

New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims 2001

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in collaboration with

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Te Manatū Ture

Building a fairer and safer New Zealand

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Foreword

The New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV) is a comprehensive survey which explores the experience of crime victimisation of around 5000 randomly selected New Zealanders aged 15 or more.

The first NZNSCV was conducted in 1996. The NZNSCV 2001 is the second in a series, making it possible to track trends in crime over time. Surveys of crime victims provide a more stable picture of crime victimisation than statistics generated within the criminal justice system because they are less susceptible to changes in reporting, recording, and prosecution practices.

The survey has become an important source of information for the justice sector on levels of victimisation (including family violence), risks of victimisation, levels of worry about crime, reporting victimisation to the Police, satisfaction with victim services, and levels of security. The information underpins much of government policy and practice covering areas such as crime prevention and reduction, services to victims, Police and court services, family violence services, and the development of legislation. During the last two years government has developed significant new strategies to reduce crime and family violence. In 2002 the Victims' Rights Act was also passed into law. The NZNSCV 2001 provides important baseline information with which to assess the effectiveness of these measures in the future.

This substantial project was undertaken by a consortium led by ACNielsen Ltd and which included researchers from Victoria and Auckland Universities. The Ministry of Justice commissioned the NZNSCV 2001 in collaboration with the New Zealand Police, the Department for Courts and the Ministry of Social Development. We are grateful for funding from the Cross Departmental Research Pool administered by the Ministry of Research Science and Technology, which made the project possible.



Warren Young
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Definitions of terms

Confidence intervals indicate the extent of random sampling variation, by showing the range in which the survey results would probably fall if a different sample was chosen (using the same sample design). We have used 95% confidence intervals, so the results would have a 95% chance of falling within the range shown.

Incidence rates give the average number of victimisations experienced per household or individual.

Incidents are specific criminal acts involving one or more victims and offenders. For example, if two people were robbed at the same time and place, this would result in two robbery victimisations but only one robbery incident. The term is also used to refer more generally to all offences enumerated by participants, whether or not they would meet legal definitions of crime on further examination. In Chapter 1, every time the word ‘incident’ is used, irrelevant offences could be included; in all other chapters, we are referring to relevant incidents only.

Prevalence rates give the percentage of households or individuals victimised once or more.

NZSEI (New Zealand Socioeconomic Index) scale reflects the socio-economic status of people, based on the occupation of the main income earner in their household. Each participant in the 2001 NZNSCV was given a score between 10 and 90 based on this occupation. These scores were then grouped into six ranges for presentation of the data in tables. The higher the score, the higher the socio-economic status. Because the NZSEI is based on the occupation of the main income earner in the household, there had to be a further coding of ‘NZSEI unspecified’ if the main income earner did not have an occupation (e.g. s/he was a beneficiary or student), if the occupation was unspecified because of a ‘don't know’ response or a refusal, or if it was not specified in enough detail to code (e.g. ‘retired’ was noted with no indication of the previous occupation). Most of those coded in this category were students, housewives and beneficiaries rather than refusals or ‘don't know’ responses.

Region was coded as follows: Upper North Island, Lower North Island and the South Island. The Upper North Island includes all points within and north of the Waitomo, Ruapehu, Taupo, Kawerau and Gisborne districts, and the Lower North Island consists of the rest of the North Island.

Relevant offences (or victimisation) are offences (or victimisations) which meet the legal definitions of offences.

Repeat victimisation has been defined in two ways in this Report. These are based on: (a) the original offence counts from the main questionnaire; or (b) fully coded offence data, incorporating detailed offence codes and excluding irrelevant incidents. Method (a) has the advantage of being simpler and gives a larger number of repeat victims, thereby producing

results that have a lower sampling error. Method (b) has the advantage that the victimisations take legal definitions into account. However, this produces a lower prevalence of repeat victimisation (for example, the number of repeat victims of burglary drops from 164 to 58), which increases the sampling error of results for repeat victims. We have used method (a) throughout the Report, except for the frequency of victimisation analyses in Chapter 2 where we have used method (b) for consistency with incidence and prevalence figures discussed in these parts of the Report. One consequence of using method (a) is that a proportion of the people we have classed as repeat victims were probably not, in legal terms, repeat victims. However, they certainly believed that they were repeat victims. All analyses by victimisation status for burglaries and violent offences are based on no burglaries/ violent offences, one burglary/violent offence, and two or more burglaries/ violent offences.

Self-completion component of the questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first focused on violence by heterosexual partners; the second focused on assaults by other people well known to the victim, including same sex partners; and the third focused on unwanted sexual attention. Participants were asked about their experience of certain types of victimisation and information was collected on the extent of any injury; the emotional consequences of the victimisation; whether or not the victimisation was reported to the Police; the nature and perceived adequacy of the Police response; and the nature, extent of and satisfaction with any support offered or received from any group. These parts of the questionnaire also collected the information required to decide whether or not the incidents qualified for inclusion in calculations of incidence and prevalence. See also relevance.

Statistical significance at the 99% level refers to differences where the probability that the result is due solely to chance is less than 1 in 100. This should be distinguished from **practical significance** where the difference is not statistically significant (and so might just be due to random sampling variation), but may nevertheless be worth commenting on because the difference, if real, would have relevant policy implications.

Urbanisation was coded as follows: 'Auckland' included Auckland, the North Shore, Waitakere and Manukau Cities. 'Other Metropolitan Urban' included Wellington (except Kapiti), Christchurch and Dunedin. 'Other Main Urban' included urban areas with populations of over 30,000. 'Secondary Urban' included urban areas with populations from 10,000 to 29,999 and 'Rural/Minor Urban' included the remaining areas.

Victim forms were filled in for up to three victimisations mentioned by participants in the main questionnaire and covered issues such as the extent of any injury, loss or damage resulting from the victimisation; the practical and emotional consequences of the victimisation; whether or not the victimisation was reported to the Police; the nature and perceived adequacy of the Police response; and the nature, extent of and satisfaction with any support offered or received from any group. These forms also collected the information required to decide whether or not the incidents qualified for inclusion in calculations of incidence and prevalence. See also relevance.

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We are responsible for the final Report and any defects it might contain. However, we know that the Report has been much improved by trying to attend to the many comments made on earlier drafts.

Allison Morris
James Reilly

Summary of key findings

Introduction

The first New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV) was carried out in 1996. This Report presents the findings of the second NZNSCV which was conducted in 2001. As in 1996, a random sample of the population aged 15 and over was interviewed. In addition, there were two 'booster' samples of Māori and Pacific peoples respectively. Around 5300 people were interviewed in total. The 2001 NZNSCV, as in the 1996 NZNSCV, focused on offences where the participant had personally been a victim (examples of these are sexual victimisation, assault, robbery, theft from the person, general theft and wilful damage), and where all members of the household could be regarded as victims and so the participant answered on behalf of the whole household (examples of these are burglary, theft from inside or outside a dwelling, theft of or from motor vehicles and interference with motor vehicles). Participants were asked not only about the extent to which they had been the victims of these offences since 1 January 2000, but also about the circumstances and impact of those offences and their response to them as well as a range of other crime-related information.

Objectives of the 2001 NZNSCV

The particular objectives of the 2001 NZNSCV were as follows:

- to provide an alternative measure of crime victimisation;
- to identify the extent to which the risks of specific types of victimisation vary on the basis of gender, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status and employment situation;
- to provide contextual information about victimisation;
- to describe the physical, financial, emotional and cultural effects of crime, the needs of victims, the extent to which those needs are met by victim support agencies, and any shortcomings in the services provided;
- to discover the extent to which offences are reported to the Police, the reasons for reporting and non-reporting, and victims' perceptions of the adequacy of the Police response when offences are reported;
- to provide information on the public's perception of crime problems in their area, on fears and concerns about crimes, on the way in which people modify their lifestyles as a result of those fears, and on the relationship between fear on the one hand and actual victimisation or the risk of victimisation on the other; and

- to compare the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV with those of the 1996 NZNSCV, while identifying the limitations on comparisons imposed by differences in response rates and other sources of error.

Method

As with the 1996 NZNSCV, the 2001 NZNSCV was undertaken by means of a structured interview. Only one interview per household was carried out and a quasi-random procedure was used for selecting the particular participant for interview.

In the 1996 NZNSCV, the interviewer used a 'hard copy' paper questionnaire. However, in the 2001 NZNSCV, it was decided to use Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) which produces more reliable data. Computer Assisted Self Interviewing (CASI) was used to measure violence by partners and by others well known to the victim as well as sexual victimisation. CASI allows maximum confidentiality and privacy to participants, while at the same time reducing their ability to miss answering questions.

Response rates

In the 2001 NZNSCV, the overall response rate was 62% for the total sample¹ and 65% in the main sample, but only 57% for the Māori booster sample and 53% for the Pacific booster sample. This has implications both for the confidence with which we can make comparisons between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV, and for the reliability of the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV, especially with respect to Māori and Pacific peoples.

Caveat

A number of changes were made to the design and methodology of the 2001 NZNSCV. Some of these changes have undoubtedly impacted on the extent to which comparisons can be made between the 2001 NZNSCV and the 1996 NZNSCV: apparent changes may be the result of the methodological changes rather than reflecting real changes in New Zealanders' experience of victimisation. However, these changes have also undoubtedly led to more reliable data. The 2001 NZNSCV, therefore, sets the baseline for future surveys.

Victim surveys and recorded crime statistics

Statistics routinely collected by the Police provide a picture of the nature and extent of crime. Surveys of crime victims add to this information. They show that not all crimes are reported by victims to the Police (often because they are not viewed by victims as serious enough) and they provide information about the context or experience of victimisation. However, surveys of crime victims also provide only a partial picture of victimisation: they do not cover certain kinds of offences; and, if because they are based on participants' recall, they can over-estimate

¹ The overall response rate in the 1996 NZNSCV was 57%.

the extent of some kinds of offences and under-estimate other kinds of offences. Thus each source of information - Police statistics and surveys of crime victims - has its strengths and its limitations.

Key findings

The nature, extent and distribution of victimisation

- The 2001 NZNSCV shows that there was very little change in New Zealand between 1995 and 2000 in the estimated number of victimisations, despite a slight increase in the population aged 15 or more. There were an estimated 1,779,657 household and individual victimisations during the 2000 calendar year compared to an estimated 1,786,127 household and individual victimisations during the calendar year 1995.
- The number of offences recorded in the Police statistics in 2000 represents 15% of this estimate. Possible reasons for this discrepancy are discussed in the next section.
- Assaults and threats taken together made up a half of all victimisations reported within the 2001 NZNSCV. However, as later sections of this Summary make clear, these varied considerably in their seriousness and many were seen by victims as not having much impact on them.
- The total number of victimisations were not evenly distributed: around 70% of people experienced no victimisation at all during 2000, while around four percent of people (representing around 12% of victims) had experienced five or more victimisations. Overall, this latter group had experienced more than two-fifths of all victimisations reported within the 2001 NZNSCV.
- Those most at risk of victimisation were:
 - young people
 - Māori, especially Māori women
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - solo parents
 - those households whose main income earner had no occupation
 - those living with flatmates
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - solo parents
 - those households whose main income earner had no occupation

- those living with flatmates
- those living in rented property
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of violent victimisations were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - those towards the lower ends of the socio-economic scale
 - those living in rented property
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of assaults were:
 - men
 - young people
 - Māori
 - Pacific peoples
 - students
 - those at the lower and towards the higher ends of the socio-economic scale
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of threats were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - beneficiaries
 - students
 - those living in rented accommodation.
- The 1996 NZNSCV suggested that Pacific peoples experienced a high rate of violent victimisation. This tentative finding was not borne out by the prevalence rates² in the 2001 NZNSCV which had a more robust sample of Pacific participants. On the other hand, their incidence rates³ were reasonably high and were noticeably higher than those for New Zealand European/European victims and victims of other ethnicities.
- Around two-fifths of victimisations were reported to the Police. There was considerable variation in reporting rates between different types of victimisation.
- There was little change in the incidence of victimisation between 1995 and 2000 for most types of victimisation. However, there was a significant increase between 1995 and 2000 in the incidence of individual property victimisations.
- A comparison of the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV with respect to the percentage of people who experienced victimisation shows little change.

2 See 'Definitions of terms'.

3 See 'Definitions of terms'.

- Comparison of the incidence and prevalence rates for 1995 with the incidence and prevalence rates for 2000 shows little change for many demographic groups. However, there are a few changes which are worth noting since they may be of practical significance, although none reached statistical significance:
 - although the prevalence rate for the victimisation of Pacific women did not change much, the incidence rate fell considerably;
 - both the prevalence and incidence rates for the victimisation of Māori women increased;
 - although the prevalence rate for Māori men did not change much, the incidence rate of victimisation among Māori men increased considerably.

Reporting victimisation to the Police

- The main reasons given by victims for reporting their victimisation to the Police were *to catch or punish the offender* and *because a crime had been committed*.
- The main reason given by victims for not reporting their victimisation to the Police was *its lack of seriousness*.
- The Police were significantly more likely to get to know about household and violent offences if the victim knew the offender, but the likelihood of the Police getting to know about individual property offences did not differ significantly whether or not the offender was known to the victim.
- The types of victimisations which were significantly less likely to come to Police notice were:
 - violence against women
 - the victimisation of younger age groups, especially with respect to violence
 - violence against Māori
 - violence against beneficiaries and students
 - individual property offences experienced by students and those on home duties
 - violence which occurred in the home
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly less likely than other victims to give as a reason for not reporting their victimisation to the Police that their victimisation was too trivial and not worth reporting to them.
- Repeat victims of violent offences and victims of one violent offence were significantly more likely than victims of other offences to give as a reason for not reporting their victimisation to the Police that their victimisation was a private, personal or family matter.

Victims' satisfaction with the Police

- About half of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied' with the Police response to them. This represents a slight decline from the level of satisfaction found in the 1996 NZNSCV.
- Around a quarter of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were dissatisfied with the Police response.
- Victims of burglary, Māori victims, younger victims, and victims who were beneficiaries were significantly more likely than other victims to say that they were dissatisfied with the Police response to them.
- Repeat burglary victims were more polarised than other groups of victims over their treatment by the Police. Well over a quarter of repeat burglary victims said that they were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them, but at the same time more than a fifth of repeat burglary victims said that they were 'very dissatisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them.
- Few repeat victims of violent offences were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them.
- The main reasons for victims' dissatisfaction were:
 - the Police were *not seen as having done enough*; and
 - the Police *appeared uninterested*.

Violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim

- For women, the violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim tended to occur on the street, at home or at work, whereas, for men, the most common venue was the street, followed by 'other' places and pubs or clubs.
- In most robberies, there were no injuries and, in most of the assaults by people not well known to the victim, even when injuries were inflicted, they tended to be bruises and black eyes rather than broken bones.
- Weapons were used in around a fifth of threats and assaults by people not well known to the victim and very rarely in robberies.
- Around three-quarters of the victims of the assaults by people not well known to the victim and around two-thirds of the victims of robberies did not know their offender at all; however, in almost half of the threats by people not well known to the victim, the victim stated that they already knew their offenders – mainly casually or just by sight.

- Around two-thirds of the victims of assaults and threats by people not well known to the victim and more than three-quarters of the victims of robberies were 'just a little' or 'not at all' affected by their victimisation.
- Victims of threats by people not well known to the victim seem to have been almost as affected by their victimisation as victims of assaults and seem to have been more affected than victims of robberies.
- Women were significantly more likely than men to express some reaction to this type of victimisation.

Violent victimisation by partners and by others well known to the victim

- With respect to violence at the hands of heterosexual partners, women, especially Māori women, were significantly more likely than men to say they had experienced such violence at some time in their lives.
- There was little difference between women and men in the proportion saying they had experienced violence at the hands of their current partners in 2000.
- There was a significant difference in the impact of this violence on women and men, with a greater proportion of women than men saying that the most recent incident had affected them 'very much' or 'quite a lot'. Women were also more likely to say that, as a result, they were afraid for themselves and for their children.
- A significantly greater proportion of women than men viewed these incidents of violence by their current heterosexual partner as a crime.
- With respect to violence by other people well known to the victim, women were significantly more likely than men to mention ex-partners or boyfriends and men were more likely than women to mention close friends as the offenders.
- A much greater proportion of young people than older age groups had experienced one or more of the violent behaviours asked about at the hands of other people well known to them. This was also the case for both Māori and Pacific men and for Māori women when compared with men and women of other ethnic groups.
- Women were significantly more affected than men by violence by other people well known to them.

Sexual victimisation

- Women, especially Māori women, were significantly more likely than men to say they had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault at some time in their lives.

- Women, especially young women, were much more likely than men to say they had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault in 2000.
- Fourteen percent of women said that they had experienced sexual victimisation before the age of 17. For some of these women, this had occurred at a very young age.
- Sexual victimisation was often experienced more than once, even within a relatively short period of time.
- Almost all victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted said the offender was male and most said that they already knew their offender(s).
- Almost half of the victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted said they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected by their most recent experience.
- More than two-fifths of the victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted viewed what they had experienced as a crime. However, slightly over half saw it as wrong but not a crime, or as just something which happened.

Residential burglary

- In almost a third of the burglaries, someone was at home at the time of the burglary.
- The use of violence or force in burglaries was extremely rare.
- In around a quarter of burglaries, there was no forced entry.
- Around a fifth of burglary victims had no special security measures in place at the time of the burglary.
- Something was stolen in more than half of the burglaries reported within the 2001 NZNSCV.
- Damage was reported in about a half of the burglaries and was significantly more likely to have occurred when entry was forced.
- More than half of the victims of burglary said that they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected by the burglary.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely than victims of one burglary to report having no special security measures in place at the time of the burglary, but there was no difference between repeat victims of burglary and victims of other offences.

- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely to be:
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - those households whose main income earner had no occupation
 - those living with flatmates
 - those living in rented property

Meeting the needs of victims

- Although awareness of Victim Support has increased since the 1996 NZNSCV, certain groups – in particular, Pacific participants and participants of ‘other’ ethnicities, students, those aged 15 to 24 and men aged 60 or more – remained largely unaware of this service. Other groups with a significantly lower level of awareness were all those aged 60 and over, the retired, Māori, lower socio-economic groups and men. Of course, Māori and the young are also amongst the groups most at risk of victimisation.
- Very few victims have contact with any type of victims’ services, including Victim Support.
- There is little change since the 1996 NZNSCV in the proportion of victims contacted by Victim Support.
- Where contact is made with Victim Support or other services, this advice and help is to a large extent appreciated.
- There is some evidence from the 2001 NZNSCV that a greater proportion of victims contacted by Victim Support were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation than was the case in the 1996 NZNSCV.
- Around a third of the victims contacted by Victim Support said that they either did not accept or did not want the support offered.
- Eight percent of victims said they wanted additional support or help – in particular, this was someone to talk to, emotional support and financial assistance.
- Some Māori and Pacific victims who wanted additional help mentioned the need for culturally-responsive services.
- More than a quarter of the repeat victims of burglary said they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation.

- Although a higher proportion of repeat burglary victims than victims of other types of offences were contacted by Victim Support, a significantly higher proportion of repeat victims of burglary said they wanted additional help.

Concerns about victimisation and safety

- Just over a third of the participants thought that crime was a problem in their neighbourhood. This represents little change from the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV.
- Amongst those who thought this, burglary was viewed as a problem significantly more often than any other type of victimisation.
- There was no clear relationship between either the incidence or prevalence of victimisation and people's perceptions of local crime problems though there was a relationship between worry about victimisation and perceptions of local crime problems.
- People's perceptions of local problems did not focus exclusively or primarily upon crime. They were often concerned about other features of the neighbourhood – speeding cars, teenagers hanging around, rubbish and litter lying about, uncontrolled dogs and broken windows and graffiti.
- Almost 60% of the participants thought that crime had remained much the same in their neighbourhood over the last 12 months, and only three percent thought that it had increased.
- Repeat burglary victims were significantly more likely than others to say that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood.
- The majority of participants said that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and felt safe doing so, and even most of those who did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark said that they thought they would feel safe if they did so.
- Women, however, irrespective of age or ethnicity, were significantly less likely to say that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and were significantly less likely to say that they felt safe doing so.
- Those aged 60 and over were also significantly less likely to say that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and there were some minor differences between them and other age groups in their perceptions of safety while doing so.
- When participants were asked how much they worried about being the victim of twelve specific types of victimisation, around a fifth of the sample said that they were 'very worried' in all but three of them.

- Of these victimisations, participants worried most about being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their house broken into, being attacked and robbed, being sexually assaulted or raped, having their car broken into or damaged, having their belongings stolen, having their car stolen, having their home or property damaged by vandals and being assaulted by strangers. They were least worried about being assaulted by people they knew, being assaulted because of their race, and being racially harassed on the street.
- There was a clear difference here between men and women. Women were most worried about being sexually assaulted or raped, being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, their house being burgled, being attacked and robbed, and being assaulted by a stranger. Men, on the other hand, were most worried about having their car damaged or broken into, their house being burgled, being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their belongings stolen and having their car stolen.
- Worry about victimisation tended to decrease with age.
- There were very high levels of worry about victimisation amongst Pacific participants. Māori participants also tended to be more worried than New Zealand European/European participants. 'Other' ethnic groups were also more worried than New Zealand European/European participants, though slightly less so than Māori.
- Women of all ethnicities were more likely to be 'very worried' about almost all forms of victimisation than men of the same ethnicities. However, across all the forms of victimisation asked about, a greater proportion of Pacific women than Māori women were 'very worried', while Māori women were in turn more likely than New Zealand European/European women to be 'very worried'.
- There were significant differences between ethnic groups in worry about being racially harassed on the street and being assaulted on account of race, with Māori, Pacific participants and participants of 'other ethnicities' expressing much higher levels of worry in these respects. Pacific participants, in particular, expressed very high levels of worry about these.
- Levels of worry about crime were generally no higher than worries about certain accidents or misfortunes. For example, participants tended to be just as worried about the prospect of serious illness or an accident in the home.
- Repeat burglary victims were much more likely than others to say that they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark, that they were 'very worried' about a range of offences including burglary and assaults and that they were 'very worried' about each of a range of misfortunes. Most of these differences were not as apparent for repeat victims of violent offences.
- Higher levels of worry about victimisation tended to be rooted in participants' actual experience of victimisation.

- Overall, these findings represent little change over the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV.

Preventing victimisation

- A large proportion of participants took some precautionary measures to protect themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Those groups reporting the highest levels of concern about crime – in particular, women and Pacific participants – took more precautionary measures than others.
- One in four participants at times carried a weapon (or something that could be used as a weapon) for the purpose of protecting themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Women, irrespective of age or ethnicity, were more likely than men to report that they sometimes carried a weapon (or something that could be used as a weapon) for the purpose of protecting themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Most participants thought that their houses would be ‘very’ or ‘fairly’ easy to break into.
- Only nine percent of participants took no special security precautions to protect their home.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely than other groups to say that they had no special security measures in place.
- Lower socio-economic groups were significantly less likely to have special security measures in place.
- Outside sensor lights and deadlocks were the most common security measures taken to prevent burglary; safety latches, burglar alarms, security chains on doors, guard dogs, security markings on property and security bolts on doors were also reasonably common.
- The most common reasons given for not doing more to prevent burglary were participants’ belief that the area they lived in was safe, not being able to afford security measures and living in rented property.
- There was some evidence that the presence of special security measures reduced the risk of burglary and that the absence of special security measures increased the risk of burglary.
- These findings broadly confirm the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV. However, the proportion of participants saying that they had a burglar alarm in their home had increased.

Conclusion

The methodology used in the 2001 NZNSCV contains a number of improvements over the 1996 NZNSCV and so its findings are more robust. Overall, the 2001 NZNSCV suggests that victimisation has not increased since 1995. On the other hand, the estimated number of victimisations disclosed within the 2001 NZNSCV is much higher than the number of offences recorded in the Police statistics. There are various reasons for this discrepancy but many of these victimisations were described by participants within the 2001 NZNSCV as not having had much of an impact on them. The majority of the New Zealand population were not victims of crime during 2000. However, a minority of people were victimised repeatedly and experienced the bulk of crime. They were more likely to be young, Māori, solo parents and those living on benefits. The 2001 NZNSCV also suggests that most New Zealanders see their local areas as relatively safe. Although some participants in the 2001 NZNSCV said that they were 'very worried' about victimisation, participants tended to be just as worried about the prospect of serious illness or an accident in the home. Taken together, these findings differ in many respects from other portrayals of victimisation.

1 The nature and design of the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims 2001

1.1 Introduction

Surveys of crime victims were first carried out in the mid 1960s and, since then, a number have been conducted both nationally⁴ and internationally.⁵ They have also been undertaken in many local communities⁶ and with a range of specific groups.⁷ The first surveys of crime victims in New Zealand were conducted in Auckland (Morgan 1984, cited in Young et al. 1997) and in the Wellington region (Robinson et al. 1989) in the 1980s. New Zealand (along with 13 other countries) later took part in the second International Crime Survey in 1992 (van Dijk and Mayhew 1992; Harland 1995) and the first New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV) was conducted in 1996 (Young et al. 1997). The New Zealand Police now also commission annual surveys which include information on victims' satisfaction with the Police service (see, for example, MM Research 2002).

This Report presents the findings from the second New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV) which was conducted in 2001. Like the 1996 NZNSCV, this survey interviewed a random sample of the population aged 15 and over and asked them not only about the extent to which they had been the victims of certain offences since 1 January 2000, but also about the circumstances and impact of those offences and their response to them, as well as a range of other victim-related information.

4 For Australia, see the various reports by the Australian Bureau of Statistics from 1979 onwards; for England and Wales, see the various reports by the Home Office from Hough and Mayhew (1983) to Kershaw et al. (2001); for Northern Ireland, see the report by Boyle and Haire (1996); for Scotland, see the various reports for the Scottish Home and Health Department (now Scottish Executive) from Chambers and Tombs (1984) to MVA Ltd (2000). For the United States, see Cantor and Lynch (2000) for information on the National Crime Victimization Survey conducted there since 1972.

5 See van Dijk and Mayhew (1992) for a comparison of the 1989 and 1992 International Crime Surveys and van Kesteren et al. (2000) for a discussion of the most recent.

6 In the United Kingdom, for example, they have been carried out in Aberystwyth (Koffman 1996), in Belfast and surrounding towns (O'Mahony et al. 2000), in Edinburgh (Anderson et al. 1990), in Islington (Jones et al. 1986 and Crawford et al. 1990), in various areas of London (Sparks et al. 1977), in Merseyside (Kinsey 1985) and in Nottingham (Farrington and Dowds 1985). For examples in Australia, see Borooah and Carcach's (1997) report on the Queensland Crime Victim Survey. And for various communities in Europe, see Mawby 2001.

7 For example, crime surveys have been conducted specifically with women (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996; Johnson and Sacco 1995; Tjaden and Thoennes 2000; and Alvi et al. 2001), with the elderly (James and Graycar 2000), with ethnic minorities (Weinrath 1999; Aye Maung and Mirrlees-Black 1994) and with the young (Aye Maung 1995a; Lauritsen and Quinet 1995; Painter and Farrington 2001).

1.2 Why survey crime victims?

Surveys of crime victims have added significantly to the information we have about the nature and extent of victimisation⁸ and about crime victims. Statistics routinely collected by the Police in New Zealand (as elsewhere) provide a certain picture of the nature and extent of crime, but surveys of crime victims have consistently shown that not all victimisations are reported by victims to the Police, and that not all victimisations known to the Police are recorded by them as offences. In other words, Police statistics omit what criminologists call a large ‘dark figure of crime’. Moreover, Police statistics provide little or no information about the context or experience of victimisation.

Surveys of crime victims, on the other hand, can provide a range of additional information about victimisation by directly asking individuals about the extent to which they and others in their household have experienced victimisation and by asking those who have been victimised a set of detailed questions about their experience. Thus, surveys of crime victims provide information on the victimisations not reported to the Police and more detailed information about both those victimisations reported and those not reported to the Police, the reasons for these decisions and the contexts in which the victimisation occurred. Surveys of crime victims also provide information about the consequences of victimisation and what sorts of resources, if any, victims may need to deal with these. As a result, surveys of crime victims have had a considerable impact on certain theoretical and policy directions in crime and justice. Discussions around the ‘fear of crime’ and repeat victimisation are obvious examples.

1.3 Limitations of surveys of crime victims

Surveys of crime victims, like Police statistics, provide only a partial picture of victimisation although the reasons for this differ (for a critique of the British Crime Survey, see Aye Maung 1995b). They too have not inconsiderable ‘dark figures’. For example, surveys of crime victims do not cover victimisations experienced by businesses or organisations and do not cover certain types of victimisation – such as murder (where there is no living victim) or the victimisation of children (because most surveys include only those aged above 12 or 15). Thus, surveys of crime victims **under-estimate** the total extent of victimisation.

Surveys of crime victims, by being **household** surveys, also omit those sections of the population who do not live in households like the homeless, street kids, those living in boarding houses and so on. There is evidence that some of these latter groups are heavily victimised (Alder 1991). This again results in an **under-estimation** of the extent of victimisation. Also excluded from surveys of crime victims are the residents of old peoples’ homes, hospitals, psychiatric institutions and prisons.⁹ Some of these groups may also feature among the heavily victimised, again resulting in an **under-estimation** of the extent of victimisation.

8 The term ‘victimisation’ is used in preference to the term ‘offence’ in this Report and, in the main, they are used interchangeably except when we compare Police statistics (offences) and survey results (victimisations). This change from the language in Young et al.’s (1997) discussion of the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV does not reflect any change of substance.

9 Other types of surveys can explore the victimisation of these groups. See, for example, Bowker 1980; Gottfredson and Gottfredson 1985; White 2000.

At the same time, surveys of crime victims may **over-estimate** victimisation by usually accepting whatever participants say about their victimisation and by not gauging the seriousness of the victimisations reported. This means that some of the incidents reported, while they may come within the legal definition of a particular crime, may be very minor indeed. As such, they may not normally be reported by victims to the Police or, if reported, may not normally be recorded by the Police as an offence.

The language used in surveys of crime victims also affects survey estimates.¹⁰ Legal language makes incidents more easily comparable with Police statistics, but may inhibit full reporting of victimisations by victims because they do not understand the meaning of the language used. There is also another dimension to this point. Participants may not perceive what happened to them as fitting the requirements of a criminal offence. The most commonly-cited example of this is the difference in the number of reports produced when women are asked if they have been raped, compared with those produced when they are asked if they have been forced to have sex against their will (Schwartz 1997). Another example is the experience of violence in relationships. Even quite serious acts of violence can be seen as 'normal' within some relationships rather than as criminal behaviour (Morris 1997, 53). In such situations, **under-estimates** of the extent of victimisation can occur.

Another limitation in surveys of crime victims relates to participants' ability to recall accurately the details of their victimisation. Cantor and Lynch (2000, 101) claim, perhaps surprisingly, that crimes, even serious crimes, are not '*highly salient events in memory*' given '*the trials and tribulations of everyday life*'. Consequently, they suggest that many probes and cues are required to induce reports of victimisation. These serve to orient participants not only to the types of victimisations covered in the survey and to jog their memories, but also to reduce inhibitions about reporting. Thus, in the New Zealand Women's Safety Survey 1996 (Morris 1997), women were asked about a wide range of violent behaviours in contrast to other surveys which asked only about a few.¹¹ Without adequate cues or probes, again, under-estimates of the extent of victimisation can occur.

A further difficulty is ensuring participants place any victimisation which has occurred within the appropriate time frame. This is necessary because most surveys of crime victims contrast their findings with comparable Police statistics over the same time frame or with findings from other surveys with similar (sometimes earlier) time frames. It is for this reason that the National Crime Victimization Survey in the United States is now conducted on a six-monthly cycle.¹² Most other surveys of crime victims refer to a period of a year but some refer to time periods of five years.¹³ Failure to include victimisations which occurred within the time frame

10 A somewhat different issue is that responses can be influenced by the position of the question within the survey itself (Mayhew, 1995, 8). For example, earlier questions in the survey may influence the way people respond to questions concerning their 'fear of crime' or their perceptions about the effects of crime.

11 This (and other methodological differences) may explain why the prevalence rates in New Zealand were reported to be higher than in Canada and Australia (Morris 1998).

12 The U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey also uses a continuing rotating panel in which the occupants of each household who are 12 years old or older are interviewed at six-monthly intervals throughout the three and a half years of a particular survey's duration.

13 Sometimes, also, participants are asked whether or not they have ever experienced particular types of victimisation. In the 1996 and 2001 NZNSCV, for example, participants were asked whether or not they had ever experienced various types of violence at the hands of their heterosexual partners. Somewhat unusually, Wittebrood and Nieuwbeerta (2000) asked participants in their survey about their experience of victimisation for each year of their life.

results in **under-estimates** of the extent of victimisation, but inclusion of victimisations which did not occur within the time frame results in **over-estimates** of the extent of victimisation.

Participants may also recall an experience of victimisation but be unwilling to report it to the interviewer. This is particularly relevant with respect to sexual victimisation (for example, because of the participant's embarrassment) and victimisation within the family (for example, because of the participant's fear of the offender). Estimates of sexual victimisation and violence within relationships are notoriously unreliable in conventional surveys of crime victims and tend to **under-estimate** their prevalence.

Victimisation may be so routine for some participants that, when asked 'How many times has this happened?', they find it difficult to give more than a broad estimate. Victimisation within the family is an example of this too. For some people, therefore, their victimisation is so frequent that it is not well captured in conventional surveys of crime victims, particularly when, as is usual, victims are restricted to providing further information on only a pre-determined number of victimisations (often three or four).

There may, in addition, be differences in recall and reporting between different groups of participants (for example, there may be differences according to their socio-economic status, age, gender and ethnicity). This means that apparent differences with respect to levels of victimisation may be due rather to differences in recalling the victimisation or in deciding whether or not to report it within the survey or to the interviewer. It is impossible to tell which it is.¹⁴

Non-response to surveys is another problem that typically has an unknown effect. There is always some potential for inaccuracy when non-response occurs. This inaccuracy arises if the missing data are different from the data that have been collected, on average, and it can be increasingly large as the response rate¹⁵ decreases. However, if non-respondents are no different from respondents on average, then no inaccuracy will result from the non-response. The problem is that the survey data are not available for the non-respondents, so it is not possible to know whether or not their data are different from that collected from survey participants and, consequently, whether or not inaccuracies have arisen. Techniques such as weighting¹⁶ can help to reduce or sometimes even eliminate potential inaccuracies due to non-response.

Account also has to be taken of the sampling error inherent in sample survey results, due to interviewing only a sample of the population. The important point to keep in mind here is that surveys of crime victims report **estimates**, not exact numbers. Even if there are no underlying tendencies for a survey to under- or over-estimate aspects of victimisation,

14 An example of this is found in the New Zealand Women's Safety Survey 1996 (Morris 1997). Māori women's experience of violence at the hands of their partners seemed more common than non-Māori women's. This could mean that Māori women actually experienced more violence or that they were more willing to disclose it. Similarly, younger women's experience of violence at the hands of their partners seemed more common than older women's. This could mean that older women actually did experience less violence or that they forget or were less willing to disclose it.

15 The response rate for the 2001 NZNSCV is detailed in Section 1.4.4.

16 The weighting methods used for the 2001 NZNSCV are summarised briefly in Section 1.4.10 and are available in detail from the Ministry of Justice on request.

random sampling variation will still affect the survey results, and this will lead to a certain amount of random sampling error. Fortunately, the level of sampling error can be calculated, summarised in confidence intervals and used to conduct significance tests.

One final point in this section: experience has shown that changes in the methodology of particular surveys of crime victims have resulted in findings that cannot be directly compared with earlier surveys using a different methodology. A good example of this is the introduction of computer-assisted telephone interviews (CATI). Cantor and Lynch (2000, 114) report that, as part of the redesign of the American National Survey of Crime Victimization, people were randomly assigned to be interviewed either by an interviewer using CATI or by the interviewer using the telephone, but filling the person's responses into a hard copy of the questionnaire (the usual method). Substantial increases resulted in the reports of all types of crimes when CATI was used. An adaptation of this technique – computer-assisted self interviewing (CASI) – has been used in exploring topics which are known to be sensitive like sexual assault and family violence. This also resulted in increased reporting (Percy and Mayhew 1997).¹⁷

In the past, surveys of crime victims have been presented as more reliable than statistics collected by the Police. However, each has their strengths – some types of data are best produced by surveys of crime victims and others are best produced by statistics collected by the Police – and each has their limitations – both provide only a partial picture of victimisation. Together, they provide a more reliable and balanced picture. It makes sense to see the two sets of data as complementary and to attempt to explain any disparities which occur between them.

1.4 The New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV) 2001

The 2001 NZNSCV in many respects closely follows the 1996 NZNSCV (which itself was modelled on the British Crime Surveys). Maintaining comparability between the two surveys was seen as an important goal. However, it was also important to learn from the 1996 NZNSCV and, where appropriate, to improve on it. This task was aided by two methodological reviews of the 1996 NZNSCV (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2000 and Williams and McKenzie 2000) which were commissioned by the Ministry of Justice. Many of the improvements adopted – these will be explained at the relevant points in this chapter – were in the nature of fine tuning rather than fundamental changes and so do not affect the surveys' comparability in any significant way. However, there were some changes made to both the methodology used and the questions asked which are likely to have had a significant impact. These too will be explained at the relevant points in this chapter.

17 The introduction of lap-top computers in the 1994 British Crime Survey by which women read and answered the questions on sexual victimisation themselves produced prevalence figures over ten times higher than those produced through previous victim surveys using 'paper and pencil' methods. Percy and Mayhew (1997) also contrasted their findings with those from three other surveys and found widely different estimates. They acknowledged, however, that the differences reported were more likely to be due to methodological factors than to 'real' differences in the countries surveyed.

1.4.1 The objectives of the survey

The particular objectives of the 2001 NZNSCV, as set out in the original brief from the Ministry of Justice, were as follows:

- To provide an alternative measure of crime victimisation for comparison with other indicative measures of crime and social well-being, especially the official statistics of recorded crime;
- To identify the extent to which the risks of specific types of victimisation vary on the basis of gender, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status and employment situation;
- To provide contextual information about victimisation – such as its location, the time at which it occurred,¹⁸ the circumstances in which it arose, the modus operandi, and the relationship between the offender and victim – which can contribute to the development and evaluation of crime prevention strategies and priorities;
- To describe the physical, financial, emotional and cultural effects of crime, the needs of victims, the extent to which those needs are met by victim support agencies, and any shortcomings in the services provided;
- To discover the extent to which offences are reported to the Police, the reasons for reporting and non-reporting, and victims' perceptions of the adequacy of the Police and justice system response¹⁹ when offences are reported;
- To provide information on the public's perception of crime problems in their area; on fears and concerns about crimes; on the way in which people modify their lifestyles as a result of those fears; and on the relationship between fear on the one hand and actual victimisation or the risk of victimisation on the other;
- To compare the survey findings with those of the first national survey of crime victims, while identifying the limitations on comparisons imposed by differences in response rates and other sources of error.

1.4.2 The scope of the survey

In the 2001 NZNSCV, like the 1996 NZNSCV, participants were only asked about certain types of victimisations which they may have experienced. These were regarded, at least for

18 Collecting information on the time of day at which the incident occurred was subsequently dropped from the questionnaire because the questionnaire was too long and needed to be shortened. It was decided that collecting this information was less important than collecting other information.

19 Collecting information on the criminal justice system's response was also dropped for the reasons referred to in the previous footnote. Also, the size of the sample likely to have experience of the criminal justice system was likely to be very small and another project commissioned by the Department for Courts (the evaluation of the court-referred restorative justice pilots) will provide some information on victims' views of the criminal justice system.

the purposes of analysis,²⁰ as falling into two broader classes of victimisation: **personal** or **individual** (where the participant had personally been a victim – examples of these are sexual victimisation, assault, robbery, theft from the person, abduction and kidnapping, general theft and wilful damage) and **household** (where all members of the household could be regarded as victims and where the participant answered on behalf of the whole household – examples of these are burglary, theft from inside or outside a dwelling, theft of or from motor vehicles and interference with motor vehicles).

1.4.3 The sample design

The 2001 NZNSCV involved a national random sample of households throughout New Zealand and further ‘booster’ samples of Māori households (as in the 1996 NZNSCV) and of Pacific households (an innovation for the 2001 NZNSCV).²¹ Table 1.1 presents the figures for the expected and actual sample sizes.

Table 1.1 Expected and actual sample sizes

	Expected	Actual
Total	5470	5300
Main sample	4000	4101
Māori booster	610	500
Pacific booster	860	699

The final sample of around 5,300²² was reasonably close to the 5,470 originally expected. The distribution is slightly at variance with the original estimate: shortfalls in the Pacific and Māori booster samples are balanced by an increase in the number in the main sample. Overall, the total number of New Zealand European/European participants was 3,568, the total number of Māori participants was 947, the total number of Pacific participants was 749 and the total number of participants whose ethnicity was coded as ‘other’ was 237. Table A1.1 in Appendix 1 provides a more detailed breakdown of the composition of the sample. Although this means that only a very small proportion of the population of New Zealand was interviewed in the 2001 NZNSCV (0.17% overall, or as much as 0.3% for Pacific peoples), statistical theory allows generalisations to be made with confidence even from a small

20 This division into personal versus household was used to apply appropriate survey weights to each incident, and was based solely on the type of victimisation experienced. While this division generally seems reasonable, there are some types of victimisation (e.g. damage to motor vehicles and theft from dwelling) where it seems more problematic. These borderline cases are discussed further in Chapter 2. The survey weights are discussed in Section 1.4.10 below.

21 The Report on the 1996 NZNSCV identified a high prevalence of violent victimisation for Pacific peoples. However, because of the small number of such participants in that survey, it was not possible to state with any confidence that this finding was reliable.

22 The data presented in the following chapters, however, are based on a sample size of 5147. The reason for the exclusion of the responses of 153 people is that these interviews were recorded in the practice file on the interviewers’ laptops rather than in their job file. This happened early on in the research when interviewers opened the wrong file in error. Since there was no way of distinguishing practice interviews from ‘real’ interviews, everything recorded in the practice files had to be discarded.

proportion of the population if the sample is sufficiently large (as these are) and is selected in an appropriate random manner.

The national random sample involved a multi-stage stratified probability sample, with clustering. The main purpose of such a design is to enable cost-effective fieldwork while ensuring that all members of the population being sampled have a known chance of being selected in the sample. This is a fundamental requirement for the production of reliable survey estimates and can enable the calculation of margins of sampling error. The prototypical example of a probability sample is a simple random sample, where participants are chosen independently with equal probability (but without replacement). However, in practice, a simple random sample is very difficult to achieve. The multi-stage procedure, stratification and clustered sampling are all modifications made to simple probability sampling in order to make the fieldwork process more practical, while still providing unbiased survey results.

Described here, briefly, are the three stages for selecting the sample (and the reason for using clustering).²³ Some slight variations between sampling for the 2001 NZNSCV and for the 1996 NZNSCV are also noted.

ACNielsen, the organisation which managed the fieldwork and data collection for the survey, imposes random or quasi-random guidelines for:

- selecting area units within stratification grid cells (strata)
- selecting streets and dwellings within area units, and
- selecting participants within dwellings.

It has developed its own sample frame for 'area units' based on the smallest geographical units defined by Statistics NZ (Meshblocks). Statistics NZ has split the country into approximately 36,000 Meshblocks, which contain, on average, around 100 residents living in around 35 dwellings. This is too small a unit for survey research purposes, given that random selection procedures can mean that a particular Meshblock might be selected a number of times. The next smallest Statistics NZ geographical construct is called the Area Unit. There are approximately 1,700 of these and they are, on average, an amalgamation of around 20 Meshblocks. This means they contain, on average, around 2,000 residents living in around 700 dwellings. This total of around 1,700 Area Units is insufficient to fulfil ACNielsen's practical requirement to be able to have a large number of areas in use at any one time. Accordingly, ACNielsen created a 'Nielsen Area Unit' (NAU) intermediate in size between the two Statistics NZ units. The Nielsen version combines, on average, around seven Meshblocks, with an average population of around 700 living in around 230 dwellings.

Cluster sampling involves a process whereby a number of dwellings are selected to be sampled in a patterned way around a single 'start point'. The purpose of this is to reduce cost through gaining efficiency in interviewers' travel time and mileage. ACNielsen generally

23 The detail of the sampling method used in the 2001 NZNSCV is available on request from the Ministry of Justice.

defines clusters in terms of the number of interviews to be obtained around each start point. This, technically, is a quota, because it requires interviewers to keep calling on and replacing dwellings until they have obtained their quota of five interviews and means an indeterminate (and possibly large) number of addresses are called upon. This can have the effect of reducing the overall response rate and, thereby, of increasing the possibility of a non-response bias.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) methodological review (2000) suggested that the 'quota' style of cluster sampling used in the 1996 NZNSCV appeared to result in a large number of replacement households having to be selected. The problem with this, it argued, was that *'replacement of households where refusals took place could be a matter for some concern if reasons for refusal were related in some way to crime victimisation. In other words, the households that were replaced may not have been replaced by dwellings with similar characteristics'* (2000, 18).

To deal with this criticism, the 2001 NZNSCV clusters were defined in terms of **the number of dwellings to be approached in each area unit** rather than the number of interviews to be achieved. The number of designated dwellings per cluster, therefore, was determined by a combination of anticipated response rates and the desirability of spreading the sample geographically as widely as possible, while still retaining the cost efficiencies which cluster interviewing provides. As the fieldwork took place in four time blocks and response rates could be calculated as data collection progressed, this meant that the households approached could be increased as necessary.²⁴

A related issue is the interval between selected dwellings. The ABS review noted (2000, 9) the negative implications of calling at adjacent dwellings, which had been done in the 1996 NZNSCV, and surmised that there might have been some impact on survey estimates and response rates arising from 'word of mouth' among neighbours. They also cautioned that interviewing at adjacent dwellings maximised the clustering effect and could have resulted in less reliable estimates. As a result, for the 2001 NZNSCV, the dwelling interval was increased so that in urban areas every fourth dwelling was selected. This reduced the potential 'word of mouth' effect and minimised the clustering effect to some extent. For the two booster samples, it was decided that a dwelling interval of four was not necessary because, even after eliminating those NAUs with very small Māori or Pacific populations, the great majority of dwellings would still have been ineligible. Therefore, a dwelling interval of two – that is, selecting every second dwelling – was adopted for the booster samples.

The Māori and Pacific booster samples relied on a separate sample frame derived by means of the same methodology. That is, a sample stratification grid showing the distribution of Māori and Pacific populations was prepared. Separate sample frames, based upon the usually resident Māori or Pacific peoples population of each NAU, were used for the booster

24 For the 2001 NZNSCV, an average of five completed interviews per cluster was considered a good compromise between achieving a good spread for the sample and cost efficiency. This resulted in 800 start points for the main sample and 200 for each of the booster samples. Based upon the target response rate of 70%, this meant seven designated dwellings were to be called upon in each cluster. As a result of the response rates achieved during the pilot, this was later revised to eight designated dwellings to be called upon in each cluster. For the booster samples, 28 dwellings was the initial number to be contacted per area unit. This was also revised after the pilot and was re-set at 32 dwellings.

samples. Thus, the probability of selection was determined by the population of Māori or Pacific peoples aged 15 and over in each NAU.

Because the proportions of Māori and Pacific peoples are relatively small, and these ethnic groups tend to be clustered residentially rather than distributed homogeneously throughout New Zealand, some NAUs contained very few Māori or Pacific peoples. Attempting to interview in these areas would have been totally or almost totally unproductive (as well as wasteful of resources). Thus, those NAUs with a low Māori density were deleted from the sample frame. By going through a series of iterative calculations based upon Census data, a population density threshold was arrived at whereby elimination of a relatively large number of NAUs resulted in elimination of only a small proportion of Māori households.²⁵ This threshold was 5%. That is to say, removal of those NAUs whose population of Māori households comprised less than 5% of their total number of households removed approximately 10% of NAUs, but only 2% of the Māori households. Thus, 98% of Māori households remained in the sample frame.

The equivalent figure for Pacific peoples was 80% – that is to say, 80% of Pacific households are in NAUs whose population of Pacific households exceeds 5% of their total number of households. Once individual households had been selected, there was an introductory explanation to the person who answered the door to the effect that the survey only concerned Māori or Pacific peoples, depending on which booster sample was being conducted in that area; the door-answerer was then asked whether or not any residents of the dwelling identified as Māori or as a Pacific person; if not, the house was recorded as being ineligible and no interview was conducted.

1.4.4 The response rate

The overall response rate in the 1996 NZSCV was 57% and this was considered barely adequate: achieving a high response rate is necessary to ensure the representativeness of a sample and to increase the confidence with which generalisations can be made from the findings of a survey. Attempts were made to maximise the response rate in the 2001 NZNSCV in a number of ways:

- by ensuring widespread media coverage of the survey immediately before the fieldwork began through the use of radio, daily newspapers and community newspapers, including the use of Māori and Pacific media;
- by distributing to the targeted households a letter signed by the Secretary of Justice and a pamphlet telling potential households about the survey;²⁶
- by increasing from the 1996 NZNSCV the number of ‘call-backs’ allowed, whereby interviewers returned to dwellings when no contact had been made at the first call;²⁷

25 A Māori household is defined as a household with at least one member who is Māori.

26 The obvious sponsorship of the Ministry of Justice in this way might have acted as a barrier to participation in the 2001 NZNSCV amongst certain groups.

27 The call-back regime used in the 1996 NZNSCV involved a minimum of two return visits to the particular ‘unit cluster’ before a dwelling was discarded. In the 2001 NZNSCV, three visits to each NAU cluster were allowed. This meant a minimum of three knocks on every door, but because dwellings could be approached more than once at each visit there was effectively the opportunity for up to at least six door knocks (two per visit).

- by training interviewers on how to cope with potential non-response and how to turn around ‘soft’ refusals; and
- by attempting to match the ethnicity of the participant and the interviewer for the booster samples.

Contact was made with someone at most of the selected households.²⁸ However, this initial contact did not mean that the household necessarily agreed to take part in the survey. As we explain below, only one participant per household was randomly selected for interview. Once that person was identified, he or she was advised of the nature and purpose of the survey (both orally and by way of a written information sheet) and was then asked to consent to the interview. A number did not. Table 1.2 shows the contact, conversion and response rates²⁹ for the total sample, the main sample and for the two booster samples.

Table 1.2 Analysis of responses, summarised for all sample components: percentages

	Total sample	Main sample	Māori booster	Pacific booster
Contact rate	93.3	92.7	95.3	94.9
Conversion rate	66.2	69.5	59.3	55.6
Response rate	61.8	64.5	56.5	52.8

Table 1.2 shows that the overall response rate (taking into account the initial non-contacts) was 62% for the total sample and 65% in the main sample, but only 57% for the Māori booster sample and 53% for the Pacific booster sample. Thus, despite the fact that contact rates for all three samples were similarly high, the conversion and response rates for the two booster samples were significantly lower. These lower response rates in the booster samples are not easy to explain.

ACNielsen usually achieves similar or better response rates for Māori booster samples as for main samples, and the few Pacific booster samples conducted by it have not been much lower. In the 1996 NZSCV, the response rate for the main sample was 56% but for the Māori booster sample the response rate was 66% (in both cases the contact rate was in the low 90s).

28 In the 1996 NZNSCV, all interviews were conducted on evenings or weekends to maximise the chances of finding the selected resident at home at the time of the call (at least one of the visits to each cluster was made on a weekend day and at least one was made on a weekday evening). This resulted in a contact rate of 92.3% which was described as ‘quite acceptable’ by the ABS (2000, 18) and as ‘very high’ by Williams and McKenzie (2000, 7). However, the ABS did suggest conducting interviews at other times of the day and so daytime interviewing (from 2pm onwards) was trialed during the pilot because evening work in the winter became a security issue for interviewers. Starting at 2pm worked well and so this was retained for the survey itself. The overall contact rate achieved in the 2001 NZNSCV was 93.3% and so was both acceptable and not much different from the contact rate in 1996.

29 The conversion rate measures successful interviews as a proportion of all eligible dwellings contacted, and the response rate measures successful interviews as a proportion of all eligible dwellings approached.

Furthermore, as noted above, considerable effort was expended to ensure that the booster fieldwork was conducted in a manner which acknowledged and respected the cultural sensitivities of the Māori and Pacific persons interviewers were seeking to interview. Along with their overall assistance, the survey's cultural advisers assisted with recruiting Māori and Pacific interviewers and with developing a training module for non-Māori and non-Pacific interviewers. In addition to incorporating ethnically-sensitive practices into the fieldwork procedures for their own sake, it seemed reasonable to assume that all of the practices which we have outlined above which were intended to maximize response rates in the 2001 NZNSCV would also have resulted in an increase in the booster samples' response rates. As it turned out, they did not.

Table 1.3 elaborates the data in Table 1.2.

Table 1.3 Analysis of response rates

	Total	Main	Corrected Pacific	Corrected Māori
A. Total dwellings approached	16447	6701	5614	4132
B. Empty house	621	339	107	175
C. Ineligible (no Māori/Pacific resident)	7255	n/a	4138	3072
D. No contact made after call regime completed	573	464	67	42
Total eligible dwellings approached: A-(B+C)	8571	6362	1324	885
Total eligible dwellings contacted: A-(B+C+D)	7998	5898	1257	843
Unapproachable house ³⁰	56	30	19	7
Household refusal	587	532	30	25
Participant not interviewable ³¹	189	107	70	12
Participant refusal	1002	688	144	170
Participant unavailable during survey period	842	431	286	125
Interview not completed	22	9	9	4
E. Completed interviews	5300	4101	699	500

Table 1.3 shows that the booster samples feature higher proportions of participants in all of the unproductive outcome categories, but the difference was greatest for the category 'participant unavailable during survey period'. This category included those who were

³⁰ This means that the interviewer felt unsafe entering the property (for example, there were dogs or it appeared to be a gang house) or could not gain access (for example, because of a security fence).

³¹ This means generally that the interviewer could not communicate with the participant because, for example, the participant was visually or hearing-impaired or there were language problems.

unavailable during the period the interviewer was in their area, as well as those who agreed to be interviewed at some time after the initial contact but then failed to keep the appointment: 21% of the contacts with the Pacific booster sample and 14% of the contacts with the Māori booster sample failed to be converted into interviews for this reason, compared with only seven percent of the contacts with the main sample. Fieldwork experience indicates that a proportion of participants use this as a 'soft refusal', and it may be that Māori and Pacific persons found it easier to decline to participate in the survey in this less confrontational way rather than by directly refusing to take part.

Interviewers were encouraged to ask for the reason for potential participants' refusal but analyses of these does not help us much in understanding the differences in the response rates. By far the most common reason was '*I just don't want to*'. This was given by just under two-fifths (39%) of those who refused in the main sample, but by almost half (47%) of the potential Pacific participants who refused and by well over half (56%) of the potential Māori participants who refused. The next most commonly-given reason was '*I'm too busy*'. This was given by a quarter of those in the main sample who refused, by almost a quarter (23%) of the potential Pacific participants who refused, and by almost a fifth (17%) of the potential Māori participants who refused. The next most common reason was '*I don't participate in surveys*', given by 15%, 15% and nine percent respectively. Around a quarter of potential participants in the main sample and around a fifth in the two booster samples gave a range of 'other' reasons. Unwillingness to participate may also have been linked to the sensitive and personal subject matter of some aspects of the survey. Questions about victimisation might have brought to mind possible questions about the 'offender' who, for some participants, might have included partners or family members.³²

However, none of the above reasons really satisfactorily explains why the booster samples' response rates were lower than for the main sample. The booster areas did have a higher proportion of new and inexperienced interviewers, due to attempts to increase the number of Māori and Pacific interviewers working on the survey, and a number of these interviewers ceased working on the project relatively early on, for a variety of reasons. The relative response rates achieved by experienced and inexperienced interviewers were examined³³ and this suggests that the response rate for interviewers with one to three months experience was very much less than that for more experienced interviewers, but that there was little difference between the interviewers with greater levels of experience.³⁴

The response rate for interviewers of different ethnicities was also examined for both the main sample and the booster samples.³⁵ The response rate for Pacific interviewers was lower for the main sample than it was for Māori interviewers or for interviewers of other

32 Women made up more than half of the refusers in all three samples – ranging from 51% to 56%. The age of those who refused could only be estimated by the interviewers, but almost a fifth (19%) of the refusers in the main sample were over 60, compared with only six percent of the potential Pacific participants who refused, and 8% of the potential Māori participants who refused.

33 Response rates were contrasted for interviewers with 1 to 3 months experience, 4 months to two years experience, 2 years to 6 years experience and over 6 years experience.

34 The response rate for those with 1 to 3 months experience was 47.5%. The response rate for the other three groups was 65.3%, 66.3% and 67.0% respectively.

35 The majority (59) of the interviewers were neither Māori nor Pacific. There were 12 Māori interviewers (15% of all interviewers) and 6 Pacific interviewers (7% of all interviewers). One interviewer identified as Māori and Pacific.

ethnicities,³⁶ but their response rate for the Pacific booster sample was higher than for non-Pacific interviewers.³⁷ On the other hand, the response rate for Māori interviewers for the Māori booster sample was similar to the response rate for non-Māori interviewers.³⁸ The effect of interviewers' ethnicity on response rates, therefore, is not clear-cut and it may well be that it is experience which is the crucial factor in obtaining an interview (see also Maxwell et al. 2002).

Overall, as noted above, the survey's response rate was 62%.³⁹ This is higher than the response rate in the 1996 NZNSCV, but it is still a disappointingly low response rate. Young et al. (1997) speculated that the low response rate in the 1996 NZNSCV might have been due, in part, to the fact that, because New Zealand has a small population and one of the most sophisticated market research industries in the world, it is very heavily researched. This is especially so with respect to Māori and Pacific peoples. One consequence of this is that potential participants become unwilling to agree to participate in surveys. The fact that the 2001 NZNSCV took place in the Census year may also have had a negative effect on the response rates of the NZNSCV since several population surveys are linked to the Census and participants are under an obligation to provide the required information.

It is, of course, also possible that the response rates were affected by the particular methodology used in the 2001 NZNSCV and that open-ended face-to-face interviews would have resulted in higher response rates, especially for Māori and Pacific peoples.⁴⁰ Open-ended interviews, however, are not really viable when large numbers are being interviewed.⁴¹

36 The response rates were 54.2%, 62.0% and 65.1% respectively.

37 The response rate for Pacific interviewers with the Pacific booster sample was 56.1% and for non-Pacific interviewers it was 50.9%.

38 The response rate for Māori interviewers with the Māori booster sample was 57.7% and for non-Māori interviewers it was 57.0%.

39 There were significant differences between the response rates in different areas. The highest response rate in the main sample was in the secondary urban areas (where it was 74%) and the lowest was in Auckland (where it was 52%). For the Māori booster sample, the highest response rate (64%) was in the rural areas and the lowest (41%) was in the secondary urban areas. For the Pacific booster sample, if areas with insufficient samples are excluded, the highest response rate (77%) was in the main urban areas excluding Auckland and the lowest (48%) was in Auckland. The definitions for these and other urbanisation categories are found in the 'Definitions of terms'.

40 Although the interviews were face-to-face, they were structured and inputted directly onto a lap-top computer.

41 To complement the 2001 NZNSCV, therefore, a further study on 'The Needs of Pacific people when they are the victims of crime' was undertaken for the Ministry of Justice with support from the Health Research Council. This study was designed to ascertain the appropriateness of existing victim support and community-based services for Pacific peoples, and find out more about the extent to which Pacific victims used informal processes to restore their wellbeing. The project will also identify the related health needs of Pacific victims, and obtain information as to how these might be better met. This project was qualitative, and involved 100 Pacific people who have been victims of violence, family violence, and property offences. Two methods were used to locate participants. One was asking Pacific people who had previously participated in the 2001 NZNSCV if they would agree to be approached about taking part in a further study. The other method was to locate people through the researchers' networks. Most of the participants came from this second method. The interviewers used came from six Pacific ethnic groups – Samoan, Tongan, Cook Islands, Niuean, Tokelauan, Fijian. For more information, see Koloto (2003). An earlier study (Cram et al. 1999), also using a qualitative methodology, focused on meeting the needs of Māori victims of crime.

The reason why non-response is a possible concern is that those who do not agree to participate in a survey may differ in some ways from those who do agree to participate. Particularly with respect to surveys about victimisation, there are (untested) claims that those who do not agree to participate in such surveys are likely to be a highly victimised group.⁴² However, an exploratory study of non-response rates with respect to the 1996 British Crime Survey suggests that this is not so. Lynn (1997) drew attention to a number of characteristics which distinguished non-participants from participants: for example, they differed in the type of housing and area in which they lived and in their ethnicity. But, with respect to victimisation rates (based on a series of short screener questions to non-participants) there was no obvious pattern of difference in the levels of victimisation: non-participants reported lower levels of victimisation for three items and there were no significant differences in the other three items. Lynn (1997, 18) tentatively concluded from this (and from anecdotal evidence from interviewers) that the experience of crime was one of the reasons why participants agreed to be interviewed. More confidently, he concluded that there was no evidence to suppose that non-participants had higher rates of victimisation than participants.

This may mean that the low response rates in the 2001 NZNSCV, and especially the low response rates of Māori and Pacific peoples, is less problematic than it might appear. However, we do not know this for sure and we have to acknowledge that the differences in the response rates between the 2001 NZNSCV and the 1996 NZNSCV, and particularly the low response rates among Māori and Pacific peoples, may have impacted on both the validity of comparisons between the two surveys and on the reliability of the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV, especially with respect to Māori and Pacific peoples.

1.4.5 Method of data collection

As with the 1996 NZNSCV, the 2001 NZNSCV was undertaken by means of a structured interview. Only one interview per household was carried out to avoid duplication of the same victimisation (for household offences) and to avoid the possibility of contamination.⁴³ The procedure for selecting the particular participant for interview was one commonly used in household surveys of this type: the interviewer obtained a list of the names and birth month of every household resident from the person who answered the door and then selected for interview the one who had the next birthday.

In the 1996 NZNSCV, the interviewer used a 'hard copy' paper questionnaire. Since 1994, the British Crime Survey has used Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) which involves interviewers carrying laptop computers and recording data directly into it. The ABS Methodological Review of the 1996 NZNSCV noted that this practice '*has proved to be highly successful*' (2000, 49). It was, therefore, decided to use CAPI in the 2001 NZNSCV. The advantages are that CAPI handles the complex sequencing which the NZNSCV questionnaire

42 For example, it was claimed by Young (1988) that those who do not agree to participate in a survey on victimisation may have been too afraid of crime to answer the door.

43 Response contamination encompasses a wide range of possible effects due to the relationships between participants within a household. For example, a victim of sexual or partner abuse might be less willing to disclose it if they knew that their partner had been asked similar questions, particularly if the interview could not be conducted in complete privacy. Or the second participant in a household could be told by the first about the questions that they were asked and the answers which they gave, and they might then, as a result, give the same answers (perhaps to maintain consistency) or different answers (perhaps through having more time to recall incidents).

of necessity involves much better than paper questionnaires can. The many skip procedures in the questionnaire are more easily managed, there are consequently fewer missing data (a considerable problem in the 1996 NZNSCV) and there are some savings in paper and coding.⁴⁴

For the more sensitive questions in the 1996 NZNSCV, participants filled in themselves a 'hard copy' questionnaire. This did not work well and there was a large amount of missing information. Since 1996, the British Crime Survey has used Computer Assisted Self Interviewing (CASI) to measure violence committed by and against partners and ex-partners. This involves interviewers turning the laptop over to participants to complete these sections of the questionnaire. It was decided to use CASI in the 2001 NZNSCV since it allows maximum confidentiality and privacy to participants, while at the same time reducing their ability to miss answering questions: as just noted, a considerable problem in the 1996 NZNSCV.

One potential disadvantage of CASI (noted by Williams and McKenzie 2000) is participants' fear of computers. However, the Technical Report of the 1998 British Crime Survey (Hales and Stratford 1999) pointed out that three percent of participants refused to do the self-completion section, but that only 13% of this three percent gave 'didn't like computers' as their reason for refusing. Even if the proportion of computer-phobic people is, in reality, higher than this (for example, some of those who said that they 'couldn't be bothered' may have been concealing their fear of computers), this low level of refusals does not present a major problem for using CASI. Indeed, the pilot stage of the 2001 NZNSCV showed that most participants were comfortable with CASI. However, older people were less comfortable. 'Hard copy' versions of the self-completion components of the survey, therefore, were retained as an option. Overall, only two percent of participants used a 'hard copy' of the questionnaire for the self-completion component.⁴⁵

Using CAPI and CASI has had a significant but immeasurable effect on the comparability of the 2001 NZNSCV with the 1996 NZNSCV. On the positive side, the change to CAPI and CASI has provided more complete data than in the 1996 NZNSCV (there are fewer missing data) and it will, thereby, have increased the validity and reliability of the estimates made on the basis of the 2001 NZNSCV. But, on the negative side, it makes monitoring changes between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV problematic since the different methods used to capture the information will undoubtedly have produced different levels of estimates. Importantly, a probable effect of using CAPI, and especially of using CASI, is that a greater proportion of victimisations were reported. Discussion of any marked changes between the findings reported in the two surveys has, therefore, to take this into account.

44 The questionnaire used in the 2001 NZNSCV was presented in an 'online' format. What this meant was that the questionnaire was very simple to follow on screen because the online software allowed interviewers and participants to simply 'point and click' the mouse for the most part.

45 More than two-thirds of these were women and a third were aged 70 and over. Indeed, almost three-quarters of those using the hard copy of the self-completion questionnaire were aged 40 and over. A fifth of those using the hard copy of the self-completion questionnaire identified as a Pacific person.

1.4.6 Questionnaire design and development

Although, as noted earlier, comparability with the questions in the 1996 NZNSCV was important, the ABS review commented on the placement of the questions on the participants' demographic characteristics, the use of rating scales, the inclusion of 'unnecessary' questions, the variable recall period, the nature and placement of skip instructions, and the format, layout and wording of the self-completion questionnaire. Comments on the questionnaire used in the 1996 NZNSCV and suggestions for redrafting, cuts and new questions were also made by various government departments and other agencies (such as Victim Support). These were all taken into account by the various members of the research team in redesigning and developing the questionnaire for the 2001 NZNSCV.

Compromises had to be reached between maintaining comparability, simplifying the questions used in the 1996 NZNSCV which turned out to be too complex, and ensuring that the questionnaire did not become unduly burdensome on participants. The questions cut initially were primarily those not used in the analysis of the data from the 1996 NZNSCV. Examples are the questions about the kind of neighbourhoods participants lived in (Q1, 1996 NZNSCV), about how many cars, vans, trucks or motor cycles members of the household owned or had regular use of (Q30 and Q32, 1996 NZNSCV) and about whether or not participants changed where they went or what they did to protect themselves (Q16, 1996 NZNSCV). After the pilot, further questions had to be cut because of the length of the questionnaire and the time taken to complete it. An example of this is the question about the time of day at which offences happened (V4, 1996 NZNSCV). Examples of questions which were simplified were the combining of questions about cars, vans and trucks with questions about motor cycles (Q29 and Q31, 1996 NZNSCV). The new questions added included asking participants about how safe they felt at home alone during the day and at night (Q11a and Q11b, 2001 NZNSCV), asking participants who reported a victimisation within the survey about whether they thought this was '*a crime, wrong but not a crime, or just something which happened*' (V40b, 2001 NZNSCV)⁴⁶ and asking participants who said that they would have liked more help as a result of their victimisation about the type of help they would have liked to receive (V46a and 46b, 2001 NZNSCV).⁴⁷ Some changes were also made with respect to the way in which information on occupation and socio-economic status was collected.⁴⁸

The greatest changes were made in the self-completion sections of the questionnaire, but this is not particularly problematic as these questions did not work well in the 1996 NZNSCV – for example, they relied too much on formal language (like penis and vagina) and asked for considerable detail about up to four reports of victimisation. As a result, as noted earlier, there was a large proportion of missing data. The self-completion questionnaire, therefore, was radically redesigned and had three separate components – violence by partners of the opposite sex; violence by people well known to the participant, including same sex partners

46 This was also asked at relevant points in the self-completion sections of the questionnaire.

47 This too was asked at relevant points in the self-completion sections of the questionnaire.

48 Socio-economic status was measured in two different ways. The 1996 NZNSCV used the Elley Irving classification and this was also used in the 2001 NZNSCV to enable comparisons to be made. However, because the Elley Irving classification has become dated, ACNielsen now use the recently-created NZSEI classification (which is described in the Section on 'Definitions of terms') and so data were coded and analysed in this way too. In fact, comparison of these two measures showed that there was little difference between the two and so the data referred to in the text are based on the more recent NZSEI. For more information on the NZSEI, see Davis et al. (1997).

and other family members; and unwanted sexual attention, including some questions on victimisation which occurred when the participant was a child.

Questions were structured, focused and generally pre-coded, although a limited number of open-ended and non-pre-coded questions were used (for example, to obtain a description of the type of victimisation experienced or of the type of crime problems which existed in participants' neighbourhoods). The full questionnaire is included in Appendix 2, but, in brief, it was divided into the following five parts:

- the first part dealt with perceptions of crime and other social problems, perceptions of safety and worries about crime, the use of certain crime prevention strategies and measures, and knowledge about services for crime victims (Main Survey);
- the second part 'screened' participants to find out whether or not they (or, if in the case of household offences, anyone in the household) had been the victim of certain offences⁴⁹ since 1 January 2000 (excluding unwanted sexual attention by anyone and assaults by partners and other people known well to the participant) (Main Survey – Experience as a Victim);
- the third part involved a more detailed 'victim form' which was completed with respect to each reported incident of victimisation (up to a maximum of three)⁵⁰ and covered issues such as the extent of any injury, loss or damage resulting from the victimisation; the practical and emotional consequences of the victimisation; whether or not the victimisation was reported to the Police; the nature and perceived adequacy of the Police response; and the nature, extent of and satisfaction with any support offered or received from any group. If more than three incidents of the victimisation were disclosed, interviewers, following a grid, selected the three incidents at random from all the incidents recorded in the main questionnaire (Victim Form).⁵¹
- the fourth part elicited demographic information about the participant and the household (Demographics);

49 Participants were asked about attempts as well as completed offences and, for the purpose of most analyses, no distinction was made between attempted and completed offences. This is consistent with the practice in the 1996 NZNSCV.

50 In the 1996 NZNSCV, 'victim form' information was not collected for more than a quarter of the reported offences and this limited the extent of the analyses that were possible. The most likely explanation for this missing information was participants' fatigue and so the number of victim forms which victims were asked to complete in the 2001 NZNSCV was reduced from four to three. The ABS had recommended increasing the number of victim forms to five, to reduce the amount of missing information, but, due to serious concerns about the resulting burden on participants, this recommendation was not accepted.

51 This also represents a change from the 1996 NZNSCV. The ABS (2001, 11) were critical of the way in which offences were selected for the completion of victim forms when participants had reported more than four incidents. In the 1996 NZNSCV, the four most serious offences were selected, and so some offences had no chance of being selected. In the 2001 NZNSCV, offences were selected randomly, with a skew towards more serious offence types. This reduced the number of victim reports available for some more serious but less frequent offences like robbery. However with some weighting, unbiased survey results could be produced, which was not possible from the 1996 data.

- the final part involved the self-completion questionnaire and this was divided into three sections. The first focused on violence by heterosexual partners; the second focused on assaults by other people well known to the victim, including same sex partners; and the third focused on unwanted sexual attention (including a few questions on unwanted sexual attention as a child). Two of these sections comprised a set of 'screener' questions to find out whether or not the participant had **ever** been victimised in this way (participants were not asked about this in the section on assaults by other people well known to the victim). Each section asked participants if they had been victimised in this way since 1 January 2000 and, if they had been, they were asked how many times this had occurred. In addition, participants were asked in the section on unwanted sexual attention about whether or not they had been the victim of such behaviour before the age of 17. In the first two sections of the self-completion questionnaire, participants who disclosed any victimisation since January 2000 were also asked for more information on the most recent incident which had occurred.⁵² This included information on the extent of any injury; the emotional consequences of the victimisation; whether or not the victimisation was reported to the Police; the nature and perceived adequacy of the Police response; and the nature, extent of and satisfaction with any support offered or received from any group (Self-Completion Questionnaire).

1.4.7 Pilot and pre-testing

The ABS review discussed the pilot testing undertaken prior to the 1996 NZNSCV and commented on the relatively small scale of the pilot test which, therefore, had '*provided limited opportunity to identify errors with questions*'. It felt that the pilot test format was essentially a test of field procedures and, therefore, was '*unlikely to allow for in-depth testing of participants' understanding of the questions*' (2000, 22). As a result, more time was spent on pre-testing and piloting the 2001 NZNSCV.

The questionnaire was pre-tested to assess people's understanding of the questions and to identify any problems with layout, sequencing, skip procedures, sensitivity and so on. Initial pre-testing of the draft questionnaire was undertaken mainly by researchers involved in the project and a second phase of pre-testing was undertaken by ACNielsen fieldworkers. This procedure continued until the research team and the Ministry were satisfied with the questionnaire. It was then piloted.

The main functions of the pilot were to test field logistical procedures (for example, to test assumptions about response rates, call procedures, interview length, participants' sensitivity and security issues), and to test inter-cluster variability in order to check the contribution which design effects could make to potential sampling error on average. It was also used to assess the questionnaire's comprehensibility, its logical flow and the sequencing, clarity and sensitivity of the questions.

52 Strictly speaking, choosing the most recent incident is only a quasi-random selection method. The data have been analysed as if these incidents were selected at random, which assumes that responses regarding the most recent incident were similar to other incidents on average. Barring unforeseen seasonal effects, this seems to be a reasonable assumption. In the 1996 NZNSCV, in contrast, participants were asked to complete four victim forms but the completion rate was so low that none of these forms were analysed.

Twenty NAUs were selected for the pilot in the Auckland, Bay of Plenty and Canterbury regions, covering a range of urban, small town and rural locations. Two of the regions were selected because of their high density of Māori (Auckland and Rotorua), and one was selected because of its high density of Pacific peoples (Auckland). These three areas were treated as booster sample areas. The pilot was conducted between Saturday 26 May and Sunday 10 June 2001. In all, 78 interviews were completed from the 17 main sample area units. These were achieved from 119 occupied households, which equates to a response rate of 66%.⁵³ This ranged from 61% in Auckland to 68% in Rotorua and 71% in Christchurch. Six completed interviews (three Māori and three Pacific) were obtained in the three booster areas, from 10 eligible households.⁵⁴ One of the main issues raised by the pilot was the length of time the interview took, particularly when participants had to complete a number of victim forms.⁵⁵ As noted earlier, this resulted in further cuts to the questionnaire.

