National Criminal Justice Reference Service

ncjrs

This microfiche was produced from documents received for inclusion in the NCJRS data base. Since NCJRS cannot exercise control over the physical condition of the documents submitted, the individual frame quality will vary. The resolution chart on this frame may be used to evaluate the document quality.

1.0	4.5 4.0	2.8	2.5
		3.2	2.2
		3.6	
1.1	4.0		2.0
			1.8
1.25	1.4		1.6
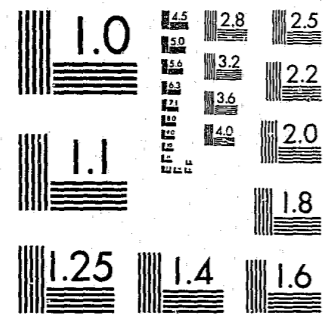
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

Microfilming procedures used to create this fiche comply with the standards set forth in 41CFR 101-11.504.

Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the author(s) and do not represent the official position or policies of the U. S. Department of Justice.

National Institute of Justice
United States Department of Justice
Washington, D.C. 20531

DATE FILMED

JULY 21, 1981

MF

VII

CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION

IN THE NETHERLANDS

Victim surveys, 1974 - 1977

1355

dr. J.J.M. van Dijk
ir. A.C. Vianen

VII

CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION

IN THE NETHERLANDS

Victim surveys, 1974 - 1977

dr. J.J.M. van Dijk

ir. A.C. Vianen

CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

Police statistics are not a reliable indicator of the extent of crime
or of criminal trends, since not all the offences that are committed
come to the attention of the police: this applies particularly to those
crimes of which the police normally become aware only when they are
reported by the victim. The police can only guess at what proportion of
the crimes committed are reported and what proportion remain hidden, and
therefore cannot conclude with any certainty that a particular crime is
becoming commoner from the fact that it is reported more frequently:
it is always possible that the number of crimes committed (e.g. bicycle
thefts) has remained constant but that a larger proportion of the
victims - perhaps at the instigation of their insurance companies - have
reported their loss. The rise in the number of moped thefts in police
statistics may thus reflect not a real increase in this type of crime but
only an increase in the reporting-rate. Similarly, if the public's
willingness to report certain crimes to the police decreases, the
statistics for these crimes will show a fall - even though in reality
they may have been committed more frequently.

Surveys in which people are asked whether they have been the victim of
a particular crime over the past year can give us some idea of its
frequency, since they also bring to light crimes which have not been
reported to the police. The interviewer can also ask whether the respondent
reported to the police any crime of which he may have been a victim -
and if not, why not.
The Justice Ministry's Research and Documentation Centre (Wetenschappe-
lijk Onderzoek-en Documentatiecentrum, WODC) has already had several
victim surveys carried out among a representative sample of the people
of the Netherlands; the results obtained in these surveys were discussed
in the WODC report "Hidden Crime" by dr. W. Buikhuisen, which was
published last year. With the help of the results, Dr. Buikhuisen
calculates what corrections would need to be applied to police statistics
in order to arrive at a more reliable estimate of the true rate: the
victim survey is thus presented as a necessary supplement to the official
statistics.

Our aim in this second WODC report on victim surveys is somewhat different:
we seek to show that these surveys provide us with information which
cannot be obtained in any other way on the extent to which people are
exposed to crime, on the public's readiness to report crimes and on the
police's attitude towards the preparation of official reports. The
information will not be compared or combined with police statistics; work
on the comparison and/or combination of survey results with police data
will probably be more fruitful when results are available covering a
longer period.

Victim surveys tell us first of all what percentage of the respondents
have been the victim of one or more crimes; on the basis of this percentage
an estimate can be made of the true extent of certain forms of crime. The
percentage is also interesting in that it represents the statistical
probability of the average Dutchman being the victim of a particular
crime over a twelve-month period: a victim survey thus provides us in a
very direct manner with information on the degree to which people are
exposed to crime. Straight-forward analyses can then be made to determine
what proportion of the members of a particular section of the population
have been - or are likely to be - victims of crime (e.g. the probability
that young women will be molested in the street or that older people
will be preyed upon by pick-pockets).

Surveys also afford the opportunity of asking people who failed to report
a crime of which they had been a victim why did they not do so. An
analysis can be made to determine which sections of the population are
particularly likely not to report crimes.

Finally, surveys among victims provide us with information on the policy
of the police regarding the preparation of official reports. In the last
survey people who had reported a crime to the police were asked whether
they had signed either a complaint form or an official police report. The
answer to these questions may show what criteria the police use in deciding
whether or not to prepare official reports when crimes are notified to
them.

The contents of this report

Chapter 2 will give further information on the design and implementation
of victim surveys in general and WODC surveys in particular. Chapter 3
deals with the national figures for the victims of the various kind of
crimes since 1973 and with the trends in the three largest cities.
The nature and seriousness of the crimes reported will also be examined.
Chapter 4 covers the figures for the victims of crime in certain sections
of the population and investigates which of these sections are most
likely to be the victims of crime.
Chapter 5 is devoted to the attitude of victims to the reporting of crime:
after a discussion of the figures which show what proportions of the various
types of crime are reported, the factors which determine whether or not
a crime is reported to the police are examined. Chapter 6 deals with
the question of how often the police prepare official reports following
the notification of the various types of crime, and possible differences
in the practice of police forces in different parts of the country are
looked at. We also examine whether the police are perhaps more inclined
to prepare official reports following complaints from certain social
groups than from others. The report ends with a summary of the results
and a brief consideration of what might be called "crime nuisance" as it
affects the people of the Netherlands.

2.   THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDY

2.1   Methodological problems connected with victim surveys

Victim surveys aim to determine what percentage of the people of a
given town or country have been the victim of certain types of crime over
a certain period. The achievement of this aim is complicated by a number
of methodological problems which can be tackled in various ways. The
greatest problem in such a study is that of the respondents' memory:
some of them will have completely forgotten certain crimes of which
they have been the victim, and others will no longer remember how long
ago the incident in question occurred.
Trial studies in the United States (1), the Netherlands (2) and Germany (3)
have shown that victim surveys can procedure reliable results.
The reliability of the answers given was greatest if the survey met the
following requirements:
- The questions must be asked in oral interviews.
- The respondent must be asked only about crimes of which he has himself
  been the victim, and not those affecting other members of his family.
- The period under investigation must be the preceding six or twelve
  months.
In the United States it was finally decided to use the panel method, in
which the same people are interviewed several times: this makes it possible
to determine whether the percentage of victims in the same sample is higher
or lower on the second occasion, but has the disadvantage that the
respondents may modify their behaviour following the first on points of
central importance for the second. People who are asked on the first
occasion why they failed to report a particular crime may decide that
on any future occasion they will report it, and the second set of results
would thus be affected by the first survey.
The design of the WODC survey took account of the three requirements listed
above in the following way. It was decided to carry out the victim surveys
as part of the NIPO (4) "Omnibus" survey: questions relating to crime
would thus be accompanied by others mainly concerned with household
affairs. Since the crime questions were also of a factual nature and not
particularly delicate, there appeared to be no great objection to this.

The advantage of cooperation with NIPO was that at relatively little
expense oral interviews could be conducted with a large and representative
sample of Dutch people aged 18 and over.
In the NIPO survey the respondent was first asked if he had ever·been the
victim of a given crime; if the answer was affirmative, he was asked
if it had happened in the same year as the survey or in the preceding
year. The victim percentages were always calculated on the basis of the
answers to this question. The respondents were also given the opportunity to
mention crimes which had been committed in the more distant past.The survey
would ideally be organized early in January, for then the respondents
could be asked about their experiences in the previous calandar year;
this is not technically possible for so extensive a survey, however, and
the survey for 1976 thus stretched over the first few weeks of 1977: this
meant that allowance had to be made for some respondents' tendency to
speak of crimes as having happened in 1977 which had in fact been committed
in 1976 (5). The percentages for 1976 were calculated by dividing the total
number of crimes stated to have occurred in 1976 and 1977 by 1.06.
Earlier surveys were not conducted in January. For practical reasons
surveys were held both in spring and in autumn (6), and the yearly
percentages were calculated from the spring survey results in the same way
as in the 1977 survey (by dividing by 1.25, 1.23 and 1.38 for 1974, 1975
and 1976 respectively). The autumn survey results were converted to
percentages for the year in which they were obtained by multiplying by
1.28 and 1.3 for 1974 and 1975 respectively.

2.2 The survey questions

The average Dutchman's lack of legal sophistication limits the number of
crimes that can be covered in a victim survey: only those crimes are
suitable which are generally familiar and whose definition leave little
room for misunderstanding. Ten types of crime (see Appendix I) were
covered in the survey held in 1977. The main ones were the theft of
bicycles, mopeds and cars (7), thefts from cars, burglary and pickpocketing
(the theft of wallets and purses from bags and pockets). Also covered were
various crimes involving aggression: violent or threatening behaviour in
a public place, indecent assault in a public place and vandalism.

The definitions of these crimes given in the survey can be understood
in several ways, but by using follow-up questions on the seriousness
of the event (e.g. on the seriousness of any injuries sustained) an
accurate picture can be obtained of the crimes of which the respondents ·
have been a victim.
The tenth crime in the WODC survey relates to accidents involving motor-
vehicles in which the respondent, through no fault of his own, was involved.
Accidents of this kind do not necessarily involve a crime; however, they
are not infrequently due to recklessness on the part of the driver, which .
is a punishable offence (for example under Section 25 of the Road Traffic
Act). We therefore feel that a victim survey must also cover traffic
accidents. One of the follow-up questions asks whether the person who
caused the accident stopped and gave his name - failing to stop after
an accident is an offence in the Netherlands (Section 30 of the Road
Traffic Act).

2.3 The sample

In order to determine what proportion of the population has been the victim
of a particular crime in a given year all potential would need to be
questioned; however, such a procedure is of course impracticable and we
must therefore content ourselves with questioning a representative sample.
The study of the numbers of victims is thus limited to the analysis of
a sample survey, and information about the population as a whole is
obtained by generalisation. This approach means that the results must
be seen as probabilities rather than certainties.
If a single survey of a randomly selected group of 10.000 people shows
the proportion of victims as 2%, there is a 95% probability that the
true percentage lies between 1.7 and 2.3
Responsibility for selecting the samples and conducting the interviews
was delegated by WODC to NIPO: the latter organisation takes its basic
stock of 150.000 adresses from the lists of the Radio and Television
Receiving Licenses Service.
Every week a random sample is made, stratified by types of housing stock
in each municipality, of starting addresses; for each starting address
three addresses for interviews are then chosen by the random walk method.

In a municipality with more than 100.000 inhabitants a further
stratification takes place by the number of dwellings in each district.
The sample thus obtained is thus no longer simple but multi-stage:
this means that the 95% reliability range for the 2% result mentioned
above as an example is 1.6% to 2.48% (8).
The interviews are conducted with the youngest man present aged 18 or
over; if no man is available for interview the questions are put to
the youngest woman present aged 18 or over. The population of potential
victims is thus limited to people of 18 years and over.
In practice the method followed proves to give a resspresentative sample,
by sex, age and size of municipality, of Dutch adults. In this investigation
small deviations were smoothed out by weighting according to these three
criteria.

3. CRIME: VOLUME AND TRENDS SINCE 1973

3.1 The national victim percentages

The basic results of the surveys indicate the percentage of the population
which had been victims of the ten types of crime in the various years.
Since the survey carried out in January 1977 was the fourth of its kind,
we now have victim percentages for the years 1973, 1974, 1975 and 1976.
The figures for the theft of bicycles, mopeds and cars and for theft from
cars are calculated on the number of vehicle-owners.

TABLE 1. Victim percentages for the years 1973 - 1976, arranged in their order of magnitude.

