Namibia (100 percent), Uganda (1992) (90.9 percent) and (1996) (100 percent). High reporting rates emerged from the data supplied by respondents from Botswana (100 percent), Lesotho (100 percent), Namibia (100 percent), Uganda (1992) (90.9 percent) and (1996) (100 percent), Tanzania (89.3 percent), and Tunisia (86.6 percent).

#### **4.2.6 Theft of bicycle**

Table 23 (see Annexure) indicates that 41.9 percent of respondents consider bicycle theft to be very serious, 36 percent perceived it to be fairly serious, and 19.1 percent did not perceive it to be serious. Respondents who lost a bicycle reported it to the police in 37.4 percent of the cases.

Ugandese victims in particular indicated bicycle thefts to be very serious (88.5 percent in 1992; 63.3 percent in 1996 and 54.3 percent in 2000), although the rates have dropped since 1992. Interestingly, decreases in the perceived severity of this offence result in fewer reports to the police. Bicycle theft was also considered to be very serious by respondents in Tanzania (59.3 percent), Zambia (59.1 percent), and Zimbabwe (57.7 percent). Significantly more respondents of Zimbabwe (80.8 percent) and Tanzania (70.4 percent) reported theft of bicycles to the police.

#### **4.2.7 Theft of livestock**

Theft of livestock was included in the questionnaire because in traditional African patriarchal culture, livestock is symbolically important.



Table 24 (see Annexure) indicates the percentage of respondents who own livestock, theft of livestock, and reporting behavior. Approximately 43.4 percent of livestock owners reported a theft in Lesotho and 43.6 percent in Zambia. Approximately one-third of households in Botswana (31.8 percent), Namibia (31.5 percent), and South Africa (34.4 percent) had livestock stolen. Zambian respondents indicated the lowest reporting rate (19.1 percent) to the police. Highest rates of reporting were found in Namibia (51.8 percent), Botswana (48.1 percent), Lesotho (45.6 percent), and South Africa (36.4 percent).

#### 4.2.8 *Burglary*

Tables 26 and 28 (see Annexure) reflect the incidences of burglary with entry as well as attempted burglary. On average, 65.8 percent of respondents considered burglary to be a very serious offence. Victims also perceived attempted burglary to be very serious (37.9 percent). Over one-third (36.4 percent) of respondents perceive attempted burglary to be fairly serious, and 22.4 percent rated burglary to be fairly serious. Of the 55.1 percent of the victims who reported their burglary to the police, 30.8 percent expressed their satisfaction with the action taken by the police. Fewer attempted burglaries were reported to the police (36.4 percent) than burglaries.

Respondents in South Africa considered burglary to be a very serious crime (74 percent in 1993; 69.8 percent in 1996; and 77.3 percent in 2000). In 1992, Ugandese rated burglary as very serious (92.3 percent). In 1996, this rating dropped to 65.1 percent. In the 2000 survey, 68.9 percent of respondents considered it to be very serious. Burglary was also viewed as very serious in Tanzania (83.7 percent), Lesotho (77.9 percent), and Zambia (71.9 percent). The highest reporting rates emerged in Tanzania (86.4 percent), Swaziland (82.7 percent), Zimbabwe 71 percent), and Botswana (2000) (69.7 percent). In terms of reporting the crime to the police, victims in Nigeria (45.9 percent), Namibia (41.8 percent), and Botswana (2000) (41.3 percent) were most satisfied with the police.

Attempted burglary was perceived to be particularly serious in Uganda (1992) (56.6 percent), Lesotho (50.8 percent), Zambia (50.5 percent), Tanzania (47.6 percent), Botswana (1997) (47.1 percent), Namibia (46.3 percent), and South Africa (2000) (46.2 percent). The highest reporting rates to the police regarding attempted burglary were registered in Tanzania (51.7 percent), Swaziland (51.2 percent), Namibia (47 percent), and Zambia (45.3 percent).

The key motive for reporting burglary (see Annexure, Table 49) was to recover stolen property and to seek retribution. Respondents who were not satisfied with the reaction of the police (see Annexure, Table 51) blamed them primarily for not doing enough and failing to apprehend the offender and recover their property. Those who did not report burglary to the police (see Annexure, Table 54) indicated that it was not serious enough or they felt that the police could not or would not do anything to recover their property. A significant proportion of respondents also indicated that they “solved” the burglaries themselves.

#### 4.2.9 *Robbery*

Robbery (see Annexure, Table 30) was perceived by 59.3 percent of all victims to be a very serious offence. However, only 33.9 percent reported it to the police, of whom 37.7 percent expressed their satisfaction with the reaction of the police. Similar to car hijacking, it is plausible that victims may be traumatized and that fear of retaliation may influence victims’ resolve not to involve the police.

Robbery was reported to be a very serious offense in Tanzania (85.4 percent), Uganda (1992) (70.8 percent), and South Africa (1996) (73.8 percent) and (2000) (72.9 percent). Victims who reported their victimization more frequently than the average were from Zimbabwe (42.3 percent), South Africa (1996) (43.0 percent), Tunisia (46.5 percent), Swaziland (48.9 percent), and especially Tanzania (68.7 percent). The satisfaction ratings of victims who reported their robberies to the police were fairly modest. The most satisfied respondents were from Uganda (2000) (50 percent), South Africa (43.5 percent in 1996 and 40.2 percent in 2000), Lesotho (40.9 percent), and Nigeria (40 percent).

The reasons (see Annexure, Table 49) most predominantly indicated by victims of robbery for reporting it to the police were the severity of the offence, recovery of stolen property, and retribution. Victims who

were not satisfied with the police (see Annexure, Table 51) felt that the police were inefficient (i.e., they did not do enough, failed to apprehend the offender, and did not recover stolen property). Victims who decided against reporting to the police felt the incidents were not serious enough, the police were unable and/or unwilling to do anything about it (see Annexure Table 54).

#### *4.2.10 Personal theft*

Approximately one-third (33.7 percent) of victims (see Annexure, Table 34) described personal theft as fairly serious and 18.4 percent considered it to be less serious in nature. Victims who experienced personal theft as very serious events were predominantly from Tanzania (75.5 percent) and South Africa (63.3 percent in 1993 and 59.3 percent in 2000). Not many incidents were reported to the police. The highest reporting rates were recorded in Tunisia (38.7 percent), Botswana (2000) (33.6 percent), South Africa (2000) (28.8 percent), and Tanzania (28.2 percent).

#### *4.2.11 Sexual victimization (women only)*

It is difficult to gauge the severity of sexual offences of female respondents since these offences are inclusive of a diversity of victimizations such as rape (13.5 percent), attempted rape (23 percent), indecent assault (13.8 percent), and offensive behavior (43.7 percent) (see Annexure Tables 36 and 37). Even though unspecified offensive behavior constituted the biggest proportion of offences (43.7 percent), the majority of victims (57.7 percent) experienced their victimization as very serious in nature. Compared to other countries, South African respondents consistently emphasized the very serious nature of their victimization (84.8 percent in 1993, 66.7 percent in 1996, and 76.9 percent in 2000). Other assessments worth noting were recorded in Uganda (1992) (81.7 percent), Tanzania (76.9 percent), and Botswana (1997) (75.6 percent).

Very few victims report sexual victimization to the police. While the severity rating of sexual offences and robbery appear to be very similar, more than twice the percentage of robbery victims reported their victimization to the police compared with victims of sexual offences. An average of only 14.5 percent of sexual victimizations were reported to the police. Above average reporting rates were recorded in Tanzania (28.3 percent), Tunisia (34.1 percent), and in South Africa (27.3 percent in 1993, 27.5 percent in 1996, and 39 percent in 2000). An average of 46.6 percent of the victims who reported their victimization to the police were satisfied with the responses of the police. Respondents of Mozambique (60 percent), Lesotho (62.5 percent), Nigeria (70 percent), and Botswana (2000) (73.3 percent) were particularly satisfied with the action taken by the police, especially compared to Zambia (27.8 percent) and Uganda (1996) (18.2 percent). It is interesting to note that in 2000 no incidents were even reported to the police in Uganda.

Women who reported being victimized to the police (see Annexure, Table 49) did so because of the severity of the offence, retribution, and to prevent any future victimization (recurrences). Victims who were dissatisfied with the reaction of the police stated that the police did not do enough, failed to bring the perpetrator to justice, appeared disinterested or were impolite (see Annexure, Table 51). The women who did not report their victimization to the police were motivated by the view that the incidents were not serious enough, because they considered it to be inappropriate to involve the police, and because the police either could not or would not be able to accomplish anything positive (see Annexure, Table 54).

#### *4.2.12 Assault*

A distinction can once again be made in terms of incidences of assault where the victims were threatened (53.5 percent) and where actual force was used (43.9 percent) (see Annexure, Table 41). These factors can influence the severity ratings of assault as an offence.

Table 42 in the Annexure reflects that 48 percent of victims rated their assaults to be very serious. A further 30.7 percent found assault to be fairly serious or not very serious (19.2 percent). Victims reported their attacks to the police 23.7 percent of the time. Among those who told the police, 32.5 percent were satisfied with their response. Assaults were considered as very serious events, especially in Tanzania (81.6

percent), Lesotho (61.2 percent), South Africa (2000) (61.1 percent), and Tunisia (59.4 percent). Most incidences of assault in Tunisia (51.9 percent) and Tanzania (56.8 percent) were reported to the police.

Victims of assault informed the police (see Annexure, Table 49) because they perceived their assault to be of a serious nature, to get help, as well as for retributive purposes. Dissatisfied victims felt that the police did not do enough and failed to bring the offender to justice. Table 51(see Annexure) shows that a considerable number of victims also accused the police of being disinterested. Victims who decided against reporting their victimization to the police (see Annexure, Table 54) did not perceive their assault to be serious, they resolved the issue themselves, and some felt that the police either could not or would not be able to accomplish anything.

#### *4.2.13 Consumer fraud*

Table 46 in the annexure indicates that respondents in Tanzania (88 percent), Tunisia (58.4 percent), and Uganda (1992) (71.7 percent) experienced high incidences of consumer fraud compared to those from other African countries. The highest reporting rate to the police was recorded in Tanzania (32.3 percent), followed by Botswana in 1997 (16 percent), and South Africa (13.1 percent and 13.2 percent in 1993 and 1996).

#### *4.2.14 Corruption*

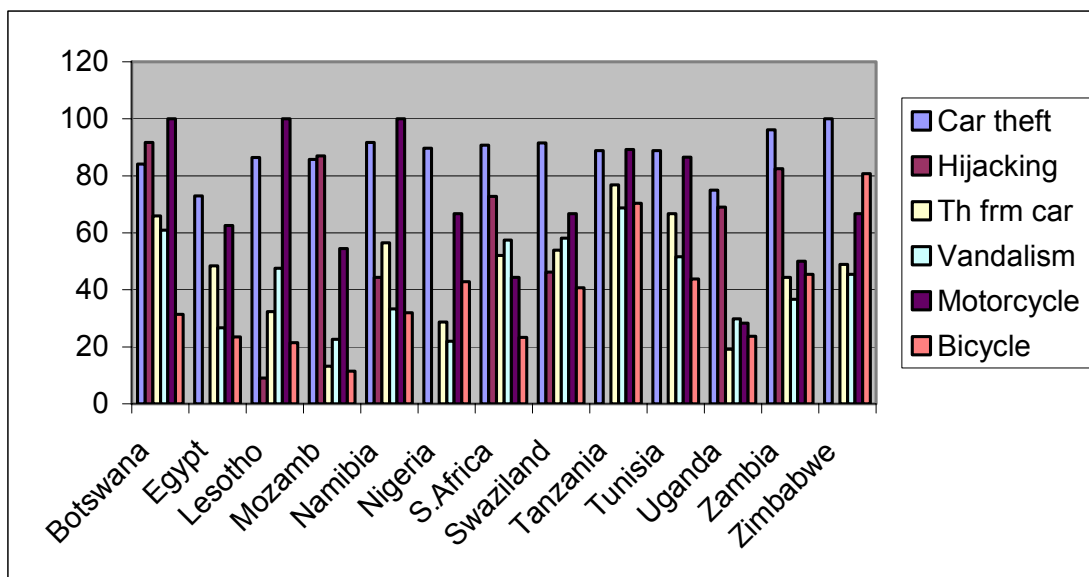
High corruption rates (see Annexure, Table 47) were recorded in Tanzania (21 percent), Nigeria (29.8 percent), Mozambique (30.5 percent), and Uganda (34.7 percent in 2000). The reporting of corruption was almost negligible in most of the countries with the exception of South Africa where 25.6 percent of incidences were reported to the police.

### **4.3 General observations pertaining to the reporting of crime**

The monitoring of reporting crime in Botswana, South Africa, and Uganda can be used to identify and explore specific trends within specific contexts.

For instance, the political agenda of the 2004 general elections in South Africa was dominated by political rhetoric on crime. Concerns, perceptions, attitudes, crime, and perceptions of victims are influenced in this process. In addition, high profile media accounts of crime can also influence the public, particularly in the short term. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 indicate the reporting of crime to the police.

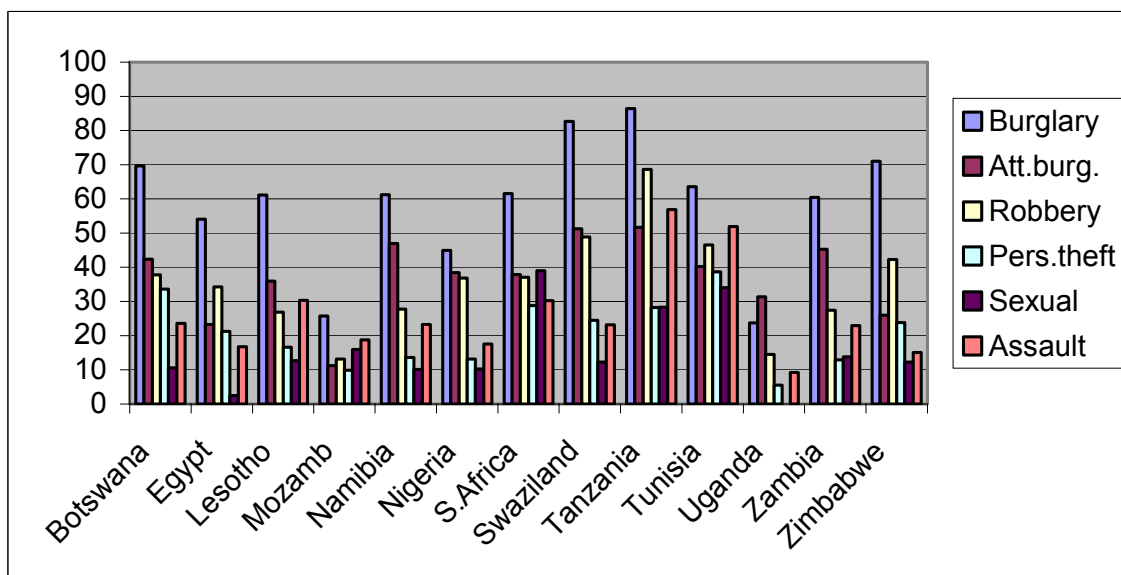
#### **Figure 4.1: Vehicle related crimes reported to the police**



Note: Information about car hijackings not available for Egypt, Nigeria, Tanzania, Tunisia and Zimbabwe

Furthermore, Table 10 in the Annexure shows that a universal decline of the severity rating of car theft is noticeable in Botswana, South Africa, and Uganda. Since the early 1990s there is a clear shift away from “very serious” towards “fairly serious.” Despite this trend, the reporting rate has remained relatively consistent, except for the results from the 2000 Uganda survey. Reporting rates are relatively constant because insurance companies require that victims report stolen cars to the police.

Figure 4.2: Other crimes reported to the police



Perceptions of the severity of robbery declined in Botswana and Uganda (see Annexure, Table 30). However, it increased in South Africa, probably due to the increase in violent crime and increased levels of general public concern since the early 1990s. In the case of Botswana, reporting rates increased somewhat while satisfaction with the police decreased. Reporting rates varied in South Africa. There was

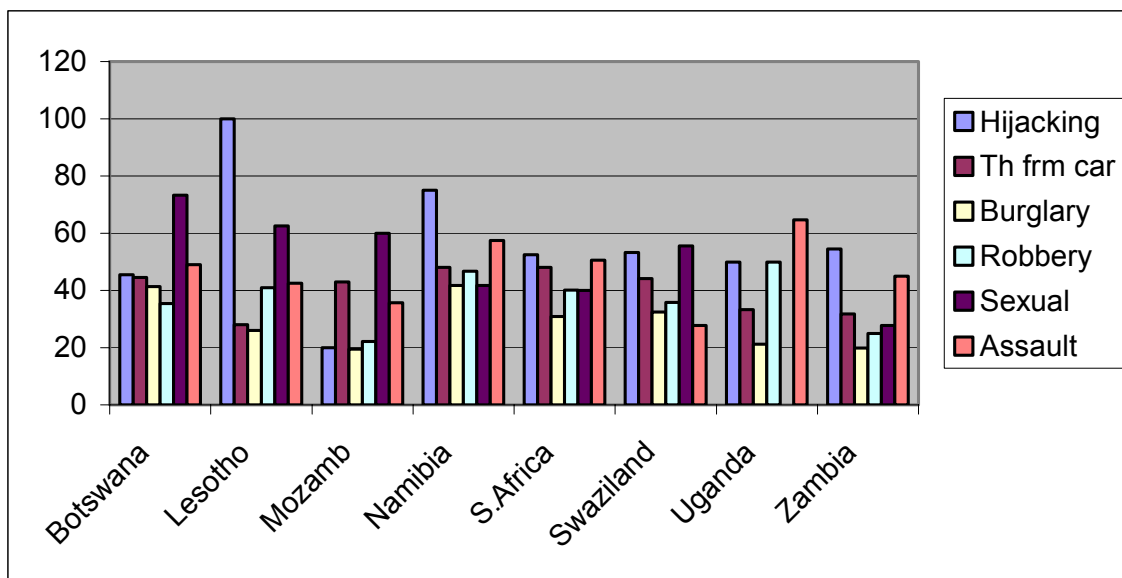
a decline in ratings of satisfaction with the police, which may be due a greater concern about crime in general and crimes of violence in particular.

According to Table 30, (see Annexure) satisfaction with the police (50 percent) increased notably in Uganda despite a decrease in the reporting of burglary (14.5 percent).

Table 37 in the Annexure shows a considerable decline in the severity ratings of sexual offences in Botswana and Uganda. Reporting rates and satisfaction with the police increased in Botswana. In Uganda, the reporting of sexual victimization and satisfaction with the police are decreasing. Perceptions of the severity of sexual crimes in South Africa appear to be volatile. However, the reporting rates of these offences and favourable perceptions of the police increased. Interestingly, the media has given greater attention to crimes committed against women and children and domestic violence.

Table 50 (see Annexure) and Figure 4.3 provide a holistic view of victims’ satisfaction with the police and reporting behavior.

**Figure 4.3: Satisfaction with polices' handling of reported cases**



*Note: Information is not available for the other countries.*

The reporting of car hijacking was the highest in Botswana, Mozambique, South Africa, Uganda, and Zambia. In Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, and Zambia, car hijacking, theft from cars and burglary were more frequently reported than robbery, sexual incidents, and assault. Burglary was reported more often than any other crime in Lesotho, Namibia, and Swaziland. Sexual crimes were consistently reported less often than other crimes. However, victims who reported sexual crimes to the police were most satisfied with their responses compared to the reporting of other crimes, with the exception of Namibia, South Africa, and Zambia. Low satisfaction ratings were generally reported for burglary and robbery. Low levels of satisfaction with the police were also reported for car hijacking in Mozambique, sexual offences in Namibia, and assault in Swaziland. In South Africa, satisfaction ratings were consistently low for car hijacking and assault, where a small majority of respondents indicated their satisfaction with the police. The satisfaction ratings for burglary, robbery, and sexual offences in South Africa were particularly low, although far from being the lowest compared to other countries.

#### 4.4 Victim support

Despite different definitions and understanding of victims support services, coinciding with differences in the willingness and capacity to render support services for victims of crime in the region, support services are generally deemed inadequate and often virtually non-existent. Subsequently, victims are left

vulnerable and prone to repeated victimizations. Studies indicate that certain groups are more at risk of becoming repeat victims of crime, particularly people residing in large cities, young persons, and people with an outgoing lifestyle. Furthermore, victimization is often repeated in abusive relationships where pent up anger and frustration is directed towards the victim.

The ICVS contains a question about victim support services and the usefulness of such services.

*In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information or practical or emotional support. Did you get help from such a specialized agency?*

Table 52 (see Annexure) illustrates the extent to which victim support services exist and are utilized in the various countries. Regarding hijacking, only victims in South Africa (10.2 percent), Uganda (15 percent), and Swaziland (6.7 percent) indicated that they received any assistance. In the case of burglary, some assistance was received in most countries, although only respondents in Uganda (2000) (23.1 percent) received a noteworthy level of support.

Victims of robbery also received minimally victim support services, with the exception of Uganda where 23.1 percent victims received support services.

The majority of women (58.3 percent) who were victims of sexual offences in Namibia received victim support. Furthermore, approximately one-third of the victims in Lesotho (31.3 percent), Swaziland (27.8 percent) and Zambia (33.3 percent) indicated that they received victim support services, followed by 20 per cent South African victims.

The highest levels of support for victims of assault were found in Lesotho (18.5 percent), South Africa (2000) (13.8 percent), and Uganda (2000) (23.5 percent).