1.4.8 Interviewers' selection and training

Close attention was paid to interviewers' selection, bearing in mind the sensitive and personal nature of aspects of the interview and the stringent ethical considerations which had to apply. Female interviewers were used wherever possible (only seven percent of interviewers were male); most interviewers were over 30 and many were over 45; and attempts were made to recruit Māori and Pacific interviewers for the two booster samples. As noted above, this turned out to be difficult to achieve. In all, 15% of interviewers identified as Māori and seven percent identified as from Pacific Island nations. However, all interviewers received training and briefing on cultural and safety issues, including input from Māori and Pacific researchers. In addition, where language was a barrier to an interview being conducted, and an interviewer who was fluent in the language in question was available in that area, interviewers were instructed to offer to make arrangements for that interviewer to call back. However, all interviews were conducted in English.⁵⁶ Contact details of local helping agencies (like Victim Support and Women's Refuge) were also compiled and given to all participants, regardless of the interviewer's judgement about the participant's situation or need for them.

53 Refusal to take part accounted for just over half of the unsuccessful contacts (18 out of 31). The remaining 13 resulted from the selected participant being unavailable for interview during the pilot period. The 18 who declined to take part were asked whether or not they had any particular reason for doing so. Five said they did not participate in surveys, three said they were too busy, one agreed to take part but subsequently broke two appointments, one was unwell, and the remaining eight gave no particular reason.

54 One of the four was a refusal by the household, one was not able to be interviewed in the timeframe and two were refusals by the selected participants. Two of the three Māori who refused said they did so because they felt uncomfortable about the fact that they were being specifically targeted because they were Māori. For the booster samples in the main survey, therefore, interviewers were briefed so that they could explain more about why Māori and Pacific peoples were being invited to participate.

55 In the pilot, the mean interview length was 49 minutes, but it ranged from between 20 and 29 minutes to more than 80 minutes. The average length of interview for those who did not complete a victim form was just under 29 minutes, but, for those who did complete a victim form, the average was 51 minutes. However, about ten minutes of this was taken up by interviewers getting settled in the household and setting up the laptop and then disengaging from the participant and leaving. Interviews with participants in the booster samples were also significantly longer. This may have been because more time had to be spent in establishing rapport initially and in disengaging at the end of the interview. However, it was also probably indicative of the greater level of victimisation experienced by both Māori and Pacific participants.

56 It has been suggested that the fact that the questionnaire was only available in English in the first instance was discourteous to Māori and that this too might have been a barrier to Māori participation in the 2001 NZNSCV.

1.4.9 Quality of victim form data

A total of 7520 incidents were experienced by the 5000 participants in the 1996 NZNSCV, and victim forms were completed for 3794 of these. Information on the remaining 3726 victim forms was missing for two reasons: participants were asked to complete four victim forms at most and so, if they experienced more than four victimisations, there would be no victim form for these victimisations by design; and some participants did not complete as many victims forms as they were meant to, possibly due to interviewers making mistakes or to participants refusing to complete a form. A further problem in the 1996 NZNSCV was the low number of victim forms completed for some offence types: for example, robbery had only 54 victim forms. This naturally meant that analyses for these offence types were less than reliable.

Two changes were made in the 2001 NZNSCV that were intended to improve matters. First, the introduction of CAPI and CASI meant that there was automated questionnaire routing and this greatly reduced the number of victim forms missing other than by design. The victim form was an integral part of the self-completion questionnaire, making it impossible for participants to finish without completing it if required to do so, and interviewers were automatically taken through the correct number of victim forms in the main questionnaire by the software. As a result, no information from victim forms in the self-completion questionnaire was missing. Fifty-five participants who reported three or more incidents in the main questionnaire did complete less than three victim forms (leaving 57 victim forms missing). Theoretically, this should not have happened at all, but the data collection software sometimes suffered problems at the junction between the main questionnaire and the victim forms if the interviewer had to step back over this junction to correct information entered earlier. However, this represents a marked improvement over the 799 incidents of victimisation in the 1996 NZNSCV which were without victim forms for reasons other than by design.

The second change made in the 2001 NZNSCV was that incidents were randomly selected for completion of a victim form,⁵⁷ which meant that the resulting data could be weighted to give unbiased survey estimates (unless the sample of individuals interviewed already suffered from bias, due to non-response or other factors). In particular, this enabled the relevance patterns for the 3684 completed victim forms in the 2001 NZNSCV to be used directly to impute relevance status for the remaining 6225 incidents of victimisation without requiring further assumptions about them.

1.4.10 Survey weights

As with most sample surveys, weights need to be applied to the data to produce representative results. These survey weights adjust for various factors such as the sample design, differential non-responses, and sample skews relative to known population figures. The sample design for the 2001 NZNSCV involved a hierarchy with four levels: Nielsen Area

57 The detailed method used to randomly select incidents for victim forms is available on request from the Ministry of Justice. In brief, it was designed to increase the proportion of victim forms completed for relatively rare offence types. This did not have a dramatic impact, but helped to minimise the increase in sampling error that would otherwise have resulted from decreasing the maximum number of victim forms required to be completed.

Units, households, individuals, and victimisation incidents (for victim form data). At each level, further sub-sampling took place, and so different weights were required for analyses of households, individuals and incidents.

Initial household weights were calculated as the reciprocal of each household's selection probability, taking the booster samples into account. A non-response adjustment was made to these weights, adjusting for differential non-response by region, urbanisation, interviewers' experience and ethnicity, and the sample in which the household was selected (Māori booster, Pacific booster or main sample). Finally, the weights were post-stratified by urbanisation.

Individual weights were calculated in a similar way, although the initial weights were multiplied by the number of people living in the household who were eligible to be interviewed (to adjust for only one being interviewed), and the weights were post-stratified by age, sex and ethnicity instead of urbanisation. Incident weights⁵⁸ were derived from individual weights by simply multiplying them by the probability that the current incident was selected.⁵⁹

1.4.11 Imputation

In the 1996 NZNSCV, two forms of imputation were undertaken. First, a date was randomly imputed for any incidents for which a date was not recorded. Also, complete victim forms were imputed for all incidents from the main questionnaire for which no victim form data were collected, using a hot-deck imputation process.⁶⁰ In the 2001 NZNSCV, imputation of dates was carried out in a similar manner. However, the full data for incidents without victim forms were not imputed wholesale as in 1996. Analyses of victim form data used incident weights instead,⁶¹ which was possible due to the random selection of the incidents of victimisation for victim forms.

It was also realised that the proportion of 'non-relevant' incidents of victimisation was moderately high (as described in section 1.5 below), and that counting all incidents without victim forms as relevant would over-estimate the incidence and prevalence of victimisation. Relevance status and the date of incidents were imputed for all incidents of victimisation without victim forms, based on the patterns observed in the available victim forms, and incidence and prevalence calculations were restricted to relevant incidents that occurred during the 2000 calendar year. This effectively reduced the incidence and prevalence figures by an appropriate amount to take the occurrence of 'non-relevant' incidents into account.⁶²

58 Some incidents had very small selection probabilities and so, to reduce sampling variability, a value of 0.1 was used if the probability fell below this value.

59 The weighting procedures are documented in more detail and are available on request from the Ministry of Justice.

60 This process is fully described in Appendix 2 of Young et al. 1997.

61 The 57 incidents with missing victim forms were omitted from the analyses of victim form data, but were included in incidence and prevalence figures as appropriate.

62 More detail about the imputation procedures is available on request from the Ministry of Justice.

1.5 ‘Relevant’ and ‘non-relevant’ incidents of victimisation

As already stated, the 2001 NZNSCV discusses only certain types of personal and household victimisation and so steps had to be taken to ensure, first, that the victimisations reported occurred during the calendar year 2000 and, second, that they would meet legal definitions of criminal behaviour. Thus all reported incidents of victimisation for which descriptions were collected⁶³ were scrutinised and were counted as a victimisation only if the facts as presented seemed to fit the appropriate legal definitions.

1.5.1 ‘Personal’ and ‘household’ victimisation

Participants sometimes reported to interviewers experiences of victimisations which had happened to someone else – for example, to a family member or neighbour. With personal victimisation, the outcome here was clear-cut: this victimisation was not included within the survey count. However, with household victimisations, it was more complex: take the statement *‘my son’s car was stolen from outside the house’*. This victimisation could be eligible for inclusion in the survey count if the son resided with the participant and the theft was outside the participant’s house. However, if the son did not reside with the participant and the car was stolen from outside the son’s house, it was not eligible for inclusion. More often than not, coders would not have this information. A rule was adopted, in these situations, that the victimisation would be **included** unless it was clear from the context that the person mentioned was not living with the participant: for example, *‘my son’s car was stolen from outside the house when he was visiting us’*.

1.5.2 Meeting legal definitions

It is clear that participants had general anxieties about crime and social disorder that did not meet legal definitions of crime. Consider the following two accounts:

Although no one directly uses drugs within the family, there have been repercussions on the family with teenagers influencing and encouraging my daughters to do things that they wouldn’t normally do. Peer pressure from youths inappropriately supervised is a big problem in the area. More needs to be done to stop bad habits before they get a chance to take hold on one and all. More support groups for youths to assist when peer pressure gets too much. Stop the crime before it starts.

General concerns regarding exposure to intermediate school age children, young individuals who frequent the house and often appear intoxicated when they go out. There is a nebulous relationship between the activity of this house and dangerous driving and graffiti and rubbish. General concerns re. safety of elderly people in the neighbourhood. Have informed the Police on one occasion re. intoxicated person who appeared unsafe but no action taken.

These participants wanted to report their experience of ‘crime’. But neither of these accounts clearly reveals criminal victimisation or, more specifically, the type of victimisations which are

63 This means all those incidents of victimisation for which victim forms were completed, plus those reported in response to Q36, which asked participants whether there was any other type of victimisation not previously mentioned, which they or their household had experienced since January 2000.

the subject matter of the 2001 NZNSCV and so these experiences were not included in the count of victimisations.

Other descriptions of incidents were more difficult to code. Take, for example, the common description: *'someone tried the door in the middle of the night'*. This may be an attempted burglary but, as the person went away when s/he could not get in, it probably is not. Or it may be an attempt to unlawfully enter a building, an attempted theft, an attempted rape and so on. It is impossible to know and so these are not counted as victimisations within the 2001 NZNSCV⁶⁴ although such incidents, while not clearly criminal behaviour, probably do give rise to general concerns and worry about crime. Overall, around a fifth of the incidents of victimisation for which victim forms were completed within the 2001 NZNSCV were coded as 'not relevant'⁶⁵ though this varied according to type of offence.⁶⁶

1.6 Analysis and presentation of data

Data were recorded using SkyWeb, a module of the SurveyCraft suite of market research software, and were analysed using SAS, Perl, PostgreSQL and R. The analyses reported here were conducted on four categories of variables:

- household variables (that is to say, household structure, household tenure, employment status, socio-economic status, urbanisation⁶⁷ and region⁶⁸);
- core individual variables (that is to say, sex, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status, urbanisation, and repeat victimisation⁶⁹);
- most individual variables (that is to say, household structure, sex, age, ethnicity, employment status, socio-economic status, urbanisation, region, repeat victimisation, sex by age, sex by ethnicity, and age by ethnicity) and
- age/sex/ethnicity and socio-economic status.⁷⁰

64 Reports like this were coded as 'no offence' in the 1996 NZNSCV and were not entered into the original data-set. However, it was decided in the 2001 NZNSCV to code these incidents as 'not relevant', but to keep them in the data-set for the purposes of imputation. The main reason for this was that all data were entered during the CAPI, and these incidents were not classified as 'non-relevant' until later. To make valid comparisons between the 2001 NZNSCV and the 1996 NZNSCV, the incidents coded as 'non-relevant' and excluded from the data-set of the 1996 NZNSCV have now been entered into its data-set. The reason for keeping 'non-relevant' offences in a data-set is that we have to take the proportion of 'non-relevant' incidents into account when counting victimisations where there was no victim form to get unbiased incidence and prevalence figures. As explained earlier, we have done this using imputation. If the 'non-relevant' incidents were completely deleted, we would have no data to base this on.

65 The corresponding figure was not reported by Young et al. (1997). The 'no offence' victim forms from the 1996 survey have now been identified and details entered; this showed that a tenth of the 1996 victim forms were coded 'no offence'. This means that the estimated effect of the imputation of relevance on 1995 figures is generally smaller than for 2000 figures. However, the unknown nature of non-response in 1995 means that there is greater uncertainty about the effect of missing data on 1995 results. More details are available from the Ministry of Justice on request.

66 For example, just under a quarter (24%) of burglaries and almost two-fifths (39%) of violent offences for which victim forms were completed were coded as 'not relevant'.

67 For codings, see 'Definitions of terms'.

68 For codings, see 'Definitions of terms'.

69 For a description of the two ways we have used to calculate this, see 'Definitions of terms'.

The ethnicity of each participant was collected using a question virtually identical to that in the 2001 Census. Although the wording of the question was altered slightly to suit the face-to-face interview, it was essentially the same and the same response options were given. Ethnic groups were recorded according to these response options, which come from level two of the New Zealand Standard Classification of Ethnicity 1996. Where a participant selected multiple ethnic groups, each of these groups was recorded. Ethnic groups were collapsed to level 0 of the New Zealand Standard Classification of Ethnicity 1996 before analysis. The analyses reported here allowed for the fact that some participants belong to multiple ethnic groups by counting all applicable ethnic groups for each respondent. For example, a participant who identified with both Māori and Pacific ethnic groups was included in both groups for analysis. In contrast, the analyses of the 1996 NZNSCV reported by Young et al (1997) classed all people of mixed ethnicity as 'Other', along with smaller ethnic groups such as Chinese and Indian. For example, the results for Māori in that Report included only people whose sole ethnicity was Māori, and excluded all Māori of mixed ethnicity. To allow comparisons between 1996 and 2001 data, the relevant 1995 figures have been recalculated allowing for participants who identified with multiple ethnic groups.

Chapter 2 examines the nature, extent and distribution of victimisation and the extent to which it went unreported or unrecorded and describes the characteristics of victims. Particular attention is paid in this Chapter to the extent of repeat victimisation and the characteristics of repeat victims. Chapter 3 examines the reasons why victims reported or did not report their victimisation to the Police and then looks at the extent to which those who did report to the Police were satisfied with the way in which their case was handled. Particular attention is again paid to differences between one-time victims and repeat victims. Chapter 4 examines the nature, extent and distribution of violence by people not well known to the victim and Chapter 5 discusses violence by heterosexual partners and violence by other people known well to the victim, including same sex partners and family members. Chapter 6 provides information on sexual interference and sexual assault and Chapter 7 provides information on residential burglary. In these four chapters again, reference is made to repeat victims where possible. Chapter 8 discusses the effects of victimisation upon victims, their needs for assistance and the extent to which those needs were met by support agencies. This Chapter also contrasts the experiences of one-time and repeat victims. Chapter 9 describes participants' perceptions of crime problems in their local neighbourhood, their perceptions of their safety and their worries about victimisation. It also attempts to identify both those who feel most unsafe and those who are most worried about victimisation, and explores the extent to which these concerns are 'justified'. Chapter 10 examines the extent to which people make use of various crime prevention strategies. In each Chapter, there is a summary of its key findings and a brief discussion of the policy implications of the survey's findings and throughout, where appropriate, comparisons are made between the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV and those of the 1996 NZNSCV, though the caveats mentioned earlier in this Chapter and summarised in the next section must be kept in mind here.

70 Of course, these variables interact. Women and men, all ethnic groups and all age groups also occupy various socio-economic status groups and so on. And certain sex, age or ethnic groups are more likely to occupy certain socio-economic status groups than others. The question of whether some groups – for example, Māori or Pacific peoples – are more victimised because they are Māori or because they are more likely to occupy certain socio-economic status groups is, therefore, not addressed in this Report. Further research – for example, multi-variate analyses which would identify which variables were more important – would be very worthwhile here.

All statements made in the sections on 'Summary of key findings' have been tested for statistical significance and, in the main, the differences mentioned are statistically significant. There are a few exceptions where we have noted differences which seem to be of practical significance but which did not reach statistical significance (partly because the largest shifts were in 1995 figures which had large sampling errors). Also, it was not justifiable to conduct significance tests for results based on 1995 victim form data because of the large amount of 'non-ignorable' missing data and the extensive imputation required (see Young et al. 1997, 10; Rubin 1987, 50). We make it clear when a difference in the 'Summary of key findings' is statistically significant.

We have used 95% confidence intervals and 99% significance tests. Confidence intervals indicate the uncertainty in the survey's results due to random sampling variability. That is to say, they show the extent to which the survey results might differ if a different sample was chosen (using the same sample design). For example, a key finding might apply to 34% of people, with a 95% confidence interval of (31%, 37%). Suppose that another survey was conducted over the same period and in an identical fashion, except that a different sample was chosen (using the same sample design as the first survey). Then, although this survey would probably not give exactly the same finding as the original survey, 95 times out of 100 this new result would fall within the original confidence interval of (31%, 37%). Using the 1% level as the threshold for statistical significance means that, whenever a difference is said to be statistically significant, the probability that the result is due to chance is less than 1 in 100.⁷¹ This provides some protection against the inevitable decline in the effective significance level that results from making multiple tests. While percentages in the text (but not in the Tables) have been rounded, all tests used unrounded frequencies and standard errors. More details on significance tests and confidence intervals are available from the Ministry of Justice on request.

There are many tables in this Report and we need to make a few comments about their presentation to avoid confusion about what and whom the statistics in the tables refer to. First, all tables show the relevant sample sizes and reference to the term 'sample size' at the foot of a table means the raw number of people (or households or incidents) that are included in the table, ignoring any weights. Second, data derived from the victim forms refer to victimisations rather than to victims (some victims will have completed more than one victim form). This is clear in the tables as the sample size refers to 'incidents'. Strictly speaking, the discussion based on data from the victim form should always refer to the percentage of victimisations but, for ease of reading, it sometimes refers to the percentage of victims.⁷² This is consistent with Young et al. (1997) and thus also enables easier comparisons to be made between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV. Third, the numbers in the first column of Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 are weighted estimates of the number of victimisations experienced by all people or households in the New Zealand population for each type of

71 However, it also means that if 100 such tests are undertaken, there will on average be one test that attains statistical significance even in the absence of any real differences. Consequently, some of the results noted as statistically significant in the Report may be artefacts of the $p < 0.01$ criterion applied to each test. In reality, however, this problem is unlikely to be extensive because many effects and differences were much more strongly significant than $p < 0.01$. At $p < 0.0001$ for example, only one false positive in 10,000 tests is to be expected in the absence of real differences.

72 To demonstrate the difference: in Chapter 4, we refer to injuries which resulted from assaults; we should have said that a percentage of the victimisations reported had resulted in injuries. Instead, we refer to the percent of victims who were injured.

victimisation. Every other table contains percentages or rates, which are based on weighted survey data. Fourth, the size of some sub-samples was quite small and so caution has to be exercised in interpreting these tables.⁷³ And, finally, an important caveat: although the statistics in all the tables in this Report are shown to the nearest incident (for number of victimisations) and to one decimal place (for victimisation rates), the results are definitely not so accurate as this. They are provided in such detail to facilitate secondary research, and should not be taken as implying this level of precision.

1.7 Summarising the main differences in the methodology and design of the 1996 and 2001 NZNSCV

As we have stated, statistics routinely collected by the Police provide a certain picture of the nature and extent of crime. Surveys of crime victims can add to this information. Both have their strengths and their limitations. Taken together, however, they provide a more reliable and balanced picture of victimisation. The focus of this Report is the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV.

Like the 1996 NZNSCV, the 2001 NZNSCV interviewed a random sample of the population aged 15 and over. In addition, for the 2001 NZNSCV, there were two 'booster' samples of Māori households and Pacific households. Around 5300 people in total were interviewed. The 2001 NZNSCV, again like the 1996 NZNSCV, focused on offences where the participant had personally been a victim (examples of these are sexual victimisation, assault, robbery, theft from the person, general theft and wilful damage) or where all members of the household could be regarded as victims and so the participant answered on behalf of the whole household (examples of these are burglary, theft from inside or outside a dwelling, theft of or from motor vehicles and interference with motor vehicles). Participants were asked not only about the extent to which they had been the victims of these offences since 1 January 2000, but also about the circumstances and impact of those offences and their response to them, as well as a range of other victim-related information.

In summary, the principal changes between the 1996 and the 2001 NZNSCV are:

- the substitution of CAPI and CASI for hard copy 'paper and pencil' questionnaires;
- the inclusion of a booster sample of Pacific peoples;
- the deletion of some questions and the addition of others;
- the redesign of the self-completion questionnaire;
- the reduction in the number of victim forms to be completed;

⁷³ Some sample sizes were so small, especially where cross-tabulations were done on demographic factors, that, although analyses were carried out, they have not been reported as the findings derived from them would have been unreliable.

- the random selection of reported incidents for the completion of victim forms when more than three victimisations were reported; and
- the removal of all ‘non-relevant’ and out-of-scope incidents from incidence and prevalence figures, by imputing this information when no victim form was completed.

Some of these changes have undoubtedly impacted on the extent to which comparisons can be made between the 2001 NZNSCV and the 1996 NZNSCV: apparent changes may be the result of the methodological changes rather than ‘real’. However, these changes have also led to more reliable data. For example, findings with respect to the victimisation of Pacific peoples are more reliable in the 2001 NZNSCV than those in the 1996 NZNSCV; there is much less missing information in the 2001 NZNSCV than in the 1996 NZNSCV due to the introduction of CAPI and CASI; the victim form data now provide a basis for unbiased survey estimates; and, because of changes in the language used to explore sexual victimisation, it is likely that the estimates in the 2001 NZNSCV are more reliable than those in the 1996 NZNSCV. The 2001 NZNSCV, therefore, sets the baseline for future surveys.

2 The nature, extent and distribution of victimisation

2.1 Introduction

A key objective of the 2001 NZNSCV was to explore the nature, extent and distribution of the types of victimisation which households and individuals experienced. To this end, participants were asked to report on, and provide detailed information about, particular forms of victimisation experienced by members of their household, or by themselves personally, since 1 January 2000. The household victimisations on which the 2001 NZNSCV focused were burglary, theft from inside or outside a dwelling, theft of or from motor vehicles and interference with motor vehicles; and the personal victimisations on which the 2001 NZNSCV focused were sexual interference or sexual assault, assault, robbery, theft from the person, abduction and kidnapping, general theft and wilful damage.

This Chapter first looks at the nature and extent of victimisations said to have occurred in the 2000 calendar year (Section 2.2). It then compares, in Section 2.3, the 2001 NZNSCV data with Police statistics over the same period and examines the extent to which the Police got to know about the victimisations reported by participants within the 2001 NZNSCV. In Section 2.4, the prevalence of victimisation is set out and Section 2.5 discusses the extent to which different demographic groups were victimised in an attempt to identify those who are most at risk of victimisation; it pays particular attention here to the extent of repeat victimisation and attempts also to identify those who are most at risk of this. Finally, in Section 2.6, the key findings of this part of the 2001 NZNSCV are summarised and, in Section 2.7, their policy implications are briefly discussed. At appropriate points, this Chapter also discusses the extent to which changes have occurred between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV, but, as mentioned in Chapter 1, care needs to be taken in interpreting these data.

2.2 The incidence of victimisation

The incidence of victimisation refers to the average number of victimisations per household or individual. The 2001 NZNSCV provides estimates of the number of victimisations experienced by households and individuals in New Zealand in 2000, both individually and in aggregate. These estimates were derived by calculating the rates of household and individual victimisations in the sample and grossing these up to the total households and to the total

adult population aged 15 and over respectively in New Zealand.⁷⁴ They are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Survey estimates of victimisations in 2000 by type of victimisation⁷⁵

	Number of victimisations	95% Confidence intervals	Average victimisation rate per 100 individuals/ households
Burglary	95,267	78,617 - 111,918	7.0
Theft from inside or outside property	162,568	124,546 – 200,589	11.9
Theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle	24,492	18,484 – 30,500	1.8
Unlawful interference with motor vehicle	55,851	42,594 – 69,108	4.1
Theft from a motor vehicle	86,395	70,108 – 102,682	6.3
Total household victimisations	422,839	387,018 – 458,659	30.9
Total motor vehicle offences⁷⁶	207,756	189,202 - 226,310	15.2
Sexual interference/assault (women) ⁷⁷	68,509	53,242 – 83,777	2.3
Sexual interference/assault (men)	2,975	0 - 9,849	0.1
Indecent assault ⁷⁸	2,376	801 – 3,952	0.1
Grievous assault	4,670	633 – 8,706	0.2
Other assault	341,226	310,480 – 371,971	11.5
<i>Assault by current partner⁷⁹</i>	<i>68,389</i>	<i>58,735 – 78,044</i>	<i>2.3</i>

Continued over page

74 Because estimates were derived from a sample, they are subject to sampling error which is reflected in the confidence intervals in Table 2.1. Confidence intervals indicate the range within which the estimated number of victimisations from another survey over the same period would fall with 95% certainty. Thus, in burglary, the number of victimisations probably lies between 78,617 and 111,918. The sampling errors in relation to some individual victimisations - for example, robbery - are fairly large and these estimates must be treated with caution.

75 The figures for 'violence' and 'total victimisation' include offences by partners and people well known to the victim throughout Chapter 2 except for Table 2.9.

76 In the 1996 NZNSCV, damage to vehicles was coded as damage and, to maintain comparability, it was again coded as damage and is included as such in this Table. However, in the 2001 NZNSCV, damage to vehicles was also given a separate code and this enabled a specific new category of motor vehicle offences to be created. This includes 'unlawful interference with motor vehicles', 'theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle' and 'theft from a motor vehicle' as well as 'damage to vehicles'. Damage to vehicles is treated as a household offence when included in the 'Motor vehicle offences' category, but it is treated as a personal offence when included in 'Damage', 'Individual property offence', and 'Total victimisation'.

77 This figure, and the figure for men, is calculated from responses to Q391 in the self-completion component of the survey.

78 These victimisations were identified using incident descriptions from other parts of the survey, not from Q391.

79 The assaults in italics are already included in the earlier assault categories.

	Number of victimisations	95% Confidence intervals	Average victimisation rate per 100 individuals/ households
<i>Assault by other people well known</i>	117,414	103,070 – 131,758	3.9
Threats	355,856	319,265 – 392,447	12.0
<i>Threats by current partner</i> ⁸⁰	67,886	55,104 – 80,667	2.3
<i>Threats by other people well known</i>	130,904	113,081 – 148,727	4.4
Abduction/kidnapping	965	0 – 2,557	0.0
Weapon use/threat by current partner	9,329	6,877 – 11,780	0.3
Weapon use/threat by others well known	41,499	23,638 – 59,361	1.4
Total violent victimisations	816,467	735,536 – 897,395	27.4
Theft from person	13,793	9,970 – 17,615	0.5
Bicycle theft	33,510	31,343 – 35,677	1.1
General theft	125,698	109,542 – 141,854	4.2
Damage	222,754	203,061 – 242,446	7.5
Damage/threat by current partner	36,921	23,640 – 50,202	1.2
Damage/threat by others well known	95,972	81,626 – 110,319	3.2
Total victimisations of individual property offences	523,724	500,885 – 546,564	17.6
Robbery	16,628	9,700 – 23,556	0.6
Total victimisations	1,779,657	1,675,300 – 1,884,013	NA ⁸¹

Subject to the caveats in footnote 71 with respect to sampling errors and confidence intervals, Table 2.1 shows that there were an estimated 1,779,657 victimisations experienced by the New Zealand population aged 15 and over in 2000. These comprised:

- 422,839 household victimisations at an average incidence of 31 victimisations per 100 households;
- 816,467 violent victimisations at an average incidence of 27 per 100 individuals;

⁸⁰ The threats in italics are already included in the earlier threat category.

⁸¹ An overall offence 'rate' was reported at this point by Young et al. (1997). However this figure was difficult to interpret, because it did not represent the average number of victimisations per household or per individual. It also could not be calculated for demographic sub-groups of the population. A new overall victimisation rate which overcomes these problems is introduced in section 2.4. The old rate has been omitted from this Report to avoid confusion between the two figures.

- 523,724 individual property victimisations at an average incidence of 18 per 100 individuals;
- 16,628 robbery victimisations at an average incidence of less than one per 100 individuals.

Sometimes, data such as those in Table 2.1 are interpreted as indicating that, for example, on average, one house in so many will be burgled each year (as in the early British Crime Surveys and Young et al. 1997). However, these averages can be misleading. In fact, most people will not be the victim of any offences at all in any one year or even in so many years, and some people will be victimised many more times than an average figure. This point will be elaborated later when repeat victimisation is discussed.

To make comparisons between the incidence of particular types of victimisations reported in the 1996 NZNSCV and in the 2001 NZNSCV, the 1995 figures had to be revised to take account of the need to impute for 'non-relevant' incidents.⁸² Table 2.2 presents these comparisons⁸³ and Figure 2.1 presents the changes for selected offence types graphically.

Table 2.2 Survey estimates of average victimisation rates per 100 individuals/households, 1995 and 2000 compared⁸⁴

	Average rate per 100 1995	Confidence intervals	Average rate per 100 2000	Confidence intervals
Burglary	7.1	6.2 - 7.9	7.0	5.7 - 8.2
Theft from inside or outside property	9.0	7.7 - 10.4	11.9	9.1 - 14.7
Theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle	2.8	2.3 - 3.3	1.8	1.4 - 2.2
Unlawful interference with motor vehicle	3.0	2.3 - 3.7	4.1	3.1 - 5.1
Theft from a motor vehicle	8.6	7.7 - 9.5	6.3	5.1 - 7.5
Total household victimisations	30.2	27.8 - 32.5	30.9	28.3 - 33.5

Continued over page

82 See 'Definitions of terms' and Section 1.4.11 for more detail. The figures reported in the 1996 Report did not take 'non-relevant' incidents into account when no victim form was completed. The inclusion of some 'non-relevant' incidents in the 1996 Report inflated the number of victimisations cited in Young et al. (1997). Once all 'non-relevant' offences were removed using imputation, a drop of 16% occurred with respect to all victimisations. The number of household victimisations dropped by only 5%, but individual property victimisations dropped by 17% and violent victimisations dropped by over 20%. As a result, it is not appropriate to make direct comparisons between any of the data in Chapter 2 of Young et al. (1997) and the data in this Chapter.

83 The differences observed throughout this Chapter between the 1995 and 2000 results may reflect real changes in victimisation patterns, but may also be due to random sampling variation or differences in methodology (particularly changes to the self-completion questionnaire and to methods of selecting incidents for victim forms).

84 For the reasons noted in footnote 78, no rates are provided for total victimisations.

	Average rate per 100 1995	Confidence intervals	Average rate per 100 2000	Confidence intervals
Sexual interference/assault (women)	5.7	0.9 - 10.6	2.3	1.8 - 2.8
Sexual interference/assault (men)	Not available		0.1	0.0 - 0.3
Indecent assault	0.2	Not able to be calculated ⁸⁵	0.1	0.0 - 0.1
Grievous assault	0.3	0.1 - 0.4	0.2	0.0 - 0.3
Other assault	14.9 ⁸⁶	11.7 - 18.0	11.5	10.4 - 12.5
Threats	16.7 ⁸⁷	12.7 - 20.7	12.0	10.7 - 13.2
Abduction/kidnapping	0.1	Not able to be calculated	0.0	0.0 - 0.1
Weapon use/threat by current partner	Not available		0.3	0.2 - 0.4
Weapon use/threat by others well known	Not available		1.4	0.8 - 2.0
Total violent victimisations	37.3⁸⁸	27.6 - 47.0	27.4	24.7 - 30.2
Theft from person	0.2	0.1 - 0.3	0.5	0.3 - 0.6
Bicycle theft	0.5	Not able to be calculated	1.1	1.1 - 1.2
General theft	4.4	3.3 - 5.5	4.2	3.7 - 4.8
Damage	6.7 ⁸⁹	5.6 - 7.9	7.5	6.8 - 8.1
Damage/threat by current partner	Not available		1.2	0.8 - 1.7
Damage /threat by others well known	Not available		3.2	2.7 - 3.7
Total victimisations of individual property offences	11.9	10.1 - 13.7	17.6	16.8 - 18.4
Robbery	0.6	Not able to be calculated	0.6	0.3 - 0.8

85 This means that the confidence interval formula used for 1995 figures does not work for the data available – for example, when only one person experienced that type of offence.

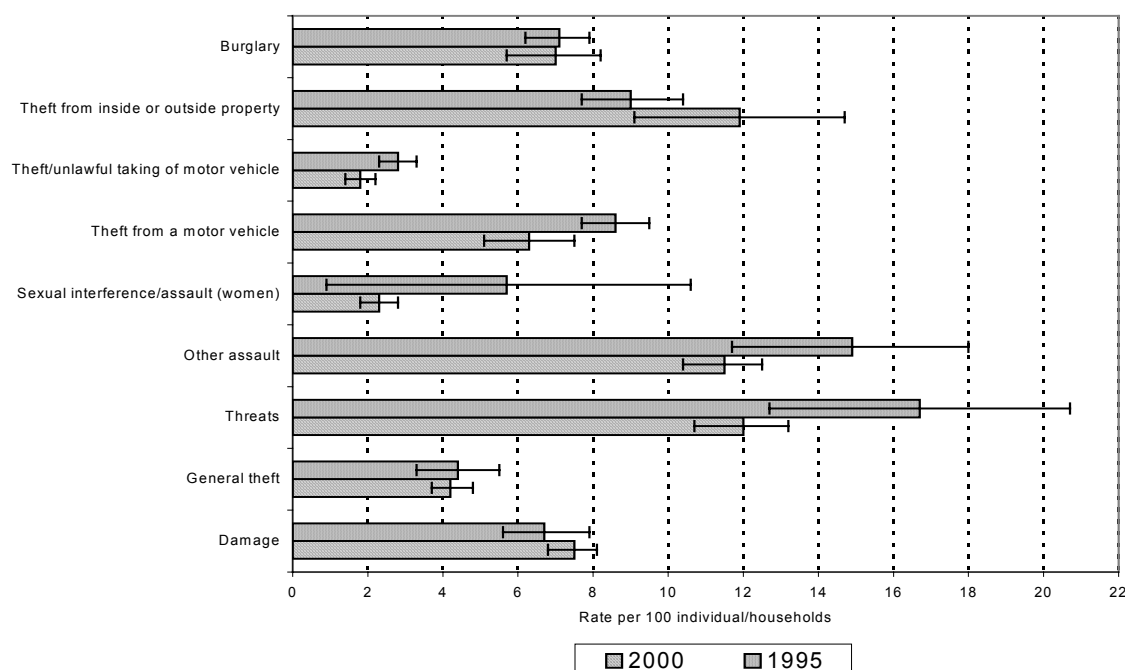
86 This includes an unknown number of weapon use by partners and by others well known to the victim.

87 This includes an unknown number of threats of weapon use by partners and by others well known to the victim.

88 Self-completion offences have been included in the appropriate categories above for the recalculated 1995 figures.

89 This includes an unknown number of damage or threats of damage by partners and by others well known to the victim.

Figure 2.1 Survey estimates of average victimisation rates for 1995 and 2000, showing 95% confidence intervals



As noted earlier, household and individual victimisation rates cannot be combined to give an overall rate and so no rates are provided for 'total victimisation'. However, there were an estimated 1,786,128 household and individual victimisations during the calendar year 1995. This can be contrasted with the figure cited earlier of an estimated 1,779,657 household and individual victimisations during the 2000 calendar year. Overall, this represents a decrease of 0.4% in the number of victimisations experienced, while the population aged 15 or more increased by 6.0% between the two surveys.⁹⁰

What emerges clearly from Table 2.2 is that there was little change between 1995 and 2000 for many types of victimisation. For example, the average incidence rates for household victimisation per 100 households was 30 in 1995 and 31 in 2000. However, there were some changes:

- a decline in the incidence of violent victimisations – from an average incidence of 37 to 27 per 100 individuals;
- a decline in the incidence of sexual victimisation for women – from an average incidence of 6 to 2 per 100 individuals;⁹¹
- a significant increase in the incidence of individual property victimisations – from an average incidence of 12 to 18 per 100 individuals.

⁹⁰ The relevant survey populations were 2,807,441 in 1996 and 2,975,680 in 2001.

⁹¹ It should be noted here that the numbers are small and that different questions were used in the 1996 NZNSCV and in the 2001 NZNSCV. These figures, therefore, may not be reliable or comparable.

Figure 2.2 shows the distribution of the victimisations reported in the 2000 NZNSCV.

Figure 2.2 Types of victimisation as a percentage of total victimisations in 2000

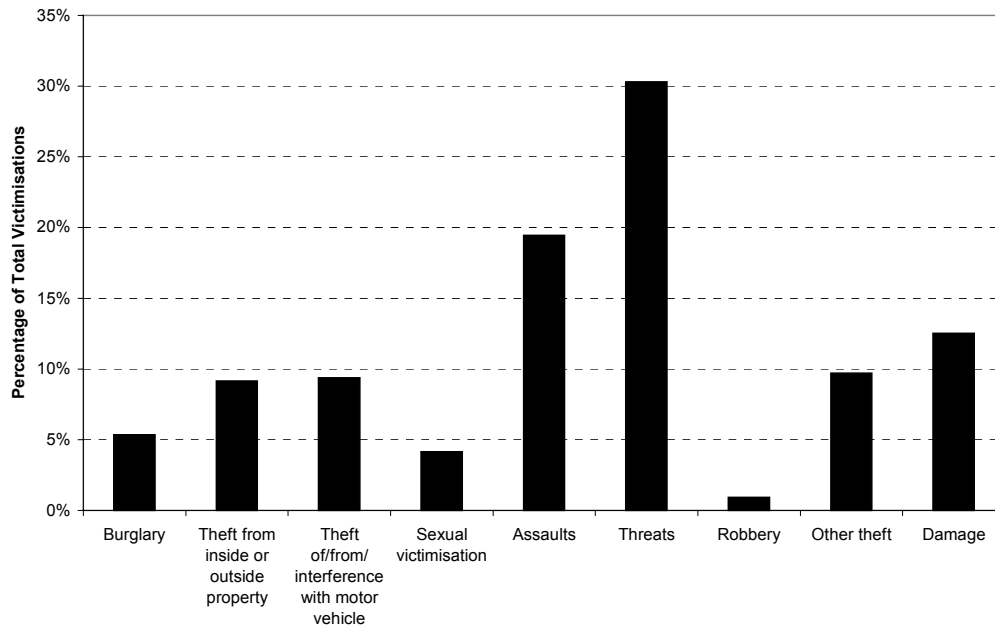


Figure 2.2 shows that assaults and threats taken together made up a half of all victimisations. This is very different from the typical picture in official Police statistics which suggests that property offences are the most common. Damage was the next most common category experienced in 2000. In terms of victimisations relating to vehicles and theft from homes, these were experienced with about equal degree of frequency in 2000, with each making up around eight percent of all victimisations. When we compare these data with comparable data from the 1996 NZNSCV, we find that assaults and threats were also the most common form of victimisation in 1995, followed by theft of or from or interference with a motor vehicle.

The high incidence of personal victimisations is on the face of it alarming, but more than half (55%) of violent victimisations involved threats which clearly vary greatly in seriousness and significance, and eight percent involved sexual victimisation which has a large sampling error. If these are excluded, assaults and robbery made up just under a third (31%) of total victimisations. This figure is lower than the comparable figure based on data in the 1996 NZNSCV (39%).

2.3 Comparison between victimisations reported in the 2001 NZNSCV and Police statistics

Surveys of crime victims routinely compare the reports by participants of their experience of victimisation with the number of offences recorded by the Police. Indeed, one of the

purposes of this type of survey is to explore what is commonly called the 'dark figure of crime' – victimisations which are unreported to the Police or victimisations which are reported to the Police but which remain unrecorded by them. Table 2.3 repeats some of the victimisation data already reported in Table 2.1 but sets out for comparison the closest approximate Police statistics.⁹²

However, a word of caution first: there is a problem with comparing counts of victimisations experienced against counts of offences recorded by the Police, simply at a counting level, due to some victimisations being experienced by more than one person. For example, Anne and Bill jointly own a car, which is damaged by two young men as they walk home from a party. If reported to the Police (for example, for insurance purposes), this would be recorded as one offence, not two. However, there are two victims, Bill and Anne, either of whom could be selected for the interview as part of the NZNSCV. Damage to vehicles is classed as a personal offence, so it is weighted to reflect the individual who experienced it (as opposed to the household affected for household offences). This means that an incident like this would effectively be counted twice by the NZNSCV, because both of the individuals affected have some chance of being selected for the survey and therefore, on average, both their experiences would be reflected in the survey results. Similarly, threats directed at more than one person may only be recorded as one offence by the Police but can effectively contribute more than one victimisation to the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV.⁹³ Conversely, one incident could perhaps give rise to more than one offence in the Police statistics, but would only be counted as one victimisation incident in the NZNSCV (if no victim form was completed for that incident, or if the offences involved were of the same type). Due to these difficulties, it is not possible to measure the overall level of offending with the type of data collected on participants' experiences of victimisation. Most of this Report, therefore, stresses the nature of participants' experiences of victimisation rather than simply counting these experiences. However, with these reservations in mind, estimates based on these different sources of data are presented in Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3 presents the same data graphically.

Also, before commenting on these data, one methodological change needs to be discussed. As we noted in Chapter 1, the 2001 NZNSCV deals only with offences committed against people in their personal capacity. It thus excludes, for example, burglaries of commercial premises, theft of or from motor vehicles owned by businesses and so on. In many offences, Police statistics do not distinguish between offences in this way (though burglaries of dwellings are now distinguished from other types of burglaries). Police statistics, therefore, need to be adjusted by eliminating non-personal offences.

92 We have already mentioned in Chapter 1 some of the limitations of surveys of crime victims and the potential differences in what such surveys and Police statistics define as 'crime'. Comparisons between the two, therefore, have to be considered with these in mind. We are comparing here survey estimates with what the Police get to know about and record as crime. See Appendix C of Mirrlees et al. (1998) and Kershaw et al. (2000) and (2001), and also Simmons et al. (2002) for a similar discussion about comparing British Crime Survey estimates and Police counts of crime.

93 These examples indicate that the number of personal offences might have been over-estimated by the 2001 NZNSCV. Conversely, household offences might have been under-estimated due to some incidents not affecting everyone in the household. For example, one flatmate in a household might have had a CD stolen, but the selected participant might not know about this, and so this household offence would not be reported or reflected in the survey estimates.

For the 1996 NZNSCV, the New Zealand Police analysed information contained in Police files on the nature and circumstances of a sample of relevant offences in a small sample of areas. It was recognised at the time that this adjustment to Police statistics was at best imperfect and had to be regarded as a broad approximation. This exercise was not repeated for the 2001 NZNSCV because it was viewed by the Police as too time consuming within their current resources. Instead, the statistics provided by them were the recorded offences in the offence groups which best fit the types of victimisations covered in the 2001 NZNSCV. In an attempt to measure the impact of this change, 1994/1995 Police statistics used in the 1996 NZNSCV were recalculated in the same way. The full comparison can be viewed in Table A2.3 in Appendix 1, but, in brief, the total number of household offences and violent offences in 1994/1995 would have been lower (by 5,461 and 5,581 respectively) and the total number of individual property offences would have been higher (by 30,895). This means that, overall, the total number of Police-recorded offences in 1994/1995 would have been slightly higher – 289,203 compared with 269,070 – but would still have been significantly lower than the 1996 NZNSCV figures.

Even allowing a significant margin for error, both for the reasons described above and because of the imprecision of survey estimates, it is clear that there is a large gap between the number of victimisations experienced based on the 2001 NZNSCV and the number of offences recorded in the Police statistics. The survey count of victimisations was 1,779,657; the number of offences recorded in the Police statistics, at 263,099, represent 15% of this. The reasons for the Police not getting to know⁹⁴ about victimisations are explored further in Section 2.3.1 and in Chapter 3. Section 2.3.2 also refers briefly to the fact that the victim may report their victimisation to the Police but the Police may not record it in official statistics.

Table 2.3 Survey estimates of the total number of certain household and individual victimisations experienced in 2000 contrasted with comparable Police statistics 1 July 2000 - 30 June 2001

	Number of victimisations	Comparable Police offence statistics
Burglary	95,267	37,772
Theft from inside or outside property	162,568	7,892
Theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle	24,492	21,186
Unlawful interference with motor vehicle	55,851	8,457
Theft from a motor vehicle	86,395	47,196
Total household victimisations/offences	422,839	122,503

Continued over page

⁹⁴ The question asked participants whether or not the Police got to know about the incident and our preference is to use this phrase although many reviewers of this Report found it clumsy.

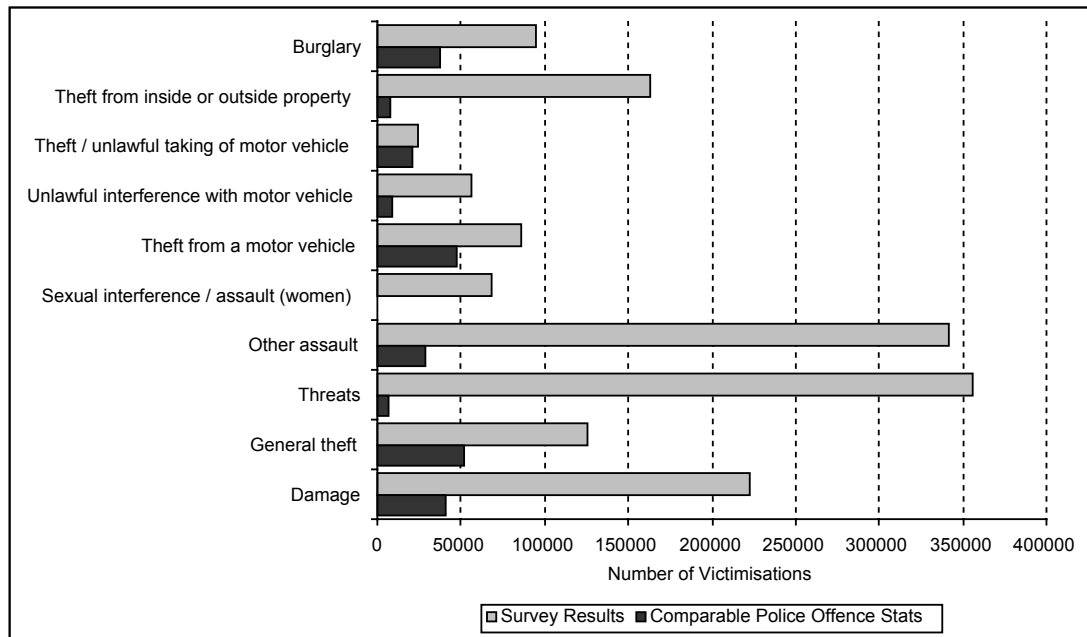
	Number of victimisations	Comparable Police offence statistics
Sexual interference/assault (women)	68,509	563 ⁹⁵
Sexual interference/assault (men)	2,975	60 ⁹⁶
Indecent assault	2,376	464
Grievous assault	4,670	2,897
Other assault	341,226	28,375
Threats	355,856	6,588
Abduction/kidnapping	965	162
Total violent victimisations/offences	816,467	39,109
Theft from person	13,793	1,474
Bicycle theft	33,510	6,684
General theft	125,698	51,515
Damage	222,754 ⁹⁷	40,257
Total individual property victimisations/offences	523,724	99,930
Robbery	16,628	1,557
Total victimisations/offences	1,779,657	263,099

95 This figure is for sexual violation only.

96 This figure is for sexual violation only.

97 This figure excludes the number of damage/threats by current partners and others well known to the victim shown in Table 2.1, but these victimisations are included in the figure for the total number of individual property offences in Table 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Survey estimates of certain household and individual victimisations in 2000 contrasted with comparable Police statistics 2000/2001



2.3.1 Unreported victimisation

The Police got to know about two-fifths of the victimisations disclosed within the 2001 NZNSCV. This represents no change from the 1996 NZNSCV.⁹⁸ However, there was considerable variation in this rate, depending on the type of victimisation. Table 2.4 sets out these data.

Table 2.4 shows that the Police got to know about 91% of unlawful takings of motor vehicles and more than two-thirds of the burglaries disclosed within the 2001 NZNSCV. At the other extreme, the Police got to know about a fifth of the threats and under a quarter of the thefts from inside or outside the victim's house. The reasons for the variation in the proportion of victimisations which the Police get to know about are explored in Chapter 3. Overall, there was little change in the proportion of victimisations which the Police got to know about between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV, with the exception of assaults: the Police got to know about a third of the assaults reported within the 1996 NZNSCV and well over two-fifths of those reported in the 2001 NZNSCV.

⁹⁸ It is also very similar to the findings in the British Crime Surveys, including the more recent ones - overall, 41% of victimisations in the 2000 survey (Kershaw et al. 2000) and 44% of victimisations in the 2001 survey (Kershaw et al. 2001) were reported to the Police.

Table 2.4 Victimisations known to the Police in 2000: percentages

	Sample size (incidents)	Known to Police
All	3147	40.4
Theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle	126	90.6
Burglary	415	68.4
Interference with/theft from motor vehicle	609	51.2
Assaults ⁹⁹	164	45.1
Damage	221	31.4
Robbery	44	23.2
Theft from inside or outside home	676	23.0
Threats	185	19.5

2.3.2 Unrecorded crime

As Tables 2.3 and 2.4 showed, the number of victimisations reported in the 2001 NZNSCV was much greater than the volume of crime portrayed in the Police statistics. This is not only because some victimisations do not come to Police notice, but also because some of the victimisations which victims do report to the Police are not recorded as offences by the Police. There are a number of possible reasons for this discrepancy between reports by victims that an 'offence' has occurred and Police recording that an offence had occurred. For example, the Police may believe that the victim is mistaken or that there is otherwise insufficient evidence to substantiate the complaint; they may believe that the paper work involved in recording the offence is not warranted; or reports coded in the survey as one type of offence may be recorded by the Police as a different type of offence.

As previously noted, to try to guard against this in the 2001 NZNSCV and to try to make sure the incidents reported in the survey were 'offences', participants' accounts of what happened were scrutinised (by a law student who was also an experienced Police officer under the guidance of a senior lecturer in law) and they were counted as an offence only if the facts as presented seemed to fit the legal definition. For example, the following two reports were excluded as revealing no offence of the type this survey was interested in: *'There were drug addicts around the house in the middle of the night'*; *'It was a drug-related incident and it was very scary'*. The incidents were also scrutinised to ensure that the person reporting the victimisation was, in fact, the victim (or part of the victim's household). For example, the following report was excluded: *'My friend next door was beaten up by her husband and she came to me for help and I phoned the Police and they turned up to deal with the matter'*.

⁹⁹ Assaults, threats and damage by current partners and by other people well known to the victim are not included here; nor is sexual victimisation. These are discussed separately in Chapter 3.

Figure 2.4 demonstrates graphically the estimated size of the gap between Police statistics in 2000/2001 and the 2001 NZNSCV for most types of victimisation.

Figure 2.4 Proportions of victimisations estimated to be reported to and recorded by the Police -2000¹⁰⁰

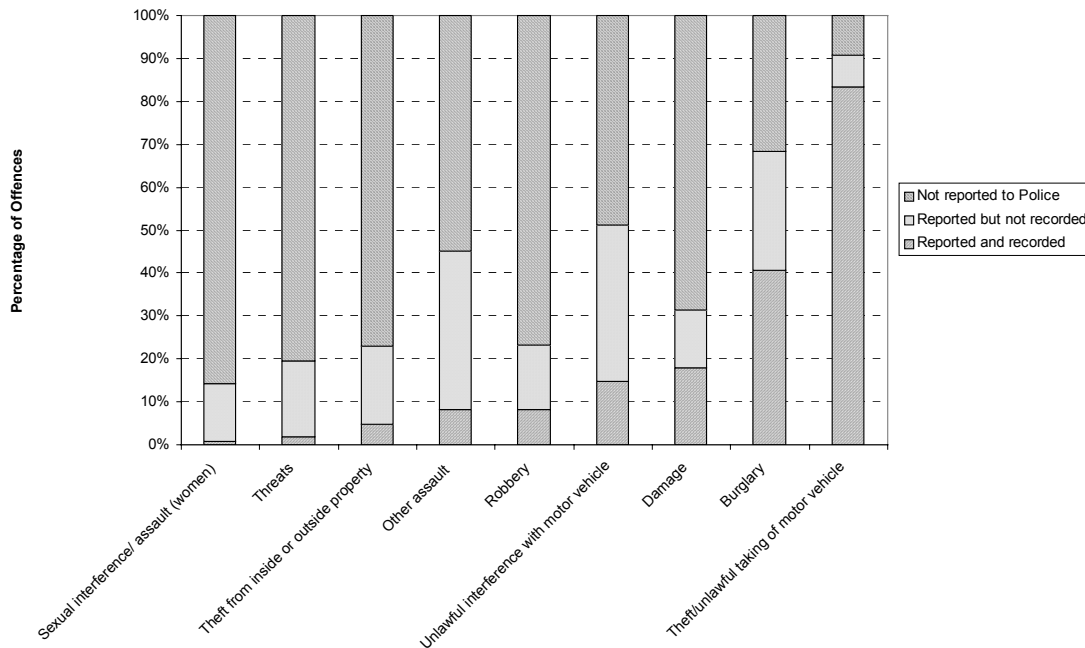


Figure 2.4 shows that most theft or unlawful takings of vehicles were reported to and recorded by the Police and that only a few were reported but not recorded. On the other hand, few of the sexual victimisations experienced by women were reported to or recorded by the Police. Most remained unreported, but a substantial proportion were reported to, but not recorded by, the Police. A similar pattern was observed for assaults and threats. Even with respect to burglary, which had relatively high reporting and recording rates, it is estimated that over one third of the reported offences were not in fact recorded. This is not an unusual or exceptional finding. For example, with respect to the British Crime Survey, Mirrlees-Black et al. (1998) found that the proportion of burglaries with loss reported within the 1998 BCS estimated not to have been recorded by the Police was also a third, and for burglaries with no loss the figure was 71%. More recently, Simmons and colleagues (2002), confirmed these findings when examining the gap between British Crime Survey estimates and Police statistics.

100 The percentages shown in Figure 2.4 are indicative estimates. They were calculated as follows: the percentage of victimisations not reported to the Police was derived directly from victim form data; the percentage of victimisations recorded by the Police was calculated by dividing the Police offence statistics by the number of victimisations shown in Table 2.3; and the percentage of victimisations reported but not recorded was calculated by subtracting the percentage of victimisations recorded by the Police from the percentage of victimisations reported to the Police.

2.4 The prevalence of victimisation

The data presented so far provide a picture of the total volume of victimisation, but give no insight into how that victimisation is distributed. For that, we must turn to data on the frequency of victimisation. The method of calculation used in the Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 is based on discrete incidents and does not describe the overall impact of victimisation on individuals; nor does it extend naturally to give a measure of the overall prevalence and frequency of victimisation. That is to say, what proportion of individuals have been victimised at all and, if so, how many times.

To produce an overall measure of the impact of victimisation on individuals, a decision must be made about how household offences affect individuals. We have counted a person as being a victim of a household offence if that household offence was committed against the household they lived in. Table 2.5 presents the frequency of victimisation for all victimisations in aggregate, including both personal and household offences.

Table 2.5 Frequency distribution for all victimisations in 2000¹⁰¹

Times victimised	Percent of all people aged 15 or more	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	70.5	NA	NA
1	16.1	54.6	21.3
2	5.8	19.8	15.4
3	2.6	8.7	10.2
4	1.5	4.9	7.7
5+	3.5	11.9	45.4
Prevalence	29.5		

Sample size (people): 5,147.

There are two points to note here. First, a comparison of the recalculated figures for 1995 shows that there is little difference in the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV with respect to the percent of people who experienced no victimisation: in 1995, 69% of all people experienced no victimisation compared with around 70% in the 2001 NZNSCV. Second, Table 2.5 signifies that some people were repeatedly victimised: in 2000, four percent of people and 12% of victims, in fact, experienced five or more victimisations. Indeed, these victims experienced more than two-fifths (45%) of all the victimisations

¹⁰¹ Victimisation by current partners and by other people well known to the victim are included in this table, as is sexual victimisation.

reported.¹⁰² These percentages differ only slightly from the recalculated data for 1995: then, three percent of people and nine percent of victims experienced five or more victimisations; and these victims experienced 45% of all victimisations reported.

Although this detailed frequency distribution is useful for determining the prevalence of victimisation and the extent and degree of repeat victimisation, it is also useful to examine a single number summarising this distribution. The incidence rate is used here; this is the average number of victimisations experienced expressed as a rate per 100 people.

The overall incidence of victimisation during 2000 was 75.7%¹⁰³. This is the average number of victimisations experienced per 100 people aged 15 or more, including both personal and household offences. Once again, an individual is treated as being the victim of a household offence if it was committed against his or her household. This means that household offences are effectively counted multiple times, once for each member of the household aged 15 or more. Using this approach, the total number of victimisations becomes 2,253,555 – very much higher than the figure shown in Figure 2.1. In our view, this method of calculation more accurately reflects the overall **impact** of victimisation.

Tables 2.6 to 2.9 set out the frequency distribution for different types of victimisation. Table 2.6 sets out the frequency of victimisation for household offences and for individual property offences.

Young et al. (1997, 29) reported in relation to household victimisation that repeat victimisation was '*evident but relatively limited*'. The recalculated figures for 1995 show that those who experienced household offences only once comprised 72% of such victims and accounted for 46% of such offences and that those victimised five or more times comprised three percent of such victims and accounted for only 15% of such offences. In the 2001 NZNSCV, victims who experienced household offences only once comprised 65% of such victims and experienced 37% of such victimisations. However, those victimised five or more times comprised five percent of such victims and experienced 23% of such victimisations.

A similar trend emerged in relation to individual property offences. Victims who experienced individual property offences only once comprised three-quarters of such victims and experienced almost a half of such victimisations. However, those victimised five or more

102 This phenomenon of repeat victimisation is well-established by overseas surveys. For example, Pease (1999, 3) cites data from the British Crime Surveys which show that two percent of the people who were victims of property crime experienced more than two-fifths of all such crime; the figures for personal crimes were even more extreme: one percent of the people who were victims of personal crime experienced almost 60% of all such crime. Less dramatically, Mukherjee and Carcach (1998), on the basis of the 1993 National Crime and Safety Survey Australia, reported that half of the property crimes were experienced by not much more than a quarter of victims and that two-thirds of the personal crimes were experienced by about half of the victims. Farrell and Bouloukos (2001) used the various sweeps of the International Crime Survey (1989, 1992 and 1996) to compare the level of repeat victimisation in different countries. New Zealand only took part in the 1992 survey, but, on the basis of the data for that year's survey, they suggest that New Zealand's rate of repeat victimisation was higher than the mean for assaults and threats, theft from cars, theft from the person, burglary, attempted burglary and theft of a car.

103 As noted earlier, this incidence rate is different from the overall incidence rate reported by Young et al (1997), because household offences are treated in a different way. The rate reported here can be interpreted as the average rate of victimisation for a person and can also be analysed by demographic variables. This has been done and the results are presented in Table 2.11.

times comprised three percent of such victims and they experienced almost a fifth of such victimisations. This represents no change from the recalculated figures for 1995.

Table 2.6 Frequency of victimisation for property offences in 2000

Times victimised	Household offences			Individual property offences ¹⁰⁴		
	Percent of all households	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	82.7	NA	NA	88.5	NA	NA
1	11.3	65.2	36.5	8.6	75.2	49.0
2	3.3	19.0	21.3	1.7	15.1	19.7
3	1.3	7.5	12.6	0.6	5.0	9.7
4	0.5	3.1	6.8	0.2	1.6	4.3
5+	0.9	5.2	22.8	0.3	3.0	17.2
Prevalence	17.3			11.5		

Sample size (people): 5,147.

Information on property offences can be further broken down and Table 2.7 presents these data for burglary and theft from inside or outside the home.

Table 2.7 Frequency of victimisation for burglary and theft from inside or outside the home in 2000

Times victimised	Burglary			Theft from inside/outside home		
	Percent of all households	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations	Percent of all households	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	94.2	NA	NA	92.6	NA	NA
1	4.7	80.7	63.3	5.6	75.0	46.9
2	0.8	13.4	20.9	1.1	14.9	18.6
3	0.2	4.1	9.6	0.4	4.8	8.9
4	0.1	1.4	4.4	0.1	1.7	4.3
5+	0.02	0.4	1.7	0.3	3.7	21.3
Prevalence	5.8			7.4		

Sample size (households): 5,147.

Table 2.7 shows that six percent of households had experienced at least one burglary and that 81% of those who had experienced a burglary had experienced only one. However, this means that a fifth of those who experienced a burglary in 2000 were repeat burglary victims.

¹⁰⁴ This includes damage and threats of damage by partners and by other people well known to the victim.

Indeed, this fifth experienced almost two-fifths of the burglaries disclosed. Examination of the recalculated 1995 figures suggests some changes for those victimised. For example, 89% of those who had experienced a burglary in 1995 had experienced only one and these victims experienced more than three-quarters (77%) of all burglaries in 1995. This suggests an increase in repeat burglary victimisation.

Table 2.7 shows that seven percent of households had experienced at least one theft from inside or outside their home and that three-quarters of those who had experienced theft from inside or outside their home had experienced this only once. However, this means that a quarter of those who experienced a theft from inside or outside their home in 2000 were repeat victims of this offence. Also, Table 2.7 shows that four percent of those who had experienced theft from inside or outside their home experienced a fifth of such victimisations.¹⁰⁵ Examination of the recalculated 1995 figures suggests a similar trend to that noted with respect to burglary. For example, 83% of those who had experienced a theft from inside or outside their home in 1995 had experienced only one and these victims experienced more than half (57%) of all thefts from inside or outside their home in 1995.

Table 2.8 sets out the frequency of violent victimisation for all participants and for those who were the victim of a violent offence.

Table 2.8 Frequency of violent victimisation in 2001¹⁰⁶

Times victimised	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	91.0	NA	NA
1	4.5	50.5	16.6
2	1.7	18.4	12.1
3	0.8	9.1	8.9
4	0.5	5.8	7.6
5+	1.5	16.2	54.8
Prevalence	9.0		

Sample size (people): 5147.

With respect to violent victimisations, it is very clear that a small number of people were heavily victimised and experienced the vast majority of the violent victimisations. Thus, under two percent (or a sixth of those who experienced violent victimisation) were victimised five or more times, but they experienced 55% of the violent victimisations. Overall, while only nine percent of people had been the victim of a violent offence, such victimisations comprised more than half of the total volume of victimisations disclosed by the 2001 NZNSCV.

¹⁰⁵ A similar pattern was observed for other thefts.

¹⁰⁶ This includes violence by partners and by other people well known to the victim.

Examination of the recalculated 1995 figures does not indicate much change: nine percent of people were the victim of a violent offence in 1995, more than half (56%) of all victims of violent offences experienced only one violent offence and they accounted for 14% of all violent victimisations. At the other end of the spectrum, two percent of people (17% of those who experienced violent victimisation) were victimised five or more times, and they accounted for 69% of the violent victimisations.

Violent victimisations can be further broken down. Table 2.9 sets out comparable data for assaults¹⁰⁷ and threats.

Table 2.9 Frequency of victimisation for assaults and threats in 2000¹⁰⁸

Assaults				Threats		
Times victimised	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	94.4	NA	NA	94.5	NA	NA
1	3.3	57.9	28.4	3.6	65.5	30.2
2	1.2	21.1	20.7	0.8	15.0	13.8
3	0.5	9.0	13.2	0.4	6.6	9.1
4	0.2	4.0	7.8	0.2	2.7	5.0
5+	0.5	8.0	29.9	0.6	10.1	41.9
Prevalence	5.6			5.5		

Sample size (people): 5,147.

Six percent of people were assaulted in 2000. However, of these, two-fifths had experienced more than one assault and eight percent had experienced five or more assaults. Indeed, this eight percent had experienced nearly a third of the assaults. Similarly, six percent of people were threatened in 2000. However, of these, over a third had experienced more than one threat and 10% had experienced five or more threats. Indeed, this 10% had experienced two-fifths of all the threats.

Examination of the recalculated 1995 data shows little or no change. For example, in 1995, six percent of people were assaulted; five percent were the victims of threats; and 62% of these assault victims and 56% of these victims of threats were the victim of only one assault or threat. However, these groups experienced a smaller proportion of the total assaults and threats than in 2000. Thus, this 62% of assault victims experienced only 24% of the total assaults and this 56% of the victims of threats experienced only 18% of the total threats. Indeed, in 1995, 13% of assault victims accounted for just over half of the assaults and 16% of the victims of threats accounted for 60% of threats.

¹⁰⁷ The prevalence of grievous assaults is low and is not discussed.

¹⁰⁸ Table 2.9 does not include the use of weapons or threats of using weapons by partners and by other people well known to the victim where we could not determine whether the incident was a threat or an assault (i.e. responses to Q267 and Q324 that were not the most recent incident in that section). But it does include all other violence by partners/other people well known to the victim.

Table 2.10 sets out comparable data for assaults by current partners and by others well known to the victim.

Table 2.10 Frequency of victimisation for assault by current partners and by others well known to the victim in 2000

Times victimised	Assault by current partner			Assault by others well known to the victim		
	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations	Percent of all people	Percent of those victimised	Percent of victimisations
0	99.0	NA	NA	98.0	NA	NA
1	0.6	58.8	25.7	1.2	57.9	29.9
2	0.2	23.6	20.6	0.5	24.5	25.1
3	0.04	4.2	5.4	0.1	6.7	10.3
4	0.04	3.9	6.7	0.1	3.7	7.7
5+	0.1	9.5	41.5	0.1	7.1	26.9
Prevalence	1.0			2.0		

Sample size (people): 5147.

Only one percent of people were assaulted by their current partner in 2000.¹⁰⁹ However, of these, more than two-fifths had experienced more than one assault and 10% had experienced five or more assaults. Indeed, this 10% had experienced more than two-fifths of all the assaults by current partners.¹¹⁰ Similarly, only two percent of people were assaulted by other people well known to them in 2000. However, of these, over two-fifths had experienced more than one assault and seven percent had experienced five or more assaults. Indeed, this seven percent had experienced over a quarter of all the assaults by others well known to the victim.¹¹¹

These data indicate that repeat victimisation is not uncommon with respect to assault (and threats) by current partners and by those well known to the victim. The same seems true with respect to women's sexual victimisation. Less than one percent of women experienced sexual assault or interference. However, over half (54%) of these had experienced sexual assault or interference more than once and more than a fifth (21%) had experienced sexual assault or interference five or more times. Indeed, these women had experienced half of all such victimisations.

Thus, the official crime statistics, and indeed the incidence data presented earlier in this chapter, give no hint of the nature and frequency of the violence suffered by this small number of victims. Referring to 'average' risks tends to suggest that re-victimisation is distributed uniformly across the population. The reality is very different. The findings in the 2001 NZNSCV show that most people, in fact, have little exposure to even minor violence or

¹⁰⁹ People with no current partner are included in the 'victimised zero times' figure.

¹¹⁰ Threats of assaults by current partners showed a similar pattern.

¹¹¹ Threats of assaults by those well known to the victim showed a similar pattern.

threats. For a small minority of repeat victims, on the other hand, violence is so common as to be virtually a normal part of everyday life. These findings have profound implications for crime prevention and are discussed briefly at the end of this chapter and further in Chapter 10.

2.5 The characteristics of victims and repeat victims

The overall risk of becoming a victim of crime differs markedly from one demographic group to another within the population. We will discuss the risks associated with being the victim of violence and burglary and the risks associated with being a repeat victim of violence and burglary further in Chapters 4 to 7. For now, we simply present the overall trends. Table 2.11 sets out the distribution of all victimisations on the basis of sex, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status, employment situation, and living situation. The method of calculation used in the Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 cannot be used to calculate incidence and prevalence rates within individual demographic groups because households do not have values for individual demographic variables such as sex. Thus, for Table 2.11, we use again the method of calculation described previously for Table 2.5, which treats household victimisation as personal victimisation. It gives the overall incidence and prevalence rates for adults and for various demographic sub-groups, counting all victimisations affecting people in that group. This includes all personal victimisations, as well as all household victimisations for households they resided in.

In addition to showing the demographic distribution of all victimisations in terms of the incidence and prevalence within each demographic group, Table 2.11 shows the average number of victimisations experienced by each victim. Averages are often misleading, particularly in situations such as this where they are used to summarise a skewed distribution, so this average is not a perfect measure of repeat victimisation. However, the average number of victimisations experienced is (by definition) the ratio between incidence and prevalence levels, and is useful for this reason.

Tables 2.12 to 2.17 show the distribution of personal victimisation on the basis of these same demographic characteristics as Table 2.11 (sex, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status, employment situation, and living situation). The distribution of household victimisations on the basis of socio-economic status, ethnicity (of participants), employment status (of participants), and living situation are presented in Tables 2.18 to 2.21. Sample sizes for the relevant demographic groups are not set out in these tables. The numbers for each demographic group are set out in Table A.1.1 in Appendix 1.

We also examined the characteristics of repeat victims¹¹² and carried out significance tests on the percentage of repeat victims falling into various demographic groups. Not surprisingly, these findings support what emerges from examination of the average number of victimisations experienced by each victim in Table 2.11. They are referred to at relevant points in the text but, for convenience, are summarised in Section 2.6 on the key findings of this chapter.

112 Here, repeat victims are defined using method (b), described in the 'Definitions of terms'.

Table 2.11 Experience of all victimisation¹¹³ in 2000: rate per 100 people for incidence and prevalence and average number of victimisations per victim

	Incidence	Prevalence	Average number of victimisations per victim
All people	75.7	29.5	2.57
Sex			
Female	81.5	30.1	2.71
Male	69.7	28.9	2.41
Age / female			
15 and 16	133.5	52.2	2.56
17-24	150.0	43.3	3.46
25-39	107.0	34.8	3.07
40-59	67.1	29.9	2.25
60 +	19.7	12.7	1.56
Age / male			
15 and 16	165.4	49.5	3.34
17-24	134.4	45.4	2.96
25-39	73.3	30.8	2.38
40-59	52.9	26.6	1.99
60 +	22.4	12.8	1.75
Ethnicity / female			
NZ European/European	74.1	29.4	2.52
Māori	155.0	42.9	3.61
Pacific	86.0	25.8	3.33
Other	47.2	24.5	1.93
Ethnicity / male			
NZ European/European	68.6	28.3	2.42
Māori	127.0	38.7	3.28
Pacific	95.4	31.1	3.07
Other	42.4	28.2	1.50
Socio-economic (NZSEI)¹¹⁴			
NZSEI unspecified	133.4	38.7	3.44
NZSEI 10-29	72.2	27.0	2.68
NZSEI 30-39	76.7	29.1	2.64
NZSEI 40-49	68.4	27.3	2.50
NZSEI 50-59	66.4	31.4	2.11
NZSEI 60-74	64.5	27.3	2.36
NZSEI 75-90	100.9	33.6	3.00
Employment status			
Paid employment	69.7	31.2	2.23
Home duties	49.8	26.0	1.91
Retired	24.3	13.3	1.83
Beneficiaries	138.1	34.0	4.06
Student ¹¹⁵	146.6	45.0	3.26
Living situation			
One person on own	49.4	19.4	2.54
Solo with children	147.8	46.1	3.21
Couple/no children	41.5	21.0	1.98
Couple/ children	73.3	31.9	2.30
Extended family/whānau	108.4	30.5	3.55
Flatmates	119.6	40.9	3.92
Family/other combination	112.1	35.5	3.16

113 This includes victimisation by partners and by other people well known to the victim and sexual victimisation.

114 See 'Definitions of terms' for how this scale is derived.

115 The term 'student' includes schoolchildren as well as tertiary students.

Table 2.11 shows that there was little difference between women and men in the prevalence of all victimisation but there was a difference in their incidence and in their average number of victimisations. Women were also significantly more likely than men to be repeat victims. With respect to the prevalence of victimisation, there were marked age differences, with younger age groups being more likely to be victimised than older age groups. Younger age groups were also significantly more likely than older age groups to be repeat victims. When age and sex were considered together, the picture became more complicated. Those most likely to be repeat victims were boys and girls aged 15 and 16, men and women aged 17 to 24 and women aged 25 to 39. Māori had higher incidence and prevalence rates than all other ethnicities, and the incidence and prevalence rate for Māori women was higher than it was for Māori men. Both Māori men and women were significantly more likely than other ethnicities to be repeat victims.

The trends with respect to socio-economic status are less clear cut but the two groups with the highest incidence and prevalence rates were NZSEI 75-90 and NZSEI unspecified. Students and those living on benefits also had higher incidence and prevalence rates than those working, on home duties or retired. This, of course, fits to some extent with the data already presented on age. Solo parents had higher incidence and prevalence rates than those in any other living arrangement. This also fits with data presented earlier on the victimisation of the young, especially young women. Solo parents, those living on benefits, students, and those categorised as NZSEI not specified were also significantly more likely to be repeat victims.

In summary, the groups with the highest average number of victimisations were beneficiaries, those living with flatmates, Māori women, those living with their extended family or whānau and women aged 17 to 24. Those with the lowest average number of victimisations were men of 'other' ethnicities, women aged 60 and over, men aged 60 and over, the retired, those with home duties and women of 'other' ethnicities. There are obviously overlaps amongst these groups.

Table A2.11 in Appendix 1 compares incidence and prevalence rates for 1995 and 2000. Briefly, this shows little change for many demographic groups. For example, the prevalence rate for both women's and men's victimisation went down slightly, but the incidence rate for women's victimisation went down and, for men's victimisation, it went up slightly. The figures for the different age groups by sex are remarkably similar. However, there are some points to note. Although the prevalence rate for Pacific women did not change much, the incidence rate went down dramatically. This change, however, may be linked to the more robust nature of the Pacific sample in the 2001 NZNSCV rather than to a real decline in the incidence rate for Pacific women.

