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**CRIME VICTIM SURVEY 2009**

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## INTRODUCTION

This survey is the fifth victim survey carried out in Estonia. Although the organizers of the survey and the frequency of surveys have varied, the analysis of victim's perspective has won a definite place among criminological surveys in Estonia. The previous survey "The International Crime Victim Survey in Estonia 2004" (Saar et al., 2005) was the opening edition for the series of criminal policy surveys.

Conducting victim surveys is especially important in the context of criminal policy because it offers an alternative sociological perspective on crime. Besides the statistics gathered by law enforcement authorities, the advantages of this type of survey are as follows:

- The victim survey makes it possible to assess the proportion of mass crimes that which are left out from the official statistics;
- The survey gives a better picture of crime victims (socio-demographic and economic indicators);
- The survey uses among other things also the indicators for fear of crime and people's feeling of security, which are important both in the planning and assessment of criminal policy;
- The results are more comparable both by countries and by time.

This survey is special because while earlier the interviewing was done by research companies and the number of people interviewed has been 1,000-1,700, this time the survey was carried out by the Estonian Statistical Office<sup>1</sup> and over 4,000 people were interviewed. The questionnaire also contained a part concerning intimate partner violence, the analysis results of which will be published by the Ministry of Social Affairs.

As this survey was not carried out simultaneously with other countries unlike the previous survey, the last comparable data originate from 2004-2004. The situation will probably get better during a couple of years, as in 2013 Eurostat plans to carry out a joint security survey of the member states as of 2010.

However, the crime situation may rapidly change and an interval of four to five years will create too wide a gap in crime assessment. Guidelines for Development of Criminal Policy until 2018 approved by the parliament (Riigikogu) in 2010 refer to the need to collect victimization data every year for the assessment of criminal policy efficiency. Therefore, the Ministry of Justice will start to collect and publish relevant basic data starting from 2011.

The authors of the survey hope that the crime victim survey will contribute to the spreading of rational discussion on topics of crime and criminal policy.

Have a nice time reading this survey and thinking along!

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<sup>1</sup> Statistics Estonia used the name „Security Survey”.

## 1. SUMMARY OF CRIME VICTIM SURVEY

1. **The Crime Victim Survey was carried out in Estonia for the fifth time.** The Estonian Statistical Office carried out the population survey in the end of 2008 and during the first six months of 2009. More than 4,000 people were interviewed. The population consisted of people aged 15-74.
2. **The number of both crimes and crime victims has decreased.** 26% of people were victimized by some criminal offence in 2008; in 1999, the percentage of victims was 33%. 42 criminal offences were committed per 100 persons interviewed; in 1999 it was 72 criminal offences. In international comparison the percentage of people victimized in the past year exceeds the average indicator for other European countries and is similar to Denmark and Switzerland.
3. **The number of all crimes against property has decreased.** Most frequent criminal offences are vehicle thefts: theft from a car and car vandalism. There are considerably more incidents when something is stolen from a car in Estonia compared to other countries. In Estonia, people living in the Virumaa region are most frequently exposed to different types of thefts and robberies.
4. **Compared to the previous survey, the number of assault victims has increased.** Within 12 months, 2.4% of people were victimized by assault and 2.1% by threat. With these indicators, Estonia is among the European average countries. There are slightly more women than men among the victims of violence: women are exposed to violence more frequently at home, men outside home. For the first time, Estonians were exposed to violence more frequently than people from other nationalities.
5. **In most cases the victims of violence do not turn to the police or the doctor.** A victim or some other person at the victim's request informed the police of 17% of violence incidents. Health care professionals were approached by 30% of victims, including 40% of women and 15% of men.
6. **Nearly every twentieth person is exposed to sexual harassment in the past year.** In 2008, 2% of the population was exposed to physical harassment and 3.6% to non-physical harassment. Young non-Estonian women are at the highest risk of becoming the harassment victims. Based on the nationality, the indicators level off starting from 30 years of age.
7. **The percentage of people exposed to consumer frauds has significantly decreased.** In 2008, 18% of the population were victimized by frauds caused by the quality or quantity of goods or services; according to previous surveys, the highest number of people exposed to frauds occurred in 2,000 – 39%. People are most frequently exposed to frauds shopping for goods in stores and other points of sale; the number of victims is smaller, for example, in case of e-commerce and construction and repair works. In international comparison, Estonia is one of the weakest countries in terms of customer security.
8. **The exposure of the population to asking a bribe has considerably decreased.** Only 0.5% of the people (17 respondents) noted that a border guard, a police officer or some other official had asked them to give a bribe. According to the survey, 5% of the population is willing to offer a bribe to some official. Younger people and non-Estonians are more inclined to pay a bribe.
9. **Less criminal offences are reported to the police.** 61% of crime victims did not report to the police what had happened. Compared to the previous survey, the reporting decreased with respect to thefts that had been committed from cars and living quarters. Estonian

people turn to the police less frequently compared to other countries, for example, in Austria 70% of incidents are reported. In Estonia, people living in the Virumaa region report the crimes less compared to others. In international comparison, the Estonian people's faith that the police will do something to solve crimes is also smaller.

10. **Satisfaction with police actions in solving incidents of violence has considerably increased.** The otherwise low satisfaction of people with the police has also increased, for example, with respect to incidents of personal property theft, car theft and car vandalism. Main cause to dissatisfaction is the inability of the police to find stolen or robbed items.
11. **Most people think that the police can maintain public order sufficiently or very well.** In 2009, this was the opinion held by 63% of the population, at the same time this indicator remained below the international average and is considerably lower, for example, than the Finnish outcome where 89% of the population assessed the police actions to be good. People's assessments concerning the professional standards of police have grown year by year: while in 2003, 17% of the population considered the professional standards to be fairly good, 69% did so in 2009.
12. **Attitudes towards punishment continue to be stable.** 57% of the population would impose community service and 23% of the population would impose imprisonment on a 21-year old man who has stolen a TV and has been convicted for burglary for the second time.
13. **There were more people in favour of imprisonment among city dwellers and non-Estonians.** More strict punishment is requested also by those who themselves have been victimized by some crime, who feel unsafe in their neighbourhood and who are not satisfied with police actions.
14. **People's fear of crime is decreasing.** 72% of Estonian people feel completely or quite safe walking alone on the street in their neighbourhood after dark. Compared to 2,000 when the Estonian people's fear of crime was the highest in comparison with other countries, Estonia is now among the average countries. The people living in Kohtla-Järve feel the least safe.
15. **Increasingly more security measures are used for the protection of domestic property.** In 2009, 30% of households did not use any security measures, while in 1995 the number of such households was twice as big - 59%. The use of safety locks and the construction of fences for the protection of property have increased the most. However, less window and door bars are used than before.
16. **The percentage of people who have been exposed to drug problems has decreased.** When in 2004, 10% of the population was frequently exposed to drug problems, 6% were exposed to it in 2009. At the same time, the percentage of population that has been exposed to offering drugs and whose acquaintances use drugs has remained almost the same. City dwellers and non-Estonians are exposed to drug problems considerably more frequently. Every fifth Estonian person knows somebody or is acquainted with somebody who uses or has used drugs.
17. **Young people are exposed more to violence and less to thefts.** Compared to the previous survey, the percentage of 16 to 26-year-old young people who have been exposed to violence increased from 8% to 9.4%. 5% were exposed to physical sexual harassment. At the same time, twice as less young people were exposed to personal thefts in 2008 than in 2003 (10.7% in 2003; 5% in 2008).

**Table 1.** Main indicators of the survey

		1992	1994	1999	2003	2008
<b>General level</b>	Total – victims of at least one criminal offence			33%	32%	26%
	Number of criminal offences per 100 people interviewed (comparable types)			72	59	42
<b>Criminal offences against property</b>	Total theft					22,0%
	Car theft	0,7%	1,6%	0,9%	0,7%	0,4%
	Theft from car	1,5%	2,7%	1,5%	1,1%	0,6%
	Theft from car only owners/users	7,3%	7,0%	9,2%	7,4%	5,2%
	Car vandalism	15,6%	11,5%	14,7%	11,7%	8,0%
	only owners/users	3,1%	5,2%	5,9%	5,1%	5,4%
	Bicycle theft	6,6%	8,6%	9,3%	8,1%	8,3%
	only owners	6,3%	4,7%	4,1%	4,0%	2,5%
	Theft from home	9,6%	7,0%	6,1%	5,5%	3,7%
	Attempted theft from home	5,7%	4,2%	3,7%	3,1%	3,0%
	Theft from summer cottage, country home or allotment	3,2%	3,9%	3,1%	1,7%	1,8%
	only owners			7,3%	7,3%	4,3%
	Theft from garage, hovel or shed			17,0%	15,5%	11,5%
	only owners	7,9%	7,0%	4,5%	5,0%	1,9%
	Theft of personal property			5,8%	7,3%	3,3%
	incl. pickpocketing	8,0%	5,5%	5,5%	6,3%	3,6%
Robbery	2,7%	2,7%	3,6%	3,9%	1,8%	
<b>Violence</b>	Total assault/threat	2,9%	3,4%	2,9%	1,8%	2,1%
	Assault	4,8%	5,5%	6,4%	3,2%	3,7%
	Threat	2,2%	1,7%	2,3%	1,4%	2,4%
	Total sexual harassment	2,6%	3,8%	4,0%	1,7%	2,1%
	Physical harassment					4,4%
	Non-physical harassment					2,0%
<b>Other</b>	Consumer fraud					3,6%
	Encounters with asking for bribe	26%	31%	39%	26%	18%
		4,5%	3,6%	5,2%	3,3%	0,5%



## 2. METHODOLOGY

Andri Ahven, Kutt Kommel, Kristel Tuisk

In the end of 2008 and during the first six months of 2009, the Estonian Statistical Office carried out a population survey, the aim of which was to gather data on victimization, feeling of security and violence in couples<sup>2</sup>. The questions mainly concerned incidents that had occurred with the last 12 months.

The survey was conditionally divided into two separate parts: the first part dealt with victimization and feeling of security, and the second part focussed on violence in couples. Henceforth, these surveys are separately discussed in this document, and the terms “victim survey” and “violence in couples survey” are respectively used.

Only the victim survey results are observed in this publication. The results of a survey which dealt with violence in couples will be separately presented in a publication of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

Over 4,000 people were interviewed all over Estonia.

### 2.1. Sample and interview

The survey population<sup>3</sup> consisted of all permanent residents living in private households<sup>4</sup> in Estonia (as of 1 January 2008) aged 15-74, except people staying in institutions for a long time (at least one year). During the survey, the respondents were aged 15-76. However, as only one respondent was 15 years old, 16 years has been set out as age minimum for the purpose of tractability (See the table included in Annex 1 concerning the respondents).

The sample of the survey was formed on the basis of the population register using systematic stratified sampling. The population consisted of 1,035,596 people and it was divided into 18 strata on the basis of a district (3 groups) and gender-age group (6 groups) characteristic.

At first, the sample included 7,500 people; those who had participated in the Estonian Statistical Office surveys before were left out in order to avoid excessive overburden of respondents. The final sample size was 7,267 people, 4,181 of whom (58% from the sample) responded to the crime victim survey and 3,788 (52% from the sample) responded to the violence in couples survey.

It became apparent from the survey carried out in spring 2008 that the responding activity was the highest in older age groups and it also differed by districts. Therefore, inclusion probability differs in gender and age groups by districts. Annex 2 sets out the population and sample size in strata and the inclusion probability (the probability of getting included in the sample).

The sample of survey was person-specific: the persons included in the sample had to be interviewed. They were searched for according to the information provided by the sample. If it was not possible to reach a sample person at first try, the search for him/her had to be continued. In order to find a sample person, at least three attempts had to be made in the rural area and five attempts in the urban area. In order to increase the probability of finding a sample person, the attempts were made on different weekdays and at different hours.

Based on the survey, conclusions can be made about people aged 16-76.