*Do you feel that the services of a specialized agency to help victims of crime would have been useful?*

Apart from the experiences of those victims who benefited from support services, Table 52 (see Annexure) also contains data on victims who did not receive any support but were asked if they felt that such support would have been beneficial to them.

An overwhelming majority of respondents believed that support for victims of car hijacking would be useful. The highest frequencies of victim support were recorded in South Africa (10.2 percent) and Uganda (15 percent). A large majority of respondents in both countries indicated that such services would be useful. In Zambia, no victim support was rendered to any victims of car hijacking. Interestingly, 84.4 percent of victims in Zambia felt that support would be useful.

Victims of burglary in Uganda were the only ones to receive a noteworthy level of support (2000) (23.1 percent). However, victims in Uganda reported fewer burglaries to the police (23.7 percent) than victims in the other countries (see Annexure, Table 50). Furthermore, although 23.1 percent of burglary victims received support, only 15.8 percent indicated that they benefited from the services. A relatively small percentage of respondents indicated that they received victim support in Mozambique (1.6 percent), Namibia (5.3 percent), and South Africa (2000) (2.9 percent). Victims in these countries had relatively high expectations of the usefulness of such programs (18 percent, 21.2 percent, and 29.4 percent respectively). Again, while victims expect that they would benefit from services, very few actually did benefit.

Few victims of robbery received support. In Uganda, 23.1 percent of robbery victims received support services. More than one-quarter (25.5 percent) of Ugandan respondents indicated that they benefited or would benefit from support services for victims of robbery. Although few respondents were supported, relatively high proportions of robbery victims in Lesotho (19.1 percent), Zimbabwe (21.1 percent), Namibia (28.3 percent), and South Africa (2000) (29.7 percent) endorsed the need of victim support services.

Victims of sexual offences received relatively high levels of support in Lesotho (31.3 percent), Namibia (58.3 percent), Swaziland (27.8 percent), and Zambia (33.3 percent). Victims who did receive support, however, questioned its usefulness. A limited percentage of respondents believed that they have or would have benefited from support services. In Lesotho and Zambia, 9.1 percent of respondents believed that support services for victims of sexual offences would be useful. Interestingly, no respondents in Namibia or Swaziland indicated that they would find support services to be useful. In South Africa, a clear relationship is noticeable between higher levels of reporting of sexual crimes to the police, victim support services, and the usefulness as support services since the 1990s. As mentioned, the government of South Africa has made a concerted effort to sensitize the public to the problem of domestic violence and crimes committed against women and children.

Support services were utilized by 23.5 percent of assault victims in Uganda (2000). This is the highest percentage of support users in all the participating countries. Although victims of assault in Uganda did receive support, none of them felt that it was beneficial. Only South Africa seems to be breaking ground in terms of supporting victims of assault, although on a smaller scale than for victims of sexual offences.

#### **4.5 General attitudes to crime and victimization**

Community cohesion was measured in terms of the extent to which residents render assistance to one another (see Annexure, Table 55). Community cohesion is particularly high in Nigeria (63.4 percent), Zimbabwe (55.1 percent), and Tanzania (55.7 percent).

Social cohesion has increased in Botswana since 1997. In South Africa and Uganda cohesion declined sharply since 1992 and 1993 and then stabilized from 1996 to 2000. The lowest levels of cohesion were recorded in Tunisia (18 percent) and Swaziland (26.1 percent).

Feelings of safety (as opposed to fear of crime) were measured by gauging respondents' attitudes towards walking alone after dark in their area of residence (see Annexure, Table 56). The highest ratings of safety were found in Egypt (50.1 percent) and Nigeria (47.2 percent). Respondents in Tunisia (34.7 percent) also rated their residential areas to be very safe. Notably fewer respondents felt very safe in Botswana (1997) (8 percent), Lesotho (11 percent), Mozambique (3.4 percent), South Africa (2000) (9.4 percent), Swaziland (6.9 percent), and Zambia (11.2 percent). At the other end of the spectrum, respondents felt very unsafe in Lesotho (56.7 percent), South Africa (43.7 percent in 1993; 39.5 percent in 1996; and 52.9 percent in 2000), Swaziland (38.4 percent), and Botswana 1997 (32.1 percent). Few respondents in Egypt (8 percent), Nigeria (6.5 percent), Tunisia (5.5 percent), and Uganda (8.4 percent in 1992, 2.7 percent in 1996, and 3.6 percent in 2000) considered their cities to be very unsafe. Very few respondents also described Egypt (8 percent) and Nigeria (5.8 percent) as a bit unsafe. Respondents in Nigeria (40.4 percent), Tunisia (42.9 percent), and Uganda (47 percent in 1992, 47.1 percent in 1996, and 55.5 percent in 2000) were convinced of the relative safety of their cities.

**Figure 4.4: Feelings of safety walking alone in area after dark**

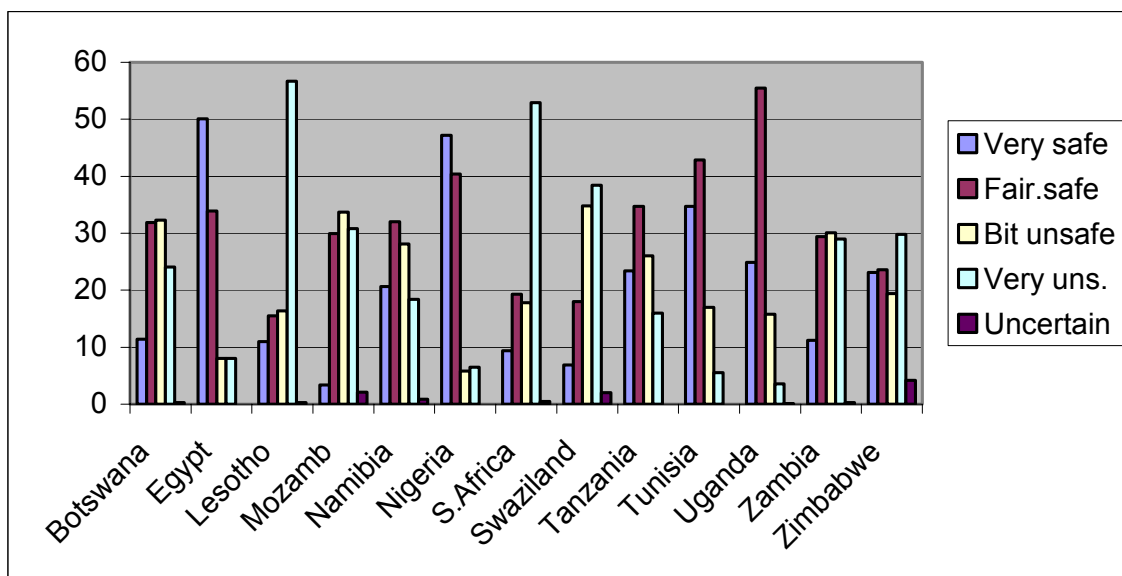
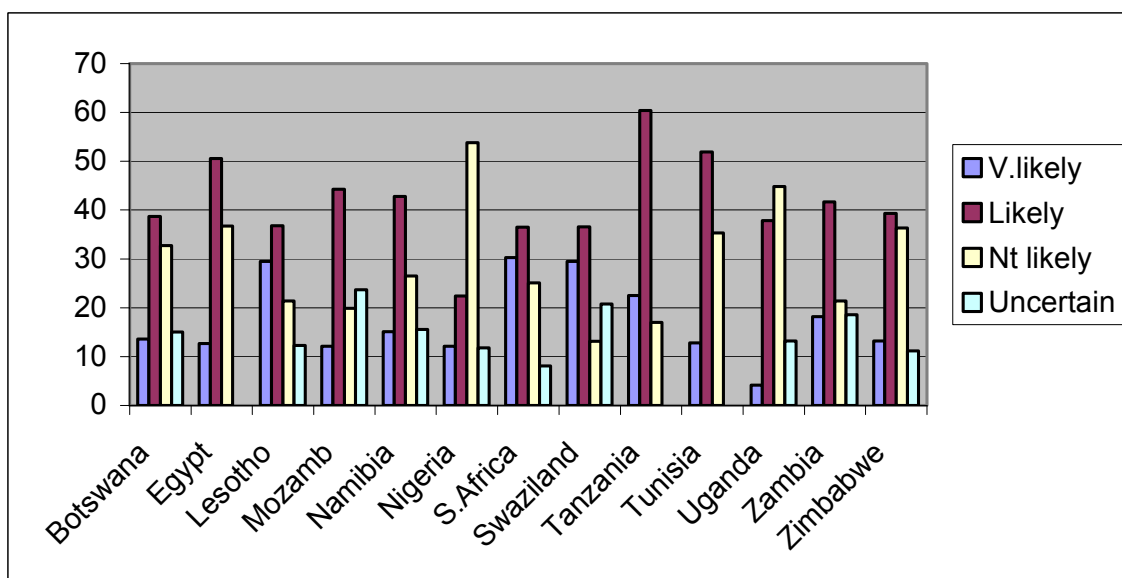


Figure 4.5 illustrates the likelihood that respondents will (in their estimation) become a victim of burglary in the near future. Table 57 (see Annexure) indicates that the combined likelihood (very likely and likely) of burglary was considered exceptionally high in Tanzania (82.9 percent), Uganda (1992) (73.7 percent), South Africa (2000) (66.8 percent), Lesotho (66.1 percent), and Swaziland (66.1 percent). Only respondents in Nigeria (54 percent) and Uganda (2000) (45 percent) believed that they were not likely to be burglarized in the near future.

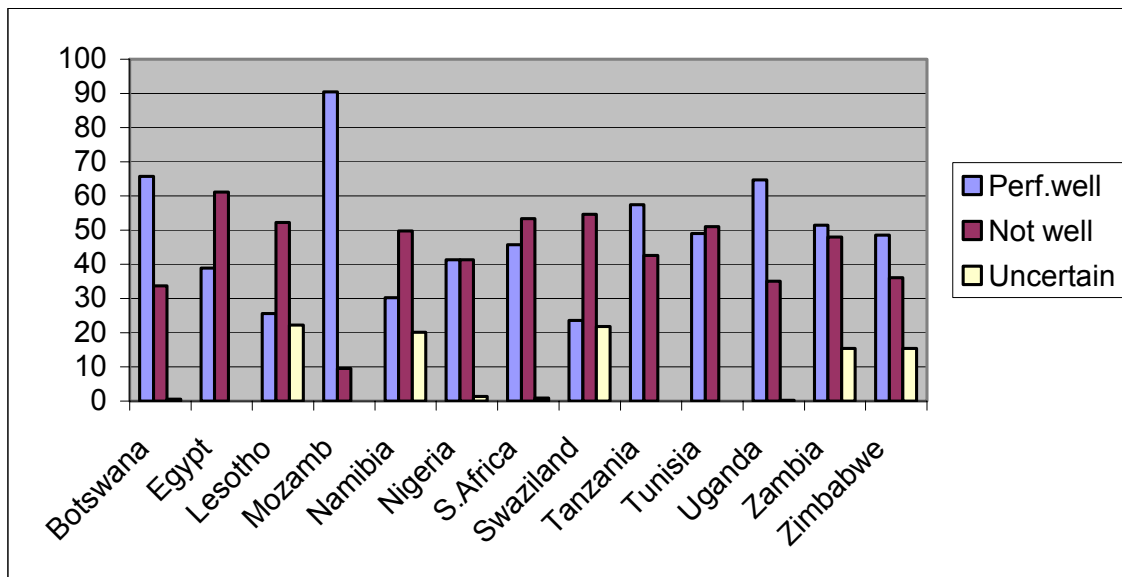
**Figure 4.5: Likelihood of becoming a victim of burglary**



Respondents' general attitudes towards their local police were also evaluated *vide* Table 58 (see Annexure) and Figure 4.6.

**Figure 4.6: Perceptions of local police performance**





Respondents in Botswana (2000) (65.7 percent), Mozambique (90.5 percent), and Uganda (2000) (64.7 percent) have high levels of appreciation for the performance of their local police (see Annexure, Table 58 and Figure 4.6). Respondents in Egypt (61.1 percent), Lesotho (52.2 percent), Namibia (50 percent), South Africa (68.3 percent in 1993, 52.7 percent in 1996, and 53.4 percent in 2000), Swaziland (54.6 percent), Tunisia (51 percent), and Uganda (1992) (51 percent) were critical of the performance of their local police. Furthermore, Table 58 (see Annexure) indicates that perceptions of the Ugandan police improved significantly since 1992 and 1997. In South Africa, negative perceptions of the police decreased by approximately 15 percentage points during 1992 to 2000. Uncertainty about South African police performance declined during 1996 to 2000, while positive perceptions increased from 27.1 percent in 1996 to 45.7 percent in 2000.

## 4.6 Conclusion

In this chapter the behaviour and attitudes of respondents regarding the perceived seriousness of victimization, the reporting of criminal victimization, as well as the reasons that motivated victims to report to the police were highlighted. In addition, there is now some longitudinal data from various countries available to monitor the reporting of crime and identify specific trends within their domestic contexts and social dynamics.

Incidents of car theft were generally considered to be very serious and the overall majority of incidents were reported to the police, suggesting a general relationship between incidents of car theft and reporting to the police. Reporting car theft to the police is often required by insurance companies. Paradoxically, car hijacking, during which personal trauma is anticipated, was considered less serious than car theft. Hijacking was described as very serious by almost two-thirds of the respondents. However, few hijackings were reported to the police.

There are similarities between the reporting behaviour of victims of motorcycles theft and car hijacking. Approximately 65 percent of the victims described both categories as very serious. However, more victims reported motorcycle theft to the police than victims of car hijacking. The trauma and fear of retaliation associated with violent hijackings may persuade victims to not involve the police. Distress and the potential for violence may also explain why two-thirds of robberies and the large majority of sexual crimes are not reported to the police. Finally, it was found that robbery was reported twice as often as sexual offences. Sexual crimes not only involve the potential for violence, they often involve someone known to the victim.

Furthermore, car theft, car hijacking, theft of motorcycle, burglary, robbery, and sexual offences were considered as exceptionally serious by some of the respondents. The least serious offences were theft from cars, vandalism to cars, and theft of bicycles. Nevertheless, 42 percent of the respondents consider bicycle theft to be very serious. Even relatively minor crimes are viewed as serious within the social, cultural, and economic context of Africa.

Victims of car hijacking, theft from cars, burglary, and robbery reported the crime to the police in order to recover stolen property and exact retribution. Victims of sexual offences and assault reported the incident to the police because of the severity of the event, retribution, and the prevention of repeat victimization.

A substantial number of respondents were not satisfied with the actions taken by the police. Dissatisfaction with the police is related to victims' expectations. For instance, dissatisfied victims felt that the police did not do enough to solve the crime, apprehend the offender or recover their property. Victims who did not report to the police stated that the police could not assist them. They also felt that the police would not respond or that the crime was not serious. Interestingly, a number of respondents stated that they or their families "solved" crimes themselves. This suggests that alternative structures are required to resolve social conflict, such as restorative justice processes.

Support services are generally deemed inadequate and often virtually non-existent. Victims are left vulnerable and prone to multiple victimizations. This study illustrates the dismal extent to which victim support services exist and are utilized by victims. The majority of respondents believe that support for victims would be useful. Unfortunately, among the few who actually received support, many found it not to be useful. Poor training may be a factor.

In general, respondents are concerned about their safety and anticipate being victimized. It is not surprising that respondents are critical of the performance of their local police.

# CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF SELECTED CRIME RISK FACTORS AND CRIME TRENDS

Beaty Naudé

## 5.1 Introduction

The International Crime Victim Surveys are a direct result of the growing concern with victims of crime at international level emanating from the UN Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power (1985) which, *inter alia*, recommended collaborative research at international and regional levels as a means of dealing more effectively with victims of crime, reducing victimization, and sharing information to promote appropriate strategies for change. According to Alvazzi Del Frate (2002:157) researchers, policy makers, and the international community use the ICVS data extensively for international comparisons and to analyze crime rates and trends over time. Most countries use victimization survey results to identify groups and areas at risk and for the development of appropriate criminal justice policies and programs to deal more effectively with crime and victimization (p.58). The information can also be used to improve police performance and relations with the community and to improve the reporting rate of crime. The ICVS data can furthermore play an important role to explain some universal crime risk factors as they occur in a particular region. Placing crime in context can form the basis for effective crime reduction policies.

This discussion will focus on the overall crime risks in Africa, selective risk factors contributing to crime and some selective crime trends in South Africa, Botswana, and Uganda—the only countries that have participated more than once in the ICVS. We will also discuss factors that influence the risk of crime in industrialized countries.

## 5.2 The importance of determining crime risk factors to deal effectively with crime and victimization

Criminal behavior is complex with multiple factors interacting at any given time. An integrated multidimensional approach is therefore advocated to explain and attempt to reduce crime. Since the inception of the postmodern era, criminologists accept that although knowledge has distinctive international dimensions, in the field of criminology each country (and region) has its own unique social problems, political traditions, and history which largely determine how their crime rates are explained and dealt with (White and Haines 1996:2). There is a move away from the term theory to criminological perspectives or approaches (Schmallegger 1996:482). Also, the term “risk factor” is now preferred over the use of “cause,” particularly by the medical and public health fraternities (Farrington 2000:2). From a scientific point of view, “cause” means that if factor A (poverty) causes factor B (crime) then all poor people are criminals, which is not true. Risk factors predict a probability of offending (p.3) and the modern consensus is that multiple identifiable risk factors contribute to criminal behavior—as it does in the case of medical problems. On the basis of identifiable risk factors, strategies can then be developed to reduce crime—another term that is fast replacing the word prevention (see, for example, Picca 2002:7-10). Risk-focused crime reduction programs are tailored to the needs of a particular community, or region for that matter (Farrington 2000:5). According to Farrington (p.7), the risk factor paradigm has brought enormous benefits to criminology since the 1990s as it fosters linkages between crime explanation and crime reduction programs based on empirically established risk factors. Such research findings can also be used to develop theoretical perspectives to explain crime risk factors whereas in the past the tendency was to develop theories which were then subjected to research to determine the validity of the theory. Many traditional crime theories are described as textbook theories which cannot be subjected to scientific verification. As Farrington (p.7) states, the risk factor paradigm is research-based, easily understandable and

attractive to policy makers and practitioners. It is important to emphasize that modern criminology advocates a multidimensional approach which is cost-effective, in social and monetary terms, while there should also be a focus on the individual and social risk factors that contribute to crime. It is also important to note that Welsh, Farrington, Sherman, and MacKenzie (2000:13) stress that crime reduction strategies should be evaluated by their consequences and not intentions as some crime reduction strategies may be harmful to the individual and to society.

This approach is also referred to as the new era of Enlightenment. It is largely focused on criminology becoming more experimental in method rather than being primarily analytical, as was mostly the case in the past few decades. Sherman (2005:118) points out that (and so does the medical profession) criminology must move from theory-based and analytical approaches to more evidence-based alternatives; and he predicts that the outcome of this new era will be that criminology will increasingly resemble the science of medicine. He further argues that the large number of experimental and evidence-based research projects conducted since the late 1990s indicate that many approaches that deal with crime and victimization are not effective or even safe (p.125), and he strongly supports Fonagy et al.'s (2002) view that the increasing differentiation of program outcomes by offender profiles may in the long term probably provide better evidence for achieving more effective crime reduction programs. It is important to note that this new era of Enlightenment is already in practice in countries such as the United States, England, Australia, and parts of Europe where criminologists play an important role in the implementation and evaluation of criminal justice policies and programs.

These are important factors in the light of the concern expressed by Garland and Sparks (2000:192) about the disturbing gap between criminology and criminal policy. One of the reasons may be the preoccupation in academic criminology with what O'Donnell and O'Sullivan (2003:56) refer to as skewed and biased Anglo-American theorizing about crime, victimization, and criminal justice. Such theorizing is not always directly applicable to other countries or groups. It is estimated that about 75 percent of social crime theories/approaches emanates from the USA and most of them are not applicable to other countries. Africa is a case in point. Bosworth (1999:452ff) is particularly critical about the plethora of country specific crime theories that have little practical relevance. She further points out that criminology is a unique discipline which focuses on a very specific social problem. She also advocates that there should be a greater focus on critical issues such as inequality, gender bias, abuse of power, and racial (and ethnic) discrimination as risk factors contributing to crime.

The challenge is to search for universal factors contributing to crime as they manifest in different contexts and cross-national research studies, such as the ICVS. Where cross-national differences are discovered, the challenge is to identify the possible link between social, cultural, economical, political, and criminal justice processes pertaining to the area or region that may explain these differences (Farrington 2000:5).

Although the African countries surveyed display enormous diversity in terms of population composition, political systems, and levels of social and economic development, there are also many common characteristics such as underdevelopment, social and economic inequality, political instability and conflict, and a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS. (See Annexure, Table 59, Development Indicators).

## **5.3 Selective crime risk factors in Africa**

### **5.3.1 *Destabilization due to internal and external conflict***

According to Hugon (2000:46-47) there were more than 60 conflicts in Africa since 1989 resulting in 17 million refugees and the deaths of thousands of people. In eleven countries involved in conflicts during the 1990s, between 3.8 and 6.8 million people died. In 2002, fourteen African countries were involved in war representing 20 percent of the population on the African continent. Ten million people were displaced. Hugon (p.48) indicates various reasons for these conflicts such as competition for land, diamonds, oil, and ethnic or political conflicts.