	1976	1975	1974	1973
Innocent party hit by motor-vehicle	7.0	4.4	3	3
Damage to property	5.7	4.8	–	–
Theft of bicycle	5.2	4.3	3.0	4
Theft of moped	3.7	6.0	10	7
Pickpocketing	3.0	1.7	1	1
Theft from car	2.9	1.6	2	2
Threatening or violent behaviour in public place	2.3	1.4	–	–
Indecent assault in public place	1.2	1.0	–	–
Burglary of private house	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.9
Theft of car	0.5	0.4	0.5	–

We must remember when interpreting Table 1, that - as was explained in
section 2.3 - these are estimates based on sample surveys. However, the
number of people questioned in the 1975 and 1976 surveys was so large
(10.000) that the estimates are quite reliable: the likelihood that
the percentages found for these years would deviate by more then 0.4 from
those which would be found if all Dutch people were questioned is less
than 5% (9).

Table 1 shows that the percentages were considerably higher in 1976 than in 1975 for six of the ten crimes - causing vehicle accidents, vandalism, the theft of bicycles, pickpocketing, theft from cars and violent or threatening behaviour in public places; however, even though the rise in 1976 as against the fairly constant rates for 1973, 1974 and 1975 is unmistakeable, it is of course not yet possible to say whether this clear increase in these crimes marks the beginning of a rising trend. Not all crimes showed an increase. The rates for indecent assault and the burglary of private houses remained more or less constant, and there was a clear fall in the number of thefts of mopeds (this fall began in 1975 and is probably the consequence of the introduction in February of that year of the compulsory wearing of crash helmets). Table 1 shows what percentage of Dutch people aged 18 and over were the victims of one or more of the ten types of crime taken separately. However, in order to estimate the extent of criminal victimisation in the Netherlands, we also need to know what percentage were not the victims of any of the crimes, what percentage were the victims of one of them and what percentage of more than one. If road accidents are left out of account, we find that 14% of Dutch people were the victim of one of the nine remaining crimes and a further 2.5% of more than one. In all, then, one Dutch person in six was the victim of one of these types of crime in 1976.

3.2 Victim percentages in Amsterdam, Rotterdam and The Hague

In Chapter 4 we deal with the distribution of victims of crime among the various sections of the population; anticipating this analysis we should like now to examine the percentages of victims in the populations of Amsterdam, Rotterdam and The Hague, and in Table 2 we compare these three cities' figures for five of the crimes with those of the rest of the country. Here too the percentages of victims of bicycle thefts and thefts from cars are calculated on the basis of the numbers of vehicle-owners interviewed.

TABLE 2. The percentage of people living in Amsterdam, Rotterdam and The Hague, and in the rest of the Netherlands, who were victims of crimes in 1976, by type of crime.

	Amsterdam	Rotterdam	The Hague	Rest of country
Bicycle thefts	11.8	7.8	9.8	4.6
Thefts from cars	8.5	3.6	5.0	2.5
Pickpocketing	10.0	5.6	5.5	2.9
Violent or threatening behaviour	5.6	1.9	4.7	2.1
Vandalism	11.7	6.9	7.3	5.4
Number of respondents	708	622	602	8415

Table 2 shows that there are statistically significant differences between the percentages of victims in the three big cities on the one hand and the figures for the rest of the country on the other: the urban figures for the victims of these types of crime are around twice as high as those for the rest of the country. (The percentages of victims of the other five types of crime are also generally higher in the three cities, but the differences are less marked). Although only about 15% of the total population live in the three cities, 30% of these crimes are committed there - and among the three Amsterdam stands out as having considerably higher percentages of victims than The Hague or Rotterdam. Indeed, Rotterdam's figure for violent or trheatening behaviour makes it seem much like a country town.

In the case of Amsterdam we determined separately what proportion of the city's inhabitants were the victim of one or more of the nine crimes in the survey in 1976: it was 26%, as against a national figure of 16.6%. Six percent of Amsterdammers were the victims of more than one type of crime in 1976, with "multiple victims" suffering, for instance, the loss of both a bicycle and a wallet.

In order also to determine whether the trends in crime in the three largest cities and in the remaining municipalities are the same as those in the country as a whole, we classified the respondents into seven groups on the basis of the population of the municipality in which they

lived, and Table 3 compares the 1975 and 1976 percentages of victims of three of the crimes.

TABLE 3. Percentages of respondents exposed to crimes in 1975 and 1976, classified by population of the municipality.

Population of municipality	Bicycle theft			Vandalism			Threatening or violent behaviour in public place		
	1975	1976	Change	1975	1976	Change	1975	1976	Change
A'dam, R'dam The Hague	18.6	10.1	+ 1.5	4.9	8.6	+ 3.7	1.8	4.2	+ 2.4
100,000-<400.000	7.2	6.6	- 0.6	6.3	7.3	+ 1.0	2.4	3.1	+ 0.7
50,000-<100.000	4.4	6.3	+ 1.9	5.0	5.6	+ 0.6	1.2	1.9	+ 0.7
20,000-≤ 50.000	3.9	4.2	+ 0.3	4.9	5.5	+ 0.6	1.3	2.2	+ 0.9
10,000-< 20.000	2.5	3.1	+ 0.6	4.3	3.7	- 0.6	0.9	1.4	+ 0.5
5,000-< 10.000	2.0	2.9	+ 0.9	4.1	4.3	+ 0.2	1.5	1.7	+ 0.2
< 5.000	1.7	2.1	+ 0.4	3.6	2.9	- 0.7	0.9	0.7	- 0.2
National	4.3	5.2	+ 0.9	4.8	5.7	+ 0.9	1.4	2.3	+ 0.9

Table 3 shows that the trends affecting the crimes of bicycle theft, vandalism and violent or threatening behaviour are not the same in all parts of the country (10). By far the largest increases have taken place in the three cities, where the number of crimes involving threats or violence actually doubled from 1975 to 1976. In municipalities with less than 10 000 inhabitants, on the other hand, the figures for this type of crime remained about the same.

3.3 The seriousness of the crimes mentioned by respondents

Most of the crimes covered in the survey can vary considerably in seriousness: there may be large differences in the cost of repairing damage by vandals, for instance, and the seriousness of the injuries following an assault can also vary. We shall seek to discover the average seriousness of the crimes to which the population is exposed on a fairly large scale over a year by analysing the survey results for the ten different types of crime.

a. *Theft of bicycles (victims: 5.2%)*

Here we particularly need to know whether the victim has recovered his property: he rarely does, for only about one in every ten stolen bicycles is ever recovered. Moreover, 12% of those whose bicycle was stolen in 1976 suffered a similar loss on one or more further occasions in the same year: this means that in 1976 0.7% of all Dutch owners lost a bicycle more than once.

b. *Theft of moped (victims: 3.6%)*

Around half the mopeds that are stolen are later recovered (usually damaged, requiring repairs costing around 100 guilders). Insurance claims were paid in respect of around half the mopeds that were not recovered.

c. *Theft from cars (victims: 2.9%)*

The average value of the goods stolen from cars was approximately 150 guilders; little damage was generally done to the car itself, which in 30% of the cases was not even locked.

d. *Theft of car (victims: 0.5%)*

Of the cars stolen, 90% were recovered (11). In around half the cases the car was damaged (the repairs cost on average 250 guilders). Half the owners were insured against theft.

e. *Pickpocketing (victims: 1.1%)*

The wallets and purses stolen in 1976 contained on average around 75 guilders, but in 9% of the cases sums of over 250 guilders were involved.

f. *Burglary (victims: 1.1%)*

In 63% of the cases mentioned the dwelling was burgled and in 19% a shed or garage. In a third of the cases more than 1000 guilders' worth of goods was stolen. Around half the victims were insured against burglary, and when the survey was carried out 75% of them had been wholly or partly reimbursed.

g. *Indecent assault (victims: 1.2%)*

Indecent assaults are usually committed by one person (78%) and after dark (60%). Of the 447 respondents who indicated that they had been molested in this way, 13 of them (around 3%) had needed medical treatment of one or other kind.

h. *Violent or threatening behaviour in a public place (victims: 2.3%)*

Crimes of this nature are usually committed by more than one person (75%), and over 60% take place after dark. In 18% of the cases weapons were used. Seven percent of the victims stated that they had needed medical treatment on one or more occasions, but none had needed admission to hospital. The 1975 survey showed the same number of wounded among the victims, indicating that the seriousness of this type of aggressive behaviour was unchanged in 1976.

i. *Vehicle accidents (victims: 7%)*

Of the 703 respondents who indicated that they or their vehicle had been hit, 7% had been walking at the time, 37% riding a moped or bicycle and 46% driving a car. 18% of the victims had needed medical treatment on one or more occasions and a further 4% had been admitted to hospital. In 55% of the accidents the damage caused had required repairs costing over 250 guilders.

13% of the guilty parties had driven off without identifying themselves.

j. *Vandalism (victims: 5.7%)*

Around 1% of Dutch adults had their property vandalised on more than one occasion in 1976. In over half the cases the property damaged was a car and in 14% a bicycle or moped, while 8% involved garden plants. The average cost of the damage was less than 100 guilders, and one third of the cases were covered by insurance.

This summary of the kind of crimes to which the respondents had fallen victim in 1976 shows first of all that these crimes were on average less serious than those that appear in the police statistics (12). The survey of aggressive crimes shows that the average Dutchmen's risk of medically serious injury is still very small: indeed, he has more to fear from reckless and incompetent drivers than from malevolent juvenile delinquents. Nor is the average financial loss resulting from the crimes mentioned such as to damage the victim's economic position.
In judging the extent of the criminal victimisation of the Dutch people it is also worth looking at the results of victim surveys in other countries: almost without exception these show that the Dutch percentages are lower (13).
These facts and figures on crime in the Netherlands tell us nothing of the psychological effects which the crimes concerned may have on the Dutch people: this subjective aspect of "criminal victimisation" will be dealt with in the final chapter of this report.

4.   WHO ARE THE VICTIMS?

In the previous chapter we saw that the inhabitants of the large cities, and particularly of Amsterdam, fall victim to certain crimes more frequently than village-dwellers. In this chapter we shall investigate whether other sociographic features - such as sex, age and social class - correlate with the victim percentages. To do this, we can compare the figures for the various groups within the population with each other, looking first of all at the percentages for all nine types of crime taken together (the figures given below are tabulated in Appendix III).

In 1976, 26.6% of the inhabitants of the largest three cities were the victim of one of the nine crimes, while the figure for the inhabitants of villages of less than 5000 people is only 7.5%; the figures for smaller towns lie between the two extremes. There is thus also a link between size of the municipality in which a respondent lives and the likelihood of his having been a victim of crime when the nine crimes are taken together.

Similar differences emerge when the figures for the different age-groups are compared: 28.2% of people aged up to 24, 16.7% of those aged between 35 and 45 and 7.2% aged 65 and over had been victims. Clearly, then, the lidelihood of being the victim of a crime falls off with age.

Sex is also significant: 19% of men as against 14.3% of women had been the victim of crimes.

Difference might also be expected in the percentages of victims from the various social classes, and this is indeed found to be partly the case: 24.1% of the members of the highest social class (14) had been the victims of crimes in 1976, and the figure falls off to only 14.8% for the lowest class.

Interpreting these figures involves a number of complications: it is possible, for example, that the higher percentages of victims among the inhabitants of the large towns are partly the result of the latters' relatively low average age, and in order to discover whether living in a large town in itself (i.e. independently of the factors of sex, age and social class) involves a greater risk of exposure to crime, we can compare the figures for young men from the lowest social class living in large towns with those for the same group living in the provinces. However, even if we make exact like-with-like comparisons in this way, we cannot be sure which of the four factors increases the risk most.

Multivariate analysis techniques enable us both to make exact comparisons and to determine which factors correlate most closely with the percentages of victims. In step-by-step regression analysis we first identify the variable which correlates most closely with the percentages of victims and then eliminate its effects; the second step is to find and eliminate the next most important variable, and so on. Table 4 shows the order of importance of four variables as risk-increasing factors (15).

