

THE NEW ZEALAND  
**CRIME & SAFETY**

SURVEY : 2006

**KEY FINDINGS**

Pat Mayhew and James Reilly



MINISTRY OF  
**JUSTICE**  
*Tāhū o te Ture*

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## Foreword

The New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS) is a comprehensive household survey that explores the experience of crime victimisation of more than 5,000 randomly selected New Zealand residents aged 15 and over. Two previous victimisation surveys, conducted in 1996 and 2001, went under the title of the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims.

The NZCASS was led by Pat Mayhew OBE, who was previously at the British Home Office. She is internationally renowned in this field, and has been ably supported by an experienced consortium of researchers. This consortium substantially changed and revised the survey to align it with international best practice and to reflect changes to legislation since the previous survey (e.g., the new definition of burglary introduced in 2003 and changes to the Sentencing Act in 2002). New questions were also introduced, such as a measure of confidence in the criminal justice system.

The NZCASS provides a benchmark for the 2005 year that will enable trends to be measured over time. It cannot be fully compared with the two previous surveys due to significant changes in the survey design, and future surveys will be needed to provide more certainty about whether crime has gone up, down, or stayed the same. In the meantime, this report covers a wide range of topics of interest to the general public. It has also been eagerly awaited by researchers and agencies who need to know more about crime and its victims in this country.

The survey provides important information and feedback for the justice sector, particularly in the areas of crime prevention and reduction, services to victims, Police and Court services, family violence services, and the development of policy and legislation. Further analyses of the survey data are expected over the coming year to provide insights into people's perception of crime, psychological abuse by partners, the determinants of victimisation risk, information on the needs of victims, victimisation through e-crime, and the cost of crime to victims.

I thank everybody involved in the production of this report.

**Belinda Clark**

Secretary for Justice

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# Acknowledgements

This report has been made possible due to the time and trouble taken by over 5,000 New Zealanders who took part in the 2006 New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS). Others have played a key part too.

We are grateful to all the staff at ACNielsen who were involved in conducting the 2006 NZCASS, as well as to the interviewers. It is invidious to single people out, but Charles Sullivan, the Project Director for the survey, deserves special mention for his professionalism, diligence and support throughout.

We enjoyed working on the whole project with those in the Research, Evaluation & Modelling Unit of the Ministry of Justice who made the survey happen, and fed greatly into the preparation of this report. Alison Chetwin's knowledge of the two previous surveys was invaluable. Sally Faisandier, who shoulders responsibility for the survey in the Ministry, was of unfailing help, and her enthusiasm was inspiring. Felicity Leahy joined the Ministry later in the day, but has contributed to the survey with much initiative.

Neil Cameron (from the Faculty of Law at Victoria University of Wellington) took responsibility for coding what victims said into appropriate legal categories. He did this with patience and skill. Graduates who helped with the coding task were Jo Mildenhall, Hayley Schollum, Ilya Skaler, and Lisa Duncan. Felicity Leahy also took part in the coding exercise. We would like to think they gained a unique understanding of the contours of 'ordinary victimisation' in New Zealand.

Our Māori consultants, Laurie Porima and Nan Wehipeihana, have been supportive throughout. We are grateful for the efforts they made to recruit Māori interviewers, as well as their cultural input generally.

Members of the survey's Advisory Group were astute critics in relation to both the survey's development, and this report of its results. Warren Young also provided helpful comments on the report, and indeed the 2006 survey has benefited from his valuable work on the two previous surveys.

Tony Lee at the Crime and Justice Research Centre made a valuable contribution with regard to proofreading and checking.

Our partners were 'secondary victims'. The patience of Roger Mayhew and Robin Guenzel was much taxed by the demands of preparing this report within a very tight timeframe. We thank Roger and Robin for their considerable fortitude.

**Pat Mayhew**

**James Reilly**



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# Executive summary

This report presents results from the 2006 New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS). The survey measured the amount of crime experienced by New Zealand residents over the age of 15 by asking them directly about criminal victimisation they had experienced since the beginning of 2005. The response rate was 59% for the main sample, and 56% for a booster sample of Māori. This survey is part of an ongoing research programme. The future work will provide important information about trends in crime from an alternative perspective to Police-recorded crime rates.

Two previous victimisation surveys went under the title of the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV). The first was in 1996, the second in 2001. Changes in survey design limit the comparisons that can be made between the NZCASS and the two earlier surveys.

## What the survey tells us

The 2006 NZCASS offers a wide range of information.

- It measures the amount of crime in New Zealand in 2005 by asking people directly about crimes they have experienced. The survey includes crimes not reported to the Police, so it is an important complement to Police records. Victims do not report crime for various reasons. Without the NZCASS, we would have no information on these unreported crimes.
- It looks at the reasons that victims give for not reporting offences to the Police, and how well they thought the Police responded when they did report a crime.
- It provides some comparisons with the 1996 and 2001 survey findings. However, because of changes in survey design, there are substantial limitations on some of these comparisons.
- It helps identify those most at risk of different types of crime in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, etc. Police figures currently tell us little on this front.
- It gives information on the nature of victimisation, such as its physical, financial and emotional effects.

## Conducting the survey

Interviews were conducted in the first half of 2006 with a nationally representative random sample of 4,229 people aged 15 and over in private households in New Zealand. A Māori 'booster' sample of 1,187 was also included to improve reliability of findings for Māori.

One person per household was interviewed. They were asked whether they had been a victim of offences covered by the survey since 1 January 2005. They were also asked about the circumstances and impact of any offences they had experienced, and about a number of other crime-related issues. They reported on household offences, where all household members can be regarded as victims (for instance, burglary and theft of vehicles), and on personal offences, where they had personally been the victim (for instance, assault and robbery).

Interviewers used Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) which involved carrying a laptop computer and recording data directly into it. In order to maximise confidentiality, respondents were given the laptop to enter in their own responses for offences committed by partners, as well as similar offences committed by other people well known to them, and sexual victimisation.

The survey counts all incidents of crime that are technically criminal (as they would be classified by the Police), and includes unreported as well as reported crime. The survey estimates of victimisation are used to give an estimate of crime against all New Zealanders over the age of 15 years.

## Response rates

The overall response rate in the 2006 NZCASS was 59% in the main sample and 56% in the Māori booster sample. The respective figures in the 2001 survey were 65% and 57%, and in 1996, 56% and 66%. The decline may reflect a general fall in people's willingness to take part in surveys – perhaps because of busier lifestyles, or the large number of surveys that take place in New Zealand relative to the size of the population. Certainly, refusing an interview was the main reason for non-response. People have more confidence in surveys with a high response rate and it is unfortunate a higher rate was not achieved. However, the broad methodological evidence is inconclusive as to whether estimates of victimisation risks are pulled upwards or downwards due to low response. Thus, it is difficult to say how the small drop in the response rate in the 2006 NZCASS has affected risk estimates.

## Changes to the survey

There were changes made between the 1996 and 2001 surveys, and further changes made in 2006. Some of the changes are the result of a natural process of survey development. The changes to the 2006 survey are particularly important. They are likely to have improved the accuracy of the 2006 NZCASS estimates, but will have affected victimisation risk estimates from the 2006 survey compared to those from the two previous surveys. A few of the changes will have depressed estimates of victimisation risk in the 2006 survey compared to the previous procedures. Other changes, though, will have had a much larger effect, and in the opposite direction of increasing risk estimates and drawing more minor incidents into the survey. The main changes include:

- a change in the interviewing period. People were interviewed earlier in the year in 2006 than they were in 2001, which will have improved their recollection of offences in 2005 compared to recollection of offences in 2000 in the previous survey
- a change in the definition of partner from 'current heterosexual partner' to 'any partner or partners' over the 2005 year
- the inclusion of additional screener questions (which act as memory prompts for incidents of criminal victimisation)
- the fact that more offences were treated as within the scope of the survey due to changes in how incidents were asked about and assessed to see whether they were criminal offences.

## The survey and Police count of crime

The NZCASS and offences recorded by the Police both measure various aspects of crime at the national level. Together, they provide a better picture of the nature of crime than can be obtained from either measure alone. There are several differences between them:

NZCASS	Police figures
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Covers people in private households. It does not cover commercial victimisation, 'victimless' crimes (such as drug or alcohol abuse), or those against people less than 15 years old.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Cover all those crimes known to the Police and which they decide to record.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Will give a higher count of crime because it counts unreported crime. But the NZCASS count is not simply of crimes 'not worth worrying about'. Many crimes judged serious by their victims still go unreported.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Are subject to changes in the number of crimes that get reported to the Police, and any changes in the way that Police record crimes.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Provides information about the context and impact of victimisation.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Do not allow much scope for analysing 'what crime is like', and how risks are distributed across different groups.</li> </ul>

## ■ The extent of crime

*The NZCASS provides an estimate of the number of offences in New Zealand in 2005 that fall within the scope of the survey.*

### The number and make-up of offences

- All told, the survey estimates that there were 2,753,000 household and personal offences in New Zealand committed in 2005 against those aged 15 and over. Attempted offences were included. There were 939,000 household offences, and 1,814,000 personal offences. The number of personal offences is much larger because there are more adults than households.
- Assaults made up a quarter of all the offences, and threats just over one-fifth. Half of the assaults reported in the survey involved injury. Assaults and threats together made up nearly half of all victimisations measured by the survey. The way that the NZCASS is designed compared to other international crime surveys means that it produces a higher count of such interpersonal crime.
- Vandalism was the next largest offence category, with vandalism to vehicles, household property and personal property comprising about one in five of all offences. Vandalism offences made up a rather higher proportion of all crime in 2005 than they did in the two previous surveys, but additional screener questions (which act as memory prompts) explain this.
- Sexual offences formed 7% of the offences counted by the survey. This was higher than in the previous two surveys, but is accounted for by a substantial change to the questions asked.

## Victims' judgements about the offences

Victims were asked to rate the seriousness of each offence that happened to them using a seriousness scale where 1 represented a very minor offence and 20 represented murder. We made these decisions so that the 'most serious' offences were those with scores of 10-20; 'fairly serious' offences were those with scores of 5-9; and 'least serious' offences were those with scores of 1-4. About a third of offences fell into each group. Victims were also asked whether they considered what happened to them to be 'a crime', 'wrong but not a crime', or 'just something that happens'.

- Thefts of vehicles most often fell into the most serious band. More than 40% of sexual offences, assaults, and threats were also rated as most serious. Vandalism offences were more likely to be rated as least serious.
- Overall, victims described 59% of incidents that happened to them as 'crimes'. The remainder were divided equally between those where the victim felt it was 'wrong but not a crime', and 'just something that happens'.
- The sexual offences measured by the survey were most likely to be thought of as not being crimes. About half of threats and assaults were similarly regarded. Incidents where there was property loss (thefts of vehicles and burglary, for instance) or damage to property, were much more often thought of as crimes.
- There is a clear discordance between assessments of seriousness and victims' views about whether what happened was a crime or not. Thus, whereas many sexual offences, assaults and threats were regarded as serious, many were not thought of as 'crimes'. Similarly, relatively few thefts and vandalism offences were given high seriousness scores, but were nonetheless more often judged as unequivocally criminal.

## Offences which became known to the Police

- A third of all NZCASS offences were reported to the Police – though reporting rates varied by type of offence. Thefts of vehicles were by far the most often reported. Just over half of thefts from vehicles were reported, and nearly as many burglary offences.
- When victims felt that the offence was serious, or that it was a crime, they were more likely to report the incident to the Police.

## Comparing the survey figures with those of the Police

- Some types of offences measured by the NZCASS can be compared with the equivalent number recorded by the Police. The survey shows that there were eight times more offences estimated by the survey than in Police figures. However, this figure should be seen as suggestive rather than precise.
- There are two main reasons for the gap. First, many crimes are not reported to the Police. For survey offences that can be compared with equivalent Police figures, only 44% became known to the Police. Second, not all offences that are reported to the Police are recorded by the Police (based on their figures). On the face of it, the number of offences recorded by the Police is 27% of the number that victims believed had been drawn to their attention.

## Changes in crime

In order to make comparisons with victimisation rates for 2000 from the 2001 survey, a separate set of victimisation rates for 2005 were produced using analysis procedures matched as far as possible to those used in the 2001 survey. While these make the results from the two surveys more comparable, full comparability is difficult because of the change in the recall periods for the two surveys, and the change in definition of partners.

- The special analysis shows that risks of victimisation have not changed much between 2000 and 2005 for personal offences such as assault and threats. For household offences such as burglary and vehicle crime, there appears to have been an increase between 2000 and 2005, but not a large one.
- There are also difficulties in comparing risks of victimisation in 2005 with those in 1995. Household offences were rather higher in 2005 than in 1995. It is hard to judge whether levels of personal offences have changed over this period.

## ■ The distribution of risk

*Risks can be measured in terms of incidence rates—the number of offences per 100 households or adults. Incidence rates are used to estimate the full volume of crime taking into account that some people are victimised more than once. Risks can also be measured in terms of prevalence rates, which show the percentage of households, or adults who have been victimised once or more. The picture of which types of people are most at risk is broadly the same on the two measures.*

### Victimisation levels

- Four in ten people had experienced some form of victimisation in 2005. That is, they experienced a personal crime or lived in a household that was the victim of a household crime.
- Fourteen percent of households had one or more break-ins or attempted break-ins to their home, or a theft from within the enclosed space around it, such as the garden, driveway or shed.
- Nine percent of households were victims of vandalism to their household property in 2005.
- Thirteen percent of adults had been either assaulted or threatened.
- Three percent experienced a sexual offence. Women were more at risk.
- Robbery and thefts from the person posed the lowest risks of all.

## Who was most at risk?

*We looked at which types of people were most at risk of any type of crime, burglary and motor vehicle offences. We also took a measure of 'confrontational' offences (involving assaults, threats to person or property, and robbery). These confrontational offences were divided into (i) those committed by partners, (ii) those committed by people well known to the victim, and (iii) other offenders. In the last group, about two-thirds involved strangers.*

*Certain factors that are related to being more at risk of victimisation go together. For instance, being younger is related to an increased risk of being victimised, and so is being single. But of course, younger people will more often be single. Similarly, while a fifth of New Zealanders overall live in areas classified as the most deprived in the country (where victimisation rates are higher), almost half of Māori live there.*

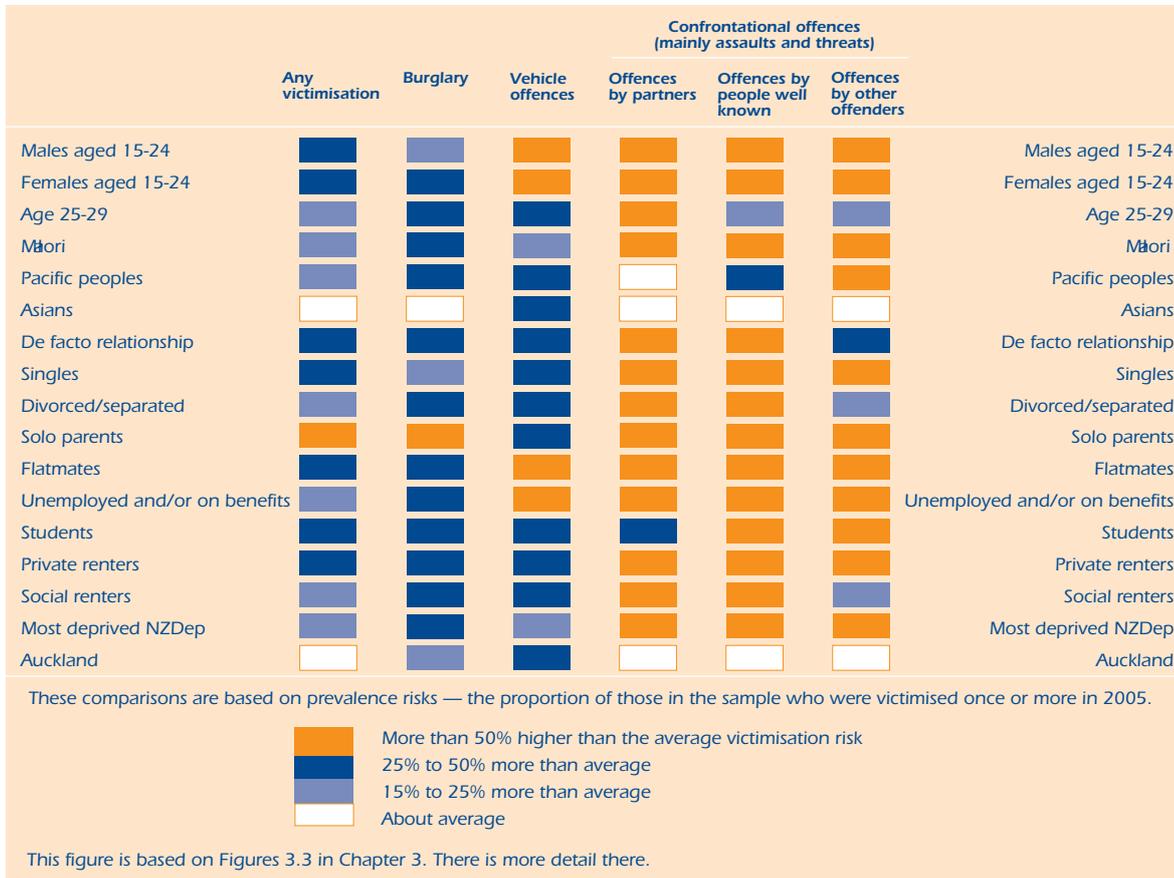
- The groups most at risk were generally similar across all the measures of victimisation examined. Figure A summarises the results, showing those groups which had above average levels of victimisation.
- There was a concentration of risk among the less economically and socially well placed. Risks were consistently high for:

- sole parents
- those who were unemployed and/or on some form of benefit
- those living in property they rented rather than owned
- those in the most deprived areas of New Zealand.

- Other factors related to risk were:

- Age – Young people aged 15–24 were at high risk across the board, and this was reflected in high risks for students and flatmates. Those aged 25–39 also experienced more crime than those in older age groups.
- Marital status – Those who are single or in de facto relationships were more at risk, probably in part because they are younger. People who are divorced or separated experienced more crime too.
- Ethnicity – Māori emerged as higher risk than average on all the measures we took, in particular confrontational crime. Pacific peoples were also at comparatively high risk, with the exception of confrontational crimes committed by partners.

**Figure A Groups at high risk of victimisation in 2005**



**Who was at low risk?**

The least vulnerable groups were:

- retired people, and those aged 60 or older—though these two groups overlap of course
- couples with no children and people living on their own
- those in more rural areas of New Zealand
- Those who owned their own home, who were much less at risk of burglary. They were also less at risk of vehicle offences than renters, but this could reflect differences in the availability of private parking spaces.

### Differences between men and women

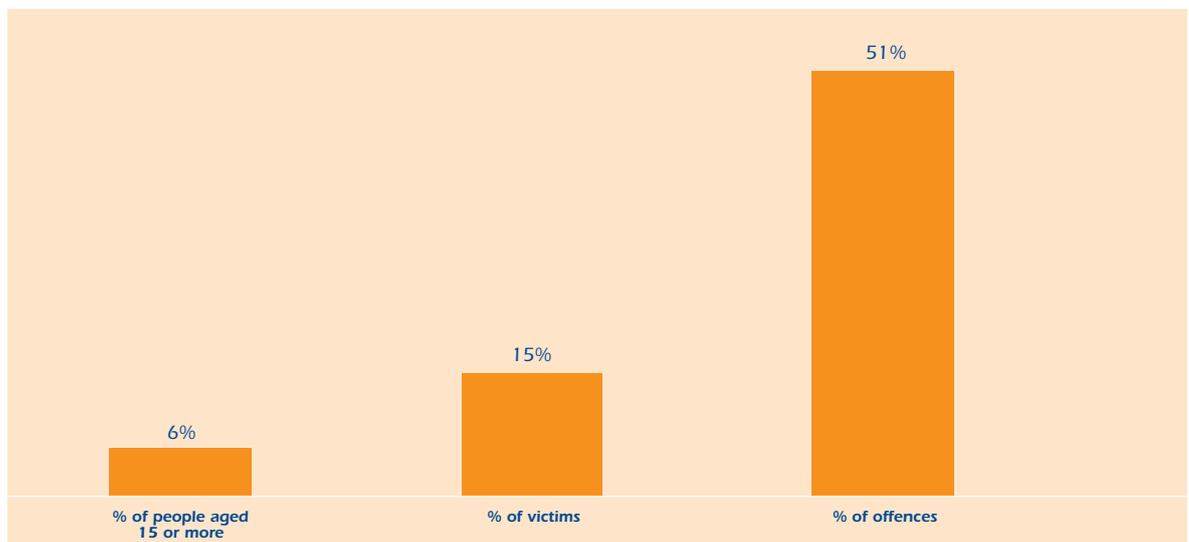
In terms of the three different types of confrontational crime:

- There was no difference in the proportion of men and women who had experienced offences committed by partners in terms of how many had been victimised at least once (the prevalence rate). However, taking account of the number of crimes experienced (the incidence rate), women experienced more offences than men did.
- There was no statistically robust difference in the proportion of men and women who had experienced offences committed by people well known to them.
- Men were more often victims of confrontational offences that involved other offenders than women were. Two thirds of these types of offences involved strangers.

### The unevenness of victimisation

- The total number of victimisations was very unevenly distributed. Six in ten New Zealanders reported no victimisations in 2005, but 6% reported five or more victimisations. This small minority experienced half of the offences measured by the survey (Figure B). They were 15% of all victims. This refutes the notion of there being an 'average' risk. In other words, there was no uniform distribution of risk across the population.

**Figure B Those victimised five or more times in 2005**



- There was an especially uneven distribution across the population for confrontational crime committed by partners and people well known. For instance, just 2% of those with a partner (or those who had a partner sometime between the beginning of 2005 and the date of the survey) accounted for three-quarters of offences committed by partners.

## ■ Reporting to the Police

*Victims were asked whether the Police got to know about what happened to them. When the Police did know, it was usually because the offence was reported either by the victim or another household member. But the Police could have found out in some other way – perhaps because a neighbour told them, or they were already on the scene.*

### Changes in levels of reporting

- Overall, it is difficult to say whether levels of reporting to the Police have changed since 2000. Taking the design changes to the 2006 survey into account, the most judicious conclusion is that there has been no change. It should be noted that this also applies to assaults and threats, where it is often argued that increased reporting is a factor in explaining the rise in violent crimes recorded by the Police.

### Reasons for reporting and not reporting

- Crimes were not reported mainly because victims thought they were not important enough to report. This applied to about half of unreported offences. Another main reason was that victims felt the Police could not or would not have done anything anyway (about a third). Just over a quarter of victims felt that what occurred was not a matter for the Police, but something better dealt with themselves. The reasons given by New Zealanders for not reporting are very similar to responses in other countries.
- The type of offence made a difference as to why it was not reported. Sexual offences and offences committed by partners or people well known to the victim were less likely to be reported because victims felt that what had occurred was a private matter.
- The main determinant of whether a crime was reported was how serious the victim judged it to be. Half of the offences judged most serious by victims were reported, although by the same token, half were not. Less than two in ten of 'least serious' crimes were reported, and only about three in ten of 'fairly serious' offences. Victims of these unreported offences were more likely than other victims to think the Police would be unable to help or not be interested. The offences involved were also more likely to involve partners.
- Irrespective of how serious victims judged the offence to be, the need to make an insurance claim influenced whether victims reported to the Police.

### The Police response

- Victims who reported to the Police were asked whether they were dealt with immediately or had to wait. More than half said the Police dealt with the matter immediately, or that the Police said immediately that they would not deal with it. Just under two in ten felt they had an unreasonable wait. A further one in ten said the Police never dealt with the matter at all.
- Nearly two-thirds of those who reported, felt that the Police had taken an appropriate level of interest.
- Seven out of every ten victims who reported, said the Police were respectful.
- Excluding those who said there was no investigation going on, over half of all victims felt they had been kept well enough informed – or at least accepted that the Police had no information to give.

- Half of those victims who reported an offence to the Police indicated that, overall, they were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied' with the Police response. Those involved in violent incidents or threats were least satisfied. As might be expected, victims who felt they had been kept waiting or were not well-informed were more dissatisfied, as were those who felt the Police had not taken enough interest or shown enough respect.
- The encounter with the Police when reporting offences generally made no difference to victims' views of the Police. Just under one-fifth of victims reported feeling more favourable towards the Police, and just over one-fifth felt less favourable. The picture was similar in the 2001 survey. But it was different from the 1996 survey, when a smaller proportion of victims rated the Police less favourably after reporting.

## ■ Confidence in the Criminal Justice System

*Respondents in the 2006 NZCASS were asked whether the Police, juries, judges, criminal lawyers, probation officers, and the Prison Service were doing an excellent, good, fair, poor or very poor job. These questions replicated those used in a survey carried out in New Zealand in 1999.*

- Survey respondents were most positive about the performance of the Police and juries: 60% thought the Police did an excellent or good job, and the figure was very similar for juries.
- The Prison Service was rated the lowest of the agencies. Only 40% of New Zealanders said it was doing an excellent or good job, and 21% rated its performance as poor. Ratings for probation officers were similar, with only 41% thinking they were doing an excellent or good job. The figure was 44% for criminal lawyers. However, many people said they did not know how well these agencies were performing. This may mean that those who did offer an opinion were not particularly well informed either. International evidence suggests that poor knowledge of particular agencies is associated with lower levels of confidence in them. This may explain some of the results that have been found here.
- Comparisons with the 1999 survey show a mixed picture. Ratings of the Prison Service and criminal lawyers show no change. Ratings of judges have improved. There was a fall in the number of people who felt probation officers and the Police were performing well. In 1999, 74% rated the Police as doing an excellent or good job, while 60% did so in 2006.
- A comparison with identical questions asked in Britain in 2004-2005 about the Police, judges, probation officers, and the Prison Service shows that New Zealanders rated each of the four groups more highly. In New Zealand, for instance, 60% said the Police did an excellent or good job. In England and Wales 48% of those interviewed gave the Police the same rating.
- Europeans and Pacific peoples have a more positive view of the Police than Māori or Asians. Pacific peoples also rated probation officers and the Prison Service higher than other groups. Europeans gave the worst ratings to these.
- Older people were more likely to have a positive view of the Police and juries. Those aged 15-24 were least positive about the Police, but their ratings of judges, lawyers, probation officers and the Prison Service were higher than for other age groups. This is in accord with international findings.

## ■ Conclusions

The methodology used in the 2006 NZCASS contained a number of improvements over the surveys carried out in 1996 and 2001, and so its findings are more robust. Many of these survey changes had the effect of increasing the measured victimisation rate. The new results reflect these methodological changes rather than necessarily any real change in New Zealanders' experience of victimisation. Taking account of the design changes as much as possible, we believe that risks of victimisation have not changed much between 2000 and 2005 for personal offences, such as assault and threats. For household offences, such as burglary and vehicle crime, there does appear to have been an increase between 2000 and 2005, but not a large one.

The estimated number of victimisations disclosed in the 2006 NZCASS is very much higher than the number of offences recorded in Police statistics. The two previous surveys also showed a similar substantial gap. There are a number of reasons for this, the main one being that many crimes were not reported to the Police. Often this was because victims thought they were minor matters, but not always.

The majority of New Zealanders were not a victim of crime in 2005. At the same time, a minority of people were victimised repeatedly and experienced the bulk of crime. There is a concentration of risk among the less economically and socially well placed, such as those on benefits and those living in the most deprived areas of New Zealand. Analysis by ethnicity showed that Māori and Pacific peoples were at higher risk of victimisation than other New Zealanders. Young people were much more often victims than older people.

## ■ Further information

More findings from the 2006 NZCASS will become available in 2007, including topics not reported here. Further analysis is being done in the following areas:

- Details about New Zealanders' concern about crime, including perceptions of crime problems in their neighbourhood, what crimes people worry about, feelings of safety after dark, the impact of fear of crime on quality of life, and membership of and attitudes to Neighbourhood Support.
- More information on offences committed by partners and other family members, including new questions on the extent of psychological abuse by current partners.
- Additional analysis of the determinants of victimisation risk, in particular dealing with the overlap of risk factors (such as ethnicity, household type, tenure type and area of residence). For example it would be of interest to see whether any ethnic groups are at greater risk than others after key social factors are taken into account.
- Information on the needs of victims, including awareness of and contact with helping agencies such as Victim Support.
- Results from a new pilot module on the experience of victimisation through e-crime.
- The cost of crime to victims.

# 1 Introduction

This report presents results from the 2006 New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS). The survey is part of an ongoing research programme. The two previous ones went under the title of the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV). The first was in 1996 (Young et al., 1997), the second in 2001 (Morris and Reilly, 2003).<sup>1</sup>

Results from the 2006 NZCASS are based on a nationally representative random sample of 4,229 people aged 15 and over living in private households in New Zealand. There was also a Māori 'booster' sample of 1,187 to increase the number of interviews with Māori above the 511 obtained from the main sample. This improves the reliability of estimates for Māori. Those who took part were interviewed at home by ACNielsen interviewers between February and June 2006. One person per household was interviewed. They were asked whether they had been a victim of the crimes covered by the survey since 1 January 2005. They were also asked about the circumstances and impact of offences they had experienced, and about a number of other crime-related issues.

The three New Zealand surveys stand alongside a large number of similar crime surveys conducted in countries across the world. In the scale of things, crime surveys are a comparatively new form of criminological research. They have developed substantially over the past two decades or so with advances in survey methodology and data analysis software. Another factor in their development has been growing recognition that Police figures provide only a partial count of crime and say little about how victimisation affects different groups of people.

## 1.1 What the 2006 NZCASS does

The 2006 NZCASS offers a wide range of information.

- It measures the amount of crime in New Zealand in 2005 by asking people directly about crimes they have experienced. The survey includes crimes not reported to the Police, so it is an important complement to Police records. Victims do not report crime for a variety of reasons. Without the NZCASS, we would have no information on these unreported crimes.
- It looks at the reasons that victims give for not reporting offences to the Police, and how well they thought the Police responded when they did report a crime.
- It provides some comparisons with the 1996 and 2001 survey findings. However, because of changes in survey design, there are substantial limitations on some of these comparisons.
- It helps identify those most at risk of different types of crime in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, etc. Police figures currently tell us little on this front.
- It gives information about the nature of victimisation, such as its physical, financial and emotional effects.

<sup>1</sup> There have been other similar surveys in New Zealand. There was one in the Wellington region in the 1980s (Robinson et al., 1989). In addition, along with a large number of other countries, New Zealand took part in the International Crime Victims Survey in 1992 (van Dijk and Mayhew 1992; Harland 1995) and in the most recent one carried out in 2004 (results are pending).

## ■ 1.2 Methodology

In many respects, the methodology of the 2006 NZCASS followed that used in the 1996 and 2001 surveys, although some changes were made that are discussed later. The main features of how the survey was conducted are explained below. There is more detail in Appendix A, and more again in the Technical Report, which can be found at <http://www.justice.govt.nz/pubs/reports/2007/crime-safety-survey-2006/technical-report/index.html>.

Interviews were done face-to-face, by means of a structured interview. Interviewers used Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) which involved carrying a laptop computer and recording data directly into it. The person aged 15 or older with the next birthday in each sample household was interviewed.

**The questionnaire** – The questionnaire was divided into a number of parts. These included:

**The Main questionnaire** – This started with questions about people's concern about crime. Respondents were then asked a number of 'screener' questions to elicit whether relevant victimisations had occurred. The screener questions were couched in everyday language rather than using legal terms. The person interviewed was asked for details of *household offences*, where all household members can be regarded as victims (for instance, burglary and theft of vehicles). They were also asked about *personal offences* – i.e. those where they personally had been the victim (for instance, assault, robbery, and thefts of personal property).<sup>2</sup> At these screener questions, respondents were asked not to mention assaults, threats or vandalism to household property committed by partners and people well known to them, since these were to be separately covered. They were also asked not to report sexual offences at this stage.

**The Victim Form** – Those who answered affirmatively to any of the screener questions completed up to three Victim Forms, depending on the number of offences that occurred. The Victim Form collected a range of information about the offence, including whether it happened in 2005 or 2006, and whether it occurred within New Zealand. Information in each Victim Form provided the basis for assessing whether an incident was properly 'in scope' of the survey (for instance, whether there was sufficient evidence of genuine criminal behaviour). It is worth noting that while not counted in the survey, 'out of scope' incidents may nevertheless have given rise to general concern and worry about crime.

The Victim Form information was also used to classify incidents into offence types. (Close attention was paid to legal criteria in classification, and procedures deliberately mirror those followed by the Police.) In estimating overall victimisation rates, estimates accounted for the fact that not all offences that respondents may have mentioned at the screener questions were followed up in a Victim Form. Appendix A has more detail.

**The Demographic Questionnaire** – This collected information about the respondents and their households and is used to assess differences in the risks of victimisation that different groups of the population face.

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<sup>2</sup> See the Glossary for details of the offences covered

**Three Self-Completion components** – All respondents were asked to complete three Self-Completion components. Interviewers passed over the laptop to them to key in their responses directly (a procedure called Computer Assisted Self Interviewing, or CASI). CASI was used as it allows maximum confidentiality and privacy to participants. They were asked questions about:

- offences committed by a current partner or any partner respondents might have had since the beginning of 2005
- similar offences committed by other people well known to them
- sexual victimisation.

In each section, those who answered affirmatively were asked to give information on the 'last incident' that happened. This is a quasi-random selection method often used in crime surveys. It is efficient in reducing respondent burden, although there is no way of being sure that respondents do not choose a 'last' incident which is most salient to them, or about which they have more to say.

### Response rates

The overall response rate in the 2006 NZCASS was 59% in the main sample and 56% in the Māori booster sample. The respective figures in the 2001 survey were 65% and 57%, and in 1996 56% and 66%. The decline may reflect a general fall in people's willingness to take part in surveys – perhaps because of busier lifestyles, or the large number of surveys that take place in New Zealand relative to the size of the population. Certainly, refusing an interview was the main reason for non-response.

The implication of the lower response rate in the 2006 NZCASS is discussed below. Full details of the response rates are in Appendix A.

## 1.3 The Police count of crime and NZCASS

Offences recorded by the Police and NZCASS both measure various aspects of crime at the national level. They are complementary measures that together provide a better picture of the nature of crime than can be obtained from either measure alone. The main differences between the two measures are in Box 1.1. The main features are:

### Police figures

- Do not provide a complete count of all crime, but only cover those crimes known to the Police and which they decide to record.
- They are subject to unknown changes in reporting patterns and possible changes in recording practices.
- They do not allow much scope for analysing 'what crime is like' and how risks are distributed across different groups.

