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**NEW DIMENSIONS OF CRIMINALITY AND CRIME PREVENTION IN THE  
CONTEXT OF DEVELOPMENT: CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE**

Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations  
of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies

Report prepared by the Secretariat

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## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The report on the conduct and preliminary results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies may suggest certain conclusions and observations.

2. First, in the light of resolution 2 of the Sixth Congress, 1/ in which the world-wide need to develop relevant and reliable statistical information about the phenomenon of crime and the operations of criminal justice systems was emphasized, the information provided by countries replying to the questionnaire made possible the creation of a wide-ranging United Nations data bank of crime-related data. Although there are still, at this stage, many gaps and short-comings in the data bank, it should become increasingly helpful in conducting a number of specific research studies, and in making action-oriented recommendations.

3. Secondly, available crime-related data point to the need, also expressed at the Sixth Congress, for the improvement of data collection, even in countries that seemed to be more advanced in that field. Progress in the availability of statistics at the international level depends largely upon improvement at the national level. More importantly, timely, reliable and relevant statistics and indicators on various aspects of crime and the criminal justice system are essential for sound policy-making and programme management at the national level. These improvements can be fostered through international collaboration, including the exchange of experience and technical co-operation, with the help of the United Nations system. Although the first major steps have now been taken, there is still much to be done. National statistical capabilities and systems for criminal justice statistics need to be strengthened, users and producers of such statistics within countries need to collaborate more closely and the national and international use of statistics and indicators in this field needs to be strengthened. Data bases on other socio-economic aspects of development have matured from the point of view of quality and coverage over a long period of time; they now constitute a stable and essential component of international exchanges of information, and a base for substantive policy development at the global, regional and national levels in many social and economic sectors. With the proper attention and support at the national and international levels, a similar evolution in the data on crime and criminal justice can be anticipated.

4. Thirdly, at a more specific level, the present overview of data suggests that:

(a) The incidence of recorded crime in most of the reporting countries, including crime at the regional levels, has mostly continued to increase;

(b) If this increase continues, the implications for many countries could be disturbing. Concerted action within and among nations seems therefore to be an even more urgent need;

(c) Continuous efforts should be made to create comprehensive, extended, and, wherever they exist, improved systems of crime-related statistics. Such systems should be able to serve a variety of purposes, including their combined use with data existing in other social and economic sectors, for informed decision-making in the administration of justice, and for achieving the dispensation of justice in a fair, impartial and efficient manner;

(d) Attention might be paid to some aspects of the operations of criminal justice systems, particularly the legal structure and functional arrangements

of each criminal justice system, with respect to the ultimate effectiveness of its work, and to the recruitment and training of criminal justice personnel. Consideration might be given to an appropriate core syllabus, incorporating national and United Nations perspectives;

(e) The Caracas Declaration, adopted by the Sixth Congress, laid down the following goal: "The success of criminal justice systems and strategies for crime prevention ... depends above all on the progress achieved throughout the world in improving social conditions and enhancing the quality of life; it is thus essential to review traditional crime prevention strategies based exclusively on legal criteria." 1/ If this goal is to be met, the appropriate combination of penal legislation with indirect and direct crime prevention strategies should be continued.

5. Finally, in view of the importance and high priority of the collection, analysis and dissemination of crime-related data, noted at the Sixth Congress, the Seventh Congress may wish to consider and propose ways and means of enhancing the work carried out by the United Nations with regard to international exchanges of information and data, the utilization of the crime-related data base, including long-term research and the development and publication of the results of the Survey, preparation and publication of needed technical manuals and reports on various aspects of the systemization, collection and compilation of criminal justice statistics, and the appropriate forms of technical co-operation.

## INTRODUCTION

### A. Legislative mandate

6. The Sixth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, in its resolution 2 on the development of crime and criminal justice statistics, requested the Secretary-General to "intensify efforts to co-ordinate the collection of comparable cross-national statistics on crime and justice in each of the Member States...", and recommended that States "should enhance their efforts at improving information, particularly quantitative information, about those crimes and those parts of the justice system that present the fewest problems of comparability and reporting difficulties for each State". 1/

7. In making this recommendation, the Congress noted the world-wide need for relevant and reliable statistical information on the phenomenon of crime and the operation of criminal justice systems.

8. It was also suggested at the Congress that an improvement of crime data collection was needed even in those countries which seemed to be more advanced in that field and the Congress proposed the continuation of studies aimed at improving systems of registration and crime statistics. Later, by its resolution 1984/48 on crime prevention and criminal justice in the context of development, the Economic and Social Council requested the Secretary-General to maintain and develop the United Nations crime-related data base by continuing to conduct quinquennial surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies.

### B. Objectives of the Second Survey

9. In response to resolution 2 of the Sixth Congress, the Secretary-General initiated preparations for the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, hereafter referred to as the Second Survey. Two interregional ad hoc meetings of experts were convened to assist in creating an appropriate instrument and methodology for gathering and analysing information on trends in crime and its prevention. 2/ The questionnaire, which was constructed on the basis of the advice given in these meetings and other expert advice, was designed to obtain information on three main areas: (a) statistics on recorded crime; (b) statistics and qualitative information on the operation of justice systems; and (c) information on crime prevention strategies. The present report provides a preliminary account of the replies received, viewing crime and criminal justice in the context of socio-economic development. Possible policy implications that may be derived from the results of the Second Survey are pointed out, including those related to data collection strategies.

### C. United Nations and other relevant experience

10. The Second Survey was designed primarily to lay the foundations of a data base, which as the time series lengthens and the scope of the data increases, will become increasingly useful as a source of policy-relevant research, both within the criminal justice sector and cross-sectorally, when used in conjunction with other United Nations data bases in other social and economic sectors. Therefore, as a necessary first step, a picture of what types of data are and are not available had to be obtained.

11. In the preparation and conduct of the Second Survey and the presentation of the results, the Secretariat took account of experience prior to the United Nations work in the field of cross-national analysis of crime trends. For the last 100 years various attempts have been made to compare statistics on crime across different countries. In most respects, however, cross-national analysis of crime data is still undeveloped, especially at the truly global level.\* The more recent studies have been mostly restricted to a few developed countries, and to selected crime types. Also, there have been committees and working parties set up to consider international crime statistics, and in particular to attempt universal definitions of specific crime categories for the purpose of making valid comparisons. 3/

12. A step forward in the area of international comparisons was made in the report on the First United Nations Survey, contained in the report of the Secretary-General on crime prevention and control (A/32/199), in which roughly equivalent crime categories were used, instead of absolute, legalistic categories. This Survey originated in General Assembly resolution 3021 (XXVII) of 18 December 1972 and covered the period 1970-1975. The General Assembly, in its resolution 32/60, noted the report of the Secretary-General with satisfaction. Moreover, in its resolution 32/59, it requested the Secretary-General to gather and disseminate data on crime trends and criminal policies, and also to foster the exchange of information relating to crime and to the operations of the criminal justice system.

13. The First Survey dealt primarily with trends and with changing rates and patterns of criminality. The categories of offence used were defined by behavioural criteria as far as possible to permit a "functional equivalence" approach. The 10 types of offence were: intentional homicide; assault; sexual offences; kidnapping; robbery; theft, including burglary and house-breaking; fraud; illegal drug traffic; drug and alcohol abuse; and traffic offences.

14. The First Survey was an innovative attempt, and some general conclusions emerged as to the availability of data. Many Member States did not report having any such data, perhaps because crime was perceived as evidence of "social failure", or perhaps because crime was not regarded as a significant social phenomenon.

15. Moreover, some countries were not in a position to report crime figures broken down between males and females (for adults or juveniles). Such variations in the precision of the data available highlighted the need to map out what data were or were not available. The questionnaire for the Second Survey was designed largely with this in mind. In formulating the questionnaire for the Second Survey, the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch of the CSDHA benefited not only from experience gained from the First Survey and the guidance of the two interregional ad hoc meetings of experts but also from the extensive experience of the Statistical Office of the United Nations Secretariat in collecting data from Member States on a wide variety of areas.

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\*The subject was discussed at the First United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held at Geneva, 22 August-3 September 1955, but no substantive activity was mandated. (A/CONF.6/L.17, para. F.)



16. Countries vary in many aspects of criminal justice, from the nature and scope of the criminal law, through arrest, prosecution and trial procedures, to sentencing, use of custody and release, but in many respects these differences are not explicitly described. This view seems to have been one of the factors behind the wish convened by Member States in resolution 2 of the Sixth Congress 1/ to have more detailed, accurate and factual information on which to base their exchanges of experience, and on which to build productive technical co-operation initiatives. The Second Survey was intended to allow preliminary examination of the nature and consequences of these differences, and to permit a much more detailed study of a number of specific questions.

#### D. Conduct of the Second Survey

17. The type of questionnaire ultimately chosen, therefore, contained many questions and sub-questions, but was designed on the assumption that few countries could provide data for every cell in the questionnaire. It was created, inter alia, to provide one model for a comprehensive data base, which, however, is not regarded as the only model, but rather as a basis for future improvement in the light of practical use and testing.

18. The questionnaire was sent to Governments through normal United Nations channels early in 1983. Replies from Governments began to arrive at the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch of the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs towards the end of 1983, and are still arriving. For that reason, a full analysis cannot be made as yet, but will be completed later. The major task so far has been the entering of all the data, quantitative and qualitative, onto electronic data-processing equipment, as far as resources permit.

#### E. The nature of the interim report

19. As of 15 May 1985, replies have been received from 70 countries;\* at the time of the primary analysis, 65 replies could be included.\*\* Five other replies were received after the analysis on which this report is based had

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\*All the quantitative data have been entered and stored in the main computer at the Vienna International Centre with an archive back-up; the qualitative, descriptive data are being entered and stored on word-processing equipment, as resources permit. The quantitative data from the first survey, which total less than one quarter of those from the Second Survey, are being incorporated into the main data base.

\*\*Algeria, Argentina, Austria, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Canada, Cape Verde, Chad, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, Fiji, Finland, France, Germany, Federal Republic of, Greece, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kuwait, Madagascar, Mauritius, Morocco, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Saint Lucia, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tuvalu, Uganda, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United States of America, Venezuela, Yugoslavia, Zimbabwe.

been carried out.\* These will be used in the analysis for the subsequent, all-inclusive report.\*\*

20. According to the provisions of Economic and Social Council decision 1984/153 and Council resolution 1984/48, the Second Survey should be considered primarily under topic I of the provisional agenda.\*\*\* The present report concentrates on crime and criminal justice data, including descriptions of the overall results, rather than providing detailed statistical analyses. Such analyses were made in the regional report on Europe prepared by the Helsinki Institute on Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI) and that on Asia and the Pacific by the United Nations Far East Asia Institute on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFEI) in Tokyo,\*\*\*\* in co-operation with the Keio and Chuo Universities of Tokyo. They are also being pursued by the Secretariat.

21. The material presented in this report concentrates on a broad review of available data on the crime picture, on crime prevention strategies and, to some extent, on the operations of criminal justice. Several aspects of the Second Survey are to be considered under other agenda items of the Congress and are not repeated in the present report. It is expected that the Congress will be interested in the comparability of data between the First and Second Surveys. Despite some severe limitations, a comparison of trends has been possible for the 11-year period (1970-1980) covered by the two reports.

22. Finally, as a follow-up, the Secretary-General sent a note verbale on 4 September 1984, requesting countries to provide, on a one-page form, perceived changes in the rates of various aspects of crime and criminal justice. The results of these returns give a preliminary indication of whether the trends found in the Second Survey period of 1975-1980 appear to be continuing in the 1980s. A brief account and analysis of these returns is included.

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\*Australia, Costa Rica, Switzerland, Uruguay, Zambia.

\*\*A United Nations sales publication is planned, based on this report but incorporating a much extended quantitative analysis of the operations of criminal justice systems, their relationship to crime rates, and the relationship of both to socio-economic factors, and taking into account the observations and recommendations of the Seventh Congress.

\*\*\*See also E/AC.57/1984/11.

\*\*\*\*These reports are available at the Seventh Congress as separate documents distributed by HEUNI and UNAFEI.

## I. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE FIRST AND SECOND UNITED NATIONS CRIME TRENDS SURVEY

### A. Introduction

23. While the extent and depth of the questions asked in the First and Second Surveys varied considerably, some basic items remained similar, especially those concerning reported crimes and the classification of crime types. In this report, data on some basic crime categories, i.e. homicide, assault, robbery, theft and fraud, are analysed using the combined samples of both surveys.\* Information concerning criminal justice personnel has also been examined, although differences between the questions asked in the First and Second Surveys made the combined use of these data somewhat difficult. It was thought, however, that the importance of this topic made even a limited analysis valuable.

24. An examination of the trends and patterns of reported crime by type of crime in the two Surveys revealed considerable consistency for all types of crime except homicide. Generally there was a sharp increase in many series between the transition years of 1975 and 1976. In most cases, this increase was found to be probably the result of a change in the reporting and recording method used. Therefore, although there has been some variation owing to the different questionnaires used in the two Surveys, the trends within each of the Survey periods were mostly consistent.

25. The reason for the difference between the First and Second Surveys with respect to homicide lies in the relative statistical rarity of that crime, which is defined very differently in the jurisdictions of the reporting countries. Consequently, homicide may be and indeed is classified quite differently in the various countries, and the classification may differ from the First to the Second Survey. Nonetheless, the reclassification of even a few cases can change percentages significantly.

26. Because some countries submitted data in one Survey but not in the other, there was necessarily a small loss of cases between the two Surveys. A total of 50 countries reported in a quantifiable manner in the First Survey, whereas at the time of this analysis, 65 have provided quantifiable replies for the Second Survey. Because of the difference between the countries reporting in the First Survey and those reporting in the Second Survey, it was possible, for most crimes examined in this report, to use data from the 20-30 countries that had responded to both Surveys.

27. Whenever possible, the combined results of the Surveys are based only on countries that responded to both questionnaires. Therefore, some data reported for the period 1970-1975 may not reflect exactly the results contained in the original report on the First Survey (see A/32/199), since that report, dealing as it did with that Survey alone, would have used data from almost twice as many countries. Obviously, the same constraint applies to the comparison of these data with those of the Second Survey.

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\*The data submitted by the following 34 countries have been included in this analysis, subject to availability and relevance of these data to particular items: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbados, Canada, Chile, Cyprus, Denmark, Ecuador, Finland, France, Germany, Federal Republic of, Greece, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Kuwait, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Poland, Qatar, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, Trinidad and Tobago, United Kingdom (England), United States of America, Yugoslavia.

28. In spite of this difficulty, it should be noted that the data analysed in the present report cover an 11-year period. The longer time series is to be preferred, because, all else being equal, it will enable longer-term trends to be "disentangled" from short-term erratic fluctuations.

29. Some of the results of the First Survey are compared with those of the Second Survey (see annex II, figures I-VIII), and follow-ups are given to the report on the First Survey (figures IX and X). These comparisons should be regarded as tentative. They show that there exists a higher rate of recorded and reported crimes of violence in developing countries than in developed countries as a proportion of the whole recorded crime, but this difference is diminishing. However, the higher ratio of police personnel to other criminal justice personnel in developing countries seems to be continuing. Figures IX and X have been included to illustrate that point.

#### B. Patterns of crime, 1970-1980

30. Rates for all types of reported crime have increased substantially from 1970 to 1980; violent crimes have doubled (see figure I), and property crimes have almost tripled (see figure II). Although the homicide rate has remained low, compared with the rate for other crimes, it has also increased from a reported 3.9 per 100,000 population in 1970 to 5.7 in 1980 for the 22 countries included in the comparative analysis. It should be added that these results do not reflect world rates but rather the reported crime picture for the 22 countries from which data were made available for the combined Survey period.

#### C. Crime rates in developing and developed countries

31. In order to obtain sufficient replies for statistical analysis, it was necessary in this case to relax the selection rule of comparing only countries that had responded to both Surveys, and to compare results for developing countries obtained from the First Survey with those obtained from the Second Survey, to which not all the same developing countries had replied. However, the general trends found in the First Survey continued (see figures III-VII), although at a higher level, with the exception of robbery.

32. The higher rate of reported homicide for developing compared with developed countries continued in the Second Survey. The First Survey showed that the homicide rate was declining in developing countries to such an extent that it was approaching the level of developed countries; this was not the case with the Second Survey (see figure III). There is a marked increase in 1978, which does not correspond with the transition from the First to the Second Survey. Thus, it is probably not due to reporting error, although caution is, as always, appropriate when drawing any inferences. The continuation of the generally higher level of homicide for developing countries is consistent with the results of the First Survey.

33. The comparatively higher level of assault in developing countries continued in the Second Survey (see figure IV). However, the drastic increase in assault during the transition period from the First Survey to the Second Survey suggests some distortion introduced by differences in the questionnaire used or in the countries replying to the two Surveys. But data within the second period alone indicate that the assault rate for developing countries maintained its comparatively higher level. It is interesting to note that the assault rate reported for developed countries has not increased markedly for the 10-year period, a finding that runs counter to popular impressions in developed countries concerning an increase in violent crime.

34. It can be seen from figure V that reported rates for robbery tend to behave like a mixture of crimes against the person and against property. This is demonstrated by the fluctuations in the reported rates of robbery between developed and developing countries, especially in the Second Survey period. The rate of robbery in developed countries fluctuates between being less than the average rate in developing countries and more than the average rate in developing countries, usual for crimes against property. However, this may also illustrate the problem of comparing data from two Surveys when, although the classifications of reporting countries remains identical, the responding countries have themselves to some extent been different in the two Survey periods.

35. Figures VI and VII show that, in contrast to trends in violent crimes, the developed countries report considerably higher property crime rates: the rates reported for both theft and fraud appear to have increased substantially in the developed countries. The developing countries, on the other hand, have shown only a gradual increase in reported theft (the sharp increase at the transition point of 1975/76 can be assumed to have resulted from a reporting change) between the two Surveys, and virtually none at all in fraud.

#### D. Social indicators and crime

36. In the First Survey, the levels of a number of socio-economic indicators were found to be related to the reported levels of various types of crime. For example, countries with a relatively low gross domestic product (GDP) per capita tended to have a high homicide rate and those reporting a high assault rate tended to have high proportions of their population engaged in agriculture (A/32/199, para. 36). Conversely, countries with a high GDP per capita tended to have high levels of reported property crime. Such a finding was considered, in the First Survey, to be a possible explanation of the differential levels of property crime between developed and developing countries, since it was assumed that most, but not all, developing countries had a relatively low level of economic development (i.e. a low GDP per capita). In brief, less is stolen where there is less to steal.

37. Evidence was found in the First Survey that almost all the main indicators of socio-economic development were highly intercorrelated. Contemporary research on social indicators in other sectors has arrived at similar conclusions. Therefore, for the purposes of the present report, an analysis was conducted to examine only the relationship of GDP per capita with various reported crime rates. Based as they were on the 11-year time series and limited to the same countries that reported data for the entire series, usually 29 countries, the results were inconclusive. Nor were any clear relationships found between GDP per capita and any of the crime rates for any of the years of the Second Survey alone (i.e. GDP per capita for the period 1976-1980 with crime rates of those years).

38. A similar calculation was conducted to examine whether any association between the percentage increase in the crime rate of 1980 over 1970 and the increase in GDP per capita for that period could be identified. Only one statistically significant finding was produced from this analysis, and this was for theft rates, which seemed to vary moderately, at the level of 0.365, with GDP per capita.

39. These provisional findings are, however, not inconsistent with the conclusions of the report on the First Survey: it was hypothesized that the rate of increase in economic development, rather than the actual level of economic development, would be related to reported crime rates. This finding

was seen to be in line with research on the relationship between modernization and crime, where some studies have shown that it is the rate of socio-economic change that may be disruptive to social life, and so especially conducive to crime. The small sample may account for some of the instances in which clear-cut findings were not found. Perhaps more detailed research and a more extensive data would reveal a clearer pattern. Nevertheless, these results reinforce the need for caution in interpreting the data.

#### E. Criminal justice personnel

40. Data on the annual rates of criminal justice personnel were collected for the Second Survey, while in the First Survey they were collected only for the year most recently available. The year most frequently reported in the First Survey was 1974. In order to make a comparison between the First and Second Surveys, data from the year most recently available in the Second Survey, 1979 or 1980, were chosen and compared to data for 1974.

41. One finding in the First Survey that aroused considerable attention was that, while developing countries reported a somewhat higher rate of police officers per 100,000 population than developed countries, there was no correlation between GDP per capita and the number of police personnel overall (A/32/199, para. 48). It was, however, observed in the report on the First Survey that the number of police as a proportion of all criminal justice personnel was somewhat higher for developing than for developed countries, while judges comprised a smaller proportion in developing compared with developed countries. As shown in Figures VIII and IX, this pattern is equally clear in the Second Survey. The data indicate that police comprise 94 per cent of the criminal justice personnel in developing countries, while prison staff account for only 5 per cent and judges 1 per cent. Among developing countries, the comparable figures are 77 per cent, 19 per cent and 4 per cent respectively.

42. Perhaps the most striking finding concerns the comparative increase in the number of police per capita. It can be seen from figure X that the number of police in developing countries has increased from 394 to 913 per 100,000 population between 1974 and 1980. That increase could be due, at least to some extent, to the different questionnaires used in the two Surveys. In contrast, the number of police per 100,000 population in developed countries remained at about the same level in the two Surveys.

