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United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime



Corruption in Croatia:

BRIBERY AS EXPERIENCED
BY THE POPULATION



UNITED NATIONS OFFICE ON DRUGS AND CRIME
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Corruption is often reported in the international community to be an area of vulnerability for the countries of the western Balkans and it appears that the people of Croatia would tend to agree. Results presented in this report show that Croatian citizens rank corruption as the most important problem facing their country after unemployment and the performance of the Government.

Corruption comes in many guises and, in contrast to other surveys that look at people's perceptions, this survey focuses on the actual experience of administrative corruption and provides information on the nature of bribery and its procedures. This is the kind of petty corruption that affects the daily lives of ordinary people in their dealings with the public administration, the service provider which plays so huge a role in contemporary society that a remarkable nine out of ten adult Croatians interact with it at some point during the course of the year.

Such dealings may be for anything from a medical visit or school enrolment to the issue of a new passport or driving licence but, according to the results of this survey, a significant amount of them are of the dubious variety. Although there are notable variations between the Croatian regions, on average, 18.2 per cent of Croatian citizens aged 18 to 64 have either direct or indirect exposure to a bribery experience with a public official on a yearly basis. But when focusing on bribes actually paid, the percentage of Croatian citizens who pay at least one bribe in that period – among those who have contacts with the public administration – is 11.2 per cent, and those who pay at least one bribe in that period actually do so once every three months. The highest prevalence of bribery is observed in the Zagreb and Dalmatia regions, while in Istria, Hrvatsko primorje and Gorski kotar it is below the national average.

The face of corruption is all too familiar but the one seen in Croatia has slightly different features than in other parts of the globe. For example, the global tendency is for corruption to be mainly an urban phenomenon, yet in Croatia, as in many other western Balkan countries, it is almost as prevalent in rural areas as in urban areas (11% vs. 11.3%). And while, as to be expected, more Croatian men pay bribes than Croatian women, despite established gender roles that assign more home-based activities to women, the difference between the sexes is not that marked (13.1% and 10%, respectively).

Croatian women are evidently no strangers to corruption but they go about the bribery business in a slightly different manner to their male counterparts. They are more likely to pay a bribe in kind – in the shape of food and drink, for example – while men are more likely to use money. Cash accounts for almost a half (44%) of all bribes in Croatia and, although this type of corruption is petty, the sums paid are far from trivial: the average bribe paid being 2,050 HRK, or the equivalent of approximately 280 Euro¹.

Such cash payments are substantial, bearing in mind the per capita incomes of many Croatians, but it would be wrong to assume that people are always coerced into paying them. More than half of bribes paid (58%) are actually offered by citizens themselves, while in almost 40 per cent of cases they are paid in response to a direct or indirect request by a public official. This shows the lack of faith some Croatian citizens have in the ability of the public administration to function without the payment of some kind of kickback for facilitating bureaucratic procedures. And the existence of deficiencies and bottlenecks in the public sector is confirmed by the fact that more than a third of citizens (35%) who participate in a bribery act do so to speed up a procedure, while almost one in five (18%) does so to receive better treatment.

Such a need for better treatment no doubt explains why the public officials paid most kickbacks in Croatia are doctors. More than half (56%) of citizens who pay bribes pay them to doctors, more than a third to nurses (36%) while 30 per cent pay police officers. The latter mainly being paid for the avoidance of a fine or the reduction of the amount fined.

The picture painted in this survey is sometimes a troubling one, but data indicate that there is some resistance to bribery and Croatian citizens do not always consent to the payment of bribes in order to facilitate or benefit from a particular administrative procedure: one in four refuses to do so, turning down the request made by a public official. On the other hand, only a negligible amount of bribe-payers (less than 2%) report their experience to the authorities. There are numerous reasons for this: some citizens do not deem bribery to be of the same gravity as “real” crimes, in part because there is a sense of acceptance that bribery is simply a common practice (17%) and also, when constituting an expression of gratitude for services rendered, actually a positive practice (24%). Citizens also fail to report bribery events because bribe payment can, of course, be of direct benefit to the bribe-payer (26%), and because they believe reporting to be a futile exercise as nothing would be done, nor would anyone care (24%).

Interestingly, for almost one in three bribe-payers (29%) this survey interview was the first time they had admitted to the payment of a bribe, having never previously shared the experience with anybody, even close friends or relatives. It seems that when it comes to bribery a well-established and selective code of silence still exists in many cases.

Bribery not only affects the services provided to citizens by public officials. The public administration is the largest employer in Croatia and its associated job security and accompanying benefits are highly coveted. Some 18 per cent of Croatian citizens, or members of their households, applied for a job in the public sector in the three years prior to the survey, but of those whose application was successful one in six (16%) admits to paying some money, giving a gift or doing a favour to help secure their position. Among those who failed, there is a widespread perception that factors such as cronyism, nepotism or bribery played a decisive role in the recruitment process, while only 16 per cent believe that the selection was made on merit.

Certain malpractices may also have played some kind of role in the most recent elections held in Croatia. Data show that an average of 4 per cent of citizens at the last local elections and 3

¹ Amounts in Croatian Kunar are converted into Euro by using the annual average exchange rate published by Eurostat. For international comparisons, amounts in national currency should be converted by using Purchasing Power Parities (PPP): when using conversion rates in PPP, as published by Eurostat, 2,050 HRK are equivalent to approximately 410 EUR-PPP.

per cent at the last parliamentary or presidential elections were asked to vote for a certain candidate or political party in exchange for a concrete offer of money, goods or a favour.

While Croatian men in their thirties are those most exposed to bribery, characteristics such as income, education level or employment status do not appear to have a clear effect on the probability of experiencing bribery. For instance, although the prevalence of bribery increases slightly with income level, its frequency does exactly the opposite and the average number of bribes paid is actually higher among lower income groups than wealthier citizens, with no social group being exempt from bribery.

Nor, of course, is any social group exempt from the possibility of falling victim to the other five crime types examined in this survey, yet the prevalence rates for personal theft, assault/threat, burglary, robbery and car theft in Croatia are considerably lower than for bribery (3.6%, 3.4%, 1.6%, 0.9% and 0.2%, respectively). These are quite modest levels, on a par with those evidenced in other European countries, which probably explains why Croatian citizens feel rather safe in relation to crime. Eight out of ten of them feel safe when walking alone after dark and an even larger majority citizens feel fairly secure in their homes and neighbourhoods.

But perceptions about corruption in Croatia are not so positive. Some two thirds of the population believe that corrupt practices occur often or very often in a number of important public institutions, including central and local government, parliament, hospitals, judiciary and the police. Almost half of Croatian citizens (47%) believe that corruption is actually on the rise in their country, 44 per cent believe it to be stable and a further 9 per cent think it is decreasing. Perceptions, it should be underlined, are nothing more than opinions and are not to be confused with the actual experience of corruption that provides the main focus of this report. Nevertheless, such a perception can be interpreted as an expression of citizens' awareness of one of the principal challenges facing Croatia, both now and in the years to come.



KEY FINDINGS

- Croatian citizens rank corruption as the third most important problem facing their country today, after unemployment and the performance of the Government.
- Nine out of ten Croatian citizens interact with the public administration at some point during the course of the year.
- In the 12 months prior to this survey, 18 per cent of Croatian citizens had either a direct or indirect exposure to a bribery experience with a public official.
- The bribery prevalence rate among citizens who had contact with public officials in that period is 11 per cent.
- There are no significant differences in the prevalence of bribery in urban and rural areas of Croatia.
- The highest prevalence of bribery is observed in the Zagreb and Dalmatia regions, while in Istria, Hrvatsko primorje and Gorski kotar it is below the national average.
- One in ten Croatian women participates in bribery, as opposed to 13 per cent of Croatian men.
- Everyone who reports the payment of at least one bribe, on average, actually pays four bribes or the equivalent of one bribe every three months.
- Almost half (44%) of bribes are paid in cash, more than a third (37%) as food and drink.
- The average cash bribe paid in Croatia is 2,050 HRK, or the equivalent of approximately 280 Euro.
- In more than half (58%) of bribery incidents, Croatian citizens initiate the payment, whereas one in twelve (8%) is explicitly requested to pay a bribe.
- The main purposes of paying bribes in Croatia are to speed up a procedure (35%) or to receive better treatment (18%).

- Croatian citizens tend to use bribes in contacts with police and car registration officers to avoid the payment of a fine or reduce the amount fined.
- More than half of all bribe-payers in Croatia pay kickbacks to doctors (56%), more than a third to nurses (36%).
- Of those citizens refusing to pay bribes, one in four (25%) refuses to pay police officers and almost one in five (19%) refuses to pay doctors.
- Only 2 per cent of citizens with corruption experience report the incident. Citizens do not report corruption experiences because they receive extra benefits (26%) or because they give bribes voluntarily as a sign of gratitude (24%).
- Croatian citizens lack reasons for reporting corruption. More than half think that people who report corruption are likely to regret it, and nothing constructive will come of reporting it.
- Perceptions of widespread corruption in the public sector are backed up the experience of the 16 per cent of those who, in the three years prior to this survey, secured a job in the public administration with the help of a bribe.
- The offer of goods, favours and money to attract voters was evidenced during the last local and national elections: 4 per cent of citizens were approached at local elections and 3 per cent at the last parliamentary or presidential elections.
- Corruption has a higher prevalence rate than other crimes such as theft, burglary, robbery and assault. This is in line with the rather low crime rate in Croatia, where citizens feel safe at home after dark and do not use advanced security systems to protect their homes.



INTRODUCTION

Corruption remains an issue for countries all over the world. Socio-economic development, the institutional and political setting, or the prevailing social and cultural norms are all elements that can shape it in very different manners, but corruption is still a scourge from which no country is truly exempt and it is often reported to be an area of vulnerability for the countries of the western Balkans, including Croatia. Indeed, the citizens of Croatia perceive corruption to be a major problem: the results presented in this report show that they rank corruption as the most important problem facing their country after unemployment and the performance of the Government.

International legal instruments and national policies

In the last decade, awareness of corruption has increased in Croatia and it has become an important priority in the political agenda of the country. Successive Croatian governments have committed themselves to fighting corruption and key steps have been taken to address the issue, in part because of commitments deriving from the European Union accession process and the subsequent need to adapt national legislation to the *acquis communautaire*.

Important instruments in the upgrading of the legislative framework for the fight against corruption are represented by the ratification of two Council of Europe conventions – the Criminal Law Convention against Corruption (2000) and the Civil Law Convention against Corruption (2003). In 2005, Croatia also became party to the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC), a consequence of which is the Implementation Review Mechanism, established in 2009 to enable all parties to review their implementation of UNCAC provisions through a peer review process. One of the objectives of this mechanism is to encourage a participatory and nationally driven process towards anti-corruption reform and it is noteworthy that Croatia will be reviewed in the first wave (2010-2011).

Furthermore, the legal framework of national legislation for combating corruption has been incorporated into the existing criminal legislation and relevant legislation has been adopted regarding public access to information, financing political parties and the election of judges. The Law on Conflict of Interest has been amended in relation to appointments to supervisory boards of state-owned companies and to strengthening the verification of the declaration of assets by public officials.

At the same time, Croatia has strengthened its institutional and administrative capacity for preventing, investigating and prosecuting corruption. The Office for Combating Corruption and Organized Crime (USKOK) was established in 2001, while a National Anti-corruption Programme and Anti-corruption Action Plan were first adopted in 2002 and then reviewed in 2008, the Action Plan undergoing a further revision in March 2010. In recent years, USKOK's mandate has been reinforced, both in terms of areas of competence (for example, it was given authority on tax fraud cases linked to corruption) and its investigative prerogatives. Such steps testify the commitment of the Croatian authorities to fight corruption in a fair and effective manner.

The complexity of corruption

Corruption can occur at different levels. A distinction is usually drawn between grand and administrative (petty) corruption, with the former referring to corrupt practices affecting legislative process and policymakers, and the latter referring to dealings between civil servants and the public. In either case, it has a devastating impact on the rule of law, hinders equal access to public services, affects public trust in state institutions and is a hurdle to economic and social development, especially in young democracies.

Corruption is a complex crime with blurred boundaries making it often difficult to distinguish between culprit and victim. It is not necessarily a one-dimensional transaction in which an active perpetrator coerces a passive party: both sides may benefit, and the victim might be a third party or the community at large. Moreover, there are cultural and social factors that can further cloud the issue. The giving of gifts, for example, whether as a “thank you” or bureaucratic lubricant, may be considered acceptable in one culture yet unethical in another.

The importance of studying direct experience

In this context, comprehensive assessments of corruption can greatly assist governments in better tailoring policies and enhancing the capabilities of anti-corruption bodies. At the same time, it is widely accepted that the collection of empirical data in this area represents a real challenge because of the complex and covert nature of corruption. These difficulties are sometimes circumvented by focusing on perceptions about corruption, rather than on actual experience of it. Perception-based indicators, while useful for raising awareness about the issue of corruption and helping to advocate policy measures for addressing it, fail to provide clear indications as to the extent of corruption and vulnerable areas. Increasing concerns are also expressed about the validity of methods used to build perception-based indicators.

In recent years, tools for collecting information on direct experiences of corruption have been developed: sample surveys can produce important indicators about the extent and nature of corrupt practices. More importantly, the wealth of information gathered can shed light on the modalities of corruption and the sectors, positions and administrative procedures more at risk. Promoted by a variety of international organizations, national institutions, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development agencies, a number of such surveys have been conducted in several countries around the world, including Croatia and the western Balkan region, thus proving the feasibility and relevance of this approach.

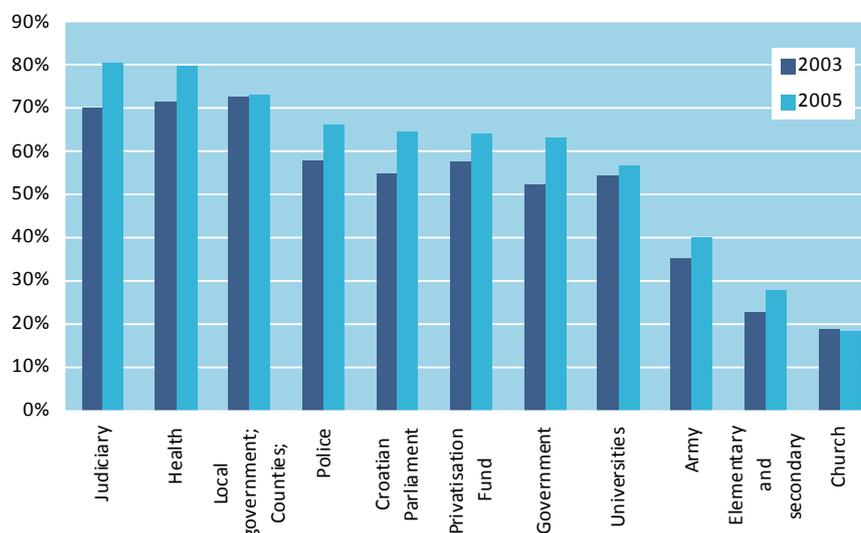
Previous studies conducted in Croatia

One example is the study conducted by Transparency International Croatia in 2003 and 2005², focusing on the perception of corruption among the population, in which corruption in Croatia was perceived to be on the increase: in 2003, 85.9 per cent of the population considered corruption to be spread or widespread; in 2005 more than 89 per cent shared that opinion.