## NZCASS

- The survey does not provide a complete count of all 'crime'. As a survey of people in private households, NZCASS does not cover commercial victimisation (e.g. thefts from businesses and shops). It also excludes so-called victimless crimes such as drug possession. Crimes against those under 15 years of age are also not covered.
- Survey figures can be affected by changes in the survey methodology. They also rely on respondents' memory of and willingness to report crimes they have experienced.
- They do, however, provide information about the context and impact of victimisation.
- NZCASS gives a higher count of crime because it counts all incidents of crime that are technically criminal (as they would be classified by the Police), and includes unreported as well as reported crime. The largest discrepancy between the NZCASS figures and those of the Police will be for less commonly reported types of crimes, which are often not drawn to Police attention because they are not considered serious enough. However, the NZCASS count of unreported crime is not simply of crimes 'not worth worrying about'. Many offences judged serious by their victims nevertheless go unreported (see Chapter 2, The extent of crime, and Chapter 4, Reporting to the Police).

### Box 1.1 Comparing the NZCASS and Police recorded crime

The NZCASS	Offences recorded by the Police
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Starting in 1996, it measures both reported and unreported crime.</li> <li>▪ The survey is less frequent than the release of Police statistics.</li> <li>▪ Measures are based on estimates from a sample of the population. They are therefore subject to sampling error and other methodological limitations.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ These have been collected since 1878. They measure offences reported to the Police that are recorded by them.</li> <li>▪ Police figures are published every six months.</li> <li>▪ They are a good measure of Police workload.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Does not include crimes against:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– those under 15</li> <li>– commercial establishments or public sector agencies</li> <li>– those in institutions</li> <li>– and the homeless (their experiences of crime could differ).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Includes crimes against:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– those under 15</li> <li>– commercial establishments or public sector agencies</li> <li>– those in institutions</li> <li>– and the homeless.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Measures crimes not reported to the Police.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Does not measure:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– crimes the Police do not hear about</li> <li>– reported incidents the Police do not record.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Does not measure:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– victimless crimes (e.g. drug and alcohol misuse)</li> <li>– crimes where a victim is no longer available for interview (e.g. murder)</li> <li>– fraud (because the victim may not be aware of the fraud).</li> <li>– sexual offences well (though information is collected).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Does measure:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– victimless crimes (e.g. immigration, perjury, drug misuse and alcohol misuse)</li> <li>– murder and manslaughter</li> <li>– fraud</li> <li>– sexual offences (consensual and non-consensual).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Collects information on what happens in crime (e.g. injury and property loss) but not afterward.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Collects information about the number of apprehensions, who is apprehended, the number of crimes resolved, and other details where relevant.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Provides information about how the risks of crime vary for different groups.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Does not currently show which groups of the population are most at risk of victimisation.</li> </ul>

## ■ 1.4 Limitations of the NZCASS

While the NZCASS undoubtedly increases our knowledge about crime as it typically affects those aged 15 or older, it has – like other victim surveys – a number of methodological limitations that affect its results. These are less to do with restricted coverage than with the accuracy of its count. These limitations are summarised below. The issue of non-response is dealt with separately.

- **Sampling error** – As only a sample of the population is questioned, findings are subject to sampling error. Estimates are most imprecise for rare crimes such as robbery.
- **Incomplete coverage** – No sample survey represents the entire population completely. Household sampling frames exclude those in communal establishments. They also exclude the homeless, who may have higher victimisation rates than others. However, as the proportions of those living in communal establishments and the homeless are small in New Zealand, the exclusions will not make much difference to national estimates.
- **Selective recounting** – Victim surveys may undercount some offences. Some will be on the borderline of what people actually regard as criminal (e.g., pub fights). Others will be those which respondents are reluctant to talk about – for instance because they know the offender. Sexual and domestic offences are the most obvious examples. There is an added problem, too, that we cannot be sure whether different groups respond to survey questions in the same way. An issue here is whether men are as prepared to report offences of a sexual or domestic nature as women.
- **Memory issues** – There is a set of specific limitations in asking people to remember victimisation incidents and locate them accurately in time. One concern is whether victimisation that is repetitive in nature is remembered as discrete and definitionally tidy events. This bears in particular on domestic violence. A more major concern is that the NZCASS, like many other victim surveys, asks people to recall victimisation from the beginning of the calendar year before the one in which they are interviewed. Methodological work shows clearly that many victimisations are forgotten, especially those of a more trivial nature. This issue is taken up again below with respect to a change in the period when interviews were carried out for the 2006 NZCASS.

The overall conclusion is that response biases work, on balance, to undercount survey-defined offences, but by different amounts in different crime categories. More minor offences (such as low value thefts and vandalism) are most likely to be forgotten. At the same time, offences that are more serious are more likely to be recalled in interviews, and indeed may be over-counted since events that are more significant tend to be remembered as happening more recently than they actually did. The count of crime from victim surveys, then, is neither complete nor unbiased.

## ■ 1.5 Non-response

Surveys do not achieve complete response either because some households cannot be contacted, or because when they are, they refuse to be interviewed because of lack of time or interest.<sup>3</sup> The NZCASS – like other surveys – reduces the effects of non-response by weighting results to restore imbalances in the profile of those who responded to the survey (see Box 1.2). While this is helpful, it rests on the assumption that respondents in the sample are similar in terms of victimisation experience to those demographically similar people who are omitted from the sample. This is hard to know.

Low response rates undermine the accuracy of crime survey estimates because it is thought that victimisation rates for non-respondents might be different than for those who do respond. There are two views about how this could affect estimates of risk. One is that those most likely not to be interviewed are people who are transient or have ‘racier’ lifestyles. In this case, victimisation will be underestimated. The other view is that the people who are available and willing to be interviewed are those with ‘something to say’, in which case victimisation levels could be overestimated. In either event, bias is introduced.

There is empirical support for both positions. On the one hand, the seminal London crime survey by Sparks et al. (1977) found that those who reported crimes to the police were more difficult to locate for interview than those who had not reported a crime. Studies outside the victimisation field have also indicated that non-contacts to telephone surveys register higher on ‘negative’ social indicators such as ill-health (see, e.g., Groves et al., 2004). On the other hand, some tests provide strong counter-evidence. In the UK, a test for the British Crime Survey (BCS) showed that people who said they did not want to be interviewed but who were pressed to give very short answers about the extent of their recent victimisation were no different to those who agreed to be interviewed in terms of victimisation (Lynn, 1997). Another strong UK test showed that refusers probably had lower victimisation risks (Hope, 2005).<sup>4</sup>

Essentially, then, the verdict is open. The implication of this is that the lower response rate in the 2006 NZCASS could have worked either way – deflating or inflating victimisation estimates relative to the other two surveys.

<sup>3</sup> There are two forms of non-contact. One is where no one in a household initially selected for the sample can be contacted at all. The other is where it is established that there is an ‘eligible respondent’ but an interview is not achieved during the fieldwork period because they are never available, or are unwilling to be interviewed at the time the interviewer calls. The first form of non-response is not a major issue in the NZCASS since over 90% of households were contacted in some way. The second is rather more important, although to a degree it reflects fieldwork arrangements, such that interviews had to ‘close down’ calls after the budgeted trips to that area were complete, even if a respondent might have been willing to give an interview when it was more convenient (see Appendix A).

<sup>4</sup> This was in relation to the Scottish Crime Survey (Hope, 2005). It was done to examine a change to telephone surveys in 2004. Face-to-face and telephone interviews were run in tandem. The response rate was 67% in the face-to-face interviews, but 49% in the telephone ones, with the difference accounted for by refusals. Looking at victimisation rates for the two samples, the results went against prevailing wisdom. Victimisation estimates were higher in the telephone survey on a large number of measures. This suggests that those who responded were the ones with ‘something to say’. A follow-up test compared a subset of 10% of those who initially refused in the telephone survey but had their refusals ‘converted’, with those who responded on the first contact. Victimisation levels were lower for the ‘converted group’ than among the initial responders. This again suggests that it was non-victims, rather than victims, who were missed most amongst refusers.

## Box 1.2 Weighted data

Tables in this report are weighted to restore imbalances in the profile of those who responded to the survey relative to the survey population. The weighting here takes into account gender, age, ethnicity and urbanisation. A further non-response adjustment accounts for different response rates by region and urbanisation. The weighting also adjusts for a household's probability of selection, and the under-representation of people living in larger households. The profile of the New Zealand population used for weighting comes from Statistics New Zealand's population estimates and projections, which are based on the 2001 Census.

While this weighting corrects for imbalances in the sample of people actually interviewed, it cannot account for all response bias. This is because the people who responded may differ in various respects from those who did not. For instance, they may differ as regards lifestyle, marital status, or level of education – all factors which are known to be associated with victimisation levels, but were not corrected for during weighting.

The information on crime incidents for Victim Form analysis is also weighted to take account of the probability that the incident was selected for Victim Form completion.<sup>5</sup>

## ■ 1.6 Changes to the 2006 NZCASS

A number of changes were made to the 2006 NZCASS to improve the way in which it measures the level of victimisation, and to provide more information. The changes reflect improved knowledge about the best way to carry out victimisation surveys. Some reflect modifications to the questionnaire. The changes are likely to have improved the accuracy of the 2006 NZCASS estimates, but they will undoubtedly have affected the comparisons between the 2006 NZCASS and the two previous surveys. Changes were also made in 2001 to improve on procedures used in the first survey. These will have affected comparisons between the first two surveys.

Appendix A gives details of all the main changes between the 2001 and 2006 surveys. Not all of these influence victimisation risk estimates. We focus here on changes to the 2006 survey, and analysis of it, which do influence the measurement of victimisation levels relative to the two previous surveys.

Two of the changes to the 2006 survey will have tended to decrease the risk estimates compared to the 2001 and 1996 surveys. One of these relates to the handling of incidents that were identified as forming part of an offence that had already been mentioned. (There were new questions to allow inspection of this.) The other change relates to the truncation of extremely high numbers of victimisations mentioned by some respondents. These changes are discussed in more detail in Appendix A.

Other changes to the 2006 survey will have had a much larger effect, and in the opposite direction – by increasing risk estimates. The most important are listed below. Appendix A has more detail.

<sup>5</sup> For a more detailed discussion of weighting and other statistical analyses undertaken for NZCASS, see the Technical Report for the survey at <http://www.justice.govt.nz/pubs/reports/2007/crime-safety-survey-2006/technical-report/index.html>.

**Vandalism to household property** – A new screener question was included in the 2006 survey to elicit offences of vandalism to household property. While some incidents could have emerged from other screener questions in the earlier surveys, the specifically cued extra question will undoubtedly have elicited more incidents of household vandalism. The effect of eliciting more incidents from ‘bespoke’ screener questions is well attested (see Cantor and Lynch (2000) for a summary of the evidence.)

**Threats** – There were changes to the screener questions on threats. In effect, there were additional questions distinguishing between threats of force, and threats to damage personal property. Again, this will have promoted recall of more incidents.

**Sexual offences** – The approach to measuring sexual victimisation was changed in the 2006 survey and this has produced a higher number of sexual offences than the two previous surveys. There were four screener questions relating to sexual offences, whereas in the 2001 survey there was just one.<sup>6</sup>

**Definition of partner** – The definition of partner in the first Self-Completion component changed. In 2006, respondents were asked about offences committed by anyone who had been a partner since the beginning of 2005. In 2001, they were asked only about their current (heterosexual) partner. This may have had the effect of drawing more offences into the survey in 2006, especially as abusive behaviour may be a reason for leaving a previous partner.

**Offence coding** – There was a change to the offence coding procedures in the 2006 survey compared to the two previous ones. In 1996 and 2001, the offence code given was based on which screener question the offence came from, plus the offence description given by the victim. In 2006, data from the Victim Form was also inspected. The effect of this was that the number of offences that could not be coded in 2006 was smaller than in the two previous surveys, when many incidents were not coded because of doubts about whether they were ‘in scope’ of the survey, or which offence code they should attract. The fact that more incidents were given an offence code in the 2006 survey increases the 2006 survey figures. It does so particularly in relation to assaults and threats reported in the first two Self-Completion components.

To make better comparisons between the results of the 2006 and 2001 surveys, 2006 offences were coded twice. They were coded primarily on the basis of the screener question, the offence description, and information in the Victim Form. In order to match the results from the 2006 survey to the 2001 survey, they were also coded as it was judged they would have been with procedures used in the 2001 survey.

**Change in the recall period** – The recall period refers to the amount of time over which respondents are asked to think about victimisation events within the scope of the survey. The period is important because of the *time dependent forgetting curve* – that is, the rate at which, as time passes, respondents forget events. The longer the recall period, the less complete the reporting of victimisation events. The shape of the curve is very steep indeed.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>6</sup> The questions concerned sexual intercourse, attempted sexual intercourse, being touched in a way that was found sexually distressing, and any other incident in which someone had been sexually violent, or threatened to be. Respondents were asked to include incidents by spouses and intimate partners. These screener questions are in Table A4.

<sup>7</sup> Methodological tests prior to the start of the national survey of crime victims in the United States gave results of memory loss so pronounced that the survey adopted a recall period of six months, and only ruled out a preferable three-month recall period on the grounds of costs (see Skogan, 1981; Biderman et al., 1986; Biderman and Lynch, 1981). It takes a larger sample, of course, to tap sufficient offences over a shorter period, which is why most surveys have adopted much longer recall periods.

The relevance here is that, in the 2006 survey, people were interviewed in the first half of the calendar year, whereas in the two previous surveys they were interviewed in the second half. Thus, respondents in the 2006 survey were recalling offences over a period of between 13 and 18 months.<sup>8</sup> In the 2001 survey, respondents were recalling offences over a period of between 19 and 23 months. As the key count of offences is those which happened in the previous calendar year (2005 in the case of the current survey), respondents are likely to have remembered these much better than in the 2001 survey, because of less 'memory decay'. The result is that the count of crime from the 2006 survey will be higher, especially for more minor offences.

## ■ 1.7 This report

The structure of this report is as follows.

- Chapter 2 examines the level of victimisation in 2005, as measured by the survey, and the extent to which crimes went unreported to the Police. It includes information on victims' judgements of the seriousness of the offences they had experienced, and whether they felt they were 'crimes' or not. It compares the number of crimes measured by the survey with those recorded by the Police. A comparison is also made with the findings from the two previous surveys.
- Chapter 3 looks at what proportion of people have been victimised, and how many times. It also looks at how risks of victimisation vary across different groups in terms of gender, age, ethnicity, etc.
- Chapter 4 examines reporting to the Police in more detail. It looks at the reasons why victims did not report, and – for those who did – their views about the Police response.
- Chapter 5 reports on people's attitudes about how good a job different criminal justice groups are doing. The questions replicate those used in a study carried out in New Zealand in 1999.

Comparisons are made with the 1996 and 2001 surveys where appropriate, although design changes over the three surveys often compromise exact comparisons.

## ■ 1.8 Further information

More findings from the 2006 NZCASS will become available in 2007, including topics not reported here. Further analysis is being done in the following areas:

- Details about New Zealanders' concern about crime, including perceptions of crime problems in their neighbourhood, what crimes people worry about, feelings of safety after dark, the impact of fear of crime on quality of life, and membership of and attitudes to Neighbourhood Support.
- More information on offences committed by partners and other family members, including new questions on the extent of psychological abuse by current partners.

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<sup>8</sup> From 1 January 2005 until the date of the interview, which would have been any time between February 2006 and June 2006.

- Additional analysis of the determinants of victimisation risk, in particular dealing with the overlap of risk factors (such as ethnicity, household type, tenure type and area of residence). Of interest here will be to see whether Māori are at greater risk after other social factors are taken into account.
- Information on the needs of victims, including awareness of and contact with helping agencies such as Victim Support.
- Results from a new pilot module on the experience of victimisation through e-crime.
- The cost of crime to victims.

### Box 1.3 Statistical significance

Because the 2006 NZCASS estimates are subject to sampling error, differences between estimates from successive years of the survey or between population sub-groups may occur by chance. Tests of statistical significance are used to identify which differences are reliable ones.<sup>9</sup> Only differences that are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level are reported. This is the level at which, if there was truly no difference, we would expect to see smaller differences than we have observed at least 9 times out of 10. However, most differences reported are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level – where there would be at least a 19 out of 20 chance of differences being smaller than the observed difference, if they were simply due to random sampling variation. The less stringent 90 percent test is used because the sample size is small for some groups (for example, young people). Reporting at this level increases the number of groups that can be compared.

While statistically significant differences could reflect real differences across surveys or across groups, they could also be caused by other methodological factors, including response bias and design changes.

Although a difference may not be statistically significant (e.g. it might just be due to random sampling variation), it may nevertheless be worth commenting on because the difference, if real, would have relevant policy implications.

<sup>9</sup> The significance tests and confidence intervals used in this report allow for the complex multi-stage sample design used for the NZCASS. They also allow for the effect of imputing missing dates, duplication status and offence codes (see the Technical Report for details). Tests that assume a simple random sample are not appropriate, as they would overstate the reliability of the results.

## 2 The extent of crime

Offences recorded by New Zealand Police are widely used to measure levels and trends in crime. The Police give six-monthly updates for the full range of offence categories, and across 12 Police districts. The NZCASS has more restricted coverage, and has been only periodic. Its estimates are subject to sampling error, and it is not able to show differences in crime at a local level. For the offences it covers, though, the survey gives a more complete count of crime since it covers unreported and unrecorded crime.

This chapter covers the following:

- We start by briefly summarising some features of the 2006 NZCASS that have changed since the 2001 survey. While these were discussed more fully in Chapter 1, they are briefly reviewed again to help the interpretation of what follows.
- We then look at the total number of crimes estimated by the NZCASS to have occurred in 2005, and what the main types are.
- We show how serious victims felt offences that had happened to them to be. We contrast their assessment of seriousness with whether victims felt what had occurred to be a 'crime' or not.
- Next are findings on the proportion of different types of offences reported to the Police. These are 'headline' results only. Chapter 4 looks at reporting in more detail.
- There is then discussion of differences between the NZCASS estimates and figures for offences recorded by the Police – that is, for those offence categories that can be compared. It will be seen that there are two primary reasons why the figures differ. One is that not all crime is reported to the Police. The other is that not all reported crime (as estimated by the survey) is recorded by the Police (based on their figures).
- At the end of this chapter, there is discussion of trends in crime since 1995 and 2000, as measured by the two previous surveys. To anticipate those results, there are several problems in reaching definitive conclusions about trends because of design changes over the three sweeps of the survey.

### 2.1 Changes to the survey

Various changes to the 2006 NZCASS will have increased the count of crime.

- **Vandalism to household property** – A new screener question was included in the 2006 survey to elicit offences of vandalism to household property. This will have had the effect of reminding respondents of any incidents of vandalism.
- **Threats** – There were extra questions added on threats that would have prompted people's recall of them.
- **Sexual offences** – The approach to measuring sexual victimisation was changed in the 2006 survey and this has produced a higher number of sexual offences than in the two previous surveys.
- **Definition of partner** – In the 2006 survey, respondents were asked about offences committed by anyone (same or opposite sex) who had been a partner since the beginning of 2005. In 2001, they were asked only about their current (opposite sex) partner. This will have drawn more offences into the 2006 survey, since abusive behaviour may be a reason for leaving a previous partner.

- **Offence coding** – The offence coding procedures were improved in the 2006 survey, using a wider range of information about the incident. This means that the number of incidents that could not be coded was smaller than in the two previous surveys, where many incidents were not coded because of doubts about whether they were ‘in scope’ of the survey or which offence code they should attract. This will have increased the 2006 survey figures – particularly so in relation to assaults and threats.
- **A change in the ‘recall period’** – In the 2006 survey, people were interviewed nearer to the main counting year than in the 2001 survey. (The counting year is the one before the interview year – 2005 in the case of the current survey.) Because of less ‘memory decay’, respondents will have remembered offences in 2005 much better than respondents in the 2001 survey will have remembered offences in 2000. This has undoubtedly increased the count of more minor offences.

### Change in the definition of burglary

The legal definition of burglary changed between the 2001 and 2006 surveys.<sup>10</sup> Burglary no longer requires forced entry so that, for example, thefts from an ‘enclosed space’ (such as a yard) are now more likely to count as burglary. A new offence code of ‘new burglaries’ was added to handle this for the 2006 survey, to cover offences that under the old legislation would have been classified differently. Many would have been thefts outside the home; some would have been bicycle thefts, or thefts involving vehicles (parked in a driveway for instance). The previous burglary offence code was retained to allow comparisons with 2001. Unless specified, ‘burglary’ refers to new burglaries (i.e. classified according to current legislation).

## 2.2 NZCASS crimes in 2005

People aged 15 or older (‘adults’ hereafter) living in private households in New Zealand were asked about any crimes they might have experienced between 1 January 2005 and the date on which they were interviewed in the first half of 2006. The estimates in this chapter relate to offences that occurred in 2005.

The NZCASS provides an estimate of the number of offences in New Zealand in 2005 that fall within the scope of the survey. The number can be derived by applying the incidence rate of crime per 100 households in the sample (for household crimes) or per 100 adults in the sample (for personal crimes) to the total number of private occupied dwellings and the total number of adults in New Zealand.<sup>11</sup> The incidence rate is one of the two measures of risk that NZCASS provides. It takes into account the fact that some people were victimised more than once. The other measure – the prevalence rate – shows the percentage of households or adults victimised once or more. Prevalence rates are discussed in Chapter 3.

The numbers of offences shown are best estimates of the true number. As they are derived from a sample, they are subject to sampling error. Another survey with a different sample might have resulted in different estimates. However, the precision of estimates can be calculated. Table 2.1 indicates a range that has a 90% chance of including the number that would be obtained by surveying the whole population.<sup>12</sup> For instance, although the best estimate from the survey of the number of burglaries is 330,000, there is a 10% chance that the figure could be lower than 302,000 or higher than 358,000.

<sup>10</sup> The change was in 2003. Section 231 of the Crimes Act 1961 was redefined to remove the requirement that the offender ‘break and enter’, replacing it with entry ‘without authority’. This had the effect of widening the offence of burglary by combining what had previously been two offences (burglary and the lesser offence of ‘entering with intent’) into a single offence.

<sup>11</sup> The multiplier for household rates was 1,558,300. For personal (adult) rates, it was 3,264,620. These are based on Statistics New Zealand’s provisional population estimates for 30 June 2006.

<sup>12</sup> These intervals only reflect random sampling variation, and do not account for possible non-sampling error.

The number of victimisations in each offence group is in Table 2.1. It also shows the incidence rates on which the numbers of crimes are based. (Table C2 in Appendix C shows these rates with their confidence intervals.) While these rates are technically averages, they do not reflect the victimisation experience of a typical New Zealand resident. This is because, as Chapter 3 will show, the distribution of victimisation is far from even, with a small number of victims reporting a large number of offences. For example, 14% of New Zealand households experienced burglary in 2005 (this is the prevalence rate). The fact that the incidence rate for burglary is 21.2 per 100 households reflects the fact that 28% of those New Zealand households that were victims of burglary were burgled more than once in 2005.

**Table 2.1 NZCASS estimates of the number of offences in 2005**

	Best estimate of number of offences	90% confidence intervals <sup>(1)</sup> (000s)			Number of crimes per 100 households (incidence rate)
Burglary	330	302	-	358	21.2
Thefts from a dwelling	66	58	-	75	4.3
Other household thefts	29	24	-	33	1.8
Household vandalism	233	200	-	267	15.0
Thefts of vehicles	29	23	-	35	1.9
Thefts from vehicles / vehicle interference	117	105	-	129	7.5
Vehicle vandalism	138	122	-	155	8.9
<b>All household offences<sup>(2)</sup> <sup>(3)</sup></b>	<b>939</b>	<b>870</b>	-	<b>1,007</b>	<b>60.2</b>
					Number of crimes per 100 adults (incidence rate)
Sexual offences	208	94	-	322	6.4
Assaults	720	619	-	820	22.0
Threats	601	518	-	684	18.4
Robbery	24	14	-	35	0.7
Thefts from the person	25	14	-	35	0.8
Theft of personal property	133	107	-	159	4.1
Vandalism to personal property	123	98	-	147	3.8
<b>All personal offences<sup>(2)</sup> <sup>(3)</sup></b>	<b>1,814</b>	<b>1,600</b>	-	<b>2,028</b>	<b>55.6</b>
<b>All offences<sup>(4)</sup></b>	<b>2,753</b>				<b>114.9</b>

**Notes:**

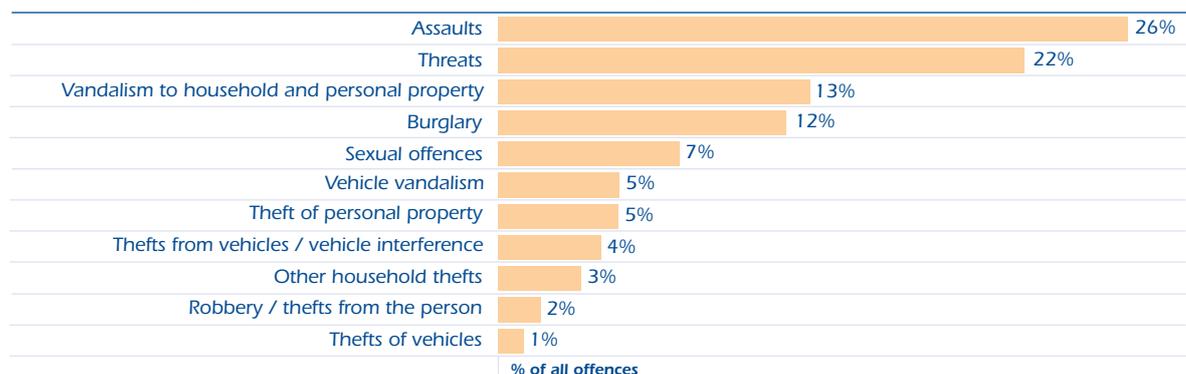
- 1 The boundaries of the 90% confidence interval are derived by adding or subtracting the appropriate margin of error around the sample estimates. The best estimate is calculated from the 2006 sample, following weighting and imputation. It is not possible to construct a confidence range for the total of all NZCASS offences because household offences are based on rates per household, and those for personal offences on rates per adult. The two rates cannot be combined.
- 2 For household offences, offence rates (incidence rates) can be derived by dividing these numbers by 1,558,300 households in New Zealand. For personal offences, incidence rates can be derived by dividing these figures by 3,264,620 people aged 15 or more in New Zealand.
- 3 The total number of household and personal offences differs from the sum of the component categories, because some offences fell into two offence categories. 'All offences' is the addition of all household and all personal crimes. The same applies to overall rates for all household and personal offences.
- 4 The rate for all offences is calculated treating household crime as a personal crime. It is the estimated number of offences against adults where they were a victim of a personal crime or were resident in a household that was victim of a household crime.

## ■ 2.3 The make-up of crime in 2005

The main features of the results are as follows:

- All told, there were an estimated 2,753,000 offences in New Zealand in 2005 of the types counted by the survey. Attempted offences are included.
- There were 939,000 household offences, based on an incidence rate of 60 offences per 100 households.
- There were 1,814,000 personal offences, based on an incidence rate of 56 offences per 100 adults. Although the incidence rates for household and personal offences are similar, the total number of personal offences is much larger because there are more adults than households.
- There were 720,000 assaults, with half of them involving injury. They comprised 26% of offences counted by the survey (Figure 2.1).
- There were just over 600,000 threats. The majority were threats to the person. Just under one-fifth were threats to damage the victim's personal property. Threats made up just over one-fifth (22%) of all offences.
- Assaults and threats together made up nearly half of the victimisations measured by the survey.
- With vandalism to vehicles included, vandalism offences totalled 490,000 offences – approaching one in five of all offences.
- Offences involving vehicles, including vandalism to vehicles, totalled 284,000 – 10% of the total. This will understate the figure, however, because many vehicle-related offences will be hidden within 'new burglaries' (see 'Change in the definition of burglary' above.)
- Offences of burglary (under the new legislative definition) make up 12% of all NZCASS offences, a much higher proportion than in 2001 because of the change in legislation.
- There were just over 200,000 sexual offences counted in the survey, with 'distressing sexual touching' being the minimum to qualify for this category. Sexual offences formed 7% of all victimisations. While this is much higher than in the previous two surveys, the difference is accounted for by a substantial change to the questions asked.

**Figure 2.1** Types of offences as a percentage of all offences in 2005



### Why is the number of assaults and threats so high?

The preponderance of assaults and threats is unusual compared to other crime surveys and merits comment.<sup>13</sup> It may reflect a number of things.

There could be a 'real' propensity to assaultive and threatening behaviour in New Zealand. This is difficult to judge. Few conclusions can be drawn from international comparisons of Police statistics on violence, which are singularly difficult to compare because of differences in the threshold of assaults recorded, and variations in Police counting procedures. However, Segessenmann (2002) attempted a better match of New Zealand Police's violence figures with those of the US, Australia, England and Wales, and Canada, finding New Zealand's rate lower except in comparison with Australia. In contrast, on a combined measure of assaults and threats, risks in New Zealand were fairly high in comparison with other countries in the 1992 International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) (van Dijk and Mayhew, 1992; Harland, 1995).

There may be a low public tolerance threshold for assaults and threats so that even minor offences are remembered and reported to interviewers. (If this were the case, then it would also explain the ICVS results.)

The design of the NZCASS may play a part. The three prompts about assaults and threats give people ample opportunity – in crime survey terms – to remember offences they might not have done with fewer or different screener questions. More important is that all offences are counted, even those usually called 'series incidents'. These are incidents that are very similar in type, done under the same circumstances and probably committed by the same person. The NZCASS counts these as individual offences, whereas other surveys put a stringent 'ceiling' on the total count of series incidents per victim, on the basis that they would not usually be counted as individual offences by the Police. The NZCASS procedure will lead to higher numbers of offences where series incidents are most common—assaults and threats in particular.

Finally, it cannot be ruled out that some double counting of offences in NZCASS occurs, even though the survey is designed to prevent this. For instance, although respondents are asked at the main screeners not to include offences by partners or people they know well, inspection of Victim Form information shows that between 10% and 15% of incidents actually involved partners or people well known.<sup>14</sup> It is not currently possible to say whether the same offences are also reported on the Self-Completion components.

#### Trends in the make-up of crime

Precise comparisons with the two previous New Zealand surveys are difficult for the reasons explained. But the overall picture from them is broadly similar. The two previous surveys, for instance, have both showed large numbers of assaults and threats. Vandalism offences make up a rather higher proportion of all crime in 2005 than they did before – no doubt because of the inclusion of a new question on vandalism to household property.

<sup>13</sup> For instance, in the BCS, assaults make up 19% of the crimes measured, but threats are not counted and the proportion would be lower if they were (Walker et al., 2006). In the United States survey, attempted or threatened incidents of violence make up 7% of all the crimes measured (Catalano, 2006). The Australian Crime and Safety Survey is not a good guide as it measures a restricted number of crimes.

<sup>14</sup> It is difficult to be more precise about the proportion of Victim Forms that related to partners or people who were well known. About 4% of incidents involved partners or previous partners – although they may have been a partner prior to 2005, and so would have fallen outside the scope of the first Self-Completion section. Moreover, there is some uncertainty about what types of offenders are 'well known'. For instance, a friend of the family might or might not be well known.

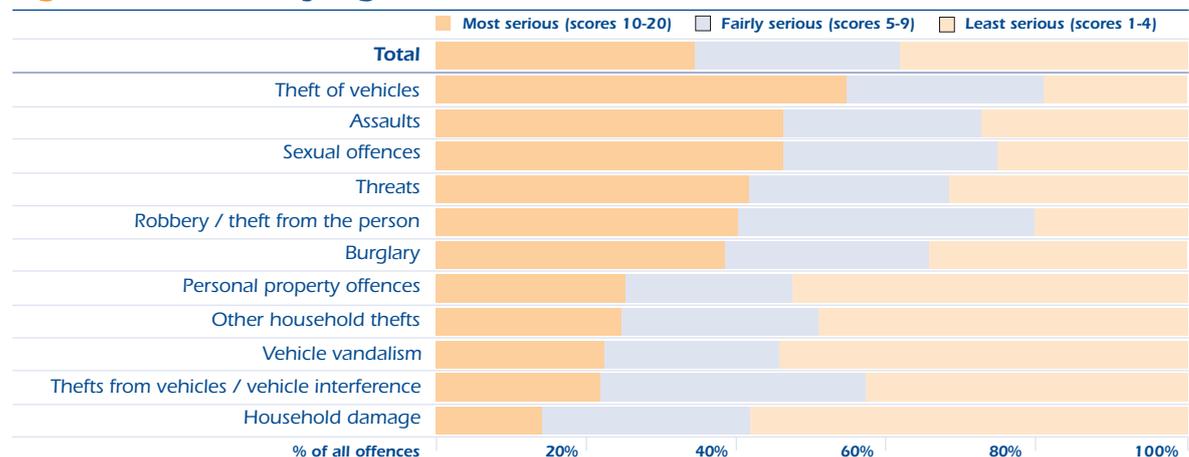
### How do victims view the offences measured?

While the number of offences estimated by the survey is large, they will encompass a wide range of offending behaviour. A new question in the survey asked victims to rate what happened to them using a 'seriousness score', where 1 represented a very minor offence and 20 represented murder. Obviously, no meaning can be attached to isolated scores, but the scale allows individual offences to be grouped into seriousness levels. Seriousness ratings are clearly influenced by objective factors such as degree of injury and emotional upset. Within particular crime categories (burglary or assault, for instance) there is much variation in ratings of seriousness, in that most have large standard deviations. The main reason is that offences within crime types vary considerably in nature.<sup>15</sup>

### Offence seriousness

We divided offences into three levels of seriousness. We judged the 'most serious' offences to be those with scores of 10-20; 'fairly serious' offences to be those with scores of 5-9; and 'least serious' offences to be those with scores of 1-4. Of all offences, 38% fell into the first group, 27% fell into the second, and 34% fell into the third. Figure 2.2 shows that thefts of vehicles most often fell into the most serious band (55% of them did). Next were sexual offences, assaults, threats, robbery and theft from the person, and burglary. The relatively high level of seriousness accorded by victims of threats is not singular to the NZCASS. Other research has found this too (see, e.g., Pease et al., 1994). At the other end of the scale, vandalism offences were less often rated as most serious, as were miscellaneous thefts of personal and household property. Thefts from vehicles and vehicle interference were not often judged most serious but more than 20% of them still fell into the serious category.<sup>16</sup>

**Figure 2.2 Victims' judgements of offence seriousness**



Notes:

Personal property offences cover thefts of and damage to personal property.

The scale used was 1 (representing a very minor offence) to 20 (representing murder).

<sup>15</sup> Seriousness ratings are nonetheless a good summary measure of the impact of different offences. Results from the ICVS have shown that victims place offences of the same nature on a seriousness scale in a very consistent way (see van Kesteren et al. (2001) for seventeen industrialised countries, and van Dijk (1999) for world regions). There is consistency, then, on thresholds used to rate seriousness.

<sup>16</sup> The analysis here is based on all offences, whether they occurred in 2005 or 2006. This also applies to the analysis of whether victims felt what happened was a 'crime'.