On the other hand, both the prevalence and incidence rates for Māori women went up and, although the prevalence rate for Māori men has not changed much, the incidence for victimisation among Māori men has increased considerably. These patterns may reflect real (though not statistically significant) changes since the sample of Māori in the 1996 NZNSCV was large enough to have produced reasonably reliable findings. There are a number of fluctuations over time with respect to both the incidence and prevalence rates of victimisation among the various socio-economic status groups, but there are no clear patterns and so it is not clear how these shifts should be interpreted.

With respect to employment status, prevalence rates were relatively unchanged for all groups except beneficiaries, for whom the prevalence rate had declined. However, the incidence rate for them had gone up, as it had for the retired and, quite considerably, for students. For those in paid employment, the incidence rate had gone down. The prevalence rates for the different living situations were relatively unchanged. However, the incidence rate for solo parents and for those living with their whānau/extended family had gone up and, for flatmates, it had gone down.

Table 2.12 sets out personal victimisation rates by sex.

Table 2.12 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 people by sex and by type of personal victimisation¹¹⁶

Victimisation	Women		Men	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
Assaults ¹¹⁷	11.2	5.5	11.7	5.8
Sexual assault/interference	4.5	0.8	0.2	0.1
Threats	14.5	6.1	9.3	4.9
Any violence	31.9	8.9	22.7	9.1
Other theft ¹¹⁸	4.4	3.2	4.0	3.0
Damage	7.6	6.3	7.4	5.7
Any individual property	19.6	12.2	15.5	10.7

In relation to the incidence and prevalence of assaults, Table 2.12 shows that there was not much difference between women and men. However, although the prevalence rate for threats was similar for women and men, the incidence rate for women was much higher. Table 2.12 also shows that a higher proportion of women than men were subject to some form of sexual victimisation, as indicated by the comparative prevalence rate, and the incidence rate for such victimisations was also much higher for women. Sexual victimisation is discussed further in Chapter 6.

There was some difference between women and men in the prevalence of violence, with the proportion of men experiencing any violence being slightly higher than the proportion of

¹¹⁶ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

¹¹⁷ Grievous assaults are excluded from the assaults category in all the following tables on incidence and prevalence. Their incidence and prevalence is very low.

¹¹⁸ Theft from the person and bicycle theft are excluded from the other theft category in all of the following tables on incidence and prevalence. Their incidence and prevalence are relatively low.

women. However, the incidence rate for women was much higher.¹¹⁹ On the other hand, there were no significant differences between women and men in the prevalence of individual property offences but, again, there were differences in its incidence. Overall, women were significantly more likely than men to be repeat victims of both violent offences and individual property offences.

The recalculated figures on the incidence and prevalence of personal victimisation for women and men for 1995 show that a few changes have occurred between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV. The prevalence rates for women and men in 1995 and 2000 for 'any violence' were remarkably similar: 8.8 and 9.4 for women and men respectively in 1995, compared with 8.9 and 9.1 for women and men respectively in 2000. However, the incidence rates for both women and for men had gone down (from 45.8 and 28.4 respectively in 1995 to 31.9 and 22.7 in 2000).¹²⁰ On the other hand, the prevalence rates for women and men for 'any individual property offence' were lower in 1995 than they were in 2000 (7.8 and 9.0 respectively for 1995 compared with 12.2 and 10.7 for 2000). The incidence rate for women was also considerably lower in 1995 (10.4) and, for men, it was slightly lower in 1995 (13.5).

The distribution of personal victimisation for the different age groups is presented in Table 2.13.

It is clear that there were marked differences in the overall victimisation rates of the different age groups, with a general pattern of decreasing incidence and prevalence with increasing age. The most victimised age group were those aged 15 to 24,¹²¹ followed by those aged 25 to 39. These differences were particularly marked with respect to sexual assault/interference, assaults, threats and overall violence. However, within the younger age group, the most victimised age group was 15 and 16 year olds.¹²²

For assault, every age group showed a marked difference from every other age group, with both incidence and prevalence being inversely related to age. Those aged 15 to 24 were nearly twenty times more likely than those aged 60 and over to be the victim of any violence one or more times during 2000; and the average number of such offences to which they were subject was more than 30 times as great, indicating that they were not only more likely to be victimised but were also proportionately more likely to be subject to repeat victimisation. There were clear but less dramatic differences in relation to individual property offending as well. Overall, young people were significantly more likely than older age groups to be repeat victims of violent offences generally, assaults and individual property offences.

119 The 2001 NZNSCV was not designed to explain repeat victimisation. One way of understanding it is found in what is called routine activity or lifestyle theory (Cohen and Felson 1979; Hindelang et al. 1978). Thus it suggests, for example, that those who go out a lot and use public transport are more at risk of victimisation, including repeat victimisation. However, this is not an adequate explanation for much of women's repeat victimisation which occurs within the home. The differences between women and men in the incidence and prevalence rates for assaults by current partners and others they knew well is discussed in Chapter 5.

120 This is possibly explained by the fact that the 1996 NZNSCV identified a high incidence of violence among Pacific participants.

121 Menard (2000) refers to repeat victimisation being the norm rather than the exception for adolescents and young adults. He describes victimisation for most of this group as 'chronic, multiple and intermittent'.

122 The incidence rates of violence and individual property were 76.1 and 36.8 respectively, and the prevalence rates were 29.1 and 20.7 respectively. There was little difference here with respect to 15 and 16 year old boys and 15 and 16 year old girls, but the numbers are very small.

Table 2.13 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 people by age and by type of personal victimisation¹²³

Victimisation	15-24		25-39		40-59		60+	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
Sexual assault/ interference (women)	4.8	1.5	4.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0
Sexual assault/ interference (men)	0.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Assault	31.5	16.5	14.5	5.9	4.9	2.8	0.5	0.3
Threats	25.6	12.3	15.9	6.4	7.9	3.8	1.3	1.1
Any violence	64.4	23.5	37.6	9.5	14.8	5.6	1.8	1.3
Other theft	7.0	5.9	4.5	2.8	4.3	2.9	1.4	1.3
Damage	8.9	7.1	10.0	7.6	6.8	5.7	3.9	3.4
Any individual property	28.1	18.3	21.5	13.2	15.9	10.3	6.0	5.0

The recalculated figures on the incidence and prevalence of personal victimisation for the different age groups for 1995 show, overall, a slight downward trend between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV except for those aged 15 to 24 with respect to any violence. For example, the prevalence rate for ‘any violence’ for those aged 25 to 39 went from 10.7 in 1995 to 9.5 in 2000 and, for those aged 40 to 59, it went down from 6.5 to 5.6. In contrast, the prevalence rate for ‘any violence’ for those aged 15 to 24 went up: from 17.8 in 1995 to 23.5 in 2000. The incidence rates went down for all age groups between 1995 and 2000. On the other hand, the prevalence rates for all age groups for ‘any individual property offence’ were lower in 1995 than they were in 2000. For example, it increased from 13.1 in 1995 for those aged 15 to 24 to 18.3 in 2000 and from 8.8 in 1995 for those aged 25 to 39 to 13.2 in 2000.

The distribution of personal victimisation for ethnic groups is presented in Table 2.14.

Māori had much higher rates of both prevalence and incidence of assaults and threats than New Zealand European/European. Young et al. (1997, 35) commented with respect to the 1996 NZNSCV on the very high average number of experiences of violent victimisation amongst Pacific peoples. However, this did not emerge in the 2001 NZNSCV. The prevalence and incidence rates for Pacific peoples were higher with respect to assaults and ‘any violence’ than they were for New Zealand European/European, but they were not nearly as high as those for Māori, and their prevalence rate for threats was much the same as for New Zealand European/European (though their incidence rate for threats was lower). On the other hand, the incidence rates for Pacific peoples for assaults and ‘any violence’ were still quite high which suggests that Pacific participants were more likely than New Zealand

¹²³ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

European/European participants to be repeat victims of these types of victimisation. Young et al. (1997) recognised the sample of Pacific participants in the 1996 NZNSCV was small and it is likely that the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV on this issue are more robust.

Table 2.14 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 participants by ethnicity and by type of personal victimisation¹²⁴

Victimisation	NZ European/ European		Māori		Pacific		Other	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
Sexual assault/ interference (women)	2.5	0.4	3.8	0.6	1.9	0.4	0.7	0.3
Sexual assault/ interference (men)	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Assault	9.9	5.1	28.9	13.1	20.0	8.2	3.2	2.3
Threats	11.1	5.1	26.3	12.5	9.9	5.1	2.0	1.0
Any violence	24.6	8.4	63.3	19.5	39.1	11.3	5.9	2.6
Other theft	4.4	3.1	3.6	3.0	4.5	3.2	4.7	4.1
Damage	8.2	6.6	8.7	5.6	5.6	3.3	5.6	5.5
Any individual property	17.5	11.5	26.8	14.7	17.2	8.2	13.0	11.9

A similar, though less marked, trend emerged with respect to individual property offences. The incidence and prevalence rates were higher for Māori than they were for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans and for Pacific peoples, and although the incidence for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans and Pacific peoples was similar, the prevalence rate was much lower for Pacific peoples, which again suggests that they were more likely to be repeat victims. Overall, however, Māori experienced most personal victimisation and they were most likely to be repeat victims.

When sex and ethnicity were considered together, it became very clear that the prevalence of these types of personal victimisation was always higher for Māori women than it was for Māori men – for example, with respect to violence, the rate was 21.4 for Māori women and 17.5 for Māori men. However, for violence, the incidence rate for Māori women was much higher than it was for Māori men: 81.0 compared with 44.7. This indicates that Māori women are even more likely than Māori men to be repeat victims. Overall, Māori, especially Māori women, were significantly more likely than other ethnic groups to be repeat victims of violent offences and individual property offences. And Māori and Pacific peoples, especially Māori and Pacific men, were significantly more likely than other ethnic groups to be repeat victims of assaults.

¹²⁴ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

Comparison of the recalculated incidence and prevalence rates for personal victimisation shows considerable variation between 1995 and 2000 for some ethnic groups. The incidence and prevalence rates for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans for 'any violence' remained much the same in 1995 and in 2000. However, the prevalence rate for Māori went up (from 14.6 in 1995 to 19.5 in 2000) and for Pacific peoples went down (from 15.2 in 1995 to 11.3 in 2000). The incidence rates for 'any violence' for both New Zealand Europeans/Europeans and Māori remained much the same between 1995 and 2000, but, again, went down considerably for Pacific peoples: from 174.0 in 1995 to 39.1 in 2000. The incidence and prevalence rates for 'individual property offences' for all ethnicities went up between 1995 and 2000, with the exception of the incidence rate for those of 'other' ethnicity, which remained much the same. The prevalence rate for Māori women for 'any violence' went up considerably between 1995 and 2000 – from 14.8 to 21.4 – and for Māori men it went up slightly – from 14.5 to 17.5. The incidence rate for Māori women for 'any violence', on the other hand, remained much the same between 1995 and 2000 and, for Māori men, it went down slightly.

Table 2.15 sets out the distribution of personal victimisation by socio-economic status.

Table 2.15 Victimization rates in 2000 per 100 people by socio-economic status and by type of personal victimisation¹²⁵

	Violence		Individual property	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
NZSEI unspecified	49.8	15.5	21.1	14.4
NZSEI 10-29	26.7	8.8	17.9	9.9
NZSEI 30-39	38.0	12.0	18.0	11.4
NZSEI 40-49	22.9	8.1	16.0	10.9
NZSEI 50-59	18.7	7.6	18.6	12.6
NZSEI 60-74	19.6	7.0	14.1	10.3
NZSEI 75-90	39.3	6.5	23.7	13.7

Overseas surveys tend to show that lower socio-economic groups are particularly prone to repeated violent victimisation, but that being the victim of property offending is more evenly distributed (see, for example, Mayhew et al. 1993; Jones et al. 1986; Koffman, 1996). Table 2.15, however, does not show clear trends with respect to the prevalence or incidence of violence or individual property offences and socio-economic status. For example, the two groups with the highest prevalence rates for violence were those classified as NZSEI unspecified and as NZSEI 30-39, but the highest incidence rates for this type of victimisation was found in those classified as NZSEI unspecified and NZSEI 75-90. With respect to individual property offences, the highest incidence and prevalence rates were experienced by those classified as NZSEI unspecified and as NZSEI 75-90.

¹²⁵ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

For comparisons between 1995 and 2000 for socio-economic status, we used the Elley Irving scale rather than the NZSEI since this was used in the 1996 NZNSCV (the NZSEI scale was developed in 1997, as explained in a footnote to Table A2.11). There do not appear to have been any major shifts between 1995 and 2000 in the broad pattern for the prevalence of 'any violence' or between the different socio-economic status groups, but there are shifts in the incidence figures with the rate for some socio-economic groups going down and for others going up. There was no clear pattern. With respect to prevalence rates for 'any individual property offence', the general pattern was for these to have increased between 1995 and 2000, as did incidence rates.

Table 2.16 presents the relationship between personal victimisation and employment status.

Table 2.16 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 people by employment status and by type of personal victimisation¹²⁶

Victimisation	Working in paid employment		Home duties		Retired/ Superannuitant		Beneficiaries		Student	
	Incid.	Preval.	Incid.	Preval.	Incid.	Preval.	Incid.	Preval.	Incid.	Preval.
Sexual assault/ interference (women)	0.3	0.2	1.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	9.6	1.0	13.1	1.4
Assault	9.6	4.4	7.0	3.6	1.3	0.8	24.3	10.2	29.2	16.6
Threats	9.6	4.9	4.5	2.5	1.4	1.2	26.3	10.5	28.4	13.3
Any violence	20.9	7.9	14.0	4.8	3.1	1.6	64.0	15.5	71.3	23.8
Other theft	4.7	3.0	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.2	2.3	1.8	8.6	7.1
Damage	7.5	6.4	8.1	7.3	4.2	3.5	8.5	5.8	8.5	6.3
Any individual property	18.5	12.1	12.3	9.3	6.4	5.2	23.1	12.1	25.8	17.6

Table 2.16 shows that, in line with the age distribution, those who were retired or superannuitants were much less likely to be the victim of any of the offences listed. In contrast, those who were students or who were on a benefit had by far the greatest likelihood of being the victim of violence. The trends in relation to individual property offences were not as strong but were still apparent. Students and those on a benefit had the highest incidence rates but those in paid employment had a similar prevalence rate to those who were on a benefit.

Prevalence rates for 'any violence' for the different employment situations went down between 1995 and 2000, with the exception of students where it went up markedly: from 15.1 in 1995 to 23.8 in 2000. The incidence rates remained much the same or went down between 1995 and 2000 except for students. On the other hand, the trend for 'any individual property offences' was, not surprisingly, consistent with what has been said already: that is to say, both

¹²⁶ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

prevalence and incidence rates increased for all employment situations between 1995 and 2000.

Table 2.17 presents the relationship between personal victimisation and living situation.

Table 2.17 Victimization rates in 2000 per 100 people by living situation and by type of personal victimisation¹²⁷

	Violence		Individual property	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
One person on own	17.9	4.8	11.1	6.9
Solo with children	63.6	19.2	34.8	19.2
Couple/no children	9.9	4.4	12.9	8.9
Couple/children	27.0	9.2	15.6	11.6
Extended family/whānau	49.2	10.2	23.0	12.8
Flatmates	33.8	17.8	29.0	16.6
Family/other combination	44.9	12.3	25.4	14.1

It is very clear from Table 2.17 that solo parents experienced significantly more victimisation of these types than people in other living situations, though their prevalence rate is not so different from those living in flats. It is, of course, likely that solo parents are both women and relatively young: two groups who have already been identified as having high incidence and prevalence rates.

There was very little change between 1995 and 2000 with respect to the prevalence and incidence of ‘any violence’ for most living situations. However, the incidence rates for ‘any violence’ for both those living with flatmates and those living in ‘other’ family combinations decreased considerably: from 97.5 to 33.8 for those living with flatmates and from 80.1 to 44.9 for those living in ‘other’ family combinations. For ‘any individual property offences’, both prevalence and incidence rates increased for all living situations between 1995 and 2000.

Table 2.18 sets out the distribution of household victimisations on the basis of socio-economic status.

It is clear from Table 2.18 that those households classified as NZSEI unspecified were more likely than households of other socio-economic status to experience burglary and to experience it more often. But the pattern with respect to being the victim of a motor vehicle offence was not as clear. The households in the highest socio-economic status group were more likely to have experienced this than those households classified as NZSEI unspecified. However, the incidence rates for households in the highest socio-economic status group were closer to the rates for those households classified as NZSEI unspecified. Overall, for

¹²⁷ This table includes violence by partners and by others well known to the victim.

household victimisations, the prevalence rate for those households classified as NZSEI unspecified and those households in the highest socio-economic status group was not dissimilar, though the incidence rate for those classified as NZSEI unspecified was much higher, indicating a greater likelihood of experiencing repeat victimisation of this type.

Table 2.18 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 households by socio-economic status and by type of household victimisation

	Burglary		Motor vehicle		All household	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
NZSEI unspecified	12.4	8.2	24.9	14.2	56.9	23.8
NZSEI 10-29	6.3	4.9	10.4	7.7	26.4	15.8
NZSEI 30-39	6.3	4.6	13.4	10.2	24.8	15.0
NZSEI 40-49	7.0	5.5	11.5	8.7	29.7	16.1
NZSEI 50-59	7.1	5.8	15.8	12.8	29.2	18.3
NZSEI 60-74	5.4	4.8	17.8	12.0	31.0	17.1
NZSEI 75-90	6.9	6.5	26.3	16.3	36.6	21.5

There was not a consistent trend between 1995 and 2000 for the different Elley-Irving socio-economic status levels when prevalence and incidence rates for burglary were examined. For some socio-economic groups, the prevalence rate increased over this period and for others it went down or remained much the same. The same was true for incidence rates. On the other hand, for household offences as a whole, both prevalence and incidence rates decreased between 1995 and 2000 with one exception: both remained much the same for the lowest socio-economic group.

Victimisation rates for household victimisation, and for different types of household victimisation, clearly differed by ethnicity.¹²⁸ Table 2.19 sets out these data.

Overall, for household offences, Māori had the highest prevalence and incidence rates. Pacific peoples had the highest incidence rate for burglary, followed by Māori and people of 'other' ethnicities. Both Māori and people of 'other' ethnicities had the highest (and similar) prevalence rates for motor vehicle offences. However, the incidence rate for Māori was higher than it was for people of 'other' ethnicities, suggesting that Māori were more likely to feature among repeat victims of this offence.

¹²⁸ In this analysis, we categorised the ethnicity of a household by the ethnicity of the participant and recognise that this is a crude proxy. However, people are interested in the prevalence and incidence of offences like burglary by ethnicity and since these offences are categorised in the 2001 NZNSCV as household offences, this seemed the best option if we were to provide any information on this matter. The cultural advisers to the 2001 NZNSCV have supported the use of this proxy. However, this method does mean that the figures may under-represent households comprising multiple ethnicities where, for example, the participant was of one ethnicity but other members of the household had different ethnicities.

Table 2.19 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 households by ethnicity (of participant) and by type of household victimisation

Victimisation	Burglary		Motor vehicle		All household	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
New Zealand European/ European	6.4	5.2	15.0	10.8	28.0	16.5
Māori	8.7	6.6	20.4	13.1	50.2	23.7
Pacific	12.4	7.9	13.9	9.2	40.7	18.1
Other	8.9	6.9	13.5	12.2	27.3	16.5

In terms of comparisons with the recalculated 1995 figures, the prevalence rate for all household offences increased for Māori, stayed much the same for people of 'other' ethnicities, and decreased for Pacific peoples and for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans. Incidence rates for all household offences increased substantially for Pacific people (from 24.9 in 1995 to 40.7 in 2000) and also increased for people of 'other' ethnic groups, but remained much the same for Māori and for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans. The prevalence rate for burglary increased slightly for both Māori (from 5.9 in 1995 to 6.6 in 2000) and Pacific peoples (from 7.0 in 1995 to 7.9 in 2000). Incidence rates decreased slightly for New Zealand Europeans/Europeans and Māori, but increased for Pacific people and people of 'other' ethnic groups (from 5.3 in 1995 to 8.9 in 2000 for people from 'other' ethnic groups, and from 7.8 in 1995 to 12.4 in 2000 for Pacific peoples).

Table 2.20 sets out the distribution of household victimisations on the basis of employment situation.

Table 2.20 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 households by employment status (of participant) and by type of household victimisation

Victimisation	Burglary		Motor vehicle		All household	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
Working in paid employment	6.7	5.8	17.5	13.0	31.9	19.1
Home duties	5.0	4.3	15.3	11.7	22.9	15.8
Retired/Superannuitant	3.8	3.3	3.7	3.3	12.8	8.1
Beneficiaries	13.5	7.9	16.6	10.2	47.2	20.5
Student	11.9	8.5	33.0	18.6	67.4	30.2

Table 2.20 shows that students and those on a benefit were most likely to experience burglary and to experience it more often. Students were also the group most likely to be the victim of a motor vehicle offence and of any household offence. However, the next most likely groups were, for motor vehicle offences, those in paid employment and those on home duties and,

for all household offences, those in paid employment and those on a benefit. Conversely, retired/superannuitants were least likely to experience burglary or, indeed, household offences generally. Those living on benefits and students were significantly more likely to be the victims of repeat burglaries than those in employment, retired or on home duties. This is referred to again in Chapter 7.

Very few changes were observed when 1995 prevalence and incidence rates for burglary were compared with those for 2000 with respect to employment status. However, the prevalence rate for burglary for those on benefits did decrease: from 10.7 in 1995 to 7.9 in 2000; and although the prevalence rate for students increased a little (6.3 in 1995 and 8.5 in 2000), the incidence rate decreased (from 15.8 to 11.9). For household offences generally, both the prevalence and incidence rates decreased for all groups except students: for them, the prevalence rate increased from 23.3 to 30.2 and the incidence rate increased from 53.0 to 67.4.

Table 2.21 sets out the distribution of household victimisations on the basis of living situation.

Table 2.21 Victimisation rates in 2000 per 100 households by living situation and by type of household victimisation

	Burglary		Motor vehicle		All household	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
One person on own	4.6	3.4	7.3	5.2	18.8	11.1
Solo with children	14.6	11.0	21.5	14.4	59.6	26.2
Couple/no children	3.9	3.4	10.8	8.9	20.4	13.3
Couple/ children	7.7	6.5	18.8	14.0	33.6	20.6
Extended family/whānau	9.5	6.3	18.3	11.4	38.5	18.1
Flatmates	12.6	9.8	32.3	17.7	56.9	26.3
Family/other combination	9.0	5.6	18.3	12.0	37.9	19.0

It is clear from Table 2.21 that flatmates and solo parents experienced much more household victimisation (in terms of both incidence and prevalence) than people in other living situations. The findings on household victimisation and the type of accommodation people lived in are consistent with these: for example, the prevalence rate for burglary in rented property was 7.4 and, in owner occupied property, it was 4.8. The incidence figures were 10.5 and 5.6 respectively.¹²⁹ This same general pattern is apparent with respect to household victimisation generally. Those living with flatmates and those living in rented property

¹²⁹ There were some differences among the type of rental property. For example, the prevalence of burglary was higher for those renting from private owners and from Housing New Zealand (7.9 and 7.4) than for those renting from local authorities/councils (3.7). The same was true for household victimisations generally. Incidence rates varied too: 10.1 and 14.0 for those renting from private owners and from Housing New Zealand compared with 4.2 for those renting from local authorities/councils.

(especially living in Housing New Zealand property) were more likely than those in other living situations to be repeat victims.

For burglary, the prevalence rates for most living situations decreased or remained much the same between 1995 and 2000. However, for those living with flatmates, it increased very slightly (from 8.4 to 9.8). Incidence rates also, in the main, decreased or stayed the same between 1995 and 2000, except with respect to those living with flatmates (where it went up slightly from 10.5 to 12.8). For household offences generally, prevalence and incidence rates decreased between 1995 and 2000 for all living situations except solo parents: the prevalence rate for them increased slightly between 1995 and 2000 from 21.8 to 26.2 and their incidence rate went up from 38.7 in 1995 to 59.6 in 2000.

Analysis of burglary, motor vehicle victimisation and household victimisation by region does not show much difference with respect to prevalence but suggests that the incidence is slightly higher in the Upper North Island. There was also a slight trend for Auckland to have the highest prevalence rate for burglary (six percent compared with, for example, five percent for other metropolitan urban areas and for secondary urban areas) but the highest prevalence rate for all household offences was in the other main urban centres (20% compared with, for example, 14% for secondary urban areas and 15% for rural or minor urban areas).¹³⁰

2.6 Summary of key findings on nature, extent and distribution of victimisation

The main findings to emerge from this chapter are:

- There were an estimated 1,779,657 household and individual victimisations in New Zealand during the 2000 calendar year and an estimated 1,786,127 household and individual victimisations in New Zealand during the calendar year 1995.
- This represents a decrease of 0.4% in the number of victimisations experienced, while the population aged 15 or more increased by 6.0% between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV.
- The number of offences recorded in the Police statistics represent 15% of this estimate. Possible reasons for this discrepancy are discussed in Chapter 3.
- Assaults and threats taken together made up a half of all victimisations reported within the 2001 NZNSCV.¹³¹
- The total number of victimisations were not evenly distributed: around 70% of people experienced no victimisation at all, while around four percent of people and around 12% of victims had experienced five or more victimisations. Overall, this latter group had

130 For a description of these urbanisation codings, see 'Definitions of terms'.

131 However, data in Chapter 4 show that these varied considerably in their seriousness and many were seen by victims as not having much impact on them.

experienced more than two-fifths of all victimisations reported within the 2001 NZNSCV.

- Those most at risk of victimisation were:
 - young people
 - Māori, especially Māori women
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - solo parents
 - NZSEI unspecified
 - those living with flatmates.
- The 1996 NZNSCV suggested that Pacific peoples experienced a high rate of violent victimisation. This tentative finding was not borne out by the prevalence rates in the 2001 NZNSCV, which had a more robust sample of Pacific participants. On the other hand, their incidence rates were reasonably high and were noticeably higher than those for New Zealand European/European victims and victims of other ethnicities.
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - solo parents
 - those categorised as NZSEI unspecified
 - those living with flatmates
 - those living in rented property.
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of violent victimisations were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - those classified as NZSEI 30-39
 - those living in rented property.
- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of assaults were:
 - men
 - young people
 - Māori
 - Pacific peoples
 - students
 - those classified as NZSEI 10-29 and 60-74.

- The groups most likely to be repeat victims of threats were:
 - women
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - beneficiaries
 - those living in rented accommodation.
- Around two-fifths of victimisations were reported to the Police. There was considerable variation in reporting rates between different types of victimisation.
- There was little change in the incidence of victimisation between 1995 and 2000 for most types of victimisation. However, there was a significant increase between 1995 and 2000 in the incidence of individual property victimisations.
- A comparison of the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV with respect to the percent of people who experienced no victimisation shows little change.
- Comparison of the recalculated incidence and prevalence rates for 1995 with the incidence and prevalence rates for 2000 shows little change for many demographic groups. However, there are a few changes which are worth noting, since they may be of practical significance, although none reached statistical significance:
 - although the prevalence rate for the victimisation of Pacific women did not change much, the incidence rate fell considerably;
 - both the prevalence and incidence rates for the victimisation of Māori women increased;
 - although the prevalence rate for Māori men did not change much, the incidence for victimisation among Māori men increased considerably.

2.7 Policy implications

The findings in this chapter indicate that there is much more victimisation than is disclosed by the Police statistics. However, it would be inappropriate to suggest that a greater proportion of victimisation **should** be reported to the Police by, for example, imposing on victims a duty or obligation to report their victimisations. The Police may have internal policies which impose a duty or obligation on the Police to record any victimisations which come to their notice and which fit the definition of particular crimes. However, the data presented in Figure 2.2 suggests that this does not always currently happen.¹³² As will be shown in Chapter 3, although some apparently serious offences – including physical and sexual victimisation – did go unreported to (or unrecorded by) the Police, the vast majority of the victimisations which went unreported were relatively minor and were not really considered by

132 With respect to family violence, for example, there is already a policy that the Police should record all such incidents. However, Schollum (1997) found that officers were not completing documentation (a Pol. 400) for all attended offences and incidents and that 71% of the officers surveyed supported the requirement to do so.

victims as ‘crimes’ or as appropriate to be handled by the Police. Thus, in a sense and for **some types** of victimisation, the victimisations reported to the Police can be used as an indicator of the victimisations that victims want the Police to take some action on, for whatever reason, even if it is simply to record the incident as an offence for insurance purposes (these reasons are explored in Chapter 3).

The findings in this chapter also mean that overall trends in official crime statistics have to be regarded with caution, since they are susceptible to changes in reporting practices (Mirrlees-Black et al. 1998; Simmons and colleagues 2002). Examples cited there include the increased reporting and recording of violence within the family in the 1990s as a result of media and other campaigns; and easier reporting through increased access to telephones, including mobile phones. It is for this reason that it is generally thought that surveys of crime victims are able to provide a more stable picture of victimisation over time. They are certainly less susceptible to changes in reporting practices.

We noted on a number of occasions in Chapter 1 that care has to be taken in comparing the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV because of changes in methodology. However, with respect to the incidence and prevalence of the range of victimisations covered in the main questionnaire, these changes are likely to have had less impact.¹³³ Thus the changes which we have identified with respect to trends here may well be ‘real’: in particular, the high level of victimisation experienced by Māori, especially Māori women, and by the young.

The 2001 NZNSCV found that 70% of people experienced no victimisation at all in 2000 and that about half of those victimised experienced only one victimisation. The point to stress here is that these findings have implications for discussions of the ‘fear of crime.’ We return to this in Chapter 9. They also have implications for media representations of crime and for ‘law and order’ campaigns which can intensify the ‘fear of crime’.

However, as Ellingworth et al. (1995, 362) stress, the fact that most victims are one-time victims does not mean that most crime is experienced by one-time victims. Rather, the majority of victimisation is experienced by a small number of victims: as reported above, in 2000, four percent of people and 12% of victims experienced almost half of all the victimisations reported. This highlights the importance of repeat victimisation and the need for the Police in all districts to consider recording data in such a way that this is captured.¹³⁴ A considerable body of research now confirms the importance of this for targeting Police resources. Pease (1999, v) stresses that past victimisation is the best single predictor of future victimisation; that when re-victimisation occurs it tends to do so quickly; and that areas with high crime rates are substantially the result of the area’s rate of repeat victimisation. It makes good sense then for the Police to concentrate on repeat victims.

Most Police districts in New Zealand already do this. However, practice overseas seems to have gone further in this regard. For example, at one time in England and Wales, there was a repeat victimisation liaison officer in each of the 43 Police forces whose role it was to

133 The major impact of the changes is in the data collected through the victim forms and the self-completion questionnaire, because there is now less missing information.

134 Townsley et al. (2000), for example, refer to data from Police records in Brisbane which shows that almost 20% of victims of burglary were repeat victims.

disseminate the research in this area and, as of May 1999, all forces had repeat victimisation strategies in place (for more information, see Farrell et al. 2000). Later, repeat victimisation was adopted as one of the Police's performance indicators and a national target was set for the reduction of repeat burglaries. Booklets specifically aimed at giving the Police practical guidelines on how to define and identify repeat victims and how to develop strategies and practical steps to help repeat victims have also been published (see, for example, Bridgeman and Hobbs 1997).

3 Reporting victimisation to the Police and victims' satisfaction with the Police

3.1 Introduction

As was demonstrated in Chapter 2, the Police only got to know about two-fifths of the victimisations reported to interviewers by the participants in the 2001 NZNSCV. This chapter examines the reasons why victims reported or did not report their victimisation to the Police (Section 3.2). It also examines victims' satisfaction with the response of the Police to their reports of victimisation (Section 3.3). Finally, in Section 3.4, this chapter's key findings are summarised and, in Section 3.5, their policy implications are briefly discussed.

At appropriate points, this chapter also discusses the extent to which any changes have occurred between the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV. However, it needs to be reiterated here that victim forms in the 1996 NZNSCV were analysed differently from victim forms in the 2001 NZNSCV and there were more problems with missing data in 1996 (as outlined in Chapter 1). Comparisons, therefore, can only, at best, be seen as indicative of change rather than as confirmation that real changes have occurred. Throughout this chapter, findings are presented separately for data derived from the victim forms relating to the main questionnaire and data derived from the self-completion components of the questionnaire (which relate to violence by current partners and others well known to the victim and to sexual interference and sexual assault). This means that all tables exclude any reference to violence by current partners and others well known to the victim and to sexual interference and sexual assault.

3.2 Reporting victimisation to the Police

In Chapter 2, variations in the reporting of victimisation to the Police by the type of victimisation experienced were discussed. Table 2.4 showed that the Police got to know about 91% of vehicle thefts and 68% of burglaries, but only got to know about 23% of robberies and thefts from the home and 20% of threats. The Police also got to know about just 12% of sexual victimisations, 18% of violence by heterosexual partners and 25% of violence by others well known to the victim. In this section, we provide a little more detail on reporting patterns. First, we describe how the victimisation came to Police notice (Section 3.2.1). Next, we discuss the reason victims have for both reporting (Section 3.2.2) and not reporting (Section 3.2.3) their victimisation to the Police. Then we explore further the extent to which the seriousness and frequency of the victimisation is a factor in determining whether or not victims report their victimisation to the Police (Section 3.2.4). And, finally in this

Section, we examine the way in which a number of other factors – including victims' characteristics – may influence this decision (Section 3.2.5 to 3.2.7).

3.2.1 How victimisation comes to the notice of the Police

Victims whose victimisation had come to the notice of the Police were asked how the Police had found out about it. In the vast majority of cases (84%), the participant or some member of their household had reported the victimisation to the Police; in only 16% of the cases did the Police find out about the victimisation in some other way. This represents a slight change from the figure of 11% cited in the 1996 NZNSCV by Young et al. (1997).

However, these figures were very different with respect to certain types of victimisation, especially those involving some element of personal violence. In more than two-fifths (43%) of the assaults by people not well known to the victim, for example, and in two-fifths of the victimisations involving damage, the victimisation came to Police notice in some other way rather than through the victim reporting it. This was also the case for more than a third (36%) of the robberies and for more than a quarter (26%) of the threats by people not well known to the victim, as well as over a quarter (29%) of the offences by people well known to the victim (excluding current heterosexual partners).¹³⁵ Conversely, burglaries and interference with or theft from vehicles were discovered by the Police themselves much less frequently. Young et al (1997) reported with respect to the 1996 NZNSCV that 36% of assaults came to Police notice through some way other than the victim reporting it to them and so there is a slight increase in this respect. Exact figures for other offences were not cited.

It seems likely that at least some of the offences which the Police got to know about in some other way would not otherwise have been reported to them by the victims or by members of their household. This may then mean that at least some of the victimisations coming to the notice of the Police would have been regarded by the victims themselves either as too trivial to report to the Police or as able to be dealt with by themselves. There is some support for this in Table 3.2 which is discussed later in this chapter.

3.2.2 Reasons for reporting victimisation

The 1996 NZNSCV (Young et al. 1997) found, like surveys of crime victims in other countries,¹³⁶ that the major reasons why people report their victimisation to the Police have to do with helping to catch or punish the offender, a sense of obligation (because a crime has been committed) and the potential benefits to them of doing so (such as recovering the

135 The numbers involved are very small, so we cannot generalise from them, but four of the seven sexual victimisations (for which victim forms were completed and which came to Police notice) and 11 of the 24 incidents of violence by partners (for which victim forms were completed and which came to Police notice) came to Police notice through discovery by the Police rather than through the victim reporting the victimisation to them.

136 In the International Crime Surveys (Van Dijk 2001), for example, the most frequently-cited reasons for reporting victimisation to the Police were to recover the property, wanting the offender to be caught or punished and a belief that it should be reported. Repeat victims gave similar reasons, with the exception that they more often gave as a reason the desire to see the victimisation stopped. See also Hough and Mayhew, 1985; Mayhew et al. 1993; Mirrlees-Black et al. 1996, Mirrlees-Black et al. 1998, Kershaw et al. 2000 and Kershaw et al. 2001.

property, preventing further victimisation or getting help from the Police). The results from the 2001 NZNSCV essentially support these findings. The reasons for victims informing the Police of their victimisation are set out in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Reasons given by victims¹³⁷ for informing the Police: percentages

Reason for reporting	
To help catch/punish the offender	45.6
Because a crime was committed/obligation	42.4
Hoped to recover property	33.2
Needed for insurance claim	28.9
Fear of further victimisation	10.8
Other	7.4
Don't know	0.8

Sample size (incidents) 3,147.

Note: multiple responses possible

The main reasons cited were '*to help catch/punish the person who did this*' and '*because a crime was committed/obligation*'. Both were given by more than two-fifths of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police. However, around a third mentioned that they '*hoped to recover the property stolen*' and that they needed to comply with the requirements of making an insurance claim. Thus what can be called 'self-interest' was clearly a factor in some victims' decision to report their victimisation to the Police: reporting was an essential step in making an insurance claim or in recovering stolen property. Such reasons may explain why the Police got to know about most motor vehicle thefts and more than two-thirds of burglaries.

Not surprisingly, the recovery of property was a prominent reason given with respect to victims who reported a vehicle theft to the Police (this reason was mentioned by 67% of these victims), victims who reported a household theft to the Police (this reason was mentioned by 41% of these victims) and victims who reported a burglary to the Police (this reason was mentioned by 39% of these victims). The need to make insurance claims was commonly given by victims who reported a vehicle theft to the Police (this reason was mentioned by 41% of these victims) and by victims who reported interference with or theft from a vehicle to the Police (this reason mentioned by 41% of these victims). Fear of further victimisation mainly emerged as a reason where victims reported threats (this reason was mentioned by 70% of these victims) or assaults (this reason was mentioned by 39% of these victims) to the Police.

The pattern for repeat victims of burglary was broadly similar to the general pattern just described, though a smaller proportion gave as a reason that reporting their victimisation to the Police was needed for an insurance claim (this reason was mentioned by a fifth of these victims) and a greater proportion said that they hoped to get their property back by reporting their victimisation to the Police (this reason was mentioned by two-fifths of these victims). In

¹³⁷ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

contrast, the pattern for repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim was rather different. For example, more than a fifth (22%) of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said they reported their victimisation to the Police out of fear of further victimisation (compared with only 14% of those who were the victim of one such violent offence). And far fewer gave as a reason *'to help catch/punish the offender'* (29% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said this, compared with almost half of victims generally, and of those who were the victim of one such violent offence [46% and 47% respectively]) or *'because a crime was committed/obligation'* (17% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said this, compared with more than two-fifths [42%] of victims generally, and almost half [47%] of those who were the victim of one such violent offence).

The main reasons for reporting violence by partners were very different, although we need to be careful here about generalising because of the small number of victimisations of this type reported to the Police. Two-thirds gave as a reason that they were *'scared that the incident would be repeated'* and almost two-fifths (37%) said that it was *'to get help for their partner'*. Almost a third (32%) said that it was *'to help punish their partner'*. Only 13% gave as a reason the fact that *'a crime had been committed'*. These findings are fairly consistent with the New Zealand Women's Safety Survey 1996 (Morris 1997) though the numbers there were also very small. When the women in that survey were asked why they had called the Police on the last occasion, the most frequent responses were that they were *'very frightened'*, that they were *'afraid of what might happen'* and because of the *'seriousness of the violence'*.

'Being scared that the incident would be repeated' was also the most common reason given for reporting their victimisation to the Police by the victims of violence by others well known to them; this was stated by almost half (47%). However, the next most common reason given was that *'a crime had been committed'*: over two-fifths said this. A third said that their reason was *'to help punish the person who did this'* but almost a third (29%) said that they reported the victimisation *'to get help for the person who did this'*.¹³⁸

3.2.3 Reasons for not reporting victimisation

The reasons given by victims for not reporting their victimisation to the Police were, in many ways, mirror images of the reasons given for reporting them. These are set out in Table 3.2.

138 As noted earlier, only seven of the 57 sexual victimisations for which participants in the 2001 NZNSCV completed victim forms had come to the notice of the Police. All of those reporting their victimisation to the Police said that they had done so because they were scared that it would be repeated; two said that the reason was *'to help punish the person who did this'*; two said that they did so because a crime had been committed; and one person gave both these reasons. The numbers involved here are obviously very small and care must be taken against generalising from these data.

Table 3.2 Reasons why victims did not report their victimisation to the Police by type of victimisation:¹³⁹ percentages

Reason	All	Assault	Robbery	Vehicle interference	Damage	Theft ex home	Vehicle theft	Threats	Burglary
Too trivial/ not worth reporting	51.7	36.8	57.6	50.1	63.5	55.2	36.1	38.	45.9
Police could have done nothing	17.9	9.8	23.5	26.7	23.1	14.1	13.6	11.	18.6
Dealt with it ourselves	11.4	25.7	5.7	6.6	8.3	12.7	33.7	19.	9.3
Private/ personal/ family matter	8.8	13.7	0.0	2.8	11.4	11.3	4.5	14.	10.0
Didn't have enough evidence	7.8	5.2	5.3	7.0	2.5	10.8	5.9	3.	6.1
Police would not be interested	7.5	5.1	0.0	11.9	6.9	7.4	6.2	3.	4.3
Inconvenient/ too much trouble	4.2	3.3	0.0	6.3	3.8	6.0	7.9	0.	0.5
Police too busy	2.5	0.8	0.0	3.6	5.3	3.1	0.0	2.	3.6
No loss/ damage	2.1	0.3	8.5	4.0	1.3	0.2	4.0	1.	8.0
Reported to other authorities	2.8	4.3	4.2	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.0	5.	0.5
Make matters worse	2.4	1.6	4.3	0.7	0.0	2.4	0.0	12.	0.5
Fear of revenge	2.3	2.5	2.4	0.2	1.0	3.6	5.9	7.	0.0
Dislike/fear of Police	0.7	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.4	0.0	0.	0.0
Other	2.9	3.6	0.0	2.4	2.0	3.6	0.0	1.	2.4
No particular reason	5.7	6.1	2.9	6.1	4.7	3.3	1.2	6.	9.9
Sample size (incidents)	3147	164	44	609	221	676	126	18	415

Note: multiple responses possible.

139 Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table. Information on the reasons for not reporting 'unlawfully on the premises' are also not included here because of the small number of such victimisations for which victim forms were completed - 61. The same logic should have resulted in the exclusion of 'robbery' since there were only 44 of these for which victim forms were completed. These have, however, been included for interest, although the data are unlikely to be reliable.

Table 3.2 shows that the reason most frequently given by victims for failing to inform the Police about their victimisation was its perceived triviality. This represents no change from the main finding in the 1996 NZNSCV. However, as in the 1996 NZNSCV, other reasons were clearly relevant too. For example:

- 18% of victims believed that the Police could have done little or nothing about the victimisation;
- 11% of victims believed that the matter had been or would be dealt with by the parties themselves; and
- 9% of victims believed that the victimisation was a private, personal or family matter.

This suggests that victims' perceptions of the Police's abilities to detect offenders and what is or is not appropriate for handling by them were also influential in their decision whether or not to report their victimisation to the Police.

This picture does change, however, when one examines different types of victimisation. While triviality was always the most common reason given for not reporting victimisation to the Police, Table 3.2 shows that it was much more frequently given by victims of damage (64%), robberies (58%) and thefts from the home (55%) than it was by victims of threats (38%) or assaults (37%). On the other hand, Table 3.2 also shows that victims of assaults and threats were also more likely than most other victims¹⁴⁰ to say that they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves (26% and 19% respectively) or to regard the victimisation as a private or personal matter (14% and 11% respectively). Furthermore, Table 3.2 shows that victims of assaults and threats, along with the victims of robberies, were also slightly more likely to say that they had reported the victimisation to other authorities (four percent, six percent and four percent respectively). Victims of interference with or theft from vehicles were the most likely to say that the Police could have done nothing about their victimisation, closely followed by victims of robberies and of damage (27%, 24% and 23% respectively). Victims of interference with or theft from vehicles were also the most likely to say that the Police would not have been bothered about or interested in their victimisation (12% said this). Concern about making matters worse was most commonly cited by those who failed to report threats to the Police (12% said this). Though there are some slight changes in the distribution of particular reasons given by victims of particular offences, this overall pattern reflects little change from the findings of the NZNSCV 1996.

The pattern of reasons given by victims of violence by heterosexual partners for not reporting their victimisation to the Police was very different from most other types of victimisation. More than 60% said that it was a private, personal or family matter and almost two-fifths said that they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves. Only a quarter said that the matter was too trivial and not worth reporting to the Police. This differs a little from the findings of the New Zealand Women's Safety Survey 1996 (Morris 1997). By far the most common reason given by the women in that survey was that they *'didn't think it was serious*

¹⁴⁰ The victims of vehicle thefts were the exception. It is difficult to explain this and it may simply be a result of the relatively small number of victim forms completed for this type of victimisation or the result of chance.

enough'. However, this contrasted with the findings, also reported in that survey, that many of the women who experienced violence at the hands of their heterosexual partners ranked it as 'serious' and said that it had had a considerable impact on them. The next most commonly-cited reason in the New Zealand Women's Safety Survey 1996 for not involving the Police was *'I thought I could handle it myself'* which is consistent with the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV.

The pattern for victims who did not report violence by other people well known to them was very similar to the pattern for victims of violence by heterosexual partners: more than half said that it was a private, personal or family matter and a third said that they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves. Only just over a fifth said that the matter was too trivial and not worth reporting to the Police.

The participants who mentioned they had been the victims of sexual interference or sexual assault also most frequently gave as reasons for not reporting their victimisation to the Police that it was a private, personal or family matter (mentioned by 45%); that they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves (mentioned by 36%); and that the matter was too trivial and not worth reporting (mentioned by 30%). However, other reasons were given too: for example, more than a quarter (26%) said that they did not have enough evidence to support their claim; almost a quarter (23%) said that reporting the victimisation could have made matters worse; 17% gave as a reason that the Police were too busy; and 16% gave as a reason that the Police could have done nothing. The number of victims involved here is quite small (50) and these reasons should be treated as indicative only. However, at least some of the reasons cited are consistent with the overseas literature. This is discussed further in Chapter 6.

Consistent with the main findings of the 2001 NZNSCV, Van Dijk (2001), found, in the International Crime Survey, that the most commonly cited reasons for not reporting victimisation to the Police were that it was not serious enough, the Police could do nothing about it and the Police would not do anything about it. However, he found that repeat victims were less likely to see their victimisation as not serious enough. This latter finding also finds support in the 2001 NZNSCV. Repeat victims of burglary were much less likely than others to say that their victimisation was too trivial and not worth reporting to the Police (two-fifths said this compared with around a half of the victims of other offences or the victims of one burglary); and they were much less likely than others to say that they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves (eight percent said this compared with 12% of the victims of other offences and 13% of the victims of one burglary). On the other hand, repeat victims of burglary were more likely to say that there was not enough evidence to report the victimisation to the Police (14% said this, compared with seven percent of the victims of other offences and eight percent of the victims of one burglary), were more likely to say that there was no loss or damage (four percent said this, compared with two percent of the victims of other offences and the victims of one burglary) and were more likely to give no particular reason for not reporting the burglary (12% said this, compared with four percent of the victims of other offences and six percent of the victims of one burglary).

There were some differences between repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and victims of other offences. For example, 12% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim saw the victimisation as a private,

personal or family matter, compared with seven percent of the victims of other offences. Six percent of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim had reported the matter to other authorities compared with only two percent of the victims of other offences. There were also some differences between repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and victims of one such violent offence. For example, 11% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said they had dealt (or would deal) with the matter themselves, compared with 16% of those who were the victim of one such violent offence; and 17% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said that the Police could have done nothing, compared with 11% of those who were the victim of one such violent offence.

3.2.4 The seriousness of victimisation and the Police getting to know about the victimisation

It is apparent that the seriousness of the victimisation was a factor in victims' decisions not to report their victimisation to the Police, and this section examines this further by looking at the data on whether or not the Police got to know about the victimisation.¹⁴¹ Unlike the British Crime Survey, the 2001 NZNSCV made no attempt to measure directly victims' perceptions of offence seriousness.¹⁴² However, the amount of loss or damage incurred, the degree of injury experienced, the use of weapons and the overall effects of the victimisation were examined to assess whether or not they were linked to the Police getting to know about the victimisation.

Insofar as loss or damage was concerned, the likelihood of the Police knowing about the incident increased dramatically as the amount increased. For example, the Police got to know about 69% of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV where the total value of what was stolen was more than \$500 but under \$1000, and they got to know about 90% of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV where the total value was more than \$1000. Similarly, the Police got to know about 70% of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV where the total value of the damage done was more than \$500 but under \$1000, and they got to know about 82% of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV where the total value of the damage done was more than \$1000. Taken together, the Police got to know about almost two-thirds (65%) of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV involving losses or damage of more than \$500 but under \$1000, and they got to know about 86% of the victimisations mentioned in the 2001 NZNSCV involving losses or damage of more than \$1000.

Overall, the Police were more likely to get to know about the assaults with the more serious consequences. Thus, the Police got to know about more than two-fifths (43%) of the assaults where victims were injured in some way, half of those where the victim experienced bruises

141 Although 'the Police getting to know about the victimisation' and 'the victim saying they reported their victimisation to the Police' are different, the former are treated as a proxy measure for the latter in these analyses, as it was in the 1996 NZNSCV, to maintain comparability. It should be noted that most of the references to differences in victims' reporting practices in Young et al. (1997) are actually based on analyses of differences in the Police getting to know about victimisations.

142 Participants in recent British Crime Surveys were asked to rate the seriousness of their victimisation on a scale of one to 20. It was intended to replicate something on these lines in the 2001 NZNSCV, but this question was eventually dropped because of the length of the questionnaire.

and black eyes, more than three-quarters of those where victims had experienced scratches, cuts, or broken bones, or where victims had received medical attention, and all of those which resulted in victims staying at least overnight in hospital. They were also more likely to get to know about the threats and assaults which involved the use of some sort of weapon than the threats and assaults which did not: 41% as opposed to 30%. However, the Police also got to know about more than a third (36%) of the assaults where victims were not injured in any way.

Another measure of the seriousness of the victimisation is the impact it has on the victim. Overall, the Police were more likely to get to know about the victimisation when victims said that, as a result of the victimisation, they had felt shocked, had felt afraid for themselves or their children, had experienced difficulty sleeping, had cried, had had depression or anxiety attacks, had felt ashamed or guilty, had felt bad about themselves, had increased their use of alcohol, drugs or medication or had felt disappointed; but the Police were less likely to get to know about the victimisation when victims said simply that they felt annoyed or irritated about the victimisation or when they said that they had no reaction at all.

Table 3.3 contrasts the most important effects of violent and individual property offences by whether or not the Police got to know about the victimisation.

Table 3.3 shows that those whose victimisation became known to the Police tended to express the same spread of reactions as those whose victimisation did not become known to the Police. However, generally speaking, the greater the emotional impact of the victimisation, the more likely it was that the Police got to know about the victimisation, especially with respect to individual property offences.

The Police were also more likely to get to know about the victimisation when victims said that they were 'very much' affected by their victimisation and much less likely to get to know about it when victims said that they were affected 'just a little' or 'not at all'. However, the Police were only slightly more likely to get to know about the victimisation if victims saw their victimisation as a crime. On the other hand, the Police were much less likely to get to know about the victimisation when victims saw the victimisation as 'wrong but not a crime' or as 'just something which happened'.

The emphasis, then, that victims give to the perceived triviality of their victimisation as a reason for not reporting the matter to the Police tends to be strongly borne out by this analysis of the types of victimisations which the Police get to know about. Most of the measures of objective and perceived seriousness referred to have tended to confirm that, by and large, the Police are more likely to get to know about victimisation which is more serious than victimisation where the impact is less serious. Nevertheless, there are still many victimisations that were either objectively serious in their consequences for the victim or were likely to be perceived as such by the Police that never came to the notice of the Police. For example, only around two-fifths of the assaults or threats involving a weapon came to the notice of the Police – and even then some of those only came to the notice of the Police through discovering it themselves. Conversely, a number of less serious victimisations did come to the notice of the Police in spite of the absence of loss, damage or injury. For example, 30% of assaults and threats which did not involve a weapon came to Police notice. More than just the seriousness of the victimisation, therefore, seems to be involved in

whether or not the Police get to know about victimisations. We explored three further factors in the next sections: the relationship between the offender and the victim; where the victimisation occurred; and the characteristics of the victim.

Table 3.3 Victims' reactions to victimisation by victimisation type¹⁴³ and by whether or not the Police knew about the victimisation: percentages mentioning each reaction

Reactions	Violence		Individual Property	
	Known	Not known	Known	Not known
Annoyed/irritated	59.6	50.6	74.0	72.2
Angry	52.8	59.6	64.2	51.6
Afraid	33.9	27.5	17.0	3.2
More cautious/aware	34.0	30.6	38.1	23.4
Shocked	27.4	40.0	30.9	12.1
Difficulty sleeping	20.2	5.7	17.4	1.6
Depression/anxiety	8.2	3.6	12.9	1.9
Relationship problems	8.1	7.5	6.9	4.3
Felt bad about self	6.4	9.8	13.3	2.6
Cried	6.0	6.4	13.1	2.4
Afraid for children	5.2	9.1	7.8	1.0
Increased use of alcohol/drugs/ medication	4.4	5.2	10.5	2.6
Shame/guilt	3.3	4.8	3.2	0.9
Other	18.3	1.9	11.2	3.8
None	8.6	9.4	0.9	1.8
Sample size (incidents)	354		590	

Note: a number of reactions with very small numbers have been excluded from this table. Multiple responses are possible.

¹⁴³ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

3.2.5 Victim-offender relationships (where the offender is not well known to the victim) and the Police getting to know about the victimisation

It is important to stress at the outset of this section that it excludes discussion of violence by partners and by offenders well known to the victim such as ex-partners or family members, and also sexual interference and assault. These are discussed in Chapters 5 and 6 respectively. This means that we are really discussing in this chapter whether or not it makes a difference in the Police getting to know about the victimisation when the offenders are not known at all to the victims (strangers) and when they are known in some way (for example, by sight or just casually), but are not well known to them. This distinction between these categories is, therefore, to some extent marginal.

For all the victimisations analysed in this section, the offender was able to be identified and was known in some way to the victim prior to the victimisation in two-fifths of the victimisations. However, this varied according to the type of victimisation: almost half the offenders (47%) who were identified were known in some way to the victims of household offences; in contrast, offenders who were identified were known in some way to their victims in just over a third of the violent offences (34%) and of the individual property offences (35%). From this information, we were able to examine whether or not knowing the offender in some way affected the likelihood of the Police getting to know of the victimisation.

Table 3.4 shows the percentage of victimisations which the Police got to know about according to whether or not the offender was known in some way to the victim.

Table 3.4 Percentage of victimisations the Police got to know about by whether or not offender known in some way to victim by type of victimisation¹⁴⁴

Relationship	All	Household	Violence	Individual property
Unknown	47.3	70.8	33.1	37.4
Known	34.9	29.8	34.7	46.3
Don't know	1.1	0.0	0.7	0.2
Sample size (incidents)	950	421	327	149

¹⁴⁴ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table. The way in which information is presented in Table 3.4 differs from that in Table 3.4 in Young et al. (1997) because of changes in the questionnaire. In the 2001 NZNSCV, there was an initial question about whether or not the victims saw or found out about who 'their' offender was and they were only asked whether or not the offender was previously known to them if they responded affirmatively to this question. There was no such initial question in the 1996 questionnaire and so Table 3.4 in Young et al. (1997) includes a category 'not specified' and the proportion of 'don't know' responses is very much higher than in Table 3.4 in this Report. Victims who did not see or find about their offender are excluded from Table 3.4 above.

Taking victimisations as a whole, knowing the offender in some way reduced the chances of the Police knowing about the victimisation. However, on a more detailed breakdown, this held true only for household offences (as it did in the 1996 NZNSCV). Violence was as likely to be known about by the Police where the assailant was known in some way as where he or she was unknown.¹⁴⁵ Moreover, for individual property offences, the Police were more likely to get to know about the victimisation where the offender was known in some way to the victim.

Data were collected on how victims knew the offender(s). These data suggest that this further influenced whether or not the Police got to know about the victimisation. For example, the Police got to know about more than two-thirds (69%) of the violent offences which involved neighbours or neighbourhood children, compared with less than a third (31%) where the offender was known to the victim just to speak to casually and under a fifth (18%) where the offender was known to the victim only by sight. These data suggest that victims' ability to give the Police information about the offender's identity and the expectation that the Police will take some action outweighs any feeling that, due to the identity of the offender, the matter is a private or personal one. In these situations, too, it makes much more sense to report neighbours and their children to the Police to prevent a repetition of the offence than it does for people you know only by sight.

A less clear-cut picture emerged where individual property offences were concerned. The Police got to know about more than half (54%) of these types of victimisation when neighbours or neighbourhood children were involved and 80% of those where the offender was known to the victim just by sight, but they only got to know about just over a quarter (26%) of those where the offender was known just to speak to casually.

3.2.6 Place of victimisation and the Police getting to know about violence by those not well known to the victim

Those who reported violence by partners and by others well known to them in the self-completion component of the survey were not asked about the place in which the violence took place. Nor were victims of sexual interference and assault. This section, therefore, discusses only whether or not the place in which the victimisation occurred had some impact on the Police getting to know about offences of violence by people not well known to the victim.

There was some evidence that violence which occurred in pubs, clubs or nightclubs or on the street was much more likely to come to Police notice than violence which was home-based. This is in contrast to the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV where it is stated that violence which was work-related or which occurred in pubs, clubs or nightclubs was much less likely to be reported to the Police than violence which occurred elsewhere (Young et al. 1997, 58). They offer some possible explanations for this – for example, that the victims may see themselves as in some way 'culpable'. However, these are no more than speculations. A possible explanation for the different finding in the 2001 NZNSCV is that, in more than two-fifths of

¹⁴⁵ It is important to stress here again that this discussion relates to violence by people not well known to the victim.

the assaults, the victimisation came to Police notice in some way other than the victim reporting it to them.

3.2.7 Victims' characteristics and the Police getting to know about the victimisation

Irrespective of the seriousness of the victimisation, it has long been assumed that the Police are more likely to get to know about the victimisation of some groups than others. This section explores whether or not, for some types of victimisation at least, the victimisation which the Police get to know about is associated with such variables as household structure, housing tenure, socio-economic status, age, sex, ethnicity, and employment status. Again, violence by partners and others well known to the victim and sexual victimisation are not discussed in this section.

Table 3.5 sets out information on whether or not the Police got to know about household offences by the household's structure and tenure.

Table 3.5 Percentage of household offences within the 2001 NZNSCV which the Police got to know about, by the household's structure and tenure

	Known to police
Household structure	
couple no children	52.4
other family combination	50.5
extended family/ whānau	48.1
couple with children	47.8
person alone	42.2
solo parent + children	40.3
flat	38.3
Tenure	
owned	49.7
rented	42.5
Housing NZ	57.6
local authority	40.0
private owner	38.5
Sample size (incidents)	1884

For household offences, as Table 3.5 indicates, household structure does matter: the Police were less likely to get to know about the victimisation of those living in flats, of solo parents and of those living on their own than about the victimisation of couples with or without

children or of those living within the extended family or in other family combinations. Type of housing tenure seems relevant too: the Police were less likely to get to know about the victimisation of those living in rented property, with the exception of those renting from Housing New Zealand, than the victimisation of those living in owner occupied houses. These findings are consistent with those in the 1996 NZNSCV.

Table 3.6 provides information on whether or not victimisations became known to the Police by the socio-economic status of the victims.

Table 3.6 Percentage of victimisations which the Police got to know about by victimisation type¹⁴⁶ and by victims' socio-economic status (NZSEI)¹⁴⁷

	Household	Violence	Individual property
NZSEI not specified	46.3	14.6	38.8
NZSEI 10-29	43.6	18.0	26.7
NZSEI 30-39	43.7	26.2	49.0
NZSEI 40-49	43.5	29.7	25.6
NZSEI 50-59	52.8	28.2	28.3
NZSEI 60-74	51.9	63.3	43.4
NZSEI 75-90	38.5	51.1	27.5
Sample size (incidents)	1884	348	590

Where household offences are concerned, Table 3.6 shows that the Police were slightly more likely to get to know about victimisations when the victim was a member of higher social status groups (with the exception of those grouped in NZSEI 75-90). This may be linked with other factors which resulted in the Police getting to know about victimisations – for example, the victims' need to comply with the requirements of an insurance company. In terms of household structure, as noted earlier, the Police were less likely to get to know about the victimisation of three groups – those living in flats, solo parents and those living on their own. These living situations may be linked with lower socio-economic status and also with living in rented accommodation. As far as household offences are concerned, therefore, the victim's socio-economic status, housing tenure and household structure all seem to be related but we have not explored this. What seems apparent, however, is that, by and large, for household offences, the Police are more likely to get to know about the victimisation of those who are relatively affluent.

The picture which emerged for violent and individual property offences was rather different with respect to socio-economic status. For violent offences by those not well known to the victim in the 2001 NZNSCV, the Police were much more likely to get to know about the victimisation of members of higher socio-economic status groups. This is different from the

¹⁴⁶ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

¹⁴⁷ See 'Definitions of terms' for how this scale is derived.

findings of the 1996 NZNSCV where there was no clear trend, but the numbers here are really too small to be reliable. With respect to individual property offending in the 2001 NZNSCV, the picture, as in the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV (Young et al. 1997), was not clear-cut.

Clearer trends emerge with respect to sex, age, ethnicity and employment status. This information is set out for violent and individual property offences in Table 3.7. It shows that the Police were more likely to get to know about violent offences by those not well known to the victim where men were victims than where women were victims. This is probably explained by the greater frequency of violence against women occurring at home (even when violence by partners and others well known to the victim are excluded) whereas violence against men tended to occur more frequently on the streets, 'other' places or in pubs, clubs or nightclubs. These data are presented in Table 4.1. On the other hand, the Police were less likely to get to know about individual property offences where men were victims than where women were victims. Generally speaking, Table 3.7 also shows that the younger the victim, the less likely their victimisation was to come to the notice of the Police.

For violence by those not well known to the victim, there was considerable difference between the different ethnic groups. For example, the Police were much less likely to get to know about violent offences by those not well known to the victim where the victim was Māori than where the victim was New Zealand European/European or a Pacific person. This is different from the re-analysed data¹⁴⁸ from the 1996 NZNSCV where, after correcting for multiple ethnicities, the Police were much less likely to get to know about violent offences by those not well known to the victim when the victim was a Pacific person. The recalculated figures are 26%, 24% and 14% for European, Māori and Pacific victims respectively. Of course, the sample of Pacific participants in the 1996 NZNSCV was small and this finding may not be as reliable as that of the 2001 NZNSCV.

Where individual property offences were concerned, the differences in the 2001 NZNSCV with respect to ethnicity were much less marked and, again, differed from the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV on this point. Young et al. (1997, 61) stated that Māori were less willing to report such offences to the Police than other ethnic groups and that Pacific participants were much more willing to report such offences to the Police than other ethnic groups.¹⁴⁹ These differences remained correct after re-analysis to take account of multiple ethnicities. However, there were only a few individual property offences which had Pacific victims and so we should not put too much emphasis on this comparison.

Table 3.7 shows, again in contrast to the findings of 1996 NZNSCV, that the Police were not less likely to get to know about the violent offences by those not well known to the victim and individual property offences experienced by those in paid employment. Rather, the Police were less likely to get to know about the violent offences by those not well known to

148 The figures presented in the Report of the 1996 NZNSCV (Young et al. 1997) were based on 'solely Māori' and 'solely Pacific' people, which are smaller and more homogeneous groups than all Māori and all Pacific people (which are the groups referred to in data from the 2001 NZNSCV). We, therefore, re-analysed these data, using multiply-coded ethnicity, so that we could make direct comparisons between the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and of the 2001 NZNSCV.

149 Strictly speaking, what they found was that the Police were less likely to get to know about individual property offences where the victims were Māori and that they were more likely to get to know about these offences where the victims were Pacific peoples.

the victim experienced by those on home duties, students and those on social welfare benefits; and they were also less likely to get to know about the individual property offences experienced by those on home duties and by students. Table 3.7 also shows that the Police were most likely to get to know about violent offences by those not well known to the victim where the victim was retired; and the groups whose individual property offences the Police were most likely to get to know about were those on benefits, the retired and those in paid employment.

Table 3.7 Percentage of violent offences by people not well known to the victim and individual property offences which the Police got to know about by victims' characteristics

	Violent	Individual property
Sex		
Male	36.3	28.1
Female	27.5	42.4
Age		
15-16	20.2	7.4
17-24	26.6	36.3
25-39	49.4	35.7
40-59	31.6	48.9
60+	51.2	42.0
Ethnicity		
NZ European/European	35.1	34.0
Māori	19.3	37.7
Pacific	44.2	29.8
Other	14.2	30.1
Employment		
Paid employment	42.2	40.1
Home duties	30.2	28.5
Retired/Superannuitant	53.7	44.4
Beneficiaries	17.1	46.8
Student	26.1	10.9
Sample size (incidents)	348	590

3.3 Victims' satisfaction with the Police

This section examines victims' satisfaction with the response of the Police to their reports of victimisation and discusses separately data derived from victim forms in the main questionnaire and the data derived from the self-completion component of the survey. Van Dijk (2001), on the basis of International Crime Survey data, found that less than half the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were satisfied with their treatment. However, most studies in New Zealand have suggested higher figures than this (MM Research 2002; Young et al. 1997; MRL Research Group, 1993, 1995; Robinson et al. 1989). The 1996 NZNSCV, for example, found that 58% of victims were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police dealt with their case (Young et al. 1997, 65) and the most recent annual survey of public satisfaction with the Police shows that 65% of victims who had contact with the Police in the last 12 months were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with this contact (MM Research 2002, 11).¹⁵⁰ Table 3.8 presents the data on levels of satisfaction from the 2001 NZNSCV.

Table 3.8 Victims' levels of satisfaction with Police response to reporting victimisation by type of victimisation:¹⁵¹ percentages

	All victimisations	Assault	Interference with/ theft from vehicle	Damage	Theft ex house	Threats	Burglary	Vehicle theft
Very satisfied	21.3	9.9	14.4	29.6	31.7	20.3	28.3	33.1
Satisfied	29.6	33.4	29.6	21.3	30.9	19.5	30.1	32.6
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	18.7	14.9	16.2	8.8	17.5	22.0	11.4	18.4
Dissatisfied	13.5	4.7	22.2	19.6	13.6	11.9	12.1	9.4
Very dissatisfied	12.0	6.5	15.5	5.1	5.5	14.2	16.6	6.4
Don't know	4.9	30.6	2.2	15.6	0.8	12.0	1.6	0.0
Sample size (incidents)	1218	57	268	67	175	45	273	109

A number of points need to be made here. First, the proportion of victims reporting that they were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' has gone down since the 1996 NZNSCV: from 59% to slightly over half (51%).¹⁵² Second, the proportion stating that they were 'very dissatisfied' has gone up: from seven percent in the 1996 NZNSCV to 12% in the 2001 NZNSCV.

¹⁵⁰ This was a telephone survey with an overall response rate of 45%.

¹⁵¹ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table. Robbery and unlawfully on the premises have also been excluded from Table 3.8 because of the very small numbers involved: there were only 44 robberies for which victim forms were completed and 55 offences of unlawfully on premises. However, for interest, the data show that about a third of the victims of robbery said that they were 'very dissatisfied' with the Police response to their victimisation and over half (56%) said that they were 'very dissatisfied' or 'dissatisfied'.

¹⁵² This is lower than the figure given by Yeo and Budd (1998) with respect to the 1998 British Crime Survey. Overall, 63% of victims who reported their offences to the Police were 'very satisfied' or 'fairly satisfied' with the Police.

Overall, the proportion saying that they were 'dissatisfied' or 'very dissatisfied' increased from almost a fifth in the 1996 NZNSCV to more than a quarter (26%) in the 2001 NZNSCV.¹⁵³ Third, the level of satisfaction varied considerably between the different types of victimisation. Those expressing the highest levels of satisfaction were the victims of vehicle theft, theft from the house, damage and burglary. However, victims of burglary also expressed a relatively high level of dissatisfaction (29%), as did victims of interference with or theft from a vehicle and victims of threats.

Young et al. (1997) commented that the levels of satisfaction of victims of assault and threats in the 1996 NZNSCV were around the 'norm' but that their dissatisfaction rates were much higher. This was not the case in the 2001 NZNSCV with respect to assault victims: only 11% of them were 'dissatisfied' or 'very dissatisfied'; and, with respect to threats, the proportion 'very dissatisfied' went down: from around a quarter in the 1996 NZNSCV to 14% in the 2001 NZNSCV.

The numbers are too small to comment on victims' satisfaction with the Police response with respect to violence between partners and sexual victimisation. However, with respect to violence by others well known to the victim, a fifth of those who reported their violence to the Police said they were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had responded to them and more than half (55%) said that they were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied'. However, more than a quarter (28%) were 'very dissatisfied' or 'dissatisfied' with the way in which the Police had responded to them.

We examined the levels of satisfaction of repeat victims. There are a number of points to note here too. First, a high proportion of repeat burglary victims (29%) reported that they were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had handled the matter. This figure was higher than it was for victims of offences other than burglary (17% were 'very satisfied') and for those who had been the victim of burglary once (23% were 'very satisfied'). Second, repeat burglary victims also had a high level of being 'very dissatisfied':¹⁵⁴ 22% said this, compared with nine percent of victims of offences other than burglary and 11% of those who had been the victim of burglary once. Third, few repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had handled the matter: only seven percent said this compared with 14% of those who had been the victims of one such violent offence and 28% of those who had been the victim of offences other than violence. Fourth, there was little difference in the proportion of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and those who had been the victims of one such violent offence saying that they were 'very dissatisfied' (18% and 21% respectively). However, only eight percent of those who had been the victim of an offence other than violence said this.

153 This is not much different from the percentage cited in the most recent annual survey of public satisfaction with Police service carried out for the New Zealand Police by MM Research (2002). There, it is said that 21% of victims who had contact with the Police in the last 12 months were 'dissatisfied' or 'very dissatisfied'. This represents an increase over the figures cited for each year since 1997. However, the manner of conducting the survey changed in 2002 and the response rate increased markedly (though it was still, as noted previously, only 45%).

154 On the basis for data from the International Crime Survey, van Dijk (2001) found that repeat victims were less satisfied with the Police. In addition to being dissatisfied because the Police did not find the offender, they were also dissatisfied because they felt the Police were impolite.

3.3.1 Victims' characteristics and satisfaction with the Police

Victims' satisfaction with the Police was also related to their characteristics. Women were more likely than men to report being 'very satisfied' with the way the Police dealt with the matter (27% of female victims said this, compared with 16% of male victims) and they were less likely to report being 'very dissatisfied' (10% of female victims said this compared with 14% of male victims).

In the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV, Young et al. (1997) stated that Māori and Pacific victims were markedly less satisfied and more dissatisfied with the response of the Police than other ethnic groups.¹⁵⁵ This remains so in the 2001 NZNSCV for Māori victims: only 15% said that they were 'very satisfied', compared with 20% of Pacific victims and 23% of New Zealand European/European victims. However, if 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied' are combined, the difference between Māori and New Zealand European/European victims becomes less marked – 46% and 51% respectively – but the difference between these two ethnic groups and Pacific victims becomes more marked: 59% of Pacific victims said that they were 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied'. Also, although almost a fifth (17%) of Māori victims said that they were 'very dissatisfied', only four percent of Pacific victims and 11% of New Zealand European/European victims said this. If 'very dissatisfied' and 'dissatisfied' are combined, these differences between the different ethnic groups are maintained: the figures are 33%, 14% and 24% respectively.¹⁵⁶ Māori men were particularly likely to say that they were 'very dissatisfied': more than a fifth (22%) said this compared with 12% of New Zealand European/European men and of 12% of Māori women.

Younger victims also tended to be less satisfied and more dissatisfied than older victims – for example, only 15% of 15 to 24 year old victims¹⁵⁷ said that they were 'very satisfied', compared with more than a quarter (26%) of 40 to 59 year old victims and almost two-fifths (37%) of victims aged 60 and over. If the two satisfaction categories are combined, more than two-fifths (44%) of 15 to 24 year old victims¹⁵⁸ reported that they were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied', compared with almost half (48%) of 25 to 39 year old victims, well over half (58%) of 40 to 59 year old victims and almost two-thirds (62%) of victims aged 60 and over; and 16% of 15 to 24 year olds reported that they were 'very dissatisfied',¹⁵⁹ compared with 13% of 40 to 59 year old victims and of victims aged 60 and over.¹⁶⁰ Women of all ages (except those

155 These findings are consistent with the survey of the Wellington region (Robinson et al. 1989: 58-60) and with the MRL survey (MRL Research Group, 1993: 93-100). The report by MM Research on public satisfaction with the Police refers to higher levels of satisfaction among European New Zealanders and Pacific People than among Māori, but these figures are for the public generally, and not for victims, and the sample of Pacific People is very small (2002, 12). These findings on ethnicity also echo similar overseas surveys (see, for example, Skogan, 1994: 24-25).

156 It should be noted here that 13% of Pacific victims said that they 'didn't know' or 'couldn't say' how satisfied they were. It is difficult to know how to interpret this.

157 Only six percent of 15 and 16 year olds and 16% of 17 to 24 year old victims were 'very satisfied'. However, a large proportion of the 15 and 16 year old victims (19%) said that they 'didn't know' or 'couldn't say' how satisfied they were.

158 The figure for 15 and 16 year olds was 47% and for 17 to 24 year olds it was 43%.

159 The figure for 15 and 16 year olds was four percent and for 17 to 24 year olds it was 18%.

160 The number of incidents relied on in this discussion are, on occasions quite small: in the age groups 15-16, 17-24, 25-39, 40-59 and 60 and over, they were 42, 195, 433, 395 and 152 respectively.

aged 40 to 59)¹⁶¹ were more likely than men in the same age group to say that they were 'very satisfied' with the Police response.¹⁶²

Victims who were students and victims who were beneficiaries were also more likely to say that they were dissatisfied: around a third of each group said they were 'very dissatisfied' or 'dissatisfied' compared with just over a fifth of those involved in home duties and of those currently employed. Indeed, almost a fifth (17%) of the victims who were beneficiaries said they were 'very dissatisfied' with the Police response. There seemed to be no clear trend with respect to socio-economic status (though more of those in the lower socio-economic status group said they were 'very dissatisfied'). Fewer of those living in Auckland, other metropolitan areas and rural and minor urban areas said that they were 'very satisfied' with the Police response. However, those living in rural and minor urban areas also expressed most dissatisfaction (along with those living in other main urban areas).¹⁶³ Those living in the South Island had the lowest level of satisfaction (only just over two-fifths (41%) said they were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied' compared with over half (52%) of those living in the Upper North Island and well over half (58%) of those living in the Lower North Island).