The continent has been characterized by political instability, racial, ethnic and religious conflicts, civil wars, and liberation struggles for decades. In the southern African region, for example, Namibia gained a peaceful independence settlement in 1990, Mozambique's peace process started in 1992, while South Africa negotiated a peaceful transition to democracy in 1994. Although transitions occurred in Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Zambia, the processes are threatened by violent conflict. In many of the surveyed countries political instability and/or social unrest is ongoing or has been experienced on a national or regional level since the mid-1990s, for example, in Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. With the exception of Botswana, democracy is fragile or has only recently been achieved in the countries surveyed and many countries are characterized by autocracy, oppression of opposition political groups and political and human rights abuses. Uganda, Tunisia, Egypt, and Swaziland are not democracies in terms of western criteria.

Wars, political conflict and intolerance, political transition, abuse of state power, and liberation struggles have contributed to a culture of violence in Africa with little respect for human and property rights. People were brutalized and socialized to find violence acceptable and human life cheap. Many children and young men were drawn into civil wars and liberation struggles (often by compulsory military service or being forced to participate in the liberation struggles). The socioeconomic impact of armed conflicts and the psycho-social impact on children are particularly devastating. They are severely traumatized, dehumanized, and brutalized, separated from their families, become displaced and unable to reintegrate into society, and are denied normal socialization processes, proper education, and career training. They become alienated and marginalized from society and often regard violence as a normal solution to problems. Countries are destabilized and the state budget is channeled to deal with the armed conflict stunting social and economic development (Mausse 1999:6-9).

According to Zvekic (1998:44ff) countries undergoing large-scale socioeconomic and political transition experience an increase in crime. This is evident in the ICVS findings in post-communist countries as well as countries in South America and Africa.

### 5.3.2. *Low human and economic development*

Twenty-nine of the least developed countries (LDC) are in Africa, according to the United Nation's 2001 classification of LDC, which is based on factors such as income, life expectancy, education, the labour force, and the share of manufacturing in the GDP of a country. Based on the UN ranking of 175 countries, most of the African countries that participated in the ICVS were ranked fairly low, while their overall crime rates are high:

**Table 5.1 – Overall crime rate of LDC African countries participating in the ICVS**

LDC	UN ranking	Overall crime rate % (based on 12 crimes)
Mozambique	170	58.0
Zambia	163	46.0
Tanzania	160	63.0
Nigeria	152	42.0
Uganda	147	47.0
Zimbabwe	145	63.0
Lesotho	137	34.0
Swaziland	133	63.0
Botswana	125	34.0
Namibia	124	48.0
Egypt	120	36.0
South Africa	111	48.0
Tunisia	91	54.0

Mozambique, Zambia, Tanzania, and Nigeria are the least developed of the countries surveyed while Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique recorded the highest overall crime rates, based on the twelve crimes measured by the ICVS (see Annexure, Tables 59 and 60).

According to a discussion document of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), Africa accounts for only one percent of global gross domestic product and its savings rate of 15 percent is the lowest in the world.

Primary school is completed by only one in three children in Africa. Among the 115 million children without primary schooling in developing regions, 59 percent are located in sub-Saharan Africa. Girls comprise three-fifths of the 115 million children who do not receive primary education. Two-thirds of the world's 876 million illiterate adults are women (see UNDP Human Development Report 2003). The ICVS found that the risk of crimes against the person is higher in countries where the average level of education is low (Van Dijk 1998:119).

Females in the region are severely disadvantaged in terms of education, income, and social development. They are often discriminated against as a result of prevailing traditions and customs that make them vulnerable to crimes of violence, especially assault and sexual and domestic violence. For example, traditional leaders in Botswana regard adultery as an offence when committed by a female. In Lesotho and Swaziland, a married woman is considered as a minor with regards to the ownership of property. In Mozambique, a married woman's property becomes part of her husband's property (Shisana 2004:5). The African tradition of "lobola" (the payment of a bridal dowry) also contributes to the abuse of women as they are regarded as property. African women are also expected to be subservient to their husbands and according to African custom, men may physically chastise their spouses. Polygamy is allowed which often results in conflict and assault between the various spouses. Women also do not inherit from their husband's estates. In a patriarchal lineage, it is customary that the widow becomes the wife of her deceased husband's brother who then takes responsibility for the family. She may also not always be welcomed by the other wives, which further contributes to abuse (see also Hammond-Tooke 1974). In 2004, the chairperson of the African Union, Nigerian President Obasanjo voiced his concern about female genital mutilation, forced marriages, and discriminatory traditional practices in Africa. Only 29 of the 54 African Union member states signed the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa. In 2005, 20 African countries received red cards for failing to sign the charter, amongst them Angola, Botswana, Malawi, and Zambia. To date only seven countries have signed the charter, which needs 15 signatures for it to come into effect.

According to the World Health Organization, an estimated 47 percent of Africa's population does not have access to adequate sanitation facilities; over 40 percent lack safe drinking water and 40 percent of adults are illiterate. About 63 percent of children who should go to primary school are enrolled, while secondary school enrolment is 21 percent.

Fifty nations are economically worse off than ten years ago, half of them in Africa. Foreign aid declined while debt increased. This combination is detrimental to human and economic development (see also Annexure, Table 59, Development indicators).

Based on this research sample, the percentage of people living on fewer than \$2 a day (1990-2001) is as presented in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2 - Percentage of people living on fewer than \$2 a day (1990-2001)**

Country	Percentage of people living on fewer than \$2 a day
Botswana	23.5
Egypt	43.9
Lesotho	43.1
Mozambique	37.9
Namibia	34.9
Nigeria	90.8
South Africa	<2
Swaziland	n/a
Tanzania	59.7
Uganda	96.4
Zambia	63.7
Zimbabwe	36.0

Source: (<http://undp.org/hdr2003>)

According to Alvazzi Del Frate (1998:134), correlations with the Human Development Index (HDI) and the ICVS show that victimization rates for theft, burglary, and to some extent assault, are lower in developed countries than in developing nations. It was found that developed countries have lower victimization rates in the case of theft ( $r=-0.252$ ) and burglary ( $r=-0.190$ ) than in developing nations, while the correlation with assault was very low ( $r=-0.021$ ). This seems to support the hypothesis that crime affects citizens in developing countries more than in developed countries, while they have a lower capacity to minimize the effects of victimization by means of insurance, replacement, and victim support. They are also less able to protect their property against crime by means of physical security measures due to financial strain. For example, Van Kesteren et al. (2000:98) ascribe the decrease in property crime in industrialized countries to an increase in household security since 1992 as evidenced by the ICVS findings.

There is, however, no clear conclusion as regards the effects of socioeconomic growth on crime. The traditional belief is that a more equal distribution of economic wealth and technological development will reduce crime and social conflict while others postulate that socioeconomic growth and modernization would increase overall crime rates. Studies based on a comparison of official crime rates with human development data indicate that developed countries generally have higher theft rates and lower homicide rates than developing countries (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:135-136). On the other hand, victim surveys show that property crime is more frequent in developing countries than in the rest of the world. It is known that the official reporting rate of crime is much lower in developing countries. Alvazzi Del Frate (1998) is of the opinion that the correlation between official rates of theft and HDI points to a correlation with development and the efficiency of the police in recording crime. Thus, “the higher the rate of development the more frequently property crime is recorded in official statistics, while there is no strict relationship between homicide rates and development” (p.138). Property crimes may also be more readily reported in developed countries for insurance purposes. Another factor may be that citizens in developed countries have more faith in the police. According to the ICVS data, the average reporting rate for six crimes was 50 percent in industrialized countries (Van Kesteren et al. 2000:63) compared to about 40 percent in developing countries (Del Frate 1998:89).

### **5.3.3 Heterogeneity of African populations**

As a result of colonialization and the artificial borders created during the colonial period, most African countries are multi-ethnic and multi-racial. This frequently results in racial, ethnic and religious tensions, discrimination, intolerance, and disrespect as these divergent groups often do not respect each other's cultures, norms, values, and habits. Of the surveyed countries only the populations of Botswana, Egypt,

Tunisia, and Swaziland are mostly homogeneous. These factors can compromise democracy and contribute to political conflict due to a tendency to vote along ethnic or racial lines. Often it is minority groups that are ignored in the political process.

The ICVS surveys also found that heterogeneous multicultural countries such as Australia, England, New Zealand, and the United States have higher overall victimization rates than homogeneous countries (see Annexure, Table 61).

According to Braithwaite (1989:44ff) there is credible, global empirical evidence of higher crime and victimization rates among racial minorities than among majority groups (see also Phillips and Bowling 2003:268ff). In industrialized countries, black people have disproportionately been the victims of excessive physical violence by the police, prison and immigration officers. Asians have lower rates of imprisonment than whites and blacks. These findings lead Phillips and Bowling (2003:270) to plead for a more multidimensional approach to understanding and explaining minorities' experiences of crime, victimization, and criminal justice. This is particularly important in the light of the freer movement of people as part of the globalization effect and the tendency of homophobia relating to immigrants.

#### *5.3.4 Population structure*

It is extensively documented in criminological and victimological research that crime and victimization are linked to age. The British Crime Survey, for example, consistently shows that people aged 16 to 24 have the highest rates of personal and property victimization. Young males are the most at risk of experiencing violent victimization. Women in this age category are also at high risk (Fisher and Wilkes 2003:527ff; see also Woodward and Fergusson 2000:233). These findings are also confirmed in US victim surveys and in Africa. Masuku (2002:9) points out that violent crime in South Africa increases sharply for those around the age of 15 and remains high until the mid-30s. Males between the ages of 15 to 25 are more likely to be the victims and perpetrators of violent crimes. Developing countries have a large number of young people which contributes to higher crime. According to the United Nations Population Fund (1999), 40 percent of the world's six billion people are under the age of 15 while one billion are between the ages of 15 and 24. Most of these people are poor and live in developing countries (Prinsloo and Naudé 2000:16). In most African countries over 50 percent of the population are children under the age of 18 and 70 percent are under the age of 35. Many people under the age of 35 have been integrated into the armed forces or liberation and political struggles (Focus on Small Arms in Africa 2002:3). Many young children are kidnapped or forced to participate in armed conflicts. It is estimated that more than 300,000 children serve as soldiers in Africa (Stohl 2002:17).

In this regard, Van Kesteren et al. (2000:98) point out that the general aging of populations in Western Europe and North America and the drop in the number of young men in the most crime-prone age groups do contribute to lower crime and victimization rates in these regions.

Young people are more daring and often seek immediate satisfaction of their needs. They are physically strong and also more mobile and, therefore, more exposed to opportunities for committing crime. According to Woodward and Fergusson (2000:233), young people between the ages of 12 to 19 are twice as likely to become victims or perpetrators of violent crime.

#### *5.3.5 High levels of firearms in circulation*

Armed conflicts in Africa have wreaked destruction on civilian populations, destroyed infrastructure and distorted economies. Countries involved in wars and internal conflicts, such as political, ethnic and religious conflicts, or those involved in liberation struggles or countries bordering such countries have high rates of violence. The liberation struggles in Angola, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Mozambique, and Uganda contributed to a large inflow of illegal firearms, making the whole of sub-Saharan Africa very vulnerable. It is estimated that there were six million AK-47s in circulation in Mozambique alone at the end of the civil war in 1995, and in South Africa estimates of illegal weapons in circulation range from 400,000 to eight million (See Gamba & Chachiu 1999; Gamba 1999<sup>a</sup>). In 2002, a total of 3,654,434 firearms were registered to South African individuals and 81,242 in the names of



institutions—one firearm for every eleven people in the country (Minnaar and Mistry 2003:32). High levels of gun possession are strongly related to high levels of violent crimes. According to Van Dijk (1998:118), victimization surveys show that guns are significantly related to robberies and sexual incidents. In the United States, Sherman (2000; see [www.preventingcrime.org](http://www.preventingcrime.org)) found that restrictions on gun ownership resulted in lower rates of violence. Killias (1993:289ff) also found that there is a correlation between national homicide rates and gun ownership based on his analyses of the ICVS data. The analyses further show that high levels of gun ownership are strongly related to violence in countries such as the United States, the former Yugoslavia, South Africa, and several Latin American countries.

### 5.3.6 Urbanization rates

High rates of urbanization coupled with state inability to provide the necessary infrastructure such as houses, schools, hospitals, nursery schools, and after-school care facilities, increase all levels of crime. Large informal settlements around major cities in developing countries are also particularly detrimental to effective policing and crime control.

According to UN estimates, the urban population is estimated to increase to 65 percent of the world’s total population by 2025, mostly in the developing world. More than half of the thirty cities with populations exceeding five million are in developing countries (Picca 2002:8). In southern Africa, the urbanization rate is almost seven times higher than the average of industrialized countries (Ligthelm 1997:43).

In most countries the majority of crimes take place in urban areas (Picca 2002:8) According to Fourie and Schönsteich (2001:39), population density in urban areas is thought to be associated with crime as greater concentrations of people lead to competition for limited resources, greater stress, and increased conflict. Van Dijk (1998:117) also notes, based on findings from the ICVS, that urbanization was the strongest factor explaining crime risks across different countries with regard to serious crime and that lower levels of social control probably play a role in this regard.

### 5.3.7 The prevalence of HIV/AIDS

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates the economic value of lost life years due to AIDS in 1999 at 12 percent of the gross national product of sub-Saharan Africa. The governments of 29 African countries spend less than \$10 per person on health annually (latest available data). This is disastrous for a continent that is suffering from low GDP rates. It will set back social and economic development.

Adult HIV-infection rates are very high in Africa, especially in southern Africa. UN findings show that the number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS in 2001 were as presented in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3 Number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS in 2001**

Country	Number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS in 2001
Botswana	330,000
Lesotho	360,000
Mozambique	1,100,000
Namibia	230,000
South Africa	5,000,000
Swaziland	170,000
Zambia	1,200,000

Source: <http://undp.org/hdr2003>

At the end of 2000, 36 million people were living with HIV/AIDS of which 25 million or 70 percent were living in sub-Saharan Africa. More than 80 percent of the 3 million global AIDS deaths occurred in this region during 2000 (Fourie and Schönsteich 2001:31).

In January 2002, the UN Secretary-General said, “The impact of AIDS in Africa was no less destructive than that of warfare itself. By overwhelming the continent’s health and social services, by creating millions of orphans, and by decimating health workers and teachers, AIDS is causing social and economic crises which in turn threaten political stability—In already unstable societies, this cocktail of disasters is a sure recipe for more conflict. And conflict, in turn, provides fertile grounds for further infections” (Fourie and Schönsteich 2001:30).

According to the Jaipur Paradigm (Fourie and Schönsteich 2001:31), vulnerability and susceptibility to HIV/AIDS are influenced by the level and distribution of wealth and income and the degree of social cohesion. HIV/AIDS has a detrimental impact on the production and consumption levels of countries affected. This in turn has implications on foreign investors’ willingness to make long-term investments in sub-Saharan Africa. The skills base will be affected and training will become more expensive as workers die at a young age without the economy having had the benefit of their skills and labor. It also affects the quality of life of individuals and families and causes high rates of absenteeism from work. In 2000, 90 percent of the 11 million orphans as a result of HIV/AIDS were from sub-Saharan Africa. Orphaned children grow up without adequate parenting and support and they are at greater risk of developing anti-social behavior. It is not unusual to find children as heads of households where parents have died of HIV/AIDS. A national study in South Africa found that between one and two percent of young people aged between 12 and 18 indicated that they were the head of their household (Richter 2004:18). These children are emotionally traumatized and forego the benefit of socialization, education, and training—all crime risk factors. They often become street children and are also more vulnerable to physical and sexual abuse.

HIV/AIDS effects economic, food, health, environmental, and political security (Pharoah and Schönsteich 2004:1). According to the UN, conditions of violence and instability, which are prevalent in many African countries, further increase the risk of exposure to the disease as a result of the large movement of people (Bazergan 2004:1).

### *5.3.8 Economic distress, deprivation, and inequality*

High levels of crime are more prevalent in countries where there are large proportions of people who feel economically deprived. Economic distress is the result of low education levels, inadequate job creation by government and business, and high income disparities. This can contribute to young people being poorly equipped for the labour market resulting in unemployment and economic distress. It should be pointed out that a businessperson with a cash flow problem may also experience economic distress. It is not poverty per se that contributes to crime but how people experience their financial situation in their social environment. The majority of poor people do not commit crime, but those who feel deprived will often resort to crime.

Although unemployment rates are very high in Africa (40+ percent), and as much as 60 to 80 percent among school leavers, the relationship between unemployment and crime is not clear as there are a host of intervening factors. In South Africa (Schönsteich 2002:2), most crimes have more or less stabilized since 1996 despite rising poverty and unemployment levels. In Africa, rural areas are the poorest, yet the highest crime rates are in the cities, once again indicating that other factors associated with economic and social distress contribute to crime. It should also be noted that globally only about 12-15 percent of all crimes are committed by females although they are the poorest of the poor, especially in Africa (Naudé 1997a:26).

Countries with high income disparities seem to have high crime rates, especially when these differences occur across racial or ethnic lines. America, Australia, and Africa are examples.

Economic distress contributes to violent crime as economically deprived males are inclined to vent their stress and frustration. Often women and children become the targets of aggression. Deprivation also

contributes to violent crimes such as robbery, serious assault, and car hijacking. Van Dijk's (1998:117) analysis of the ICVS data indicates that young males in developing countries and countries in transition who were dissatisfied with their household income felt economically deprived—a factor which is strongly related to a high level of serious crime ( $r=.52$ ). He further found that the inverse relationship between affluence and serious crime was weakened by an intervening factor, namely outgoing lifestyle. In more affluent countries people go out more often in the evening for recreational purposes. Multivariate analyses indicate that this factor is positively related to high crime risks.

### *5.3.9 Inadequate functioning of the criminal justice system*

Due to the enormous need for social and human development, most African countries cannot provide enough funds for the adequate functioning of the criminal justice system. The police are severely under-resourced in terms of infrastructure such as vehicles and available technology. They are also poorly trained and paid, making them vulnerable to bribery and corruption. The ICVS in Africa found that most experiences of corruption involved a police officer. Bribery and corruption rates in Africa are exceptionally high—about eight times higher than in industrialized countries (Van Kesteren et al. 2000:184).

Many cases do not reach the prosecution stage because of poor investigation techniques. On average, only 41 percent of African citizens who participated in the ICVS were of the opinion that the police were doing a good job controlling crime in their area (Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:109). In industrialized countries, 66 percent of participants felt the police are doing a good job (Van Kesteren et al. 2000:74). Negative perceptions of the police can result in the public refusing to cooperate with the police. In a climate of distrust, people are more likely to resort to vigilantism and kangaroo courts. In order to improve police-community relations, the police need to give greater consideration to the traditional spirit of “Ubuntu” (to assist and help fellow human beings).

According to Van Kesteren et al. (2000:103) the greatest disparity between industrialized and developing countries concerns the reporting of property crime, which the authors partly ascribe to a lack of insurance in developing countries. They further maintain that police figures on crime rates in developing countries “seriously underestimate real levels of crime” (p.103).

Many prosecutors in Africa are furthermore inexperienced and poorly trained and many leave the public sector for more lucrative positions in the private sector. Large numbers of cases are poorly prepared not only by the police but also by prosecutors resulting in repeated postponements and low conviction rates. This results in a loss of faith in the criminal justice system by the general public. In South Africa, for example, conviction rates were as follows in 1998 (Schönteich 1999:1-3): murder 15.7 percent, serious assault 12.6 percent, rape 8.9 percent, residential housebreaking 8.9 percent, aggravated robbery 2.6 percent, car theft 2.3 percent, and car hijacking 1.9 percent. In 1998, only 46 percent of murder cases, 44.9 percent of rape cases, 38.2 percent of serious assault, 13.2 percent of residential housebreaking, 7.7 percent of car theft, and 7.5 percent of car hijacking cases were sent by the police to the prosecutor for a decision to prosecute.

Another problem is inadequate and outdated legislation to combat crimes such as organized crime, money laundering, and corruption. This makes Africa vulnerable to international crime syndicates dealing in drugs, arms smuggling, and other illegal goods. On the other hand, proper legislation is meaningless if the criminal justice system is poorly equipped and trained to deal with these crimes. Due to these factors, the globalization of crime makes African countries very vulnerable.

Furthermore, colonization repressed the customary laws of the indigenous people and many Africans still regard the Western criminal justice system with suspicion and distrust. The English criminal justice model is dominant in the region. Ten of the surveyed countries were colonized by Britain. Mozambique was a Portuguese colony, Namibia and Tanzania were under German rule but became British mandates after World War I. Namibia was under German rule until World War I when it was mandated to South Africa by the UN until 1946. Namibia was illegally occupied by South Africa from 1946 to 1990. In 1990,

Namibia gained independence. South Africa and Namibia also have Roman-Dutch law as a basis, since the Dutch were the first white settlers in South Africa. This is also the case in Zimbabwe.

#### *5.3.10 Poor human and victim rights culture*

Most African countries have a poor human rights record and numerous incidents of human rights violations occur regularly according to Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch reports. A poor human rights culture can result in police and state brutality. Victim rights and support services are inadequate and often virtually non-existent making victims vulnerable to repeated victimization. There are also no state compensation funds for victims of crime and many are victimized and traumatized a second time when they testify in court. Restitution seldom forms part of the sentencing process. Historically, African societies mostly focused on the victims of crime and restitution and reconciliation was considered crucial to restore the harm caused by crime. However, customary law was repressed as a result of colonization and replaced with a western legal system (Nsereko 1992:21). There is evidence that serious crimes have decreased in countries such as Canada and the US where the rights and needs of victims have received high priority since the late 1980s (Prinsloo and Naudé 2000:17).