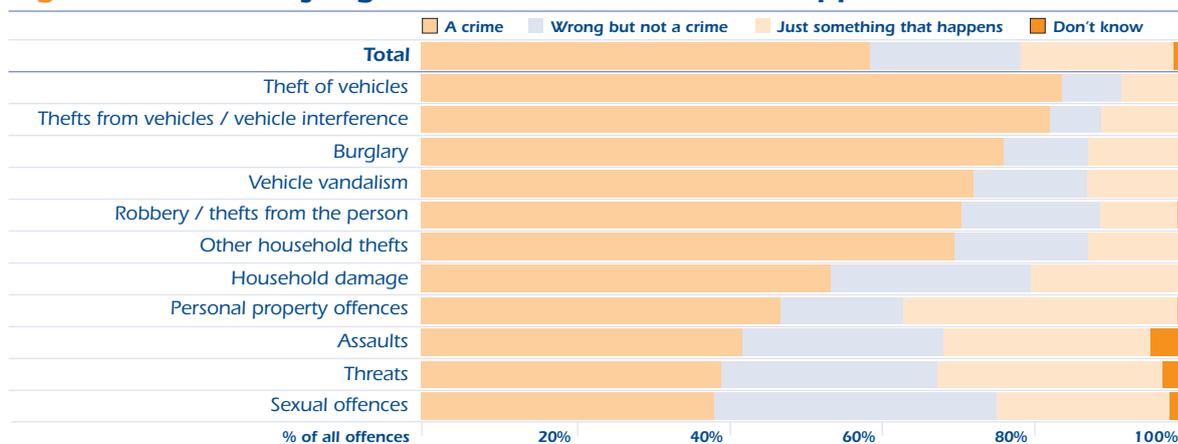
## Was it a 'crime'?

Another question in the 2006 NZCASS asked victims whether they considered what happened to them to be 'a crime', 'wrong but not a crime'; or 'just something that happens'. The question, of course, is relying on respondents' definition, and it cannot be assumed they have a legal understanding of the strict ingredients of crime. The question is also relatively crude for assessing whether or not offences should be within scope of official attention. Nor do the answers necessarily signify the degree of distress incurred: something that 'just happens' may have been frightening, even so. Nonetheless, the question puts the large number of offences mentioned by respondents into some perspective.

Overall, 59% of offences were considered 'a crime' by their victim, 20% were felt to be 'wrong but not a crime'; and 20% 'just something that happens'. Figure 2.3 shows the results by type of crime.

The sexual offences measured by the survey were most likely to be thought of as not being crimes (60% of victims put them into the other two categories). Many threats (57%) and assaults (53%) were similarly regarded as not crimes. Incidents where there was property loss (thefts of vehicles and burglary, for instance, but not personal property offences) were much more often thought of as crimes. So, too, was damage to motor vehicles.

**Figure 2.3 Victims' judgements on whether what happened was a crime**



There is a clear discordance between assessments of seriousness and victims' views about whether what happened was a crime or not. Thus, whereas many sexual offences, assaults and threats were regarded as serious, most were not likely to be thought of as 'crimes'. Similarly, whereas relatively few thefts and offences of vandalism were given high seriousness scores, they were nonetheless more often seen as unequivocally criminal. Victims' views about the illegality of different forms of offences, then, and the moral judgements they make about them do not bear very closely on the impact they have. Put the other way, victims can judge what happened to them to be very serious, while at the same time not necessarily believing that it happened to be against the law. The only areas of common ground are car thefts, usually rated as both serious and a crime, and thefts of personal property – typically regarded as less serious and less likely to be seen as a crime.

Several crime surveys use both these questions, but there has not, to our knowledge, been an analysis of them together. The results, though, are important.

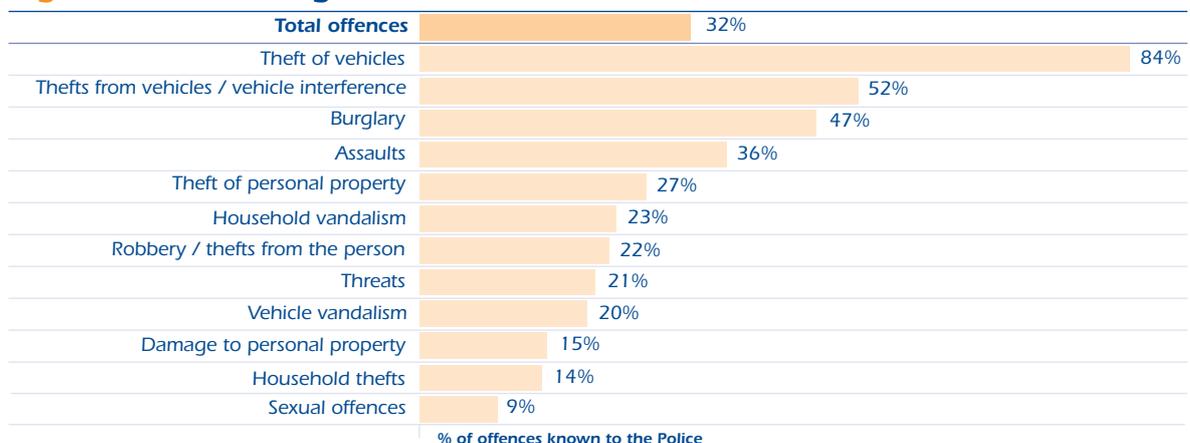
## ■ 2.4 Reporting to the Police

A notable finding of the two previous New Zealand surveys, and indeed all other crime surveys, is that many offences are not drawn to the attention of the Police. Figure 2.4 shows the results from the present survey. Overall, 32% of offences were said to have become known to the Police. They were reported by either the victim or another household member, or Police found out in some other way – perhaps because a neighbour told them, or they were already on the scene. (We use the terms ‘reported to the Police’ and ‘reported crime’ as shorthand for offences that the Police came to know about.) Chapter 4 looks in more detail at reporting to the Police, including the reasons why victims do not involve the Police, what factors influence reporting, and what victims felt about the Police response when they brought an offence to their attention.

Reporting rates vary for different crimes (Figure 2.4). The main features are:

- Thefts of vehicles are most likely to be reported (84% were).
- Just over one-half of thefts from vehicles were reported, and nearly as many burglary offences.
- Just over a third of assaults were reported, but only one-fifth of threats and fewer than one in ten sexual offences.
- One in four offences of household vandalism was reported (23%), but slightly fewer offences of vehicle vandalism (20%).

**Figure 2.4 Percentage of offences known to the Police**



Reporting rates also varied by the seriousness of what happened. Using the seriousness score, 51% of offences in the highest seriousness band were reported, compared to 30% of those rated as fairly serious. Only 17% of those in the least serious band were reported. Of those incidents which victims described as ‘crimes’, 46% were reported, whereas only about one in ten incidents which were described as ‘wrong but not a crime’ or ‘just something that happens’ were reported.

## 2.5 NZCASS figures and Police statistics

### The comparable subset

Comparisons between NZCASS and Police figures need to be restricted to certain categories of offences (referred to here as the 'comparable subset'). It is not sensible to compare all categories. For instance, the survey count of sexual offences is likely to be unreliable (even with the improvements made to try to capture them better). Vandalism will be captured in a Police category that is much larger, incorporating vandalism to commercial and civic property. Thefts of personal and household property, too, will fall into a much larger Police category of miscellaneous thefts.

Comparisons, however, can be made for assault, robbery/theft from the person, burglary, and thefts of and from vehicles and vehicle interference. Within this subset, various adjustments are made to the Police figures to align them better with the NZCASS count. These account for the fact that the NZCASS does not cover offences against non-domestic targets (e.g. businesses) and those under 15 years of age. These adjustments are explained in Appendix B. The comparable subset comprised 45% of all NZCASS offences. It comprised 39% of all crime recorded by New Zealand Police.

The estimated number of crimes in the comparable subset as counted by the NZCASS in 2005 was 1,245,000 as against 147,000 recorded by the Police (Table 2.2). Thus, the NZCASS count is eight times higher than the equivalent number recorded by the Police. Those offences not in the Police count make up what is known as the 'dark figure' of crime.

There are two reasons for the gap:

- First, only 44% of NZCASS offences in the comparable subset of offences became known to the Police. The proportions vary somewhat for different offence categories.
- Second, not all reported crimes (as estimated by the survey) are recorded by the Police (based on their figures). On the face of it, for the comparable subset overall, the number of offences recorded by the Police is 27% of the number said by victims to have been drawn to their attention. The figure for assaults drawn to Police attention is most marked. The results suggest that only 12% of all assaults said to be known to the Police were recorded.

**Table 2.2 NZCASS estimates of crime in 2005 and offences recorded by the Police**

	Police 000s	NZCASS 000s	% reported to the Police %	Estimated number reported 000s	% recorded of reported number %	% recorded of all NZCASS crimes %
Thefts of vehicles	20	29	84	24	80	67
Thefts from vehicles / vehicle interference	54	117	52	61	89	46
Burglary	38	330	47	154	25	12
Robbery / thefts from the person	4	49	22	11	40	9
Assaults	32	720	36	260	12	4
<b>Total comparable subset</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>1,245</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>552</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>12</b>

Notes:

Police figures are adjusted to improve comparability with the NZCASS figures (see Appendix B).

For how the NZCASS number of offences is derived, see Note 1 in Table 2.1.

The percent of NZCASS offences reported is based on the reporting rate for all incidents over the full recall period.

The BCS also attempts these comparisons. It finds a similar recording shortfall in that the number of reported crimes is lower than the number recorded. However, it is not as pronounced as the NZCASS figures. One reason for this will be different counting principles applied in the BCS for series victimisations.

### Caveats

There are a number of caveats to make about the comparisons between the survey and Police figures:

- There may be differences in how offences are classified in the survey and by the Police (although in principle the same rules are followed). This may apply in particular to the figures for burglary. In the 2006 NZCASS, many incidents in an enclosed space were coded as burglary, whereas in practice, the Police may choose a theft classification.<sup>17</sup> Thus, some offences may have been put into an offence category outside the comparable subset.
- The survey estimates of the number of offences in 2005 and the number reported to the Police are not precise because of sampling error.
- There is no verification that a crime report was actually made. It cannot be ruled out that the survey estimate of reported crime is exaggerated insofar as some victims, conscious of the social desirability of informing the Police, say they have reported when they have not.
- Some victims may advise Police of a matter but not seek to have it dealt with as a crime. This may be especially likely where the offender is related or otherwise known to the victim.
- The Police might not record some reported offences because they might not believe the victim, or be given insufficient details to allow them to determine whether a crime has been committed, or what kind of offence it was.
- There will be differences in counting procedures. Some will not make a great deal of difference, but one might. This concerns when an offender repeats an offence over a period of time. Whereas the survey counts them all, the Police may record the series of repeats as a single offence, depending on the circumstances. To the extent that the Police record only one incident, survey figures will be inflated relative to those of the Police.

## 2.6 Changes in crime since 2000

An important feature of crime surveys that are repeated over time is that they provide an alternative measure of trends in crime. In the case of the three New Zealand crime surveys, design changes have compromised comparisons. We discuss the background to this in Section 2.8. At this point, we look at what conclusions can tentatively be drawn.

To accommodate design changes to the current NZCASS, a separate analysis was done to compare the number of crimes per 100 households or adults in 2005 (as measured by the 2006 survey) with those in 2000 (as measured by the 2001 survey). The current NZCASS results were handled differently in three main respects compared to the analysis on which figures so far have been based.

<sup>17</sup> This includes incidents involving bicycle theft, and thefts of and from vehicles.

- The 2006 offence codes used were those that would have been allocated under the 2001 survey coding procedures (as discussed in Section 1.6).
- Offences that under the current legislation would be burglary were coded in accordance with legislative rules applying at the time of the 2001 survey. This means that many fewer offences attracted a burglary code using 2001 coding rules for 2006 offences – for instance, thefts in driveways and gardens, or bikes stolen from off the porch.
- The way in which data was imputed to account for missing Victim Forms mirrored that used in the analysis of 2001 survey results. (Appendix A explains the need for imputation and how it is done.)

Table 2.3 shows a comparison of incidence rates for 2000 and 2005 when analysis procedures were matched as explained above. The rate for sexual victimisation is not shown because of marked changes to the screener questions. It is also injudicious to compare rates of vandalism to personal and household property because of survey changes.

**Table 2.3 Survey estimates of victimisation rates: 2000 and 2005 (partially adjusted)**

Incidence rate per 100 households	2000	2005
Burglary <sup>(1)</sup>	7	9
Other household thefts <sup>(1)</sup>	12	14
Theft of vehicles	2	3
Thefts from vehicles / vehicle interference	10	13
Vehicle vandalism <sup>(2)</sup>	3	5
<b>Household offences above</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>44</b>
Incidence rate per 100 adults	2000	2005
Assaults	12	17
Threats	12	18
Robbery / thefts from the person	1	1
Theft of personal property	4	5
Bicycle theft <sup>(3)</sup>	1	1
<b>Personal offences above</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>42</b>

#### Caution

These are only partially adjusted rates. They do not take account of a change in the recall period or a change in the definition of partner. These changes are explained in more detail immediately after Table 2.3.

#### Notes:

- 1 Offences during 2005 are coded here in line with the legislation in force in 2001. For instance, many incidents that were coded as burglaries in the 2006 survey would previously have been thefts outside the home.
- 2 Risks of vehicle vandalism for 2001 were computed for this analysis. Morris and Reilly (2003: 65) show only the risk for all damage (vandalism) incidents.
- 3 Bicycle thefts were treated as a personal property offence in 2001, so the personal weight was applied.

#### Caveats

On the face of it, the picture from Table 2.3 is that risks in 2005 were rather higher than in 2000 for all categories of offences except bicycle theft, and robbery and theft from the person. Tests of statistical significance, however, are not entirely appropriate because even with the analysis adjustments made, there are two other important factors that undermine any conclusion that a real increase has occurred.

- The first is the change in the interviewing period. As explained earlier, this means that respondents in the 2006 survey are likely to have remembered offences in 2005 better than those in the 2001 survey will have done for 2000. Memory effects are well attested even in relation to what might be thought of as a significant event such as an attempted break-in to the home. They are highly likely to underpin differences between the current results and those from the previous survey. An investigation of offence dates suggests that 2005 rates would have increased by 10-15% overall, relative to 2000, just due to the change in interviewing period.<sup>18</sup> Some offence types are remembered less well than others, and would have increased by more with the shortened recall period.
- The greater incidence of assaults and threats in 2005 than in 2000 is likely to reflect the change as regards which partners respondents were asked about.<sup>19</sup> In the current survey, this was anyone who had been a partner since the beginning of 2005. In the previous survey, respondents were asked only about their current partner. Comparisons of the number of offences reported at various screeners suggest this effect may have added roughly three assaults per 100 adults to the assault incidence rate for 2005. Taking account of this would reduce the difference between 2000 and 2005. Similarly, the change in the definition of partner may have added just under three threats per 100 adults to the incidence rate for threats. This again would reduce the difference between the two survey years.

### Conclusions about change

The most judicious conclusion is that risks of victimisation have not changed much between 2000 and 2005 for personal offences. Thus, if account is taken of the change in the definition of partner and the change in interviewing period, the difference in the rate of personal offences would be likely to shrink from the apparent difference of 12 offences per 100 people between 2000 and 2005 to less than two offences per 100 people. This is well within the bounds of random sampling variation, and so the difference would not be statistically significant.

For household offences, the picture is different. The analysis in Table 2.3 showed risks in 2000 of 34 per 100 households, compared to 44 per 100 households in 2005 – a difference of 10 offences per 100 households. If this figure were adjusted for the change in interviewing period, the difference would probably still be at least five offences per 100 households, which is a statistically significant increase.

<sup>18</sup> There are more details in the Technical Report, <http://www.justice.govt.nz/pubs/reports/2007/crime-safety-survey-2006/technical-report/index.html>

<sup>19</sup> Incidents from the 2001 survey regarding weapon use and threat of weapon use are not counted, as there was no equivalent screener question in 2006. They were fairly small in number, but their omission deflates the 2000 assault and threat rates a little.

## The picture since 1995

It is useful to look first at the conclusion of the results from the 2001 survey. This was that 'there was very little change between 1995 and 2000 for many types of victimisation' (Morris and Reilly, 2003, p. 66). Three changes were noted, but two of them were more likely to be the result of survey design changes rather than indicative of a real change in victimisation.<sup>20</sup> The most robust change was a decline in the rate of assaults and threats, despite two changes in the design of the 2001 survey that would have had the effect of inflating the risks for 2000 here.<sup>21</sup>

A comparison of figures for 2005 with those for 1995 can only be tentative because of even more substantial design changes between the first and third surveys than between the second and third. Further work would be needed to account properly for these changes, as it is currently unclear whether the risk of personal offences was lower in 2005 than in 1995.

For household offences, the increase in risks in 2005 compared to 2000 also stands for 1995. Vandalism needs to be omitted because of marked differences in how this was measured in the 1996 survey. With this done, and taking changes in the fieldwork period into account, there is evidence of some increase in household offences between 2005 and both the earlier periods (1995 and 2000).

## ■ 2.7 Overview

The results show a very large number of offences experienced by adults in New Zealand. The high figure reflects the fact that the NZCASS provides a count of incidents that by the letter of the law could be punished, regardless of their severity, or even the value of doing so. Any incident that is technically a crime is counted.

The offences uncovered by the NZCASS, therefore, encompass a wide range of offending behaviour. Much of it is trivial, sometimes perhaps bordering on a technical breach of the criminal code. As Young et al. (1997, p. 27) put it, some incidents will be 'a normal (albeit undesirable) feature of everyday social interactions which most people cope with without difficulty or stress, and which would probably not be regarded as the appropriate business of the Police or Criminal Justice System'.

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<sup>20</sup> First, there was an increase in the rate of individual property offences, taking a number of offences together, such as general thefts of personal property, theft from the person and bicycle theft. However, there were additional screener questions asked in the 2001 survey, which will have inflated rates relative to the 1996 survey somewhat. When this is taken into account, the difference between the 1995 and 2000 figures reduces. Second, there was a decline in the incidence of sexual victimisation for women, albeit this was measured by different questions and in slightly different ways. Third, there was also a decline (and a fairly large one) in the rate of violent crime overall. This reduces when sexual offences are omitted, but was still likely to be statistically significant.

<sup>21</sup> One change was the use of computers for interviewers rather than a paper and pencil questionnaire, which will have increased accuracy and reduced missing information. The other was the introduction of CASI for the self-completion components.

There is testimony to this in the question that asked victims whether they considered what happened to them to be a crime. As seen, 20% of offences were judged as 'just something that happens', and 20% were felt to be 'wrong but not a crime'; 59% were said to be 'a crime'. One cannot say whether victims are making correct interpretations, or ones that would accord with the views of the Police as to what should and should not be within scope of official action. Nonetheless, the answers to this question provide some perspective. Similarly, analysis of the seriousness scores given by victims to the offences they experienced also gives some insight. Over a third of the offences measured by the survey were not judged as serious by their victims, being given scores of 1-4 on the 20-point seriousness scale.

### **The 'dark figure'**

The findings show a sizeable 'dark figure' of crime in New Zealand in 2005 – that is, crimes that remain outside the Police count. In general, though, the offences that do so are less serious. As already noted, only one in ten offences judged to be 'just something that happens' or 'wrong but not a crime' were reported to the Police. In contrast, nearly half of offences considered 'crimes' came to Police attention. Similarly, over a third of offences were not judged as serious by their victims – at least insofar as this is a defensible way of categorising offences given scores of 1-4 on a scale of 1 to 20. Again, less than one in five offences considered least serious on the seriousness score given by victims came to Police attention. But half of the most serious offences did. Thus, victims seem disinclined to bring in the Police over offences that are more trivial. It may be that many of the reported offences that the Police decide not to record may also fall into this category. The 'dark figure', then, does not indicate that there are eight times as many crimes of the same severity as now appear in Police figures.

In spite of this, the 'dark figure' should not be too readily set aside on the grounds that it captures crimes that 'don't really matter'. Half of the offences that were judged most seriously by their victims went unreported to the Police – and Chapter 4 considers these in more detail. Moreover, of the six in ten offences where victims felt what happened was 'a crime', less than one-half were reported to the Police.

One implication of the fact that many crimes go unreported to the Police and that some that are reported appear to go unrecorded, is the frailty of Police statistics as a measure of trends in crime – a point well-recognised by the Police (New Zealand Police, 2006). The large 'dark figure' for many offences means that any change in the public's propensity to report will alter the number of recorded crimes independent of any change in the underlying volume of crime. Changes in Police recording practices (New Zealand Police, 2006) or recording systems can have the same effect.<sup>22</sup> For instance, according to the survey estimates, only just over a third of assaults were reported and only 12% of these were subsequently recorded, although we hedged the last figure with several caveats. Thus, a relatively small change in reporting or in recording practices (or both) could have a major effect on the Police count.

<sup>22</sup> For instance, in June 2005 the Police migrated from their old computer system to a newer National Intelligence Application (NIA) – the largest crime-recording system change since the late 1970s. This system change caused a step-increase in recorded crime statistics, coincident with the system replacement. (For notes on NIA's release, see <http://www.stats.govt.nz/products-and-services/table-builder/crime-tables/release-notes.htm>).

### **The background to the survey design changes**

An important feature of crime surveys that are repeated over time is that they provide an alternative measure of trends in crime. Police statistics are still extensively used for this purpose, but there are limitations as mentioned above.

The three New Zealand surveys have provided only a limited picture of crime trends. The first (1996) survey was a very important 'foot in the water'. However, between the time it was carried out and the next survey (in 2001), there were a number of developments in crime survey methodology. One of these was the growing use of CASI for measuring sensitive topics, which evidence shows improves the disclosures that respondents are prepared to make (see Tourangeau and Smith 1998; Percy and Mayhew, 1997). CASI also reduced the chance of respondents missing questions. In 2001, interviewers started using laptop computers, abandoning paper and pencil methods. This again will have reduced missing information and have been likely to increase victimisation rates (cf. Cantor and Lynch, 2000).

The 2001 survey thus built on the 1996 survey, with developments informed by two reviews between the two – one by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2000) and one by Williams and McKenzie (2000). However, circumstances meant that the 2001 survey went into the field later than had been the case with the previous survey. Thus, interviews were conducted some considerable period after the main counting year of 2000.

The effect of this on the counting year estimates was acknowledged in the redesign of the 2006 NZCASS. Other technical issues were also addressed drawing on lessons learned from the analysis of the 2001 results, and to some extent those from 1996. One issue was a certain 'unevenness' in the screener questions in the main questionnaire and in the Self-Completion components, which meant that confrontational incidents between partners, people well known, and strangers were not being compared on a 'like-for-like' basis. Another issue was that the count of sexual victimisation from the two previous surveys seemed implausibly low in the light of results from other international crime surveys.

Those concerned with the design of crime surveys often acknowledge deficiencies in the instruments they are using. The national survey in the United States had a major redesign in 1992, when it changed procedures that substantially altered the amount and types of crime measured by the survey (Kindermann et al., 1997). Resources were such that 'spliced' surveys were run to compare the new and old instruments. Similar redesigns have been made to the surveys in England and Wales and Scotland, again with new and old instruments running together. In sum, crime survey designers have to balance the desirability of making improvements in the light of advanced knowledge against the need to keep things the same for the sake of consistency. In New Zealand, design improvements were considered the better option for NZCASS 2006.

A summary of the results in this chapter is in the Executive summary.

## 3 The distribution of risk

Chapter 2 dealt with the volume of crime in New Zealand. This chapter looks at how that crime is distributed across different types of people. It is organised as follows:

- We look first at the prevalence of victimisation in terms of the offence categories used in Chapter 2. The focus there was on incidence risks. Prevalence risks are an alternative measure of risk (see Box 3.1). They refer to the percentage of adults or households victimised once or more.
- We then deal with the frequency of victimisation to see how often New Zealanders were victimised in 2005. We look at the proportion of people never victimised and – for those who were victimised – the number of victimisations they experienced.
- Finally, we look at how risks vary for different types of people in terms of age, gender and so on.

### Box 3.1 Prevalence and incidence rates

The level of victimisation can be measured by means of two rates (or risks).

#### The prevalence rate (% victimised once or more)

This is a common measure in victim surveys. It measures the number of people or households that have been victims of a given offence at least once, expressed as a percentage of the relevant population.

#### The incidence rate (the number of offences per 100)

This is the total number of offences that occurred, again expressed as a percentage of the total relevant population. It takes into account the fact that some people are victimised more than once, so an incidence rate will be higher than the corresponding prevalence rate.

### 3.1 Victimization levels

Table 3.1 shows the percentage of people victimised once or more (prevalence risks) for the main categories of victimisation. The picture is broadly similar to that based on incidence risks, although there are some differences. For example, incidence risks for assault and threats were similar to the household risk for burglary (see Table 2.1). In terms of prevalence, though, the risk for burglary is higher as it does not reflect the number of times people are victimised. As we shall see, those people who had been victims of assaults and threats are more likely to have been victimised more than once.

The main features of the results are as follows.

- All told, 39% of respondents in the NZCASS had experienced some victimisation in 2005 once or more – i.e. they experienced a personal crime or lived in a household that was the victim of a household crime.<sup>23</sup>
- Thirty percent of households had been the victim of some kind of household crime. The highest risk was for burglary: 14% of households had experienced one or more break-ins or attempted break-ins to their home, or a theft from within the ‘enclosed space’ around it, such as the garden, driveway or shed.
- Nine percent of households were victims of vandalism to their household property.
- Of vehicle owners, 14% had experienced some incident involving their vehicles, most usually vandalism, theft from the vehicle or some unlawful interference with it.
- Nine percent of adults had been assaulted once or more, and the same proportion had been threatened. Thirteen percent had been either assaulted or threatened.
- Three percent of adults experienced a sexual offence. These are looked at later, including risks for men and women.
- Risks of robbery and thefts from the person were the lowest. Less than one percent of adults experienced either offence.

**Table 3.1 Victimization levels in 2005**

	% Victimised once or more	90% Confidence intervals <sup>(1)</sup>		
Burglary	13.8	12.9	-	14.6
Thefts from a dwelling	3.1	2.7	-	3.4
Other household thefts	1.7	1.4	-	1.9
Household vandalism	9.3	8.4	-	10.3
Theft of vehicles <sup>(2)</sup>	1.8	1.5	-	2.1
Thefts from vehicles / veh. interference <sup>(2)</sup>	7.0	5.3	-	7.7
Vehicle vandalism <sup>(2)</sup>	7.9	5.9	-	8.7
<b>Any household offences</b>	<b>29.8</b>	<b>28.1</b>	-	<b>31.5</b>
	% Victimised once or more	90% Confidence intervals <sup>(1)</sup>		
Sexual offences	3.1	2.3	-	4.0
Assaults	8.7	8.1	-	9.4
Threats	8.8	8.0	-	9.6
Robbery	0.7	0.4	-	1.0
Thefts from the person	0.7	0.4	-	1.0
Theft of personal property	3.2	2.6	-	3.7
Damage to personal property	2.5	2.1	-	2.9
<b>Any personal offences</b>	<b>17.5</b>	<b>16.6</b>	-	<b>18.5</b>
<b>Any victimisation <sup>(3)</sup></b>	<b>38.7</b>	<b>37.3</b>	-	<b>40.1</b>

Notes:

- 1 The boundaries of the 90% confidence interval are derived by adding or subtracting the appropriate margin of error around the sample estimates.
- 2 Risks for vehicle offences are based on those who own vehicles.
- 3 The rate for any victimisation is calculated treating household crime as a personal crime. It is the estimated rate of victimisation against adults where they were a victim of a personal crime or were resident in a household that was the victim of a household crime.

<sup>23</sup> This overall prevalence rate is higher than the figure for 2000 from the 2001 survey (30%), and higher than that for 1995 from the 1996 survey (32%). Most of this increase was due to methodological changes rather than an increase in the actual victimisation rate. Chapter 2 explained the reasons why this is so.

## The analysis which follows

For the remainder of this chapter, we restrict ourselves to the following categories of victimisation:

### Any victimisation

**Burglary** – a large component of household crime (comprising more than a third of household offences).

**Vehicle offences** – thefts of and from vehicles, vehicle interference, and vandalism to vehicles. The analysis here is restricted to vehicle owners. These offences formed 30% of all household crimes.

**Sexual offences** – as reported in the third Self-Completion component.

**Confrontational offences** – assaults, threats to someone or their personal property, and a small number of robberies. There are three distinctions drawn here.

- i. Offences committed by a partner – i.e., the respondent's current partner, or someone who was their partner at some time since the beginning of 2005. These are called 'partner offences' hereafter. These were incidents reported in the first Self-Completion component. The partners could be of the same or opposite sex.<sup>24</sup> Two-thirds of these offences were assaults, with the proportion the same for men and women.
- ii. Offences committed by someone well known to the victim – These were incidents reported in the second Self-Completion component. Assaults made up slightly more than half of these offences for both men and women.
- iii. Offences committed by other offenders – These were incidents reported in the Victim Form. Over half of these offences were threats, with the rest being assaults (41%) and robbery (5%). It is misleading to call these simply 'stranger' offences. About two-thirds involved people not known to the victim, but the rest involved someone 'known by sight', known to 'speak to casually', or 'known well'. Those 'known well' committed 12% of these incidents.<sup>25</sup>

<sup>24</sup> The number of people in the sample with same-sex partners is too small to draw any reliable conclusions about risk differences here.

<sup>25</sup> It is difficult to judge whether to reallocate these into the 'partner' or 'well known' categories, since where a victim described the offender as an ex-partner, it is not clear when the partnership has ended. That is, if the partnership had ended before the beginning of 2005 they would technically be categorised 'well-known' – but this was not usually specified in the victims' descriptions.

### ■ 3.2 The unevenness of victimisation

Table 3.2 presents the frequency distribution of victimisation for all offences covered by the survey. The respective columns refer to:

- Column 1: The percentage of adults in the NZCASS in terms of the number of times they were victimised, if at all.
- Column 2: The percentage of victims in the NZCASS, in terms of the number of times they were victimised.
- Column 3: The percentage of victimisations measured by NZCASS in terms of whether victims were victimised once, twice, three or four times, or five or more times.

The result of note is that some people were victimised repeatedly. In 2005, 6% of New Zealanders were victimised five times or more (column 1). Offences against them accounted for half of all the offences measured in the survey (column 3). This undercuts the notion of there being an 'average' risk, which suggests a uniform distribution of risk across the population as a whole. This is far from the case. Some points about multiple victimisation are taken up later. Suffice it to say here that repeat victimisation is one of the most important features of the NZCASS results.

**Table 3.2 Frequency distribution for all offences in 2005**

	% of adults	% of victims	% of victimisations
Column	1	2	3
<b>Number of victimisations</b>			
None	61%	-	-
One	19%	48%	16%
Two	7%	19%	13%
Three or four	7%	18%	20%
Five or more	6%	15%	51%
<b>Prevalence</b>	<b>39%</b>		
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>5,416</b>		

Notes:

Based on those aged 15 or over.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

#### Burglary

The way in which the risk of burglary is pocketed is less pronounced than for experience of victimisation overall. Seventy-two percent of victims were only burgled once (Column 2 in Table 3.3). Nonetheless, over half of all burglaries (Column 3) fell on a very small minority of households (Column 1). The types of people who were targeted most often are discussed below.

**Table 3.3** Frequency distribution for burglary in 2005

	% of adults	% of victims	% of victimisations
Column	1	2	3
<b>Number of victimisations</b>			
None	86%	-	-
One	10%	72%	47%
Two	2%	18%	23%
Three or four	1%	8%	16%
Five or more	<1%	3%	14%
<b>Prevalence</b>	<b>14%</b>		
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>5,416</b>		

Notes:

Based on those aged 15 or over in households in the NZCASS.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

### Vehicle offences

The distribution for vehicle offences is similar to that for burglary. Three-quarters of victims experienced only one incident. Even so, less than 2% of owners accounted for one-fifth of all offences.

### The three types of confrontational crime

The first point to note is that overall prevalence of the three types of confrontational crime is similar for the three different relationship groups (i.e. partner, well-known, or other offender). For each type of confrontational crime, about five percent of adults reported an offence (Table 3.4).

In terms of the frequency of victimisation, there is some difference according to the three types of confrontational crime. There was most concentration of risk for offences committed by partners. Two percent of the population, who reported three or more partner offences (Column 1), accounted for three-quarters of all partner victimisations (Column 3). Just one percent of the population accounted for nearly six in ten of all partner offences. Overall, 6% of people with a partner (or who had one since the beginning of 2005) were victimised once or more in 2005. The types of people most likely to be victimised are discussed below.

Offences by people well known to the victim were slightly less concentrated than was the case for offences committed by partners. But they were more concentrated than was the case for offences by other offenders. Here, the largest group was those who been victimised only once.

**Table 3.4** Frequency distribution for confrontational crimes in 2005

	% of adults			% of victims			% of vms		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Columns	<b>Partners</b>			<b>People well known</b>			<b>Other offenders</b>		
<b>Number of vms</b>									
None	94%	-	-	95%	-	-	93%	-	-
One	3%	43%	12%	2%	49%	18%	5%	71%	38%
Two	1%	21%	12%	1%	21%	15%	1%	15%	16%
Three or four	1%	17%	17%	1%	15%	18%	0%	7%	12%
Five or more	1%	19%	59%	1%	15%	48%	1%	7%	33%
<b>Prevalence</b>	<b>6%</b>			<b>5%</b>			<b>7%</b>		
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>3,554</b>			<b>5,416</b>			<b>5,416</b>		

Note:

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

vms = victimisations.

### Trends in repeat victimisation

The phenomenon of repeat victimisation was clearly evident in both previous surveys. The current 2006 NZCASS figures show much the same picture – although with rather more concentration of risk among a small number of victims. The reason for this will be the increased number of screener questions. The change in the recall period will also have meant that more minor offences were drawn into the survey. Since people who are victims of one type of offence are also more likely to be victim of another, the concentration of repeat victimisation will have changed because of these design changes in the survey.

## ■ 3.3 The interrelationship of risk factors

We now turn to how risks vary across different social groups in terms of their personal and household characteristics. We would emphasise first, though, that many of the factors that are related to risk are interrelated – for instance:

- Younger people will more often be single – and being younger and being single are each related to a greater chance of being victimised, as will be seen.
- People who rent from a Local Authority or the Housing New Zealand Corporation ('social renters')<sup>26</sup> more often live in the most deprived quintile (fifth) of the country as measured by the NZ Index of Deprivation; indeed, four in ten of them do so.

This makes it difficult to know which factors are most directly linked to victimisation, and which are secondary factors that relate to victimisation only through the effect of more dominant causes.