43. In the report on the First Survey, it was hypothesized that the reason for this difference in the allocation of resources to "front line" criminal justice personnel, i.e. police, was that developing countries had not enough qualified or educated personnel available to become judges. Therefore, recruitment to the judiciary was more difficult. However, since the initial education required for prison officers is usually similar to that required for police officers, such a hypothesis cannot apply in this instance. One possible alternative explanation may be that the developing countries have increased their police forces in response to an increasing level of crime, of violence, and to a public demand for action. It must, however, be stated that no one explanation would be valid without further research.

44. An analysis was made of the variation among countries of crime rates by type and the variation in the number of judges per 100,000 population and the number of prison officers per 100,000 population. There appeared to be a moderately strong association for all types of crime except homicide. That is, in general, countries with high crime rates had relatively large numbers of judges and prison officers in proportion to their population. There is no immediately obvious explanation for this finding.

45. The last analysis conducted was that of the relationship between the rate of increase in GDP per capita and the increase in the number of police per capita as between the First Survey period and the Second Survey period. Again, a moderately strong association was observed. That is, on average, countries with higher GDP per capita had larger numbers of police per capita.

## F. Conclusions

46. Although there are a number of methodological difficulties involved in comparing the results of the First Survey with those of the Second Survey, some interesting and consistent results have been obtained, which tend to support the view that property crimes, especially theft, are the crimes typical of developed societies. On the other hand, the finding, once again, of a higher level of crimes of violence in developing countries, coupled with a considerably larger number of police personnel, does raise some questions. It is regrettable that the data could not be analysed regionally in the present report, but there were not enough cases to permit such an analysis.

47. It must be emphasized that these findings are generalizations based on the reports of a limited number of countries. Caution must be exercised in assuming that the findings can be generalized to the world at large. Moreover, the findings cannot be viewed as applicable to any individual country. They can, however, be used as points of departure for international and regional discussions concerning the crime problems faced by countries, especially in the relationship between crime and the particular patterns of development of individual countries, with special reference to creating an integrated criminal justice system and the planned use of criminal justice personnel.

48. Finally, the continuity of trends in many of the areas examined does suggest that "real" factors are being measured, and therefore that the data base can be built up into a source on the basis of which some of the underlying patterns of change in crime and criminal justice can be described and clarified. Thus, the data are not only the result of exemplary international co-operation but also augur well for continuing collaboration to the mutual benefit of those concerned with criminal justice in countries around the world.

## II. STATISTICAL OVERVIEW OF THE DATA

### A. Response rates and patterns

49. Although the number of countries returning data at the time of analysis (65) may seem low, it is consistent with the level of reporting found in the initial stages of some other sectors of global survey work. It is also a significant increase over the First Survey, when the questions asked were fewer and far less detailed.

50. The question of missing data can only be answered in specific terms: a summary would not be very meaningful. The number of countries providing information in response to some of the most important questions therefore, is given in the tables in annex I. The layout follows that used in the comparable question in the questionnaire for the Second Survey. They show the percentage of the countries submitting data at all that responded to that particular question. The numbers do not indicate what data were submitted. Percentages are used because they provide clearer, easier information from which to draw policy conclusions.

51. Some observations emerge from a preliminary analysis. First, a higher percentage of countries tended to respond for the later years (that is, 1979-1980) than for the earlier years. Secondly, more countries were able to provide national data than were able to in respect of the largest city, and more provided data on "recorded crimes" than on "attempts" to commit crime. Thirdly, many more countries were able to provide data on recorded crime and, to a lesser extent, on personnel within the criminal justice system than on offenders at various stages of the process. Fourthly, most countries reported data on conventional ("street") crimes, and almost as many on crimes of an economic nature ("white-collar crime"), including fraud and embezzlement. However, data on crimes such as bribery and corruption were reported by fewer countries.

52. The implications of these observations may be summarized as follows. The higher returns for later years suggest that, once countries have collected and stored the data, the most recent data are the most accessible. This is presumably mostly the case in countries with non-computerized systems. It could be that in these countries some portions of the data fall into disuse or "fade away". While such a tendency might not be surprising, if the decision-making process in the administration of justice is to be based upon continuous and comprehensive reviews of the developments in the field over a relatively long period of time, there is a primary need for the appropriate data to be available. To meet such a need, the statistical system should provide, and maintain over a period of time, a certain quantity of such data. On an international level, this situation raises the question whether the Survey should be conducted more frequently, and cover a shorter period -- for instance once every three years, requesting data for a three-year period only. This might make it easier for the relevant offices in Member States to complete the questionnaire, but the task would have to be carried out more frequently. That could be an advantage, as the task would become routine. As has been suggested earlier in this report, the value of the Surveys and of the data bank they create increases with the quantity and quality of data submitted by Member States. Therefore, a small change of data collection strategy may yield a considerable increase in the amount of data collected and thus achieve better results from the project.

53. The second observation refers to the replies regarding attempts to commit crime and those concerning the data for largest cities. With reference to "attempts", it may be assumed from the low number of countries replying to these questions that not many countries keep statistics on attempted crimes as a separate category. The policy question raised by this finding is that countries may wish to exchange experience and information on the value of recording attempted crime separately, and the Congress may be in a position to take into account alternative national experiences in assessing the appropriate strategies.

54. With reference to the submission of crime data from the largest city of each country, there may well be technical reasons for the uneven distribution of responses. It could also be, however, that the major focus of criminal justice administrators is on changes at the national level in the field of crime, rather than on the dynamics of crime within specified urban areas of the country. National systems of crime statistics may not yet be in a position to throw light on the crime situation at the level of the largest city.\* The value of crime statistics for cities was emphasized, however, at a

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\*The term "largest city" was defined in the technical observations of the Survey questionnaire as referring to the population and criminal justice activities within its administrative boundaries, whether it is the capital or not.



recent United Nations expert group meeting, 4/ where it was suggested that social and demographic statistics for individual urban areas often appeared to be more precise, and more comparable cross-nationally, than data for the country as a whole. This might be equally true for criminal justice statistics. Consequently, countries may wish to consider how to encourage the development of urban data in their criminal justice statistics systems. On the other hand, it is recognized that in many countries data for the largest city may not reflect the situation in other parts of the country.

55. The finding that data on recorded crime and criminal justice system personnel are accessible and available from more countries than are those on offenders has several implications:

(a) In a few technologically advanced countries, detailed and in-depth studies of comprehensive criminal justice data bases, especially in the context of an integrated approach to a co-ordinated system, are beginning to be made. Such studies seem to be coming more and more firmly to the conclusion that "offender-based" statistics are essential - that is, that for a truly co-ordinated system to be effective, there must be the capacity to track each offender through the system, and particularly across the different components of the system. On the other hand, there is a wide awareness that in most countries such a long-term goal may not be achievable for some time to come. Delegations may wish to exchange information on national experiences in this regard;

(b) The fact that relatively few countries provided responses to questions requesting data classified by age and sex implies that correlations with other social indicators will continue to be extremely difficult and, if made, not particularly reliable. This pattern of data availability may reflect the views of policy-makers on which data they regard as being particularly useful for policy-making purposes. It may also reflect the relative complexity and difficulty of the task of gathering such information. For instance, responses on the number of apprehended persons range between 48 per cent in 1975 and 58 per cent in 1980. Information on the age of those apprehended in the 15-19-year age category was provided by 34 per cent of the countries in 1975, rising to 40 per cent in 1980, and the level of response for other age groups is generally lower. The relative paucity of data by age hampers effective cross-sectoral planning, especially in the area of crime and development, which many criminal justice specialists agree is desirable. If the inter-relationships between crime and socio-economic change are to be monitored for the purpose of making policy decisions in crime prevention efforts, information on the age of each offender needs to be included in the basic statistical records, and tabulations of crime data by age of offender will need to be produced routinely.

56. With reference to the earlier observation on the underreporting of bribery and corruption, it may be suggested that systems of criminal statistics seem to be more structured towards the reporting of "street" crimes than towards certain types of crimes of lesser public visibility. Consequently, the data obtained in the Survey are similarly oriented. This is but a further manifestation of the fact, recognized by the Sixth United Nations Congress in its resolution 7, "that criminal justice systems in most countries are designed primarily for the prevention and control of conventional forms of crime". This issue is discussed in more detail in the working paper for topic II, "Criminal justice processes and perspectives in a changing world".

57. Finally, the data presented in this report confirm both the value of statistics on crime and the criminal justice system and the need to improve and further develop the collection and analysis of crime-related data at the national and international levels. This task has already been initiated through a combined effort of the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch, Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, and the Statistical Office, both parts of the Department of International Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat. The Department has a long-standing programme for carrying out long-term research and statistical development in many social and economic sectors. Indeed, one of the primary objectives of the Second Survey was to initiate a process whereby an extensive crime-related statistical data base can be developed and needed research be undertaken along the lines done in other social and economic areas of concern. As part of this effort, the Secretariat is in the process of finalizing the Manual on Collection and Analysis of Criminal Justice Data, which is designed to assist those concerned with improving national criminal statistics systems.

## B. Patterns of crime

### The general picture

58. The first question of the questionnaire asked for numbers of crimes recorded. The years covered, as for all parts of the Second Survey, were 1975-1980 inclusive. The results are presented in annex II, figures XI-XVIII.

59. Figures XI-XXI (see annex II) fall into two categories: figures XI-XVIII show the changes in recorded crime between 1975 and 1980, and figures XIX-XXI show extrapolations to the year 2000. The following types of crime are referred to in figures XI-XVIII.

Type 1	Total number of recorded crimes
Type 2	Intentional homicide
Type 3	Non-intentional homicide
Type 4	Assaults
Type 5	Drug crimes
Type 6	Rape
Type 7	Kidnapping
Type 8	Robbery
Type 9	Theft
Type 10	Fraud, including embezzlement
Type 11	Bribery and corruption

These types of crime correspond to the ones given on the horizontal axis of figures XI-XVIII.

60. Figures XI-XIV show the total number of recorded crimes per 100,000 population in the left-hand column, followed by the reported crime rates for the specific types of crime indicated above. Figure XI shows the reported crime rates for all reporting countries and figures XII-XIV show the corresponding crime rates for the following three geo-political or geographical regions:

Region 1	Latin America and the Caribbean (figure XII)
Region 2	Western Europe (figure XIII)
Region 3	Asia and the Pacific (figure XIV)

These data are given merely to illustrate the fact that there are regional differences. The data are based on only some of the countries comprising each region. The figures are not intended to give an accurate picture for the region as a whole or of trends in individual countries within the regions.

61. Perhaps the most striking observations involve the continued overall increase in the rate of reported crime during the period 1975-1980 for all reporting countries in each of the regions examined. While there might be some methodological factors contributing to the apparent continued increase in reported crime\* the data nevertheless support the view that there was a considerable expansion of crime during the period covered by the Second Survey.

62. Figures XV-XVIII show the same rates as figures XI-XIV, except that the first column, total recorded crimes, has been removed. This allows a magnified presentation of the other columns. The degree to which crime types have increased and the fact that theft accounts for the bulk of crime are demonstrated in a self-explanatory way by these figures.

63. In interpreting the figures, it is important not to disregard the fact that they represent the data submitted by only a certain number of countries in each region. The smaller the proportion of countries in each region submitting data, the greater the likelihood that the data do not accurately reflect the crime patterns for the region as a whole. The countries responding, or providing complete responses, were not chosen arbitrarily, but were "self-selected" through their interest and ability to respond. Indeed, we might assume that countries in which crime was, or was perceived to be, an important problem, or in which crime statistics were more readily available, would be more likely to return a completed questionnaire than other countries. Thus, the conditions in these countries would be likely to bias the world and regional figures shown.

64. Figures XIX-XXI are projections of the number of recorded crimes, the number of detained adults, and the number of police personnel. All three projections were made using the same method. The numbers reported in the Survey were plotted year by year, and the average rate of change for the period was calculated by what is known as the "least squares" method.\*\* The average rate of change for the period 1975-1980 as estimated, was assumed to continue unchanged from 1980 to 2000. On this basis, the numbers reported for 1980 were extrapolated to 2000. Thus, the figures are not predictions in any way of what is bound to happen. They are merely indications of where the trends would lead if the situation prevailing in the period 1975-1980 were to continue unchanged for the rest of the century.

65. There is a very strong possibility that the annual rate of change between 1980 and 2000 will differ from that observed in the period 1975-1980 for one or more of these series for reasons such as changing public behaviour, changing population structure, or changing levels of public resources. It is highly unlikely that such a trend will remain unaltered by future external events, but it is not possible, on the basis of present knowledge, to predict what these events will be. One value of the extrapolations is that if the data recorded in future years deviate from them markedly, upwards or downwards, it will be an indication of a significant change in crime or in the operations of criminal justice systems.

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\*The total number of recorded offences (type 1) is greater than the total for individual types of crime (types 2-11) because type 1 includes crime categories not covered specifically by the Survey questionnaire. This is another reason for exercising caution when interpreting the data.

\*\*A technique of establishing an average rate of change by calculating the line that has minimal differences between itself and the recorded plots, above or below it.

66. It may be noted that the three slopes are parallel to each other. All these factors are based on different statistical sources, and measure different aspects of the operation of the criminal justice system, as well as just "crime". This suggests that there is a strong relationship between these three variables.

67. The first part of the question on crime trends deals with the total recorded crime rate. Of the 50 countries submitting data, the ratio of crime per 100,000 population had gone up in 29 countries and down in 21. However, the overall changes are in a more upward direction than these numbers would suggest at first sight, because the increases in the 29 countries are, on average, considerably greater than the decreases in the 21 countries.

68. This is shown most clearly by an analysis of the reports of countries that submitted data for a substantial number of years, allowing the change to be calculated by crime type. For all crimes in these countries, the figure has risen by 30 per cent between 1975 and 1980. The figures show clearer patterns when the countries are divided into regions. Eastern Europe was the only region to show a decline, but the small number of countries reporting, and some missing data, make it difficult to draw conclusions on the basis of these data.

#### Types of crime

69. Over the Survey period, the trend in recorded crimes of violence was generally up in the Asian region, down in the Eastern European region and fluctuating in the other regions. Intentional homicide was reported to have risen in 25 countries and declined in 22, with an overall average increase of almost 30 per cent; non-intentional homicide was reported to have risen in 11 countries and decreased in 20, but it still shows an average increase of 18 per cent, while assault was reported to have increased in 26 countries and decreased in 18, but with an average rate that is just about stable. These fluctuations may be explained by the fact that assaults might be reported and recorded in different ways in different countries or regions.

70. The rates for recorded drug crimes went up, overall, more than for any other type of crime; the global average increase for the Survey period was 120 per cent, but the range was from 5 per cent to over 400 per cent. Also, drug offences, in absolute numbers, are still much less frequent than assault, robbery or theft. Therefore, a given increase in absolute numbers makes for relatively high proportional increase. Also, as drug problems and crimes have aroused much public concern over the last decade, investigation, reporting and recording procedures might also have become more intensive.

71. The reported rate for rape seems to be more or less stable for the Survey years on average, going up in 23 countries and down in 22, but it is being increasingly suggested that it is a seriously under-reported crime. Recording kidnappings are still a rare statistical event, and therefore small changes in the numbers show as large percentage changes. They decreased in 11 countries and increased in 10; the global average was an increase of 16 per cent.

72. Robbery increased in 30 countries and decreased in 18, but some of the rises were particularly severe, so that the global average increase was over 25 per cent from 1975 to 1980.

73. Theft was reported up in 20 countries and down in 22, but the global mean still rose by nearly 22 per cent. Theft accounts for the highest figures in any general crime count in most countries and regions. For this reason, if

figures for theft in any very large country recording a high level per capita change abruptly, the impact on any global single indicator of criminality will be very great. However, if a similar change took place in a large country that did not report data, there would be no impact. This factor is the prime reason for the standardization of crime rates per 100,000 population, and for breaking down overall crime rates into categories of individual crime types.

74. In respect of fraud and embezzlement, the reported trend is upward in 21 countries and downward in 14. The global average, however, has risen by 40 per cent. Some of the changes, especially upward, are so great that they raise again the question of whether the methods of recording and counting and the efforts that go into them are changing as much as criminal behaviour in the period under review. Presumably, however, there is a real increase as well as an increase due to methodological factors. This and similar results of this Survey have clearly shown the need to establish a coherent and reasonably consistent approach to the recording of criminality.

75. Bribery is recorded much less often, has increased in 12 countries and decreased in 11, and has a statistically insignificant average global increase.

76. "Other crimes" represent, statistically, a significant proportion of the whole, but do not overlap much between countries.

77. The results of the analysis of question 1, therefore, give a general picture of recorded crime as being on the increase, but not always or everywhere. There are pockets, areas or types of crime that are declining in incidence. The overall pattern, by crime type and by region, is presented in figures XI-XXI. It should be remembered that these figures are based on data from a relatively small number of countries, as only countries that provided enough time-series data could be included in this part of the overview. They seem, however, to be representative of their regions to the extent that the less complete figures provided by other countries tend to give approximately the same averages, even if the variation is wider.

78. One finding of the Survey has been the consistency, or stability, of crime patterns in countries by year. In other words, the Survey is measuring something that is not random, but has an underlying repetition, more within countries than across them. This gives grounds for some confidence in the extrapolations discussed earlier. For every 100 crimes recorded and reported by countries, the average incidence by specific type of crime was as follows:

<u>Type of crime</u>	<u>Percentage of total</u>
Theft	72
Assault	12
Robbery	5
Drug crimes	3
Fraud, including embezzlement	3
Intentional homicide	1
Non-intentional homicide	1
Rape	1
Bribery	1
Kidnapping	less than 1

Regional differences meant that the interregional averages given above cover a particularly wide variation for assault and robbery.

### III. OPERATION OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

#### A. Agencies of the criminal justice system

79. The Second Survey was also concerned with the functioning of criminal justice administration, starting from the police and proceeding through the process to correctional sentences. This approach corresponds to an emphasis on the systemic treatment of the operations of criminal justice as presented in the working paper by the Secretariat (A/CONF.121/5) under topic II, "Criminal justice processes and perspectives in a changing world", of the Seventh Congress. Material provided by the Survey was used in that Working Paper.

80. According to the answers received, the police appear to be seen as a multi-purpose social service in most countries, but to differing extents: the amount of police time devoted to investigative work was reported to be as low as 6 per cent and as high as 80 per cent. The average proportion of time thus spent in developing countries reporting data in quantitative terms was nearly 40 per cent, and in developed countries 18 per cent. It was not possible to provide a quantitative estimate of other components of police working time from the data available; but special functions, varying from protection of hotels and tourists to the assumption of leading roles in local campaigns against alcohol abuse, were specifically mentioned.

81. As regards policing, interesting differences emerged between (the majority of) developed and developing countries; in developing countries, the problems encountered by the police seemed to be primarily internal. The shortage of resources, both of skilled personnel and technologically advanced equipment, was stressed. In developed countries, the emphasis was much more on external problems, particularly new forms of criminality that in many cases seemed to accompany technological development, such as improved communications and rapid means of achieving the illegal transfer of funds. In 8 of the 13 developed countries that responded to the question on carrying firearms while on duty, it was the standard practice to carry arms, whereas in only 6 of the 15 developing countries providing this information were arms routinely carried. Further research would be needed to establish whether a particular practice occurs as a reaction to a particular crime situation, or whether it is a tradition of policing.

82. With regard to training, it should be noted that the reported duration of initial training varied from 14 days to 21 months. This difference seemed to be primarily the result of the fact that in some countries the term "initial training" included on-the-job training after the first period of total training, and prior to a return for further full-time training, while in others it was used to refer only to the initial period of full-time training. All the countries that replied referred to training in the use of firearms, and most to physical education and the techniques of investigation. The development of skills in handling social conflicts was also frequently mentioned, but perspectives varied slightly from country to country. Legal studies were reported as being generally required, but social science studies and general education were mentioned, in different terminology, by fewer countries. Training in police ethics and professional standards was specifically mentioned by two countries, but was implied in the responses of all countries that referred to the sub-question on the United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials.

83. With respect to the function of prosecution, 34 countries provided some information, 26 reporting that they followed the legality principle (mandatory prosecution), but with various exceptions. Such exceptions were stated either

in general terms, such as when a prosecution was not advisable "in the public interest", or with specific criteria for non-prosecution being laid down, such as the pettiness of the case, if the complainant had committed an offence as well, or if the suspect was a juvenile. One country reporting that it based its prosecution policy on the opportunity principle also stated that in most cases where there was sufficient evidence, a prosecution charge was brought. In this connection, the question of sufficiency or strength of evidence was mentioned in several replies. It appeared that the decision whether or not the evidence was adequate for prosecution was mostly made by the prosecutor's office.

84. In 11 of the countries that referred to the question of prosecutorial involvement in investigation, the prosecutor's office had a formal responsibility to be involved in, supervise or conduct an investigation supplementary to that of the police. In the remainder no such formal role was reported. One country reported a distinction between urban and rural roles: in rural areas, the police and prosecutors to some extent exchanged, or shared, roles. In large cities, that did not occur.