#### *5.3.11 Absence of national and regional strategies to reduce crime*

Apart from South Africa and Botswana no other country in Africa has developed a comprehensive strategy to deal effectively with crime and victimization. Even the South African National Crime Prevention Strategy is not comprehensive and has many deficiencies apart from not being implemented properly (Naudé 2000:1ff). The ICVS data can play an important role in the development of appropriate and cost-effective regional and country crime reduction strategies if knowledge and resources are pooled.

#### *5.3.12 Victimization risk and repeat victimization risk*

Van Dijk's (1998:122) study of the ICVS data indicates that certain regions and groups are more at risk of becoming repeat victims of crime, particularly people residing in large cities, young persons, and people with an outgoing lifestyle. In Latin America, 53.9 percent of victims are multiple victims in the course of a year while the figure is 44 percent for victims in Africa. Asia (30.9 percent) and Western Europe (37.3 percent) have the lowest repeat victimization rates. Overall, 41.5 percent of victims are victimized more than once in the course of a year. It was further found that repeat victimization is very common for different types of crimes in all the countries that participated in the ICVS. It is highest for minor car-related crimes and for sexual and violent offences. Repeat victimization can also result from abusive relationships where the offender builds up frustration and regularly acts out pent up anger on the victim. In the case of violent and property-related offences the offender who successfully committed an offence against a particular person may decide to target the same individual again (also known as post-victimization vulnerability). Repeat victimization may also be the result of structural vulnerabilities in certain population groups (Van Dijk 1998:125).

Masuku (2002:9) argues that there is a link between social deprivation, race, and victimization risk. The ICVS data shows that the poor in South Africa, the majority of whom are black and living in townships, are more at risk of being repeat victims of interpersonal violence as well as violent property crimes such as robbery. Fisher and Wilkes (2003:528) also confirm that victimization risk is not evenly distributed across other demographics. Simple and aggravated assault rates are significantly higher for males than for females while robbery rates are only slightly higher for males than for females. Females again comprise the majority of rape and sexual assault victims. In the United States, blacks and Hispanics consistently experience overall higher crime rates and single individuals are more at risk than married individuals (Fisher & Wilkes 2003:528). Obtaining a profile of who is the most at risk of repeat victimization can play an important role in the reduction and prevention of crime.

#### *5.3.13 Lifestyle patterns*

The ICVS data indicates that opportunity structures such as an outgoing lifestyle are strongly related to risk of crime and victimization and that there is furthermore a significant relationship with economic

distress, education, and firearm availability. According to van Dijk (1998:119) these four factors together explain 68 percent of the variance in the country rates for crimes against the person.

The ICVS data of seventeen industrialized countries (van Kesteren et al. 2000:57) found that young people, males, unmarried persons, and those who go out frequently are particularly at risk of becoming victims of violent crime.

The national victims of crime survey in South Africa found that crimes against the person mostly occur in private homes or places of entertainment and that more than two-thirds of sexual offence and assault victims knew the perpetrators—mostly by name (Masuku 2002:10). Poor interpersonal relationships and an inability to handle conflict may play a role as well as liquor and substance abuse.

A number of studies also confirm that individuals who frequent known “hot spots” such as pubs, bars, nightclubs or who spent a lot of time partying, drinking alcohol, and taking illegal drugs are more at risk of being victimized (Fisher and Wilkes 2003:530). Woodward and Fergusson (2000:253) found several conditions that contribute to the risk of victimization including males between the ages of 12 and 19 who go out with friends, consume alcohol, hang around public places such as parks, shops or street corners, and socialize with friends at a bar or private party, and the use of alcohol by the victim. Research in the United States also found that alcohol consumption is a contributing factor in a variety of aggressive crimes such as rape, assault, and homicide (Fisher and Wilkes 2003:530). Evidence shows that alcohol intoxication is associated with violent crime and aggression. For instance, Graham and Wells (2003:547) found:

- drinkers’ cognitive abilities are affected in that they are inclined to overestimate their power coupled with an inability to deal rationally with provocation in a non-aggressive manner;
- attention deficit results in a focus on the current situation in an alcohol-induced myopia; and
- a heightened focus on personal power by some males when they are under the influence of alcohol.

Alcohol also affects aggression by increasing feelings of bravery, courage, and risk-taking behavior.

A study by the South African Medical Research Council found that 75 percent of homicides committed with the use of a sharp object involved alcohol. Substance abuse among offenders is also prevalent. A study by the South African Medical Research Council and the Institute for Security Studies found that 45 percent of those arrested tested positive for at least one drug—39 percent had been using dagga (marijuana), 19 percent mandrax, and 5 percent cocaine just before or during the crime (Naudé, Prinsloo, and Snyman 2001:28).

Distressed lifestyles are characterized by households managed by one adult, lack of affection, poor interrelationships, and generally dysfunctional families are associated with a high risk of crime (Benoit, Randolph, Dunlap, and Johnson 2003:511).

## **5.4 Comparative crime rates in Africa and in industrialized countries**

Findings from the ICVS show that crime and victimization rates in Africa are generally higher than in industrialized countries (Van Kesteren et al. 2000:103). This should not be surprising due to the many social, economic, and political differences between developed and developing countries. It is debatable whether such comparisons are feasible as it serves no particularly useful purpose except, possibly, to identify variations in crime and reporting rates in both developed and developing countries. It is important to note that the ICVS includes national survey data from industrialized countries whereas city surveys were conducted in Africa (with the exception of Mozambique which also included selected rural areas). It is furthermore a fact that crime rates are generally higher in urban areas in both developed and developing countries (Leggett, Louw, Schönreich and Sekhonyane 2003:24).

Based on the twelve crimes measured by the ICVS, the overall crime rates were as presented in Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4 Overall crime rates in 13 African countries**

Country	Overall victimization rate (%)
Swaziland	63
Tanzania	63
Zimbabwe	63
Mozambique	58
Tunisia	54
Namibia	48
South Africa	48
Uganda	47
Zambia	46
Nigeria	42
Egypt	36
Lesotho	34
Botswana	34

Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, and Tunisia recorded the highest overall crime rates while Botswana, Lesotho, and Egypt recorded the lowest overall crime rates (see Annexure, Table 60).

Of the 23 industrialized countries that participated in the ICVS, the highest overall crime rates were as follows (based on 11 crime rates):

**Table 5.5 Overall crime rates in 23 industrialised countries**

Country	Overall victimization rate (%)
Australia	30.0
New Zealand	29.4
England and Wales	26.4
The Netherlands	25.2
Sweden	24.7
Canada	24.0
Scotland	23.0
Denmark	23.0
Poland	23.0

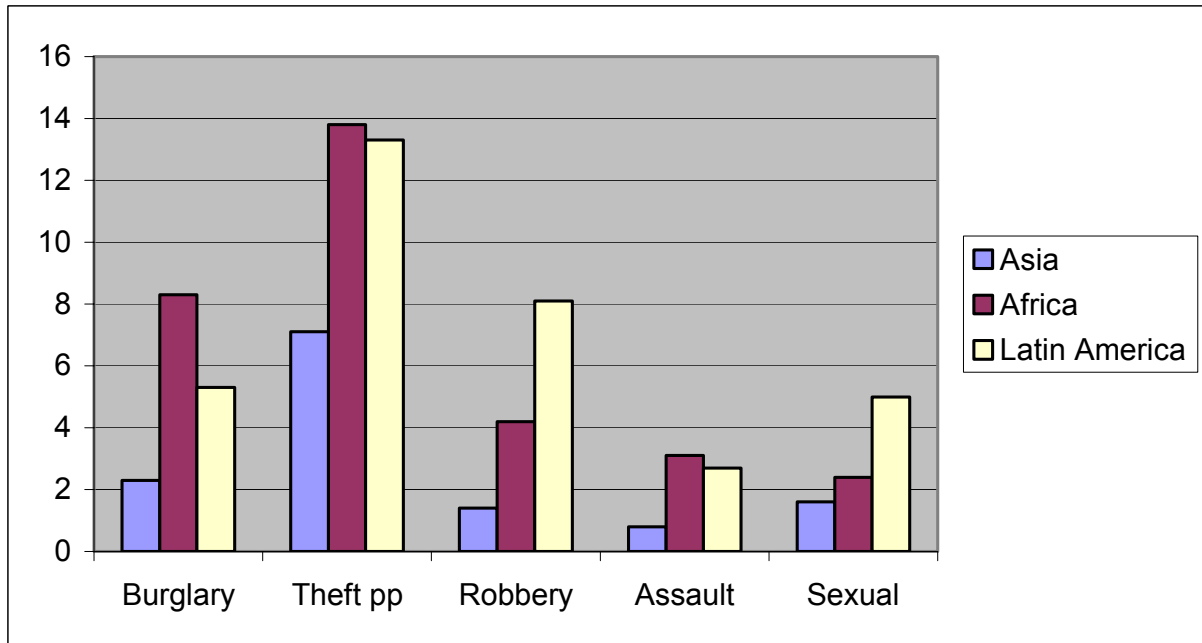
The lowest overall crime rates were experienced in Portugal, Japan, and Northern Ireland (15 percent respectively) (see Annexure, Table 61).

## **5.5 Comparative crime rates in Asia, Africa, and Latin America**

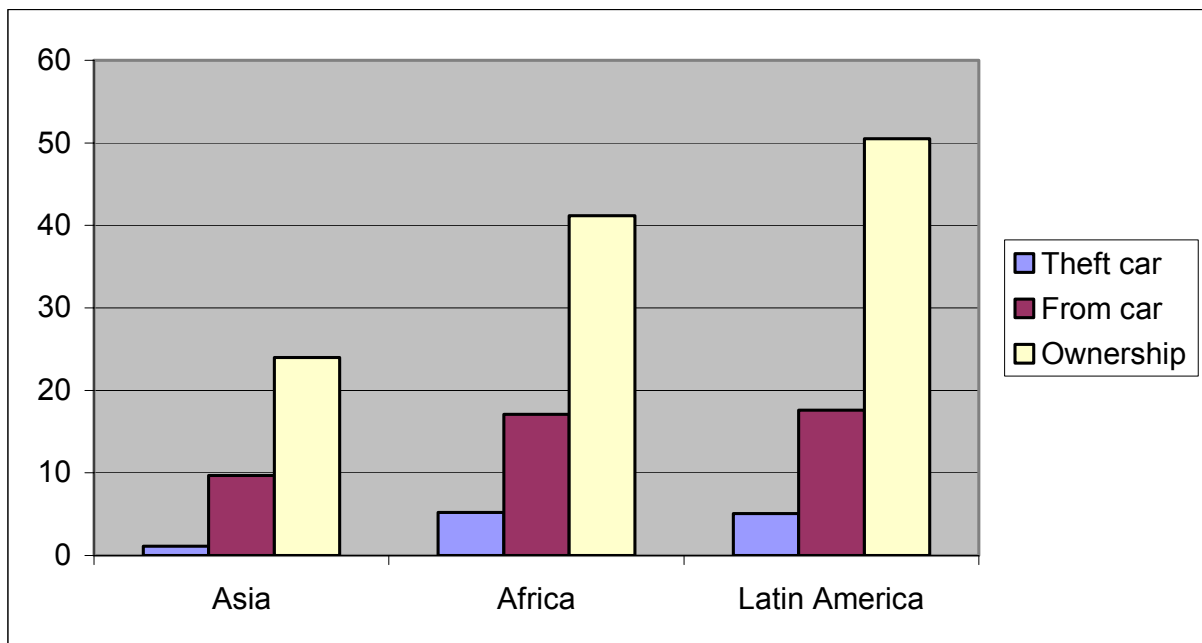
Compared to other developing countries in the ICVS database, it is clear that Africa has the highest burglary rate (8.3 percent), theft of personal property (13.8 percent), and assault with force (3.1 percent), while Latin America experienced the highest rates of robbery (8.1 percent) and sexual assault (5 percent).

Overall, Asia experienced the lowest rates for property crimes and crimes against the person and has the lowest rates of theft of cars and theft from cars, while Latin America and Africa have the highest rates as shown in Figures 5.1 and 5.2 ( Alvazzi Del Frate 1998:29, 33).

**Figure 5.1: Selected victimisation rates by region**



**Figure 5.2: Vehicle related crimes by region**



## 5.6 Selective crime trends in Africa

To date, only South Africa, Botswana, and Uganda have participated more than once in the ICVS. Most vehicle-related crimes in Botswana and Uganda have remained fairly stable with slight reductions being experienced in 2000. During 1997 to 2000, theft from a car has decreased by about 4 percent in Botswana

and car vandalism by about 3 percent in Uganda. In South Africa, car theft and motorcycle theft increased by about 5 and 4 percent respectively between 1997 and 2000.

**Table 5.6: Crime trends in South Africa, Botswana, and Uganda (based on the ICVS data)(%)**

Type of offence	South Africa		Botswana		Uganda	
	1996	2000	1997	2000	1996	2000
<b>Vehicle-related thefts by ownership</b>						
Theft from car	15.5	9.2	16.4	12.3	13.3	15.2
Theft of car	8.1	12.6	1.9	1.7	5.2	4.6
Car vandalism	8.3	6.0	5.6	3.9	9.3	5.7
Theft of motorcycle	7.0	11.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.7
Theft of bicycle	10.4	6.9	7.3	4.8	3.6	2.7
<b>Other crimes</b>						
Burglary with entry	18.1	24.8	10.6	6.8	8.6	5.9
Attempted Burglary	12.8	14.6	4.7	4.0	11.3	7.0
Robbery	4.7	5.4	2.0	1.8	2.2	4.5
Personal theft	10.4	8.6	6.7	7.6	14.8	15.4
Sexual Victimization (all)	3.6	2.8	2.3	5.0	7.0	1.6
Rape	23.5	39.7	4.9	12.2	26.9	22.9
Attempted rape	39.2	25.6	22.0	21.6	35.6	20.0
Indecent assault	11.8	12.8	4.9	13.7	18.3	17.1
Offensive behavior	23.5	16.7	68.3	50.4	17.3	20.0
Assault/threats	8.1	6.4	6.2	3.7	6.1	5.0
Consumer fraud	9.0	9.5	12.6	23.6	38.9	50.2
Corruption	6.9	2.9	2.8	0.8	21.0	34.7

As far as other crimes are concerned, Botswana's figures have remained more or less stable with the exception of consumer fraud, which reflects an increase of about 11 percent. Rape and indecent assault increased by about 8 percent between 1997 and 2000. Sexually offensive behavior decreased by about 18 percent. In general, South Africa's crime rates also remained fairly stable with some slight reductions. However, rape (16 percent) and burglary (6 percent) increased between 1997 and 2000. Sexually offensive behavior decreased by about 7 percent and corruption by about 4 percent. In Uganda, most crimes also remained fairly stable with the exception of attempted rape which decreased by about 16 percent. Consumer fraud (12 percent) and corruption (13 percent) increased during 1996 to 2000.

## 5.7 Conclusion

Comparative crime victimization studies in Africa, although limited, are important as a means of establishing an independent crime database, especially given that official crime statistics are not always readily available. Some governments are also unwilling to make crime information regularly available for public scrutiny. The ICVS data can contribute to the sharing of expertise to effectively reduce crime and



victimization. The challenge is to search for universal factors contributing to crime as it manifests in different contexts. Comparative cross-national studies such as the ICVS can make an important contribution in this regard. Cross-national differences can be used to identify possible links between social, cultural, economical, political, and criminal justice processes (Farrington 2000:5). It is therefore important to extend the ICVS in Africa to monitor crime and victimization in the region.

Based on the 12 crimes measured by the ICVS, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe (63 percent respectively), and Mozambique (58 percent) experienced the highest overall crime rates whereas the lowest overall crime rates were recorded in Botswana, Lesotho (34 percent respectively), and Egypt (36 percent). Regarding property crimes, Mozambique, Tanzania, and Uganda consistently experienced the highest number of incidents with Botswana, South Africa, and Namibia mostly recording the lowest number of incidences. Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe consistently reported the highest rates of crimes against the person whereas Lesotho and Botswana recorded the lowest rates.

It is also important to conduct surveys regularly to monitor crime trends in the region. Only South Africa, Botswana, and Uganda have participated more than once in the ICVS and the results indicate that vehicle related crimes in Botswana and Uganda have remained fairly stable with slight variations being experienced in 2000. Theft from a car has decreased about 4 percent in Botswana as has vandalism in Uganda between 1997 and 2000. Although South Africa's crime trend shows more fluctuations, car theft and motorcycle thefts have increased by about 4 percent between 1997 and 2000.

With regard to other types of crimes, Botswana's crime rate has remained fairly stable between 1997 and 2000; the exception being significant increases in consumer fraud (12 percent), rape and indecent assault (about 8 percent respectively), while sexually offensive behavior decreased significantly by about 18 percent. Crime rates in South Africa also remained fairly stable, although rape incidents (16 percent) increased significantly with slightly lower increases recorded in the case of burglary (6 percent). Sexually offensive behavior (7 percent) and corruption (4 percent) decreased during 1997 to 2000. Uganda's crime rates also remained fairly stable with the exception of attempted rape (16 percent), which decreased considerably, while fraud (12 percent) and corruption (13 percent) increased significantly.

The pooling of resources and expertise will enable Africa to explain crime and to develop appropriate programs to reduce crime and victimization effectively from an Africa perspective. The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the southern Africa Development Community (SADC) can make a meaningful contribution in this regard by encouraging member countries to participate in the ICVS and to fund their own surveys. Africa will not be able to attract sufficient foreign direct investment needed for sustainable economic development if the various criminal justice systems are viewed as ineffective. Most potential investors cite crime as a detrimental factor to investing in Africa.

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# ANNEXURE

**TABLE 1: CONSTITUTION OF RESEARCH GROUP (N=18,422)**

Country	1992	1993	1996	1997	1998	2000	2002	Total
Botswana				644		1197		1841
Egypt	1000							1000
Lesotho						1010		1010
Mozambique							993	993
Namibia						1061		1061
Nigeria					1012			1012
South Africa		998	1006			1336		3340
Swaziland						1006		1006
Tanzania	1002							1002
Tunisia	1086							1086
Uganda	1023		997			998		3018
Zambia						1047		1047
Zimbabwe			1006					1006

**TABLE 2: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUP: AGE**

Country	16-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	≥70	Unknown
Botswana	11,2	45,1	26,6	10,4	2,9	1,1	,2	2,5
Egypt	6,2	40,0	29,5	15,9	5,9	1,6	,9	0,0
Lesotho	10,0	43,8	19,7	10,0	7,6	5,1	3,6	,2
Mozambique	,1	,3	2,8	5,7	12,4	22,6	56,1	0,0
Namibia	8,3	42,3	26,5	12,7	5,9	1,8	,8	1,7
Nigeria	8,9	25,0	22,6	15,0	6,9	6,8	2,8	12,0
South Africa	7,1	32,5	25,3	16,1	7,7	5,3	4,2	1,8
Swaziland	5,2	43,6	27,3	11,0	5,9	2,6	1,3	3,1
Tanzania	2,5	24,3	37,4	24,0	9,8	1,7	,3	0,0
Tunisia	5,6	34,2	27,4	21,0	8,5	2,9	,4	0,0
Uganda	9,1	45,5	29,3	9,7	3,8	,6	1,1	,9
Zambia	12,3	42,1	24,3	12,4	3,8	1,8	,8	2,5
Zimbabwe	10,8	40,8	23,3	12,6	6,5	3,8	1,1	1,1
Total	7,8	36,7	25,5	13,3	6,3	3,9	4,6	1,9

**TABLE 3: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUP: GENDER**

Country	Male	Female	Unknown
Botswana	43,8	55,6	,6
Egypt	56,5	43,5	0,0
Lesotho	31,8	68,2	0,0
Mozambique	49,8	50,2	0,0
Namibia	44,9	52,7	2,4
Nigeria	57,4	42,6	0,0
South Africa	45,0	54,4	,6
Swaziland	46,6	52,7	,7
Tanzania	61,9	38,1	0,0
Tunisia	55,7	44,3	0,0
Uganda	48,2	51,8	0,0
Zambia	35,4	49,5	15,1
Zimbabwe	39,9	60,1	0,0
Total	47,0	51,8	1,2

**TABLE 4: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUP: EMPLOYMENT STATUS**

Country	Employed	Looking for work	Keeping home	Retired/ disabled	Attending school/college	Other/ unknown
Botswana	46,0	21,8	9,0	1,0	11,7	10,5
Egypt	67,8	4,2	5,8	1,6	19,8	,8
Lesotho	21,9	24,3	20,1	3,2	28,2	2,3
Mozambique	32,2	15,2	22,6	5,2	24,3	,5
Namibia	53,6	14,5	6,2	2,0	20,8	2,9
Nigeria	53,5	6,7	4,3	5,0	15,5	15,0
South Africa	37,3	29,1	8,9	8,6	12,9	3,2
Swaziland	49,8	14,5	10,9	2,6	17,0	5,2
Tanzania	75,4	3,1	10,9	3,3	3,3	4,0
Tunisia	56,2	6,4	15,0	2,9	15,2	4,3
Uganda	55,2	12,1	16,1	2,1	6,7	7,8
Zambia	17,4	17,1	30,4	5,3	12,4	17,4
Zimbabwe	33,5	17,1	34,2	2,9	6,8	5,5
<b>Total</b>	<b>46,2</b>	<b>15,8</b>	<b>14,1</b>	<b>3,9</b>	<b>13,7</b>	<b>6,3</b>