<sup>2</sup> „Security Survey“.

<sup>3</sup> Population – an amount of objects regarding which information is sought according to the established problem task.

<sup>4</sup> A household is mainly formed by persons living in joint dwellings who use common financial and/or food resources. One person living alone also forms a household.

The interview was carried out at respondent's home. The victim survey was carried out as a face-to-face interview, whereas the interviewer himself/herself entered the answers into his/her laptop. After that, only these persons were asked to answer the violence in couples survey that had a relationship during the time the survey was held, or had had a relationship before. Usually, respondents completed this questionnaire himself/herself in the computer or on the paper (both options were possible; a face-to-face interview was held only at the respondent's request. It was made sure that the completion of the questionnaire would not endanger the respondent, and it was abandoned if necessary. 99 respondents of the victim survey did not answer the questionnaire on violence in couples; however, the refusal to respond need not be caused by danger.

In order to generalize the survey results for the population, a weight was found for each respondent. The calculation of weights consists of the following stages:

- Calculation of design weights;
- Compensation of non-response;
- Calibration.

Design weight is the inverse of inclusion probability (the probability of getting included in the sample). The size of the population and the sample in the stratum serves as the basis for its calculation. In order to compensate for non-response, the respondents' design weight was corrected according to responding probability. Persons who were left out from the interview were divided into groups with similar response probabilities by county, gender, age and degree of urbanization.

The first stages of weight calculation did not result in a division of groups corresponding precisely to the division of population. In order to correct the difference, the weights received with previous stages were calibrated with the size of population across the following dimensions: gender/age group (five years, county (Tallinn separately), degree of urbanization (residence a city or rural area).

## 2.2. Victim Surveys in Estonia

Surveys with similar questionnaire and comparable methodology have been carried out in the majority of European and other countries during the last twenty years in the framework of the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS).<sup>5</sup> Estonian 2009 victim survey is a continuation to surveys which have been carried out in Estonia before.

The surveys determine the exposure of people to crime, the feeling of security, assessments concerning the police, etc.<sup>6</sup> Surveys like this help to evaluate the level of crimes against individuals and their property better than official statistics, because not all criminal offences are reported to the police. The comparability of survey results of different countries is important: as crime levels cannot be very well compared on the basis of official statistics due to great differences between laws and registration practice of criminal offences, the victim surveys form practically the only data sources which allow such comparisons.

In case of victim surveys it has to be taken into consideration that their results are not directly comparable with official statistics (number of registered criminal offences), as in course of an interview the respondent may consider criminal offences to be also such incidents which are not regarded as criminal offences by law (e.g. an incident is defined as a misdemeanour or necessary elements of a criminal offence are lacking). Some differences are also caused by

This is the fifth victim survey in Estonia.

<sup>5</sup> Surveys were carried out in most participating countries in 1989, 1992, 1996, 2000 and 2005.

<sup>6</sup> The words „crime” and „criminal offence” are used in the Victim Survey as general terms, in other words, it is not relevant whether some act is defined by law as an act leading to criminal punishment or not.

the fact that not all criminal offences are reported to the police – in most cases the incident is simply not considered to be sufficiently important. Victim surveys do not reflect criminal offences directed against enterprises or the state (shoplifting, frauds, tax evasion, etc).

In presenting the victim survey results, absolute numbers are sometimes used in addition to ratios (e.g. the percentage of crime victims to respondents); such absolute numbers have been derived based on ratios from total population. Due to the above-mentioned reasons these cannot be compared to official statistics.

In Estonia, victim surveys have been carried out in 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2004.<sup>7</sup> The surveys were carried out in winter or in spring during a couple of weeks, and the main reference period for the questionnaire and in describing the results was the calendar year preceding the interview. Victimization data reflect the situation during the reference period (e.g. 2003) but various assessments given to safety and to the police show the respondent attitudes during the interview (e.g. 2004), see Table 2.

**Table 2.** Victim surveys carried out in Estonia

Survey year	Respondents	Interview was held in	Age of respondents	Main reference period (for which the victimization data are indicated)	Interviews and primary data processing were carried out by
1993	1000	February, may <sup>8</sup>	16–74	Calendar year preceding the survey (1992)	AS Emor
1995	1173	February	16–74	Calendar year preceding the survey (1994)	AS Emor
2000	1700	May–June	16–74	Calendar year preceding the survey (1999)	AS Emor
2004	1687	May–June	16–74	Calendar year preceding the survey (2003)	Turu-uuringute AS
2008–2009 <sup>9</sup>	4181	November 2008 – May 2009	16–74	Last 12 months before the interview (2008)	Estonian Statistical Office

Due to a bigger number of respondents, the 2009 Victim Survey was carried out during several months and therefore the last 12 months preceding the interview and not the calendar year were defined as the main reference period. The majority of events observed took place in 2008, but depending on the time when the interview took place the respondent could have also mentioned events that took place in the last months of 2007 or in the beginning of 2009. As most respondents were victimized in 2008, year 2008 has been indicated as the year of victimization for greater clarity.

### 2.3. Questionnaire used in the 2009 Victim Survey

The majority of questions<sup>10</sup> dealt with the most common types of criminal offences, a victim of which a person or his/her household could have fallen to (see Annex 4). If a respondent had suffered from some criminal offence, additional questions were asked on reporting to the police, satisfaction with police actions and other circumstances. Questions on the safety of

<sup>7</sup> Survey result summaries: *Aromaa & Abven (1993 and 1995); Abven et al. (2001); Saar et al. (2005)*.

<sup>8</sup> In order to control the reliability of interview methodology, 999 people were interviewed with a shortened questionnaire in May 2009. In subsequent analysis, the results of the interview conducted in February were used (except in case of the question on corruption which was not used in February).

<sup>9</sup> Upon reflecting the results, 2009 is indicated as the year of the survey and 2008 as the main reference period.

<sup>10</sup> The questionnaire is available both on the webpage of Estonian Statistical Office and the Ministry of Justice ([www.just.ee/osvu](http://www.just.ee/osvu)).

residence, security measures used at home, exposure to drug addiction and domestic property concerned all respondents. Depending on the type of criminal offence, the respondent was asked to take into consideration only the events which had concerned him/her or the entire household.

Compared to the previous survey and international surveys there were a number of changes in the questionnaire which influence the comparability of indicators.

In order to describe a respondent and his/her household, a questionnaire which is used in sociological interviews at Estonian Statistical Office was applied which covers the respondent's education and employment, as well as the members of the household and income (Estonian Statistical Office, "Handbook on Core Variables"<sup>11</sup>).

For the main part, the questionnaire of the 2009 survey coincided with the 2004 victim survey questionnaire. The main changes were:

- Reference period was limited to 12 months preceding the interview (in earlier surveys last five years and a number of incidents which had occurred during the calendar year preceding the interview for each type of criminal offence; victimization indicators were mainly indicated for the last calendar year).
- Questions on motor cycle, motor scooter or moped thefts and on circumstances related to the last incidents were added<sup>12</sup>;
- Instead of one earlier question on robberies („During the last five years, has anyone taken or tried to take away something from you using violence or threatening with violence?") two separate questions were asked (whether there have been robberies using violence and whether there have been robberies using threats), but similarly with previous surveys the section describing the circumstances of robbery only touched upon the last incident regardless of the manner it was committed;
- Instead of one earlier question on assaults and threats („During the last five years, has anyone assaulted you or threatened in a manner so that you were really afraid...") two separate questions are asked (whether there have been assaults and whether there have been threats with violence), but similarly with previous surveys the section describing the circumstances of such incidents only touched upon the last incident regardless of the manner it was committed;
- Questions on more serious sexual incidents were left out (however, the survey included questions on sexual harassment)<sup>13</sup>;
- In case of all types of criminal offences, the list of reply options specifying the reasons why the incident was reported to the police and the list of reasons why the incident was not reported to the police were shortened (the wording of reply option which had occurred most frequently before remained unchanged);
- In case of all types of criminal offences the list of reply options of whether a criminal offence was reported to the police was changed (an option that the police learned about the event some other way was added);
- The wording of question which was asked in order to find out people's opinions concerning the ability of the police to maintain public order in the area of residence of the respondent was changed (the expression „to control the crime" was used earlier);
- Questions on offering a bribe by the respondents was added (willingness to do it; if and whom the respondent offered a bribe; whether the bribe was accepted);
- A question on seeing an intoxicated or brawling person in one's neighbourhood was added;
- A question on the influence concerning a respondent's feeling of security in connection with seeing security company employees was added;

<sup>11</sup> <http://www.stat.ee/dokumendid/31703>

<sup>12</sup> These questions were also used in the 1993 and 1995 victim surveys.

<sup>13</sup> In the opening part of the victim survey interview, two questions were asked about verbal and physical sexual harassment, but unlike in case of other types of incidents, the circumstances of the last event were not subsequently specified. The survey on violence in couples also concerned this topic with respect to the violence occurring in couples. Questions asked in both surveys were different from questions asked in earlier victim surveys.

- A question on a respondent's evaluation concerning the probability that his/her home will be broken into was left out;
- A question on the evaluation concerning the household coping was added and questions on the satisfaction with family income size and family income level compared to the Estonian average were left out.

Overview of indicators concerning the victimization is included in Annex 3.

## 2.4. Indicators reflecting the crime rate

Two indicators are used in comparing the overall crime rate with previous victim surveys:

- 1) The ratio of people victimized by at least one criminal offence during the year to all respondents;
- 2) In case of selected types of criminal offences, the number of criminal offences per 100 respondents during one year.

Due to the inclusion of some types of criminal offences in the questionnaire (motorcycle thefts) or exclusion (sexual harassment), the first indicator differs from earlier surveys, however, as these types of criminal offences are relatively less common and they overlap with the victimization caused by other types of criminal offences, this does not especially influence the percentage of victims as a whole.

In case of the second indicator only these types of criminal offences are considered regarding which questions were asked in all surveys concerned. In order to find total indicators, the number of criminal offenses of various types committed during one year was added up. The calculation is approximate because in order to define the number of criminal offences, a three-step scale ("one", "two", "three or more") was used and in previous studies a five-step scale (... , "four", "five or more") has been used, wherefore the total number of criminal offences in case of multiple victimization is not exactly known. As in the interest of uniformity a three-step scale was used, the indicators found with respect to earlier years differ from earlier published indicators<sup>14</sup>.

Neither of the indicators covers the incidents related to consumer fraud, asking for a bribe and offering drugs. International practice serves as a basis in this aspect, whereas the summary indicators only take into consideration the so-called common and clearly defined criminal offences (thefts and crime of violence).

In regional comparison it should be taken into consideration that there are not enough respondents covered by the sample for making generalizations.

## 2.5. Comparability of Estonian victim survey results with foreign countries

The questionnaire used in Estonian victim surveys was translated from the English questionnaire used in international victim surveys in 1993 and the main questions have coincided for years. This has enabled to compare the crime rate by countries both in terms of individual types of criminal offences and summary indicators covering specific types of criminal offence. Main differences between the questionnaires used in Estonia and internationally (i.e. in most European countries which participated in victim surveys) have been as follows:

- Since 2000, a question is used in Estonia on thefts from a summer cottage, country home or allotment, which is not included in the international questionnaire;
- A question on motor cycle, motor scooter or moped thefts was used in Estonia in 1993 and

<sup>14</sup> Reply options "four incidents" and "five and more incidents" included in earlier surveys were now considered equal to three incidents.

- 1995 and later again in 2009, but the question was used internationally in all surveys;
- A question on thefts from a garage, hovel or shed has been used in Estonia in all victim surveys but internationally only in 1992;
- A question on car vandalism has been used in Estonia in all victim surveys but it was left out from the 2004–2005 international survey;
- The 2009 Estonian survey did not contain a separate section on sex crimes and incidents<sup>15</sup>;
- Questions on insuring domestic property and the professional standards of the police have been asked in all Estonian victim surveys but not once in international surveys<sup>16</sup>;
- In the 2009 Estonian survey, the reference period was limited to the 12 months preceding the interview, but in earlier Estonian and international surveys the reference period has been last five years and more specifically the calendar year preceding the interview (crime rate is shown for the latter).

