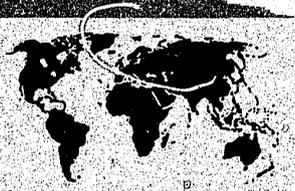


INTERNATIONAL OPERATIONAL PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

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United Nations Office at Vienna

**CRIME TRENDS
AND
CRIMINAL JUSTICE OPERATIONS
AT THE REGIONAL
AND INTERREGIONAL LEVELS**

*Results of the Third United Nations Survey of
Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems
and Crime Prevention Strategies*



UNITED NATIONS
New York, 1993

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Explanatory notes

Reference to dollars (\$) are to United States dollars, unless otherwise stated.

The following symbols have been used in tables throughout this publication:

Two dots (..) indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported.

An em dash (--) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.

A hyphen (-) indicates that the item is not applicable.

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Countries are referred to by the names that were in official use at the time the relevant data were collected.

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Introduction

1. In its resolution 3021 (XXVII) of 18 December 1972, the General Assembly invited Member States to inform the Secretary-General of the situation concerning crime prevention and control in their countries. Since then, three United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies, covering the periods 1970-1975, 1975-1980 and 1980-1986, have been conducted and the questionnaire for a fourth survey, covering the period 1986-1990, will be completed in 1992. The Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held at Milan from 26 August to 6 September 1985, in its resolution entitled "Development of crime and criminal justice information and statistical system",¹ requested the Secretary-General to publish and disseminate the data collected in the survey as a simple database. The Eighth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held at Havana from 27 August to 7 September 1990, considered a report² prepared by the Secretariat on the preliminary results of the Third United Nations Survey on Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies. In its resolution entitled "Development of United Nations criminal justice statistical surveys",³ the Eighth Congress invited Member States to become actively involved in the design and development of future United Nations crime and criminal justice statistical surveys. Data from the surveys are available on computer diskettes (see annex I).

2. A comprehensive review of the first two surveys was published in 1992 under the title *Trends in Crime and Criminal Justice, 1970-1985, in the Context of Socio-Economic Change: Results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies*.⁴

3. The principal contributor to the present publication, which focuses on the results of the Third Survey, was Chris Lewis of the Home Office of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Valuable input was also provided by Carol Kalish of the Bureau of Justice Statistics of the United States of America; Graeme Newman of the State University of New York at Albany; Kenneth Pease of the University of Manchester; the Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, together with the Australian Institute of Criminology;⁵ the Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders;⁶ and the Helsinki Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations.⁷

4. The Third Survey takes into account data submitted by 78 countries or areas.* The replies from the 80 countries and or areas** participating in the Second Survey are also analysed in the present publication.

*Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bermuda, Botswana, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, Cape Verde, Cayman Islands, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Fiji, Finland, France, German Democratic Republic, Germany, Federal Republic of, Ghana, Gibraltar, Greece, Honduras, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kuwait, Liberia, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Saint Helena, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, Turkey, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (in addition to separate data for England and Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland), United States of America, Uruguay, Vanuatu, Yugoslavia and Zimbabwe. Not every country or area returned a completed questionnaire.

**Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Canada, Cape Verde, Chad, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, Fiji, Finland, France, Germany, Federal Republic of, Greece, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kiribati, Kuwait, Madagascar, Mauritius, Morocco, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Romania, Saint Lucia, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tuvalu, Uganda, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (in addition to separate replies for England and Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland), United States of America, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

I. Making comparisons: a note of caution

5. Making comparisons between countries requires great caution, particularly in the area of crime and justice. The problems involved have been dealt with in detail in many publications.⁸ Instead of warnings being included throughout the present publication, the main caveats are provided below.

6. Statistics on crime and the justice system tell as much about the bureaucracy of the justice system in a given country and about how it is viewed by the general public as they do about the extent of true crime in that country or about how such crime is being dealt with. One prerequisite for making comparisons between individual countries is an understanding of the social, economic and administrative situation in each country.

7. The traditional measures of crime, such as the number of thefts, robberies and assaults, do not reflect the entire range of criminal acts that result in human suffering. Injuries stemming from white-collar crime, such as bad environmental management of factories or even economies, or personal misery caused by financial speculation or the manipulation of international money transactions may be far greater than that of all recorded homicides. Such crime often remains unrecorded.

8. In both the Second Survey and the Third Survey, there were problems in collecting data for 1980. In some instances, there were discrepancies in the data for 1980 submitted by a given country for each of the two surveys. Occasionally there was a plausible explanation; for example, in cases involving homicide, deaths might be reclassified in retrospect. But such revisions could explain discrepancies only in numerically small categories of crime. Sometimes the discrepancies were so great that it was assumed that there was an error in the data. Although attempts were made to correct such errors, it was not always possible to do so.

9. Each country has different laws, legal structures, and resources allocated to different parts of its justice system. Thus, even if it is possible to collect accurate information on crime trends and justice systems, in certain countries, it may not be possible to make meaningful comparisons; however, the value of collecting such data will increase as the number of surveys increases.

10. The collected data are likely to be much more accurate and meaningful than the data used in earlier cross-national comparisons. Methods used in measuring crime trends and the resources available to different parts of the justice system in a given country change only slowly, as do the laws and the general social and economic environment in that country. This means that comparing the data for a particular country in the Third Survey with the data for the same country in the first two surveys should yield more useful results. The present publication is an attempt to make such comparisons, drawing, in particular, on studies of dynamics in criminal justice.

11. At all levels of analysis (interregional, regional and subregional), there are arguments for making such comparisons. The surveys enable the reader to escape from his or her own professional view of crime problems and to realize that there are many different perspectives, none of which is superior to the others. The promise of comparative criminology was alluded to already by the First United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held at Geneva from 22 August to 3 September 1955, in its resolution entitled "Prevention of juvenile delinquency".⁹ That promise may lie not in developing a uniform scheme of crime statistics or in standardizing such statistics but, paradoxically, in recognizing their inevitable diversity.

12. In state-of-the-art criminology, emphasis is placed on disaggregated data analysis, covering a limited number of countries or a limited number of localities in one country. But even within that limited scope, problems arise with regard to the particular crime types. Accordingly, in interpreting data in any cross-national comparison, caution must be exercised in drawing conclusions of a more general nature. Such sophisticated and multifaceted work requires, among other things, an understanding of the external and internal factors influencing the functioning of a single criminal justice system, rather than a group of such systems. A working hypothesis derived from such a limited study may then be reviewed in the light of the data and experience acquired with regard to the functioning of other criminal justice systems.

13. The situation in many countries has changed since the Third Survey was conducted. Most countries have developed their responses to crime, particularly by implementing crime prevention strategies, although the recession in Western countries at the end of the 1980s may have limited the number of new initiatives. And, as can be seen from statistical reports from individual countries, crime has continued to grow at the start of the 1990s.

14. Even in countries or areas with a stable political situation, the criminal justice system may undergo change and reform. For example, prosecution in England and Wales, which had been carried out by the police since the early nineteenth century, was changed in October 1986 when the Crown Prosecution Service was set up.

15. More significantly, since 1986, the political situation in many countries, particularly those in central and eastern Europe, has changed considerably. In the case of the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany, the changes have resulted in the merging of two countries. Other countries have retained their geographical borders but have changed or are changing their administrative systems and possibly their constitutions.

16. The present publication provides comments on figures for 1986. When interpreting the results in this publication, however, political, economic, social and administrative changes that have taken place since 1986 need to be borne in mind. It is possible that some of those administrative changes themselves may have been influenced by earlier reports disseminated by the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch of the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the Secretariat and by other United Nations entities.

17. Steps have been taken to avoid delays in future crime surveys. The planning meeting on the development of United Nations criminal justice information programme, organized jointly by the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch and the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, was held at Rome from 3 to 6 June 1991. At the meeting, detailed recommendations were made on simplifying and shortening the questionnaire for the Fourth Survey. On the recommendation of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice at its first session, the Economic and Social Council adopted resolution 1992/22, entitled "Implementation of General Assembly resolution 46/152 concerning operational activities and coordination in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice". In section I of that resolution, the Council reaffirmed the request of the General Assembly to the Secretary-General to take measures to commit the human and financial resources necessary to strengthen the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice programme as a whole, so as to enable it to continue and improve the surveys, as a means of obtaining and providing an updated picture of patterns and dynamics of crime in the world, including its transnational forms; and to carry out the surveys at two-year intervals, with preparations for the Fifth Survey, covering the period 1990-1992, starting at the end of 1993.

II. Changes in recorded crime, 1975-1986

18. The overall upward trend in total recorded crime in the period 1975-1980 was followed by a more universal rise in the period 1980-1986. That development was in part the result of a general tendency to report to the police more of the crimes that actually occurred. Crimes are more likely to be reported to the police in countries where the possession of a telephone is more commonplace and where people frequently insure their personal possessions. As more countries attain that level of development, fewer crimes will go unreported. Similarly, violent crimes tend to be reported more where authorities have shown themselves to be more sympathetic to victims, for example, by setting up schemes to support victims.

19. Over the past 10 years there has been a considerable increase in crime in most parts of the world. The total amount of reported crime has been growing on a worldwide average of 5 per cent every year, well beyond a rise attributable to population growth. At this rate, crime is rapidly outstripping the capacity of many Governments to keep pace with it and has already outpaced their capacity to reduce it.¹⁰

20. The rate of total recorded crime per capita tends to be higher in western Europe and North America. Such variations are, to a significant extent, a function of public and administrative reporting practices.¹¹

21. Figure I shows the number of countries or areas that reported increases or decreases in crime rates per 100,000 inhabitants, by type of crime, in the period 1975-1980. In 63 per cent of the replies received, the crime rate per 100,000 inhabitants was reported to have risen in that period (see figure II); the average change, calculated on the basis of that data, was a 10 per cent increase.*

22. In the period 1980-1986, 81 per cent of the countries or areas that sent replies experienced a rise in their crime rates (see figure III). All of the countries that reported decreases in their crime rates were developing countries (see figure IV). The average changes, calculated on the basis of that data, was a 23 per cent increase. The increase in the rates for most offences other than non-intentional homicide and bribery was greater in the period 1980-1986 than in the period 1975-1980.

23. In both periods, there were marked increases in the rates for drug crimes and robbery (see figure V). In both periods, the rate of increase in drug crimes was greater than that for all other types of crime, with the exception of kidnapping, for which the figures were low. As in the First Survey and the Second Survey, theft accounted for the largest percentage of crime (see table 1); there were more thefts per capita in developed countries (see figure VI), probably because there were more material possessions to steal.

24. Some countries, however, experienced a decrease in certain types of crimes. For instance, in Canada and, to a lesser extent, in Sri Lanka, fewer drug crimes were recorded whereas in other countries increases in such crimes were reported. Canada, together with Argentina, Fiji and Honduras, reported a similar decrease in its robbery rate. The factors behind such decreases warrant further research.

*It should be noted that this is an overall average calculated from data provided by those countries or areas that returned completed questionnaires. National crime rates for a given type of crime may vary greatly. Some of the changes reflected in the tables and figures may be at least partially attributable to differences in the countries or areas that provided the data or, in the number of replies on which the calculations were based.

**Table 1. Structure of crime, 1975-1980 and 1980-1986
(Percentage)**

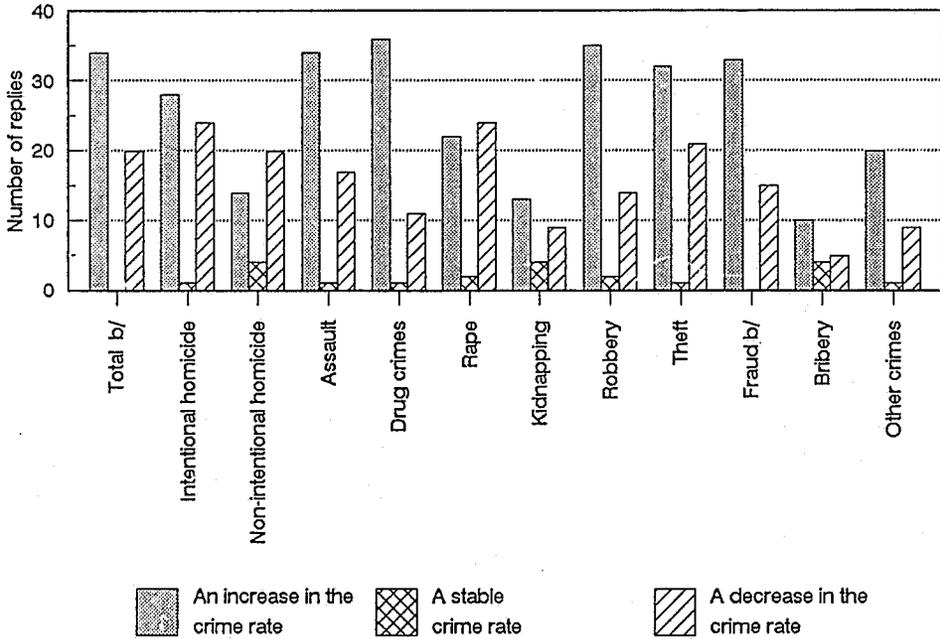
<i>Type of crime</i>	<i>Share of total crime</i>	
	<i>1975-1980</i>	<i>1980-1986</i>
Theft	72	63
Assault	12	18
Robbery	5	6
Drug crimes	3	6
Fraud, including embezzlement	3	4
Intentional homicide	1	1
Non-intentional homicide	1	1
Rape	1	..
Bribery	1	..
Kidnapping

Source: "Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies: report prepared by the Secretariat" (A/CONF.144/6), annex I, table 1.

25. There was a small decrease in non-intentional homicide in both the period 1975-1980 and the period 1980-1986. The number of intentional homicides per 100,000 inhabitants rose slowly in the period 1975-1985, particularly in developing countries (see figure VII). The higher intentional homicide rates in developing countries may be partly attributable to interpersonal conflict over scarce resources,* however, another possible explanation is that in developing countries, more victims of assault may have died for lack of medical care.

*Because of the relatively small number of countries or areas that provided data on the subject, this explanation should be viewed with caution.

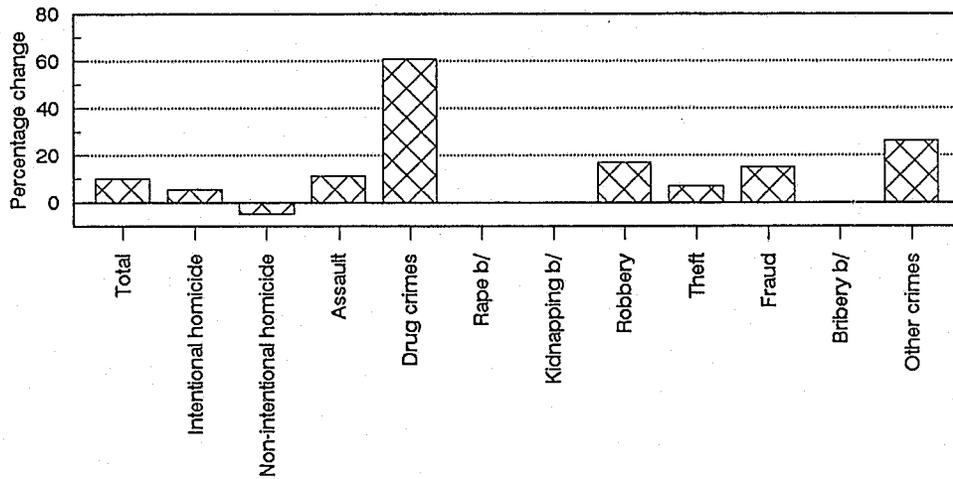
Figure I. Reported changes in national crime rates per 100,000 inhabitants, by type of crime, 1975-1980 a/



a/ Based on data provided in 54 replies to the questionnaire.