It is unclear how these findings should be interpreted.¹⁶⁴ Dissatisfaction among particular groups may, for example, be the result of pre-existing attitudes and expectations that such groups have of the Police.¹⁶⁵ On the other hand, dissatisfaction may be the product of the reactions of some Police to such groups.¹⁶⁶ And, of course, there may be an interaction between these two variables so that they mutually reinforce each other. The experience of, for example, young people or Māori with the Police in their day-to-day interactions might well have impacted on their interactions with the Police as victims.

161 Twenty-three percent of the women in this age group were 'very satisfied', compared with 29% of the men in this age group.

162 The number of incidents for men in these age groups was 17, 85, 164, 179 and 54 respectively; and, for women in these age groups, it was 25, 110, 269, 216 and 98 respectively.

163 For the codings for urbanisation, see 'Definitions of terms'.

164 The numbers are also quite small in some sub-groups.

165 Overseas research studies point at the very least to some ambivalence among young people in their attitudes towards the Police (Aye Maung 1995; Anderson et al. 1994) and research in New Zealand points to broadly similar findings for those under the age of 15 (MRL Research Group 1993). The relationship between ethnicity and dissatisfaction with the Police has been found in other jurisdictions too. See, for example, Reisig and Parks (2000) with respect to the United States. Te Whaiti and Roguski (1998) found evidence that Māori had negative perceptions of the New Zealand Police.

166 Maxwell and Smith (1998) found that a minority of the Police in New Zealand had negative attitudes towards Māori offenders. Whether or not this affected their response to victims is unknown.

3.3.2 Victims' reasons for dissatisfaction with the Police¹⁶⁷

Table 3.9 sets out victims' reasons for dissatisfaction with the Police response for those who were 'dissatisfied' or 'very dissatisfied'.

Table 3.9 Victims' reasons for dissatisfaction with the Police response to reporting victimisations:¹⁶⁸ percentages giving each reason

	All victimisations	Household	Violence	Individual property
Didn't do enough/didn't investigate offence	49.4	49.5	61.8	48.2
Seemed uninterested	37.3	18.3	18.3	36.2
Didn't come/didn't come quickly enough	20.0	23.9	6.6	23.6
Didn't catch offender	16.4	21.1	0.0	14.2
Didn't offer support or refer to agencies	15.2	17.2	22.0	6.8
Didn't recover property	13.5	16.1	0.0	17.3
Didn't keep informed of progress	9.7	10.2	9.8	10.1
No particular reason	8.0	6.2	8.3	10.5
Impolite/unpleasant/sexist/racist	5.9	7.8	2.1	1.8
Didn't believe me/accused me	3.6	3.9	9.9	2.8
Made mistakes/handled badly	2.1	1.4	11.8	1.6
Other ¹⁶⁹	19.0	17.5	20.6	27.9
Don't know	0.6	0.7	0.0	1.0
Sample size (incidents)	481	328	44	76

Note: multiple responses are possible.

As in the 1996 NZNSCV, the two most commonly-cited reasons for dissatisfaction, both for all victimisations and for victims of household, violent and individual property offences, were that *'the Police didn't do enough and/or didn't investigate the offence'* and *'a lack of interest in the victim or what happened'*. Not doing enough was particularly emphasised by victims of violence who

167 Victims in the 2001 NZNSCV were not asked for their reasons for satisfaction with the Police. However, MM Research (2002, 13) state that the public's satisfaction with the Police are linked to a positive Police attitude, acting promptly, solving problems and providing good information or advice. No data were provided separately on victims' satisfaction with the Police.

168 Violence by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

169 This category included a wide range of reasons for the participants' dissatisfaction. Some examples: 'not a reflection on the Police, but I knew the whole exercise was a waste of time because of the nature of the crime'; 'because it is continuing blatantly'; 'they authorised a tow truck without my knowledge and I didn't expect to be charged'; and 'I didn't report it for a few days and then reported it in another town. There wasn't much they could do about it'.

were dissatisfied with the Police response, and a lack of interest was particularly emphasised by victims of individual property offences who were dissatisfied with the Police response.

These are, of course, victims' **perceptions** and may or may not be related to what the Police actually did. However, that does not make consideration of these views any less important for the Police. For all victimisations, and especially for victims of household offences, the failure of the Police to catch the offender was mentioned by up to a fifth of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police and who were dissatisfied. For all victimisations, and especially for both victims of household and violent offences, not offering support or referring the victim to other agencies was also mentioned by up to a fifth of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police and who were dissatisfied. And, in addition, for all victimisations, and especially for victims of household and individual property offences, the failure of the Police to recover their property was mentioned by around a sixth of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police and who were dissatisfied. Although a failure to keep the victim informed was only cited by around 10% of the victims who were dissatisfied with the Police response, it may have been a contributing factor in the more frequently-cited reasons. An absence of information, for example, may make victims feel that the Police are doing little or are uninterested. Overall, only a few victims complained of '*a lack of courtesy*', that '*the Police did not believe them*', or that '*the matter had been handled badly*'. However, victims of violence did tend to mention that the matter was 'handled badly' more frequently than other victims. They were also more likely to mention that the Police did not believe them or accused them. This suggests that some of these victims perceived a lack of sympathy in the Police towards them. On the other hand, unlike theft, we cannot ignore here the ambiguity of some of the violence reported to the Police. Victims who are not believed or whose perceptions of seriousness or criminality are not shared by the Police will probably be dissatisfied with their treatment and may say, for example, that the Police mishandled the case, lacked sympathy, or did not believe them.

There are some marked changes since the 1996 NZNSCV on the reasons for victims' dissatisfaction. A much higher proportion of participants who were dissatisfied with the Police response in the 2001 NZNSCV said that '*the Police did not do enough*'. (This figure increased from around a third in the 1996 NZNSCV to almost a half in the 2001 NZNSCV). A much higher proportion of the participants who were dissatisfied with the Police response in the 2001 NZNSCV also gave as reasons '*the Police's failure to catch the offender or to recover the property*'. (This figure increased from around a fifth in the 1996 NZNSCV to almost a third in the 2001 NZNSCV) and '*their failure to offer support or refer victims on to other agencies*'. (This figure more than doubled from seven percent in the 1996 NZNSCV to 15% in the 2001 NZNSCV). On the other hand, the proportions mentioning that '*the Police were uninterested, impolite, made mistakes*' or '*did not believe them*' all went down in the 2001 NZNSCV compared with the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV, as did the proportion of victims saying that they were '*not informed of the progress of the case*'. This may indicate that the Police have responded more positively to victims over this period in those aspects of their behaviour and performance that can be controlled by them.

Whether or not repeat victims gave different reasons for their dissatisfaction was examined. However, there were few differences: for example, less than a third (31%) of the repeat victims of burglary who were dissatisfied with the Police response said that '*the Police did not do enough*', compared with almost two-fifths (38%) of the victims of one burglary who were

dissatisfied with the Police response and over a quarter (28%) of the victims of other offences who were dissatisfied with the Police response; over two-fifths of both repeat victims of burglary and the victims of one burglary who were dissatisfied with the Police response (45% and 44% respectively) saw *'the Police as uninterested'*, compared with less than a third (31%) of the victims of other offences; and around a fifth of both repeat victims of burglary and the victims of one burglary who were dissatisfied with the Police response (20% and 23% respectively) complained that *'the Police had not caught the offender'*, compared with 12% of the victims of other offences.

The main difference with respect to repeat victims of violence by those not well known to the victim was that they said that the *'Police did not come or did not come quickly enough'*: 35% of those who were dissatisfied with the Police response said this compared with only 15% of those who were the victim of one such violent offence and 14% of those who were the victim of a non-violent offence. Further, 60% of the repeat victims of violence by those not well known to the victim said that *'the Police did not do enough'*, as did 54% of those who were the victims of one such violent offence, compared with 42% of those who were the victim of a non-violent offence and who were dissatisfied with the Police response. However, a smaller percentage of the repeat victims of violence gave as the reason for their dissatisfaction either the fact that *'the Police did not catch the offender'* or that *'the Police did not provide support or refer them on to other agencies'*. Overall, at least some of these differences relate to victims' perceptions of the Police's performance and attitudes and, to this extent, victims' reasons for their dissatisfaction with the Police response to them are able to be worked on by the Police.

The numbers are too small to comment on here with respect to violence between partners¹⁷⁰ and sexual victimisation. However, with respect to violence by others well known to the victim, almost two-thirds (62%) of those dissatisfied gave as the reason their belief that *'the Police were uninterested'* and well over a quarter (29%) gave as the reason *'the Police didn't believe me or accused me'*. More than two-fifths said the Police were *'impolite, unpleasant or sexist'*. Thus the attitudes or behaviour of the Police seemed to be a major concern here. In addition, more than two-fifths of these dissatisfied victims said *'the Police did not offer sufficient support or refer them to other agencies for the help they needed'*.

3.3.3 The impact of satisfaction on victims' attitudes to the Police

Almost two-thirds (63%) of victims reported no change in their views of the Police as a result of their contact with them, and 15% reported a more favourable impression of the Police as a result of their contact with them. However, almost a fifth (18%) reported that they had a less favourable attitude towards the Police as a result of their contact with them. This proportion of victims with a less favourable attitude towards the Police has gone up slightly since the 1996 NZNSCV (previously, it was 13%). Not surprisingly, those victims who changed their views for the worse came from amongst the least satisfied victims. Thus, for example, 52% of those with less favourable attitudes were 'very dissatisfied' with the way the Police dealt with the matter and 31% were 'dissatisfied'. Only four percent were 'very satisfied'.

170 Overseas, Byrne et al. (1999) found that, compared with non-partner assault victims, victims of assault by an intimate partner were consistently less likely to report satisfaction with the criminal justice system, including with the Police.

3.4 Summary of key findings

3.4.1 Reporting victimisation to the Police

The first part of Chapter 3 sought to outline the range of factors that affected decisions by victims to notify the Police of their victimisation and to explore why many objectively serious incidents went unreported and/or did not come to the notice of the Police. In summary:

- The main reasons given by victims for reporting their victimisation were *‘to catch or punish the offender’* and *‘because a crime had been committed’*.
- The main reason given by victims for not reporting their victimisation was *‘its lack of seriousness’*.
- The Police were significantly more likely to get to know about household offences and violent offences by those not well known to the victim where the victim knew the offender in some way, but the likelihood of the Police getting to know about individual property offences did not differ significantly whether or not the offender was known to the victim.
- The types of victimisations which were significantly less likely to come to Police notice were:
 - violence against women
 - the victimisation of younger age groups, especially with respect to violence
 - violence against Māori
 - violence against beneficiaries and students
 - individual property offences experienced by students and those on home duties
 - violence which occurred in the home.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly less likely than other victims to give as a reason for not reporting their victimisation to the Police that their victimisation was too trivial and not worth reporting to them.
- Repeat victims of violent offences (by those not well known to the victim) and victims of one such violent offence were significantly more likely than victims of other offences to give as a reason for not reporting their victimisation to the Police that their victimisation was a private, personal or family matter.

3.4.2 Victims’ satisfaction with the Police

The second part of this chapter examined whether or not victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were satisfied with the response of the Police. In summary:

- About half of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were ‘very satisfied’ or ‘satisfied’ with the Police response to them. This represents a slight decline from the level of satisfaction found in the 1996 NZNSCV.

- Around a quarter of the victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were dissatisfied with the Police response.
- Victims of burglary, Māori victims, younger victims, and victims who were beneficiaries were significantly more likely than other victims to say that they were dissatisfied with the Police response to them.
- Repeat burglary victims were more polarised than other groups of victims over their treatment by the Police. Well over a quarter of repeat burglary victims said that they were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them, but at the same time more than a fifth of repeat burglary victims said that they were 'very dissatisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them.
- Few repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were 'very satisfied' with the way in which the Police had treated them.
- The main reasons for victims' dissatisfaction were:
 - the Police were seen as not having done enough; and
 - the Police appeared uninterested.

3.5 Policy implications

Not all victims are willing to report their victimisation to the Police and there seems little the Police can or should do to change this with respect to most types of victimisation.¹⁷¹ However, having decided to report their victimisation to the Police, victims have certain expectations from the Police. While most victims were satisfied with or were non-committal about their experience of the Police, more than a quarter of those victims in the 2001 NZNSCV who reported their victimisation to the Police were 'dissatisfied' with the service they received, and more than one in ten victims who reported their victimisation to the Police were 'very dissatisfied'. Those who reported burglary (and repeat victims of burglary) were among the groups most dissatisfied with the Police response to them.

The sources of dissatisfaction over which the Police have control had to do with the level of interest which the Police showed. Paying attention to what victims say, being seen to be taking them seriously, providing feedback on what is being done or, if nothing can be done, explaining why, might help remedy this situation. Indeed, explanations as to why offenders are unlikely to be caught or why property is unlikely to be recovered might also go a long way towards offsetting victims' dissatisfaction with the perceived 'failure' of the Police in this area. However, we have to recognise that the Police may already be doing all that they can in this area, and that some victims will express dissatisfaction, irrespective of what the Police do, especially if the offender is not apprehended and their property is not recovered.

¹⁷¹ Family violence is one example where the Police have actively tried to encourage the reporting of victimisation. Jordan's (2001a and b) research on the experience of women who report rape to the Police also makes the case for changes in Police practices to make reporting easier.

What all of this suggests is that, in handling reports of victimisation, the Police should continue to strive to show concern and interest to victims and to provide appropriate and relevant feedback. The Victims of Offences Act encouraged the Police to do this. The Victims' Rights Act goes further in this direction and makes many of these requirements mandatory. Future surveys of crime victims will be able to measure the impact of this legislation and its effects on victims' satisfaction with the Police.

4 Violent victimisation by people not well known to the victim

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 discussed the prevalence and incidence of violent victimisations in 2000. This chapter provides additional information on the circumstances of robberies and of assaults and threats by people not known well to the victim (Section 4.2). Again at the outset, it needs to be stressed that violence by partners and by other people well known to the victim is not discussed in this chapter (this is discussed in Chapter 5); nor is sexual interference and sexual assault discussed (this is discussed in Chapter 6). This means that, when this chapter (in Section 4.3) discusses the extent to which offenders were known to victims, it is referring to the distinction between offenders who are strangers and offenders who are known to the victim in some way (for example, a neighbour or just casually) but who are not well known to them. In Section 4.4, the impact of this type of violent victimisation is described and Section 4.5 examines, in brief, the risk of violent victimisation of this type. Section 4.6 then summarises the key findings of this chapter, and Section 4.7 discusses briefly their policy implications. Where possible and appropriate, findings are compared with those from the 1996 NZNSCV. Because of the small number of robberies reported by participants within the 2001 NZNSCV, data on robbery must be treated with some caution and as indicative only. The numbers involved for analyses by demographic factors are too small and are not discussed except, on occasions, with respect to sex differences where the samples seem large enough.

4.2 Circumstances of violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim

This section describes where violent victimisations occurred and provides some information on their seriousness.

4.2.1 Where violent victimisations occurred

The venue of violent victimisations was examined. Almost two-fifths of assaults occurred on the street other than outside the participant's home or workplace¹⁷² and almost a fifth (18%) occurred in a pub, club or nightclub. On the street other than outside the participant's home

172 Budd (1999a) elaborates the findings of the 1998 British Crime Survey with respect to violence at work. She estimated that almost 3% of working adults were the victims of at least one violent incident and that repeat victimisation was also common (18% of assault victims experienced two or more incidents). The 2001 NZNSCV did not ask much about violence at work but some further information is provided in Table 4.7. It describes how offenders were known to victims and shows that 10% of threats were attributed to workmates.

or workplace was also the most common venue for threats (stated to be the venue in almost a fifth [18%]). However, 12% of the threats occurred in each of the following venues: inside a building, inside someone else's house, or inside the victim's home. Nine percent of threats occurred in a pub, club or nightclub, and eight percent occurred in the street outside the victim's home. The most common venue for robberies was also on the street other than outside the participant's home or workplace (this response was given for 26% of the robberies), followed by inside a public toilet or commercial or public building (this response was given in 12% of robberies).¹⁷³

Table 4.1 sets out the place in which the violent victimisations occurred for both female and male victims.

Table 4.1 Place of violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim by sex: percentages

Place of incident	Women	Men
Street	25.8	41.6
Home-based	24.1	9.4
Work-related	19.9	10.2
Other public place or building	10.4	4.5
Pub/ club	4.5	17.9
Other ¹⁷⁴	16.3	23.8
Not specified/ don't know	0.1	0.1
Sample size (incidents)	146	202

The most common venues for women's violent victimisation were the street and the home, followed by the workplace, and the least frequent venues were other public places or buildings and pubs or clubs. For men, the most common venues were the street, other places and pubs or clubs.

Table 4.2 presents a breakdown of these data by age and sex combined.

The general pattern shown in Table 4.1 persists in Table 4.2. Generally speaking, the violent victimisations of young men under 25 were much more likely than those of older men and women to have occurred on the streets; and the violent victimisations of men under 40 were much more likely than those of older men and women to have occurred in a pub or club. On the other hand, the violent victimisations of women under 40 were as or slightly more likely to have occurred on the streets than in the home. And the violent victimisations of women aged 40 and over were more likely than those of younger women to have occurred at work.

¹⁷³ Almost half (47%) of the robberies were coded as having occurred in 'other' venues.

¹⁷⁴ 'Over the phone', 'in a bus', 'on public transport' and 'in the Mount Eden Prison' are examples of venues coded as 'other' with respect to violent victimisations relating to women and 'over the phone', 'on the school bus', 'in a patrol car' and 'in Mount Eden prison' are examples of venues coded as 'other' with respect to violent victimisations relating to men.

Table 4.2 Place of violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim by age group and sex: percentages

Place of incident	15-24 years		25-39 years		40 years or more	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Street	35.7	54.3	28.2	26.8	7.3	29.0
Home-based	25.2	7.4	29.2	10.1	18.4	15.6
Other public place or building	13.4	7.3	6.3	1.7	8.4	0.7
Pub/ club	6.5	13.6	6.2	28.4	0.0	8.5
Work-related	1.0	0.5	16.9	22.5	53.7	17.4
Other	18.0	24.3	13.3	20.9	15.9	28.8
Sample size (incidents)	60	82	43	72	43	48

4.2.2 The seriousness of violent victimisations

The type of injuries received

As noted previously, there were very few robberies reported by participants and most of these resulted in no injuries. By definition, there were no injuries resulting from threats. Table 4.3 sets out the type of injuries received in assaults.

Table 4.3 Type of injury received in assaults by people not well known to the victim: percentages

Type of injury	Assaults
Bruises/ black eyes	47.4
Cuts	29.4
Scratches	25.4
Broken bones	7.8
Other	21.8
Not injured	32.3
Sample size (incidents)	132

Note: multiple responses are possible

Table 4.3 shows that more than two-thirds of assaults resulted in some type of injury and that bruises and black eyes were the most common form of injuries. Sometimes, injuries occurred in combination. For example, more than a quarter (27%) of those assaulted said that they had experienced both bruises and black eyes and cuts, more than a fifth (22%) said that they had

experienced both bruises and black eyes and scratches, and just over a fifth (21%) said that they had experienced both scratches and cuts.

The proportion of victimisations resulting in injuries varied according to the venue of the victimisation. For example, around two-fifths of the assaults at home or at work resulted in no injuries, but only around a quarter of the assaults on the streets and in pubs and clubs resulted in no injuries. The number of assaults in some of these venues is very small and so these data need to be treated with caution.

Overall, a third of the violent victimisations (and almost two-fifths [39%] of assaults) resulted in the victim requiring medical attention (an increase over the figure of less than a quarter (23%) in the 1996 NZNSCV). Only six percent of the violent offences involving injuries resulted in the victim staying one night or more in a hospital.

Value of the property taken

In almost two-thirds (61%) of the robberies, nothing was stolen (because, within the 1996 NZNSCV and 2001 NZNSCV, attempts were coded in the same way as completed offences). This represents a lower figure than that cited in the 1996 NZNSCV (73%) but, because of the small number of robberies reported in both the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV, it cannot be assumed that this represents a real change. When attempts were excluded, we found that:

- almost two-fifths (39%) of robberies involved a sum or item worth less than \$100;
- just over a third (35%) involved more than \$100 but under \$500;
- almost a quarter (24%) involved \$500 or more;
- in about three-quarters (72%) of the robberies where something was taken, the property was not recovered.

The use of weapons

Overall, a weapon was used in just under a fifth (18%) of violent offences. A weapon was used in a fifth of the threats, less than a fifth (17%) of the assaults and in only seven percent of the robberies. There was, however, some variation in the type of weapon used. Table 4.4 sets this out for assaults and threats.

As Table 4.4 shows, the most frequently-used weapon in assaults and threats was a stick, club or other hitting weapon, followed by a knife, screwdriver or stabbing weapon, and then by a bottle or drinking glass. This picture is somewhat different from the findings in the 1996 NZNSCV: Young et al. (1997) reported that a gun was rarely used in assaults, but was the most commonly-used weapon in threats. We examined whether or not weapons were used in combination and found that this occurred in 11% of assaults. In these assaults, a knife, screwdriver or stabbing weapon was used in combination with a stick, club or hitting weapon.

Table 4.4 Types of weapons used in assaults and threats by people not well known to the victim: percentages

Type of weapon used	Assaults	Threats
Stick/club/hitting weapon	56.0	49.2
Knife/screwdriver/stabbing weapon	21.5	39.7
Bottle/drinking glass	20.1	8.1
Guns	0.0	4.3
Other ¹⁷⁵	13.4	12.9
Sample size (incidents)	28	24

Note: multiple responses are possible.

4.3 The relationship between offender and victim in violence by people not well known to the victim

As noted already, Chapter 5 discusses violence where the offender was a current heterosexual partner or someone else well known to the victim. This chapter focuses on violence where offenders were not known at all to victims and where they were not well known but were known in some way – for example, casually or by sight. For this type of violent victimisation generally,¹⁷⁶ more than a third (35%) of the victims knew their offender in some way before the incident. Table 4.5 sets out this detail for the different violent offences.

Table 4.5 Percentage of offenders known to the victim in some way before the victimisation by type of victimisation

Known before the incident	Assaults	Threats	Robberies
Yes	24.9	47.4	34.6
No	75.1	52.6	65.4
Sample size (incidents)	152	176	34

Table 4.5 shows that strangers were the offenders(s) in three-quarters of the assaults, two-thirds of the robberies and more than half of the threats (where the victim found out who the offender was).

Predictably, almost two-thirds (63%) of the victims whose violent victimisation occurred at home knew the offender (even when violence by partners and others well known to the victim is excluded). In contrast, only a quarter of those whose violent victimisation occurred

¹⁷⁵ An eclectic range of articles made up the remaining ‘weapons’.

¹⁷⁶ The percentages given here and in Table 4.5 are not actually based on all violent victimisations, but on violent victimisations where the victim saw or found out who the offender was. However, the victim did not find out who the offender was in only 3% of violent victimisations, so this makes little difference.

at work or on the street knew their offender(s), and under a quarter (23%) of those whose violent victimisation occurred in a pub or club knew their offender(s). This means that, where violence occurred at work, on the streets or in pubs or clubs, it was most likely to be committed by a stranger.

Table 4.6 describes how victims knew their offender for assaults and threats by those not well known to them. The number of robberies where the victim knew the offender is too small for inclusion. This table shows that the most common response for both assaults and threats was knowing the offender 'just to speak to casually'. However, a surprisingly high percentage of assaults in this category were said to have been committed by 'friends'. Other features of note are the proportion of threats attributed to 'workmates', 'relatives' and 'neighbours or neighbourhood children'.

Table 4.6 How victims knew their offender in assaults and threats by those not well known to them: percentages by type of victimisation¹⁷⁷

How participant knew offender	Assaults	Threats
Just to speak to casually	40.0	33.1
Friends	16.6	7.5
Just by sight	10.9	17.0
Fellow pupils students	4.0	0.0
Relatives	2.8	9.8
Workmates/employees	1.6	9.9
Neighbours/children in neighbourhood	1.5	9.4
Other ¹⁷⁸	15.3	5.5
Sample size (incidents)	43	87

Note: multiple responses are possible.

4.4 The impact of violent victimisation by people not well known to the victim

Table 4.7 sets out victims' reactions to the different types of violent victimisations. From this table, it is clear that few victims of violent offences by those not well known to them experienced no reactions at all. The most commonly-expressed reaction was 'anger', followed by 'annoyance and irritation', 'shock', becoming 'more cautious and wary' and 'fear' (though fewer victims of robbery mentioned 'fear'). What also emerges from Table 4.7 is that victims of threats experienced negative reactions almost as commonly as victims of either robbery or assault and that they were more likely to express feeling fear.

¹⁷⁷ Although the responses in this table relate to questions about threats or assaults by 'any stranger or person you do not know well', some responses nevertheless referred to friends and relatives.

¹⁷⁸ These included workmen, clients or customers, and patients.

Table 4.7 Victims' reactions to violence by those not well known to them by type of victimisation: percentages reporting each reaction

Reactions Experienced	All violence	Assault	Threats	Robbery
Anger	57.8	62.8	51.2	62.8
Annoyed/irritated	53.4	57.8	47.6	54.7
Shock	35.5	30.4	41.9	29.8
More cautious/wary	31.4	29.4	33.8	22.1
Fear	29.5	26.5	33.0	11.4
Difficulty in sleeping	10.8	11.4	9.9	0.0
Felt bad about myself	8.8	7.1	10.8	0.0
Afraid for children	7.9	3.4	13.5	1.8
Relationship problems	7.7	7.7	7.6	0.0
Cried	6.3	5.6	7.6	8.6
Depression or anxiety attacks	5.2	4.7	5.9	0.0
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication	4.9	5.1	4.5	0.0
Ashamed or guilty	4.2	2.7	6.2	0.0
Other	7.4	11.5	2.2	3.5
None	9.0	8.3	9.8	0.0
Sample size (incidents)	348	164	185	44

Note: multiple responses are possible.

A greater proportion of women than men experienced these negative reactions to violent offences by those not well known to them. Table 4.8 sets out this information in full.

Overall, women were less likely than men to say that they had no negative reaction to violent offences by those not well known to them, and women were more likely than men to report experiencing every feeling. Women were only slightly more likely to report feeling 'annoyed or irritated' or 'ashamed or guilty'. However, women were much more likely than men to report feeling 'anger', 'shock', 'fear', and to say that they had 'cried'. Of course, it could be argued that women are more willing than men to express these negative reactions.

Victims were also asked about the effects of this type of victimisation on children under 15 in their household. Half of the victims did not have children under 15 and many who did reported that their children had had no reaction¹⁷⁹ and so the full data for children have not been set out here because the numbers involved are small. However, victims did describe reactions of 'fear', 'anger', 'annoyance and irritation', 'crying' and 'shock' in their children as a result of these victimisations.

¹⁷⁹ This figure ranged from a quarter for the victims of assaults to almost two-fifths for victims of robberies; this is in addition to the approximately 50% of victims who did not have children.

Table 4.8 Victims' reactions to violent offences by those not well known to them by sex: percentages reporting each reaction

Reactions Experienced	Women	Men
Anger	68.7	53.5
Shock	57.4	27.1
Annoyed/irritated	55.1	52.4
Fear	54.6	19.7
More cautious/wary	43.4	26.8
Cried	21.8	0.3
Relationship problems	19.2	3.2
Difficulty in sleeping	18.9	7.6
Afraid for children	18.7	3.7
Depression or anxiety attacks	13.1	2.1
Felt bad about myself	11.8	7.6
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication	7.4	3.9
Ashamed or guilty	4.3	4.2
Other	5.1	8.3
None	0.8	12.2
Sample size (incidents)	146	202

Note: multiple responses are possible.

Victims were asked to rate overall the effects of the violent offence on them. Table 4.9 sets this out.

Table 4.9 Overall effects on victims of violent victimisations by those not well known to them: percentages

Effects of victimisation	Assault	Robbery	Threats
Very much	19.1	4.6	12.9
Quite a lot	14.1	14.4	17.8
Just a little	23.1	65.0	37.1
Not at all	43.7	16.0	32.1
Sample size (incidents)	164	44	185

Table 4.9 shows that more than two-thirds of the victims of each violent victimisation discussed in this chapter were affected ‘just a little’ or ‘not at all’ by the victimisation. However, victims of threats by those not well known to them seem to have been almost as affected by their victimisation as victims of assaults by those not well known to them and seem to have been more affected than victims of robberies.

A common perception is that victims are less affected by violence by people they know in some way than by violence by strangers. This is not necessarily so, as Table 4.10 shows.

Table 4.10 Overall effects on victims of violent victimisations by people not well known to the victim by whether or not the offender is known to the victim in some way: percentages

Effects of crime	Offender known to victim in some way	Offender not known to victim
Very much	27.9	10.6
Quite a lot	19.6	13.6
Just a little	31.5	28.3
Not at all	21.1	47.5
Sample size (incidents)	129	219

More than a quarter of the victims who knew their offender in some way said they were ‘very much’ affected, compared with only 11% of victims who did not know their offender at all. And almost half of those who did not know their offender said that they were ‘not at all’ affected, compared with just over a fifth of those who knew their offender in some way.

Victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were asked whether or not what happened was a crime, wrong but not a crime, or just something that happened. Victims of threats by those not well known to them were just as likely as victims of robberies to see what had happened as a crime: this was said by 35% and 37% respectively. The figure for victims of assaults by those not well known to them was 46%. However, what is noteworthy here is the fact that so many victims did not regard what had happened to them as a crime. It may be that these victims have a relatively high tolerance of violence of this type and see it as just part of everyday life, especially where there are no injuries or the injuries are minor.

4.5 Risk of violent victimisation by people not well known to the victim

Overall, 10% of participants disclosed violence by someone not well known to them. More men than women disclosed this: 12% compared with eight percent. Young people (those under 25) were much more likely than older people to report this: almost a quarter (23%) had experienced this type of violence; and young men were more likely than young women to experience this type of violence (almost a third compared with under a fifth). Māori were also

more likely than other ethnic groups to disclose this type of violence: 15% compared with 10% of New Zealand European/European participants and nine percent of Pacific participants. And men of all ethnicities were more likely than women of the same ethnicity to disclose that they had experienced violence of this type. On the other hand, there was little difference between the proportion of Māori women and both New Zealand European/European and Pacific men disclosing this type of violence. Although those classified as NZSEI not specified¹⁸⁰ were more likely than other socio-economic groups to disclose this type of violence, there was no clear pattern with respect to other socio-economic groups. Also, more than two-thirds of those disclosing that they had been the victim of a violent offence by those not well known to the victim were repeat victims of such violent offences.¹⁸¹

4.6 Summary of key findings on violence by people not well known to the victim

The main findings of this chapter are:

- For women, the violent victimisations analysed in this chapter tended to occur on the street, at home or at work, whereas, for men, the most common venue was the street followed by ‘other’ places and pubs or clubs.
- In most robberies, there were no injuries and, in most of the assaults analysed in this chapter, even when injuries were inflicted, they tended to be bruises and black eyes rather than broken bones.
- Weapons were used in around a fifth of threats and assaults analysed in this chapter and very rarely in robberies.
- Around three-quarters of the victims of the assaults and around two-thirds of the victims of robberies analysed in this chapter did not know their offender at all; however, in almost half of the threats analysed in this chapter, the victim stated that they already knew their offenders – mainly casually or just by sight.
- Around two-thirds of the victims of assaults and threats analysed in this chapter and more than three-quarters of the victims of robberies were ‘just a little’ or ‘not at all’ affected by their victimisation.
- Victims of threats seem to have been almost as affected by their victimisation as victims of assaults and they seem to have been more affected than victims of robberies.
- Women were significantly more likely than men to express some reaction to this type of victimisation.

180 For information on how this scale is derived, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

181 Here repeat victims are defined using method (b), described in the ‘Definitions of terms’.

4.7 Policy implications

Much of the violence described by participants in the 2001 NZNSCV appears to be minor in terms of the extent of the injuries received and its impact. This does not mean that the prevention of violence should not continue to be a priority, but rather that the nature, extent and impact of most violence should not be sensationalised or exaggerated. Serious violent offences do occur and their effects are profound, but most of the victims of the violent offences described in this chapter said that these offences had little impact on them and many did not see what had happened to them as crime. As noted above, this may mean that some people have a relatively high tolerance of violence of this type and see it as just part of everyday life.

It is worth recalling here too the findings in Chapter 2 that the Police got to know about less than a fifth of the threats, less than a quarter of the robberies and less than half of the assaults committed by people not well known to the victim within the 2001 NZNSCV (Table 2.4). The reasons for this were discussed in Chapter 3. By far the most common reason was that these victimisations were viewed by participants as too trivial and not worth reporting to the Police (Table 3.2).

On the other hand, it should be noted that one of the key findings of this chapter is that the victims of threats seem to have been almost as affected by their victimisation as victims of assaults and seem to have been more affected than victims of robberies. It is not easy to see what the policy implications of this are. But it may point to the need to draw more sophisticated distinctions within the concept of 'violence' which focus on differences in degree and impact. That is to say, the view that 'all violence is really serious' is not borne out by the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV.

This chapter has focussed on violence where the offender is not well known to the victim. Although for both women and men, the most common venue for this violence was the streets, it should be noted that almost a quarter of the violence reported by women occurred at home. This is also likely to have been the venue for much of the violence discussed in Chapter 6.

5 Violent victimisation by partners and others well known to the victim

5.1 Introduction

There is no reliable estimate of the extent of violence against people by their current partners in New Zealand (or elsewhere for that matter). Police statistics are limited in this respect – the closest they come is the offence coding ‘male assaults female’. But these offences include assaults by men on women other than their partners and, of course, tell us nothing about assaults by women on their male partners. Most surveys of crime victims, like the various British Crime Surveys and the 1996 NZNSCV, primarily ask participants questions about criminal victimisation as conventionally understood and are generally accepted as not capturing well the extent of the experience of violence by participants’ partners.¹⁸² As a result, in 1995, the New Zealand Women’s Safety Survey (NZWSS) was commissioned alongside the 1996 NZNSCV to provide a more in-depth survey of violence against women by their current and recent male partners. It interviewed (either face-to-face or on the telephone according to the woman’s preference) a sample of partnered women who had already participated in the 1996 NZNSCV (see Morris 1997 for more information). There was no parallel survey of men about their experience of violence by their female partners.¹⁸³

There is also no reliable estimate of violence against people by others well known to them (such as ex-partners, same sex partners, family members, relatives and friends). The Police do not record their statistics in this way and, again, surveys of crime victims do not always provide good information on this for much the same reasons as stated above. In the 1996 NZNSCV, there was too much missing information on these issues for reliable analysis.

The NZWSS was not repeated as part of the 2001 NZNSCV. Instead, a new methodology was used within the 2002 NZNSCV to explore violence by and against heterosexual partners – computer-assisted self-interviewing (CASI) rather than paper and pen self-completion questionnaires – and it was hoped that this would produce more reliable figures than those produced by the 1996 NZNSCV or the NZWSS. It is likely that it has. The 2001 NZNSCV also used CASI to tap into violence by others well known to the victim and it is likely here too to have produced more reliable information than the 1996 NZNSCV.

However, we also have to bear in mind that these components of the survey were still part of a survey which focussed primarily on crime and, as recognised above, this may have inhibited

182 There are a number of reasons for this: for example, participants may be too afraid, embarrassed or ashamed to disclose incidents to interviewers or even when they complete the questionnaires themselves (on paper or onto a computer) if the interviewers remain nearby.

183 There was, however, an earlier survey of men’s attitudes towards violence against female partners (Leibrich et al. 1995).

the disclosure of violent acts not conventionally viewed as crime.¹⁸⁴ Also, participants' literacy, language and computer skills may not have been adequate to the task (though they were encouraged here to seek the help of the interviewer if they needed it). And the questions in the self-completion component of the questionnaire still came at the end of an already long interview for those participants who had reported a number of victimisations in the main survey. These participants may simply have 'had enough' and typed 'no' to each question in order to exit quickly from the computer (and from the survey). Thus, while the discussion that follows provides a fuller picture of such victimisation than that provided by either Police data or previous surveys in New Zealand, it undoubtedly continues to underestimate the extent, nature and impact of such victimisation.

This chapter first describes (in Section 5.2) the extent to which participants had ever experienced certain types of violence at the hands of heterosexual partners. It next describes (in Section 5.3) the incidence and prevalence of these types of violence in 2000 and provides more information about the most recent incident of violence by a heterosexual partner. Section 5.4 provides information on violence by other people well known to the participant, including ex-partners, partners of the same sex, family members and friends. Where appropriate, comparisons are made in each section with the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV though, as just noted, care must be taken here in interpreting any apparent changes because of the changes in the methodology for collecting this information introduced in the 2001 NZNSCV. Comparisons are also made with the findings of the NZWSS (Morris 1997) and with some other relevant research. Finally, the key findings of this chapter are summarised (in Section 5.5) and their policy implication are briefly discussed (in Section 5.6). Overall, almost three-quarters of the violent victimisations disclosed in the 2001 NZNSCV were disclosed within the self-completion questionnaire and so it is clear that violence by people well known to victims is far greater, at least numerically, than violence by strangers.

5.2 The lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners¹⁸⁵

This section provides information on the extent to which participants had ever experienced certain types of violence at the hands of a heterosexual partner at any stage in their life and on demographic differences in this respect. Similar data were collected in the 1996 NZNSCV and so comparisons can be made, though, as noted above, we have to take care in interpreting these changes because of changes in the methodology. Lifetime prevalence data also treat in

184 Despite numerous media campaigns which have focused on emphasising that violence within relationships is a crime, there is little evidence that these have been successful. Within the 2001 NZNSCV, for example, as noted later in this chapter, almost half of the participants who had experienced such violence said that it was just something which happened and only 16% said that it was a crime.

185 All the tables and data referred to in Section 5.2 include 'non-relevant' offences. See 'Definitions of terms' for what this means. The reason for this is that we cannot easily adjust these numbers to take account of 'non-relevant' incidents, because relevance was only captured for one incident (the most recent), and we lack information on the number of times that participants were victimised over their lifetime. In addition, most of the analyses based on self-completion victim form data include 'non-relevant' offences. Specifically in this chapter, this means that Tables 5.7, 5.8, 5.10, 5.11, 5.12 and other figures referred to in Section 5.3.1 and in Section 5.4.1 relate to data which include 'non-relevant offences'. Because the sample sizes are generally small in this chapter, if we had excluded a large proportion of these incidents, we would not have had enough data to be worth analysing.

the same way the report of a 60 year old of a single incident which happened 40 years ago and the report of a 20 year old who has, in fact, experienced daily violence over the last year. Participants were simply asked whether or not they had ever experienced certain behaviours and were not asked how often they had experienced them or how serious they were. A further problem with lifetime prevalence data is that participants probably do not reflect on their whole lifetime, but rather reflect on the relatively recent past. It is possible that the 60 year old in our example would not recall a single push by a partner 40 years ago.

5.2.1 Sex differences in the prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners

Table 5.1 sets out the lifetime prevalence of various types of violence by heterosexual partners for women and men.

Table 5.1 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of ‘ever partnered’ women and men – lifetime prevalence: percentages

Behaviours	Sample of ever partnered women	Sample of ever partnered men
<i>Has any partner EVER actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	21.2	14.4
<i>Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	19.5	8.0
<i>Has any partner EVER deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?¹⁸⁶</i>	18.8	9.8
<i>Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?¹⁸⁷</i>	6.2	3.4
Experienced none of these	71.4	79.0
Experienced one or more of these	26.4	18.2
Refused to complete	2.2	2.7
Sample size (people)	2526	1721

Table 5.1 shows that about one in five female participants had experienced each of three of the violent behaviours asked about and that more than one in four female participants had experienced one or more of these violent behaviours over a lifetime. The figures for male

¹⁸⁶ In retrospect, collecting information on damage and the threat of damage through the same question has caused problems: it has limited the analyses and comparisons we can undertake.

¹⁸⁷ Collecting information on actual weapon usage and the threat of weapon usage through the same self-completion question was also a mistake in that it has limited the analyses and comparisons we can undertake.

participants were lower for each item and for those who had experienced one or more of these violent behaviours.

The figures disclosed in the 2001 NZNSCV are much higher (for both women and men) than those disclosed in the 1996 NZNSCV on every item.¹⁸⁸ This could be indicative of a real increase in such behaviours, but it seems more likely that the changed methodology has enabled better disclosure.¹⁸⁹ Arguably, therefore, these figures are more reliable than in the 1996 NZNSCV. The difference between the proportion of women and men reporting in the 2001 NZNSCV that they had experienced one or more of these behaviours over a lifetime is not as great as in the 1996 NZNSCV. However, the difference is significant.

There is no overseas research which is directly comparable with the 2001 NZNSCV. However, Mirrlees-Black and Byron (1999) state that, in the 1996 British Crime Survey (which also used CASI), 23% of ever partnered women and 15% of ever partnered men aged 16 to 59 reported that they had been physically assaulted by a current or former partner at some time in their lives and that these figures increased to 26% and 17% respectively when threats were included. These figures are remarkably similar to those presented in Table 5.1.¹⁹⁰ Tjaden and Thoennes's (2000) data from the American National Violence Against Women Survey are also broadly similar, at least for women: 20% of ever partnered women and 7% of ever partnered men reported being physically assaulted by a current or former partner at some time in their lifetime.¹⁹¹

5.2.2 Age differences in the prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners

One might expect the lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners to be higher for older age groups than for younger age groups since they have had a longer time span to experience such behaviour. This turned out not to be the case, as Table 5.2 shows.

188 The 1996 NZNSCV also asked participants about two types of violent sexual behaviour but these were not asked about specifically in the 2001 NZNSCV. They could, however, have been referred to by participants in the questions in the self-completion questionnaire about sexual interference or sexual assault. These responses are discussed in Chapter 6. The prevalence rates for both of these items for both women and men in the 1996 NZNSCV were quite low (4.1 and 3.5 for women and 0.7 and 0.4 for men) and would not affect much the comparisons being made here. Thus, the inclusion of violent sexual behaviour in the 1995 figures should only slightly hinder comparability. However, we do need to be aware that the 1995 figures should be a bit higher than the 2001 figures, simply for this reason, but they are not.

189 Although it is possible that men still under-report such violence, this may not be as extensive where the questions are self-completed and the methodology used in this component of the 2001 NZNSCV seems to have encouraged greater disclosure all round.

190 The lifetime experience of domestic assault was classified by Mirrlees-Black and Byron into chronic (three or more incidents) and intermittent (one or two incidents). There was little difference between women and men experiencing intermittent levels of violence (11% and 10% respectively). However, there was a clear difference in the proportion of women and men classified as experiencing chronic levels of assault (12% and 5% respectively).

191 This was a telephone survey of 8000 women and 8000 men.

Table 5.2 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of ‘ever partnered’ people, by age – lifetime prevalence: percentages

Behaviours	15 and 16 ¹⁹²	17-24	25-39	40-59	60 and older
<i>Has any partner EVER actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	17.7	22.4	26.6	17.5	6.6
<i>Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	8.7	17.6	21.2	14.0	4.3
<i>Has any partner EVER deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	4.9	14.6	21.6	14.9	5.4
<i>Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	0.0	7.1	7.5	4.7	1.3
Experienced none of these	72.4	63.1	66.5	75.7	88.3
Experienced one or more of these	18.5	27.8	32.0	22.7	8.9
Refused to complete	9.1	9.1	1.5	1.6	2.8
Sample size (people)	26	268	1322	1495	1035

Table 5.2 shows that, except for those aged 60 and over, almost a fifth to a quarter of each age group had experienced at some time being ‘hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved’ by a heterosexual partner. Overall, it shows that the lifetime prevalence rates for the two age groups 17 to 24 and 25 to 39 were much higher than for those aged 60 and older and were higher than for the 40 to 59 age group and for the 15 and 16 age group. The explanation for the difference between those in the age groups 17 to 39 and those in the age groups 40 to 60 and over may be differences in reporting practices: the older age groups might be less willing to disclose such behaviour for reasons of loyalty, shame or embarrassment, or they may simply have forgotten or glossed over experiences of many years ago. Or it may be that violence between heterosexual partners really is much more common now among younger age groups than in previous decades. We cannot say for sure.¹⁹³

5.2.3 Ethnic differences in the prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners

Table 5.3 sets out ethnic differences in the lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners and shows that, as in the 1996 NZNSCV, the lifetime prevalence of violence between heterosexual partners is much higher for Māori than for non-Māori. Indeed, twice as many Māori as any other ethnicity reported experiencing one or more of these behaviours. Young et al. (1997, 44) commented on the low prevalence rate reported by Pacific participants in the 1996 NZNSCV and questioned the reliability of this finding. When we

192 Caution is, of course, required in reading this column because of the very small sample size.

193 We also examined the interaction of age and sex, and sex remained a key discriminator in violence between heterosexual partners.

re-analysed the data on ethnicity from the 1996 NZNSCV to take account of multiple ethnicities, the lifetime prevalence of abuse by partners was not much different except for 'other' ethnicities where the overall prevalence rate significantly changed.¹⁹⁴ Overall, in the 2001 NZNSCV, the figures for participants of all ethnicities are much higher than those derived from the 1996 NZNSCV.¹⁹⁵ This may mean that the changed methodology has enabled greater disclosure among participants and that, as a result, the 2001 NZNSCV figures are more reliable for all ethnic groups. The larger sample of Pacific participants also, of course, increases the survey's accuracy for Pacific peoples.

Table 5.3 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of 'ever partnered' people, by ethnicity – lifetime prevalence: percentages

Behaviours	NZ European/ European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Other
<i>Has any partner EVER actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	17.3	31.7	12.3	13.2
<i>Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	13.1	27.6	11.7	9.0
<i>Has any partner EVER deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	13.6	24.8	12.1	13.7
<i>Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	4.1	12.2	3.3	3.4
Experienced none of these	76.4	59.0	76.5	77.5
Experienced one or more of these	21.4	39.3	17.3	17.6
Refused to complete	2.2	1.7	6.2	4.9
Sample size (people)	3114	755	522	168

We examined the interaction between ethnicity and sex. These data are set out in Table 5.4. It shows that, within each ethnic group, the lifetime prevalence for violence by heterosexual partners was higher for women than for men and was very much higher for Māori women than for New Zealand European/European women and for Pacific women. Almost half of the Māori women reported that they had experienced one or more of these behaviours.

Generally speaking, these findings are consistent with the 1996 NZNSCV. However, we should note here that, when we re-analysed the data on ethnicity from the 1996 NZNSCV to take account of multiple ethnicities, the lifetime prevalence of abuse by partners was severely under-estimated in the 1996 report for Pacific women (their overall prevalence rate should

¹⁹⁴ Young et al. (1996, 43) give a figure of 11.2. With a different method of classifying ethnicity, this changed to 5.7.

¹⁹⁵ The 2001 figures for experiencing one or more of these behaviours are around twice to three times the recalculated figures for each ethnic group.

have been 13.0 and not 8.6).¹⁹⁶ Also of note in Table 5.4 is the fact that a higher proportion of Māori men than either New Zealand European/European women or Pacific women reported experiencing one or more of these behaviours.

Table 5.4 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of ‘ever partnered’ people, by ethnicity and sex – lifetime prevalence: percentages

Behaviours	NZ European/ European		Māori		Pacific peoples		Other	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
<i>Has any partner EVER actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	19.5	14.8	41.9	19.6	17.2	6.7	17.4	8.5
<i>Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	17.5	8.1	39.1	14.0	17.1	5.4	15.2	1.9
<i>Has any partner EVER deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	16.9	9.9	35.3	12.4	16.9	6.5	20.8	5.8
<i>Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	5.3	2.7	14.3	9.8	4.1	2.4	4.3	2.3
Experienced none of these	74.1	78.9	49.2	70.6	70.2	83.8	68.4	87.7
Experienced one or more of these	24.2	18.4	49.3	27.5	23.3	10.3	24.9	9.4
Refused to complete	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.9	6.5	6.0	6.7	2.9
Sample size (people)	1815	1299	490	265	319	203	89	79

5.2.4 Socio-economic differences in the lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners

Table 5.5 sets out socio-economic differences in the lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners.

Generally, Table 5.5 shows that there was not much difference in prevalence rates across the different socio-economic groups, with the exception that NZSEI 30-39 reported the highest levels throughout.¹⁹⁷

¹⁹⁶ Young et al. (1996) also severely over-estimated the overall prevalence rate for women of ‘other’ ethnicities: it should have been 4.8, not 15.4. It should also be noted here that ‘other’ ethnicity was where all participants with mixed ethnicities were placed and this may account for this over-estimation.

Table 5.5 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of ‘ever partnered’ people, by socio-economic status¹⁹⁸— lifetime prevalence: percentages

Behaviours	NZSEI unspec.	NZSEI 10-29	NZSEI 30-39	NZSEI 40-49	NZSEI 50-59	NZSEI 60-74	NZSEI 75-90
<i>Has any partner EVER actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	35.2	16.1	21.5	17.2	17.3	13.5	14.0
<i>Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	28.7	14.0	17.9	14.1	12.7	9.1	8.0
<i>Has any partner EVER deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	27.2	13.4	19.3	14.6	12.4	11.4	7.8
<i>Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	16.2	5.8	5.9	4.5	4.2	1.2	2.0
Experienced none of these	53.4	78.3	71.0	76.8	75.5	78.5	81.7
Experienced one or more of these	40.2	20.4	26.7	21.6	20.8	19.2	17.4
Refused to complete	6.3	1.3	2.3	1.6	3.7	2.3	0.9
Sample size (people)	308	749	750	880	733	608	219

5.2.5 Summarising the findings on lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners

Overall, Section 5.2 has shown that women, whatever their ethnicity or age, experienced higher levels of violence by heterosexual partners than did men of the same ethnicity or age group. However, some men – Māori – experienced higher levels of these types of behaviours than some women – New Zealand European/European and Pacific women. The disclosure rates are generally higher all round in the 2001 NZNSCV than in the 1996 NZNSCV but, as noted, this is likely to be the result of the methodological changes introduced in the 2001 NZNSCV rather than real changes in prevalence rates. These rates may be more reliable than those presented in the 1996 NZNSCV. However, they may continue to be under-estimates. We noted earlier that we are not able to say anything about the frequency or seriousness of the lifetime prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners. However, we can provide these data with respect to violence by heterosexual partners in 2000.

197 The equivalent table was not presented in the report on the 1996 NZNSCV and so no comparisons can be made.

198 For information on how this scale is derived, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

5.3 The incidence and prevalence of violence by heterosexual partners - 2000

Participants were asked whether or not they had experienced any of the same violent behaviours in 2000. Table 5.6 sets out these data for women and men.

Table 5.6 Type of violence by heterosexual partners of current partners, by sex – 2000: incidence per 100 currently-partnered people, prevalence as percentages

Behaviours	Currently partnered women		Currently partnered men	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has current partner actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	4.1	2.0	3.3	1.2
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has current partner threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	6.0	2.3	1.3	0.8
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has current partner deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	3.2	1.4	0.8	0.6
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has current partner used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.4
Experienced none of these	97.0		98.2	
Experienced one or more of these	3.0		1.8	
Sample size (people)	1606		1327	

The first point to note here is that three percent of women who currently have partners said that they had experienced at least one of these types of violence in 2000. We suggested in the discussion of the lifetime prevalence of partner violence that, because of the changes in methodology, the figures produced by the 2001 NZNSCV were more reliable than those produced by the 1996 NZNSCV. This type of information was not collected in the 1996 NZNSCV. However, some information on women is available from the NZWSS (Morris 1997). There, the proportion of women reporting some experience of violence at the hands of their current male partners within the last 12 months was very much higher than the figure in Table 5.6: 15% compared with three percent. How can we make sense of this?

Morris (1998) cautioned that, in trying to understand the findings of the NZWSS, important methodological effects had to be considered. First, the effective response rate in the NZWSS

was very low when coupled with the response rate of the 1996 NZNSCV.¹⁹⁹ Second, the sample of women participating in the NZWSS may have been biased in a number of key respects: for example, women who had experienced violence by their male partners may have been more willing to participate in the survey than other women. This would mean that the figure quoted above over-stated the level of such violence generally. Third, the NZWSS had a number of unique methodological features: women were able to choose the method of interview most suited to them, they were asked about a long list of violent behaviours (22 in all), and it was very clear from the outset that the survey was specifically about violence against women by their male partners rather than about crime victimisation in general. These features might have led to the women being very 'open' about the abuse they had experienced. As a result of all of these methodological effects, Morris (1998) suggests that we cannot be confident about the estimates derived from the NZWSS. It is possible, therefore, that the lower figure in Table 5.6 is more reliable. There is no other directly comparable New Zealand research.²⁰⁰

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (1996) carried out a detailed and comprehensive survey of around 6300 Australian women and found that eight percent of women who were currently married or in a de facto relationship reported experiencing at least one incident of physical or sexual assault by their current partner during their relationship. This, of course, is likely to be a longer time frame than that referred to in Table 5.6. Also, the methodologies used in the Australian survey and in the 2001 NZNSCV were quite different, and so we have to be cautious about making direct comparisons.

Tjaden and Thoennes's (2000) telephone survey of almost 6000 women in the United States who were currently partnered found that almost one and a half percent of the women reported being raped, physically assaulted or stalked by a current or former partner during the 12 months preceding the survey and that just over one percent reported being physically assaulted by a current or former partner over this period. This is much lower than the figure for women from the 2001 NZNSCV, especially since it includes violence by former partners and we know that women are much more likely to be assaulted by former than current partners (Morris 1997). However, the methodology of the National Violence Against Women Survey was quite different and these differences in prevalence rates may be explained by this.

199 The overall response rate for the NZWSS 1996 was 79%. Because of the way in which the sample for the NZWSS was drawn, however, this response rate has to be viewed within the context of the response rate for the 1996 NZNSCV (the women who participated in the NZWSS had already participated in the NZNSCV). The overall response rate for the 1996 NZNSCV was 57%. We know nothing about the characteristics of those who declined to participate in the 1996 NZNSCV. It is possible that the response rate for women was significantly higher than for men and there are plausible reasons for suggesting this: for example, women's greater fear of crime than men's might have made them more interested in participating in that survey and women's lower level of involvement in crime than men's might have made them less suspicious of the research. However, the point is: we do not know this and this has to be kept in mind in extrapolating from the findings of the NZWSS.

200 Much earlier, Fergusson et al. (1986) found that nine percent of the mothers interviewed in their study reported one or more assaults by their husbands but this was over a five-year period. Langley et al. (1997) claim that 11% of the women interviewed by them reported that they had been assaulted by a partner in the preceding 12 months. These findings have to be contrasted with those of Magdol et al. (1997), however, who report a figure more than two times higher: 27%. What is important about these two pieces of research is that they were based on the same sample at the same age (early twenties) but they used different methodologies which seem to have resulted in these very different findings.

The research closest in methodology to the 2001 NZNSCV is probably the British Crime Survey. Mirrlees-Black and Byron (1999) state that, in the 1996 British Crime Survey, four percent of women reported that they had been physically assaulted in the last year by a current or former partner and that, when frightening threats were added, this figure increased to six percent. Given, as just stated, that women are much more likely to be assaulted by former than current partners, the rate disclosed in the 2001 NZNSCV may be viewed as quite high in comparison. However, even so, we cannot lightly dismiss the methodological caveats mentioned in the introduction to this chapter which would mean that the extent of such violence experienced by women in New Zealand is still an under-estimate. Violence within current relationships is a notoriously difficult area to research.

The second point to note about Table 5.6 is the relative closeness of the figures for women and for men: three percent of currently partnered women and two percent of currently partnered men said that they had experienced these types of violence in 2000.²⁰¹ This finding of women and men reporting similar levels of violence within relationships is not new (see, for example, Straus (1979) and (1993)). More recently, Mirrlees-Black and Byron (1999) stated that, in the 1996 British Crime Survey, four percent of men reported that they had been physically assaulted in the last year by a current or former partner and that, if threats are added, this figure increased to five percent.²⁰² But how these findings are interpreted is the subject of some controversy (see, for example, Kurz's (1993) critique of Straus's research and Tjaden and Thoennes 2000).

Moffitt and Caspi's (1999) review of the findings from the Dunedin Multidisciplinary Health and Development Study suggests that young women report committing violence against their male partners more frequently than men report committing violence against their female partners.²⁰³ Also, both Langley et al. (1997) and Magdol et al. (1997) found little difference between 'partnered' women and men in this respect in their research. However, there were significant differences between the findings of two studies – prevalence rates in Magdol et al.'s research were much higher for both sexes despite being based on the same sample of young people at the same age as Langley et al.'s research.²⁰⁴

Also, Moffitt and Caspi's (1999) review adds a new dimension to this debate: they compared the accounts of the couples in terms of who did what to whom and found that their agreement about what had happened was low.²⁰⁵ Indeed, more generally, Tjaden and Thoennes (2000) argue that it is only in research which investigates at the same time participants' victimisation by their heterosexual partners and their perpetration of violence against their heterosexual partners that similar prevalence rates for both sexes are found. This

201 This type of information was not collected in the 1996 NZNSCV and so we cannot make comparisons here with that survey.

202 Contrast, however, Tjaden and Thoennes's (2000) survey of almost 6000 American men and 6000 women who were currently partnered. They found that 0.8% of the men and 1.4% of the women reported being raped, physically assaulted or stalked by a current or former partner during the 12 months preceding the survey. Though this difference seems slight, they claim that it is statistically significant.

203 This survey was conducted when the young people were aged 21. For more detail, see Moffitt et al. 2001.

204 However, their definition of 'partner' differed and they used different methods to measure violence. These research projects were also based on the same sample which Moffitt and Caspi (1999) are referring to above.

205 On the other hand, they claimed that the level of agreement improved if one simply examined whether or not abuse took place.

is clearly not so – neither the British Crime Survey nor the 2001 NZNSCV investigated whether or not victims had acted violently. However, these debates point to how difficult this area of research is, and the profound effects of different methodologies. Relying on rates also, of course, tells us nothing about the differential contexts or effects of violence by heterosexual partners. Data from the Dunedin studies, for example, do not indicate who instigated the incident or whether or not any of the acts were in self-defence. We return to this point later in Section 5.6 on Policy Implications.

The third point to note with respect to Table 5.6 is the very small percentages responding ‘yes’ to each of the questions asked. This means that it is inappropriate to carry out complex analyses and the following comments on relationships between these experiences and demographic factors must be treated with caution. However, for each question, a greater proportion of Māori said they had experienced these types of incidents than did any other ethnicity; and, for all questions except the one asking about the use of weapons, an even greater proportion of Māori women than any other group said that they had experienced these types of incidents. Those aged 17 to 24 years generally, 17 to 24 year old women in particular, Māori aged 15 to 24, and those grouped as NZSEI unspecified also were more likely than other groups to say that they had experienced these types of incidents. A greater proportion of Māori had also experienced one or more of these behaviours, as did Māori women, and the rate for Māori men was higher than it was for Pacific women and for New Zealand European/European women.

For each of these violent behaviours, participants who replied that they had experienced them were asked how many times each had happened. Most commonly, the incidents had happened more than once, even within the relatively short time frame asked about. The figures here are very small and so we need to be careful about generalisations. However, women seemed more likely than men to have experienced four or more of each of these incidents (with the exception of those involving the use of weapons which neither had experienced four or more times).²⁰⁶ The figures here are obviously even smaller and again we have to be careful about generalising. But this does indicate that there are a small number of people, primarily but not exclusively women, who had experienced a large number of repeat acts of violence at the hands of their heterosexual partners within a relatively short time frame. We carried out significance tests on the percentage of repeat victims of violence by current heterosexual partners falling into various groups. Repeat victims were significantly more likely to be: women, young, Māori, solo parents, beneficiaries, of lower socio-economic status (with the exception of NZSEI 10-29) and living in rented accommodation.²⁰⁷ Of course, many of these groups overlap.

5.3.1 The most recent incident of violence by heterosexual partners

Participants who reported this type of violence were asked to think about the most recent incident of this type which had happened to them and were then asked to briefly describe this. 132 incidents were described. It is clear from these brief accounts that many incidents were viewed by participants as ‘just a domestic’. Some were described as part of an argument about, for example, children or money; and some were presented by the participants

206 One percent of women had experienced each item four or more times compared with between 0.1 and 0.4 of men.

207 Repeat victims are defined here using method (b), described in the ‘Definitions of terms’.

themselves as relatively minor: 'it was no big deal'.²⁰⁸ However, not all were considered relatively minor, and the following extracts provide some examples of participants' experiences. First we hear from some women:

I was brutally assaulted by my partner. He spent time in prison for it.

It happened last month when he hit me and pushed me around and kicked me and beat me up.

He threw a chair at me and I had to pretend that we were playing because my children were frightened.

I was very pregnant and he pushed my stomach then shoved me to the floor.

Partner...hit me with fists and kicked me.

He locked me in the house and threatened to burn it down.

He used the butt of a gun and hit me across the leg about six times. Prior to this he kicked me at least 3 times in the same place. He hit me with the gun butt and pushed my head on to the roof of his ute.

We were arguing and he grabbed me around the throat and pushed me up against the wall.

The next quotes are from men:

She attacked me, hitting me in the face, sitting on top of me, slapping my head and kicking .. I asked her to stop. I then called the Police.

My wife hit me repeatedly about the head due to [the] frustrations she was having in the marriage.

I got smart so she punched me in the head.

Girlfriend hit and pushed me, because I was two-timing her.

We had an argument and my wife scratched my face and hit me.

She has just thrown shoes and things like that at me and threatened to throw things and punched me and slapped me.

It was also clear from some of the descriptions that, although one partner was describing an assault by the other, it could equally well have occurred the other way round. The following descriptions are examples of this:

My girlfriend threatens to seriously hurt me when I annoy her and most of the time she hits me first.

We were having an argument when he pushed me and I pushed him back.

208 It is worth stressing here that participants were asked to describe the most recent and not the most serious incident that they had experienced.

We had an argument. I yelled; he hit; I retaliated.

Participants who disclosed this type of violence were asked for more information about this particular recent incident and we have used this information to try to gauge the level of seriousness of the incidents: first, by describing victims' injuries and the extent to which medical attention was required; and, second, by outlining the victims' assessment of the incident's impact on them.

The use of weapons

Only a few of the recent incidents of violence involved a weapon. The most frequently-mentioned weapon was a knife, screwdriver or some other stabbing weapon and the next most commonly-mentioned item was a stick or club. Less frequently-mentioned were bottles or drinking glasses and a range of weapons which were classified as 'other'. These included a frying pan, a kitchen chair, a handbag, and shoes. This suggests that what often happens is that the nearest object is picked up and used.

Type of injuries

Only a fifth of the participants describing a recent incident of violence by a heterosexual partner said that they had been injured in some way: more than three-quarters of these said that they had been bruised or experienced black eyes; just over a quarter said that they had been scratched; almost a fifth referred to cuts; just two percent referred to broken bones and less than one percent referred to internal injuries. As a result of what had happened, almost a fifth said they had received medical attention from a doctor or nurse but none had stayed overnight in hospital.

Victims' reactions

Victims were then asked how they had felt as a result of this recent incident. Table 5.7 sets out this information by sex.

The first point to note is that all the women reporting a recent violent incident had some kind of reaction, while seven percent of men reported that they had experienced no reaction at all. This might mean that men experienced less serious violence or that they experienced the violence less seriously in the sense that the violence and its physical consequences could have been the same for men and women but the reaction of men and women to it differed considerably.²⁰⁹ Secondly, 'anger' was the most commonly-expressed feeling for both sexes, but significantly greater proportions of women than men said that they had cried and that they were afraid as a result of the violent incident. A much greater proportion of women also expressed 'fear for their children'. Perhaps surprisingly, a greater proportion of men said that they were 'more cautious and wary' as a result of the incident and that they 'felt bad' about themselves. Men were also much more likely to resort to the increased use of alcohol, drugs or medication.

209 It could also mean that men experienced reactions but were less willing than women to disclose them but, since the vast majority of men did express some reaction, this seems unlikely. Also, this question was part of the self-completion component of the survey and so the reactions of others were less likely to be an influential factor.

Table 5.7 Victims' reactions to violent incidents by current heterosexual partners, by sex: percentages reporting each reaction

Reaction experienced	Women	Men
Anger	66.6	60.9
Cried	59.2	12.7
Shock	45.9	41.7
Fear	37.2	6.5
Relationship problems	24.1	19.8
More cautious/wary	20.6	31.9
Felt bad about myself	20.1	28.2
Afraid for children	18.8	4.1
Ashamed or guilty	10.1	9.2
Difficulty in sleeping	9.9	9.8
Depression or anxiety attacks	4.5	4.6
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication	2.5	9.5
Other	8.6	4.2
No reaction	0.0	7.1
Sample size (incidents)	81	51

Note: multiple responses are possible.

Victims were also asked how affected they were by the incident. Table 5.8 sets out this information.

Table 5.8 Overall effects of violence by current heterosexual partners on the victim where some reaction, by sex: percentages

Effects of violence	Women	Men
Very much	27.0	16.1
Quite a lot	35.7	16.7
Just a little	28.0	57.7
Not at all	8.5	9.6
Sample size (incidents)	80	44

There was little difference in the proportion of women and men saying that they were 'not at all' affected. However, a greater proportion of women said that they were 'very much' affected and a much greater proportion said that they were 'quite a lot' affected. On the other

hand, more than half the men said that they were ‘just a little’ affected. This too may point to the less serious nature of the violence experienced by men.²¹⁰

Victims were then asked whether they viewed what had happened to them as a crime, as wrong but not a crime, or as just something which happened. Almost half (48%) said that it was just something which happened and only 16% said that it was a crime. We made the point in Chapter 4 that certain types of violence were largely tolerated and seen as a ‘normal’ part of everyday life. The findings in Chapter 5 suggest that this is even more so with respect to violence within current relationships.

There was a marked difference here, however, with respect to women and men: more than a quarter (27%) of the women but just four percent of men describing this recent incident said that they viewed what had happened as a crime. And not much more than a third (36%) of the women saw it as just something which happened, compared with almost two-thirds (61%) of the men. The proportion viewing the incident as wrong but not a crime was much the same (33% and 31% respectively). This difference has implications for campaigns which seek to emphasis that ‘family violence is a crime’.

5.4 The incidence and prevalence of violence by other people well known to the victim – 2000

Participants were asked whether or not they had experienced, in 2000, any of the same violent behaviours at the hands of other people well known to them. Table 5.9 sets out these data for women and men and suggests that there was little difference in the experience of men and women with respect to violence at the hands of others well known to the victim.

We also examined these experiences for the different ethnicities, for sex and ethnic groups combined, for the different age groups and for the different socio-economic status groups. Māori participants were more likely than Pacific and New Zealand European/European participants to say that they had experienced one or more of these items at the hands of other people well known to them: the figures were 10%, five percent and three percent respectively. And a higher proportion of both Māori women and Māori men said that they had experienced one or more of these items at the hands of other people well known to them (12% and seven percent respectively) compared with New Zealand European/European women and Pacific women (both four percent) and New Zealand European/European men (two percent). The figure for Pacific men, however, was the same as that for Māori men: seven percent.

A higher proportion of the youngest age groups said that they had experienced one or more of these items at the hands of other people well known to them compared with older age groups and, when age groups and sex are combined, the analysis showed a similar pattern though the difference is not as marked for young women. For example, 17% of 15 and 16 year old boys and 14% of 15 and 16 year old girls said that they had experienced one or more of these items at the hands of other people well known to them (the figure for the 17 to 24 year old men was seven percent though for women in this age group it was 10%). There was

210 Again, it could mean that men were less willing than women to disclose their reactions.

little difference with respect to socio-economic status except that a greater proportion of those classified as NZSEI unspecified or with an NZSEI of less than 40 said that they had experienced one or more of these items at the hands of other people well known to them.

Table 5.9 Type of violence by others well known to the victim, by sex – 2000: incidence per 100 people, prevalence as percentages

Behaviours	Women		Men	
	Incidence	Prevalence	Incidence	Prevalence
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has anyone else you know well actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</i>	5.1	2.5	2.7	1.5
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has anyone else you know well threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	6.9	2.5	1.7	1.2
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has anyone else you know well deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</i>	4.8	2.2	1.6	1.0
<i>Since 1 January 2000, has anyone else you know well used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i>	1.6	0.7	1.2	0.5
Experienced none of these	95.5		97.0	
Experienced one or more of these	4.5		3.0	
Sample size (people)	3000		2145	

For each of these violent behaviours, participants who replied that they had experienced them were asked how many times each had happened. Most commonly, with the exception of a weapon being used or threatened, the incidents had happened more than once. This was especially so for female participants.²¹¹ Those who had experienced each act of violence asked about three or more times at the hands of other people well known to them were asked whether or not any had been committed by the same person. Most – especially women – responded that it had been (with the exception of when a weapon was used or threatened). Thus, a small minority of both sexes, but especially women, experienced repeated acts of violence at the hands of the same person.

²¹¹ For women, the percentages saying they had experienced the acts more than once ranged from 2.9% to 3.2%; for men, they ranged from 1.5% to 2.0%.

5.4.1 The most recent incident of violence by other people well known to the victim

Victims were asked to think about the most recent incident of this type and were then asked to briefly describe it: 383 incidents were described and again many of the incidents seem, from the participants' perspective, to be relatively minor and to be viewed as part of family or everyday life. The following accounts provide some examples. First, some comments on violence within the family:

My son pushed me against the wall.

My parent used physical [sic] on me to discipline me for not listening. I consider that to be violent.

My brother tried to hurt me with a knife and kicked me in the head.

Me and my brother always get into fights when we are around each other...

I got in a fight with my sister and we ended up hitting each other.

My dad's wife punched me in the head...while I was...pregnant.

She threatened to shoot me with my dad's gun....

Second, some descriptions of violence by ex-partners, boyfriends or girlfriends:

My previous boyfriend threatened to hit me if I ever went out with another man.

He hit me in the face in front of the kids. Kicked me in the legs, covered in bruises.

When I went to pick up my daughter, my ex-partner hit and kicked me.

I was held up against a wall by the throat...by my ex-partner, with him telling me he wanted to kill me.

My son's father threatened to kill me.

My ex-partner came at me with a big stick and grabbed my neck and belted me...After he broke the stick across my back, he hit me in the face and back-side.

Husband drunk while visiting kids, argument broke out between us, ended up [with me] getting the bash.

My tane [man] was the one who broke my nose.

Third, some descriptions of violence by friends:

My friend and I had a few drinks then he started getting mad at something. I don't know what, we started fighting and he grabbed a knife and struck my hand with it.

A friend threatened me with a gun...

And, finally, some descriptions of violence at work, an area not much investigated (cf Budd 1999a):

I was threatened at work. A client said she would come back with a gun and shoot me.

A client hit me at work.

Within my role...I was involved in restraining a particular boy. In the process of restraining him, he bit me.

Victims were asked for more information about this particular recent incident. We were particularly interested in knowing more about who the offender was. The majority of offenders for both male and female victims were men: 79% and 72% respectively. Women were slightly more likely than men to say that the offender was female: 19% and 10% respectively.²¹² Young men were less likely than older age groups to say that the offender was female and men aged 60 and over were more likely to say this (but the numbers here are very small). Girls aged 15 and 16 were most likely to say that their offender was female.

Table 5.10 sets out the relationship between the victim and their offender.

Table 5.10 shows that women were much more likely than men to report that the recent violent incident was carried out by a male ex-partner, by a boyfriend or by a child. Men, on the other hand, were more likely to mention that the offender was a close friend.

Pacific victims were more likely than victims of other ethnicities to say that the offender was a boyfriend or girlfriend of the opposite sex; they were also more likely to mention a brother or step-brother but were less likely to mention a parent as the offender. New Zealand European/European victims were more likely than victims of other ethnicities to mention that the offender was a close friend and that the offender was a child. Māori victims were more likely to mention that the offender was another relative. Girls in the two younger age groups were more likely than older women to say that the offender was a boyfriend and were also more likely to say this than men in these age groups were to say that the offender was a girlfriend. Women in the 25-39 age group were more likely than women and men in other age groups to mention that the offender was an ex-partner.

We attempted to gauge the level of seriousness of the incidents: first, by describing victims' injuries and the extent to which medical attention was required; and, second, by outlining the victims' assessment of the incident's impact on them.

212 This was so for all ages and ethnicities and there was a large difference between Māori women and Māori men: the figures were 23% and 6% respectively.

Table 5.10 Relationship between victim and offender for recent incident of violence by others well known to victim, by sex: percentages

Relationship	Women	Men
Ex-partner opposite sex	12.2	4.1
Another relative	10.3	10.4
Close friend ²¹³	10.2	19.7
Child/step child	9.1	1.6
Boyfriend/girlfriend of opposite sex	9.0	2.0
Brother/ stepbrother ²¹⁴	8.4	11.0
Parent ²¹⁵	6.2	8.5
Workmate ²¹⁶	3.2	6.9
Neighbour	3.1	1.6
Knew by sight	1.9	8.1
Partner, boyfriend/girlfriend of same sex	1.8	2.7
Ex-partner same sex	0.7	1.0
Other ²¹⁷	22.6	21.5
Sample size (incidents)	236	136

The use of weapons

Of those who reported experiencing a recent incident of violence at the hands of other people well known to them, 18% said that a weapon had been involved. The weapon most commonly mentioned by the victims was a knife, screwdriver or some weapon to stab with (mentioned in 33% of such victimisations), followed by a stick (mentioned in 28%) and then by a bottle or glass (mentioned in 15%). However, in 15% of these victimisations a gun was used or threatened. And other weapons were mentioned in 15% of such victimisations. These included brooms, a hose, cords, a shovel, a stapler and hole punch, plates and other kitchen utensils, a belt, a shoe, and a fire extinguisher.

The type of injuries

Almost a quarter (23%) of the victims reporting a recent incident said that they had been injured in some way and female victims were more likely to say this than male victims (28%

213 In addition, 4% of women and 2% of men said that the offender was a close friend of their families.

214 In addition, 3% of women and a few men said that the offender was a sister or step-sister.

215 In addition, about one percent of women and two percent of men said that the offender was a step-parent and one percent of women said that the offender was the parent's boyfriend.