The last victim survey covering many countries was carried out in Europe in 2004–2005. Gallup Europe carried it out in old Member States of the European Union (15) in the form of a centralized telephone interview<sup>17</sup> (The Burden of ...), elsewhere the countries carried it out using the interview methodology at their own choice. Summarizing results of surveys carried out in different countries have been published in the overview (Dijk et al., 2007) which is used below as the main source in comparing the crime rate in Estonia and other countries. It has to be noted here that the credibility of centralized survey results has been questioned in some places due to problems in ensuring the representativeness of the sample in countries where there is a lot of mobile phone communication.<sup>18</sup>

In international comparison various summary indicators are used besides comparing individual types of criminal offences (See Annex 3). In this case, attention has to be paid to the composition of indicators: there may be differences both in the Estonian survey and surveys of other countries in which case individual types of criminal offences either have been taken into consideration or not. If possible, such indicators are used in international comparisons which cover only the types of criminal offences represented in all surveys carried out during the reference period.

When comparing Estonia to the average of other European countries it should be definitely taken into consideration that besides Estonia only Poland has repeatedly participated in international victim surveys; also Bulgaria participated in 2004 and Hungary did so in some occasions – that is why the international indicators are mainly based on the results of Western countries and our situation looks relatively worse against this background.

## 2.6 Definition of a District

As the number of people interviewed in the framework of the survey was not sufficient in all counties to analyze corresponding victimization and other indicators by counties, the definition of “district” has been used in the survey.

Estonia is divided into four districts according to the jurisdiction of law enforcement authorities (prefectures, district prosecutor’s offices, county courts). Such division may be too generalizing in some places, but it is still more precise than analyzing the data only by Estonia as a whole. Analyses by geographic division have not been made in previous victim surveys.

<sup>15</sup> In international comparison with the help of the summary indicator of 10 types of crime, a separate question can be used in case of Estonia which by its content is similar or leaves such incidents out of the summary indicator.

<sup>16</sup> A question with another wording has been asked in all international and Estonian victim surveys on the police capacity to control crime in the respondent’s living area.

<sup>17</sup> International marking: EU ICS (European Survey on Crime and Safety).

<sup>18</sup> The representatives of Finland and Sweden have criticized this. As calls were initially made only to landlines, not enough young people being rarely at home were interviewed. In order to adjust the results, an additional interview for mobile users was carried out in Finland later and extensive weighing of answers was used. In the opinion of the review authors referred to above, thanks to this it was possible to guarantee the representability of responses. See more closely: Dijk et al., 2007, p. 29.

**Table 3.** Breakdown of counties into districts

District	Counties in a district
Northern district	Harjumaa
Viru district	Ida-Virumaa, Lääne-Virumaa
Sothern district	Jõgevamaa, Põlvamaa, Tartumaa, Valgamaa, Viljandimaa, Võrumaa
Western district	Hiiumaa, Järvamaa, Läänemaa, Pärnumaa, Raplamaa, Saaremaa

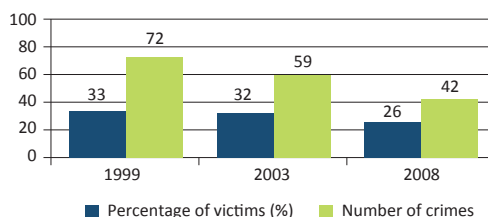


### 3. OVERALL VICTIMIZATION RATE

Andri Ahven

Crimes against people in Estonia have decreased in recent years. In 2008, nearly a quarter (26%) of people aged 16–74 years fell victim to at least one criminal offence<sup>19</sup>, 33% in 1999 and 32% in 2003.

A similar trend becomes apparent in the number of comparable criminal offences<sup>20</sup> per 100 respondents: 72 in 1999, 59 in 2003 and 42 criminal offences in 2008. The 1999 crime rate was the highest during the whole period covered by victim surveys (1992–2008)<sup>21</sup>.



**Figure 1.** Crime victim percentage among respondents (percentage of respondents) and number of crime incidents per 100 respondents (comparable types) in 1999–2008

#### 3.1. Comparison with foreign countries

The results of interviews on the basis of same questionnaire can be used to compare crime rates of Estonia and other countries. The last such interview was in 2004–2005 (Dijk et al., 2007).<sup>22</sup>

By the summary indicator of ten types of offences<sup>23</sup>, Estonian crime rate was the highest among European countries in the 1992, 1994 and 1999 surveys (victimization rate 26–28%); followed by the Netherlands (26%) and the UK (22–25%). Still, differences in the top group were rather small.<sup>24</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Unlike the two previous surveys, the 2009 survey also includes motorcycle, motor scooter or moped thefts; also, the wording of questions on sexual harassment is different (recent survey dealt more with relatively less serious incidents).

<sup>20</sup> The types of criminal offences included in all victim surveys in 2000–2009 were taken into account. Motorcycle, motor scooter or moped thefts, regarding which there were no questions in two previous surveys were left out of the 2009 survey data. Also, data on sexual harassment were left out in all surveys, as different wording was used now; the same goes for data on requesting a bribe, cheating consumers and offering drugs (in these cases, the total number of events was not determined and they are not taken into consideration in international comparison).

The data of previous surveys were recalculated according to a three-step scale.

<sup>21</sup> There are no data on precisely the same types of criminal offences in 1992 and 1994, but 1999 can be compared with previous years. The 1999 rate exceeded the 1992 rate nearly by one-tenth and the 1994 level nearly by one-fifth concerning the comparable types of criminal offences.

<sup>22</sup> Individual questions used in the 2009 Estonian survey differed from the questionnaire used elsewhere, but in comparison of the overall crime rate these differences are not significant (see the chapter on methodology). The results of the last international survey reflect the situation in different countries in 2003 or 2004. In the interest of simplicity, from here on in case of other countries only reference to 2004 is used that was covered by the survey carried out in most European countries but the 2003 situation is described in addition to Estonia also by Bulgarian, Norwegian and Polish data (Dijk et al., 2007, 30).

<sup>23</sup> The summary indicator covers the most common criminal offences against property and crimes of violence (See Annex 4). For the purpose of comparability, thefts from a summer cottage, country home or allotment and thefts from a garage, hovel or shed are left out from Estonian indicators – both types of criminal offences have had a considerable number of victims in Estonia and therefore the summary indicator of ten types of criminal offences is smaller than the indicator covering all types of criminal offences referred to above. As for sexual incidents, only physical harassment is taken into consideration in case of Estonia.

<sup>24</sup> The ranking of countries and capitals is given without considering statistical error. For example, 2000 respondents and a 20% victimization would place the last one in the range of 18.5% to 21.5% with a 90% probability (possible error +/- 1.5%).

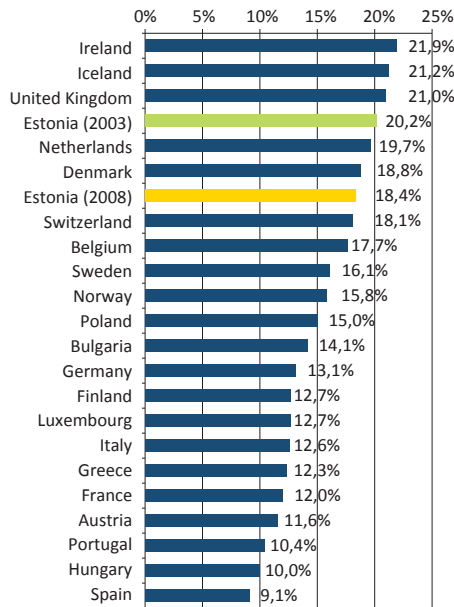


In 2003, the Estonian rate (20.2%) was already somewhat lower than in some other European country in 2004 when the same indicator in Ireland, Iceland and United Kingdom was 20–22% (Dijk et al., 2007, 43), See Figure 2. Estonia was followed by the 18–20% rate of the Netherlands, Denmark, Switzerland and Belgium.

In 2004, the average rate of 22 European countries was 15.3%<sup>25</sup>. Countries with the lowest rate were Spain, Hungary and Portugal (9–10%), followed by Austria (12%). Also Finland was below the European average. No great changes occurred in 1999–2004 because according to the survey data the crime rate decreased in most countries.

In 2008, 18.4% of people were victimized by ten types of criminal offences in Estonia. This rate markedly exceeded the average rate of other European countries in 2004, and in the comparison with other countries Estonia would be close to the rate of Denmark, Switzerland and Belgium in 2004, i.e. in the 6<sup>th</sup> place.

Estonia has improved its position year by year in international comparison but the indicator still exceeds the average of compared countries.



**Figure 2.** Summary indicator of crime rate (percentage of victims on the basis of 10 types of criminal offences) in Estonia in 2003 and 2008 and in other European countries in 2004.

No clear correlation has been found between the features characterizing the countries (e.g. level of development, location) and the crime rate. However, the authors of the last international report still mark that most countries with crime rate (exc. Ireland) are strongly urbanized (Dijk et al., 2007, 43).

The comparison of European capitals and some other bigger cities<sup>26</sup> provides a similar

<sup>25</sup> Arithmetic average of European countries that participated in the survey based on the international report (Dijk et al., 2007); median was 14.6%. The report also included data on other countries participating in the survey (Australia, Japan, Canada, Mexico, USA and New Zealand); taking into consideration all these, the average for all countries was 15.7%.

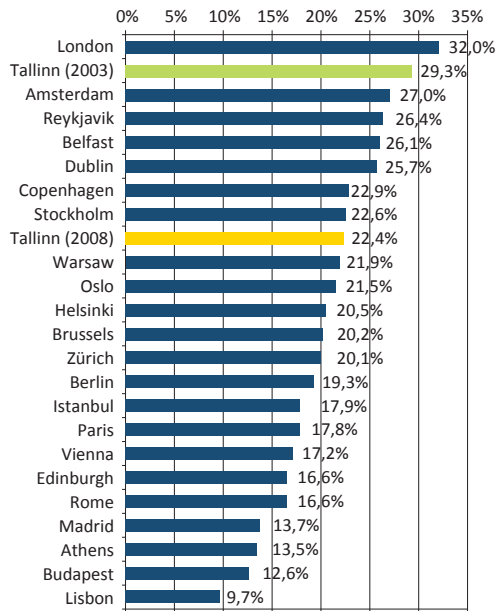
<sup>26</sup> London, Edinburgh and Belfast have been separately represented in the survey regarding the United Kingdom.

picture with the ranking of countries: crime rate is higher in cities located in countries with a high crime rate. According to the last victim survey, the 2004 crime rate by the summary indicator of ten types of criminal offences was the highest in London (32%), followed by Tallinn (29%), Amsterdam (27%), Reykjavik and Dublin (26%) (Dijk et al., 2007, 241)<sup>27</sup>, see Figure 3.

Compared to the previous survey, the victimization of the people living in Tallinn has considerably decreased, being close to the 2004 average indicator for the countries.

Average victimization rate of 23 European cities was 20.5%<sup>28</sup>. Crime rate was the lowest in Lisbon (10%), Budapest (13%), Athens and Madrid (14%).

In 2008, 22.4% of the people living in Tallinn were victimized by at least one of the ten types of criminal offences. With this indicator, Tallinn would have been on the 9th place after Copenhagen and Stockholm and before Warsaw in 2004.



**Figure 3.** Summary crime rate indicator (percentage of victims based on 10 types of criminal offences) in Tallinn in 2003 and 2008 and in other European cities in 2004

### 3.2. Repeat victimization

In case of criminal offences against property, repeat victimization may be caused by easy accessibility to property from criminal offenders' point of view and at the same time small risk of getting caught. A criminal offender, who has committed a successful criminal offence once,

<sup>27</sup> Taking into consideration the maximum permissible statistical error, the ranking of cities need not be exactly the same (see the remark above). Often, the sample is smaller in the capital than in the whole country and therefore the maximum permissible error is somewhat bigger.