TABLE 4. Sociographic features which increase the risk of falling victim to a crime: results of a step-by-step regression analysis on the variable: "victim or otherwise in 1976 of one or more of the nine crimes".

N = 10347	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R^2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Age	0.15980	0.0255	0.15980	0.15418
Size of municipality	0.21772	0.02186	0.14794	0.14647
Sex	0.22422	0.00288	0.06365	0.05398
Social class	0.22665	0.00109	0.04906	0.03319

Table 4 shows that age is the main risk-increasing factor: young people are more likely to be the victims of crimes than old people. The next most important factor is the size of the municipality: the larger it is, the greater the likelihood of exposure to crime. The third is sex: irrespective of their age and where they live, men run a slightly greater risk of being the victim of crime than do women. Finally, social class plays a part: members of the higher classes are exposed to crime slightly more often.

In interpreting these results, we must remember that the links between
these sociographic features and the percentages of victims are not
the same for all types of crime: men are slightly more likely to be
the victim of crime in general, but women are more frequently the victims of
indecent assault. We can therefore refine our understanding of the
risk of exposure to crime run by various groups within the population
by examining the percentages for each type of crime separately. In
Appendix III we have included tables which show the percentages of
victims of each type of crime classified by size of municipality, age,
social class and sex. Here again, the percentages for victims of
thefts of bicycles, mopeds and cars and of thefts from cars are calculated
on the basis of the number of owners in the groups concerned. The
Appendix III tables show that age plays a particular part (in descending
order of significance) in the case of vehicle accidents, bicycle thefts,
indecent assault and violent or threatening behaviour (16). Age plays
no part with regard to such crimes as burglary and pickpocketing.
The size of the municipality is most significant in connection with
bicycle theft, pickpocketing and vandalism, which may be said to be
typically urban crimes. The percentage of victims of burglary and vehicle
accidents, on the other hand, is little higher in the larger municipalities
than in provincial areas.
Men run a much greater risk than women of being attacked or threatened
in a public place, while women are more frequently the victims of indecent
assault; however, in connection with this last crime, it is perhaps
remarkable that 30% of the victims were in fact men. From the answers
to the follow-up questions on the facts of the incident it is clear
that we are here concerned not with female prostitutes, but with men
who approach other men with a sexual intention (17). There is also
a striking difference between the sexes as regards numbers of vehicle
accidents: men are twice as likely as women to be hit by a motor
vehicle.
As we have already seen, social class correlates only weakly with the
likelihood of falling victim to our nine crimes. The link is clearest
in the case of burglary and pick-pocketing: members of the higher
social classes are three times as likely to have their homes burgled
as other people, and in general the percentages for the victims of

crimes against property in this social class are relatively high.
The differences between the other four social classes on this
point are very slight. There is no link between social class and
the likelihood of falling victim to the aggressive crimes of indecent
assault and violent or threatening behaviour.
From the fact that age, the size of the municipality and sex are the
main risk-increasing factors, one can logically conclude that the
group with the highest percentage of victims is that of young males
aged up to 25 living in large towns, and analysis shows that this is
indeed the case. Of the 141 respondents in this category, 17% had been
attacked or threatened in a public place in 1976, as compared with
the national figure of 2.3%.
When the results were analysed it became clear that there was another group
in which the percentage of victims was extremely high: these were
young people aged up to 25 with a gross income of less than 9000 guilders.
Of the 77 interviewees in this category, 26% had had a bicycle stolen
(national figure: 5.3%), 15% had been assaulted (national figure:
1.26%), 17% had been threatened (national figure: 2.3%), and 21% had
suffered as a result of vandalism (national figure: 5.7%).
The great majority of the members of this group are students (the
remainder being young people who are unemployed): these figures indicate
therefore that in addition to adolescents in large towns it is
particularly students, both male and female, who are likely to be
the victims of crimes, in particular crimes involving violence.

5. REPORTING CRIMES TO THE POLICE

5.1 The reporting-rate

It had long been known that not all crimes were reported to the police by the victims or their families, but the extent of this "hidden crime" could only be estimated. Table 5 shows what percentage of the crime of each type were reported to the police in 1976 by the respondents mentioning them; the table also contains figures for the period before 1976.

TABLE 5. Reporting-rate among victims of crimes in 1976/1977, arranged in the 1976 order of magnitude.

	Number of crimes in 1976/77	Fraction reported %	Number of crimes before 1976	Fraction reported %
Innocent party hit by motor vehicle	766	49,4	2007	55.7
Damage to property	628	24.1	490	31.9
Theft of bicycle	486	68.1	1588	69.2
Theft of moped	63	85.5	407	92.9
Pickpocketing	325	54.4	670	59.7
Theft from car	192	63.6	308	61.0
Threatening or violent behaviour in public place	254	24.5	453	26.9
Indecent assault in public place	128	24.5	342	33.6
Burglary of private house	117	80.7	293	86.7
Theft of car	32	96.7	107	90.5

The most obvious conclusion to be drawn from Table 5 is that the reporting-rate varies considerably with the type of crime: the more serious crimes against property are reported more frequently than are crimes of violence, and victim surveys in other countries have produced similar results (18). The reporting-rate was much the same in 1976 as in previous years, from which we can conclude that people's readiness to report crimes remains largely constant over a fairly long period. Future victim surveys will show whether this readiness fluctuates from year to year; the fact that the reporting-rates for 1976 were only slightly lower than those for the previous years taken together does not of course mean that sharp falls or rises cannot happen in the future.

5.2 Why are crimes not reported?

Victims who had failed to report crimes were asked why they had not done so: this was an open question (i.e. no answer categories were suggested to the interviewees). The answers given for each type of crime were rather varied, therefore, but it was not the less possible to distinguish four main types.

The first type includes answers like "not serious enough", "not worth bothering", "I have already got my bike back", "we settled it between us", "it wasn't necessary" and "I knew the person who did it". These answers seem to indicate that the victims themselves did not regard what had happened as meriting punishment, in other words that they did not think that a real crime had been committed.

The second type includes answers such as "there's no point", "I didn't know the frame-number", "it happened at the fair", "it wouldn't do any good" and "I wouldn't get it back anyway". The victims who gave these answers did not report the crime because they felt that they would derive no benefit from doing so: they regarded the likelihood that the police would recover the property or find the criminal as so remote that it was not worth going to the trouble of reporting the event.

The answers in the third group constitute reproaches and accusations concerning the police: "the police don't do anything anyway" was the

comment made most frequently. Victims giving this answer believe that reporting a crime will rarely, if ever, lead to the stolen goods being recovered or the criminal being found and regard this moreover as a clear shortcoming on the part of the police.

"I was afraid to" and similar answers make up the fourth group. Such answers may indicate a fear of reprisals on the part of the victim, but they may also mean that he leacks the courage to go to the police to report the crime. We shall return to the two interpretations of the answer "I was afraid to" when we descuss the distribution of the answers among the four groups by type of crime.

Table 6 shows for each type of crime what percentage of the answers are of each of the four types. The number of unreported cases of thefts of cars or mopeds and of burglary was very small, and these crimes have therefore been left out of account.

TABLE 6. The answers to the question: why was the crime not reported?

	Theft of bicycles	Theft from cars	Pick-pocketing	Indecent assault	Threats, violence	Vandalism
Unnecessary	52%	34%	36%	55%	65%	35%
Pointless	32%	47%	44%	18%	21%	46%
The police don't do anything	5%	-	-	-	-	9%
Was afraid to	-	-	-	10%	4%	-
Other/don't know	10%	19%	20%	16%	10%	10%
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N=172	N=73	N=396	N=97	N=185	N=520

Table 6 shows that the reasons given for not reporting a crime do not vary very much for each type. People who failed to report the theft of a bicycle, indecent assault or violent or threatening behaviour, mainly felt that what had happened was not serious enough to merit reporting (19). One in three of the victims of thefts from cars, pickpocketing and vandalism

also mentioned this reason. The victims do not regard this hidden crime as crime.

However, this last group more often gave the reason that reporting the crime would not do any good - but open censure of the police was rare (20). Finally, a strikingly high percentage of the victims of indecent assault stated that they had been afraid to go to the police: since such offences are normally committed by strangers, it seems unlikely that the victims were afraid of reprisals and more likely that they feared unsympathetic treatment at the police station.

5.3 Which victims fail to report crimes?

In the previous section, we discussed the reasons people gave for not reporting crimes to the police: however, the factors that determine whether or not a crime is reported can also be studied more indirectly. We can first examine which crimes are reported and which not: it would seem obvious, for instance, that the more serious crimes - those resulting in considerable damage, injury or loss - are more likely to be reported. We can further examine whether certain characteristics of the victims also play a part. Since the various crimes differ in their seriousness in different ways - in the cause of crimes of aggression the injury varies, in that of crimes against property the sum lost - we must first determine per crime which features of the crime and/or victim are linked with the decision whether or not to go to the police: these analyses too were carried out using step-by-step regression analysis. We begin by determining which feature of the crime/victim has the largest effect on the decision to inform the police; this value is then held constant, and we determine which other feature now has the greatest effect, and so on. The analysis is stopped when none of the remaining features is able to explain more than one percent of the variations in the decision to inform the police. By way of example we discuss below the results of the analysis of reporting behaviour in connection with burglary and violent or threatening behaviour (the results of the other analyses are given in Appendix 4).

TABLE 7. Links between features of the crime/victim and the decision to inform the police in the case of burglary: the results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 106	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Changes in R^2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Value of stolen goods	0.35964	0.12934	- 0.35964	- 0.35850
Sex of respondent	0.40912	0.03803	- 0.18682	- 0.17678
Damage	0.43413	0.02109	0.15724	0.17142
Age of respondent	0.44580	0.01027	- 0.11019	- 0.12389
Social class	0.45793	0.01096	0.10892	0.12062

Table 7 shows that the value of the goods stolen is the main factor affecting the decision whether or not to inform the police. All of the 86 cases of burglary involving the loss of property worth over 1,000 guilders were reported, for example, but only 72% of the 63 burglaries in which goods worth less than 100 guilders were taken (21). Whether or not damage has been done also plays a part in the decision to inform the police: the crime is slightly more likely to be reported if real damage has occurred.

Among the features of the victim, it is sex that has the largest effect on the decision: women victims are slightly more likely to report a burglary than are men. There are also weak links with age and social class: older victims and victims from the higher social classes are slightly more likely to make a report. The explanation for this link is probably to be found partly in the higher percentage of victims in the higher social classes that are insured against burglary (the correlation between social class and the possession of insurance is + 0.33). Table 7 shows implicitly that the size of municipality has no effect on the reporting-rate for burglaries, which is as high in the large cities as elsewhere.

TABLE 8. Links between features of the crime/victim and the decision to inform the police in the case of violent or threatening behaviour: the results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 215	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Changes in R^2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Injury	0.45568	0.20764	- 0.45568	- 0.49716
Sex	0.47337	0.01644	- 0.03092	- 0.13219
Social class	0.49007	0.01609	- 0.10952	- 0.11958

Table 8 shows that the likelihood of violent or threatening behaviour being reported depends on the seriousness of any injuries sustained. This is also very clear from the percentages: 23% of the 462 victims who suffered no injury informed the police, while 32 (76%) of the 42 victims requiring medical treatment did so. More women than men apparently consider that this crime merits being reported to the police: while women suffer injury relatively less often, they report the event more frequently. (The simple correlation coefficient between the "sex" variable and the decision to report the event is only - 0.03. If allowance is made for the "injury" factor the partial correlation is - 0.13). It is notable that upper-class victims more frequently fail to report the event: this result is not easy to interpret, as the higher social groups are normally regarded as being the least tolerant of physical violence (22).