216 In addition, 2% of men (and no women) said that the offender was an employer.

217 These included sister's boyfriend, ex-partner's sister, ex-wife's boyfriend, daughter's ex-partner, ex-girlfriend's uncle, friend's son, friend of a friend, my friend's boyfriend, flatmate, clients, a caregiver, fellow students and a teacher.

of the female victims said this compared with 18% of the male victims). The most commonly mentioned was bruises and black eyes (mentioned in 87% of such incidents) and then cuts and scratches. As a result of what had happened, almost a third (31%) of the female victims and a quarter of the male victims said that they had received medical attention from a doctor or nurse; and more than two-fifths (41%) of the female victims and more than a quarter (27%) of the male victims reporting such incidents said that they had stayed overnight in hospital. The numbers involved here are too small for further analysis on demographic factors.

Victims' reactions

Victims were asked how they had felt as a result of this recent incident. Table 5.11 sets out this information by sex.

Table 5.11 Victims' reactions to violent incidents by others well known to them: percentages reporting each reaction, by sex

Reactions experienced	Women	Men
Anger	71.6	59.2
Shock	49.1	27.1
Cried	39.2	9.8
Fear	37.4	18.2
More cautious/wary	27.6	19.3
Difficulty in sleeping	23.2	6.6
Depression or anxiety attacks	17.9	2.3
Afraid for children	17.0	3.0
Ashamed or guilty	16.7	5.5
Relationship problems	15.2	5.0
Felt bad about myself	14.8	11.6
Increased use of alcohol/drugs/medication	5.7	1.4
Other	4.1	10.4
No reaction	3.8	11.7
Sample size (incidents)	237	140

Note: multiple responses are possible.

Again, the first point to note is that fewer women than men said that they had no negative reaction to the incident: only four percent of women said this compared with 12% of men. This may suggest that these experiences were less serious for men than for women. Secondly, for every item, a greater proportion of women than men said that they had this type of feeling. For example, a much greater proportion of women than men mentioned 'anger',

‘shock’, crying and fear, including ‘fear for their children’. More than a quarter of the women said that were ‘more cautious and wary’ and more than a fifth said that they had ‘difficulty sleeping’. Women, of course, may feel more able to express emotions than men, but there are clear differences between the men’s responses in Table 5.11 and their responses in Table 5.7 (which related to violence by heterosexual partners) which may suggest that the type of violence discussed in this section has less of an impact on men. Third, the order of the most commonly-expressed reactions changed slightly between Table 5.11 and Table 5.7 though the ‘top four’ emotions remained the same.

Victims were also asked how affected they were by the incident. Table 5.12 sets this out.

Table 5.12 Overall effects of violence by others well known to the victim, by sex: percentages

Effects of violence	Women	Men
Very much	29.8	15.2
Quite a lot	33.0	30.1
Just a little	29.6	37.1
Not at all	5.7	15.1
Sample size (incidents)	237	140

Men were more than twice as likely as women to say that they were ‘not at all’ affected by this recent incident of violence and were more likely to say that they were ‘just a little’ affected. On the other hand, women were twice as likely as men to say that they were ‘very much’ affected. The proportions saying that they were ‘quite a lot’ affected were not so different. Overall, this information too suggests that these experiences had less impact on men than on women.

Victims were then asked whether they viewed what had happened to them as a crime, as wrong but not a crime, or as just something which happened: more than a quarter (26%) saw the incident as a crime, but two-fifths saw it as just something which happened. There was a little difference here with respect to women and men: slightly more of the women than the men reporting this type of violence said that they viewed what had happened as a crime (29% compared with 22%); and fewer of the women than the men reporting this type of violence said that they viewed what had happened as wrong but not a crime (27% compared with 35%). This may be indicative that these experiences were viewed less seriously by men than by women.²¹⁸ This also takes us back to a point made in Chapter 4 and earlier in this chapter with respect to violence by current partners: certain types of violence are largely tolerated and seen as a ‘normal’ part of everyday life.

²¹⁸ However, the proportion of women and men viewing the incident as just something which happened was much the same (40% and 39% respectively).

5.5 Summary of key findings on violence by partners and others well known to the victim

The main findings of this chapter are:

- With respect to violence at the hands of heterosexual partners, women, especially Māori women, were significantly more likely than men to say they had experienced such violence at some time in their lives.
- There was little difference between women and men in the proportion saying they had experienced violence at the hands of their current partners in 2000.
- There was a significant difference in the impact of this violence on women and men, with a greater proportion of women than men saying that the most recent incident had affected them ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’. Women were also more likely to say that, as a result, they were afraid for themselves and for their children.
- A significantly greater proportion of women than men viewed the most recent incident of violence by a current heterosexual partner as a crime.
- With respect to violence by other people well known to the victim, women were significantly more likely than men to mention ex-partners or boyfriends and men were most likely than women to mention close friends as the offenders.
- A much greater proportion of young people than older age groups had experienced one or more of the violent behaviours asked about at the hands of other people well known to them. This was also the case for both Māori and Pacific men and for Māori women when compared with other ethnic groups.
- Women were significantly more affected than men by violence by other people well known to them.

5.6 Policy implications

Overall, these findings confirm that, for women, the lifetime prevalence of violence at the hands of heterosexual partners is quite high and significantly higher than it is for men. They also confirm the significantly higher prevalence rate for Māori, especially for Māori women. As noted previously, lifetime prevalence data treat in the same way single reports which conceal very different lifetime experiences. For this reason, violence within current and recent relationships is probably of more relevance for government policies, the Police and other service agencies. With respect to current violence within heterosexual relationships, there was less difference between the extent to which this was experienced by women and by men: three percent of currently partnered women and two percent of currently partnered men said that they had experienced these types of violence in 2000 although, again, Māori, especially Māori women, were more likely than other ethnic groups to say that they had

experienced these. In addition, a higher proportion of both Māori women and Māori men said that they had experienced violence at the hands of other people well known to them. Often, these were ex-partners or relatives.

Two points need to be made here. First, the higher rates for Māori for violence by partners and others well known to them point to the continued need to specifically address violence in Māori families, as recognised in Te Rito New Zealand Family Violence Prevention Strategy (Ministry of Social Development 2002). Second, the relative closeness between the rates for women and for men could be interpreted as confirming the frequent media speculations that women are as likely as men to be violent towards their current heterosexual partners and as pointing to the need to address more seriously and more carefully this type of violence.

There are a number of caveats which need to be entered here, though, before this second conclusion can be reached. First, it seems clear, even from the kind of data which surveys like this can produce, that the women's experience of violence in relationships is qualitatively different from men's – for example, women were much more likely than men to be 'very much' affected by the violence they experienced at the hands of their heterosexual partners and to see it as a crime.²¹⁹ Second, much more additional information is required about the context of men's and women's violence against their heterosexual partners.

Overseas research (for example, Saunders 1988; Kurz 1993) shows that much of women's violence against men in heterosexual relationships is defensive. We do not know from the 2001 NZNSCV whether men were reporting that they, for example, had been assaulted by their female partners in response to the men assaulting their female partners first. This same overseas research also shows that sometimes women, who know from various cues that their male partners are going to assault them, assault their partners first to get the expected violence over and done with or in an attempt to prevent it. Again, we do not know if the men in the 2001 NZNSCV were reporting this type of violence by women.

Moffitt and Caspi (1999), referred to earlier, found that the young women in their sample assaulted by their partners were ten times more likely than other women to have assaulted their partners, and that the young men in their sample who had assaulted their partners were 19 times more likely than other men to have been assaulted by their partners. They claim that this shows that, in most cases of partner violence in this age group (the sample, as noted previously, were aged 21 at the time), the parties are involved in 'mutual violence'. However, we are less sure of this: no data were provided on who started the incident or on whether or not any of the acts were in self-defence. To understand all of this better, therefore, we need in-depth qualitative research which examines the context and meaning of violence within relationships from the perspective of each member of the relationship.

More broadly, the 2001 NZNSCV also found a lower level of violence against women than that found in the NSWSS which was part of the 1996 NZNSCV. We have already commented, in general, on the problems involved in carrying out research in this area and, in

219 See also Mirrlees-Black and Byron (1999) - they suggested that, on average, men were less upset by their experience, were considerably less frightened, were less often injured and were less likely to seek medical treatment than women - and Tjaden and Thoennes (2000) - they found that women reported more frequent and longer-lasting victimisation, injuries and fear of injury, time lost from work, and the use of medical, health and justice system services.

particular, on the difficulties which exist in generalising from the NZWSS. In our view, this reduction in violence against women is likely to be the result of the different methodologies used. Some might want to argue instead that this reduction indicates that the various policy initiatives with respect to violence against women have been 'successful'. This is possible, but we would caution against reaching such a conclusion at this stage. Repeating the methodology used in the 2001 NZNSCV in future surveys would enable such conclusions to be drawn, if there is, indeed, a reduction.

We agree with Morris (1998), however, who questioned the search for the 'right' prevalence figure and who suggested that it was not really important to establish whether violence had been experienced by 20% of women in current relationships or only by two percent. Arguably, any figure is too high and improvements in policy and practice need not wait for the determination of a precise figure. This point applies equally to policy and practice with respect to male victims of violence at the hands of their female partners (though within the framework and caveats mentioned above).

Overall, the 2001 NZNSCV has confirmed that violence by people well known to us is much more common than violence by strangers, especially for women and for young people. This message needs to be more clearly portrayed, not with a view to making us more afraid of our lovers, relatives and friends, but with a view to making us feel safer on the streets. At the same time, however, many of those who experienced this type of violence did not view their experience as crime, but rather as wrong but not a crime, or as just something that happened. This raises issues about the tolerance of violence in families and relationships.

The 2001 NZNSCV was able to confirm that there exists a small minority of people, especially women, who experience repeat victimisation at the hands of their heterosexual partners and other people well known to them (primarily boyfriends and ex-partners). Various schemes exist overseas aimed at preventing violence amongst those already victimised (Lloyd et al. 1994; Pease, 1993). There are some similar schemes in New Zealand, and these could perhaps be further developed.

6 Sexual victimisation

6.1 Introduction

Sexual victimisation is generally thought to have one of the lowest levels of reporting by victims and this was confirmed by the 2001 NZNSCV: we estimate that the Police got to know about only 12% of sexual victimisations (see Section 3.2 in Chapter 3).²²⁰ There are a number of reasons for this. First, as mentioned in Chapter 1, victims may not define what they have experienced as, for example, 'rape' or 'sexual assault', especially when the 'offender' is known to them.²²¹ Second, victims may experience feelings of embarrassment, shame, fear, guilt or self-blame and, as a result, they do not tell even their families or friends about what has happened to them, again especially when the 'offender' is a family member or friend (Ageton 1983; Painter 1991; Koss et al. 1997; Gavey 1997). In these situations, victims may fear that their families or friends will not believe them or will blame them for what happened. Third, victims may be worried about the way in which the Police might respond to them and, as a result, they do not report their victimisation to the Police for much the same reasons.²²² Certainly, in the past, victims of rape or sexual assault have tended to view the Police as unsympathetic towards them (Hall 1985; Bryan et al. 1985; Williams 1984).²²³

It is not surprising, therefore, that victims do not always disclose their experience of sexual victimisation to researchers. As with the type of violence already discussed in Chapter 5, we know that surveys of crime victims are unlikely to capture well the extent of sexual victimisation. The British Crimes Surveys, for example, measure sexual assaults but, because of the small number of incidents reported by participants within the surveys, they are not considered reliable and the findings are not generally reported (Kershaw et al. 2001, 28; cf Myhill and Allen 2002 discussed later in this chapter). We know too that prevalence rates for

220 This estimate of the reporting rate for sexual victimisation is probably too high. There are grounds to believe that some participants did not disclose within the self-completion questionnaire the sexual victimisation they had experienced (as discussed below), and it seems reasonable to believe that incidents that were not disclosed within the self-completion questionnaire would also not be reported to the Police.

221 This point has been discussed particularly with respect to women. Graham (1983), for example, states that women's experiences within a male-dominated society or within a male-dominated language may be literally unspeakable. Kelly (1984) endorses this explicitly with reference to sexual assault. She says that women might not have the words to describe what happened and 'forget' these events as a survival strategy.

222 Even when victims report sexual victimisation to the Police, not all are recorded by them (Jordan 2001a). Police statistics on sex offences are, as a result, generally accepted as unreliable measures of the extent of sexual victimisation.

223 This was especially so for victims who did not fit the stereotypical notion of 'real' rape - a sudden, violent attack by a stranger in a deserted, public place late at night and involving the use of weapons - or of 'real' victims - chaste individuals of good character who are not voluntarily in the place where the attack takes place, who fight to the end and who have bruises to show for it.

sexual victimisation vary according to the number, type and form of questions asked and the type of methodology used (Kelly 2002; Fisher and Cullen 2000; Schwartz 1997; Percy and Mayhew 1997; Greenfield 1997).²²⁴

As we outlined in Chapter 1, the 2001 NZNSCV used a different methodology to explore sexual victimisation from that used in the 1996 NZNSCV – computer-assisted self-interviewing (CASI). It was hoped that this might produce more reliable estimates. In fact, as we will see, it has produced lifetime prevalence figures which are not so different for women but which are much lower for men.²²⁵ However, again, we have to enter some caveats: the self-completion questionnaire was still part of a survey which primarily focussed on crime as conventionally understood, and victims of sexual victimisation may be more likely than victims of other types of victimisation to define what happened to them differently. Also, the kinds of emotions which inhibit disclosure of sexual victimisation to family and friends may similarly inhibit disclosure in front of a computer screen. The interviewers from the main survey were still nearby and, certainly from the participants' perspective, could 'know' how they were responding to the questions (by, for example, the length of time it took participants to complete the self-completion component). It is likely, therefore, that the figures presented in this chapter still under-estimate the extent of sexual victimisation. There were also changes made to the questions asked which will have affected the comparability of the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV with those of the 1996 NZNSCV. The 1996 NZNSCV used formal language and referred to penetration of the vagina by the penis and to oral and anal sex. In the 2001 NZNSCV, participants were asked '*has anyone ever sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted you or made you carry out any sexual activity when you did not want to?*' and '*since 1 January 2000, has anyone sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted you or made you carry out any sexual activity when you did not want to?*'²²⁶

This chapter first describes the extent to which participants had ever experienced sexual interference or sexual assault, including whether or not they had experienced this before the age of 17 (Section 6.2). It then sets out the extent to which sexual victimisation occurred in 2000 (Section 6.3). It next focuses on the most recent example of this type of victimisation and asks participants who disclosed sexual victimisation to provide more information about this (Section 6.4). Finally, Section 6.5 summarises the key findings of this chapter and Section 6.6 briefly discusses their policy implications. The numbers involved throughout discussions in this chapter are small, but, at this stage of our understanding of sexual victimisation in New Zealand, it was decided that it was important to describe these findings, while, at the same time, cautioning readers about our ability to generalise from them. The figures presented, therefore, are indicative only.

224 For example, results can vary depending on whether or not researchers use legal definitions. Pioneering work by Koss (see, for example, Koss et al. 1997) asked women (students) to describe different sexual experiences and then the researchers assessed these accounts to determine whether or not they met the legal definitions of rape or attempted rape. As a result, Koss et al. found that around a quarter of the women in their survey had been raped or had been the victims of an attempted rape since the age of 14 – a figure much higher than earlier studies had found. Gavey (1991) used similar methods in New Zealand, also with a sample of students, and claimed that 25% had been the victims of rape or attempted rape.

225 The 1996 NZNSCV showed that 26% of women and 16% of men had experienced at least one of a list of sexual offences but its findings in this regard are not seen as reliable. This fluctuation between the two surveys may be explained by the small number of men saying that they had been sexually victimised.

226 Participants were also told in the introduction to this section of the questionnaire and to these questions that the person making these advances could be a stranger, but that it could be a partner, a friend or a family member.

There are no contrasts made in this chapter with the 1996 NZNSCV as there was too much missing information on these issues for reliable analysis then and, as noted above, the language used to explore sexual victimisation in the 2001 NZNSCV is quite different. Other research, however, is referred to briefly to provide a context for the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV. It is not appropriate, however, to make exact comparisons because of differences in the questions asked and in the samples surveyed. Obviously, ‘sexually interfered with’ and ‘sexually assaulted’ cover a wide range of behaviours from touching a person’s sexual organs to rape, and it was decided in this section of the self-completion questionnaire not to ask victims to describe the most recent (or any) victimisation. This means that the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV cannot be directly compared with other surveys’ findings on rape. On the other hand, all of the victimisations reported were, from the victims’ perspective, unwanted sexual behaviours.

6.2 The lifetime prevalence of sexual interference or assault²²⁷

As noted in Chapter 1 and above, because of concerns about the reliability of the data collected in the self-completion component of the 1996 NZNSCV – and general concerns in the literature about how best to collect data on sexual victimisation – it was decided to re-design this part of the 2001 NZNSCV and to forego any attempt to retain comparability with the 1996 NZNSCV. This section sets out information on the extent to which participants had ever experienced sexual interference or sexual assault at any stage in their life and on demographic differences in this respect. It also sets out the extent to which sexual interference or sexual assault occurred before the age of 17. The issues which we drew attention to in Chapter 5 with respect to lifetime prevalence are equally important here. Lifetime prevalence data treat in the same way the report of a 60 year old of a single incident which happened 40 years ago and the report of a 20 year old who has, in fact, experienced daily many acts of sexual interference or assault over the last year, and it is possible that the 60 year old in our example would not recall a single act of sexual interference which occurred 40 years ago.

6.2.1 Demographic differences in the lifetime prevalence of sexual interference or assault

Table 6.1 sets out demographic differences in the lifetime prevalence of sexual interference or sexual assault and in its prevalence before the age of 17. Figure 6.1 then highlights those groups with the highest lifetime prevalence of sexual victimisation and contrasts these with the figure for men.

²²⁷ All the tables and data referred to in Section 6.2 include ‘non-relevant’ offences. See ‘Definitions of terms’ for what this means. The reason for this is that we cannot easily adjust these numbers to take account of ‘non-relevant’ incidents, because relevance was only captured for one incident (the most recent), and we lack information on the number of times that participants were victimised over their lifetime. In addition, most of the analyses based on self-completion victim form data include ‘non-relevant’ offences. Specifically in this chapter, this means that Tables 6.3, 6.4, 6.5 and the rest of Section 6.4. relate to data which include ‘non-relevant’ offences. Because the sample sizes are generally small in this chapter, if we had excluded a large proportion of these incidents, we would not have had enough data to be worth analysing.

Table 6.1 Lifetime experience of sexual interference or sexual assault and experience of sexual interference or sexual assault before the age of 17: percentages²²⁸

		Lifetime	Before age 17
Sex	Female	19.3	13.5
	Male	4.9	3.8
Age	15 and 16	8.6	7.9
	17-24	15.1	8.6
	25-39	14.5	11.5
	40-59	13.0	9.1
	60 +	6.8	4.7
Ethnicity	NZ European/European	12.9	9.2
	Māori	15.5	12.2
	Pacific	4.3	3.2
	Other	5.4	2.3
Age/female	15 and 16	14.6	13.4
	17-24	25.6	14.3
	25-39	22.3	17.3
	40-59	21.4	14.5
	60 +	9.2	6.6
Age/male	15 and 16	3.9	3.5
	17-24	4.5	2.9
	25-39	6.3	5.2
	40-59	4.5	3.7
	60 +	4.0	2.4
Ethnicity/female	NZ European/European	20.4	14.4
	Māori	23.4	18.4
	Pacific	6.5	5.3
	Other	8.7	2.4
Ethnicity/male	NZ European/European	4.9	3.8
	Māori	7.1	5.6
	Pacific	1.9	1.0
	Other	2.2	2.2
Socio-economic²²⁹	NZSEI unspecified	15.4	12.3
	NZSEI 10-29	10.2	7.3
	NZSEI 30-39	11.3	9.2
	NZSEI 40-49	12.3	9.5
	NZSEI 50-59	12.7	8.5
	NZSEI 60-74	11.1	7.0
	NZSEI 75-90	18.2	10.1

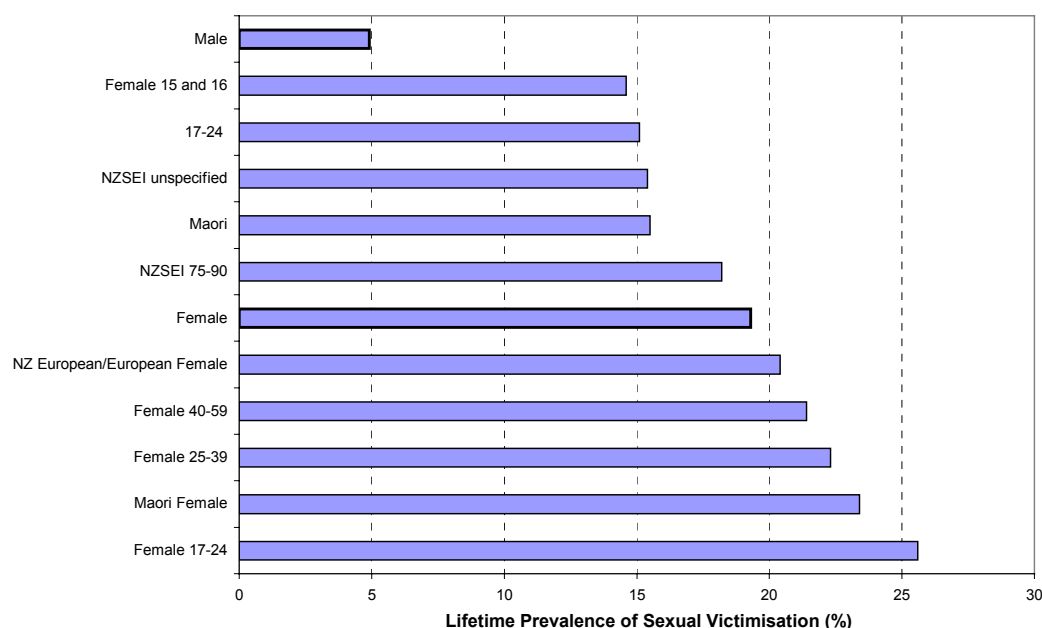
Sample size (people): 5,147.

228 The proportion of participants who refused to complete this part of the self-completion questionnaire is not provided in Table 6.1 for reasons of simplicity of presentation. This ranged from a high of five percent for 17 to 24 year old men and for Pacific men and women to a low of one percent for 40 to 59 year old men and for Māori women.

229 For information on this scale, see 'Definitions of terms'.

As one might expect, Table 6.1 and Figure 6.1 show that women's experience of sexual interference or assault over their lifetime was considerably higher than men's: only five percent of the male participants stated that they had experienced sexual interference or assault at some time in their life, compared with almost one in five of the female participants. It was higher still for young women and for Māori women.

Figure 6.1 Groups with the highest lifetime prevalence of sexual victimisation contrasted with the lifetime prevalence for men



Estimates for women's sexual victimisation can vary quite a bit, often depending on the questions asked and the methodology used. These figures for New Zealand can be considered alongside Hall's (1985) estimate, using a very different methodology and sample, that one in six women were raped and that one in three women were sexually assaulted at some time in their lives. They can also be considered alongside the figures cited earlier from Koss et al. (1997) and Gavey (1991) which related to younger and less random samples, with the lifetime prevalence figure for completed and attempted rape of 18% for American women given by Tjaden and Thoennes (1998), with Painter's (1991) figure of one in four for UK women, with the figure of one in three for Canadian women cited by Walby and Myhill (2001) and with the lifetime prevalence figure of five percent for rape cited by Myhill and Allen (2002) with respect to the analysis of 2000 British Crime Survey data. The lifetime prevalence figure for 'some form of sexual victimisation' is not quoted, though it is said that 10% of women had experienced this since the age of 16.

One might expect the lifetime experience of sexual interference or assault to be higher for the oldest age groups than for younger age groups. This was not so. In fact, a higher proportion of those aged 17 to 24, 25 to 39 and 40 to 59 than those aged 60 and over reported sexual interference or sexual assault at some time in their lives. This difference may be attributable to a reluctance amongst those aged 60 and over to define their experiences in this way, to forgetting about a single incident which occurred a long time ago and/or to an unwillingness

to disclose sexual interference or sexual assault to anyone for the reasons mentioned earlier rather than to real differences in their experiences. The proportion of women of all age groups reporting sexual interference or sexual assault was considerably higher than for men of all age groups. For example, more than a quarter of women in the 17 to 24 age group disclosed sexual interference or sexual assault compared with only five percent of men in this age group. Further, Table 6.1 referred to the experience of sexual interference or sexual assault before the age of 17. The figures for women are remarkably consistent for all age groups (again with the exception of the 60 and over age group) and are considerably higher than for men.

Table 6.1 and/or Figure 6.1 also show that a much greater proportion of both Māori and New Zealand European/European than Pacific participants disclosed sexual interference or sexual assault, and that women of all ethnicities were more likely than men of all ethnicities to disclose sexual interference or sexual assault. However, a much higher proportion of both Māori and New Zealand European/European female participants than Pacific female participants disclosed sexual interference or sexual assault. These low figures for Pacific participants may indicate a greater reluctance among Pacific people to define their experiences in this way and/or to disclose sexual interference or sexual assault to anyone, rather than real differences in life experience. Pacific women, in particular, might also have been less comfortable than women of other ethnicities with the methodology used. In addition, Table 6.1 shows that a higher proportion of Māori women and New Zealand European/European women than Pacific women had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault before the age of 17.

A greater proportion of those in the highest socio-economic than those in lower socio-economic groups (with the exception of NZSEI unspecified) disclosed sexual interference or sexual assault. This too may reflect differences in the willingness to define their experiences in this way and/or to disclose this type of experience rather than real differences in life experience. There was less difference between the highest socio-economic status group and some other socio-economic status groups (NZSEI 40-49, 30-39 and 50-59) in the proportion saying that they had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault before the age of 17.

It is clear also that the majority of those who experienced sexual interference or sexual assault did so, at least for the first time, before the age of 17. Those who reported that they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted before the age of 17 were asked whether this had happened once or more than once. Almost two-fifths (39%) said that it had happened once, but more than three-fifths (61%) said that it had happened more than once. These victims were also asked how old they were when they were first sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted. Almost half (49%) said that it had happened first between the age of six and eleven and almost two-fifths (37%) said that it had happened first between the ages of 12 and 16. However, 15% said that it had happened first between the ages of zero and five. Amongst those who had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault more than once, 60% said that it had begun between the ages of six and eleven, but almost a fifth (18%) said that it had started between the ages of zero and five.

6.3 The incidence and prevalence of sexual interference or assault – 2000

Participants were asked if anyone had sexually interfered or sexually assaulted them in 2000. Table 6.2 sets out these data. Some of these have been already set out in different tables in Chapter 2, but are repeated here for ease of discussion.

Table 6.2 Experience of sexual interference or sexual assault in 2000: percentages

	Incidence	Prevalence
Sex		
Female	4.5	0.8
Male	0.2	0.1
Age/female		
15 and 16	4.3	2.3
17-24	11.4	3.2
25-39	8.9	0.6
40-59	0.8	0.3
60 +	0.0	0.0
Age/male		
15 and 16	0.0	0.0
17-24	1.5	0.9
25-39	0.0	0.0
40-59	0.0	0.0
60 +	0.0	0.0
Ethnicity/female		
NZ European/European	4.8	0.7
Māori	7.3	1.2
Pacific	3.4	0.7
Other	1.4	0.7
Ethnicity/male		
NZ European/European	0.3	0.2
Māori	0.0	0.0
Pacific	0.0	0.0
Other	0.0	0.0
Socio-economic/female		
NZSEI unspecified	20.6	2.0
NZSEI 10-29	0.8	0.7
NZSEI 30-39	1.4	0.7
NZSEI 40-49	1.2	0.9
NZSEI 50-59	0.5	0.4
NZSEI 60-74	0.0	0.0
NZSEI 75-90	40.6	2.9

Sample size (people): 5,147.

Table 6.2 shows quite clearly that a greater proportion of women, especially young women aged 17 to 24 and 25 to 39, than men reported that they had experienced some form of sexual interference or sexual assault in 2000. It also shows that Māori women were more likely to report this than New Zealand European/European or Pacific women.

The figure for women of 0.8% is a little higher than the figure (0.4%) cited for rape for 'the previous year' with respect to the British Crime Survey (Myhill and Allen 2002) and is slightly lower than the figure cited there for 'some form of sexual victimisation'. It is also lower than the figure of 1.9% for the experience of sexual assault in the previous 12 months by Australian women produced by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1996). According to Myhill and Allen (2002, 1), age was the 'biggest risk factor' for experiencing sexual victimisation in the 2000 British Crime Survey, and they refer in particular to the 16 to 24 age group. Table 6.2 generally supports this for the 17 to 24 age group, but it also points to socio-economic status being a risk factor too.

Table 6.2 also shows that the incidence rate for sexual victimisation was often quite high relative to the prevalence rate. This implies that a considerable amount of repeat victimisation is being reported. Where participants indicated that they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted more than once in this time frame,²³⁰ they were asked if the offender was the same person in each. Well over half said that it was. Of course, the numbers here are again very small and these findings are indicative only. It certainly raises the possibility, however, that there are a number of victims of sexual victimisation who are repeat victims of a particular offender.

6.4 Recent incidents of sexual victimisation

Victims were asked for more information about their most recent incident of sexual victimisation. Information was provided on up to 57 incidents. Not surprisingly given the figures in Table 6.2, these accounts were mainly provided by women. Only four men reported recent incidents of sexual victimisation.

6.4.1 Number of offenders and sex of offender involved in sexual victimisations

Victims reported that 51 of these 57 recent sexual victimisations involved one offender, four involved two offenders and two involved more than two offenders. In 55 of the 57 victimisations, the offenders were described as male (only). One male participant mentioned a female offender and, in one incident, both a male and a female offender was mentioned.

6.4.2 Relationship between victims and their offenders

Three-quarters of the participants reporting sexual victimisations knew the offender(s) before this recent incident. Thus, strangers were the offender(s) in only a quarter of the sexual victimisations reported in the 2001 NZNSCV. This is a common research finding (see, for

²³⁰ Twenty-five out of the 57 participants reporting an incident of sexual victimisation since 1 January 2000 said that it had happened more than once: that is to say, 44%.

example, Koss et al. 1987; Gavey 1991; Myhill and Allen 2002). Table 6.3 sets out information about the nature of the relationship for those offenders known to the victim.

Table 6.3 Relationship between victim and offender for recent incident of sexual victimisation by type of relationship where victim and offender known to each other: percentages²³¹

Relationship	
Boyfriend/girlfriend of opposite sex	26.8
Close friend (of yours or family)	23.0
Ex-partner opposite sex	13.1
Workmate/employer	9.5
Brother/stepbrother	5.0
Ex-partner same sex	4.4
Another relative	4.1
Parent	2.2
Partner, boyfriend/girlfriend of same sex	2.1
Other ²³²	18.0

Sample size (people): 46.

Clearly, boyfriends, close friends or male ex-partners were the people most likely to be mentioned as the offenders. Workmates were the next most frequently mentioned. Because of the small numbers involved, no analyses on demographic variables are reported.

6.4.3 The impact of sexual victimisation

Sexual victimisation covers a range of behaviours which differ in their level of seriousness. This section details, first, two ‘objective’ indicators of seriousness. It then attempts to explore seriousness through the eyes of the victim by describing the impact of the victimisation on them. It is important to remember here, however, that the discussion in this section is based on the participants’ account of the most recent, and not the most serious, incident they had experienced.

231 Percentages of less than two are not included in this table. A percentage of 2% roughly lines up with one person out of a sample size of 46. Some variations in the percentages are to be expected due to weighting, and this lowered some percentages to around 0.5%. These are due to some people having lower weights than average.

232 These were a neighbour, someone known just casually, a student from college, a friend of a close friend and a ‘guy interested in me’.

The type of the injuries received

Just over a fifth of those describing a recent incident of sexual victimisation said that they had been physically injured. The most commonly-mentioned injuries were internal injuries, followed by bruises and/or black eyes. Scratches were mentioned by almost a fifth. More than a third of the women who reported injuries said that they had received medical attention from a doctor or nurse whereas none of the men reported this.²³³ No victims mentioned staying in hospital overnight as a result of this recent incident.

The use of weapons

A weapon was rarely mentioned as having been used in the recent example of sexual victimisation which victims described. Indeed, the only weapon mentioned was coded as a knife, screwdriver or other stabbing weapon.

Victims' reactions

Table 6.4 sets out victims' reactions to sexual victimisation.

Table 6.4 Victims' reactions to sexual victimisation: percentages reporting each reaction

Reactions experienced	
Anger	73.9
More cautious/wary	39.9
Shock	36.8
Felt bad about myself	36.2
Cried	34.7
Fear	31.5
Ashamed or guilty	29.0
Difficulty in sleeping	24.2
Depression or anxiety attacks	22.7
Relationship problems	19.5
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication	13.1
Afraid for children	3.9
Other	9.8
No reaction	2.4

Sample size (people): 57.

Note: multiple responses are possible.

²³³ Two of the four men reported injuries: they both said that these were bruises and/or black eyes.

From Table 6.4, it is clear that very few victims reporting recent incidents of sexual interference or sexual assault experienced no negative reactions at all. The most commonly-expressed reaction was ‘anger’, but, interestingly, the next most common responses differed from those expressed by women who had experienced violence at the hands of partners or of others well known to them (Tables 5.7 and 5.11). With respect to sexual victimisations, becoming ‘more cautious and wary’, ‘shock’ and ‘feeling bad about myself’ were the next most common responses, followed by ‘crying’ and ‘fear’. Also, well over a quarter said they had felt ‘ashamed or guilty’ and around a fifth said that they had had difficulty sleeping, had experienced depression or anxiety attacks and had relationship problems. The numbers here are too small for demographic analyses.

Victims were asked to rate overall the effects of the sexual victimisation on them. Table 6.5 sets this out.

Table 6.5 Overall effects of the sexual victimisations on the victim: percentages

Effects of sexual victimisation	
Very much	20.9
Quite a lot	24.8
Just a little	49.0
Not at all	4.6

Sample size (people): 57.

Table 6.5 shows that just over a fifth of the victims reporting recent incidents of sexual victimisation were ‘very much’ affected by it. A further quarter said that they were affected ‘quite a lot’. On the other hand, more than a half said they were affected ‘just a little’ or ‘not at all’. These findings fit well with the findings on whether victims thought what happened was a crime, wrong but not a crime, or just something that happened. Almost two-fifths (39%) viewed what had happened as a crime. However, more than two-fifths (43%) saw it as wrong but not a crime, and eight percent saw it as just something that happened.²³⁴ These findings can be viewed alongside similar findings in Chapters 4 and 5 and are discussed further in Section 6.6.

6.5 Summary of key findings on sexual victimisation

The main findings of this chapter are:

- Women, especially Māori women, were significantly more likely than men to say they had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault at some time in their lives.

²³⁴ Nine percent said that they did not know which of these categories best described what had happened to them.

- Women, especially young women, were much more likely than men to say they had experienced sexual interference or sexual assault in 2000.
- Fourteen percent of women said that they had experienced sexual victimisation before the age of 17. For some of these women, this had occurred at a very young age.
- Sexual victimisation is often experienced more than once, even within a relatively short period of time.
- Almost all victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted said the offender was male and most said that they already knew their offender(s).
- Almost half of the victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted said they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected by their most recent experience.
- More than two-fifths of the victims saying they had been sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted viewed what they had experienced as a crime. However, slightly over half saw it as wrong but not a crime, or as just something which happened.

6.6 Policy implications

The 2001 NZNSCV confirms that most victims of sexual interference and sexual assault are female and that most offenders are male. It also confirms that the majority of victims know their offender. This information can be used to present a more reliable picture of sexual victimisation than the images portrayed in media that women are most at risk of sexual victimisation from strangers. The 2001 NZNSCV further confirms that the effects of sexual victimisation can sometimes be profound. This supports the need for resources (such as counselling and someone to talk to) to be readily available to those who want them, including those victims who do not report their victimisation to the Police. More information on this is provided in Chapter 8.

On the other hand, not all the incidents reported in the 2001 NZNSCV were seen as a crime by the victims. The majority were seen as wrong but not as a crime, and a few were seen as something that just happened. This could be read in a number of ways. First, it may mean that people, and here we mean primarily women, see some acts of sexual interference or sexual assault as part of growing up, as part of certain kinds of relationship, or as part of life. This suggests the continued need for campaigns which stress, for example, that 'no means no' or that sexual violence within relationships (and within families) is criminal. Second, and this may be linked to the first point, it may mean that these incidents were not viewed as warranting Police intervention and all that this entails:²³⁵ for example, aggressive questioning about lifestyle and prior sexual experiences, being blamed for the victimisation, not being believed and so on (for graphic descriptions, see Jordan 2001a). This suggests the need to continue to ensure that women (and men) who decide to report sexual victimisation to the

235 By this we mean that most people make a close connection between crime, investigation and prosecution.

Police are treated with respect (Jordan 2001b). In this way, women (and men) may be encouraged to report their victimisation in the first place.

What we need to ensure is that we create a climate in which victims are free to speak about what for so many remains unspeakable and in which they are able to do so without blame. Women have often carried the brunt of the blame for their sexual victimisation. Indeed, the findings in Table 6.4 suggest that women have endorsed and taken these on board: more than a third of the victims 'felt bad' about themselves and more than a quarter said they felt 'ashamed or guilty'. These beliefs need to be challenged and resisted if we want to know more about the extent of sexual victimisation by enabling victims to bring their victimisation more easily into the open.

We mentioned earlier that the prevalence figures produced by the 2001 NZNSCV are still likely to be underestimates. However, it is unlikely that researchers will ever produce a 'true' figure of sexual victimisation. In order to prevent sexual victimisation, we also need in-depth qualitative research to understand more about why some women (and perhaps men) see some sexual victimisation as wrong, or as just something which happens, rather than as criminal.

7 Residential burglary

7.1 Introduction

Burglary in New Zealand comprises any breaking and entering of a building with intent to commit an offence. This is the definition used in the 2001 NZNSCV (as it was in the 1996 NZNSCV). In practice, most burglaries are motivated by an intention to steal and this is generally recognised in Police charging practice. Situations where the victim described the incident as involving someone trying to get in, and where some evidence of this was given, were, therefore, classified as burglary for the purposes of the 2001 NZNSCV.²³⁶ Burglary is complete once entry has been achieved with the relevant intent. Nothing need be stolen and no offence needs to be committed on the premises. Attempted burglary involves failure to secure entry – sometimes as a result of security measures. The analyses in this chapter, on occasions, distinguishes between completed burglaries and attempted burglaries.

Section 7.2 describes the circumstances in which the burglary took place – its location, how the burglar gained entry, whether or not members of the household were present at the time, and the presence and impact of any security measures. Section 7.3 attempts to assess the impact of the burglary – what was stolen, the amount of loss or damage reported and the emotional or other consequences which followed from the burglary. Section 7.4 focuses on the relative risks of burglary for different types of households and attempts to identify the various risk factors. It also describes the characteristics of repeat victims of burglary. Finally, Section 7.5 summarises the key findings of this chapter and Section 7.6 briefly discusses their policy implications. At appropriate points, the extent to which any changes have occurred in the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and those of the 2001 NZNSCV are discussed.

7.2 The circumstances of burglary

7.2.1 Whether or not anyone present

Overall, just over a quarter (27%) of the burglaries reported in the 2001 NZNSCV consisted of attempts to get inside the house or the garage; over half (54%) involved the offender actually getting into the participant's home, and a further nine percent consisted of entry into a garage. In almost a third (30%) of the burglaries, the victim was able to say definitely that someone was at home at the time of the burglary, and just over a third (34%) of these people were aware of the burglary at the time. Fifteen percent said that they actually saw the offender(s). It does not seem that the presence of the householder had much of an impact on whether or not the offender actually gained entry to the home or garage. In almost two-thirds (65%) of the situations where someone was home, the burglar actually gained entry to the

²³⁶ Situations where the victim simply reported general damage to a door or window, or somebody lurking around the property or looking in the windows were not defined as burglary.

home or garage and, in almost three-quarters (74%) of the situations where no-one was at home, the burglar did not. The fact that the use of violence or force was reported in only two percent of the burglaries suggests that confrontations are rare.

7.2.2 Mode of entry

The most common mode of entry was through a window (53%) or through a door (45%). When entry was gained through a window, mainly the offender(s) had forced the window catch (44%) or broken or cut out the glass (26%). When entry was gained through a door, mainly (57%) the offender(s) had forced or broken the lock. Pushing past the person who opened the door or entering by false pretences was exceedingly rare. However, in some burglaries, no force was necessary – for example, the window was described as open in 29% of the burglaries where entry was gained in this way; and the door was described as not locked in 20% of the burglaries where entry was gained in this way. Overall, around two-thirds (67%) of the burglaries involved a forced entry while around a quarter (24%) involved entry through an insecure or open entry point. This represents an increase (from 56%) since the 1996 NZNSCV with respect to the proportion of burglaries which involved a forced entry, and a slight reduction (from 28%) in the proportion of burglaries which involved entry through an insecure or open entry point.

7.2.3 Special security measures taken

In view of the finding that many of the burglaries and attempted burglaries involved little more than opening an unlocked or insecure door or window, it is not surprising to find that around a fifth (22%) of the burglary victims had no special security measures in place at the time of the offence.²³⁷ This represents little change from the 1996 NZNSCV where a quarter of burglary victims said that they had no special security measures in place. Table 7.1 sets out the types of security measures most commonly in place.

Table 7.1 shows that, of those who reported some measures in place, most mentioned deadlocks or double locks and security lights. Next most commonly mentioned were safety window latches and/or security bolts, followed by guard dogs and security chains. Burglar alarms and property marking were also mentioned fairly regularly. However, few participants had security door screens and fewer still had windows that needed keys to open them, lights or appliances on timers, surveillance by security firms or windows with bars. The main shift from the 1996 NZNSCV seems to be the increased reporting of the use of external security lights.

To explore this further, we contrasted those who were the victims of a burglary where entry had been gained to the house or garage with those who were the victims of a burglary where entry had not been gained. However, the findings do not point in a clear direction. For example, 24% of the victims of a burglary where entry had been gained reported having no security measures in place compared with 19% of those where entry had not been gained. Also, only 12% of those who were the victims of a burglary where entry had been gained said

²³⁷ While victims were specifically asked about the measures that were in place at the time of the burglary, some replies may reflect changes made since the burglary and in response to it. Furthermore, although the security devices mentioned may have been installed at the time of the offence, there is no guarantee that they were actually in use at the time of the burglary.

that they had a burglar alarm, compared with 23% of those where entry was not gained; and only one percent of those where entry was gained said that they had surveillance by a security firm, compared with five percent of those where entry was not gained. On the other hand, the victims of a burglary where entry had been gained were more likely to report having doors with double locks and deadlocks, security chains on their doors, security screens on their doors and safety latches on windows. It is also worth noting here that repeat victims of burglary were more likely than others to report having no special security measures in place: 14% said this compared with nine percent of those who had not been the victim of burglary and eight percent of those who had been the victim of burglary once.

Table 7.1 Percentage of burglary victims reporting security precautions in place at the time of the burglary

Security device	
Deadlocks/double locks on doors	36.7
Outside sensor security lights	31.1
Window safety latches	24.7
Security bolts on doors	19.9
Guard dog	17.8
Security chain on doors	16.5
Burglar alarm	14.3
Property marked	14.2
Security screens on door	8.0
Windows that need keys to open	4.1
Lights/radio/TV on timer	3.0
Surveillance by security firm	2.3
Bars or grilles on windows	1.8
None of these	21.6
Sample size (incidents)	365

Note: multiple responses are included.

It is difficult to assess the significance of these findings. In Chapter 10, we compare the special security measures of burglary victims at the time of the victimisation with the special security measures reported by all households at the time of interview and suggest that, given the marked difference between the two, special security measures did seem to have some preventive effect. It is interesting in this context, too, that almost two-thirds (63%) of the victims of burglary who had no security measures in place at the time of the incident had some in place by the time of the interview and so it seems that they took some steps to improve the security of their property as a result of the burglary.²³⁸ In Chapter 10, we also discuss the reasons why participants did not do more to protect their property. As we will see, an important reason was not being able to afford special security measures and repeat

²³⁸ This is based only on those incidents of burglary on which we have victim form information.

victims of burglary were much more likely than others to say that they could not afford to take special security measures.

7.2.4 Victim/offender relationships in burglary

More than a quarter (28%) of burglary victims either saw or came into contact with the offender or were told by someone else who the offender was. In just over half (53%) of these cases, the burglary victims said that they knew their offenders before the burglary. Though presented differently, this is not much different from the figure reported in the 1996 NZNSCV where it is stated that 17% of burglary victims said that they knew their offender before the burglary. It should be noted, though, that, in the 2001 NZNSCV, burglary victims were more likely to report knowing the offender than assault victims. The main reason for this may be that over a quarter (26%) of the burglary victims who knew their offender reported that the offender was an ex-partner. This category was not mentioned at all in the 1996 NZNSCV. There, the main groups identified were neighbours/neighbourhood children (45%), relatives (17%) or friends (13%). The figures in the 2001 NZNSCV for these groups were 17%, 19% and 9% respectively. A significant proportion (15%) of offenders were described as known to the victim 'just to speak to casually'.

7.3 The impact of the burglary

7.3.1 The articles stolen and damage caused

Most burglaries involve theft – something was stolen in more than half (53%) of the burglaries reported in the 2001 NZNSCV, and more than two-thirds (71%) of the burglaries where entry was gained. This represents a change from the 1996 NZNSCV where it was reported that something was stolen in almost three-quarters of the burglaries reported. Personal effects and jewellery were the most commonly-taken items (in 57% of the burglaries with loss), followed by electronic equipment (in 55%), cash, cheque books and credit cards (in 22%), food or alcohol (in 18%), furniture and other household equipment (in 17%), tools (in 12%), cameras or binoculars (in eight percent) and CDs, videos, tapes or games (in eight percent). In addition, damage was reported in just over half (51%) of the burglaries. We examined the amount of damage caused against whether or not entry was forced. This seemed to suggest that damage was significantly more likely to be reported by victims of burglary where the entry was forced. For example, no damage was reported in only around a third of the burglaries where there was forced entry, compared with more than two-thirds of the burglaries where entry was not forced.

7.3.2 The value of victims' losses

Victims were asked about both the overall value of the property stolen or damaged. In almost half (47%) of the burglaries, no loss was reported. Table 7.2 sets out the value of the loss and cost of the damage experienced by burglary victims.

Table 7.2 Value of property taken and damage caused in burglary: percentages

Amount	Value	Damage
Nil	47.0	49.0
Under \$100	6.4	12.0
\$100-\$499	11.8	21.4
\$500-\$999	4.4	3.9
Over \$1000	25.6	1.2
Don't know/not specified	4.7	12.4

Sample size (incidents): 415.

As Table 7.2 shows, only about a quarter of the burglaries involved the loss of property valued at more than \$1000 and most of the damage was put at under \$500. In less than a fifth (17%) of burglaries where property was stolen, all or part of the property was recovered.²³⁹

7.3.3 The effects of the victimisation

Few victims of burglary said that they had experienced no reactions at all and Table 7.3 shows the various reactions mentioned.

If Table 7.3 is compared with Table 4.7, it is apparent that victims of burglary were less likely to say that they had experienced no reactions at all than the victims of either assaults or threats. This figure for burglary victims is also much lower than that reported in the 1996 NZNSCV (five percent of burglary victims reported experiencing no negative reactions in that survey). Although most burglary victims were simply 'annoyed or irritated' or 'angry', two-fifths said that, as a result of the victimisation, they were 'more cautious and wary' and over a fifth were fearful and reported difficulties in sleeping. This latter figure is noticeably higher than the figure given by victims of assaults or threats in the 2001 NZNSCV and by victims of burglary in the 1996 NZNSCV. Burglary victims were also more likely than assault victims to report that they felt 'afraid for their children'. Ten percent said that they had experienced depression or anxiety attacks as a result of the victimisation; and, although the numbers involved are small, a significant group said that their children felt afraid and had difficulty sleeping. In addition, 15% of burglary victims said they took time off work as a result of the victimisation. Overall, therefore, these findings suggest that burglary has significant impacts on victims and their household. Repeat victims of burglary were little different from other victims in the proportion expressing that they experienced no reactions. However, they were more likely to mention that they were afraid for their children and that they increased their use of alcohol, drugs or medication.

²³⁹ The 1996 NZNSCV provided data on whether or not property was insured and the extent of claims made. These questions were not asked in the 2001 NZNSCV.

Table 7.3 Effects of the victimisation on victims of burglary: percentages reporting each reaction

Reactions experienced	
Annoyed/irritated	64.1
Anger	63.9
More cautious/wary	39.7
Shock	36.2
Fear	22.9
Difficulty in sleeping	21.5
Afraid for children	13.5
Depression or anxiety attacks	9.9
Cried	8.8
Felt bad about myself	5.2
Relationship problems	3.5
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication	3.5
Ashamed or guilty	3.1
Other	6.7
None	1.8
Sample size (incidents)	415

Note: multiple responses are possible.

This picture of the impact of burglary is confirmed when its overall effects are examined. Table 7.4 sets out this information.

Table 7.4 Overall effects of the victimisations on burglary victims where some reaction: percentages

Effects of victimisation	Burglary
Very much	23.4
Quite a lot	31.1
Just a little	39.1
Not at all	6.4
Sample size (incidents)	415

Well over half the victims of burglary said that they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected by the burglary (in contrast to about a third of the victims of assault or threats). In contrast, too, are the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV. Young et al (1997, 91) reported that more than half of the burglary victims described the burglary as having had 'just a little' effect.

Repeat victims of burglary were slightly more likely to say that they were ‘very much’ affected by the burglary (28% said this).²⁴⁰ However, if those saying that they were ‘very much’ affected are combined with those saying they were ‘quite a lot’ affected, there was little difference; and repeat victims of burglary were more likely than other victims to say that they were ‘not at all’ affected (11% said this). Again in contrast with the victims of assaults and threats, by far the majority of the victims of burglary (84%) saw what had happened as a crime. Only 10% saw it as ‘just something that happened’ and only seven percent saw it as ‘wrong but not a crime’.

7.4 The risk of burglary victimisation and repeat burglary victimisation

Overall, six percent of participants in the 2001 NZNSCV were the victims of a burglary (see Table 2.7 in Chapter 2) – considerably higher than the figure of two percent cited in the British Crime Survey (Kershaw et al. 2001, 24). The extent to which the risk of burglary varied between households on a number of different dimensions was examined. It is clear that those living with flatmates, those living with their extended family and solo parents were more likely to be burgled than other groups (such as couples with children and those living on their own). More generally, those living in rented accommodation were more likely to be burgled than those living in owner occupied properties and, within those renting, those renting from local authority councils were less likely than those renting privately or from Housing New Zealand to be burgled. Consistent with what has already been said, students and those living on a benefit were more likely than others (such as those in work or retired) to be burgled. The two socio-economic groups most likely to be burgled were NZSEI 75-90 and NZSEI unspecified.²⁴¹ Those living in Auckland and other main urban centres were slightly more likely to be burgled than those living in other areas,²⁴² as were those living in the Upper North Island.²⁴³ With respect to ethnicity, Pacific peoples seem to be most at risk.

We carried out significance tests on the percentage of repeat victims of burglary²⁴⁴ falling into various demographic groups and found that they were significantly more likely to be: those living with flatmates, those living in rented property (especially living in Housing New Zealand property), those living in Auckland, and the North Island, those living on benefits, students, those categorised as NZSEI not specified, young and Māori. Of course, many of these groups overlap.

240 See also Mawby (2001), for example. He noted that victims of repeat burglary were less positive about their neighbours, were more inclined to want to move house, and were more likely to register fear of both a future burglary and of a future street offence.

241 For information on this scale, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

242 For the codings for urbanisation, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

243 Risks were also examined where the burglary was unsuccessful. Those most at risk here were relatively consistent with the findings for successful burglaries, with the exception that solo parents were more at risk than those living with flatmates and with the extended whānau, and NZSEI unspecified were more at risk than all other socio-economic groups.

244 Here repeat victims are defined using method (b), described in the ‘Definitions of terms’.

7.5 Summary of key findings on residential burglary

The main findings to emerge from this chapter are:

- In almost a third of the burglaries, someone was at home at the time of the burglary.
- The use of violence or force in burglaries was extremely rare.
- In around a quarter of burglaries, there was no forced entry.
- Around a fifth of burglary victims had no special security measures in place at the time of the burglary.
- Something was stolen in more than half of the burglaries reported within the 2001 NZNSCV.
- Damage was reported in about a half of the burglaries and was significantly more likely to have occurred when entry was forced.
- More than half of the victims of burglary said that they were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected by the burglary.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely than victims of one burglary to report having no special security measures in place at the time of the burglary, but there was no difference between repeat victims of burglary and victims of other offences.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely to be:
 - young people
 - Māori
 - students
 - those living on benefits
 - those living with flatmates
 - those living in rented property
 - those categorised as NZSEI not specified.

7.6 Policy implications

The findings in this chapter raise questions about encouraging householders to take steps to protect their property: burglars, on occasions, enter properties through open doors and open windows and some properties have no special security measures in place at all. The findings in this chapter also have a number of implications for preventing burglary. This will be

discussed further in Chapter 10 as well as ways of addressing repeat burglary victimisation.²⁴⁵ We deal with these issues here only briefly.

One response to the research findings on repeat burglary victimisation has been to develop crime prevention strategies which are directed towards 'at risk' groups and 'at risk' targets, and which attempt to address the factors which put them at risk. This has included, for example, the development of burglary prevention strategies by means of opportunity reduction and 'target-hardening': that is, making burglary more difficult by, for example, putting in enhanced security measures.

While these strategies have had some success in preventing or reducing burglary, they tend to be based upon incomplete information about the situational aspects of crime. They assume, too, that potential victims are in a position to take the measures recommended when the reality is that many of those likely to be victimised are, as the 2001 NZNSCV shows, socially disadvantaged and thus not able to do so.

For this reason, a more recent response to the research findings on repeat burglary victimisation has been to advocate the selective targeting of crime prevention resources to those who have already been victimised, not only because this group has the greatest risk of future victimisation but also because such selective targeting is the most cost effective and least contentious means of providing crime protection for socially disadvantaged groups (for more information, see Tilley et al. 1999).²⁴⁶ One of the earliest projects of this sort was in England: the Kirkholt Burglary Prevention Demonstration Project (Forrester et al. 1988 and 1990). There, a range of opportunity reduction and other situational crime prevention measures were implemented in those households which were recently burgled. As a result, burglary in the neighbourhood was reduced by 75% within three years.²⁴⁷ A less dramatic, but still significant, reduction (by 30%) was achieved in Huddersfield, also in England (see Anderson et al. 1994; Cheney et al. 1997). There, different types of Police response (bronze, silver or gold) were given to different victims depending on their level of prior victimisation. Components of the response varied from property marking and security up-rating through focused patrols of repeatedly-victimised places to vehicle tracking and silent alarms. Thus responses were targeted so that most effort was focussed on repeat burglary victimisation.²⁴⁸

245 This type of survey is not designed to uncover what it is about a particular house that 'attracts' burglars. Clarke et al (2001), however, explored two hypotheses: whether burglars returned to properties to steal items left behind on the first occasion or to steal replacements for the goods stolen on the first occasion. They contrasted those repeat burglaries occurring within 30 days and after 30 days. The evidence tended to support the second proposition but, even so, this only explained a small proportion of repeat burglaries. An acknowledged limitation of the survey is that the researchers could not assume that the offender was the same in both burglaries and so they could not assume that the offender 'knew' what might be available to steal. Everson and Pease (2001), however, using a different methodology, found that the majority of repeat offences against the same victim or location, where the perpetrator was known, were the responsibility of the same offender.

246 They describe a series of Strategic Development Projects designed to provide a knowledge base for understanding which prevention methods worked in which circumstances. Victim-related measures included cocoon watches, property marking and security awareness campaigns. Situational measures included CCTV, improved lighting and alarms.

247 Tilley (1993, 20) warned, however, that other Police areas could not replicate the Kirkholt experience in exactly the same way and that 'contextual variation is crucial'.

248 See Laycock (2001) for more information.

Many Police districts in New Zealand are attempting similar schemes. It is important to monitor and evaluate these schemes and, if they prove to be successful in preventing or reducing repeat burglary victimisation, they should be developed further.

8 Meeting the needs of victims

8.1 Introduction

In 1992, Lee and Searle (1993) found that only just over a tenth of providers of services to victims believed that services in the area of welfare, health, counselling, medical and legal assistance were adequate. They concluded that victims' needs were not generally being met. The findings of the 1996 NZNSCV pointed in a similar direction to Lee and Searle's. Young et al. (1997) found that some victims who did not want help or who were little affected by their victimisation were offered help, while other victims who did want help or who were 'very much' affected by their victimisation were not. They raised issues about how best to get services and support to those victims who either wanted or needed them most. Thus, a primary objective for this chapter is to find out whether or not services for victims are now better targeted than previously, and whether or not current services for victims are meeting their needs.

First, therefore, this chapter describes participants' awareness of services for victims, including Victim Support and other support agencies (Section 8.2). It goes on to describe victims' contact with Victim Support and other support agencies and how helpful victims found this contact (Section 8.3). Next, it describes the extent to which victims got help or advice from their friends, family and neighbours (Section 8.4). Then it explores the extent to which victims' needs were met (Section 8.5). Finally, it summarises the key findings of this chapter (Section 8.6) and briefly discusses their policy implications (Section 8.7). At appropriate points, it compares the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV. One caveat, however: some of the analyses by demographic factors and type of victimisation rely on small numbers and these findings need to be treated with some caution. They are included to help contribute to building a picture of victims' needs and what might be necessary to improve services to victims. Throughout this chapter, findings are presented separately for data derived from the victim forms relating to the main questionnaire and data derived from the self-completion components of the questionnaire (which relate to violence by current partners and others well known to the victim and to sexual interference and sexual assault). This means that all tables exclude any reference to violence by current partners and others well known to the victim and to sexual interference and sexual assault.

8.2 Awareness of support agencies

There are a number of organisations which provide support for victims and/or can be contacted by victims.²⁴⁹ However, Victim Support is the primary organisation for providing emotional support, information and practical help to victims generally in New Zealand.

²⁴⁹ Participants in the 2001 NZNSCV were given a list of local service providers including Victim Support at the end of their interview.

There are currently 67 Victim Support groups, around 1,300 volunteer Victim Support workers contributing close to 134,700 hours, and about 60 full-time equivalent staff (New Zealand Council of Victim Support Groups 2001). In the year ending 30 June 2001, Victim Support made more than 212,443 contacts with victims. Around a quarter of these contacts were visits to victims. However, the most common method of contact (55%) was by phone and 20% of contacts involved a letter telling victims of Victim Support's services (New Zealand Council of Victim Support Groups 2001). Victims themselves can also contact Victim Support directly.

Victims may contact Citizens Advice Bureaux. There are currently 88 bureaux in all in New Zealand and they dealt with almost 600,000 enquiries in 2000/01 (The New Zealand Association of Citizens Advice Bureaux 2001). It is difficult to determine exactly how many of these related to victims' issues, but, in 2000/01, there were around 4500 enquiries which related to family violence, sexual abuse and related counselling and support issues, more than 600 enquiries which were specifically related to services for victims, and almost 4000 enquiries which were related to 'law enforcement'.

In addition, Rape Crisis and Women's Refuge provide specialist help for some victims. Rape Crisis dates from the mid 1970s and the National Collective was formed in 1986. About 18 local groups were affiliated to this Collective in 2001. In the calendar year 1999, a total of 12,432 contacts were recorded by the local Rape Crisis groups which participated in the National Data Collection Programme (National Collective of Rape Crisis and Related Groups of Aotearoa 2000). More than half of these contacts (56%) were initiated by phone.²⁵⁰ Women's Refuges also date from the 1970s. There are now 51 independent refuges. Women's Refuge statistics for 2000/01 show that 7,766 women and 9,241 children received services from Women's Refuge over this period.²⁵¹

Participants in the 2001 NZNSCV were asked about their knowledge of community services, apart from the Police, which were available for victims of crime. Almost two-fifths (37%) mentioned no services at all, and almost a third (31%) mentioned only one. This represents no change since the 1996 NZNSCV.²⁵²

There were clear differences, however, in participants' knowledge about the availability of services for victims on demographic variables:

250 The majority of those making contact (61%) identified as Pākehā and 85% were female. Almost two-fifths of all contacts were repeat contacts involving mostly ongoing counselling (National Collective of Rape Crisis and Related Groups of Aotearoa 2000).

251 More than two-fifths of these women and almost half of these children identified as Māori. Just over a third of the women made use of residential services (with an average stay of 14 days) and almost two-thirds made use of community services. Over a third of the women referred themselves to refuges and just under a third were referred to refuges by the Police (information provided by Leah Stretch, National Office, National Collective of Independent Women's Refuges, March 2002).

252 Some information on this point was provided in the 1992 International Crime Survey and Harland (1995) discusses the New Zealand data from this survey. At that time, just over half of the victims were aware of victim support groups. This was a telephone survey and these differences in the findings of the different surveys are likely to be explained by their different methodologies. Certain groups are likely to be over-represented in telephone surveys.

- Men were less likely than women to be aware of services for victims: more than two-fifths (42%) of the men mentioned none, compared with less than a third of the women (31%); this difference held good irrespective of age, except for the younger age groups where the percentages were rather similar.²⁵³
- Both Pacific and Māori participants were less likely than New Zealand European/European participants to be aware of services for victims: well over half (58%) of Pacific participants and more than two-fifths (41%) of Māori participants mentioned none, compared with a third of the New Zealand European/European participants.²⁵⁴
- The oldest and youngest participants were less likely than other age groups to say that they were aware of services for victims: for example, half of those aged 60 and over and more than two-fifths (43%) of those aged 15 to 24 mentioned none, compared with a third of 25 to 39 year olds and less than a third (29%) of 40 to 59 year olds.
- Those of lower socio-economic status were less likely to be aware of services for victims than those in the highest socio-economic status group.²⁵⁵
- More than two-fifths (44%) of those living in Auckland and almost two-fifths (38%) of those living in rural and minor urban areas said that they were unaware of services for victims, compared with less than a third (32%) of those living in other metropolitan urban areas.²⁵⁶
- More than two-fifths (41%) of those living in the Upper North Island and over a third (36%) in the South Island said that they were unaware of services for victims compared with just over a quarter (28%) in the Lower North Island.
- There was not much difference in the proportion of repeat victims of burglary saying that they did not know of any services for victims compared with those who had been the victim of burglary once (30% and 32% respectively), but slightly more of those who had not been the victim of a burglary (37%) said they did not know of any services for victims. The figures for those who were the repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim, the victims of one such violent offence and those who had not been the victim of a violent offence followed a somewhat similar pattern: 28%, 30% and 38% respectively.

253 The numbers here, however, are quite small.

254 Fewer Māori women and New Zealand European/European women said they were unaware of services for victims, compared with Māori men and New Zealand European/European men; however, there was not much difference between the proportions of Pacific women and Pacific men saying this: 60% and 55%.

255 For information on this scale, see 'Definitions of terms'.

256 For the codings for urbanisation, see 'Definitions of terms'.

Figure 8.1 identifies those organisations or agencies which were most frequently mentioned by participants as providing help for victims. It excludes those which were mentioned by less than 5% of the participants.²⁵⁷

Figure 8.1 Type of community services mentioned as providing help for victims of crime: percentages

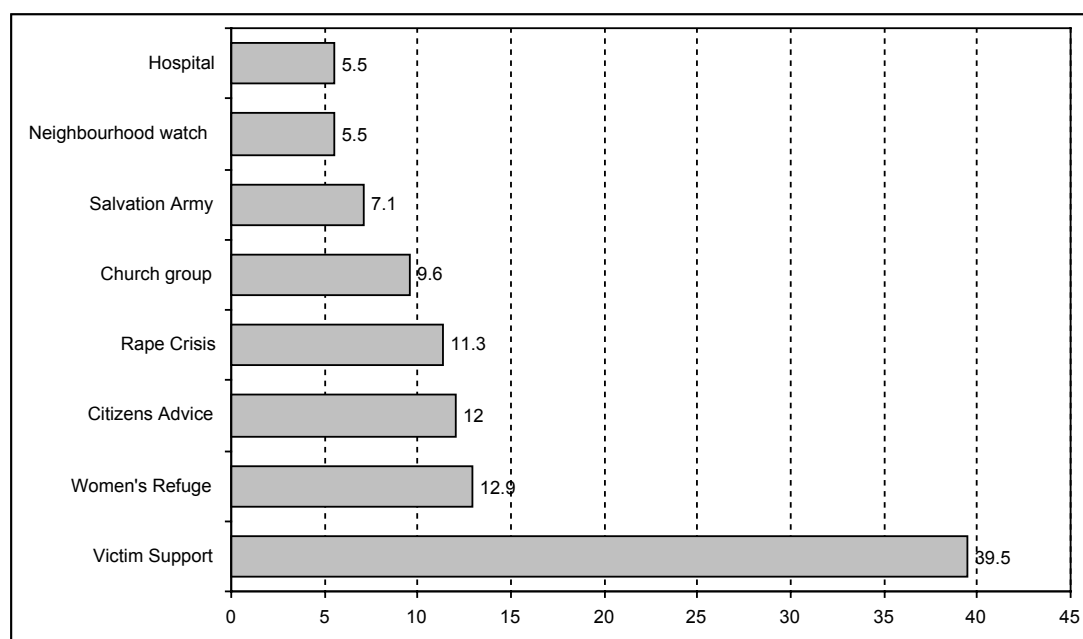


Figure 8.1 shows that almost two-fifths of participants were aware of Victim Support and it was the most frequently-identified provider of help for victims. Only one third of participants mentioned Victim Support in the 1996 NZNSCV and so clearly awareness of the scheme has increased over this period. Women's Refuge was the next most commonly-mentioned service (mentioned by 13%), followed by Citizens Advice Bureaux (mentioned by 12%), Rape Crisis (mentioned by 11%) and church groups (mentioned by 10%).

There was some difference in the characteristics of those who mentioned Victim Support and those who did not. In summary:

- Women were more likely to mention Victim Support than men: more than two-fifths (45%) of the female participants mentioned it, compared with just over a third (34%) of male participants.

²⁵⁷ These included HELP, iwi or other Māori organisations, Pacific organisations, the Red Cross and St John's Ambulance Service, Youthline, various helplines, unspecified community groups, Child, Youth and Family Service, doctors and counselling services.

- More than two-fifths (45%) of New Zealand European/European participants mentioned Victim Support, compared with less than a third (30%) of Māori participants. Victim Support was very infrequently mentioned by other ethnic groups. For example, only 9% of Pacific participants were aware of Victim Support.
- Although New Zealand European/European women and Māori women were also more likely than New Zealand European/European men and Māori men to mention Victim Support, New Zealand European/European women were more likely to do so than Māori women. There was little difference in the proportions of Pacific men and Pacific women mentioning Victim Support.
- Those aged 15 and 16, those aged 17 to 24 and those aged 60 or more were less likely than other age groups to mention Victim Support.²⁵⁸
- Those of higher socio-economic status were more likely to mention Victim Support than those in lower socio-economic groups.
- Those who had been the repeat victims of burglary were more likely than those who had been the victims of burglary once and those who had not been the victims of burglary to be aware of Victim Support.²⁵⁹ There was little difference between repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim, those who were the victim of one such violent offence and those who had been the victim of other types of offences.
- Half of those living in secondary urban areas mentioned Victim Support, compared with less than a third (30%) of those living in Auckland.
- Half of those living in the Lower North Island mentioned Victim Support compared with two-fifths of those living in the South Island and just over a third (34%) of those living in the Upper North Island.

Women's Refuge, Citizens Advice Bureaux and Rape Crisis were the next most frequently-mentioned organisations in Figure 8.1. Women were more than twice as likely as men to mention Women's Refuge or Rape Crisis (irrespective of age), but, even so, these were mentioned by less than a fifth of women (18% mentioned Women's Refuge and 16% mentioned Rape Crisis). Very few of the participants aged 60 or older mentioned either of these organisations (six percent mentioned Rape Crisis and five percent mentioned Women's Refuge); the figures for women aged 60 and older were only slightly higher than those for men aged 60 and older (eight percent and six percent respectively). Participants of lower socio-economic status were less likely to mention Rape Crisis than those of higher socio-economic status, but there was not much difference in the proportion mentioning Women's Refuge.

258 The percentages for these three age groups were 11%, 24% and 29% respectively, compared with 44% for 25 to 39 year olds and 52% for 40 to 59 year olds.

259 The figures were 52%, 46% and 39% respectively.

Pacific and Māori participants were less likely than New Zealand European/European participants to mention Rape Crisis and this was so for both women and men. Pacific participants were also less likely than New Zealand European/European participants or Māori participants to mention Women's Refuge; there was little difference, however, between the proportion of Māori and New Zealand European/European participants mentioning Women's Refuge. Both New Zealand European/European women and Māori women were more likely than Pacific women to mention Women's Refuge and Māori women were much more likely to do so. Repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and victims of one such offence were also more likely than those who had been the victim of other offences to mention Women's Refuge.

8.3 Victims' contact with support agencies

8.3.1 Victims contacted by support agencies

We noted in Chapter 2 that not all victimisations were reported to the Police. Where victims do report offences to the Police, however, it is now recognised to be 'good practice' that they are provided with information about agencies which may be able to help them deal with the aftermath of the victimisation. And sometimes, as with Victim Support, their name may be provided to that agency for further follow-up.²⁶⁰

Victims were asked if they were contacted by any agency other than the Police, irrespective of whether or not they had reported their victimisation to the Police.²⁶¹ Only seven percent recalled being contacted by some organisation – hardly any change from the 1996 NZNSCV where the figure was six percent.²⁶² More than two-thirds (68%) of these contacts were by Victim Support. Overall, only five percent of all victimisations and 11% of those victimisations which the Police got to know about resulted in some contact by Victim Support.²⁶³ This figure of five percent represents a slight increase from the 1996 NZNSCV (where the figure of three percent is cited).²⁶⁴ Three percent of victimisations resulted in

260 The Memorandum of Understanding which exists between the Police and Victim Support states, amongst other things, that the Police should refer, on a daily basis, burglaries where offenders were observed on the scene, any incidents where serious harm occurred and any cases where the victims were clearly affected.

261 The remaining data in this chapter come from the victim forms and so the data refer to victimisations rather than to victims (some victims will have completed more than one victim form). Strictly speaking, therefore, the text should be referring to the percentage of victimisations but, for ease of reading, it refers to the percentage of victims. This is consistent with Young et al. (1997). Violence by partners and others well known to the victim are not included in the tables and general figures. They are discussed separately.

262 This figure in itself represented no change from that produced in an earlier survey. Harland (1995), on the basis of New Zealand data from the International Crime Survey, stated that at that time only 6% of victims had been contacted by Victim Support.

263 This figure is lower than the figure estimated by Victim Support. A rough calculation was carried out by Victim Support in 2001-2002 which suggests that Victim Support responded to 29% of victim-related incidents recorded by the Police over that period and that, in some areas, this figure was as high as 70% (personal communication, Marie Knight, March 2003). It is possible, therefore, that more victims in the 2001 NZNSCV were contacted by Victim Support but they did not recall it if the contact was by letter or by phone and the victimisation itself had little impact.

264 No figure is cited in Young et al. (1996) for the proportion of victimisations which the Police got to know about and which resulted in some contact by Victim Support, but a figure of 12% is given for contact by some organisation.

victims being contacted by other organisations (such as iwi or other Māori organisations, Pacific organisations, Women's Refuge, Rape Crisis, HELP, churches, social services, lawyers, Victim Advisors and professional organisations). Too few victims were contacted by support agencies to comment on any demographic differences.

Table 8.1 sets out the incidence of reported contact by organisations according to the type of victimisation experienced.

Table 8.1 Incidence of reported contact by a support agency following the incident by type of victimisation:²⁶⁵ percentages

Contacted by an agency	All victimisations	Household	Violent	Individual property
Yes – Victim Support	4.5	5.8	4.3	2.2
Yes - Other	2.6	1.1	7.7	3.4
No	93.3	93.0	90.9	94.2
Sample size (incidents)	3147	1884	354	590

Table 8.1 shows that victims of household offences were more likely to be contacted by Victim Support than were victims of individual property offences and that victims of violent offences were much more likely to be contacted by other organisations than were victims of household offences. The rate of contact was higher also for victims of burglary: seven percent of those who were the victims of one burglary and nine percent of repeat burglary victims had been contacted by Victim Support. Only three percent of repeat victims of violence were contacted by Victim Support (a slightly lower figure than for victims of violent offences generally) although six percent had been contacted by other organisations. Overall, however, there seems to have been a slight increase since the 1996 NZNSCV in the proportions of victims of violent and individual property offences contacted by Victim Support: Table 6.1 in Young et al. (1997, 99) shows that under two percent of the victims of violent offences and very few of the victims of individual property offences were contacted by Victim Support.

Not surprisingly in light of Table 8.1, once we examine the specific types of victimisations experienced by those who were contacted by Victim Support, we find that almost two-fifths (36%) were the victims of burglary. The next most common victimisations resulting in contact by Victim Support were vehicle theft (14%), interference with a vehicle (12%) and assault (11%).

Participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by a current partner were asked about whether or not they had received any help or support from agencies with respect to the most recent incident they had experienced. Overall, 88% said they were not contacted by any organisation. Only eight percent said that they had been contacted by Victim Support. There

²⁶⁵ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

was a clear difference here between women and men: 15% of women reporting this type of violence said they had been contacted, compared with only two percent of men.

Participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by other people well known to them were also asked about whether or not they had received any help or support from agencies with respect to the most recent incident they had experienced. Only five percent said that they had been contacted by Victim Support. There was little difference here between women and men: six percent of women and four percent of men reporting this type of violence said they had been contacted by Victim Support.

8.3.2 Victims contacting support agencies

Victims were asked whether or not they themselves had approached some organisation for help or advice. Only four percent of victims said that they had. A wide range of different organisations were contacted – for example, school staff, security people, lawyers, iwi or other Māori organisations, Victim Support, Citizens Advice Bureaux, social workers, MPs and the media, but the proportion of victims contacting any one agency was very low.²⁶⁶ Table 8.2 sets out the incidence of reported contact by victims themselves with organisations according to the type of victimisation experienced.