85. In a few countries, prosecutors were reported as being recruited from among former police officers, but there was no apparent connection between that fact and the question of whether the prosecutors had a formal involvement with the investigation process. In most countries, emphasis was placed on the training and qualifications in law of candidates for the prosecution service. Ten countries reported that the police had either sole or joint responsibility for initiating prosecution. The organizational location and responsibilities of the prosecution service were reported as being under review, in some way or other, in a few countries.

86. The main factor on which a significant distinction between countries with respect to the judiciary emerged was a difference with regard to recruitment criteria and subsequent career structure. In one group of countries, membership in the judiciary was a career in itself. The judges were recruited during their legal training or shortly thereafter, and after undergoing various types of in-service training and passing examinations, commenced their judicial career at a relatively young age. With the passage of time, additional experience and further testing, they were promoted to more senior courts. In the other group of countries, the judiciary were appointed only from among experienced practising lawyers, who had already established their standing within their profession. Therefore, the age level of recruitment is much higher, there is much less emphasis on training or formal examination, and a much less clear-cut and formal promotion structure.

87. In general, it seemed that those two models were found in industrialized countries. Most developing countries providing information on the judiciary implied that their systems were a combination of both models. A system of formal, early entry into the judicial career was combined with the later recruitment of experienced lawyers, at various court levels. The method of appointment and selection varied considerably across countries. In some countries, the Head of State made a personal appointment, at least to the senior posts. In other countries, the Cabinet was the formal appointing body. The existing judiciary might have a formal or informal role in making recommendations in this respect. The Minister of Justice or Chief Justice might also have the formal responsibility for making appointments, usually assisted by a specific recommendatory body, in which the existing judiciary were included. In three of the countries that replied, judges were elected by a representative body of the people; several more countries indicated that a similar selection procedure prevailed with respect to the lay judiciary.

88. The appointment of lay judges was mentioned in different contexts, and was an aspect of the involvement of the community in the work of the criminal justice system. Only 4 of the 15 developed countries replying to the question stated that lay judges were not a regular feature of their criminal justice system, whereas only 3 of the 15 developing countries reported their regular involvement in the system. However, many of the developing countries reported on the wide-spread use of informal tribunals. In practice, such tribunals carried out functions very similar to those of the community courts on which lay judiciary were regularly employed, as reported by some industrialized countries.

89. The replies by countries on prison systems, primarily as regards the training of staff, suggested that the staffing of prisons was seen more in terms of a two-level operation, in contrast to the multi-level staffing of the police. It was, however, possible to see that in many countries the entrance criteria for custodial staff were identical, or very close to those of basic-grade police officers. There seemed to be a distinction in most of the countries that replied between custodial and management staff, which required either direct entry to the management level or an extensive training period to make the transition. Five countries specified that physical criteria applied in the case of management staff, as they did generally for custodial staff. In at least one country that was stated to be the result of a policy that all management staff had to undertake custodial duties on first recruitment.

90. Most countries required a given number of years of schooling, within a set age range, and included aspects of physical education, including self-defence, in the training syllabus. The replies of many of these countries referred also to the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners as a training tool. The length of training varied as widely as it did for the police; but there seemed to be less emphasis on in-service training. The relative allocation of resources, mentioned earlier in this report, may be connected with that difference. Most countries providing information reported the inclusion of social science, especially criminology, psychology, aspects of philosophy, and human relations, as the main additional topics of training or prerequisite for the management grade.

#### B. Volunteers in correctional work

91. In contrast to the cautious attitude reported by many countries towards non-official agencies entrusted with the adjudication of criminal cases, a large number of countries made use of volunteers to assist in correctional work. Replies indicated that correctional work was the main area of community participation in the criminal justice system. Volunteers were involved in correctional activities in almost all countries and only a very few countries explicitly reported that volunteers were not at all involved in correctional work at all. Also, certain countries not currently employing volunteers in correctional work had plans to make use of community assistance in the future. Countries were asked to indicate the prevailing types of volunteer participation in institutional and non-institutional correctional work. From the replies, it was clear that, in most countries, volunteers participated both in institutional and non-institutional correctional work, and that non-institutional activities consisted mainly of guidance and assistance for offenders on probation or parole.

92. There were no clear regional differences. The types of activity reported as being carried out by the volunteers included: visits to prisoners; talks with prisoners to provide comfort and support; support for alcohol and drug addicts; participation in organizing cultural and educational activities



(including vocational training); counselling on the legal rights of prisoners; assistance in finding jobs and housing after release; religious guidance; assistance to the prisoner's family; investigation of the petitions of inmates to the prison administration; and after-care services.

93. In certain cases volunteer organizations, in addition to providing support for inmates and released offenders, lent assistance to the official agencies of the criminal justice system. The titles of the bodies, for example the Social Penitentiary Council and the Industrial School Visiting Committee, might differ, but their functions were similar. They might play a consulting role in meeting with the prison administrative staff, or make recommendations to competent agencies as to employment, education and recreation possibilities for inmates. Volunteers were also reported as assisting the courts in passing appropriate sentences.

94. Most correctional activities carried out by community volunteers took place within some kind of larger organization. In contrast, the work of volunteer probation officers primarily took place on an individual basis. Besides volunteer agencies set up specifically to pursue correctional activities, a number of charitable and religious organizations and other self-help groups, such as Alcoholics or Narcotics Anonymous, provided help for inmates, released offenders and their families.

#### IV. CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES

##### A. Introduction

95. This section presents an overview of crime prevention strategies in countries that replied to the relevant questions in the Second Survey (see annex I, table 11). Unlike the quantitative information asked for in the Survey, the narrative information provided on crime prevention strategies shows that, in spite of their rather specific formulation, the questions have not always been interpreted in the same way. In addition, diverse organizational settings and a variety of approaches to crime prevention influenced particularly the replies that called for selection and evaluation.

96. Of the questionnaires returned at the time of the review, 32 contained information on crime prevention strategies; the remaining countries did not respond to these questions, and 12 of those countries did not answer some of the questions included in the statistical section of the questionnaire. This seems to indicate that in many countries, systematic collection of data on crime prevention is not yet standard practice, or that there may be no agency responsible for a general monitoring of policies of crime prevention and control. It may also be surmised that, in some cases, the agency completing the statistical section of the questionnaire was not responsible for collecting information on crime prevention issues and so returned the whole questionnaire without contacting the other agency concerned.

97. Although the questionnaire did not use the phrases "indirect" and "direct strategies", the formulation and arrangement of the items indicate such a distinction. Indirect preventive strategies, such as providing job opportunities or upgrading communities through subsidies, had as their primary aim the improvement of the quality of life in general. The question of whether they did or did not benefit previous and potential offenders or the community in terms of a crime prevention impact could be secondary. In other words, these activities could be perceived by administrators as having a potential,

parallel and multi-faceted influence on the prevention of criminality, according to the perspective from which they addressed themselves to the "causes" of crime.\*

98. Publicity campaigns and attempts to reduce opportunities for crime by identifying and changing environmental circumstances that facilitate criminal activity seemed to be the most favoured direct strategy. When such strategies were reported, the issue of the roots of crime was not raised, as if to say that crime was to be considered an inevitable part of social life, but one that should be kept at a tolerable level. The replies suggested also that such direct strategies were found more frequently than the indirect ones were. That was partly owing to the general problem of the absence of an unequivocal identification of the "causes" of crime, and thus the absence of a clear agreement on the appropriate way to react. Such direct strategies might also facilitate the more specific mobilization of the community's resources against crime, whereas the indirect measures, by virtue of their broader scope, traditionally fall within the competence of national bodies. With direct measures, responsibility could be allocated to a centre co-ordinating crime prevention activities; with indirect strategies, responsibility was divided between legislative, law enforcement, education and social welfare agencies, making a co-ordinated, centrally controlled approach to crime prevention difficult.

#### B. Indirect strategies

##### Improving the quality of life

99. With respect to indirect crime prevention strategies, 25 countries reported that they included measures for improving the quality of life. Measures providing for adequate housing, food, education, employment, pensions and social security, and aimed at guaranteeing decent living conditions for the whole population, were reported from most countries. It was added, however, that crime prevention was not the primary consideration underlying those measures.

100. Some countries interpreted "improving the quality of life" to mean measures aimed at potentially delinquent youths; others as a question of improving the conditions of imprisonment. Other countries, namely those facing the problem of ensuring basic conditions for human existence, interpreted improving the quality of life as the liquidation of slums, or ensuring a permanent food supply for the population.

##### Providing proper education

101. Another indirect strategy for crime prevention consisted of measures to ensure the correct upbringing and education of children. One strategy referred to by some countries was the placement of children at risk under the care of local social welfare authorities. "Fostering" was also viewed as an appropriate means of care for children whose development seemed to be at risk or who had already been in trouble. That was reported by 23 countries, although it was difficult to test the extent to which crime prevention

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\*However, some preventive activities may have characteristics of both types of activity, so that it is not easy to classify them. For instance, providing opportunities for constructive leisure-time activities might also reduce crimes committed out of boredom or those crimes perceived as "fun" by young people. Such activities are, therefore, both direct and indirect.

considerations figured in the fostering process. As far as countries giving negative answers were concerned, it was not always clear whether they did not adopt fostering in general or the crime prevention aspect was not taken into consideration in the fostering process.

#### Providing constructive leisure-time activities

102. The majority of the countries replying reported efforts to provide constructive leisure-time activities for young people as a strategy of crime prevention; this widespread strategy was the third most frequently cited. However, some countries expressed doubts about the creation of a special target group of delinquent and pre-delinquent juveniles, again pointing to the stigmatizing and damaging psychological effects of such labelling.

103. Ten countries noted the existence of leisure-time programmes specifically aimed at juvenile offenders as well as at ex-offenders. In some countries, juvenile offenders could be compelled by the courts to participate in such programmes as part of court-ordered supervision. Many of those countries reported police involvement in providing and leading leisure-time activities. The specific cultural nature of approaches to crime prevention was frequently reflected in responses to this question.

#### Providing job opportunities

104. Efforts to decrease unemployment in most countries indicated a clear belief in the relationship between unemployment and crime. Criminal justice personnel seemed to be sensitive to this problem: certainly, measures for improving opportunities for work figured significantly in the reports of crime prevention measures. In many countries, programmes for improving job opportunities were combined with training and education. Those programmes focused on unemployed young people and on disadvantaged youth.

105. Most programmes were not primarily designed to assist ex-convicts or endangered young people, although the majority of those programmes were made available to them. Difficulties arose if job or training programmes involved private employers who did not want them extended or applied to released prisoners. However, ex-offenders sometimes seemed to be in a better position to take advantage of job opportunities than the average unemployed person, since, besides having access to ordinary programmes, ex-prisoners were assisted by specific projects. Almost one third of the countries replying reported special programmes for ex-offenders. The programmes were run partly by the prison administration and partly by associations supporting released offenders. In one country, the prison administration sometimes maintained work camps for released offenders. Only a few countries referred to the possibility of work in prison, under the auspices of well-developed prison-employment systems.

106. The differences in the replies to the question on employment could perhaps be attributed to differences in unemployment rates in various countries, although the priorities of social policy-makers may have an impact as well. Vocational training was closely linked to job opportunities. A number of countries reported programmes of work-training to ensure maximum job opportunities for convicted offenders.

107. There were wide variations in the interpretation of "vocational training", and "job opportunities". Significant regional differences could be observed. Almost one third of the countries replying reported that vocational training was being used to support the disadvantaged and unemployed, with no direct

consideration of crime prevention. A further third interpreted vocational training as training provided for the prison population, for offenders on probation or for ex-prisoners. Some countries expressly stated that vocational training was a part of the formal educational process. With regard to the question of whether specialists were involved in decisions on the creation of job opportunities, different countries referred to different bodies as "specialists". The police, prisoners' aid societies and "committees fighting crime" were cited as expert bodies.

#### Upgrading communities

108. The issue of improved housing has already been mentioned since a number of countries regarded measures for upgrading communities as part of arrangements for improving the quality of life. Two trends were clear from an analysis of comments concerning this item. In most poorer countries, the upgrading of communities was equivalent to increasing the quantity of housing, aimed at ensuring decent living conditions, without direct consideration of crime prevention. In comparison, some industrialized countries paid more attention to crime prevention. In attempting to diminish the criminogenic effects of the environment, the need for better control, repairs and community involvement in housing projects were mentioned.

#### Welfare and financial assistance

109. A fairly high proportion of the countries that replied used welfare and financial assistance in one way or another. The absence of any comment presumably did not entail an absence of welfare and financial assistance, but perhaps only implied that direct crime prevention was not a primary consideration in the provision of various forms of assistance. Welfare and financial assistance was most commonly understood as a general welfare service provided on a needs basis without consideration of crime prevention.

110. Only a minority of countries provided a detailed account of services provided to the family of offenders or to released prisoners. A few specified that assistance (apparently financial support) was provided to the families of inmates. In one country, a certain part of the salary earned by the inmate in prison was used for family support. Possibly many countries offering job opportunities in prison may follow this example, but the question deserves further investigation. Another country reported the use of a "re-socialization fund"; the task was to negotiate with creditors and so relieve offenders of part of their debts. The fund also repaid the creditor the unpaid balance of the debt, thus actually granting the offender a loan.

### C. Direct strategies

#### Crisis intervention

111. The majority of countries reported crisis intervention as a strategy of crime prevention. Most countries interpreted crisis intervention as special care for adolescents, as had been indicated by the questionnaire, but some countries reported that it was considered as a general social welfare service, accessible to all age groups. The services provided in crisis intervention covered a wide scope: they ranged from simple advice over the telephone to accommodation and medical care, detoxification in case of drug abuse and eventual psycho-therapeutical treatment. The population of countries reporting only limited crisis intervention services, however, might well enjoy additional services, in case of need, from other institutions such as the

social security or the insurance system. The industrialized countries paid particular attention to that strategy. In addition to the existence of financial resources, the disappearance of the primary agents of social control may well be one reason for the growing importance of crisis intervention as a crime prevention strategy.

#### Reduction of opportunity

112. As mentioned earlier, three quarters of the countries replying to the crime prevention part of the questionnaire seemed to attribute great significance to the use of architectural techniques in reducing opportunities for committing crimes. There were no apparent regional differences in the frequency of the use of architectural techniques, but the actual extent to which this strategy is used may vary to a significant degree. Responses accompanied by comments indicated considerable differences between countries: in some countries the use of architectural techniques for crime prevention was restricted to lighting; in others techniques were used only in a limited context, primarily for government buildings, banks and some industrial plants.

113. A well-developed, organized and permanent system of advisory activities seemed to operate successfully in some countries where the concept of "defensible space" was an integral part of housing and industrial plant design and an important aspect of crime prevention. Guidelines have been prepared for architects and designers on dwelling security; and funds were granted for improving the physical security of existing structures by fencing industrial grounds and the use of controlled entry systems. However, as a counter-example to the trend towards greater physical security, one developed country reported that its architects gave low priority to security in general and that security was often considered only after the building had been completed.

114. The use of architectural techniques was considered primarily in the sense of the provision of better physical obstructions against theft. However, there were different interpretations of the meaning of providing physical obstructions to crime. Some countries referred to intensified police patrols and more frequent police raids when replying to the question. Others noted that provisions for better physical obstructions to crime concerned banks, businesses and industries only, while some countries explicitly added that such a strategy also included houses and shops.

115. Compared with other types of strategies aimed at reducing opportunity, campaigns for placing individual identifying marks on valuable items seemed to be less widespread. Only half of the respondents referred to their use, the majority of references coming from industrialized countries.

116. Despite efforts to make use of new technology for crime prevention in a number of countries, the traditional method of preventive policing for opportunity reduction was still of primary importance. Nearly all countries gave a positive reply to that question and there was not a single definitive rejection of preventive policing for opportunity reduction (only four did not comment). The replies from several industrialized countries indicated that a number of them seemed to be returning to more traditional modes of patrolling, such as foot and bicycle patrol instead of car patrol. This trend may have its roots in the recognition of the importance of police visibility and in the realization that traditional forms of patrolling may promote favourable relations with the community. The implication may be that "over-mechanizing" police patrolling, rather than preserving traditional forms of police relations with the wider community, could be a counter-productive strategy.

### Patrolling

117. A considerable number of countries mentioned patrolling involving citizens. Various forms of community patrolling had developed, such as patrolling in "neighbourhood watch" schemes, where the primary task of citizens was to assist the police. The use of private guards as a substitute for police surveillance was mentioned in only one report.

118. A special form of patrolling involved the supervision of public transport. The rather low number of answers may indicate that the frequency of crimes on public transport differed to a significant degree from country to country. A number of countries noted only increased supervision of aircraft and airports to prevent terrorism, and in these countries no specific measures were mentioned to prevent crime on railways, underground railways and buses, or in transport stations. Intensive ordinary police patrolling may already exist in those countries, for example, at railway stations considered to be trouble spots in some countries, where railway station guards were trained by the police to supervise public transport. Those full-time and part-time police officers were reported as working with considerable efficiency.

### Publicity campaigns

119. Almost all the countries replying made use of publicity campaigns in one way or another, mostly through the mass media, although community meetings, mainly at schools and also on a religious basis, seemed to be preferred by some countries. The following types of publicity campaign may be distinguished by their different functions: (a) information on crime prevention measures; (b) information on police work: explaining the role of the police and providing information on criminal activity; and (c) information on legal provisions to ensure that citizens are aware of and abide by the law.

120. A specific form of publicity campaign consisted of competitions between residential areas in promoting order and security. That method was reported by only a few countries, with quite different social and political systems. In one country, national awards were being made to jurisdictions for their success in crime prevention efforts; in addition some insurance companies offered discounts in some locations if certain crime prevention steps had been taken. The remaining countries seemed to use competition strategies somewhat different from those indicated in the questionnaire, such as quizzes and competitions on crime prevention, held mainly at schools and organized by crime prevention panels.

### Visits to prisons

121. The strategy of deterrent visits to prisons was generally not favoured by the responding countries. Clearly, there was a wide range of opinion. Most of the few countries that replied positively reported that such visits served aims other than deterrence; for instance that visits to prisoners by family members might have a deterrent effect on the prisoners themselves. Visits to prisons might be organized for the better understanding of correctional activity with the deterrent effect of such visits mentioned only as a side-effect. Indeed, visits to prisons solely for deterrent effect were not allowed by law in one country. In others, such visits were thought to have a deterrent effect on future criminal activity. Deterrent visits were seen also as running counter to organizational interests, and to the self-image of the correctional staff, as well as the inmate's right to privacy and dignity.

#### D. Community participation in crime prevention

##### General observations

122. Citizen involvement in crime prevention is a fairly new area of interest for criminal justice practitioners and criminologists. In various areas of the administration of justice, citizen participation is already well-established in many countries. However, since protection against crime is of vital interest, members of the community might be mobilized to participate in crime prevention programmes. Crime prevention activities can be less formal; they are less thoroughly regulated by legal provision (as compared, for example, with criminal procedure or correctional activities) and no legislative changes might be required to introduce programmes with deeper community involvement.

123. However, community involvement may sometimes disturb the balance between the two main police functions, preventing and reacting to criminal activity. Replies to the Survey indicated that reactive police policies seemed to take precedence over preventive activity. That might be attributed to organizational factors, especially the fact that police performance was traditionally measured by the quality and quantity of reactive policies. Some countries, particularly those that had met with some problems in involving the public in the administration of justice, seemed to be cautious in their use of community participation in crime prevention. One alternative was to bring the police closer to the public, thus gaining community assistance for crime prevention activities that were extensions of official police duties. Another method was to set up mixed bodies in which police officers and representatives of the community acted together. Finally, most countries reported measures to ensure that community prevention was under the control and supervision of official agencies of crime control and crime prevention.

124. In respect of indirect strategies of crime prevention, the important role was played by members of the community acting as foster parents for children at risk was reported by several countries. Some countries reported that fostering was not a State-run, but a private agency programme. In other countries, programmes providing welfare and financial assistance as well as crisis intervention fell within the competence of official agencies. The participation of the community in discussing the drafts of important laws and decrees was mentioned by one country. If such policies existed elsewhere, as they might well, they were not clearly reported in other responses to the Survey. In view of the primary emphasis placed upon criminal law, that area of public participation might be further considered. The community was reported as actively involved in a number of criminal justice activities in different countries. One country reported the participation of lay judges in criminal proceedings, and the participation of voluntary social organizations in official proceedings concerning the implementation of reform measures: probation, parole and after-care facilities. In many countries, community participation took the form of informal dispute settlement, mediation and reconciliation, and increasing attention to victim assistance.

##### Citizen crime prevention associations

125. The composition and function of the various forms of citizens' organizations differed to a considerable extent across countries, but may be classified as follows:

(a) The first group of countries had bodies that clearly had a preventive function. Those were the crime prevention committees, councils or panels. The primary function of those associations was to maintain contact with the police, to organize campaigns for crime prevention and to advise officials on crime prevention strategies;

(b) The next group of countries had informal associations with the primary function of dispute settlement. Those bodies, known by various names, such as village councils or settlement clinics, and perhaps held under the guidance of older persons, worked for solutions that would be acceptable to the community as a whole;\*

(c) The primary function of citizens' organizations in the third group of countries was patrolling. Those organizations could be seen as a kind of community police; their activity in most countries was being supervised by official agencies, mainly by the police, and volunteers frequently went on patrol with members of the police force. Their primary function was thus to assist the operation of the police, and incidentally to promote good police-public relations.