The results of these analyses for the crimes of burglary and violent or threatening behaviour give a clear picture of the factors which in general determine the decision whether or not to notify the police. The seriousness of the crime always emerges as the main factor: people are less likely to go to the police for less serious crimes (23).

In the case of thefts from cars, for example, the standard partial regression coefficient between the "value of the stolen goods" variable and the decision to inform the police is - 0.33. In the case of vandalism, the "cost of repairs" variable shows a correlation with the decision to inform the police of - 0.31. The link between seriousness and the

reporting of the event to the police is yet clearer in the case of vehicle accidents: here, there is a standard partial regression coefficient of - 0.48 between the "damage suffered" variable and the decision to go to the police, while the "seriousness of injuries" variable shows a standard partial regression coefficient of - 0.11.

The links between the victims' sociographic features and their decision whether or not to go to the police are generally weak, and they are not of the same type in the case of all nine crimes (24).

Women are thus in general no more likely than men to report a crime to the police, and readiness to notify the police varies very little between the various age groups and social classes or between the inhabitants of smaller and larger municipalities.

When we examined the percentages of victims in the various sections of the population (Chapter 3), we saw that the figures were generally higher for young people, men, the inhabitants of large towns and members of the higher social classes. One might imagine that such high-risk groups would be relatively unlikely to go to the police, first because they are to a degree inured to certain types of crime and second because they probably include a relatively large number of people who have fruitlessly reported crimes on previous occasions. However, the fact that the reporting-rates vary little with the sociographic features demonstrates that such processes of habituation or alienation have not - or not yet - occurred on a large scale.

On a smaller scale there are nonetheless indications of a negative correlation between victim percentages and the reporting-rate: in Amsterdam, only 49% of the victims of bicycle thefts notified the police (the figure for the rest of the country is 72%); the Amsterdam reporting-rates for pickpocketing and vandalism are also strikingly low: 42% and 6% respectively, as against 59% and 28% for the rest of the country (25). As the reader will probably remember, Amsterdam's 1976 victim percentages for these crimes were over twice as high as the national figures.

Another section of the population showing exceptionally high victim percentages for the crimes of bicycle theft, pickpocketing and vandalism were the students, and it emerges that this group's reporting-rate for these crimes is indeed exceptionally low. The figures are 40%, 20% and 0% for bicycle theft, pickpocketing and vandalism respectively and are thus even lower than those for Amsterdam.

Although at the national level the high percentages of victims in certain sections of the population do not appear to be associated with a low reporting-rate, two local population groups with very high victim percentages do show a strikingly low reporting-rate. This result leads us to suppose that readiness to report crimes to the police decreases when the victim percentages exceed a certain critical limit. The answers given to the survey question as to the reasons for not notifying the police show that the decreasing readiness is above all the result of a loss of confidence in the police. Of the Amsterdammers who had not reported the theft of their bicycle, 56% gave as the reason that it would not produce any result or that the police would not do anything. Only 31% of people in other municipalities who had failed to report this crime gave this answer (26). Of the Amsterdammers who had suffered the attentions of pickpockets or vandals but had not notified the police, 95% and 45% respectively gave as their reason that it would not help or that the police would not do anything. Elsewhere the figures were 25% and 34% (27).

The students who had failed to report crimes of these three types also relatively frequently gave as the reason that it would not help. It emerges thus that it is the groups which are most frequently the victim of these crimes that have the least confidence in the detecting skills of the police.

6.   POLICE POLICY ON OFFICIAL REPORTS

Under Article 163 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, investigating
officiers are required to prepare an official report on every crime
notified to the police and to have it signed by the complainant. Clearly,
no official report need be prepared if the event notified does not
constitute a crime; however, it is widely known that the preparation
of such a report does not automatically follow the notification even
of all real crimes. In each case the police decide whether it is
expedient to prepare an official report and therewith initiate an
investigation: no report is prepared on the crimes which appear less
serious.

Studies (28) have been made at local level of police policy on official
reports, however, and the WODC has carried out a simulation experiment
in which police officers had to process a series of crime notifications
(29), but we still have no country-wide information on the police practice
of taking no action in certain cases.

A victim survey enables us to gather information in an indirect manner
on police practice with regard to official reports. Victims who have
notified the police of a crime can be asked if they signed a complaint
form or official report. In Table 9 we again indicate what proportion
of the victims notified the police; in addition, we indicate what
percentage of the victims eventually signed an official report.

TABLE 9. Percentages of the crimes revealed by the survey that were
notified to the police and on which an official report was
prepared. (1977 survey).

	Number of victims	Notified %	Official report signed %
Theft of bicycle	486	68.1	46.4
Theft of moped	63	85.5	73.6
Theft from car	192	63.6	49.8
Theft of car	32	96.7	80.6
Pickpocketing	325	54.4	30.6
Burglary	117	80.7	59.7
Indecent assault	128	27.8	19.2
Violent or threatening behaviour	254	24.5	6.9
Vehicle accident	766	49.4	29.8
Vandalism	628	24.1	10.3

Table 9 shows that by no means all the victims of crimes who notified
the police also signed and official report (30): this result clearly
indicates that the police are selective in the preparation of official
reports. It is theoretically possible that the complaints which were
not formalised in official reports related to non-criminal incidents:
however, given the unambiguous nature of most of the crimes covered in
the survey, this alternative interpretation seems improvable. If someone
takes the trouble to go to the police station to report the theft of
his bicycle or moped, we can reasonably suppose that a theft has indeed
taken place. We must therefore ask not whether Dutch police practice in
the preparation of official reports is selective but rather what criteria
are used in selection (31).

To try to discover what criteria the police apply, consciously or
unconsciously, in reaching decisions on the preparation of official
reports, we examined what features of the crimes were associated with
the decision to go ahead. We also included in the analysis certain
sociographic features of the victims in order to investigate whether

the police were inclined to take complaints from certain social groups more seriously than those from others. The analysis included only those victims who clearly stated that they had or had not signed an official report: those who could not remember whether they had signed one were ignored. We give the results of the analysis in Appendix V. Here we examine the regression analyses of the police decision to prepare an official report on thefts from cars, pickpocketing and vandalism.

TABLE 10. Links between features of the crime/victim and of the police decision to prepare an official report in the case of theft from cars; results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 107	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0.23118	0.05344	0.23118	0.22523
Size of municipality	0.28224	0.02621	0.16803	0.16284
Value of goods stolen	0.32404	0.02534	- 0.15085	- 0.17189

Table 10 shows that official reports are prepared less frequently following complaints from women victims than following those from men: 60% of complaints by women as against 81% of complaints by men are formalised in official reports. The standard partial regression coefficient of 0.23 shows that this difference is not explained by any difference in the seriousness of the thefts notified by men and women: the average value of the stolen goods was approximately the same.

Table 10 also shows that municipal police forces in the larger towns prepare official reports following complaints of this type not less but more frequently. This results conflicts to some extent with our expectations, since it is often maintained that the larger forces cannot deal with the stream of complaints and are thus selective in their approach to official reports.

TABLE 11. Links between features of the crime/victim and the police decision to prepare an official report in the case of pickpocketing; results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 144	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0.27883	0.07774	0.27883	0.19492
Social class	0.33332	0.03336	- 0.23030	- 0.15140
Size of municipality	0.35821	0.01721	0.16577	0.14397
Size of sum stolen	0.38193	0.01755	- 0.22527	- 0.14591

Table 11 shows that there here too complaints by women are taken less seriously: 34 of the 75 complaints made by women led to the preparation of an official report, while 55 of the 76 made by men had this result. This difference is partly a consequence of the fact that the thefts notified to the police by women involved on average smaller sums of money ("sex" against "size of sum stolen": R = - 0.27). Even when this difference is controlled for, the percentage of signed official reports following complaints made by women remains inexplicably low. The standard partial regression coefficient between the "sex" variable and the decision to prepare a report is 0.19, which means that even when the complaints made by men and women are equalised as regards social class, size of municipality and sum stolen, there nonetheless remains a link between the sex of the complainant and the decision to prepare a report. Table 11 also shows that complaints of pickpocketing received from members of the lower social classes are more frequently formalised in official reports. Police forces in the larger cities are again more likely to prepare official reports of cases of pickpocketing than are forces in the provinces.

TABLE 12. Links between features of the crime/victim and the decision to prepare an official report in the case of vandalism; results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 133	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Cost of damage	0.36037	0.12987	- 0.36037	- 0.31460
Size of municipality	0.38939	0.02176	0.22323	0.14992
Age	0.40194	0.00993	0.02362	0.09957
Insurance against vandalism	0.41433	0.01012	0.20050	0.10807

The decision whether or not to prepare an official report in cases of vandalism is determined above all by the cost of the damage. Only 10 (18%) of the 55 complaints of acts of vandalism in which the cost of the damage was less than 50 guilders led to the preparation of an official report, while over half the complaints of damage exceeding 250 guilders received this treatment (32).

These analyses of police practice with regard to the preparation of official reports on thefts from cars, on pickpocketing and on vandalism show that the seriousness of the crimes plays an important part in the police's decision. This was also true for most other types of crime. We thus conclude that the police are inclined to regard complaints of less serious as being merely "for information".

The analyses discussed above also show that small-town police forces are less likely than city forces to prepare official reports. The sociographic features of the complainant also played a part in determining the police decision on the preparation of an official report: action was more often taken following a complaint of theft from a car or pickpocketing when the complainant was a man.

In order to investigate whether the police generally allow the sociographic features of a complainant to affect their decision on the preparation of an official report, we again examined the links between

the various sociographic features and the police decision for the nine crimes taken together. In this overall analysis (unlike the analyses discussed above for each type of crime) the seriousness of the various crimes could not be taken into account. This last analysis thus does not serve to establish whether - in the case of a particular crime - the decision on the preparation of an official report is influenced by the sociographic status of the complainant: that this occurs is clear enough from the analyses for each type of crime. As we have said, the purpose of the overall analysis is to show whether certain sociographic features of the complainants generally tend to influence the police decision in a particular direction.

TABLE 13. Links between the size of the municipality and the sex, age and social status of the complainant on the one hand and on the other the police decision on the preparation of official reports for the nine types of crime taken together; results of a step-by-step regression analysis.

N = 782	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Size of municipality	0.14142	0.02000	0.14142	0.14001
Sex	0.17147	0.00940	0.09476	0.09998
Social class	0.18614	0.00525	0.06943	0.07289
Age	0.18748	0.00050	0.03616	0.02249

Table 13 shows that police officers in the smaller towns are generally less likely to prepare an official report following a complaint than their colleagues in larger towns. This fact means that the high percentages of victims in the large towns as compared with the smaller municipalities are further exaggerated in the police statistics: of the relatively large number of crimes committed and notified in the larger municipalities, a relatively large proportion are recorded by the police.

The discovery that it is small-town police forces (which mostly form part of the National Police) that are selective in their practice

as regards the preparation of official reports is noteworthy: for the
conventional view would lead us to expect that the investigation depart-
ments of the large municipal forces would tend to restrict the number
of official reports prepared because of their relatively heavy workload
(and the WODC simulation experiment mentioned earlier produced results
which pointed in the direction)(33).
This view would now seem to need revision, however: the Amsterdam
municipal police do indeed prepare official reports on a slightly
smaller percentage of bicycle thefts than is normal in the rest of the
country, but otherwise it is without exception the larger forces which
prepare the highest proportion of official reports.
This result is very clearly one which requires further examination.
As part of the study to be made by the WODC of police investigation
practice (34), we must check in particular the assumption that it is
because of their greater familiarity with local people that police
forces in the smaller municipalities can avoid the need for an official
report by acting as an intermediary. This assumption is partly based
on the results of an observational study of the patrol work of two
urban forces and two rural sections of the National Police (35).
Table 13 also shows that certain sociographic features of the victims/
complainants generally influence the decision of the police on the
preparation of an official report in a particular direction. The sex
of the complainant seems to be a fact of particular significance: the
police are more inclined to prepare an official report following a com-
plaint from a man than from a women. It is conceivable that men victims
insist more frequently than women on the preparation of an official
report, but how precisely these differences arise requires further
investigation.
Meanwhile it would seem desirable that the police consider the possible
objectionable aspects of the policy they currently pursue on official
reports. Pursuing such a policy automatically brings with it the
danger that alongside objective criteria (such as the seriousness of
the crime) other criteria will be applied which are subjective and
therefore undesirable. Our results make it clear that this danger is
not imaginary.