Table 8.2 Incidence of approaching any support agency by type of victimisation:²⁶⁷ percentages

Approached any agency	All victimisations	Household	Violence	Individual property
Yes	4.3	2.9	4.5	9.2
No	95.6	96.9	95.5	90.8
Sample size (incidents)	3147	1884	354	590

Table 8.2 shows some variation by type of victimisation: a greater proportion of victims of individual property offences than victims of household offences approached an organisation for help. Too few victims had themselves contacted any support agency to comment on any demographic differences.

Participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by a current partner were asked about whether or not they had sought any help or support from agencies with respect to the most recent incident they had experienced. Most (87%) participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by a current partner also said that they had not themselves contacted any organisation. This means that, in all, 13% had contacted some organisation. Only four percent said that they themselves had contacted Victim Support. Indeed, church groups were more likely to be contacted than Victim Support: five percent of participants disclosing this violence said this.

²⁶⁶ For example, only 0.1 percent contacted Victim Support.

²⁶⁷ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

Participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by other people well known to them were also asked about whether or not they had sought any help or support from agencies with respect to the most recent incident they had experienced. Only two percent of participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by other people well known to them said that they themselves had contacted Victim Support. Indeed, again, church groups were more likely to be contacted than Victim Support: five percent of female participants disclosing this type of violence said this. The fact that four percent of women disclosing this type of violence said that they had contacted Women's Refuge and that six percent had contacted a lawyer reflects the fact that many of the women in this category experienced violence at the hands of ex-partners and boyfriends.²⁶⁸

8.3.3 Helpfulness of contact with support agencies

Victims contacted by support agencies were asked whether or not they found this helpful and we examined whether or not victims' perceptions of helpfulness were dependent on the type of victimisation experienced. Table 8.3 sets out these data for Victim Support.

Table 8.3 Helpfulness of Victim Support by type of victimisation²⁶⁹

Level of helpfulness	All victimisations	Household	Violence	Individual property
Very helpful	24.6	20.0	8.4	68.2
Fairly helpful	26.1	22.1	66.2	8.2
Not very helpful	5.3	5.2	8.5	2.9
Not at all helpful	7.4	8.3	12.5	2.3
Didn't accept/want their help	35.4	43.7	0.0	18.4
Don't know	1.2	0.8	4.4	0.0
Sample size (incidents)	155	116	12	21

Overall, just over half of the victims in contact with Victim Support found Victim Support 'very' or 'fairly' helpful. Only 13% described the contact by Victim Support as 'not very helpful' or 'not at all helpful'. However, more than a third said that they did not accept or want Victim Support's help (no change from the figure cited by Young et al. (1997) with respect to the 1996 NZNSCV). This suggests the continued possibility of a waste of resources, especially as, as will be demonstrated, there are some victims who say they want or need help and are not getting it. On the other hand, we have no information on the type of contact by Victim Support and it may be that many of these victims who said that they did not accept or want Victim Support simply received a letter from Victim Support telling them of the services it offered. They may also have been the victims of quite minor offences who

²⁶⁸ Very few of those disclosing sexual victimisation had been contacted by or had themselves contacted a support organisation and so this is not discussed.

²⁶⁹ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

experienced little or no effect as a result of their victimisation. We return to this point later in this section and in Section 8.6. The other point to note in Table 8.3 is the relatively large proportion of victims of household offences who said that they did not want or did not accept help from Victim Support.²⁷⁰

The number of victims contacted by organisations other than Victim Support is too small for analysis, but, generally speaking, these organisations were viewed by victims as helpful. Similarly, the number of victims who themselves contacted other organisations, including Victim Support, is too small for analysis, but again, generally speaking, these organisations were viewed by victims as helpful.

Participants disclosing that they had experienced violence by a current partner were asked about the helpfulness of agencies who approached them or whom they approached. Most found them 'very helpful' or 'fairly helpful', but the numbers here are very small. With respect to Victim Support, more than two-thirds of the women who reported experiencing violence by a current male partner and who were contacted by Victim Support said that they had found this contact 'very helpful' or 'fairly helpful'. However, almost a fifth (17%) said that they didn't accept or want such help and 10% said that the contact was 'not at all helpful'.

Those disclosing that they had experienced violence by other people well known to them were also asked about the helpfulness of agencies they contacted or were contacted by. Again the numbers are small, but, for those contacted by Victim Support, almost half (49%) said that they found this contact helpful. However, just over a fifth (21%) said that it was 'not at all helpful' and 15% said that they 'didn't accept or want help'. These views may be linked to the point raised in Chapter 5 that some of this type of violence is not really seen as crime by the victims concerned and this may be especially so if the Police got to know about this violence in some way other than the victim reporting it to them.

8.4 Advice or help from friends, family or neighbours

Harland (1995), on the basis of the 1992 International Crime Survey, found that, in the main, the victims of crime were provided with support by neighbours, friends and relatives, rather than by the Police or any specialist victim service. Victims in the 2001 NZNSCV were asked whether or not they had received advice or help from neighbours, friends or relatives and Table 8.4 sets out the percentage of victims receiving this by the type of victimisation experienced.

²⁷⁰ Burglary made up about a quarter (23%) of the household victimisations reported within the 2001 NZNSCV and the Police got to know about two-thirds of these. Since Victim Support often targets victims of burglary, this finding could be read as indicating that at least some burglary victims contacted by Victim Support did not want or accept its help.

Table 8.4 Percentage of victims receiving help or advice from neighbours, friends or relatives following the incident by type of victimisation²⁷¹

Received advice	All victimisations	Household	Violence	Individual property
Yes	29.0	28.3	46.7	28.6
No	70.8	71.6	53.3	71.4
Don't know	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Sample size (incidents)	3147	1884	354	590

Table 8.4 shows that, overall, more than a quarter of victims said that they received advice from neighbours, friends or relatives: a figure slightly higher than the proportion cited in the 1996 NZNSCV (23%). However, this varied considerably according to the type of victimisations: almost half of the victims of violent offences said that they received advice from neighbours, friends or relatives.

More than a quarter (27%) of those disclosing violence by current partners said that they had received help or advice from neighbours, friends or relatives. This was more likely to be reported by women than by men: 36% and 17% respectively. Māori and Pacific participants disclosing this type of violence were also more likely than New Zealand European/European participants to report receiving help or advice from neighbours, friends or relatives. Almost half (46%) of those disclosing violence by other people well known to them said that they had received help or advice from neighbours, friends or relatives. This was more likely to be reported by women than by men: 57% and 33% respectively. However, Māori and Pacific participants disclosing this type of violence were slightly less likely than New Zealand European/European participants to report receiving help or advice from neighbours, friends or relatives (the figures are 39%, 36% and 48% respectively). More than two-fifths (45%) of those disclosing sexual victimisation had spoken to friends, relatives or neighbours about this recent incident.

8.5 Meeting victims' needs

According to Maguire and Kynch (2000), almost two-fifths of all victims in the 1998 British Crime Survey expressed needs which were not met by any source, and only one in ten of all the British Crime Survey incidents reported to the Police resulted in some contact between victims and Victim Support. Similarly, van Dijk (2001), on the basis of International Crime Survey data, stated that few victims who reported their victimisation received any specialised help. It is clear from what has been said already with respect to the 2001 NZNSCV that support agencies provided services to only a minority of victims in New Zealand too. A key issue, therefore, is whether or not the support and services reached those most in need.

This is a complex question and not one that is easy to answer. Overseas research shows that those very much affected by their experience of victimisation do not necessarily have

²⁷¹ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

correspondingly high levels of need for support or help from external or formal agencies; and that some victims who objectively have not experienced serious offences may be much affected by them and need help and support (Shapland et al. 1985).

In the 2001 NZNSCV, as was shown in Chapter 3, the Police only got to know about two-fifths of the victimisations disclosed by the participants to interviewers and the main reason for this, even for offences like robbery and assault, was that they were viewed by the victim as 'too trivial'. This might indicate that victims who did not report their victimisation to the Police did not have unmet needs. On the other hand, even when the victimisation was reported to the Police, it cannot be assumed from this that it indicated a need for assistance, except in the broadest of senses. Indeed, all the reasons given in Table 3.1 were altruistic (for example, 'because a crime was committed/obligation' and 'to help catch/punish the offender') or pragmatic (for example, 'hoped to recover property' and 'needed for insurance claim'). The need for personal assistance was not mentioned.

Instead, attempts were made to measure the existence of unmet needs: first, by establishing the effects of the victimisation on victims; second, by examining whether or not those victims who were 'very much' affected by their victimisation were contacted by or themselves contacted an organisation; and, third, by examining whether or not those who had experienced a range of emotional reactions were more likely to be contacted by any support agency. Victims were also asked if they would have liked more help and, if so, what kind of help they would have liked. This gives an indication of the extent to which there are gaps in particular services. In addition, the data already referred to on the helpfulness of Victim Support could be read as indicating unmet needs where victims said that this support was 'not very helpful' or 'not at all helpful'. For these comments, one could assume that these victims had some idea in mind of what would have been helpful.

8.5.1 Describing victims' needs

Victims were asked about how much they had been affected by their victimisation. Overall, 15% of victims said that they were 'very much' affected by their victimisation and almost a third (34%) said that they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected. However, a fifth said that they were 'not at all' affected. Women were more likely than men to report that they were 'very much' affected (19% compared with 12%) and to report that they were 'very much' or 'quite a lot' affected (42% compared with 27%). This was so, more or less, irrespective of age or ethnicity: the exceptions were women aged 60 and over (where the number was very small anyway) and New Zealand European/European female and male victims where the difference was slight.

Generally, older victims were more likely to say that they were 'very much' affected: for example, around a fifth of 40 to 59 year olds and those aged 60 and over said this, compared with 14% of both 17 to 24 year olds and 25 to 39 year olds. Māori and Pacific victims were also more likely than New Zealand European/European victims to say that they were 'very much' affected: 24% of Māori victims and 23% of Pacific victims said this compared with 11% of New Zealand European/European victims. Pacific and Māori female victims were especially likely to say that they were 'very much' affected by their victimisation: more than two-fifths (42%) of Pacific female victims and a third of Māori female victims said this, compared with only 13% of New Zealand European/European female victims. Others who

were most likely to report that they had been ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation were solo parents, beneficiaries, the retired and those of lower socio-economic status. Of course, many of the variables mentioned here are inter-related.

More than a quarter (28%) of the repeat victims of burglary said that they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation and just over half (51%) said that they were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected. Only 11% said that they were ‘not at all’ affected. The situation for repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim was rather different. Although just over a fifth (21%) of them said that they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation, under a third (31%) said that they were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected and more than a quarter (27%) said that they were ‘not at all’ affected.²⁷²

The type of victimisation was also relevant here. As already noted in Chapters 4 to 7, around a fifth of assault victims and victims of sexual interference or sexual assault, just under a quarter of burglary victims, more than a quarter of women who had experienced violence by their current male partners and almost a third of women who were the victims of violence by other people well known to them reported being ‘very much’ affected by the victimisation.

Victims were also asked about the specific emotional effect of the victimisation either on themselves or on their children. These data have already been presented with respect to violent offences, sexual victimisation and burglary. They showed that annoyance and irritation and/or anger were the most commonly-reported reactions for all of these victimisations. Not surprisingly, therefore, for victims generally, the most commonly-expressed reactions were also annoyance and irritation (expressed by more than two-thirds) and anger (expressed by well over half). In addition, almost a third said that they were more cautious or wary and more than a quarter said that they were shocked. Overall, therefore, almost all victims said that they had experienced some kind of emotional reaction; only three percent said they had experienced none. If we put all of these data together, it is apparent that a significant proportion of victims said that they were considerably affected by their victimisation.

8.5.2 Victims’ needs and contact with services

Table 8.5 sets out data on the extent to which victims were affected by their victimisation against whether or not they were contacted by an organisation.

The table shows that a much greater proportion of those contacted by an organisation were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected by their victimisation. Whether or not those most affected by their victimisation were themselves more likely to contact an organisation was also examined. The numbers here are small but analysis showed that almost a quarter (24%) of those who had done so reported that they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation

272 Shaw (2001, 165) documents evidence that suggests that the emotional scars of chronic victimisation can be so deep that ‘everyday life loses meaning’. She equates the emotions around chronic victimisation to those experienced around bereavement: first, numbness and dazedness; second, anger and acute emotional pain; and, third, depression, disorganisation and despair. In bereavement, the final phase is, eventually, the resumption of normal activities and acceptance. The evidence adduced by Shaw does not suggest that this necessarily occurs for chronic victims. Repeat victims will not necessarily have experienced chronic victimisation, but, on occasions, they will have.

and that more than half (51%) of those who had done so reported that they were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected by their victimisation. Only 13% of those contacting an organisation said that they were ‘not at all’ affected by their victimisation. On the other hand, only 15% of those not contacting an organisation said that they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation and just over a third (34%) of these reported that they were ‘very much’ or ‘quite a lot’ affected by their victimisation. A fifth of those not contacting any organisation said that they were ‘not at all’ affected. This seems to indicate that many of those most affected by their victimisation sought help. However, as just noted, over a third of those considerably affected by their victimisation did not.

Table 8.5 Percentage of victims²⁷³ contacted by support agency by the effects of victimisation

Effects of victimisation	Victim contacted by organisation	Victim not contacted by organisation
Very much	32.9	13.9
Quite a lot	27.8	18.5
Just a little	33.7	46.7
Not at all	5.6	20.9
Sample size (incidents)	212	2928

We looked specifically at those contacted by and those contacting Victim Support and how they had rated the effects of their victimisation. Table 8.6 sets out these data.

Table 8.6 Percentage of victims²⁷⁴ contacted by or contacting Victim Support by the effects of victimisation

Effects of victimisation	Victims contacted by Victim Support	Victims contacting Victim Support
Very much	39.5	85.3
Quite a lot	33.2	0.0
Just a little	23.0	14.7
Not at all	4.4	0.0
Sample size (incidents)	151	5

²⁷³ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

²⁷⁴ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

Table 8.6 shows that, of all victims contacted by Victim Support, two-fifths were ‘very much affected’ by their experience and that a third were ‘quite a lot’ affected. This shows a marked change over the data presented in the 1996 NZNSCV. There it was stated that only 17% of those contacted by Victim Support were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation. This suggests that Victim Support is targeting more those ‘very much’ affected by their experience of victimisation.

However, the 2001 NZNSCV data do show that more than a quarter of the victims contacted by Victim Support were ‘just a little’ or ‘not at all’ affected by their victimisation. Furthermore, almost a fifth (19%) of those victims not contacted by Victim Support said that they were ‘very much’ affected by their experience and, if this group and those ‘quite a lot’ affected are combined, then it emerges that more than a third (35%) of the victims not contacted by Victim Support fell into these two categories.

In addition, when data on all those victims who rated themselves as ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation were examined, only 12% of these were contacted by Victim Support. The figure for those ‘quite a lot’ affected was eight percent. On the other hand, when data on those who said they were ‘just a little’ affected or who were ‘not at all’ affected were examined, very few of each were contacted by Victim Support (two percent and one percent respectively). This again suggests that the services of Victim Support seem to be more likely to be directed towards those most affected by their victimisation and the targeting of such victims for services seems to have improved since the 1996 NZNSCV. Also, almost all of the few victims who themselves contact Victim Support said that they were ‘very much’ affected by their experience of victimisation.

Second, we examined whether or not those who had experienced a range of emotional reactions were more likely to be contacted by any support agency. Table 8.7 summarises the responses of those contacted by support agency and those not.

Apart from reactions of annoyance and irritation and in some of the less frequently-mentioned reactions, there are clear differences between these two groups and, in most other categories, those contacted by organisations were much more likely to report having experienced negative reactions. This might indicate better targeting by organisations. However, interpretation of these differences is not straightforward. It could mean that those with negative reactions are being contacted by organisations; or it could mean that those contacted by organisations are more likely to express these negative reactions.

Table 8.7 Reactions experienced by victims²⁷⁵ by whether or not contacted by support agency: percentages

Reactions experienced	Victims contacted	Victims not contacted
Anger	73.0	56.2
Annoyed/irritated	62.7	69.6
More cautious/wary	45.6	29.6
Shock	44.1	25.3
Experienced difficulty in sleeping	26.3	7.9
Fear	25.4	11.2
Cried	12.4	4.1
Afraid for children	10.6	4.6
Depression or anxiety attacks	9.1	4.4
Felt disappointed	8.6	0.5
Felt bad about myself	7.6	4.4
Relationship problems	7.1	3.4
Ashamed or guilty	2.9	2.5
Increased use of alcohol/drugs/ medication	2.9	2.6
Other	3.4	4.9
None	0.7	2.9
Sample size (incidents)	212	2928

8.5.3 The help victims want

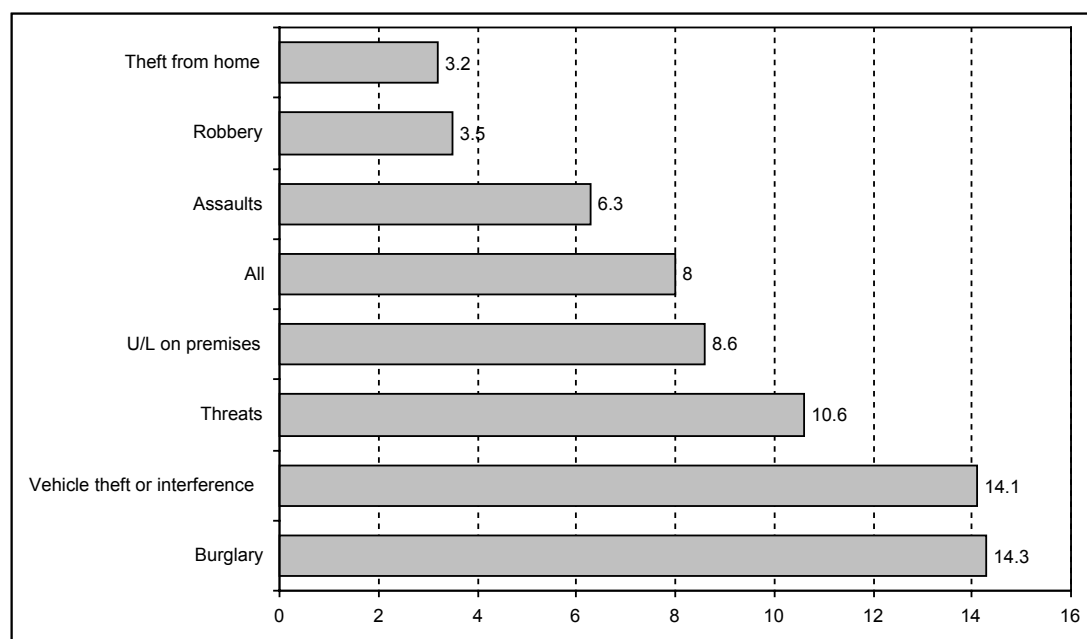
As part of the International Crime Survey in 1992 (Harland 1995), victims in New Zealand were asked whether or not a specialist agency to help victims of crime would have been useful to them and around a quarter felt that it would have been. Women who were victims, victims of violent offences and victims aged under 35 were especially likely to say this. Of course, Victim Support now provides this service though, as already noted, few victims in the 2001 NZNSCV said that they had been contacted by Victim Support or that they had themselves contacted Victim Support.

Victims participating in the 2001 NZNSCV were specifically asked whether or not there was any assistance or advice that they would have liked to get after the victimisation, but which they did not receive. Only eight percent said that they did want additional assistance or advice (hardly any change from the figure of nine percent cited in Young et al. (1997, 104) with respect to the 1996 NZNSCV). There was some difference according to the type of

²⁷⁵ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

victimisation experienced and Figure 8.2 sets out this information. It shows that a greater proportion of those who were the victims of burglary, vehicle theft or interference and threats wanted additional assistance, compared with those who were the victims of robbery or assault.

Figure 8.2 Percentage of victims wanting additional assistance: by type of victimisation²⁷⁶



The explanation for this finding is not straightforward, since burglary victims already make up the majority of those contacted by Victim Support²⁷⁷ and we commented earlier on the fact that a significant proportion of the victims of household offences (which will include victims of burglaries) did not want or accept the help of Victim Support. In addition, a greater proportion of repeat victims of burglary and repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said they wanted additional help which they did not receive: 12% and 14% respectively said this.

Women were slightly more likely to say they wanted additional help than men (10% and seven percent respectively); Pacific victims and Māori victims were more likely to say they wanted additional help than New Zealand European/European victims (12%, 11% and seven percent respectively); lower socio-economic groups were more likely to say they wanted additional help than higher socio-economic groups; and repeat victims (both of burglary and violent offences by those not well known to them) were more likely to say they wanted additional

²⁷⁶ Victimisation by current partners and others well known to the victim and sexual interference and sexual assault are not included in this table.

²⁷⁷ Legal labels, of course, give no indication of the seriousness of the victimisation and it may also be that relatively minor victimisations are included within the category of 'assault' and that relatively serious offences are included within the category of 'threat'. On the other hand, the Police got to know about only a fifth of threats and the major reason given by victims for this was that their victimisation was too trivial.

help than non-repeat victims. On the other hand, differences in terms of victims' ages were not clear-cut, and there was little difference by region in the proportion saying that they wanted additional help.

The 2001 NZNSCV specifically asked victims what additional help they would have liked by showing them a list of different types of help and inviting them to select any which applied to them. Most commonly, they wanted someone to talk to: this was mentioned by more than a quarter (26%) of those wanting additional help. Emotional support was the next most commonly mentioned (by 19%), followed by financial assistance (mentioned by 16%). Counselling was mentioned by 10%. Victims of burglary said much the same, although they also wanted advice about how to make their house safe (mentioned by 14%).

Women were much more likely than men to mention wanting someone to talk to, emotional support and counselling. Māori were much more likely than other ethnic groups to mention wanting someone to talk to and financial assistance. And both Māori and Pacific victims mentioned wanting a support person from their own culture. Victims from lower socio-economic groups were more likely than higher socio-economic groups to mention wanting someone to talk to, emotional support and financial assistance.

Perhaps not surprisingly, a greater proportion of the repeat victims of burglaries who wanted additional help mentioned wanting advice about how to keep their house safe (14% said this, compared with 10% of the victims of one burglary and one percent of the victims of other offences). A greater proportion of the repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim who wanted additional help mentioned wanting emotional support (25%), someone to talk to (36%) and financial assistance (34%). Interestingly, too, more than a quarter of the victims of one violent offence by those not well known to the victim who wanted additional help mentioned counselling, compared with 10% of those who wanted additional help overall and nine percent of the repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim who wanted additional help.

Only 19 (14%) participants who disclosed violence by their current partners said that they would have liked to receive more help or assistance. The most frequently-mentioned help was counselling, emotional support and someone to talk to. Fifty-six (15%) of those who disclosed violence by other people well known to them said that they would have liked to receive more help or assistance. Women were much more likely than men to say they would have liked to receive more help or assistance: for example, 16% of women disclosing violence by other people well known to them said this, compared with only six percent of men. Mainly, those wanting more help again mentioned counselling, emotional support and someone to talk to. However, women were much more likely than men to mention practical help such as financial assistance, accommodation, transport and also legal advice. Eighteen (32%) of those disclosing sexual victimisation said that they would have liked more help or advice. More than half said that they would have liked emotional support, and around two-fifths said that they would like someone to talk to, counselling and legal advice.

What is particularly striking about these statements is that providing someone to talk to and emotional support is specifically what Victim Support seeks to do. This further confirms that there is a pocket of victims with needs which are currently not being met, but which could be met by current service providers. On the other hand, we also need to note the wishes of

Māori and Pacific victims for people from their own culture who can provide these services. Further, providing information about how to make homes safer is also already provided (by both Victim Support and the Police). But more than one in ten of the repeat victims of burglary who wanted additional help mentioned this as an example of the type of help they wanted, but were not getting.

8.6 Summary of key findings on meeting the needs of victims

This chapter has shown that:

- Although awareness of Victim Support has increased since the 1996 NZNSCV, certain groups – in particular, Pacific participants and participants of ‘other’ ethnicities, students, those aged 15 to 24, and men aged 60 or more – remained largely unaware of this service. Other groups with a significantly lower level of awareness were all those aged 60 and over, the retired, Māori, lower socio-economic groups and men. Of course, Māori and the young are also amongst the groups most at risk of victimisation.
- Very few victims have contact with **any** type of victims’ services, including Victim Support.
- There is little change since the 1996 NZNSCV in the proportion of victims contacted by Victim Support.
- Where contact is made with Victim Support or other services, this advice and help is to a large extent appreciated.
- There is some evidence from the 2001 NZNSCV that a greater proportion of victims contacted by Victim Support were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation than was the case in the 1996 NZNSCV.
- Around a third of the victims contacted by Victim Support said that they either did not accept or did not want the support offered.
- Eight percent of victims said they wanted additional support or help – in particular, this was someone to talk to, emotional support and financial assistance.
- Some Māori and Pacific victims who wanted additional help mentioned the need for culturally-responsive services.
- More than a quarter of the repeat victims of burglary said they were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation.

- Although a higher proportion of repeat burglary victims than victims of other types of offences are contacted by Victim Support, a significantly higher proportion of repeat victims of burglary said they wanted additional help.

8.7 Policy implications

The 1996 NZNSCV found that some of those contacted by support agencies had little need for such services and that, conversely, others who were significantly affected by the victimisation – at least some of whom were probably in need of such services – were missed. Although the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV suggested that more of those ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation were now contacted by Victim Support, a significant proportion of victims were contacted who neither wanted nor sought Victim Support’s help. Indeed, in this context, there are a number of findings which seem to contradict each other. A significant proportion of the victims of household offences said that they did not want or accept help from Victim Support. This category is likely to include some victims of burglary. Yet burglary victims were also amongst those who said that they wanted additional help. What this makes clear is that targeting those who need help is a difficult task and it is unrealistic to expect Victim Support to always be able to differentiate those who most need its help.

There was a significant minority of victims who were affected by their experience of victimisation, but who had not been contacted by any organisation, including Victim Support. Of course, if this victimisation is not reported to the Police or to a helping organisation, this is currently inevitable: reporting the victimisation to the Police is certainly a prerequisite for Victim Support making contact with a victim. This raises two issues.

First, relying on victims reporting their victimisation to the Police may not be the best mechanism for getting help to all those who are most in need of it. Victim Support may need to take even more proactive steps not only to increase its profile but also to be seen as available and accessible to victims who decide not to refer their victimisation to the Police. Their current location in Police stations may, for example, deter some victims who need help from using their services.

Second, when victims do report their victimisation to the Police, they rely on the Police to refer victims on to Victim Support. Data from the 2001 NZNSCV have shown that not all victims either need or want help from external or formal providers. They may prefer to rely on their own, their family’s or their friends’ support. Data from the 2001 NZNSCV have also shown that the impact of much victimisation is slight. Thus, there is no support from the data in the 2001 NZNSCV for a marked expansion of resources: the cost of offering services to all victims of crime is both too high and unnecessary. The critical question here is how best to identify and target those who are most in need of help. It is not easy to answer this question, but it is clear from the 2001 NZNSCV that repeat victims of burglary stand out as a group who were ‘very much’ affected by their victimisation. It is also worth noting here that victims of threats by people not well known to the victim were almost as affected by their victimisation as victims of assaults and were more affected than victims of robberies. Women, older victims, Māori and Pacific victims, solo parents, beneficiaries and those of lower socio-economic status were also more likely than other victims to say that they were

‘very much’ affected by their victimisation. Victim Support already targets at least some of these groups, but it may be, also in this context, that Victim Support needs to re-visit its method of contacting victims. We alluded earlier to the possibility that some victims contacted by Victim Support may have been unable to recall this.

The Victims Rights Act 2002 makes the rights expressed in the 1987 Victim of Offences Act mandatory. These include victims getting the welfare, health, counselling, medical and legal help that they need and telling victims as soon as possible about their rights and what help they can get. The data from the 2001 NZNSCV confirm that this change was necessary in that some victims lacked awareness of the services available to them. Future surveys of crime victims will be able to measure the impact of this Act in this regard (at least with respect to those victims who notify the Police about their victimisation). Some thought may also need to be given to the provision (and funding) of culturally-responsive services for Māori and Pacific victims.²⁷⁸

278 Cram et al. (1999) reached similar conclusions using a very different methodology. They conducted in-depth qualitative interviews with key informants and 70 Māori, and advocated for culturally-appropriate services to be provided by Māori for Māori. As in the 2001 NZNSCV, Cram et al. found that few Māori contacted support groups and that they relied mainly on whānau. They also raised the issue that existing support services may revictimise Māori. Research, using a similar methodology, recently explored the needs of Pacific victims (Koloto 2003). See also ‘the areas of action’ highlighted in Te Rito New Zealand Family Violence Prevention Strategy (Ministry of Social Development 2002).

9 Concerns about victimisation and safety

9.1 Introduction

It is sometimes said that ‘fear of crime’ affects more people than crime itself and so, over the last twenty-five years or so, it is not surprising that ‘fear of crime’ has become a significant research, policy and political issue. This whole area, however, is fraught with contradictory research findings as well as uncertain policy implications. We are encouraged, for example, to take certain steps to reduce our risk of victimisation (for example, not to walk in certain areas at night on our own). But, at the same time, such advice can induce or increase our fear of victimisation: what if we have to walk in certain areas at night to get to work or to get home from work?

Also, as will be shown later in this chapter, ‘fear of crime’ (or more accurately perceptions of safety and worry about victimisation) can result in some people modifying their lifestyles to reduce their perceived (but over-estimated) risk of victimisation, especially if they also perceive the consequences of this (remote) risk to be serious. On the other hand, some people fail to modify their lifestyles because they are unafraid though their risk of victimisation is actually high. As Warr (2000, 453) writes ‘individuals can be too unafraid as well as too afraid’. However, he also writes (2000, 455), that ‘when fear [of crime] is out of proportion to objective risk...it becomes dysfunctional’. This is certainly true if people at low risk of victimisation take actions which adversely affect them (for example, not taking a job because it involved travel in the evening). We need to be mindful of both issues, therefore: who should be more afraid of victimisation? and who could be less afraid of victimisation?

This chapter examines perceptions of crime as a local problem (Section 9.3). It then explores perception of safety and discusses how this differs according to participants’ demographic characteristics (Section 9.4). It next sets out information about participants’ worry about victimisation and the distribution of that worry amongst different groups (Section 9.5). Then it explores the relationship between this worry about victimisation and other worries (Section 9.6). Throughout, where appropriate, it discusses the extent to which any changes have occurred between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV and it contrasts the 2001 NZNSCV findings with those of other research. Finally, it tries to make sense of concerns about victimisation (Section 9.7), summarises the key findings of this chapter (Section 9.8) and briefly discusses their policy implications (Section 9.9). But before this, in Section 9.2, some of the difficulties of researching and measuring ‘fear of crime’ are outlined to provide a context within which the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV can be interpreted.²⁷⁹

²⁷⁹ For a fuller discussion of these conceptual and measurement difficulties, see Hough 1995, 1-6; Ferraro 1995, 21-39; Warr 2000.

9.2 Conceptual and measurement difficulties

‘Fear of crime’ is an emotional state and, as such, is actually rarely measured by researchers. Instead a range of proxy measures is used: particularly, perceptions of safety and worry or anxiety about crime or victimisation (a belief or an attitude). These are all rather different but they are, at times, conflated and researchers slip between them. To explain: some people may be very fearful of being the victim of a particular type of offence, but know at the same time that it is a comparatively rare occurrence. Conversely, some people can be concerned about crime and believe that it is a serious problem and that people are substantially at risk from it, but may at the same time perceive their own risk of victimisation as low or may not be worried about its impact upon them if they are victimised. Though perceived risk or perceptions of safety may play a role in generating ‘fear of crime’, ‘fear of crime’ may also exist where perceived risks are low and where situations are perceived as safe. ‘Fear of crime’ in its ‘purest’ sense arises when confronted here and now with a dangerous situation. The emotion which is aroused when contemplating past situations or imagining future situations is more accurately termed ‘anxiety’ or ‘worry’ about crime. Care needs to be taken in reviewing the findings of surveys of crime victims, therefore, to ensure that they are measuring what they claim to be measuring and the 1996 NZNSCV is not immune from this criticism. Young et al. (1997) commonly referred to ‘fear of crime’ when, in reality, the data referred to perceptions of safety and worry about victimisation. By treating proxy measures as measures of some undifferentiated category called ‘fear of crime’, contradictory and misleading results can be produced.

Warr (2000, 457) writes that ‘a truly bewildering variety of questions have been used by investigators over the years to measure fear of crime’. However, generally, the types of questions asked fall into two categories. The first asks people about perceptions of safety in particular situations. In both the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV, participants were first asked:

Do you ever walk alone in your neighbourhood after dark?

If the participant replied ‘yes’ then the next question was asked:

How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark - very safe, fairly safe, a bit unsafe, or very unsafe?

If the participant replied ‘no’ to the preliminary question, they were asked to speculate on how safe they thought they would feel if they were to walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark. These questions, as recognised in the 1996 NZNSCV, are an imperfect measure of ‘fear of crime’. They do not focus on crime; they ask at least some participants to speculate about a hypothetical situation; and they equate ‘fear of crime’ with perceptions of safety. Thus the 2001 NZNSCV does not in these questions really address ‘fear of crime’ but rather ‘perceptions of safety’.²⁸⁰ As noted above, these are not necessarily the same.

280 The 2001 NZNSCV also asked two further questions about perceptions of safety which relate to perceptions of safety at home alone, both during the day and after dark.

Another problem with these questions is that they refer to a particular context and researchers then generalise from this. However, reactions of fear are not constant: they are dynamic, contextual and constantly subject to reassessment and change depending on the time of day, participants' previous experiences, particular locations, the presence or absence of others and so on (Lupton 1999a). Thus, Bilsky and Wetzels (1997) argue that 'fear of crime' should not be treated as a homogeneous phenomenon. More generally, Holloway and Jefferson (1997) argue that 'fear of crime' is an inadequately theorised concept in that it is premised on rational individuals calculating (or, as they say, miscalculating) their risk of victimisation.

The second type of question commonly used in surveys of crime victims asks how much people worry about being the victim of a particular sort of offence. The particular question asked in both the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV was:

Some people worry about being the victim of a crime. I am going to read out some types of crime...I would like you to tell me for each one, how worried you are about being a victim of it.

Participants were then asked to say whether they were 'very worried', 'fairly worried', 'not very worried', or 'not at all worried'.

Again, this question does not really capture 'fear of crime'; rather it captures worry or anxiety - a much less strong emotion. It may be that worry about victimisation is a good proxy for the 'fear of crime' - it is widely assumed to be so. However, we do not know this for sure. There is research which has directly asked participants about their fear of particular crimes: an early example is Warr and Stafford (1983). They found that fear of residential burglary was ranked higher than fear of any other type of crime. In the 1996 NZNSCV, the crimes which participants said that they were most ('very') worried about was 'being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver', followed by being attacked and robbed and being assaulted by a stranger (closely followed then by burglary, having their car stolen and having their car damaged or broken into).²⁸¹ This seems to suggest that being 'very worried' about specific crimes is not the same as or a proxy for 'fear' of that crime.²⁸² Warr and Stafford's (1983) findings, however, were based on a mail survey and, although the response rate was relatively high for that kind of survey, it may not be appropriate to contrast the findings of two different types of surveys in this way.

There are other problems with this type of question. First, it assumes stability in participants' answers: they are either worried or not worried. However, Ditton and Farrell's (2000) research calls this into question. They found that two questions aimed at tapping into the same issue resulted in apparently similar results but that, when the questions were cross-tabulated, there was considerable inconsistency. For example, 13% of those who worried about burglary 'not at all' or 'hardly ever' the first time the question was asked reported

281 We have excluded here the fact that female participants were most ('very') worried about rape, since male participants were not asked this question in the 1996 NZNSCV.

282 The picture alters a bit if we add together the percentage 'very' worried and 'fairly' worried: 'being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver' remained the incident most people are worried about, but then it was followed by burglary, by having a car stolen and by having a car damaged or broken into. To this extent, then, it is possible that worry about victimisation may be a proxy for the 'fear of crime'. This seems counter-intuitive though: fear, since it is a strong emotion, seems more likely to be linked to being 'very' worried than to a more general sense of worry.

worrying 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' the second time it was asked. Ditton and Farrell (2000) offer two explanations for this: participants' expressions of worry about crime are not based in fact, but rather reflect an answer to a question asked at a particular moment to which some response is expected; or worry about crime is a matter of degree which can shift even within a short space of time. Both are rather troubling prospects, methodologically speaking, because, as noted above, they call into question the reliance previously placed by researchers on individuals' responses: participants tend to be viewed as either 'not at all worried' or 'hardly ever worried' or 'quite a bit worried' or 'a lot worried'. Participants are never viewed as both at the same time.

Farrall et al. (1997) suggested that our understanding of the 'fear of crime' was a product of the way it has been researched rather than the way it actually is.²⁸³ They went on to show that quantitative and qualitative research methodologies did not produce the same 'findings' in the same people. In this fascinating paper, they go on to explain why these various 'mismatches' (which can be epistemological, conceptual, operational or technical in origin) occur. Quantitative questions, they suggest, measure feelings at a very general level while qualitative interviews allow these feelings to be expressed more discursively. Thus, for example, when asked whether or not he was particularly worried about being robbed or assaulted, one participant gave the answer '4' on a scale of 1 to 5 when 5 measured 'a lot or all of the time'. However, the same participant responded '3' when asked about his feelings at night, '5' when asked about how he felt when he saw a group of people and '1' when asked about how he felt when he was at home during the day.²⁸⁴ Farrell et al. (1997) also cautioned that words like 'worry' may be interpreted in various ways by participants.

Instead, Farrall et al. (1997) suggested exploring the extent to which participants THINK about a certain crime, how AFRAID they are of it and how ANGRY they feel when they think of it. Ditton et al. (1999) reported the results of doing this, and they suggested that people seemed more angry about, than afraid, of crime.²⁸⁵ Thus, in measuring 'fear of crime', there continues to be discussion and exploration about how best to operationalise it. However, it was decided that, for the 2001 NZNSCV, comparability with the 1996 NZNSCV was more important than attempting new, and untested, questions.

All of the above caveats need to be kept in mind when reading this chapter. In particular, it has to be kept in mind that this chapter is not about 'fear of crime'; it is about perceptions of safety and anxieties or worries about victimisation. These are, as noted above, often used in the research literature interchangeably with 'fear of crime' and as a way of talking about 'fear of crime'. It may be that these measures are as close as researchers can get, at this stage, to

283 For example, they suggested that the high levels of fear of crime reported by women and the elderly were mainly artifacts resulting from: inadequate indicators of the 'fear of crime', inadequate definitions of 'non-victim' (so that victims are included in this category), variance within subgroups (that is to say, the failure to distinguish between the 'fearful' and the 'fearless'), and the lack of a distinction between fear of actual as opposed to fictitious victimisation.

284 Other 'mismatches' occurred when contrasting responses to questions about crime generally and about specific forms of crime, and when contrasting questions to open and closed questions. Participants may also conceal, forget or reply carelessly at different times.

285 For example, with respect to housebreaking, 40% of participants said that they were afraid of crime but more than 60% said that they were angry about it. These findings were consistent across age and sex. For example, though women reported being more afraid of crime than men, their feelings of anger exceeded their feelings of fear.

tapping into the reality of the ‘fear of crime’. Nevertheless, the real focus of this chapter needs to be kept in mind.

9.3 Perceptions of local crime

Participants were asked a range of questions about crime in their neighbourhood, which were largely aimed at exploring their perception of the importance of crime as a local problem.²⁸⁶ They were first asked whether or not they thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood. Just over a third (35%) of participants thought that there was. This represents little change from the 1996 NZNSCV (the corresponding figure there was 36%). Those living in Auckland were more likely than those living elsewhere²⁸⁷ to think that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood - 43% said this compared with 35% of those living in other metropolitan urban areas, 34% of those living in other main urban areas, and 29% of those living in secondary urban and minor urban and rural areas. Those living in the Upper North Island were also more likely than those living in other parts of New Zealand to think there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood - 39% said this. However, overall, most people thought that there were no particular crime problems in their neighbourhood. The exceptions were that 65% of repeat burglary victims and 53% of those who had experienced one burglary thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood.²⁸⁸

Those who thought that there was a crime problem were then asked to identify, without prompting, what sort of crime problems existed. The results are set out in Table 9.1. It is clear from this that participants saw burglary as a problem more frequently than any other type of offence, with almost three-quarters of those who thought that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood mentioning burglary. Those living in Auckland were particularly likely to see burglary as a problem in their neighbourhood - 82% of the participants who lived there and who thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood said this, compared with around two-thirds of those living elsewhere who thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood. Around three-quarters of those living in the North Island who thought there was a crime problem saw burglary as a problem in their neighbourhood, compared with just over a half of those living in the South Island who thought there was a crime problem. Perhaps surprisingly, there was little difference between the proportion of repeat victims of burglary and victims of one burglary who saw burglary as a problem in their neighbourhood: 75% and 78% respectively.²⁸⁹

286 The 2001 NZNSCV did not try to measure feelings of community or community cohesiveness but other research suggests that a perceived lack of community is more important than actual crime in predicting fear of crime (Schweitzer et al. 1999). Indeed, some researchers argue that decreases in neighbourhood cohesion may increase crime and disorder which, in turn, may increase anxiety about crime. This, in turn, may lead to further decreasing cohesion and so on. See also Wilson and Kelling (1982) on this point.

287 For information on these codings, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

288 The differences for victims of violent offences were not so marked: 44% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and 43% of those who had experienced one such violent offence said that they thought that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood.

289 Predictably, only around two-thirds of the repeat victims of violence offences by those not well known to the victim and victims of one such violent offence saw burglary as a problem in their neighbourhood: 65% and 68% respectively. However, repeat victims of violence by those not well known to the victim were much more likely than others to see vandalism, street attacks, assaults, domestic violence and sexual crimes as problems in their neighbourhood.

Table 9.1 Types of crime problems perceived in neighbourhood: percentages

Types of crime problems	
Burglary, break-ins	72.2
Petty thefts	27.3
Vandalism	24.3
Car theft	17.2
Graffiti	15.2
Dangerous driving	14.5
Theft from cars	13.5
Damage to cars	10.9
Selling/growing drugs	9.7
Domestic violence	7.3
Assault	6.4
Prowlers	5.3
Drink driving	5.0
Sexual crimes	3.5
Street attacks	3.2
Youth on streets/youth fighting	1.9
Speeding cars/hoons in cars	1.9
Drug use	1.5
Drinking/drunken behaviour/under-age drinking	1.5
Murder	1.2
Sample size (people)	1883

Note: Multiple responses possible.

This prominence of burglary is a common finding (Robinson et al. 1989; MRL Research Group, 1995; Harland, 1995; Young et al. 1997) and provides continued support for the greater attention which has been paid to burglary in policing priorities in recent years. Importantly, this figure of 72% represents little change from the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV where just over three-quarters of the participants who thought that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood mentioned burglary. Thus, perceptions that burglary is a problem have not changed.²⁹⁰ Of course, the Police efforts are aimed at reducing burglary and not changing the perception of burglary as a problem. Indeed, it could be argued that prioritisation of burglary by the Police raises awareness of burglary and helps to

²⁹⁰ As shown in Chapter 2, the incidence of burglary, as demonstrated by the 2001 NZNSCV, did not change much between 1995 and 2000 (from a rate per 100 households of 7.1 to 6.8). On the other hand, the recalculated Police statistics presented in Table 2.3 show a reduction of almost 10,000 recorded burglaries, to approximately 38,000.

fuel the perception that burglary is a problem in people's neighbourhoods, whether or not it actually is.

For some of the crime problems, the proportion mentioning them in the 2001 NZNSCV was considerably lower than the proportion mentioned in the 1996 NZNSCV: drink driving is an example of this (11% had mentioned this a crime problem in the 1996 NZNSCV).²⁹¹ This may indicate some success both in the prevention of drink driving locally and in people's perceptions of success. After burglary, petty thefts were the crime problem most commonly mentioned, followed by vandalism and car theft. Gang-related crimes and arson were rarely mentioned in either the 1996 NZNSCV or in the 2001 NZNSCV.

As noted by Young et al. (1997, 112), in most respects there was no clear relationship between either the actual incidence or the prevalence of types of victimisation (as discussed in Chapter 2) and people's perceptions of crime problems. For example, the incidence rate for assaults was higher (and for violence generally it was much higher) than it was for burglary, theft or damage and yet participants were much more likely to perceive burglary, theft or damage (vandalism) as problems in their neighbourhood than assaults. This, of course, fits with data presented in previous chapters with respect to victims' reasons for not reporting certain victimisations to the Police and some victims not seeing violent or sexual victimisations as criminal. The exception here is repeat victims of violence. The fact that they were more likely than others to see street attacks, assaults, domestic violence and sexual crimes as problems in their neighbourhood may be rooted in their own experience.

Further, when participants were asked about other problems in their neighbourhood, it emerged that crime was not necessarily perceived as the only problem. For example, more than half (54%) the participants described 'speeding cars' as either 'a very big problem' or 'a fairly big problem' in the neighbourhood; more than a fifth (21%) put 'teenagers hanging around on the streets' in this category; more than a fifth (21%) regarded rubbish and litter lying about as 'a very big problem' or 'a fairly big problem'; almost a fifth (19%) identified 'uncontrolled dogs roaming the neighbourhood' as either 'a very big problem' or 'a fairly big problem'; and almost a fifth (19%) saw broken windows and graffiti in this way.

Some problems, such as teenagers hanging around on the streets, may be perceived as related to crime, and speeding cars may also involve criminal behaviour depending on the speed limits in the neighbourhood (though generally such behaviour is regarded differently from crimes like assault and burglary). Nevertheless, it is clear that perceptions of local problems did not focus exclusively on crime; people were often concerned about other features of their neighbourhood (sometimes called the 'signs of crime' (Wilson and Kelling 1982)). These figures represent little change from those in the 1996 NZNSCV though, in that survey, questions about speeding were not asked.

Participants were also asked whether they thought that the amount of crime in their neighbourhood had increased, decreased or stayed much the same in the last 12 months. Table 9.2 presents these findings.

291 However, those living in rural and minor urban areas were more likely than those living in other areas to see drink driving as a problem in their neighbourhood: 9% said this. They were also more likely to see selling drugs, growing drugs and livestock theft as a problem in their neighbourhood.

Table 9.2 More/less crime in neighbourhood in last 12 months: percentages

Amount of crime	
About the same	59.4
A little more crime	10.4
A little less crime	7.8
No crime around here	4.5
A lot more crime	3.4
A lot less crime	1.9
Don't know	12.6
Sample size (people)	5147

As Table 9.2 shows, more than half of the participants thought that, at least in relation to their own neighbourhood, crime had remained the same, and only three percent thought that there was 'a lot more' of it.²⁹² This represents little change over the 1996 NZNSCV where 58% of participants thought crime had remained 'about the same' and four percent thought that there was 'a lot more' of it. There was not much difference by where people lived – four percent of those living in Auckland thought that there was 'a lot more crime', as did those living in the Upper North Island. Perhaps not surprisingly, 15% of repeat victims of burglary thought that there was 'a lot more crime', compared with six percent of those who had experienced one burglary and six percent of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim.

9.4 Perceptions of safety

Having outlined their perceptions of crime problems in their neighbourhood, participants were asked a series of questions about their perceptions of safety. First, they were asked whether or not they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark. Just over half of the participants said that they did not. However, there were clear differences on demographic variables. For example, more than two-thirds (68%) of the women (compared with a third of the men) said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark, and almost three-quarters (72%) of those aged 60 and over said they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with over a third (37%) of those aged 17 to 24, more than two-fifths (44%) of those aged 15 and 16 and almost a half of those aged 40 to 59 (46%) and of those aged 25 to 39 (47%). There was a little difference on this dimension between New Zealand European/European and Pacific participants (51% and 48% respectively said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark). However, only just over two-fifths (42%) of Māori said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark.

²⁹² Although not directly comparable because the British Crime Survey now asks about changes over the preceding two years rather than twelve months, just under a fifth of participants in the 2001 British Crime Survey stated that crime in their locality had gone up 'a lot more' (Kershaw et al. 2001). This represented a considerable change over the 1992 British Crime Survey (Mayhew et al. 1993) where more than a third of participants stated that crime in their locality had gone up 'a lot more'.

There was also a considerable difference when ethnicity and sex were examined together: 70% of New Zealand European/European women said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 66% of Pacific women and 54% of Māori women. This may have more to do with having to walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark than choosing to do so (because of a lack of other alternatives).²⁹³

Women were also much more likely, irrespective of age, to report that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark: for example 85% of women aged 60 and over said this, as did around two-thirds of 40 to 59 year old women and 25 to 39 year old women and more than half the 17 to 24 year old women and the 15 and 16 year old women. A slightly different pattern emerged here for men: 57% of men aged 60 and over said they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark; the next age group most likely to say this were the 15 and 16 year old boys: more than a third said this.

The socio-economic status groups most likely to report that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark were NZSEI 40-49 (57% said this) and NZSEI 10-29 (54% said this).²⁹⁴ There was little difference among the other socio-economic status groups (around a half of each said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark) except that around two-fifths of those grouped as NZSEI 75-90 said this.

There was some variation in terms of household status in the percentage reporting that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark: for example, 63% of single people living alone and 57% of couples without children said they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 53% of the single parents and 48% of the couples with children. Having children seemed to make a slight difference here. It may be again that people with children have to walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark rather than choosing to do so. On the other hand, only a quarter of those living with flatmates said they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark. People living with flatmates generally belong to a younger age group²⁹⁵ and choice (for example, to go out to socialise) may be a factor here.

Those who said that they did walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark were asked how safe they felt; and those who said that they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark were asked how safe they thought that they would feel. Table 9.3 presents the data for both groups and for the sample combined.

From this table, it is apparent that only a small minority (6%) of those who walked alone after dark in their neighbourhood said that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe'. However, significantly more (23%) of those who did not walk alone in their neighbourhood said they thought they would feel 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe'. These data raise questions about where people's concerns about crime come from. It could be suggested that experience seems likely to have informed the responses of those who did walk in their neighbourhood after dark, whereas imagination seems likely to have informed the responses of those who did not walk

293 Data discussed in Chapter 10 on taking precautions to avoid personal victimisation fits to some extent with this suggestion.

294 For more information on this scale, see 'Definitions of terms'.

295 Roughly half of all people living with flatmates were aged under 25, and approximately 90% were less than 40 years old.

alone in their neighbourhood after dark. However, we cannot discount the possibility that those who said they did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark at the time of the interview had, in the past, done so and did not do so now because of their experience of victimisation while doing so.

Table 9.3 Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark: percentages

	Those who did walk alone	Those who did not walk alone	All participants
Very safe	21.0	6.1	27.1
Fairly safe	22.9	20.9	43.8
A bit unsafe	5.1	14.9	20.1
Very unsafe	0.6	8.0	8.6
Sample size (people)	2548	2599	5147

Other possible explanations for perceptions of not being safe are media accounts of crime,²⁹⁶ discussions with family, friends or neighbours or some other source. It is impossible to say. However, the majority of even this group said they thought they would feel generally safe. Overall, these figures do not reflect much change from those in the 1996 NZNSCV.²⁹⁷ Only nine percent of all participants said that they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark. The vast majority – 71% – felt 'very' or 'fairly' safe.²⁹⁸

Women were much less likely than men to say that they felt (or would feel) safe walking in their neighbourhood after dark: 45% of women compared with 11% of men said that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark and 15% of women, compared with two percent of men said that they felt (or, would feel) 'very unsafe' (see Table A9.3a in Appendix 1). There was a little difference in perceptions of safety with respect to age: just over a third (34%) of those aged 60 and over said that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 27% of both those aged 15 and 16 and those aged 17 to 24 (see Table A9.3b in Appendix 1). Predictably, women of all ages were more likely than men of all ages to report that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark: for example, 40% of 15 and 16 year old girls and 48% of women

296 Chirocos et al. (1997) found that the frequency of watching television news and listening to news on the radio was significantly related to the fear of crime and that this was especially so for white women between the ages of 30 and 54. They suggested that the reason for this was that these are the characteristics of victims most often seen on TV. Chirocos et al. (2000) also found that watching local news, not surprisingly, had a stronger effect than watching national news.

297 The data in Table 7.3 in the 1996 NZNSCV (Young et al. 1997, 114) are, however, presented differently: as a percentage of all those walking alone and all those not walking alone and so we cannot make direct comparisons.

298 Kershaw et al. (2001, 39) state that 13% of participants in the 2001 British Crime Survey said they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark and that a further 20% felt 'a bit unsafe'. These figures are not much different from the 2001 NZNSCV figures quoted in Table 9.3.

aged 60 and over said this, compared with just 16% of 15 and 16 year old boys and of men aged 60 and over.

Pacific participants were more likely than other ethnic groups to say that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark: 38% said this, compared with 29% of New Zealand European/European participants and participants of other ethnicities and 22% of Māori participants (see Table A9.3c in Appendix 1). Women of all ethnicities, especially Pacific women, were also more likely than men of all ethnicities to say that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark: for example, more than half the Pacific women said this, compared with 34% of Māori women and 22% of Pacific men (see Table A9.3c in Appendix 1).

There was little difference in terms of socio-economic status in the proportions saying that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark: for example, 32% of participants in NZSEI 40-59, 30% of participants in NZSEI 75-90, 28% of participants in NZSEI 30-39 and in NZSEI 50-59, 25% of participants in NZSEI 10-29 and 25% of participants in NZSEI 60-74 said this (see Table A9.3e in Appendix 1). Solo parents and people living on their own were also much more likely than those living in other types of households to report that they felt (or would feel) a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark: 40% and 37% respectively reported this.

On the basis of data from the International Crime Surveys, van Dijk (2001) found that repeat victims were much more likely than others to express concerns about walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark. In the 2001 NZNSCV, there was not much difference between repeat victims of violence by those not well known to the victim compared with others: 31% of them said that they felt (or would feel) 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 37% of those who had experienced one such violent offence. However, repeat victims of burglary were much more likely to say that they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark – 20% said this – and they were also much more likely to say that they felt (or would feel) 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark – almost half (47%) said this.

Two new questions about perceptions of safety were asked in the 2001 NZNSCV: these were about perceptions of safety at home alone during the day and after dark. Table 9.4 presents these data.

Table 9.4 Feelings of safety alone at home: percentages

Feelings of safety	At home during the day	At home after dark
Very safe	76.2	53.2
Fairly safe	21.5	36.7
A bit unsafe	1.7	8.3
Very unsafe	0.5	1.6
Sample size (people)	5147	

Although generally participants said they felt safe at home alone, both during the day and after dark, it is clear that they felt more unsafe alone after dark: 10% said that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' then.²⁹⁹ This was much more commonly stated by female participants: 16% said that they felt a 'bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark, compared with just four percent of male participants.³⁰⁰

Perhaps surprisingly, the age group most likely to say that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark was the 17 to 24 year olds: 13% said this, compared with seven percent of 15 and 16 year olds, 9% of both 40 to 59 year olds and those aged 60 and over, and 11% of the 25 to 39 year olds. Women of all ages were more likely than men to report feeling 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark. This was especially so for women in the 17 to 24 and 25 to 39 age groups. About a fifth of both these age groups reported feeling 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark compared with 13% of women in all other age groups. The figures for men never went above six percent for any age group.

There was no difference between Māori and New Zealand European/European participants on this dimension – nine percent of both groups reported that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark. But 18% of Pacific participants and 16% of those from other ethnicities said this. A higher proportion of women of all ethnicities reported they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark, but, consistent with the earlier finding reported above, Pacific women were more likely to report this than Māori or New Zealand European/European women: 27% compared with 13% and 15% respectively. The figure for women of other ethnicities was also high: 23%.

Solo parents were the most likely of the various household statuses to say that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark: 14% compared with, say, nine percent for single people and couples without children and 10% for couples with children. Those in lower socio-economic groups were also slightly more likely to report that they felt 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe' at home alone after dark: for example, 10% of those in NZSEI 10-29 and 30-39 said this, compared with seven percent of those in NZSEI 60-74 and in NZSEI 75-90.

9.4.1 Who feels most unsafe? ³⁰¹

Being female is one of the strongest predictors of feeling unsafe. This has often been attributed to women's fears about sexual victimisation (Ferraro 1995). In the 2001 NZNSCV,

299 This is not dissimilar from the figures cited in the 2001 British Crime Survey (Kershaw et al. 2001, 39): 2% said they felt 'very unsafe' at home alone at night and 6% said they felt 'a bit unsafe'.

300 When the findings for feelings of safety at home during the day were analysed on demographic variables, the percentages showed virtually identical patterns to those relating to feelings of safety at home after dark and so they have not been quoted.

301 This discussion reports an analyses by demographic factors only. Other - more individual - factors are likely to be relevant too. For example, Farrall et al. (2000) tested Van der Wurff's (1989) theory about the social psychological correlates of the 'fear of crime' - the extent to which people see themselves as attractive targets; the extent to which people attribute criminal intentions to others; the individual's degree of self-assurance and feeling of control; and the extent to which a situation lends itself to crime. However, this explained less than 18% of the variance in feelings of safety. When demographic factors were added, the combined model explained a third of the variance.

women were much less likely than men to walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark (less than a third reported they did this, compared with two-thirds of the men). They were also much less likely to report feeling safe when or if they did so: 45% of women reported that they felt or would feel 'a bit unsafe' or 'very unsafe', compared with only 11% of men. Smith and Torstensson (1997) discuss four possible explanations for what they call women's greater 'fear of crime': women's hidden victimisation; women's ability to recall early experiences and to generalise fear from one context to another; women's vulnerability; and men discounting their fear. Their data provided more support for the last two hypotheses than the first two.

Although the 2001 NZNSCV cannot actually test these hypotheses, it is clear from its findings (reported in Chapters 2, 5 and 6) that women's experience of violence in relationships and of sexual victimisation is higher than men's. The findings of the 2001 NZNSCV are also not inconsistent with explanations based on the possibility that victimisation has a greater impact on women and that men under-report both their victimisation and their fears. This can be linked to Warr and Ellison's (2000) suggestion that research on 'fear of crime' has focused too much on fear about personal crime and too little on what they call 'altruistic fear' – worry about others. Within families, they believe that this fear is both more common and more intense than personal fear. Men may, if asked, have felt more able to express this type of fear.

The elderly also commonly feature amongst those who say that they feel unsafe and in the 2001 NZNSCV they were more likely than all other age groups to report that they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood alone after dark (see Table A9.3b). However, the elderly also commonly feature amongst those do not actually take part in activities which might make them unsafe. For example, the 2001 NZNSCV also found that the elderly were much less likely than younger age groups to say that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark. This discrepancy led to overseas commentators describing the (general) fears of the elderly as 'unrealistic' or 'excessive' (based on the type of incidence and prevalence data presented in Table 2.12 in Chapter 2). However, these are not the only situations in which people may feel unsafe; and the elderly might also recognise both their risk at other times (for example, in shopping areas during the day) and the potentially more serious consequences for them if any victimisation occurred (for example, they may be more likely to break bones if they are pushed during a theft).

In the 2001 NZNSCV, it was Pacific participants, especially Pacific female participants, who were most likely to report feeling 'very unsafe'. However, they too (along with New Zealand European/European participants) were less likely to report that they walked in their neighbourhood alone after dark, and this was especially so for Pacific (and New Zealand European/European) women. However, Table 2.8 in Chapter 2 showed that their victimisation rates were lower than those for Māori (though higher than for New Zealand European/European participants). As noted, earlier, there was little difference in perceptions of safety on the streets after dark among the various socio-economic status groups.³⁰²

302 Overseas research (for example, Pantazis 2000) found that people living in poverty were disproportionately more likely to report that they never went out after dark. However, although a greater proportion of those living in poverty said that not going out on their own was due to the 'fear of crime', this was not the main factor preventing them from going out after dark (which was that they were too old, too ill, did not want to go out, or had nowhere to go to).

Collectively, these data suggest that the majority of New Zealanders find their neighbourhoods safe and are not worried about crime in that setting. However, certain groups – in particular, women, Pacific participants, especially Pacific female participants and, to some extent, the elderly – do find their neighbourhoods unsafe and are worried about crime in that setting. These data are broadly similar to the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV, although the data on Pacific participants in that survey was not as robust.³⁰³

The 2001 NZNSCV collected data for the first time on perceptions of safety at home. It found that a higher proportion of women of all ethnicities, and especially Pacific women, and Pacific participants generally were likely to report feeling ‘a bit unsafe’ or ‘very unsafe’ at home both during the day and after dark. The 2001 NZNSCV also found that the age group most likely to express feeling ‘a bit unsafe’ or ‘very unsafe’ at home alone was the 17 to 24 age group, especially women in this age group. Solo parents were also more likely to report this than those in other living arrangements and, as suggested earlier, there may be an over-lap between these two groups.

The above discussion is somewhat crude and conceals variations within categories. It is important to note that two percent of men said they felt ‘very unsafe’ walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark and that 14% of women said that they felt ‘very safe’ walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark; that 21% of those aged 60 and over said they felt ‘very safe’ and nine percent of the 15 and 16 year olds said that they felt ‘very unsafe’; and that some women felt ‘very safe’ at home alone at night and some men felt ‘very unsafe’ at home alone at night. Thus the stereotypes sometimes created by surveys of crime victims of ‘fearful women’ and ‘fearless men’ are not always helpful.³⁰⁴

9.5 Worry about victimisation

Participants were asked how much they worried about being the victim of 12 specific types of victimisation. Table 9.5 sets out these data.

Table 9.5 shows that the types of victimisation which participants were most worried about were, in order, being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their house burgled, being attacked and robbed, being sexually assaulted or raped, and having their car deliberately damaged or broken into. Table 9.5 also shows that around a fifth of the sample said that they were ‘very worried’ in all but three of the victimisations asked about. There is little change here from the figures in the 1996 NZNSCV. The only marked changes were in the proportion of people who said that they were ‘very worried’ about being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver – 23% said this in 2001 compared with 31% in 1996 – and in the proportions saying that they were ‘very worried’ about being sexually assaulted or raped.

303 These data are broadly similar to those cited in the 2001 British Crime Survey with respect to ethnicity: age and sex were strongly correlated to worry about crime and perceptions of safety (Kershaw et al. 2001, 40).

304 Gilchrist et al. (1998) challenge the myth of fearful women and fearless men and describes both men and women with low and high fear. They also comment that there are more similarities than differences between high fear men and women and between low fear men and women. Overall, they found that the fearful had more knowledge of victimisation, appeared to think they had a higher risk of being victimised, and saw themselves as more vulnerable than the fearless. See Goodey 1997 for a fuller discussion.

However, only women were asked about this in the 1996 NZNSCV and the lower figure in the 2001 NZNSCV is explained by the fact that both women and men were asked about this.

Table 9.5 Worries about victimisation: percentages

Type of victimisation	Very worried	Fairly worried	Not very worried	Not at all worried
In a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver	22.9	34.8	29.8	12.2
Having your house burgled	22.1	35.0	32.0	10.7
Being attacked and robbed	20.5	18.9	40.4	20.0
Being sexually assaulted/raped	20.3	11.8	24.3	42.3
Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into	19.7	28.4	32.2	11.7
Having some of your belongings stolen	19.1	35.0	34.2	11.5
Having your car stolen	18.8	29.2	31.8	11.8
Having home or property damaged by vandals	18.3	25.0	39.0	17.4
Being assaulted by strangers	18.1	18.8	39.8	23.1
Being assaulted by people you know	9.5	7.1	20.0	63.1
Being assaulted because of your race	9.4	8.1	24.1	57.2
Being racially harassed on the street	7.7	9.9	29.8	51.8
Sample size (people):	5147			

Overall, more than half the participants were ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’ about being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their house burgled or having their belongings stolen and almost half were ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’ about having their car stolen or having their car damaged or broken into. Around two-fifths were ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’ about having their home or property damaged by vandals and about being attacked and robbed, and almost two-fifths were ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’ about being assaulted by strangers. Almost a third were ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’ about being sexually assaulted or raped. Except for this last figure, there is little change from the findings in the 1996 NZNSCV (as noted above, only women were asked this question then).³⁰⁵

Generally, more participants said that they were ‘fairly worried’ rather than ‘very worried’: the exceptions here (being attacked and robbed, being assaulted by people you know and being sexually assaulted or raped) were all related to personal victimisation. Young et al. (1997, 115) suggested that being ‘fairly worried’ is probably more akin to a generalised concern and that the ‘very worried’ category more probably reflects real anxiety. This may be so. However, it still means that approximately 20% of the sample – or one in five people – were ‘very

305 These findings are also consistent with an earlier New Zealand survey (Robinson et al. 1989). In the 2001 British Crime Survey (Kershaw et al. 2001, 36-37), 16% of participants said they were ‘very worried’ about burglary, in comparison with 23% of participants in the 2001 NZNSCV; and 15% of participants in the 2001 British Crime Survey were ‘very worried’ about ‘mugging’, compared with 20% of participants in the 2001 NZNSCV who were very worried about being attacked and robbed.

worried' about being a victim of all but two of the offences asked about. In addition, 18% of participants were 'very worried' or 'fairly worried' about being racially harassed on the street.

9.5.1 Who is most worried about victimisation?

Almost a third (30%) of those who thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood said they were 'very worried' about having their house burgled, compared with less than a fifth (17%) of those who did not view their neighbourhood as having a crime problem. Indeed, almost three-quarters (73%) of those who thought there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood said they were 'very worried' or 'fairly worried' about having their house burgled, compared with less than a half (48%) of those who did not view their neighbourhood as having a crime problem.

Table 9.6 sets out levels of worry about crime by sex.

Table 9.6 Levels of worry about being a victim by sex:³⁰⁶ percentages

Type of victimisation	Percentage very worried		Percentage very or fairly worried	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Being sexually assaulted/raped	29.1	11.0	48.1	15.3
Being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver	27.0	18.6	61.7	53.4
Having your house burgled	25.2	18.9	57.8	56.4
Being attacked and robbed	25.6	15.1	46.8	31.6
Being assaulted by strangers	23.9	12.0	44.6	28.9
Having your home or property damaged by vandals	21.2	15.3	45.7	40.8
Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into	20.3	19.0	47.1	49.1
Having your car stolen	20.0	17.5	46.8	49.4
Having some of your belongings stolen	19.7	18.5	54.0	54.3
Being assaulted by people you know	12.5	6.4	20.7	12.3
Being assaulted because of your race	11.3	7.4	19.8	15.1
Sample size (people)	3001	2146	3001	2146

As Table 9.6 shows, the type of victimisation female participants were 'very worried' about is quite different from the type of victimisation both the sample as a whole and male participants were 'very worried' about. Overall, Table 9.6 shows that women were more likely than men to report that they were 'very worried' about all forms of victimisation, but they were much more worried about sexual assault, being attacked and robbed, and being assaulted by strangers. When the 'fairly worried' and 'very worried' categories were combined,

³⁰⁶ We have sorted Table 9.6 to bring out the different ranking from Table 9.5 when sex is introduced. All other tables in this section present the data in the same order as Table 9.5.

however, there was little difference with respect to property or household victimisation – roughly equal proportions of men and women had some degree of worry about these. However, the difference in the proportion of women and men reporting that they were ‘fairly worried’ and ‘very worried’ remained with respect to personal victimisation. These findings are similar to those in the 1996 NZNSCV. Men, however, were also asked in the 2001 NZNSCV about being worried about being the victim of sexual assault or rape. Eleven percent of men said that they were ‘very worried’ about this.

It may be, of course, that men are more reluctant than women to admit to being worried about victimisation. It may be, too, that women are more inclined than men to describe themselves as ‘very worried’, while men are more muted in their response, and put the same emotion into the ‘fairly worried’ category. Even so, it seems unlikely that these possibilities would account for the substantial and consistent sex differences observed with respect to worry about personal victimisation.

The relationship between worry about victimisation and age was more unexpected. In general terms, as Table 9.7 demonstrates, worry tends to decrease with age. For virtually all types of victimisation, a smaller proportion of those aged 60 and over than younger age groups said that they were ‘very worried’ about being a victim.³⁰⁷ This may be because they have less active lifestyles (they are certainly less likely to go out in their neighbourhood alone after dark) or because they take more precautions against being the victim of property offences. The exception to the above was that 15 and 16 year olds were the least worried age group about having some of their belongings stolen: 10% said this, compared with 13% of those aged 60 and over.

At the other end of the spectrum, those aged 17 to 24 were fairly similar to those aged 25 to 59 in their worry about property offending (with the exception of having some of their belongings stolen where they were the most worried group), but 15 and 16 year olds were most worried about being attacked and robbed, about being assaulted by strangers and about being sexually assaulted or raped. This may be because they are more frequently in public places (many certainly said they went out in their neighbourhood alone after dark, though other older age groups said this too). The 15 and 16 year olds were also more likely to be ‘very worried’ about being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver. There was not much difference between the 17 to 24 year olds and the 25 to 39 year olds with respect to personal victimisation.

307 Using a very different type of method (interviews with elderly people who were recipients of the services of community nurses), White (2000) found high levels of anxiety about crime among the elderly: 40% said that they were frightened to leave their home. The majority also said that they were more worried about crime than about their health or money.

Table 9.7 Level of worry about being a victim by age: percentages

Type of victimisation	Very worried					Very worried and fairly worried combined				
	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+
Being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver	32.9	24.2	26.8	21.6	16.7	59.9	61.8	62.0	59.2	46.0
Having your house burgled	19.7	24.7	24.4	23.1	16.3	51.0	62.2	60.8	59.1	46.9
Being attacked and robbed	29.3	26.1	23.2	17.9	15.2	48.8	44.5	41.4	37.8	33.8
Being sexually assaulted/raped	37.6	28.0	23.8	16.2	13.4	45.6	42.1	36.5	27.7	23.9
Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into	14.5	26.3	22.0	19.6	13.4	38.1	53.4	52.0	50.0	38.6
Having some of your belongings stolen	10.1	26.4	20.5	19.9	13.0	53.0	62.9	56.9	55.2	43.2
Having your car stolen	15.2	23.1	20.6	18.6	14.6	35.1	51.3	52.6	49.1	40.7
Having your home or property damaged by vandals	20.0	21.1	20.0	18.0	14.3	46.2	47.1	45.7	43.4	36.9
Being assaulted by strangers	29.2	23.0	20.4	16.6	11.7	52.1	45.1	39.3	34.9	28.4
Being assaulted by people you know	14.3	11.9	12.2	8.4	5.0	27.6	22.2	19.4	15.7	8.1
Being assaulted because of your race	13.6	11.7	12.7	8.1	4.7	31.1	23.9	20.9	15.3	9.5
Sample size (people)	155	552	1544	1636	1258	155	552	1544	1636	1258

The differences between ethnic groups and worry about victimisation are set out in Table 9.8. The most striking feature in Table 9.8 is the very high reported levels of worry amongst Pacific and Māori participants and among those participants of 'other' ethnic groups.³⁰⁸ In fact, there was a much higher proportion of Pacific and Māori participants than New Zealand European/European participants saying both that they were 'very worried' about every type of victimisation and that they were 'very' or 'fairly worried'. This indicates that Pacific and Māori participants were not only more likely to express some level of anxiety, but that their anxiety was more intense.

It is also clear, though unsurprising, that Māori, those of 'other' ethnic groups and, especially, Pacific participants were much more likely than New Zealand European/European participants to be 'very worried' about being assaulted on account of their race. Indeed, these figures were higher, and for Pacific participants were much higher, than for the combined figures of 'very worried' and 'fairly worried' for New Zealand European/European participants.

³⁰⁸ In contrast, in Canada, Weinrath (1999) found that although the rates of violent victimisation were higher for Canadian Aboriginals than for non-Aboriginals, there were no differences in their levels of fear.

Table 9.8 Level of worry about being a victim by ethnicity: percentages

	NZ European/European		Māori		Pacific peoples		Other	
	Very worried	Very worried and fairly worried combined	Very worried	Very worried and fairly worried combined	Very worried	Very worried and fairly worried combined	Very worried	Very worried and fairly worried combined
Being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver	17.3	54.1	41.8	70.4	67.7	83.9	28.6	64.4
Having your house burgled	17.2	54.4	35.6	63.5	60.5	81.9	33.6	63.1
Being attacked and robbed	15.7	34.9	33.2	52.4	62.6	76.2	28.4	47.6
Being sexually assaulted/raped	15.6	27.3	34.5	44.8	60.3	69.1	26.9	42.2
Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into	15.3	45.6	31.5	56.0	56.2	76.0	27.1	48.3
Having some of your belongings stolen	15.0	51.3	32.0	63.7	49.8	74.8	26.2	58.8
Having your car stolen	14.3	44.8	31.8	57.5	57.1	76.5	25.4	53.1
Having your home or property damaged by vandals	13.6	39.1	32.2	55.2	60.1	79.8	23.8	49.5
Being assaulted by strangers	13.9	32.6	28.3	47.7	54.9	70.4	24.5	47.7
Being assaulted by people you know	6.8	12.0	17.0	31.1	32.2	52.4	14.0	22.8
Being assaulted because of your race	6.0	12.4	18.1	29.5	39.7	54.4	15.5	34.6
Being racially harassed on the street	4.5	12.3	11.7	25.5	37.1	55.2	15.7	35.4
Sample size (people)	3629		922		745		236	

There were also clear differences between ethnic groups in being worried about being racially harassed on the street. Only 17% of all participants said that they were either 'very worried' or 'fairly worried' about this, but the level of concern amongst Māori and Pacific participants and participants of 'other' ethnic groups was much higher. Indeed, whereas only five percent of New Zealand European/European reported being 'very worried', 12% of Māori, 16% of 'other' ethnic groups, and as many as 37% of Pacific participants said that they were. When those who were 'fairly worried' were added, 55% of Pacific participants, 35% of 'other' ethnic groups, and 26% of Māori participants said they were 'fairly worried' or 'very worried', compared with only 12% of New Zealand European/European participants. On these data, racial harassment is perceived as a significant problem by ethnic minority groups within New Zealand.³⁰⁹

Women of all ethnicities were more likely to be 'very worried' about almost all items than men of the same ethnicities. For example, 20% of New Zealand European/European women, 41% of Māori women and 71% of Pacific women were 'very worried' about having their house burgled; the comparable figures for men were 15%, 30% and 50% respectively.³¹⁰ However, across all the forms of victimisation asked about, a greater proportion of Pacific women than Māori women were 'very worried', while Māori women were in turn more likely than New Zealand European/European women to be 'very worried'.