126. Crime prevention activities were also being carried out by bodies set up mainly for other purposes. Certain social and religious institutions in one country, and women's and youth organizations in another, were involved in crime prevention activities in addition to other projects. The activities of those groups, which, first of all, provided certain social, educational and cultural services, were also significant in correctional work.

127. Other groups of citizens' associations had been formed for the settling of disputes. In most countries they were seen as an alternative to, not a substitute for, the formal courts. The wording of the reports of different countries suggested that there were considerable differences in the organization and operation of community courts. However, most countries reported that community courts handled only cases of minor significance. One country reported the existence of courts of reconciliation, which endeavoured to reach informal settlements of criminal cases in which prosecution was initiated by a private plaintiff. If the case could not be settled in an informal way, the private plaintiff could bring charges before a regular court. In another country, social courts functioning in residential quarters and in big industrial institutions handled disputes of inhabitants or employees, but only on request and only for minor offences. Informal ways of handling criminal cases had primarily been developed and implemented for young offenders. Minor offences were being adjudicated by informal dispute resolution bodies mainly designed to handle civil cases. The popularity of mediation programmes may also stem from the increasing attention paid to victims' needs: informal dispute settlement (e.g. placing an obligation on the offender to repair damaged goods, pay damages or compensate the victim in some manner) may be more in the victim's interest than the application of a penal sanction against the offender.

#### E. Other types of crime prevention strategies

##### Crime prevention through penal legislation

128. Thirty countries answered this question, but others mentioned legal reform elsewhere in their replies. The most frequent approach to crime prevention was penal legislation. The following observations may be made:

(a) A great number of countries attached the highest importance to new and comprehensive penal legislation in both substantive and procedural law without specifying the direction of the change, i.e. towards penalization or

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\*See also A/CONF.120/5, working paper prepared by the Secretariat on criminal justice processes and perspectives in a changing world.



depenalization. However, certain "due process" considerations were usually involved as far as procedural law was concerned;

(b) Only a small proportion of the countries reported legislation of a more or less prophylactic nature, such as laws on "anti-alcohol" education;

(c) A number of countries from all regions reported that the deterrent effect through criminalization of behaviour, and more severe penal sanctions for various types of existing crimes, were both expected to be considerable.

129. Most countries seemed to combat serious forms of crime (e.g. crimes of violence, drug crimes) and so-called dangerous offenders through more severe legislation. Incapacitation as well as the general deterrent of strict penal measures was said to reduce criminal behaviour. In many countries, specific legislative acts established stricter preconditions for parole for persons classified as recidivists or dangerous offenders, and raised the upper limits of imprisonment for certain crimes (e.g. drug crimes).

130. The report revealed a clear tendency among reporting countries to seek measures for decreasing the harmful effects of the formal processes of criminal justice. This trend included new measures for diversion, reconciliation, decriminalization and depenalization, as well as the shortening of prison terms. Efforts to avoid formal procedures and the search for community-oriented methods of dispute settlement were reported equally by industrialized and non-industrialized countries.

131. Measures to avoid the harmful effects of imprisonment, and other harmful aspects of formal criminal justice processes were reported by several countries. For instance, juveniles could be ordered to do specific work as a substitute for the deprivation of liberty; the criminal law made it possible to order community service as a sanction. With regard to diversion and mediation, one country reported an interesting experiment in which full-time police officers, specifically trained for dealing with juveniles, acted as mediators between juvenile groups. These officers were permitted to intervene in risk situations before formal police action was initiated. The experiment was interesting because it demonstrated that official organs could be entrusted with less formal methods of conflict resolution. It also indicated an effort to "legalize" this informal way of dealing with conflicts, which, in several countries, existed as a process almost on the borderline of illegality.

132. Several countries stressed that the treatment of offenders and correctional work were a part of crime prevention. In some countries, a growing scepticism regarding the rehabilitative or treatment ideology had led to their considering the abolishment of both specific treatment institutions and sentences of imprisonment of indeterminate duration.

#### Assistance to victims

133. A growing emphasis was being placed on assistance to victims. The programmes referred to included victim compensation, help in overcoming the trauma of being a victim, and sympathetic treatment for victims by criminal justice authorities. Those measures were frequently viewed as part of the crime prevention programme, even though victim-assistance programmes seemed to fall outside the scope of prevention. In the long run, however, projects to help victims were thought to contribute to the success of crime prevention especially by persuading former victims to provide assistance to agencies responsible for crime prevention and control. Apparently, victim-assistance programmes were encouraged and sponsored not out of humanitarian consider-

ations alone, but also in order to gain the support of the community in combating and preventing crime. Finally, increased interest in victim assistance and official and public involvement in crime prevention seem to have been stimulated in some countries by the continuing rate of recidivism and by limitations on the provisions that could be made by general social security systems.

#### Other strategies

134. Secondly to the emphasis on penal legislation, the replies to this question were the most informative in respect of possible developments in the methodology of international research and exchange of information. Excluding legal reforms, 20 different measures were cited. Most of these had been reported under other headings by other countries, and have been mentioned in that section in this report. A few countries mentioned religious and educational campaigns, which seem to be closer to the "indirect" category described above. Examples of direct measures included: greater co-ordination with private security firms, and the spread of information on technical advances in target hardening; road-safety campaigns, which affect the behaviour of criminals; the surveillance of known criminals; and specific attention to particular kinds of crime, such as economic crimes, especially fraud and thefts from the national cultural heritage. The results of this section, however, emphasize the difficulty in international exchanges of opinion and experience, as the same terms may be interpreted differently by different countries.

#### F. Criminal justice planning

135. Countries were asked for information concerning criminal justice planning in the period between 1975 and 1980. From the replies to this question, it again emerged that there was a problem with terminology, in this case on the interpretation of "planning". Most countries referred to crime prevention measures already mentioned in other parts of the Second Survey; and pointed out that this was a part of the planning process. The aspect most mentioned concerned the relationship between central and local government, and government and community. Only one country gave an account of a separate planning activity with exact goals and figures: in the Survey period, that country planned for a reduction in certain crimes and in court case loads; however, no information was provided on the implementation of the plan itself.

#### G. Evaluation of crime prevention strategies

##### General observations

136. From the replies to the question regarding the evaluation of crime prevention strategies, most countries referred to traditional criminal statistics as the basis for evaluation, for example the number of crimes, recidivism rates, arrest rates and the number of prisoners. Thus the need for orthodox criminal justice data of high validity and reliability is again emphasized. Other methods were noted, for instance, in one country police led leisure-time activities, and the number of housing units participating in "neighbourhood watch" schemes were considered direct indicators of certain crime prevention measures. The number of members of clubs and the number of housing units were compared against changes in recorded crime.

137. According to the report of one country, certain crime prevention strategies were evaluated by a study of citizen confidence in the criminal justice system. However, the exact method of measuring such confidence was

not mentioned in the report. Victimization surveys might be used to reveal whether crime prevention strategies actually enhance the readiness of citizens to report crimes, in that the perception of citizens may serve as the basis for the evaluation of crime prevention measures. Fear of crime is an important measure of the quality of life, while the perception of the risk of victimization may be almost as important as the actual crime situation itself.

138. If the evaluation of crime prevention strategies through traditional crime statistics remains dominant, despite deficiencies in the official crime statistics themselves, development of the validity and reliability of crime statistics becomes perhaps more pressing. The impact of a given crime prevention measure can be evaluated with any degree of confidence only from reliable data bases. This should permit the identification of individual factors, which may affect the results and analysis of any evaluation, including the displacement of criminal behaviour, which is difficult to measure.

#### Main issues in implementing and evaluating crime prevention strategies

139. Countries were asked for their views on the main obstacles for implementing and evaluating various crime prevention strategies. Most countries described either problems of implementing crime prevention strategies or difficulties in evaluation, but few gave details on both. Therefore it was not always possible to determine whether a given problem hampered the implementation of a crime prevention strategy or only rendered its evaluation more difficult.

140. Most countries saw the main problems of implementing and evaluating crime prevention programmes as the shortage of financial resources and organizational shortcomings. Lack of co-ordination, particularly between governmental and non-governmental agencies, was being perceived as a major problem. The lack of modern technology and skilled personnel for the implementation and evaluation of crime prevention programmes was perceived as a more serious obstacle in less wealthy countries, whereas in the wealthier countries everyday administrative pressure on officials was mentioned several times. It was primarily the latter countries that also noted that the apathy of citizens hampered the operation of crime prevention programmes. Official attempts to prevent crime frequently turned out to be ineffective, since the public refused to participate in the various programmes.

141. One industrialized country raised the important question of whether crime prevention strategies could be evaluated at all. According to that reply, crime prevention was hampered by the fact that reactive police policies took precedence over preventive police policies. That is, presumably, a problem that many countries may face in the implementation of crime prevention programmes. Several countries raised the question of the extent to which ethical considerations limited the implementation and evaluation of crime prevention strategies.

### V. SECOND SURVEY: SUPPLEMENTARY REPORTS

#### A. Introduction

142. In order to bring up to date the results of the Second Survey, however approximately, the Secretary-General enclosed a brief questionnaire with his note verbale of 22 September 1984. At the time the report was prepared,

17 countries had reported. The questionnaire asked for one of five boxes to be marked, with the categories and degrees of change shown in table 12 (see annex I).

#### B. Crime trends and criminal justice (1980-1983)

143. The reported general trend in both crime and the resources needed by the criminal justice system was one of continued increase. Most of the countries that replied indicated that the overall crime rate seemed to be undergoing a moderate increase, which was consistent with the trend extrapolated on the basis of the country reports for the Second Survey and shown in figure XIX. There appeared to be slightly more variability, among countries answering the supplementary questionnaire, in their experiences with crimes against property compared with crimes against the person.

144. The increase in the number of police and prison staff seems to be very roughly proportionate to the reported increase in crime and the use of sanctions. That is to say, these results provide provisional support for the trends illustrated in figures XIX-XXI.

#### Notes

1/ Sixth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Caracas, Venezuela, 25 August-5 September 1980 Report Prepared by the Secretariat (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.81.IV.4), chap. I, sect. B.

2/ See the working papers by the Secretariat for and reports of the Ad Hoc Meeting of Experts on the Implementation of the Second United Nations Survey of World Crime Trends and Crime Prevention Strategies, held at Rutgers, State University of New Jersey, 5-8 October 1981; the United Nations Expert Group Meeting on the Second United Nations Survey of World Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, held at Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, 24-28 October 1983.

3/ See H. Campion, "International statistics", Journal of Royal Statistical Society, Series A, Part II, vol. 112, 1949, pp. 105-143; M. Ancel, "Observations on the international comparisons of criminal statistics", International Journal of Criminal Policy, vol. 1, 1952, pp. 41-48; Criminal Statistics: Standard Classification of Offences, Report by the Secretariat (E/CN.5/337, 2 March 1959); id., Statistical Commission, ECOSOC, E/CN.3/102, 17 April 1950; M.E. Wolfgang, "International comparative statistics: a proposal", Journal of Criminology, Criminal Law and Police Science, vol. 58, 1967, pp. 65-69; Stanislaw Ziembinski, "Miedzynarodowa statystyka kryminalna" (International crime statistics), Studia Kryminologiczne, Kryminalistyczne i Penitencjarne, No. 1, 1974, pp. 111-122. See G.V. Schvekov, Sravnitelnyj metod v iuriditscheskich disciplinach (Comparative method in the juridical disciplines) (Moskva, Vyschaia Schkola, 1973). See also Paul C. Friday, "Problems in comparative criminology: comments on the feasibility and implications of resources", International Journal of Criminology and Penology, No.1, 1973, pp. 151-160. D. Ardner and R. Gastner, Violence and Crime in Cross-national Perspective (New Haven, Connecticut, Yale University Press, 1984). B. Holyst, Comparative Criminology (Lexington, Massachusetts, Lexington Books, 1983).

4/ Sixth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Caracas, Venezuela, 25 August-5 September 1980 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.81.IV.4), chap. I, sect. A.

Annex I

TABLES

A. Availability of crime-related data

Table 1. Crimes recorded by crime type  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Crimes recorded	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Total	77	78	80	81	81	80
In the largest city	63	67	67	67	69	70
Intentional homicide:						
In the whole country	75	77	78	80	81	80
In the largest city	61	67	64	67	66	69
Attempts in the whole country	41	42	45	48	47	45
Attempts in the largest city	34	36	38	36	39	38
Non-intentional homicide:						
In the whole country	50	53	55	58	59	61
In the largest city	33	38	39	39	39	42
Assault:						
In the whole country	69	72	73	77	78	77
In the largest city	52	59	58	58	58	59
Attempts in the whole country	6	6	6	6	6	6
Attempts in the largest city	5	6	6	8	8	8
Drug-related:						
In the whole country	61	63	70	72	75	
In the largest city	44	48	53	53	53	
Rape:						
In the whole country	67	72	73	77	80	80
In the largest city	48	52	55	56	59	61

continued

Table 1 (continued)

Crimes recorded	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Attempts in the whole country	16	17	17	22	25	23
Attempts in the largest city	11	13	14	20	22	22
<b>Kidnapping:</b>						
In the whole country	33	36	39	41	45	45
In the largest city	20	27	25	28	33	30
Attempts in the whole country	3	2	2	2	3	3
Attempts in the largest city	2	0	0	0	2	3
<b>Robbery:</b>						
In the whole country	73	75	77	80	81	78
In the largest city	58	63	64	64	66	69
Attempts in the whole country	8	8	8	9	11	11
Attempts in the largest city	5	5	6	6	11	9
<b>Theft:</b>						
In the whole country	75	78	78	80	83	81
In the largest city	58	66	66	66	66	66
Attempts in the whole country	13	13	11	13	14	13
Attempts in the largest city	5	8	6	6	8	9
<b>Fraud including embezzlement:</b>						
In the whole country	67	72	73	77	77	78
In the largest city	50	58	58	58	59	61
Attempts in the whole country	6	8	6	8	9	9
Attempts in the largest city	5	8	6	6	8	9
<b>Bribery and corruption (total)</b>	41	41	42	41	39	39
<b>Other serious types of crime</b>	41	44	44	45	47	44

Table 2. Persons apprehended for penal code offences or equivalent a/  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Sex and age category	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<b>Apprehended males in the whole country (total)</b>						
Adult	41	42	44	45	47	45
Juvenile	44	44	45	48	48	47
Below age 15	30	28	28	31	31	33
Aged 15-19	34	34	34	34	36	39
Aged 20-24	31	31	33	34	34	36
Aged 25-29	27	27	28	28	28	28
Aged 30 or over	28	28	28	28	28	30
<b>Apprehended males in the largest city (total)</b>						
Adult	28	31	31	30	31	30
Juvenile	27	30	31	28	30	28
Below age 15	23	25	27	25	25	25
Aged 15-19	27	28	28	28	31	31
Aged 20-24	23	25	28	27	27	28
Aged 25-29	22	23	25	22	22	20
Aged 30 or over	23	25	27	25	25	25
<b>Apprehended females in the whole country (total)</b>						
Adult	31	31	31	34	36	36
Juvenile	30	31	33	34	34	34
Below age 15	20	20	19	22	23	23
Aged 15-19	22	22	23	23	25	25
Aged 20-24	22	22	22	23	23	23

continued

Table 2 (continued)

Sex and age category	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Aged 25-29	17	17	19	19	19	19
Aged 30 or over						
Apprehended females in the largest city (total)	27	31	30	31	34	34
Adult	25	27	22	25	25	
Juvenile	23	25	23	25	25	23
Below age 15	17	16	16	17	19	19
Aged 15-19	20	22	17	19	19	20
Aged 20-24	17	19	16	17	17	17
Aged 25-29	16	17	16	16	16	16
Aged 30 or over	17	19	16	16	17	19

a/ All questions relating to age also requested alternative age ranges if those given did not correspond with national statistics system.

Table 3. Police personnel a/  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Type of information	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Personnel in the whole country (total)	22	22	22	20	20	23
Male	23	25	25	22	22	25
Female	42	42	44	41	41	45
Police officers (total)	30	33	34	36	36	36
Male	33	36	38	38	36	36
Female	48	50	52	52	52	52
Number of personnel in the largest city (total)	9	17	16	17	16	19

continued



Table 3 (continued)

Type of information	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Male	11	19	17	19	17	20
Female	25	28	28	28	30	31
Police officers (total)	22	23	23	23	23	27
Male	23	25	25	25	25	28
Female	36	34	34	34	36	39

a/ Where the percentages for the total are lower than the male/female sub-totals, this indicates that some countries provided data for one sex only, which means that the sub-totals do not add up to the total.

Table 4. Average duration of detention between the formal charging of a suspect and the final disposition of a case, for the whole country

Type of crime	1980 (percentage)
For all crimes recorded	22
Intentional homicide	16
Non-intentional homicide	13
Assault	14
Drug-related	14
Rape	14
Kidnapping	9
Robbery	13
Theft	14
Fraud, including embezzlement	14
Bribery and corruption	8

Table 5. Prosecutors by sex in the whole country (as of 31 December)  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Prosecutors	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Male	41	39	44	44	41	41
Female	56	55	59	59	55	55
Total	19	23	30	28	30	30

Table 6. Convictions including adjudication of juveniles  
by type of crime  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Crime	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<b>Total:</b>						
In the whole country	48	53	56	55	58	58
In the largest city	30	31	31	31	30	30
<b>Intentional homicide:</b>						
In the whole country	41	41	44	45	52	52
In the largest city	20	20	23	25	23	23
<b>Non-intentional homicide:</b>						
In the whole country	34	36	34	38	42	44
In the largest city	14	17	19	19	13	14
<b>Assault:</b>						
In the whole country	42	45	48	50	53	53
In the largest city	22	22	25	25	20	20
<b>Drug-related crimes:</b>						
In the whole country	36	42	44	45	48	48
In the largest city	16	19	22	22	19	20
<b>Rape:</b>						
In the whole country	41	44	45	44	50	50
In the largest city	19	19	22	20	22	22
<b>Kidnapping:</b>						
In the whole country	17	22	22	23	31	30
In the largest city	6	8	14	14	13	13
<b>Robbery:</b>						
In the whole country	39	41	44	47	52	52
In the largest city	16	17	20	23	22	20

continued

Table 6 (continued)

Crime	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<b>Theft:</b>						
In the whole country	44	48	50	52	55	55
In the largest city	22	22	25	25	22	22
<b>Fraud, including embezzlement:</b>						
In the whole country	44	48	50	52	53	53
In the largest city	17	17	20	20	20	22
<b>Bribery and corruption:</b>						
In the whole country	20	23	27	28	33	34
In the largest city	6	9	9	14	13	13
<b>Other serious types of crime:</b>	20	25	27	27	28	28

Table 7. Persons convicted of penal code offences or equivalent by type of crime, sex a/ and adult/juvenile category b/ (Percentage of total number of responses)

Crime	1975		1976		1977		1978		1979		1980	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
<b>Total</b>	42	36	47	42	52	45	42	47	41	45	41	
<b>Intentional homicide:</b>												
A	39	20	42	25	48	42	28	47	27	45	28	
J	17	6	22	9	23	23	11	23	9	27	8	
<b>Non-intentional homicide:</b>												
A	31	23	34	23	38	36	25	36	25	36	27	
J	19	5	19	6	23	19	5	25	8	22	9	
<b>Assault:</b>												
A	38	33	44	39	50	45	41	44	38	44	39	
J	25	14	31	19	34	33	20	34	19	36	23	
<b>Drug-related crime:</b>												
A	30	22	29	33	44	38	31	41	31	41	33	
J	17	8	22	9	22	25	14	25	9	28	16	

continued

Table 7 (continued)

Crime	1975		1976		1977		1978		1979		1980	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
<b>Rape:</b>												
A	41	11	44	17	50	44	13	44	13	44	11	
J	19	5	22	5	20	22	5	22	5	23	6	
<b>Kidnapping:</b>												
A	16	6	20	11	22	22	16	25	16	23	17	
J	8	5	6	5	9	6	5	13	5	9	5	
<b>Robbery:</b>												
A	36	25	39	27	45	44	27	44	27	42	28	
J	20	9	27	14	31	28	13	31	13	30	13	
<b>Theft:</b>												
A	39	31	47	41	52	47	39	45	38	45	38	
J	25	16	33	23	36	34	23	36	23	36	22	
<b>Fraud including embezzlement:</b>												
A	38	30	45	36	50	41	45	36	44	38	44	36
J	20	13	27	16	27	19	23	19	28	16	25	17
<b>Bribery and corruption:</b>												
A	17	11	22	14	27	17	27	19	28	22	31	19
J	5	3	3	2	6	3	5	2	3	2	3	2
<b>Other serious types of crime:</b>												
A	16	13	19	17	20	19	19	17	17	16	17	14
J	11	8	17	9	17	11	16	9	17	8	17	9

a/ M = male  
F = female

b/ A = convicted adult  
J = adjudicated juvenile

Table 8. Persons imprisoned by sex; awaiting trial, sentenced  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Persons imprisoned	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Total	58	58	63	66	66	66
Male	52	52	56	59	58	56
Female	48	47	53	55	55	52

continued

Table 8 (continued)