**TABLE 5: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUP: SATISFACTION WITH HOUSEHOLD'S INCOME**

Country	Satisfied	Fairly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Unknown
Botswana	10,7	27,5	43,9	15,9	2,0
Egypt	62,8	10,2	21,3	5,7	0,0
Lesotho	15,3	27,3	31,4	24,9	1,1
Mozambique	2,1	38,8	53,2	4,7	1,2
Namibia	25,8	32,3	29,1	8,0	4,8
Nigeria	17,6	46,7	27,9	7,6	,2
South Africa	14,5	28,0	28,7	28,3	,5
Swaziland	19,5	28,5	36,6	10,5	4,9
Tanzania	16,7	44,1	31,4	7,8	0,0
Tunisia	45,8	8,8	28,7	16,7	0,0
Uganda	10,5	33,9	45,8	9,0	0,8
Zambia	9,6	37,4	41,8	10,1	1,1
Zimbabwe	12,9	18,6	49,3	16,8	2,4
<b>Total</b>	<b>18,1</b>	<b>29,6</b>	<b>36,6</b>	<b>14,5</b>	<b>1,2</b>

**TABLE 6: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUP: HOUSING**

Country	Flat	House	Institution	Informal	Other	Unknown
Botswana	9,6	77,2	0,3	12,3	,05	,55
Egypt	91,7	8,2	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0
Lesotho	19,1	74,2	0,0	5,4	1,3	0,0
Mozambique	16,3	81,7	0,4	1,6	0,0	0,0
Namibia	4,4	93,9	0,1	1,2	0,1	0,3
Nigeria	33,7	12,8	0,2	0,7	53,2	0,0
South Africa	13,5	69,8	0,4	11,1	4,9	0,3
Swaziland	22,2	51,6	0,1	22,9	2,9	0,3
Tunisia	46,2	49,3	0,4	1,1	3,0	0,0
Uganda	10,8	74,6	0,1	13,9	0,2	0,4
Zambia	6,8	55,6	0,0	37,0	0,1	0,5
Zimbabwe	12,1	76,0	0,0	7,7	4,2	0,0
<b>Total</b>	<b>20,3</b>	<b>64,1</b>	<b>0,2</b>	<b>10,4</b>	<b>4,7</b>	<b>0,3</b>

**TABLE 7: CAR RELATED CRIMES OVER A FIVE YEAR PERIOD**

Country	Car ownership	Victimisation (%) in terms of car ownership			
		Theft of car	Hijacking	Theft from car	Vandalism
Botswana: 1997	41,8	8,9	n/a	34,9	10,0
2000	33,9	9,4	2,9	40,4	14,5
Egypt	35,5	10,9	n/a	45,9	21,4
Lesotho	26,7	16,3	4,1	36,7	7,8
Mozambique	25,4	19,4	9,1	63,1	17,5
Namibia	55,6	8,1	1,5	39,3	19,3
Nigeria	36,8	15,6	n/a	27,2	22,0
South Africa: 1993	44,0	17,9	n/a	33,3	16,3
1996	48,1	24,0	n/a	37,0	20,5
2000	44,6	23,5	13,6	27,3	16,9
Swaziland	44,5	18,5	14,5	42,2	19,2
Tanzania	50,0	13,0	n/a	43,9	26,1
Tunisia	45,2	13,8	n/a	49,9	28,9
Uganda: 1992	39,9	23,3	n/a	44,4	8,3
1996	27,1	15,2	n/a	31,1	23,7
2000	28,4	7,1	10,2	44,2	20,1
Zambia	23,8	10,4	16,1	39,8	12,0
Zimbabwe	28,1	5,7	n/a	36,7	11,7

**TABLE 8: CAR RELATED CRIMES OVER A ONE YEAR PERIOD**

Country	Car ownership	Victimisation (%) in terms of car ownership			
		Theft of car	Hijacking	Theft from car	Vandalism
Botswana: 1997	41,8	1,9	n/a	16,4	5,6
2000	33,9	1,0	0,7	12,3	3,9
Egypt	35,5	3,4	n/a	13,5	6,8
Lesotho	26,7	2,6	1,1	10,4	2,2
Mozambique	25,4	7,5	5,2	21,0	5,2
Namibia	55,6	1,9	0,2	12,2	4,7
Nigeria	36,8	2,7	n/a	8,3	7,5
South Africa: 1993	44,0	7,4	n/a	14,7	8,5
1996	48,1	8,1	n/a	15,5	8,3
2000	44,6	7,6	5,0	9,2	6,0
Swaziland	44,5	6,3	4,9	15,0	6,9
Tanzania	50,0	7,6	n/a	24,4	13,2
Tunisia	45,2	3,7	n/a	19,0	8,6
Uganda: 1992	39,9	6,6	n/a	17,6	3,9
1996	27,1	5,2	n/a	13,3	9,3
2000	28,4	1,1	3,5	15,2	5,7
Zambia	23,8	3,2	6,0	11,2	2,4
Zimbabwe	28,1	1,1	n/a	18,4	8,1

**TABLE 9: LOCALITY OF THEFT OF CAR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	0,0	56,5	0,0	21,7	4,4	17,4
2000	68,4	5,3	5,3	10,5	0,0	10,5
Egypt	0,0	68,4	0,0	31,6	0,0	0,0
Lesotho	63,6	18,2	4,5	4,5	9,2	0,0
Mozambique	26,5	22,4	44,9	2,0	0,0	4,2
Namibia	45,8	45,8	4,2	0,0	0,0	4,2
Nigeria	0,0	56,9	0,0	31,0	6,9	5,2
South Africa: 1993	0,0	56,4	0,0	41,0	2,6	0,0
1996	0,0	56,0	0,0	37,9	6,1	0,0
2000	49,3	10,0	2,9	32,1	2,1	3,6
Swaziland	42,2	27,7	22,9	1,2	3,6	2,4
Tanzania	0,0	30,5	0,0	55,9	13,6	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	76,6	0,0	15,6	7,8	0,0
Uganda: 1992	0,0	49,4	0,0	43,8	6,8	0,0
1996	0,0	46,3	0,0	22,0	31,7	0,0
2000	27,8	22,2	11,1	33,3	5,6	0,0
Zambia	50,0	19,2	0,0	23,2	3,8	3,8
Zimbabwe	0,0	31,3	0,0	68,7	0,0	0,0
Average	20,5	39,4	5,2	27,0	5,6	2,3

**TABLE 10: THEFT OF CAR: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Car recovered
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	85,0	15,0	0,0	82,6	60,9
2000	68,4	23,7	2,6	84,2	69,4
Egypt	59,0	23,1	17,9	73,0	73,0
Lesotho	84,1	6,8	9,1	86,4	43,2
Mozambique	53,1	38,8	6,1	85,7	30,6
Namibia	87,5	6,3	2,1	91,7	45,7
Nigeria	75,9	10,3	13,8	89,7	39,7
South Africa: 1993	91,0	6,3	2,6	89,6	48,7
1996	87,9	9,5	2,6	90,5	41,4
2000	84,3	10,7	1,4	90,7	35,6
Swaziland	81,9	10,8	4,8	91,6	59,3
Tanzania	100,0	0,0	0,0	88,9	64,3
Tunisia	71,2	21,2	7,7	88,9	68,3
Uganda: 1992	98,9	0,0	1,1	93,3	55,1
1996	95,1	0,0	0,0	90,2	48,8
2000	80,0	10,0	0,0	75,0	50,0
Zambia	92,3	3,8	0,0	96,2	16,0
Zimbabwe	100,0	0,0	0,0	100,0	31,3
Average	83,8	10,5	4,0	89,0	49,0

**TABLE 11: LOCALITY OF CAR HIJACKING (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 2000	25,0	0,0	0,0	25,0	25,0	25,0
Lesotho	9,1	18,2	18,2	0,0	54,5	0,0
Mozambique	17,4	21,7	52,2	4,3	0,0	4,3
Namibia	22,2	44,4	11,1	0,0	0,0	22,2
South Africa: 2000	12,3	21,0	2,5	54,3	7,4	2,5
Swaziland	33,8	26,2	24,6	10,8	4,6	0,0
Uganda: 2000	24,1	20,7	13,8	17,2	10,3	13,8
Zambia	27,5	25,0	35,0	2,5	0,0	10,0
Average	22,2	22,6	13,7	27,4	8,1	6,0

**TABLE 12: CAR HIJACKING: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police	Car was taken	Car was recovered
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious				
Botswana: 2000	91,7	8,3	0,0	91,7	45,5	58,3	85,7
Lesotho	9,1	0,0	90,9	9,1	100,0	9,1	100,0
Mozambique	78,3	13,0	4,3	87,0	20,0	87,0	40,0
Namibia	44,4	11,1	11,1	44,4	75,0	22,2	50,0
South Africa: 2000	82,7	11,1	3,7	72,8	52,5	70,4	52,6
Swaziland	8,5	12,3	26,2	46,2	53,3	33,8	54,5
Uganda: 2000	65,5	17,2	0,0	69,0	50,0	58,6	58,9
Zambia	75,0	12,5	0,0	82,5	54,5	50,0	35,0
Average	64,8	11,9	11,9	65,9	49,4	54,0	51,4

**TABLE 13: CAR HIJACKING: FEATURES OF OFFENDER AND OFFENCE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Number of offenders			Offenders known		Offenders armed	Weapons were used	Injuries sustained
	One	Two	≥ 3	By name	By sight			
Botswana: 2000	16,7	50,0	25,0	0,0	8,3	91,7	33,3	50,0
Lesotho	0,0	9,1	18,2	9,1	18,2	27,3	0,0	0,0
Mozambique	0,0	17,4	65,2	0,0	4,3	91,3	52,4	72,7
Namibia	11,1	22,2	22,2	0,0	0,0	66,7	11,1	100,0
South Africa: 2000	3,7	25,9	61,7	1,2	8,6	84,0	25,9	80,9
Swaziland	4,6	36,9	27,7	1,5	3,1	67,7	13,8	22,2
Uganda: 2000	0,0	31,0	41,4	0,0	13,8	n/a	n/a	n/a
Zambia	2,5	10,0	60,0	2,5	2,5	85,0	37,5	80,0
Average	3,7	26,3	46,7	1,5	6,7	69,3	32,6	83,6

**TABLE 14: LOCALITY: THEFT OUT OF/FROM CAR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	0,0	56,7	0,0	38,9	1,1	3,3
2000	45,1	9,8	9,8	26,2	3,0	3,0
Egypt	0,0	71,4	0,0	26,1	2,5	0,0
Lesotho	64,6	22,2	3,0	3,0	7,1	0,0
Mozambique	37,1	18,9	32,7	4,4	1,3	5,6
Namibia	45,3	49,1	2,2	0,4	0,9	2,2
Nigeria	0,0	59,4	0,0	30,7	5,0	5,0
South Africa: 1993	0,0	68,8	0,0	26,4	4,2	0,7
1996	0,0	65,9	0,0	30,2	2,2	1,7
2000	63,2	12,3	3,1	17,8	1,2	2,5
Swaziland	55,6	27,0	8,5	1,1	7,9	0,0
Tanzania	0,0	40,2	0,0	54,9	4,9	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	75,5	0,0	20,2	4,3	0,0
Uganda: 1992	0,0	50,9	0,0	45,7	2,9	0,6
1996	0,0	27,4	0,0	64,3	7,1	1,2
2000	18,4	12,8	9,6	42,4	8,0	8,8
Zambia	39,4	7,1	6,1	36,4	2,0	9,1
Zimbabwe	0,0	50,0	0,0	40,4	7,7	1,9
Average	21,3	42,2	4,3	26,0	3,8	2,4

**TABLE 15: THEFT OUT OF/FROM CAR: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	47,6	39,3	13,1	57,8	44,2
2000	37,2	44,5	15,2	65,9	44,4
Egypt	30,7	42,3	27,0	48,4	n/a
Lesotho	47,5	32,3	20,2	32,3	28,1
Mozambique	19,5	38,4	37,7	13,2	42,9
Namibia	46,6	34,9	15,9	56,5	48,1
Nigeria	26,7	24,8	48,5	28,7	55,2
South Africa: 1993	55,2	24,8	20,0	50,0	n/a
1996	34,1	39,7	26,3	48,6	41,4
2000	63,2	22,1	12,3	52,1	48,2
Swaziland	39,2	29,1	25,4	54,0	44,1
Tanzania	80,5	17,8	1,6	76,9	n/a
Tunisia	n/a	n/a	n/a	66,8	n/a
Uganda: 1992	75,4	21,1	3,4	51,4	n/a
1996	39,3	47,6	13,1	38,1	62,5
2000	31,2	36,8	21,6	19,2	33,3
Zambia	47,5	34,3	10,1	44,4	31,8
Zimbabwe	59,6	21,2	19,2	49,0	41,2
Average	46,7	32,0	19,1	49,7	44,2

**TABLE 16: LOCALITY: CAR VANDALISM (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	0,0	48,0	0,0	48,0	0,0	4,0
2000	32,2	13,6	6,8	37,3	3,4	6,8
Egypt	0,0	73,7	0,0	26,3	0,0	0,0
Lesotho	33,3	42,9	4,8	0,0	19,0	0,0
Mozambique	20,5	20,5	43,2	2,3	6,8	6,8
Namibia	44,7	42,1	4,4	0,9	1,8	6,1
Nigeria	0,0	48,8	0,0	42,7	2,4	6,1
South Africa: 1993	0,0	61,4	0,0	35,7	2,9	0,0
1996	0,0	61,6	0,0	35,4	3,0	0,0
2000	52,5	18,8	3,0	22,8	1,0	2,0
Swaziland	48,8	31,4	9,3	0,0	10,5	0,0
Tanzania	0,0	44,6	0,0	50,9	4,5	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	65,3	0,0	34,7	0,0	0,0
Uganda: 1992	0,0	21,9	0,0	56,3	21,9	0,0
1996	0,0	37,5	0,0	42,2	20,3	0,0
2000	17,5	3,5	10,5	36,8	10,5	21,1
Zambia	30,0	3,3	3,3	40,0	10,0	13,3
Zimbabwe	0,0	12,1	0,0	75,8	9,1	3,0
Average	16,3	40,7	3,8	30,7	5,3	3,2

**TABLE 17: CAR VANDALISM: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious	
Botswana: 1997	58,3	20,8	20,8	56,0
2000	45,8	33,9	15,3	61,0
Egypt	46,4	53,6	0,0	26,7
Lesotho	66,7	19,0	14,3	47,6
Mozambique	20,5	34,1	38,6	22,7
Namibia	40,4	23,7	29,8	33,3
Nigeria	28,0	19,5	52,4	22,0
South Africa: 1993	43,7	35,2	21,1	41,4
1996	30,3	35,4	34,3	33,3
2000	60,4	26,7	19,9	57,4
Swaziland	48,8	25,6	25,6	58,1
Tanzania	70,3	27,9	1,8	68,8
Tunisia	17,5	65,0	17,5	51,7
Uganda: 1992	56,3	43,8	0,0	34,4
1996	39,1	42,2	15,6	26,6
2000	49,1	26,3	3,5	29,8
Zambia	43,3	23,3	13,3	36,7
Zimbabwe	33,3	24,2	42,4	45,5
Average	44,8	31,5	20,6	43,0



**TABLE 18: THEFT OF MOTORCYCLE IN TERMS OF OWNERSHIP: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Ownership	One year	Five year
Botswana: 1997	2,2	0,0	0,0
2000	2,8	0,0	5,9
Egypt	9,9	5,0	17,2
Lesotho	1,7	0,0	5,9
Mozambique	9,0	3,4	12,4
Namibia	5,2	0,0	3,6
Nigeria	7,3	4,0	12,2
South Africa: 1993	2,6	0,0	0,0
1996	4,3	7,0	18,6
2000	3,3	11,4	20,4
Swaziland	8,7	5,7	17,0
Tanzania	15,6	5,8	21,8
Tunisia	31,5	6,7	24,3
Uganda: 1992	13,6	7,2	18,0
1996	10,1	0,0	9,9
2000	11,2	2,7	5,4
Zambia	2,7	0,0	7,1
Zimbabwe	1,7	5,9	17,6

**TABLE 19: LOCALITY OF THEFT OF MOTORCYCLE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 2000	50,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Egypt	56,3	0,0	0,0	43,8	0,0	0,0
Lesotho	0,0	0,0	100,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Mozambique	36,4	9,1	54,5	0,0	0,0	0,0
Namibia	100,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Nigeria	0,0	33,3	0,0	44,4	11,1	11,1
South Africa: 1996	0,0	75,0	0,0	12,5	12,5	0,0
2000	66,7	11,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	22,2
Swaziland	46,7	6,7	20,0	26,7	0,0	0,0
Tanzania	0,0	58,6	0,0	41,4	0,0	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	59,7	0,0	38,8	1,5	0,0
Uganda: 1992	0,0	40,9	0,0	54,5	4,5	0,0
1996	0,0	20,0	0,0	70,0	10,0	10,0
2000	33,3	0,0	0,0	50,0	0,0	16,7
Zambia	100,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Zimbabwe	0,0	0,0	0,0	100,0	0,0	0,0
Average	11,3	42,5	4,7	37,3	2,4	1,8

**TABLE 20: THEFT OF MOTORCYCLE: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious	
Botswana: 2000	50,0	50,0	0,0	100,0
Egypt	37,5	62,5	0,0	62,5
Lesotho	100,0	0,0	0,0	100,0
Mozambique	81,8	9,1	9,1	54,5
Namibia	100,0	0,0	0,0	100,0
Nigeria	66,7	11,1	22,2	66,7
South Africa: 1996	75,0	0,0	25,0	75,0
2000	66,7	11,1	0,0	44,4
Swaziland	60,0	20,0	20,0	66,7
Tanzania	51,7	48,3	0,0	89,3
Tunisia	12,5	62,5	25,0	86,6
Uganda: 1992	90,9	9,1	0,0	90,9
1996	100,0	0,0	0,0	100,0
2000	83,3	0,0	0,0	66,7
Zambia	50,0	50,0	0,0	50,0
Zimbabwe	33,3	66,7	0,0	66,7
Average	64,7	26,8	6,5	79,1

**TABLE 21: THEFT OF BICYCLE IN TERMS OF OWNERSHIP: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Ownership	One year	Five year
Botswana: 1997	19,3	7,3	16,9
2000	27,7	4,8	21,1
Egypt	26,9	3,7	17,8
Lesotho	22,6	3,5	12,3
Mozambique	22,8	3,5	19,5
Namibia	38,5	10,3	28,4
Nigeria	5,9	3,3	11,7
South Africa: 1993	23,8	8,9	23,0
1996	27,8	10,4	35,4
2000	22,8	6,9	29,5
Swaziland	34,6	7,8	23,3
Tanzania	34,1	8,2	17,8
Tunisia	41,0	9,0	29,4
Uganda: 1992	44,2	7,5	27,2
1996	39,1	3,6	15,4
2000	29,8	2,7	15,5
Zambia	22,6	5,5	18,6
Zimbabwe	25,5	3,9	10,1

**TABLE 22: LOCALITY OF THEFT OF BICYCLE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	0,0	70,0	0,0	20,0	5,0	5,0
2000	64,3	17,1	1,4	14,3	0,0	2,9
Egypt	0,0	83,3	0,0	14,6	2,1	0,0
Lesotho	71,4	7,1	7,1	0,0	14,3	0,0
Mozambique	47,7	29,5	13,6	2,3	0,0	6,8
Namibia	74,1	18,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Nigeria	0,0	57,1	0,0	2,8	0,0	14,3
South Africa: 1993	88,9	0,0	9,3	1,9	0,0	0,0
1996	0,0	83,8	0,0	13,1	1,0	2,0
2000	65,6	23,3	0,0	7,8	0,0	3,3
Swaziland	84,0	4,9	6,2	0,0	4,9	0,0
Tanzania	0,0	70,6	0,0	29,4	0,0	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	68,9	0,0	31,1	0,0	0,0
Uganda: 1992	0,0	61,7	0,0	28,7	9,6	0,0
1996	53,3	0,0	31,7	15,0	0,0	0,0
2000	37,0	17,4	6,5	30,4	0,0	8,7
Zambia	40,9	6,8	2,3	27,3	4,5	18,2
Zimbabwe	0,0	30,8	0,0	69,2	0,0	0,0
Average	30,2	44,6	1,6	17,5	3,1	3,0

**TABLE 23: THEFT OF BICYCLE: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious	Reported to police
Botswana: 1997	45,0	15,0	40,0	25,0
2000	31,4	41,4	2,3	31,4
Egypt	29,2	47,9	22,9	23,4
Lesotho	32,1	39,3	28,6	21,4
Mozambique	15,9	45,5	27,3	11,4
Namibia	34,5	39,7	18,1	31,9
Nigeria	57,1	28,6	14,3	42,9
South Africa: 1993	35,2	33,3	31,5	13,0
1996	26,3	39,4	34,3	32,3
2000	34,4	41,1	21,1	23,3
Swaziland	22,2	54,3	23,5	40,7
Tanzania	59,3	40,7	0,0	70,4
Tunisia	23,9	46,6	29,5	43,8
Uganda: 1992	88,5	9,7	1,8	60,3
1996	63,3	31,7	5,0	40,0
2000	54,3	28,3	6,5	28,3
Zambia	59,1	18,2	4,5	45,5
Zimbabwe	57,7	23,1	19,2	80,8
Average	41,9	36,0	19,1	37,4