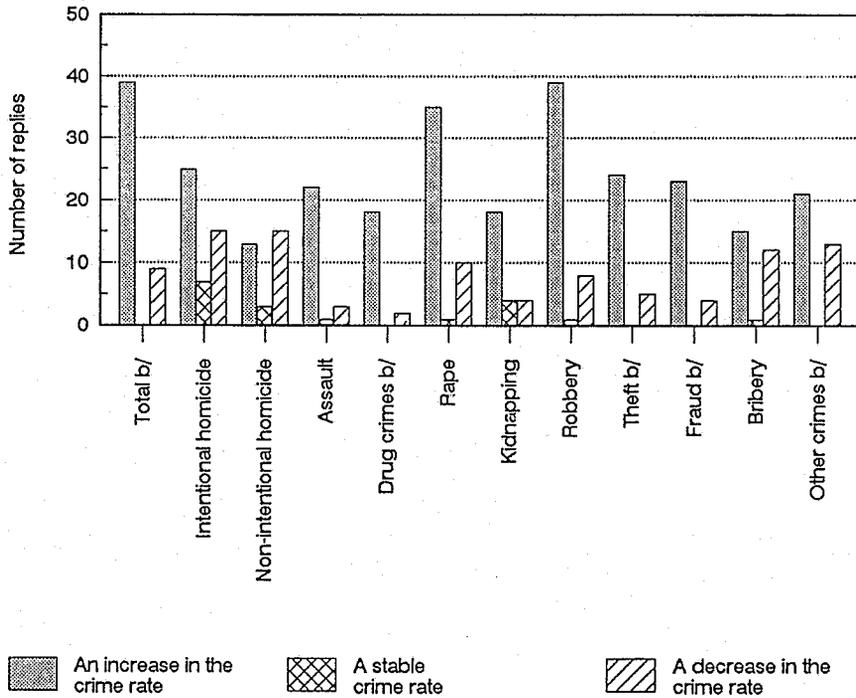
b/ No country or area reported a stable crime rate.

**Figure II. Average percentage change in reported crime rates,
by type of crime, 1975-1980 a/**



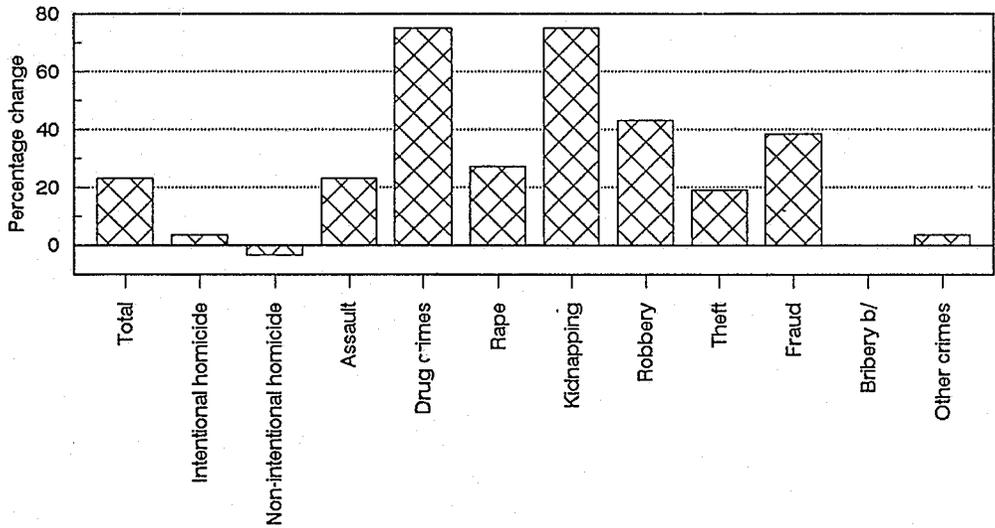
a/ Based on data provided in 54 replies to the questionnaire.
b/ No change in the crime rate.

Figure III. Reported changes in national crime rates per 100,000 inhabitants, by type of crime, 1980-1985 ^{a/}



^{a/} Based on data provided in 48 replies to the questionnaire.
^{b/} No country or area reported a stable crime rate.

Figure IV. Average percentage change in reported crime rates, by type of crime, 1980-1985 ^{a/}



^{a/} Based on data provided in 48 replies to the questionnaire.
^{b/} No change in the crime rate.

Figure V. Increase in drug crimes and robbery per 100,000 inhabitants, 1975, 1980 and 1985

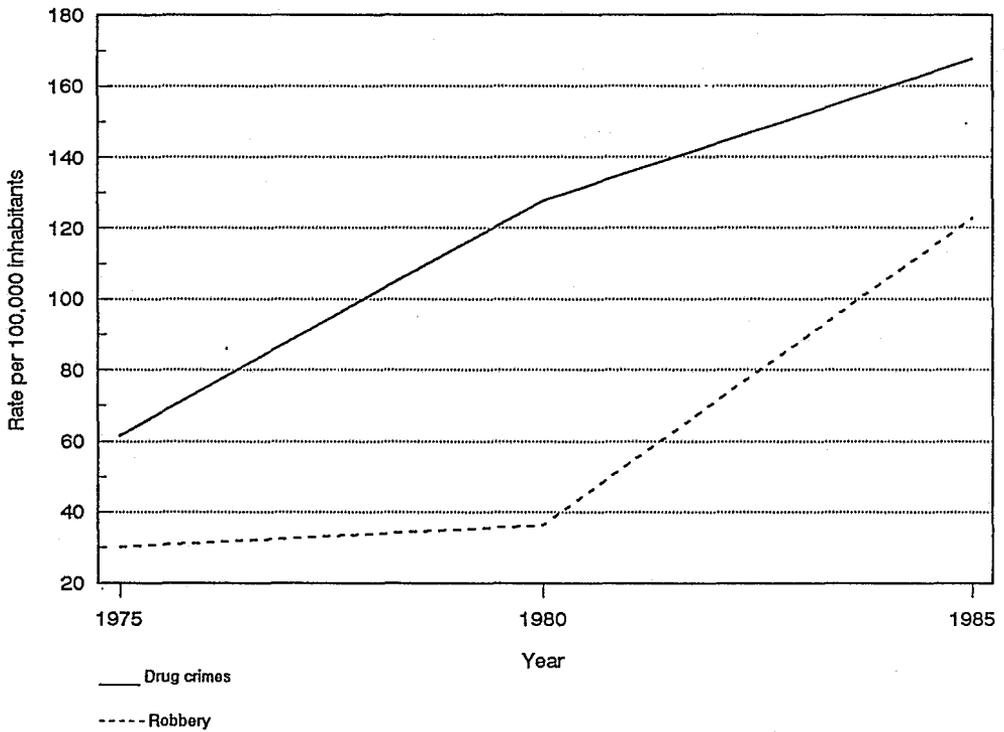


Figure VI. Rate of theft per 100,000 inhabitants, developed and developing countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985

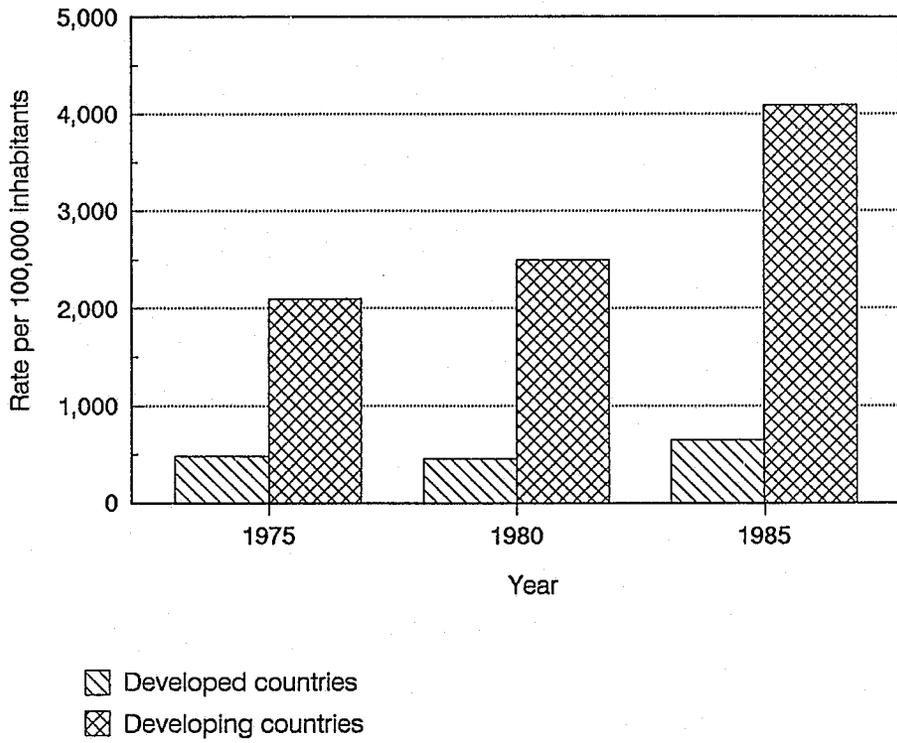
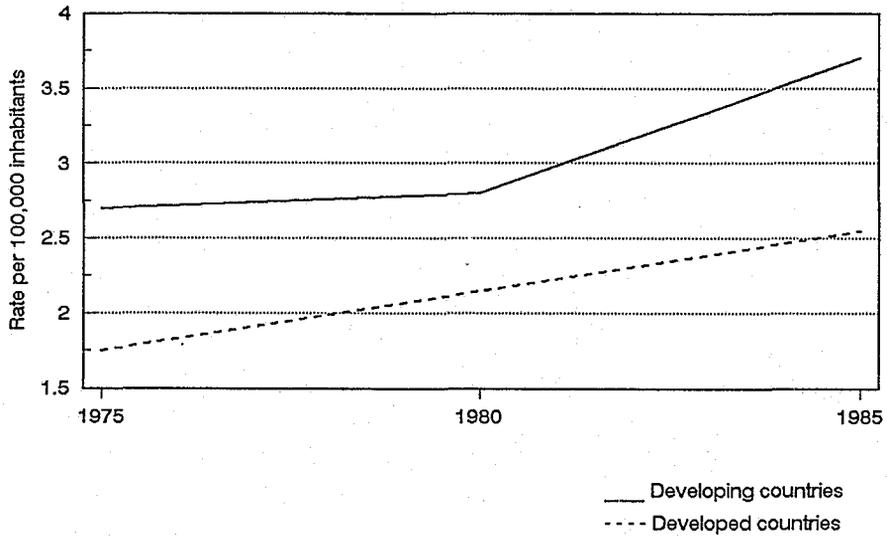


Figure VII. Increase in intentional homicide per 100,000 inhabitants, developed and developing countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985



Note: Based on the replies of six developing countries (Fiji, Kuwait, Nepal, Qatar, Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka) and nine developed countries (Australia, Canada, Denmark, Italy, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Spain and United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland).

III. Criminal justice processes, 1975-1986

26. Recorded crime rates may reflect, in addition to public behaviour, the level of resources and the efficiency of the police or the level of public confidence in the law enforcement apparatus. Although trends in recorded crime data for a given country can be assumed to show changes in patterns of behaviour, they are affected by changes in recording practices or legislative changes.¹²

A. Recording alleged offenders

27. Recorded crime rates are also an important indicator of the workload of the criminal justice system. One way in which they can be used to help determine the working patterns of police agencies is to compare them with the rates of persons suspected, apprehended* or prosecuted.

28. Tables 2 and 3 show that the ratio of persons apprehended to the level of recorded crime varies greatly from country to country. The differences tend to diminish when the ratio of persons apprehended to crimes recorded is compared with the ratio of persons prosecuted to crimes recorded. This observation illustrates one of the most important functions of the survey at its present stage of development: to generate hypotheses for further research on specific questions.

Table 2. Ratio of persons apprehended to crimes recorded, selected countries and areas, 1975 and 1980

Country or area	Ratio of persons apprehended (Second Survey) to crimes recorded (Second Survey)		Ratio of persons apprehended (Second Survey) to crimes recorded (Third Survey), 1980
	1975	1980	
Austria	45	42	37
Bahamas	33	27	..
Canada	34
Chile	34	17	..
Colombia	48	39	..
Finland	..	72	30
France	..	26	26
Germany, Federal Republic of	38	37	37
India	47	60	49
Japan	30	29	29
Netherlands	32	29	29
New Zealand	..	41	41
Norway	13	11	9

continued

*In the Third Survey the term "suspected" was used instead of "apprehended", as there was evidence that the latter term was not easily interpreted in all jurisdictions.

Table 2 (continued)

Country or area	Ratio of persons apprehended (Second Survey) to crimes recorded (Second Survey)		Ratio of persons apprehended (Second Survey) to crimes recorded (Third Survey), 1980
	1975	1980	
Philippines	11
Poland	80	78	78
Suriname	16	19	..
Sweden	13	11	11
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland Scotland	10	6	3
United States of America	71	73	72
Yugoslavia	74	73	..

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

**Table 3. Ratio of persons suspected or prosecuted to crimes recorded,
selected countries and areas, 1980, 1982, 1985 and 1986
(Percentage)**

Country or area	Ratio of persons suspected to crimes recorded		Ratio of persons prosecuted to crimes recorded	
	1980	1985	1982	1986
Antigua and Barbuda	..	20	..	18
Australia	..	26
Austria	90	78
Belgium	18
Bermuda	26	44
Bahamas
Botswana	..	81
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	96	88	85	64
Canada	25	23
China	47
Fiji	..	56
Finland	63	51
France	26	26
Germany, Federal Republic of	37	31	48	50
Gibraltar (territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	46	36
Hungary	56	52	..	35

Country or area	Ratio of persons suspected to crimes recorded		Ratio of persons prosecuted to crimes recorded	
	1980	1985	1982	1986
India	83	..
Italy	..	33	..	23
Jamaica	55	58
Japan	29	27	35	36
Malawi	39	39
Malaysia	20	23
New Zealand	41	36
Norway	7	7
Peru	41	90
Poland	71	57
Portugal	..	61
Singapore	42	39
Sweden	10	9
Trinidad and Tobago	29	30	1	1
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	87	83	11	8
United States of America	78	96

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

29. Differences in operational practices may arise from different levels of resources or from different attitudes about what constitutes a crime. Reclassifying a suspect as an offender is a gradual process, and the point at which the reclassification is made is determined locally. Attitudes towards civil rights may also affect the practice followed in various countries.¹³

B. Attrition rate

30. One aspect of criminal justice systems of increasing interest to persons making cross-national comparisons is attrition, the termination of cases. A few countries, especially in eastern Europe, provided data that made it possible to arrive at attrition rates by using pro-rated figures. Others provided data that made it possible to estimate attrition in percentage terms.

31. In some instances, eastern European countries* had attrition rates much lower than those of other developed countries and similar to those calculated for some developing countries. In Poland in 1980, there were 677 suspects and 467 persons convicted per 100,000 inhabitants. The respective figures for the Federal Republic of Germany were 2,313 and 1,190 per 100,000 inhabitants. Thus, although in Poland there were fewer persons suspected per 100,000 inhabitants, more of those suspected were convicted.

*Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia (in 1980), Hungary (in 1985), Poland and Yugoslavia.