² Transparency International Croatia, Corruption and Public Information, Attitudes, and Lessons Learned GfK-Centre for Market Research, Survey, May 2003, May 2005, www.transparency.hr

And corruption was perceived to be recurrent in various sectors of the public administration, primarily in the judiciary, health and local government (figure 1).

Figure 1: Percentage of population perceiving corruption to be recurrent in selected sectors, 2003 and 2005



Source: Transparency International Croatia www.transparency.hr, *Corruption and Public Information, Attitudes, and Lessons Learned* GfK-Centre for Market Research, Survey, May 2003, May 2005.

The Croatian population's concern about corruption was confirmed by further research conducted in 2010 by the Croatian Ministry of Justice³. According to the results of that survey, public opinion perceives corruption to be a major problem, to the extent that corrupt politicians, judges and civil servants are identified as the main threats to society. The survey also explored the direct experience of bribery by the population, in the form of the percentage of citizens reporting a payment made by themselves or a member of their households to selected public officials in the previous 12 months, among those who actually had a contact with selected officials in the same period. According to that indicator, the highest values were recorded for hospital personnel (17.7%), traffic police officers (13.3%), the personnel of the government inspectorate for consumer protection (10%) and customs officers (6.1%).

The scope and methodology of this study

Following a bilateral agreement between the European Commission and the Croatian Government, UNODC provided its support in conducting this large-scale survey on corruption, with the Institute of Economics, Zagreb acting as the national partner for implementing the survey and research activities. The main objective of this survey was to examine actual experience of administrative corruption in Croatia: the research probed the prevailing types and modalities of corruption that affect citizens' daily lives, with particular focus on bribery⁴, a practice that, in accordance with the United Nations Convention against Corruption, is a criminal offence. Additional topics covered in the surveys include reporting

³ Research results: Perception of Corruption in Croatia (2010). Strengthening Anti-Corruption Inter-Agency Cooperation – Awareness Raising Campaign, Ministry of Justice, 2010, <http://www.pravosudje.hr/fgs.axd?id=1332>

⁴ Bribery is defined as (a) the promise, offering or giving to a public official, directly or indirectly, of an undue advantage, for the official himself or herself or another person or entity, in order that the official act or refrain from acting in the exercise of his or her official duties and (b) as the solicitation or acceptance by a public official, directly or indirectly of an undue advantage, for the official himself or herself or another person or entity, in order that the official act or refrain from acting in the exercise of his or her official duties.

of corruption to the authorities, citizens' opinions about corruption and integrity, and the experience, as victims, of other forms of crime. In order to collect this information, in 2010, a sample survey was conducted via face to face interviews with a nationally representative sample of 3005 Croatian citizens aged 18 to 64, selected randomly in each region of the country.

Map 1: Regional coverage of the Survey



Note: Numbers I to XX denote counties in Croatia

This report contains the analysis of the data collected in that survey. Its goal is not to rank the different regions of the country or any selected sector or ministry on a corruption scale, but rather to provide analytical knowledge about a complex phenomenon, both at a national and sub-national level. To fight corruption effectively it is necessary to understand its many facets since there is no simple “one-size-fits-all” solution to the problem. It is believed that the evidence-based information presented in this report will provide the authorities of Croatia with an additional tool for developing well-targeted anti-corruption policies. Information that can also be made use of in the peer review process of the UNCAC Implementation Review Mechanism, as well as represent a benchmark for measuring future progress in the fight against corruption.

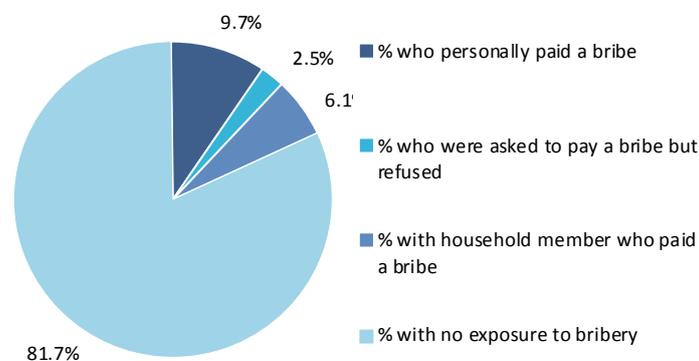


1. PREVALENCE OF BRIBERY

The public sector plays a major role in contemporary society. Whether for a medical visit, school and university enrolment or the issue of an ID card, to name but a few examples, citizens and households depend on its services for a huge variety of reasons. The fact that nine out of ten adult Croatians reported having at least one contact with a public official in the 12 months prior to this survey shows just how substantial that role actually is.

The demand made on the system is clear but when it comes to integrity in the provision and use of its services the picture that emerges is a somewhat cloudy one. One important finding of this survey is that a considerable number of Croatian citizens (510,000, equivalent to 18.2% of adult population aged 18 to 64) had either direct or indirect exposure to a bribery experience with a public official in the 12-month period in question. As figure 2 shows, this number represents the sum of three different groups: the percentage of citizens who actually paid money, gave a gift or counter favour to a public official; the percentage of those requested to pay a bribe by a public official but refused to do so; and the percentage of those who shared a household with someone who did pay a bribe.

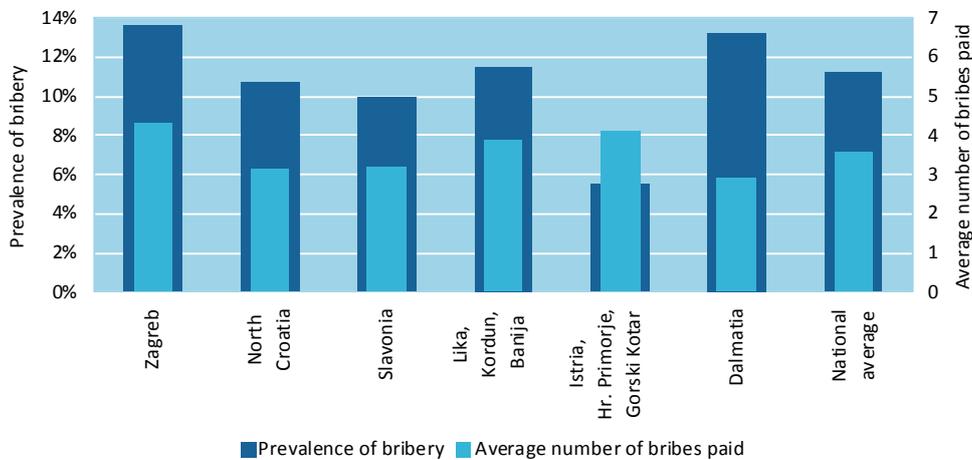
Figure 2: Direct and indirect exposure of adult population in Croatia to bribery in the 12 months prior to the survey, (2010)



The data in figure 2 show that bribery is still a significant issue in the lives of many citizens of Croatia. At the same time, it is encouraging to note that there is a significant portion of Croatians capable of saying “no”, thus refusing to pay the kickback requested by a public official. Data show that for every four citizens who pay a bribe to a public official during the course of the year, there is one who turns down such a request.

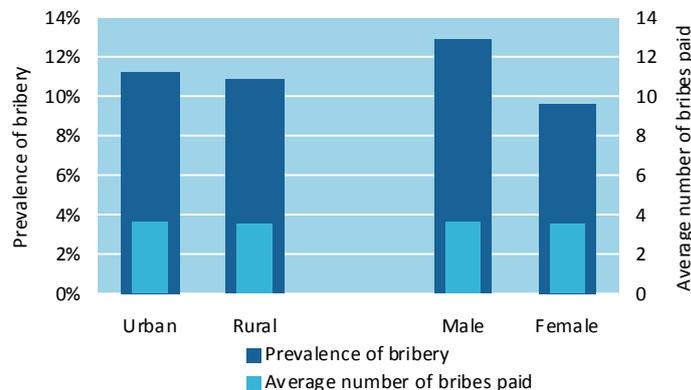
When focusing on bribes actually paid, the prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of citizens who, in the 12 months prior to the survey, gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion, as a percentage of citizens who had at least one contact with a public official. As such, the average prevalence of bribery in Croatia is 11.2 per cent at a national level, though there is quite considerable fluctuation in the prevalence rate throughout the different Croatian regions (figure 3).

Figure 3: Prevalence of bribery and average number of bribes paid by region, Croatia (2010)



Note: Prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of adult citizens (aged 18-64) who gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of adult citizens who had at least one contact with a public official in the same period. The average number of bribes refers to average number of bribes given by all bribe-payers, i.e. those who paid at least one bribe in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Figure 4: Prevalence of bribery and average number of bribes paid, by sex and urban/rural areas, Croatia (2010)



Note: Prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of adult citizens (age 18-64) who gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of adult citizens who had at least one contact with a public official in the same period. The average number of bribes refers to average number of bribes given by all bribe-payers, i.e. those who paid at least one bribe in the 12 months prior to the survey.

For example, the prevalence rate is somewhat higher than the national average in the Zagreb (14%) and Dalmatia (13%) regions, whereas it is considerably lower in the Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar regions (6%) (figure 3). Although there are no significant differences in the prevalence of bribery in urban (11.3%) and rural (11%) sub-populations on a national level (figure 4), some variations on a regional level can be delineated. Thus, in the less developed Lika, Kordun and Banovina regions, the prevalence of bribery in rural areas is double that in local urban settlements.

Also in Lika, Kordun and Banovina, twice as many men (16%) as women (8%) participate in bribery, while there is also a considerable disparity between the sexes in Zagreb (17% of men 10% of women). On a national level, however, 13 per cent of the adult male population participates in bribery, as opposed to 10 per cent of females (figure 4). The difference is not that remarkable, showing that in spite of perceived gender roles, which assign men greater responsibility for dealing with the public administration and activities outside the home in general, women undertake administrative procedures to a similar extent and are no strangers to bribery.

Nevertheless, it is misleading to consider the prevalence rate alone when evaluating the extent of bribery in any given country. To get a fairer impression, the frequency of bribe paying should also be taken into consideration since, while almost one third of bribe-payers in Croatia give bribes on only one occasion, two thirds of them do so on multiple occasions. On average, bribe-payers in Croatia pay two public officials on two different occasions, thus everyone who reported the payment of at least one bribe had to pay four bribes or the equivalent of one bribe every three months. As figure 4 shows, the highest frequency is in the Zagreb region, whereas the lowest is in Dalmatia.

Croatians clearly have to pay bribes on a fairly regular basis. Not only does the public administration play a significant role in their lives, bribery does too.



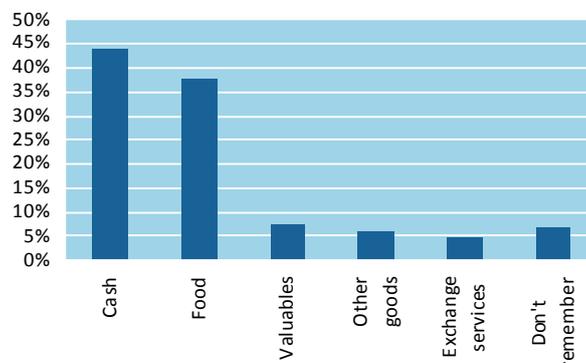
2. NATURE OF BRIBES

Payments to public officials come in several shapes and sizes and are made for different reasons in diverse contexts. Money or gifts, for example, may be explicitly requested by public officials for the completion of a procedure or offered by a citizen to facilitate a service or simply express gratitude for a service rendered. In this chapter, a number of payment characteristics are presented in order to shed some light on what is clearly a complex question.

Forms of payment

In Croatia, 44 per cent of bribes are paid in cash (figure 5), while 38 per cent are given in the shape of food and drink. Considerably lower down the scale come valuables (7%), other goods (6%) and the exchange of another service (5%). A large proportion of bribes take a form that can be interpreted as a barter – either explicit or implicit – between two parties in which each one of them both gives and receives something in the exchange. But it should be stressed that in most cases the two parties are not on an equal footing, with one of them (the public official) usually being in a position of strength from a negotiating perspective.

Figure 5: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by type of payment, Croatia (2010)

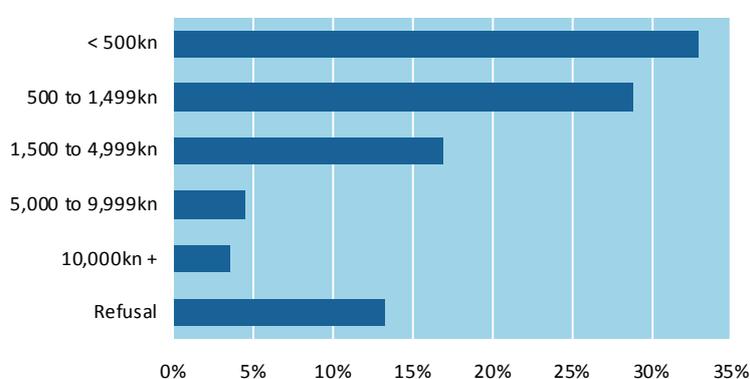


Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey. The sum is higher than 100 per cent since, in some cases, bribes are paid in more than one form (for example, cash and valuables)

There are, however, some noteworthy fluctuations in these rates throughout the different Croatian regions. A higher percentage of residents of Lika, Kordun, Banovina (62%), Dalmatia (55%) and Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar (54%), for example, pay money. The giving of food is more prevalent among residents of the agricultural regions of North Croatia (51%) and Slavonia (48%). On a national level, the latter is also more prevalent among women (41%), than among men (38%), who use money more readily to pay bribes (49%) than women do (35%).

When focusing on bribes paid in cash (figure 6), the results of this survey show that one third of all bribes are for amounts smaller than 500 HRK (approx 70 Euro⁵), less than 30 per cent of all bribes paid are in the 500-1,500 HRK range, one quarter are higher than 1,500 HRK (approximately 200 Euro) and, interestingly, almost one in ten bribes paid in cash are for amounts larger than 5,000 HRK (680 Euro). While not quite “grand corruption” these are certainly very considerable amounts for the households involved. About 13 per cent of the population who paid their last bribe in cash were not willing to disclose the amount paid.