**TABLE 24: THEFT OF LIVESTOCK OVER A FIVE YEAR PERIOD**

Country	Victimisation in terms of ownership		
	Ownership	Theft of livestock	Reported to police
Botswana: 2000	35,4	31,8	48,1
Lesotho	21,0	43,4	45,6
Namibia	26,5	31,5	51,8
South Africa: 2000	7,2	34,4	36,4
Zambia	19,4	43,6	19,1

**TABLE 25: BURGLARY: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year
Botswana: 1997	26,9	10,6
2000	22,6	6,8
Egypt	12,8	3,0
Lesotho	20,6	6,6
Mozambique	48,2	12,6
Namibia	26,2	8,1
Nigeria	13,4	4,5
South Africa: 1993	12,9	7,2
1996	18,1	6,8
2000	24,8	7,9
Swaziland	28,1	9,4
Tanzania	30,7	n/a
Tunisia	21,6	7,4
Uganda: 1992	48,0	14,2
1996	21,0	8,6
2000	21,9	5,9
Zambia	30,9	10,8
Zimbabwe	20,6	10,2

**TABLE 26: BURGLARY: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	66,7	25,2	8,2	59,4	29,7
2000	64,2	24,7	7,4	69,7	41,3
Egypt	59,4	28,1	12,5	54,0	n/a
Lesotho	77,9	13,5	8,7	61,1	26,0
Mozambique	37,0	42,4	17,7	25,7	19,5
Namibia	68,0	18,0	9,4	61,2	41,8
Nigeria	47,1	25,0	27,9	44,9	45,9
South Africa: 1993	74,0	18,1	7,9	59,1	n/a
1996	69,8	19,8	10,4	59,3	34,3
2000	77,3	14,8	6,9	61,6	30,9
Swaziland	72,8	16,6	9,9	82,7	32,5
Tanzania	83,7	12,7	3,7	86,4	n/a
Tunisia	54,3	37,5	8,2	63,6	n/a
Uganda: 1992	92,3	7,7	n/a	48,8	n/a
1996	65,1	27,8	7,2	38,8	28,4
2000	68,9	16,0	5,9	23,7	21,2
Zambia	71,9	16,0	8,3	60,5	19,9
Zimbabwe	68,1	19,3	12,6	71,0	27,2
Average	65,8	22,4	10,0	55,1	30,8

**TABLE 27: ATTEMPTED BURGLARY: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year
Botswana: 1997	13,4	4,7
2000	14,4	4,0
Egypt	11,9	3,8
Lesotho	12,7	5,0
Mozambique	32,3	9,5
Namibia	26,7	6,0
Nigeria	12,4	4,4
South Africa: 1993	8,5	3,9
1996	12,8	3,7
2000	14,6	4,0
Swaziland	29,3	8,9
Tanzania	29,0	13,3
Tunisia	19,8	4,5
Uganda: 1992	37,8	13,0
1996	24,1	11,3
2000	22,9	7,0
Zambia	31,4	6,6
Zimbabwe	13,8	7,2

**TABLE 28: ATTEMPTED BURGLARY: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious	
Botswana: 1997	47,1	34,3	18,6	29,8
2000	27,9	42,4	23,3	42,4
Egypt	34,7	39,8	25,4	23,3
Lesotho	50,8	27,3	21,9	35,9
Mozambique	11,8	39,9	43,0	11,2
Namibia	46,3	32,2	18,4	47,0
Nigeria	28,8	25,6	45,6	38,4
South Africa: 1993	40,5	26,2	33,3	41,0
1996	31,8	42,6	25,6	43,4
2000	46,2	31,3	11,8	37,9
Swaziland	34,9	33,6	31,2	51,2
Tanzania	47,6	46,7	5,7	51,7
Tunisia	37,3	49,1	13,7	40,2
Uganda: 1992	56,6	33,9	9,6	n/a
1996	22,1	55,0	20,4	17,1
2000	30,6	27,1	18,8	31,4
Zambia	50,5	33,7	11,2	45,3
Zimbabwe	31,7	25,2	42,4	25,9
Average	37,9	36,4	21,9	36,4

**TABLE 29: ROBBERY: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year
Botswana: 1997	6,4	2,0
2000	6,9	1,8
Egypt	6,8	2,2
Lesotho	8,1	2,0
Mozambique	27,7	7,6
Namibia	15,3	5,0
Nigeria	14,7	4,6
South Africa: 1993	10,9	5,4
1996	10,6	4,7
2000	16,5	5,4
Swaziland	13,6	3,8
Tanzania	19,6	n/a
Tunisia	15,8	5,6
Uganda: 1992	24,1	6,9
1996	7,5	2,2
2000	15,2	4,5
Zambia	11,2	2,5
Zimbabwe	7,8	4,2

**TABLE 30: ROBBERY: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	67,6	23,5	8,8	32,5	38,5
2000	52,4	29,3	12,2	37,8	35,5
Egypt	54,7	25,4	9,0	34,3	n/a
Lesotho	61,0	12,2	26,8	26,8	40,9
Mozambique	30,5	33,5	24,4	13,1	22,2
Namibia	61,7	27,2	6,8	27,8	46,7
Nigeria	36,2	28,9	34,9	36,9	40,0
South Africa: 1993	68,5	17,6	13,9	34,3	n/a
1996	73,8	18,7	7,5	43,0	43,5
2000	72,9	19,5	6,3	37,1	40,2
Swaziland	59,9	27,7	10,9	48,9	35,8
Tanzania	85,4	14,6	0,0	68,7	n/a
Tunisia	53,4	28,2	18,3	46,5	n/a
Uganda: 1992	70,8	20,2	9,0	30,0	n/a
1996	42,7	37,3	12,0	26,7	30,0
2000	55,3	27,6	5,3	14,5	50,0
Zambia	58,1	24,8	9,4	27,4	25,0
Zimbabwe	69,2	14,1	15,4	42,3	36,4
Average	59,3	24,3	13,0	33,9	37,7

**TABLE 31: ROBBERY: FEATURES OF OFFENDER AND OFFENCE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Number of offenders			Offenders known		Offenders armed	Weapons were used
	One	Two	≥ 3	By name	By sight		
Botswana: 1997	36,6	17,1	26,8	7,3	9,8	34,1	21,4
2000	26,8	31,7	35,4	8,5	15,9	42,7	20,0
Egypt	28,4	34,3	37,3	10,9	9,4	65,6	n/a
Lesotho	34,1	26,8	20,7	23,2	23,2	43,9	25,0
Mozambique	9,1	26,9	44,0	2,9	12,4	36,7	42,6
Namibia	23,5	32,7	37,7	6,2	11,7	56,2	44,0
Nigeria	12,8	18,1	40,9	8,7	16,1	42,3	33,3
South Africa: 1993	22,3	19,4	58,3	7,8	7,8	76,6	n/a
1996	15,9	23,4	44,9	3,7	7,5	66,4	32,4
2000	10,4	35,3	47,1	6,8	10,0	78,7	20,7
Swaziland	15,3	39,4	24,1	5,1	8,0	44,5	34,4
Tanzania	34,4	65,6	0,0	1,3	16,9	77,2	n/a
Tunisia	56,4	41,0	2,6	11,0	17,4	34,7	n/a
Uganda: 1992	36,6	34,3	29,1	6,7	23,2	60,4	n/a
1996	32,0	24,0	25,3	4,0	2,7	38,7	65,5
2000	24,3	27,0	27,0	2,6	9,2	19,1	34,5
Zambia	13,7	18,8	43,6	5,1	11,1	39,3	39,1
Zimbabwe	23,1	24,4	48,7	12,8	10,3	47,4	35,1
Average	23,2	31,3	33,6	6,4	12,8	51,4	33,5

**TABLE 32: LOCALITY: ROBBERY (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	7,3	12,2	0,0	53,7	9,8	17,1
2000	13,4	15,9	54,9	11,0	1,2	3,7
Egypt	0,0	41,2	0,0	54,4	2,9	1,5
Lesotho	8,5	13,4	52,4	7,3	4,9	13,4
Mozambique	7,6	27,6	53,5	0,7	0,4	10,2
Namibia	4,3	25,9	63,6	1,9	0,6	3,7
Nigeria	30,9	17,4	0,0	36,9	6,0	8,8
South Africa: 1993	0,0	33,3	0,0	63,9	1,9	0,9
1996	16,8	23,4	0,0	55,1	4,7	0,0
2000	16,3	29,9	49,3	3,2	0,5	0,9
Swaziland	21,9	25,5	36,5	10,2	2,2	3,6
Tanzania	0,0	43,1	0,0	46,4	9,2	1,3
Tunisia	0,0	17,9	0,0	74,3	7,1	0,7
Uganda: 1992	0,0	58,4	0,0	31,3	9,9	0,4
1996	21,3	25,3	0,0	32,0	20,0	1,3
2000	11,8	15,8	47,4	13,2	1,3	10,5
Zambia	17,1	22,2	50,4	3,4	0,0	6,8
Zimbabwe	5,1	28,2	0,0	52,6	12,8	0,0
Average	10,0	28,6	26,4	26,1	4,5	4,4

**TABLE 33: PERSONAL THEFT: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year	"Pickpocket"*
Botswana: 1997	16,1	6,7	48,5
2000	26,8	7,6	55,3
Egypt	34,0	9,6	77,1
Lesotho	31,1	7,4	58,5
Mozambique	34,7	9,9	82,6
Namibia	27,0	7,1	43,4
Nigeria	34,5	11,4	47,6
South Africa: 1993	13,4	5,5	59,1
1996	22,4	10,4	70,2
2000	25,7	8,6	69,4
Swaziland	36,5	12,3	65,3
Tanzania	43,2	17,8	87,7
Tunisia	36,5	14,4	87,3
Uganda: 1992	58,6	23,6	82,2
1996	34,9	14,8	69,3
2000	43,9	15,4	49,5
Zambia	31,9	10,2	65,8
Zimbabwe	38,5	20,6	68,7

\* The last time this happened, were you holding or carrying what was stolen (a case of pickpocketing)?



**TABLE 34: PERSONAL THEFT: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious	
Botswana: 1997	53,8	29,0	17,2	21,4
2000	44,2	41,4	11,8	33,6
Egypt	35,3	45,3	19,4	21,2
Lesotho	51,0	33,1	15,9	16,6
Mozambique	27,0	37,4	26,1	9,9
Namibia	37,6	38,3	19,5	13,6
Nigeria	31,5	23,2	45,4	13,2
South Africa: 1993	63,6	19,7	16,7	14,4
1996	49,8	30,7	19,6	17,3
2000	59,3	27,3	10,5	28,8
Swaziland	33,5	42,8	23,7	24,5
Tanzania	75,5	23,6	0,8	28,2
Tunisia	36,6	44,7	18,7	38,7
Uganda: 1992	51,4	31,1	17,5	8,5
1996	41,7	43,1	14,7	4,0
2000	39,7	31,1	18,0	5,5
Zambia	50,9	26,9	12,9	12,9
Zimbabwe	48,1	30,5	21,4	23,8
Average	45,4	33,7	18,4	18,1

**TABLE 35: LOCALITY: PERSONAL THEFT (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	0,0	29,4	0,0	52,0	8,8	9,8
2000	23,7	7,5	3,7	49,2	11,2	4,7
Egypt	0,0	27,4	0,0	65,9	6,5	0,3
Lesotho	30,9	58,3	4,8	1,3	4,8	0,3
Mozambique	9,9	28,1	56,2	2,0	0,9	2,9
Namibia	36,6	50,2	6,6	1,0	0,0	5,6
Nigeria	0,0	36,1	0,0	15,5	41,0	7,5
South Africa: 1993	0,0	30,3	0,0	65,9	3,0	0,8
1996	0,0	29,3	0,0	60,9	9,3	0,4
2000	20,9	15,4	4,7	50,3	5,2	3,5
Swaziland	27,5	49,9	15,8	2,7	4,1	0,0
Tanzania	0,0	26,3	0,0	47,8	25,9	0,0
Tunisia	0,0	12,4	0,0	54,5	32,6	0,5
Uganda: 1992	0,0	15,2	0,0	72,8	11,9	0,2
1996	0,0	15,2	0,0	75,9	8,6	0,3
2000	0,0	10,7	5,9	47,9	3,2	11,7
Zambia	20,5	10,8	3,0	57,2	8,4	7,2
Zimbabwe	13,5	18,9	0,0	71,3	9,0	0,8
Average	10,2	24,8	5,8	44,7	11,6	2,9

**TABLE 36: SEXUAL VICTIMISATION: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year	Rape *	Attempted rape *	Indecent assault *	Offensive behaviour *
Botswana: 1997	11,5	2,3	4,9	22,0	4,9	68,3
2000	22,1	5,0	12,2	21,6	13,7	50,4
Egypt	45,5	10,6	0,0	2,0	14,6	80,3
Lesotho	18,3	5,7	10,3	21,4	5,6	57,9
Mozambique	12,4	2,6	20,6	41,3	6,3	27,0
Namibia	21,3	4,8	9,5	12,1	17,2	58,6
Nigeria	22,7	8,8	8,2	16,3	22,4	43,9
South Africa: 1993	6,0	2,4	15,2	45,5	6,1	27,3
1996	9,1	3,6	23,5	39,2	11,8	23,5
2000	10,3	2,8	39,7	25,6	12,8	16,7
Swaziland	27,4	6,2	12,3	23,3	13,7	39,7
Tanzania	18,9	7,0	23,6	43,1	20,8	2,8
Tunisia	21,1	5,1	7,0	17,0	5,0	53,0
Uganda: 1992	26,5	6,8	23,9	39,0	18,8	10,1
1996	19,7	7,0	26,9	35,6	18,3	17,3
2000	6,9	1,6	22,9	20,0	17,1	20,0
Zambia	21,2	5,4	6,3	20,5	8,7	62,2
Zimbabwe	6,8	2,8	0,0	12,2	34,1	53,7
		Average	13,5	23,0	13,8	43,7

\* Nature of last victimisation

**TABLE 37: SEXUAL OFFENCES: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	75,6	17,1	7,3	9,5	50,0
2000	40,4	39,7	17,7	10,6	73,3
Egypt	60,6	28,8	10,6	2,5	n/a
Lesotho	59,5	18,3	22,2	12,7	62,5
Mozambique	31,7	31,7	27,0	15,9	60,0
Namibia	63,0	19,3	15,1	10,1	41,7
Nigeria	25,5	15,3	59,2	10,2	70,0
South Africa: 1993	84,8	6,1	9,1	27,3	n/a
1996	66,7	19,6	13,7	27,5	28,6
2000	76,9	12,8	9,0	39,0	40,0
Swaziland	58,9	26,7	14,4	12,3	55,6
Tanzania	76,9	15,4	7,7	28,3	n/a
Tunisia	64,4	27,6	8,0	34,1	n/a
Uganda: 1992	81,7	16,0	2,3	15,6	n/a
1996	52,9	38,5	6,7	10,6	18,2
2000	34,3	31,4	17,1	0,0	0,0
Zambia	48,5	26,2	21,5	13,8	27,8
Zimbabwe	48,8	19,5	31,7	12,2	40,0
Average	57,7	24,3	16,4	14,5	46,6

**TABLE 38: SEXUAL OFFENCES: FEATURES OF OFFENDER AND OFFENCE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Number of offenders			Offenders known		Offenders armed	Weapons were used
	One	Two	≥ 3	By name	By sight		
Botswana: 1997	68,2	13,6	11,4	18,2	6,8	12,5	20,0
2000	83,7	8,5	6,4	42,6	20,6	10,6	40,0
Egypt	87,6	7,3	5,1	0,0	4,6	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	81,0	11,1	4,8	47,6	23,0	20,6	34,6
Mozambique	65,1	19,0	11,1	39,7	12,7	22,2	42,9
Namibia	71,4	12,6	12,6	37,0	9,2	13,4	31,3
Nigeria	74,5	9,2	9,2	29,6	13,3	5,1	20,0
South Africa: 1993	57,6	18,2	24,2	0,0	4,2	n/a	n/a
1996	52,9	19,6	21,6	27,5	15,7	31,4	37,5
2000	66,2	15,6	15,6	50,6	14,3	39,7	32,3
Swaziland	76,7	9,6	4,8	44,5	14,4	11,6	47,1
Tanzania	75,4	24,6	0,0	16,9	24,6	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	72,2	22,8	5,1	1,4	31,5	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	75,0	15,6	9,4	5,9	38,8	n/a	n/a
1996	79,8	11,5	5,8	51,0	20,2	9,6	90,0
2000	71,4	11,4	5,7	54,3	25,7	5,7	50,0
Zambia	60,8	15,4	17,7	30,8	15,4	6,2	75,0
Zimbabwe	43,9	26,8	24,4	34,1	14,6	9,8	25,0
Average	73,6	13,5	9,3	30,1	16,8	14,4	40,8

**TABLE 39: SEXUAL OFFENCES: IDENTITY OF KNOWN OFFENDERS (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Spouse/partner	Former spouse/partner	Regular male companion	Former regular male companion	Relative	Close friend	Boss/colleague	None of these
Botswana: 1997	12,5	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	37,5	50,0	0,0
2000	3,3	3,3	8,3	20,0	0,0	23,3	20,0	18,3
Lesotho	0,0	0,0	13,3	11,7	6,7	20,0	8,3	40,0
Mozambique	4,0	4,0	4,0	8,0	12,0	20,0	16,0	20,0
Namibia	0,0	0,0	2,3	18,2	9,1	11,4	20,5	18,2
Nigeria	3,4	0,0	10,3	10,3	0,0	20,7	27,6	13,8
South Africa: 1993	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	100,0
1996	0,0	0,0	7,1	7,1	14,3	14,3	0,0	57,1
2000	5,1	2,6	23,1	10,3	15,4	7,7	10,3	17,9
Swaziland	9,2	6,2	3,1	12,3	10,8	18,5	13,8	13,8
Tunisia	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Uganda: 1996	3,8	3,8	5,0	11,3	11,3	24,5	0,0	45,3
2000	15,0	0,0	0,0	5,0	0,0	15,0	35,0	20,0
Zambia	27,5	0,0	0,0	10,0	12,5	20,0	10,0	15,0
Zimbabwe	14,3	14,3	0,0	21,4	28,6	7,1	0,0	14,3
Average	7,1	2,5	6,5	12,3	8,8	18,2	13,8	24,6

**TABLE 40: LOCALITY: SEXUAL OFFENCES (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	7,3	24,4	9,8	43,9	9,8	4,9
2000	15,6	21,3	11,3	45,4	4,3	2,1
Egypt	0,0	27,7	0,0	70,8	1,5	0,0
Lesotho	16,7	19,8	4,8	45,2	8,7	4,8
Mozambique	19,0	33,3	38,1	4,8	3,2	1,6
Namibia	12,6	19,3	11,8	50,4	1,7	4,2
Nigeria	10,2	18,4	13,3	46,9	6,1	5,1
South Africa: 1993	9,1	33,3	0,0	54,5	3,0	0,0
1996	13,7	33,3	3,9	37,3	11,8	0,0
2000	33,8	20,8	5,2	37,7	1,3	1,3
Swaziland	21,2	17,1	10,3	37,0	8,9	5,5
Tanzania	26,2	55,4	0,0	18,5	0,0	0,0
Tunisia	11,0	4,0	0,0	70,0	3,0	12,0
Uganda: 1992	30,5	28,2	0,0	33,6	7,6	0,0
1996	25,0	33,7	11,5	20,2	6,7	2,9
2000	20,0	14,3	31,4	17,1	8,6	8,6
Zambia	11,5	25,4	3,8	50,0	6,9	2,3
Zimbabwe	4,9	34,1	0,0	51,2	7,3	2,4
Average	15,8	24,4	7,4	43,9	5,3	3,2

**TABLE 41: ASSAULT: ONE AND FIVE YEAR TRENDS**

Country	Five years	One year	Threatened*	Force used*
Botswana: 1997	14,1	6,2	39,3	51,7
2000	18,0	3,7	53,6	46,4
Egypt	7,8	2,7	58,4	41,6
Lesotho	17,6	4,3	45,5	47,2
Mozambique	22,5	6,2	45,7	46,2
Namibia	19,0	4,4	40,1	57,4
Nigeria	15,8	6,2	71,3	23,8
South Africa: 1993	18,0	8,4	48,3	51,7
1996	17,1	8,1	41,9	57,6
2000	21,6	6,4	44,4	55,2
Swaziland	23,2	7,2	43,1	53,4
Tanzania	14,4	5,3	67,0	33,0
Tunisia	15,4	1,1	59,2	40,8
Uganda: 1992	23,1	7,7	70,0	30,0
1996	17,6	6,1	69,1	29,1
2000	18,4	5,0	64,1	26,6
Zambia	25,0	6,7	52,2	47,8
Zimbabwe	19,1	10,2	61,5	38,5
Average			53,5	43,9

\* Nature of last victimisation

**TABLE 42: ASSAULT: SEVERITY RATINGS AND REPORTING BEHAVIOUR (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Severity ratings			Reported to police	Satisfied with police
	Very serious	Fairly serious	Not very serious		
Botswana: 1997	50,7	31,5	17,8	24,1	57,1
2000	41,2	40,3	15,7	23,6	49,0
Egypt	56,4	32,1	11,5	16,7	n/a
Lesotho	61,2	15,2	23,6	30,3	42,6
Mozambique	31,4	41,3	22,4	18,8	35,7
Namibia	49,0	34,2	15,8	23,3	57,4
Nigeria	25,0	24,4	50,6	17,5	71,4
South Africa: 1993	51,1	29,2	19,7	19,9	n/a
1996	51,2	34,3	14,5	25,6	27,3
2000	61,1	26,0	11,8	30,2	50,6
Swaziland	44,2	32,2	20,2	23,2	27,8
Tanzania	81,6	14,4	4,0	56,8	n/a
Tunisia	59,4	24,2	16,4	51,9	n/a
Uganda: 1992	54,8	31,1	14,2	23,0	n/a
1996	41,1	38,9	17,1	6,9	66,7
2000	40,8	35,3	13,6	9,2	64,7
Zambia	46,2	31,3	17,6	22,9	45,0
Zimbabwe	33,9	28,6	37,5	15,1	55,2
Average	48,0	30,7	19,2	23,7	32,5