32. On the whole, as a criminal case involving a woman proceeds, the woman has a greater chance of being released. For instance, in Canada in 1980, there were six male suspects for every female suspect; however, there were eight males prosecuted for every female prosecuted and 12 males imprisoned for every female imprisoned. Similarly, in Japan in 1985, there were five male suspects for every female suspect, but 15 males convicted for every female convicted. Thus, the attrition process differentiates in favour of women.

33. In no country did the number of women at any stage of the proceedings exceed the number of men. Furthermore, in most countries, the ratio of imprisoned men to imprisoned women was more than double the ratio of convicted men to convicted women. The Third Survey confirmed that the attrition rate for females was increasing compared with that for males.

34. Patterns are less clear with regard to the proportion of males suspected (apprehended), prosecuted, convicted or imprisoned who are juveniles (see table 4). In some countries or areas, there was a higher proportion of juveniles at the prosecution stage than at the suspect stage. For instance, Canada reported that 26 per cent of its prosecuted males were juveniles, compared with only 19 per cent of its male suspects. This type of phenomenon, at times, may also extend to the conviction stage. Argentina, for example, reported that 18 per cent of its convicted males were juveniles, compared with only 14 per cent of its prosecuted males. In contrast to these accounts, the Netherlands reported a steady decline in the proportion of juvenile males between the suspect and conviction stages.

Table 4. Proportion of suspected (apprehended), prosecuted, convicted or imprisoned males who are juveniles, selected countries, 1985
(Percentage)

Country	<i>Suspected or apprehended</i>	<i>Prosecuted</i>	<i>Convicted</i>	<i>Imprisoned</i>
Argentina	23	14	18	1
Canada	19	26	..	2
Hungary	11	10	10	..
Netherlands	18	15	8	..
New Zealand	24	5	5	5
Poland	10	19	6	..
Singapore	8	8	3	..

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

C. Imprisonment and other forms of deprivation of liberty

35. In countries that have abolished the death penalty, the most severe sanction is usually long-term imprisonment. There are two caveats:

- (a) Prison is not the only place where liberty is restricted;
- (b) To be meaningful, prison statistics need to be related to other variables, such as the population, the number of convictions and the number of crimes.

D. Changes in prison populations

36. Two parameters were used to measure changes in prison populations: the prison population relative to the general population (see table 5) and the prison population relative to recorded crime (see table 6).

Table 5. Number of persons imprisoned per 100,000 inhabitants, selected countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985

Country	1975	1980	1985
Finland	118	102	75
France	49	85	41
Germany, Federal Republic of	84	94	80
Italy	53	53	27
Poland	271	269	204
Sri Lanka	81	74	82
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	80	89	77

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

Table 6. Number of persons imprisoned per 100,000 crimes recorded, selected countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985

Country	1975	1980	1985
France	1 361	1 738	617
Germany, Federal Republic of	1 767	1 521	1 148
Greece	1 549	1 061	814
Italy	1 548	1 565	1 138
Kuwait	3 435	4 122	80 436
Poland	27 060	28 318	13 942
Sri Lanka	13 882	17 718	22 724

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

37. The rises reported in the prison population in 1975, 1980 and 1985 were neither as general nor as dramatic as the rises reported in recorded crime. In most countries, the proportion of the general population that was imprisoned was greater in 1985 than in 1975. Prison populations were not expected to rise as steeply as crime rates. First, much of the increase in crime rates was due

to more complete reporting, usually of less serious crime. Secondly, clear-up rates and prosecutions generally increased more slowly than recorded crime rates.

38. In some countries, the number of persons imprisoned was high in comparison with both the number of crimes and the general population. In others it was high in relation to only one of those variables. This suggests that some countries have prison populations in line with the number of crimes recorded while others have inconsistent patterns that perhaps may be explained by changes in the seriousness of the crimes committed.

39. The chances of citizens being imprisoned at some time in their lives also vary from country to country.* Studies suggest that the chances of a male experiencing custody sometime in his lifetime range between 3.2 per cent and 5.1 per cent for the United States of America; the figure for England and Wales is about 6 per cent.¹⁴

40. In assessing the profile of a prison population, it is also necessary to consider the average sentence or period of remand served. Table 7 shows that the proportion of the prison population detained under sentence varies substantially. That variation may be accounted for by the imprisonment of suspected but unsentenced offenders who may not have been prosecuted. Some of the variations, however, may be the result of differences in the point when a prisoner is counted as sentenced. In some countries or areas that is the sentencing date; in others, it is when it ceases to be possible to appeal a sentence.

**Table 7. Proportion of prison population under sentence,
selected countries and areas, 1982 and 1986
(Percentage)**

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>
Argentina	54	43
Australia	87	85
Austria	92	74
Bangladesh	17	27
Belgium	39	42
Bermuda (territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	80	78
Brunei Darussalam	71	84
Bulgaria	87	86
Canada	87	86
Chile	42	45
Cyprus	87	75
Denmark	71	74
Finland	83	82
France	49	49
Germany, Federal Republic of	71	76

*One author has estimated that 40-49 per cent of the male population in Hungary will be sentenced during their lifetime (Andras Szabo, "A bünözés kihívása és a kriminalógia válasza" (The challenge of crime and the responses of criminology), *Társadalmiutatas* (Budapest), 1988, pp. 3-31).

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>
Gibraltar (territory of the United Kingdom and Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	94	86
Greece	67	72
Hungary	70	67
Italy	27	35
Japan	83	83
Kuwait	75	67
Malaysia	59	59
Netherlands	57	59
New Zealand	93	89
Norway	71	75
Peru	23	32
Poland	68	73
Qatar	61	52
Republic of Korea	58	49
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	48	48
Singapore	93	91
South Africa	83	75
Sweden	83	84
Trinidad and Tobago	52	45
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	80	79
United States of America	69	80
Vanuatu	33	20

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

41. Between 1982 and 1986, the average time spent awaiting trial increased in eight countries or areas and fell in four (see table 8). Variations in national stability, the most important factor, were typically small during that period.

**Table 8. Average time spent in prison awaiting trial,
selected countries and areas, 1982 and 1986
(Weeks)**

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>
Austria	12	11
Bangladesh	12	13
Bermuda (territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	4	10
Botswana	3	3
Canada	2	1
Costa Rica	8	6
Czechoslovakia	12	7
Finland	9	9
France	3	4
Germany, Federal Republic of	14	15
Italy	10	18
Japan	9	9
New Zealand	3	3
Peru	..	52
Saint Lucia	11	23
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	12	12
Suriname	16	25
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	10	11

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

IV. Criminal justice agencies: resources available in 1986

42. The results of the first two surveys suggested a considerable difference in the staffing of criminal justice agencies in developing and developed countries.¹⁵ Measured in terms of the proportion of criminal justice personnel resources, more police staff and fewer judges were employed in developing countries than in developed countries. A comparison of the results of the Second Survey with those of the Third Survey supports that finding;¹⁶ it should be noted, however, that data problems related to the availability of financial and personnel resources are among the most difficult to solve. A discussion of the availability of financial and personnel resources is presented below.

A. Financial resources

43. The amount spent in different countries on education and defence in comparison with the amount spent on criminal justice (reported in most countries as "public order and safety") is shown in figure VIII. A significant implication of this figure is its conventional pattern of expenditure; that is, it is not surprising to find that the proportion of expenditure allotted to defence is frequently much larger than that allotted to criminal justice. It should be noted, however, that several countries incorporate the item of public order and safety into their defence budgets. This suggests that the distinction between the police and the military is not always clear, at least as far as the keeping of accounts is concerned.

44. Estimates suggest that crime control accounts for, on average, 2-3 per cent of the budgets of the more highly developed countries, compared with 9-14 per cent of the budgets of developing countries. If those figures are representative, it would appear that Governments together spend approximately \$300 billion each year on crime prevention and criminal justice services.¹⁷ Large though that figure may seem, it is less than the estimated total revenues generated by illicit drug trafficking. Data collected for the Third Survey confirmed those percentage estimates. None the less, care needs to be taken in interpreting them (see table 9). In general, the share of gross domestic product allocated to criminal justice differs from one country to another; it probably does not exceed 1-2.5 per cent. It is difficult to isolate accurately the proportion going to each sector of the justice system; however, the majority of the resources, typically around 75 per cent of all resources allocated to criminal justice, goes to the police.

B. Personnel resources

45. The characteristics of the staff of the criminal justice agencies were, for the most part, similar to those reported in the Second Survey.¹⁸ In a small number of countries and areas, radical changes took place in the structure of their criminal justice agencies; for example, in England and Wales, a new professional prosecution service was set up towards the end of 1986 to take over the prosecutorial role from the police.

46. There was little general change in the use of volunteers within the justice system although in some countries the practice was growing. It was also clear that in some countries the use of the opportunity principle, whereby cases were prosecuted at the discretion of the prosecutor or the police, was growing in response to resource constraints within the system.

Table 9. Financial resources allocated to criminal justice as a proportion of gross domestic product, selected countries in Europe and North America, 1986
(Millions of US dollars)

Country	(1) Financial resources allocated to criminal justice	(2) Gross domestic product	(1) as a percentage of (2)
Denmark	632	68 820	0.9
Finland	554	62 370	0.9
France	1 976	724 200	0.3
Netherlands	1 824	175 330	1.0
Norway	430	69 780	0.6
Portugal	46	27 480	0.2
Sweden	941	114 470	0.8
Switzerland	103	135 050	0.1
United States of America	52 499	4 185 490	1.2

Source: Gross domestic product data from World Bank, *World Development Report, 1988* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1988), table 3.

1. Police

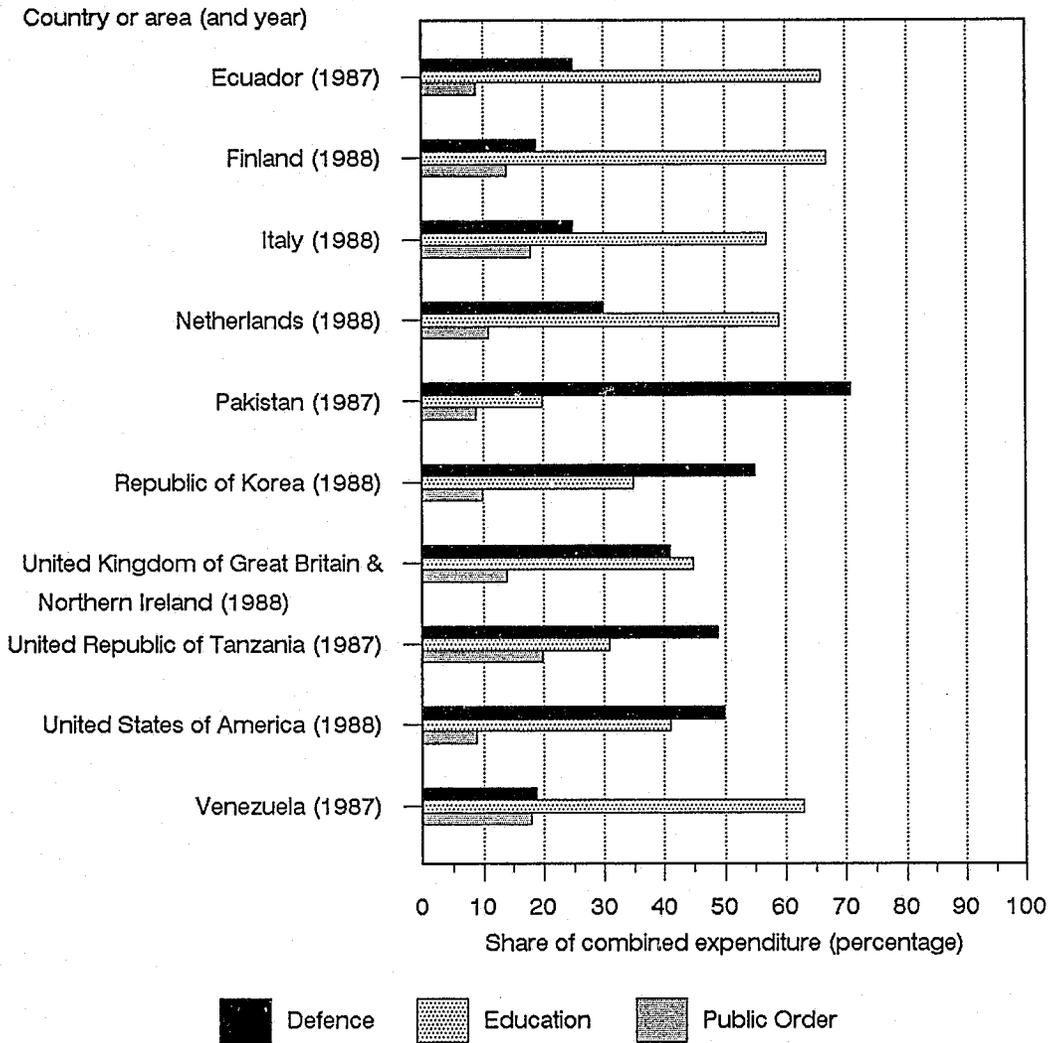
47. In 1985, the policing rate for all responding countries combined was 253 per 100,000 inhabitants. The police generally are seen as a multi-purpose agency. The tasks performed by the police, however, vary across countries and time. In many countries, there is a whole range of auxiliary forces carrying out tasks performed by police in other countries. In others, the role of the police in crime prevention, for example, is being shared more and more by other agencies (see chapter VI below).

48. Analyses comparing policing rates across developed and developing countries have led to conflicting conclusions. The results of one study, illustrated in figure IX, suggest that developed countries generally have employed more policing personnel per 100,000 inhabitants. The higher policing rate in developed countries may reflect a greater availability of resources or, some might argue, a response to the "higher" crime rate in developed countries. In contrast, the results of another study, presented in *Trends in Crime and Criminal Justice, 1970-1985, in the Context of Socio-Economic Change*,⁴ suggest that developing countries have the higher policing rate. Given the unique perspectives of different individuals and cultures, and given the many "plausible" modes of statistical analysis, conflicting conclusions often seem inevitable. There is a need for further research in this important area.

49. Data from 13 countries in Europe and North America (see table 10) and 8 countries or area in Latin America and the Caribbean (see table 11) show the number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants in 1986. In some replies, it was stated that some police forces were not included in the reported figures. Furthermore, the figures may include police officers who dealt with, for example, traffic or administration and not at all with criminal cases.

50. Some of the figures in tables 10 and 11 are way out of line with the others; in table 10, for example, the figures for Portugal are almost certainly erroneous. And the figures for some small countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are higher than those for more populated countries because of the need to maintain a minimum level of police regardless of the size of the population. The number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants in most other countries, however, ranges from between 100 and 200 for countries as different as Argentina and Denmark to over 300 for countries such as Austria, France and Trinidad and Tobago. (See annex II for more information on police personnel.)