<sup>28</sup> Arithmetic average of European cities participating in the survey based on the international report (Dijk et al., 2007); median was 20.2%.

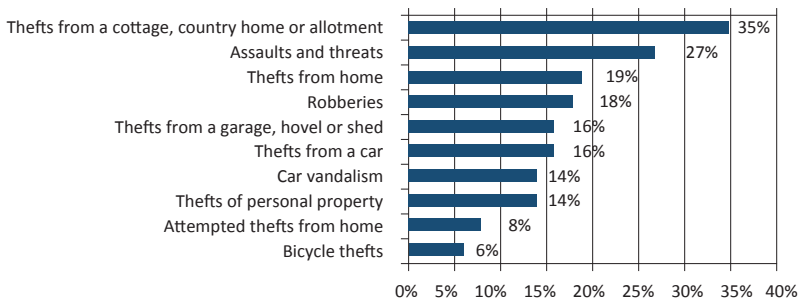
may in the future use a possibility to steal again from a place which he/she knows and which is easy to access. The defencelessness of property may entice also other accidentally passing people who are prone to violation of law to steal something. Often the recurrence of criminal offences reflects the vulnerability with respect to a specific type of criminal offences (e.g. it is difficult to prevent thefts from allotment).

In case of crimes of violence, the risk is increased by frequent stay at entertainment establishments where one can come into contact, for example, with people who are drunk or have used drugs.

Over the years the highest number of repeat criminal offences has occurred in case of thefts committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment. Usually, the absence of guard contributes to these criminal offences; at the same time the damage caused by one criminal offence is relatively small in most cases. In recent years, the repeated commission of such criminal offences has decreased; in 1999, 52% of people who had been victimized by this type of criminal offence were repeatedly victimized, 42% in 2003 and 35% in 2008.

Recurrence has considerably decreased in case of thefts committed from a garage, hovel or shed; in 1999, 29% of people who had been victimized by this type of criminal offence were repeatedly victimized, in 2003 this figure was 34% and in 2008 it was 16%.

In 2008, 27% of people who had suffered a threat with violence or an assault were repeatedly victimized; whereas 10% of these people were victimized three times or more. In most cases these are younger people who spend quite a lot of spare time outside home. Recurrence for that type of incidents has remained high for years; in 1999, 32% of people who had been victimized by such criminal offence were repeatedly victimized and in 2003 this figure was 26%.



**Figure 4.** Ratio of respondents who have been victimized by at least twice, to overall number of respondents who have been victimized by such a criminal offence<sup>29</sup>

Surveys carried out in other countries have also shown high recurrence of certain type of criminal offences. For example, according to the British Crime Survey (Flatley, 2010, 24 and 111), 47% of respondents were repeatedly victimized by domestic violence and 31% by violence committed by an acquaintance during one year.

29% of respondents were repeatedly victimized by vandalism<sup>30</sup> and 18% by theft committed from a household. Two thirds from all acts of vandalism were related to cars and nearly half of all acts of vandalism were repeatedly committed against the same person.

<sup>29</sup> Due to a small total number of incidents, the motorcycle, motor scooter or moped thefts are not taken into consideration.

<sup>30</sup> The meaning of types of criminal offences does not coincide with the definitions used in the Estonian Victim Survey. Vandalism means all criminal offences committed against a respondent's property, including car vandalism.

### 3.3. Character reference of victims

Overall crime rate predominantly reflects the criminal offences which have concerned the whole household. The household indicator may be used in describing victimization with respect to the household income, residence and respondent's nationality, the latter predominantly indicating the language used at home. In addition, questions dealing with the whole household are concerned with household coping, the security of respondent's residence and people living there, but here we are still dealing with respondents' personal opinions.

The comparison of overall victimization rate by the characteristics of people interviewed (sex, age, etc.) does not especially bring forth the actual differences between the exposure to risk of groups because a large part of criminal offences (mainly different types of thefts) have not concerned only the respondent but the whole household. Therefore, the data provide a better overview on the exposure to risk of different groups only with respect to the events which have taken place with the respondent himself/herself (robberies, thefts of personal property and crimes of violence) (See more closely in corresponding chapters).

In 2008, the percentage of crime victims was the highest in Tallinn (31% of respondents) and the lowest in county centres and villages (22%). In the cities on the average 28% of respondents fell victim to criminal offences and in the countryside (small towns and villages) 23%. It has to be considered that settlement types connecting cities and other settlements are rather heterogeneous including settlements with different crime rate and the average indicator for a settlement type need not reflect the crime situation in a specific settlement; also, quite similar settlements may belong to different settlement types.<sup>31</sup>

For years, Tallinn has had the highest crime rate according to both the victim survey data and the official statistics. High crime rate of the capital or a bigger city is characteristic of many countries (Dijk et al., 2007, 46).

Compared to people living in the countryside, city-dwellers are more exposed to criminal offences against property and consumer frauds.

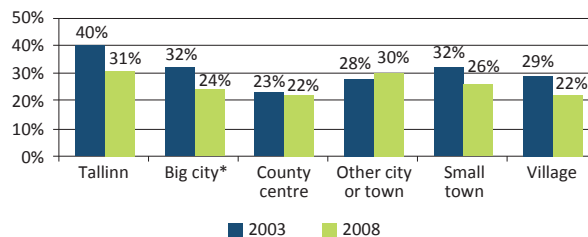


Figure 5. Percentage of victims of crime by settlement types in 2003 and 2008<sup>32</sup>

In the group of bigger cities, the highest percentage of crime victims in 2008 was in Pärnu (31%), followed by Narva (27%), Kohtla-Järve (22%) and Tartu (20%).

No types of criminal offences became apparent in case of any settlement types which would have clearly determined the overall crime rate; instead, the latter depended on the sum of many types of criminal offences. In Tallinn, the victimization rate in case of most types of criminal offences was higher than the Estonian average or the highest. The percentage of

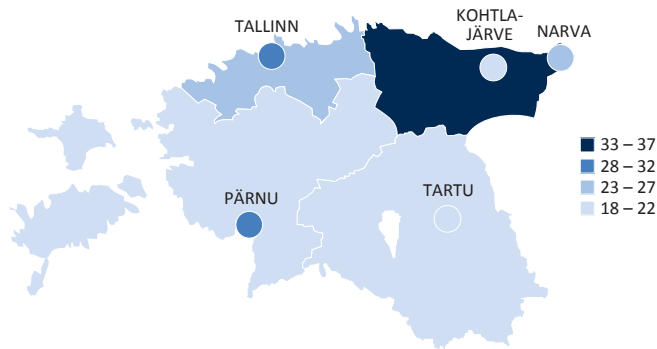
<sup>31</sup> Examples of urban settlements which are in the same group and at the same time rather different, are Maardu town (16,531 inhabitants as of 1 January 2009), Saue town (5,187 inhabitants) and Aegviidu small town (873 inhabitants); Saku small town (4,740 inhabitants) is a rural settlement with similar qualities, being similar to Saue by size and location.

<sup>32</sup> Big city: Tartu, Narva, Kohtla-Järve, Pärnu. County centres do not include Tallinn, Tartu and Pärnu.

people who had been victims to criminal offences against property and consumer frauds was the highest in case of city-dwellers; there were no noticeable differences in case of crimes of violence.

As for most common types of criminal offences, the highest differences between Tallinn on the one hand and villages on the other hand became apparent with respect to thefts committed from cars, in case of which the crime victim percentage among all respondents in Tallinn was nearly four times bigger than in the villages. Differences were big also in case of thefts committed from summer cottage, country home or allotment, and also in case of thefts committed from residential houses where the percentage of victims in Tallinn was twice as big as in the villages.

Overall percentage of crime victims (without taking into account consumer frauds) was the highest in the Viru district (32%) and the lowest in the Southern district (20%) mainly due to differences in the rate of criminal offences against property.



**Figure 6.** Crime victim percentage (%) in districts and five bigger cities

### 3.3.1. Household income and assessment of coping

The respondents were divided into five income groups (quintiles)<sup>33</sup> by the household income. No clear correlation between household income and overall victimization rate became evident between the household income and overall victimization rate in 2008: the highest number of victims occurred in the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile with the highest income (30%) and the lowest number of victims in the 3<sup>rd</sup> quintile (20%); 28% of victims were in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> quintile and 26% were in the 4<sup>th</sup> quintile.

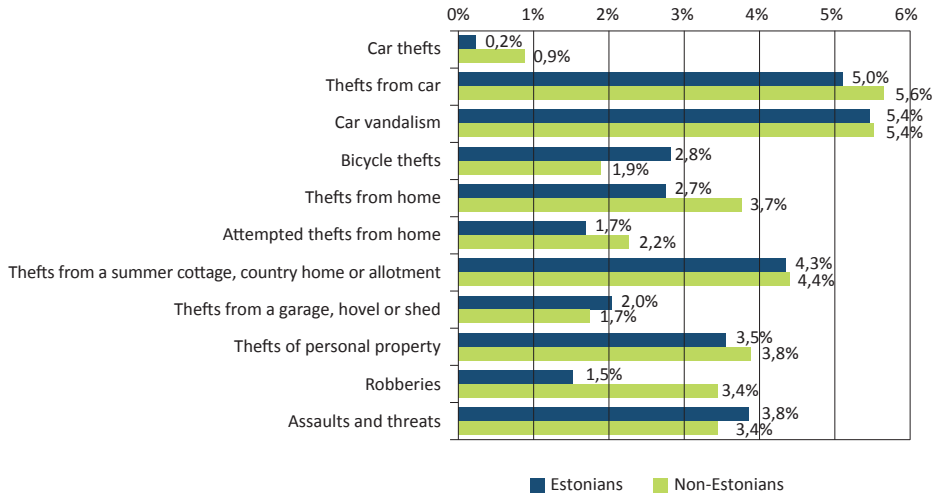
In order to assess the household coping, respondents were asked to tell how the household copes with the income received. In very poorly coping households the crime victim percentage was 31%, in households coping poorly or with some difficulty it was 27% and in easily coping households it was 25%.

### 3.3.2. Nationality

Among Estonians, the percentage of crime victims during one year was somewhat smaller (25%) than among non-Estonians (29%); at the same time, there were no great differences

<sup>33</sup> The following question was asked: „How big is the sum of money which is usually at the disposal of your household, taking into consideration all expenses? State an average received sum in EEK.”

between the victimization rates in case of most types of criminal offences (See Figure 6). A similar difference appeared in the comparison of persons with and without Estonian citizenship (26% and 33% respectively).



**Figure 7.** Crime victim percentage by respondent's nationality<sup>34</sup>

Compared to 2003, victimization has decreased among non-Estonians more than among Estonians: from 36% to 29% in case of non-Estonians and from 30% to 25% in case of Estonians. In both cases this was caused by a decrease of thefts of different types, whereas in case of non-Estonians the percentage of people victimized by bicycle theft and theft of personal property decreased even more in comparison with Estonians (See „Crimes against property“).

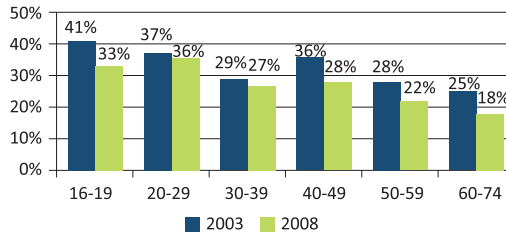
### 3.3.3. Sex and age

Men formed 47.5% of crime victims and women 52.5%. 27% of women and 26% of men were victimized at least once in the past year (in 2003, 33% of men and 31% of women were victimized).