7.   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Before we endeavour to formulate general conclusions from the results
discussed in this report, it may be of value to summarize those results.
Since 1974 the WODC has organized annual surveys in which members of a
representative sample of the population of the Netherlands are asked
if they have been the victim of certain crimes in the previous year.
A comparison of the results of the survey for 1975 and that for 1976
showed that in the case of six of the ten types of crime covered the
percentage of victims rose considerably. The crimes concerned were
bicycle theft (proportion of victims among bicycle-owners in 1976:
5.2%), thefts from cars (proportion of victims among car-owners in
1976: 2.9%), pickpocketing (proportion of victims in 1976: 3.0%),
being hit by a motor vehicle (proportion of victims in 1976: 7.0%),
violent or threatening behaviour in a public place (proportion of victims
in 1976: 2.3%) and vandalism (proportion of victims in 1976: 5.7%).
The rates for car theft (proportion of victims among car-owners in
1976: 0.5%) burglary of private houses (proportion of victims in 1976:
1.1%) and indecent assault (proportion of victims in 1976: 1.2%) did
not change between 1975 and 1976. Lastly, the rate for thefts of mopeds
fell sharply from 6.0% in 1975 to 3.6% in 1976.
On average, the crimes reported by the survey respondents were less
serious than those recorded in the police statistics. The crimes against
property mostly involved fairly small sums, while injuries were
caused in only a minority of the cases of violent or threatening behaviour.
Thus both medically and financially it was the victims of other people's
bad driving who suffered most.
The percentages of victims of the various types of crime are not the
same for all sections of the population. In general, young people, men
and the inhabitants of large towns run a greater risk of falling
victim to a crime/than do older people, women and the inhabitants of
smaller municipalities. It also emerges that the increase in crime
in 1976 was much greater in the large towns than elsewhere. The likeli-
hood that the members of the highest social class (factory directors
and so on) will have their houses burgled is three times as great as
for other Dutch people.

The highest percentages of victims were found amongst Amsterdammers, particularly the adolescents, and among university students.

Around 50% of the crimes mentioned by the respondents had been notified to the police. The reporting-rate was considerably higher in the case of the more serious crimes against property (car theft, moped theft and burglary (c.80%) than in that of such aggressive crimes as violent or threatening behaviour, indecent assault and vandalism (c.25%). Approximately 40% of the people who had failed to notify the police gave as their reason for not doing so that they did not consider the event serious enough for a complaint. A similar percentage stated that a complaint did not help anyway. A smaller percentage gave as reason that "the police don't do anything anyway". Of those who had failed to report an indecent assault to the police, 10% said that they had not dared to do so.

It was found that the decision whether or not to go to the police depends in the first place on the seriousness of the crime. Smaller thefts and cases of vandalism are not usually reported. The readiness of the various sections of the population to go to the police does not differ much. Young people, women and the inhabitants of large towns are neither more nor less inclined to report crimes than are other Dutch people. However, Amsterdammers and students are less likely to go to the police: it is thus two sections of the population with very high victim percentages that show relatively low reporting-rates.

Approximately two thirds of the victims who had gone to the police had signed an official report.

The police thus do not prepare an official report following more than 30% of complaints. The police's decision whether or not to prepare an official report (like the victim's decision whether or not to make a complaint) depends chiefly on the seriousness of the crime. An official report is less frequently prepared for the smaller crimes against property or crimes of aggression. Unexpectedly, it emerged that city police forces were not less likely to prepare official reports than small-town forces; indeed, it was the forces in the smaller municipalities that chose relatively frequently not to prepare a report. Presumably this is at least partly because rural forces have more

opportunities of finding solutions without invoking criminal procedure. Finally, the analysis showed that complaints from women were less frequently formalized in an official report than comparable complaints from men.

The survey results presented here show that far more crimes are committed than are shown in police statistics: criminal victimisation in the Netherlands is thus greater than one would conclude from police statistics, and moreover showed a considerable increase in 1976 as against previous years. A large part of the adult population, particularly in the big towns, is exposed every year to one or other form of crime.

The investigation also showed, however, that the crimes to which the average Dutch person falls victim are not usually particularly serious, medically nor financially. The likelihood of any physical injury being sustained as a result of a crime is very small (less than 1%) in the Netherlands, and the likelihood of serious injury is many times smaller. The fact that the crimes to which the average Dutch citizen falls victim are generally not very dreadful explains why no link was found in an earlier WODC study between people's exposure to criminal behaviour and the extent to which they felt themselves personally threatened by criminality (36).

The feeling that some people have that they are unsafe or under threat is probably the result more of films of violence on television and sensational police reports in the newspapers than of their actual experience of crime. The results of investigations in Germany have led to the same conclusion (37).

The fact that those whose ideas and feelings regarding crime and its control are more extreme have often had no personal exposure to crime does not mean that such exposure leaves no trace. The majority of people may indeed react very casually when they fall victim to a crime for the first time in their lives: the question is whether they will go on reacting casually if (and this is not exceptional with the crime rate as it is) they are the victim of a second, third or fourth crime in the space of a few years. It seems probable that at least some of these multiple victims will gradually adopt an increasingly suspicious attitude towards their anonymous fellow citizens. For most people it is

no catastrophe if their wallet is stolen or their wing mirror
vandalized, but they are likely to feel that such crimes are at the
very least extremely unfriendly acts. Such hidden side-effects must be
taken into account in assessments of the social consequences of
crime.

FOOTNOTES AND LITERATURE

1) A.G. Turner, Methodological issues in the development of the national
crime survey panel: partial findings, L.E.A.A. December 1972.

2) J.P.S. Fiselier, Preliminary report on a victim survey,
in: J.J.M. van Dijk and J.P.S. Fiselier, Studies in victimology,
Nijmegen University Institute of Criminology, 1974.

3) E. Stephan, Die Stuttgarter Opferbefragung, B.K.A. Forschungsreihe, 1976.

4) The Dutch public opinion survey and market research organisation.

5) For literature on this point, see footnotes 1, 2 and 3.

6) The crimes covered in the 1974 and 1975 spring surveys were the theft
of bicycles, burglary and violent or threatening behaviour; in 1976
indecent assault and vandalism were added to the list. The 1974 and
1975 autumn survey included questions about pickpocketing, theft from
and of cars, moped thefts and motor-vehicle accidents.

7) The ordinary citizen is not likely to make any distiction between the
theft of cars and mopeds (Article 310 of the Criminal Code) and
joyriding (Section 37 of the Road Traffic Act), and the survey
results therefore cover both offences.

8) H.R. Knol, Het toepassen van statistiek voor enkelvoudige aselecte
steekproeven, terwijl de steekproef niet enkelvoudig aselect is -
Mens en Maatschappij, 51e jrg., nr. 2, 1976.

C. Cozijn, Enkele kanttekeningen bij het artikel van Knol.
Mens en Maatschappij, 52e jrg., nr. 1, 1977.

9) In Appendix II we give the totals of which the percentages in Table 1
are fractions, making it possible to calculate the margins of
unreliability.

10) For technical reasons, local percentages could be calculated only
for the victims of five crimes. Of the other two, the figures for
indecent assault show a similar, varied picture to those of the three
crimes included in the table; there has been no significant increase
in burglary in any of the seven groups.

11) See WODC report 'Car theft', by J. Junger-Tas (March 1976).

12) Various recent WODC examinations of sentencing also included analyses of the official police reports in cases of violence, vandalism and burglary: these showed that the injuries and losses sustained were more serious than those resulting from the crimes uncovered by this survey. The seriousness of crimes on which official police reports are drawn up is compared with that of unreported crimes in Chapters 5 and 6 of this report.

13) Figures for the victims of aggressive crimes in a large number of Western countries are given in the OECD report "Data Sources for Social Indications of Victimisation suffered by Individuals", Paris 1976. See also E. Stephan, Die Stuttgarter Opferbefragung, B.K.A. 1976 and the American report "Criminal Victimisation in the United States", U.S. Department of Justice, May 1976.

14) The classes are defined in Appendix I.

15) The fact that the total explained variation in this analysis remains particularly low is connected with the fact that the criterion variable is dichotomous and displays an extremely skewed distribution. An 85/15 distribution on a dichotomous variable means that the maximum value of a coefficient of coordination is not 1 but .70 (J. Nunnaly: "Psychometrics Theory", p. 133).

16) The coefficient of correlation between the sociographic variables and the victim variable rarely exceeds .10, as can be seen from the Appendix III tables. However, the extremely skewed distributions on dichotomous variables means that these coefficients cannot exceed .40.

17) There is no reason to suppose that the male respondents reporting such an incident did not understand the question: the victim survey carried out in 1974 by J.P.S. Fiselier of Nijmegen Catholic University produced a similar result.

18) E. Stephan, Die Stuttgarter Opferbefragung, B.K.A., Forschungsreihe, 1976.

19) The 508 respondents who daid that they had had a bicycle stolen before 1976 and had failed to report the event were asked why they had not done so: 7% gave the astonishing answer "it was during the war".

20) The answers were coded on the basis of the 1975 survey, and since in that survey the answer "the police don't do anything anyway" was almost never given, this answer was not included as a special code. It will be added in future surveys.

21) These percentages relate to the last burglary of which the respondent had been a victim and therefore include crimes committed before 1976.

22) The higher reporting rate for the lower social groups cannot be a consequence of the injuries being, on average, more serious, since this factor was hald constant in the analysis. Nor are there significant differences in the various social classes, scores for the variables "armed/unarmed" and "number of attackers". However, other variations in seriousness may well be involved here which were not measured in this survey.

23) It is evident that victims of less serious crimes who have not notified the police failed to do so because they considered the event was not serious enough: of the 71 victims who failed to report losses through pickpockets of less than 10 guilders, 80% gave as their reason that it was not necessary.

24) An analysis of the links between the four sociographic features discussed here and the decision on notifying the police in the case of the nine types of crimes (excluding vehicle accidents) taken together revealed that none of them showed a correlation coefficient of above 0.03.

25) These percentages relate to the last case of bicycle theft, pickpocketing or vandalism of which the respondents were the victim. There were respectively 249, 119 and 90 victims amongst the Amsterdam respondents, and 41, 15 and 19 amongst the students.

26) Of the 123 Amsterdammers who had failed to report the theft of a bicycle, 55 answered "you wouldn't get it back anyway" and 14 "the police don't do anything anyway". Of the 479 other non-reporters of bicycle thefts, 132 and 18 respectively gave these answers, while among the 25 students the figures were 9 and 4.

27) Of the 66 Amsterdam non-reporters of pickpocketing 39 of the remaining 310 non-reporters: 79; and of the 12 students: 6. Of the 84 Amsterdam non-reporters of vandalism: 38; of the remaining 615 non-reporters: 207; and of the 19 students: 12.

28) C. Fijnaut, De selectiviteit van het justitiële politie-optreden, Doctoraal scriptie KV, Louvain, 1971.

29) W. Buikhuisen and J.J.M. van Dijk, Verbaliseringsbeleid misdrijven, WODC report, November 1975.

30) About 10% of the respondents could not remember whether they had signed an official report: they have been distributed between the two categories (signers/non-signers) in proportion to the percentages of these categories.

31) Some complaints are probably made by telephone. If the complainant does not himself come to the police station the police do not normally prepare an official report. That percentage of complaints are made by telephone will be investigated in the next survey.