Figure VIII. Expenditure on education, defence and public order expressed as a percentage of expenditure on the three categories combined, various years



Source: Based on *Trends: The Global View of Crime and Justice*, a special issue of the *UNCJIN Crime and Justice Letter* on findings of the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies, November 1991, p. 4

Table 10. Total number of police officers and number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants, selected countries in Europe and North America, 1986

<i>Country</i>	<i>Total number of police officers</i>	<i>Police officers per 100,000 inhabitants</i>
Austria	27 656	363
Canada	54 604	218
Cyprus	3 781	61
Denmark	9 416	184
Finland	11 589	241
France	199 757	360
Italy	76 092	133
Netherlands	28 516	195
Norway	5 996	146
Portugal	1 736	17
Switzerland	13 100	201
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	80 039	317
United States of America	629 745	259

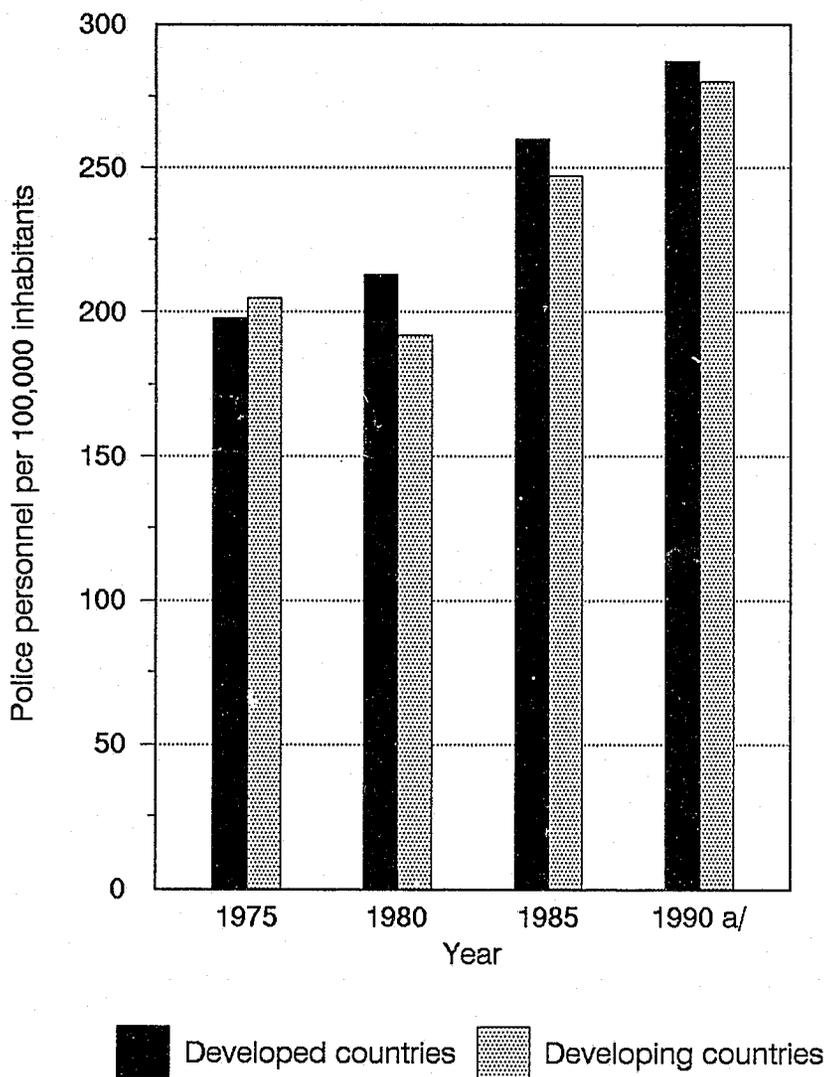
Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

Table 11. Total number of police officers, number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants, and police budget per capita, selected countries and areas in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1982 and 1986

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Total number of police officers</i>		<i>Police officers per 100,000 inhabitants</i>		<i>Police budget per capita (US dollars)</i>	
	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>
Argentina	34 240	31 584	123	103	66.0	40.0
Bermuda (territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	421	461	768	823	210.0	306.0
Colombia	7.4	5.0
Costa Rica	7 458	8 855	321	355	4.8	9.9
Honduras	5 150	6 100	135	140
Jamaica	6 141	5 781	289	263	27.0	14.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	281	329	569	720
Trinidad and Tobago	4 849	4 849	433	429

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

Figure IX. Policing rates per 100,000 inhabitants, developed and developing countries, 1975, 1980, 1985 and 1990



a/ Estimate.

Source: Based on *Trends: The Global View of Crime and Justice*, a special issue of the *UNCJIN Crime and Justice Letter* on findings of the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies, November 1991, p. 2

2. Prosecution and court personnel

51. Although many countries supplied data on prosecution and court personnel, it was difficult to find a common basis for comparison; however, some data on the number of judges is shown in table 12. Much of the data in table 12 refer to all judges (and not just those dealing with criminal matters) and the role of lay magistrates differs substantially in different systems. A rough comparison of the number of judges per 100,000 inhabitants, however, may yield some insight into the different criminal justice systems and allow comparison of personnel. The range of rates is great and the data should be examined with care. Three countries have exceptionally high rates and two have exceptionally low rates. In most countries there are 2-7 judges per 100,000 inhabitants.

Table 12. Total number of judges and number of judges per 100,000 inhabitants, selected countries in Europe and North America, 1986 a/

Country	Total number of judges	Judges per 100,000 inhabitants
Austria	1 503	20
Cyprus	7	0
Denmark	601	12
Finland <u>b/</u>	220	5
France	2 915	5
Germany, Federal Republic of	4 216	7
Greece <u>b/</u>	937	10
Hungary <u>b/</u>	460	4
Italy	519	1
Netherlands <u>b/</u>	273	2
Norway <u>b/</u>	129	3
Poland <u>b/</u>	1 377	4
Portugal	506	5
Spain	963	3
Switzerland	396	6
Turkey	1 220	3
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics <u>b/</u>	4 599	2
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland <u>b/</u>	1 254	2
United States of America <u>b/</u> , <u>c/</u>	4 953	2
Yugoslavia <u>b/</u>	1 680	7

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ Excluding lay judges.

b/ Including judges not dealing with criminal matters; judges dealing with criminal matters assumed to account for about 30 per cent of listed figures.

c/ Including federal and state judges.

3. Prison personnel

52. There is evidence that the proportion of personnel working in prisons is increasing; the proportion of prison guards increased considerably in 1986. The proportion of criminal justice personnel involved in policing is higher in developing countries than in developed countries. The

proportion of criminal justice personnel who are judges is extremely small, which is consistent with the view that the establishment and maintenance of a strong judicial system require a substantive investment in a sophisticated education system. The increased proportion of personnel allocated to prisons in both developing and developed countries may suggest a substantial shift in expenditure towards the punishment side of the criminal justice system. In the case of prisons, however, it may be that the substantial cost of prison is carried by capital expenditure, such as the provision of space, food and other amenities necessary to sustain the lives of prisoners. In a sense, the subsistence costs for prisoners are as high and possibly higher than those for criminal justice personnel themselves. The actual allocation of custodial personnel may tell only half the story concerning the cost of prisons. The provision of prison space, therefore, may be an important indicator of the cost of prisons. Two questions in the Third Survey deal with the number of prison staff and the number and size of prison establishments. Both give insight into the personnel resources in the penitentiary system. An attempt was made to establish the relationship between the number of prison staff and the total population. The results are shown in tables 13, 14 and 15.

Table 13. Prison staff in relation to total population and prison population, selected countries in Europe and North America, 1986

<i>Country</i>	<i>Total number of prison staff members</i>	<i>Prison staff members per 100,000 inhabitants</i>	<i>Prisoners per prison staff member</i>
Austria	3 358	44	2.5
Bulgaria	2 617	29	6.1
Canada	19 556	78	1.4
Denmark	3 477	68	0.9
Finland	2 337	49	1.7
France	16 445	30	2.7
Germany, Federal Republic of	27 949	46	2.0
Greece	1 170	13	3.3
Italy	30 546	53	1.1
Norway	1 538	38	1.3
Poland	22 103	60	4.5
Turkey	11 831	23	1.5
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	30 210	53	1.8
United States of America	140 844	58	5.8

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

53. In countries in Europe and North America, the number of prison staff members per 100,000 inhabitants ranged from under 25 for Greece and Turkey to over 60 for Canada and Denmark. The number of prisoners per prison staff member also varied. Denmark was the only country where there were more prison staff members than prisoners; otherwise, the figure ranged from 1.1 prisoners per prison staff member in Italy to around 6 prisoners per prison staff member in Bulgaria and the United States (see table 13).

54. In Europe, the total number of prison beds per 100,000 inhabitants ranged from under 50 for the Netherlands to over 200 for Hungary and Poland (see table 14). That may be seen as an indicator of material resources or as a partial determinant of the size of a nation's prison population.

Table 14. Total number of prison beds and number of prison beds per 100,000 inhabitants, selected countries in Europe, 1986

<i>Country</i>	<i>Total number of prison beds</i>	<i>Prison beds per 100,000 inhabitants</i>
Austria	9 574	126
Bulgaria	15 500	176
Denmark	3 734	73
Germany, Federal Republic of	48 302	79
Finland	4 416	92
Hungary	22 841	215
Italy	35 647	62
Netherlands	5 205	35
Poland	100 536	268
Portugal	7 315	71

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

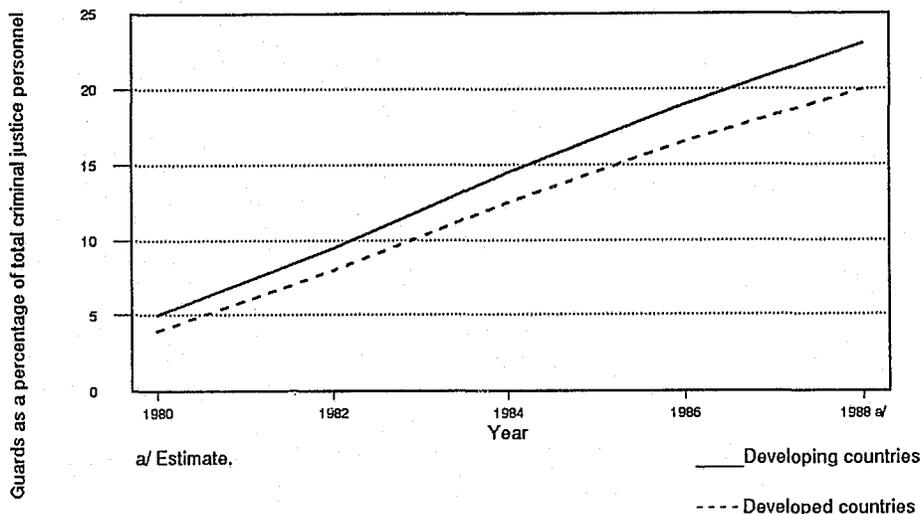
Table 15. Adult prisons and prison staff, selected countries and areas in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1982 and 1986

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Adult prisons</i>		<i>Prison staff members</i>	
	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1986</i>
Argentina	20	20	..	6 948
Bermuda (territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)	3	3	132	132
Costa Rica	16	15	1 660	1 757
Honduras	25	25	766	743
Panama	18	18	282	400
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1	1	44	41

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

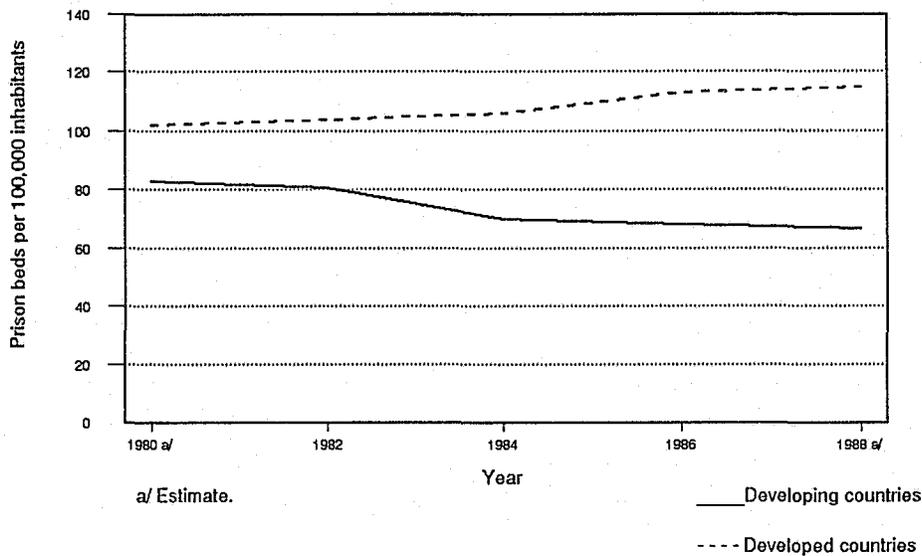
55. Prisons are extremely expensive. The average annual cost of supporting an individual in prison in England and Wales is \$26,000; for a juvenile inmate, the cost is \$40,000. In the United States, the figure ranges from \$30,000 to \$60,000 per inmate. In France, it was recently estimated that the cost of creating one new prison bed (that is, the initial capital outlay) was approximately \$76,000. At that rate, developing countries would be expected to have great difficulty in making room for their prisoners (see figures X and XI). While there has been an increase in the allocation of personnel to correctional administration in developing countries, the provision of prison beds has decreased. In contrast, the provision of prison beds in developed countries appears to have kept up with the increased allocation of personnel to prisons. It should be emphasized that these are general observations; the situation in individual countries may diverge considerably from these patterns.

Figure X. Prison guards as a percentage of total criminal justice personnel, developed and developing countries, 1980-1988



Source: Based on *Trends: The Global View of Crime and Justice*, a special issue of the *UNCJIN Crime and Justice Letter* on findings of the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies, November 1991.

Figure XI. Number of prison beds per 100,000 inhabitants, developed and developing countries, 1980-1988



Source: Based on *Trends: The Global View of Crime and Justice*, a special issue of the *UNCJIN Crime and Justice Letter* on findings of the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies, November 1991.

V. Dynamics in criminal justice systems, 1975-1986

A. Asia and the Pacific

56. Crime data for countries in Asia and the Pacific were considered in relation to certain social variables. Simple techniques were used. For example, the population growth rates of countries were rated high, medium or low. Although data on a large number of socio-economic factors were available,* it was not necessary to examine every indicator since, in many cases, one indicator could be used in place of several others. For example, infant mortality and life expectancy both indicate the state of health and medical service in a country; it is no coincidence that countries with high infant mortality rates also have low life expectancy rates. Other supporting indicators were the number of inhabitants per physician and nurse, government expenditure on health etc. The following items were selected:

(a) Demographic indicators: total population, population growth rate, and percentage of persons aged 15-29 in the population;

(b) Social indicators: ratio of secondary-school enrolments to the total population of children in that age group;

(c) Health indicators: infant mortality, life expectancy at birth, number of inhabitants per physician and number of inhabitants per nursing person;

(d) Economic indicators: average annual growth in per capita gross national product (GNP), average annual rate of inflation, percentage of economically active population, and average annual growth in agriculture, industry and manufacturing;

(e) Central government expenditure: defence, education, health, and housing amenities, social security and social welfare;

(f) Technological indicators: energy consumption per capita;

(g) Crime: data supplied by the countries.

Tables 16 and 17 provide data on the items and annual averages. More detailed definitions of the items and of the methods used in compiling the data are provided in World Development Report 1989.^{19, 20}

57. Thus, it was not necessary to collect and examine data on a large number of variables just because they were available; instead, an attempt was made to identify factors that affected the quality of life, such as population, education, health, transport and communication, the economy and technology and to select one or two variables that reflected each of those factors (see tables 16 and 17). It can be assumed that the lives of at least some homicide victims could have been saved if health and medical facilities were better and, therefore, the recorded homicide rate could have been lower than at present.²⁰

58. Various procedures for classifying sets of data, for example, classifying energy consumption into high, medium or low, were discarded in favour of a simple approach. Any value below the

*The main source for socio-economic data was World Bank, *World Development Report 1989* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1989). Other sources were documents produced by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and replies to the Third Survey. See also United Nations Development Programme, *Human Development Report 1991* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1991).