**TABLE 43: ASSAULT: FEATURES OF OFFENDER AND OFFENCE (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Number of offenders			Offenders known		Weapons were used	Injuries sustained
	One	Two	≥ 3	By name	By sight		
Botswana: 1997	38,2	13,5	32,6	36,0	10,1	36,0	37,5
2000	49,5	19,0	27,8	38,0	16,2	23,6	27,8
Egypt	39,7	19,2	41,0	35,9	6,4	42,2	45,5
Lesotho	52,8	18,5	19,7	44,9	20,8	46,1	35,4
Mozambique	21,5	25,1	42,6	14,3	13,5	43,0	18,4
Namibia	50,0	23,8	23,8	47,0	18,3	33,7	40,6
Nigeria	40,6	16,9	31,9	26,3	15,0	23,8	17,5
South Africa: 1993	40,4	18,7	41,0	37,6	12,4	50,0	42,1
1996	39,0	26,2	27,9	35,5	16,9	67,4	48,8
2000	39,9	28,1	30,2	43,4	13,9	59,0	46,9
Swaziland	42,5	29,6	21,5	46,4	23,6	35,6	42,5
Tanzania	31,3	67,8	0,9	2,5	14,4	68,6	65,6
Tunisia	41,3	44,2	14,5	30,3	17,6	22,5	39,3
Uganda: 1992	45,8	38,1	16,1	36,7	21,3	22,9	26,9
1996	50,9	28,0	16,0	42,3	16,6	24,0	36,6
2000	54,9	21,2	16,3	46,7	20,7	17,9	13,0
Zambia	40,1	18,3	37,4	33,2	15,3	28,2	36,6
Zimbabwe	41,1	21,4	36,5	34,9	22,4	19,8	18,2
Average	42,4	26,1	26,9	36,0	17,0	36,0	33,7

**TABLE 44: ASSAULT: IDENTITY OF KNOWN OFFENDERS (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	Spouse/ partner	Former spouse/ partner	Regular male companion	Former regular male companion	Relative	Close friend	Boss/ colleague	None of these
Botswana: 1997	0,0	9,4	34,4	0,0	3,1	31,3	0,0	21,9
2000	4,8	2,4	14,5	12,0	3,6	25,3	9,6	24,1
Egypt	7,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	14,3	7,1	0,0	64,3
Lesotho	3,8	2,5	2,5	2,5	2,5	15,0	30,0	41,3
Mozambique	0,0	3,1	0,0	3,1	9,4	18,8	0,0	46,9
Namibia	7,4	2,1	9,5	6,3	7,4	12,6	12,6	30,5
Nigeria	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,4	16,7	40,5	0,0	26,2
South Africa: 1993	12,5	0,0	0,0	0,0	10,9	25,0	0,0	51,6
1996	6,6	1,6	4,9	6,6	11,5	19,7	0,0	45,9
2000	13,5	3,2	12,7	5,6	6,3	11,1	5,6	40,5
Swaziland	11,1	2,8	8,3	2,8	6,5	7,4	35,2	18,5
Tunisia	14,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	20,5	29,5	0,0	34,0
Uganda: 1992	12,3	0,0	0,0	0,0	13,6	34,6	0,0	37,0
1996	9,5	2,7	0,0	2,7	16,2	23,0	0,0	45,9
2000	2,3	0,0	0,0	2,3	21,8	26,4	17,2	29,9
Zambia	18,4	1,1	2,3	2,3	17,2	20,7	1,1	32,2
Zimbabwe	6,0	4,5	0,0	1,5	7,5	22,4	0,0	56,7
Average	8,6	2,0	5,4	3,5	10,7	20,6	8,9	36,8

**TABLE 45: LOCALITY: ASSAULT (MOST RECENT INCIDENT)**

Country	At home	Near home	At work	In city	Country	Elsewhere
Botswana: 1997	24,7	16,9	5,6	34,8	7,9	10,1
2000	18,5	16,9	3,7	45,8	8,3	3,7
Egypt	19,2	39,7	0,0	39,7	1,3	0,0
Lesotho	20,8	24,2	2,2	37,6	5,1	10,1
Mozambique	16,6	36,3	43,9	0,9	0,4	1,8
Namibia	23,8	20,3	6,4	43,6	4,5	1,5
Nigeria	22,5	25,6	11,3	31,3	4,4	5,0
South Africa: 1993	16,9	39,9	0,0	40,4	2,2	0,6
1996	22,1	42,4	2,9	29,1	3,5	0,0
2000	24,7	24,7	4,9	40,6	3,1	2,1
Swaziland	27,0	23,6	11,2	25,3	6,4	6,4
Tanzania	34,5	52,1	0,0	10,9	1,7	0,8
Tunisia	17,9	18,6	0,0	57,9	4,1	1,4
Uganda: 1992	35,9	32,7	0,0	23,8	7,2	0,4
1996	23,4	38,3	15,4	17,1	5,7	0,0
2000	28,3	24,5	9,2	22,8	9,2	6,0
Zambia	14,1	31,3	1,5	45,0	3,8	4,2
Zimbabwe	7,3	25,0	8,3	50,5	8,3	0,5
Average	21,9	29,2	7,7	33,2	4,9	3,0

**TABLE 46: CONSUMER FRAUD: ONE YEAR TREND**

<b>Country</b>	<b>One year</b>	<b>Reported to police</b>
Botswana: 1997	12,6	16,0
2000	23,6	4,9
Egypt	49,9	3,9
Lesotho	22,4	7,5
Mozambique	35,8	5,1
Namibia	19,8	6,7
Nigeria	29,9	11,2
South Africa: 1993	10,1	13,1
1996	9,0	13,2
2000	9,5	8,7
Swaziland	23,1	10,3
Tanzania	88,0	32,2
Tunisia	58,4	4,3
Uganda: 1992	71,7	1,6
1996	38,9	1,3
2000	50,2	2,6
Zambia	43,2	4,6
Zimbabwe	24,8	6,0

**TABLE 47: CORRUPTION: ONE YEAR TREND**

<b>Country</b>	<b>One year</b>	<b>Reported to police</b>
Botswana: 1997	2,8	6,7
2000	0,8	0,0
Lesotho	19,2	3,1
Mozambique	30,5	3,6
Namibia	5,5	8,6
Nigeria	29,8	5,6
South Africa: 1996	6,9	2,9
2000	2,9	25,6
Swaziland	17,3	4,6
Tanzania	21,0	n/a
Uganda: 1996	21,0	1,4
2000	34,7	1,4
Zambia	9,8	8,7
Zimbabwe	6,8	2,9

TABLE 48: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: INCIDENTS REPORTED TO THE POLICE (%)

Country	Theft of car	Car hijacking	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Theft of motorcycle	Theft of bicycle	Burglary (entry)	Burglary (attempted)	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents*	Assault	Consumer fraud	Corruption	Stock theft
Botswana: 1997	82,6	n/a	57,8	56,0	n/a	25,0	59,4	29,8	32,5	21,4	9,5	24,1	16,0	6,7	n/a
2000	84,2	91,7	65,9	61,0	100,0	31,4	69,7	42,4	37,8	33,6	10,6	23,6	4,9	0,0	48,1
Egypt	73,0	n/a	48,4	26,7	62,5	23,4	54,0	23,3	34,3	21,2	2,5	16,7	3,9	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	86,4	9,1	32,3	47,6	100,0	21,4	61,1	35,9	26,8	16,6	12,7	30,3	7,5	3,1	45,6
Mozambique	85,7	87,0	13,2	22,7	54,5	11,4	25,7	11,2	13,1	9,9	15,9	18,8	5,1	3,6	n/a
Namibia	91,7	44,4	56,5	33,3	100,0	31,9	61,2	47,0	27,8	13,6	10,1	23,3	6,7	8,6	51,8
Nigeria	89,7	n/a	28,7	22,0	66,7	42,9	44,9	38,4	36,9	13,2	10,2	17,5	11,2	5,6	n/a
South Africa: 1993	89,6	n/a	50,0	41,4	75,0	13,0	59,1	41,0	34,3	14,4	27,3	19,9	13,1	n/a	n/a
1996	90,5	n/a	48,6	33,3	n/a	32,3	59,3	43,4	43,0	17,3	27,5	25,6	13,2	2,9	n/a
2000	90,7	72,8	52,1	57,4	44,4	23,3	61,6	37,9	37,1	28,8	39,0	30,2	8,7	25,6	36,4
Swaziland	91,6	46,2	54,0	58,1	66,7	40,7	82,7	51,2	48,9	24,5	12,3	23,2	10,3	4,6	n/a
Tanzania	88,9	n/a	76,9	68,8	89,3	70,4	86,4	51,7	68,7	28,2	28,3	56,8	32,2	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	88,9	n/a	66,8	51,7	86,6	43,8	63,6	40,2	46,5	38,7	34,1	51,9	4,3	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	93,3	n/a	51,4	34,4	90,9	60,3	48,8	n/a	30,0	8,5	15,6	23,0	1,6	n/a	n/a
1996	90,2	n/a	38,1	26,6	100,0	40,0	38,8	17,1	26,7	4,0	10,6	6,9	1,3	1,4	n/a
2000	75,0	69,0	19,2	29,8	66,7	28,3	23,7	31,4	14,5	5,5	0,0	9,2	2,6	1,4	n/a
Zambia	96,2	82,5	44,4	36,7	50,0	45,5	60,5	45,3	27,4	12,9	13,8	22,9	4,6	8,7	19,1
Zimbabwe	100,0	n/a	49,0	45,5	66,7	80,8	71,0	25,9	42,3	23,8	12,2	15,1	6,0	2,9	n/a

\* Women only



TABLE 49: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: MOTIVATIONAL EXPECTATIONS (%)

Countries	To recover property	Insurance purposes	Must be re-reported/serious	Want offender punished	Prevent it from happening again	To get help	Restitution	Other/unknown
<b>CAR HIJACKING</b>								
Botswana: 2000	23,1	23,1	15,4	26,9	3,8	7,7	0,0	0,0
Lesotho	50,0	50,0	50,0	50,0	50,0	50,0	0,0	0,0
Namibia	13,3	6,7	20,0	26,7	20,0	13,3	0,0	0,0
South Africa: 2000	34,3	14,6	17,5	18,2	6,6	7,3	1,5	0,0
Swaziland	31,0	12,1	13,8	25,9	12,1	3,4	0,0	1,7
Zambia	20,0	10,5	22,9	19,0	13,3	13,3	1,0	0,0
<b>THEFT FROM/ OUT OF CAR</b>								
Botswana: 2000	27,0	20,3	18,0	17,0	11,6	4,8	1,0	0,3
Lesotho	35,9	6,4	21,8	19,2	7,7	9,0	0,0	0,0
Namibia	28,2	31,5	16,0	14,3	7,6	2,1	0,0	0,3
South Africa: 2000	28,6	17,4	16,5	17,9	10,7	5,4	2,7	0,8
Swaziland	47,1	9,9	9,3	18,6	9,9	4,1	0,0	1,1
Zambia	33,1	5,6	21,0	22,6	7,3	8,1	2,3	0,0
<b>BURGLARY</b>								
Botswana: 2000	32,1	6,3	18,4	22,5	11,0	7,0	2,7	0,0
Lesotho	36,1	1,3	21,9	29,8	10,6	8,6	0,0	0,7
Namibia	29,7	17,8	18,4	19,7	10,0	4,1	0,0	0,3
South Africa: 2000	32,5	7,5	18,3	20,9	10,7	7,7	2,4	0,0
Swaziland	49,8	4,5	7,6	25,7	9,8	2,6	0,0	0,0
Zambia	31,4	0,3	17,3	24,6	11,6	12,6	1,9	0,0
<b>ROBBERY</b>								
Botswana: 2000	31,9	5,8	26,1	18,8	5,8	8,7	2,9	0,0
Lesotho	18,5	3,7	22,2	33,3	13,0	9,3	0,0	0,0
Namibia	32,3	8,3	12,5	32,3	8,3	6,3	0,0	0,0
South Africa: 2000	25,8	4,5	20,4	25,8	13,1	8,6	1,8	0,0
Swaziland	36,8	0,9	11,3	37,7	3,8	7,5	0,0	2,0
Zambia	21,0	0,0	21,0	22,9	18,1	14,3	2,7	0,0
<b>SEXUAL OFFENCES</b>								
Botswana: 2000	n/a	n/a	24,2	27,3	21,2	24,2	3,1	0,0
Lesotho	n/a	n/a	20,8	54,2	20,8	4,2	0,0	0,0
Namibia	n/a	n/a	20,8	25,0	37,5	16,5	0,0	0,0
South Africa: 2000	n/a	n/a	29,0	35,5	16,1	14,5	4,9	0,0
Swaziland	n/a	n/a	4,2	37,5	45,8	12,5	0,0	0,0
Zambia	n/a	n/a	19,4	38,9	16,7	11,1	5,6	8,3
<b>ASSAULT</b>								
Botswana: 2000	n/a	n/a	16,3	37,5	21,2	18,3	2,9	3,8
Lesotho	n/a	n/a	16,5	41,8	16,5	15,4	0,0	7,7
Namibia	n/a	n/a	19,0	35,4	34,2	8,9	0,0	2,5
South Africa: 2000	n/a	n/a	26,9	38,0	18,7	12,3	4,1	0,0
Swaziland	n/a	n/a	9,2	42,1	26,3	14,5	2,7	5,2
Zambia	n/a	n/a	20,0	30,8	20,8	15,8	5,8	6,8

**TABLE 50: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: SATISFACTION WITH THE WAY THE POLICE DEALT WITH THE REPORT: MOST RECENT INCIDENT**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Car hijacking</b>	<b>Theft from car</b>	<b>Burglary (entry)</b>	<b>Robbery</b>	<b>Sexual incidents*</b>	<b>Assault</b>
<b>Botswana</b>						
Reported	91,7	65,9	69,7	37,8	10,6	23,6
Satisfied	45,5	44,5	41,3	35,5	73,3	49,0
<b>Lesotho</b>						
Reported	9,1	32,3	61,1	26,8	12,7	30,3
Satisfied	100	28,1	26,0	40,9	62,5	42,6
<b>Mozambique</b>						
Reported	87,0	13,2	25,7	13,1	15,9	18,8
Satisfied	20,0	42,9	19,5	22,2	60,0	35,7
<b>Namibia</b>						
Reported	44,4	56,5	61,2	27,8	10,1	23,3
Satisfied	75,0	48,1	41,8	46,7	41,7	57,4
<b>South Africa</b>						
Reported	72,8	52,1	61,6	37,1	39,0	30,2
Satisfied	52,5	48,2	30,9	40,2	40,0	50,6
<b>Swaziland</b>						
Reported	46,2	54,0	82,7	48,9	12,3	23,2
Satisfied	53,3	44,1	32,5	35,8	55,6	27,8
<b>Uganda</b>						
Reported	69,0	19,2	23,7	14,5	0,0	9,2
Satisfied	50,0	33,3	21,2	50,0	0,0	64,7
<b>Zambia</b>						
Reported	82,5	44,4	60,5	27,4	13,8	22,9
Satisfied	54,5	31,8	19,9	25,0	27,8	45,0

\* Women only

**TABLE 51: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: REASONS FOR DISSATISFACTION WITH POLICE REACTION (%)**

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Didn't do enough</b>	<b>Were uninterested</b>	<b>Failed to trace offender</b>	<b>Didn't recover property</b>	<b>Didn't keep me informed</b>	<b>Impolite</b>	<b>Slow to arrive</b>	<b>Other/unknown</b>
<b>CAR HIJACKING</b>								
Botswana: 2000	22,2	0,0	27,8	11,1	22,2	0,0	11,1	5,6
Lesotho	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Namibia	25,0	0,0	25,0	25,0	25,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
South Africa: 2000	28,7	17,0	22,6	11,3	11,3	1,9	7,6	0,0
Swaziland	16,0	4,0	32,0	24,0	12,0	4,0	8,0	0,0
Zambia	32,2	12,9	12,9	16,1	9,7	0,0	16,1	0,0
<b>THEFT FROM/ OUT OF CAR</b>								
Botswana: 2000	29,2	8,5	14,6	23,1	13,1	2,3	6,9	2,3
Lesotho	32,0	10,0	14,0	26,0	8,0	2,0	4,0	4,0
Namibia	33,3	17,2	10,3	20,7	9,2	2,4	6,9	0,0
South Africa: 2000	26,2	14,0	15,9	16,8	7,5	3,7	14,0	1,9
Swaziland	30,8	6,6	18,7	27,5	6,6	0,0	8,8	1,0
Zambia	23,4	10,4	20,8	23,4	11,7	6,5	2,6	1,2
<b>BURGLARY</b>								
Botswana: 2000	27,9	11,3	16,6	18,5	14,0	2,3	8,3	1,1
Lesotho	28,0	15,0	17,5	21,0	4,5	2,0	5,5	6,5
Namibia	23,8	7,4	17,3	20,3	8,4	4,5	17,3	1,0
South Africa: 2000	26,7	11,0	14,7	17,8	14,1	3,7	9,2	2,8
Swaziland	17,5	6,7	18,1	30,5	10,5	2,9	11,7	2,1
Zambia	25,8	8,7	18,6	22,4	6,1	6,4	6,9	5,1
<b>ROBBERY</b>								
Botswana: 2000	27,7	4,3	14,9	23,4	12,8	6,4	10,5	0,0
Lesotho	20,8	12,5	25,0	16,7	16,7	0,0	0,0	8,3
Namibia	27,1	10,2	23,7	15,2	6,8	11,9	5,1	0,0
South Africa: 2000	21,0	14,0	18,4	15,8	9,6	6,1	11,4	3,7
Swaziland	22,1	8,8	27,9	11,8	7,4	4,3	14,7	3,0
Zambia	21,4	6,0	21,4	19,0	10,8	9,5	8,3	3,6
<b>SEXUAL OFFENCES</b>								
Botswana: 2000	36,4	0,0	18,2	n/a	0,0	9,0	18,2	18,2
Lesotho	40,0	20,0	20,0	n/a	0,0	10,0	0,0	10,0
Namibia	31,4	18,7	18,7	n/a	0,0	18,7	0,0	12,5
South Africa: 2000	37,0	3,7	33,3	n/a	14,8	7,4	3,8	0,0
Swaziland	14,3	21,4	14,3	n/a	0,0	28,6	0,0	21,4
Zambia	20,0	23,3	26,7	n/a	6,7	10,0	3,3	10,0
<b>ASSAULT</b>								
Botswana: 2000	34,5	18,2	12,7	n/a	12,7	5,5	9,1	7,3
Lesotho	32,6	19,6	21,7	n/a	0,0	8,7	2,2	15,2
Namibia	28,9	10,5	18,4	n/a	7,9	13,2	5,3	15,8
South Africa: 2000	36,9	10,9	21,7	n/a	12,0	6,5	5,4	6,6
Swaziland	27,0	15,9	27,0	n/a	6,3	3,2	12,7	7,9
Zambia	22,4	15,8	19,7	n/a	10,5	13,2	2,6	15,8

TABLE 52: VICTIM SUPPORT SERVICES (%)

Countries	Received assistance from specialized agencies	Assistance by agency may be useful
<b>CAR HIJACKING</b>		
Botswana: 2000	0,0	72,7
Lesotho	0,0	0,0
Mozambique	0,0	55,0
Namibia	0,0	75,0
South Africa: 2000	10,2	69,2
Swaziland	6,7	70,8
Uganda: 2000	15,0	73,3
Zambia	0,0	84,4
<b>BURGLARY</b>		
Botswana: 1997	1,2	5,1
2000	5,8	19,2
Egypt	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	5,5	15,3
Mozambique	1,6	18,0
Namibia	5,3	21,2
Nigeria	7,4	6,6
South Africa: 1993	n/a	n/a
1996	4,9	16,8
2000	2,9	29,4
Swaziland	2,1	13,6
Tanzania	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	n/a	n/a
1996	1,9	1,5
2000	23,1	15,8
Zambia	2,0	9,4
Zimbabwe	0,0	10,4
<b>ROBBERY</b>		
Botswana: 1997	1,2	6,7
2000	5,8	12,9
Egypt	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	5,5	19,1
Mozambique	1,6	7,4
Namibia	5,3	28,3
Nigeria	7,4	9,4
South Africa: 1993	n/a	n/a
1996	4,9	14,7
2000	2,9	29,7
Swaziland	2,1	15,4
Tanzania	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	n/a	n/a
1996	1,9	9,5
2000	23,1	25,5
Zambia	2,0	8,4
Zimbabwe	0,0	21,1

TABLE 52: VICTIM SUPPORT SERVICES (%) (continued)