Figure 6: Percentage distribution of bribes paid in cash by amount paid (in Kuna), Croatia (2010)



Taking into account all bribes paid in cash, the average bribe amounts to 2,050 HRK, or the equivalent of approximately 280 Euro; a figure that corresponds to almost one third of the average Croatian monthly salary in 2010. As table 1 shows, the largest average amounts are paid in Dalmatia (3,500 HRK), while the smallest are paid in Lika, Kordun, Banovina (820 HRK) and Istria, Primorje, and Gorski Kotar (1,230 HRK).

Table 1: Average amount of bribes paid in cash (in HRK, Euro and EUR-PPP) by region, Croatia (2010)

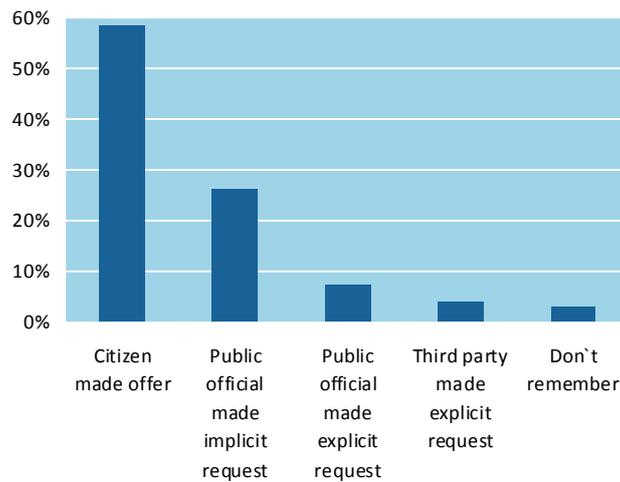
Average bribe	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
HRK	1,839	1,575	2,274	822	1,229	3,497	2,052
Euro	251	215	310	112	167	476	280
EUR-PPP	367	314	454	164	245	698	410

⁵ Croatian national currency is Kuna (kn or HRK). Euro/HRK average exchange rate in 2010: 1 Euro = 7.3 HRK

Bribe-seeking modality and timing

In contacts with public officials resulting in a payment of money or gifts, it is noteworthy that in more than half of cases (58%) payment is offered by citizens themselves, whereas in almost 40 per cent of cases payment is actually made following a request. However, in only 8 per cent of cases that request is made explicitly by the public official, while in almost 28 per cent of cases the public official makes the citizen understand implicitly that a kickback is necessary. Add to this the other 4 per cent of cases who receive the request through a third person intermediary (figure 7) and the complexity of corruptive practices can be seen.

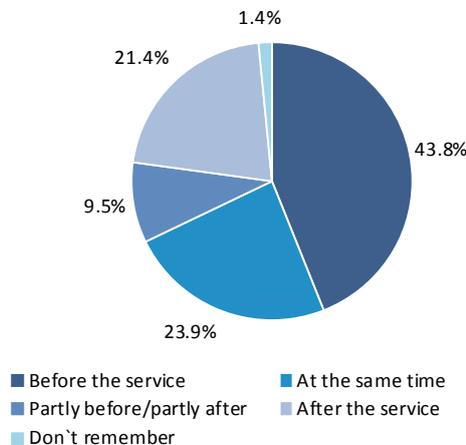
Figure 7: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by modality of bribe request/offer, Croatia (2010)



Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The timing of a bribe payment can also shed light on the motivation behind it, in particular as to whether it is made to facilitate a specific service or as a “thank you” for the successful completion of the procedure. Data show that every fifth bribe is paid after the service (21%), virtually every fourth bribe is paid at the same time that the service is provided (24%) and almost half of all bribes are given before the service is actually carried out (figure 8).

Figure 8: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by timing of payment in relation to service delivery, Croatia (2010)

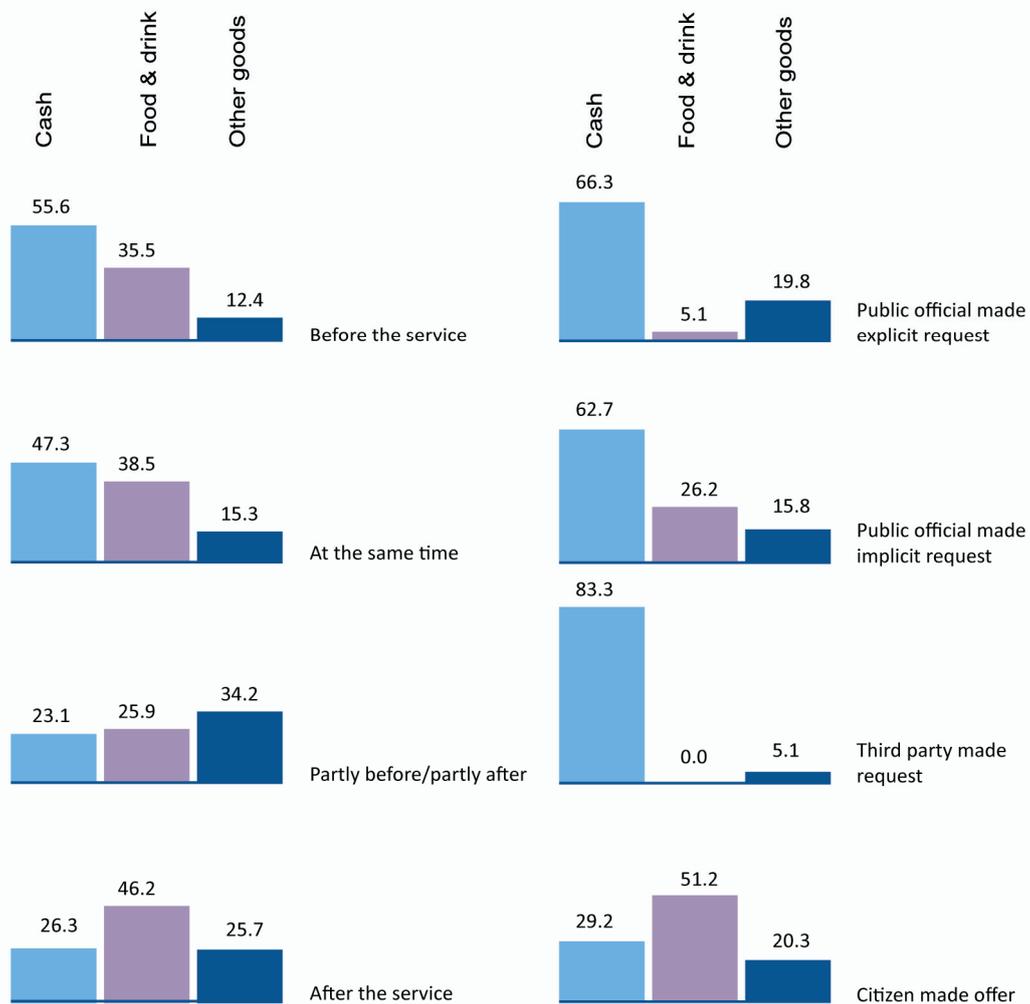


Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey.

As shown in figure 9, cash is more often used than food when payment is made before the service is delivered, or when it is made at the same time as the service is provided (56% and 47%, respectively), while the giving of food and drink is more prevalent when the “transaction” is made after the service, or partly before and partly after the service (46% and 26% of cases, respectively).

Figure 9 also shows that cash is most often used when bribes are paid to a public official in response to a request from a third person (83%). Money is also a very common form of kickback when an explicit request has been made (66%) or when citizens are made to understand implicitly that a bribe is expected (63%). On the other hand, when a citizen makes an offer without being previously requested to do so, food is the most common form of payment (51%), while cash is given in slightly less than 30 per cent of such cases.

Figure 9: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by type of payment and respectively, by timing of bribe payment in relation to service delivery and by modality of bribe request/offer, Croatia (2010)



Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey. The sum is higher than 100 per cent since, in some cases, bribes are paid in more than one form (for example, cash and valuables)

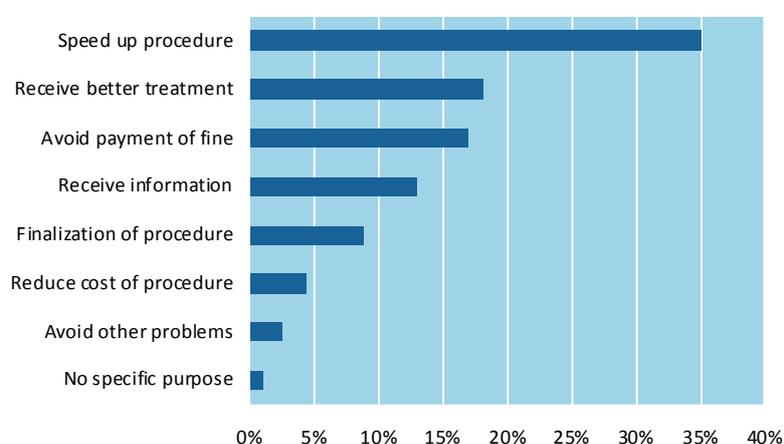
The data seem to point to the fact that, in a significant number of cases (when the offer is made by citizens and when the bribe is given after the service), citizens provide public officials with food items as a sign of gratitude for services rendered. But the picture is never

as clear as it first appears: when looking at the size of bribes paid in cash, the average bribe is more than 2,440 HRK (330 Euros) in those cases where it is voluntarily offered by a citizen, compared to an average payment of 1630 HRK (220 Euros) when the request is made by an official. Given their high monetary value, spontaneous offers should not be seen as a mere sign of gratitude, but rather as having a specific goal, often related to special treatment. Furthermore, bribes paid in cash before a procedure are, on average, considerably larger (2900 HRK or 395 Euros) than those paid after the service (1645 HRK or 224 Euros).

Purposes of bribes

In every procedure bribes may be used for different purposes. People may, for example, give bribes in relation to the identity card or passport issuing procedure in order to speed up the procedure, reduce the official fee, receive information or get better treatment. Different purposes of bribes given, irrespective of the procedure for which they apply, are shown in figure 10.

Figure 10: Percentage distribution of bribes paid, by purpose of payment, Croatia (2010)



Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey.

More than a third of Croatian citizens who get involved in a bribery act do so to speed up a procedure (35%), while almost one in five do so to receive better treatment (18%). Together with the third most common purpose – the receipt of information (13%) – these data indicate that bribery is often used to overcome deficiencies and weaknesses in public service delivery.

Large bribes

Large amounts (more than 5,000 Kuna) paid by Croatian citizens are mostly related to personal and family issues (87%) and medical visits (59%). The majority of large bribes are paid before the service (79%) and to speed up the procedure to which they are related (62%). One third of them are requested by a third party, more than a quarter are paid because the citizen is made to understand a payment is desired and another quarter are paid voluntarily. Only about 10 per cent of large bribes are explicitly requested by public officials who receive the bribe; of which 79 per cent are male.

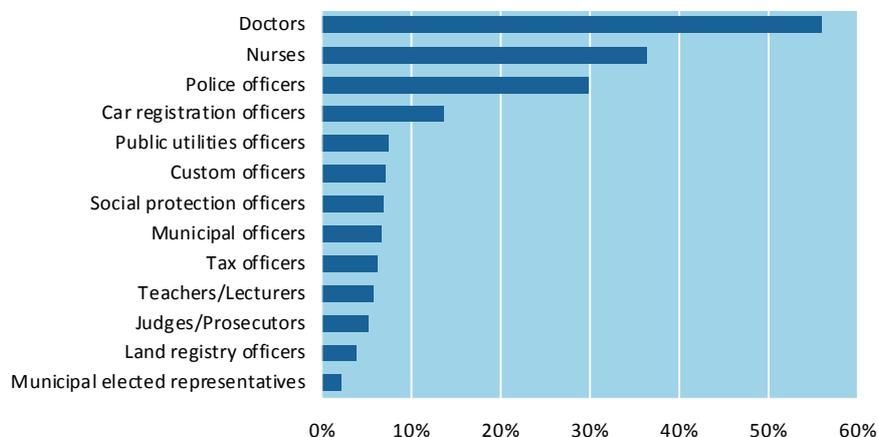


3. PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND BRIBERY

Just as bribery may be employed for diverse purposes in varying guises and different contexts, not all sectors of the public administration in Croatia are affected by corruption to the same extent. There are certain types of public official that seek bribes more frequently than others, while there are certain procedures and situations in which beneficiaries of public services are more prone to making offers to public officials in order to reduce red tape and finalize proceedings.

According to the experience of citizens who paid at least one bribe in the 12 months prior to the survey, the public officials who receive most kickbacks in Croatia are doctors (56% of citizens with recent corruption experience give bribes to doctors), nurses (36%), police officers (30%) and car registration officers (14%) (figure 11). Other types of public officials receive a smaller percentage of bribes, ranging from municipal elected representatives (2%) to public utilities officers (7%).

Figure 11: Percentage distribution of bribe-payers who paid to selected types of public officials, Croatia (2010)

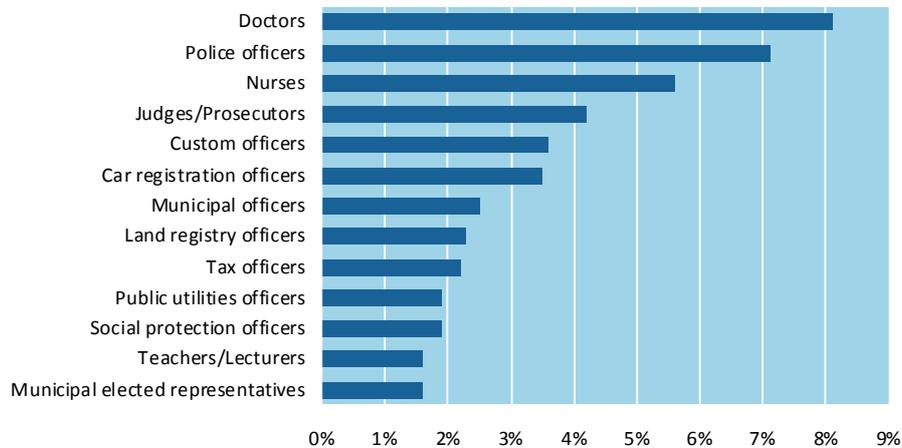


Note: The sum is higher than 100 per cent since bribe-payers could have made payments to more than one public official in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The size of Croatian communities can also have an impact on the type of official involved in acts of bribery. For example, more citizens from urban than from rural areas pay bribes to police officers (33% vs. 25%) and car registration officers (16% vs. 10%), who sometimes receive kickbacks from vehicles owners to facilitate the successful outcome of technical inspections. Meanwhile, doctors and nurses are more often recipients of kickbacks or gifts in rural areas than in urban areas: 60 per cent and 41 per cent of bribe-payers in rural areas make at least one such payment to doctors and nurses, respectively, in comparison with 53 per cent and 34 per cent in urban areas.