The percentage of victimized households was the highest among 20–29-year old respondents and it considerably decreased along with the growing age. The latter tendency has also become evident in all previous victim surveys and other countries. More frequent victimization of young people is primarily associated with crimes of violence.

Compared to 2003 victimization has decreased in all age groups, although the decrease was small in the age groups of 20–39. As questions were presented mostly about crimes which had concerned the whole household, no exact comparison of the changes in the exposure to risk of different age groups can be made.

<sup>34</sup> There were no victims of motorcycle, motor scooter or moped thefts among the non-Estonians participating in the interview.



**Figure 8.** Overall victimization rate by age group in 2003 and 2008

### 3.4. International analysis of the impact of socio-demographic features

Connections with various socio-demographic features with crime rate have been analyzed in the report of the 2000 International Victim Survey results (Kesteren et al., 2000).<sup>35</sup>

Overall crime rate was influenced most of all by age (there were 2.3 times more victims of at least one criminal offence among 16-24-year-old respondents than among 55-year old and older respondents). The impact of age was the biggest in case of sex crimes (only women were considered), and noticeable also in case of robberies, assaults and threats (these were observed as one group; in case of the latter there were 2.5 times more victims among 16-24-year-old respondents than among 55-year-old and older respondents; at the same time the impact of age was virtually nonexistent in case of thefts committed from home and attempted thefts from home.

In terms of impact, the size of settlement is also significant – in cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants the percentage of victims was 1.6 time bigger than in cities with less than 100,000 inhabitants, whereas the differences were considerable (1.4-2.5 times) in case of all types of criminal offences. By the extent of impact, the factors following after that were the household income level (there were 1.3 times more victims among households with higher than average income than among households with lower than average income) and respondent's marital status (there were 1.3 times more victims among single respondents than married ones). There were 1.2 times more crime victims among people who often spend their spare time out than among the respondents seldom doing so; there were 1.1 times more victims among persons with higher than average education (half of respondents) than among people with lower than average education.

In case of overall crime rate (and most crimes against property), the respondent's age had no significance but there were 1.2 times more victims of robbery and 1.1 times more victims of car theft (owners have been considered) among men than among women.

Criminal offences committed against young people in big cities increase the crime rate.

<sup>35</sup> The following was observed: the respondent's sex, age, residence, marital status (married or not), level of education (lower or higher than the average), spending spare time out (often or not) and the household income (below or above the average). Combined data of 16 countries served as a basis.

## 4. CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY AND ROBBERIES

Andri Ahven

Crimes against property are forming the main part of crimes aimed against population, both according to official statistics and the victim survey. Thus, the rate of crimes against property largely also determines the overall crime rate. The decrease of crime rate after 1990s is related to the decreased number of several types of crimes against property.

In 1990s, the most common crimes against property were criminal offences related to cars (theft from a car, car vandalism), thefts from a garage, shed and other auxiliary premises, thefts from a summer cottage, country home and allotment, and thefts of personal property. Their number has decreased later on, but the number of victims of less serious criminal offences continues to be the highest. Over the years, there have been quite many thefts of personal property and bicycle thefts, in case of which a clear downfall can be observed only in the 2008 data. The changes have been slower with respect to thefts and attempted thefts committed from home; still, the level of such crimes has considerably decreased compared to the beginning of 1990s.

Compared to the 1990s, the number of victims has decreased for all crimes against property.

There have been less robberies compared to most crimes against property, but at the same time the decline has been smaller after the 1990s and crime has remained the same

during 2003–2008 (in 2008, the percentage of victims was even higher than in 2003, but the changes are statistically insignificant)<sup>37</sup>.

The number of car thefts has been small and their number has decreased after the 1990s. The percentage of motorcycle, motor scooter or moped theft has been even smaller due to a relatively small number of owners of such vehicles and because these questions were not asked in the 1999 and 2003 victim surveys. The last victim survey indicates a decreasing percentage of victims of this type of criminal offence as well, when compared to the first half of the 1990s.

The most common crimes against property in 2008, based on the percentage of victims, were car vandalism and theft from a car – in both cases more than 5% of all inhabitants were victimized (8% of car owners and users). 4% of all inhabitants suffered due to thefts committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment; nearly 12% of owners of such property suffered from such thefts. Next were theft of personal property, theft from a home, bicycle theft and theft from a garage, hovel or shed.

The structure of crimes against property in Estonia was largely similar to the average of European countries as indicated in recent victim surveys<sup>38</sup>: in 2004, the highest number of victims there had suffered from thefts committed from a car (car vandalism was even more common in previous surveys, but the 2004 survey did not include any questions on that); in terms of the percentage of victims, they were followed by thefts of personal property, bicycle thefts and thefts from a home (Dijk et al., 2007). In most European countries there have been clearly less victims of robberies than above-mentioned types of criminal offences, but in Estonia the differences have been smaller.

<sup>36</sup> Intentional damage to a car without the goal of stealing anything.

<sup>37</sup> At 95% level of credibility.

<sup>38</sup> Without taking into consideration thefts from a summer cottage, country home or allotment and thefts from a garage, hovel or shed, regarding which no questions have been included in surveys of other countries.



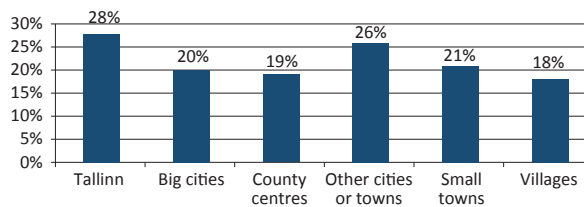
## 4.1. Characterization of victims

### 4.1.1. Regional crime differences

There were more victims of crimes against property in cities (24%) than in the countryside (19%). The biggest differences became apparent in case of thefts committed from cars and car vandalism: the victimization rate in urban settlements was 10% in case of both crimes; in rural areas this rate was 4% and 5% respectively (car owners/users have been taken into account). 14% of people in the cities and 9% in rural areas were victims of thefts committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment (property owners). Among city-dwellers there were also more victims of thefts committed from a home and robberies committed using violence.

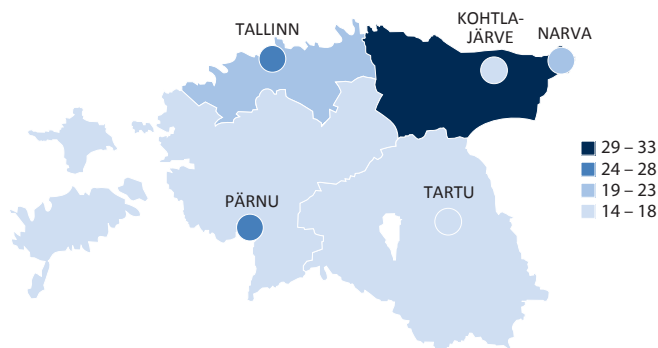
Car vandalism and theft from a car are two times more common in the cities than in the rural area.

The highest number of crimes against property by the settlement type occurred in Tallinn. The biggest differences between the settlement types became evident in case of thefts committed from a car: 14% of car owners and users in Tallinn and 4% in villages were victims of this crime.



**Figure 9.** Percentage of victims of crimes against property

The rate of crimes against property was higher for most types of criminal offences in the Viru and Northern regions. 26% of respondents were victims of crimes against property in Pärnu, 21% in Narva, 18% in Kohtla-Järve and 17% in Tartu.<sup>39</sup>



**Figure 10.** Ratio of people victimized by crimes against property, to the overall population (%)

<sup>39</sup> Differences between cities are not statistically significant at the credibility level of 95%.

The highest number of bicycle theft victims was evident in the Western district and the victims of motor cycle, motor scooter or moped thefts among the respondents only occurred in the Southern and Western district.

#### 4.1.2. Household income and assessment to coping

No clear connection between the household income level and the victimization caused by crimes against property in 2008 became evident; just like in case of all criminal offences, the smallest number of victims occurred in the third income quintile (17%)<sup>40</sup>.

The highest percentage of victims of crimes against property (25%) was evident among very poorly coping households. There were 22–23% of victims among households which cope better. There are slightly more families which cope poorly among city dwellers than among rural residents; at the same time there are no considerable differences concerning the use of domestic property security measures between poorly coping and effortlessly coping families. Probably the main part of crimes against property is opportunity crimes rather than crimes planned considering the value of possible loot, thus there are no big differences between families with different levels of prosperity in this respect.

#### 4.1.3. Nationality

Although in 2008 there were percentage-wise more victims of crimes against property among non-Estonians (21% of Estonians and 25% of non-Estonians were victimized), this difference cannot be considered significant<sup>41</sup>. There was the same proportion of victims of car vandalism, theft of personal property and theft from a summer cottage, country home or allotment and from a garage, hovel or shed among respondents of different nationalities. There were more victims of bicycle thefts among Estonians, yet more victims of robberies among non-Estonians.

Compared to 2003, the following changes can be detected<sup>42</sup>:

- the percentage of victims of thefts committed from a car and from a garage, hovel or shed decreased proportionally approximately equally among Estonians and non-Estonians;
- the percentage of victims of thefts committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment decreased relatively faster among Estonians;
- the percentage of victims of bicycle theft and theft of personal property decreased relatively faster among non-Estonians;
- the number of victims of theft and attempted theft from a home decreased only among non-Estonians.

<sup>40</sup> 3<sup>rd</sup> quintile: - 0.28 (reference: 5<sup>th</sup> quintile). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>41</sup> Non-Estonian: - 0.01 (reference: Estonian). ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

<sup>42</sup> Due to their small number, car thefts are not analysed.

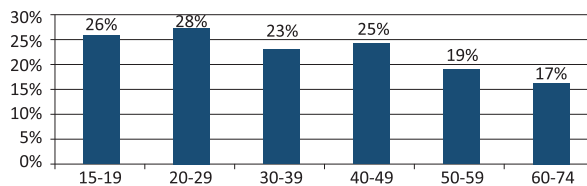
**Table 4.** Percentage of Estonians and non-Estonians victimized by crimes against property in 2003 and 2008

	Estonians		Non-Estonians	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
Car theft	0,8%	0,2%	0,4%	0,9%
Theft from a car	7,2%	5,0%	8,0%	5,6%
Car vandalism	5,0%	5,4%	5,4%	5,4%
Bicycle theft	3,8%	2,8%	4,6%	1,9%
Theft from a home	2,6%	2,7%	4,4%	3,7%
Attempted theft from a home	1,3%	1,7%	2,6%	2,2%
Theft from a summer cottage, country home or allotment	7,8%	4,3%	6,0%	4,4%
Theft from a garage , hovel or shed	5,2%	2,0%	4,4%	1,7%
Theft of personal property	5,3%	3,5%	8,6%	3,8%
Robbery	1,2%	1,5%	3,4%	3,4%

#### 4.1.4. Sex and age

There were practically no differences in the percentage of victims of crimes against property by sex and in case of types of crimes concerning the whole household. Differences remained rather small also in case of criminal offences personally concerning the respondent (robbery, theft of personal property).

The highest percentage of victims of crimes against property was notable in households of 20-29-year-old respondents; with growing age the victimization decreased<sup>43</sup>. A household is also formed by respondents living alone and this fact has a certain impact through criminal offences concerning certain age groups more or less than others.

**Figure 11.** Percentage of crime victims by age groups

In the comparison of age groups by types of crime, considerable differences became evident in case of car vandalism and thefts committed from a car, the highest number of victims of which was among 20-29-year-old respondents (taking into account only car owners and users). At the same time, there were somewhat less victims of thefts committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment among them (taking into account only owners of such property).

<sup>43</sup> *Up to 19: -0.06; 30-39: -0.01; 40-49: -0.16; 50-59: -0.45; 60-76: -0.58 (reference: 20-29). (P ≤ 0.001).*

### 4.1.5. Victimization and safety

In 2008, the smallest number of theft victims was evident among households who think that their neighbourhood security is good (17%). 24% of households considering it to be average and 42% considering it to be poor were victimized. The assessment to the safety of residence changes after victimization; this can be concluded from the fact that people who were not victimized by any crimes against property assessed their residence to be safer (28% of them thought that safety was good and 13% thought it was poor).