Table 16. Demographic characteristics, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific

Country	Population (millions) (1986)	Population growth rate (percentage) (1985)	Share of persons aged 15-29 in the population (percentage) (1985)	Life expectancy at birth (1987)	Infant mortality (1986)	Population per physician (1984)	Population per nursing person (1984)	Ratio of secondary-school enrolments to the total number of children in that age group (percentage) (1986)
Australia	16.0	1.2	25.4	76	8.8	440	110	96
Bangladesh	103.0	2.5	29.0	51	109.2	6 730	8 980	18
China	1 054.0	0.9	29.1	69	35.0	1 000	3 000	42
India	781.0	2.0	27.2	58	85.9	2 520	1 700	35
Indonesia	167.0	2.2	28.0	60	101.0	9 460	1 260	41
Japan	121.0	0.6	20.7	78	5.5	660	180	96
Malaysia	16.1	2.6	28.0	70	17.5	1 930	1 010	54
Nepal	17.0	2.7	25.7	51	136.0	32 710	4 680	25
New Zealand	3.3	0.6	26.3	75	10.8	580	80	84
Pakistan	102.5	3.0	30.0	55	109.0	2 900	4 900	18
Philippines	57.1	2.5	28.7	63	49.0	6 700	2 740	68
Republic of Korea	41.5	1.4	31.4	69	27.0	1 170	590	95
Singapore	2.6	1.1	31.9	73	9.3	1 310	..	71
Sri Lanka	16.1	1.5	29.6	70	29.5	5 520	1 290	66
Thailand	52.6	1.9	30.7	64	11.3	6 290	710	29

Source: World Bank, *World Development Report 1989* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1989).

Table 17. Economy and related characteristics, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, various years

Country	Average annual growth in per capita GNP (percentage) 1965-1987	Average annual rate of inflation (percentage) 1980-1987	Energy consumption per capita (kilograms of oil equivalent) 1987	Economically active population (percentage) 1985	Average annual growth (percentage) 1980-1987			Share of total central government expenditure (percentage) 1987			
					Agriculture	Industry	Manufacturing	Defence	Education	Health	Housing amenities, social security and social welfare
Australia	1.8	7.8	4 821	60.2	5.0	1.9	0.4	9.3	7.0	9.5	28.6
Bangladesh	0.3	11.1	47	29.9	2.4	4.7	2.4	10.0	10.6	5.0	9.8
China	5.2	4.2	525	51.2	7.4	13.2	12.6
India	1.8	7.7	208	36.8	0.8	7.2	8.3	21.5	2.7	1.9	5.7
Indonesia	4.5	8.5	216	38.5	3.0	2.1	7.8	8.6	8.8	1.5	1.7
Japan	4.2	1.4	3 232	49.4	0.8	4.9	6.7
Malaysia	4.1	1.1	771	37.5	3.4	5.8	6.3
Nepal	0.5	8.8	23	65.1	4.2	6.2	12.1	5.0	6.8
New Zealand	0.9	11.5	4 211	42.4	3.1	4.0	3.3	4.7	11.1	12.4	29.7
Pakistan	2.5	7.3	207	32.0	3.4	9.1	8.9	29.5	2.6	0.9	8.7
Philippines	1.7	16.7	241	39.6	1.8	-2.8	-1.1	9.2	18.0	5.5	4.3
Republic of Korea	6.4	5.0	1 475	37.9	4.4	10.8	10.6	27.3	18.3	2.3	7.2
Singapore	7.2	1.3	4 436	47.1	-3.9	4.0	3.3	19.0	18.2	4.1	15.9
Sri Lanka	3.0	11.8	160	33.4	3.1	4.2	6.2	9.6	7.8	5.4	11.7
Thailand	3.9	2.8	330	53.0	3.7	5.9	6.0	18.7	19.3	6.1	5.2

Source: World Bank, *World Development Report 1989* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1989).

median was designated low and the medium and high values were determined arbitrarily. The value ranges of the high, medium and low categories for each of the variables are shown in table 18.

Table 18. Socio-economic conditions: value ranges of high, medium and low standards

<i>Variable</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Low</i>
		<i>Percentage</i>	
Population growth rate	2.6 and above	2.0-2.5	Below 2.0
Ratio of secondary-school enrolments to the total number of children in that age group	84 and above	54-71	Below 54
GNP growth rate	4.6 and above	3.0-4.5	Below 3.0
Growth rate in agriculture	4.1 and above	3.0-4.0	Below 3.0
Growth rate in manufacturing	8.1 and above	6.0-8.0	Below 6.0
Share of total central government expenditure			
Education	18.0 and above	11.0-18	Below 11
Housing amenities, social security and social welfare	15.1 and above	8.0-15	Below 8
		<i>Per 1,000 live births</i>	
Infant mortality	50 and over	28-49	Below 28
		<i>Kilograms of oil equivalent</i>	
Energy consumption	3 000 and above	330- 2 999	Below 330

Source: Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders and Australian Institute of Criminology, *Crime and Justice in Asia and the Pacific: A Report on the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, 1980-1986* (Tokyo and Canberra, 1990), table 3.1.

59. The present publication deals mainly with official crime statistics. Such statistics usually consist of crimes reported to the police. Most crimes that occur in a country, however, are not reported to the police; furthermore, the recording of crimes is significantly influenced by the amount of resources available, the level of technology used, and socio-economic conditions. The allocation of resources and technology to different factors contributing to the quality of life reflects on the priorities given to those factors. For example, reducing population growth and improving the manufacturing and industrial base of a country may receive higher priority than investing resources and technology in containing the crime of theft. Similarly, improved road conditions may receive higher priority than developing a more sophisticated homicide division (on average, there are approximately 10 road fatalities for every homicide committed).²⁰

Patterns obtained through analysis

60. Five countries in Asia and the Pacific - Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal and Pakistan - showed low levels of recorded crime. With almost no exceptions, the standards of socio-economic conditions in those countries (see table 19) were significantly different from those of the others. For example, each of those countries was faced with a medium or high population growth rate and was already densely populated. Each of the countries had low standards of health and education - measured in terms of its infant mortality rate, enrolment in secondary education and share of

Table 19. Asia and the Pacific: standards of socio-economic conditions, selected countries

Country	Population growth rate	Ratio of secondary-school enrolments to total number of children in that age group	Infant mortality	Energy consumption	GNP growth rate	Growth rate		Share of total central government expenditure	
						Agriculture	Manufacturing	Education	Housing
Australia	L	H	L	H	L	H	L	L	H
Bangladesh	M	L	H	L	L	L	M	L	M
China	L	L	M	M	H	H	H
India	M	L	H	L	L	L	H	L	L
Indonesia	M	L	H	L	M	L	L	L	L
Japan	L	H	L	H	M	L	M
Malaysia	H	M	L	M	M	M	M
Nepal	H	L	H	L	L	H	..	M	L
New Zealand	L	H	L	H	L	M	L	M	H
Pakistan	H	L	H	L	L	M	H	L	M
Philippines	M	M	M	L	L	L	L	H	L
Republic of Korea	L	H	L	M	H	H	H	H	L
Singapore	L	M	L	H	H	L	L	H	H
Sri Lanka	L	M	M	L	M	M	L	L	M
Thailand	M	L	L	M	M	M	M	H	L

Source: Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders and Australian Institute of Criminology, *Crime and Justice in Asia: A Report on the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, 1980-1986* (Tokyo and Canberra, 1990), table 3.2.

Note: H = high; M = medium; and L = low.

government expenditure allocated to education and health. Each of the five showed low agricultural output and was lagging behind other countries in the use of technology, a fact indicated by low energy consumption.²⁰

61. In contrast to those five countries, Australia and New Zealand each had high levels of recorded crime, a low population growth rate, a high rate of enrolment in secondary education, a low infant mortality rate, low growth in per capita GNP (which must be examined, however, in relation to already relatively high GNP), and each made extensive use of technology. Both countries had successfully contained population growth and had improved their situation with regard to health, education, housing, manufacturing and level of technology. And they had made significant investments in both personnel and technological resources and in crime investigation and detection, including recording procedures.²⁰

62. Fiji, Japan, Malaysia, Republic of Korea, Singapore and Sri Lanka showed crime levels that fell between the levels of the two above-mentioned groups of countries. Some of the countries in the third group, such as Japan, had low population growth, extremely high standards of health and education, and a high level of technology - and a recorded crime rate that was much lower than that of Australia or New Zealand.²⁰

63. In conclusion, the statistics on crime and socio-economic conditions in Asia and the Pacific offer few clues to the understanding of the problem of crime in that region. Crime seems to follow little if any pattern in Asia and the Pacific. Why the crimes occur and how they are recorded, processed and treated depend entirely upon the conditions and characteristics of the country in question. At best, the similarities of socio-economic conditions and crime situations between some countries may suggest subregional patterns. A better understanding of the data needs to be achieved before any further analysis of crime data is undertaken, there is a need to understand.²⁰

64. The problems relating to the quality of crime data in various countries cannot be resolved in a short period. While efforts to understand and improve official crime statistics continue, the level of crime in countries can be assessed with the help of surveys, for example surveys on crime victimization.²¹ Such surveys are gradually being enlarged to elicit information on people's attitudes and perceptions regarding issues such as crime prevention, policing, and the treatment of offenders.

B. Europe and North America

65. The present section includes an outline of some relationships between crime rates over time and between crime and punishment indices and selected social variables. The image of crime and punishment that emerges from official data, however, always has to be interpreted in the light of other information. Consider, for example, the following:

(a) Statistics in many countries over the last 10 years have shown a drop in the number of cases that involved tampering with meters for measuring the use of electricity. That has nothing to do with the propensity of people to steal using such meters; instead, it is a reflection of the fact that in many countries the use of such meters is being rapidly replaced by other ways of determining payment for energy use;

(b) Many studies imply a direct relation between increased drug use and increased crime,⁵ whereby petty and more serious forms of theft are used to fund illicit drug purchases. That implies that there is a need to be aware of the data available on drug use, such as those collected and disseminated by the United Nations International Drug Control Programme of the Secretariat;

(c) Many studies show occupational crime to be frequent, but in most countries there is a low recorded crime rate, perhaps because of changing power relationships in the workplace.

66. There are other administrative aspects to be considered, such as the recording of the rate of remand in custody:

(a) A high rate of custody could be the result of excellent recording stemming from a desire to monitor fully the rights of all citizens. A low rate could reflect lack of interest in recording. Therefore, it is necessary to know the background when comparing such rates;

(b) It is also important to know the exact definitions: for example, when comparing unsentenced remand populations, there is a need to know that in some countries remand is counted from the date of sentencing and in others it is counted from the last possible date for appeal;

(c) In the area of personal and sexual crime, the increased rate of recording in recent years is probably more a function of increased sensitivity on the part of police and of the work of victim support groups than a real increase.

67. The central message is not to attempt to interpret any pattern of official crime statistics without understanding the social and administrative environment.

1. Expressing crime and punishment rates in relation to population

68. Crime and punishment rates should not be presented in absolute numbers, thus ignoring social factors; however, it is not possible to correct the rates for all social factors that might affect crime, such as population, age, gender, ethnic minorities, proportion of drug users, proportion of car owners, and level of economic development. Some choice has to be made between the two extremes.

2. Relationship between crime rates

69. A basic question concerns whether it makes sense to talk about societies with high levels of crime, that is, whether societies with high rates of one recorded crime type also tend to have high rates of the others. Suppose the 1985 data for each crime type included in the Third Survey were to be expressed in relation to national population; how would the rates correlate? Table 20 shows the correlations between the rates for intentional homicide, assault, rape, robbery and theft in 1985.

Table 20. Correlations between the rates for intentional homicide, assault, rape, robbery and theft, 1985 ^{a/}

Type of crime	Intentional homicide	Assault	Rape	Robbery	Theft
Intentional homicide	-	NS	NS	NS	NS
Assault	-	-	SS	NS	SS
Rape	-	-	-	NS	S
Robbery	-	-	-	-	SS

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

Notes: NS = Correlation not significant at $p = 0.01$, one-tailed test.

S = Correlation significant at $p < 0.01$, one-tailed test.

SS = Correlation significant at $p < 0.001$, one-tailed test.

^{a/} Total sample: 28 countries.

70. The first conclusion worthy of note is that recorded rates of crime are positively associated. Around three quarters of all correlations between crime rates were positive, and all those that are statistically reliable are positive. Thus, countries with high rates for one type of crime tend to have

high rates for others. Some types of crime, however, were much more closely interrelated than others. Assault, embezzlement and non-intentional homicide were only tenuously related to other types of crime. Given the generally positive correlations between rates of different crime types, it should be borne in mind that such rates may not necessarily indicate a tendency for a population to break or abide by the law, but rather an inclination to record crime.

71. Further analysis revealed two aspects. The first was related to the general level of recorded crime. The second involved the contrast between (a) offences such as embezzlement, drug offences other than possession, and fraud and (b) offences such as robbery and intentional homicide. It is plausible that the second aspect involved offences requiring police intervention. There is little argument about whether to intervene in cases of robbery or murder. But it could be argued that fraud and minor assaults are an inseparable part of professional and personal life against which citizens could protect themselves.

72. Table 21 shows the correlations between various crime rates for 1985 and those for 1975 and 1980. It is an attempt to answer the question of whether, in countries with high recorded crime rates, recorded crime rates tend to be consistently high over a period of time compared with the rates in other countries. All correlations were positive, which means that, regardless of the type of crime, there was a tendency for a country to continue having a high or low crime rate over the five-year period; that was particularly true for rape and drug offences.

Table 21. Correlations between crime rates for 1975 and 1985 and between those for 1980 and 1985 ^{a/}

Type of crime	1975 and 1985	1980 and 1985
Intentional homicide	+0.61	+0.63
Non-intentional homicide	+0.48	+0.18
Assault ^{b/}	+0.12/+0.86	+0.26/+0.92 ^{c/}
Drug offences ^{b/}	+0.89/+0.29	+0.85 ^{d/} /+0.96 ^{c/}
Rape	+0.86 ^{d/}	+0.73 ^{d/}
Kidnapping	..	+0.03
Robbery	+0.56	+0.76 ^{d/}
Theft ^{b/}	+0.80 ^{d/} /+0.58	+0.63/+0.82 ^{d/}
Fraud	+0.82 ^{d/}	+0.89 ^{c/}
Total	+0.51	+0.51

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

^{a/} Total sample: 28 countries.

^{b/} Two figures are given because of changes in the questions in the Third Survey.

^{c/} Correlation is significant at $p < 0.001$, one-tailed test.

^{d/} Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$, one-tailed test.

73. Table 22 shows percentage changes in crime recorded per 100,000 inhabitants between 1975 and 1985. Some countries had reported significant reductions in recorded crime; some were attributable to changes in recording practices.

Table 22. Percentage change in crime recorded per 100,000 inhabitants, by type of crime, selected countries and areas in Europe and North America, 1975-1985 (Percentage)

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Intentional homicide</i>	<i>Rape</i>	<i>Robbery</i>	<i>Theft</i>
Austria	+73 <u>a/</u>	-15	+2	+45	..
Canada	-5 <u>a/</u>	-7	+789	-4	+165 <u>a/</u>
Czechoslovakia	-11	+38	-13	+90	..
Denmark	..	+236	..	+125	..
Finland	+199 <u>a/</u>	-56 <u>a/</u>	-24	-26	+22
France	+81	..	+73	+1 512 <u>a/</u>	-43 <u>a/</u>
Germany, Federal Republic of	+47	-4	-12	+53	+122 <u>a/</u>
Greece	+44	+50	..	+170	..
Italy	-30 <u>a/</u>	+48 <u>a/</u>	-64	+600 <u>a/</u>	..
Netherlands	+130	+67	+248 <u>a/</u>
Norway	+86 <u>a/</u>	+50	+932	+100 <u>a/</u>	+128 <u>a/</u>
Poland	+46	-5	-2	+2 122 <u>a/</u>	+41
Portugal	-7
Spain	+296	+300	..	+11 118	..
Sweden	+32	-58 <u>a/</u>	+28	+59	+240
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland					
England and Wales	+70 <u>a/</u>	-24	+76	+139	+54
Northern Ireland	+71	-76 <u>a/</u>	+92	-9	+85 <u>a/</u>
Scotland	+249 <u>a/</u>	-69 <u>a/</u>	+38	+30	+46 <u>a/</u>
United States of America	+527 <u>a/</u>	+426	+788	+509	..