Countries	Received assistance from specialized agencies	Assistance by agency may be useful
<b>SEXUAL OFFENCES</b>		
Botswana: 1997	0,0	2,6
2000	13,3	15,4
Egypt	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	31,3	9,1
Mozambique	10,0	0,0
Namibia	58,3	0,0
Nigeria	4,1	12,0
South Africa: 1993	n/a	n/a
1996	11,8	4,4
2000	20,0	33,3
Swaziland	27,8	0,0
Tanzania	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	n/a	n/a
1996	n/a	2,0
2000	1,9	n/a
Zambia	33,3	9,1
Zimbabwe	0,0	15,8
<b>ASSAULT</b>		
Botswana: 1997	1,1	6,8
2000	9,8	60,0
Egypt	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	18,5	0,0
Mozambique	9,5	13,5
Namibia	4,3	0,0
Nigeria	7,5	9,3
South Africa: 1993	n/a	n/a
1996	4,7	12,8
2000	13,8	16,7
Swaziland	5,6	0,0
Tanzania	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Uganda: 1992	n/a	n/a
1996	0,0	5,3
2000	23,5	0,0
Zambia	6,7	25,0
Zimbabwe	0,0	30,9

TABLE 53: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: INCIDENTS WHICH VICTIMS CHOSE NOT TO REPORT TO THE POLICE (%)

Country		Theft of car	Car hijacking	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Theft of motorcycle	Theft of bicycle	Burglary (entry)	Burglary (attempted)	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents*	Assault	Consumer fraud	Corruption
Botswana:	1997	0,0	n/a	35,6	36,0	n/a	65,0	25,3	52,4	55,0	69,9	88,1	67,8	85,7	86,7
	2000	7,9	8,3	27,4	28,8	0,0	64,3	26,2	50,6	58,5	64,2	87,9	73,1	74,9	0,0
Egypt		27,0	n/a	51,6	73,3	37,5	76,6	46,0	76,7	65,7	78,8	97,5	83,3	50,1	n/a
Lesotho		6,8	9,1	53,3	33,3	0,0	64,3	33,2	57,0	59,8	78,0	83,3	69,7	76,9	96,4
Mozambique		12,2	8,7	81,1	70,5	45,5	84,1	72,0	85,7	77,1	87,5	81,0	73,1	61,1	96,4
Namibia		4,2	22,2	40,9	59,6	0,0	60,3	33,5	48,1	69,1	81,2	87,4	75,2	78,0	89,7
Nigeria		6,9	n/a	62,4	67,1	33,3	57,1	50,7	56,0	55,0	81,1	85,7	76,9	69,9	91,7
South Africa:	1993	10,4	n/a	50,0	58,6	n/a	87,0	40,9	59,0	65,7	85,6	72,7	80,1	89,9	n/a
	1996	7,8	n/a	49,7	66,7	25,0	67,7	40,1	56,6	57,0	82,7	70,6	74,4	90,2	95,7
	2000	5,7	22,2	45,4	40,6	33,3	73,3	37,2	50,8	61,5	68,0	61,0	69,1	88,1	74,4
Swaziland		2,4	13,8	36,5	26,7	20,0	55,6	13,4	42,4	45,3	70,0	79,5	76,0	71,1	89,7
Tanzania		11,1	n/a	23,1	31,3	10,7	29,6	13,6	48,3	31,3	71,8	71,7	43,2	12,0	n/a
Tunisia		11,1	n/a	33,2	48,3	13,4	56,2	36,4	59,8	53,5	61,3	65,9	48,1	41,6	n/a
Uganda:	1992	6,7	n/a	48,6	65,6	9,1	39,7	51,2	n/a	70,0	91,5	84,4	77,0	28,3	n/a
	1996	2,4	n/a	60,7	64,1	0,0	46,7	58,9	78,3	66,7	92,5	87,5	89,7	54,7	97,6
	2000	15,0	13,8,5	72,0	49,1	16,7	63,0	64,8	44,5	73,7	84,5	85,7	84,8	42,3	96,5
Zambia		0,0	,0	45,5	50,0	50,0	36,4	34,9	49,8	65,0	78,7	84,6	72,9	54,1	91,3
Zimbabwe		0,0	n/a	47,1	54,5	66,7	19,2	27,5	71,9	57,7	76,2	87,8	84,9	74,9	97,0

\* Women only

TABLE 54: REPORTING BEHAVIOUR: REASONS FOR NOT REPORTING VICTIMISATION TO THE POLICE (%)

Countries	Not serious enough	Solved it myself	Inappropriate for the police/unnecessary	Reported it to other agencies	My family solved it	No insurance	Police could/t do anything	Police won't do anything	Fear/dislike police/ no involvement wanted	Fear of reprisal	Other/unknown
<b>CAR HIJACKING</b>											
Botswana: 2000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Lesotho	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Namibia	0,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
South Africa: 2000	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	25,0	25,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Swaziland	8,3	8,3	16,7	0,0	16,7	0,0	8,3	16,7	0,0	0,0	25,0
Zambia	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	50,0	0,0	50,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
<b>THEFT FROM/ OUT</b>											
Botswana: 2000											
Lesotho	32,4	1,5	8,8	2,9	2,9	5,9	17,6	13,2	2,9	1,5	4,4
Namibia	13,3	9,3	8,0	2,7	10,7	0,0	21,3	21,3	2,7	0,0	10,7
South Africa: 2000	18,1	5,5	10,4	0,7	2,1	8,3	27,1	21,5	1,4	0,7	4,2
Swaziland	23,4	7,5	10,3	0,0	3,7	6,5	25,2	17,6	0,9	0,9	4,0
Zambia	28,0	8,6	8,6	1,2	1,2	7,3	15,8	20,7	0,0	0,0	8,6
	12,7	8,4	4,2	0,0	4,2	4,2	26,8	29,6	0,0	0,0	9,9
<b>BURGLARY</b>											
Botswana: 2000	23,7	15,8	10,5	0,0	10,5	1,7	19,3	7,9	1,7	0,0	8,9
Lesotho	13,6	17,0	5,7	5,7	15,9	0,0	12,5	13,6	1,1	0,0	14,9
Namibia	15,1	5,0	7,2	0,7	3,6	3,6	23,0	29,5	2,3	5,0	5,0
South Africa: 2000	11,4	32,3	10,1	5,1	8,2	4,4	22,8	0,0	1,3	1,3	3,1
Swaziland	13,3	15,6	11,1	4,4	11,1	0,0	20,0	13,3	8,9	2,3	0,0
Zambia	16,7	8,3	6,7	0,6	3,3	0,0	18,3	28,3	2,2	3,3	12,3
<b>ROBBERY</b>											
Botswana: 2000	21,7	14,5	7,2	5,8	4,3	1,4	23,2	5,8	10,1	1,4	4,6
Lesotho	22,2	12,7	3,2	0,0	6,3	0,0	20,6	12,7	1,6	1,6	19,1
Namibia	10,3	7,3	7,9	0,0	1,2	3,0	32,1	24,8	3,0	0,6	9,8
South Africa: 2000	13,2	16,4	3,8	0,6	5,0	3,1	30,2	12,6	6,3	3,1	5,7
Swaziland	6,6	3,9	14,5	1,3	9,2	0,0	27,6	17,1	11,9	6,6	1,3
Zambia	12,9	4,3	5,7	0,7	4,3	0,0	27,1	21,4	5,7	3,6	14,3
<b>SEXUAL OFFENCES</b>											
Botswana: 2000											
Lesotho	18,3	22,8	13,9	0,6	9,4	0,0	11,1	4,4	3,3	3,9	12,3
Namibia	27,9	15,6	10,7	2,5	13,1	0,0	13,1	3,3	1,6	2,5	9,7
South Africa: 2000	12,8	9,2	9,2	0,5	0,9	0,0	18,8	36,2	4,1	5,1	3,2
Swaziland	5,6	37,0	3,7	5,6	18,5	0,0	7,4	11,1	5,6	3,7	1,8
Zambia	5,6	17,3	7,4	0,6	9,3	0,0	24,1	12,3	9,3	6,1	8,0
	21,5	10,8	12,3	1,5	4,6	0,0	12,8	19,0	3,1	2,6	11,8
<b>ASSAULT</b>											
Botswana: 2000	19,8	24,3	8,2	1,9	9,7	0,0	13,9	9,0	4,1	3,0	6,2
Lesotho	25,0	15,5	8,8	2,7	10,8	0,0	11,5	11,5	2,7	0,7	10,8
Namibia	16,5	14,6	11,6	0,0	5,8	0,0	15,5	17,5]	3,9	7,3	7,3
South Africa: 2000	13,4	29,6	4,5	1,6	13,0	0,0	15,8	10,6	2,4	2,8	6,6
Swaziland	10,1	18,1	10,9	0,4	10,5	0,0	10,5	10,9	14,7	7,6	16,8
Zambia	19,1	10,9	7,9	1,8	5,6	0,0	13,5	19,4	1,8	4,4	15,6

**TABLE 55: OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO CRIME-RELATED ASPECTS: COMMUNITY COHESION**

Country	Residents mostly other	Residents mostly way	Combination	Uncertain
Botswana: 1997	38,0	34,9	17,1	10,0
2000	43,4	32,6	20,4	3,7
Egypt	36,7	29,9	33,3	0,0
Lesotho	49,2	25,7	20,3	4,8
Mozambique	37,0	31,2	31,0	0,8
Namibia	45,3	25,9	23,0	5,7
Nigeria	63,4	18,3	14,4	3,9
South Africa: 1993	53,7	23,6	22,7	0,0
1996	43,2	26,6	27,8	2,3
2000	46,4	32,0	20,4	1,1
Swaziland	26,1	30,2	35,0	8,6
Tanzania	55,7	13,8	30,5	0,0
Tunisia	18,0	39,4	42,6	0,0
Uganda: 1992	51,7	32,0	16,3	0,0
1996	45,1	31,1	20,0	3,8
2000	46,4	34,0	18,7	0,9
Zambia	39,5	35,9	21,3	3,2
Zimbabwe	55,1	24,7	15,5	4,8

**TABLE 56: OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO CRIME-RELATED ASPECTS: FEELINGS OF SAFETY WALKING ALONE IN AREA AFTER DARK**

Country	Very	Fairly	A bit	Very unsafe	Uncertain
Botswana: 1997	8,0	35,7	23,5	32,1	0,8
2000	11,4	31,9	32,3	24,1	0,3
Egypt	50,1	33,9	8,0	8,0	0,0
Lesotho	11,0	15,5	16,4	56,7	0,3
Mozambique	3,4	29,9	33,7	30,8	2,1
Namibia	20,6	32,0	28,1	18,4	0,9
Nigeria	47,2	40,4	5,8	6,5	0,0
South Africa: 1993	15,2	17,7	23,4	43,7	0,0
1996	12,6	24,2	23,8	39,5	0,0
2000	9,4	19,3	17,8	52,9	0,5
Swaziland	6,9	18,0	34,8	38,4	2,0
Tanzania	23,4	34,7	26,0	16,0	0,0
Tunisia	34,7	42,9	17,0	5,5	0,0
Uganda: 1992	19,4	47,0	25,3	8,4	0,0
1996	23,1	47,1	26,8	2,7	0,3
2000	24,9	55,5	15,8	3,6	0,1
Zambia	11,2	29,4	30,1	29,0	0,3
Zimbabwe	23,1	23,6	19,4	29,8	4,2



**TABLE 57: OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO CRIME-RELATED ASPECTS: VIEWS ON BECOMING VICTIMS OF BURGLARY IN THE NEAR FUTURE**

Country		Very likely	Likely	Not very likely	Uncertain
Botswana:	1997	25,2	36,4	18,4	20,1
	2000	13,6	38,7	32,7	15,0
Egypt		12,7	50,6	36,7	0,0
Lesotho		29,5	36,8	21,4	12,3
Mozambique		12,1	44,3	19,9	23,7
Namibia		15,1	42,8	26,5	15,6
Nigeria		12,1	22,4	53,8	11,8
South Africa:	1993	32,2	34,5	33,3	0,0
	1996	22,9	25,0	29,1	23,0
	2000	30,3	36,5	25,1	8,1
Swaziland		29,5	36,6	13,1	20,8
Tanzania		22,5	60,4	17,0	0,0
Tunisia		12,8	51,9	35,3	0,0
Uganda:	1992	13,0	60,7	26,3	0,0
	1996	3,7	28,0	32,3	36,0
	2000	4,2	37,8	44,8	13,2
Zambia		18,2	41,7	21,4	18,6
Zimbabwe		13,2	39,3	36,3	11,2

**TABLE 58: OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO CRIME-RELATED ASPECTS: GENERAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE LOCAL POLICE**

Country		Perform well	Do not perform well	Uncertain
Botswana:	1997	39,6	33,5	26,8
	2000	65,7	33,7	0,6
Egypt		38,9	61,1	0,0
Lesotho		25,6	52,2	22,2
Mozambique		90,5	9,5	0,0
Namibia		30,2	49,8	20,1
Nigeria		41,4	41,3	1,3
South Africa:	1993	31,7	68,3	0,0
	1996	27,1	52,7	20,2
	2000	45,7	53,4	0,9
Swaziland		23,6	54,6	21,8
Tanzania		57,4	42,6	0,0
Tunisia		49,0	51,0	0,0
Uganda:	1992	49,0	51,0	0,0
	1996	41,2	39,6	19,2
	2000	64,7	35,1	0,2
Zambia		51,5	48,2	15,4
Zimbabwe		48,5	36,1	15,4

**TABLE 59: DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS**

Country profile	Botswana	Egypt	Lesotho	Mozambique	Namibia	Nigeria	South Africa	Swaziland	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Zambia	Zimbabwe	Sub-Saharan Africa
Human Development Index, 2001 (rank of 175 countries)	125	120	137	170	124	152	111	133	160	91	147	163	145	
Population (million) (WB)	1,6	65,2	2,1	18,1	1,8	129,9	43,2	1,1	34,4	9,7	22,8	10,3	12,8	643,3
Annual population growth (%) (WB)	0,8	1,8	0,3	2,1	2,0	2,3	1,0	2,2	2,1	1,2	2,6	1,9	1,5	2,5
Population aged 0-15 (%) (UN)	40,0	35,7	40,2	44,0	43,2	44,8	33,6	44,0	45,6	29,4	49,7	46,4	43,5	
Population aged 65+ (%) (UN)	2,6	4,5	4,6	3,2	3,7	3,1	3,8	3,2	2,3	5,8	2,6	3,0	3,4	
Urban population (%) (2001) (WB)	49,4	42,7	28,7	33,2	31,4	44,9	57,6	26,7	33,2	66,1	14,5	39,8	36,0	31,1
GDP growth 2001 (%) WB	5,7	5,3	3,0	9,0	4,6	4,0	2,2	1,6	5,7	4,9	4,6	5,2	-8,4	2,7
Literacy rates 2001 Adult females (15+) (WB) All adults (15+) (UN)	75,3 78,1	49,8 56,1	73,2 83,9	61,2 45,2	83,4 82,7	73,5 65,4	86,3 85,9	81,3 80,3	67,9 76,0	61,9 72,1	68,0 68,0	85,7 79,0	93,3 89,3	68,9 52,0
Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) (2000-2001) (US\$)	30,0	509,9	118,0	139,0	n/a	1,1 (bil)	961,0	43,7	224,4	457,4	144,7	200,0	78,7	7,5 (bil)
Debt value (2000-2001) (WB) (US\$ m (mil) b (bil) (WB)	339,1 (m)	25,1 (b)	515,4 (m)	1,2 (b)	n/a	27,2 (b)	23,8 (b)	217,9 (m)	1,3 (b)	10,8 (b)	1,2 (b)	5,0 (b)	3,6 (b)	13,6 (b)
Population living on less than US\$ a day (%) (1990-2001)	23,5	43,9	43,1	37,9	34,9	90,8	#2	n/a	59,7	10,0	96,4	63,7	36,0	

WB: World Bank Country Data Profile, 2001 (<http://devdata.worldbank.org>) UN: UNDP Human Development Report, 2003 (<http://undp.org/hdr2003>).

**TABLE 60: VICTIMISATION IN THE YEAR PRECEDING THE SURVEY: PERCENTAGE VICTIMISED ONCE OR MORE**

Country	Theft of car	Hijacking	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Theft of motorcycle	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual offences	Assault	All relevant crimes
Botswana	1,0	0,7	12,3	3,9	0,0	4,8	6,8	4,0	1,8	7,6	5,0	3,7	34,0
Egypt	3,4	n/a	13,5	6,8	5,0	3,7	3,0	3,8	2,2	9,6	10,6	2,7	36,0
Lesotho	2,6	1,1	10,4	2,2	0,0	3,5	6,6	5,0	2,0	7,4	5,7	4,3	34,0
Mozambique	7,5	5,2	21,0	5,2	3,4	3,5	12,6	9,5	7,6	9,9	2,6	6,2	58,0
Namibia	1,9	0,2	12,2	4,7	0,0	10,3	8,1	6,0	5,0	7,1	4,8	4,4	48,0
Nigeria	2,7	n/a	8,3	7,5	4,0	3,3	4,5	4,4	4,6	11,4	8,8	6,2	42,0
South Africa Swaziland	7,6	5,0	9,2	6,0	11,4	6,9	7,9	4,0	5,4	8,6	2,8	6,4	48,0
Tanzania	6,3	4,9	15,0	6,9	5,7	7,8	9,4	8,9	3,8	12,3	6,2	7,2	63,0
Tunisia	7,6	n/a	24,4	13,2	5,8	8,2	n/a	13,3	n/a	17,8	7,0	5,3	63,0
Uganda	3,7	n/a	19,0	8,6	6,7	9,0	7,4	4,5	5,6	14,4	5,1	1,1	54,0
Zambia	1,1	3,5	15,2	5,7	2,7	2,7	5,9	7,0	4,5	15,4	1,6	5,0	47,0
Zimbabwe	3,2	6,0	11,2	2,4	0,0	5,5	10,8	6,6	2,5	10,2	5,4	6,7	46,0
	1,1	n/a	18,4	8,1	5,9	3,9	10,2	7,2	4,2	20,6	2,8	10,2	63,0

Vehicle related crime proportionate to vehicle ownership

Sexual offences involve female victimisation only

All relevant crimes refer to the total incidence of victimisation across all crime categories per country

**TABLE 61: VICTIMISATION IN YEAR PRECEDING THE SURVEY: PERCENTAGE VICTIMISED ONCE OR MORE (PREVALENCE RATES): BASED ON ELEVEN CRIMES STANDARD ACROSS SWEEPS<sup>1</sup>**

Country	11 Crimes	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Theft of motorcycle	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents	Assault & threats
Australia	30,0	1,9	6,8	9,2	0,1	2,0	3,9	3,3	1,2	6,5	4,0	6,4
Austria	18,8	0,1	1,6	6,7	0,0	3,3	0,9	0,5	0,2	5,0	3,8	2,1
Belgium	21,4	0,7	3,6	6,1	0,3	3,5	2,0	2,8	1,0	4,1	1,1	3,2
Canada	23,8	1,4	5,4	5,5	0,1	3,5	2,3	2,3	0,9	4,7	2,1	5,3
Catalonia (Spain)	19,0	0,4	5,3	7,7	0,6	0,4	1,3	0,6	0,9	3,0	0,8	1,5
Denmark	23,0	1,1	3,4	3,8	0,7	6,7	3,1	1,5	0,7	4,1	2,5	3,6
England & Wales	26,4	2,1	6,4	8,8	0,4	2,4	2,8	2,8	1,2	4,6	2,7	6,1
Finland	19,1	0,4	2,9	3,7	0,1	4,9	0,3	1,0	0,6	3,3	3,7	4,2
France	21,4	1,7	5,5	8,2	0,3	1,8	1,0	1,3	1,1	3,0	1,1	4,2
Germany (West)	21,9	0,4	4,7	8,7	0,2	3,3	1,3	1,8	0,8	4,0	2,8	3,1
Italy	24,6	2,7	7,0	7,6	1,5	2,3	2,4	1,7	1,3	3,6	1,7	0,8
Japan	15,2	0,1	1,6	4,4	1,0	6,6	1,1	0,8	0,1	0,5	1,2	0,4
Netherlands	25,2	0,4	3,9	8,9	0,6	7,0	1,9	2,7	0,8	4,7	3,0	3,4
New Zealand	29,4	2,7	6,9	7,9	0,3	4,4	4,3	3,6	0,7	5,3	2,7	5,7
Northern Ireland	15,0	1,2	2,7	4,5	0,0	1,4	1,7	0,9	0,1	2,2	0,6	3,0
Norway	16,4	1,1	2,8	4,6	0,3	2,8	0,7	0,4	0,5	3,2	2,2	3,0
Poland	22,7	1,0	5,5	7,0	0,1	3,6	2,0	1,3	1,8	5,3	0,5	2,8
Portugal	15,5	0,9	4,9	6,3	0,3	0,8	1,4	1,2	1,1	1,9	0,6	0,9
Scotland	23,2	0,7	4,2	9,0	0,1	2,0	1,5	1,9	0,7	4,6	1,1	6,1
Spain	24,8	1,4	9,6	6,6	0,8	1,1	1,6	2,1	3,1	5,2	2,3	3,1
Sweden	24,7	1,3	5,3	4,6	0,4	7,2	1,7	0,7	0,9	5,8	2,6	3,8
Switzerland	18,2	0,3	1,7	3,9	0,2	4,7	1,1	1,8	0,7	4,4	2,1	2,4
USA	21,1	0,5	6,4	7,2	0,3	2,1	1,8	2,7	0,6	4,9	1,5	3,4

<sup>1</sup> Van Kesteren, J; Mayhew, P & Nieuwebeerta, P. 2000. Criminal victimiation in seventeen industrial countries. Leiden: NSCR, page 179.