### Ethnicity and other risk factors

The previous two crime surveys in New Zealand showed that ethnicity was strongly related to the chance of being victimised. But it is a particular factor that is best not looked at in isolation, but rather in tandem with other social indicators that are themselves related to risk (such as age and marital status). Table 3.5 shows the very marked differences according to ethnicity. It can be seen, for instance, that those aged 15-24 make up 20% of New Zealanders as a whole, but the proportion in this age group was much higher for Pacific peoples, Asians, and Māori. Similarly, while 22% of New Zealanders overall live in the most deprived quintile (fifth) of the country, almost half of Māori do. The proportion is even higher for Pacific peoples.

One of the purposes of having a Māori booster sample in the 2006 NZCASS was to explore whether the experiences of Māori differed from those of other ethnic groups when other social factors are taken into account. Further work is planned on this issue in due course.

<sup>26</sup> The term 'social renters' is used hereafter to describe this group. Those who rented but refused to say who they rented from, who gave an 'other' response, or who did not know their landlord, are included among social renters.

**Table 3.5 Differences in social and demographic factors related to risk, by ethnicity**

	NZ average <sup>(1)</sup> %	European %	Māori %	Pacific peoples %	Asian %
<b>Age</b>					
15-24	20	15	28	42	34
60+	21	26	10	5	4
<b>Marital status</b>					
De facto relationship	14	13	25	12	5
<b>Household composition</b>					
Sole parents	6	5	10	9	4
Extended family / whānau	9	5	22	30	11
<b>Employment status</b>					
Unemployed and / or on benefits	8	7	19	13	4
<b>Tenure</b>					
Private renters	22	18	33	26	32
Social renters	7	4	16	33	7
<b>NZSEI</b>					
NZSEI 70-90 (highest status)	11	12	5	5	12
NZSEI 10-29 (lowest status)	15	15	18	14	15
<b>NZ index of deprivation</b>					
Quintile 1 (least deprived)	19	22	6	4	21
Quintile 5 (most deprived)	22	14	48	62	20

Notes:

1 The average New Zealand figures here are based on the total sample. Since this is weighted to provide national representativeness, these figures should be close to those for the New Zealand population.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% due to rounding.

### Box 3.2 Classification of ethnicity

The ethnicity of the respondent was assessed using a question virtually identical to that in the 2006 Census. Where respondents identified themselves as belonging to more than one ethnic group, each was used in analysis. Thus, a respondent who identified with both Māori and Pacific ethnic groups was included in both for analysis purposes.

## 3.4 Who was most at risk?

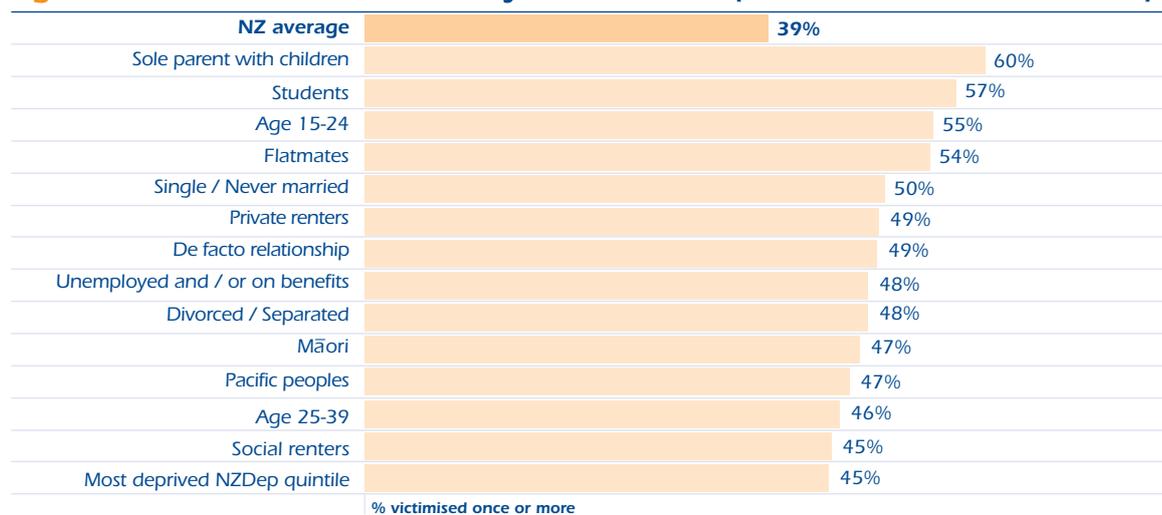
Overall, 39% of those who took part in the 2006 NZCASS reported having experienced some offence in 2005. Figure 3.1 shows the groups with the highest risks (full details are in Table C3 in Appendix C).<sup>27</sup> The overall risk of victimisation was the same for men and women, but some groups had much higher risks than average.

- Sole parents were particularly hard hit, with a risk of about 50% more than the average risk of 39 offences per 100 people.
- Those aged 15-24 were at much higher risk than others, with those aged 25-39 also at more risk than the average.

<sup>27</sup> Figures 3.1 and 3.2 do not necessarily show all the highest risk groups when the data in Tables C3 and C4 in Appendix C are rank ordered. For instance, the categorisation of victims according to social status (using NZSEI) presents a picture that can be hard to follow, except perhaps for the top and bottom bands. Within different types of family groupings, too, 'Extended family/whānau' and 'Family – other combination' often emerge as high risk, but the numbers on which risk rates are based are very small.

- Students and flatmates were at higher risk – and the two categories are likely to go together, of course.
- Those who are single or in a de facto relationship had relatively high risks, although there will be an interrelationship with age here.
- Those who were unemployed and / or receiving some form of benefit ('beneficiaries' hereafter) were at higher risk too.
- Private and social renters experienced more victimisation than those who owned their own homes.
- Those who are divorced or separated were also more often victimised, with risks a quarter higher than the average.
- Māori and Pacific peoples have risks in the region of one-fifth higher than the average.
- Those in the most deprived NZDep quintile were more often victimised.

**Figure 3.1 Those most at risk: any victimisation (% victimised once or more)**



### Incidence risks

The incidence rate was 115 offences per 100 people, giving an average number of offences per victim of 3.0. The picture of high risks based on incidence rates was much the same as that in Figure 3.1, although the differences from the average were more pronounced. For instance, while the prevalence rate for sole parents was about 50% higher than average, they faced risks over 100% higher than the average in terms of incidence risks. This reflects the fact that they have a high average number of victimisations.

### Who was at low risk?

In terms of the least vulnerable groups, the findings were:

- Retired people and those aged 60 or older were at very low risk, comparatively speaking. Eighteen percent and 20% were victimised once or more, compared to the average of 39%. There will be overlap between retirees and those over 60, of course.
- Couples with no children and people in single-person households were at low risk. There will be overlap again with age.
- Those in the lowest social status group were less at risk than others: 32% were victimised. They live predominantly in the least densely populated areas, which are called 'Minor urban and rural areas' in the urbanisation typology we have used ('rural areas' hereafter).
- The rural population as a whole had low risks (30%), as did those in Secondary urban areas (34%).

## ■ 3.5 Burglary

For household offences such as burglary and vehicle offences, it is somewhat artificial to look at personal characteristics such as age and gender, since this depends simply on which respondent in the household was chosen for interview.<sup>28</sup>

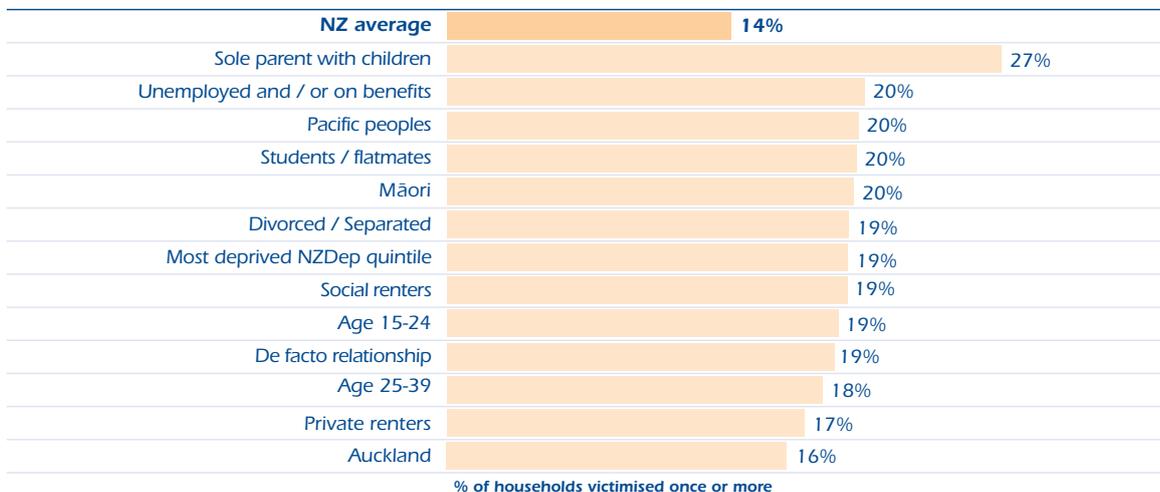
Overall in 2005, 14% of households experienced a break-in or attempted break-in, or a theft from within the 'enclosed space' around their home, such as the garden, driveway or shed. Figure 3.2 shows those with the highest risks (full details are in Table C4 in Appendix C).<sup>29</sup> The highest-risk groups were:

- sole parents, for whom risks were in the region of double the average
- beneficiaries, with risks about 50% higher than average
- Pacific and Māori households
- students and those with flatmates – two groups that tend to include the same people
- those in the most deprived NZDep quintile
- social renters, and to a lesser extent private renters
- those aged 15-39, although they may not necessarily live in a household where all household members are of that age.

<sup>28</sup> For this reason, we do not include gender in considering which households are most at risk. Some personal characteristics have been used, however, such as age, employment status, and marital status, although some caution is advisable regarding these figures. Ethnicity is also considered as a risk factor in relation to household crime since it is likely that the ethnicity of the respondent will match that of other household members.

<sup>29</sup> The average number of burglaries per victim was 1.5, giving an incidence rate of 21 offences per 100 households. The pattern for incidence risks is similar.

**Figure 3.2 Those most at risk of burglary (% burgled once or more)**



### Who was at low risk of burglary?

In terms of the least vulnerable groups, the picture is similar to that described in relation to all victimisations. Risks for retirees and those aged 60 or older (an overlapping group) was about 50% lower than the average. In the least deprived NZDep quintile, risks were a third lower, and nearly that in rural areas. Of those who owned their own home, 12% of households were victimised, much lower than the figures for renters.

## 3.6 Vehicle crime

Overall, 14% of households with vehicles experienced some form of offence involving a vehicle—the same as the prevalence rate for burglary.<sup>30</sup> Details of risks for different groups are in Table C5 in Appendix C.

Vehicle owners most likely to be victimised once or more were:

- Flatmates (with nearly double the average prevalence risk). The availability of private parking space may be a factor here.
- beneficiaries and students, with about 50% higher risks
- private renters and social renters, for whom risks were about 40% higher than average
- those in the 15-24 age group, and to a lesser extent those aged 25-39
- those who are divorced or separated
- those living in Auckland, where 19% of households had experienced a vehicle crime, compared to the national average of 14%.

### Who was at low risk of vehicle crime?

There were low risks for retirees, those aged 60 or more, and the widowed – overlapping groups of course. Their risks were about two-thirds of the average. Risks were also low for those in the lowest NZSEI 10-29 band. Those in rural areas and Secondary urban areas were also victimised less often than average.

<sup>30</sup> The average number of offences per victim was 1.4, giving an incidence rate of 20 offences per vehicle owning household. The pattern for vehicle offences, then, is similar to that for burglary.

### ■ 3.7 Sexual offences

We look now at the pattern for sexual offences. The frequency of sexual victimisation reported in the NZCASS was low, even though the more extensive screener questions elicited more incidents than was the case in the 2001 survey. Prevalence and incidence risks are in Table 3.6. Over half of victims reported only one incident, and a quarter reported two. The differences in both prevalence and incidence risks between men and women are statistically significant at the 95% level.<sup>31</sup>

**Table 3.6 Risks of sexual offences in 2005, by gender**

	Men	Women	Total
Prevalence (% victimised once or more)	2	4	3
Incidence (number of incidents per 100)	3	9	6

Note:

Based on those aged 15 years or older.

About four in ten incidents came from the screener question that asked about distressing sexual touching.<sup>32</sup> About the same number came from questions on forced sexual intercourse or attempted forced sexual intercourse. It should be noted that as many people as answered 'yes' to the screener questions chose either the 'Don't wish to answer' option, or (less commonly) the 'Don't know/can't remember' option. These were counted as having been victimised once. The assumption was that they were more likely to have something to recount than not, but simply wished not to.

The low levels of victimisation give rise to large sampling error. This makes it difficult to assess differences in risks except for those groups that had markedly higher risks than average. Among women, these were:

- Young women aged 15-24 – 12% of whom reported at least one sexual incident in 2005, compared to the 4% average for women overall.
- Female students and those living with flatmates, although the numerical base is small in each case, the groups will overlap, and there will be an interrelationship with age.
- Women in private rented accommodation, though this may also signify that they are more likely to be students living with others.
- Māori women and sole parent women, who each had a rate double the average for women overall.

Over a third of the offences were committed by current partners. Slightly more than one in ten involved a boyfriend, and a quarter a friend. A work colleague was involved in about one in twenty incidents.

<sup>31</sup> When there is a fairly large difference between two estimates which individually have large sampling errors, the difference between the estimates can nonetheless be statistically significant. The problem of reliability arises when there are small differences between the estimates, as well as large sampling errors.

<sup>32</sup> The screener question was: 'Excluding anything else already mentioned in this period, has anyone touched you sexually when you did not want them to in a way that was distressing to you? Please remember to include spouses and other intimate partners.' (The other screener questions are in Table A3 in Appendix A.)

### ■ 3.8 Confrontational offences committed by partners

We turn now to the first type of confrontational crime – that is, assaults and threats to someone or to their personal property said to have been committed by partners. Six percent of men and 7% of women reported one or more partner offences in 2005 (Table 3.7). There was a rather larger difference in incidence rates, which indicates that when women in our sample were victimised by their partners, it happened rather more often to them than to the men we interviewed. The prevalence rate was not statistically significantly different between men and women, but the incidence rate was, at the 90% level.<sup>33</sup>

**Table 3.7 Risks of confrontational offences in 2005 involving partners, by gender**

	Men	Women	Total
Prevalence (% victimised once or more)	6	7	6
Incidence (number of incidents per 100)	18	26	22

Note:

Based on those aged 15 years or older who had a partner at the time of the interview, or who had a partner at some time since the beginning of 2005.

Table C6 in Appendix C shows prevalence and incidence risks for different subgroups. Caution is needed in comparing the figures too closely, as sampling errors are large. The pattern of differences in risks was broadly similar for men and women. We focus here on the main features of subgroup differences in terms of incidence risks. Given the fairly low prevalence risk, these draw out differences more sharply. The main ones were:

- Four times as many sole parents were victimised once or more compared to the average. The same was true for those in our sample who were divorced or separated, although the number of them who had a partner since the beginning of 2005 was very small ( $n = 55$ ).
- Māori women and beneficiaries were vulnerable, with risks approaching four times the average.
- Young people aged 15-24 were at high risk compared to other age groups, though the numerical base is small.
- A number of other characteristics which will be related to age produce groups with high risks, such as those who are single, living as flatmates or in private rented accommodation.
- Those in the most deprived NZDep areas were at higher risk, as were social renters.

<sup>33</sup> This difference in the average number of times they were victimised is not statistically significant, however, from that for men.

### ■ 3.9 Confrontational offences committed by people well known

A range of people known to the victim were involved in these confrontational offences. Just under one in ten was a previous spouse or partner, and about the same proportion was a parent, a work colleague, or a friend. The largest group of offenders, though, was other household members and relatives – they were involved in four out of ten offences.

Five percent of adults had experienced one or more confrontational crimes in 2005 that were committed by someone well known to them (Table 3.8). The average number of offences per victim was 2.7, giving an incidence rate of 13 offences per 100 adults. This average is rather smaller than for offences committed by partners, indicating a generally lower level of very frequent victimisation. Neither of the differences in prevalence or incidence rates for men and women was statistically significant at the 90% level.

**Table 3.8 Risks of confrontational offences in 2005 involving people well known, by gender**

	Men	Women	Total
Prevalence (% victimised once or more)	5	5	5
Incidence (number of incidents per 100)	12	14	13

Note:

Based on those aged 15 years or older.

Table C7 in Appendix C shows prevalence and incidence risks for different sub-groups. Again, caution is needed in comparing the figures too closely. As was the case with offences committed by partner, differences in risks were broadly similar for men and women. There is also much similarity in the highest risk groups. On the basis of prevalence risks, the picture was:

- Again, those who were sole parents, divorced or separated, or beneficiaries had risks about twice the average.
- Māori were vulnerable, with risks double the average. Māori women were more at risk than women in other ethnic groups. Just over one in ten of them had experienced one or more of these offences.
- Those aged 15-24 were again at high risk compared to other age groups.
- Risks were also high, again, for students, singles and renters-many of whom will be in the younger age range.
- Those in the most deprived NZDep areas were also high-risk.

### ■ 3.10 Confrontational offences committed by other people

Two-thirds of the offences of this type involved strangers. Six in ten of them nonetheless happened in and around the home, usually around it. About one in ten took place at work, and a similar proportion in places of entertainment, such as pubs, clubs, sports grounds, etc.

Seven percent of adults had experienced one or more confrontational crimes in 2005 committed by offenders not known well to them (Table 3.9). The prevalence and incidence risk for men is statistically significantly higher than for women at the 95% level. A higher proportion of the offences experienced by men were assaults (46%) than for women (34%).

**Table 3.9 Risks of confrontational offences in 2005 involving other offenders, by gender**

	Men	Women	Total
Prevalence (% victimised once or more)	9	6	7
Incidence (number of incidents per 100)	16	11	13

Note:

Based on those aged 15 years or older.

The pattern of risk variations for these offences shows many similarities to those for offences by partners and people well known, but there are some differences (Table C8 in Appendix C shows details).

- Men were more at risk of offences committed by other people than women. Young men aged 15-24 were at highest risk. Twenty percent of them had experienced one or more offences-nearly three times the average of 7%.
- Social renters had prevalence risks over twice the average.
- Those in de facto relationships were at higher risk than average.
- Risks were also high, again, for singles and students.
- Māori were more often victimised than non-Māori, with a prevalence risk about 50% more than the average.
- Those in the most deprived NZDep areas were also at high risk.

### ■ 3.11 The high and low risk groups in summary

The groups most at risk were generally similar across all the measures of victimisation examined. Figure 3.3 summarises the results, showing those groups that had above average levels of victimisation. As said earlier, though, different risk factors go together. For instance, younger people will more often be single-and being younger and being single are each related to a greater chance of being victimised. Similarly, while one-fifth of New Zealanders overall live in the most deprived areas of the country, where victimisation rates are higher, almost half of Māori do.

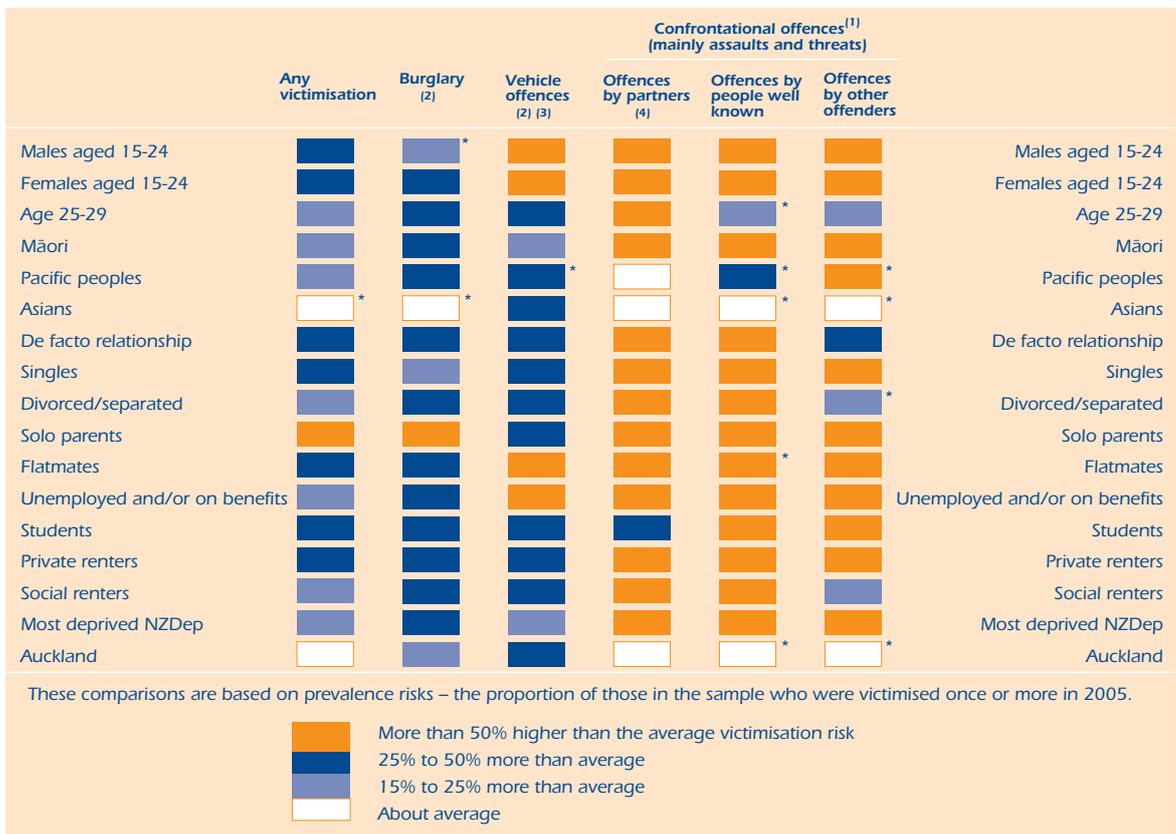
A main finding of note is that there is a concentration of risk among the less economically and socially well placed. Risks across all offences were consistently high for:

- sole parents
- those who were unemployed and/or on some form of benefits
- those living in property they rented rather than owned
- those in the most deprived areas of New Zealand.

Other factors related to risk were:

- Age – Young people aged 15-24 were at high risk across the board, and this was reflected in high risks for students and flatmates. Those aged 25-39 also experienced more crime than those in older age groups.
- Marital status – Those who are single or in de facto relationships are more at risk, though perhaps because they will be younger. People who are divorced or separated experienced more crime too.
- Ethnicity – Māori emerged as higher risk than average on all the measures we took, in particular confrontational crime. Pacific peoples were also at comparatively high risk, with the exception of confrontational crimes committed by partners.

**Figure 3.3 Groups at higher risk of victimisation in 2005**



Notes:

- 1 These cover assaults, threats to someone or their personal property, and robberies (few in number).
  - 2 It should be noted that for burglary and vehicle offences, it is somewhat artificial to look at personal characteristics such as age, since this depends simply on whichever respondent in the household was chosen for interview.
  - 3 Based on those who own vehicles.
  - 4 Based on those with a current partner, or who had a partner at some time since the beginning of 2005.
- These comparisons are based on prevalence risks – the proportion of those in the sample who were victimised once or more in 2005.
- \* Indicates that the difference from the average risk was not statistically reliable even at the 90% confidence level.

### Who was least at risk?

The least vulnerable groups were:

- retired people and those aged 60 or older – though they will overlap, of course
- couples with no children and people in single-person households
- those in more rural areas in New Zealand
- Owner-occupiers were much less at risk of burglary. They were also less at risk of vehicle offences than renters, but this could reflect differences in private parking space available.

## 3.12 Overview

### Repeat victimisation

This Chapter has taken up the extent of victimisation, highlighting its unequal distribution. Of particular importance is the fact that a small number of victims experience the majority of victimisations. This is now one of the best-known lessons from victim surveys, all of them testifying to it. The probability of repeat (or multiple) victimisation is more unevenly spread than the probability of being victimised at all. As Ellingsworth et al. (1995) said, the fact that most victims are one-time victims does not mean that most crime is experienced by one-time victims.<sup>34</sup>

The international evidence shows that offences most likely to be experienced repeatedly are threats, household thefts, assaults, and vandalism. These offences are characterised by generally low rates of reporting to the Police (e.g. Mayhew et al., 1993). This means that the full extent of repeat victimisation will be understated in the day-to-day work of the Police.

The causes of repeat victimisation are likely to vary for different types of offence. When the same offender is involved (e.g. in domestic violence), proximity is obviously critical. In property crime, being targeted by the same offender may also sometimes play a part, though multiple victimisation is more likely to reflect the geographical 'pocketing' of risks-with those in higher-risk areas facing higher risks across offence types, as well as within them. Moreover, in burglary, for instance, burglars' choice of targets is not random. Given that they will have preferences for particular types of property, a house that fits the requirement on one occasion is likely to do so on another. The same point applies to many crimes involving cars. Here, the cause of multiple victimisation will have much more to do with the attractiveness of the car and its contents, or its lack of security. Lack of private parking space and residence in high-risk areas may also add to the chances of being repeatedly victimised. There is considerable evidence to support this (e.g. Mayhew et al., 1993; Walker et al., 2006).

Repeat victimisation is only to a degree 'offence specific', since being a victim of one crime has also been shown to be associated with being the victim of another. It has proved hard to understand to what extent this is due to proximity to offenders of different kinds, to the type of property victims own, or – indeed – to the way they conduct their own lives.

<sup>34</sup> Pease (1998) has a good overview of findings about repeat victimisation, as well as the strengths and limitations of survey data on it. For instance, the usual calendar year period on which it is measured places an artificial bound on the number of repeat incidents that can be counted.

Repeat victimisation has considerable implications for Police practice, although it is fair to say that this is acknowledged in New Zealand. Pease (1998) puts the case strongly: past victimisation is the best single predictor of future victimisation; when re-victimisation occurs it tends to do so quickly; and high crime rates in some areas are substantially the result of the rate of repeat victimisation. The argument, then, for the Police to identify and deal with repeat victimisation is strong. One obvious implication is how data on calls for assistance is kept, so that repeated calls can be identified. Some of the preventive points that stem from the fact of repeat victimisation are difficult ones though. For instance, helping a small number of multiple victims may spread the 'crime burden' more widely across a larger number of others.

### **Risk and deprivation**

The current results regarding who is most at risk of victimisation largely mirror those from the two previous surveys insofar as the same analysis has been done. They also mirror the picture from other crime surveys. The main finding of note is that there is a concentration of risk among the less economically and socially well placed. For instance, people living in the most deprived fifth of New Zealand areas attracted nearly a third of all the confrontational crimes that the NZCASS measured. Similarly, while sole parents with children form 6% of the New Zealand population, they accounted for 12% of the total survey count of crime. Higher risks for those on benefits and in rented property also point to a general association between victimisation and economic disadvantage. A conjunction of social circumstances means that vulnerable people live in vulnerable areas, vulnerable properties, and among people who are over-represented in offender statistics.

### **Risk and ethnicity**

Both the two previous New Zealand surveys have shown that Māori were more vulnerable to being victimised than other New Zealanders. The same picture is evident in the present results. The problem of interpretation here, though, stems from the fact that many characteristics associated with higher risks of victimisation are more evident in the Māori population. For instance, it contains proportionately more young people, more beneficiaries, and more renters – all groups which have been shown to be more vulnerable to victimisation. As said, further work is planned to explore whether the experiences of Māori differ from that of other ethnic groups when other factors are taken into account.

Pacific peoples also share many of the characteristics of the Māori population that are related to risk. Indeed, in some respects they are more pronounced. The proportion of young people in the Pacific peoples' population is higher, for instance; more of them are renters; and proportionately more of them live in the most deprived areas of New Zealand. The 1996 crime survey showed a very high rate of violent victimisation amongst Pacific peoples – in excess of that for Māori (Young et al., 1997, p. 35). However, this did not emerge in the 2001 survey, which incorporated a Pacific 'booster sample' specifically to test the 1996 survey findings with a more robust sample. Risks of violence were higher for Pacific peoples than they were for Europeans, but they were not nearly as high as those for Māori.

Pacific respondents in the present survey numbered 220, which does not provide a strong base for assessing differences in risk. This said, their burglary risks were similar to those for Māori, as were those for vehicle offences. Risks of confrontational offences committed by 'other offenders' were again similar. The most marked difference was in relation to offences committed by partners or people well known to the respondent. Here, the risks for Māori were appreciably higher. Whether differential preparedness to reveal offences experienced (even in the anonymous conditions provided by CASI) plays any part is difficult to say. Research based on methods other than surveys has produced mixed findings as to whether Pacific peoples are, or are not, over-represented among victims of confrontational crime (see Lievore and Mayhew, forthcoming).

The number of Asians interviewed in the 2006 NZCASS was also modest at 276. The situation for those Asians who took part was generally on a par with that for Europeans. Higher than average experience of vehicle offences for Asians was the only way in which they stood out – or at least the only one that was statistically robust.

### **Gender comparisons**

Gender comparisons are usually seen as of most interest in relation to crimes involving partners and other family members. The present results show higher prevalence rates for partner offences among both men and women than in the previous survey. They were 6% for men and 7% for women, whereas in the 2001 survey the figures were 2% and 3%. The inclusion of previous partners will explain some of the difference in figures. The more expansive screener questions will be a second factor. The change in the interviewing period will be a third.

The present results show no statistically significant difference in the prevalence rates of confrontational offences committed by partners against men and against women, although there was a difference measured by incidence rates. Neither the prevalence rate nor the incidence rate differed for men and women for similar offences by people well known to the victim, which as seen were largely perpetrated by family members.

The results bear on what in family violence research has become known as the ‘gender symmetry’ issue. It has generated a polarised debate – largely focused on partner violence – between firm proponents of two opposing positions. One is that women are more often subject to partner violence than men, and that when they are victimised, they are injured more often and more seriously injured. The other is that women initiate and use violence against male partners as much as , if not more often than men, and that some of the reason for lower figures for men in many surveys is their possible reluctance to admit to victimisation as readily as women, because of shame, embarrassment or machismo. Much of the ‘gender symmetry’ debate has centred on whether different measurement approaches capture the same types of violence. Lievore and Mayhew (forthcoming) argue that, on balance, there does not as yet appear to be sufficient evidence to settle conclusively whether there is gender symmetry in partner violence. They argue that at the very least there is a need for a finer-grained understanding of couples’ violence and the contexts within which it occurs.

The present results show only one difference between men and women in victimisation rates for confrontational offences committed by partners and people well known to the victim, many of whom were family members. This difference related to the incidence rate of victimisation for partner offences. There was also an even distribution in terms of between male and female victims in the proportion of assaults versus threats they experienced. Nonetheless, there are some differences. Thus, women placed what happened in the ‘most serious’ category more often than men. They also more often than men said they regarded what happened as ‘a crime’. (Chapter 2 explained both these measures.) More women reported injury too, though the proportion injured was relatively small. Further analysis of the 2006 NZCASS is planned to explore more differences in the nature of confrontational crime against men and women.

A summary of the results in this chapter is in the Executive summary.

## 4 Reporting to the Police

Whether or not victims report offences to the Police is important for criminal justice. What is reported will largely determine the nature and size of the Police workload, since the vast majority of offences remain outside their scope of action unless they are notified by victims. There are also issues to do with how far the Police get to know about ‘crimes that matter’, and to what extent their workload is influenced by the types of victims who are more and less likely to report.

This chapter looks at reporting in more detail, including:

- changes in reporting since the two previous surveys, although conclusions here are difficult to draw because of survey design changes
- reasons crimes are not reported
- the number of serious crimes that do not come to Police attention
- the extent to which reporting varies by gender, ethnicity etc.
- levels of satisfaction with the Police response among victims who do report.

### 4.1 Some analysis issues

We use the terms ‘reported to the Police’ and ‘reported crime’ as shorthand for offences that the Police came to know about, whether via a victim report or in some other way (see Section 4.3 below[KB5]).

We have grouped offences in different ways for different purposes.

- For comparisons with the 2001 survey, analysis is based on offences described in the Victim Form. They have been grouped into six categories – see Typology 1 in Box 4.1.<sup>35</sup> Offences described in the Self-Completion components are omitted, since this is what was done in 2001 and 1996.
- For analyses of whether or not offences were reported to the Police, all offences are included, whether from the Victim Form or the Self-Completion components. They are in Typology 2 in Box 4.1.
- For analyses of offences reported to the Police, which are smaller in number, all offences are again taken, but grouped into three categories (see Typology 3 in Box 4.1). More detailed categories are too small from which to draw reliable conclusions.
- Some distinctions are drawn between Victim Form and Self-Completion offences where it is appropriate to draw attention to differences between offences committed by partners, those well known to the victim, and strangers. For these analyses, Typology 4 (see Box 4.1) is used. However, as explained in Chapter 3, there is reason to be circumspect about the distinction, particularly as regards the distinction between stranger offences and those committed by people well known. Sexual offences are sometimes shown as a separate category. They are small in number.

<sup>35</sup> As in the 2001 survey, the data has been weighted so that the analysis is based on victims, rather than victimisation incidents. This does not alter the pattern of results greatly. The terms ‘victims’ and ‘incidents’ are used interchangeably. Victims are counted more than once if they were involved in more than one incident.

### Box 4.1 Typologies of offences used for difference analyses

<b>TYOLOGY 1</b> Best match with 2001 survey	<b>TYOLOGY 2</b> All offences	<b>TYOLOGY 3</b> Incidents reported to the Police only	<b>TYOLOGY 4</b> Partner/well-known/stranger offences
Violence – assaults and robbery reported in the Victim Form only	Violence – sexual offences, assaults and robbery	Confrontational offences – covering sexual offences, assaults, robbery and threats (to the person or personal property)	Partner offences (offences from the first Self-Completion component) – covering assaults, threats, and vandalism to property (excluding cars)
Threats (as in Typology 2, but reported in the Victim Form only)	Threats-threats to the person and threats to vandalise personal property	Vandalism to and thefts of personal and household property	Offences by people well known (offences from the second Self-Completion) – with the same coverage as above
Vandalism (as in Typology 2, but reported in the Victim Form only)	Vandalism – covering vandalism to vehicles, and household and personal property		
Thefts of personal property (as in Typology 2)	Thefts of personal property – including thefts from the person		
Household thefts (as in Typology 2) and burglary (as covered by the old legislation)	Household thefts – covering thefts by a person with a right to be there and thefts outside the home that are not classified as burglary		
	Burglary – as covered by the new legislation		
Vehicle thefts – as in Typology 2	Vehicle thefts – thefts of and from vehicles and vehicle interference	Burglary and vehicle thefts	Stranger offences – i.e. equivalent offences in the Victim Form – with the same coverage as above

## 4.2 Changes in levels of reporting

On the face of it, levels of reporting to the Police were lower in the 2006 NZCASS than those registered in the 2001 survey, when the same offences are compared (Typology 1).<sup>36</sup> Of all offences in the 2001 survey, 40% were reported to the Police, as against 36% in the 2006 survey. The difference in the figures is likely to be explained by three changes in the 2006 survey. (Chapter 1 introduces these ideas, and Appendix A, Survey design and methods, discusses them in more detail.)