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ Percentage change to be treated with even more than the usual caution because of a discrepancy in the figures for 1980 reported in the Second Survey, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third Survey, covering the period 1980-1986.

74. There may be some correlation between policing and crime rates. Whether that correlation represents a causal relationship, however, is impossible to say with certainty; even if it does, the interpretation of this relationship is most difficult. For example, low levels of policing may lead to underrecording of crime, which, in turn, may result in a "low" level of crime; by the same token, a high level of policing may result in there being more police to record crime, which, in turn, may lead to a "high" level of crime. According to figure IX, the level of policing in developed countries has steadily increased, coinciding roughly with an overall increase in the crime rate. In contrast to that, the level of policing in developing countries varies inversely with the crime rate: that is, when the crime rate is high (e.g. in 1980) the policing rate dips slightly; and when the crime rate is low (e.g. in 1985) the policing rate is higher. It may be possible that the different policing levels are related to specific types of crime, for example, violent or property crimes, for it is known that the levels of those types of crime vary somewhat according to development. There may also be other factors that affect policing levels, such as the quality of reported data, as well as political, social and economic instability. Another likely explanation for differences between the rates of developing and developed countries is that many developing countries are in the early stages of collecting and disseminating criminal justice statistics, so that the reporting of data on policing and

crime rates is sporadic. Furthermore, in some countries, regardless of their level of socio-economic development, the definition of "police" is difficult to standardize for the sake of international comparison, particularly in countries that do not draw a clear distinction between policing, military and other regulatory personnel whose task is to enforce the law.

3. Prison population rates

75. The examination of crime rates and the size of the prison population in relation to the national population is part of an emergent theory on crime and punishment. The total number of persons incarcerated in relation to the national population declined between 1975 and 1985 in all countries in which it was possible to make such a comparison. It should be kept in mind, however, that the criteria used to complete the questionnaires of the last two surveys were obviously different in the case of several countries (the figures given for the overlapping year of the last two surveys (1980) varied substantially in some cases).

76. An alternative way of expressing crime and incarceration is in relation to each other. Table 23 shows a wide range of values, no doubt at least in part a result of variations in the types of crime included under "total crime". A country that has a large prison population in relation to its recorded crime levels does not necessarily have a large prison population in relation to its national population (the Netherlands is a good example). That fact invites further investigation of the possibility of there being such relationships.

Table 23. Detained population per 100,000 crimes recorded, selected countries and areas in Europe and North America, 1975 and 1985

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>1975</i>	<i>1985</i>
Austria	..	1 530
Bulgaria	..	29 969
Canada	..	1 053
Cyprus	1 436	..
Finland	2 628	562
France	1 361	617
Germany, Federal Republic of	1 761	1 148
Gibraltar	..	614
Greece	1 549	814
Hungary	..	9 185
Ireland	2 213	..
Italy	1 548	1 138
Netherlands	711	..
Poland	27 060	13 942
Spain	4 659	..
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland		
England and Wales	1 870	1 030
Northern Ireland	..	2 870
Scotland	2 130	5 200
United States of America	3 162	..

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

77. The number of crimes prorated per number of detained persons may be more useful for describing the extent of the use of custody than the conventional method involving the number of detained persons per 100,000 inhabitants. For seven of the eight countries or areas where a comparison was possible, the number detained per 100,000 crimes recorded decreased between 1975 and 1985. The exception was Scotland. Thus, according to both the figures reported for imprisoned population per 100,000 inhabitants and imprisoned population per 100,000 crimes, there seems to have been a reduction in the use of imprisonment as punishment between 1975 and 1985.

4. Filtering through the criminal justice process

78. Table 24 shows the number of persons suspected, prosecuted and convicted per 100,000 inhabitants in selected countries and areas in Europe and North America in 1985. Because of differences in systems and methods of classification, it is not necessarily the case that the number of persons in question becomes smaller at the various stages of the criminal justice process, leading from suspected to prosecuted and convicted. Table 24 is useful for two other reasons: first, it shows the number of persons per 100,000 inhabitants who, for various reasons, are officially processed in the criminal justice system, that is, the extent to which the criminal justice system penetrates the lives of citizens; secondly, it demonstrates how the number of persons found guilty relates to the number of persons suspected.

Table 24. Persons suspected, prosecuted and convicted per 100,000 inhabitants, selected countries and areas in Europe and North America, 1985

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Suspected</i>	<i>Prosecuted</i>	<i>Convicted</i>
Austria	1 121
Bulgaria	402	347	291
Canada	2 044
Cyprus	983	127	..
Czechoslovakia	1 037	759	..
Denmark	842	2 435	2 319
Finland	..	5 876	..
France	1 704
Germany, Federal Republic of	2 121	..	1 183
Greece	2 829	..	1 226
Hungary	802	582	570
Italy	796	1 148	195
Malta	..	95	101
Netherlands	1 770	1 523	..
Norway	310	386	..
Poland	836	836	428
Portugal	485
Spain	431
Sweden	1 114	2 812	2 013
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	2 198	..	1 615
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland			
England and Wales	..	1 036	1 176
Northern Ireland	634	584	609
Scotland	..	4 041	3 648
United States of America	31 471	121	..
Yugoslavia	1 186	745	494

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

79. The "criminal justice filter" operates quite differently in different countries. For example, in some countries (such as Hungary) there are almost as many persons convicted as prosecuted; and in others (such as Italy and Poland) there are a lot more people prosecuted than convicted. Those differences may, to some extent, be due to differences in recording procedures or to other reasons.

5. *The dynamics of differentiation: women and juveniles*

80. Does the criminal justice system discriminate against people because of their age or sex? Table 25 shows the ratio of (a) males suspected, prosecuted, convicted and imprisoned per 100,000 male inhabitants to (b) the corresponding figure for females in selected countries in Europe and North America in 1985. Thus, according to the table, in Austria for example, six adult males were convicted for every adult female convicted in 1985; furthermore, there were 18 men for every woman in Austrian prisons.

81. If the figures for men suspected, prosecuted, convicted and imprisoned were equal to those for women, all the values in table 25 would be 1; however, none of the values is less than four. Comparing national ratios in this way gets around many of the problems involved in making national comparisons, since the figures for both men and women for each country have been compiled using the same statistical conventions.

Table 25. Ratio of males suspected, prosecuted, convicted or imprisoned per 100,000 male inhabitants to females suspected, prosecuted, convicted or imprisoned per 100,000 female inhabitants, selected countries in Europe and North America, 1985

Country	Suspected	Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned <i>a/</i>
Austria	6	18
Belgium	14
Bulgaria	..	6	6	10
Canada	6	6	..	9
Cyprus	12	12	..	52
Czechoslovakia	6	7
Denmark	..	7	7	..
France	4	18
Germany, Federal Republic of	4	..	6	..
Greece	11	21
Hungary	7	8	8	..
Italy	6	12
Malta	..	17	14	..
Netherlands	8
Poland	7	7	8	..
Sweden	5	..	6	24
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	13	6	7	..
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	6	21
United States of America	5

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey on Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ The number of persons in prison at any one time rather than the number admitted to prison.

82. Moving from persons suspected to persons prosecuted, convicted or imprisoned, the ratios increase in favour of men. Among the countries where it is possible to make a comparison of the ratio of persons imprisoned, that ratio is higher than the others. Women are certainly filtered out in the system generally.

83. The most plausible explanations for the situation are gender discrimination in criminal justice or differences in the type of offence committed, with women committing fewer offences leading to imprisonment. The issue is important in that one school of thought suggests that equality in criminal justice is a measure of women's equality in general. From such a perspective, it matters little whether the source of differential treatment is the offence committed or the way that the criminal justice system processes the offender. If that perspective is accepted, then it may be argued that there was little or no progress towards equality between 1975 and 1995.

84. The proportion of males suspected, prosecuted, convicted and incarcerated in selected countries in Europe and North America in 1985 is shown in table 26; the corresponding figures for females are shown in table 27. The juvenile contribution to those processed by criminal justice systems varies widely. Relevant variables include the age of criminal responsibility, labelling of juvenile institutions to exclude them from the penal system, and the use of other distinctive procedures for juveniles that disguise the penal nature of their processing. There is no obvious filtering out of juvenile males as there was in the case of adult females.

Table 26. Proportion of juvenile males suspected, prosecuted, convicted or incarcerated, selected countries and areas in Europe and North America, 1985
(Percentage)

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Suspected</i>	<i>Prosecuted</i>	<i>Convicted</i>	<i>Incarcerated</i>
Austria	9	2
Belgium	6
Bulgaria	..	7	7	5
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	10	..
Canada	19	26	..	2
Cyprus	6	6	1	33
Czechoslovakia	8	8
Denmark	..	13	11	..
France	12	6
Germany, Federal Republic of	12	..	18	..
Greece	4	..	6	6
Hungary	11	10	10	..
Italy	3	6
Malta	..	7	8	..
Netherlands	18	15	8	..
Poland	10	19	6	..
Sweden	28	..	23	8
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	9	..
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland				
England and Wales	..	14	29	6
Northern Ireland	11	10	10	1
Scotland	..	32	32	39
United States of America	16
Yugoslavia	5	6	6	..

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

Table 27. Proportion of juvenile females suspected, prosecuted, convicted or incarcerated, selected countries and areas in Europe and North America, 1985 (Percentage)

<i>Country or area</i>	<i>Suspected</i>	<i>Prosecuted</i>	<i>Convicted</i>	<i>Incarcerated</i>
Austria	6	2
Belgium	15
Bulgaria	..	4	3	3
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	2	..
Canada	19	38	..	1
Cyprus	3	2	..	11
Czechoslovakia	9	8
Denmark	..	10	8	..
France	8	10
Germany, Federal Republic of	12	..	12	..
Greece	1	9
Hungary	10	8	8	..
Italy	1	5
Malta	..	19	19	..
Netherlands	10
Poland	4	9	3	..
Sweden	30	..	24	5
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	4	..
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland				
England and Wales	..	10	36	2
Northern Ireland	7	6	6	3
Scotland	..	19	19	23
United States of America	22
Yugoslavia	5	2	3	..

Source: Based on the results of the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

85. There is no clear evidence of juvenile females filtering out of the criminal justice process. As for males, there are some countries and areas where males classified as juveniles constitute a high proportion of the males processed. Canada, Malta and Poland offer examples, although the situation changes at different stages of the criminal justice process.

86. Although there is evidence of adult females filtering out of the criminal justice process, there is no such evidence in the case of juveniles of either gender. Since the basis of comparison for the juveniles was adults of the same gender, however, the possibility of there being a differential filtering out of juvenile females is not ruled out.

87. According to table 26, 9 per cent of convicted males in Austria were juveniles; and according to table 27, 6 per cent of convicted females in that country were juveniles. The ratio of convicted juvenile males to convicted juvenile females is thus 1.5:1.

88. The average (median) ratios of juvenile males to juvenile females for persons suspected, prosecuted, convicted and incarcerated are, respectively, 1.1:1, 1.6:1, 1.7:1 and 1.4:1. Thus, juvenile females appear to be officially processed less than juvenile males, especially at the prosecution and conviction stages.

6. Crime, punishment and development variables

89. In the last 30-40 years, significant efforts have been made to develop standardized (comparable) international statistical series on socio-economic conditions. The International Labour Organisation, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the World Health Organization, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, and regional commissions of the Economic and Social Council have been at the forefront of such efforts. The quality of the data series developed by those agencies continues to improve. Data on crime, however, require much more work before international series can be developed. Therefore, socio-economic analysis of crime trends has to be taken with caution commensurate to the level of development of data on international trends in crime.

90. Two variables - population density and the number of television sets per capita - were selected because the data were generally available from the World Bank data bank and reflected aspects of development. Table 28 shows correlations between the two variables and crime rates. They are presented both as direct correlations (both variables being taken from 1980) and lagged (the social variable being taken from 1980 and the crime variable being taken from 1985). The lagging was done because social variables are thought to have a delayed effect rather than an immediate effect. Table 29 shows correlations between (a) population density and the number of television sets per capita and variables related to the use of prisons, namely, the number of persons admitted to prison and the average sentence length.

Table 28. Correlations between television ownership and population density, 1980, and crime rates, by type of crime, 1980 and 1985, Europe and North America a/

<i>Type of crime</i>	<i>Television sets per capita</i>	<i>Population density</i>
<i>Intentional homicide</i>		
1980	+0.40	+0.24
1985	+0.71 <u>b/</u>	-0.02
<i>Non-intentional homicide</i>		
1980	-0.06	+0.22
1985	+0.23	-0.32
<i>Assault</i>		
1980	+0.68 <u>b/</u>	-0.40
1985 <u>c/</u>	+0.77 <u>b/</u> // +0.83 <u>b/</u>	-0.18 / -0.24
<i>Rape</i>		
1980	+0.68 <u>b/</u>	+0.16
1985	+0.85 <u>d/</u>	-0.29
<i>Drug offences</i>		
1980	+0.54	-0.35
1985 <u>e/</u>	+0.73 <u>b/</u> // +0.48	-0.42 / -0.32
<i>Robbery</i>		
1980	+0.85 <u>d/</u>	-0.33
1985	+0.47	-0.21
<i>Theft</i>		
1980	+1.80 <u>d/</u>	-0.09
1985 <u>e/</u>	+0.55 / +0.85 <u>d/</u>	-0.09 / -0.17
<i>Fraud</i>		
1980	+0.40	-0.33
1985	+0.66 <u>b/</u>	-0.32

<i>Type of crime</i>	<i>Television sets per capita</i>	<i>Population density</i>
<i>Bribery</i>		
1980	-0.16	+0.06
1985	+0.06	+0.60
<i>Other crime</i>		
1980	+0.10	-0.04
1985	+0.65	-0.55
<i>Total</i>		
1980	+0.71 <u>b/</u>	-0.19
1985	+0.89 <u>d/</u>	-0.26

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Operations, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ Total sample: 28 countries.

b/ Correlation significant at $p < 0.01$, one-tailed test.

c/ Two figures are given because of changes in the questions in the Third Survey, covering the period 1980-1986.

d/ Correlation significant at $p < 0.001$, one-tailed test.

Table 29. Correlations between television ownership and population density, and admission to prison and average sentence length, 1980, 1982, 1984 and 1986, Europe and North America

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Television sets per capita</i>	<i>Population density</i>
<i>Average sentence length</i>		
1982	-0.37	-0.16
1984	-0.37	-0.10
1986	-0.37	-0.21
<i>Persons admitted to prison</i>		
1980	-0.39	+0.38
1982	+0.66 <u>a/</u>	-0.02
1984	+0.62	-0.00
1986	+0.77 <u>a/</u>	-0.09

Source: Based on the results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1975-1980, and the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ Correlation significant at $p < 0.01$, one-tailed test.

C. Latin America and the Caribbean

91. Broadly speaking, there are two legal traditions in Latin America and the Caribbean: the Caribbean countries, representing the Anglo-Saxon legal tradition, and the mainland countries, representing a continental European legal tradition. The first group shows a notably lower legal age of criminal responsibility than the second.