Persons imprisoned	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<b>Adults awaiting trial:</b>						
Total	56	55	61	64	63	64
Male	48	48	52	55	53	53
Female	42	44	47	50	48	48
<b>Adults serving sentences:</b>						
Total	61	59	64	69	69	70
Male	55	55	58	61	61	61
Female	53	53	56	59	59	59
Other adult prisoners	22	22	22	23	23	23
<b>Detained juveniles:</b>						
Total	36	36	39	41	44	42
Male	36	36	39	39	41	39
Female	27	23	30	31	34	33
<b>Juveniles awaiting trial:</b>						
Total	30	30	30	30	31	31
Male	27	28	27	27	27	27
Female	19	20	20	22	23	23
<b>Adjudicated juveniles in prison:</b>						
Total	41	39	44	44	48	45
Male	36	36	39	38	41	38
Female	20	19	25	23	28	27
Other juveniles	9	11	11	11	11	11

Table 9. Prisons by capacity and category: adult or juvenile a/  
(Percentage of total number of responses)

Capacity of prisons	Category											
	1975		1976		1977		1978		1979		1980	
	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J
Less than 100 persons	48	22	48	22	50	22	55	22	55	23	59	23
Between 100-199 persons	53	22	53	22	53	22	56	22	56	23	63	22
Between 200-499 persons	53	16	53	16	53	16	53	16	53	19	59	20

continued

Table 9 (continued)

Capacity of prisons	Category											
	1975		1976		1977		1978		1979		1980	
	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J	A	J
Between 500-999 persons	34	8	34	8	36	8	39	8	39	8	44	8
1,000 persons or more	27	3	27	3	27	3	27	3	27	3	31	3

a/ A = adult  
B = juvenile

Table 10. Prison staff by sex and function (as of December 31)  
(Percentage of total number of replies)

Prison staff	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Total	53	53	53	56	59	67
Male	39	39	38	41	42	47
Female	38	38	36	39	41	45
Management staff:						
Total	55	56	56	59	61	64
Male	38	38	38	41	42	45
Female	25	25	25	30	31	34
Custodial staff:						
Total	50	52	52	55	58	63
Male	36	34	34	39	42	45
Female	33	31	31	36	39	42
Treatment staff:						
Total	44	44	45	48	50	53
Male	27	27	28	31	31	34
Female	20	20	22	25	25	30
Others:						
Total	41	42	42	44	48	48
Male	27	27	27	30	33	34
Female	20	22	25	27	27	30

B. Crime prevention strategies

Table 11. Crime prevention strategies in countries responding to the crime prevention section of the Second Survey

Type of activity	Number of countries reporting that activity
Publicity campaigns on criminality and crime prevention, especially in the forms of community meetings, public case study meetings, lecture meetings and television and radio broadcasts	30
Preventive policing (e.g. by extra patrolling, provision of a visible police presence in neighbourhood)	29
The systematic creation of constructive leisure-time activities	28
The provision of better physical obstructions against theft	26
Use of architectural techniques, including better lighting designed specifically to increase surveillance	26
Crime prevention through the improvement of quality of life, especially for potential offenders	25
Welfare and financial assistance for families whose members have either committed, or seem to be at risk of committing, offences	24
The provision of crime prevention and security consulting services by the police	23
The systematic creation of foster families for delinquent and predelinquent juveniles	23
Vocational training for unemployed or disadvantaged youths	22
Crisis intervention centres for adolescents in need of care, offering short-term welfare and medical services	20
Citizen crime prevention associations	19
Creation of job opportunities for unemployed persons	19
Upgrading of communities through subsidies, e.g. for the improvement of housing	17

continued

Table 11 (continued)

Type of activity	Number of countries reporting that activity
Campaigns for placing identifying marks on valuable items (e.g. household articles, goods in shops etc.) to discourage potential theft	16
Increased use of supervision in public transport	15
Consultations with specialists on crime prevention	10
Competitions between residential areas in respect of order and security	8
Visits to correctional institutions for psychological deterrence	8

C. Reports for the period 1980-1983

Table 12. Reported changes in crime and criminal justice operations: 1980-1983  
(Number of countries responding: N = 17)

Subject	Significant increase (over 25%)	Moderate increase (10-25%)	Stable	Moderate decrease (10-25%)	Significant decrease (10-25%)
Overall crime rate	1	11	5	0	0
Aggregate crimes against the person	2	7	8	0	0
Theft, fraud and embezzlement	4	6	6	1	0
Number of adults in custody awaiting trial	1	5	10	1	0
Number of sentenced adult prisoners	1	6	9	1	0

continued



Table 12 (continued)

Subject	Significant increase (over 25%)	Moderate increase (10-25%)	Stable	Moderate decrease (10-25%)	Significant decrease (10-25%)
Number of adults convicted of offences and given non-custodial sentences	3	4	8	0	0
Number of full-time civil police officers	1	5	11	0	0
Number of full-time prison staff	0	6	10	0	0