- First, because of the change in the period over which respondents were asked to recall offences against them, respondents answering in 2006 are likely to have better remembered more minor offences than respondents in 2001. Those minor offences would have had a lower likelihood of being reported to the Police. Detailed analysis indicates that the size of this effect is such as to eliminate virtually any change in reporting between the two surveys.

<sup>36</sup> No comparisons are made with the 1996 survey because of survey design changes. The 2001 analysis showed little change in reporting between 1996 and 2001, insofar as a close comparison could be made.

- Second, changes to the screener questions in the two surveys will have had the effect of prompting recollection of offences – of vandalism and threats of vandalism in particular – which in general are less frequently reported.
- Third, more offences were able to be coded as ‘in scope’ of the survey in 2006 than in 2001. These are likely to be at the lower margin of offence seriousness, and thus again less likely to be reported. Analysis suggests that this could account for one percentage point of the difference between reporting rates in the 2001 and 2006 surveys.

Table C9 in Appendix C shows the changes in reporting to the Police in the 2001 and 2006 surveys. It is restricted to offences described in the Victim Form, so the figures for the 2006 survey differ from those in Figure 2.4.

### ■ 4.3 How offences came to Police notice

Focusing now on offences that the Police did get to know about, 85% were reported by the respondent in the survey or another household member. In 15% of offences, the Police found out some other way – perhaps because a neighbour or a work manager told the Police, or they were already on the scene.<sup>37</sup> This was most common in relation to violence (26%), vandalism (16%) and threats (15%). Some offences that came to Police attention other than through a victim report might not have been reported to the Police otherwise. It is difficult to know.

The Police more often found out ‘in some other way’ about stranger offences than they did when partners or people well known to the victim were involved. About one in five stranger offences happened in places such as bars, clubs and sports grounds, which may be an explanation.

### ■ 4.4 Why people do not report to the Police

Victims who did not report were asked why not. They could give more than one reason. Overall, victims mainly felt that the incident was too trivial, or not worth reporting (48% said this). A third felt the Police could not have done anything, would not have been bothered, or were too busy to attend to the matter. Just over a quarter of victims felt that what occurred was not a matter for the Police, but better dealt with themselves. Just over one in ten felt they did not have enough evidence to support a report to the Police. Overall, few people mentioned the inconvenience of reporting (7%), embarrassment (6%), or the fear of reprisals (5%). Very few (2%) mentioned dislike of the Police.

As one might expect, though, the picture changes for different types of victimisation. It also changes with regard to the relationship between victim and offender, which is of particular interest. Table 4.1 shows reasons for not reporting sexual offences, those committed by partners, people well known to the victim, and strangers.<sup>38</sup> (This is Typology 4 in Box 4.1.) Table C10 in Appendix C shows differences for other offence types (for instance, burglary and vehicle thefts.). Numbers in some offence categories are small, which limits their robustness.

<sup>37</sup> This figure is virtually the same as in 2001 survey (16%), but higher than the figure of 11% cited for the 1996 survey.

<sup>38</sup> Some reasons have been grouped in Table 4.1 due to their similarity. For instance, ‘it was a private/personal/family matter’ is put together with ‘dealt with the matter myself/ourselves’.

**Table 4.1 Reasons for not reporting to the Police**

	All Offences	Sexual offences	Partner offences	Offences by people well known	Comparable Victim Form offences
	%	%	%	%	%
Too trivial / no loss / not worth reporting / unsuccessful attempt	48	34	45	37	41
Police couldn't have done anything; wouldn't have been bothered / interested; too busy / not enough police	34	31	22	37	37
Private / dealt with matter myself/ ourselves	27	44	56	47	18
Didn't have enough evidence to report it	12	11	6	10	13
Inconvenient / too much trouble	7	10	4	12	6
Didn't want to get offender into trouble	6	21	17	12	1
Shame / embarrassment / further humiliation	6	27	20	8	0
Fear of reprisals / would make matters worse	5	10	8	15	4
Reported to other authorities	3	1	0	4	7
Dislike / fear of the police	2	4	0	4	7
Other / don't know	12	10	8	14	12
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>2,584</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>631</b>

Notes:

Multiple responses possible.

Some reasons given have been grouped due to their similarity.

This analysis uses Typology 4 in Box 4.1. All offences are the total of Typology 1.

Some differences in the reasons for not reporting were as follows.

- **Triviality** was more often mentioned by victims of vandalism. It was also mentioned more often by those who did not report burglaries and vehicle thefts – though bear in mind that many of these were reported, so the offences that were not could have been minor ones.
- **What happened was a private matter** was most commonly cited by victims of unreported assaults and threats, particularly those committed by partners and people well known: about half of these were not reported for this reason. Over four in ten sexual offences went unreported on the same grounds.
- **Not wanting to get the offender into trouble** was a factor in unreported sexual offences, and offences committed by partners were listed under this option about three times more often than the average.
- **The embarrassment of reporting** was mentioned as a reason for not bringing in the Police by victims of sexual offences and partner offences much more often than by other victims.
- **Fear of reprisal** was another reason mentioned more often by victims of sexual offences and those who knew the offender well. Even so, it was a minority response.
- **Reported to other authorities** was a more common reason for not reporting thefts of personal property than average – perhaps because many offences happened at work or in places where someone else could take charge.

### Trends in reasons for not reporting

The results do not differ in substance from the two previous New Zealand surveys.<sup>39</sup>

They also align with the Women's Safety Survey (Morris, 1997), and are much in accord with international evidence (see, e.g., Van Kesteren et al., 2001; Felson, et al. 2002).

## ■ 4.5 Reporting and offence seriousness

While reasons for not reporting offer some insights into which types of crimes are not drawn to the attention of the Police, this can be looked at more directly in other ways. The international evidence is that the overarching determinant of whether or not offences are reported is the seriousness of what happened, in terms of injury, property loss and emotional impact (see, for example, Skogan, 1984, 1994; Van Kesteren et al., 2001; MacDonald, 2001; Hart and Rennison, 2003; Goudriaan et al. 2006). In contrast, victim characteristics (such as ethnicity, age, or attitudes to the Police) play some part, but a smaller one than is often imagined once the nature of the offence is taken into account.

We look at seriousness to address the important question of whether Police figures represent 'crimes which matter'. Or put another way, is the 2006 NZCASS simply picking up additional crimes that are 'not really worth worrying about'? The main measure of seriousness used is a 'seriousness score' given by victims (see below). Other measures are:

- **Offence classification** – Although it is one way of measuring seriousness, this is not entirely reliable. Threats, for instance, are generally likely to be less serious than thefts of a car. However, some offences that would not generally be considered serious in legal terms might nonetheless cause great upset or substantial financial loss (e.g. some offences of vandalism). Similarly, some 'serious' offences may carry low losses or not be particularly distressing (e.g. burglaries in which nothing much is taken).
- **Indicators of impact** – Seriousness can be assessed in terms of indicators of impact. Here, 2006 NZCASS results are in line with other research as regards the relationship with reporting. For instance, 48% of confrontational offences were reported where there was injury, as against 16% where there was not. Of confrontational offences in which a weapon of some sort was present or used (including sticks or a bottle), 41% were reported, as against 22% of other confrontational offences. It is no surprise either that there was a higher reporting rate for offences that had most emotional effect. The NZCASS asked, 'So overall, how much were you affected by the incident?' Of those offences where victims said they were 'very much affected', 53% were reported, as against 14% of those where they were 'not at all' affected.

### The seriousness score

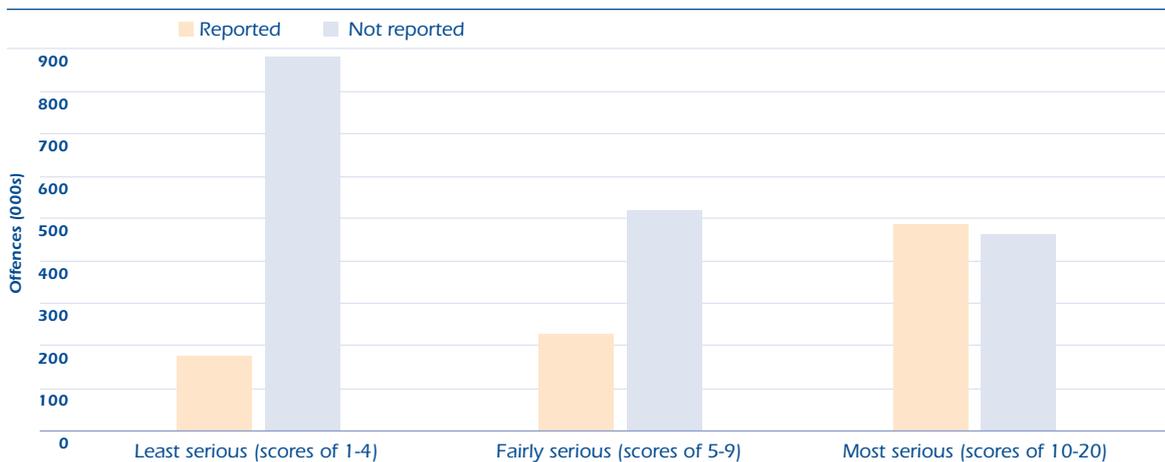
A third – and powerful – way of looking at the relationship between reporting and seriousness is by means of a new question in the 2006 NZCASS. This asked victims to rate what happened to them using a 'seriousness score' where 1 represented a very minor offence, and 20 represented murder. (The seriousness score was discussed in Chapter 2.)

<sup>39</sup> Changes in the options given for 'reasons for not reporting' answers affect precise comparisons.

Figure 4.1 divides offences as measured by the 2006 NZCASS into three levels of seriousness. The three groups were analysed in terms of whether or not they were reported to the Police. These proportions were then applied to the total number of offences estimated by the survey to have occurred in 2005 (2,753 million). The main features of the results are as follows.

- Most of the 'least serious' offences went unreported (83%), though a sizeable minority were still drawn to Police attention.
- 'Fairly serious' offences were again more likely to go unreported (69%), but proportionately more of them were reported.
- Of the 'most serious' offences, about the same number were reported (51%) as were not (49%). Thus, a great many of the most serious offences went unknown to the Police – in the region of 463,000.

**Figure 4.1 Crime seriousness and reporting**



Seriousness, then, is an overriding driver of reporting, but other factors will be at play.

- Firstly, there are practical considerations of self-interest. Thus, at all levels of seriousness, most offences were reported where an insurance claim was made. Claiming on insurance, then, is a factor in reporting as well as seriousness.
- Secondly, victims' expectations of the Police play a part. For crimes with higher seriousness scores which were not reported, more victims felt that Police would not be able to help, or would not be interested. They were also more likely to feel that they did not have enough evidence that the Police would accept.
- Thirdly, fear of reprisals (though not a dominant reason for not reporting) was more important in relation to the seriously judged offences than others. One in ten of the 'most serious' offences were not reported for this reason.
- Finally, when partners are involved, victims seem often not to bring in the Police, even for offences they judge as 'most serious'.

### Reporting and relationship to the offender

The final factor in the list above concerns the relationship between victim and offender. The common assumption is that the Police are less often notified about offences committed by a partner or someone well known to the victim. The current results bear this out as regards offences committed by partners, at least. Of these, 21% were reported (across all seriousness levels), as against 31% of related offences where strangers were mostly involved. The difference was smaller where the offender was well known (27% were reported), and not statistically different from stranger offences.

When seriousness is taken into account, the same picture holds. For offences committed by partners which were judged most serious, 35% were reported to the Police, as against 50% at the same seriousness level when strangers or people well known were involved – a result that just misses statistical significance because of the small numerical base.

### Victim characteristics and reporting

A question of interest is whether different types of victims (in terms of gender, age etc.) report to the Police more or less often. On the face of it, some differences are evident. For instance, young people tend to bring in the Police less often (see Table C11 in Appendix C). However, the differences are not particularly consistent across offence types, and by no means all of them are statistically sound. More important, though, is that once the seriousness of what happened is taken into account (by means of the seriousness scores) there are no statistically robust differences in reporting between groups. With a larger number of offences to examine, it might be that group differences would have been more apparent, even controlling for seriousness. We are not in a position to know.

## ■ 4.6 Police performance

Being satisfied with the Police response on reporting is important because the Police are heavily dependent on victims to bring crimes to their attention, and to co-operate if necessary in the prosecution of offenders. Moreover, policing in New Zealand (as in other jurisdictions) has become more consumer-focused, and measures of consumer satisfaction are now routine Police performance indicators. To provide them, New Zealand Police already carry out regular surveys conducted for them by MM Research.

For offences the Police came to know about, victims were asked a number of questions in the NZCASS about the Police response. As in the last two surveys, they were asked how satisfied they were overall; why they were not satisfied (if they were not); and whether the contact changed their views of the Police. Before these were some new questions in the 2006 NZCASS. We deal with these first.

The new questions relate to:

- ■ whether victims waited for the Police to attend to their report
- whether the Police had shown interest in what they had to say
- whether they were shown respect by the Police
- ■ whether they were kept informed about the progress of the investigation.

## Whether victims were kept waiting

Victims who reported to the Police were asked whether they had to wait for them to deal with the matter, or whether it was dealt with immediately. Those who had to wait were then asked whether the wait was reasonable or not. More than half (56%) of victims who reported said the Police dealt with the matter immediately, or that the Police told them immediately that they would not deal with it.<sup>40</sup> A further 16% said they had to wait, but did not think the time unreasonable. A slightly larger group, 18%, said they had to wait for what, in their view, was an unreasonable time. The rest (10%) said the Police never dealt with the matter at all (Table 4.2).<sup>41</sup> If the last group is excluded, then 80% said they were dealt with immediately or were told immediately the matter would not be dealt with, or said their waiting time was reasonable. The rest (20%) said the wait was unreasonable.

**Table 4.2 The Police response - whether kept waiting**

	Total	Violence and threats	Damage and other thefts	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts
	%	%	%	%
Dealt with immediately / told immediately Police would not deal	56	67	61	52
Had to wait but time was reasonable	16	14	17	16
Had to wait unreasonable amount of time	18	13	9	22
Police never dealt with the matter	10	6	13	10
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>1002</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>263</b>	<b>594</b>

Notes:

Those who said they did not want to be further involved or did not want the Police to do anything are excluded. 'Don't knows' are also excluded.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

There were a few differences by type of offence, and by type of victim. Leaving aside those who said the Police did not deal with the matter, the victims most likely to think they had to wait an unreasonable amount of time were:

- burglary victims
- women rather than men
- Māori victims more often than Europeans. The same went for Pacific peoples and Asians, although the sample numbers are too small here to be conclusive.
- those in the most deprived areas
- those in Auckland and the Upper North Island.

<sup>40</sup> These options ('dealt with immediately' and 'the Police said immediately they would not deal with it') were combined in the same response code. Consideration should be given to separating these two responses in future surveys.

<sup>41</sup> A few victims said the question was not applicable to them because they did not want to be further involved, or the Police to do anything. They are excluded. Also excluded is a small minority who said they did not know about the Police response (perhaps because the Police were notified by someone else).

There will be interplay in these results, first, because of the overlap of ethnicity and area of residence, given that non-Europeans are more likely to live in the areas where more people felt they were kept waiting. There is also interplay between the characteristics of victims and the types of offences they are reporting. Moreover, it is difficult to say whether the differences observed reflect different expectations about how the Police should respond, rather than how the Police actually did respond. Another factor in relation to different areas of New Zealand is that demands on the Police may differ, which will influence response time.

### Whether the Police showed interest

In a second new question, victims who reported to the Police were asked how much interest the Police took in what they had to say, and whether they felt it was as much as or less than they thought the Police should have taken.<sup>42</sup> Nearly two-thirds (64%) of victims felt the Police had shown an appropriate level of interest. The 36% who felt the Police had not done this were most likely to be:

- victims of vehicle thefts
- women rather than men
- young people
- those in the most deprived areas
- Māori victims rather than Europeans. Pacific peoples and Asians also appeared more likely to feel the Police had registered insufficient interest, but sample numbers are too small to be certain.

### Whether the Police were respectful

The third new question asked whether the Police had been as respectful as they should be. Most people (71%) agreed they had been.<sup>43</sup> Those most likely to disagree were:

- victims of vehicle thefts
- young people
- Māori victims more often than Europeans.

### Whether victims were kept informed

The final new question was about how well victims who reported felt they had been kept informed of the progress of the investigation. Other than those who said they had been 'very well' informed (or the Police had not investigated), the rest were asked whether they thought the Police should have done more in the way of providing information. Table 4.3 combines the results from the two questions. Overall, just over one-fifth (22%) felt they had been kept very well informed. One-fifth (19%) felt they had been well enough informed, given that in some cases the Police had no information. Nearly a third (32%) felt they should have been kept better informed. Just over a quarter (27%) said the Police had not investigated.<sup>44</sup>

<sup>42</sup> Eight percent said they did not know, presumably because they might not have made the report themselves when a household crime was reported. They are excluded.

<sup>43</sup> Nine percent said they did not know. They are excluded.

<sup>44</sup> At the first question (about how informed they had been kept), victims were asked if this was 'very well', 'fairly well', 'not very well', or 'not at all well'. One code was 'The Police have not investigated'. This was not read out, although 22% of victims said it anyway. At the second question (about whether they should have been kept better informed), some victims again spontaneously said there was no investigation going on.

Excluding those who said there was no investigation going on, 30% of victims whose offences were known to the Police felt they had been kept well informed, and 26% felt well enough informed – or at least accepted that the Police had no information to give. The rest (44%) did not get as much information as they would have liked. There were no notable differences (given the small numerical base) between types of victims in terms of who felt they should have been better informed.

**Table 4.3 The Police response - whether kept informed**

	Total	Violence and threats	Damage and other thefts	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts
	%	%	%	%
Very well informed	22	27	24	20
Well enough / Police had no information	19	14	21	19
Not well enough informed	32	36	20	35
Police have not investigated <sup>(1)</sup>	27	23	34	26
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>1,079</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>297</b>	<b>630</b>

Notes:

1 The number for 'Police have not investigated' includes those who said there was no need for them to be better informed because there was no investigation going on.

Those who said they did not want information are excluded.

Percentages do not necessarily add because of rounding.

This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

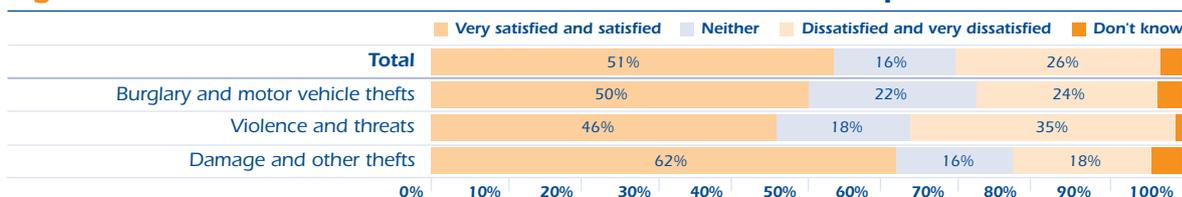
### Overall satisfaction

After the new questions, victims who came into contact with the Police over a crime report were asked how satisfied they were with the Police response overall. This question was also asked in the two previous surveys. It is difficult to know whether the new questions that preceded it will have affected answers.

In the 2006 survey, 51% of victims were very satisfied or satisfied. The proportion 'very satisfied' was 22%, with 29% just 'satisfied'. At the other end of the scale, 13% were 'very dissatisfied' with the Police response and the same proportion was just 'dissatisfied' (see Table C12 in Appendix C).

Victims of vandalism and thefts of household and personal property were most satisfied (Figure 4.2). Those involved in violent incidents or threats were least so. The numerical base is too small to say whether the responses of victims of offences committed by partners or people well known to them differed from other victims since – as already noted – few offences were reported.<sup>45</sup>

**Figure 4.2 Victims' overall satisfaction with the Police response**



Note: This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

<sup>45</sup> On the face of it, though, fewer victims of partner incidents (n = 44) were satisfied (34% were), and more were dissatisfied (46%). Incidents involving people well known (n = 61) did not differ much from those involving strangers.

### Trends in overall satisfaction with the Police

The proportion that was very satisfied or satisfied with the Police response was one percentage point higher than in the 2001 survey. This change was not statistically significant. The proportion dissatisfied or very dissatisfied was two percentage points lower than in 2001. Again, sampling error could account for this.

Compared with the 1996 survey, levels of satisfaction have worsened. In 1996, 59% were very satisfied or satisfied, whereas on the comparable base of offences, the figure in 2006 was 52%. Likewise, the proportion very dissatisfied or dissatisfied in 1996 was lower at 19% than in 2006 (24%).<sup>46</sup>

### Satisfaction and other aspects of Police performance

A finding of some importance – though it is not unexpected – is that the four new measures of Police performance were closely related to overall satisfaction (Table 4.4). For instance, seven out of ten of those who were dealt with immediately or felt the wait was reasonable were ‘very satisfied’ or ‘satisfied’ with the response overall. In contrast, among those who felt they were kept waiting an unreasonable amount of time, nearly six in ten were dissatisfied. Whether victims were kept informed or not was the measure most strongly associated with satisfaction levels.

**Table 4.4 Overall satisfaction on reporting, by aspects of Police performance**

	Very satisfied or satisfied	Dissatisfied or very dissatisfied
	%	%
Dealt with immediately, or reasonable wait <sup>(1)</sup>	71	
Had to wait unreasonable amount of time		57
Police showed as much interest as victim thought they should	78	
Showed less interest		62
Police showed as much respect as victim thought they should	74	
Showed less respect		66
Kept victim very well informed, or informed well enough <sup>(2)</sup>	82	
Not kept well enough informed		53
All victims who reported	51	26

Notes:

- 1 ‘Dealt with immediately’ includes ‘Police said immediately they would not deal with the matter’. Those who said they did not want to be further involved or did not want the Police to do anything are excluded. Also excluded are those who said the Police never dealt with the matter.
- 2 Those who said they did not want to be further involved or did not want the Police to do anything are excluded. Also excluded are those who said the Police had not investigated.

Those who said ‘Don’t know’ on the four performance measures are excluded throughout.

<sup>46</sup> Results from other surveys differ somewhat, although the nature of questions and the context of the surveys may play a part here. In 2002, MM Research found that 66% of those who contacted the Police on a crime-related matter were very satisfied or satisfied. The same survey in 2004–2005 found 62% satisfied (New Zealand Police, 2005). That in 2005–2006 found 72% satisfied (New Zealand Police, 2006).

## Victim characteristics and overall satisfaction with the Police response

Victims varied to a degree in how satisfied or dissatisfied they were overall (see Table C13 in Appendix C). The statistically robust differences were:

- older people were more satisfied
- Pacific peoples were more satisfied.

## Reasons for dissatisfaction

Those who were not satisfied with the Police response overall were asked why not. They could give more than one reason. The most common was a perceived lack of Police effort and interest: 59% of victims who were dissatisfied mentioned this (Table 4.5). A perceived lack of effort and interest, then, applied to 28% of all offences that the Police knew about. Not being kept informed was also mentioned by nearly a third of those who were dissatisfied. A quarter felt the Police had not been quick enough to respond. Nearly as many were dissatisfied because no offender had been caught or property retrieved, or because insufficient support had been offered. The Police being impolite, sexist, racist, or accusatory weighed with 14% of dissatisfied victims.

**Table 4.5 Victims' reasons for dissatisfaction with the Police response**

	Total	Violence and threats	Damage and other thefts	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts
	%	%	%	%
Didn't do enough / seemed uninterested etc	59	68	51	55
Failed to keep victim informed	31	38	23	29
Didn't respond or come quickly enough	25	23	19	28
Didn't catch offender / recover property	23	9	18	34
Didn't offer sufficient support	23	44	14	12
Were impolite / sexist / racist / accused me	14	34	4	5
Other / Don't know	27	28	34	25
<b>Sample base</b>	<b>567</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>307</b>

Notes:

Multiple responses possible.

Some reasons given have been grouped due to their similarity.

This analysis uses Typology 2 in Box 4.1.

The small numerical base makes it difficult to be conclusive about differences in reasons for dissatisfaction by type of offence. The only differences that reached statistical significance were that:

- victims of violence and threats more often cited lack of effort and interest and inappropriate Police behaviour (impoliteness etc.)
- victims of burglary and vehicle thefts were more concerned about the Police not catching an offender, or recovering property.

### Trends in reasons for dissatisfaction

Comparisons with the two previous surveys are difficult because of technical changes, but in broad terms, sources of dissatisfaction seem much the same over time.

### The effect of reporting on victims' views of the Police

The encounter with the Police when victims reported what happened to them generally made no difference to their views of the Police: 59% said it had not. Just under one-fifth (17%) reported feeling more favourable. Just over one-fifth (22%) felt less favourable after reporting (Table 4.6). The opinion of those who had reported burglary and vehicle thefts worsened more often than was the case with other victims.

**Table 4.6 Effect of reporting on victims' views of the Police**

	Total	Violence and threats	Damage and other thefts	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts
	%	%	%	%
No difference	59	62	65	56
View Police more favourably	17	17	18	16
View Police less favourably	22	22	14	26
Don't know	2	0	3	2
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>1105</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>304</b>	<b>644</b>

Notes:

This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

Percentages do not necessarily add because of rounding.

The question asked was: 'How did this contact affect the way you think about the Police? Did it make you look more favourably or less favourably on them, or did it make no difference to your view of the police at all?'

As would be expected, those whose views changed for the worse were among the least satisfied victims. Of those who were very dissatisfied overall with the Police response, 80% had a less favourable view after reporting. By the same token, the opinion of half of those who were very satisfied improved.

### Trends in the effect of reporting on victims' views of the Police

The picture was similar in the two previous surveys in that most encounters with the Police over a crime report do not change people's views. Rather more victims in the 2006 survey (23%) said they viewed the Police less favourably than in the 2001 survey (18%), although this did not quite reach statistical significance. Both the 2006 and 2001 survey figures are less favourable than those from the 1996 survey, when a lower 13% were more poorly disposed to the Police after reporting.

## ■ 4.7 Overview

The results here show an appreciable degree of non-reporting to the Police. However, the best indications are that the situation has not changed much since the 2001 survey. In other words, reporting has not gone down, or gone up.

### Reporting violent crime

A concern to many is that the number of violent offences recorded by the Police has risen since 2000, albeit largely driven by an increase in threats. One explanation that has been offered is that the Police may now be recording more incidents that are drawn to their attention (especially incidents committed by partners). Another explanation put forward is that there is more reporting to the Police, perhaps as a reflection of changes in levels of tolerance towards violent crime. The present results cannot address whether recording has increased, but they are pertinent to the possibility of increased reporting. On this score, the present results show no increase in the reporting of assaults between the 2001 and 2006 surveys. On the face of it, there were more threats reported to the Police in the current survey, consistent with lower tolerance levels. But the increase could reflect sampling error.

### Should reporting be encouraged?

Another issue that attracts attention is whether non-reporting should be considered a problem – i.e. is there less reporting than there should be? The conventional wisdom is that victims should be encouraged to report more. One argument for this is that offences that the Police know about become potentially more amenable to detection. A second argument is that victims should involve the Police so that they have better information about the types of crime that need dealing with. A third argument is that the Police are gatekeepers to other services that might benefit victims – crime prevention advice, for instance, or access to Victim Support.

Other factors need to be balanced against these arguments, however. The current results clearly show that very many crimes go unreported because they are not considered serious enough to trouble the Police about. Others go unreported because the victim judged (rightly or wrongly) that the Police would not have been bothered, or were too busy to attend to the matter. Moreover, when victims did report, they seemed often to be told or to get the impression that what they had reported was not going to be investigated anyway. (This applied to about one-fifth of victims on the best measure.) In sum, then, there is a case to be made that victims make sensible choices about many offences they do not bring to Police attention.

In all probability, too, victims of unreported property offences might not be far off the mark about the chance of catching an offender. If they could be encouraged to be selective in reporting crimes that might be cleared up, this would be ideal – though it is hard to see what this would entail.

For violent crimes committed by non-strangers, the issues are rather different. Many are regarded seriously by their victims, and the reasons for not bringing in the Police often centre on different considerations – for instance, it was felt to be a private matter, they did not want to get the person involved into trouble, and there could be a certain amount of embarrassment or shame in reporting. There are grounds for dealing with some of these inhibitors of reporting so that more offences are brought within the orbit of the Police so that they can take appropriate action. What action they can take, though, is not always straightforward given that victim co-operation is often lacking. Some incidents of violence may be better resolved without recourse to official action, despite the declaratory value of making it clear that they are 'Police business'.

For both property and violent crime, the worst outcome, obviously, is to stimulate demand for Police services by encouraging victims to report, with the only result being that the Police are faced with a large number of intractable cases and dissatisfied victims as a result.

### **Satisfaction with the Police on reporting**

Reporting a crime is one of the most frequent ways in which contact is made with the Police. The way in which the Police deal with victims inevitably shapes service demand and public confidence in them. New Zealand Police are themselves committed to the need for victims to feel confident that reports are dealt with in a timely and effective manner, that they are treated with respect, and that they are kept informed (New Zealand Police, 2005).

The 2006 NZCASS shows that many victims involved in a crime report had no complaint. On a general measure of satisfaction, over two-thirds were very satisfied or satisfied when they reported a crime to the Police, or were neutral. (The figure was much the same in the 2001 survey.) The interest the Police took in what they reported was also judged good enough by nearly two-thirds of victims. And seven out of ten victims felt the Police had been respectful to them. Seven out of ten had their calls attended to immediately or felt the time taken was reasonable – albeit this includes those who said the Police acted promptly at least in saying they would not investigate. Over half of victims felt they had been kept very well informed, or as well informed as they expected.

However, the 2006 NZCASS provides evidence that various groups are more dissatisfied than others. In broad brush (there are differences on different measures), these were victims of burglary, vehicle crime, violence and threats; women; younger people; non-Europeans; and those living in the most deprived areas.

The results here identify two main ways in which victims feel badly served by the Police. The first is that the Police failed to make enough effort. On one measure, rather more than a third of victims who reported felt the Police had not shown as much interest in what they had to say as they would have liked. On another – those dissatisfied with the Police response overall – six in ten said the reason was lack of effort and interest. The survey cannot say whether victims' assessments were justified. Nonetheless, the finding raises the issue of whether public expectations of the Police are unrealistic, and if so, how to deal with this. One obvious way forward is to explain operating procedures unequivocally and tell victims what to expect. Initiatives intended to manage demands on Police resources, such as graded response, will stand more chance of being accepted if they are clearly explained.

Feeling that the Police had not shown enough interest may often stem less from actions (or omissions) than from deemeanour. Incidents that victims experience as very upsetting may often for the Police be routine, mundane events about which they can do little. The more that victims sense this, the less satisfied they will be. The international evidence is that victims do not necessarily expect offenders to be 'brought to book' (e.g. Newburn and Merry, 1990; Hough and Roberts, 2004). Rather, they want sympathy, reassurance and due attention paid to the 'rituals of investigation', recognising that something untoward has occurred. The same result was evident in New Zealand from the evaluations of the Burglary Reduction Programme (Baker and Gray, 2005). The service victims received and the attitude of Police contributed more to their satisfaction than whether or not the crime was solved or their property recovered.

The second way in which victims feel badly served is that they do not feel they have enough feedback of information from the Police. Something approaching half of victims who reported their crimes to the Police (excluding those told there was no investigation going on) felt that they had not been kept well enough informed. This was also true for nearly a third of those who were dissatisfied with the Police response overall. The demand for better feedback of information also emerged in the New Zealand research on burglary victims (Baker and Gray, 2005), and is a persistent finding from crime surveys internationally. It is thus not singular to New Zealand. It is also somewhat at odds with the efforts that New Zealand Police are already making on this front.<sup>47</sup>

There are obstacles, of course, to giving victims the feedback they want. The Police may have no or little information to report back in the prompt manner that a victim is hoping for. Sometimes, information will be held not by Police at all, but by another body, the Courts for instance. Nonetheless, good procedures for relaying information (or the lack of it) back to victims seem essential. If feedback is already being given to a large proportion of victims, it may be that procedures for doing this could be improved.

A summary of the results in this chapter are in the Executive summary.

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<sup>47</sup> The New Zealand Police Annual report for 2006 says that 81% of those who have reported offences are advised of results or an update of investigation within 21 days of reporting (New Zealand Police, 2006, p. 50).

## 5 Confidence in the Criminal Justice System

Attitudes to the Police have attracted a large amount of research attention internationally. This is not surprising given the fact that the public is more likely to encounter them than other criminal justice agencies, and that public acceptance of Police legitimacy is crucial to good law enforcement. Comparatively less is known about attitudes towards others who play a part in the criminal justice system, although Paulin et al.'s (2003) study is an exception in New Zealand. This was carried out in autumn 1999 with a random sample of 1,500 New Zealanders aged 18 or more. The questions from it were repeated in the 2006 NZCASS.<sup>48</sup>

Respondents in the 2006 NZCASS were asked whether the Police, juries, judges, criminal lawyers, probation officers, and the Prison Service were doing an excellent, good, fair, poor or very poor job. 'Don't know' was not provided as an option, but nonetheless a sizeable minority said they had no opinion about the performance of some of the groups. Thus, 26% said they did not know about probation officers, 20% said the same about criminal lawyers, 17% about the Prison Service, and 13% about juries.<sup>49</sup> In contrast, only 1% did not have an opinion about the Police. Paulin et al. also found that some people did not feel in a position to offer an opinion, although there were fewer of them than in the current survey.<sup>50</sup> There is no obvious reason for the difference. The NZCASS results reported here will exclude 'don't knows', as Paulin et al. did.

It is not altogether surprising that many members of the public are unprepared to make a judgement about how well some criminal justice agencies perform. A survey in Britain found that only around a third reported knowing 'a great deal' or 'a fair amount' about prisons, with even fewer saying this in relation to probation officers. In the region of a third said they knew 'hardly anything' about prisons or probation officers. In contrast, reported knowledge of the Police was high (MORI, 2003).

### ■ 5.1 Ratings of different criminal justice groups

According to the 2006 NZCASS, the Police were most often thought to be doing an excellent or good job: six in ten respondents thought so (Figure 5.1). Overseas surveys also typically find that the public scores the performance of the Police better than that of other criminal justice groups. Juries were also thought to be doing an excellent or good job, with ratings only fractionally behind the Police. Slightly less than half of those surveyed (47%) thought the same about judges, while ratings for criminal lawyers (44%), probation officers (41%), and the Prison Service (40%) were lowest. At the other end of the scale, 13% thought the Police were doing a poor or very poor job, with this rising to 21% for the Prison Service.