Table 9.9 shows the proportion of those within each socio-economic group who were concerned about being the victim of each type of victimisation asked about. The 1996 NZNSCV found that there was a fairly direct relationship between lower socio-economic status and worry about victimisation, which reached statistical significance across all offence categories. In relation to violence but not property offending, those in lower socio-economic groups were also more likely to be 'fairly worried'. However, this pattern is less clear-cut in the 2001 NZNSCV.

Solo parents tended to be more likely to report that they were 'very worried' about victimisation: for example, around a third reported that they were 'very worried' about burglary, compared with 16% of those living alone, 18% of couples without children and 23% of couples with children.

309 Kershaw et al. (2000) found that in the 2000 British Crime Survey, Black and Asian participants were very much more worried about racially motivated attacks than White participants.

310 The exceptions were that New Zealand European/European men were just as likely as New Zealand European/European women to be 'very worried' about having their car stolen, having their car damaged or broken into, or having their belongings stolen.

Table 9.9 Level of concern about being a victim by socio-economic status: percentages

Type of victimisation	Not spec.	Very worried						Very worried and fairly worried combined						Not spec.
		10-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-74	75-90	10-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-74	75-90	
Being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver	33.6	24.2	27.9	27.0	17.6	17.1	12.7	59.3	60.9	59.2	55.9	54.8	48.2	61.6
Having your house burgled	33.1	24.2	26.3	24.2	19.5	14.7	14.5	58.1	59.2	58.2	55.3	56.8	50.5	58.0
Being attacked and robbed	29.7	22.8	26.4	22.5	16.6	13.2	13.6	40.9	45.9	41.4	37.1	32.4	27.3	48.6
Being sexually assaulted/raped	29.9	21.5	24.6	23.2	18.0	13.3	11.1	30.9	36.2	35.1	31.4	25.6	22.7	42.4
Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into	27.8	19.9	23.8	22.1	17.4	14.1	13.0	46.0	49.9	53.8	44.4	48.0	43.2	46.8
Having some of your belongings stolen	30.6	20.3	22.5	20.8	15.9	14.6	10.4	57.0	55.7	55.2	51.4	51.5	46.5	61.5
Having your car stolen	24.4	21.7	22.6	20.7	16.8	12.4	12.2	49.2	51.4	52.2	46.5	45.9	37.2	44.4
Having your home or property damaged by vandals	31.5	19.6	22.9	21.0	14.0	12.2	8.5	44.0	48.5	46.0	38.6	41.0	30.4	51.3
Being assaulted by strangers	26.5	20.0	22.9	19.9	14.4	12.8	10.2	36.7	42.7	41.0	34.2	30.3	26.5	43.6
Being assaulted by people you know	14.9	11.8	12.9	10.6	5.9	5.9	6.0	18.2	23.1	16.5	12.1	10.9	9.8	29.5
Being assaulted because of your race	16.1	8.8	13.1	12.0	5.9	5.9	5.7	16.8	21.9	19.9	14.3	13.7	9.1	27.3
Sample size (people)	425	889	949	1044	860	722	258	889	949	1044	860	722	258	425

Worry about victimisation is generally said to be higher in cities and other urban areas than in rural regions (O'Mahony and Quinn 1999; Adams and Serpe 2000). The data from the 2001 NZNSCV showed this too. For example, those living in Auckland were more likely than those living elsewhere to say that they were 'very worried' about their house being burgled – almost a third (31%) said this.³¹¹ They were also more likely to say that they were 'very worried' about being sexually assaulted or raped (more than a quarter [27%] said this), about being attacked and robbed (more than a quarter [26%] said this), about being assaulted by a stranger (almost a quarter [23%] said this) and about being assaulted because of their race or ethnic group (15% said this). The levels of worry expressed by those living in the Upper North Island followed a similar pattern.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, almost two-fifths (38%) of repeat burglary victims said they were 'very worried' about their house being burgled, as were almost a third (31%) of those who had been the victim of one burglary. However, perhaps more surprisingly, almost two-fifths (37%) of repeat burglary victims said they were 'very worried' about being attacked or robbed, compared with only just over a quarter (26%) of the repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim. A greater proportion of repeat burglary victims than repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim also said they were 'very worried' about being assaulted by strangers and about being sexually assaulted or raped. However, around a fifth of both repeat burglary victims and repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said they were 'very worried' about being assaulted because of their race or ethnic group.

In summary, women irrespective of age and ethnicity, were more likely than men to report than they were very worried about all forms of victimisation. Pacific and Māori participants were also more likely than New Zealand European/European participants to report than they were very worried about all forms of victimisation. On the other hand, worry tended to decrease with age. Clearly, many of these variables interact with one another and it is not always clear which is the most important.³¹² However, regression analyses have not been carried out to identify which are the most important demographic variables in predicting those most worried about victimisation. Clearly, it would be worthwhile investigating this further.

9.6 Other worries

It is possible that expressions of worry about victimisation are related to wider feelings of worries about other things and so what is really being expressed by participants is a kind of social vulnerability. To provide some basis for assessing the significance of the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV about worries about victimisation, participants were asked how worried they were about a range of accidents and misfortunes. The results are presented in Table 9.10.

311 The corresponding figure for other metropolitan urban areas was 16%; for other main urban areas, it was 22%; for secondary urban areas, it was 21%; and for minor urban and rural areas, it was 19%.

312 Carcach and Mukherjee (1999), for example, using data from the Australian Women's Safety Survey, found that women's fear of crime was greater among those with low incomes, those who had experienced violence, older women and women with partners, particularly those who had been the victims of 'domestic violence'.

Table 9.10 Worries about accidents and misfortunes: percentages

Type of misfortune	Very worried	Fairly worried	Not very worried	Not at all worried
You or someone else in your household becoming seriously ill	24.0	30.2	33.1	12.4
You or someone else in your household being seriously injured in an accident in your home	21.2	19.7	36.7	22.0
Being unable to cope with financial debts	16.2	25.1	35.3	22.6
You or someone in your household losing their job	13.5	21.7	29.6	19.6

Sample size (people): 5,147.

Table 9.10 shows that almost a quarter of participants were ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone else in their household becoming seriously ill and that a fifth were ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone else in their household being seriously injured in an accident in their home. A higher proportion of repeat victims of both burglary and violent offences said that they were ‘very worried’ about each of these misfortunes: for example, around a third of both groups said they were ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone else in their household becoming seriously ill; and more than a quarter said they were ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone else in their household being seriously injured in an accident in their home. However, the greatest differences were in the two misfortunes listed in Table 9.10 which relate to financial hardships. Almost a third (32%) of repeat burglary victims and over a quarter (28%) of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said that they were ‘very worried’ about being unable to cope with financial debt; and around a fifth of each group said they were ‘very worried’ about them or someone in their household losing their job.

Younger people were more worried than those aged 60 and over about each of these misfortunes; lower socio-economic groups were more worried than higher socio-economic groups;³¹³ and Māori and Pacific participants were more likely to report being ‘very worried’ than New Zealand European/European participants. The Pacific participants were also more likely than Māori participants to report being ‘very worried’. Women were slightly more likely than men to say that they were ‘very worried’ about each of these issues. This was so, irrespective of age and irrespective of ethnicity.

The pattern with respect to living situation was less clear-cut. For example, those living within extended families or with their family and solo parents were more likely than other household groupings to be ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone else in the household getting seriously ill; and those living within extended families, solo parents and couples with children were more likely than other household grouping to be ‘very worried’ about themselves or someone in their household being seriously injured in an accident in their home and to be worried that they or someone else in their household would lose their job. On the other hand, single parents were more likely than others to be very worried about being unable to cope with financial debts.

313 Pantazis (2000) also found that poor people were more worried than others about money, job loss and the like.

As in the 1996 NZNSCV,³¹⁴ this means that levels of worries about victimisation are similar to levels of worries about other things. Participants tended to be just as worried about the prospect of serious illness or a serious accident in the home as they were about being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, their house being broken into, being attacked and robbed, being sexually assaulted or raped, or having their car broken into or damaged. Clearly some groups were more worried about these than others. However, as Young et al. noted (1997, 125), many of the differences observed in levels of worry about both victimisation and other social misfortunes probably have a common origin – greater vulnerability to victimisation and to social misfortunes as well as greater difficulty in withstanding their effects. Thus, it is scarcely surprising that the young, lower socio-economic groups, women, Māori, Pacific peoples and repeat victims have greater levels of worry in all areas. Being worried about victimisation, then, is not something out of the ordinary: it is simply part of a broader pattern of worries.

9.7 Making sense of concerns about victimisation

There is no doubt that the impact of concerns about victimisation can be profound. It has been noted already that some groups say that they never walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark. Women and those aged 60 or over were the most likely to say this. Data from the 2001 NZNSCV are not able to say why this is so. Women and those aged 60 or over may feel too unsafe to do so. But, equally, they may not want to go out, they may have nowhere to go, they may feel too ill or they may not have sufficient resources. However, such findings are often interpreted as indicating ‘fear of crime’ and certainly early research on ‘fear of crime’ (Hough and Mayhew, 1983; Maxfield, 1985, 1987a) suggested that the fears of women and the elderly were ‘exaggerated’ and ‘irrational’ because these groups were thought to be least at risk of becoming a victim. Of course, strictly speaking this supposed relationship (or lack of it) between ‘fear of crime’ and the risk of victimisation was really between worry about victimisation and the risk of victimisation. Rephrased, this relationship is much more understandable. When women or the elderly have to walk alone after dark in any neighbourhood, it is quite reasonable to be concerned about a possible attack – they are, after all, as a group more vulnerable if attacked than men and the young. They know too that if they are attacked it is likely to have a severe impact upon them. However, we have to note here that, in the 2001 NZNSCV, although women as a group were more worried about victimisation than men as a group, those aged 60 and over were not more worried about victimisation than younger age groups. On the other hand, Pacific and Māori participants were more worried about victimisation than New Zealand European/European participants. How can we make sense of this?

Young et al. (1997) explored worry about victimisation by examining and its relationship with vulnerability and social disadvantage, with the experience of victimisation and with the risk of victimisation.³¹⁵ We have already presented in Table 9.11 participants’ responses to how

314 Two questions in the 1996 NZNSCV about health were combined into one in the 2001 NZNSCV and the question about being worried about someone in your household having a road accident was not asked.

315 Lupton (1999a) challenged the literature which describes people’s fear as rational or otherwise by arguing that we need to explore the cultural representations and the different levels of meaning that contribute to the constitution of fear. This requires a more qualitative methodology and so we are not able to explore this suggestion in this survey.

worried they were about certain accidents and misfortunes happening to them or to someone in their household. From this, it was apparent that some participants seemed to be just as worried about the prospect of serious illness or an accident in the home as they were about being involved in various types of victimisation. We speculated there that the reason for this was likely to be the difficulty such groups had or would have in withstanding the impact of such accidents or misfortune. Because of the close relationship between the experience of victimisation and the risk of victimisation, we elaborate in the following section only on the relationship between worry about victimisation and the experience of victimisation.

9.7.1 Worry about victimisation and the experience of victimisation

Evidence on the relationship between actual victimisation and ‘fear of crime’ (or worry about victimisation in the terms of the 2001 NZNSCV) is somewhat equivocal. Some studies (for example, Box et al. 1988) suggest that victimisation is inversely related to levels of fear, and that this may be because, once people have been victimised, they take more precautions against crime and, therefore, become less worried about it. A number of other studies, however, have found a positive relationship between the experience of victimisation and levels of fear. For example, Hough (1995) found a clear, positive link between the actual experience of victimisation and concern about victimisation.³¹⁶ The 1996 NZNSCV also found ‘a clear positive relationship between fear and actual victimisation’ (Young et al 1997, 123) although it went on to state that this relationship was ‘strong and positive’ for property offending but ‘weaker and more equivocal’ for violent offending.³¹⁷

The degree of worry reported by those who had been the victim of a particular offence over the survey period was compared with that of those who had not been a victim and also with those who were repeat victims.³¹⁸ Those who had been burgled in the survey period were more likely to be ‘very worried’ about burglary: 31% of those burgled once and 42% of repeat burglary victims said this, compared with 21% of those not burgled. And those burgled once and repeat burglary victims were less likely to be ‘not very worried’ or ‘not at all worried’ than those not previously burgled: the figures were 33%, 28% and 44% respectively. The relationship between being the victim of a motor vehicle offence and worry about being the victim of such an offence followed a similar pattern.

In more general terms, the more the participant had experienced any type of property offence, the more likely they were to report that they were ‘very worried’ about their house being burgled. For example, 20% of those who had experienced no property offences said they were ‘very worried’ about this, compared with 31% of those who had experienced two property offences, 33% of those who had experienced three property offences and 36% of those who had experienced four or more property offences. Similarly, 17% of those who had experienced no property offences said they were ‘very worried’ about having their car stolen, compared with 25% of those who had experienced two property offences, 30% of those who

316 Local crime surveys in urban areas in Britain also found pockets of heavy victimisation, particularly in inner city areas and poor local authority housing estates, which disproportionately affected lower socio-economic groups and ethnic minorities, and which were positively related to high levels of fear (Jones et al. 1986; Smith 1987, 1989).

317 On the other hand, Robinson et al. (1989, 71-72) did not find an inverse relationship between fear and the risk of victimisation and concluded that differences in levels of fear could not be directly attributed to differences in risk.

318 The analysis of victimisation discussed in this section includes ‘non-relevant’ offences.

had experienced three property offences and 34% of those who had experienced four or more. And only 17% of those who had experienced no property offences said they were 'very worried' about having some of their belongings stolen, compared with 25% of those who had experienced two property offences, 30% of those who had experienced three property offences and 36% of those who had experienced four or more.

Thirty percent of both those who had experienced three property offences and those who had experienced four or more property offences also said that they were 'very worried' about being attacked and robbed (compared with 20% of both those who had experienced no property offences and those who had experienced one property offence). Also, 29% of those who had experienced four or more violent offences said that they were very worried about being attacked and robbed (compared with 20% of both those who had experienced no violent offences and 24% of those who had experienced between one and three violent offences).

There was not much difference between those who had not been the victim of theft from the person and those who had been victimised once in the extent to which they worried about being attacked and robbed. But there was a considerable difference between these and those victimised in this way two or three times. However, there was not much difference between those assaulted and those not assaulted and their worry about being assaulted by strangers.

More generally, repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were not more or less likely than other victims or non-victims to say that they were 'very worried' about being assaulted by strangers. Similarly, except for those who had experienced four or more such violent offences where the numbers are probably too small to be reliable, victims and non-victims were no more or less likely to state that they were 'very worried' about being assaulted by people they knew. On the other hand, repeat victims of both property offences and violent offences by those not well known to the victim were more likely than non-victims and victims of only one offence to say that they were 'very worried' about being assaulted because of their race or ethnic group. There was no relationship between prior property or violent victimisations and being very worried about being sexually assaulted or raped. There did not seem to be a relationship between being 'very worried' about being assaulted by strangers and previous assault victimisation, though those who had been victims of theft from the person two or more times were more likely to say that they were 'very worried' about being 'assaulted and robbed' than those who had never experienced this type of victimisation or who had experienced it only once.

In general, therefore, it can be concluded from these data that the experience of victimisation, as in some previous research and in the 1996 NZNSCV, does have an effect upon people's levels of worry about victimisation, but that the impact may be stronger for property victimisation than for violent victimisation. However, data in Chapter 2 showed that although the prevalence rates for all victimisations and for 'any violence' were similar for women and men, the incidence rates were higher for women. Data in Chapter 2 also showed that both the incidence and prevalence rates for all victimisations and for 'any violence' were higher for the younger age groups, especially those under 40, than for the older age groups. And data in Chapter 2 showed further that the incidence and prevalence rates for all victimisations and for 'any violence' were highest for Māori, both women and men. The prevalence rates for all victimisations and for 'any violence' for New Zealand

European/European participants (both women and men) and for Pacific participants (both women and men) were not so different, but the incidence rates were higher for Pacific men and women. The higher levels of worry about victimisation in these groups, therefore, seems to be rooted in their actual experience of victimisation.

9.8 Summary of key findings on concerns about victimisation and safety

In relation to perceptions of crime, this chapter has shown that:

- Just over a third of the participants thought that crime was a problem in their neighbourhood. This represents little change from the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV.
- Amongst those who thought this, burglary was viewed as a problem significantly more often than any other type of victimisation.
- There was no clear relationship between either the incidence or prevalence of victimisation and people's perceptions of local crime problems, though there was a relationship between worry about victimisation and perceptions of local crime problems.
- People's perceptions of local problems did not focus exclusively or primarily upon crime. They were often concerned about other features of the neighbourhood – speeding cars, teenagers hanging around, rubbish and litter lying about, uncontrolled dogs and broken windows and graffiti.
- Almost 60% of the participants thought that crime had remained much the same in their own neighbourhood over the last 12 months, and only three percent thought that it had increased.
- Repeat burglary victims were significantly more likely than others to say that there was a crime problem in their neighbourhood.
- Overall, these findings represent little change over the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV.

In relation to worries about victimisation, the 2001 NZNSCV found that:

- The majority of participants said that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and felt safe doing so, and even most of those who did not walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark said that they thought they would feel safe if they did so.
- Women, however, irrespective of age or ethnicity, were significantly less likely to say that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and were significantly less likely to say that they felt safe doing so.

- Those aged 60 and over were significantly less likely to say that they walked alone in their neighbourhood after dark and there were some minor differences between them and other age groups in their perceptions of safety while doing so.
- When participants were asked how much they worried about being the victim of twelve specific types of victimisation, around a fifth of the sample said that they were 'very worried' in all but three of them.
- Of these victimisations, participants worried most about being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their house broken into, being attacked and robbed, being sexually assaulted or raped, having their car broken into or damaged, having their belongings stolen, having their car stolen, having their home or property damaged by vandals and being assaulted by strangers. They were least worried about being assaulted by people they knew, being assaulted because of their race, and being racially harassed on the street.
- There was a clear difference here between men and women. Women were most worried about being sexually assaulted or raped, being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, their house being burgled, being attacked and robbed, and being assaulted by a stranger. Men, on the other hand, were most worried about having their car damaged or broken into, their house being burgled, being involved in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver, having their belongings stolen and having their car stolen.
- Women were generally more likely than men to report that they were 'very worried' about all forms of victimisation.
- Worry about victimisation tended to decrease with age.
- There were very high levels of worry about victimisation amongst Pacific participants. Māori participants also tended to be more worried than New Zealand European/European participants. 'Other' ethnic groups were also more worried than New Zealand European/European participants, though slightly less so than Māori.
- Women of all ethnicities were more likely to be 'very worried' about almost all forms of victimisation than men of the same ethnicities. However, across all the forms of victimisation asked about, a greater proportion of Pacific women than Māori women were 'very worried', while Māori women were in turn more likely than New Zealand European/European women to be 'very worried'.
- There were significant differences between ethnic groups in worry about being racially harassed on the street and being assaulted on account of race, with Māori, Pacific participants and participants of 'other ethnicities' expressing much higher levels of worry in these respects. Pacific participants, in particular, expressed very high levels of worry about these.

- Levels of worry about crime were generally no higher than worries about certain accidents or misfortunes. For example, participants tended to be just as worried about the prospect of serious illness or an accident in the home.
- Repeat burglary victims were much more likely than others to say that they felt (or would feel) 'very unsafe' walking in their neighbourhood after dark, that they were 'very worried' about a range of offences included burglary and assaults and that they were 'very worried' about each of a range of misfortunes. Most of these differences were not as apparent for repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim.
- Higher levels of worry about victimisation tended to be rooted in participants' actual experience of victimisation.
- Overall, these findings represent little change over the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV.

9.9 Policy implications

The 'fear of crime' can have adverse effects on people's lives. However, Lee (1999) cautions that amassing knowledge about the 'fear of crime' may itself produce fear. In a somewhat similar vein, we have to be aware that there is a considerable amount of money to be made from selling 'fear of crime'. While taking precautions against victimisation is sensible and should be promoted, the public also need to be well informed about the actual risks of different types of victimisation. The roots of concern about victimisation are often misinformation. As Warr (2000, 483) states, 'the gap that remains between the state of knowledge and public awareness is not merely unfortunate, it is dangerous'. One clear policy implication from this research, therefore, is the need to provide reliable and clear information to New Zealanders about their risk of victimisation. However, in the main, the 2001 NZNSCV showed that concern about victimisation was related to actual levels of victimisation. For most, therefore, concern about crime is a rational response to the risks and consequences of victimisation.

Another implication of the research findings relates to the fact that policy initiatives aimed at reducing fear of victimisation must move beyond simply identifying which groups are most afraid, to addressing the different contexts which give rise to these fears (for an elaboration of this point see Tulloch 2000). An example of this comes from Walklate's (1998) research. Using in-depth interviews over a long time-scale, she found that people's worry about crime depended on their relationship with their local community and that 'trust' was key in determining who was and who was not worried about crime. In one area, residents trusted the local people and were not worried; in the other, the absence of solidarity resulted in feeling worried. Thus Walklate (1998, 568) argues that policy responses to the 'fear of crime' need to be 'locally nuanced' rather than universal.

In one of the few papers specifically about reducing crime and 'fear of crime' in New Zealand, Doeksen (1997) echoes this point. He advocates changes in planning and design to revive 'communal responsibility' through 'shared ownership'. This fits well with Wilson and Kelling's (1982) broken windows thesis which suggests that 'signs of disorder' like graffiti,

public drunkenness and abandoned cars lead not only to higher crime rates but to higher levels of 'fear of crime' and that, simply by reducing or eliminating these signs, both victimisation itself and worry about victimisation are reduced. There is some empirical support for this.³¹⁹

There is also some empirical support for relatively straightforward changes reducing people's 'fear of crime'. Painter and Farrington (2001), for example, interviewed, at two different times, samples of 12-17 year olds³²⁰ in two areas of Dudley. In one area – the experimental – street lighting had been improved before the second interview and in the other – the control – it had not. Painter and Farrington contrasted the views of the two samples over this time period.³²¹ They found not only that young people thought that crime had decreased after street lighting was improved, but that their 'fear of crime' after dark had decreased too in contrast to an increase in the fear of crime in the control samples.³²²

More broadly, there is at least some evidence that community policing can play a role in reducing 'fear of crime'. For example, research in the USA showed that community policing reduced 'fear of crime' in five out of six research sites (Skogan 1994, quoted in Crawford 1998).³²³

319 For example, Schweitzer et al. (1999) found that a sense of community was more important than actual crime in predicting 'fear of crime' and Alvi et al. (2001) found that neighbourhood disorder and satisfaction with the neighbourhood had a moderately strong effect on women's perceptions of safety but that prior victimisation had a negligible effect.

320 The samples were similar but not identical at these two times.

321 They were asked about their experience of both offending and victimisation in their local housing estate at both time points and various scales were constructed.

322 However, importantly, the young people's victimisation rate did not actually decrease more in the experimental area than in the control area. In trying to make sense of these data, Painter and Farrington asked the young people some open-ended questions about their feelings of safety. They comment as follows: 'the striking feature of the qualitative data is that it suggests that the victimisation of young people was mostly perpetrated by older people' (2000, 279). 'Thus, young people's self-report offending decreased while adults' victimisation of young people (mainly pestering) did not.

323 However, Bennett (1994, also cited in Crawford 1998) did not find such positive results in Britain.

10 Preventing victimisation

10.1 Introduction

Being concerned about crime and whether or not people feel safe undoubtedly leads them to take a variety of protective or preventive strategies. This chapter describes first the measures participants take to protect themselves when they are out at night (Section 10.2) and then the measures they take to protect their home (Section 10.3). It then summarises the chapter's key findings (Section 10.4) and briefly discusses their policy implications, especially with respect to repeat victims (Section 10.5).

Not all the information collected in the 1996 NZNSCV on prevention was collected in the 2001 NZNSCV. However, we have carried out more detailed analysis on the responses to some questions and also conducted some additional analyses: for example, the findings have been analysed on the basis of the broad region the participant lived in and its level of urbanisation. Throughout, where appropriate, this chapter contrasts the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV with those in the 1996 NZNSCV and, on occasions, with other research.

10.2 Preventive measures against personal victimisation

Participants were asked how often they took specific measures to protect themselves against victimisation when they were out at night. A large proportion of participants said they took some precautionary measure, as Table 10.1 shows.

The most common strategies were using a car or taxi rather than walking (with more than two-fifths of the participants saying that they always did this); staying away from certain streets, areas or activities (with more than a quarter of the participants saying that they always did this); and avoiding going out alone (with more than a quarter of the participants saying that they always did this). Just over a fifth said that they always tried not to walk near certain sorts of people and almost a fifth said that they always tried not to use buses or trains. This general pattern, including the proportion of participants saying that, on occasions, they carried a weapon (or something that could be used as a weapon) in order to protect themselves against victimisation,³²⁴ has changed very little since the 1996 NZNSCV.

324 Of course, many of the articles which people routinely carry on their person (including belts, keys, umbrellas etc) could be used as a weapon, but the point about this question is that participants were asked whether or not it was carried for the purpose of protecting themselves from victimisation.

Table 10.1 Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night: percentages

Type of measure	Always	Mostly	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	41.6	23.1	13.2	8.6	10.8
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	28.4	24.0	21.8	11.5	11.3
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	28.3	26.9	17.9	12.2	12.8
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	20.8	18.9	27.6	15.0	14.7
Try not to use buses or trains ³²⁵	18.5	6.7	5.9	8.6	20.9
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	4.6	3.1	5.3	11.2	74.1
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	2.6	0.9	2.1	4.6	88.1

Sample size (people): 5,147.

The extent to which precautionary measures were taken when participants were out at night differed a great deal according to their demographic characteristics. Consistent with their greater concerns about crime, women were substantially more likely than men to adopt every one of the precautions listed in Table 10.1 (see Table A10.1a in Appendix 1). For example:

- more than half of the female participants (compared with just over a quarter of male participants) said that they would always use a car or a taxi rather than walk;
- more than two-fifths of the female participants (compared with 12% of the male participants) said that they always went out with someone else rather by themselves;
- two-fifths of the female participants (compared with less than a fifth of the male participants) said that they always stayed away from certain streets, areas or activities; and
- almost a third of the female participants (compared with 11% of the male participants) said that they always tried not to walk near certain sorts of people.

But perhaps the most significant finding to emerge from this analysis is that female participants were far more likely than male participants to report carrying a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon to protect themselves against victimisation: seven percent of women (compared with just two percent of men) said that they always did this. Only two-thirds of the female participants (compared with 82% of the male participants) said

325 Almost two-fifths (39%) of the responses to this item were coded as 'not applicable'. It seems likely that these responses were from people who rarely traveled by bus or train by choice or because they did not have public transport available in their local community and so felt that a question asking how often they tried not to use these services was not something they should answer. However, it is also possible that some of these responses could be treated as akin to participants saying that they always avoided using buses or trains since one of the reasons for not traveling by bus or train might be concerns about their safety.

that they never did this. Thus one in three women, on occasions, carried a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon to protect themselves at night, compared with less than one in five men. Precise data on this was not provided in the Report of the 1996 NZNSCV, although Young et al. (1997, 131) stated that the proportion of women adopting each measure was higher than it was for men.

Patterns in relation to ethnicity were less clear-cut but tended to point to Pacific participants being more likely to take precautions (see Table A10.1b in Appendix 1). For example:

- more than two-fifths of Pacific participants (compared with just under a third of Māori participants and just over a quarter of New Zealand European/European participants) said that they always went out with someone else rather than by themselves;
- more than a third of Pacific participants reported that they always tried not to use buses or trains compared with under a fifth of both Māori and New Zealand European/European participants; and
- Pacific participants were more likely than both Māori and New Zealand European/European participants to use a personal alarm of some sort: six percent compared with four percent and two percent respectively.

There was little difference with respect to ethnicity in the proportion reporting that they always carried a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon. In the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV, Young et al. (1997) reported that Māori were significantly more likely than New Zealand European/European participants to go out with others rather than by themselves; this did not emerge in the 2001 NZNSCV. Indeed, as noted above, it was Pacific participants who were much more likely to say they always did this. It was also reported in the 1996 NZNSCV that New Zealand European/European participants were significantly more likely than Māori to avoid certain sorts of people or areas; this finding was also not repeated in the 2001 NZNSCV.³²⁶ The proportions of the different ethnicities saying in the 2001 NZNSCV that they always did this were very similar.

A similar pattern to the above emerged when sex and ethnicity were considered together (see Table A10.1c in Appendix 1). For example:

- well over a half of Pacific women said that they always went out with someone else rather than by themselves, compared with less than a half of Māori women and just over two-fifths of New Zealand European/European women;
- Pacific men were more likely than men of other ethnic groups to report that they always went out with someone else rather than by themselves: more than a quarter gave this response compared with 15% of Māori men and 10% of New Zealand European/European men;

³²⁶ When we recalculated these data to take account of multiple ethnicities, these differences between the 1996 NZNSCV and the 2001 NZNSCV held good, at least to some extent. The differences between the various ethnic groups, however, were not as marked.

- Pacific women and Pacific men were much more likely than other ethnicities to report that they always tried not to use buses or trains;
- a higher proportion of Pacific women reported always carrying a personal alarm.

With respect to carrying a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon, there was very little difference according to the women's ethnicity: seven percent of both Pacific and New Zealand European/European women and eight percent of Māori women reported always doing this. However, all of these figures were higher than for men of all ethnicities. The figures for women of different ethnicities reporting that they had never carried a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon were 70% (for Pacific women), 69% (for Māori women) and 66% (for New Zealand European/European women). All of these figures were lower than for men of all ethnicities. Thus some women of all ethnicities said that they carried, on occasions, a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon to protect themselves at night. No data were provided on this in the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV.

In relation to age, the overall trend was clear-cut (see Table A10.1d in Appendix 1): a greater proportion of older age groups than younger age groups reported taking precautions. For example:

- more than half of those aged 60 and over and around two-fifths of those aged 40 to 59 and of those aged 25 to 39 reported that they always used a car or taxi rather than walked, compared with just over a fifth of 15 and 16 year olds and just under a third of 17 to 24 year olds;
- more than a third of those aged 60 and over reported that they always stayed away from certain streets, areas or activities, compared with around a fifth of 15 and 16 year olds and of 17 to 24 year olds; and
- over a fifth of those aged 40 to 59 reported that they always tried not to use buses or trains compared with eight percent of 15 and 16 year olds and 14% of 17 to 24 year olds.

Interestingly, there was not much difference in the proportions reporting that they always carried a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon, though older groups were slightly more likely than younger groups to report this: for example, five percent of those aged 40 to 59, those aged 25 to 39 and those aged 17 to 24 reported this, compared with just three percent of 15 and 16 year olds. Precise data on age differences with respect to the measures taken by people to protect themselves at night were not reported in the 1996 NZNSCV but Young et al. (1997, 132) stated that the age groups most worried about crime took more precautions than those age groups less worried about crime.

Similar patterns emerged when data on age and sex were examined together (see Table A10.1e in Appendix 1). For example:

- whereas around a half of 15 and 16 year old boys and 17 to 24 year old men said that they always or mostly went out with someone else rather than by themselves, less than a third of 25 to 39 year old men and just over a quarter of 40 to 59 year old men said this;
- the figures for women were much higher, irrespective of age;
- fewer young people reported always or mostly using a car or taxi rather than walking, but the figure was much higher for young women than it was for young men: more than two-thirds of 15 and 16 year old girls and 17 to 24 year old women reported this, compared with around two-fifths of 15 and 16 year old boys and 17 to 24 year old men;
- most probably linked is the finding that younger people of both sexes (though the figures were higher for young women) were more likely to report that they always or mostly tried not to use buses or trains.

Slightly fewer young men reported never carrying a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon – 78% for 15 and 16 year old boys and 79% for 17 to 24 year old men, compared with 85% for 40 to 59 year old men and 83% for men aged 60 and over. However, there was little difference in the proportion of women saying that they never carried a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon, irrespective of age: around two-thirds of women of all ages said this. This supports the finding quoted earlier: women, irrespective of age, were more likely than men to report carrying a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon to protect themselves at night. Indeed, older women were more likely than young women to report always carrying a weapon or something which could be used as a weapon. No data were provided in the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV on taking protective strategies at night by age and sex combined.³²⁷

We examined whether or not repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim took more precautions than others. There were few differences. However, there were two exceptions:

- fewer repeat victims of this type of violent offence reported that they always used a car or taxi rather than walked (under a third said this, compared with more than two-fifths of those who had experienced no violent offences and almost two-fifths of those who had experienced one such violent offence); and
- a much higher proportion of these repeat victims reported that they always carried a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon (10% said this, compared with four percent of those who had experienced no violent offences and six percent of those who had experienced one such violent offence).

³²⁷ There were no clear trends with respect to socio-economic status and so these data are not presented or discussed.

Indeed, only just over a half of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said that they never carried a weapon or something that could be used as a weapon to protect themselves at night (compared with three-quarters of those who had experienced no violent offences and over two-thirds of those who had experienced one such violent offence). We cannot, of course, say whether or not this was as a result of their victimisation, but it seems likely.

Overall, these data establish a link between levels of concern about crime, perceptions of safety and the taking of protective measures: those demographic groups who reported the highest levels of worry about victimisation – in particular, women and Pacific participants – generally took more measures to protect themselves against victimisation. As Young et al. (1997, 132) note, the sorts of precautionary measures listed in Table 10.1 are readily available and easily adopted by most people. However, taking these measures also undoubtedly had some impact on people's quality of life. And some measures – such as using a car or taxi rather than walking – obviously required access to resources which may explain some of the age and socio-economic differences in the type of precautions taken. We discuss further in Section 10.5 the policy implications of some of these findings.

10.3 Preventive measures against burglary

Burglars choose their targets on the basis of the perceived risk of detection and their perceptions of this are affected to some extent by the existence of physical security measures (Maguire, 1980; Bennett and Wright, 1984). We asked participants, therefore, about the extent to which they had special security measures in their home to protect themselves against burglary. Only nine percent of participants had no particular security measures, although there was a clear difference here with respect to socio-economic status. For example, a greater proportion of those in the lower socio-economic status groups (the figures were 15% for NZSEI unspecified³²⁸ and 12% for both NZSEI 10-29 and NZSEI 30-39) reported having no special security measures, compared with those in the two highest socio-economic status groups (five percent of both NZSEI 60-74 and NZSEI 75-90 said this). A higher proportion of repeat victims of burglary also said that they had no special security measures in place (14%, compared with nine percent of those who had not been the victim of burglary and eight percent of those who had been the victim of burglary once). On the other hand, a lower proportion of the repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said that they had no special security measures in place: only four percent reported this.

Sixteen percent of participants said that they had only one security measure and almost a fifth (19%) said that they had only two. Overall, more than three-quarters (77%) of participants mentioned that they had between one and five security measures. There was little difference in the proportion of participants of different socio-economic statuses saying that they had between one and five measures though there was a slight tendency for those in higher socio-economic status groups to take more security precautions.

328 For information on this scale, see 'Definitions of terms'.

It is likely that it is the type of security measures people have, rather than the number, which provides an indicator of their likely impact on preventing victimisation. The most common types of measures adopted, and the proportion of participants mentioning each one, are set out in Table 10.2.³²⁹

Table 10.2 Percentage of participants mentioning security measures in the home

Type of security measure	
Outside light on a sensor switch	52.4
Doors with double locks or deadlocks	46.9
Safety latch to prevent window fully opening	34.5
Burglar alarm on premises	28.7
Security chain on doors	27.3
Guard dog	24.3
Security markings on household property	24.0
Security bolts on doors	23.5
Lights, radio or television on a timer switch	14.1
Windows with keys to open them	10.2
Security screen on doors	10.0
Surveillance by security firm	7.1
Bars or grills on windows	3.0
None	8.5

Sample size (people): 5,147.

Note: multiple responses possible.

The most common strategies were, in order: having an outside light on a sensor (more than a half of the participants reported this), doors with double locks or deadlocks (almost half of the participants reported this) and safety latches to prevent windows fully opening (more than a third of the participants reported this). The next most common strategies – reported by around a quarter – were burglar alarms, security chains on doors, guard dogs, security markings on household property and security bolts on doors.

The most noticeable changes since the 1996 NZNSCV are that the proportion of participants reporting having a burglar alarm has almost doubled (from 15% to 29%) as has the proportion reporting having surveillance from a security firm (from three percent to seven percent). The proportion of participants reporting having an outside light on a sensor also increased (from 40% to 52%). However, the proportion reporting having doors with double

³²⁹ Other security measures mentioned by a small proportion of participants included security or locked gates, Neighbourhood Watch or surveillance by neighbours, smoke, personal or medical alarms, peepholes in the door and a list of the serial numbers of household equipment.

locks or deadlocks decreased slightly (from 53% to 47%), as did a number of the other commonly-used security measures (such as security latches, chains and bolts).

Table A10.2 in Appendix 1 reports data on the type of security measure taken differed according to participants' socio-economic status and a clear trend emerged. For example, those in higher socio-economic statuses were more likely to report (and, on occasions, were much more likely to report) having all types of security measures except having guard dogs, though there was less difference in the proportions reporting security screens on doors and outside lights on a sensor switch. This represents some change from the findings in the 1996 NZNSCV. Young et al. (1997) reported that lower socio-economic groups were just as likely to have chains on their doors, bars on their windows and guard dogs, but that they were significantly less likely to have burglar alarms, deadlocks, security bolts on their doors, locks and safety latches on their windows, and timer lights or sensor lights. They also reported then that lower socio-economic groups were less likely to mention surveillance by security firms. This remains true: 10% of those in NZSEI 50-59, nine percent of those in NZSEI 60-74 and eight percent of those in NZSEI 75-90 reported that they had surveillance by security firms, compared with only five percent of those in the socio-economic status groups NZSEI unspecified and NZSEI 10-29.

We also examined the type of security measures participants had at the time of the interview according to whether or not they had been the victim of a burglary once or more than once during the previous 12 months. There was a tendency for victims of burglary to be more likely to report having burglar alarms than those who had not been the victims of burglary: 36% of burglary victims and 32% of repeat burglary victims reported this, compared with 28% of those who had not been the victim of burglary. However, a higher proportion of repeat burglary victims reported having no security measures in place: 14% said this, compared with eight percent of both those who had been the victim of burglary once and those who had not been the victim of burglary. This might indicate that offenders targeted these properties because they had fewer or less effective security measures. Some evidence to support this suggestion was presented in Chapter 7.

In addition, we examined the type of security measures participants had according to whether or not they had been the victim of a violent offence once or more than once during the previous 12 months. This showed little difference except for the fact that repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were much more likely to report having guard dogs: 39% of repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim said this, compared with 24% of those who had not been the victim of a violent offence and 26% of those who had been the victim of one such violent offence. They were also much less likely to report having no security measures: only four percent said this, compared with nine percent of those who had not been the victim of a violent offence and eight percent of those who had been the victim of one such violent offence. Again, interpretation of these data is complex but it may indicate that repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim take some additional security measures within their household and that guard dogs are seen as offering protection on the streets as well as within their home.

Despite all these precautionary measures, almost a third (31%) of all participants felt that their house was 'very easy' to break into and more than two-fifths (42%) felt that their house was

‘fairly easy’ to break into – remarkably little change from the figures produced from the 1996 NZNSCV: 29% said that their house was ‘very easy’ to break into and 41% said that their house was ‘fairly easy’ to break into. Only five percent of participants in the 2001 NZNSCV thought that it would be ‘very difficult’ to break into their house (the figure saying this in the 1996 NZNSCV is not cited).

There were some clear demographic differences in the 2001 NZNSCV on this point, but it is important to note before reporting these that we are discussing here perceptual differences and not necessarily objective assessments of the extent to which houses were, in fact, difficult or easy to break into. Thus, for example, around a third of those in the three age groups 17 to 24, 25 to 39 and 40 to 59 saw their house as ‘very easy’ to break into, compared with only 16% of those aged 15 and 16. Similarly, Māori were more likely to see their house as ‘very easy’ to break into (35% said this, compared with 31% of New Zealand European/European and 29% of Pacific participants), and a much higher proportion of Pacific participants saw their house as ‘very difficult’ to break into (18% said this, compared with just three percent of New Zealand European/European and six percent of Māori).³³⁰

Lower socio-economic groups were also a little more likely than higher socio-economic groups to report that their houses were ‘very easy’ to break into; conversely, there was a tendency for fewer of the higher socio-economic groups to see their houses as ‘very difficult’ to break into. A much higher proportion of those living in rural and minor urban areas saw their houses as ‘very easy’ to break into: more than two-fifths (42%) said this compared with over a quarter (between 27% and 29%) of those living in Auckland, in other metropolitan areas and in other main urban areas.³³¹ Those living in the South Island were also more likely to see their houses as very easy to break into: almost two-fifths (38%) said this, compared with under a third (30%) of those living in the Upper North Island and around a quarter (27%) of those living in the Lower North Island.

Victims of repeat burglary tended to see their house as ‘very easy’ to break into: more than two-fifths (41%) said this, compared with under a third of those who had not been the victim of burglary (31%) and of those who had been the victim of burglary once (30%). The figures for repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim were similar to those quoted for victims of repeat burglary.

It is not possible to really unravel why participants described their homes in these terms, but we did ask those who said that entry would be ‘very easy’ or ‘fairly easy’ why their household had not done more to protect itself against burglary. The major reasons are set out in Table 10.3.

The most common reason – given by well over a quarter of participants – was that they saw no need for further security measures, despite their perception that their house was easy to break into, because they thought that the area they lived in was safe. However, the second most common reason given by participants was that they could not afford additional security measures, and the third most common reason was that the property was rented. Presumably

330 We examined the interaction of sex and ethnicity here and the data suggest that the difference relates to ethnicity rather than to sex. Thus, 18% of Pacific female participants and 17% Pacific male participants viewed their house as ‘very difficult’ to break into.

331 For a description of these codings, see ‘Definitions of terms’.

here, participants either did not want to invest their own money in the property or saw security as the responsibility of the landlord. Thirteen percent said they did not do more because their neighbours were at home a lot of the time (or that there was a Neighbourhood Watch scheme in the area); 12% thought that additional precautions would be ineffective and a waste of time; and 12% reported that they did not know what more could be done. Finally, eight percent of participants said that someone was always at home; six percent said that they were not that concerned; five percent reported simple inertia – they could not be bothered or had not got around to taking additional precautions; and five percent said that there was no particular reason for not taking more precautions.³³²

Table 10.3 Major reasons given by participants why their household has not done more to prevent burglary: percentages

Reason	
Area safe/not much crime	31.7
Cannot afford it	17.6
A rented property	14.9
Neighbourhood Watch/ Neighbours home all the time	13.2
Would not work/would not be effective	12.3
Don't know what more can be done ³³³	11.5
Someone always home	8.0
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	5.7
Not that concerned	5.4
No particular reason	5.0

Sample size (people): 3,689.

Note: multiple responses possible.

The rank ordering of reasons for not doing more to protect their household from burglary has changed a little since the 1996 NZNSCV. Then, as in the 2001 NZNSCV, the area being seen as safe was the most commonly-cited reason and not being able to afford security measures was the second most commonly-cited reason. However, the third most commonly-cited reason changed: from 'would not work/ would not be effective' in the 1996 NZNSCV to the property being rented (previously ranked 5th). In the 1996 NZNSCV, 10% of participants cited the property being rented as their reason for not doing more to protect their property compared with 15% in the 2001 NZNSCV.

³³² Other reasons given by a small proportion of participants included not wanting their home to look like a fortress, having a dog, and believing that there was nothing worth stealing.

³³³ In the Report on the 1996 NZNSCV, this response was described as 'Nothing more can be done' (Young et al. 1997, Table 8.3, 134) though the coding notes combined 'Nothing more/don't know what more can be done'. This is somewhat ambiguous (it could mean that everything possible had been done as well as not knowing what more could be done). The coding notes in the 2001 NZNSCV only referred to 'Don't know what more can be done'.

As noted above, socio-economic status had a significant impact on the extent to which security measures were adopted: lower socio-economic groups were more likely to have no security measures. However, in contrast to the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV, lower socio-economic groups were not significantly more likely to say that they could not afford to have security measures (with the exception of NZSEI unspecified). Lower socio-economic groups were also only slightly more likely to give as a reason the fact that the property they lived in was rented (again with the exception of NZSEI unspecified). These data are reported in full in Table A10.3a in Appendix 1.

Not being able to afford security measures was slightly more frequently reported by female participants than by male participants (a fifth of them said this, compared with 15% of male participants – Table A10.3b in Appendix 1 sets out these data in full). This was also much more likely to be reported by Pacific participants (29%) and by Māori participants (22%) than by New Zealand European/European participants (17%). Table A10.3c in Appendix 1 sets out these data in full. Not being able to afford security measures was significantly more frequently reported by Pacific female participants – a third reported this – and by Māori female participants – more than a quarter (26%) reported this. Table A10.3d in Appendix 1 sets out these data in full. Not being able to afford security measures was also more likely to be reported by solo parents (more than a third (34%) gave this as the reason for not having security measures); and almost a quarter (24%) of women in the 25 to 39 age group and more than a fifth (21%) of women in the 17 to 24 age group also gave this as the reason for not having security measures.³³⁴ In addition, almost a third (32%) of beneficiaries reported not being able to afford security measures. This reason was also more frequently given by those living in Auckland, in other metropolitan urban areas and in other main urban areas than by those living in rural and minor urban areas. And it was more frequently given by those living in the North Island than by those living in the South Island.

The other reasons for not having security measures worthy of comment here are that women were slightly less likely than men to give as a reason for not having done more to protect their household their belief that the area they lived in was safe and did not have much crime (29% compared with 34%). Pacific participants, especially female Pacific participants, were also much less likely to give this as a reason. On the other hand, those living as couples (with or without children) were more likely than either solo parents or those living in flats to give the safety of their area as a reason for not doing more to protect their household; and students and the retired were more likely to give this as a reason than beneficiaries.

In addition, a higher proportion of 17 to 24 year olds and 25 to 39 year olds than other age groups gave as a reason for their failure to take more security measures the fact that they lived in rented property (Table A10.3e in Appendix 1 sets out these data in full). This was so, too, for female Pacific participants, for solo parents, for beneficiaries, for students, for those living in Auckland and other metropolitan urban areas and for those living in flats (there are, of course, likely to be overlaps in many of these categories).

Repeat victims of burglary were much more likely than others to say that they could not afford to take security measures: more than two-fifths (42%) said this, compared with just over a fifth (21%) of those who had been the victim of burglary once and 16% of those who

³³⁴ It is, of course, quite likely that most of the solo parents were female and that many of the women in these age groups were solo parents.

had not been the victim of burglary. They were also more likely to give as a reason the fact that they lived in rented property: more than a quarter (26%) said this, compared with under a fifth (19%) of those who had been the victim of burglary once and 14% of those who had not been the victim of a burglary. And they were less likely to give as a reason for not doing more to protect their household their belief that their neighbourhood was safe: 12% said this, compared with 17% of those who had been the victim of a burglary once and more than a third (34%) of those who had not been the victim of a burglary. There were also some, but less marked, differences between repeat victims of violent offences by those not well known to the victim and others: for example, under a quarter (24%) gave as a reason for not doing more to protect their household their belief that their neighbourhood was safe, compared with well over a quarter (28%) of those who had been the victim of one such violent offence and almost a third (32%) of those who had not been the victim of a violent offence.

We have already stated that repeat victims of burglary were more likely than others to have no special security measures. However, they were also more likely to have burglar alarms at the time of the interview. Further, a comparison of the security measures which victims of burglary had in place at the time of their victimisation (Table 7.1, above) with the security measures reported by all households at the time of their interview (Table 10.2) reveals a marked difference between the two. As in the 1996 NZNSCV, the 2001 NZNSCV found that victims of burglary were less likely to have had certain types of security measure at the time of the burglary than were all households at the time of their interview. For example, only 31% of burglary victims had outside sensor security lights at the time of the burglary, compared with 52% of all households at the time of their interview; only 37% had deadlocks or double locks on their doors at the time of the burglary, compared with 47% of all households at the time of their interview; and only 14% had burglar alarms at the time of the burglary, compared with 29% of all households at the time of their interview. On the other hand, there was little difference between the two groups with respect to other types of security measures: for example, 20% of burglary victims had security bolts on their doors at the time of the burglary, compared with 24% of all households at the time of their interview; and 18% of burglary victims had a guard dog at the time of the burglary, compared with 24% of all households at the time of their interview. However, perhaps more important is the fact that 22% of burglary victims had no security measures at all in place at the time of their victimisation, compared with only nine percent of all households at the time of their interview. These data are suggestive of a preventive effect of security measures.

10.4 Summary of key findings on preventing victimisation

This chapter has focussed on the strategies adopted by participants to prevent both personal victimisation and burglary. In brief, the 2001 NZNSCV found that:

- A large proportion of participants took some precautionary measures to protect themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Those groups reporting the highest levels of concern about crime – in particular, women and Pacific participants – took more precautionary measures than others.

- One in four participants at times carried a weapon (or something that could be used as a weapon) for the purpose of protecting themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Women, irrespective of age or ethnicity, were more likely than men to report that they sometimes carried a weapon (or something that could be used as a weapon) for the purpose of protecting themselves against victimisation when they were out at night.
- Most (73%) participants thought that their houses would be ‘very’ or ‘fairly’ easy to break into.
- Only nine percent of participants took no special security precautions to protect their home.
- Repeat victims of burglary were significantly more likely than other groups to say that they had no special security measures in force.
- Lower socio-economic groups were significantly less likely to have special security measures in place.
- Outside sensor lights and deadlocks were the most common security measures taken to prevent burglary; safety latches, burglar alarms, security chains on doors, guard dogs, security markings on property and security bolts on doors were also reasonably common.
- The most common reasons given for not doing more to prevent burglary were participants’ belief that the area they lived in was safe, not being able to afford security measures and living in rented property.
- There was some evidence that the presence of special security measures reduced the risk of burglary and that the absence of special security measures increased the risk of burglary.
- The findings in this chapter broadly confirm the findings of the 1996 NZNSCV. However, the proportion of participants saying that they had a burglar alarm in their home had increased.

10.5 Policy implications

The first part of this chapter described the strategies people take to protect themselves from victimisation at night and the findings confirmed the close relationship between concern about victimisation and taking steps to prevent victimisation. However, many of these protective strategies are really **avoidance** strategies: for example, not using buses and trains, always using taxis or a car, and staying away from certain people, streets and activities.

Crime prevention advice, particularly crime prevention advice to women (Stanko 1995),³³⁵ advocates these kinds of strategies and the 2001 NZNSCV confirms that many participants (especially women) had clearly taken this advice on board. However, there are costs attached to following such strategies. They affect people's quality of life and perhaps opportunities. Such strategies can operate as a curfew and certainly as a restraint on everyday activities. Furthermore, the advocacy of such strategies can result in people blaming themselves and being blamed when they are victimised. Not everyone can afford to always take taxis or to avoid taking buses or trains; and not everyone can work and return home at times when the streets are populated. Therefore, care should always be taken to ensure that responsibility for victimisation is placed squarely on offenders and not, directly or indirectly, on victims.

The survey's findings with respect to women's possession of a weapon (or something which could be used as a weapon) need to be placed in this context. It seems unlikely that this number of women are walking the streets with knives or guns. What the findings point to is that women are much more conscious than men about the potential (perceived) dangers of the streets and their vulnerability. Consequently, they think actively about what they might possess in their handbags or pockets which could be used as a weapon, or they take steps to ensure that they always carry such an item.

The clear message from the 2001 NZNSCV, like the 1996 NZNSCV is that, if people want to protect themselves from the risk of burglary, there is some evidence that enhancing the security of their homes will make a difference. Findings like this led initially to the development of prevention strategies by means of opportunity reduction and 'target-hardening'. While these strategies have had some success,³³⁶ they assume that potential victims are in a position to implement the strategies recommended. The reality is – and this is confirmed by the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV – that many of those most likely to be the victims of burglary are socially disadvantaged or otherwise vulnerable and are thus not able to do so.

Thus, although prevention strategies offer considerable promise to reduce victimisation (Gant and Grabosky 2000), the findings of the 2001 NZNSCV raise important issues which impact on this. They suggest, in particular, that any strategies which encourage people to protect themselves against burglary by taking precautionary measures, without reference to the cost of those strategies, is unlikely to be effective. Certain security measures are likely to be out of the reach of some groups: not everyone can afford effective security measures and the danger is that good physical security in some houses and in some areas may simply 'displace' the victimisation to other neighbourhoods or residences.³³⁷ However well intentioned, pamphlets and the like offering advice on improving security measures provide little concrete help to the groups most at risk and may actually reinforce feelings of helplessness and self-

335 On the day of first drafting this section (16.4.2001) The Dominion ran the following headline – 'Women warned to take care on city streets' after a 16 year old girl was raped by a group of men at around 1.30am on a Sunday morning. A detective was reported as saying 'we're advising women to take the usual caution. Be aware some parts of the city aren't well lit. Perhaps you should consider, rather than taking the most direct route, taking the most populated route. It's always safer to take a better lit option'.

336 For a summary of research in this area, see Garofalo, 1987; Maxfield, 1987; Hough, 1987; Grabosky, 1995.

337 Pease (1999) doubts this, but contrast the findings of Morgan (2001). Generally, the literature on displacement suggests that there is still overall social benefit even if a lot of displacement occurs, and, of course, from the individual victim's point of view, displacement is not relevant. For more information, see Chenery et al. (1997).

blame. For this reason, it is necessary for local and central government (or other interested bodies like the Insurance Council) to get involved and to help such groups by providing resources to them to help prevent victimisation. Thus a more effective response is to selectively target resources to those whose homes have already been broken into because, as research consistently shows, this group has the greatest risk of future victimisation (for a review, see Pease 1999).

Perhaps the most powerful example of a victim-based programme for reducing burglary (and concern about burglary) is the Safer Cities Programme in England. Five hundred projects funded under this heading by the state in partnership with local communities focussed on domestic burglary and most of these focussed on making burglary more difficult by improving the physical security of doors and windows, installing alarms and other security devices and so on.³³⁸ Overall, as outlined in Chapter 7, burglary rates declined. This is probably a fairly predictable result, but the significance for this discussion is that the cost of these fell on the projects and not on individual householders. The evaluations leave no doubt that, without this funding, no amount of exhortation would have got all of the people involved in the programme to take the additional security measures which they did. Welsh and Farrington (1999) also showed the considerable cost benefits of such programmes: for every pound invested in the scheme, almost double was returned (in terms of savings to the state and to potential victims).

The Victim Support Target Hardening Scheme introduced, on a pilot basis, in Auckland in April 2001 is an example of what can be done in New Zealand. This government-funded initiative provides security information and, importantly, security equipment like locks and alarms to low income houses which have been burgled two or more times in the past twelve months.³³⁹ Victim Support (2001) describes the scheme as aiming to make repeat burglary victims feel safer by improving security and making their homes more difficult to break into. An evaluation of the scheme's impact is currently underway and is due to be reported on in 2003. Depending on its findings, the scheme may be expanded nationwide. The findings of the 2001 NZNSCV would certainly support such an expansion. Indeed, its results strongly suggest that the most cost-effective point of intervention would be after one burglary has occurred, rather than the scheme's current requirement of waiting until two burglaries have occurred within 12 months (see Table 2.7 in Chapter 2). Indeed, Johnson and Bowers (2004, forthcoming) argue, using statistical techniques developed to study the transmission of disease, that a residential burglary also identifies the increased risk of burglary not just to that house but to houses in close proximity (up to 400 metres) and that a burglary should, therefore, trigger preventive action beyond the particular house broken into.

338 See Ekblom et al. (1996) for more detail and also Laycock (2001).

339 A security assessor checks the house and, as a general rule, locks are installed if the house has been broken into twice and, if it has been broken into more than twice and suitable dead bolts and locks are already in place, an alarm can be provided.

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Appendix 1 Supplementary tables

Table A1.1 Composition of 2001 NZNSCV sample

Demographic		Number
Gender	Female	3001
	Male	2146
Age	15 and 16	155
	17-24	552
	25-39	1544
	40-59	1636
	60 +	1258
Ethnicity	NZ European/ European	3629
	Maori	922
	Pacific	745
	Other	236
Age/ female	15 and 16	76
	17-24	330
	25-39	952
	40-59	888
	60 +	754
Age/ male	15 and 16	79
	17-24	222
	25-39	592
	40-59	748
	60 +	504
Ethnicity/female	NZ European/ European	2095
	Maori	582
	Pacific Island	455
	Other	121
Ethnicity/male	NZ European/ European	1554
	Maori	365
	Pacific Island	291
	Other	115
Socio-economic ³⁴⁰	NZSEI unspecified	425
	NZSEI 10-29	889
	NZSEI 30-39	949
	NZSEI 40-49	1044
	NZSEI 50-59	860
	NZSEI 60-74	722
	NZSEI 75-90	258

³⁴⁰ For information on this scale, see 'Definitions of terms'.

Table A2.3 Police statistics for survey offences 1995 (as in NZNSCV 1996) and recalculated to show difference and contrasted with Police statistics 2000/2001³⁴¹

	1995	Recalculated	Difference	2000/2001
Burglary	56,995	47,532	-9,463	37,772
Theft from inside or outside property	10,155	10,216	61	7,892
Theft/unlawful taking of motor vehicle	30,862	29,745	-1,117	21,186
Unlawful interference with motor vehicle	7,071	8,367	1,296	8,457
Theft from a motor vehicle	47,672	51,434	3,762	47,196
Total household offences	152,755	147,294	-5,461	122,503
Sexual violation of women	722	609	-113	563
Sexual violation of men	43	66	23	60
Indecent assault	613	470	-143	464
Grievous assault	2,185	2,013	-172	2,897
Other assaults	33,491	29,174	-4,317	28,375
Threats	4,833	4,037	-796	6,588
Abduction / kidnapping	220	157	-63	162
Total violent offences	42,107	36,526	-5,581	39,109
Theft from person	1,819	1,663	-156	1,474
Bicycle theft	11,409	11,549	140	6,684
General theft	33,567	50,955	17,388	51,515
Wilful damage / arson	26,097	39,620	13,523	40,257
Total individual property offences	72,892	103,787	30,895	99,930
Robbery	1,316	1,596	280	1,557
Total survey offences	269,070	289,203	20,133	263,099

³⁴¹ This table relates to the discussion in Section 2.3 in Chapter 2.

Table A2.11 Experience of all victimisation in 1995 and 2000: percentages

		Incidence 1995	Incidence 2000	Prevalence 1995	Prevalence 2000
Sex	Female	87.2	81.5	30.8	30.1
	Male	70.0	69.7	31.9	28.9
Age / female	15-24	166.6	146.4	45.1	45.2
	25-39	100.8	107.0	35.3	34.8
	40-59	70.8	67.1	29.4	29.9
	60 +	20.4	19.7	13.7	12.7
Age / male	15-24	121.4	142.6	50.5	46.5
	25-39	79.2	73.3	32.8	30.8
	40-59	54.7	52.9	28.9	26.6
	60 +	19.8	22.4	14.0	12.8
Ethnicity / female	NZ European/European	73.9	74.1	30.8	29.4
	Maori	142.7	155.0	37.5	42.9
	Pacific	304.5	86.0	29.2	25.8
	Other	53.9	47.2	26.7	24.5
Ethnicity / male	NZ European/European	66.9	68.6	32.0	28.3
	Maori	96.6	127.0	35.1	38.7
	Pacific	103.3	95.4	34.0	31.1
	Other	53.0	42.4	26.7	28.2
Socio-economic ³⁴²	Level 1	60.4	86.3	33.5	31.8
	Level 2	79.8	58.5	35.8	29.0
	Level 3	73.1	77.8	25.8	29.3
	Level 4	83.6	58.8	29.8	26.4
	Level 5	76.2	80.0	33.6	29.6
	Level 6	75.6	92.6	28.8	30.5
	Other	87.5	137.9	32.6	39.2
Employment status	Paid employment	90.3	69.7	34.3	31.2
	Home duties	49.3	49.8	25.2	26.0
	Retired	18.4	24.3	12.9	13.3
	Beneficiaries	120.5	138.1	41.8	34.0
	Student	111.4	146.6	45.7	45.0
Living situation	One person on own	49.8	49.4	19.9	19.4
	Solo with children	136.1	147.8	44.0	46.1
	Couple/no children	42.9	41.5	24.0	21.0
	Couple/ children	74.1	73.3	32.9	31.9
	Extended family/whānau	75.5	108.4	32.1	30.5
	Flatmates	168.3	119.6	42.0	40.9
	Family/other combination	131.5	112.1	39.5	35.5

³⁴² We use here the Elly Irving scale for both years since the NZSEI was not published then and we only have Elly Irving SES for 1995 data. Level 1 represents higher professionals, level 2 represents managerial workers and executives, level 3 represents clerical, self-employed, middle management and higher tradespeople, level 4 represents other skilled tradespeople, level 5 represents semi-skilled workers, and level 6 represents unskilled workers.

Table A9.3a Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark by sex: percentages

	Women	Men
Very safe	13.5	41.5
Fairly safe	40.6	47.1
A bit unsafe	30.1	9.5
Very unsafe	15.1	1.7
A bit unsafe or very unsafe	45.2	11.1
Sample size (people)	3001	2146

Table A9.3b Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark by age: percentage

	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+
Very safe	20.5	29.2	27.7	30.2	21.1
Fairly safe	53.0	43.9	42.2	44.0	43.7
A bit unsafe	17.7	19.6	22.0	18.0	21.5
Very unsafe	8.8	7.3	8.0	7.2	12.4
A bit unsafe or very unsafe	26.5	26.9	30.0	25.2	33.9
Sample size (people)	155	552	1544	1636	1258

Table A9.3c Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark by ethnicity: percentages

	European	Maori	Pacific	Other
Very safe	26.1	35.7	28.5	24.3
Fairly safe	44.3	42.2	33.4	45.6
A bit unsafe	20.5	16.3	21.9	22.8
Very unsafe	8.6	5.5	15.9	6.7
A bit unsafe or very unsafe	29.1	21.8	37.8	29.5
Sample size (people)	3629	922	745	236

Table A9.3d Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark by ethnicity and sex: percentages

	European		Maori		Pacific		Other	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Very safe	11.7	41.2	24.1	48.0	15.3	42.8	12.6	35.7
Fairly safe	40.9	47.9	41.7	42.8	31.7	35.1	40.5	50.6
A bit unsafe	31.2	9.1	24.2	7.9	27.0	16.5	33.5	12.3
Very unsafe	15.2	1.7	9.7	1.2	26.0	5.1	13.1	0.4
A bit unsafe or very unsafe	46.4	10.8	33.9	9.1	53.0	21.6	46.6	12.7
Sample size (people)	1554	2075	343	579	291	454	115	121

Table A9.3e Feelings of safety walking alone in neighbourhood after dark by socio-economic status (NZSEI scale): percentages

	NZSEI not spec.	10-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-74	75-90
Very safe	26.2	31.4	30.4	22.4	25.5	28.1	25.5
Fairly safe	36.1	42.6	41.2	44.6	46.1	46.4	44.9
A bit unsafe	20.9	15.3	19.9	21.4	21.6	19.1	24.6
Very unsafe	15.9	10.1	8.2	10.9	6.1	6.0	5.0
A bit unsafe or very unsafe	36.8	25.4	28.1	32.3	27.7	25.1	29.6
Sample size (people)	425	889	949	1044	860	722	258

Table A10.1a Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night by sex: percentages

	Always		Mostly		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	54.6	27.9	23.5	22.7	10.4	16.3	4.4	13.1	4.4	17.5
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	44.0	11.8	31.5	22.0	13.0	23.1	5.3	19.5	4.0	22.0
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	40.3	15.8	26.6	21.4	16.4	27.5	6.2	17.1	6.6	16.2
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	29.6	11.4	22.3	15.3	24.6	30.8	10.0	20.4	9.5	20.2
Try not to use buses or trains	23.9	12.8	8.0	5.3	6.2	5.6	7.3	10.1	14.7	27.5
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	7.0	2.1	4.4	1.8	7.1	3.4	12.7	9.6	66.6	82.0
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	3.9	1.2	1.4	0.4	3.2	0.9	5.5	3.7	83.8	92.7
Sample size (people)	Women: 3001; Men: 2146									

Table A10.1b Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night, by ethnicity: percentages

	Always				Mostly				Sometimes				Rarely				Never			
	E	M	P	O	E	M	P	O	E	M	P	O	E	M	P	O	E	M	P	O
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	41.6	39.5	45.1	39.7	23.1	24.9	22.1	24.4	12.5	15.2	20.2	15.9	8.8	8.7	5.2	8.3	11.1	10.6	6.8	9.6
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	26.7	31.9	43.3	28.0	27.5	25.3	21.1	26.6	17.2	21.1	20.6	20.9	12.7	10.8	5.9	14.1	13.9	9.9	8.0	8.3
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	27.8	27.5	36.0	28.8	24.5	21.7	20.5	27.0	21.7	19.5	21.3	26.5	11.8	13.7	9.7	8.6	10.8	16.5	11.8	6.1
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	19.7	20.5	22.4	29.9	19.6	16.9	17.8	16.8	27.7	23.2	31.2	31.1	15.7	16.1	13.3	10.1	14.0	22.3	14.5	9.6
Try not to use buses or trains	17.2	16.6	33.6	26.1	6.1	5.5	13.8	9.6	4.2	6.4	19.0	14.6	8.1	9.3	9.3	13.4	22.1	17.3	15.8	20.2
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	4.7	6.0	4.8	1.8	3.2	3.2	4.1	1.0	5.4	6.5	6.1	3.1	11.2	8.7	10.6	13.9	73.5	75.1	74.1	79.2
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	2.2	4.2	5.8	1.4	0.8	1.3	2.4	0.8	1.8	2.4	6.1	2.4	4.1	4.5	6.7	8.7	89.3	86.6	78.3	85.4

Table A10.1c Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night by sex and ethnicity: percentages

		Always			Mostly			Sometimes			Rarely			Never		
		E	M	P	E	M	P	E	M	P	E	M	P	E	M	P
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	F	55.4	51.0	53.4	24.1	22.8	28.5	9.2	13.1	16.0	3.9	7.1	3.6	4.3	4.5	3.6
	M	27.0	27.3	26.2	22.0	27.1	23.2	16.0	17.4	24.7	14.0	10.3	7.0	18.2	17.1	10.3
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	F	42.3	47.6	59.1	32.8	28.3	19.6	12.6	16.4	14.4	5.5	3.8	3.4	4.6	2.9	3.5
	M	10.3	15.3	26.2	21.9	22.1	24.7	22.0	26.2	27.3	20.2	18.2	8.7	23.7	17.3	12.9
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	F	40.5	39.7	44.4	26.7	25.7	24.8	15.4	16.0	17.4	6.5	7.9	4.9	6.4	16.4	7.5
	M	14.4	14.7	26.9	22.2	17.4	15.9	28.3	23.1	25.6	17.3	19.7	14.8	15.5	9.2	16.4
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	F	29.0	27.5	28.4	23.3	20.6	19.8	24.5	23.0	28.9	9.7	13.9	11.6	9.0	13.5	10.8
	M	9.8	13.0	15.8	15.7	13.1	15.6	31.1	23.4	33.7	22.0	18.4	15.2	19.3	31.5	18.6
Try not to use buses or trains	F	22.5	21.0	40.9	7.6	6.5	16.0	4.1	8.4	19.3	6.5	9.5	6.5	15.3	12.5	12.8
	M	11.6	12.0	25.6	4.5	4.4	11.4	4.3	4.4	18.8	9.9	9.0	12.4	29.2	22.5	19.1
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	F	7.1	8.4	7.2	4.7	4.5	4.2	7.2	7.7	7.7	12.9	10.0	10.7	65.5	68.6	69.9
	M	2.2	3.4	2.1	1.7	1.9	3.9	3.5	5.2	4.4	9.5	7.2	10.4	81.9	82.0	78.6
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	F	3.6	5.4	9.2	1.3	1.7	3.7	2.9	2.4	8.2	5.3	5.4	6.1	84.4	84.4	72.0
	M	0.8	2.9	2.1	0.2	0.9	0.9	0.6	2.4	3.9	2.9	3.5	7.4	94.4	94.4	85.1

Table A10.1d Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night, by age: percentages

	Always					Mostly					Sometimes					Rarely					Never				
	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	21.1	30.9	39.8	42.8	53.4	29.6	23.7	25.5	23.7	17.1	15.5	21.4	13.9	12.2	8.2	18.5	11.9	8.8	8.4	4.6	14.9	11.3	10.6	11.1	9.2
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	29.7	33.5	27.9	24.1	32.0	36.6	29.0	27.9	25.8	23.7	19.9	19.4	19.4	19.7	11.5	7.6	9.9	11.6	14.5	11.9	5.9	8.0	12.3	15.4	13.8
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	18.0	20.2	27.4	30.1	34.4	14.7	28.3	26.5	26.3	16.3	34.8	24.2	24.0	21.5	15.0	19.9	15.9	10.7	11.2	8.5	11.0	10.7	10.6	9.9	14.8
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	17.2	17.2	20.5	21.5	22.9	18.0	20.6	19.3	20.1	15.4	29.0	28.6	32.4	28.5	18.8	23.2	20.1	14.0	14.7	12.0	11.0	13.1	12.9	14.1	20.2
Try not to use buses or trains	8.1	13.6	19.2	22.3	16.9	3.9	8.5	7.3	7.0	4.8	11.2	12.6	5.8	4.7	2.5	18.0	13.0	8.5	7.6	5.6	19.4	25.6	22.8	20.3	16.8
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	3.2	5.0	5.1	4.9	3.7	1.9	4.4	3.9	2.8	2.0	5.4	5.0	5.9	5.1	5.0	15.1	13.5	13.3	10.5	7.0	72.6	72.1	71.5	76.2	75.8
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	1.2	1.7	1.9	2.9	3.9	2.0	1.2	0.6	1.0	0.8	5.2	1.7	2.7	1.5	1.8	6.1	5.7	5.7	3.7	3.6	85.1	89.2	88.7	90.4	83.7

Table A10.1e Measures taken by participants to protect themselves against victimisation at night by age and sex: percentages

		Always					Mostly					Sometimes					Rarely					Never				
		15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+
Use a car or taxi rather than walk	F	23.0	40.8	56.2	56.1	64.2	44.6	25.8	25.1	24.3	15.2	8.4	24.1	8.8	9.6	5.7	16.3	5.1	4.2	4.1	2.6	6.9	4.1	4.5	4.5	3.6
	M	19.5	21.0	22.3	29.3	40.4	17.8	21.5	26.0	23.1	19.4	21.1	18.6	19.5	14.9	11.3	20.3	18.8	13.6	12.7	7.1	21.2	18.5	17.2	17.7	16.0
Go out with someone else rather than by yourself	F	46.0	49.6	44.6	38.1	48.1	39.7	29.2	34.2	35.6	22.1	5.4	15.7	13.7	15.1	8.9	6.2	3.4	4.9	5.8	6.4	2.0	1.7	2.0	5.2	6.8
	M	16.9	17.3	10.2	9.8	12.4	34.2	28.8	21.2	15.9	25.7	31.3	23.1	25.6	24.4	14.6	8.7	16.5	18.9	23.5	18.6	8.9	14.3	23.3	25.9	22.4
Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities	F	29.1	32.8	39.3	43.9	42.6	16.5	32.5	30.0	28.9	16.9	35.7	21.4	19.1	13.6	10.7	10.8	7.8	5.0	6.9	5.2	4.1	5.0	5.4	5.5	11.2
	M	9.2	7.4	14.6	16.1	24.5	13.2	24.1	22.8	23.5	15.6	34.1	27.0	29.3	29.6	20.2	27.0	24.2	16.8	15.6	12.5	16.4	16.4	16.2	14.4	19.2
Try not to walk near certain sorts of people	F	23.3	28.0	29.8	31.1	29.2	21.0	24.8	24.5	23.4	16.5	27.8	27.6	28.2	25.6	15.9	18.5	12.4	9.3	9.4	8.7	5.5	6.7	6.7	8.8	16.7
	M	12.4	6.2	10.7	11.7	15.4	15.6	16.3	13.8	16.8	14.2	29.9	29.5	36.8	31.4	22.4	26.9	27.9	18.9	20.0	16.0	15.2	19.6	19.5	19.4	24.4
Try not to use buses or trains	F	10.4	17.4	26.1	28.3	20.6	8.6	10.0	8.3	9.3	4.4	8.8	16.3	6.0	4.8	2.1	15.2	10.3	7.9	6.4	4.5	19.1	18.1	14.3	14.8	12.5
	M	6.3	9.8	11.9	16.1	12.4	0.3	6.9	6.1	4.7	5.4	13.1	8.9	5.7	4.6	3.0	20.2	15.7	9.0	8.8	6.9	20.9	33.3	31.8	25.9	22.0
Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon	F	3.8	7.2	7.9	7.9	4.7	3.5	6.3	5.4	5.4	3.0	5.7	7.0	7.9	7.9	6.7	17.1	13.9	14.2	14.2	8.0	66.0	65.6	64.0	67.4	69.5
	M	2.8	2.8	2.0	1.6	2.5	0.6	2.5	2.2	1.8	0.9	5.2	2.9	3.8	3.4	2.9	13.6	13.1	12.3	7.5	5.7	77.8	78.8	79.5	85.2	83.4
Carry a personal alarm of some sort	F	2.7	2.4	2.8	4.4	5.9	4.6	1.9	0.6	1.6	1.1	1.2	3.1	4.6	2.5	2.8	13.5	6.9	6.5	4.4	3.6	77.3	85.0	84.9	86.5	78.7
	M	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.6	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.4	8.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.3	4.6	4.8	2.9	3.5	91.3	93.3	92.7	94.4	89.7

Table A10.2 Percentage of participants mentioning security measures in the home by socio-economic status (NZSEI)

	NZSEI not spec.	10-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-74	75-90
Outside light on a sensor switch	36.4	45.2	46.5	55.2	64.2	57.4	44.8
Doors with double locks or deadlocks	40.9	35.4	42.5	44.5	54.6	55.6	54.9
Safety latch to prevent window fully opening	30.7	24.9	32.7	33.6	39.2	39.7	42.0
Burglar alarm on premises	17.6	14.2	25.3	28.3	36.5	37.0	41.1
Security chain on doors	25.1	19.3	26.6	30.4	25.5	32.5	33.3
Guard dog	18.7	34.3	26.4	23.8	21.2	21.6	18.3
Security markings on household property	15.8	18.4	20.6	24.4	27.9	30.2	26.2
Security bolts on doors	22.1	16.9	20.0	25.3	27.5	26.6	23.4
Lights, radio or television on a timer switch	10.1	10.9	11.1	11.7	16.9	19.2	20.6
Windows with keys to open them	7.2	6.0	5.9	8.6	15.1	13.4	17.0
Security screen on doors	6.1	9.9	9.7	11.1	9.5	10.6	11.5
Surveillance by security firm	4.9	4.9	5.7	5.9	10.1	9.0	8.0
Bars or grills on windows	2.6	1.6	3.5	2.9	2.5	3.5	6.4
None	14.9	12.0	12.0	8.1	5.6	4.1	4.7
Sample size (people)	425	889	949	1044	860	722	258

Note: Multiple responses possible.