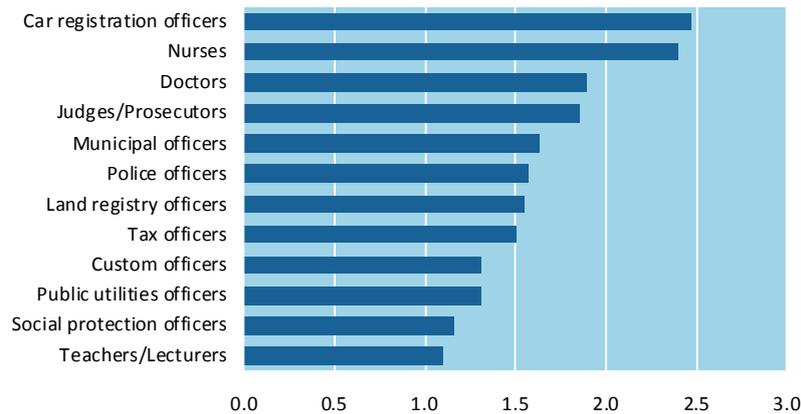
To some extent, it is unsurprising that public officials with a high level of interaction with the public also receive the highest number of bribes. However, there are some positions in the public administration, such as in the judiciary or customs service, where the frequency of interaction with citizens is certainly more limited but where bribery experiences are still a recurrent problem. For this reason, it is useful to analyse not only which types of officials account for the greatest numbers of bribe receipts but also the probability of a particular type of official receiving a bribe when he or she is contacted – independently from the frequency of interactions. To measure this, the number of citizens who paid a bribe to a selected type of public official is compared with the number of citizens who had contacts with that type of official in the 12 months prior to the survey. Figure 12 shows bribery prevalence rates calculated as the percentage of people who paid a bribe to a selected type of public official over those who had a contact with the same type of public official.

Figure 12: Prevalence of bribery for selected types of public officials receiving the bribe, Croatia (2010)



Note: Prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of adult citizens (aged 18-64) who gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of adult citizens who had at least one contact with a public official in the same period. In this chart prevalence of bribery is computed separately for each type of public official.

This indicator shows that the highest average prevalence rates are recorded for doctors (8%), police officers (7%) and nurses (6%). Moreover, a relatively high value is registered for judges/prosecutors and customs officers, indicating that they also request the payment of bribes with a certain frequency from the citizens with whom they deal. The values presented in figure 12 are also particularly relevant for identifying occupations where the risk of bribery is higher.

Figure 13: Average number of bribes paid to selected public officials, Croatia (2010)

Note: The average number of bribes refers to average number of bribes given by all bribe-payers, i.e. those who paid at least one bribe in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Another important indicator of the extent of bribery among selected public officials is the frequency of payments. Figure 13 shows the average number of bribes given by bribe-payers to selected public officials, with teachers, for example, receiving one bribe from each bribe-payer and nurses and car registration officers receiving two and a half.

The analysis of data relating to the last incident when a citizen paid a bribe reveals that different types of public official are paid kickbacks for quite different reasons (see figure 14). For example, police officers are given bribes to avoid or reduce payments of fines, while doctors and nurses are given money or gifts to reduce waiting times or to receive better treatment, both crucial aspects in the use of health services and facilities. Bribes to car registration officers are, on the whole, also paid to accelerate or finalize an otherwise lengthy or complex procedure. This shows that not only do the numerous administrative procedures and services carried out in the public sector have different features, they also have weaknesses for which bribery is often used as a remedy. The precise analysis and resolution of any such deficiencies and failings would no doubt represent a powerful preventative measure against corruption.

Modalities of bribe-paying to different types of public official also show the diverse nature of payments made to them (see figure 15). In the case of doctors and nurses, for example, bribes are voluntarily offered by citizens in the majority of cases, but payments to nurses are generally in kind (food or other goods) while those to doctors are more often in cash (43% of cases, as opposed to 13% of bribes paid in cash to nurses). Bribes are often paid in cash to police and car registration officers, too, but the amounts involved can vary to a considerable extent.

It should be noted, however, that Croatian citizens do not always agree to the payment of bribes in order to facilitate or benefit from a particular administrative procedure. As shown in chapter 1, for every four citizens who pay a bribe there is one who refuses to do so and turns down the request made by a public official. Figure 16 shows that police officers and doctors are two types of civil servant whose bribery requests are often declined: among those citizens who turn down bribe requests, 25 per cent have been personally asked to pay a bribe by a police officer, 19 per cent by a doctor and 8 per cent by a judge/prosecutor.

Figure 14: Percentage of bribes paid to selected types of public officials by purpose of payment, Croatia (2010)

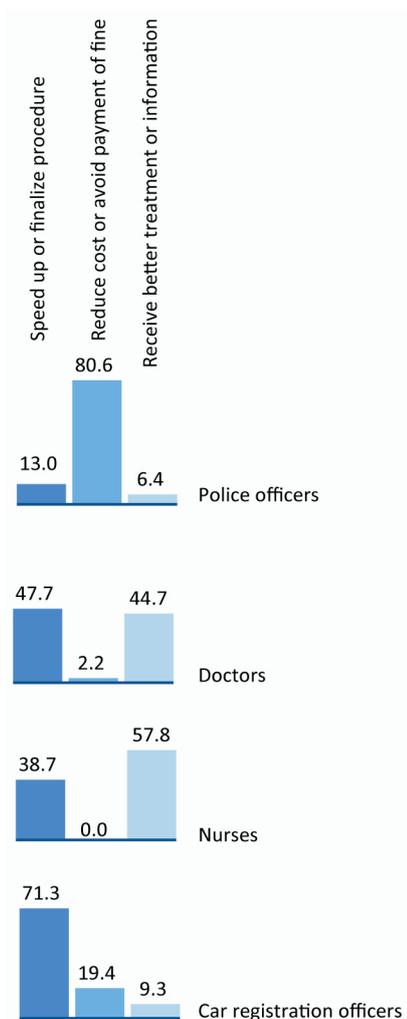
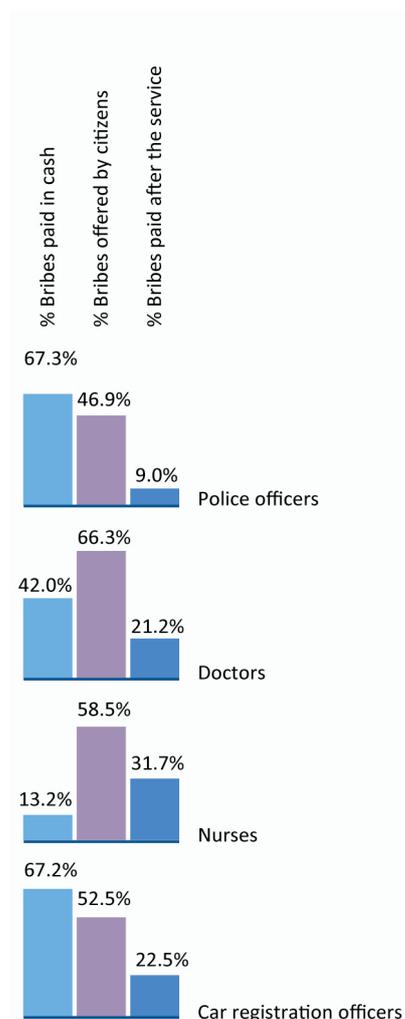
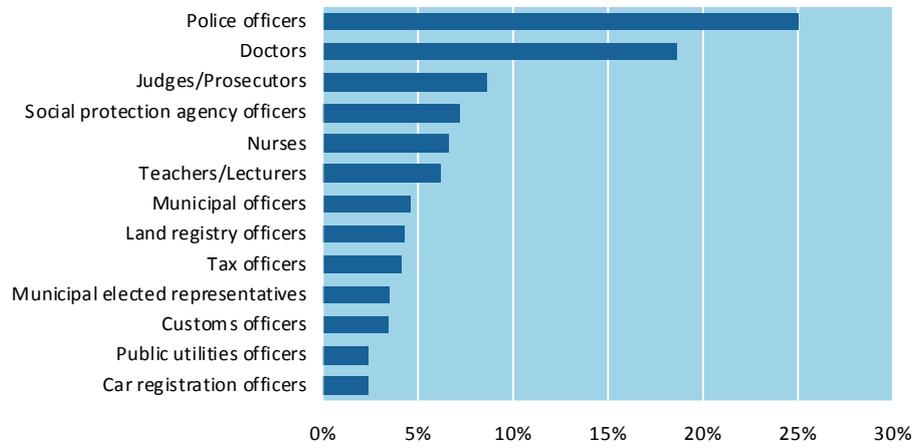


Figure 15: Three indicators for bribes paid to selected types of public officials: percentage of bribes paid in cash, of bribes offered by citizens; and of bribes paid after service delivery, Croatia (2010)



Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Figure 16: Percentage distribution of adult population refusing payment of bribe in the 12 months prior to the survey by type of public official requesting the bribe, Croatia (2010)



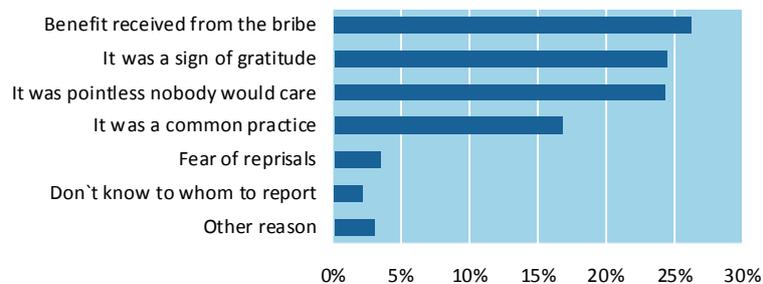


4. REPORTING OF BRIBERY

In general terms, the extent to which a crime is reported to the authorities by its victims is directly proportional to the combined effect of three factors: the perceived gravity of the crime experienced; faith in the authorities' resolve to identify the culprits; and the immediate benefit the victim can draw from reporting the crime (events covered by insurance, for example).

In the case of bribery, it appears that none of the above factors is currently playing a role in Croatia. According to the results of this survey, a mere 2 per cent of bribe-payers report their experience to the authorities. An important share of those who pay a bribe perceive it as a positive practice (24% say it is only a sign of gratitude) or simply as a common practice (17%); another quarter say that they actually receive a direct benefit from paying the bribe so there would be no point in reporting it. An equal proportion of bribe-payers candidly admit that reporting would be pointless as nobody would do anything about it. Furthermore, data show that factors such as the fear of reprisals or insufficient knowledge and awareness of the authorities responsible for processing citizens' complaints cannot be considered important motivations for explaining the low reporting rate (figure 17).

Figure 17: Percentage distribution of bribe-payers not reporting their personal bribery experience to authorities according to the most important reason for not reporting, Croatia (2010)

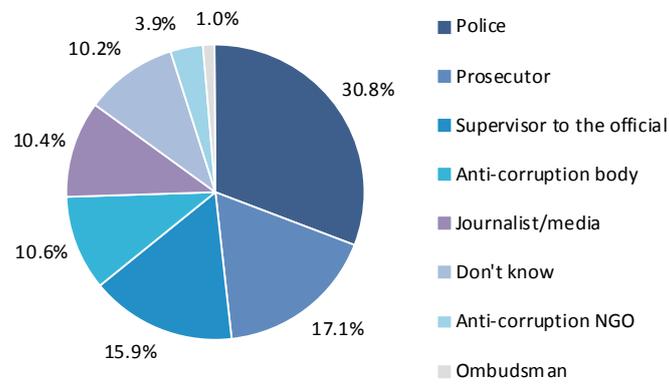


Note: Data refer to bribe-payers who did not report their last bribe paid in the 12 months prior to the survey to authorities/institutions.

Bribery experience may not usually be reported to the authorities but bribe-payers do share their experiences with people they know. About 70 per cent of citizens with bribery experience discuss it with friends or family but such talk does not go beyond the group of immediate acquaintances and only fractional numbers of bribe-payers discuss the bribe paid with individuals or groups who may subsequently spread the word, such as NGOs or journalists.

But for a considerable proportion of bribe-payers (29%) this survey interview was the very first time they had admitted to the payment of a bribe, meaning that they had never previously shared the experience with anybody, not even close friends or relatives. When it comes to bribery, a well established and selective code of silence evidently still exists in many cases.

Figure 18: Percentage distribution of adult population according to institutions indicated for future reports of bribery incidents, Croatia (2010)



As stated above, very few citizens resort to the authorities to disclose their experience; but when they do they usually go to the police, the local prosecutor, the anti-corruption agency or, in a few cases, to ombudsmen. A similar picture is obtained when citizens are asked which agency/official they would address in future if they had to report a bribery experience. As figure 18 shows, almost a third (31%) would approach the police or the local prosecutor (17%), while another 16 per cent would report the episode to the supervisor of the corrupt public official in question, an option currently used on extremely rare occasions.



5. OTHER FORMS OF CORRUPTION

In addition to bribery related to public service delivery, Croatian citizens were asked about certain behaviours and practices in public sector recruitment and vote-buying before elections.

Public sector recruitment

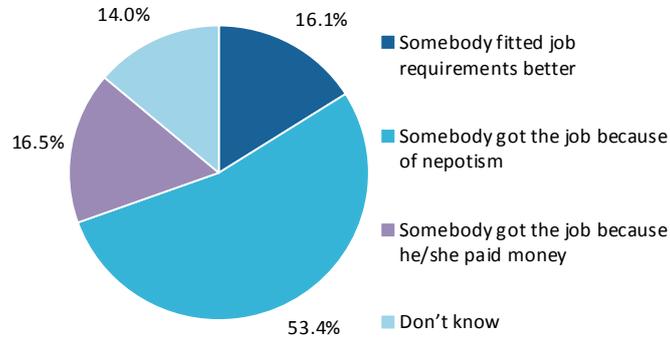
As well as being providers of myriad vital services to the population, public sector institutions jointly make up the largest single employer in any given country. In Croatia, the share of the workforce employed in the public sector is around 30 per cent according to recent ILO estimates.⁶ But due to the sheer size and importance of the public administration, departments/agencies need to hire new staff on a regular basis. The recruitment process, while usually regulated in order to ensure transparency, leaves a varying degree of discretion to those officials selecting the new workforce. In accordance with national principles, regulations and best practice, new staff should be selected on the basis of criteria such as competence and experience, but it is often reported that other decisive factors can come into play, such as nepotism, cronyism or even bribery.

Job opportunities in the public sector are usually attractive to job seekers, not only for the nature of the work itself but also for the advantages typical of employment in the public administration, such as job security, associated social status and fair remuneration. In this sense, Croatia is no exception and, according to the results of this survey, some 18 per cent of citizens or members of their households applied for a job in the public sector in the three years prior to the survey, of whom 35 per cent actually secured a job. Of those who were successful, 16 per cent admit paying money, giving a gift or doing a favour in order to be hired (figure 19). Data clearly show that recruitment procedures in Croatia's public sector suffer from a lack of transparency, which is confirmed by the perceptions expressed by applicants who were not recruited.