<sup>48</sup> The 1999 survey also asked about community groups who provide services for victims, such as Women's Refuge, Rape Crisis and Victim Support. Public opinion of these was high, with 80% of people thinking they did an excellent or good job.

<sup>49</sup> Women were less certain what they felt, as were older people. Asians were reluctant to offer an opinion much more often than others. Māori did not differ from Europeans. Those in higher occupational status groups less often said they did not know, although an exception was for the probation service.

<sup>50</sup> For instance, 14% in the 1999 survey said 'don't know' as regards probation officers, 7% said 'don't know' about criminal lawyers, and 7% said this about the Prison Service.

**Figure 5.1 Ratings of different criminal justice groups**

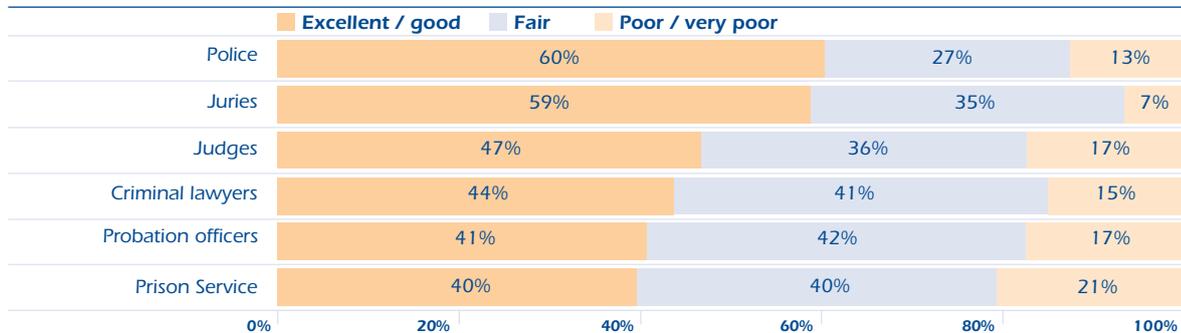


Table 5.1 shows the distribution of responses in more detail. The Police most often attracted an 'excellent' response (15%). While only 8% of respondents said that juries were doing an excellent job, half said they were doing a good job.

**Table 5.1 Ratings of different criminal justice groups**

	Excellent %	Good %	Fair %	Poor %	Very poor %
Police	15	45	27	9	4
Juries	8	51	35	5	2
Judges	7	40	36	13	5
Criminal lawyers	5	38	41	10	5
Probation officers	4	37	42	13	4
Prison Service	5	35	40	15	6

Note:

'Don't knows' are excluded from the base. They were: Police (1%), juries (13%), judges (9%), criminal lawyers (20%), probation officers (26%), and the Prison Service (17%).

## ■ 5.2 How different people responded

Different groups varied in how they rated the performance of different criminal justice groups. Attention is placed below on those who had most favourable attitudes to each group. (Table C14 in Appendix C provides more details, including those who rated performance poorly.)

### Police

Survey respondents who said the Police were doing an excellent or good job were more likely to be:

- ■ women
- ■ older
- ■ European
- ■ in the highest NZSEI group (70-90); however, those in the lowest two of the six bands (10-39) more often gave the Police an 'excellent' rating than others
- ■ living outside the most deprived NZDep areas.

### Juries

Those who said juries were doing an excellent or good job were more likely to be:

- ■ European
- ■ 40 or older
- ■ in the highest NZSEI group (70-90)
- ■ living outside the most deprived NZDep areas.

### Judges

Those who rated judges most highly were more likely to be:

- ■ Asian or Pacific peoples
- ■ younger (aged 15-24)
- ■ in the highest NZSEI group (70-90).

### Criminal lawyers

People who said criminal lawyers were doing an excellent or good job were more likely to be:

- ■ women
- ■ younger (aged 15-24)
- ■ Pacific peoples or Asian
- ■ In the highest NZSEI group (70-90).

### Probation officers

Those who said probation officers were doing an excellent or good job were more likely to be:

- younger (aged 15-24)
- non-European, especially Pacific peoples
- in the lowest two NZSEI groups (10-39)
- in the most deprived NZDep areas, where conceivably contact with the probation service is higher.

### Prison Service

Those who said the Prison Service was doing an excellent or good job were more likely to be:

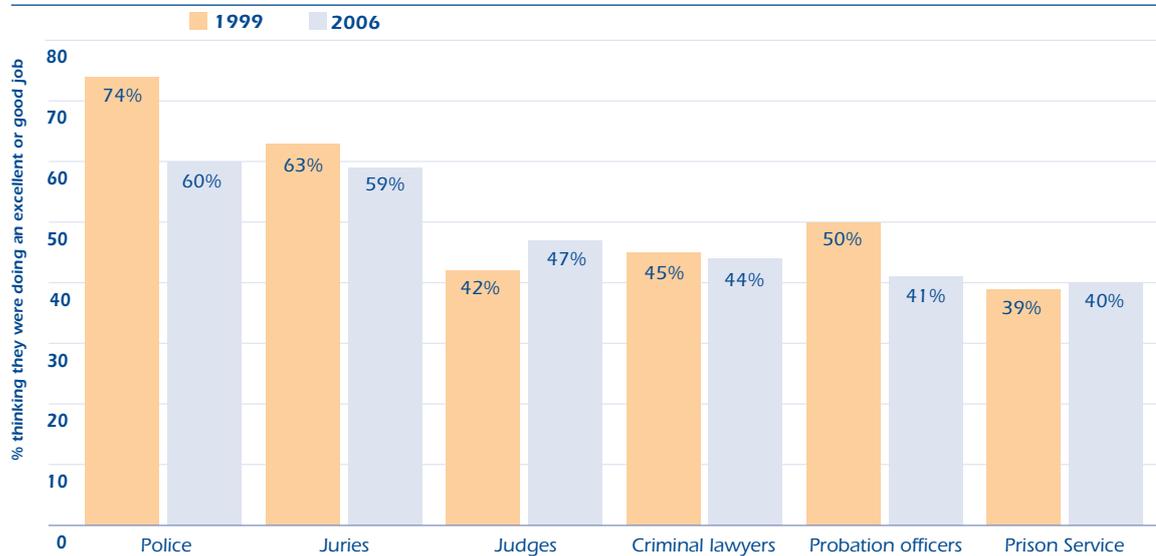
- men
- younger (aged 15-24), especially young men
- of an ethnic group other than European, with Pacific peoples most favourable
- in an NZSEI group other than the highest (70-90)
- in the most deprived NZDep areas, as was the case with probation officers.

## ■ 5.3 Comparisons with the 1999 survey

Comparisons with the results from the 1999 survey show a mixed picture. Figure 5.2 shows the results. There is more detail in Table C15 in Appendix C.

- Police – Far fewer in 2006 (60%) rated the Police as doing an excellent or good job than in 1999 (74%). In addition, the proportion who felt they were performing poorly increased.
- Juries – There was less change with regard to juries, although more thought them to be performing poorly in 2006.
- Judges – Attitudes had improved here, with more thinking judges were doing well in 2006, and fewer believing them to be doing poorly.
- Criminal lawyers – Attitudes were stable here.
- Probation officers – As was the case with the Police, fewer people in 2006 rated probation officers as doing an excellent or good job than in 1999, and the proportion who felt they were performing poorly also increased.
- Prison Service – Attitudes were stable here.

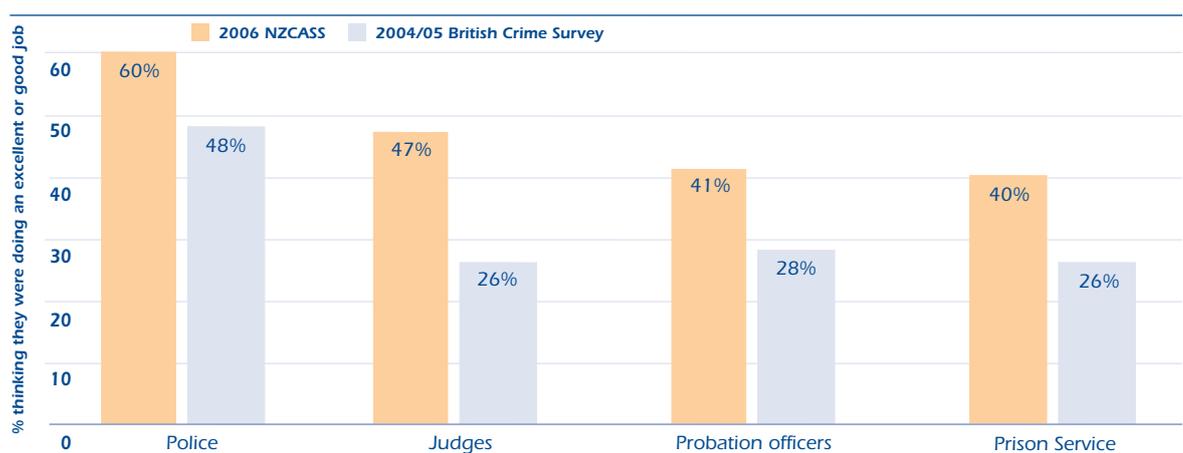
As regards the attitudes of different groups, the present results largely mirror those of Paulin et al. (2003). One exception was that the 1999 survey found older people to be more favourably disposed to the Prison Service, whereas in the present results younger people were. Another difference was with regard to juries. The 1999 survey found those at lower socio-economic levels rated juries higher, whereas the reverse was the case in 2006.

**Figure 5.2 Ratings of different criminal justice groups: 1999 and 2006**

#### ■ 5.4 Comparison with Britain

Over a number of years, the BCS has asked the public to rate the performance of the Police, Prison Service, Crown Prosecution Service, probation service, and judges.<sup>51</sup> The BCS question is the same as that posed in the 2006 NZCASS.

Figure 5.3 provides a comparison of the 2006 NZCASS findings with those from the 2004/05 BCS (Allen et al., 2006). New Zealanders rated each of four criminal justice groups more highly.

**Figure 5.3 Ratings of different criminal justice groups: New Zealand and England and Wales**

<sup>51</sup> The BCS does not ask about juries, but includes magistrates' court, youth courts and the Crown Prosecution Service. The last is somewhat similar to criminal lawyers, but not sufficiently so to make comparisons reliable. The BCS says the 'probation service' as opposed to 'probation officers', but this should make little difference. The BCS results have shown generally declining levels of confidence in criminal justice professionals since the mid-1990s. Surveys in other countries ask similar questions, but with different wording – for instance, 'How much confidence do you have in the Police – a great deal, a fair amount...?' This makes exact comparisons difficult.

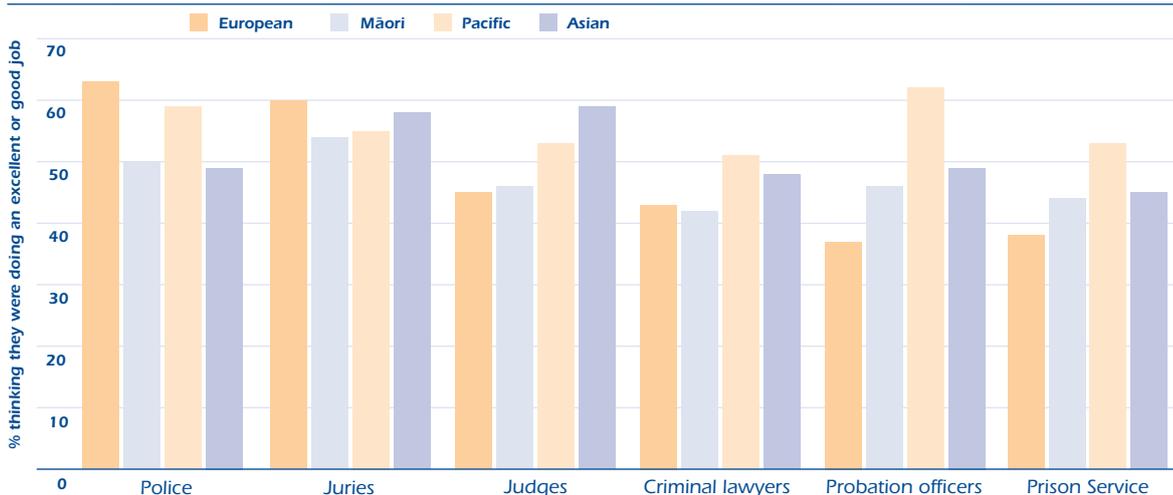
## 5.5 The influence of ethnicity

The opinions of ethnic groups are of special interest. Nationwide surveys for New Zealand Police have shown satisfaction with the service the Police provide to be below average for Māori (MRL Research Group, 1995; MM Research, 2002). More in-depth research has also shown that Māori have a strong distrust of the Police and feel that the Police have anti-Māori attitudes and practices (James, 2000).

The current results are shown in Figure 5.4. The Police were again rated less well by Māori, and also by Asians. Juries got the highest rating from Europeans; the views of other ethnic groups were on a par. Judges and lawyers got the highest endorsement from Asians and Pacific peoples. Probation officers were judged least favourably by Europeans and most favourably by Pacific peoples. The same picture held for the Prison Service.

Higher ratings by minority groups for criminal justice groups are also evident in Britain, but there it includes the Police (Allen et al., 2006).

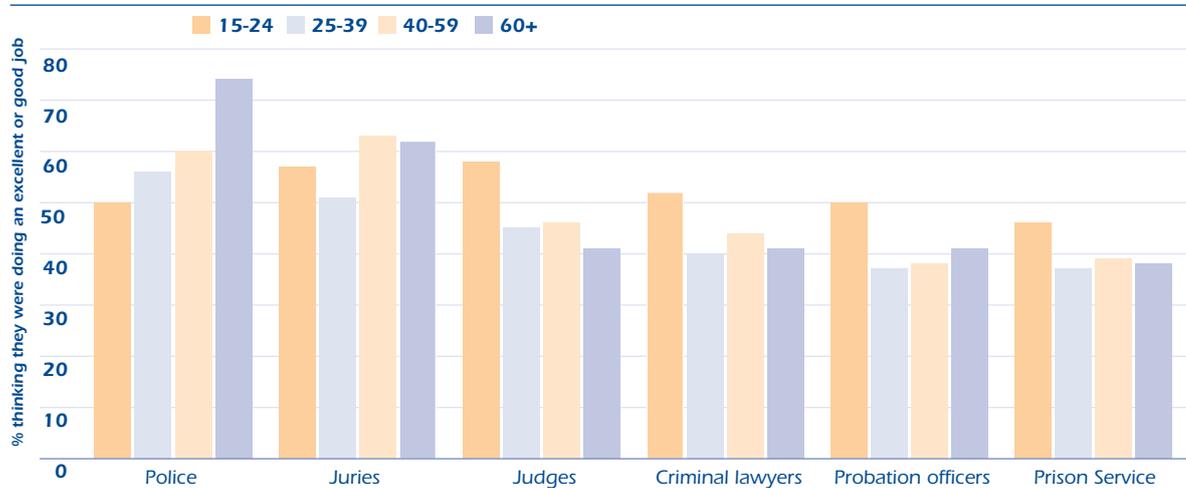
**Figure 5.4 Ratings of different criminal justice groups, by ethnicity**



## 5.6 The influence of age

The pattern across age was not consistent (Figure 5.5). Older people judged the performance of the Police to be a good deal better than other age groups, a consistent finding in international research. Along with those in their 40s and 50s, more of those aged 60 or more also felt juries performed well.

Young people gave the worst ratings for the Police. The 1995 MRL survey conducted for New Zealand Police also showed them less satisfied, and this is a consistent finding in a number of other countries. However, young people gave ratings that were the most favourable for judges, lawyers, probation officers and the Prison Service. This again is a robust finding internationally (see Allen et al. (2006) for Britain).

**Figure 5.5 Ratings of different criminal justice groups, by age**

## 5.7 The influence of knowledge

The proportion of respondents who did not want to offer an opinion about the performance of particular criminal justice groups (i.e. said 'don't know') probably stands as a good indicator of how knowledgeable those who do answer the questions actually are. A clear lesson from research in other countries is that when knowledge of criminal justice system agencies is poor, there is less confidence in them – and vice versa (Hough and Roberts, 2004). There is concordance with this in the present results. Thus, knowledge of the Police, for instance, was high (only 1% said they did not have an opinion), and the Police were rated most favourably. Many people, though, would not offer an opinion about lawyers, probation officers, and the Prison Service, and they got a comparatively poor rating from those who did offer an opinion. If respondents' knowledge of these groups is in fact scant, this would be consistent with lower confidence in lawyers, probation officers, and the Prison Service.

One obvious policy implication is that increasing public levels of knowledge about the criminal justice system should improve confidence in the administration of justice. Hough and Roberts (2004) review initiatives taken in many other countries, and offer their own suggestions for responding to the problem of low public confidence. Salisbury (2004) also reports on an initiative with the British public. She found that providing information (whether in a booklet, a video or a seminar) increased both levels of knowledge and confidence. The results suggested that increased confidence might have resulted from the act of being given information, rather than increased knowledge alone.

A summary of the results in this chapter is in the Executive summary.

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# Appendix A

## Survey design and methods

The 2006 New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey was conducted for the Ministry of Justice by a consortium comprising the Crime and Justice Research Centre (Victoria University), ACNielsen (who undertook the fieldwork), James Reilly (Statistical Insights), and two Māori consultants, Laurie Porima and Nan Wehipeihana (of LLE Research). The two previous surveys were conducted in 1996 and 2001. They were called the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims (NZNSCV). ACNielsen carried out both in conjunction with the Institute of Criminology (Victoria University). This Appendix summarises the main features of the design and methods used in the 2006 NZCASS. There is more detail in the Technical Report.<sup>52</sup>

### Sample design

The sample was designed to give, after appropriate weighting, a representative cross-section of both private households in New Zealand, and individuals aged 15 and over usually resident in them. Table C1 in Appendix C shows the sample size for respondents in different groups. Some categories are combined so that the sample size in any one group sustains reasonable analysis.

To maximise comparability, the sample design was based on that used in the 2001 NZNSCV. The design of the 2001 survey was informed by two reviews of the 1996 survey, one by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2000), the other by Williams and McKenzie (2000).

The 2006 NZCASS used stratified sampling, multi-stage sampling, and clustered sampling. All are commonly used to cope with the difficulties of achieving a pure probability (or random) sample.

### Stratified sampling

The stratification system split the country into both geographical regions and levels of urban/rural density (based on Statistics New Zealand definitions). They were combined to produce a region-by-level-of-urbanisation grid with a sample size in each cell of the grid directly proportional to each cell's share of the total number of occupied dwellings.

### Multi-stage sampling

Multi-stage sampling underpinned the process that interviewers used in recruiting a representative sample. It was necessary as there is no comprehensive list of New Zealanders from which to select a simple random sample. The ACNielsen procedure had three stages:

1. selecting area units within stratification grid cells (strata)
2. selecting streets and dwellings within area units
3. selecting respondents within dwellings.

<sup>52</sup> The Technical Report can be found at <http://www.justice.govt.nz/pubs/reports/2007/crime-safety-survey-2006/technical-report/index.html>

### **Clustered sampling**

Clustered sampling meant that a number of dwellings were approached in a systematic way from a single 'start point' – e.g. a numbered house on a named street. Clustering made better use of interviewers' travel time and mileage.<sup>53</sup> A fixed number of occupied dwellings were approached in each cluster.

The number of designated dwellings per cluster was determined by the anticipated response rate and the need to spread the sample as geographically widely as possible while retaining the efficiencies of cluster sampling. For the main sample size, nine addresses were called on in each cluster, to provide an expected number of five completed interviews per cluster. For the Māori booster sample, interviewers called on 40 addresses per cluster, to give the same expected number of completed interviews per cluster. The larger number of households was needed for the booster sample because many households would be ethnically ineligible.

A dwelling interval was used so that in urban areas every fourth dwelling was selected.<sup>54</sup> In rural areas, every dwelling was selected. In the Māori booster sample, every second dwelling was approached. (A larger dwelling interval was not needed because the majority of dwellings would be ethnically ineligible.)

### **The sampling frame for the main sample**

ACNielsen used its own sampling frame for 'area units' – the Nielsen Area Unit (NAU).<sup>55</sup> Each NAU was selected with a probability proportional to the estimated number of dwellings in that area. This was estimated based on 2001 Census information.

### **The Māori booster sample**

The Māori booster sample needed separate sampling methods because the proportion of Māori in the population is relatively small, and they are not dispersed homogeneously throughout New Zealand. The sampling frame was again stratified by region and urbanisation. Those area units with a low density of Māori households were deleted, amounting to 3% of NAUs but less than 1% of all Māori households. Area units were then selected with a probability proportional to the estimated number of Māori households they contained. (Māori households were defined as those containing at least one self-identified Māori person.)

A 'screener' approach was used for the Māori booster sample. It involved contacting households in the Māori booster sample areas to identify those that contained Māori aged 15 years of age or over. If the household met this criterion, the interviewer attempted to conduct an interview with a randomly selected eligible Māori person in the household.<sup>56</sup> Otherwise, the household was counted as ineligible.

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<sup>53</sup> In 1996, an alternative 'cluster approach' was used to achieve a fixed number of interviews. This was criticised in the ABS methodological review as replacement households might differ from households that refused an interview. The 'fixed number of addresses' approach means that an indeterminate number of interviews are achieved in each cluster, but gives the possibility of a better overall response rate.

<sup>54</sup> This reduces the potential 'word of mouth' effect from interviewing at adjacent addresses, which was done in 1996 and criticised in the ABS review.

<sup>55</sup> This is based on Area Units defined by Statistics New Zealand but adapted to better suit ACNielsen's need to conduct several different surveys at any one time, each of which uses a large number of areas. 'Nielsen Area Units' have an average population of around 700 living in approximately 230 dwellings.

<sup>56</sup> The wording of the question was, 'Is there anyone usually living here aged 15 years or older who might consider themselves Māori? That is, if asked which ethnic group or groups they belong to, they would include Māori.'

### The interview

Respondents were questioned at home by interviewers using CAPI. With CAPI, the interviewer enters responses into a laptop computer. The questionnaire is a computer programme that specifies the questions, the range and structure of permissible answers, and the routing instructions. (CAPI was introduced in the 2001 survey. In 1996, interviewers used a 'hard copy' paper questionnaire).

One respondent aged 15 years or more was interviewed in each household using random selection procedures. No substitution of respondents was allowed. Further details on the selection of respondents are in the 2006 NZCASS Technical Report.

### The questionnaire

The starting point for the 2006 questionnaire was that used in the 2001 survey, although various changes were made. The structure of the questionnaire is shown in Box A1.

#### Box A1 Main topics covered in the 2006 NZCASS

<b>1. Main questionnaire</b> Attitudes to local crime and incivilities Concern about crime Confidence in the Criminal Justice System Neighbourhood Support ** Victimisation 'screener' questions	<b>4. Demographic questionnaire</b> Age Household type Ethnicity Tenure Employment status Marital status
<b>2. Victim Form</b> Details of victimisation incident Reporting to the Police Aspects of the Police response Access to victim services ** Costs of crime**	<b>5. Self-Completion I – Offences by partners</b> Assault Threats Vandalism to personal property Threats of vandalism to personal property Psychological Abuse**
<b>3. Experience of E-crime **</b>	<b>6. Self-Completion II – Offences by people well-known</b> Coverage as in Self-Completion I
	<b>7. Self-Completion III – Sexual victimisation</b> Rape Attempted rape Distressing sexual touching Other sexual violence or threats

\*\* These were new questions. No results are reported on them here, but they will be analysed in due course.

## The victimisation screener questions

The victimisation screener questions were situated in the second half of the Main questionnaire. Their purpose was to establish whether incidents likely to be within the scope of the survey had occurred since 1 January 2005. The 'screening' questions were couched in everyday language rather than using legal terms. For example, respondents were asked: 'Thinking back to the beginning of 2005, has anyone succeeded in getting into your home without permission? This includes holiday homes, caravans, boats, garages and other buildings on your property.'

Respondents were asked about their own experience and that of others in their household for **household crimes** (e.g. burglary) and about their own personal experience for **personal crimes** (e.g. assaults). This distinction is because for some crimes the household is a natural unit of analysis, whereas for others the individual is a better choice.

The wording of screener questions tries to ensure that an incident is mentioned only once, even though it might have two or more aspects (for instance, property loss and property vandalism). What is said at the screener question plays some part in classifying what type of offence occurred, but the main information for this purpose comes from the weighting from Victim Form data (see Weighting below).

## The Victim Forms

Details of up to three separate offences reported at the screener questions were collected in Victim Forms. Where a respondent reported more than three incidents, they were selected for Victim Form completion based on three priority levels. This was broadly to ensure that less frequent offences were asked about more often. This improved accuracy of results. The differential probability of selection was taken into account in the weighting (see Weighting, below). The Technical Report has further details.<sup>57</sup>

Although most Victim Forms corresponded to one incident, some victims experience a number of very similar offences. These are called series incidents – i.e. they were similar in type, were done under the same circumstances and were probably committed by the same person(s). Where an incident was identified as a 'series' at the beginning of the Victim Form, respondents were allowed the option of not proceeding, in order to avoid repetitive questioning. The offence classification used was that which related to the previous incident described by the respondent.

## Self-Completion components

All respondents were asked to complete the three Self-Completion components. Interviewers gave the laptop to the respondents to key in their responses directly (a procedure called CASI). CASI was used because the topics asked about were of a sensitive nature, and the more confidential nature of CASI can improve the information respondents will give. It also reduces the chance that they miss answering questions.

## Fieldwork

Fieldwork took place between 9 February and 25 June 2006, with 77 interviewers working on the survey. Of these, 20 identified as Māori, and they worked mainly in the Māori booster sample areas.

Fieldwork took place in four fairly equal time blocks so that response rates could be calculated as data collection progressed.

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<sup>57</sup> In 2001, the Victim Form selection distinguished between only low and high priorities.

Interviewers made an initial trip to the nine homes to be contacted in each cluster in the main sample to drop a Ministry of Justice pre-notification card in the mailbox. They then made up to three interviewing trips to each area. This meant a minimum of three knocks on every door although, because dwellings could be approached more than once on each trip, there was effectively the opportunity for up to six door knocks (two per trip), or perhaps even more.

Households in the booster sample areas did not receive pre-notification cards in advance (due to the unknown eligibility of households), but got them when the interviewer made personal contact at the door. Four interviewing trips were made to Māori booster areas.

### Response rate

The response rate in the main sample was 59%; that for the Māori booster sample was 56%. The respective figures in the 2001 survey were 65% and 57% and in the 1996 survey 56% and 66%.

Table A1 shows an analysis of response rates. Of the issued sample of 7,614 addresses in the main sample, 392 were unoccupied, and for 590 there was no contact made. This gave a contact rate of 92%. Of those households contacted, the main reasons for non-response were unavailability during the survey period (11%) or refusal - either by the selected person (11%) or by the household before a respondent could be selected (10%).

**Table A1 Analysis of response rates**

		Main sample	Māori booster sample
A	Total dwellings approached	7,614	13,137
B	Unoccupied dwellings	392	382
C	Total occupied dwellings approached (= A - B = D + E)	7,222	12,755
D	Contacted dwellings (= D1 + D2 + D3 for booster sample)	6,632	12,147
D1	Known eligible contacted dwellings (i.e. with one or more Maori adults) (= J + K + L + M + N)		1,947
D2	Known ineligible contacted dwellings		9,788
D3	Dwellings with unknown eligibility (= H + I)		412
D4	Estimated eligible contacted dwellings (= D * D1 / (D1 + D2) )		2,015
E	Non-contact (dwellings where no contact made after call regime completed)	590	608
E1	Estimated eligible non-contact dwellings (= E * D1 / (D1 + D2))		101
F	Estimated eligible occupied dwellings (= D4 + E1)		2,116
<b>G</b>	<b>Contact rate (= D / C for main sample, = D4 / F for booster sample)</b>	<b>92%</b>	<b>95%</b>
H	Unapproachable house	65	158
I	Household refusal	685	254
J	Respondent not interviewable	174	40
K	Respondent refusal	756	346
L	Respondent unavailable throughout survey period	708	367
M	Interview not completed	15	7
N	Successful interview	4,229	1,187
<b>O</b>	<b>Conversion rate (= N / D for main sample, =N / D4 for booster sample)</b>	<b>64%</b>	<b>59%</b>
<b>P</b>	<b>Response rate (=N / C for main sample, = N /F for booster sample)</b>	<b>59%</b>	<b>56%</b>

#### Notes:

Based on a corrected response rate. The corrected figure for the Māori booster sample incorporates an estimate of the proportion of ineligible dwellings (i.e. those with no resident Māori person aged 15+) among those dwellings at which no contact was made after the call regime had been completed, or where the household's eligibility might otherwise have not been established. The corrected figure is thus an estimate, but is a better estimate of the actual response rate than the raw figure (i.e. the figure obtained by simply dividing the number of complete interviews by the total number of occupied dwellings approached).

Respondents who only refused to complete the self-completion section were counted as complete interviews.

While the response rate was somewhat disappointing, there were nonetheless a number of initiatives adopted to encourage participation in the survey.

- A Ministry of Justice pre-notification card was dropped into the mailbox of all the nine homes to be contacted in each cluster in the main sample. Households in the booster sample areas did not receive pre-notification cards in advance (due to the unknown eligibility of households), but got them when the interviewer made personal contact at the door.
- Households contacted were given a letter signed by the Director of Client Services from ACNielson with details about the survey.
- New promotional material for the interviewers and respondents was designed to give the NZCASS an attractive 'brand'.
- Promotional activity took place in newspapers, on websites, and on the radio to increase awareness of the survey and provide evidence of authenticity.
- Interviewers with low response rates were identified, re-trained and monitored.
- A prize draw for interviewers who achieved excellent response rates took place each quarter.
- Respondents were offered the chance to receive a summary of the results of the survey.
- Considerable effort was made to recruit Māori interviewers to work in the Māori booster sample areas.

The final sample of 5,416 was reasonably close to the 5,600 originally expected.<sup>58</sup> There were more Māori in the main sample than expected, whereas fewer interviews were obtained with the Māori booster sample (1,187) than hoped for (1,600). In all, 1,698 Māori interviews were completed, combining those from the main sample with the booster sample.

### **Response to the Self-Completion components**

Of those who completed the interviewer administered component of the survey, 6.4% refused to complete the Self-Completion component.<sup>59</sup> This compares with around 4% in the 2001 survey. Refusals were disproportionately from older respondents (11% for those aged 60 years or older compared with 5% for those aged 15-59). The greater interview length in the 2006 survey before the Self-Completion components started, compared with 2001, may have been a factor in the higher refusal rate. Another may have been the stronger emphasis put on the consent process at the beginning of the survey, informing respondents they could stop the interview at any time.

<sup>58</sup> There were rather more interviews completed (5,476), but a few were deleted from the dataset due to irregularities in procedure, incomplete data etc.

<sup>59</sup> By way of comparison, 5% of people in the 2004/05 BCS refused similar Self-Completion components. The New Zealand rate therefore is not unusual, especially as the BCS only requested Self-Completion from those under 60 years (Grant, Harvey, Bolling, & Clemens, 2006: 53).

## Interview length

The average interview length was 52 minutes, five minutes longer than in 2001. There was a wide variation, ranging from less than 30 minutes for some interviews to more than 70 minutes for others. A quarter of the interviews took longer than an hour. Interview length is derived from questionnaire length (recorded on the laptop), plus ten minutes added as the average time for getting settled and disengaging with the respondent at the close of the interview.<sup>60</sup>

The average questionnaire length was 34 minutes for non-victims and 53 minutes for victims, as would be expected. Table A2 shows details.

**Table A2 Interview and questionnaire length**

Interview length	% of interviews		Questionnaire length (minutes)
Up to 30 minutes	4	No Victim Forms	34
30-39 minutes	23	One Victim Form	46
40-49 minutes	27	Two Victim Forms	56
50-59 minutes	20	Three Victim Forms	65
60-69 minutes	11	Mean for one or more	
70 minutes or more	16	Victim Forms	53
Median	48 minutes	Overall questionnaire	
Mode	43 minutes	mean	42
Mean	52 minutes		

## Weighting

Data were weighted in a number of ways to produce better estimates. The main weights were:

- **The household weight** – This took account of each household’s probability of selection, taking the Māori booster into account. A non-response adjustment was made to account for differential non-response by region and urbanisation, and whether the household was selected from the main sample or the Māori booster. Other variables were considered, including area deprivation levels, local Police-recorded crime rate, and interviewer’s experience and ethnicity, but these did not have a major effect and were not used. The weights were then post-stratified by urbanisation.
- **The individual weight** – This corrected for the under-representation of people living in larger households. (The chance of being selected for interview is inversely related to the number of people in the household aged over 14 years.) The weights were ranked by combinations of age, gender, and ethnicity instead of urbanisation.
- **The incident weight** – This was for Victim Form analysis. It was derived by dividing individual weights by the probability of the current victimisation incident being selected.

<sup>60</sup> The 5,274 cases used to calculate interview length is less than the total number of interviews because some interviews (those where one section of the questionnaire was recorded as taking 60 minutes or longer) were excluded. This most likely occurred because of a clear break in interviewing, such as finishing the interview on a different day. Thus, the average interview length is probably a little understated since a break is more likely to have been taken in unusually long interviews.

Analyses based on households in the report used the household weight. Those based on persons used the individual weight. Victim Form analysis used the incident weight. Full details of this sampling and weighting scheme are in the Technical Report, along with typical design effects. Weighting, imputation and analysis were conducted in R (R Development Core Team, 2006), including the survey and mitools packages (Lumley, 2004, 2006), with some further analysis conducted using CPro (U.S. Census Bureau, Macro International, & Serpro, 2006).

### Changes to the surveys over time

There were changes made between the 1996 and 2001 surveys, and further changes between 2001 and 2006. Some of the changes were the result of a natural process of survey development. Changes made between 1996 and 2001 affected comparisons between those surveys. Changes to the 2006 survey will affect comparisons with both previous surveys. Leaving aside questionnaire content changes (which reflect shifts in criminal justice policy interests), some of the main changes are itemised below. We start with some general changes, and then follow with ones that are particularly pertinent to the 2006 survey.

#### General changes

- **Booster samples** – The 2001 survey had two ‘booster’ samples: Māori and Pacific. In 2006, there was only a Māori booster sample. There were no booster samples in 1996. The significance of this is that the 2001 and 2006 surveys offer better estimates of victimisation among Māori than in 1996. The 2001 survey offers the best estimates for Pacific peoples.
- **Interview mode** – CAPI and CASI were used in the 2001 and 2006 surveys instead of the hard copy ‘paper and pencil’ questionnaires used in 1996. In particular, CAPI reduced the amount of missing information. CASI is likely to have improved information on sexual offences and those committed by partners and people well known to the victim. Comparisons on this front with the 1996 survey are therefore problematic.
- **Number of Victim Forms completed** – The number of Victim Forms to be completed changed from four in 1996, to three in 2001 and 2006 – to keep response burden within bounds. The effect of this is difficult to judge.
- **Selection of incidents for Victim Form completion** – In 1996, incidents reported at the screener questions that went onto a Victim Form were not randomly selected, but followed a ranking of the screener questions. A randomised selection process was introduced in 2001 to provide a better basis for unbiased survey estimates, with further minor changes in 2006.
- **Other questionnaire changes** – Some coding frames available to interviewers and respondents in the Self-Completion sections were changed in 2001 in the light of results from 1996, and the same happened in 2006. These changes usually make little difference, although occasionally they might make exact comparisons difficult.