Annex II

FIGURES

Figure 1. Crimes of Violence, 1970 and 1980

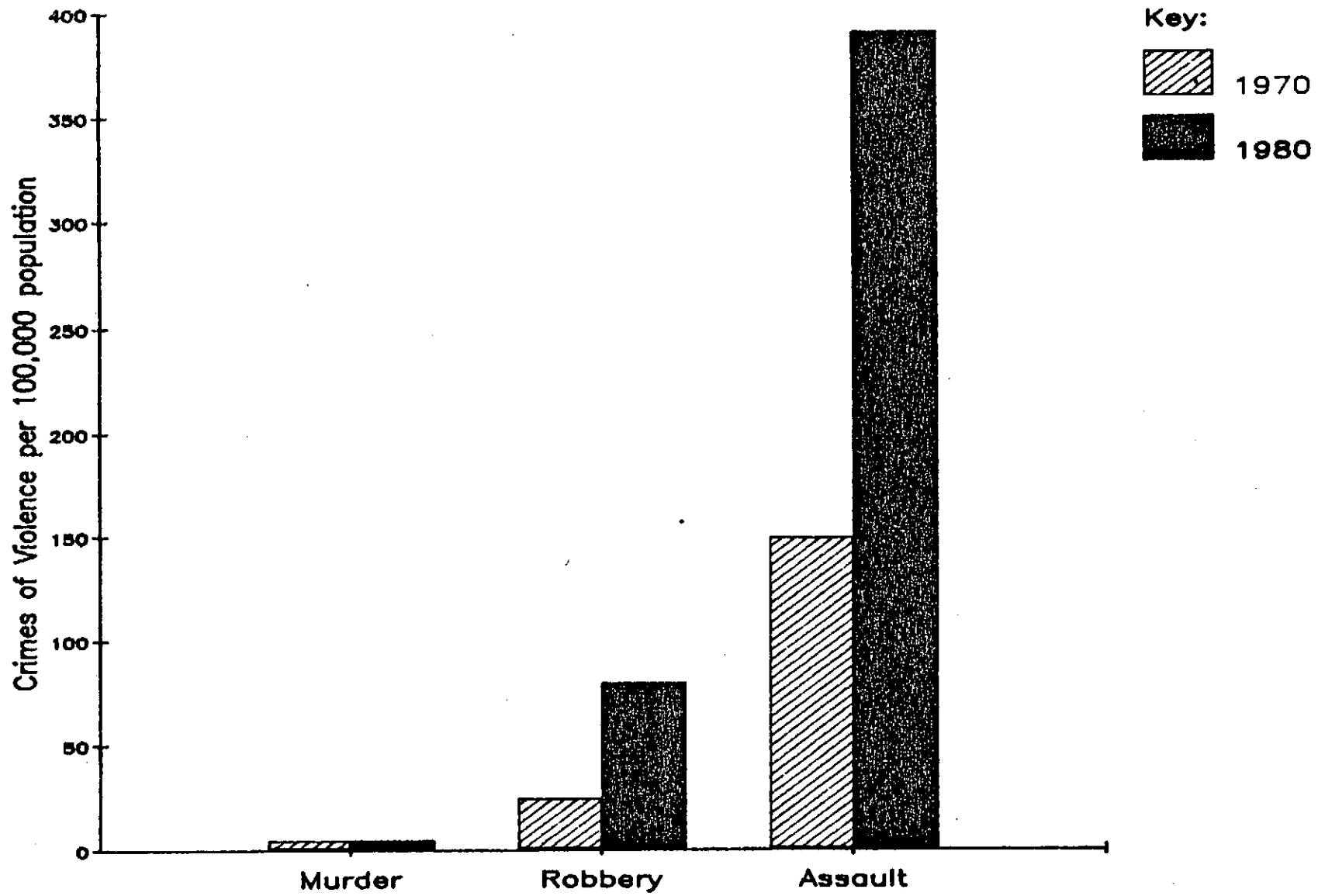


Figure II: Crimes against Property  
1970 and 1980

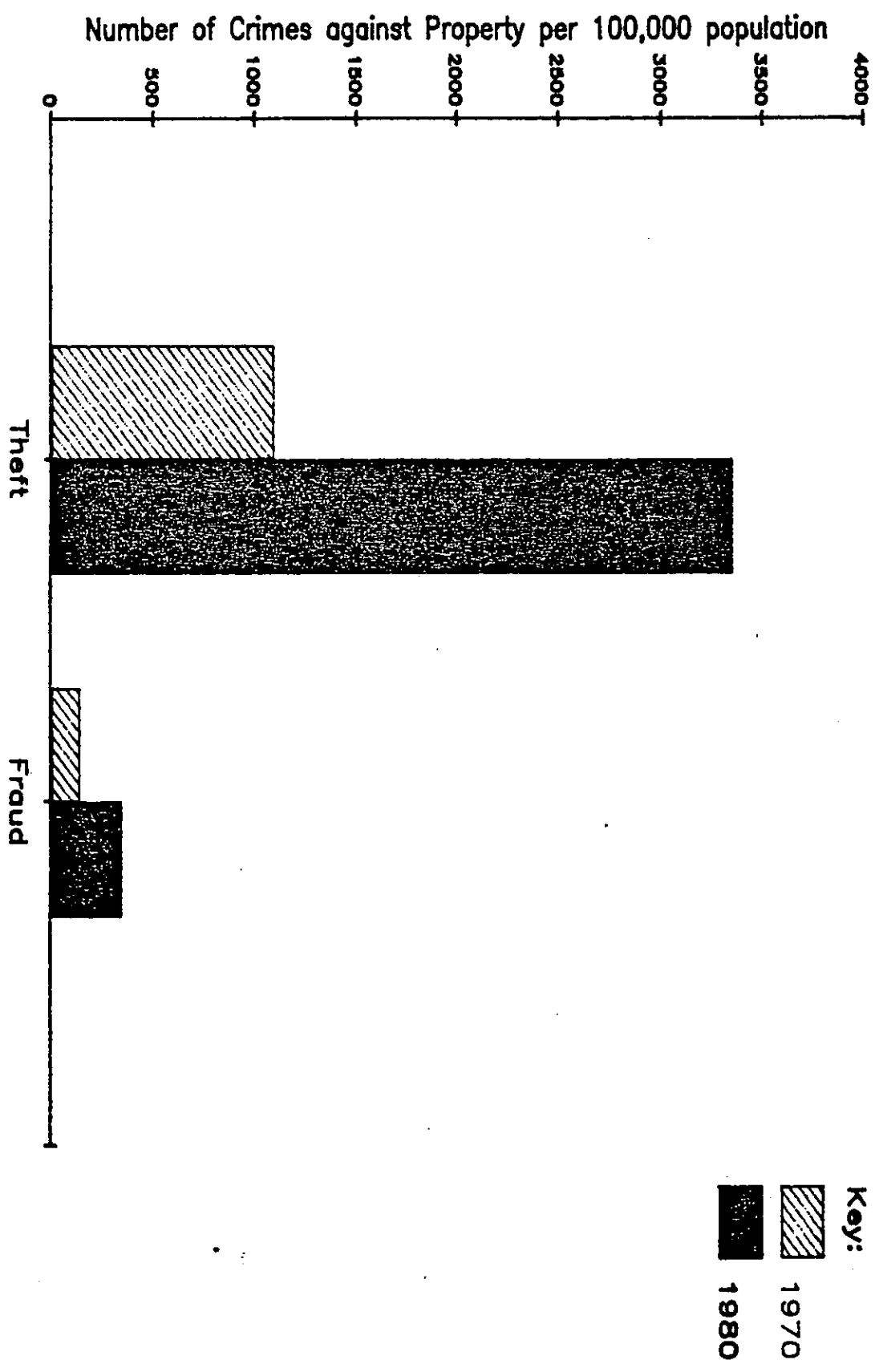


Figure III: Reported Homicides, 1970 to 1980

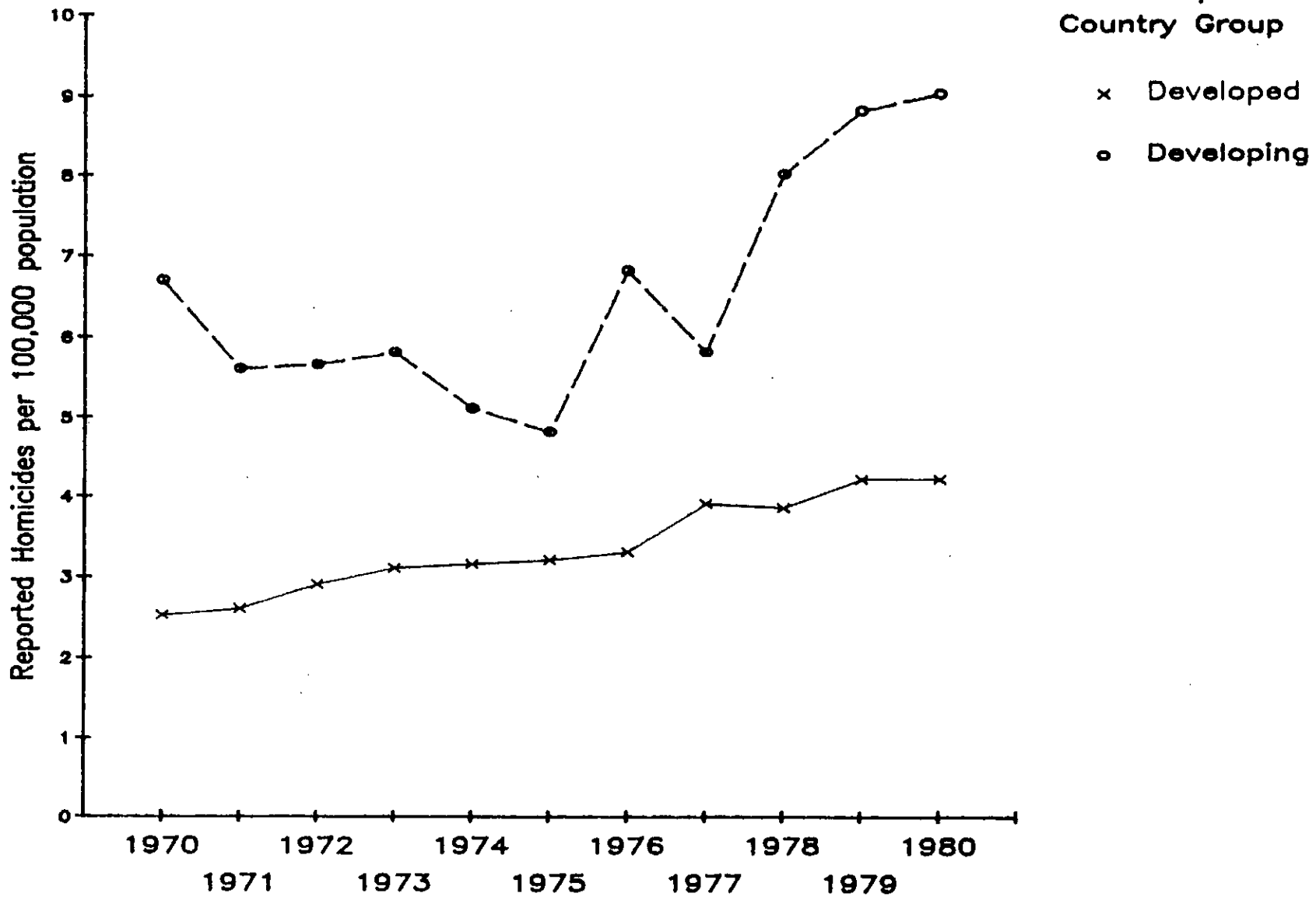


Figure IV: Reported Assaults, 1970 to 1980

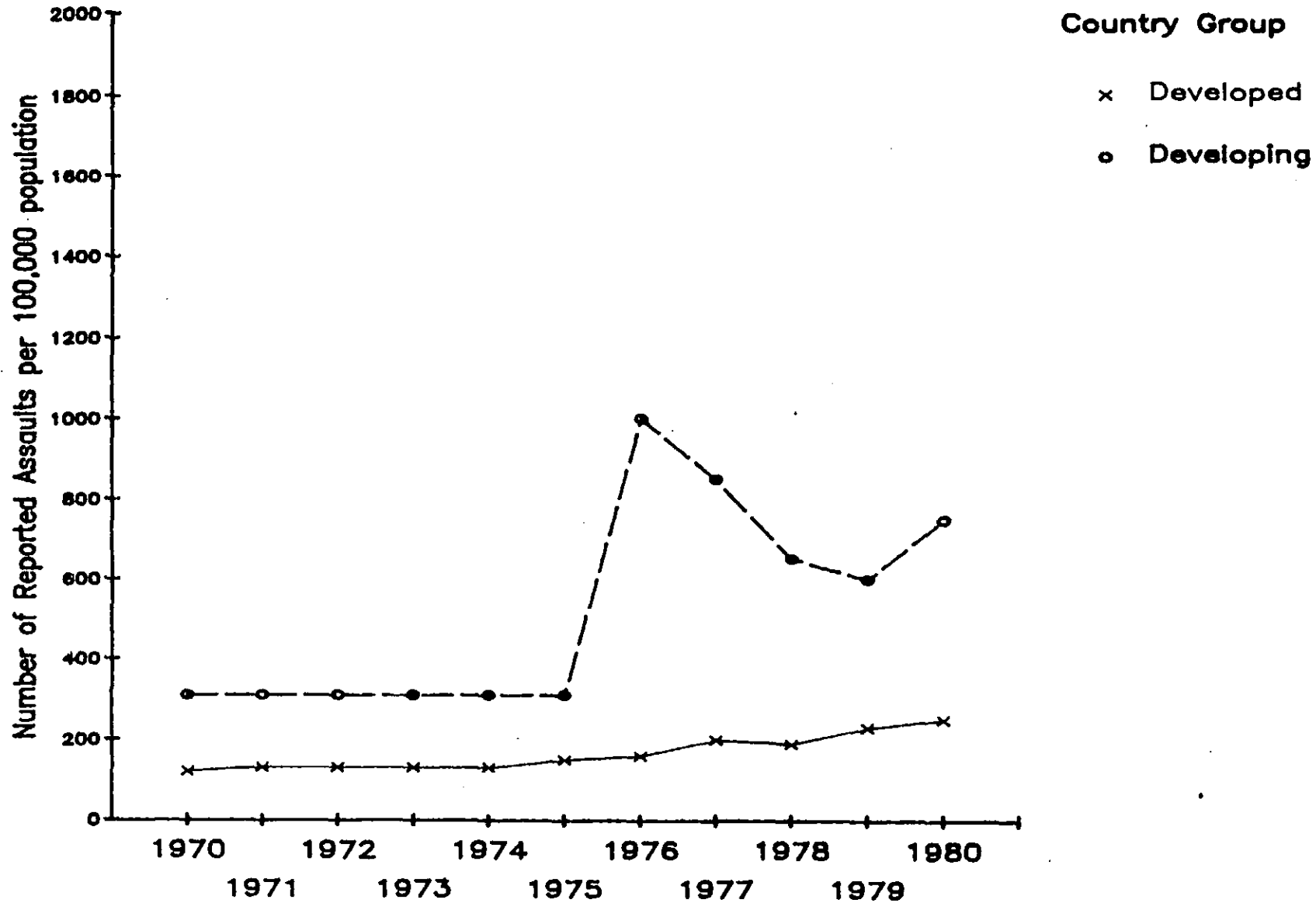


Figure V. Reported Robberies, 1970 to 1980

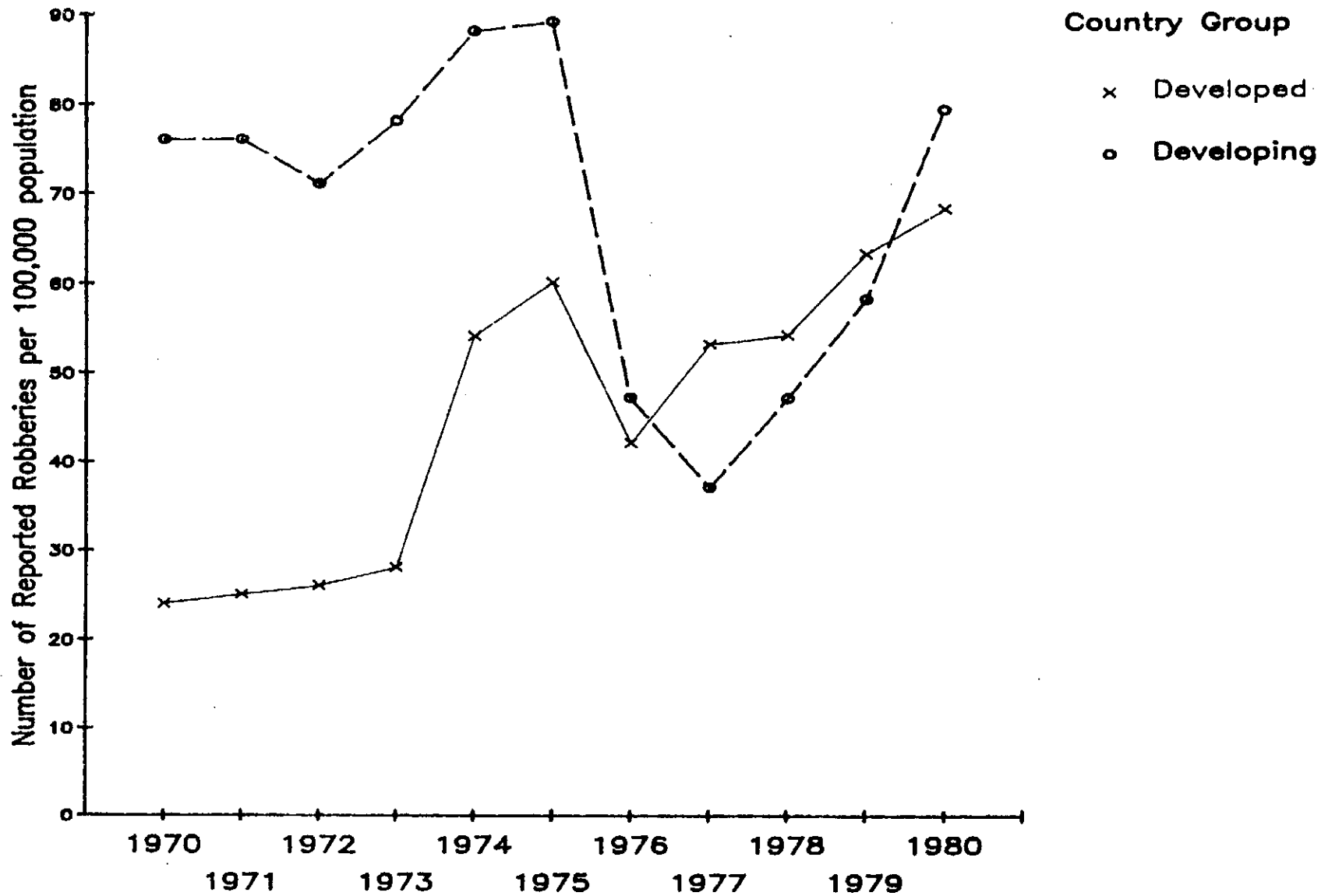


Figure VI. Reported Thefts, 1970 to 1980

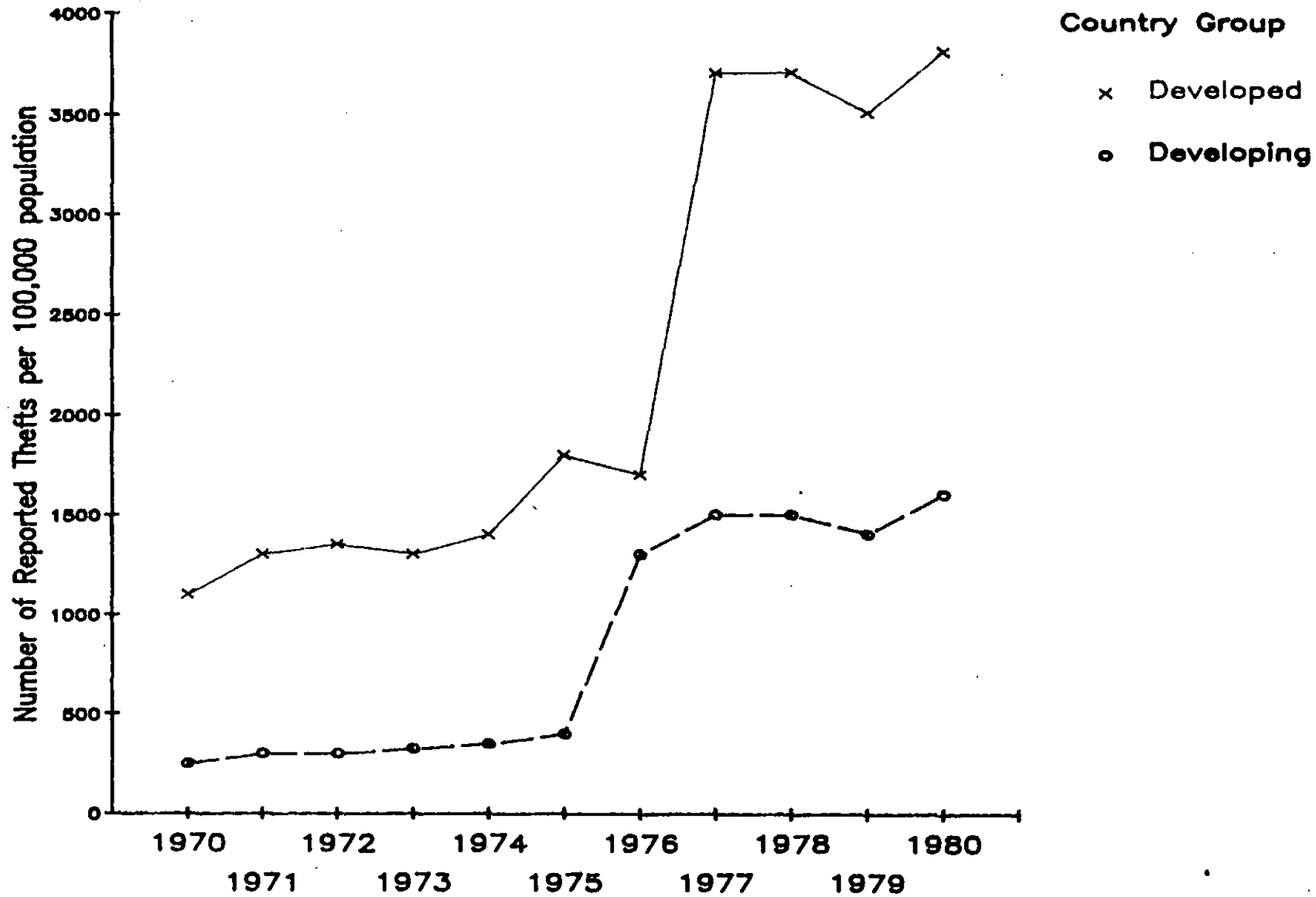




Figure VII. Reported Frauds, 1970 to 1980

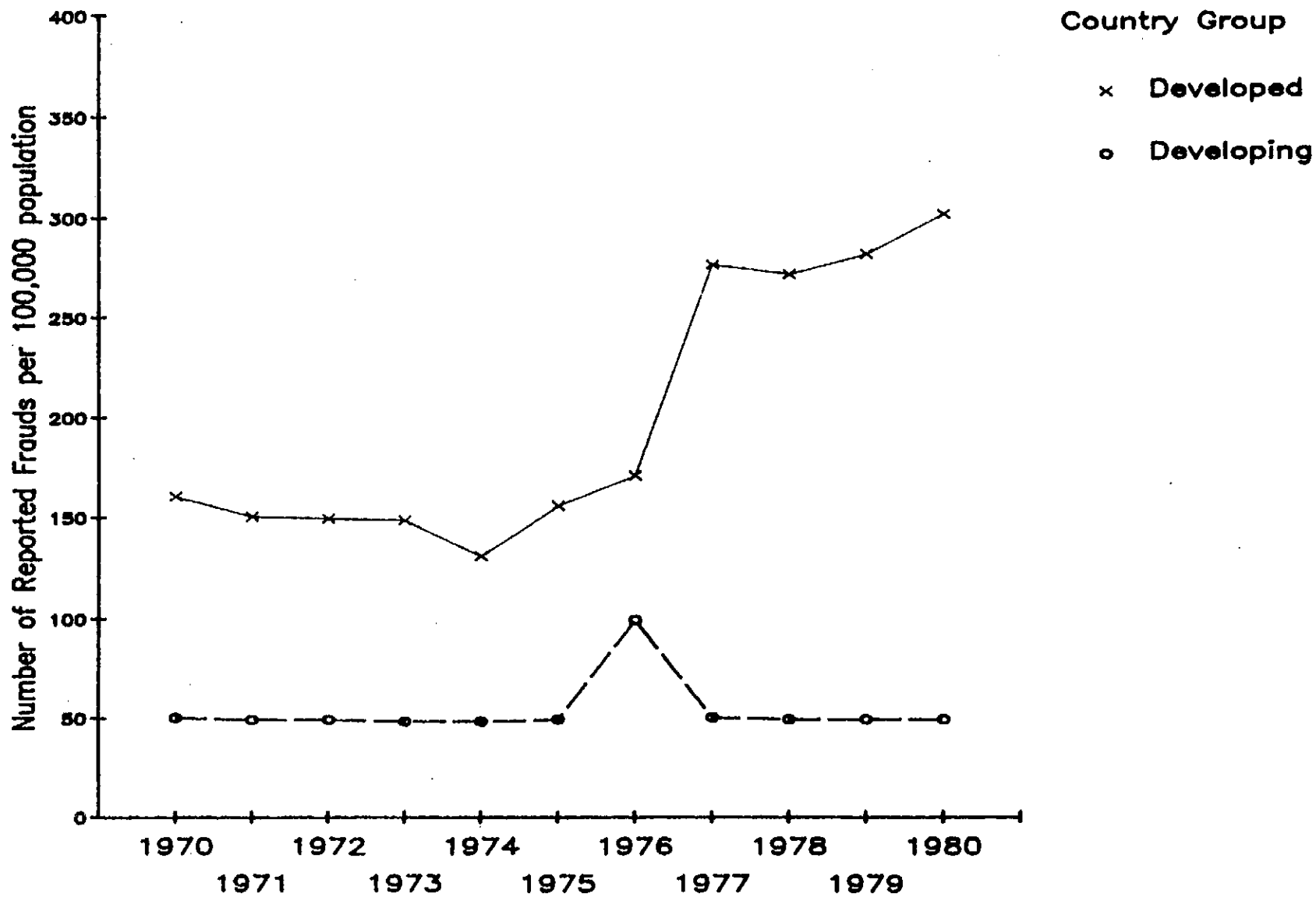


Figure VIII. Criminal Justice Personnel  
first and second surveys compared

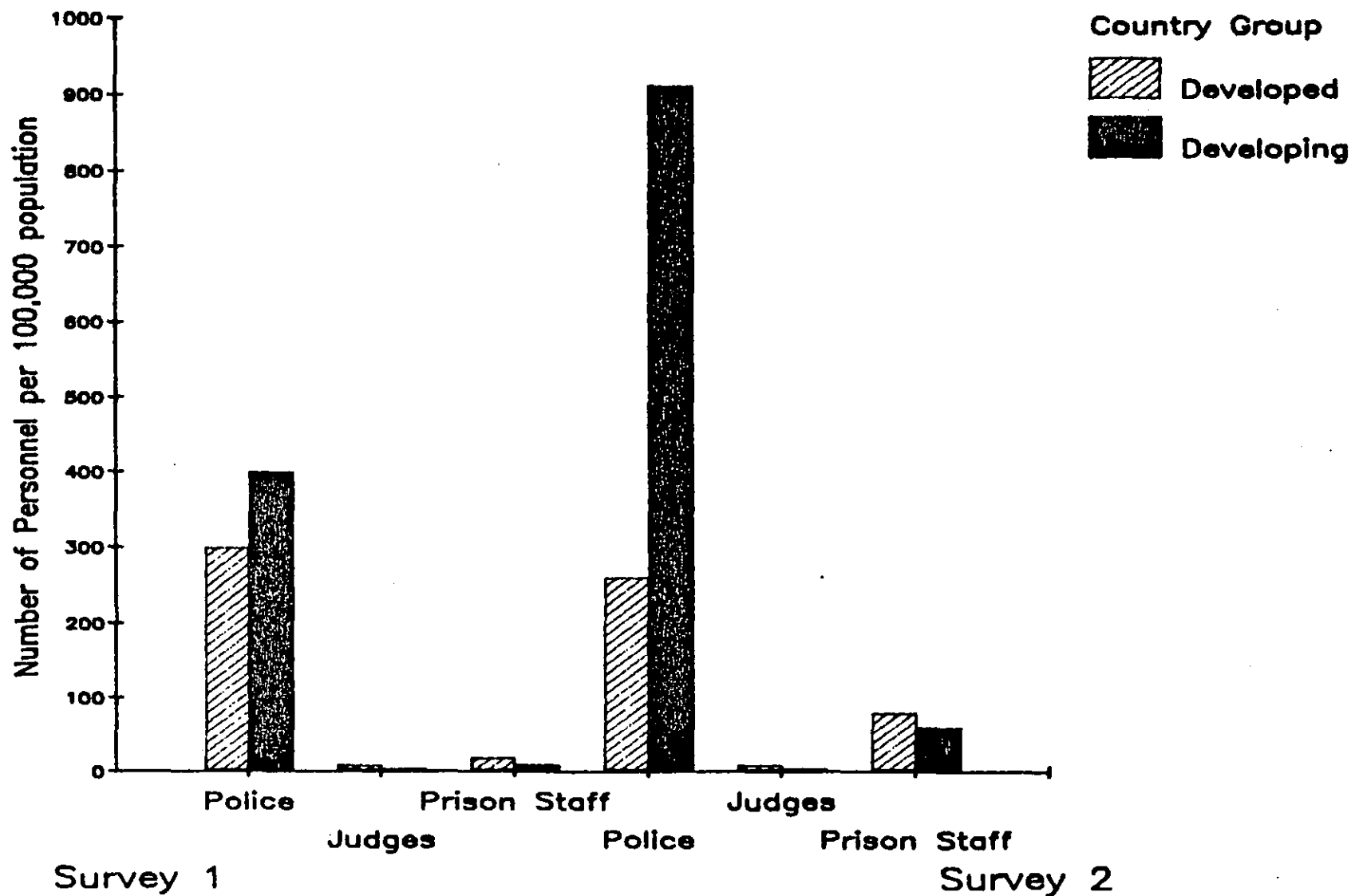


Figure IX. Criminal Justice Personnel  
Developed Countries: second survey only

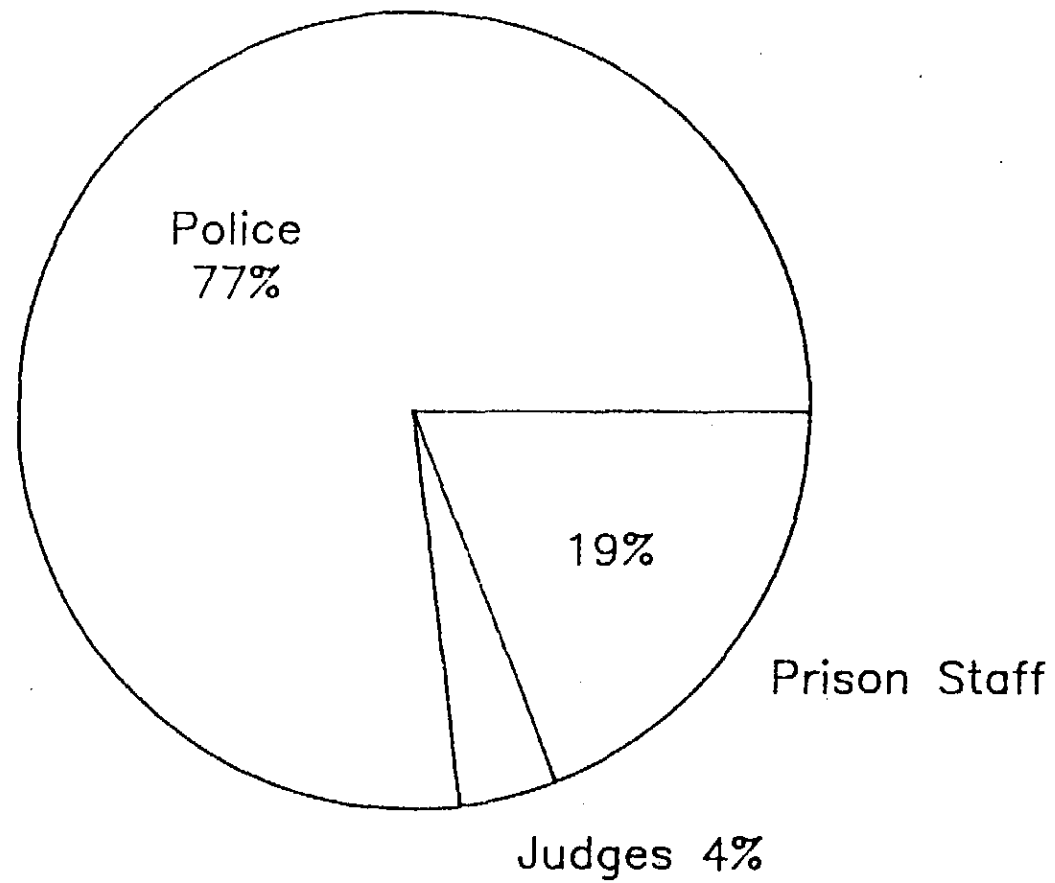


Figure X. Criminal Justice Personnel  
Developing Countries: second survey only