Table A10.3a Major reasons why household has not done more to prevent burglary by socio-economic status (NZSEI): percentages

Reason	NZSEI not spec.	10-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-74	75-90
Area safe/not much crime	25.9	35.6	34.2	30.1	31.1	29.2	34.1
Cannot afford it	28.5	16.2	18.2	18.1	14.3	16.5	18.4
A rented property	27.9	16.0	14.1	12.5	15.3	12.1	11.8
Neighbourhood Watch/Neighbours home all the time	8.7	12.5	14.9	14.0	12.2	15.1	11.0
Would not work/would not be effective	4.1	12.2	9.0	12.3	13.8	16.8	13.8
Don't know what more can be done	6.7	8.8	10.9	10.9	14.2	13.7	12.7
Someone always home	7.3	8.4	8.9	9.0	6.4	8.0	7.3
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	3.4	6.7	3.4	5.6	5.2	7.9	7.3
Not that concerned	5.6	3.9	5.9	7.2	4.6	4.9	5.5
No particular reason	6.6	6.5	4.3	5.0	4.6	5.4	2.1
Sample size (people)	286	693	651	712	624	523	200

Note: Multiple responses possible. Question restricted to those who considered their home 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to burgle.

Table A10.3b Major reasons given by participants why their household has not done more to prevent burglary by sex: percentages

Reason	Women	Men
Area safe/not much crime	28.8	34.4
Cannot afford it	20.4	14.8
A rented property	16.4	13.3
Neighbourhood Watch/Neighbours home all the time	13.4	12.9
Would not work/would not be effective	12.1	12.5
Don't know what more can be done	11.2	11.7
Someone always home	7.9	8.1
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	5.5	5.9
Not that concerned	4.6	6.1
No particular reason	4.5	5.5
Sample size (people)	1623	2066

Note: Multiple responses possible. Question restricted to those who considered their home 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to burgle.

Table A10.3c Major reasons why household has not done more to prevent burglary by ethnicity: percentages

Reason	European	Maori	Pacific	Other
Area safe/not much crime	32.7	31.0	17.2	25.0
Cannot afford it	16.6	21.6	29.2	16.2
A rented property	12.7	17.1	20.0	34.5
Neighbourhood Watch/ Neighbours home all the time	13.1	17.7	11.4	7.4
Would not work/would not be effective	14.2	6.2	2.4	6.3
Don't know what more can be done	12.6	6.8	2.6	9.8
Someone always home	7.5	9.6	13.2	6.6
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	6.3	5.1	3.6	1.3
Not that concerned	5.3	7.9	5.1	3.4
No particular reason	5.1	6.1	6.9	2.8
Sample size (people)	2696	657	451	171

Note: Multiple responses possible. Question restricted to those who considered their home 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to burgle.

Table A10.3d Major reasons why household has not done more to prevent burglary by sex and ethnicity: percentages

Reason	European		Maori		Pacific		Other	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Area safe/not much crime	30.3	34.9	25.9	36.0	13.2	21.2	24.2	25.8
Cannot afford it	19.1	14.1	25.8	17.5	32.9	25.5	17.1	15.2
A rented property	13.7	11.8	18.8	15.4	27.3	12.9	40.1	29.1
Neighbourhood Watch/ Neighbours home all the time	13.4	12.8	16.9	18.4	9.9	12.9	7.7	7.1
Would not work/would not be effective	14.2	14.1	5.6	6.8	2.0	2.8	5.2	7.5
Don't know what more can be done	12.6	12.6	6.1	7.5	1.5	3.7	7.0	12.5
Someone always home	7.8	7.2	10.2	8.9	8.9	17.4	4.2	8.9
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	6.0	6.6	5.3	4.8	4.7	2.6	1.3	1.2
Not that concerned	4.5	6.1	8.6	7.3	2.2	7.8	2.0	4.7
No particular reason	4.4	5.7	6.5	5.7	6.6	7.2	1.3	4.2
Sample size (people)	1226	1470	254	403	180	271	84	87

Note: Multiple responses possible. Question restricted to those who considered their home 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to burgle.

Table A10.3e Major reasons why household has not done more to prevent burglary by age: percentages

Reason	15-16	17-24	25-39	40-59	60+
Area safe/not much crime	44.0	32.0	28.7	30.7	35.3
Cannot afford it	12.5	20.2	19.9	16.5	15.0
A rented property	9.4	29.0	22.4	9.3	4.1
Neighbourhood Watch/ Neighbours home all the time	10.3	9.8	13.6	13.1	15.7
Would not work/would not be effective	0.4	3.5	11.2	16.2	15.8
Don't know what more can be done	5.1	6.3	8.1	14.7	15.7
Someone always home	6.0	9.8	6.7	7.0	10.7
Have not got around to it/cannot be bothered	6.8	3.7	6.7	6.3	4.3
Not that concerned	7.4	5.9	5.3	4.2	6.6
No particular reason	7.8	5.9	5.9	4.2	4.1
Sample size (people)	96	389	1146	1207	849

Note: Multiple responses possible. Question restricted to those who considered their home 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to burgle.

National Survey on Crime & Safety

1001344

Main Survey

Appendix 2

Questionnaires

Interviewer Do not use the browser buttons, only use the buttons at the bottom of each screen.

QA Firstly, we need a few details from you before we start the survey. This is for administration purposes only, and this data is completely confidential.

INTERVIEWER RECORD ON CALL SHEET: IDENT NUMBER

Household Number: _____

Respondent First Name: _____

Address of Interview: _____

Area Name: _____

Area Unit Number: _____

Calls to obtain: _____

Interviewer Number: _____

Q1 Have you lived in this neighbourhood since January 2000?

Yes.....1

No.....2

Note: ‘This neighbourhood’ is the streets around them; for rural people this is their ‘district’)

Q2 Do you think there is a crime problem in this neighbourhood?

Q4

Yes

No

Don't know

1

2

9

Q3 What sort of crime problems do you think there are in this neighbourhood?

Do not read. Probe to No
Code all mentions below

Burglary, break-ins.....01

Vandalism02

Graffiti.....03

Street attacks.....04

Petty thefts05

Assault06

Domestic Violence07

Sexual Crimes08

Car theft09

Theft from cars10

Damage to cars.....11

Dangerous driving 12

Drink driving13

Prowlers.....14

Selling drugs.....15

Other98

(Specify) _____

Don't know 99

Q4 Do you think that in the last 12 months there has been more or less crime in your neighbourhood than before, or has it stayed about the same?

Probe: Is that a lot or a little more/less?

A lot more crime.....1

A little more crime.....2

About the same 3

A little less crime.....4

A lot less crime.....5

No crime around here.....6

Don't know.....9

Showcard A

Q5a *Using the categories on Showcard A, can you tell me how much of a problem you think the following things are in your neighbourhood?*

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| A very big problem | 1 |
| A fairly big problem..... | 2 |
| Not a very big problem | 3 |
| Not a problem at all..... | 4 |
| Don't know | 9 |

Read out

- a. .. Rubbish and litter lying about on streets or empty sections
- b. .. Broken windows, graffiti or other deliberate damage to property.
- c. .. Speeding cars
- d. .. Uncontrolled dogs roaming the neighbourhood.....
- e. .. Teenagers hanging around on the streets.....
- f. .. Gang members living or hanging around in the neighbourhood.....
- g. .. Drunks, glue sniffers or people high on drugs on the streets.....

Q8 *Do you ever walk alone in your neighbourhood after dark?*

- Yes.....1
No.....2 **Go to Q10**

Showcard B

Q9 *Using Showcard B, how safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?*

- | | | |
|---------------|------------------|---|
| Q11a ← | Very safe | 1 |
| | Fairly safe..... | 2 |
| | A bit safe..... | 3 |
| | Very unsafe..... | 4 |
| | Don't know | 9 |

Showcard B

Q10 *Using Showcard B, if you were to walk alone in your neighbourhood after dark, how safe would you feel?*

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Very safe | 1 |
| Fairly safe..... | 2 |
| A bit safe..... | 3 |
| Very unsafe..... | 4 |
| Don't know | 9 |

Showcard B

Q11a *Still using Showcard B, how safe do you feel at home alone AFTER DARK?*

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| Very safe | 1 |
| Fairly safe..... | 2 |
| A bit unsafe..... | 3 |
| Very unsafe..... | 4 |
| Don't know | 9 |

Showcard B

Q11b *Again using Showcard B, how safe do you feel at home alone DURING THE DAY?*

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| Very safe | 1 |
| Fairly safe..... | 2 |
| A bit unsafe..... | 3 |
| Very unsafe | 4 |
| Don't know | 9 |

Showcard C

Q12 *Some people worry about being the victim of a crime. I am going to read out some types of crime. Using one of the phrases on Showcard C, I would like you to tell me for each one, how worried you are about being a victim of this type of crime.*

Very worried	1
Fairly worried.....	2
Not very worried	3
Not at all worried	4
Not applicable.....	8
Don't know	9

Read out

- a. .. Having your house burgled..... _____
- b. .. Having your car stolen
- c. .. Having some of your belongings stolen..... _____
- d. .. Being attacked and robbed
- e. .. Having your home or property damaged by vandals
- f. .. Having your car deliberately damaged or broken into..... _____
- g. .. Being assaulted by strangers
- h. .. Being assaulted by people you know..... _____
- i. .. Being assaulted because of your race or ethnic group..... _____
- j. .. Being in a traffic accident caused by a drunk driver
- k. .. Being sexually assaulted or raped..... _____

Showcard C

Q13 *Again using one of the phrases on Showcard C, could you tell me how worried you are about any of the following things happening to you?*

Very worried.....	1
Fairly worried	2
Not very worried	3
Not at all worried.....	4
Not applicable.....	8
Don't know.....	9

Read out

- a. ..You or someone in your household becoming seriously ill
- b. .. Being unable to cope with financial debts
- c. .. You or someone in your household losing their job..... _____
- d. .. You or someone in your household being seriously in an accident in your home..... _____

Showcard C

Q14 *Again using one of the phrases on Showcard C, could you tell me how worried you are about being racially harassed by people on the street?*

Very worried.....	1
Fairly worried	2
Not very worried	3
Not at all worried.....	4
Not applicable.....	8
Don't know	9

I would now like to ask you a few questions about the sorts of things people might do to protect themselves against crime.

Showcard D

Q15 *When some people go OUT AT NIGHT they are careful to avoid situations that might put themselves at risk. Using Showcard D, could you tell me how often when you are out at night you do any of the following things in order to protect yourself against crime.*

Always	1
Mostly.....	2
Sometimes.....	3
Rarely.....	4
Never	5
Not applicable	8
Don't know	9

- a. .. Try not to walk near certain sorts of people..... _____
- b. .. Stay away from certain streets, areas or activities
- c. .. Go out with someone else rather than by yourself
- d. .. Try not to use buses or trains..... _____
- e. .. Use a car or taxi rather than walk
- f. .. Carry a weapon or something you could use as a weapon
- g. .. Carry a personal alarm of some sort..... _____

Showcard E

Q16 *Showcard E lists some security measures that people can have, and I would like you to tell me which, if any, you have at your house.*

Please select all that apply

Burglar alarm on premises.....	01
Doors with double locks or dead locks	02
Security chain on doors.....	03
Security bolts on doors	04
Security screens on doors	05
Windows with keys to open them	06
Bars or grilles on windows	07
Safety latch to prevent window opening fully.....	08
A guard dog	09
Lights, radio or television on a timer switch.....	10
Outside lights on a sensor switch	11
Security markings on household property.....	12
Surveillance by security firm.....	13
None	97
Any other security measures (specify)	98
Don't know.....	99

Q18 *Taking everything into account, how difficult do you think it would be for a burglar to get into your home. Do you think it would be...?*

Read out

Very easy.....	1
Fairly easy	2
Fairly difficult	3
Very difficult	4
(Do not read) Don't know.....	9

Q21

Q19 *For what reasons has your household not done more to protect your home from possible burglary?*

Note: 'household' means people living with you.

Please select all that apply

Do not read out. Probe to no.

Can't afford to	01
Don't know what more can be done	02
Wouldn't work/wouldn't be effective....	03
Haven't got around to it/can't be bothered.....	04
Because it's a rented property	05
Neighbourwatch/ neighbours are home all the time.....	06
Area safe/not much crime	07
Someone home all the time.....	08
No particular reason.....	09
Not that concerned	10
Other (specify)	98
Don't know	99

Q21 *People who have been the victim of a crime sometimes need help or assistance. Do you know of any community services, apart from the police, which would be available to you if you were a victim of crime? Which ones?*

Do not read. Probe to no.

Victim Support Group	01
Rape Crisis	02
Women's Refuge.....	03
HELP/Sexual Abuse Centre	04
Citizens Advice Bureau.....	05
Iwi or other Maori organisation	06
Pacific organisation	07
Hospital.....	08
Samaritans (Lifeline).....	09
Salvation Army.....	10
Church/Church group.....	11
Other (specify)	98
Don't know/ none	99

EXPERIENCE AS A VICTIM

Showcard F

I'd now like to ask you about some things that might have happened to you or your household since the beginning of 2000, that is, since the beginning of last year, in which you may have been the victim of a crime or offence.

Note: 'household' means people living with you

Showcard F lists the sorts of incidents we are interested in. These...

- *Must have happened since January 2000*
- *Must have happened to you personally, or to other people in your household (the people living with you)*
- *Must have happened in New Zealand*
- *Can be both serious things and small things too*

It is often difficult to remember exactly when things happen, so take what time you need.

Q22 *First, has anyone in this household owned or had the regular use of a car, motorcycle, van or truck at any time since 1st January 2000?*

Q27a	Yes	1
	← No	2

Q24 *Since 1st January 2000 have you or anyone else NOW in your household had their car, motorcycle, van or truck stolen or taken away without permission? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Time stolen: _____

Q25 *And (apart from this) has anyone had anything stolen from or stolen off their vehicle (such as vehicle parts or personal possessions)? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Number of times: _____

Q26 *And (apart from these incidents already mentioned), has anyone had their vehicle tampered with, damaged or vandalised? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Number of times: _____

The following questions are to do with crimes involving your home or garage. This includes also holiday homes, caravans and boats.

Q27a *Still thinking back to the period since the beginning of 2000, has anyone TRIED TO get into your home or garage without permission but NOT SUCCEEDED in getting in? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Number of times: _____

Q27b *Still thinking back to the period since the beginning of 2000, has anyone SUCCEEDED IN getting into your home or garage without permission? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q28 *And since the beginning of 2000, has anyone stolen anything FROM OUTSIDE your home or holiday home (such as from your front gate or garden or shed) which was worth less than \$10 (e.g. milk cartons, newspapers)? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q29 *And in that time has anyone stolen anything FROM OUTSIDE your home or holiday home which was worth more than \$10? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q30 *And since 1st January 2000 has anything been stolen FROM INSIDE your home or garage by someone who was allowed to be there (e.g. a workman doing a job, or a visitor, or a boarder)? This includes a holiday home if you have one. How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

The next few questions are about things that may have happened to you personally - not the other people in your household. This is about anything that happened to you - at home, in the street, at work, in a shop, on public transport, or anywhere else.

Q31 *Apart from things you have mentioned already, since the beginning of the year 2000, has anyone stolen or tried to steal anything you were carrying, either out of your hands, or from your pocket or from a bag or case? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q32 *And again, (apart from things you have mentioned already), in that time has anyone stolen or tried to steal anything else that belonged to you - such as from an office or anywhere else? How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q33 *And (apart from this) in that time has anyone tampered with or damaged any of your things on purpose? (Please do not include anything you've already told us about in earlier questions). How many times?*

Type in 2 digits

(None = 00, Don't know/

Can't remember = 99)

Number of times: _____

Q34 *And again (apart from any incidents you have mentioned already) since the 1st of January 2000, has any stranger or person you do not know well hit you, kicked you or used force or violence on you in any other way?*

Please don't include any incidents involving anyone you know well or any incidents involving unwanted sexual attention. These types of incidents will be covered later in the questionnaire.

How many times?

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Number of times: _____

Q35 *And (apart from this) during that time, has any stranger or person you do not know well threatened to use force or violence on you or threatened to damage things of yours in any way that actually frightened you?*

Please don't include any incidents involving anyone you know well or any incidents involving unwanted sexual attention. These types of incidents will be covered later in the questionnaire.

How many times?

Type in 2 digits
(None = 00, Don't know/
Can't remember = 99)
Number of times: _____

Q36a *Are there any other types of crimes which we have not already mentioned that you or your household have been a victim of since January 2000?*

Yes.....1
No2 **Manual selection**
 process

Q36b *Could you tell me very briefly what happened?*

PROBE FOR DETAILS: Nature and circumstances of incident. Record key details only.

NOW YOU WILL USE THE MANUAL SELECTION PROCESS FOR CHOOSING CRIMES FOR NEXT SECTION

National Survey on Crime & Safety

1001344

VICTIM FORM

VA Now I'd like to ask you a few questions about the incident/some of the incidents you just mentioned.

I'd like to get a few more details from you about the (CRIME TYPE) you mentioned earlier. Can I just confirm that this incident happened in New Zealand AND after 1st January 2000.

Go to next
crime type/
demographics

Yes1
No2

VB Could you please tell us below the exact month and year below in which this incident happened.

Type in 99 if don't know month

Month		Year	
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

If 'Don't know' in VB continue, else skip to V3

VC Can you please tell me which of the following quarters of the year the incident happened? Was it....

Read out

Go to next
crime type/
demographics

Before January 20001
January-March 20002
April-June 2000.....3
July-September 2000.....4
October-December 20005
January-March 20016
April 2001 -onwards7
(Do not read) Don't know/ can't remember.....9

V3 Before I ask you some detailed questions about the incident, can you tell me very briefly what happened.

PROBE FOR DETAILS: Nature and Circumstances of incident. Record key details only. Use the following list as checks to ensure you have recorded key details.

Key Details Checklist

- was a house entered without permission?
- was a motor vehicle stolen or driven without permission?
- was a motor vehicle interfered with?
- was any other property stolen?
- was any property damaged?
- was any violence or physical force used?
- was anyone injured?
- was there any threat of violence?
- was there any sexual element?

V6 *Where did the incident happen?*

Please select all that apply

Note: If anything coded “in your home” check if incident actually happened inside or if it was merely an attempt to get inside. Code accordingly.

V7 ← **Own Home**
Inside your home 01
In garage specifically for your house/flat... 02
Attempt to get inside house/garage 03

V13 ← **Immediately Outside Home**
Inside same building (corridor, stairs, lift etc) 04
Outside building on same premises (garden, carport etc) 05
In row of garages for flats 06
In street outside home 07

In or near victim’s place of work

At place of work - inside building..... 08
At place of work - out of doors 09
In car park at place of work..... 10
In street near place of work..... 11

Elsewhere

On the street other than outside home or place of work 12
In pub/nightclub/sports club..... 13
In carpark other than at home or at place of work..... 14
Inside someone else’s house 15
Sports Ground 16
Inside public toilet, commercial or public building (eg. shop, school, hospital, restaurant 17
Inside some other building 18
Other (specify)..... 37
Don’t know 39

V7 *Did the person or people who did it have a right to be inside? For example was it done by people who were invited in, a workman doing a job, a visitor, or boarder?*

Note: Family members not included

V12 ← Yes.....01
[No02
V8 ← [Don’t know.....99

V8 *How did the offender get into or try to get into your home/garage? Was it.....*

Read out

Through a door(s) 01
Through a window(s)..... 02
And/ or some other way (specify) .. 98
Don’t know 99

Check back to V8, if ‘Through a door’ (code 01) coded continue, all others → V10

Showcard G

V9 *Looking at Showcard G, how did he/she/they try to get through the door?*

Please select all that apply

Pushed in past person who opened door (or tried to).....01
Door was not locked02
They had key.....03
Forced lock/broke lock (or tried to).....04
Broke/cut out/removed panel/
Window of door or panel/window
beside door (or tried to)05
By false pretences (pretending to be someone he/she isn’t).....06
Other (specify) 98
Don’t know99

<p>Check back to V8, if ‘Through a window’ (code 02) coded continue, all others → V11</p>
--

Showcard H

V10 *Looking at Showcard H, how did he/she/they try to get through the window?*

Please select all that apply

Window was open/could be pushed open.....	01
Forced window lock/catch (or tried to).....	02
Broke/cut out glass (or tried to)	03
Other (specify)	98
Don't know.....	99

Showcard I

V11 *Looking at Showcard I, can you tell me which, if any, of these sorts of security measures you had at that time, even if they were not in use when the incident happened?*

Please select all that apply

Burglar alarm on premises	01
Doors with double locks or deadlocks	02
Security chain on doors	03
Security bolts on doors	04
Security screen on doors	05
Windows that need keys to open them	06
Bars or grilles on the windows	07
Safety latch to prevent window opening fully	08
Guard dog	09
Lights, radio or television on a timer switch	10
Outside lights on a sensor switch	11
Security markings on household property	12
Surveillance by security firm	13
None of these	97
Any other security measures (specify)	
	98
Don't know/Can't remember	99

V12 *Was anyone home at the time of the incident?*

Someone at home	1
No one at home	2
Don't know	9

V13 *And at the time the incident happened was anyone aware of what was happening?*

Yes	1
No.....	2
Don't know	9

V14 *Can I check, was anything at all stolen that belonged to you or anyone else in your household?*

V15	←	Yes.....	01
V21	←	No.....	02
		Don't know.....	99

Showcard J

V15 *Looking at Showcard J, can you tell me what was taken?*

Please select all that apply

Truck/car/van.....	01
Motorcycle.....	02
Vehicle parts/accessories.....	03
Bicycle.....	04
Furniture/linen/other household goods.....	05
Kitchen equipment/silverware.....	06
Food.....	07
Personal effects/jewellery.....	08
Cash/cheque book/credit cards/ other documents (eg Savings account book, passport).....	09
Electronic equipment.....	10
Camera/binoculars.....	11
Tools.....	12
Other (specify).....	98
Don't know.....	99

V16 *Including cash, what would you estimate was the total value of what was stolen? By value we mean replacement value, not necessarily what your insurance company paid you.*

Note: Cheques/credit cards count as no value. Record to nearest \$10. (6 digits)
Type in 888888 for nothing/no value
and 999999 for Don't know/Can't say

Value: \$

--	--	--	--	--	--

V17 Was any of the stolen money or property recovered?

- Yes, motor vehicle recovered1
Yes, all property recovered2
Yes, some property recovered3
No – none/ not yet9

**Check back to V15, if motor vehicle
ONLY stolen (codes 01 or 02 only) → V20,
otherwise continue**

V19 Can I check, were the things stolen from, or off a motor vehicle or motorcycle?

- V21** ← Yes - from a motor vehicle1
[Yes - off a motor vehicle2
Yes - off a motorcycle3
No4
Don't know9

**Check back to V15 and V19, if (code 01)
coded at either continue, otherwise → V21**

V20 How did they get into the truck/car/van?

- Door was not locked01
Window was left open02
Offender forced lock03
Offender broke window04
Offender used a key05
Other (specify)98
Don't know99

V21 Thinking now about any damage that may have happened during the incident, was anything that belonged to you or to anyone else in your household damaged, defaced or messed up (including any damage which may have been done getting in or out)?

- V22** ← Yes1
[No2
V26a ← [Don't know9

V22 What was the total value of the damage they did?

**Type in 888888 for nothing/no value
and 999999 for Don't know/Can't say**

Value: \$

--	--	--	--	--	--

V26a Did you actually see or come into contact with the person/ any of the people who committed this offence, or did you find out any information about them from any other source such as the police?

- V27** ← Yes - saw/ had contact1
[Yes - given information
by someone else2
V38 ← No3

V27 Did you know the person/any of the people before the incident?

- V28** ← Yes1
[No2
V30 ← [Don't know9

V28 *How did you know them?*

Please select all that apply

- (All/some) were relatives 01
(All/some) were friends 02
(All/some) were work
mates or employees 03
(All/some) were neighbours/
children in the neighbourhood 04
(All/some) were home help 05
Know (all/some) just to speak to casually 06
Know (all/some) just by sight 07
Other (specify) 98

V30 *Did the person or any of the people who committed the offence ACTUALLY hit you or use force or violence on you?*

- Yes 1
No 2
Don't know 9

V34



V31 *Were you bruised, scratched, cut or injured in any way? If yes, ask: In what way?*

Please select all that apply

- Bruises/black eyes 1
Scratches 2
Cuts 3
Broken bones 4
Other (specify) 7

- Not injured 8

V32



V34



V32 *As a result of what happened did you get attention from a doctor or nurse ?*

V33



- Yes 1

V34



- No 2
Don't know 9

V33 *Did you need to stay one night or more in hospital?*

- Yes 1
No 2
Don't know 9

V34 *Did the person/any of the people who committed the offence THREATEN to use force or violence on you, or threaten to harm you in any other way?*

- Yes 1
No 2
Don't know 9

V35 *Did the person/any of the people who did it have a weapon or something they used or threatened to use as a weapon?*

V36



- Yes 1

V38



- No 2
Don't know 9

V36 *What was the weapon?*

Please select all that apply

- Bottle/drinking glass 01
Knife/screwdriver/stabbing weapon 02
Stick/club/hitting weapon 03
Pistol/rifle 04
Shotgun 05
Airgun/air rifle 06
Gun-can't say what sort 07
Other (specify) 98

V38 *Did you lose time away from your job as a result of this incident?*

- Yes 1
No 2
Not working/not applicable 8
Don't know 9

Showcard K

V39a *People react to these things in different ways. Looking at Showcard K, which, if any, of these reactions did you have after the incident?*

Please select all that apply

V39c *And still using Showcard K, what about children under 15, which if any of these reactions did any of them have after the incident?*

Please select all that apply

	39a	39c
Felt annoyed/irritated.....	01	01
Felt angry	02	02
Felt shocked	03	03
Felt afraid.....	04	04
Experienced difficulty in sleeping	05	05
Cried.....	06	06
Had depression or anxiety attacks	07	07
Felt ashamed or guilty.....	08	08
Felt bad about myself (themselves)	09	09
Were more cautious/aware.....	10	10
Had relationship problems	11	11
Felt afraid for their children...	12	12
Increased use of alcohol/ drugs/ medication.....	13	13
Not prepared to say	35	35
Doesn't apply/ No children in household.....	36	36
Other (specify)	37	37
None.....	38	38
Don't know/can't say.....	39	39

V40a *How much do you think you and your household were affected overall by the incident. Would you say your household was affected...?*

Read out

Very much	1
Quite a lot	2
Just a little.....	3
Not at all	4
(Do not read) Don't know	9

Showcard L

V40b *Which of the options on Showcard L best describes this incident?*

A crime	1
Wrong, but not a crime	2
Or just something that happened	3
Don't know	9

V41 *Did you receive advice or help from neighbours, friends, or relatives after the incident?*

Yes	1
No	2
Don't Know	9

V42 *Were you (or anyone else in the household) contacted by anyone other than the police, friends, neighbours or relatives offering advice or help after the incident?*

V43a ← Yes..... 1

V44 ← [No 2
Don't know 9

Showcard M

V43a *Using Showcard M, were you or anyone in your household contacted by any of the following?*

Please select all that apply

Victim Support Group 1
Rape Crisis 2
HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre) 3
Women's Refuge 4
Iwi or other Maori organisation... 5
Pacific organisation 6
Other (specify) 7

For each coded in V43a above ask V43b

Showcard N

V43b *Using Showcard N, how helpful were (TYPE OF HELP)?*

Very helpful 1
Fairly helpful 2
Not very helpful 3
Not at all helpful 4
Didn't accept/want their help 5
Don't know 9

V44 *Did you (or anyone else in your household) approach anyone else other than the police, friends, neighbours, relatives or your insurance company, after the incident for advice or help?*

V45a ← Yes 1
 └ No 2
V46a ← └ Don't know 9

Showcard O

V45a *Using Showcard O, did you or anyone else in your household approach any of following?*

Code all mentions

Victim Support Group 01
Rape Crisis 02
HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre) 03
Women's Refuge 04
Iwi or other Maori organisation ... 05
Lawyer 06
Radio, TV or Newspaper 07
Pacific Organisation 08
Other (specify) 37

For each coded in V45a above ask V45b

Showcard P

V45b *Using Showcard P, how helpful were (TYPE OF HELP)?*

Very helpful 1
Fairly helpful 2
Not very helpful 3
Not at all helpful 4
Don't know 9

V46a *Is there any type of assistance or advice you would have liked to get after the incident but didn't receive?*

V46b ← Yes 1
 └ No 2
V47 ← └ Don't know 9

V46b *What type of help?*

Please select all that apply

Emotional support.....	01
Someone to talk to	02
Someone to explain what was happening .	03
Someone to help me at court.....	04
Counselling	05
A support person from my own cultural group	06
Accommodation	07
Transport	08
Child care	09
Someone to help with the media	10
Financial assistance.....	11
Advice about how to keep safe	12
Advice about how to keep my house secure	13
Legal advice	14
Other (specify)	37

V47 *Going back to the incident itself, did the police get to know about the matter?*

- V49** ← Yes 1
- V48** ← No 2
- ← Don't know 9

**Next crime/
demographics**

V48 *Is there any particular reason why the police did not get to know about the matter?*

Please select all that apply

Private/personal/family matter	01
Dealt with matter myself/ourselves.....	02
Reported to other authorities (eg superiors, company security staff etc).....	03
Dislike/fear of police.....	04
Fear of revenge.....	05
Make matters worse	06
Police could have done nothing	07
Police would not have bothered/not been interested	08
Police too busy	09
Inconvenient/too much trouble	10
No loss/damage/attempt at offence was unsuccessful	11
Too trivial/not worth reporting	12
Didn't have enough evidence to report it..	13
Other (specify)	37
No particular reason	38
Don't Know.....	39

Now go to next crime or Demographics

V49 *Did you (or anyone in your household) report the incident to the police or did the police find out about the incident some other way?*

- I/someone in my household reported it 1
- V51** ← Police found out some other way 2

V50 *People have different reasons for reporting crime, why did you or someone in your household decide to report this incident?*

Probe to no

Code all that apply

Needed for insurance claim.....	1
Hoped to get property back.....	2
Fear of further victimisation	3
To help catch/punish the person(s) who did this	4
Because a crime was committed/ general feeling of obligation	5
Other (specify)	7
Don't know	9

V51 *Did the police advise you or anyone in your household where you could go for any further help or advice you needed?*

Yes.....	1
No.....	2
Don't know.....	9

Showcard Q

V52 *Overall, using the categories on Showcard Q, how satisfied were you with the way the Police dealt with the matter?*

V54 ← [Very satisfied	1
	Satisfied	2
V53 ← [Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.....	3
	Dissatisfied	4
	Very dissatisfied	5
V54 ←	Don't know/can't say.....	9

V53 *Are there any particular reasons why you weren't more satisfied with what the police did?*

Probe to no

Code all that apply

They seemed uninterested.....	01
They didn't come to my house when telephoned/ contacted	02
They didn't come quickly enough when telephoned/ contacted	03
They didn't deal with/investigate the incident at all	04
They didn't do enough to investigate the incident.....	05
They didn't believe me/ accused me.....	06
They made mistakes/handled the matter badly.....	07
They failed to keep (me/the victim) informed of progress in the case	08
They didn't recover property	09
They didn't catch the person who did it	10
They were impolite/unpleasant	11
They didn't offer me sufficient support .	12
They didn't refer me to other agencies for the help or advice I needed.....	13
Their attitudes, behaviour and comments were sexist	14
Their attitudes, behaviour and comments were racist.....	15
Other (specify)	37
No particular reason	38
Don't know.....	39

V54 *How did this contact affect the way you think about the police. Did it make you look more favourably or less favourably on them or did it make no difference to your view of the police at all?*

More favourably.....	1
Less favourably	2
No difference.....	3
Don't know.....	9

Now proceed to next victim incident if appropriate. If no more victim forms go to Demographics.

Demographics

D1 *Can I check some details about the members of your household? Firstly, how many people are there in your household, including you?*

Refused=98 Don't know=99

Number of people: _____

D2 *How many of the members of your household are aged under 15?*

Refused=98 Don't know=99

Number of people less than 15: _____

Showcard R

D4 *Which one of the statements on Showcard R best describes this household?*

- One person living alone01
- Solo parent with child/children.....02
- Couple without children/ children
not living at home03
- Couple with children04
- Extended family/whanau05
- Flatmates.....06
- Family - other combination07
- Other (specify) _____37

(Do not read) Refused39

D5 Code Sex of Respondent

- Male..... 1
- Female 2

Showcard S

D6 *Using Showcard S can you please tell me which age range you fall into?*

- 15 – 16 years 1
- 17 – 24 years 2
- 25 – 39 years 3
- 40 – 59 years 4
- 60 – 69 years 5
- 70+ years 6
- Refused..... 9

Showcard T

D7 *Looking at Showcard T, can you please tell me which ethnic group you belong to? Select which group or groups apply to you.*

- D7a** ← New Zealand European 02
- ← Maori 03
- ← Samoan 05
- ← Cook Island Maori..... 04
- D7b** ← Tongan..... 05
- ← Niuean 06
- ← Chinese 07
- ← Indian..... 08
- ← Other (such as Dutch, Japanese, Tokelaun)
Please specify _____ 37
- (Do not read) Refused**..... 39

D7a *How many people in your household aged over 15 years are Maori?*

Refused=98 Don't know=99

Number of Maori aged over 15 years: _____

D7b *How many people in your household aged over 15 years are Pacific People?*

Refused=98 Don't know=99

Number of Pacific People over 15 years: _____

D8 *Does your household own this house/flat or rent it?*

- | | | | |
|----------------|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| <div>D9</div> | ← | Rented..... | 1 |
| | | Owned (including with mortgage).... | 2 |
| <div>D10</div> | ← | Other | 7 |
| | | Refused | 9 |

SHOWCARD U

D9 *Using Showcard U who does your household rent from?*

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Private owner..... | 1 |
| Local authority/council..... | 2 |
| Housing New Zealand | 3 |
| Other (specify) | 7 |
| Refused | 9 |

Showcard V

D10 *Which of the options on Showcard V best describes your current employment status?*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Currently in paid employment..... | 1 |
| Retired | 2 |
| Home Duties | 3 |
| Social Welfare/ Beneficiary..... | 4 |
| Student | 5 |
| Refused | 9 |

D13 *Are you the main income earner in this household?*

- | | | | |
|----------------|---|---------------|---|
| <div>D17</div> | ← | Yes..... | 1 |
| | | No | 2 |
| <div>D14</div> | ← | Refused | 9 |

D14 *Is the main income earner?*

Read Out

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Male | 1 |
| Female | 2 |
| Do not read Refused..... | 8 |

D17 *What specifically is the occupation of the main income earner? **If retired** – Please think about their previous occupation.*

*What specifically is your occupation? **If retired** – Please think about your previous occupation.*

Please be as detailed as possible

D18 *What are/ were the main tasks the main income earner usually performs/ performed in that occupation?*

What are/ were the main tasks you usually perform/ performed in that occupation?

For example: looking after children at daycare centre, teaching secondary school students, making cakes and pastries, planning and supervising office activities.

For Managers – state main activities controlled. Probe fully.

Please be as detailed as possible

Showcard W

D20 *Looking at Showcard W, can you tell me which one of these best describes your current situation?*

- | | |
|--|---|
| Legally Married | 1 |
| Defacto Relationship/Living together. | 2 |
| Single/Never Married | 3 |
| Widowed..... | 4 |
| Divorced/Separated..... | 5 |
| Refused | 8 |

Q251 *The next section is concerned with people's experience as victims of some other kinds of crime which we have not discussed yet, for example violence by partners and by people who know each other well, and unwanted sexual attention.*

Even if you have not experienced any incidences of this type, we still need to know about this. In this case, this will only require answering a very few questions. I'd now like to pass the laptop to you for you to complete this next section.

Interviewer: *If respondent says no incidents, it is acceptable for you to go through the questions with them quickly. Please note: males should also be filling in this part of the questionnaire.*

Go to Self-
Completion
section

← Continue 1

Q453

← Prefer to do it with
pen and paper..... 2

Terminate
survey

← Refused 8

That's it! Thank you very much for your help with this survey.

Q453 Please fill your hardcopy self completion questionnaire out, and when completed, place it in the envelope provided. Thank you very much for your help with this survey.

Interviewer: The ident number is: __

Make sure this ident number goes on the call sheet in the appropriate column.

CONFIDENTIAL

- ★ We promise that your answers are **totally confidential** and will not be seen by the interviewer unless you ask them to help you.
- ★ No one else will ever know who you are or what you have said; all the answers will be added together by computer.
- ★ **Please answer honestly.** It is important that we have a complete picture of what happens to people.
- ★ The number(s) that you will be circling for each question are for office use only.

The interviewer will now show you how to fill in the questionnaire
using the example questions on the following page.

EXAMPLE QUESTIONS ONLY

<p>Q1 <i>Do you own at least one pair of shoes?</i> (Please answer ‘Yes’ to this example question)</p> <p>Yes No</p>	<p>CIRCLE CODE 1</p> <p>1 2</p>
<p>Q2 <i>How many pairs of shoes do you own?</i></p> <p>Number of pairs: <input type="text"/></p>	<p>WRITE NUMBER IN BOX</p>
<p>Q3 <i>What colour shoes do you own?</i> (Please select all that apply)</p> <p>Black Brown Grey Red White Other (specify)</p>	<p>CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 7</p>

Most of the questions that follow are about things that might have happened to you over the period since 1st January 2000, but some questions relate to earlier periods. We only want to know about things which have happened to **you personally**.

We don't just want to know about serious things - we want to know about small things too.

If you are unsure how to fill your answers in, feel free to ask the interviewer to help you.

SECTION 1: VIOLENCE BY YOUR PARTNER

Q258 We are particularly interested in learning more about people's experience of violence at the hands of their partners. Other research has told us that this is much more common than violence by strangers. We need to know if this is so in New Zealand too. These questions only apply to a partner of the **opposite sex**. Answer them if you have **ever** been in a marital or similar partnership with a partner of the opposite sex. Questions relating to partners of the same sex are dealt with in Section 2.

Ever been in a marital/ partnership of opposite sex.....	1 → Continue with Q252
Never been in a marital/ partnership of opposite sex	2 → Go to Section 2 on page 13

Q252 *Has any partner EVER **deliberately** destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or **threatened** to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?*

Yes	1
No	2

Q253 *Has any partner EVER **actually** used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?*

Yes	1
No	2

<p>Q254 Has any partner EVER threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q255 Has any partner EVER used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q258 These next questions also only apply to a partner of the opposite sex.</p> <p>Answer them if you are in a marital or similar partnership at the present time and answer them about your current partner.</p> <p>Continue - in a marriage/ partnership AT PRESENT.....</p> <p>Not in a partnership/ marriage AT PRESENT</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q259</p> <p>2 → Go to Section 2 on page 13</p>
<p>Q259 Since 1st January 2000, has your CURRENT partner deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Not prepared to say</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q260</p> <p>2 } 9 } → Go to Q262</p>
<p>Q260 How many times?</p> <p style="text-align: right;">WRITE IN</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>	
<p>Q262 Since 1st January 2000, has your CURRENT partner actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Not prepared to say</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q263</p> <p>2 } 9 } → Go to Q264</p>
<p>Q263 How many times?</p> <p style="text-align: right;">WRITE IN</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>	

<p>Q264 Since 1st January 2000, has your CURRENT partner threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p> <p>Yes No Not prepared to say</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q265 2 } 9 } → Go to Q266</p>
<p>Q265 How many times?</p> <p style="text-align: right;">WRITE IN Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>	
<p>Q266 Since 1 January 2000, has your CURRENT partner used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</p> <p>Yes No Not prepared to say</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q267 2 } 9 } → Go to Q272</p>
<p>Q267 How many times?</p> <p style="text-align: right;">WRITE IN Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>	
<p>IF YOU ANSWERED 'YES' TO EITHER Q259/ 262/ 264/ 266 CONTINUE WITH Q272, ELSE GO TO SECTION TWO – VIOLENCE BY PEOPLE YOU KNOW WELL (on page 13).</p> <p>Q272 We would like to know more about what was the MOST RECENT incident of this type since January 2000. Could you please briefly describe this MOST RECENT incident?</p> <p>Please be as detailed as possible. WRITE IN YOUR ANSWER BELOW</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
<p>Q273 The following questions relate to the MOST RECENT incident you have just described at Q272.</p> <p>In what year did the incident happen?</p> <p>2000 2001</p>	<p>1 2</p>
<p>Q275 During this incident, did your partner have a weapon or something they used or threatened to use as a weapon?</p>	

Yes	1 → Continue with Q276
No	2 }
Not prepared to say	9 } → Go to Q278

<p>Q276 <i>What was the weapon?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>A bottle or a drinking glass</p> <p>A knife or screwdriver or other stabbing weapon</p> <p>A stick or club or other hitting weapon.....</p> <p>A gun</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p>	<p>CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>01</p> <p>02</p> <p>03</p> <p>04</p> <p>37</p>
<p>Q278 <i>Were you physically injured in any way?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Not prepared to say</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q279</p> <p>2 } 9 } → Go to Q283</p>
<p>Q279 <i>In what way were you physically injured?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>Bruises/ black eyes</p> <p>Scratches</p> <p>Cuts</p> <p>Broken bones</p> <p>Internal injuries</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p>	<p>CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>01</p> <p>02</p> <p>03</p> <p>04</p> <p>05</p> <p>37</p>
<p>Q281 <i>As a result of what happened did you get attention from a doctor or nurse?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q282</p> <p>2 → Go to Q283</p>
<p>Q282 <i>Did you need to stay overnight in hospital?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q283 <i>Was your partner affected at all by alcohol or drugs when the incident happened?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>9</p>

|

<p>Q284 <i>People react to these things in different ways. Did you have any of the following reactions after the incident?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>I was angry</p> <p>I was shocked</p> <p>I was afraid</p> <p>I experienced difficulty sleeping</p> <p>I cried</p> <p>I had depression or anxiety attacks</p> <p>I had relationship problems</p> <p>I was ashamed or guilty</p> <p>I felt bad about myself</p> <p>I have been more cautious/ aware</p> <p>I have been afraid for the children</p> <p>I increased my use of alcohol or drugs or medication.....</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p> <p>No reaction</p>	<p>CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>01 </p> <p>02 </p> <p>03 </p> <p>04 </p> <p>05 </p> <p>06 </p> <p>07 → Continue</p> <p>08 with Q286</p> <p>09 </p> <p>10 </p> <p>11 </p> <p>12 </p> <p>37 </p> <p>38 </p>
<p>Q286 <i>Would you say you were affected by the incident very much, quite a lot, just a little, or not at all?</i></p> <p>Very much</p> <p>Quite a lot</p> <p>Just a little</p> <p>Not at all</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q287 <i>Which one of the following options best describes this incident?</i></p> <p>It was a crime</p> <p>It was wrong but not a crime</p> <p>It was just something that happened</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q289 <i>Did you receive advice or help from neighbours, friends or relatives after the incident?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>

Please note that this question (Q290) and the next one (Q292) apply to organisations **which made initial contact with you**, not organisations which you yourself contacted.

Q290 Were you **contacted by** any of the following organisations offering advice or help after the incident? Please do not include the police, friends, neighbours or relatives.

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----|--------------------------------|
| Victim Support Group | 01 | 37 }
38 → Go to Q294 |
| Rape Crisis | 02 | |
| HELP (sexual abuse centre)..... | 03 | |
| Women's Refuge | 04 | |
| Iwi or other Maori organisation | 05 | |
| Pacific organisation | 06 | |
| Church/Church Group | 07 | |
| Other (please specify below)..... | 37 | |
| None of these | 38 | → Go to Q294 |

Q292 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q290) that offered you advice after the incident, please tell me how helpful they were?

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	I didn't accept or want their help	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
02. Rape Crisis	1	2	3	4	5	9
03. HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre)	1	2	3	4	5	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	5	9
05. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
06. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
07. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
37. Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	5	9

The next two questions (Q294 and Q296) apply to organisations which **you yourself may have made initial contact with**.

Q294 Did **you approach** any of the following organisations for advice or help after the incident? Please do not include the police, friends, neighbours or relatives.

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----|--------------|
| Victim Support Group | 01 | |
| Rape Crisis | 02 | |
| HELP (sexual abuse centre) | 03 | |
| Women's Refuge | 04 | |
| Citizens Advice Bureau | 05 | → Continue |
| Lawyer | 06 | with Q296 |
| Radio, TV or Newspaper | 07 | |
| Iwi or other Maori organisation..... | 08 | |
| Pacific organisation | 09 | |
| Church/Church group | 10 | |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 | |
| None of these | 38 | → Go to Q298 |

Q296 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q294) that you approached for advice or help after the incident, please tell me how helpful they were...

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	9
02. Rape Crisis	1	2	3	4	9
03. HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre)	1	2	3	4	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	9
05. Citizens Advice Bureau	1	2	3	4	9
06. Lawyer	1	2	3	4	9
07. Radio, TV or Newspaper	1	2	3	4	9
08. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	9
09. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	9
10. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	9
37. Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	9

Q298 Is there any type of assistance or advice you would have liked to get after the incident but didn't receive?

Yes

1 → Continue with Q299

No
Don't know

2 → Go to Q301
9 → Go to Q301

Q299 *What type? Can you record which type of help you would have liked, using the list below to help you?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | |
|---|----|
| Emotional support | 01 |
| Someone to talk to | 02 |
| Someone to explain what was happening..... | 03 |
| Someone to help me at court | 04 |
| Counselling | 05 |
| A support person from my own cultural group | 06 |
| Accommodation | 07 |
| Transport | 08 |
| Child care | 09 |
| Someone to help with the media | 10 |
| Financial assistance | 11 |
| Advice about how to keep safe..... | 12 |
| Advice about how to keep my house secure..... | 13 |
| Legal advice | 14 |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 |

Q301 *Did the police get to know about the incident?*

- | | |
|------------|-----------------------------|
| Yes | 1 → Continue with Q302 |
| No | 2 → Go to Q310 |
| Don't know | 9 → Go to Sect 2 on page 13 |

Q302 *Did you report the incident to the police yourself or did they find out about it some other way?*

- | | |
|------------------|------------------------|
| I reported it | 1 → Continue with Q303 |
| Police found out | 2 → Go to Q305 |

Q303 *People have different reasons for reporting crime, why did you decide to report it?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | |
|---|----|
| I was scared the incident would be repeated | 01 |
| To help punish my partner | 02 |
| To get help for my partner | 03 |
| Because a crime was committed | 04 |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 |

Don't know

39

<p>Q305 <i>Did the police advise you where you could go for any further help or advice you needed?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q306 <i>Overall, how satisfied were you with the way the police dealt with the matter?</i></p> <p>Very satisfied</p> <p>Satisfied</p> <p>Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.....</p> <p>Dissatisfied</p> <p>Very dissatisfied</p> <p>Don't know/ can't say</p>	<p>1 → Go to Q309</p> <p>2 → Go to Q309</p> <p>3 } Continue with Q307</p> <p>4 }</p> <p>5 }</p> <p>9 → Go to Q309</p>
<p>Q307 <i>Are there any particular reasons why you weren't more satisfied with what the police did?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>They seemed uninterested</p> <p>They didn't come to my house when telephoned/contacted</p> <p>They didn't come quickly enough when telephoned/contacted</p> <p>They didn't deal with or investigate the incident at all.....</p> <p>They didn't do enough to investigate the incident.....</p> <p>They didn't believe me or they accused me</p> <p>They made mistakes or handled the matter badly.....</p> <p>They failed to keep me informed of progress in the case.....</p> <p>They were impolite or unpleasant</p> <p>They didn't offer me sufficient support</p> <p>They didn't refer me to other agencies for the help or advice I needed</p> <p>Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were sexist.....</p> <p>Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were racist</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>01</p> <p>02</p> <p>03</p> <p>04</p> <p>05</p> <p>06</p> <p>07</p> <p>08</p> <p>09</p> <p>10</p> <p>11</p> <p>12</p> <p>13</p> <p>37</p> <p>39</p>
<p>Q309 <i>How did this contact affect the way you think about the police. Did it make you look more favourably or less favourably on them, or did it make no difference to your view of the police at all?</i></p> <p>More favourably</p> <p>Less favourably</p>	<p>1]</p> <p>2 </p>

No difference
Don't know

3		→ Go to Section 2
9		on page 13

Answer Question 310 only if the police did not get to know about the incident ('No' at Q301).

Otherwise go to Section Two: Violence by people you know well

Q310 *Is there any particular reason why the police did not get to know about the matter?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

It was a private or personal or family matter	01
I dealt with the matter myself/ourselves	02
I reported it to other authorities (eg social welfare or housing)....	03
I dislike the police	04
I was scared of the police	05
I was afraid of revenge	06
It could have made matters worse	07
The police could have done nothing	08
The police would not have bothered/not been interested	09
The police are too busy	10
It was inconvenient/too much trouble.....	11
It was too trivial and not worth reporting.....	12
I didn't have enough evidence to report it	13
Other (please specify below)	37
Don't know	39

SECTION 2: VIOLENCE BY PEOPLE YOU KNOW WELL

We are also interested in learning more about people's experience of violence at the hands of other people they know well. Other research has told us that this is much more common than violence by strangers. We need to know if this is so in New Zealand too.

This section focuses on violence by people you know well, including relatives, friends and family members, **OTHER THAN YOUR CURRENT PARTNER.**

Q315 *Since January 2000, has anyone else you know well **deliberately** destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or **threatened** to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you? Remember this does **NOT** include your current partner.*

Yes

No

1 → Continue with Q316

2 → Go to Q318

Q316 *How many times?*

Number of times:

IF 3 OR MORE TIMES AT Q316 ANSWER Q317, ELSE GO TO Q318.

Q317 *Were any of these incidents the same sort of things done by the same person?*

Yes

No

1

2

Q318 *Since 1st January 2000, has anyone else you know well **actually** used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?*

Yes

No

1 → Continue with Q319

2 → Go to Q321

Q319 *How many times?*

Number of times:

IF 3 OR MORE TIMES AT Q319 ANSWER Q320, ELSE GO TO Q321

Q320 *Were any of these incidents the same sort of things done by the same person?*

Yes

No

1

2

Q321 *Since 1st January 2000, has anyone else you know well **threatened** to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?*

Yes

No

1 → Continue with Q322

2 → Go to Q324

Q322 *How many times?*

Number of times:

--

<p>IF 3 OR MORE TIMES AT Q322 ANSWER Q323, ELSE GO TO Q324</p>			
<p>Q323 <i>Were any of these incidents the same sort of things done by the same person?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>		<p>1</p> <p>2</p>	
<p>Q324 <i>Since 1st January 2000, has anyone else you know well used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>		<p>1 → Continue with Q325</p> <p>2 → Go to Q327</p>	
<p>Q325 <i>How many times?</i> Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>			
<p>IF 3 OR MORE TIMES AT Q325 ANSWER Q326, ELSE GO TO Q327</p> <p>Q326 <i>Were any of these incidents the same sort of things done by the same person?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>		<p>1</p> <p>2</p>	
<p>IF ANSWERED 'YES' TO EITHER Q315/ 318/ 321/ 324 CONTINUE WITH Q327, ELSE GO TO SECTION THREE – UNWANTED SEXUAL ATTENTION ON PAGE 23</p>			
<p>Q327 <i>I would like you to think about the MOST RECENT incident of this type since 1st January 2000. Could you please briefly describe this MOST RECENT incident.</i></p> <p>Please be as detailed as possible WRITE IN BELOW</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>			
<p>The following questions relate to the MOST RECENT incident you have just described in the previous question (Q327).</p> <p>Q328 <i>What was the sex of the person (people) who did this to you?</i></p> <p>Male(s)</p> <p>Females(s)</p> <p>Both male(s) and female(s).....</p>			<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>

Don't know	9
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<p>Q330 <i>What was the relationship to you of the person/ (people) who did this?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>A boyfriend or girlfriend or lover (opposite sex) 01</p> <p>A partner or boyfriend or girlfriend or lover (same sex) 02</p> <p>An ex-partner or ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend (opposite sex) 03</p> <p>An ex-partner or ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend (same sex) 04</p> <p>A close friend of yours 05</p> <p>A close friend of your family 06</p> <p>A parent 07</p> <p>A step parent 08</p> <p>A parent's boyfriend or girlfriend 09</p> <p>A child or step child 10</p> <p>A brother or step brother 11</p> <p>A sister or step sister 12</p> <p>Another relative 13</p> <p>A work mate 14</p> <p>An employer 15</p> <p>A neighbour 16</p> <p>Knew by sight only 17</p> <p>Other (please specify below) 37</p>	
<p>Q332 <i>Did the person/ (any of the people) who did it have a weapon or something they used or threatened to use as a weapon?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q333</p> <p>2 → Go to Q335</p>
<p>Q333 <i>What was the weapon?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>A bottle or a drinking glass 01</p> <p>A knife or screwdriver or other stabbing weapon 02</p> <p>A stick or club or other hitting weapon 03</p> <p>A gun 04</p> <p>Other (please specify below) 37</p>	
<p>Q335 <i>Were you physically injured in any way?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q336</p> <p>2 → Go to Q340</p>

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<p>Q336 <i>In what way were you physically injured?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>Bruises/black eyes</p> <p>Scratches</p> <p>Cuts</p> <p>Broken bones</p> <p>Internal injuries</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p>	<p>01</p> <p>02</p> <p>03</p> <p>04</p> <p>05</p> <p>37</p>
<p>Q338 <i>As a result of what happened did you get attention from a doctor or nurse?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q339</p> <p>2 → Go to Q340</p>
<p>Q339 <i>Did you need to stay overnight in hospital?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q340 <i>Was the person/ (or people) who did this to you affected at all by alcohol or drugs when the incident happened?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q341 <i>People react to these things in different ways. Did you have any of the following reactions after the incident?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>I was angry</p> <p>I was shocked</p> <p>I was afraid</p> <p>I experienced difficulty in sleeping.....</p> <p>I cried</p> <p>I had depression or anxiety attacks</p> <p>I had relationship problems</p> <p>I was ashamed or guilty</p> <p>I felt bad about myself</p> <p>I have been more cautious/ aware</p> <p>I have been afraid for the children</p> <p>I increased my use of alcohol or drugs or medication</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p> <p>No reaction</p>	<p>01 </p> <p>02 </p> <p>03 </p> <p>04 </p> <p>05 </p> <p>06 </p> <p>07 Continue with Q342</p> <p>08 </p> <p>09 </p> <p>10 </p> <p>11 </p> <p>12 </p> <p>37 </p> <p> </p> <p>38 </p>

<p>Q342 <i>Would you say you were affected by the incident very much, quite a lot, just a little, or not at all?</i></p> <p>Very much 1</p> <p>Quite a lot 2</p> <p>Just a little 3</p> <p>Not at all 4</p> <p>Don't know 9</p>	
<p>Q344 <i>Which one of the following options best describes what happened?</i></p> <p>It was a crime 1</p> <p>It was wrong but not a crime 2</p> <p>It was just something that happened 3</p> <p>Don't know 9</p>	
<p>Q347 <i>Did you receive advice or help from neighbours, friends or relatives after the incident?</i></p> <p>Yes 1</p> <p>No 2</p>	
<p>Please note that this question (Q348) and the next one (Q350) apply to organisations which made initial contact with you, not organisations which you yourself contacted.</p> <p>Q348 <i>Were you contacted by any of the following organisations offering advice or help after the incident? Please do not include the police, friends, neighbours or relatives.</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>Victim Support Group 01]</p> <p>Women's Refuge 04 ➔ Continue</p> <p>Iwi or other Maori organisation..... 05 with Q350</p> <p>Pacific organisation 06 </p> <p>Church/Church Group 07 </p> <p>Other (please specify below) 37]</p> <p>None of these 38 ➔ Go to Q352</p>	

Q350 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q348) that offered you advice after the incident, please tell me how helpful they were.

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	I didn't accept or want their help	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	5	9
05. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
06. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
07. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
37 Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	5	9

The next two questions (Q352 and Q354) apply to organisations which you yourself may have made initial contact with.

Q352 Did you **approach any** of the following organisations for advice or help after the incident? Please do not include the police, friends, neighbours or relatives.

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

Victim Support Group	01	→ Continue with Q354
Women's Refuge	04	
Citizens Advice Bureau	05	
Lawyer	06	
Radio, TV or Newspaper	07	
Iwi or other Maori organisation	08	
Pacific organisation	09	
Church/Church Group	10	
Other (please specify below)	37	
None of these	38	→ Go to Q356

Q354 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q352) that you approached for advice or help after the incident, can you please let me know how helpful they were?

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	9
05. Citizens Advice Bureau	1	2	3	4	9
06. Lawyer	1	2	3	4	9
07. Radio, TV or Newspaper	1	2	3	4	9
08. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	9
09. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	9
10. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	9
37 Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	9

Q356 Is there any type of assistance or advice you would have liked to get after the incident but didn't receive?

Yes
No
Don't know

1 → Continue with Q357
2 }
9 } Go to Q359

Q357 What type? Can you record which type of help you would have liked, using the list below to help you?

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

Emotional support	01
Someone to talk to	02
Someone to explain what was happening.....	03
Someone to help me at court	04
Counselling	05
A support person from my own cultural group	06
Accommodation	07
Transport	08
Child care	09
Someone to help with the media	10
Financial assistance	11
Advice about how to keep safe.....	12
Advice about how to keep my house secure.....	13
Legal advice	14

Other (please specify below)	37
Q359 <i>Did the police get to know about the incident?</i> Yes No Don't know	1 → Continue with Q360 2 → Go to Q368 9 → Go to Section 3 on page 23
Q360 <i>Did you report the incident to the police yourself or did they find out about it some other way?</i> I reported it Police found out some other way	1 → Continue with Q361 2 → Go to Q363
Q361 <i>People have different reasons for reporting crime, why did you decide to report it?</i> PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY I was scared the incident would be repeated To help punish the person(s) who did this To get help for the person(s) who did this Because a crime was committed Other (please specify below) Don't know	01 02 03 04 37 39
Q363 <i>Did the police advise you where you could go for any further help or advice you needed?</i> Yes No Don't know	1 2 9
Q364 <i>Overall, how satisfied were you with the way the police dealt with the matter?</i> Very satisfied Satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Dissatisfied Very dissatisfied Don't know/ can't say	1 } → Go to Q367 2 } 3 } 4 } Continue with Q365 5 } 9 → Go to Q367

Q365 *Are there any particular reasons why you weren't more satisfied with what the police did?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | |
|--|--------|
| They seemed uninterested | 01 |
| They didn't come to my house when telephoned/contacted | 02 |
| They didn't come quickly enough when telephoned/contacted | 03 |
| They didn't deal with or investigate the incident at all..... | 04 |
| They didn't do enough to investigate the incident | 05 |
| They didn't believe me or they accused me | 06 |
| They made mistakes or handled the matter badly | 07 |
| They failed to keep me informed of progress in the case..... | 08 |
| They were impolite or unpleasant | 09 |
| They didn't offer me sufficient support | 10 |
| They didn't refer me to other agencies for the help or advice I needed | 11 |
| Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were sexist..... | 12 |
| Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were racist | 13 |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 |
|
No particular reason |
38 |
| Don't know | 39 |

Q367 *How did this contact affect the way you think about the police. Did it make you look more favourably or less favourably on them, or did it make no difference to your view of the police at all?*

- | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|
| More favourably | 1 |]
 ➔ Go to Section 3
 on page 23
] |
| Less favourably | 2 | |
| No difference | 3 | |
| Don't know | 9 | |

Answer Question 368 only if the police did not get to know about the incident ('No' at Q359).

Otherwise go to Section Three: Unwanted Sexual Attention

Q368 *Is there any particular reason why the police did not get to know about the matter?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

It was a private or personal or family matter	01
I dealt with the matter myself/ourselves	02
I reported it to other authorities (eg social welfare or housing).....	03
I dislike the police	04
I was scared of the police	05
I was afraid of revenge	06
It would have made matters worse	07
The police could have done nothing	08
The police would not have bothered/not been interested	09
The police are too busy	10
It was inconvenient/too much trouble.....	11
It was too trivial and not worth reporting.....	12
I didn't have enough evidence to report it	13
Other (please specify below)	37
Don't know	39

SECTION 3: UNWANTED SEXUAL ATTENTION

Another type of stressful event that many people experience is unwanted sexual advances. These are not always reported to the police or even discussed with family, partners or friends. The person making these advances is not always a stranger, but can be a friend or a family member. Such experiences can occur any time in one's life – even as a child. This next section asks about any unwanted sexual experiences you may have had. You may find the questions disturbing or distressing, but it is important to ask about these incidents so we have a clearer idea of how often such things happen. Remember, the information you give is confidential

Q386 *Has anyone EVER sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted you or made you carry out any sexual activity when you did not want to? The person making these advances may be a stranger, but can also be a partner etc.*

Yes

No

1 → Continue with Q387

2 → Go to Q444

Q387 *Did anyone sexually interfere with or assault you before the age of seventeen?*

Yes

No

1 → Continue with Q388

2 → Go to Q390

Q388 *Was this...?*

Once

More than once

1 → Go to Q389a

2 → Go to Q389b

IF ONCE AT Q388 ANSWER....

Q389a *How old were you when this happened? Were you...?*

0 – 5 years of age

6 – 11 years of age

12 – 16 years of age

1 }
2 } → Go to Q390
3 }

IF MORE THAN ONCE AT Q388 ANSWER....

Q389b *How old were you when this first happened? Were you...?*

0 – 5 years of age

6 – 11 years of age

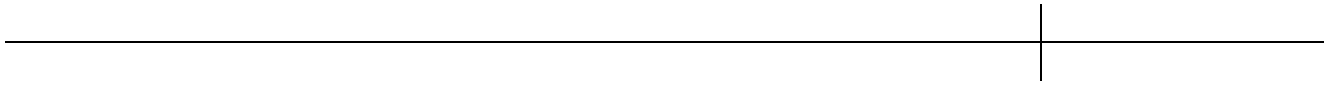
12 – 16 years of age

1

2

3

<p>Q390 <i>SINCE JANUARY 2000, has anyone sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted you or made you carry out any sexual activity that you did not want to? Remember this can include unwanted sexual attention from a partner.</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q391</p> <p>2 → Go to Q444</p>
<p>Q391 <i>How many times?</i> Number of times: <input type="text"/></p>	
<p>IF 3 OR MORE TIMES AT Q391 ASK Q392, ELSE GO TO Q393</p>	
<p>Q392 <i>Were any of these incidents done by the same person?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q393 <i>Thinking about the MOST RECENT incident of this type since January 2000, in what year did this happen?</i></p> <p>2000</p> <p>2001</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>The following questions all relate to this MOST RECENT incident.</p>	
<p>Q394 <i>How many people were involved in doing this to you?</i></p> <p>One</p> <p>Two</p> <p>Three</p> <p>Four or more</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q395 <i>What was the sex of the person/ (people) who did this to you?</i></p> <p>Male(s)</p> <p>Females(s)</p> <p>Both male(s) and female(s)</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q396 <i>Did you know the person/ (people) who did this to you?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q397</p> <p>2 → Go to Q399</p>



Q397 *What was the relationship to you of the person/ (people) who did this?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | |
|---|----|
| A boyfriend or girlfriend or lover (opposite sex) | 01 |
| A partner or boyfriend or girlfriend or lover (same sex) | 02 |
| An ex-partner or ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend (opposite sex) | 03 |
| An ex-partner or ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend (same sex) | 04 |
| A close friend of yours | 05 |
| A close friend of your family | 06 |
| A parent | 07 |
| A step parent | 08 |
| A parent's boyfriend or girlfriend | 09 |
| A child or step child | 10 |
| A brother or step brother | 11 |
| A sister or step sister | 12 |
| Another relative | 13 |
| A work mate | 14 |
| An employer | 15 |
| A neighbour | 16 |
| Knew by sight only | 17 |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 |

Q399 *Did the person/ (any of the people) who did it have a weapon or something they used or threatened to use as a weapon?*

Yes

1 → Continue with Q400

No

2 → Go to Q402

Q400 *What was the weapon?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

- | | |
|---|----|
| A bottle or a drinking glass | 01 |
| A knife or screwdriver or other stabbing weapon | 02 |
| A stick or club or other hitting weapon | 03 |
| A gun | 04 |
| Other (please specify below) | 37 |

Q402 *Were you physically injured in any way?*

Yes

1 → Continue with Q412

No

2 → Go to Q407

<p>Q412 <i>In what way were you physically injured?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY TO YOU</p> <p>Bruises/ black eyes</p> <p>Scratches</p> <p>Cuts</p> <p>Broken bones</p> <p>Internal injuries</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p>	<p>01</p> <p>02</p> <p>03</p> <p>04</p> <p>05</p> <p>37</p>
<p>Q405 <i>As a result of what happened did you get attention from a doctor or nurse?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1 → Continue with Q406</p> <p>2 → Go to Q407</p>
<p>Q406 <i>Did you need to stay overnight in hospital?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Q407 <i>Was the person (or people) who did this to you affected at all by alcohol or drugs when the incident happened?</i></p> <p>Yes</p> <p>No</p> <p>Don't know</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>9</p>
<p>Q408 <i>People react to these things in different ways. Did you have any of the following reactions after the incident?</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>I was angry</p> <p>I was shocked</p> <p>I was afraid</p> <p>I experienced difficulty sleeping</p> <p>I cried</p> <p>I had depression or anxiety attacks</p> <p>I had relationship problems</p> <p>I was ashamed or guilty</p> <p>I felt bad about myself</p> <p>I have been more cautious/ aware</p> <p>I have been afraid for the children</p> <p>I increased my use of alcohol or drugs or medication.....</p> <p>Other (please specify below)</p>	<p>01 </p> <p>02 </p> <p>03 </p> <p>04 </p> <p>05 </p> <p>06 </p> <p>07 Continue with Q410</p> <p>08 </p> <p>09 </p> <p>10 </p> <p>11 </p> <p>12 </p> <p>37 </p>

No reaction

38 J

<p>Q410 <i>Would you say you were affected by the incident very much, quite a lot, just a little, or not at all?</i></p> <p>Very much 1</p> <p>Quite a lot 2</p> <p>Just a little 3</p> <p>Not at all 4</p> <p>Don't know 9</p>	
<p>Q411 <i>Which one of the following options best describes what happened?</i></p> <p>It was a crime 1</p> <p>It was wrong but not a crime 2</p> <p>It was something that happened..... 3</p> <p>Don't know 9</p>	
<p>Q415 <i>Did you receive advice or help from neighbours, friends or relatives after the incident?</i></p> <p>Yes 1</p> <p>No 2</p>	
<p>Please note that this question (Q416) and the next one (Q420) apply to organisations which made initial contact with you, not organisations which you yourself contacted.</p> <p>Q416 <i>Were you contacted by any of the following organisations offering advice or help after the incident? Please do not include the police, friends, neighbours or relatives.</i></p> <p>PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY</p> <p>Victim Support Group 01 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Rape Crisis 02 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>HELP (sexual abuse centre) 03 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Women's Refuge 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Continue with Q420</p> <p>Iwi or other Maori organisation..... 05 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Pacific organisation 06 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Church/Church Group 07 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Other (please specify below) 37 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>None of these 38 ➔ Go to Q421</p>	

Q420 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q416) that offered you advice after the incident, please tell me how helpful they were?

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	I didn't accept or want their help	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
02. Rape Crisis	1	2	3	4	5	9
03. HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre)	1	2	3	4	5	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	5	9
05. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
06. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
07. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	5	9
37. Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	5	9

The next two questions (Q421 and Q424) apply to organisations which you yourself may have made initial contact with.

Q421 Did you **approach any** of the following organisations for advice or help after the incident?

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

Victim Support Group	01	┐	
Rape Crisis	02	┐	
HELP (sexual abuse centre).....	03	┐	
Women's Refuge	04	┐	
Citizens Advice Bureau	05	┐	
Lawyer	06	┐	Continue with Q424
Radio, TV or Newspaper	07	┐	
Iwi or other Maori organisation.....	08	┐	
Pacific organisation	09	┐	
Church/Church Group	10	┐	
Other (please specify below)	37	┐	
None of these	38	➔	Go to Q426

Q424 For each of the organisations at the previous question (Q421) that you approached for advice or help after the incident, please let me know how helpful they were?

	Very Helpful	Fairly Helpful	Not Very Helpful	Not at all Helpful	Don't Know
01. Victim Support Group	1	2	3	4	9
02. Rape Crisis	1	2	3	4	9
03. HELP (Sexual Abuse Centre)	1	2	3	4	9
04. Women's Refuge	1	2	3	4	9
05. Citizens Advice Bureau	1	2	3	4	9
06. Lawyer	1	2	3	4	9
07. Radio, TV or Newspaper	1	2	3	4	9
08. Iwi or other Maori organisation	1	2	3	4	9
09. Pacific organisation	1	2	3	4	9
10. Church/Church Group	1	2	3	4	9
37. Other (please specify below)	1	2	3	4	9

Q426 Is there any type of assistance or advice you would have liked to get after the incident but didn't receive?

Yes

No

Don't know

1 → Continue with Q427

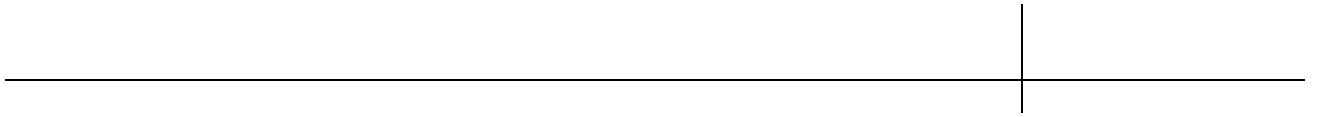
2 → Go to Q429

9 → Go to Q429

Q427 What type? Can you record which type of help you would have liked, using the list below to help you?

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

Emotional support	01
Someone to talk to	02
Someone to explain what was happening.....	03
Someone to help me at court	04
Counselling	05
A support person from my own cultural group	06
Accommodation	07
Transport	08
Child care	09
Someone to help with the media	10
Financial assistance	11
Advice about how to keep safe.....	12
Advice about how to keep my house secure.....	13
Legal advice	14
Other (please specify below)	37



Q429 <i>Did the police get to know about the incident?</i>	Yes No Don't know	1 → Continue with Q430 2 → Go to Q438 9 → Go to Q444
Q430 <i>Did you report the incident to the police yourself or did they find out about it some other way?</i>	I reported it Police found out some other way	1 → Continue with Q431 2 → Go to Q433
Q431 <i>People have different reasons for reporting crime, why did you decide to report it?</i>	PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY	
	I was scared the incident would be repeated	01
	To help punish the person(s) who did this	02
	To get help for the person(s) who did this.....	03
	Because a crime was committed	04
	Other (please specify below)	37
	Don't know	39
Q433 <i>Did the police advise you where you could go for any further help or advice you needed?</i>	Yes No Don't know	1 2 9
Q434 <i>Overall, how satisfied were you with the way the police dealt with the matter?</i>	Very satisfied Satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied..... Dissatisfied Very dissatisfied Don't know/ can't say	1 → Go to Q437 2 → Go to Q437 3 } 4 } Continue with Q435 5 } 9 → Go to Q437

|

Q435 *Are there any particular reasons why you weren't more satisfied with what the police did?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

They seemed uninterested	01
They didn't come to my house when telephoned/contacted.....	02
They didn't come quickly enough when telephoned/contacted.....	03
They didn't deal with or investigate the incident at all	04
They didn't do enough to investigate the incident.....	05
They didn't believe me or they accused me	06
They made mistakes or handled the matter badly	07
They failed to keep me informed of progress in the case	08
They were impolite or unpleasant	09
They didn't catch the person(s) who did it.....	10
They didn't offer me sufficient support	11
They didn't refer me to other agencies for the help or advice I needed	12
Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were sexist	13
Their attitudes, behaviour or comments were racist.....	14
Other (please specify below)	37
No particular reason	38
Don't know	39

Q437 *How did this contact affect the way you think about the police. Did it make you look more favourably or less favourably on them, or did it make no difference to your view of the police at all?*

More favourably	1	┐	
Less favourably	2		→ Go to Q444
No difference	3		
Don't know	9	┘	

Answer Question 438 only if the police did not get to know about the incident ('No' at Q429).

Otherwise go to Question 444

Q438 *Is there any particular reason why the police did not get to know about the matter?*

PLEASE SELECT ALL THAT APPLY

It was a private or personal or family matter	01
I dealt with the matter myself/ourselves	02
I reported it to other authorities (eg social welfare or housing)	03
I dislike the police	04
I was scared of the police	05
I was afraid of revenge	06
It would have made matters worse	07
The police could have done nothing	08
The police would not have bothered/not been interested	09
The police are too busy	10
It was inconvenient/too much trouble	11
It was too trivial and not worth reporting	12
I didn't have enough evidence to report it	13
Other (please specify below)	37
Don't know	39

NOW GO TO Q444 OVER THE PAGE

Q444 That's all the questions we want to ask you. We appreciate that you may have shared some quite personal information with us.

Thank you very much for your help with this survey.

Please give this questionnaire back to your interviewer now so she can complete the survey. The interviewer will ask whether you have a telephone, and if you do, what your telephone number is. One of ACNielsen's co-ordinators may contact you to ensure that this interview did take place.

Please remember, your answers to this survey remain completely confidential