#### Important changes to the 2006 survey

- **Changes in the ‘recall period’** – Perhaps the most important change in the 2006 NZCASS was that people were interviewed in the first half of the year, whereas in the two previous rounds they were interviewed in the second half. As the key count of crime is what happened in the previous calendar year (2005 in the case of the current survey), respondents are likely to have remembered this better than in the 2001 and 1996 surveys (see Chapter 1).

- **Imputation** – The methods for imputing missing information have changed over all three surveys, but there were particular changes between the 2001 and 2006 surveys. These were partly to improve accuracy, and were partly necessitated by questionnaire changes. (Imputation is covered in more detail below).
- **Screener question on household vandalism** – A new screener question was added on household vandalism. In 2001, there was one screener on vehicle vandalism (retained in 2006) and a screener on vandalism to personal property (retained). The latter would no doubt have elicited some offences of vandalism to household property, but the new 2006 screener will have definitely elicited more. In 1996, there was only one vandalism screener question. The screener questions in the Main questionnaire and in the Self-Completion components concerning vandalism, assaults and threats are shown in Table A3.
- **Screener questions on assaults, threats and property vandalism** – Changes were made to the screener questions in the Main questionnaire and the first two Self-Completion components to bring those two sections of the questionnaire more into line with one another. The changes were:
  - First, the first and second Self-Completion components in the 2001 questionnaire included a screener question on the use of a weapon, or the threat of the use of a weapon. The question was omitted in 2006, since it was not replicated in the main screeners.
  - Second, another 2001 Self-Completion screener question merged deliberate vandalism to personal property with the threat of such. This item was split into two questions in the 2006 survey, and they were also asked in the main screeners.
  - Third, the wording of the screener questions for assaults and threats was changed in 2006 to improve consistency across questionnaire sections.
  - Finally, the words ‘Apart from’ were added to all the Self-Completion screeners (except for the first screener in each section). This will have the effect of ruling out some offences which in the 2001 survey might have been counted twice.
- **Self-Completion components** – There have been changes to the Self-Completion components across all three sweeps of the survey, with the questions on sexual victimisation differing in particular. One important change between the 2001 and 2006 surveys was that the definition of ‘partner’ was broadened to include same-sex partners and multiple partners in the first Self-Completion component (see Chapter 2).
- **Classifying offences** – Changes were made to how incidents reported to interviewers were classified into offence categories. (See Classifying offences.)

The changes to the 2006 survey relative to 2001 are particularly important. Their overall effect is summarised after discussion of the classification of offences, imputation, and other technical issues.

### Classifying offences

Classification of offences is based on the responses in the Victim Forms and Self-Completion components, including a short description in the respondent’s own words. Classification also draws to some extent on which screener question was answered affirmatively.

The classification of offences was a separate exercise done after the end of fieldwork. In essence, incidents needed to meet legal definitions of criminal behaviour. The coding principles were agreed with New Zealand Police. A document about them is available from the Ministry of Justice on request.

There were two main changes made to the coding exercise for the 2006 survey compared to the two previous ones. These were:

- **Greater reliance on information from the Victim Form** – In 1996 and 2001, the offence code decision was based principally on which screener question the offence came from and the offence description given by the victim in the Victim Form. In 2006, a substantial amount of other data from the Victim Form itself was inspected. The number of offences that could not be coded in 2006 was smaller than in the two previous surveys, where many incidents were not coded because of doubts about their ‘relevance’ (see Not relevant incidents) or which offence code they should attract. In 2001, 22% of incidents for which a Victim Form was completed were not coded, because either they were ‘out of scope’ or an offence code could not be allocated.<sup>61</sup> In 2006, the figure was 15%. The most marked effect was in relation to incidents from the Self-Completions. In the 2001 survey, just over 30% of incidents from the first and second Self-Completion components were not coded. In 2006, it was a lower 7%.
- **Double offence codes** – In New Zealand, an incident of crime can give rise to more than one offence being coded by Police if two dissimilar or unrelated offences occur at the same time. There was discussion with New Zealand Police on the issue of double coding at the start of the coding exercise. The result of this was that more crime incidents from the 2006 survey were given two offence codes (6%) than in 2001 (1%). However, most of the double codes related to a ‘new burglary’ in combination with bicycle theft or thefts of and from vehicles. If this group is excluded, then the 2006 ‘double code’ proportion also drops to 1%. Risk estimates in Chapters 2 and 3 take account of the double codes, with the exception of offences that were combinations of burglary with bicycle theft or vehicle offences, which were treated as burglaries only. In this respect, then, there is little difference from 2001.

In order to make better comparisons between the results from the 2006 and 2001 surveys, two approaches were taken with respect to coding 2006 offences (as explained in Chapter 2). As would be expected, using the limited amount of information used in 2001 coding procedures meant that 22% of 2006 incidents were deemed ‘out of scope’ when 2001 procedures were followed. The comparison in Chapter 2 of rates of victimisation in 2005 compared to 2000 (from the 2001 survey) draws on the ‘2001-like’ coding approach.

### **Imputation and other technical issues**

Because not all incidents that respondents may mention at the screener questions are followed up, some additional information is needed to calculate the overall incidence and prevalence rates. Imputation techniques are used to fill in this missing information, as regards the offence codes, the date of the offence, and whether an incident was the same as one reported at another screener question. The imputation methods used are complicated and are covered in detail in the Technical Report. While similar imputation methods were used in the 2001 survey, there were some changes in the 2006 survey, partly necessitated by changes to the questionnaire.

<sup>61</sup> The figure in 1996 seemed to be about 10%, although it is difficult to be sure (Morris & Reilly, 2003: 53).

### Offence codes

One change to the imputation process in 2006 compared to 2001 was the method of imputing offence codes. In 2001, when incidents without Victim Forms were imputed as being relevant, the offence codes given were those *most commonly* allocated to incidents from the screener from which the imputed incidents came – a process known as ‘mode imputation’. In 2006, when incidents without Victim Forms were imputed, the offence codes given reflected the *actual distribution* of final offence codes from the screener question – a process known as ‘hot deck’ imputation. Changes on this front will have had little effect on overall 2006 victimisation risk estimates compared to the procedures used in the 2001 survey, although there may have been a small effect in redistributing risks across some offence types.

### Not relevant incidents

Some incidents described in some Victim Forms prove to be ‘out of scope’ of the survey – for instance, because the respondent was not the main victim, or because there was insufficient evidence that a crime had occurred. In 2001 and 2006, allowance was made for this by imputing ‘relevance status’ for incidents without Victim Forms.<sup>62</sup> The imputation was based, essentially, on the proportion of ‘relevant’ incidents with Victim Forms that came from the same screener questions.<sup>63</sup> Incidence and prevalence calculations were then restricted to actual and imputed ‘relevant’ incidents. Leaving aside the fact that there were fewer ‘not relevant’ offences in the 2006 survey than in 2001 (see ‘Classifying offences’ above), the imputation procedures themselves for the 2001 and 2006 surveys for relevance will have made little difference to 2006 victimisation risk estimates overall.

### Uninformative response

In the 2006 survey, responses at the main screener questions allowed for ‘don’t know/can’t remember’. These were given a value of one incident, as was the case in 2001. The Self-Completion components also allowed for ‘don’t know/can’t remember’, as well as ‘don’t wish to answer’. These responses were again given a value of one. These options were not allowed for in 2001, except for ‘don’t know/can’t remember’ in the first Self-Completion component (on partner violence), which was also given a value of one. The effect of this change in procedures on 2005 victimisation rates relative to 2000 will vary depending on offence type. There were not many ‘don’t know/can’t remember’ responses at the main screener questions, so rates for the types of offences recorded there will not be much affected. At the Self-Completion screeners, in contrast, there were substantial numbers of ‘don’t know/can’t remember’ and ‘don’t wish to answer’ responses (roughly as many as said yes, in total), and so the treatment of these cases will probably have increased the estimated rates of assault, threats, damage and sexual offences.

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<sup>62</sup> In 1996, ‘out of scope’ incidents were originally not entered into the dataset at all. To enable comparisons between 1996 and 2001, therefore, they were later entered and used to impute relevance status for missing Victim Forms.

<sup>63</sup> Some other factors were taken into account here. In 2006, for instance, after controlling for the screener question, a higher proportion of the incidents mentioned by people aged 15–24 were relevant than incidents mentioned by older people; incidents by Māori and Europeans were also more likely to be relevant than those mentioned by others.

### **Duplicated incidents**

Another change in the 2006 survey that needed to be dealt with – although this was not through imputation methods – was the addition of questions in the Victim Form to establish whether the current incident was actually the same as in one of the previous Victim Forms. If the incident was a repeat, then the rest of the Victim Form was skipped. The rate of duplication observed in the Victim Forms was applied to other incidents, attempting to eliminate over-reporting through failure to follow the “apart from...” instructions. Since these questions were not included in the 2001 survey, the elimination of duplications in the 2006 survey will have had the effect of decreasing 2005 victimisation estimates relative to 2000.

### **Truncating heavy victimisation**

Another difference although again not an imputation issue was with regard to the treatment of data for heavily victimised respondents. In 2001, the restriction in place was the maximum number of incidents recorded at each screener question. This was 50, except for the sexual offences screener, where the maximum was 100. In 2006, this restriction was loosened, with the maximum number being 99 for the main questionnaire screeners, and 999 for the Self-Completion screeners. At the analysis stage, however, a restriction was added such that the number of valid offences from the Main Questionnaire was ‘capped’ at 30 (after removing out-of-scope or duplicated incidents, and those not in the 2005 calendar year). Any extra offences were not included in the victimisation estimates. The same cap was applied independently to incidents from the Self-Completion components. The procedure for truncating ‘heavy victimisation’ in the 2006 survey will have decreased its risk estimates relative to those from the 2001 survey.

### **The effect on victimisation risk estimates**

The changes described above are likely to have improved the accuracy of the 2006 NZCASS estimates. At the same time, they will have affected victimisation risk estimates from the 2006 survey compared to those from the two previous surveys. (Between the 1996 and 2001 surveys, too, there were changes that will have affected comparisons between them.)

Two of the changes to the 2006 survey will tend to have decreased the risk estimates in the 2006 survey compared to 2001—namely, the treatment of duplicated incidents, and the truncation of ‘heavy victimisation’. Other changes, though, will have had a much larger effect, and in the opposite direction – to increase risk estimates. The most important here are:

- the change in the recall period
- the change in the definition of partner
- the inclusion of additional screener questions
- the fact that more offences could be coded as ‘relevant’.

An adjusted (alternative) set of victimisation rates for 2006 was produced using 2001 procedures as far as possible for comparison purposes. These took account of 2001 offence coding procedures, as well as such differences in imputation and so on as were possible. These adjusted risk estimates for 2006 are used in the results shown in Table 2.3 in Chapter 2.

**Table A3 2001 and 2006 questionnaire screener question changes**

2001 Questionnaire <sup>(1)</sup>	2006 Questionnaire <sup>(2)</sup>
<b>Main screeners</b>	
<p><b>Vehicle vandalism</b> And (apart from these incidents already mentioned), has anyone had their vehicle tampered with, damaged or vandalised?</p>	<p><b>Vehicle vandalism</b> And apart from these incidents already mentioned, has anyone had their vehicle tampered with, deliberately damaged or vandalised?</p>
	<p><b>Household vandalism</b> Apart from anything you have already mentioned, has anyone deliberately destroyed or done damage to your home, or anything inside or outside your home that belonged to your household? Please do not include incidents by people you know well.</p>
<p><b>Personal vandalism</b> And (apart from this) in that time has anyone tampered with or damaged any of your things on purpose? (Please do not include anything you've already told us about in earlier questions.)</p>	<p><b>Personal vandalism</b> And apart from anything you've already mentioned, has any stranger or person you do not know well deliberately destroyed or damaged something belonging to you personally? Please do not include damage to household property you've already told us about.</p>
<p><b>Assault</b> And again (apart from any incidents you have mentioned already) since the 1st of January 2000, has any stranger or person you do not know well hit you, kicked you or used force or violence on you in any other way? Please don't include any incidents involving anyone you know well or any incidents involving unwanted sexual attention. These types of incidents will be covered later in the questionnaire.</p>	<p><b>Assault</b> And again apart from any incidents you have mentioned already, has any stranger or person you do not know well actually used force or violence on you in some way, or deliberately hit you with something? Please do not include any incidents with a sexual element. These types of incidents will be covered later in the questionnaire.</p>
<p><b>Threat of force/threat of vandalism to personal property</b> And (apart from this) during that time, has any stranger or person you do not know well threatened to use force or violence on you or threatened to damage things of yours in any way that actually frightened you?</p>	<p><b>Threat of vandalism to personal property</b> And apart from this, has any stranger or person you do not know well threatened to deliberately destroy or damage something belonging to you in a way that actually frightened you? Please do not include anything you've already told us about in earlier questions and please do not include any incidents committed by anyone you know well.</p>
	<p><b>Threat of force</b> And apart from any incidents you have mentioned already, has any stranger or person you do not know well threatened to use force or violence on you or threatened to hit you in a way that actually frightened you? Please do not include any incidents by anyone you know well or any incidents with a sexual element. These types of incidents will be covered later in the questionnaire.</p>

2001 Questionnaire <sup>(1)</sup>	2006 Questionnaire <sup>(2)</sup>
<b>First Self-Completion (partners)</b>	
<p><b>Vandalism to personal property and threats of vandalism</b> Has your current partner deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you?</p>	<p><b>Assault</b> Has any partner actually used force or violence on you in some way, or deliberately hit you with something?</p>
<p><b>Assault</b> Has your current partner actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</p>	<p><b>Threats of force</b> Apart from anything already mentioned involving a partner which has happened, has any partner threatened to deliberately destroy or damage something belonging to you in a way that actually frightened you?</p>
<p><b>Threat of force</b> Has your current partner threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p>	<p><b>Vandalism of personal property</b> Leaving aside anything already mentioned involving a partner, has any partner deliberately destroyed or damaged something belonging to you?</p>
<p><b>Weapon use/threat of weapon use</b> Has your current partner used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</p>	<p><b>Threat of vandalism to personal property</b> Apart from this, has any partner threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p>
<b>Second Self-Completion (people well known)</b>	
<p><b>Vandalism to personal property and threats of vandalism</b> Has anyone else you know well deliberately destroyed, damaged or harmed something belonging to you, or threatened to do any of these things, in a way that actually frightened you? Remember this does not include your current partner.</p>	<p><b>Assault</b> Has a person you know well (not a partner at the time) actually used force or violence on you in some way, or deliberately hit you with something?</p>
<p><b>Assault</b> Has anyone else you know well actually used force or violence on you, such as deliberately hit, kicked, pushed, grabbed or shoved you, or deliberately hit you with something, in a way that could have hurt you?</p>	<p><b>Threats of force</b> Apart from this, has a person you know well (not a partner at the time) threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p>
<p><b>Threat of force</b> Has anyone else you know well threatened to use force or violence on you, such as threatened to hit, kick, push, grab or shove you, in a way that actually frightened you?</p>	<p><b>Vandalism of personal property</b> Leaving aside anything already mentioned, has a person you know well (not a partner at the time) deliberately destroyed or damaged something belonging to you?</p>
<p><b>Weapon use/threat of weapon use</b> Has anyone else you know well used a weapon against you, or threatened to use a weapon against you, such as a knife or a gun or any other weapon?</p>	<p><b>Threat of vandalism to personal property</b> Apart from this, has a person you know well (not a partner at the time) threatened to deliberately destroy or damage something belonging to you in a way that actually frightened you?</p>

2001 Questionnaire <sup>(1)</sup>	2006 Questionnaire <sup>(2)</sup>
<b>Third Self-Completion (sexual incidents)</b>	
<p><b>Sexual interference/assault/unwanted sexual activity</b></p> <p>Has anyone sexually interfered with or sexually assaulted you or made you carry out any sexual activity that you did not want to? Remember this can include unwanted sexual attention from a partner.</p>	<p><b>Forced sexual intercourse</b></p> <p>Has anyone forced you to have sexual intercourse by threatening you, holding you down, or hurting you in some way? Remember to include spouses and other intimate partners. Please at this point exclude unsuccessful attempts to force you.</p>
	<p><b>Attempted forced sexual intercourse</b></p> <p>Excluding anything else already mentioned in this period, has anyone attempted to force you into sexual intercourse by threatening you, holding you down, or hurting you in some way? Remember to include spouses and other intimate partners.</p>
	<p><b>Distressing sexual touching</b></p> <p>Excluding anything else already mentioned in this period, has anyone touched you sexually when you did not want them to in a way that was distressing to you? Please remember to include spouses and other intimate partners.</p>
	<p><b>Other sexual violence</b></p> <p>Excluding anything else already mentioned in this period, has anyone been sexually violent towards you, or threatened to be sexually violent to you in any other way? Please remember to include spouses and other intimate partners.</p>

Notes:

- 1 All questions started with 'Since 1 January 2000'; or 'Since January 2000'. If the respondent answered affirmatively, they were asked 'How many times?'
- 2 All questions started with 'since 1st January 2005,' or 'Since January 2005.' If the respondent answered affirmatively, they were asked 'How many times?'

## Appendix B

# Police-survey comparison adjustments

For some offence groups, 2006 NZCASS estimates of offences can be compared against offences recorded by the Police. This gives a measure of the so-called 'dark figure' of crime. Other offence groups cannot be so readily compared, as will be explained below.

Various adjustments need to be made to the Police figures to improve comparability with the NZCASS. These are to account for the facts that:

- the NZCASS only measures crime against those aged 15 or older, whereas Police offence categories will include victims under 15
- the survey only covers private vehicles, whereas the Police count will include thefts of and from commercial vehicles.

This Appendix explains the adjustments. Chapter 2 discusses why the comparisons cannot be exact.

### Adjustments

For offence groups where a comparison was made, two different types of adjustments were used:

1. **British Crime Survey adjustments** – In the absence of readily available New Zealand Police data that can give a guide, BCS adjustments are used to account for commercial motor vehicles involved in theft of vehicles, thefts from vehicles, and unlawful interference with vehicles (see Allen and Ruparel, 2006).
2. **New Zealand Police figures on apprehensions** – In relation to assault, robbery, and theft from the person, the proportion of total apprehensions (arrests) involving people under 15 was used as a guide for the number of offences committed against those under 15. The rationale here was that most offences of this type are committed against victims of the same age (Hartless et al., 1995; Smith, 2004; Hayward and Sharp, 2005). New Zealand apprehension figures for 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 were used.

### Assault

The Police have three categories of assault: grievous, serious and minor. These are combined here. The number of offences recorded by Police in 2005 was 33,469. These were reduced by 4.9% to account for offences against those under 15 years – down to 31,827.<sup>64</sup>

The survey counts grievous assaults and other assaults that came from both the Victim Form and the Self-Completion components. (The number of grievous assaults in the survey is relatively small and the line between them and other assaults can be difficult to draw.)

<sup>64</sup> This took into account the three types of assaults recorded by the Police. The proportions of apprehensions for those under 15 were 2.7% for grievous assaults, 2.8% for serious assaults, and 8.4% for minor assaults, which were the most numerous.

### Robbery and theft from the person

These are taken together as they are reasonably similar offences (see Glossary), and the survey estimates for the two offences separately are subject to wide sampling error. The number of these offences recorded by the Police in 2005 was 5,217. These were reduced by 15.9% to account for offences against those less than 15 years – down to 4,386.<sup>65</sup>

### Theft of vehicles

There were 21,229 thefts of motor vehicles recorded by the NZ Police in 2005. This was reduced by 8% to account for commercial vehicles as targets – down to 19,531.

### Theft from vehicles and vehicle interference

There were 60,385 thefts from motor vehicles and vehicle interference/tampering recorded by the Police in 2005. This was reduced by 11% to account for commercial vehicles as targets – down to 53,612. These offences are taken together as interference/tampering and can often be an attempt at stealing something from the car (or even the car itself).<sup>66</sup>

### Burglary

No adjustment was made for burglary. The number of burglaries in a dwelling recorded by the New Zealand Police was used. There were 38,021 offences recorded in 2005.

For the survey count, all burglaries were counted – that is, both those coded as ‘old burglaries’ and those coded as ‘new burglaries’, reflecting the change in legislation (see Chapter 2).

### Offences not compared

Survey offences that it is not sensible to compare with Police figures include:

- **Sexual offences** – because these are notoriously difficult to measure, and the survey count is likely to be unreliable (even with the improvements made to try to capture the offences better).
- **Threats** – because these can often be on the borderline of what would be considered ‘real’ crime by the Police.
- **Vandalism (wilful damage)** – because the Police category is much larger, incorporating vandalism to commercial and civic property as well as vandalism to household and personal property.
- **Thefts of personal and household property** – since they fall into a larger Police category of miscellaneous thefts.
- **Bicycle thefts** – because these are reported in small numbers in the survey, so that survey estimates are unreliable. Some bicycle thefts are also ‘hidden’ within ‘new burglaries’.

<sup>65</sup> The number of robberies recorded by the Police was 2,213. The proportion of apprehensions for those under 15 was 14.6%. The number of thefts ex (from) person recorded was 3,004. The proportion of apprehensions for those under 15 was 16.9%.

<sup>66</sup> The number of thefts from vehicles recorded by the Police in 2005 was 50,927. This was reduced by the BCS adjustment of 12%. The number of offences of vehicle interference recorded in 2005 was 9,458. This was reduced by the BCS adjustment of 7%.

# Appendix C

## Supplementary tables

**Table C1 Sample numbers**

Sample size	Sample size	Sample size	Sample size
<b>Gender</b>	<b>Ethnicity x gender <sup>(2)</sup></b>	<b>Household composition</b>	<b>NZSEI</b>
Men 2,199	European men 1,615	One person living alone 945	NZSEI 70-90 (high status) 471
Women 3,217	Māori men 616	Sole parent with children 517	NZSEI 60-69 597
<b>Age</b>	Other men 239	Couple / no children 1,412	NZSEI 50-59 993
15-24 695	European women 2,282	Couple / children 1,505	NZSEI 40-49 1,029
25-39 1,441	Māori women 1,082	Extended family/whānau 397	NZSEI 30-39 961
40-59 1,850	Other women 320	Flatmates 226	NZSEI 10-29 941
60 or older 1,423	<b>Ethnicity x age</b>	Family other combination 337	<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>
<b>Men x age</b>	European, 15-24 397	Other 71	Quintile 1 (least deprived) 845
15-24 274	Māori, 15-24 341	<b>Employment status</b>	Quintile 2 881
25-39 535	Other, 15-24 153	Paid employment or self-employed 2,979	Quintile 3 1,045
40-59 777	European, 25-39 908	Home duties 331	Quintile 4 1,188
60 or older 611	Māori, 25-39 589	Retired 1,045	Quintile 5 (most deprived) 1,457
2,197	Other, 25-39 211	Unemployed and / or on benefits 643	<b>Region</b>
<b>Women x age</b>	European, 40-59 1,359	Student 350	Upper North Island 2,760
15-24 421	Māori, 40-59 528	Other/refused 66	Lower North Island 1,404
25-39 906	Other, 40-59 156	<b>Tenure</b>	South Island 1,252
40-59 1,074	European, 60 or older 1,229	Owned 3,482	<b>Urbanisation</b>
60 or older 812	Māori, 60 or older 236	Private renters 1,243	Auckland 1,215
<b>Ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>	Other, 60 or older 38	Social renters <sup>(4)</sup> 523	Other metropolitan cities 978
European 3,897	<b>Marital status <sup>(3)</sup></b>	Other / DK / refused 166	Other major urban areas 1,309
Māori 1,698	Married 2,363		Secondary urban areas 411
Pacific peoples 220	De facto 765		Minor urban & rural areas 1,503
Asian 276	Single / never married 1,174		<b>All respondents 5,416</b>
Other 70	Divorced / Separated 595		
	Widowed 492		

Notes:

- 1 Ethnicity is multiple response, so sample numbers add to more than the total sample. 'Other' ethnicity includes other, 'don't know' and refused. Europeans comprise those who said they were New Zealand European and a much smaller proportion who said they belonged to another European ethnic group or gave "New Zealander" as their response.
- 2 The 'Other' category includes Pacific peoples, Asians, other, DK and refused
- 3 Legally married includes civil unions. Refused are excluded.
- 4 'Social renters' predominantly rent from a Local Authority or the Housing New Zealand Corporation. Those who rented but refused to say who they rented from, who gave an 'other' response, or who did not know their landlord, are included among social renters.

This table shows the unweighted sample sizes for different groups in the 2006 NZCASS. Some categorisations are chosen to ensure that the sample size in any one group is not too small for reliable analysis.

**Table C2 NZCASS estimates of victimisation rates in 2005**

	Rate per 100 households	Lower confidence interval <sup>(1)</sup>	Upper confidence interval <sup>(1)</sup>
Burglary	21.2	19.4	23.0
Thefts from a dwelling	4.3	3.7	4.8
Other household thefts	1.8	1.5	2.1
Household vandalism	15.0	12.8	17.1
Theft of vehicles	1.9	1.5	2.3
Thefts from vehicles / vehicle interference	7.5	6.8	8.3
Vehicle vandalism	8.9	7.8	9.9
<b>All household offences <sup>(2)</sup></b>	<b>60.2</b>	<b>55.8</b>	<b>64.6</b>
	Rate per 100 adults	Lower confidence interval <sup>(1)</sup>	Upper confidence interval <sup>(1)</sup>
Sexual offences	6.4	2.9	9.9
Assaults	22.0	19.0	25.1
Threats	18.4	15.9	21.0
Robbery	0.7	0.4	1.1
Thefts from the person	0.8	0.4	1.1
Theft of personal property	4.1	3.3	4.9
Damage to personal property	3.8	3.0	4.5
<b>All personal offences <sup>(2)</sup></b>	<b>55.6</b>	<b>49.0</b>	<b>62.1</b>
<b>All offences <sup>(3)</sup></b>	<b>114.9</b>	<b>105.5</b>	<b>124.3</b>

Notes:

- 1 The boundaries of the 90% confidence interval are derived by adding or subtracting the appropriate margin of error around the sample estimates. The best estimate is calculated from the 2006 sample, following weighting and imputation. It is not possible to construct a confidence range for the total of all NZCASS offences because household offences are based on rates per household, and those for personal offences on rates per adult. The two rates cannot be combined.
- 2 The total rate for household and personal offences differs from the sum of the component categories, because some offences fell into two offence categories.
- 3 The rate for all offences is calculated treating household crime as a personal crime. It is the estimated number of offences against adults where they were a victim of a personal crime or were resident in a household that was victim of a household crime.

**Table C3 Risk rates for different groups: all victimisations in 2005**

	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults
<b>Gender</b>						
Male	107	39				
Female	122	39				
<b>Age</b>						
15-24	185	55				
25-39	156	46				
40-59	93	37				
60 or older	39	20				
<b>Men x age</b>						
15-24	182	53				
25-39	133	44				
40-59	82	36				
60 or older	47*	21				
<b>Women x age</b>						
15-24	188	56				
25-39	178	47				
40-59	103	37				
60 or older	33	19				
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
European	107	37				
Māori	205	47				
Pacific peoples	132	47				
Asian	101*	43				
<b>Gender by ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>						
European men	101	38				
Māori men	162	43				
Other men	125	43				
European women	113	36				
Māori women	245	51				
Other women	117	46				
<b>Marital status</b>						
Legally married	74	31				
De facto relationship	166	49				
Single / Never Married	164	50				
Widowed	32	20				
Divorced / Separated	211	48				
<b>Household composition</b>						
One person living alone	73	28				
Sole parent with children	246	60				
Couple / no children	71	29				
Couple / children	111	41				
Extended family / whānau	131	41				
Flatmates	184*	54				
Family - other combination	131	40				
<b>Employment status</b>						
Paid employment or self-empl'd	112	40				
Home duties	94*	30				
Retired	27	18				
Unemployed and / or on benefits	228	48				
Student	175	57				
<b>NZSEI</b>						
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	73	35				
NZSEI 60-69	132	41				
NZSEI 50-59	115	40				
NZSEI 40-49	119	43				
NZSEI 30-39	123	37				
NZSEI 10-29	99	32				
<b>Tenure</b>						
Owned	92	35				
Private renters	166	49				
Social renters	184	45				
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>						
Quintile 1 (least deprived)	93	35				
Quintile 2	90	34				
Quintile 3	108	38				
Quintile 4	125	42				
Quintile 5 (most deprived)	154	45				
<b>Urbanisation</b>						
Auckland	119	42				
Other metropolitan cities	123*	42				
Other major urban areas	132	40				
Secondary urban areas	84	34				
Minor urban & rural areas	93	30				
<b>Region</b>						
Upper North Island	119	40				
Lower North Island	105	35				
South Island	115	39				
<b>All respondents</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>39</b>				

Notes:

1 'Other women' includes Pacific peoples, Asians, other, DK, and refused.

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

**Table C4 Risk rates for different groups: burglary in 2005**

	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults		Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults		Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults
<b>Age</b>			<b>Household composition</b>			<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>		
15-24	29	19	One person living alone	13	10	Quintile 1 (least deprived)	14	9
25-39	29	18	Sole parent with children	45	27	Quintile 2	14	11
40-59	23	14	Couple / no children	15	10	Quintile 3	16	11
60 or older	10	7	Couple / children	23	15	Quintile 4	24	16
<b>Men x age</b>			Extended family / whānau	24	15*	Quintile 5 (most deprived)	35	19
15-24	26	17	Flatmates	26	20*	<b>Urbanisation</b>		
25-39	27	17	Family - other combination	27	15*	Auckland	25	16
40-59	19	14	<b>NZSEI</b>			Other metropolitan cities	20	14
60 or older	11*	8	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	19	12*	Other major urban areas	23	15
<b>Women x age</b>			NZSEI 60-69	22	13*	Secondary urban areas	17	12*
15-24	32	20	NZSEI 50-59	21	14	Minor urban & rural areas	17	10
25-39	30	19	NZSEI 40-49	23	16	<b>Region</b>		
40-59	25	15	NZSEI 30-39	20	13	Upper North Island	25	15
60 or older	9	7	NZSEI 10-29	19	12*	Lower North Island	16	11
<b>Ethnicity</b>			<b>Employment status</b>			South Island	18	13
European	19	13	Paid employment or self-empl'd	22	15	<b>All respondents</b>		
Māori	35	20	Home duties	20*	12*		<b>21</b>	<b>14</b>
Pacific peoples	32	20*	Retired	9	6*			
Asian	18*	13*	Unemployed and / or on benefits	40	20			
<b>Marital status</b>			Student	30	20			
Legally married	16	11	<b>Tenure</b>					
De facto relationship	30	19	Owned	17	12			
Single / Never Married	26	16	Private renters	28	17			
Widowed	11	9*	Social renters	39	19			
Divorced / Separated	34	19						

Notes:

For burglary, it is somewhat artificial to look at personal characteristics (such as employment status, marital status, and age) since this depends simply on whichever respondent in the household was selected for interview. Gender has been omitted for this reason. Some caution is advisable regarding these figures.

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

**Table C5 Risk rates for different groups:  
vehicle offences in 2005 (vehicle owners)**

All motor vehicle offences <sup>(1)</sup>			All motor vehicle offences <sup>(1)</sup>			All motor vehicle offences <sup>(1)</sup>		
	Incidence rate per 100 owners	Prevalence rate per 100 owners	Incidence rate per 100 owners	Prevalence rate per 100 owners	Incidence rate per 100 owners	Prevalence rate per 100 owners	Incidence rate per 100 owners	Prevalence rate per 100 owners
<b>Age</b>								
15-24	34	23						
25-39	26	18						
40-59	20	15						
60 or older	7	5						
<b>Men x age</b>								
15-24	36	23						
25-39	27	19						
40-59	19	14						
60 or older	7*	6*						
<b>Women x age</b>								
15-24	32	23						
25-39	26	18						
40-59	21	16						
60 or older	6*	5*						
<b>Ethnicity</b>								
European	18	13						
Māori	26	17						
Pacific peoples	22*	18*						
Asian	28	21*						
<b>Marital status</b>								
Legally married	15	12						
De facto relationship	25	18						
Single / Never Married	27	18						
Widowed	7**	5**						
Divorced / Separated	31	20						
<b>Household composition</b>								
One person living alone	16	12						
Sole parent with children	30	19						
Couple / no children	13	9						
Couple / children	20	15						
Extended family / whānau	25	19						
Flatmates	41	28						
Family other combination	23	17						
<b>NZSEI</b>								
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	16	12						
NZSEI 60-69	20	15						
NZSEI 50-59	23	16						
NZSEI 40-49	22	16						
NZSEI 30-39	21	15						
NZSEI 10-29	12	9						
<b>Employment status</b>								
Paid employment or self-empl'd	21	16						
Home duties	16	12						
Retired	6*	5*						
Unemployed and/or on benefits	36*	22*						
Student	34	21*						
<b>Tenure</b>								
Owned	16	12						
Private renters	30	20						
Social renters	31	20						
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>								
Quintile 1 (least deprived)	18	14*						
Quintile 2	16	13						
Quintile 3	17	11						
Quintile 4	25	16						
Quintile 5 (most deprived)	22	17						
<b>Urbanisation</b>								
Auckland	27	19						
Other metropolitan cities	23	16						
Other major urban areas	18	13						
Secondary urban areas	14*	11						
Minor urban & rural areas	11	9						
<b>Region</b>								
Upper North Island	21	15						
Lower North Island	17	12						
South Island	19	14						
<b>All respondents</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>14</b>						

Notes:

1 Vehicle offences are thefts of and from vehicles, and vehicle interference. The analysis is restricted to vehicle owners.

For motor vehicle offences, it is somewhat artificial to look at personal characteristics (such as employment status, marital status, and age) since this depends simply on whichever respondent in the household was selected for interview. Gender has been omitted for this reason. Some caution is advisable regarding these figures.

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

\*\* estimates have a RSE of more than 25%, and are too unreliable for general use.