32) These figures relate to the last case of vandalism of which the respondents were the victim.

33) C. Cozijn, J.J.M. van Dijk and V. Veldheer, Verbaliseringsgedrag: informatie en beslissing, basisrapport verbaliseringsbeleid misdrijven, deel2, WODC, 1976.

34) See Justitiële Verkenningen no. 7, 1976.

35) J. Junger-Tas and A. van der Zee-Nefkens, Een observatie-onderzoek naar het werk van de politie-surveillance, WODC report, Autumn 1977.

36) C. Cozijn and J.J.M. van Dijk, Onrustgevoelens in Nederland, WODC report, July 1976.

37) E. Stephan, Die Stuttgarter Opferbefragung, B.K.A. Forschung... 1976

1.   THE 1977 QUESTIONNAIRES

The questionnaires opened with general questions on the following
subjects: (1) the church allegiance, if any, of the women/wife (if there
was no woman in the household, of the man/husband, (2) the size
of the household, (3) the ages of children living at home, (4) the marital
status of the head of the household, (5) the year when the respondent
was first married, (6) the age of the female head of the household,
(7) the age of the male head of the household, (8) the kind of work,
if any, done by the household's breadwinner, (9 & 10) the gross income
of the household, (11) the educational background of the head of the
household, and (12) the socio-economic class ^{x} to which the household
belongs.

---

^{x} Defined as follows:

A/B   1: Directors of large firms, major independent entrepreneurs,
          doctors, lawyers, notaries, senior officials, large-scale farmers,
          high-level officiers and civil servants, all univeristy
          graduates. Normally in luxurious residential area.

C1   2: Directors of smaller firms, medium-scale independent entrepre-
          neurs, civil servants and office staff in higher positions,
          teachers, medium-scale farmers. Normally in better-off residential
          area.

C2   3: Owners of small firms, smaller independent entrepreneurs,
          medium-rank office staff and civil servants. Normally in
          comfortable residential area.

D1   4: Skilled workers, very small-scale independent entrepreneurs,
          lower-grade civil servants and technical or office staff.
          Normally in a reasonable working-class area.

D2   5: Unskilled workers, casual workers, people on very small pensions.
          Normally in a poor - and sometimes very poor - district.

The survey also collected information on the area and province in which
the respondents lived and the population and degree of urbanisation
of the municipality.

At the start of the section actually dealing with crime, the interviewer
asked to speak to the youngest man present (or, if there was none, the
youngest women) aged 18 or over; he ascertained how old he/she was, and
then went on to ask him/her the following questions.

(2) Have you ever had your bike stolen - your own bike, that is, not
one belonging to someone else in the family? (If answer is "No" or
the person concerned does not have a bike, go on to question 8). When did
it happen?

(3) When (or: last time) your bike was stolen, was it reported to the
police?
(If answer is "Yes", go on to question 5).

(4) Why wasn't it reported (the last time it happened, that is)? (Answer
categories: 1. It was an old bike; 2. There's no point - you wouldn't
get it back; 3. I got it back; 4. The bike wasn't locked. 5. I didn't
know the frame-number; 6. The police don't do anything anyway; 7. Other
answer, viz....; 0. Don't know/remember.

(5) (If theft was reported) Did you sign a complaint form or official
report (the last time it happened, that is?) (Answer categories:
1. Yes; 2. No; 3. Don't remember).

(6) Now let's look just at last year, 1976. How many times did you
have your bike stolen in 1976? If the theft we were just talking about
happened in 1976, don't forget to include that one too. (Answer categories:
0. Never; 1. Once; 2. Twice; 3. Three times; 4. Four times; 5. Five
or more times). (If answer is "Never", go on to question 8).

(7) How many of the thefts that happened in 1976 were reported to
the police?
(Answer categories; 0. None; 1. One; 2. Two; 3. Three; 4. Four or
more; 5. Don't remember).

(8) Have you ever had your moped stolen - your own moped, that it,
not one belonging to someone else in the family?

The questions for each type of crime were generally similar to those
relating to bicycle theft. The remaining questions on mopeds followed
the same pattern as those on bicycles, but also covered damage and
insurance, and those on thefts from and of cars followed the same
pattern as those concerned with mopeds. The questions on pickpocketing
were similar, and included one relating to the sum stolen. The questions
on burglary covered the kind of property burgled (house, shed, summer-
house, second home, shop, office or other), the value of the goods
stolen, insurance, whether any damage occured and whether the event was
reported to the police. The questions on indecent assault and threatening
or violent behaviour included specific ones as to the number of molesters
and their sex, the time (day/night), the use of weapons and any injuries
sustained. The questions on vehicle accidents included ones relating
to damage and the cost of repairs, injuries to the respondent or other
persons, ans whether the person whose fault the accident was failed
to stop. The questions on vandalism included one relating to the cost
of repairs.

2.   THE TOTALS ON WHICH THE VICTIM PERCENTAGES WERE CALCULATED, 1973-1975.

	1976	1975	1974	1973
Innocent party hit by motor vehicle	10347	4756	3196	3196
Damage to property	10347	10112	-	-
Theft of bicycle	8799	8304	2794	2927
Theft of moped	1608	739	516	516
Pickpocketing	10347	4756	3196	3196
Theft from car	6211	3086	2031	2031
Threatening or violent behaviour in public place	10347	10112	-	-
Indecent assault in public place	10347	10112	-	-
Burglary of private house	10347	10112	3155	3289
Theft of car	6211	3086	2031	2031

3.1 Victim percentages by sex (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from Car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening/ violent-behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism	Total (excl.vehicle accidents)
M	5,6 N=4350	5,5 N=794	3,4 N=3220	0,8 N=3220	3,1 N=5112	1,3 N=5112	0,8 N=5112	3,5 N=5112	10,1 N=5112	7,3 N=5112	19,0 N=5112
V	4,9 N=4450	2,0 N=814	2,7 N=2991	0,3 N=2991	2,9 N=5236	1,0 N=5236	1,5 N=5236	1,2 N=5236	4,1 N=5236	4,1 N=5236	14,3 N=5236

3.2 Victim percentages by age (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Bur-glary	Indecent assault	Threaten-ing/ violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism	Total (excl.ve-hicle acci-dent
24 and under	10,0 N= 1536	9,0 N= 268	4,8 N= 944	0,6 N= 944	3,4 N= 1724	1,6 N= 1724	3,7 N= 1724	6,3 N= 1724	10,3 N= 1724	8,5 N= 1724	28,2 N= 1724
25 - 29	6,7 N= 1199	6,8 N= 206	3,4 N= 966	0,3 N= 966	3,6 N= 1323	0,9 N= 1323	1,8 N= 1323	2,4 N= 1323	8,5 N= 1323	5,9 N= 1323	18,4 N= 1323
30 - 34	4,6 N= 902	0,6 N= 157	2,5 N= 827	0,9 N= 827	3,3 N= 1012	1,0 N=1012	0,9 N= 1012	1,7 N= 1012	6,8 N= 1012	6,5 N= 1012	17,9 N= 1012
35 - 39	5,6 N= 810	2,9 N= 139	3,9 N= 648	0,9 N= 648	3,9 N= 892	1,4 N= 892	0,8 N= 892	1,4 N= 892	9,1 N= 892	6,5 N= 892	18,5 N= 892
40 - 44	4,8 N= 715	4,6 N= 131	2,4 N= 638	0,6 N= 638	4,4 N= 842	1,1 N= 842	0,5 N= 842	1,3 N= 842	8,0 N= 842	4,3 N= 842	14,7 N= 842
45 - 49	4,8 N= 711	0,8 N= 128	3,3 N= 598	0,7 N= 598	2,6 N= 821	1,1 N= 821	0,4 N= 821	2,0 N= 821	5,9 N= 821	7,4 N= 821	17,4 N= 821
50 - 54	4,0 N= 702	2,4 N= 125	2,1 N= 533	0,0 N= 533	2,0 N= 805	1,1 N= 805	0,4 N= 805	1,1 N= 805	6,1 N= 805	6,1 N= 805	13,4 N= 805
55 - 64	2,8 N= 1113	2,4 N= 209	1,9 N= 740	0,0 N= 740	2,8 N= 1344	1,2 N=1344	0,2 N= 1344	1,0 N= 1344	5,4 N= 1344	3,7 N= 1344	11,3 N= 1344
65 and over	1,6 N= 1113	0,8 N= 246	1,3 N= 316	0,3 N= 316	1,6 N= 1585	0,8 N=1585	0,2 N= 1585	1,1 N= 1585	3,4 N= 1585	2,5 N= 1585	7,2 N= 1585

3.3 Victim percentages by social class[x] (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Bur-glary	Indecent assault	Threaten-ing/ violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism	Total (excl.ve-hicle acci-dents
A/B	6,8 N= 545	3,1 N= 96	6,0 N= 515	0,8 N= 515	3,7 N= 618	3,1 N= 618	1,5 N= 618	2,8 N= 618	8,7 N= 618	8,7 N= 618	24,1 N= 618
C1	3,2 N= 856	2,0 N= 151	1,8 N= 726	0,3 N= 972	5,0 N= 972	0,7 N= 972	0,9 N= 972	2,4 N= 972	9,2 N= 972	5,8 N= 972	17,2 N= 972
C2	5,4 N= 1995	2,7 N= 365	2,2 N= 1608	0,3 N= 1608	3,5 N= 2348	1,3 N= 2348	1,1 N= 2348	1,9 N= 2348	8,5 N= 2348	6,3 N= 2348	17,5 N= 2348
D1	5,3 N= 4289	4,5 N= 780	3,3 N= 2804	0,7 N= 2804	2,5 N= 5019	0,9 N= 5019	1,2 N= 5019	2,7 N= 5019	6,2 N= 5019	5,3 N= 5019	15,7 N= 5019
D2	5,9 N= 1115	4,2 N= 216	2,7 N= 558	0,5 N= 558	2,3 N= 1391	0,9 N= 1391	1,3 N= 1391	1,6 N= 1391	5,6 N= 1391	4,4 N= 1391	14,8 N= 1391

[x] see footnote in appendix 1.

3.4 Victim percentages by size of municipality (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Bur-glary	Indecent assault	Threaten-ing/violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism	Total (excl. vehicle accidents)
Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague	10,3 N=1220	1,5 N=264	6,0 N=919	1,9 N=919	7,2 N=1699	1,2 N=1699	2,0 N=1699	3,9 N=1699	7,4 N=1699	8,4 N=1699	26,6 N=1699
100.000-<400.000	6,7 N=1255	6,4 N=233	3,2 N=839	0,4 N=839	3,4 N=1500	2,3 N=1500	1,7 N=1500	3,1 N=1500	7,7 N=1500	7,1 N=1500	20,8 N=1500
50.000-<100.000	6,3 N=1297	7,5 N=227	2,4 N=841	0,2 N=841	2,6 N=1458	1,3 N=1458	0,9 N=1458	2,0 N=1458	8,0 N=1458	5,6 N=1458	17,3 N=1458
20.000-<50.000	4,2 N=2032	3,1 N=359	2,2 N=1449	0,1 N=1449	2,1 N=2309	0,9 N=2309	1,1 N=2309	2,3 N=2309	7,5 N=2309	5,5 N=2309	15,0 N=2309
10.000-<20.000	3,2 N=1485	3,1 N=259	2,9 N=1068	0,4 N=1068	1,8 N=1668	0,7 N=1668	0,6 N=1668	1,4 N=1668	.6,4 N=1668	3,8 N=1668	11,0 N=1668
5.000-<10.000	2,7 N=1023	2,3 N=175	1,6 N=741	0,4 N=741	1,4 N=1129	0,9 N=1129	0,6 N=1129	1,7 N=1129	6,3 N=1129	4,1 N=1129	11,4 N=1129
<5.000	1,8 N=489	1,1 N=91	2,8 N=353	0,3 N=353	0,7 N=585	0,5 N=585	0,2 N=585	0,7 N=585	4,3 N=585	2,7 N=585	7,5 N=585