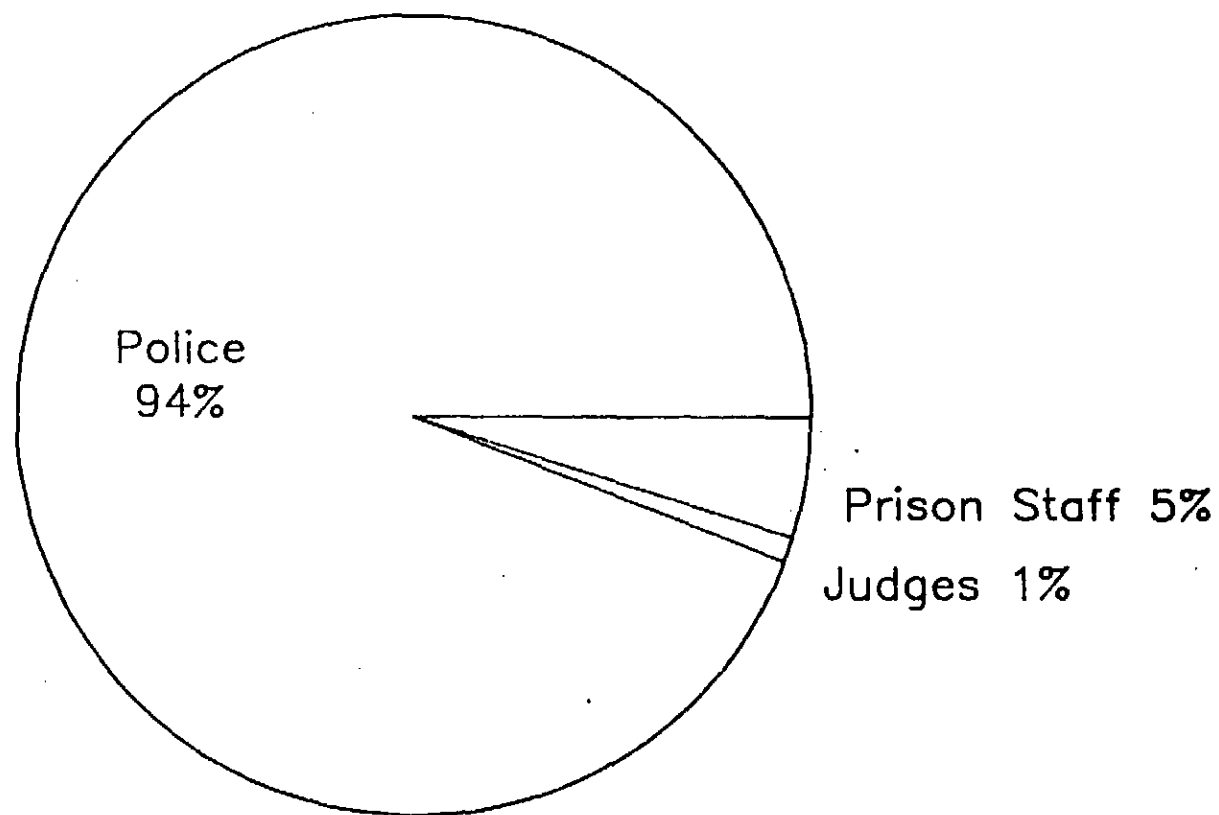
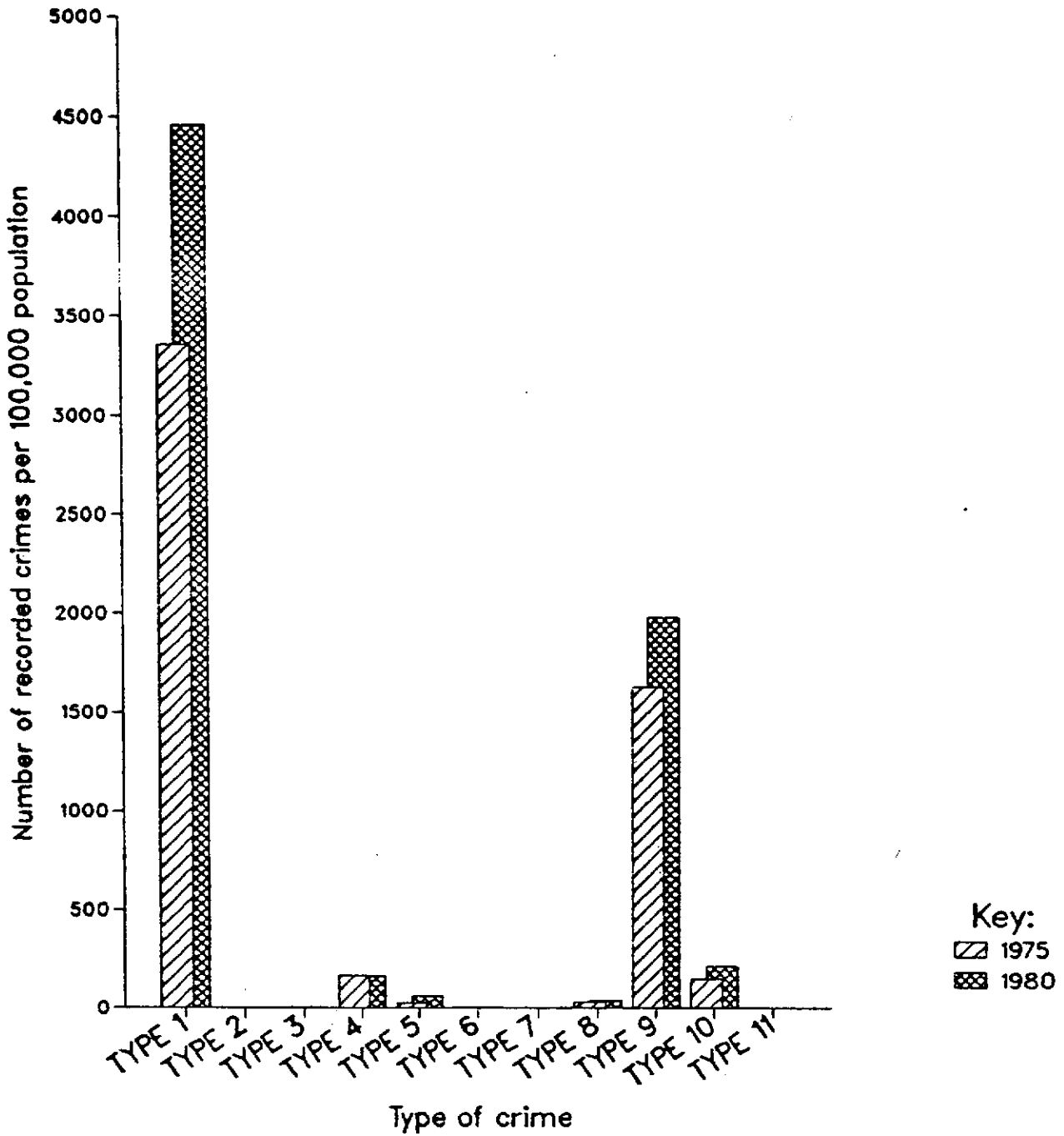
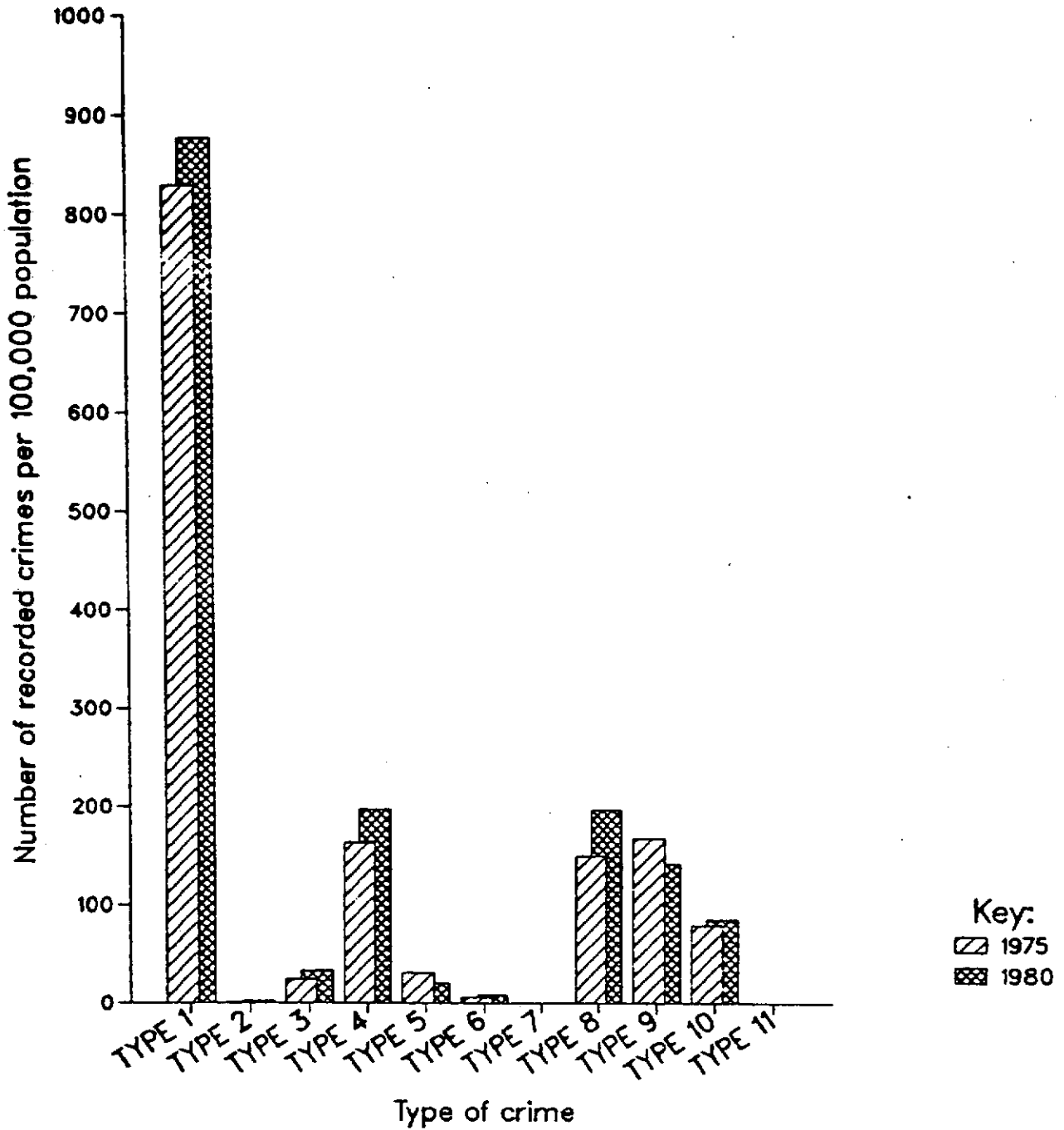


Figure XI. All reporting countries:  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980



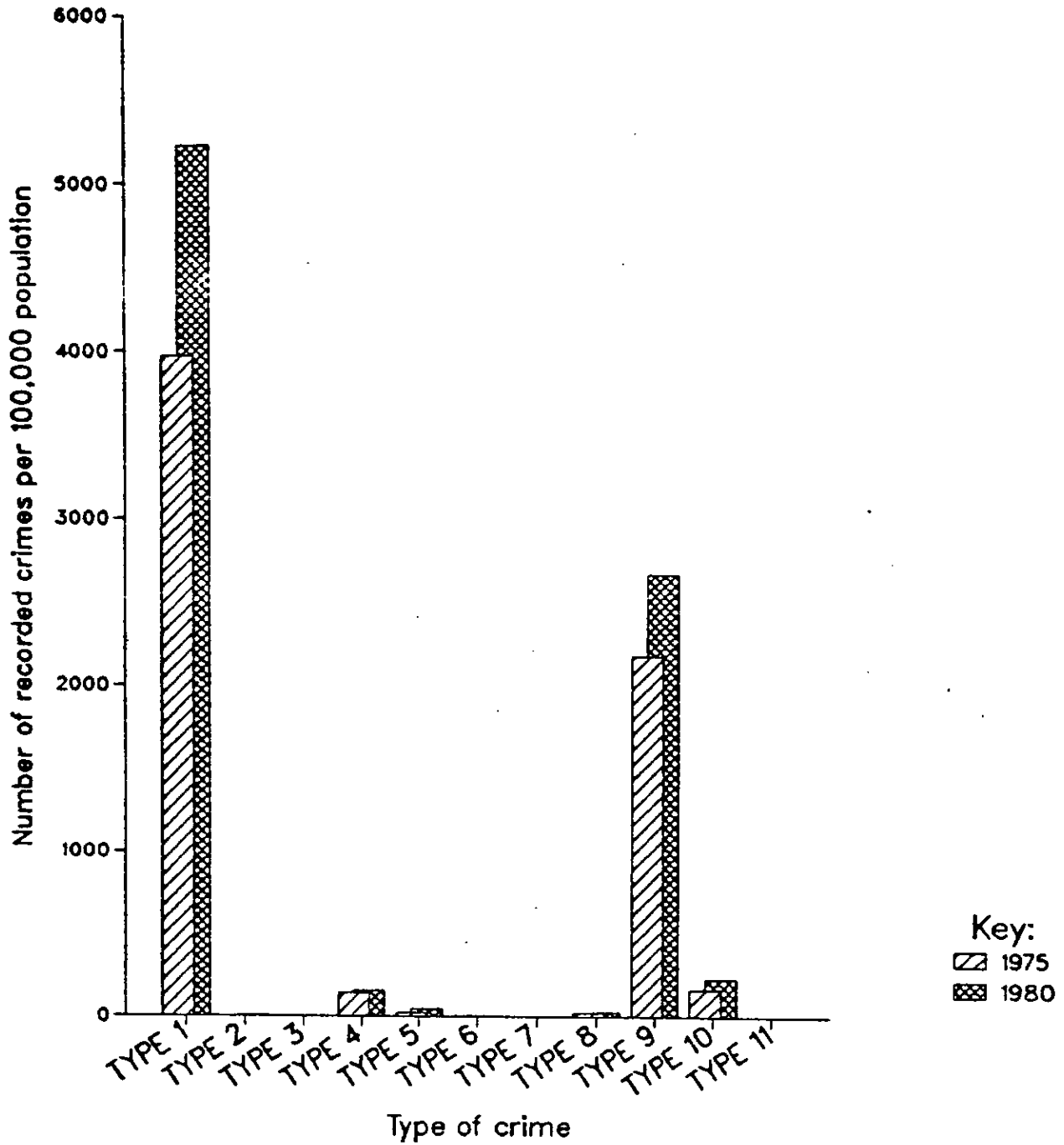
Note: The types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XIII. Region 1  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980



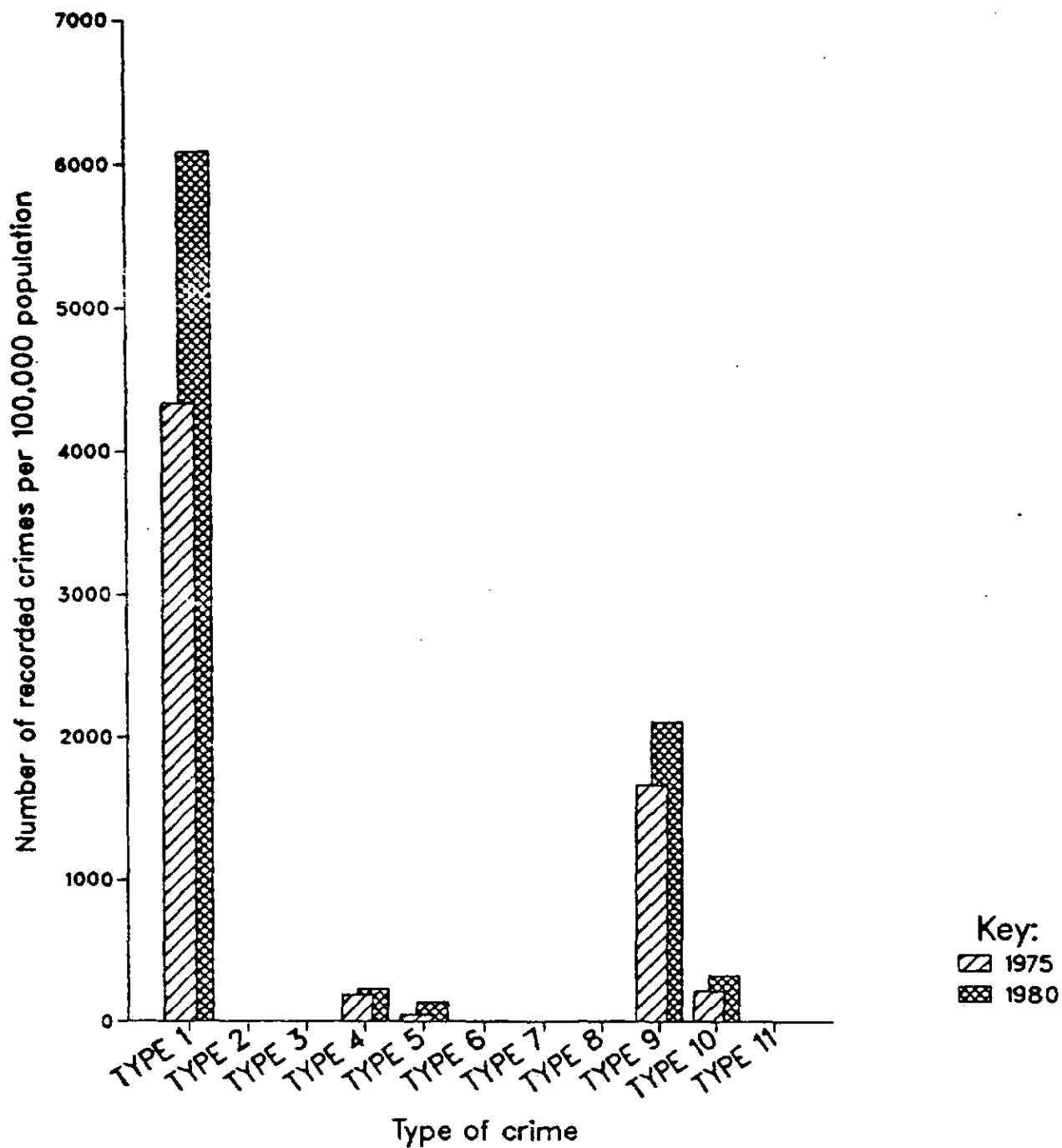
Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XIII. Region 2  
Recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980



Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

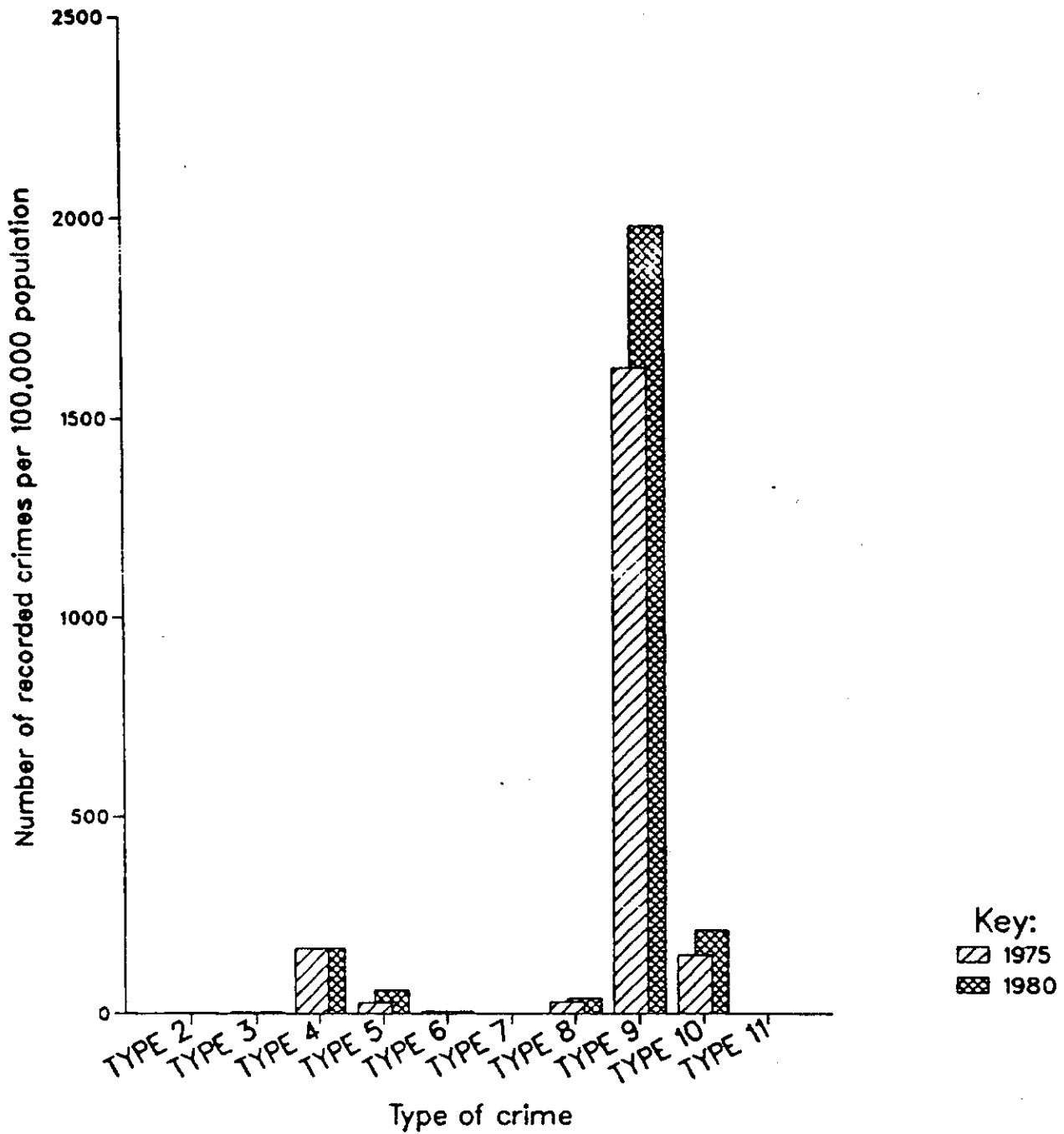
Figure XIV Region 3  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980



Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

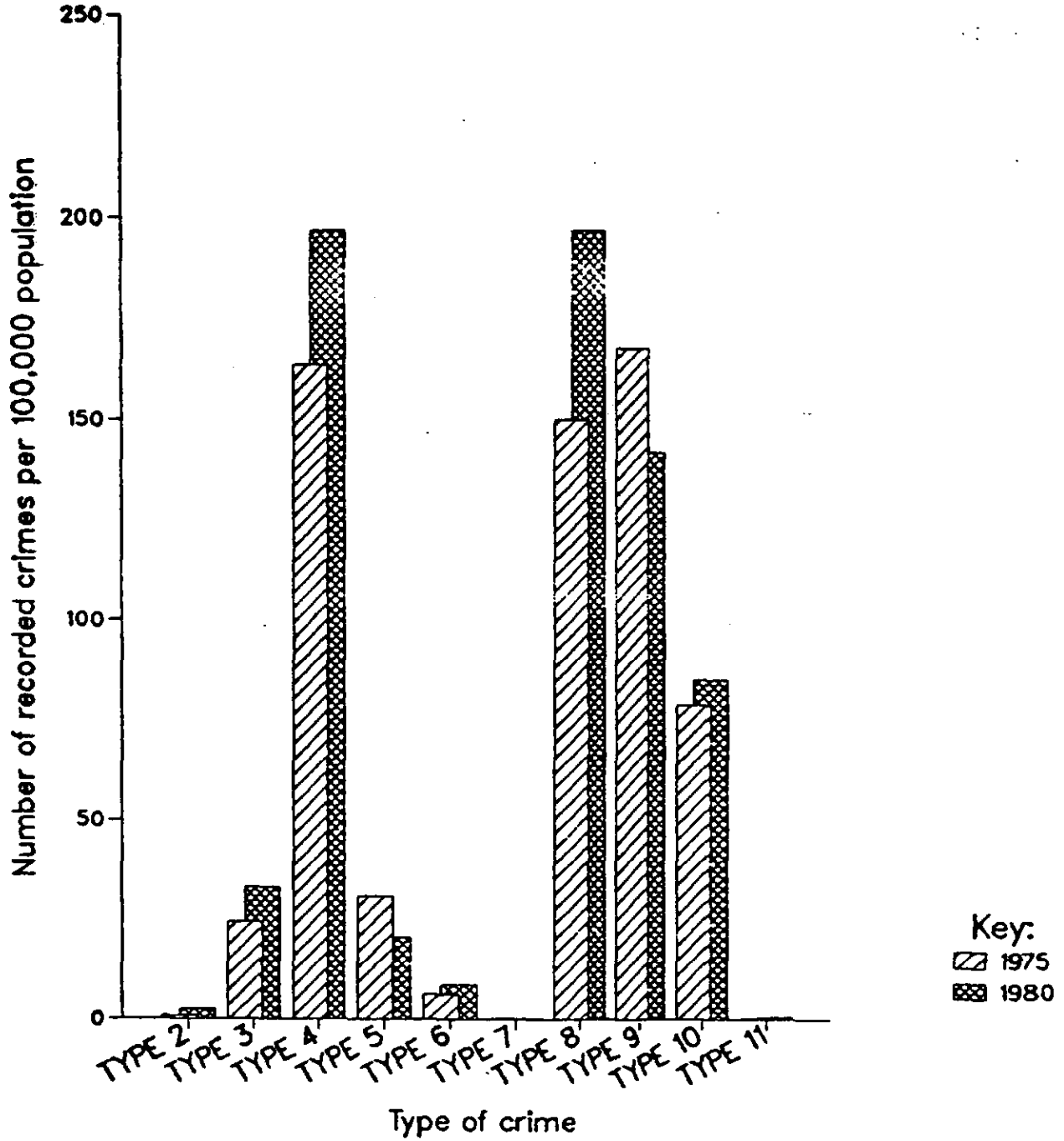


Figure XV. All reporting countries:  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980, total crimes omitted