**Table C6 Risk rates for confrontational offences committed by partners in 2005**

	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults
<b>Gender</b>						
Men	18 *	6				
Women	26	7				
<b>Age</b>						
15-24	42 *	13				
25-39	35	9				
40-59	11 *	4				
60 or older	10 **	2 *				
<b>Men x age</b>						
15-24	32 **	11 *				
25-39	23 **	8 *				
40-59	11 **	4 *				
60 or older	16 **	2 **				
<b>Women x age</b>						
15-24	51 *	15 *				
25-39	47 *	11				
40-59	12 *	4 *				
60+	3 **	1 **				
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
European	21	6				
Māori	55 *	14				
Pacific peoples	13 **	7 **				
Asian	10 **	5 **				
<b>Gender by ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>						
European men	20 *	6				
Māori men	19 *	8				
Other men	9 **	6 **				
European women	21	6				
Māori women	86 *	18				
Other women	18 **	5 **				
<b>Marital status</b>						
Legally married	11 *	3				
De facto relationship	31 *	11				
Single / Never Married	50 *	12 *				
Widowed	4 **	4 **				
Divorced / Separated <sup>(2)</sup>	108 **	22 *				
<b>Household composition</b>						
One person living alone	39 **	7 **				
Sole parent with children	103 *	24 *				
Couple / no children	7 *	3 *				
Couple / children	20	6				
Extended family / whānau	44 **	10 *				
Flatmates	50 **	14 **				
Family other combination	31 **	8 **				
<b>Employment status</b>						
Paid employment or self-empl'd	20	6				
Home duties	19 **	7 **				
Retired	2 **	1 **				
Unemployed and / or on benefits	87 *	18				
Student	30 **	9 *				
<b>Tenure</b>						
Owned	14 *	4				
Private renters	46 *	12				
Social renters	37 *	13 *				
<b>NZSEI</b>						
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	8 **	3 **				
NZSEI 60-69	28 **	6 *				
NZSEI 50-59	17 **	5 *				
NZSEI 40-49	26	9				
NZSEI 30-39	20 *	6				
NZSEI 10-29	33 *	9 *				
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>						
Quintile 1 (least deprived)	21 **	5 *				
Quintile 2	19 *	5 *				
Quintile 3	16 *	5 *				
Quintile 4	21 *	7 *				
Quintile 5 (most deprived)	34 *	10				
<b>Urbanisation</b>						
Auckland	15	5				
Other metropolitan cities	19 *	7 *				
Other major urban areas	32 **	8				
Secondary urban areas	20 *	6 **				
Minor urban & rural areas	23	6				
<b>Region</b>						
Upper North Island	23 *	6				
Lower North Island	18 *	7				
South Island	23 *	6				
<b>All respondents</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>6</b>				

Notes:

- 1 'Other women' includes Pacific peoples, Asians, other, DK, and refused.
2. The number of divorced or separated respondents who had a partner at some time since the beginning of 2005 was very small (n = 55).

Confrontational offences are assaults and threats to someone or their personal property. These were reported in the first Self-Completion component (see Appendix 1 for the four screener questions.).

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

\*\* estimates have a RSE of more than 25%, and are too unreliable for general use.

**Table C7 Risk rates for confrontational offences committed by people well known in 2005**

	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults
<b>Gender</b>						
Men	12 *	5				
Women	14	5				
<b>Age</b>						
15-24	26 *	10				
25-39	14 *	6				
40-59	13 *	4 *				
60 or older	1 *	1 **				
<b>Men x age</b>						
15-24	29 **	11 *				
25-39	12 **	4 **				
40-59	10 **	4 **				
60 or older	1 **	1 **				
<b>Women x age</b>						
15-24	24 *	9				
25-39	15 *	7				
40-59	15 **	4				
60+	2 **	1 **				
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
European	11 *	4				
Māori	31	11				
Pacific peoples	13 **	6 **				
Asian	15 **	4 **				
<b>Gender by ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>						
European men	10 **	4 *				
Māori men	28 *	8 *				
Other men	15 **	7 *				
European women	13 *	4				
Māori women	34 *	13				
Other women	13 **	5 **				
<b>Marital status</b>						
Legally married	5 **	2 *				
De facto relationship	16 **	8 *				
Single / Never Married	24 *	9				
Widowed	0 **	0 **				
Divorced / Separated	37 *	10				
<b>Household composition</b>						
One person living alone	11 **	3 *				
Sole parent with children	43 *	13				
Couple / no children	4 **	1 **				
Couple / children	11 *	5				
Extended family / whānau	16 **	6 *				
Flatmates	14 **	7 **				
Family other combination	18 **	7 **				
<b>Employment status</b>						
Paid employment or self-empl'd	10 *	4				
Home duties	8 **	2 **				
Retired	1 **	0 **				
Unemployed and / or on benefits	35 *	12 *				
Student	33 **	10 *				
<b>Tenure</b>						
Owned	10 *	3				
Private renters	19 *	8				
Social renters	20 *	9 *				
<b>NZSEI</b>						
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	4 **	2 **				
NZSEI 60-69	14 **	4 *				
NZSEI 50-59	9 **	4 **				
NZSEI 40-49	15 *	6				
NZSEI 30-39	15 **	5				
NZSEI 10-29	13 **	5 *				
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>						
Quintile 1 (least deprived)	8 **	3 *				
Quintile 2	11 *	4 *				
Quintile 3	13 **	5 **				
Quintile 4	12 *	4 *				
Quintile 5 (most deprived)	21 *	8				
<b>Urbanisation</b>						
Auckland	13 *	5				
Other metropolitan cities	12 **	4 **				
Other major urban areas	15 *	5				
Secondary urban areas	12 **	5 *				
Minor urban & rural areas	12 *	5				
<b>Region</b>						
Upper North Island	14	5				
Lower North Island	12 *	4				
South Island	12 **	5 *				
<b>All respondents</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>5</b>				

Notes:

1 'Other women' includes Pacific peoples, Asians, other, DK, and refused.

Confrontational offences are assaults and threats to someone or their personal property. These were reported in the second Self-Completion component (see Appendix 1 for the four screener questions.).

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

\*\* estimates have a RSE of more than 25%, and are too unreliable for general use.

**Table C8 Risk rates for confrontational offences committed by other offenders in 2005**

	Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults		Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults		Incidence rate per 100 adults	Prevalence rate per 100 adults
<b>Gender</b>			<b>Marital status</b>			<b>NZSEI</b>		
Men	16	9	Legally married	6	4	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	12 **	6
Women	11	6	Defacto relationship	22 **	10	NZSEI 60-69	18 *	9 *
<b>Age</b>			Single / Never Married	24	14	NZSEI 50-59	11	7 *
15-24	29	16	Widowed	2 **	1 **	NZSEI 40-49	10 *	6
25-39	18	9	Divorced / Separated	21 *	8	NZSEI 30-39	18 *	7
40-59	8	5 *	<b>Household composition</b>			NZSEI 10-29	8 *	6 *
60 or older	3 **	2 *	One person living alone	9 *	3 *	<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>		
<b>Men x age</b>			Sole parent with children	28	15	Quintile 1 (least deprived)	4 *	3 **
15-24	41	20	Couple / no children	7 *	5	Quintile 2	11 **	5 *
25-39	18 *	9 *	Couple / children	12 *	8	Quintile 3	15	8
40-59	9 **	6 **	Extended family / whānau	15 **	7 **	Quintile 4	16 *	8
60 or older	3 **	2 *	Flatmates	24 *	13 *	Quintile 5 (most deprived)	20	11
<b>Women x age</b>			Family other combination	14 **	8 **	<b>Urbanisation</b>		
15-24	17 *	11	<b>Employment status</b>			Auckland	12	7
25-39	18	8	Paid employment or self-empl'd	13	7	Other metropolitan cities	18	9
40-59	7 *	4 *	Home duties	5 **	3 *	Other major urban areas	18 *	8
60+	3 **	1 **	Retired	1 **	1 **	Secondary urban areas	10 **	5 *
<b>Ethnicity</b>			Unemployed and / or on benefits	26	14	Minor urban & rural areas	7	5
European	12	6	Student	20 *	12 *	<b>Region</b>		
Māori	27 *	11	<b>Tenure</b>			Upper North Island	12	7
Pacific peoples	19 **	11 **	Owned	10	6	Lower North Island	18 *	8
Asian	10 **	7 *	Private renters	16	9	South Island	14	7
<b>Gender by ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>			Social renters	36	15	<b>All respondents</b>		
European men	13	8						
Māori men	10	5						
Other men	19 *	12 *						
European women	10	5						
Māori women	22 *	10						
Other women	10 *	7 *						

Notes:

1 'Other women' includes Pacific peoples, Asians, other, DK, and refused.

Confrontational offences are assaults, threats to someone or their personal property, and robbery although these were few in number. About two-thirds of offences by other offenders involved people not known to the victim at all.

\* indicates a relative standard error (RSE) of 15% to 25%, so the figures should be viewed with caution. The RSE is obtained by dividing the standard error of the estimate by the estimate itself; it is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate.

\*\* estimates have a RSE of more than 25%, and are too unreliable for general use.

**Table C9 Offences known to the Police: 2001 and 2006 surveys**

	Known to the Police 2001 <sup>(1)</sup>	Police 2006	Sample size 2001	Sample size 2006
Theft of motor vehicle	91	84	126	106
Burglary and thefts inside / outside home	40	40	1,091	1,186
Interference with/ theft from motor vehicle	51	52	609	341
Assault	45	43	164	214
Robbery	23	23	44	27
Threats	20	28	185	224
All offences <sup>(2)</sup>	40	36		
<b>Sample size (total offences)</b>	<b>3147</b>	<b>3040</b>	<b>3,147</b>	<b>3,040</b>

Notes:

- 1 The source of the figures for 2001 is Morris and Reilly (2003: 72). However, burglary and thefts inside and outside the home are combined here to give a better comparison. Also, the figure for damage incidents reported in Morris and Reilly is excluded, as coverage differed
- 2 All offences include all incidents in the Victim Form including some that are not separately itemised (for instance, damage to motor vehicles).

The difference in the total reporting rate between 2001 and 2006 is statistically significant at the 5% level (two-tailed). However, design changes will account for the change in the figures. Differences for individual offence types are not statistically significant. This analysis uses Typology 1 in Box 4.1. That is, it is restricted to offences described in the Victim Form only, for comparability. Therefore, the figures for 2006 differ from those in Figure 2.1.

**Table C10 Reasons for not reporting to the Police, by offence type**

	All offences %	Violence %	Threats %	Damage %	Thefts of personal property %	Household thefts %	Burglary %	Vehicle thefts %
Too trivial / no loss / not worth reporting / unsuccessful attempt	48	34	34	61	49	46	59	63
Police couldn't have done anything; wouldn't have been bothered/interested; too busy / not enough police	34	32	31	37	21	27	37	45
Private / dealt with matter myself / ourselves	27	42	42	17	28	28	10	5
Didn't have enough evidence to report it	12	9	9	14	17	20	12	14
Inconvenient / too much trouble	7	11	4	6	2	10	8	8
Didn't want to get offender into trouble	6	15	8	2	2	3	1	0
Shame/embarrassment/further humiliation	6	16	6	2	0	0	1	0
Fear of reprisals/would make matters worse	5	10	10	3	0	1	1	0
Reported to other authorities	3	3	6	2	10	6	1	1
Dislike / fear of the Police	2	5	1	1	1	1	2	1
Other / don't know	12	13	12	8	13	16	15	9
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>2584</b>	<b>468</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>712</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>220</b>	<b>521</b>	<b>194</b>

Notes:

This analysis uses Typology 2 in Box 4.1

Multiple responses possible.

Some reasons given have been grouped due to their similarity.

**Table C11 Percentage of offences known to the Police, by different groups**

	Total %	Violence and threats %	Damage and other thefts %	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts %	Sample size <sup>(1)</sup>		Total %	Violence and threats %	Damage and other thefts %	Burglary and motor vehicle thefts %	Sample size <sup>(1)</sup>
<b>Gender</b>						<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>					
Men	32	25	19	53	1,450	Quintile 1 (least deprived)	27	12	20	55	472
Women	32	28	22	49	2,411	Quintile 2	29	23	15	50	477
					3,861	Quintile 3	37	34	23	55	648
<b>Age</b>						Quintile 4	32	24	21	52	934
15-24	26	20	11	54	864	Quintile 5 (most deprived)	33	32	21	45	1,330
25-39	34	32	23	48	1,363	<b>Region</b>					
40-59	35	29	25	50	1,213	Upper North Island	33	26	20	51	2,108
60 or older	35	25	28	48	418	Lower North Island	28	21	23	44	901
<b>Ethnicity <sup>(2)</sup></b>						South Island	34	32	20	54	852
European	32	26	20	51	2,567	<b>Urbanisation</b>					
Māori	31	29	18	47	1,634	Auckland	33	26	20	52	981
Pacific peoples	27	22	28	32	220	Other major urban areas <sup>(3)</sup>	32	28	20	52	1,776
Asian	30	13	17	56	187	Other areas	31	24	24	46	1,104
<b>Tenure</b>						<b>All respondents</b>					
Owned	31	24	20	52	2,004		<b>32</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>3,861</b>
Private renters	31	25	21	49	1,233						
Social renters	36	38	28	42	524						
<b>NZSEI</b>											
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	27	17	25	43	276						
NZSEI 60-69	29	19	21	50	447						
NZSEI 50-59	32	26	14	56	719						
NZSEI 40-49	36	36	21	51	758						
NZSEI 30-39	32	28	22	49	723						
NZSEI 10-29	31	23	22	53	568						

Notes:

1 The sample size is for total victimisations. Sample sizes for offence categories (e.g., violence and threats) are smaller

2 Ethnicity is multiple response, so sample numbers add to more than the total sample of incidents.

3 'Other Major urban areas' comprise metropolitan cities other than Auckland, and other major urban areas. 'Other areas' comprise secondary urban areas and minor urban and rural areas.

This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

**Table C12 Victims' overall satisfaction with the Police response**

	Very satisfied %	Satisfied %	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied %	Dissatisfied %	Very dissatisfied %	Don't know %	Sample size
<b>Total</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1,232</b>
Burglary and motor vehicle thefts	19	32	22	13	11	3	645
Violence and threats	26	20	18	15	21	1	268
Damage and other thefts	26	36	16	8	10	4	319

Notes:

This analysis uses Typology 3 in Box 4.1.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

**Table C13 Victims' overall satisfaction with the police response, by different groups**

	Very satisfied and satisfied	Dissatisfied and very dissatisfied	Sample size		Very satisfied and satisfied	Dissatisfied and very dissatisfied	Sample size		Very satisfied and satisfied	Dissatisfied and very dissatisfied	Sample size
<b>Gender</b>				<b>NZSEI</b>				<b>Region</b>			
Men	53	25	452	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)	59	15	85	Upper North Island	50	29	681
Women	50	28	780	NZSEI 60-69	58	18	144	Lower North Island	58	16	287
<b>Age</b>				NZSEI 50-59	48	29	221	South Island	51	28	264
15-24	42	29	208	NZSEI 40-49	54	29	245	<b>Urbanisation</b>			
25-39	51	26	445	NZSEI 30-39	47	30	233	Auckland	47	33	308
40-59	57	25	421	NZSEI 10-29	61	22	183	Other major urban areas <sup>(2)</sup>	50	25	562
60 or older	70	12	155	<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>				Other areas	62	18	362
<b>Ethnicity <sup>(1)</sup></b>				Quintile 1 (least deprived)	50	22	127				
European	52	25	806	Quintile 2	59	26	145				
Māori	48	26	521	Quintile 3	58	22	229				
Pacific peoples	65	22	63	Quintile 4	45	32	301				
Asian	45	33	59	Quintile 5 (most deprived)	49	27	430				
<b>Tenure</b>								<b>All respondents</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>1,232</b>
Owned	55	23	648								
Private renters	50	27	387								
Social renters	41	32	166								

Notes:

1 Ethnicity is multiple response, so sample numbers add to more than the total sample of incidents.

2 'Other Major urban areas' comprise metropolitan cities other than Auckland, and other major urban areas. 'Other areas' comprise secondary urban areas and minor urban and rural areas.

Based on incidents known to the Police.

**Table C14 Ratings of different criminal justice groups, by different groups**

		Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor			Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor			Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor	
<b>THE POLICE</b>					<b>JURIES</b>					<b>JUDGES</b>		
		%	%			%	%			%	%	
<b>Gender</b>					<b>Gender</b>					<b>Gender</b>		
Men		58	13	Men		60	6	Men		46	19	
Women		62	12	Women		58	7	Women		47	16	
<b>Age</b>					<b>Age</b>					<b>Age</b>		
15-24		50	18	15-24		57	4	15-24		58	8	
25-39		56	15	25-39		51	7	25-39		45	15	
40-59		60	12	40-59		63	8	40-59		46	20	
60 or older		74	6	60 or older		62	6	60 or older		41	23	
<b>Ethnicity</b>					<b>Ethnicity</b>					<b>Ethnicity</b>		
European		63	11	European		60	6	European		45	19	
Māori		50	17	Māori		54	6	Māori		46	15	
Pacific people		59	19	Pacific people		55	7	Pacific people		53	10	
Asian		49	18	Asian		58	5	Asian		59	9	
<b>NZSEI</b>					<b>NZSEI</b>					<b>NZSEI</b>		
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		65	9	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		63	6	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		65	9	
NZSEI 60-69		63	9	NZSEI 60-69		59	7	NZSEI 60-69		63	9	
NZSEI 50-59		59	14	NZSEI 50-59		60	6	NZSEI 50-59		59	14	
NZSEI 40-49		58	14	NZSEI 40-49		57	9	NZSEI 40-49		58	14	
NZSEI 30-39		61	13	NZSEI 30-39		60	6	NZSEI 30-39		61	13	
NZSEI 10-29		62	13	NZSEI 10-29		57	5	NZSEI 10-29		62	13	
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>					<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>					<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>		
Quintile 1 (least deprived)		61	10	Quintile 1 (least deprived)		61	4	Quintile 1 (least deprived)		61	10	
Quintile 2		65	10	Quintile 2		60	6	Quintile 2		65	10	
Quintile 3		62	12	Quintile 3		60	8	Quintile 3		62	12	
Quintile 4		59	13	Quintile 4		57	5	Quintile 4		59	13	
Quintile 5 (most deprived)		54	18	Quintile 5 (most deprived)		56	10	Quintile 5 (most deprived)		54	18	
<b>All respondents</b>		<b>60</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>All respondents</b>		<b>59</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>All respondents</b>		<b>47</b>	<b>17</b>	

Notes:

'Don't knows' are included in the base.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

**Table C14 (Continued) Ratings of different criminal justice groups, by different groups**

		Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor			Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor			Excellent/ good	Poor/ very poor	
<b>CRIMINAL LAWYERS</b>					<b>PROBATION OFFICERS</b>					<b>PRISON SERVICE</b>		
		%	%			%	%			%	%	
<b>Gender</b>					<b>Gender</b>					<b>Gender</b>		
Men		42	18	Men		41	18	Men		42	20	
Women		46	12	Women		40	17	Women		38	21	
<b>Age</b>					<b>Age</b>					<b>Age</b>		
15-24		52	7	15-24		50	11	15-24		46	13	
25-39		40	14	25-39		37	18	25-39		37	24	
40-59		44	17	40-59		38	19	40-59		39	21	
60 or older		41	20	60 or older		41	20	60 or older		38	24	
<b>Ethnicity</b>					<b>Ethnicity</b>					<b>Ethnicity</b>		
European		43	16	European		37	19	European		38	22	
Māori		42	13	Māori		46	15	Māori		44	21	
Pacific people		51	9	Pacific people		62	12	Pacific people		53	11	
Asian		48	11	Asian		49	13	Asian		45	16	
<b>NZSEI</b>					<b>NZSEI</b>					<b>NZSEI</b>		
NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		47	11	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		35	16	NZSEI 70-90 (high status)		34	21	
NZSEI 60-69		43	16	NZSEI 60-69		36	17	NZSEI 60-69		39	19	
NZSEI 50-59		43	14	NZSEI 50-59		41	18	NZSEI 50-59		37	21	
NZSEI 40-49		42	17	NZSEI 40-49		39	20	NZSEI 40-49		40	22	
NZSEI 30-39		45	14	NZSEI 30-39		45	15	NZSEI 30-39		46	18	
NZSEI 10-29		41	19	NZSEI 10-29		44	18	NZSEI 10-29		39	25	
<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>					<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>					<b>NZ Index of deprivation</b>		
Quintile 1 (least deprived)		45	10	Quintile 1 (least deprived)		37	19	Quintile 1 (least deprived)		39	17	
Quintile 2		47	16	Quintile 2		35	18	Quintile 2		36	23	
Quintile 3		43	16	Quintile 3		40	17	Quintile 3		40	22	
Quintile 4		42	14	Quintile 4		43	17	Quintile 4		41	20	
Quintile 5 (most deprived)		43	18	Quintile 5 (most deprived)		48	17	Quintile 5 (most deprived)		43	22	
<b>All respondents</b>		<b>44</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>All respondents</b>		<b>41</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>All respondents</b>		<b>40</b>	<b>21</b>	

Notes:

'Don't knows' are included in the base.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

**Table C15 Ratings of different criminal justice groups: 1999 and 2006**

		Excellent %	Good %	Fair %	Poor %	Very poor %
Police	1999	25	49	19	6	1
	2006	15	45	27	9	4
Juries	1999	10	53	32	4	1
	2006	8	51	35	5	2
Judges	1999	7	36	37	17	4
	2006	7	40	36	13	5
Criminal lawyers	1999	6	39	42	10	3
	2006	5	38	41	10	5
Probation officers	1999	6	44	39	9	2
	2006	4	37	42	13	4
Prison service	1999	5	33	39	18	4
	2006	5	35	40	15	6

Notes:

The source of 1999 figures is Paulin et al. (2003: 24).

'Don't knows' are included in the base.

Percentages do not necessarily add to 100% because of rounding.

# Glossary

**Assault** is where the respondent was physically assaulted, whether or not injury occurred. There are two categories – grievous and other assault. As the number of grievous assaults picked up by the NZCASS is small, they are combined with other assaults.

**Burglary** occurs if a person enters a dwelling as a trespasser with intent to commit an offence of any kind. It does not cover theft by a person who is entitled to be in the dwelling at the time of the offence (see **theft in a dwelling**). A dwelling is a house, a caravan, a flat, or any connected outhouse, garage or enclosed yard. The legal definition of burglary changed between the 2001 and 2006 surveys. Burglary no longer requires forced entry so that, for example, thefts from an 'enclosed space' (such as yards) now count as burglary. A new offence code for the 2006 survey was added to handle the changed coverage of burglary ('new burglaries'). The previous offence code is retained where comparisons are made with previous surveys ('old burglaries'). The NZCASS covers domestic burglary only. Attempts are included.

**Comparable subset of crimes** refers to the group of offences for which comparisons are made between Police figures and the 2006 NZCASS to identify the gap between them. The subset includes burglary and thefts from a dwelling; thefts of and from a motor vehicle and motor vehicle interference; robbery and theft from the person; and assault. Various adjustments are made to the Police categories to maximise comparability with the NZCASS (see Appendix C).

**Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI)** is the mode of interview used in the 2001 and 2006 surveys. In CAPI, the interviewer enters responses to the questionnaire into a laptop computer. The questionnaire is a computer program that specifies the questions, the range and structure of permissible answers, and instructions for navigating through the questionnaire. Plausibility and consistency checks are incorporated to improve data quality.

**Computer Assisted Self Interviewing (CASI)** was used in the three Self-Completion components in the NZCASS. In CASI, the interviewer gives the laptop to the respondent to allow them to report their experience of more sensitive victimisations without revealing them to the interviewer.

**Confidence intervals** are used to address the fact that surveys can only produce estimates of the 'real' figure for the relevant population. Confidence intervals (also referred to as margins of error) show the range of values between which the true population value is estimated to lie. At the 95% confidence level, one would expect the true population value to fall within the confidence interval in 95% of cases if the survey was repeated many times under the same conditions. When assessing the results of a single survey, there is a one in 20 chance that the 95% confidence interval for the survey estimate will not cover the true population value. There is a one in 10 chance that the 90% confidence interval for the survey estimate will not include the true population value. Therefore, it is expected that non-sampling errors will be negligible. (See also statistical significance.)

**Confrontational crimes** is a term used for assaults, threats (to the person or personal property), and robbery (though there are few of these). Sexual offences are included with confrontational crimes in Chapter 4, Reporting to the Police. They are dealt with separately in Chapter 3, The distribution of risk.

**Enduring characteristics** are race, ethnicity or cultural group, gender, current age, sexual orientation, or any disability a person may have. Victimization because of enduring common characteristics is part of the 2002 Sentencing Act. It refers to situations where the offender committed the offence partly or wholly because of hostility towards a group of persons who have an enduring common characteristic; the hostility is because of the common characteristic; and the offender believes that the victim has that characteristic.

**Household** is a group of people in a private dwelling who share common facilities and who consider they are a household.

**Household crimes** refers to offences in the NZCASS in which the household is considered the victim of the crime. Therefore the respondent answers on behalf of the whole household for burglary, theft in a dwelling, other household theft, thefts of and from vehicles, vehicle interference, bicycle theft, and vandalism to household property and vehicles.

**Imputation techniques** are undertaken at the data processing stage to fill in missing information, particularly as regards the offence codes, incident dates, whether an incident was in the scope of the survey, and whether it was the same as one reported at another screener question. Imputations are necessary because not all incidents that respondents mention at the screener questions are followed up by a Victim Form, but the incidents still need to be counted in the overall **incidence rates** and **prevalence rates** for the survey. (See also **weighted data** and Appendix B.)

**Incidence rates** are the total number of offences that occurred in the reference period expressed as a percentage of the relevant population. They take account of the fact that some people are victimised more than once. (See also **prevalence rates**.)

**Neighbourhood** is a term that was left to the interpretation of the respondent. However, if the respondent asked what it meant, the interviewer read out, 'This neighbourhood means the streets around you.' In rural areas, the prompt was, 'This neighbourhood means your "district".'

**NZDep** is an abbreviation for the NZ Index of Deprivation, developed by the Health Services Research Centre at the Ministry of Health. NZDep is made up of a weighted average of nine Census measures of socio-economic status and has become a standard measure of relative deprivation in New Zealand. The index divides New Zealand into equal tenths. A score of 10 indicates that a geographic area is in the most deprived 10% of all areas in New Zealand. For this report, the deciles have been reduced to quintiles (five parts) to make better use of sample numbers.

**NZSEI** (New Zealand Socioeconomic Index) is a scale that reflects the socio-economic status of people based on the occupation of the main income earner in their household. Each participant in the 2006 NZCASS was given a score between 10 and 90 based on this occupation. These scores were then grouped into six ranges for presentation of the data in tables. The higher the score, the higher the socio-economic status. (A difference from the 2001 survey is that a coding of 'NZSEI unspecified' was avoided by asking more detailed questions of people who were not directly in paid employment.)

**Offence codes** are allocated to those victimisation incidents reported by respondents that come within the scope of the survey. They reflect legal definitions of offences. Some incidents are deemed as not meeting the legal definitions of an offence, and are coded as 'not relevant'.

**Other household thefts** is an NZCASS category that covers thefts (and attempted thefts) of household property which cannot be classified as burglary. They exclude thefts valued at \$10 or less. Theft from a dwelling by someone with a right to be there are also included in other household thefts.

**Other thefts of personal property** are thefts away from the home (e.g. handbags from offices) where there was no direct contact between offender and victim. Only the respondent can be the victim.

**Personal crimes** are those for which the respondent is considered the victim of the crime. They comprise **sexual offences, assaults, threats, robbery**, theft of personal property, **vandalism** to personal property, and threats of vandalism to personal property. The NZCASS does not cover personal crimes against those less than 15 years old.

**Prevalence rates** show the percentage of the NZCASS sample who were victims of an offence once or more. Unlike **incidence rates**, they do not take account of the number of times one person has been victimised.

**Recall period** is the time over which NZCASS respondents are asked to report offences they had experienced. For NZCASS this refers to 1 January 2005 up until the date of the interview. Offences that took place in 2006 are discounted in estimating rates for 2005.

**Region** was coded as follows: Upper North Island, Lower North Island and South Island. The Upper North Island includes all points within and north of the Waitomo, Ruapehu, Taupo, Kawerau and Gisborne districts, including Waiheke Island, and the Lower North Island consists of the rest of the North Island. The South Island covers the South Island only, so the Chatham Islands and Stewart Island are not included.

**Relative standard error (RSE)** is a measure of an estimate's reliability. The RSE of an estimate is obtained by dividing the standard error (SE) of the estimate by the estimate itself. This is then expressed as a percentage of the estimate. Estimates with large RSEs are unreliable. The SE itself measures the extent to which an estimate might have varied by chance because only a sample was taken (see **sampling error**).

**Relevant offences** (or victimisations) are those that meet the legal definitions of offences, and are within the scope of the survey.

**Repeat victimisation** in the 2006 NZCASS is where someone has been victimised more than once.

**Reporting rate** is the number of victimisations that became known to the Police (either through somebody reporting the matter, or because the Police themselves discovered the incident) expressed as a percentage of all offences.

**Robbery** is an incident where someone steals (or tries to steal) property from a respondent by physically attacking them or threatening them with force or violence either during or immediately prior to a theft or attempted theft.

**Sampling error** arises because only a sample of the New Zealand population can be surveyed.

The sample is drawn randomly and is thus a small-scale representation of the population from which it is drawn. As such, it may produce estimates that differ from the figures that would have been obtained if the whole New Zealand population had been interviewed. The size of the error depends on the sample size, the size and nature of the estimate, and the design of the survey. It can be computed and used to construct **confidence intervals**, and is also taken into account in tests of **statistical significance**.

**Screening questions** in the Main questionnaire ascertain whether survey respondents have experienced incidents that come within the scope of the survey. The incidents are described in lay terms. The screening questions are intended to single out separate incidents of victimisation (even if there are affirmative answers to more than one screening question). The screeners in the Main questionnaire prompt respondents to exclude offences which were committed by partners or people well known to them, or which had a sexual element. These are covered in the three Self-Completion components.

**Self-Completion components** are completed by respondents using CASI. There are three such components in the NZCASS. The first focuses on **assaults, threats**, vandalism to personal property and threats to damage personal property by **partners**. The second focuses on the same offences committed by people well known to the victim. The third focuses on **sexual offences**. In each Self-Completion component, respondents were asked about the 'last incident' that happened. Respondents include a description of the incident, and answer questions similar to those in the **Victim Form**.

**Sexual offences** in the NZCASS are measured in a Self-Completion component that asks about forced sexual intercourse, attempted forced sexual intercourse, distressing sexual touching, and other offences of sexual violence.

**Social renters** is the term used for those who rent from a Local Authority or the Housing New Zealand Corporation. Those who rented but refused to say who they rented from, who gave an 'other' response, or who did not know their landlord, are included among social renters.

**Statistical significance** tests for the reliability of results. Because the NZCASS estimates are subject to **sampling error**, differences between estimates from successive years of the survey or between population subgroups may occur by chance. Tests of statistical significance are used to identify which differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance. Tests at the 90% and 95% confidence levels are used in this report. In the first, if there was truly no difference, we would expect to see smaller differences than we have observed at least 9 times out of 10. In the second, there would be a 19 out of 20 chance of differences being smaller than the observed difference, simply due to random sampling variation. It should be noted that although a difference may not be statistically significant (e.g. it might just be due to random sampling variation), it may nevertheless be worth commenting on because the difference, if real, would have relevant policy implications.

**Thefts from the person** are thefts directly from the person of the victim, but which have no element of threat and either no force or only minimal force (e.g. pickpocketing, pulling a bag off someone's shoulder, or snatching a purse from a shopping bag). Attempts are included. The theft must be from the person, not just, for example, from their handbag in the supermarket trolley.

**Theft from vehicles** refers both to the theft of parts and accessories of a vehicle and to the theft of contents (e.g. car radio, hubcaps or clothes left on the back seat).

**Theft from a dwelling** is theft by a person lawfully on the premises (e.g. a relative, friend, tenant or tradesman) that would otherwise amount to **burglary**. It includes thefts of both personal and household property.

**Threats** cover threats to kill, injure or assault the respondent and threats to damage personal or household property. They may be addressed directly to the respondent or to some other person. The threats may be verbal or physical, but there should be an actual threat to harm the property or person. Verbal abuse is not counted as a threat.

**Urbanisation** is an area classification which covers: Auckland (including the North Shore, Waitakere and Manukau Cities, along with Papakura District and parts of Rodney and Franklin Districts); Other metropolitan urban areas (including Wellington [except Kapiti], Christchurch and Dunedin); Other main urban areas (i.e. areas with populations of over 30,000); Secondary urban areas (i.e. areas with populations from 10,000 to 29,999); and Rural/minor urban areas (the remaining areas).

**Vandalism** is the term used in the report for wilful damage that results from someone without lawful excuse destroying or damaging personal or household property, or intending to do so. Vandalism ranges from arson to graffiti. Incidents where there is nuisance only (e.g. letting down car tyres) are not included as vandalism.

**Vehicle crime** is a term sometimes used in the report to cover vehicle-related thefts, as well as vandalism to a vehicle.

**Vehicle interference** is where someone tampers with a vehicle, or tries to get into it, but there is no appreciable damage, nothing is stolen and there is no indication of what was intended.

**Vehicle-related thefts** covers (i) theft or unauthorised taking of a vehicle (where the vehicle is driven away illegally, whether or not it is recovered); (ii) theft from or off a vehicle (see **thefts from vehicles**); and (iii) **vehicle interference**. Attempts are included.

**Vehicle theft** is an incident where a vehicle is stolen from any member of the household. It includes privately owned motor vehicles as well as business/company vehicles used exclusively by members of the household.

**Vehicle vandalism** includes intentional and malicious damage to a vehicle, such as scratching a coin down the side of a car.

**Vehicles** covers all motorised land transport such as cars, vans, motorcycles, and scooters that are either owned or regularly used by someone in the household. Vehicles used solely for business purposes such as lorries or work vans are considered out of scope if they are the target of crime. Farm/quad bikes and tractors will also usually be out of scope since they are likely to be owned by a business rather than a household as such.

**Victim** is a household or person reporting at least one of the offences in the survey. Victims are counted once only for each type of offence, regardless of the number of offences of that type.

**Victim Forms** collect detailed information about what happened in a victimisation, such as location, property loss and whether the offence was reported to the Police. They include a description of the incident by the respondent that is entered as text by the interviewer. Victim Forms are completed for up to three victimisations mentioned by participants in the main questionnaire screener questions. Information in the Victim Form is used to decide whether the incident is in scope of the survey, and if it is, to allocate the appropriate **offence code**. (See also **relevant offences**.)

**Weighted data** is raw data from the survey data adjusted in various ways at the data processing stage to correct for imbalances introduced in sampling, and by the design of the survey, to produce better estimates. The weighting takes account of non-response, a household's probability of selection, and the under-representation of people living in larger households, while aligning the sample with population figures. The information on crime incidents for Victim Form analysis is also weighted to take account of the probability that the incident was selected for Victim Form completion. (See also imputation techniques and Appendix A.)



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