Seventy per cent of those who did not get a job think that somebody else was employed due to cronyism, nepotism or bribery (53%) or the payment of money (17%). Only 16 per cent believe that somebody else better fitted the job requirements (Figure 19).

⁶ According to recent ILO estimates, the share of workforce in the public sector is 30 per cent in Croatia (2008)

Figure 19: Percentage distribution of adult population who applied for a job in the public sector in the three years prior to the survey and were not hired according to perceived reason for not being recruited, Croatia (2010)



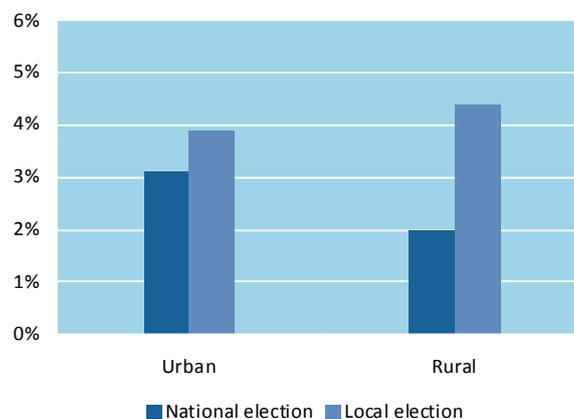
Note: Data refer to adult population (aged 18-64) who applied for a job in the public service in the 3 years prior to the survey and who were not recruited.

Vote-buying at recent elections

A key development in any democracy is manifested in the modalities, rules and regulations of the electoral process, including electoral campaign regulations, funding of parties and access to the media. These are all extremely important and sensitive topics for which countries implement thorough legislation in order to ensure fair and transparent elections.

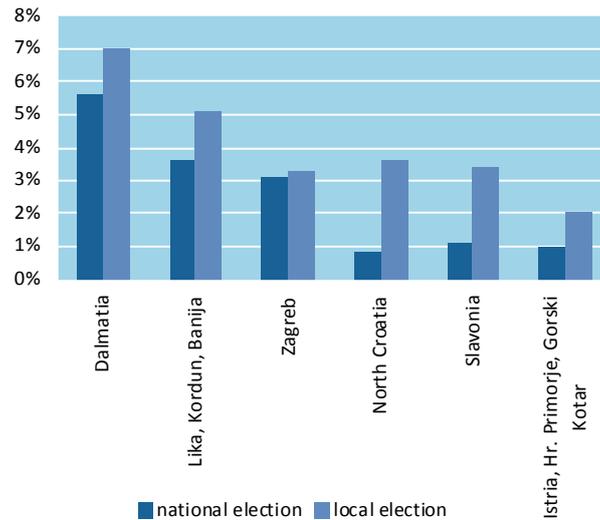
In this regard, the United Nations Convention against Corruption invites countries to identify criteria concerning candidatures for election to public offices and to enhance transparency in the funding of candidatures and, where applicable, of political parties. In this framework, the survey explored one specific aspect related to the electoral process, with citizens being asked whether they were exposed to vote-buying. The findings show that on the occasion of the last national elections (presidential or parliamentary) held in Croatia 3 per cent of citizens were asked to vote for a certain candidate or political party in exchange for a concrete offer, such as money, goods or a favour, while in the case of local elections that rose to 4 per cent (figure 20).

Figure 20: Percentage of adult population asked to vote for a candidate at last national and local elections in exchange for money, goods or a favour, by urban/rural, Croatia (2010)



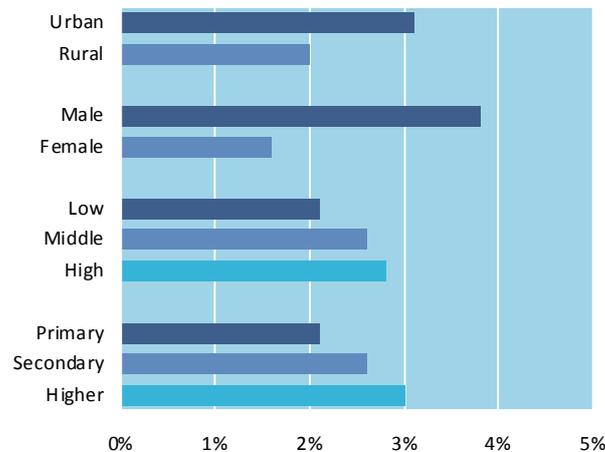
Most vote requests to individuals during national elections were reported in Dalmatia (6%) and Lika, Kordun, Banovina (4%). As for local elections, most cases were reported in Dalmatia (7%) and Lika, Kordun, Banovina (5%). In Zagreb the share of respondents was equal for both types of election (3%) while in North Croatia, Slavonia and Istria a greater share of respondents was approached at local elections (figure 21).

Figure 21: Percentage of adult population asked to vote for a candidate at last national and local elections in exchange for money, goods or a favour, by regions, Croatia (2010)



The highest number of offers were made in urban areas, more frequently to men than women, and more often to individuals with high incomes and a high level of education (figure 22).

Figure 22: Percentage of adult citizens asked to vote for a candidate at last general elections in exchange for money, goods or a favour, by selected variables (urban/rural, sex, income and educational attainment), Croatia (2010)



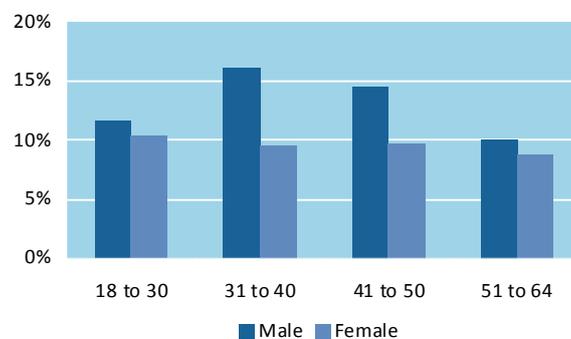


6. VULNERABILITIES TO BRIBERY

By definition, two parties play a role in an act of bribery, one giving and the other receiving a payment, gift or counter favour, though, as seen in previous chapters, on occasion a third person may act as an intermediary. Less clear is the identity of the victim: sometimes it is the bribe-payer, particularly when left with no choice but to pay in order to access a service, but in other cases the agreement between the two parties, whether explicit or implicit, is made at the expense of a third party, be it a specific individual, group or the community at large. Such blurred boundaries mean that any light, however faint, that can be shed on the features and characteristics of bribe-payers may be of assistance in developing anti-corruption policies and in assessing the impact of bribery.

In general terms, the demographic and socio-economic features of the bribe-paying population of Croatia closely match those of the population as a whole, though some distinctive characteristics can be noted. For example, the prevalence of bribery is higher among male citizens than female citizens (13% vs. 10%), men in their thirties are those most exposed to bribery and the probability of being confronted with bribe requests decreases with age (figure 23).

Figure 23: Prevalence of bribery in Croatia, by age groups and sex (2010)



Note: Prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of adult citizens (aged 18-64) who gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of adult citizens who had at least one contact with a public official in the same period.

There are, however, noteworthy differences in vulnerability between men and women in Croatia when looking at the type of official receiving bribe. For example, the prevalence rate in relation to police officers is 9 per cent for men but 5 per cent for women, and in relation to customs officers it is 6 per cent for men but only 1 per cent for women.

The same can be said when analyzing payments to certain types of official by age group of bribe-payers, with the risk of paying a police officer being highest in the youngest age group (18 to 30) surveyed and decreasing with age, with the same pattern being observed in payments to car registration officers. But when looking at characteristics such as household income, education level or activity status, no clear patterns emerge.

In terms of the reasons why citizens pay kickbacks, female citizens do so more often for personal/family reasons compared to men (84% vs. 76%), while male citizens do so more often for work/business related reasons (22% vs. 9%). More low-income earners get involved in acts of bribery purely for personal/family reasons (87%), while among households with a high income work-related bribes make up a higher share of all bribes paid (19%). But, in general, administrative bribery appears to affect the different social strata without establishing a clear pattern. It is a pragmatic practice employed when a problem needs solving or a bureaucratic bottleneck needs clearing and the better off can afford the payment of larger bribes in order to do so, but no social group appears to be exempt from such activities.



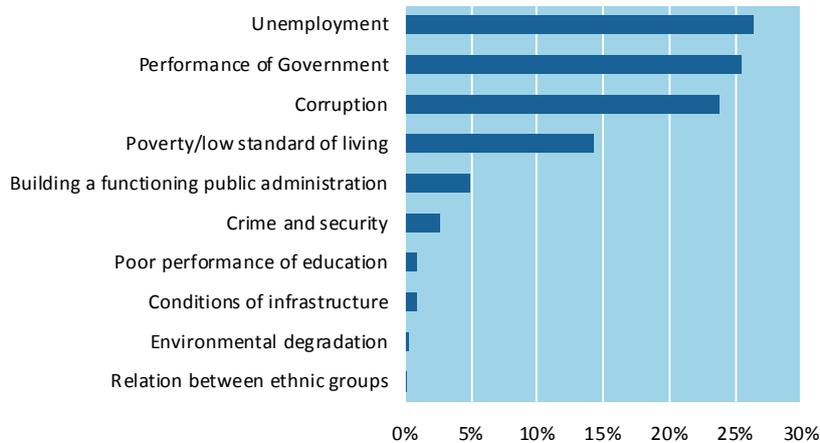
7. PERCEPTIONS AND OPINIONS ABOUT CORRUPTION

The perception of a certain phenomenon can be seen as the result of a process in which a piece of information, be it based on a direct or indirect experience, is processed and evaluated by any given person. Citizens' opinions about corruption are, therefore, the final outcome of a complex process and the type of information available to them is the first factor influencing their opinion. The media usually plays a major role in shaping public perceptions when, for instance, it focuses on specific episodes of corruption while neglecting others. And the same information can be interpreted in different ways by different people, depending on their culture, values, socio-economic status, occupation and other variables.

Perceptions of corruption, then, do not measure corruption per se, but instead measure the psychological impact of corruption on the population. This survey focuses on actual experiences of petty corruption but understanding how corruption is perceived by citizens is important in assessing the likelihood of corrupt practices occurring: the greater the perception of corruption, the greater the probability that certain practices will persist and develop further. If it is anticipated that the payment of a bribe is required to get something done, it is more likely that the bribe will be either requested or offered. Corrupt practices, including bribery, foster perceptions about corruption and those perceptions, in turn, foster corruption.

As already stated, according to the findings of this survey, the citizens of Croatia believe that corruption is one of the biggest problems facing their countries today: they rank it the third most important issue to be addressed at national level after unemployment and performance of the Government (figure 24).

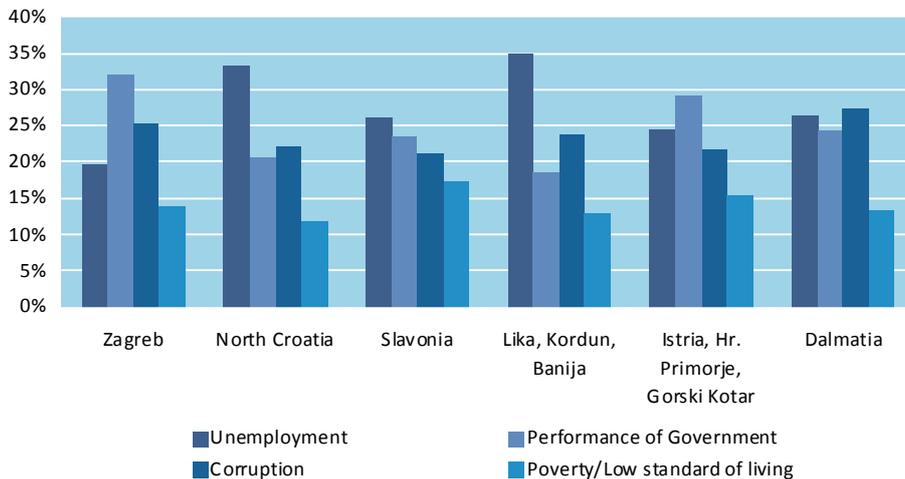
Figure 24: Percentage distribution of adult population considering selected issues as the most important in Croatia (2010)



Unemployment is understandably rated as the most important issue but corruption is actually ranked higher than issues such as poverty or even crime, and while the performance of the Government is rated as a slightly more important problem than corruption, it might relate to similar issues.

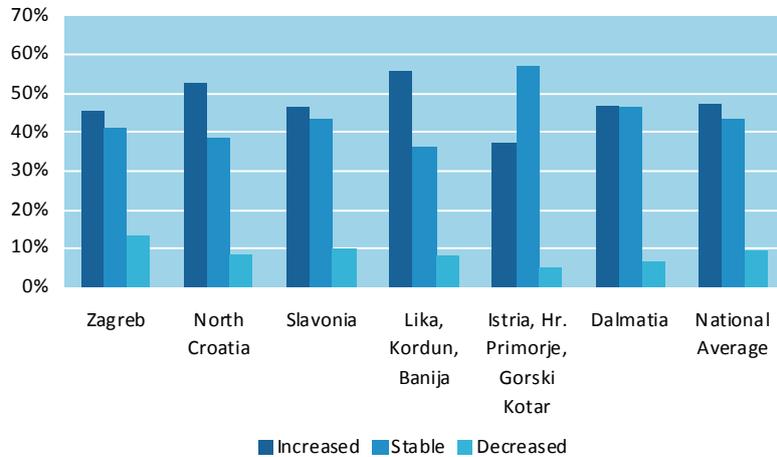
On a sub-national level corruption is perceived to be a higher or lower priority depending on how other socio-economic issues are perceived by the population. In fact, corruption is actually rated the second most important problem Croatia is facing today in four out of six regions. (figure 25).