92. Generally speaking, in the countries in the first group, mainly small islands with a population of under 100,000, a high percentage of the budget was allocated to the police sector; in comparison with the second group, the first group had a relatively high number of police officers per 1,000 inhabitants. (Bermuda, for example, had about 8 police officers per 1,000 inhabitants, whereas Argentina had only 1 per 1,000 inhabitants.)

93. In addition, in the first group, the number of crimes was high, up to nine times higher than in the second group. In very small countries such as Saint Kitts and Nevis, the crime rate is over 100 times greater than in Argentina. One explanation could be the much lower age of legal responsibility in the first group. Thus, on the mainland, many more criminal cases involving young people are dealt with by institutions devoted to the care of minors, whereas in the Caribbean, such cases tend to be counted as crimes. Even allowing for the difference in the number of police officers, however, the rate of recorded crime is much greater for the first group than for the second.

94. Comparing the number of cases initiated by the prosecution with the number of cases concluded, there were again great differences depending on the legal tradition. For example, in Argentina in 1986, only 3.5 per cent of the cases were concluded, compared with about 25 per cent in countries with an Anglo-Saxon legal tradition. In countries with an Anglo-Saxon legal tradition, nearly three times as many individuals were accused of committing crimes as in countries with a European legal tradition.

95. In countries in both groups (e.g. Argentina and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines), there was a noticeable shift towards a significant reduction in the number of individuals accused of committing crimes per 100,000 inhabitants; however, most countries in the region experienced few fluctuations in that area.

96. Curiously, the largest countries with an Anglo-Saxon legal tradition had the highest prison rates and the Caribbean islands with very small populations had prison rates that were from four to seven times higher than those of, for example, Canada or Trinidad and Tobago. Of countries with a continental European tradition, Costa Rica and Panama had high prison rates compared with those of Canada and Trinidad and Tobago, while other Latin American countries on the mainland had much lower rates; however, the figures for Costa Rica probably included individuals under partial freedom programmes. The average prison term seems to be higher in countries with an Anglo-Saxon legal tradition than in countries with a continental European legal tradition.

VI. Crime prevention strategies, 1975-1986

97. Governments were invited to report on developments in crime prevention planning and strategies in the period 1980-1986, and to provide explanations for any changes that had taken place; specific reference was made in the questionnaire to the types of crime prevention activities reported in the Second Survey.

98. The Governments of 15 developing and 20 developed countries provided information on the subject. Some gave estimates of the frequency of certain phenomena (on an experimental basis, very rarely etc.), as requested in the introduction to the questionnaire. The nature of crime prevention issues made it difficult to evaluate those estimates in a manner comparable to the analysis of statistical trends in crime.*

99. In the questionnaire, information was requested on "indirect" and "direct" strategies. Indirect strategies, such as providing job opportunities or upgrading communities through subsidies, were identified as being aimed first at improving the quality of life in general and, secondly, at deterring previous and potential offenders or influencing the community. Direct strategies were identified as preventive measures of a more technical or mechanical nature, tending to reduce opportunities to commit a criminal act. Some preventive activities shared characteristics of both types of strategies, for instance, providing opportunities for constructive leisure-time activities. Direct strategies were increasingly being used, especially in developing countries. Developing and developed countries used a wide range of preventive methods, although their frequency, intensity and range were greater in developed countries.

100. The most preferred direct strategies appeared to be publicity campaigns, police advisory services and attempts to alleviate the environmental conditions that give rise to crime.²² Community involvement and integrated activities seemed to be important. Attempts to bring the police closer to the public were increasingly being emphasized in many countries in order to promote community assistance in crime prevention.

101. Mixed bodies in which police officers and community representatives act together had the same objectives. Community-based crime prevention schemes were usually placed under the control of local authorities. The most preferred indirect strategies were constructive leisure-time activities and welfare and financial assistance. Both programmes in residential areas aimed at improving the security of tenants and visits to correctional institutions were reported to be only rarely used as a means of preventing crime.

*There are, however, methodologies specific to the crime prevention field. See, for example, E. K hlhorn and B. Svenson, eds., *Crime Prevention*, Report No. 9 (Stockholm, National Swedish Council for Crime Prevention, 1982); Steven P. Lab, *Crime Prevention Approaches, Practices and Evaluations* (Cincinnati, Ohio, C. J. Anderson Publishing Company, 1988); J. P. Lavrakas and others, "A process and impact evaluation of the 1983-1986 neighborhood anti-crime self-help program: summary report", Centre for Urban Affairs and Policy Research, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1989; and Hernando Gomez Buendia, ed., *Urban Crime: Global Trends and Policies* (Tokyo, United Nations University, 1989).

A. Indirect strategies

1. *Providing proper education*

102. Some Governments mentioned placing children under the care of social welfare authorities in certain circumstances to ensure their proper upbringing and education. Two thirds of the Governments considered foster families an appropriate means of caring for children who were at risk or who had already been in trouble; some Governments had taken measures to find foster families in a more systematic manner. Some mentioned specialized agencies and nationwide social programmes or special child protection legislation concerning foster families.

103. Many Governments reported the use of welfare and financial assistance. Some of them reported that such assistance was a component of a more general crime prevention policy focusing on youth protection and welfare; others reported the existence of special schemes for youth welfare; and others reported that welfare and financial assistance was supplied to families according to their level of poverty, that is, without relying on criteria more directly related to crime.

2. *Providing constructive leisure-time activities*

104. Providing constructive leisure-time activities was the second most frequently cited indirect crime prevention strategy. Only six Governments reported that they did not use such a strategy or did so only on an experimental basis. In a few developing countries, such activities were regarded as being part of the general leisure-time programme for all adolescents. In others, leisure-time activities were arranged by the police or the justice authorities. In developed countries, however, a variety of activities were reported to have been organized by state authorities other than the justice authorities. Private and local projects sponsored by the State were common in developed countries, whereas in developing countries such activity was largely decentralized. In some European countries, official organizations played an important role in providing constructive leisure-time activities.

3. *Providing job opportunities*

105. In many countries, job opportunities for the unemployed were reported to be part of the crime prevention policy. Some Governments reported programmes for rehabilitating criminals by employing them in private business. Others reported general employment programmes and policies, sometimes combined with education and training but not directly linked to crime prevention. One Government reported that there was no sound evidence linking unemployment and crime.

106. The Governments of 2 developing and 12 developed countries described special programmes by social and private contributors of vocational training for unemployed or disadvantaged youth. Some considered crime prevention one of the formal objectives. Mixed programmes, integrating efforts by the police, local authorities and local business circles, seemed to be increasing. Six Governments also mentioned their general policies against unemployment, especially those concerning all adolescents, regardless of whether they were delinquents.

107. Only a few Governments referred to different bodies in which persons specialized in crime prevention were involved in the decision to create, maintain or design job opportunities for unemployed persons. That decision generally rested largely in the hands of politicians and the criminal justice administrators. Sixteen Governments reported general counselling, which was provided only in a few different forms.

4. *Upgrading communities*

108. Most Governments reported that the living standards of communities had been upgraded through special subsidies related to national policy, as part of welfare action against poverty or as part of other social activities; however, in five developed countries, government or local projects had been carried out specifically for the purpose of preventing crime.

5. *Intervening in crises*

109. The majority of the Governments reported using crisis intervention as a crime prevention strategy. Six mentioned various forms of crisis intervention at the national and local levels that were usually regulated by legislative acts. Most of the others reported that crisis intervention was either part of a more general social policy to protect children and adolescents, or part of experimental schemes to prevent alcoholism and drug abuse.

B. *Direct strategies*

1. *Reduction of opportunities to commit crimes*

110. In many countries, various techniques were used to reduce opportunities to commit crimes, but with significant variations. In some countries cooperation between the police and local authorities was limited to better lighting in neighbourhoods; several others, however, reported complex initiatives involving, for instance, the concept of "defensible space" employed in architectural design. Important innovations included the involvement of specialized scientists or institutes in creating new national security norms for buildings and shopping centres and other technical solutions.

111. Physical obstructions against theft were used in many developing countries, including technical security systems such as safer door locks in houses and electronic alarm systems in cars. In some developed countries, there had been campaigns by crime prevention departments of the police to inform the public of the systems that were available. Thirteen other developed countries reported that "target-hardening" projects were as frequent as the use of architectural techniques.

112. The use of individual identifying marks on valuable items was reported primarily by Governments of developed countries. That technique was often accompanied by advertising campaigns involving insurance companies, police activities aimed at improving public relations, or the use of electronic alarm systems in shops and other public establishments.

2. *Preventive patrolling*

113. Preventive patrolling was reported in almost all countries. In some countries only foot and bicycle patrols were used. In others, more complex activities, such as the decentralization of parts of the police or the development of special schemes to make more police officers available for patrolling. Many Governments reported programmes to maintain or improve contact between residents and their local police stations, to improve cooperation in crime prevention, such as Neighborhood Watch and solidarity committees. Eleven Governments mentioned arrangements by special police departments for community cooperation or specially trained police officers, including the so-called Parish Constables, Intervention Forces, or Juvenile Guidance Counsellors.

114. One preventive measure that was frequently employed was the supervision of public transport, using specialized police groups and increased patrolling, both on transport vehicles and in stations. The use of audiovisual methods, such as monitors at railway stations, had proved

highly effective. One successful recent innovation reported by two Governments was the establishment of special unarmed volunteer services.

3. Citizens' crime prevention associations

115. Most Governments mentioned citizens' crime prevention associations. Eight developing countries reported various institutionalized forms of citizens' participation, such as mutual aid societies, police friends' associations, committees for preventing crime and protecting children or private guard and police services. In most developed countries, there was at least one of the above-mentioned citizens' associations; in one developed country, a social crime prevention section and a road safety section were attached to every police station.

116. In some eastern European countries, there had been large-scale centralized preventive action involving citizens acting as volunteer police, patrolling assigned areas. In other developed countries, there were private and social organizations cooperating with the police in crime prevention efforts in general or in crime prevention efforts involving particular groups, such as children, adolescents or women.

4. Consulting services provided by the police

117. All but four Governments reported that the police were providing crime prevention and security consulting services. Most of the services emphasized "popularizing" activities such as exhibitions, regular public lectures, self-defence courses, technical instruction on security systems and special demonstrations on occasions such as public holidays. Several Governments reported the creation of highly specialized crime prevention and security services within the police to maintain continuous contact with communities.

5. Publicity campaigns

118. Almost all Governments reported publicity campaigns, mostly involving the mass media. Some mentioned "public case-studies" and specially developed leaflets or periodicals. One Government reported that its national crime prevention week was celebrated nationwide with diverse activities, including the presentation of a special award in recognition of outstanding contributions to crime prevention by individuals and organizations. A few other Governments mentioned competitions between residential areas in providing security for tenants.

6. Visits to prisoners

119. The use of visits to correctional institutions as a form of psychological deterrence seemed to have increased slightly. Six Governments mentioned such action, mainly private initiatives by church volunteers, national folk groups, student penitentiary movements, or secondary-school students.

C. Other types of crime prevention strategies

120. Governments were asked to provide information on other types of crime prevention activities and new approaches introduced between 1980 and 1986. The strategies reported were generally improved versions of those used before 1980.

121. The replies received could be classified into the main categories described below. In some cases, specific examples are given to illustrate the variety of the replies.

122. Some replies could be categorized into indirect strategies, aimed mainly at organizing protection for juveniles. They included:

(a) In Canada, the implementation of a national programme to control and prevent sexual abuse of children, combining criminal law with social and educational instruments;

(b) In Peru, the implementation of "useful and productive" schemes for pre-delinquent juveniles;

(c) In the Philippines, the introduction of day-care services for children of working mothers and a parent effectiveness service for training parents, foster parents and persons who take care of children;

(d) In Singapore, the implementation of special school programmes on crime prevention;

(e) In Sri Lanka, the establishment of a multifunctional national youth centre, with the support of the Japanese Government, to provide various activities for youth.

123. Many governments reported the existence of organizations or committees and other coordinating or planning staff for crime prevention at the national or local levels were established or improved. Examples included:

(a) In Costa Rica, the National Prevention Council and the New Technical Committee for Crime Prevention and their local branches;

(b) In Denmark, Sweden, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (England and Wales) and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republic, several types of crime prevention councils for research, the development of central and local policies or projects and the attraction of community support;

(c) In the Netherlands, a multidisciplinary five-year policy scheme entitled "Society and crime", carried out at the national and local levels;

(d) In the United Kingdom (Scotland), crime prevention panels.

124. Direct strategies were used to develop or improve neighbourhood security methods or community cooperation with the police in many countries and areas, including Australia, Bermuda, Malaysia, New Zealand, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

125. Other countries and areas employed direct strategies related to police activities involving technical security systems and other police equipment and campaigns aimed at increasing public awareness of crime prevention. Examples of such direct strategies included:

(a) In Bermuda, the launching of campaigns against fraud in the banking system and campaigns to educate owners of various businesses about measures against theft, including the use of alarm systems;

(b) In Botswana, the inclusion of crime prevention as a school subject;

(c) In Canada, the use of crime prevention vans and recreational vehicles at exhibitions, parades, community fairs and the launching of door-to-door canvassing campaigns targeting areas most affected by crime;

(d) In Czechoslovakia and France, the implementation of special programmes to increase awareness of crime prevention or penal proceedings.

126. Reduction in the use of custody, its replacement by other penal measures, and changes in legal proceedings pertaining to alternatives to criminal justice procedure, especially in juvenile cases, were often mentioned. Closer cooperation between criminal justice systems, especially penal systems, and society was also frequently emphasized.

D. International cooperation in crime prevention

127. The Governments of many developing countries mentioned the need for technical and financial assistance, including the training of staff in crime prevention by the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch.

128. In both developing and developed countries, primary importance was attached to the exchange of experiences at conferences and seminars, as well as the exchange of experts, publications and statistical data.* Some Governments stressed the need for regional exchanges among countries with similar cultural and social backgrounds. Many called for the standardization and exchange of data from police records and statistics and emphasized the importance of automated information systems linking countries, such as the Global Crime and Criminal Justice Information Network (UNCJIN), a global computerized network of criminal justice agencies and professionals.²³

*For an exemplary publication on the subject covering western Europe, see Irvin Waller, *Current Trends in European Crime Prevention: Implications for Canada* (Ottawa, Canadian Department of Justice, 1989).

VII. Conclusions

129. The results of the Third Survey are similar to those obtained in the Second Survey. It was possible to analyse the data in a more structured manner than for the Second Survey, as only indicators of policy change were requested. Most of the innovations seem to be improved variants of methods used before 1981.

130. The global crime picture is not an encouraging one. There has been an increase in the overall crime rate; and there is the difficult issue of the interrelationship between "higher" and "lower" crime rates in the context of socio-economic development. The future may be even more gloomy, as some projections seem to indicate.²⁴

131. Assuming that the rate of population growth will not change dramatically, the projected crime rate may continue to increase considerably. The crime rate at the turn of the century may be four times higher than the figure for 1975.²⁴ A faster rate of population growth may lead to even more crime at the beginning of the next century. Other non-demographic variables may influence the crime picture as well.

132. Most crime prevention strategies still seem to be primarily associated with the criminal justice system, operating within its framework. The more direct strategies, which are receiving more emphasis, are closely connected with police activities, whereas the more indirect strategies mostly lie within the competence of non-police bodies such as civic organizations and governmental institutions. It is difficult to determine the progress and changes in crime prevention in relation to social and/or government policies and their overall coordination.