## 4.2. Types of crimes against property

### 4.2.1. Car-related crime

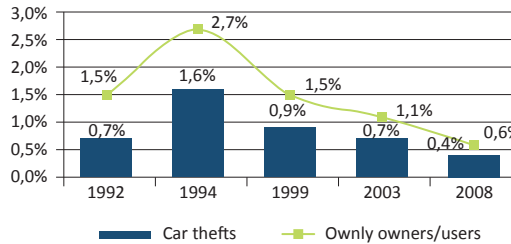
All victim surveys carried out in Estonia included questions on car theft, theft committed from a car and car vandalism (car ransacking).

Car theft means both a theft committed with the intention of illegal appropriation and criminal offences committed for temporary use of car (e.g. joyride). Victim surveys do not allow describing the trends of that type of crime especially well because very few victims are included in the sample<sup>44</sup> (the variability of indicators may be relatively high), but it is evident that by now there are fewer such criminal offences compared to the 1990s – both taking into account all respondents and only the car owners and users.

According to the data of victim surveys, 0,4% of households fell victim to a car theft and 0,6% of car owners and users

which is two times less in case of both indicators than the 1999 level.

Car theft is one of the few types of crime where Estonian indicators are better than international indicators.

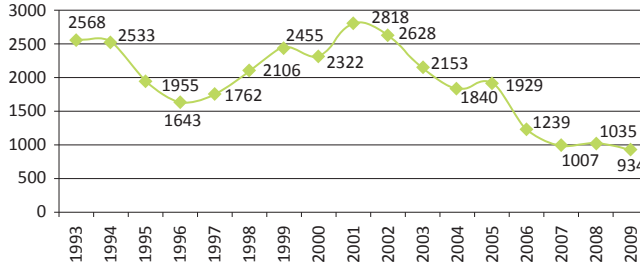


**Figure 12.** Car theft victims (percentage among all people interviewed and car owners/users)

Police statistics also confirm the considerable decrease in the car theft numbers; these statistics allow a more exact observation covering all incidents reported to the police and all years (incl. thefts of trucks, buses and other vehicles, although passenger cars have mainly been the objects of theft). According to the police data, three times less incidents involving vehicle thefts and unauthorized vehicle use were registered in 2009 than in 2001 which was the peak year, although the number of vehicles included in the register grew 30% during the same period<sup>45</sup>.

<sup>44</sup> For example, 12 people out of 1,678 fell victim to a car theft in 2003, 17 out of 4,181 respondents in 2008.

<sup>45</sup> Passenger cars, buses, truck and motorcycles. Source: Estonian Statistical Office, [www.stat.ee](http://www.stat.ee), table „Registered vehicles“ (30.08.2010).



**Figure 13.** Total number of incidents involving vehicle thefts and unauthorized vehicle use in 1993–2009 (criminal offences registered by the police)

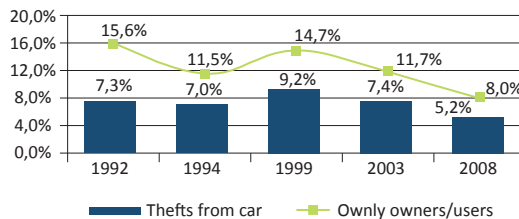
Source: Police and Border Guard Administration

According to the victim survey data, the level of car theft in Estonia in 2003 and 2008 was below the average of European countries in 2004 (covering the car owners and users), being close to e.g. Finland, Sweden and Belgium (Dijk et al., 2007, 50). Car owners' risk was the highest in Bulgaria, England and Wales, and Portugal where the probability of falling victim to a car theft was three times bigger than in Estonia in 2008. It was found in international survey that along with the increasing number of car owners, the risk of car theft grows or remains stable (ibid., p. 52).

Thefts committed from a car mostly concern exposed items left in the car (handbag, wallets, documents, laptops, cameras, tools, etc.) and also installed audio equipment and other equipment. In the 1990s, it was primarily audio equipment which was popular among thieves, but in recent years their attractiveness has decreased thanks to factory installation and thieves have started to get interested in GPS equipment.

For years, theft from a car has been one of the most frequent criminal offences in Estonia. In 2008, 5.2% of inhabitants and 8.0% of car owners and users were victimized, which is 1.8 times less for both indicators than in 1999. Repeat victimization in case of this type of crime was 16%. This facilitated by a possibility to commit such a crime quickly and with relatively low risk, and already the first criminal offence may be a sign for victim that the place is dangerous. At the same time, it is difficult to prevent breaking into car in an area with crime risk because in most cases it is not possible to put a car in a guarded parking lot. In some cases the thieves may be assisted by car owners' misconception that after they have fallen victim to crime once, the probability of a new crime is small, so items suitable for taking are left in car.

Something has been stolen nearly from every tenth car owner/user in the past year.



**Figure 14.** Percentage of victims of thefts committed from a car in 1992–2008

By settlement types the highest number of car theft victims was in Tallinn (11%) and the lowest number was among villagers (4%). There were three times more victims of this crime in the Northern district than in the Southern district (12% and 4% respectively) – because of the higher indicator of Tallinn. The number of victims in the Harjumaa county, not including Tallinn, was the same as in the Southern district.

In 2008, 97% of urban settlement inhabitants and 63% of rural settlement inhabitants of victims of such a crime were victimized in the municipality where they live. In Estonia on the whole, 94% of crimes were committed in respondent's municipality (80% near their homes); it was 6% elsewhere in Estonia.

It is interesting to note that in recent years increasingly more villagers have been victimized by such a theft outside the municipalities they live in, probably due to the renewal of car fleet and increased mobility of people; 42% of thefts committed from villagers' cars took place outside their home settlement in 1999, 52% in 2003<sup>46</sup> and 60% in 2008. It is important to take into consideration the fact that the percentage of car owners and users among villagers who were victimized by that crime during the same period has decreased by approximately three times and the percentage among all villagers has decreased by more than two times.

People living in the countryside are victimized away from home, city dwellers, however, in their home settlements.

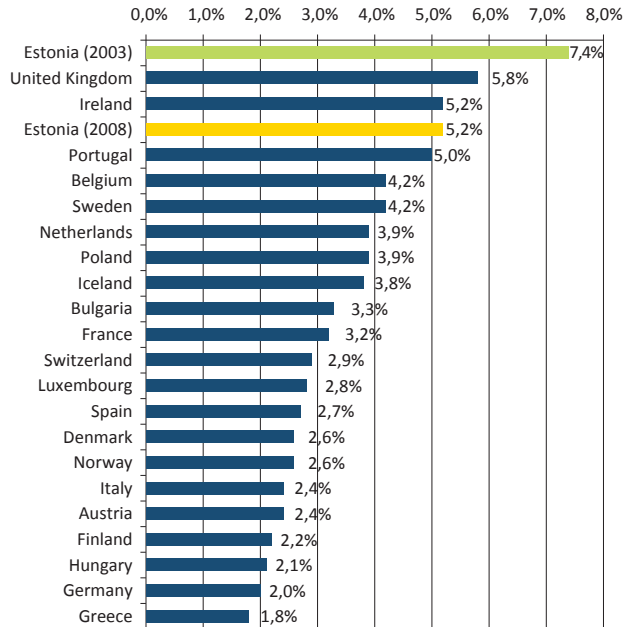
In 2008, people living in the Southern district were victimized outside their home settlement the most frequently and people living in the Southern district the least frequently. The differences are smaller when comparing only rural settlements of different districts, although the percentage of people

who had been victimized in their home settlement was bigger in the Northern and Viru districts than in other districts – this may refer to the influence of nearby big cities.

The biggest number of victims of thefts committed from a car (only taking in account car owners and users) occurred in the households of 20-29 years old people and the smallest number in the households of 60-74 years old people. The indicator is probably affected by a large percentage of car owners living alone; compared to elderly people, they work and move about in their car more (the biggest number of victims was in households with full-time employees).

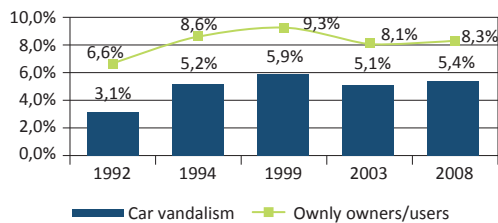
By the prevalence of that crime, Estonia was in the European top group in 2003, together with England and Wales (in 2004), when compared to other European countries (Dijk et al., 2007, 54). As for capitals, the biggest number of crime victims was in London and Tallinn. Estonia's position was similar also in 2008.

<sup>46</sup> References to 1999 and 2003 are not quite precise here, because the previous victim surveys asked victims to describe the last criminal offence that had occurred within last five years (incl. the interview year up to the interview). For example, 41% of all respondents victimized by that crime during the last five years fell victim to a theft committed from a car in 2003.



**Figure 15.** Percentage of victims of thefts committed from car by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2008

In 2008, 5.4% of Estonian inhabitants and 8.3% of car owners and users were victimized by car vandalism. The highest number of victims of such crimes occurred in 1999 but, unlike in case of thefts from cars, no big changes have taken place in the crime rate.



**Figure 16.** Percentage of car vandalism victims in 1992–2008

The risk of getting victimized by car vandalism has been the biggest in Tallinn and the smallest in rural settlements (in 2008, 12% and 5% of car owner and users respectively). There were nearly twice as many victims of that crime among car owners and users in the Northern and Viru districts than the Western and Southern districts (10% and 5–6% respectively). Similarly with thefts from a car, the crime rate was high in Tallinn but elsewhere in the Harjumaa county it was similar with the Southern district.

In 2008, 94% of inhabitants of Tallinn and other bigger cities suffering from such crime and 54% of villagers suffering from such crime were victimized in the municipalities they

live in. All in all, 84% of criminal offences (including 70% near people's own home) were committed in a respondent's home settlement.

The profile of victims resembles the victims of theft committed from a car: the highest number of victims occurred among the households of 20-29-years old people and the smallest number in the households of 60-74-years old people.

Last international comparative data are available from 1999, when the victimization rate in Estonia was close to the European average (Dijk et al., 2007, pp. 237-240).

#### 4.2.2. Motor cycle, motor scooter or moped theft

There have been rather few victims of motor cycle, motor scooter and moped thefts in Estonia (there haven't been many such vehicles around). That is why the 2000 and 2004 victim surveys did not contain that question.

In recent years, the popularity of motor scooters and, according to the police data, also their thefts have increased, but compared to other types of crime there are very few incidents. The question about motor cycle, motor scooter and moped thefts was asked in the 2009 victim survey, but the sample does not allow for a more detailed analysis – there were only three persons among the people interviewed who had fell victim to such a crime in 2008 (0.1% of the population and 0.9% of vehicle owners).

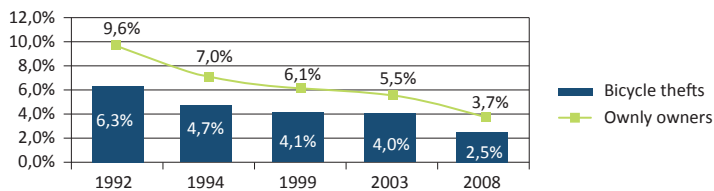
#### 4.2.3. Bicycle theft

The rate of being victimized by a bicycle theft has considerably decreased compared to the 1990s. In 2008, 2.5% of all people interviewed and 3.7% of bicycle owners were victimized.

There were more victims in urban settlement (most of all in Pärnu and Tallinn) and less in rural settlements. As for districts, the biggest number of victims occurred in the Western and the smallest in the Viru district.

89% of bicycle thefts took place in respondents' home settlements, including 65% near home. The percentage of victims who had been victimized in their home settlements was the smallest in case of villagers (72%).