Figure 25: Percentage of adult population considering selected issues as the most important in Croatia, by region (2010)



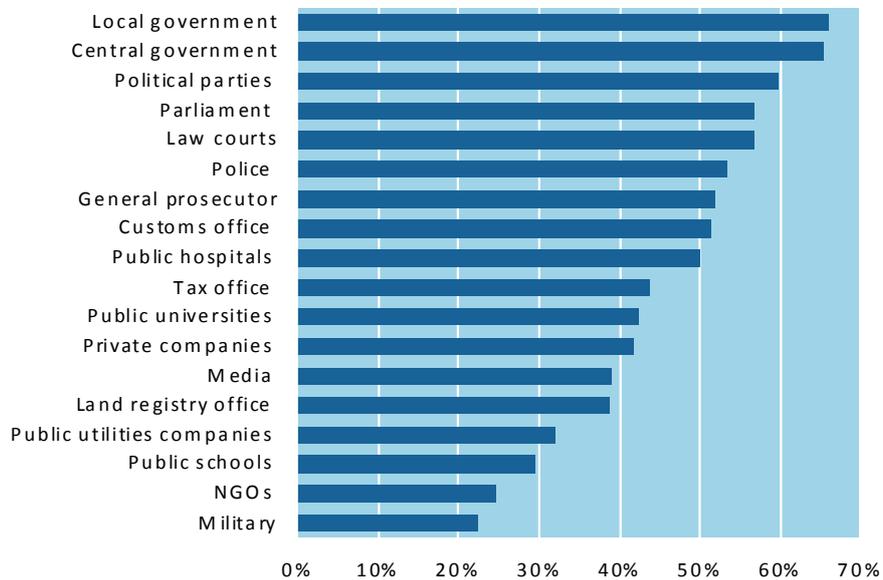
Another perspective to take into consideration when evaluating perceptions is whether corruption is perceived to be decreasing or increasing over time. As figure 26 shows, almost half of Croatians believe corruption is on the rise in their country (although it must be reiterated that perceptions about time trends are different from actual bribery experience – as evidenced in previous chapters – and are also different from opinions about corruption compared with other topics). Some variations between regions are noticeable.

Figure 26: Percentage distribution of adult population according to perceived trends of corruption in Croatia in the three years prior to the survey, at regional level (2010)



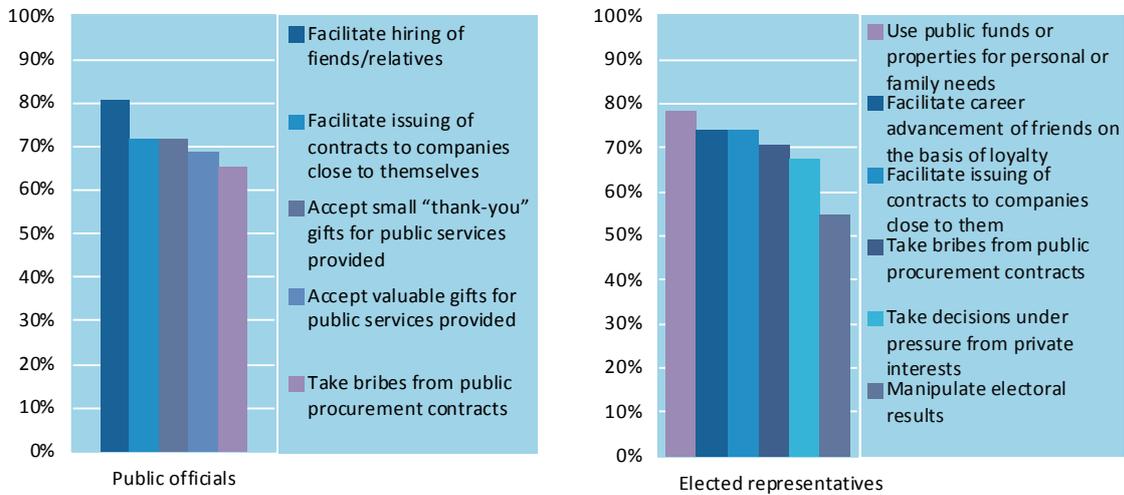
Several institutions or sectors are perceived to be permeated by corruption to a significant extent. Figure 27 shows that a significant, though variable, share of the population believes that corrupt practices occur often or very often in those institutions selected, with the military and NGOs among the organizations perceived to be more immune to corruption.

Figure 27: Percentage of adult population who consider that corrupt practices occur often or very often in selected sectors/institutions in Croatia (2010)



These evaluations of the perception of corruption play an important role in helping stakeholders to learn about citizens' trust in institutions and their perceptions about the integrity of various crucial bodies in the public service. Apart from the findings about the sectors perceived to be corrupt, it is highly relevant to see which practices are perceived to be corrupt and to which procedures they relate (figure 28).

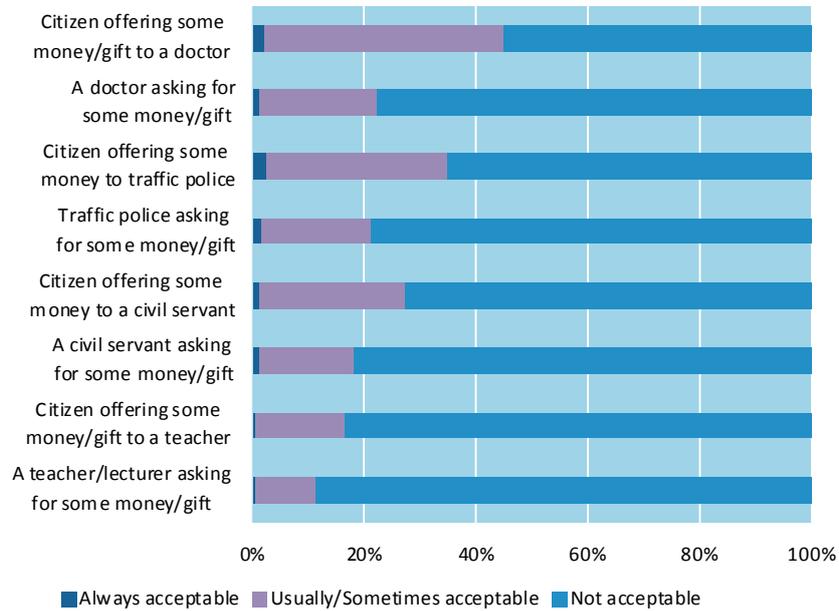
Figure 28: Percentage of adult population who perceive that selected malpractices occur often or very often, respectively among public officials and elected representatives in Croatia (2010)



Certain malpractices, such as the hiring of friends and relatives and the awarding of contracts to private companies, are perceived to happen on a frequent basis among elected representatives and unelected public officials in equal shares. A large share of the adult population of Croatia perceives that all these malpractices happen on a regular basis. The use of public funds or properties for private purposes is perceived to be the most common form of misconduct among elected representatives. Also, the manipulation of electoral results is perceived to happen often or very often by more than 50 per cent of citizens. While remembering that such data only refer to perceptions, it is still remarkable that such a significant share of the population believes certain practices to be so widespread.

In addition to the perception of the extent of some behaviours, it is also important to understand to what point such practices are considered acceptable by the population as it is possible that the frequency of certain practices has the effect of making people consider such behaviours to be acceptable. Data presented in figure 29 indicate that for most citizens the various acts listed are not considered acceptable, though some nuances do exist and it appears that some behaviours are more acceptable than others. Moreover, the act of a citizen offering some money or a gift to a public official is usually more tolerated than the request actually made by a public official.

Figure 29: Percentage distribution of adult population in Croatia according to acceptability of certain practices among selected public officials (2010)



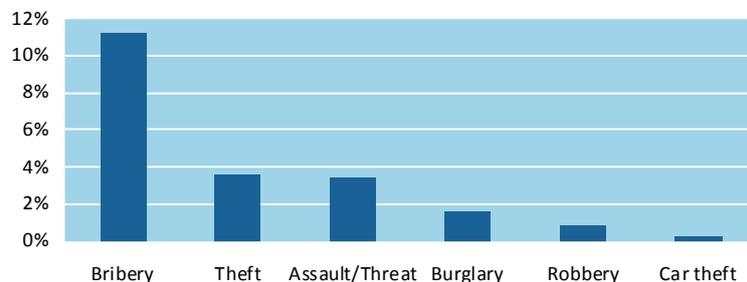


8. PREVALENCE AND PATTERNS OF OTHER FORMS OF CRIME

Besides corruption, the survey also addressed the victimization experience of respondents in relation to various other types of crime. Although bribery, car theft, personal theft, burglary and robbery are all criminal acts, their respective impacts are not easily comparable due to the substantive differences in material, psychological and socio-economic damages incurred. While bribery is liable to erode public integrity and the social fabric as a whole, other crime types such as assault, robbery and theft often have significant psychological effects on the victims, in addition to their material consequences.

In most countries, crime trends and patterns are usually evaluated through data on reported crime as collected by the police, prosecutors or courts. The collection of data about victims of crime can provide valuable information for at least two reasons: it provides an assessment of the so-called “dark figure” of crime, which represents all those criminal events that for various reasons are not reported by victims to the authorities and, secondly, it supplies a whole range of information about victims and modalities of crime episodes, which are not usually well represented in statistics produced by law enforcement and judiciary bodies.

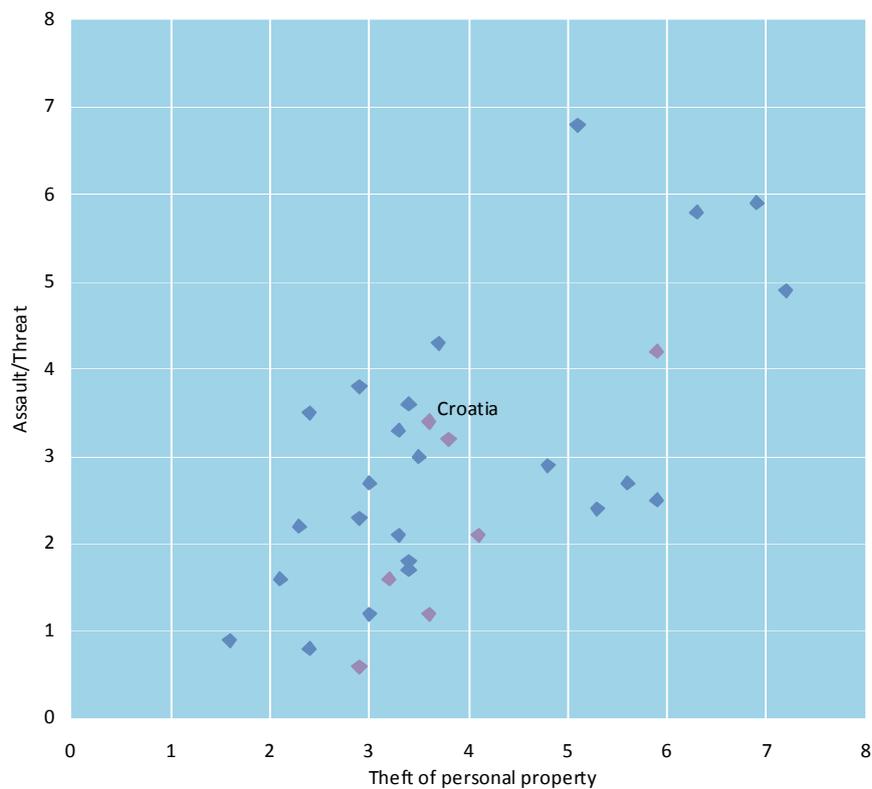
Figure 30: Annual prevalence rates for different types of crime, Croatia (2010)



Note: Prevalence of bribery is calculated as the number of adult citizens (aged 18-64) who gave a public official some money, a gift or counter favour on at least one occasion in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of adult citizens who had at least one contact with a public official in the same period; annual prevalence rates for personal theft, assault/threat, robbery and burglary are respectively calculated as the number of adult citizens experiencing each of these crimes, as a percentage of the total adult population (age 18-64); the annual prevalence rate for car theft is calculated as the number of households who experienced one car, van or truck theft in the 12 months prior to the survey, as a percentage of households owning a car, van or truck.

As shown in figure 30, the annual prevalence rates of personal theft (3.6%), personal assault/threat (3.4%), burglary (1.6%), robbery (0.9%) and car theft (0.2%) are substantially lower than for bribery (11.2%). When considering these figures in an international perspective, it is evident that the victimization experience of the citizens of Croatia is not markedly different to those recorded in other European countries. This is visualized in figure 31, where prevalence rates of assault and theft recorded in Croatia and other countries of the western Balkan region are shown jointly with the most recent data available in a number of other European countries. Data indicate that Croatia is in a mid-table position in terms of the share of the population being victim to two typical crimes, one against property (theft) and the other against the person (assault).

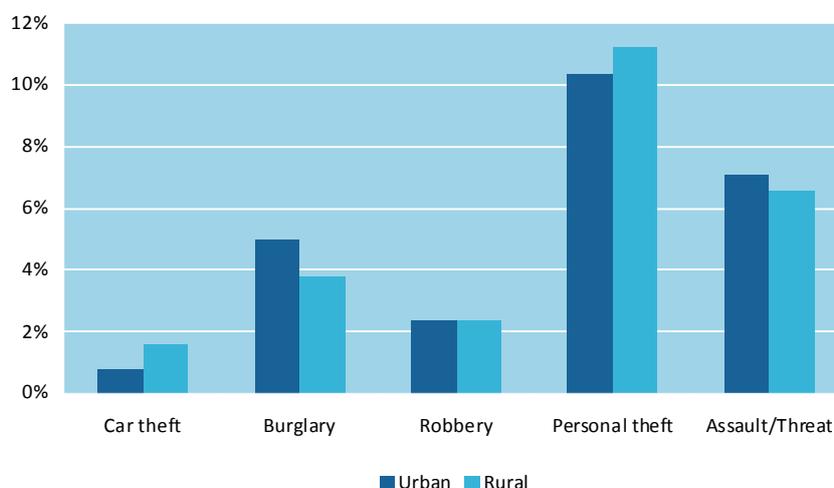
Figure 31: Annual prevalence rates of theft and assault/threat in western Balkan countries/areas and selected other European countries (2010 and most recent year)



Note: Western Balkan countries/areas shown in red. Figures for other European countries shown in blue are taken from the European Survey on Crime and Safety (EU-ICS) and the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) and refer to the year before survey conducted in 2004/2005. Source: WODC (2007), Criminal Victimization in International Perspective.

The same pattern is apparent when considering the share of the population that experienced at least one incident of a particular crime in the five years prior to the survey⁷: personal theft remains the most common crime experienced by Croatian citizens (10.7%), followed by assault/threat (6.9%), burglary (4.5%), robbery (2.4%) and car theft (1.1%). Interestingly, there are no marked differences between citizens of urban and rural areas in terms of their experience of being victim to such crimes, though burglary and personal assault are slightly more frequent in urban areas, while a higher share of the population is victim to personal theft and car theft in rural areas (figure 32).

⁷ This indicator (i.e. five year prevalence rates) yields larger sub-samples which can produce statistically significant estimates for further breakdowns of data, such as by region, urban/rural settlement, sex, etc.

Figure 32: Five-year prevalence rates for selected types of crime in urban/rural areas, Croatia (2010)

Note Prevalence rates for personal theft, assault/threat, robbery and burglary are respectively calculated as the number of adult citizens experiencing each of these crimes in the five years prior to the survey, as a percentage of the total adult population (age 18-64); the prevalence rate for car theft is calculated as the number of households who experienced one car, van or truck theft in the 5 years prior to the survey, as a percentage of households owning a car, van or truck.