3.5 Simple correlation coefficients between victim-rates in 1976-1977 and certain explanatory variables.

	sex	age	social class	size of municipality
Vehicle accident	0,1172	0,0807	0,04606	0,0272
Vandalism	0,0691	0,0715	0,0369	0,0707
Bicycle theft	0,0143	0,10733	-0,0079	0,1074
Moped theft	0,0430	0,0462	-0,0167	0,0337
Pickpocketing	0,0037	0,0347	0,0406	0,1011
Theft from car	0,0197	0,0471	0,0169	0,0571
Threatening/violent behaviour	0,0761	0,0920	0,0054	0,0565
Indecent assault	-0,0326	0,0998	-0,0033	0,0486
Burglary	0,0118	0,0120	0,0323	0,0327
Theft of car	0,0327	0,0224	-0,0079	0,0505
Total[x] excl. vehicle accidents	0,0637[x]	0,1598[xx]	0,0491[xx]	0,1479[xx]

[x] i.e. victim of one or more of the crimes

[xx] Significant level 0.0000

4.1 Reporting rate (%) by sex of victims (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Cartheft	Pickpocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening and violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism
M	73,3 N = 243	88,6 N = 44	61,1 N = 108	100,0 N = 24	48,4 N = 157	71,9 N = 64	25,0 N = 40	23,2 N = 177	50,9 N = 517	24,5 N = 372
F	62,7 N = 220	81,3 N = 16	66,3 N = 80	75,0 N = 8	48,4 N = 153	86,8 N = 53	29,5 N = 78	25,8 N = 62	41,4 N = 215	23,5 N = 213

4.2 Reporting rate (5) by age of victims (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening/violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vanda-lism
24 and under	62,1 N = 153	84,0 N = 25	71,1 N = 45	71,4 N = 7	47,4 N = 57	88,5 N = 26	26,6 N = 64	25,7 N = 109	41,6 N = 178	25,2 N = 147
25 - 29	78,8 N = 80	92,3 N = 13	66,7 N = 33	100,0 N = 3	55,3 N = 47	50,0 N = 12	25,0 N = 24	21,9 N = 32	47.3 N = 112	24,1 N = 79
30 - 34	43,9 N = 41	100,0 N = 1	60,0 N = 20	100,0 N = 7	63,6 N = 33	60,0 N = 10	40,0 N = 10	27,8 N = 18	53,6 N = 69	24,2 N = 66
35 - 39	73,3 N = 45	100,0 N = 4	80,0 N = 25	100,0 N = 6	34,3 N = 35	33,3 N = 13	42,9 N = 7	16,7 N = 12	53,7 N = 82	19,0 N = 58
40 - 44	70,6 N = 34	100,0 N = 6	73,3 N = 15	100,0 N = 4	48,6 N = 37	55,5 N = 9	50,0 N = 4	9,1 N = 11	55,9 N = 58	22,1 N = 37
45 - 49	70,6 N = 34	100,0 N = 1	50,0 N = 20	80,0 N = 5	42,9 N = 21	66,7 N = 9	33,3 N = 3	12,5 N = 16	42,9 N = 49	18,0 N = 61
50 - 54	85,7 N = 28	66,7 N = 3	45,5 N = 11	-	43,8 N = 16	88,9 N = 9	33,3 N = 3	33,3 N = 9	46,0 N = 50	22,4 N = 49
55 - 64	71,0 N = 31	80,0 N = 5	46,2 N = 13	-	57,9 N = 38	87,5 N = 16	0,0 N = 2	15,4 N = 13	54,2 N = 72	22,0 N = 50
65 and over	72,2 N = 18	66,7 N = 3	0,0 N = 4	100,0 N = 1	32,0 N = 25	92,3 N = 13	0,0 N = 3	33,3 N = 18	44,4 N = 54	35,0 N = 40

4.3 Reporting rate (5) by social class of victims (1976-1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threaten-ing/vio-lent be-haviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism
A/B	67,6 N = 37	100,0 N = 3	59,4 N = 32	100,0 N = 4	56,5 N = 23	80,0 N = 20	66,7 N = 9	17,6 N = 17	46,3 N = 54	14,8 N = 54
C1	77,8 N = 27	100,0 N = 3	42,9 N = 14	50,0 N = 2	36,7 N = 49	85,7 N = 7	44,4 N = 9	9,1 N = 22	48,3 N = 89	44,6 N = 56
C2	76,6 N = 107	80,0 N = 10	72,2 N = 36	100,0 N = 4	54,3 N = 81	81,3 N = 32	33,3 N = 24	27,3 N = 44	43,2 N = 199	21,6 N = 148
D1	62,8 N = 226	88,6 N = 35	66,3 N = 92	89,5 N = 19	45,6 N = 125	80,9 N = 47	20,7 N = 58	24,1 N = 133	48,7 N = 312	24,0 N = 267
D2	70,0 N = 66	80,0 N = 10	46,7 N = 15	100,0 N = 3	56,3 N = 32	58,3 N = 12	33,3 N = 18	36,4 N = 22	57,7 N = 78	21,0 N = 62

4.4 Reporting rate (%) by size of municipality of victims (1976- 1977)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening/violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vandalism
Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague	61,1 N = 126	100,0 N = 4	73,2 N = 56	100,0 N = 17	45,1 N = 122	85,0 N = 20	25,7 N = 35	19,7 N = 66	60,3 N = 126	16,1 N = 143
100.000 - <400.000	69,0 N = 84	75,0 N = 16	63,0 N = 27	100,0 N = 3	45,1 N = 51	76,5 N = 34	30,8 N = 26	17,8 N = 45	43,5 N = 115	20,6 N = 107
50.000 - <100.000	71,6 N = 81	82,4 N = 17	80,0 N = 20	66,7 N = 3	50,0 N = 38	65,0 N = 20	42,9 N = 14	44,8 N = 29	39,7 N = 116	30,5 N = 82
20.000 - <50.000	74,4 N = 86	100,0 N = 11	40,6 N = 32	100,0 N = 1	57,1 N = 49	81,0 N = 21	19,2 N = 26	25,0 N = 52	51,4 N = 173	22,0 N = 127
10.000 - <20.000	80,9 N = 47	87,5 N = 8	58,1 N = 31	100,0 N = 4	45,2 N = 31	90,0 N = 10	60,0 N = 10	28,0 N = 25	44,3 N = 106	23,4 N = 64
5.000 - <10.000	57,1 N = 28	100,0 N = 4	75,0 N = 12	33,3 N = 3	75,0 N = 16	90,0 N = 10	0,0 N = 7	21,1 N = 19	45,1 N = 71	43,5 N = 46
<5.000	50,0 N = 10	100,0 N = 1	55,6 N = 9	100,0 N = 1	25,0 N = 4	33,3 N = 3	0,0 N = 1	0,0 N = 4	48,0 N = 25	56,3 N = 16

4:5 Simple correlation coefficient between victim's reporting behaviour and certain explanatory variables (1976-1977).

	sex	age	social class	size of municipality
Vehicle accident (N=732)	0,0866	-0,0361	-0,0485	0,0553
Vandalism (N=586)	0,0106	-0,0092	0,0258	-0,1620
Bicycle theft (N=463)	0,1107	-0,0888	0,0477	-0,0505
Moped theft (N=60)	0,0736	0,0994	0,0754	-0,1350
Pickpocketing (N=310)	0,0015	0,0494	-0,0189	-0,0783
Theft from car (N=187)	-0,0524	0,2125	-0,0289	0,1341
Threatening/violent behaviour (N=239)	-0,0309	0,0116	-0,1095	-0,0243
Indecent assault (N=119)	-0,0505	-0,0081	0,0902	-0,0039
Burglary (N=117)	-0,1868	-0,1102	0,1089	0,0100
Theft of car (N=32)	0,4929	-0,1514	-0,0202	0,3787
Total excl. vehicle accidents (N=1718)	-0,0379	-0,0184	0,0098	-0,0331

4.6-15 Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *bicycle theft*; the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N =463	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0,11065	0,01224	0,11065	0,12306
Age	0,14572	0,00899	-0,08880	-0,09239
Social class	0,15679	0,00335	0,04771	0,06248
Size of municipality	0,16606	0,00299	-0,05046	-0,05495

7. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *moped theft*: the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N =53	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Insurance	0,27906	0,07787	0,27906	0,13852
Whether moped recovered	0,32518	0,10574	-0,27364	-0,27077
Size of municipality	0,38397	0,14743	-0,13495	-0,26357
Sex	0,39213	0,15377	0,07363	0,06999
Age	0,39511	0,15611	0,09937	0,07011
Social class	0,39677	0,15743	0,07541	-0,03992

8. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *theft from cars*: the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N=166	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Value of goods stolen	0,35927	0,12908	-0,35927	-0,32016
Age	0,37700	0,01305	0,21250	0,12061
Size of municipality	0,39561	0,01437	0,13406	0,12352
Social class	0,39931	0,00294	-0,02890	-0,05555
Sex	0,40076	0,00116	-0,05236	-0,03422

9. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *car theft:* the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N=29	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0,04929	0,24297	0,49292	0,45696
Size of municipality	0,56250	0,07344	0,37873	0,19934
Social class	0,56529	0,00314	-0,02024	-0,09697
Insurance	0,56870	0,00388	-0,16757	-0,07432
Age	0,57237	0,00419	-0,15143	-0,08222

10. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *pickpocketing*: the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N = 255	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Value of goods stolen	0,21251	0,04516	-0,21251	-0,22487
Size of municipality	0,22410	0,00506	-0,07831	-0,06489
Age	0,23017	0,00276	0,04939	0,04987
Sex	0,23395	0,00176	0,00151	-0,04366
Social class	0,23445	0,00023	-0,01891	0,01579

11. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *burglary*: the dependent variable is reporting behaviour.

N = 106	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Value of goods stolen	0,35964	0,12934	-0,35964	-0,35850
Sex	0,40912	0,03803	-0,18682	-0,17678
Damage to house	0,43413	0,02109	0,15724	0,17142
Age	0,44580	0,01027	-0,11019	-0,12389
Social class	0,45793	0,01096	0,10852	0,12062
Insurance	0,45911	0,00108	0,12112	-0,03613
Size of municipality	0,45949	0,00034	0,00997	-0,01965

12. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *indecent assault*: the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N = 104	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Injury	0,29241	0,08550	- 0,29241	- 0,29240
Social class	0,32478	0,01998	0,09023	0,13975
Use of weapons	0,33765	0,00852	- 0,17804	- 0,08735
No. of molesters	0,34626	0,00588	- 0,12847	- 0,06801
Age	0,34959	0,00232	- 0,00811	0,04551
Sex	0,35129	0,00119	- 0,05051	- 0,03294
Size of municipality	0,35181	0,00037	- 0,00392	- 0,02005

13. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for threatening or *violent behaviour in a public place:* the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N = 215	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Injury	0,45568	0,20764	- 0,45568	- 0,49716
Sex	0,47337	0,01644	- 0,03092	- 0,13219
Social class	0,49007	0,01609	- 0,10952	- 0,11958
Age	0,49188	0,00178	0,01160	- 0,05185
Size of municipality	0,49342	0,00150	- 0,02427	- 0,04130
No. of molesters	0,49421	0,00079	- 0,03834	- 0,03029
Use of weapons	0,49472	0,00051	- 0,02352	0,02306

14. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *vehicle accidents*: the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N = 672	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Damage	0,46907	0,22003	-0,46907	-0,48350
Injury	0,48656	0,01671	-0,11602	-0,11410
Size of municipality	0,49467	0,00797	0,05529	0,09502
Social class	0,49888	0,00418	-0,04848	-0,06046
Sex	0,49937	0,00049	0,08655	0,02494
Whether other party failed to stop	0,49960	0,00023	-0,06848	0,01580
Age	0,49977	0,00017	-0,03613	-0,01313

15. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *vandalism:* the dependent variable is the reporting behaviour.