While car-related crimes against the property are more common than on the average in the Virumaa region, there are less bicycle thefts compared to other parts of Estonia.



**Figure 17.** Percentage of bicycle theft victims in 1992–2008

There were least victims in the households of 60-74 years old people; other age groups did not differ much.

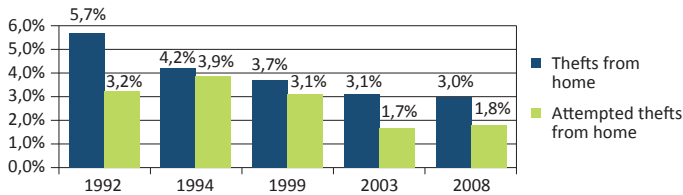
In terms of bicycle thefts, Estonia was on the average European level in 2003 (Dijk et al., 2007). That year, the highest number of victims (both among all people interviewed and among bicycle owners) occurred in the Netherlands and Denmark – in countries where



people travel about a lot with bicycles; the smallest number of victims occurred in Spain and Portugal. Among big cities, Amsterdam was on the first place, followed by Copenhagen and Stockholm. Although the number of bicycle thefts has decreased in Estonia in recent years, this will probably not change our position much.

#### 4.2.4. Theft and attempted theft from home

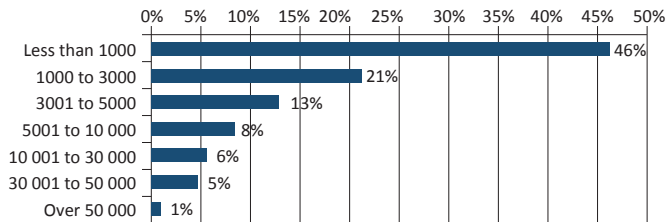
According to the victim survey data, no significant changes took place in the number of thefts and attempted thefts from home in 2003–2008, although there were fewer victims than in the beginning of the 1990s. In 2008, 3.0% of inhabitants were victimized by completed thefts and 1.8% by attempted thefts.



**Figure 18.** Percentage of victims of thefts committed from home in 1992–2008

In 2008, 19% of victims fell victim to a theft committed from home at least twice (in 1999, the relevant indicator was 17% and in 2003 it was 25%). Repeat victimization is facilitated by poor security of buildings and apartments which may increase the criminal offenders' interest to steal from an easily accessible place. According to a rough calculation<sup>47</sup>, 4.7 thefts per 100 respondents were committed in 1999, 4.2 thefts in 2003 and 3.8 thefts in 2008.

According to respondents, the value of property stolen from home in 2008 was less than 3,000 EEK in case of two thirds of incidents.<sup>48</sup>



**Figure 19.** Value of items stolen from home (last incident, percentage of people victimized by theft)

There were twice as many victims in urban settlements than in rural settlements (3.6% and 1.8% correspondingly). By settlement types, the biggest risk of getting victimized by a theft

<sup>47</sup> The data of previous surveys were recalculated by the 3-step scale, taking 3 as the scale step „3 or more“.

<sup>48</sup> In case of earlier surveys, the median value of stolen property is known: 1,000 EEK in 1999 and 1,830 EEK in 2003 (Saar et al., 2005). In 2003, the damage reached up to 3,000 EEK according to the estimate of 52% of respondents, whereas unlike the last survey no reply options were given (in most cases the amount of damages were bigger than the amounts of damages indicated in pre-determined scale ranges in 2008). Different reply mode does not allow comparing the 2008 indicators with the results of earlier survey in a detailed manner.

was in Tallinn and other big cities and the lowest risk was in villages. Crime rate was higher than the average in the Virumaa region and the Northern district (due to the high rate of Tallinn). Similar differences became evident also by nationality: there were more victims among non-Estonian (main part of whom is living in big cities of the mentioned districts). No clear connection between the household income level and percentage of people victimized by theft became evident.

Compared to other European countries, there were many thefts committed from home and in the 1990s the percentage of Estonian victims was distinctly on the first place. In 2003–2004, the highest rate was in England and Wales, being followed by Denmark, Bulgaria and Estonia with quite equal figures; the smallest number of victims was evident in Sweden, Spain and Finland (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 65). In terms of capitals, the highest number of victims was evident in Istanbul, followed by London, Helsinki and Tallinn.

Estonia's level was similar also in 2008 and we will probably still be one of the countries with the highest percentage of victims in Europe.

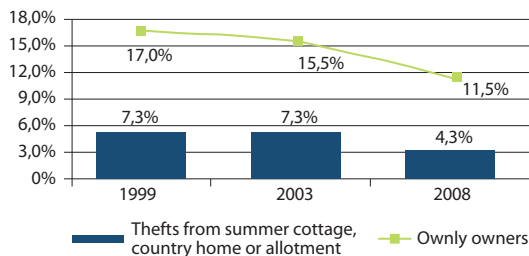
In 2008, 1.8% of inhabitants were victimized by attempted theft committed from home which is nearly on the same level as in 2003. Regional picture of prevalence resembles completed thefts; neither are there any big differences by victim characteristics. The small number of crimes does not allow pointing out any specific differences.

In international comparison, Estonia's level was the highest in Europe in the 1990s but close to the average of European countries in 2003 and 2008.

#### 4.2.5. Theft from a summer cottage, country home and allotment

The question on thefts from a summer cottage, country home or allotment has been asked in victim surveys since 2000. It has not been used in other countries, thus international comparison is not possible.

This type of theft has been one of the most common types of crime besides the thefts committed from a car, and owners of such property are at higher risk of getting victimized than e.g. the car owners' risk to get victimized by a theft from a car. Still, the number of incidents has decreased in recent years. In 2008, 4.3% of inhabitants and 11.5% of owners of such property were victimized.



**Figure 20.** Percentage of victims of theft committed from a summer cottage, country home or allotment in 1999-2008

This crime is characterized by high recurrence; in 2008, 35% of people victimized by a theft from a summer cottage, country home or allotment were victimized at least twice, including 16% of victims who have been victimized three or more times. These are mostly objects which are located far from the owner's residence, which are difficult to guard and where the criminal offender's risk to get caught is low. Compared to previous surveys, the recurrence has decreased – 52% of victims in 1999 and 42% in 2003 were repeat victims.

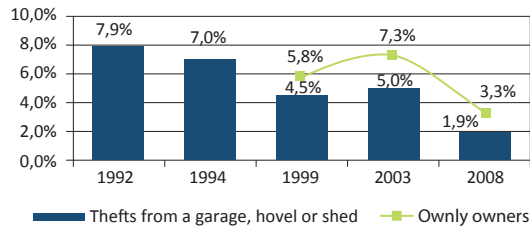
The victims of summer cottage, country home or allotment thefts live rather in urban than rural settlements (14% and 9% respectively). By settlement type, the risk is relatively high in case of people living in Tallinn and low in case of people living in villages, but there are no clear differences in case of other settlement types. The percentage of crime victims was the biggest in the Virumaa region and that is why there were more victims among non-Estonians than Estonians (10% and 16% respectively; one reason causing that may be the fact that city dwellers as property owners are more isolated from their possessions than the inhabitants of smaller settlements; also, the location of possessions near big cities where the crime rate is often higher than in distant rural areas (at the same time, the percentage of Tallinn from the population of the area is even bigger and summer cottages are even more isolated). The limited sample does not allow drawing any definite conclusions.

16% of victims of summer cottage, country home or allotment thefts were victimized by the same crime three or more times within the past year.

No clear connection between the household income level and characteristics describing a respondent and the percentage of crime victims became evident.

#### 4.2.6. Theft from a garage, hovel or shed

The question on theft from a garage, hovel or shed is represented in all victim surveys in Estonia. In 2008, 1.9% of inhabitants and 7.3% of owners of such property were victimized to that crime – compared to 2003, the total number of crimes has decreased. The comparison with 1992 and 1994 is somewhat uncertain, although based on general developments it seems likely that the number of these crimes was bigger than now (data on the percentage of victimized owners are not available).<sup>49</sup>



**Figure 21.** Percentage of victims of thefts committed from a garage, hovel or shed in 1992–2008

In 2008, 16% of people who suffered from a theft committed from a garage, hovel or shed were victimized at least twice by this crime. In recent years the recurrence has diminished, being 29% in 1999 and 34% in 2003.

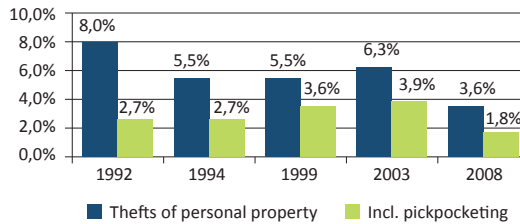
There were more theft victims in urban settlements than in rural settlements (4.0% and 2.5% of property owners respectively). Small number of incidents does not allow the analysis of other characteristics.

<sup>49</sup> The 1993 and 1995 victim surveys did not include a question on theft from summer cottage, country house or allotment and a certain number of these incidents could have been marked as a theft from a garage, hovel or shed – therefore one has to be careful comparing subsequent data with the 1991 and 1994 levels.

In other countries this question was last asked in 1992 and more recent comparative data are not available.<sup>50</sup>

#### 4.2.7. Theft of personal property

Theft of personal property concerns incidents, the commission of which did not involve the use of violence or threatening with violence and it also involves pickpocketing. In 2008, 3.6% of inhabitants fell victim to this crime (half of these crimes were pickpocketing incidents), which is less than in 1992–2003.



**Figure 22.** Percentage of victims of thefts of personal property in 1992–2008

In the past year, 14% of people who were victimized by this crime were repeatedly victimized by the theft of personal property. This indicator has remained on the same level in comparison with 1999 and 2003. The value of stolen property was less than 1,000 EEK according to the estimate of 55% of victims, between 1,000–3,000 EEK according to 25% and more than 3,000 EEK according to 18% of victims<sup>51</sup>.

Unlike several other crimes against property, no clear differences became evident between urban and rural settlement or between settlement types. By districts, the crime rate was the highest in the Virumaa region and the lowest in the Southern district. There were no considerable differences between the victimization of men and women. There were more victims of thefts of personal property among the 29-year-old people than the average, especially in the 16–19 age groups (7%).

There were no big differences in percentage of Estonian and non-Estonian victims, but compared to 2003 the percentage of victims had decreased among non-Estonians more than among Estonians (see table 2).

64% of inhabitants were victimized by theft of personal property in the municipalities they live, 31% elsewhere in Estonia and 5% abroad. Compared to 2003, the victimization rate decreased more than twice in these municipalities, elsewhere it has remained more or less the same.<sup>52</sup>

From all thefts of personal property, 23% were committed on the street, 22% in means of public transport, 13% at work place,

Nearly half of thefts of personal property in Tallinn are committed in means of public transport.

<sup>50</sup> The Estonian level considerably exceeded the European average (2.8%) in 1993 and 1995 and the Finnish level (2.6%) in 1992 (Aromaa and Abven, 1995).

<sup>51</sup> In 2003, 47% of respondents said that the value was less than 1,000 EEK, whereas, unlike the last survey, response options were not given. The use of a different response mode does not allow comparing the 2008 indicators with the results of previous surveys in a more detailed manner.

<sup>52</sup> Reference only to year 2003 is not quite accurate, as then the question concerned the last crime during last five years (from 2000 to the time of interview in spring 2004). In 2003, 33% of all people interviewed fell victim to a theft of personal property within last five years.

9% at the restaurant, 5% at school and 28% elsewhere<sup>53</sup>. In urban settlements, this crime was most frequently committed in means of public transport (30%) or on the street (25%); however, in rural settlements it was in an unspecified place, “elsewhere” (46%). As for settlement types, the biggest percentage of thefts committed in means of public transport was clearly evident in Tallinn (46%).

In comparison with men, women were relatively more frequently victims on the street (29% and 17% respectively). 16-19-year-old people were most frequently victimized at school (29%). 20-29-year-old people were victimized more frequently than other age groups in the restaurant (21%), 40-49-year-olds at their work place (24-25%) and 60-74-year-old in public transport vehicles (38%) and on the street (32%).