Table 2: Five-year prevalence rates for different types of crime by region, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Personal theft	13.1	12.7	10.8	7.4	8.2	9.0	10.7
Burglary	6.6	3.6	3.7	2.6	3.8	4.6	4.5
Assault/threat (personal)	9.4	6.5	7.3	5.9	2.6	6.6	6.9
Robbery (personal)	3.6	2.7	1.1	2.6	1.1	2.6	2.4
Car theft	0.6	1.4	0.6	1.8	1.0	2.0	1.1

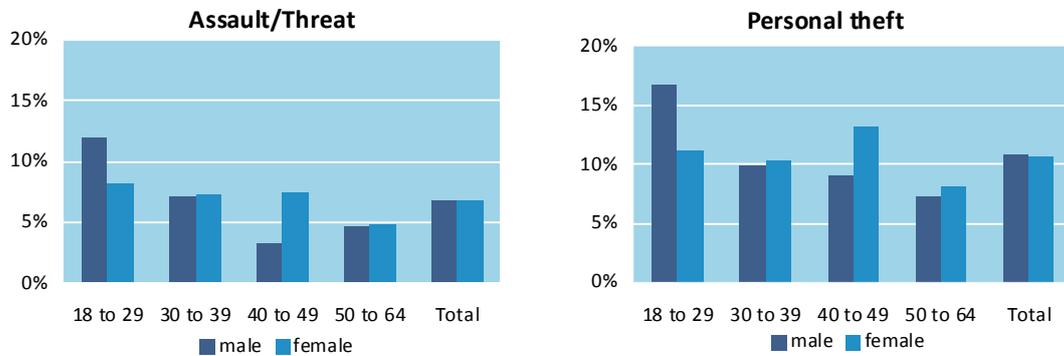
Note Prevalence rates for personal theft, assault/threat, robbery and burglary are respectively calculated as the number of adult citizens experiencing each of these crimes in the five years prior to the survey, as a percentage of the total adult population (age 18-64); the prevalence rate for car theft is calculated as the number of households who experienced one car, van or truck theft in the 5 years prior to the survey, as a percentage of households owning a car, van or truck.

When looking at territorial distribution, some differences emerge and citizens of the Zagreb region appear to be affected by higher levels of crime victimization, with the exception of car theft. Experience of personal theft is also above average in North Croatia and Slavonia, while inhabitants of Dalmatia experience relatively high levels of property crime such as burglary, robbery and car theft (table 2).

Men have a slightly greater chance of falling victim to personal theft than women, while there is no difference between the sexes in terms of the likelihood of being assaulted/threatened, although there are quite distinct patterns among the different age groups (figure 33): at a younger age, men are victims of assault/threat more often than women, who, by contrast, have a stable prevalence rate until the 50+ age group. For women between the ages of 40 and 49 the prevalence rate for assault/threat is significantly higher in comparison to men and a similar pattern can be observed for personal theft. Victimization rates for men also decline

with age (from 17% in the youngest age group to 7% in the oldest), whereas the victimization rate for women peaks in the 40 to 49 age group (13%), an age when women appear to be particularly vulnerable.

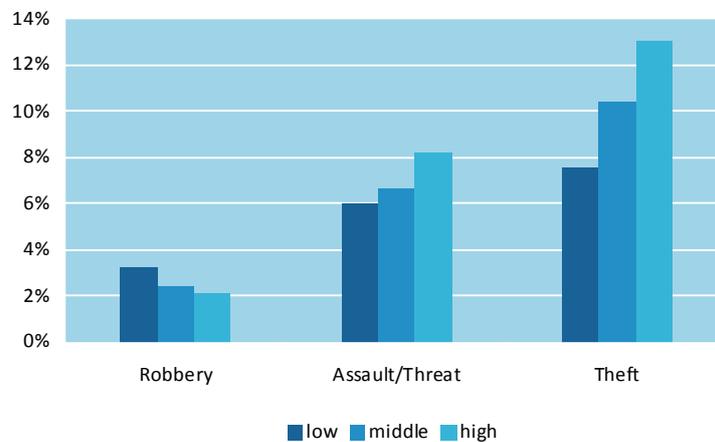
Figure 33: Five-year prevalence rates of assault/threat and personal theft by age groups and sex, Croatia (2010)



Note Prevalence rates for personal theft and assault/threat are calculated as the number of adult citizens experiencing each of these crimes in the five years prior to the survey, as a percentage of the total adult population (age 18-64)

When considering other characteristics of crime victims, it appears that higher income levels are associated with a greater risk of falling victim to theft and personal assault, while the economic status of citizens does not appear to be related to the likelihood of falling victim to robbery (figure 34).

Figure 34: Five-year prevalence rates for selected crimes by income group, Croatia (2010)



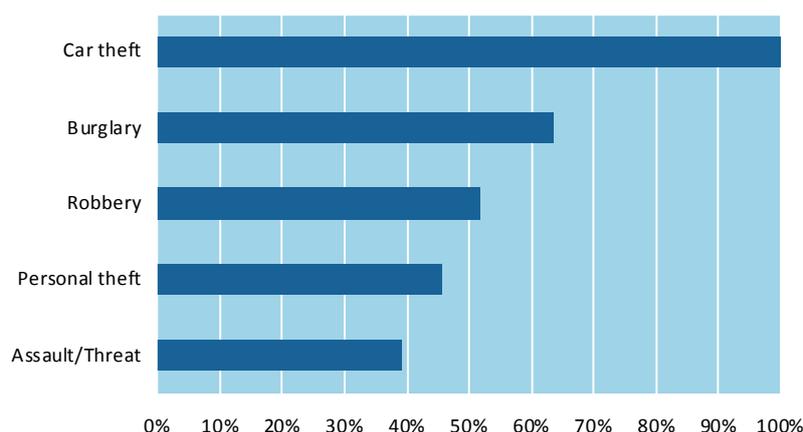
Note Prevalence rates for robbery, personal theft and assault/threat are calculated as the number of adult citizens experiencing each of these crimes in the five years prior to the survey, as a percentage of the total adult population (age 18-64)

An important feature of crimes and of their impact on victims is their level of violence, and the use of weapons by offenders represents a direct indication of that level. Prevalence rates for violent crimes such as assaults and robberies are moderate in Croatia and in most cases they are conducted without any weapon (60% for robberies, 49% for assaults). Only in a minority of cases are they perpetrated under the threat of arms such as knives (14% for robbery, 2% for assault) or guns (9% for robbery, 3% for assault).

Reporting of crime

Various factors, including the level of violence, have an impact on the willingness of victims to report crimes to the police (figure 35). Car theft is almost always reported to the police, for reasons of insurance and de-registration. In addition, crimes are more frequently reported the greater the amount of damage or psychological trauma suffered. Burglary is reported in about 63 per cent of all cases, with a somewhat higher reporting rate when something is actually stolen. Robbery is reported to the police, on average, in slightly more than 50 per cent of cases, with a greater tendency to be reported when significant damage occurs and when a gun, a knife or something used as a weapon is employed in the incident. Forty six per cent of all incidents of personal theft have been reported to the police, with a slightly decreasing tendency in comparison to the previous four years. Assault/threat is reported in only around 40 per cent of cases, again with a greater tendency to be reported when a gun, knife or something used as a weapon is employed. And an interesting finding of the survey is that female victims of personal crimes in Croatia (theft, robbery and assault/threat) are significantly more likely to report the incident to the police than male victims (their reporting rates are between seven (assault/threat) and 19 (robbery) percentage points higher than those of men).

Figure 35: Percentage of victims of selected types of crime who reported their experience to authorities by type of crime, Croatia (2010)

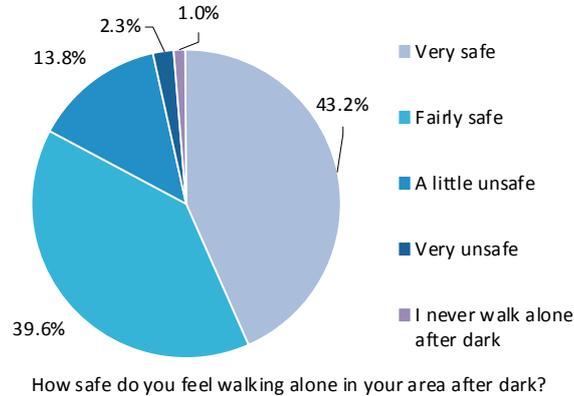


Note: Reporting rates refer to the latest case reported to the police in the 5 years prior to the survey.

Perceptions of safety from crime

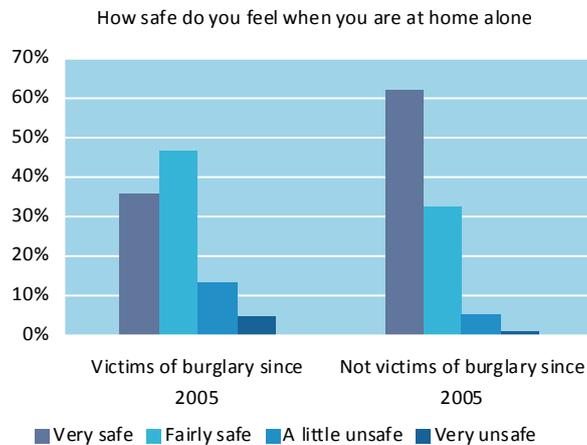
The incidence of assault and robbery might affect feelings of safety or fear in public spaces. One-year and five-year prevalence rates indicate that the risk of falling victim to a crime such as robbery, theft or personal assault in Croatia is moderate. Consequently, 83 per cent of Croatian citizens feel safe walking alone after dark, both in urban and in rural areas (figure 36). In the Lika, Kordun, Banovina, Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar regions, 89 to 92 per cent of citizens feel very or fairly safe walking after dark in their neighbourhood or village. As expected, men are less afraid than women (90% and 77%, respectively, feel safe). Interestingly, young people aged 18 to 24 feel less safe when walking alone after dark than older age groups (24.5% of 18 to 19-year-olds feel “a little unsafe” and 3.5 per cent feel “very unsafe”). This perception may be related to their increased risk of falling victim to personal crime than other age groups.

Figure 36: Percentage distribution of adult population according to feeling of safety, Croatia (2010)



In total, 93 per cent of Croatian citizens, irrespective of age, feel safe at home alone after dark. This notion is slightly more pronounced among the male population, residents of urban areas and in the Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar regions. For obvious reasons, respondents who fell victim to burglary in the five years prior to the survey are considerably more concerned about their safety than those who did not have such an experience (figure 37).

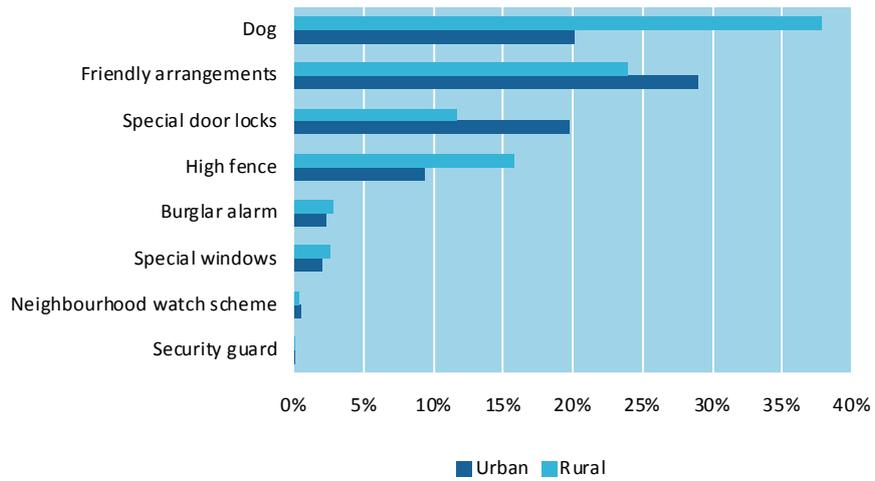
Figure 37: Percentage distribution of adult population according to feeling of safety, respectively for victims and non victims of burglary, Croatia (2010)



Given these high levels of perception of safety, it is no surprise that 38 per cent of citizens do not have specific measures for protecting their homes against burglars of those who have at least some kind of minimal protection for their homes, keeping a dog and having friendly arrangements for watching a neighbour's home are the most frequently used types of home protection (figure 38), while more effective systems such as special windows or alarms are only used by a fractional share of citizens and security guards are virtually never used by private households.



Figure 38: Types of home protection used in rural and urban areas, Croatia (2010)





9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Corruption means different things to different people but for many it is a kind of spectre whose pernicious presence can be felt while its structure remains both intangible and impossible to delineate. Yet this report shows that, thanks to the analysis of the direct experience of bribery undertaken in the corresponding background surveys, it is possible to draw at least a partial profile of this particular phantom.

As in many other fields, both on the economic and social front, the data and analyses provided in this report are not to be used to score or rank the different regions of the country, or any selected sector or ministry, on a corruption scale but rather to help understand a complex issue and to assist policy-making in developing appropriate measures against it. To this end, the following elements could be retained for further consideration with a view to developing effective anti-corruption measures at national level:

- There is no single modus operandi for bribery and any particular one in force may vary depending on the specific purpose of the payment, the public official and the administrative procedure involved. Data indicate that established practices exist, and policies for fighting bribery, including preventive measures, need to take this into account. A full understanding of the mechanism of bribery will assist the Croatian authorities in developing a combined set of preventive and criminalization measures for fighting bribery in its various guises.
- Malpractice occurs on a regular basis in the performance and duties of public officials in Croatia but some sectors appear to be more vulnerable to bribery than others. This obviously depends on the nature of the services provided but it also appears that certain practices are more established in certain sectors than in others. A better understanding of the reasons why bribes are paid and the identification of specific issues, such as the quality of services – for example, the reduction of health service waiting times or streamlining in the fining procedure – could assist in the implementation of specific measures. And sectors shown to be more vulnerable to bribery could undergo specific assessments in order to identify priority areas in need of specific support.
- An area of concern is the very low share of bribe-payers who file a complaint with the authorities. A thorough analysis of existing reporting channels could be considered in

order to make them more easily accessible, better known and, where necessary, more confidential. The information collected in this survey provides invaluable insights on how to improve such mechanisms.

- In general, corruption is not accepted by Croatian citizens – they voiced great concern about it in the survey – yet bribery appears to be tolerated as a tool for getting things done and receiving better treatment. A further assessment of public awareness about corruption could be considered and further initiatives might be developed to inform those who do not deem bribery to be on a par with “real” crimes, as well as to increase understanding about the pernicious effect that kickbacks have on the fair delivery of public services.
- Though still embryonic in nature, some of this survey’s findings touch on areas, such as public sector recruitment and vote-buying, which relate to the general provisions of the United Nations Convention against Corruption. Further analysis of the vulnerabilities that have emerged could thus be undertaken forthwith.