133. There are, however, positive indicators such as the creation of nationwide programmes within institutional frameworks aimed at organizing or improving coordination on a large scale. These also include the role of "non-police factors", particularly the increased involvement of local communities and the use of volunteers and persons who provide care. In this respect, there are indications that governmental agencies no longer regard crime prevention as exclusively their responsibility. National policies tend to leave more room for inter-agency cooperation, including local cooperation: more responsibility is given to society itself, as the reduction of the level of crime is best undertaken by the community as a whole.

134. There is growing interest in international cooperation, as well as changing views on the traditional obligations and expectations of the State *vis-à-vis* its citizens and other States. Citizens are much more inclined to take legitimate crime prevention efforts into their own hands. Citizens may even feel that the State and its law enforcement apparatus should share some of its responsibilities with local communities. The state apparatus, strong as it is, is gradually becoming less visible as a result of the growing role of its citizenry. The society of small communities emerges as a source and means of crime prevention. That trend is clearly discernable in all countries, although it may have different historical and political backgrounds in some countries.

135. With such an expanded international dimension, most prominent on the European continent, the increased role of local communities nationwide will ultimately have an impact on inter-State cooperation in crime prevention. International exchanges of new experiences may lead to the erosion of the traditionally central roles of the States involved in such exchanges, with the agreement of those States. Consequently, the dynamics and forms of cooperation of Member States in crime prevention may change from inter-State-oriented perspectives and activities into more intercommunity-oriented policies, promoted by the States themselves.

136. According to the analysed data, there is a basis for comparison between national experiences not only with regard to the extent and patterns of the crime problem, but also with regard to the national response to it. That comparative perspective, in turn, provides a basis for determining how each country evaluates the relative success or shortcomings of its crime prevention system and how countries may learn from each other.

VIII. Future considerations

137. As mentioned in paragraph 17, above, in preparation for the Fourth Survey, a meeting was held at the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute at Rome in June 1991. The meeting discussed the difficulties that some countries had experienced in completing the questionnaire for the Third Survey. It outlined a United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice information programme to provide sufficient data and other information on policy matters. It was hoped that recommendations made would not only continue to improve the number of replies to the questionnaire, but would also secure data of consistently high quality that would be made available to Member States. In particular, it was hoped that countries that were not able to contribute significantly to the Third Survey would be able to participate more fully in future surveys.

138. The criminal justice statistical systems of Member States should continue to be improved, reducing the burden on States of having to send their replies to questionnaires to the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch. One instrument that is useful for improving such systems in Member States is the *Manual for the Development of Criminal Justice Statistics*.²⁵ The use of computer-based information technology will continue to spread, making the improvement of such systems increasingly feasible. One instrument that should prove to be of importance to Member States in this respect is the *Guide to Computerization of Information Systems in Criminal Justice*.²³

139. In summary, the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies facilitate the collection of data on crime trends and criminal justice statistics worldwide. It is important to bear in mind that some Member States are able to provide only a limited amount of data in accurate form. Therefore, it is likely that, in the future, such surveys will concentrate on the collection of less detailed information.

IX. Summary of results

140. The results of the Third Survey can be summarized as follows:

(a) There was a general but not universal increase in total crime recorded and in most categories of recorded crime. The rise in total crime was 10 per cent in the period 1975-1980 and 23 per cent in the period 1980-1985;

(b) The sharpest increase in crime recorded in both the period 1980-1985 and the period 1975-1989 was in drug-related crime and robbery;

(c) There was a trend towards community-based crime prevention programmes;

(d) Detected offenders in all countries were predominantly male;

(e) There appears to have been a reduction in the use of custody for juvenile males;

(f) The use of custodial sanctions increased, but in proportion to the increase in crime;

(g) The average amount of time spent in custody before trial changed little;

(h) The police service remained, by a wide margin, the part of the criminal justice system that employed most personnel and required the greater share of the available resources.

Notes

¹United Nations publication, Sales No. E.86.IV.1, chap. I, sect. E.9.

²A/CONF.144/6.

³United Nations publication, Sales No. E.91.IV.2, chap. I, sect. C.10.

⁴United Nations publication, Sales No. E.92.IV.3.

⁵Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders and Australian Institute of Criminology, *Crime and Justice in Asia and the Pacific: A report on the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, 1980-1986* (Tokyo, 1990).

⁶Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean and Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, "Tercer Seminario de las Naciones Unidas sobre Tendencias Delictivas, Funcionamiento de Sistemas de Justicia Penal y Estrategias de prevención del Delito (informe sobre América Latina y el Caribe)" (Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies (report on Latin America and the Caribbean)), prepared for the Eighth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Havana, 27 August-7 September 1990.

⁷Helsinki Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, *Criminal Justice Systems in Europe and North America*, Publication Series No. 17 (Helsinki, 1990).

⁸See, for example, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean and Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, "Tercer Seminario de las Naciones Unidas sobre Tendencias Delictivas, Funcionamiento de Sistemas de Justicia Penal y Estrategias de Prevención del Delito (informe sobre América Latina y el Caribe)" (Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention

Strategies (report on Latin America and the Caribbean), prepared for the Eighth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Havana, 27 August-7 September 1990; Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. "Crime and justice in Asia and the Pacific: a report on the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, 1980-1986", prepared for the Eighth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Havana, 27 August-7 September 1990, pp. 25-33; Helsinki Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, *Criminal Justice Systems in Europe and North America*, Publication Series No. 17 (Helsinki, 1990), pp. 34-43; and *Trends in Crime and Criminal Justice, 1970-1985, in the Context of Socio-Economic Change: Results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.92.IV.3), paras. 10-13.

⁹See *First United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, Geneva, 22 August-3 September 1955: Report prepared by the Secretariat* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.56.IV.4), annex I, resolution E, annex, sect. II.F.

¹⁰Report of the Committee on Crime Prevention and Control on its eleventh session (Vienna, 5-16 February 1990); addendum: The need for the creation of an effective international crime and justice programme" (E/1990/31/Add.1), para. 7.

¹¹See F. Balvig, "Snow-white image", K. Leander, transl., *Scandinavian Studies in Criminology* (Oslo), vol. 9, 1988.

¹²See George F. Cole, S. J. Frankowski and M. G. Gertz, *Major Criminal Justice Systems: A Comparative Survey*, 2nd ed. (Newbury Park, Beverly Hills, Sage Publications, 1987).

¹³See J. R. Kubiak, "Internal and external factors influencing the operations of criminal justice systems of Socialist European countries", *Review of Socialist Law* (The Hague), No. 13, 1987, pp. 5-59.

¹⁴See P. A. Langan and L. A. Greenfeld, "The prevalence of imprisonment", special report (Bureau of Justice Statistics, July 1985); L. Harvey and K. Pease, "The lifetime prevalence of custodial sentences", *British Journal of Criminology*, No. 7, 1987, pp. 222-248; David F. Greenberg, *Mathematical Criminology* (New Brunswick, New Jersey, Rutgers University Press, 1979); Jerzy Jasinski, "The punitiveness of criminal justice systems (a cross-national perspective)", *The Polish Sociological Bulletin*, No. 1, 1976, pp. 43-51; Jerzy Jasinski, "Punytwnosc systemow karnych (kontynuacje)" (The punitiveness of criminal justice systems (continuation)), *Panstwo i Prawo* (Warsaw), No. 6, 1984, pp. 52-67; Andras Szabo, "A bünözés kihivása es a kiminologia valaszai" (The challenge of crime and the responses of criminology), *Tarsadalomkutatas* (Budapest), 1988, pp. 3-31; United States of America, Bureau of Justice Statistics, "Imprisonment in four countries", special report (1987); and Soumyo D. Moitra, *Crimes and Punishments: A Comparative Study of Temporal Variations*, Criminological Research Reports by the Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Penal Law, vol. 28, 1987.

¹⁵See "Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategy: report prepared by the Secretariat" (A/CONF.121/18), paras. 41-43 and figure VIII.

¹⁶Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies: report prepared by the Secretariat" (A/CONF.144/6), annex II, figure X.

¹⁷Report of the Committee on Crime Prevention and Control on its eleventh session (Vienna, 5-16 February 1990); addendum: The need for the creation of an effective international crime and justice programme" (E/1990/31/Add.1), para. 14.

¹⁸*Trends in Crime and Criminal Justice, 1970-1975, in the Context of Socio-Economic Change: Results of the Second United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.92.IV.3), paras. 60-66.

¹⁹World Bank, *World Development Report 1989* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1989).

²⁰Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders and Australian Institute of Criminology, *Crime and Justice in Asia and the Pacific: A Report on the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, 1980-1986* (Tokyo, 1990), part III.

²¹See Jan J. M. van Dijk, Pat Mayhew and Martin Killies, *Experiences of Crime across the World: Key Findings from the 1989 International Crime Survey* (Deventer, Netherlands, Kluwer Law and Taxation Publishers, 1990).

²²See also United States of America, Department of Justice, "Crime prevention perspectives and practices", discussion paper prepared for the Ad hoc Working Group on the International Exchange of Crime Prevention Information, 1989.

²³See *Guide to Computerization of Information Systems in Criminal Justice* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.92.XVII.6).

²⁴"Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies: report prepared by the Secretariat" (A/CONF.144/6), annex II, figure XI.

²⁵United Nations publication, Sales No. E.86.XVII.16.

Annex I

ORDERING COMPUTER DISKETTES CONTAINING DATA FROM THE UNITED NATIONS SURVEYS OF CRIME TRENDS, OPERATIONS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEMS AND CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES

The Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch of the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the Secretariat has undertaken the task of collecting data on crime and on criminal justice systems around the world. To date, the Branch has conducted three surveys that together cover the years 1970-1986. A fourth survey is under way.

Persons wishing to receive data from the surveys on microcomputer diskettes should read the information below carefully before completing and sending in the order form on the next page. Although the diskettes are free of charge, voluntary contributions would be greatly appreciated.

Available sets of data

The following sets of data are currently available:

(a) Data from the First Survey and the Second Survey, with supplementary data from other sources, covering the periods 1970-1975 and 1975-1980. This set of data is available on 5.25" (360Kb) microcomputer diskettes in ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange), also referred to as TEXT ONLY or DOS (disk operating system) TEXT;

(b) Data from the Second Survey and the Third Survey, covering the periods 1975-1980 and 1980-1986. This set contains all the data received before January 1991 in response to the Second Survey and the Third Survey. It is available on 3.5" (720Kb) microcomputer diskettes in either SPSS/PC+ (V2.0) system files or Lotus 1-2-3 (Release 2.0) worksheets.

CONDITIONS OF USE

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Annex II

SERIOUS CRIMES RECORDED, PERSONS APPREHENDED, POLICE SECTOR PERSONNEL AND
ADULT PRISON POPULATION, 1986

Country or area	<u>Serious crimes recorded a/</u>			<u>Persons apprehended</u>		<u>Police sector personnel</u>		<u>Adult prison population b/</u>	
	Total number	Share recorded in largest city (percentage)	Intentional homicides	Male	Female	Number	Proportion of females (percentage)	Male	Female
Antigua and Barbuda	2 090	..	4
Argentina	50 700	97	40	31 584	9
Australia	986 951	29	282	36 933
Austria	398 960	30	182	27 656	0	5 951	..
Bahamas	15 323	72	68	3 766	480	1 572	9
Bangladesh	54 555	15	2 847	74 508	0	29 634	5 354
Belgium	253 432	2 838	105
Botswana	41 791	..	2 424	2
Brunei Darussalam	458	44
Bulgaria	55 851	..	313	12 359	1 097
Canada	2 374 251	8	525	367 819	70 184	54 604	4
Chile	520 783	40 210
China	547 115	..	11 510
Costa Rica	23 320	..	103	758	..	1 768	40
Cyprus	12 654	29	8	6 209	1 218	3 781	2
Czechoslovakia	167 433	6	131	122 661	21 040
Denmark	567 967	19	298	9 416	4	2 336	89
Dominica	7
Dominican Republic	380	4	543	8
Ecuador	256	34
Egypt	775	4 117	112	371 859	..	19 044	603
Fiji	15 648	14	19
Finland	698 762	15	143	11 589	22
France	3 292 189	10	2 413	578 974	139 584	199 757	2	22 301	524
German Democratic Republic	89 659	..	112
Germany, Federal Republic of	4 367 124	6	2 728	849 135	265 220	43 240	1 590
Ghana	73 510	1 975
Greece	294 300	32	153	256 919	22 147
Honduras	8 328	41	346	6 916	415	6 100	15
Hungary	..	28	13 694	1 150

Indonesia	244 496	..	1 369	167 776	2
Italy	1 403 214	10	2 483	76 092	1	11 430	442
Jamaica	49 511	100	449	5 781	6
Japan	1 581 411	14	1 676	171 891	42 622	256 546	6
Jordan	19 579	46	66	3 140	115	1 810	66
Kiribati	2 736	..	21	228	1
Kuwait	5 804	..	20	2 483	1 108
Lesotho	1 326
Liberia	47	2 085	16
Madagascar	51 318	7 124
Malawi	72 909	..	153	4 605
Malaysia	109 357	21	386	80 037	..	12 648	311
Maldives	7 539
Malta	6 237	..	6
Mauritius	1 383	5
Nepal	341	23 620	1
Netherlands	1 081 533	13	1 886	181 589	22 652
New Zealand	438 079	28	79	101 633	21 040	5 307	16	2 310	106
Norway	187 264	31	37	5 996	7
Peru	177 069	51	946	57 987	3 194	77 186	..	14 082	980
Philippines	2 583	52
Poland	507 913	12	538	2 293 325	43 013	71 569	2 670
Portugal	77 943	56	475	32 158	8 261	1 736	21
Qatar	1 024	100	6	2 066	65	251	14
Republic of Korea	818 718	30	565	684 952	79 014	63 471
Saint Christopher and Nevis	8 547	40	1	2 312	272	329	7
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	2 802	69	19	3 428	321	599	..	334	8
Seychelles	144	5
Singapore	53 756	..	71	13 539	..	7 397	14
Spain	879 784	..	858
Sri Lanka	61 391	23	2 069	52 266	1 898	23 739	3	13 773	844
Suriname	6 326	76	53	221	17
Sweden	1 095 357	17	147	55 208	10 883	17 390	10
Switzerland	136	13 100	..	3 279	162
Trinidad and Tobago	52 649	22	101	4 849	5	587	9
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	1 987 291	2	14 848	34 801
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
England and Wales	3 847 410	20	820	166 611	7	34 472	1 198
Hong Kong	81 411	..	71	30 711	4 673	25 762	8	6 220	295
United States of America	13 210 800	5	20 610	7 229 524	1 414 928	629 745	21	430 597	19 818

continued

Annex II (continued)

Country or area	<u>Serious crimes recorded a/</u>		<u>Persons apprehended</u>		<u>Police sector personnel</u>		<u>Adult prison population b/</u>		
	<i>Total number</i>	<i>Share recorded in largest city (percentage)</i>	<i>Intentional homicides</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Proportion of females (percentage)</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Uruguay	59 494	61	164	23 786	10
Vanuatu	85	..
Yugoslavia	248 405	18 128
Zimbabwe	328 286	..	1 069	17 034	5

Source: Based on *Compendium of Social Statistics and Indicators 1988* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.91.XVII.6), table IX-1. The data were originally derived from the Third United Nations Survey of Crime Trends, Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and Crime Prevention Strategies, covering the period 1980-1986.

a/ Attempts to commit crimes are included.

b/ Convicted prisoners only.

Order form for computer diskettes containing data from the United Nations surveys of crime trends, operations of criminal justice systems and crime prevention strategies

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Please mark the set(s) of data to be sent:

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