N = 506	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Damage	0,30876	0,09533	-0,30876	-0,31097
Size of municipality	0,35177	0,02841	-0,16199	-0,16639
Social class	0,35250	0,00051	0,02582	0,02181
Age	0,35279	0,00021	-0,00923	0,01577
Insurance	0,35307	0,00020	0,08805	0,01445

5.1. Signature of official report, by sex of victim (1976/'77)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocke-ting	Burgla-ry	Indecent assault	Threaten-ing and violent behaviour	Vehicle acci-dent	Vandalism
M	72,8 N = 162	84,6 N = 39	81,5 N = 65	50,0 N = 24	72,4 N = 76	69,7 N = 46	70,0 N = 10	29,3 N = 41	58,2 N = 263	40,7 N = 91
F	61,3 N = 119	61,5 N = 13	60,4 N = 53	80,0 N = 5	45,3 N = 75	67,4 N = 46	56,5 N = 23	18,9 N = 16	57,3 N = 89	31,4 N = 51

5.2. Signature of official report, by age of victim (1976/'77)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening and violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vanda-lism
24 and under	69,3 N= 88	85,0 N= 20	75,0 N= 32	40,0 N= 5	44,4 N= 27	79,2 N= 24	72,2 N= 18	21,4 N= 28	70,3 N= 74	43,2 N= 37
25 – 29	78,8 N= 52	75,0 N= 12	63,6 N= 22	100,0 N= 3	76,9 N= 26	80,0 N= 5	50,0 N= 6	14,3 N= 7	55,8 N= 53	26,3 N= 19
30 – 34	43,8 N= 16	100,0 N= 1	66,7 N= 12	42,9 N= 7	52,4 N= 21	83,3 N= 6	25,0 N= 4	20,0 N= 5	52,8 N= 36	56,3 N= 16
35 – 39	71,9 N= 32	66,7 N= 3	85,0 N= 20	16,7 N= 6	69,2 N= 13	45,5 N= 11	66,7 N= 3	50,0 N= 2	63,6 N= 44	18,2 N= 11
40 – 44	77,8 N= 18	83,3 N= 6	45,5 N= 11	75,0 N= 4	44,4 N= 18	66,7 N= 6	50,0 N= 2	0,0 N= 1	52,6 N= 38	25,0 N= 12
45 – 49	61,9 N= 21	100,0 N= 1	80,0 N= 10	100,0 N= 4	66,7 N= 9	83,3 N= 6	100,0 N= 1	50,0 N= 2	60,0 N= 20	45,5 N= 11
50 – 54	54,5 N= 22	50,0 N= 2	60,0 N= 5	–	71,4 N= 7	62,5 N= 8	50,0 N= 2	25,0 N= 4	68,2 N= 22	27,3 N= 11
55 – 64	71,4 N= 21	100,0 N= 4	85,7 N= 7	–	66,7 N= 21	71,4 N= 14	–	50,0 N= 2	51,3 N= 39	54,5 N= 11
65 and over	54,5 N= 11	0,0 N= 2	–	100,0 N= 1	50,0 N= 8	50,0 N= 12	–	33,3 N= 6	36,0 N= 25	28,6 N= 14

5.3. Signature of official report, by social class of victim (1976/'77)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening and violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vanda-lism
A/B	78,3 N= 23	66,7 N= 3	83,3 N= 18	100,0 N= 4	42,9 N= 14	86,7 N= 15	33,3 N= 3	33,3 N= 3	68,0 N= 25	44,4 N= 9
C1	73,7 N= 19	100,0 N= 3	16,7 N= 6	0,0 N= 1	35,3 N= 17	66,7 N= 6	25,0 N= 4	66,7 N= 3	46,5 N= 43	37,5 N= 24
C2	68,6 N= 70	75,0 N= 8	80,8 N= 26	100,0 N= 4	59,1 N= 44	56,0 N= 25	44,4 N= 9	9,1 N= 11	60,9 N= 87	40,6 N= 32
D1	66,4 N= 128	83,9 N= 31	75,4 N= 61	38,9 N= 18	64,9 N= 57	75,7 N= 37	91,7 N= 12	21,9 N= 32	60,5 N= 152	39,1 N= 64
D2	63,4 N= 41	57,1 N= 7	42,9 N= 7	50,0 N= 4	77,8 N= 18	42,9 N= 7	66,7 N= 6	37,5 N= 8	48,9 N= 45	23,1 N= 13

5.4. Signature of official report, by size of municipality of victim (1967/'77)

	Bicycle theft	Moped theft	Theft from car	Car theft	Pick-pocketing	Burglary	Indecent assault	Threatening/ violent behaviour	Vehicle accident	Vanda-lism
Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague	81,8 N = 66	100,0 N = 4	82,9 N = 41	52,9 N = 17	69,1 N = 55	100,0 N = 17	77,8 N = 9	0,0 N = 13	56,6 N = 76	69,6 N = 23
100.000 - <400.000	70,6 N = 51	83,3 N = 12	70,6 N = 17	66,7 N = 3	56,5 N =23	69,2 N = 26	50,0 N = 8	33,3 N = 9	56,9 N = 51	36,4 N = 22
50.000 - <100.000	61,1 N = 54	78,6 N = 14	56,3 N = 16	0,0 N = 2	47,4 N = 19	23,1 N = 13	66,7 N = 6	23,1 N = 13	58,7 N = 46	20,0 N = 25
20.000 - < 50.000	61,8 N = 55	70,0 N = 10	84,6 N = 13	0,0 N = 1	70,4 N = 27	68,8 N = 16	60,0 N = 5	53,8 N = 13	56,2 N = 89	42,9 N = 28
10.000 - < 20.000	64,7 N = 34	100,0 N = 7	66,7 N = 18	75,0 N = 4	35,7 N = 14	88,9 N = 9	50,0 N = 6	28,6 N = 7	60,9 N = 46	26,7 N = 15
5.000 - < 10.000	56,3 N = 16	25,0 N = 4	55,6 N = 9	100,0 N = 1	33,3 N = 12	66,7 N = 9	-	0,0 N = 4	64,5 N = 31	35,0 N = 20
< 5.000	66,7 N = 3	100,0 N = 1	50,0 N = 6	100,0 N = 1	100,0 N = 1	0,0 N = 1	-	-	53,8 N = 13	11,1 N = 9

5.5. Simple correlation coefficient between signature by victim of official
     report and certain dependent variables (1976/'77)

	sex	age	social class	size of municipality
Vehicle accident	0,0074	0,1150	0,0257	-0,0237
Vandalism	0,0973	0,0236	0,0551	0,2232
Bicycle theft	0,1300	0,0801	0,0839	0,1487
Moped theft	0,2473	0,0984	0,1125	0,2094
Pickpocketing	0,2788	-0,0292	-0,2303	0,1658
Theft from car	0,2312	-0,0309	0,0488	0,1680
Threatening/violent behaviour	0,0817	-0,1140	0,0415	-0,2074
Indecent assault	0,1402	0,0887	-0,3507	0,1793
Burglary	0,0216	0,1543	0,1455	0,1460
Theft of car	-0,2304	-0,2747	0,3875	-0,1875
Total[x] excl. vehicle accidents	-0,0948[x]	0,0362[xx]	0,0694[xx]	0,1414[xx]

[x] i.e. victim of one or more of the crimes

[xx] Significant level 0.0000

6. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *bicycle theft*: the
   dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 280	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Size of municipality	0,14873	0,02212	0,14873	0,15007
Sex	0,20919	0,02164	0,12999	0,15199
Social class	0,22461	0,00669	0,08389	0,08250
Age	0,23094	0,00288	0,08012	0.05410

7. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *moped theft*: the dependent
   variable is the signature of an official report

N = 48	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Moped recovered	0,36543	0,13354	-0,36543	-0,23646
Sex	0,42360	0,04590	0,24729	0,20799
Insurance	0,45226	0,02510	0,31929	0,22844
Age	0,46184	0,00875	0,09835	-0,18668
Social class	0,47386	0.01125	0,11245	0,14705
Size of municipality	0,48621	0,01186	0,20943	0,13104

8. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *theft from cars*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 107	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0,23118	0,05344	0,23118	0,22523
Size of municipality	0,28224	0,02621	0,16803	0,16284
Value of goods stolen	0,32404	0,02534	-0,15085	-0,17189
Age	0,32755	0,00229	-0,03091	-0,04967
Social class	0,32771	0.00010	0,04883	0,01017

9. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *car theft*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 28	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Social class	0,38747	0,15013	0,38747	0,27771
Sex	0,47689	0,07730	-0,23039	-0,19788
Size of municipality	0,49977	0,02235	-0,18747	-0,37252
Insurance	0,54982	0,05253	-0,20506	-0,25608
Age	0,58428	0,03908	-0,27466	-0,23973

10. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *pickpocketing*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 144	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Sex	0,27883	0,07774	0,27883	0,19492
Social class	0,33332	0,03336	-0,23030	-0,15140
Size of municipality	0,35821	0,01721	0,16577	0,14397
Value of goods stolen	0,38193	0,01755	-0,22527	-0,14591
Age	0,38328	0,00103	-0,02920	-0,03250

11. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *burglary*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 89	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Value of goods stolen	0,32802	0,10760	-0,32802	-0,26022
Insurance	0,39360	0,04732	0,26713	0,18085
Damage to house	0,42248	0,02357	0,19910	0,16339
Social class	0,43855	0,01384	0,14550	0,11847
Age	0,44825	0,00860	0,15431	0,07339
Size of municipality	0,45289	0,00418	0,14601	0,06997
Sex	0,45302	0,00012	0,02156	0,01150

12. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *indecent assault*:
the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 32	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Social class	0,35073	0,12301	- 0,35073	- 0,35060
Size of municipality	0,49102	0,11809	0,17928	0,39209
Sex	0,55144	0,06299	0,14021	0,23907
No. of molesters	0,57562	0,02725	0,26425	0,20044
Injury	0,58872	0,01525	- 0,32227	- 0,21258
Age	0,60387	0,01807	0,08868	0,17100
Use of weapons	0,60411	0,00029	- 0,08898	- 0,01713

13. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *threatening or violent behaviour in a public place*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 56	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Use of weapons	0,36234	0,13129	- 0,36234	- 0,35534
No. of molesters	0,43755	0,06016	- 0,26574	- 0,37079
Age	0,49999	0,05854	- 0,11395	- 0,21597
Size of municipality	0,54108	0,04278	- 0,20735	- 0,20602
Social class	0,54419	0,00337	0,04149	0,07140
Injury	0,54482	0,00068	- 0,02222	0,03390

14. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *vehicle accidents*:
the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 330	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Damage	0,11934	0,01424	-0,11934	-0,10927
Age	0,16156	0,01186	0,11499	0,11606
Other party failing to stop	0,17112	0,00318	-0,05892	-0,05738
Injury	0,17329	0,00075	-0,00318	-0,02793
Social class	0,17386	0,00020	0,02569	0,01358
Sex	0,17398	0,00004	0,00740	-0,00718
Size of municipality	0,17412	0,00005	-0,02374	-0,00697

15. Results of a step-by-step regression analysis for *vandalism*: the dependent variable is the signature of an official report

N = 129	Multiple correlation coefficient R	Change in R2	Simple correlation coefficient	Standard partial regression coefficient
Damage	0,36037	0,12987	-0,36037	-0,31460
Size of municipality	0,38939	0,02176	0,22323	0,14992
Age	0,40194	0,00993	0,02362	0,09957
Insurance	0,41433	0,01012	0,20050	0,10807
Social class	0,42116	0,00570	0,05508	0,07356
Sex	0,42569	0,00383	0,09727	0,06474

END