This survey has been conducted in the framework of a regional programme to assess the actual experience of bribery in the western Balkan region. As such, it provides the possibility of having a comparative perspective on the extent, modality and nature of bribery in Croatia and the other countries of the region, thus giving added value in understanding this phenomenon. This is particularly true if such exercises can be repeated over time in order to monitor changes at national and regional level.

A monitoring system of corruption at national level should include a variety of tools for collecting evidence about its various manifestations and assisting policy-making:

- General assessments of the experience of bribery and other forms of corruption (both for the population at large and the business sector), for the purpose of providing benchmarks and measuring progress.
- Sectoral assessments of the working conditions and integrity of public officials by sector (health sector, judiciary, police, customs, etc.) for the purpose of providing more in-depth and specific information as well as assisting in identifying targeted policy measures.
- A system for monitoring the state response to corruption – both repressive and preventive measures – in order to identify successful and unsuccessful practices.

In Croatia, various experiences have been conducted in these areas but further involvement of government agencies responsible for producing statistical data, relevant ministries and experienced research centres, with the support of international and regional organizations, will enable Croatia to produce high quality and relevant information for fighting corruption more and more effectively.

As the data pertaining to the perception of corruption in this report reveal, public opinion about corruption in Croatia shows a considerable level of concern about the issue. A window of opportunity is, therefore, open and it is likely that the citizens of Croatia would warmly welcome the further implementation of anti-corruption policies.



10. METHODOLOGICAL ANNEX

Data presented in this report were collected in a sample survey representative of the resident population of Croatia. This survey was part of a regional project in which independently administered surveys were conducted in the countries of the western Balkan region. For Croatia, the survey was conducted by the Institute of Economics, Zagreb (EIZ) and fieldwork activities were outsourced to the market research agency, Hendl. The anonymity of respondents was protected in all stages of the survey, all questionnaires were treated confidentially and were not made available to any third party.

A core questionnaire and other survey tools were jointly developed by UNODC and its national partners to ensure common methodological standards and comparability of results. After translation into Croatian, the questionnaire was tested in a pilot survey in June 2010 and then finalized.

The survey was conducted in July/August 2010 through face-to-face interviews with randomly selected respondents. The target population was the resident population of Croatia of 18 to 64 years of age. A stratified two-stage sampling method was used: in the first stage the total population was stratified by six geographical regions and four types of settlement (categorized by size of population according to national administrative system) and the starting points for the random walk were selected. In the second stage, households were selected via random walk in sampled towns and villages. Within selected households the person (aged 18 to 64) with the next birthday was selected as the survey respondent. The response rate for all contacts made during fieldwork was 50.2 per cent resulting in a net sample size of 3,005 respondents. Quality control measures were put in place both during and after the conduct of the interviews:

- fieldwork coordinators checked each questionnaire for errors and completeness
- back-checking by fieldwork coordinators was implemented, either by phone (30 per cent of interviews) or face-to-face (2 per cent)
- questionnaires not meeting quality control criteria were replaced with additional interviews
- logic checks were implemented in the data-entry process

Croatia	
Responsible agency	Institute of Economics, Zagreb (EIZ)
Survey period	July - August 2010
Target population	Resident population of Croatia, age group 18-64
Sample design	Stratified two-stage: Stratified by six geographical regions and four types of settlement (categorized by size of population according to local administrative system) Households selected by random walk during fieldwork for towns and villages
Respondent selection	Person (aged 18-64) with next birthday within selected household
Quality control measures	Fieldwork coordinators' check of each questionnaire (forms failing quality control measures replaced with additional interviews) Fieldwork coordinators back-checking by phone (30% of interviews) plus face-to-face (2%) Manual data entry with re-checking of data entered Logic checks conducted on final dataset
Net sample size	3,005
Response rate	50.2 per cent



11. STATISTICAL ANNEX

Table 1: Bribery indicators by region, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Percentage of population having contacts to public administration	88.1%	85.0%	89.2%	87.7%	96.4%	79.4%	87.1%
Prevalence of bribery	13.6%	10.7%	10.0%	11.5%	5.5%	13.3%	11.2%
Average number of bribes	4.3	3.2	3.2	3.9	4.1	2.9	3.6
Average bribe HRK	1839	1575	2274	822	1229	3497	2052
Average bribe Euro	251	215	310	112	167	476	280
Average bribe Euro-PPP	367	314	454	164	245	698	410

Table 2: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by type of payment, by region, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Cash	35.5%	34.8%	39.8%	61.8%	53.6%	55.3%	43.9%
Food & drink	43.5%	50.6%	47.7%	27.3%	8.4%	24.5%	37.7%
Other goods	15.5%	22.7%	7.8%	25.0%	41.3%	16.4%	17.8%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: Data refer to the last bribe paid by each bribe-payer in the 12 months prior to the survey. The sum is higher than 100 per cent since, in some cases, bribes are paid in more than one form (for example, cash and food)

Table 3: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by timing of payment in relation to service delivery, by urban/rural, sex and age, Croatia (2010)

	Urban/Rural		Sex		Age			
	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	18 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 64
Before the service	42.1%	46.6%	43.2%	44.6%	41.7%	37.1%	46.1%	51.1%
After the service	22.2%	20.0%	21.4%	21.3%	18.6%	18.5%	18.1%	31.5%
At the same time	24.4%	23.2%	25.8%	21.7%	26.9%	35.1%	21.5%	11.1%
Partly before/ partly after	9.6%	9.2%	8.0%	11.2%	12.0%	7.7%	11.4%	6.3%
Don't remember	1.6%	1.0%	1.6%	1.2%	0.8%	1.6%	3.0%	0.0%
Total	100%							

Table 4: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by modality of bribe request/offer, by urban/rural, sex and age, Croatia (2010)

	Urban/Rural		Sex		Age			
	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	18 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 64
Public official made explicit request	7.8%	7.5%	8.2%	7.0%	5.3%	7.7%	13.9%	3.3%
Public official made implicit request	27.7%	24.6%	29.9%	22.5%	25.4%	34.0%	20.8%	26.5%
Third party made explicit request	4.7%	3.5%	4.9%	3.4%	9.4%	0.0%	2.9%	4.3%
Citizen made offer	57.6%	59.9%	54.6%	63.2%	54.9%	57.0%	57.1%	65.8%
Don't remember	2.2%	4.5%	2.4%	3.9%	5.1%	1.4%	5.4%	0.0%
Total	100%							

Table 5: Percentage distribution of bribes paid by purpose of bribe request/offer, by urban/rural, sex and age, Croatia (2010)

	Urban/Rural		Sex		Age			
	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	18 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 64
Speed up procedure	37.9%	30.8%	36.1%	34.0%	31.7%	28.8%	40.2%	40.1%
Avoid payment of fine	17.2%	16.4%	25.1%	6.9%	21.9%	19.0%	17.5%	8.0%
Receive better treatment	16.4%	20.9%	16.7%	19.9%	23.6%	13.1%	11.1%	25.4%
Receive information	10.9%	16.3%	8.2%	18.7%	6.5%	21.1%	9.8%	15.5%
Finalization of procedure	10.1%	6.9%	5.1%	13.3%	10.3%	7.3%	13.0%	4.0%
Reduce cost of procedure	5.3%	3.1%	7.3%	1.0%	2.4%	9.7%	1.8%	4.2%
Avoid other problems	1.3%	4.4%	1.4%	3.7%	2.9%	1.0%	3.2%	2.7%
No specific purpose	1.0%	1.3%	.0%	2.5%	.8%	.0%	3.5%	.0%
Total	100%							

Table 6: Percentage distribution of bribe-payers who paid to selected types of public officials, by urban/rural and sex, Croatia (2010)

	Urban/Rural		Sex	
	Urban	Rural	Male	Female
Doctors	53.4%	60.1%	47.2%	66.6%
Nurses	33.6%	40.5%	26.8%	47.6%
Police officers	32.9%	24.9%	38.6%	19.2%
Car registration officers	15.9%	9.7%	17.2%	9.1%
Public utilities officers	8.8%	5.2%	9.1%	5.3%
Customs officers	9.4%	3.6%	11.8%	1.6%
Social protection officers	6.8%	6.6%	6.8%	6.6%
Municipal officers	4.9%	9.3%	7.5%	5.5%
Tax officers	7.3%	4.2%	6.1%	6.1%
Teachers	4.9%	7.4%	4.5%	7.4%
Judges/Prosecutors	5.4%	4.9%	6.7%	3.4%
Land registry officers	3.6%	4.3%	3.9%	3.8%
Municipal elected representatives	2.0%	2.2%	2.4%	1.7%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: The sum is higher than 100 per cent since bribe-payers could have made payments to more than one public official in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Table 7: Percentage distribution of bribe-payers not reporting their personal bribery experience to authorities according to the most important reason for not reporting, by urban/rural and sex, Croatia (2010)

	Urban/Rural		Sex	
	Urban	Rural	Male	Female
Common practice	16.3%	17.6%	16.7%	16.9%
Pointless, nobody would care	21.6%	28.3%	21.1%	27.7%
Don't know to whom to report	1.4%	3.3%	2.1%	2.2%
Fear of reprisals	3.3%	3.5%	4.2%	2.4%
benefit received from the bribe	29.6%	20.8%	33.2%	18.1%
Sign of gratitude	24.3%	24.4%	18.7%	30.8%
Other reason	3.5%	2.1%	4.0%	1.8%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 8: Percentage distribution of adult population asked to vote for a candidate at last national election in exchange for money, goods or a favour, by regions, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Yes	3.1%	0.8%	1.1%	3.6%	1.0%	5.6%	2.6%
No	96.4%	98.5%	98.9%	96.2%	98.7%	94.3%	97.1%
Don't know	0.5%	0.6%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 9: Percentage distribution of adult population asked to vote for a candidate at last local election in exchange for money, goods or a favour, by regions, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Yes	3.3%	3.6%	3.4%	5.1%	2.0%	7.0%	4.1%
No	96.4%	95.8%	96.6%	94.7%	97.7%	92.7%	95.6%
Don't know	0.3%	0.6%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 10: Percentage distribution of adult population recruited in the public sector in the three years prior to the survey who paid money, gave gifts or did favours to facilitate their recruitment, by regions, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Yes	19.1%	8.4%	8.0%	18.9%	25.5%	19.9%	15.8%
No	80.9%	91.6%	84.6%	81.1%	74.5%	76.2%	81.9%
Don't remember	0.0%	0.0%	5.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%
No answer	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%	1.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 11: Percentage of adult population who consider that corrupt practices occur often or very often in selected sectors/institutions, by regions, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Local Government	75.1%	53.0%	70.1%	64.3%	60.0%	64.9%	66.0%
Central Government	72.7%	61.7%	66.1%	49.6%	68.4%	63.3%	65.3%
Political parties	72.3%	57.6%	61.0%	44.3%	57.3%	52.5%	59.8%
Parliament	61.6%	56.1%	56.3%	43.8%	51.6%	60.1%	56.7%
Law Court	62.2%	44.1%	55.9%	55.2%	54.8%	61.6%	56.6%
Police	59.0%	46.6%	58.0%	55.6%	51.0%	46.7%	53.3%
General Prosecutor	56.2%	41.8%	51.6%	48.0%	49.0%	57.8%	51.8%
Customs office	59.9%	50.1%	60.9%	30.2%	45.3%	45.0%	51.4%
Public hospitals	56.6%	50.7%	50.6%	30.8%	50.6%	48.5%	49.9%
Tax office	53.2%	31.8%	49.5%	23.0%	38.8%	47.7%	43.7%
Public universities	50.1%	40.1%	45.7%	20.6%	45.5%	39.5%	42.4%
Private companies	53.7%	36.0%	43.0%	25.7%	45.8%	35.5%	41.9%
Media	50.5%	38.0%	36.4%	17.2%	38.6%	38.0%	39.0%
Land registry office	52.0%	28.0%	34.3%	16.0%	36.8%	46.5%	38.7%
Public utilities company	41.9%	28.2%	29.5%	12.9%	32.9%	32.5%	31.9%
Public schools	33.4%	28.3%	29.7%	9.9%	31.1%	32.5%	29.3%
NGOs	26.1%	24.0%	27.8%	12.4%	26.5%	25.9%	24.9%
National Army	20.4%	18.9%	26.0%	7.2%	25.9%	29.0%	22.3%

Table 12: Five year prevalence rates for selected types of crime, by region, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Robbery	3.6%	2.7%	1.1%	2.6%	1.1%	2.6%	2.4%
Personal theft	13.1%	12.7%	10.8%	7.4%	8.2%	9.0%	10.7%
Threat/Assault	9.4%	6.5%	7.3%	5.9%	2.6%	6.6%	6.9%
Car theft	.6%	1.4%	.6%	1.8%	1.0%	2.0%	1.1%
Burglary	6.6%	3.6%	3.7%	2.6%	3.8%	4.6%	4.5%

Table 13: Percentage of victims of selected crimes who reported their experience to authorities by type of crime, by regions, Croatia (2010)

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Robbery	66.9%	67.8%	55.5%	63.2%	37.3%	52.9%	61.2%
Personal theft	54.1%	63.2%	21.1%	65.8%	54.1%	50.4%	49.5%
Threat/Assault	43.7%	40.7%	29.7%	59.9%	44.0%	32.3%	39.6%
Car theft	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Burglary	78.3%	63.8%	66.9%	40.5%	39.2%	60.0%	65.4%

Table 14: Percentage distribution of adult population according to perceptions of safety, walking alone in neighbourhood after dark, by regions, Croatia (2010)

How safe do you feel walking alone in your area (i.e. neighborhood or village) after dark?

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Very safe	33.5%	45.0%	48.2%	58.1%	53.8%	36.2%	43.2%
Fairly safe	40.9%	37.5%	37.2%	30.9%	38.6%	46.9%	39.6%
Bit unsafe	20.4%	14.5%	11.2%	9.8%	6.2%	13.6%	13.8%
Very unsafe	3.1%	2.1%	2.8%	.8%	1.1%	2.5%	2.3%
I never walk alone after dark	2.0%	1.0%	.5%	.5%	.4%	.8%	1.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 15: Percentage distribution of adult population according to perceptions of safety, home alone after dark, by regions, Croatia (2010)

How safe do you feel when you are home alone after dark?

	Regions						National average
	Zagreb	North Croatia	Slavonia	Lika, Kordun, Banija	Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar	Dalmatia	
Very safe	57.0%	59.0%	68.3%	66.8%	69.4%	48.9%	60.3%
Fairly safe	35.4%	34.4%	24.6%	26.1%	28.3%	42.9%	32.9%
Bit unsafe	6.8%	5.3%	5.7%	7.1%	2.1%	6.9%	5.8%
Very unsafe	.8%	1.3%	1.4%	.0%	.2%	1.3%	1.0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%