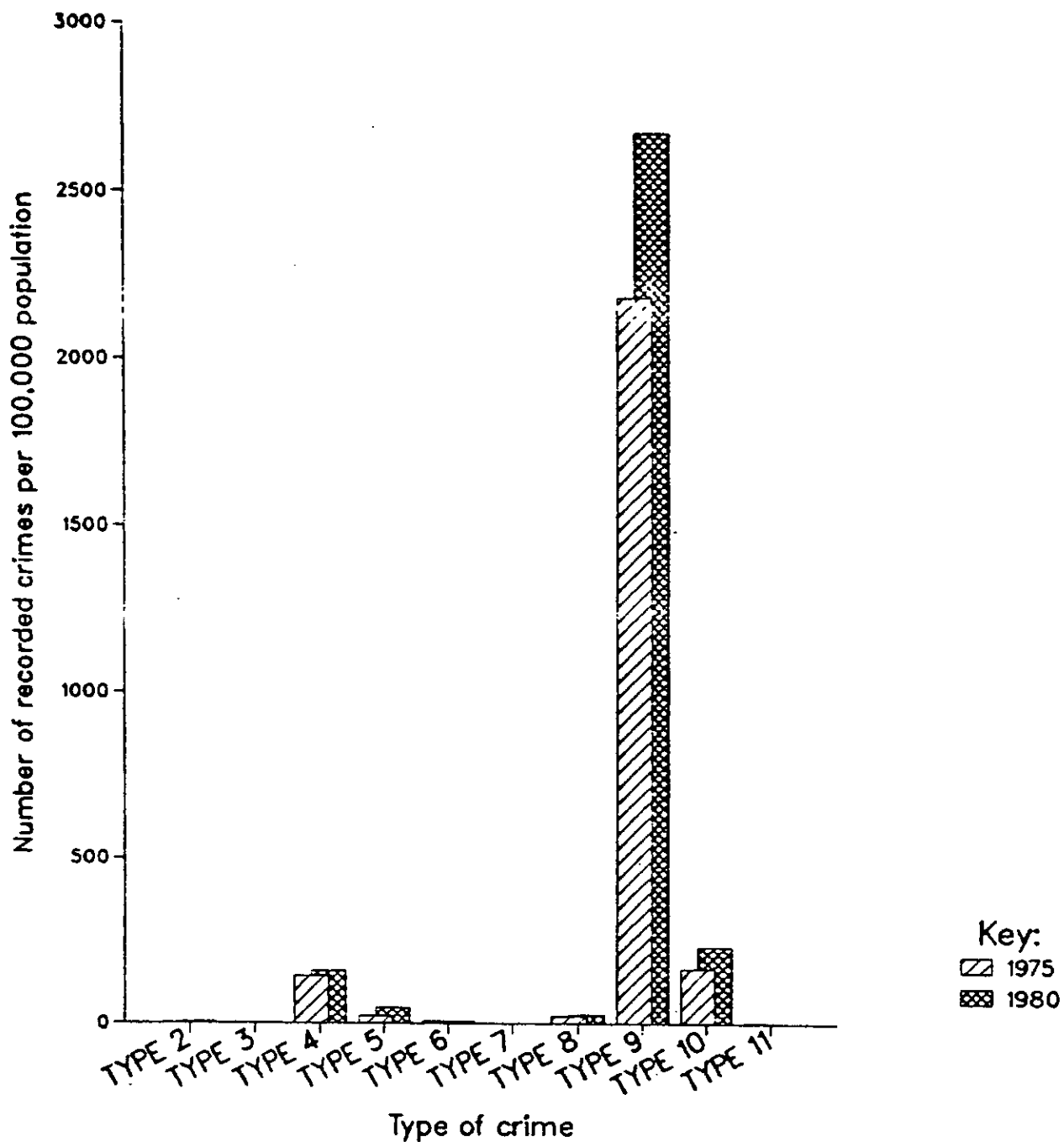
Note: The types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XVI. Region 1  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980, total crimes omitted



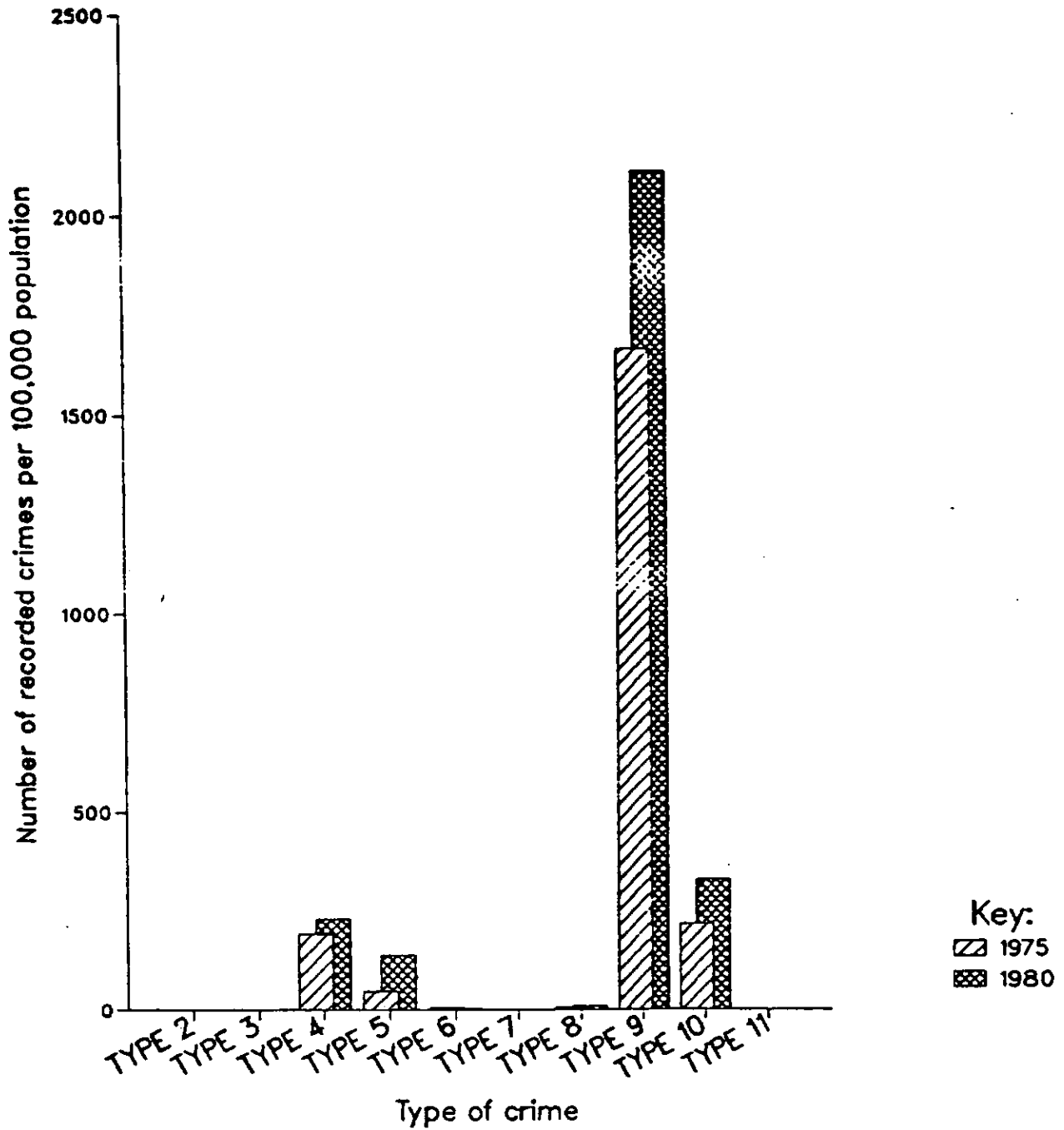
Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XVII. Region 2  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980, total crimes omitted.



Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XVIII. Region 3  
recorded crimes by type of crime, 1975 and 1980, total crimes omitted



Note: The region and types of crime are given on page 18.

Figure XIX. All reporting countries:  
Projected number of recorded crimes, 1975-2000

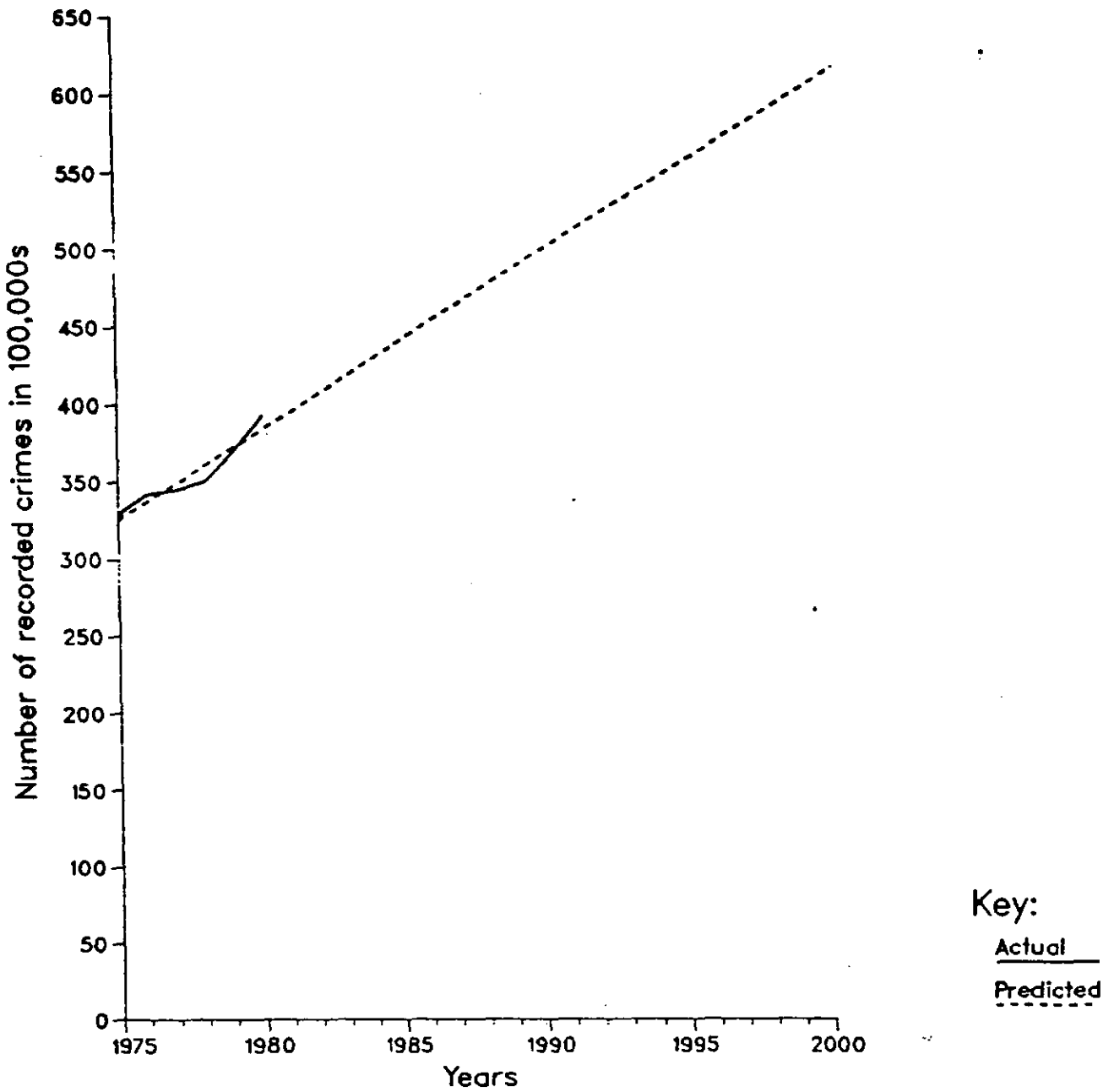


Figure XX. All reporting countries:  
Projected number of detained adults, 1975-2000

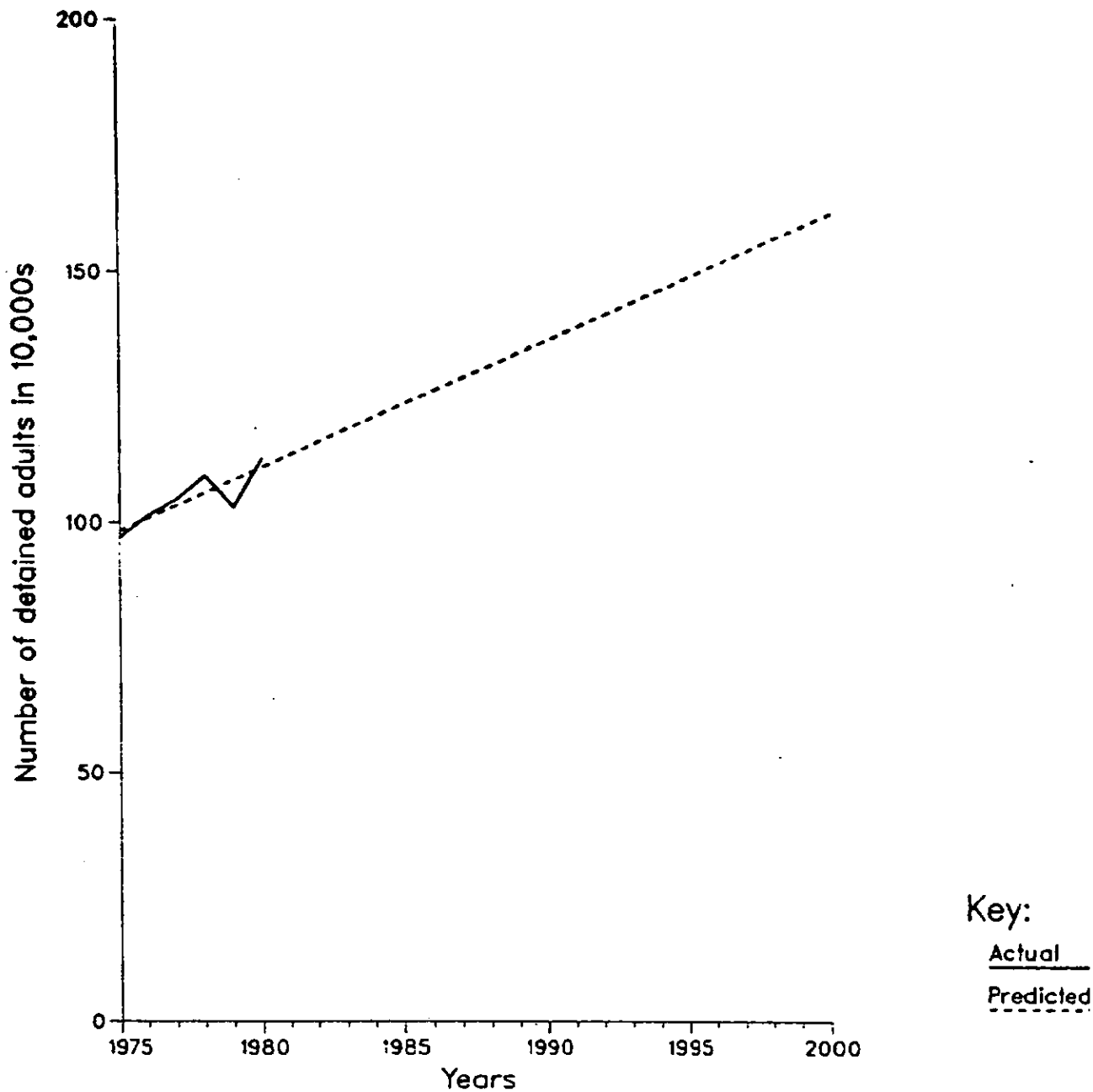
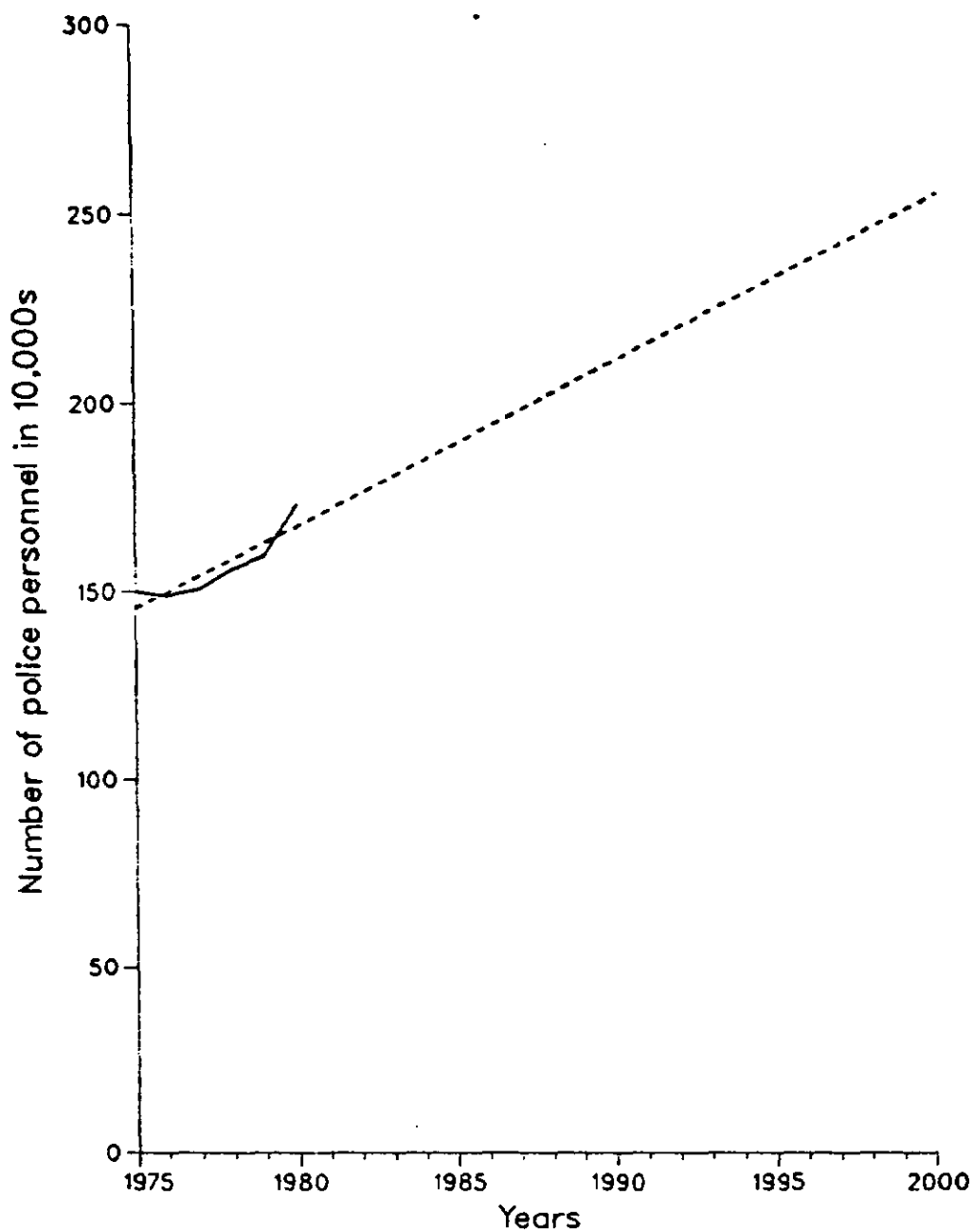


Figure XXI. All reporting countries:  
Projected total police personnel, 1975-2000



Key:  
Actual  
Predicted

This archiving project is a collaborative effort between United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and American Society of Criminology, Division of International Criminology. Any comments or questions should be directed to Cindy J. Smith at [CJSmithphd@comcast.net](mailto:CJSmithphd@comcast.net) or Emil Wandzilak at [emil.wandzilak@unodc.org](mailto:emil.wandzilak@unodc.org).