Non-Estonians were most frequently victimized in public transport vehicles (38%; Estonian 14%) and victimization on the street was also relatively frequent (29%; Estonian 20%). Differences between nationalities are in particular related to the fact that non-Estonians reside mainly in big cities where the crime rate is higher than in smaller settlements.

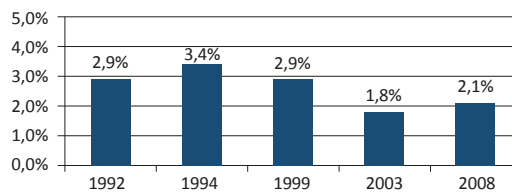
Compared to European countries, Estonia was among the top five countries by the number of thefts of personal property in 1992-2003. By its 2008 rate, Estonia was close to the average of European countries; close to this rate were, for example, the Netherlands and Poland (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 71). Crime rate was the lowest in Portugal, Spain and Finland.

In terms of capitals, Tallinn was by its rate on the second place after London and before Reykjavik (incl. on the first place by pickpocketing). The 2008 rate was below the average of European cities (2004), being close, for example, to Copenhagen, Amsterdam and Madrid. Crime rate was the lowest in Lisbon, Helsinki and Istanbul.

### 4.3. Robbery

In the victim survey, robbery means a crime with the purpose of appropriation of a victim's property by using violence or threatening with violence.

In 2008, 2.1% of Estonian people were victimized by robbery, which is more than in 2003 but the change is statistically insignificant.<sup>54</sup> In both cases, 1.2% of inhabitants fell victim to robberies committed by using violence and robberies committed by only using threat (a part of them were victimized by both types of incidents). In the past year, 18% of people victimized by this crime fell repeatedly victim to any type of robbery.<sup>55</sup>



**Figure 23.** Percentage of robbery victims in 1992–2008

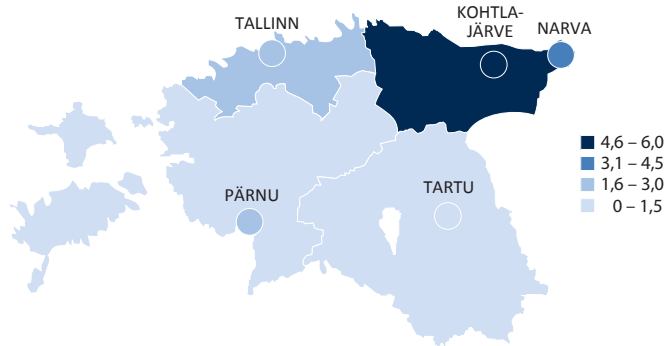
No clear differences were evident with respect to the percentage of robbery victims between urban and rural settlements and by settlement types (small number of incidents does not allow

<sup>53</sup> Six response options for the question “where did the last theft of personal property occur?” were: at work place, at school, in a public transport vehicle, at the restaurant, on the street, elsewhere. One may think that other entertainment establishments were meant as well, when marking the restaurant.

<sup>54</sup> In 2003, the same indicator remained in the range of 1.3% to 2.5% with 95% probability.

<sup>55</sup> In 1999, the same indicator was 22% of the total of 49 victims; in 2003, none of the 31 victims mentioned recurrence. In 2008, there were 84 victims of robbery among the people interviewed.

a more specific analysis). By districts, the biggest percentage of victims was in the Viru district (5%), followed by the Northern district (2%); in other districts the percentage of victims was 1%.



**Figure 24.** Percentage of robbery victims

75% of respondents fell victim to the last robbery in their home settlement, 20% elsewhere in Estonia and 5% abroad. Rural inhabitants were the most who were victimized outside their home settlement (approximately half of them). Compared to the results of previous victim survey, there were no considerable changes concerning the place of victimization.

There were no noticeable changes in the percentage of robbery victims by sex. By age, the highest number of victims was evident among 16-29-year-old people. There were over two times more victims among non-Estonians than among Estonians, and nearly three times more victims among stateless people than among Estonian citizens.

In case of more than every fourth incident, the robbery victim knew at least one attacker.

Often several criminal offenders committed the crime; 43% of robberies were committed by one person, 31% by two persons and 26% by at last three persons. Predominant number of robberies was committed by a person or group or persons unknown to the victim (in 66% of incidents); at the same time, considerable number (27%) of crimes was committed by one person or persons from whom the victim knew at least one person. In case of remaining incidents (7%), the victim did not see the attacker. Nine tenths of robberies were committed without a weapon; when a weapon was used, it was mostly a cut-and-thrust weapon (there were no persons among people interviewed who had come into contact with firearm use).

Among European countries, Estonia was on the first place by the crime rate in the 1990s and after Ireland in 2003; England and Wales, Greece, Spain and Poland were closely following (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 74). The smallest number of robbery victims was in Italy and Finland. As in 2008, the number of robbery victims has been approximately the same; even now, Estonia belongs to the top group in terms of international comparison.

In terms of capitals, Tallinn shared the first place with Warsaw in 2003, being closely followed by London and Brussels. The robbery rate was four times lower than the top rate in Athens, Stockholm, Reykjavik and Rome. It is likely that the current situation is also the same.

## 5. VIOLENCE AND VICTIMS

Jako Salla, Laidi Surva

A record number crimes of violence were registered in Estonia in 2008; the share of these crimes to all registered crimes increased from 12% to 18% during 2003, which means that nearly every fifth criminal offence which reached a preliminary investigator or prosecutor was related to violence (Klopets et al., 2010, p. 25). The same statistics showed that the total number of crimes of violence increased by more than one third.

Although primarily the influence of legislative amendments is probably behind this considerable growth, caused by the criminal and penal law reform during the first half of the decade, the registration statistics is not a good aid in assessing the violence rate because these crimes are seldom reported to the police<sup>56</sup>; however, there is one exception – manslaughter.

The large number of manslaughter in international comparison is probably one reason why Estonia is regarded as a country with high violence rate. In 2007, there were many times more manslaughters in Estonia (7.1 manslaughters per 100,000 inhabitants) than on the average in European countries (2.0) (Aebi et al., 2010, 41). At the same time, contrary to the total number of registered crimes of violence the number of manslaughters has stably decreased year by year. In 2009, 69 people were killed as a result of manslaughters and murders, which was the lowest indicator during period of regained independence Klopets et al., 2010, p. 39).

Manslaughter victims<sup>57</sup> do not reach the victim survey because this survey primarily reflects the so-called everyday violence – beating, threats and other forms of violence which occurred at home and outside home. In 2009, people were no longer asked about exposure to sexual violence but questions about sexual harassment were added. Due to these changes, the overall violence indicators cannot be exactly compared.

In 2008, 7.9%<sup>58</sup> of Estonian inhabitants were victimized by crimes of violence, the highest number of people stated that they had been victimized by non-physical sexual harassment<sup>59</sup> (3.6%), 2.4% were assault victims, 2.1% were victims of threat and robbery and attempted robbery and 2.0% were victims of sexual harassment.

Main attention in the chapter has been paid to victimization by assaults and threats, less attention is devoted to harassment incidents; robberies have been analysed in the chapter of crimes against property. In terms of comprehensibility, the term “violence” or “crime of violence” is also used for assaults and threats.

Information on every fourth incident of violence reaches the police.

### 5.1. Assault and threat

In 2009, the total percentage of assault and threat victims was 3.7% of the population<sup>60</sup>, which respectively means that more than 95% of people among the interviewed age group were not

<sup>56</sup> According to the data of this survey, 77% did not inform the police of assaults/threats. According to the last international victim survey data, 67% of assaults and threats were not reported in the compared countries (Dijk, 2007).

<sup>57</sup> However, victims who have survived attempted manslaughter may reach the victim survey.

<sup>58</sup> Cumulative indicator – each respondent has been taken into account once.

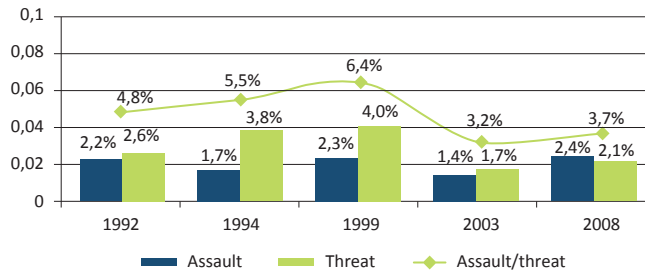
<sup>59</sup> “Have you had to tolerate sexual insinuations, comments or suggestions (both in oral and written form) which you find uncomfortable and unwanted, since <current month of last year>?” And “Have you had to put up with touching, stroking or advances of sexual nature or other (intended and not accidental) physical contacts which you find uncomfortable and unwanted, since <current month of last year>?”

<sup>60</sup> In 2009, 151 respondents were victimized by assault and/or threat (assault 94, threat 86).

exposed to this type of most common attacks. Consequently, it may be stated that most people were not exposed to violence.

It is not possible to draw unambiguous conclusions about current and previous violence rate. Although the summary indicator of assault and threat is much lower in comparison with the 1990s, it is still a bit higher than in 2003 (at the same time the change is statistically insignificant).

The assault and threat rate was similar like in the last survey in 1992 and 2003 (the difference was 0.3-0.4 percentage points). Years 1994 and 1999 stand out as exceptions which are difficult to explain, as there were considerably more victims of threat than of physical violence then. Compared to 2003, it has to be pointed out that the number of assault victims grew more than the number of threat victims.

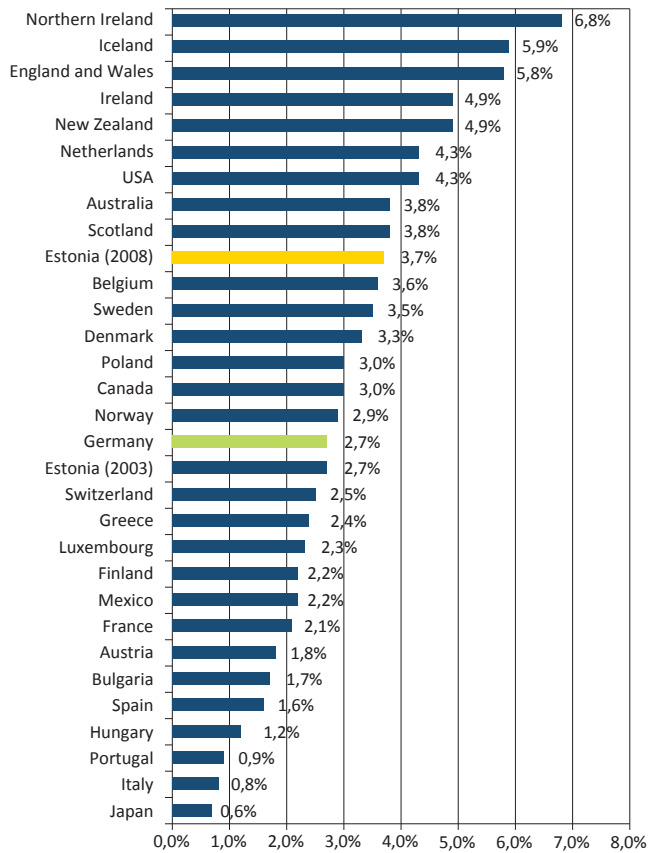


**Figure 25.** Percentage of assault and/or threat victims (percentage among population)

The risk that certain people get victimized by violence is demonstrated by the fact that nearly every tenth (9.6%) victim of assault or threat was victimized by a similar assault three or more times in the past year; 17.8% of people were victimized twice.

Compared to other countries participating in the 2003 international survey, Estonia with its increased violence indicator rose above the countries with an average violence indicator; the percentage of victims is now similar to the 2003 indicators of the Netherlands, Sweden and USA.





**Figure 26.** The assault/threat victims rate by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2008

### 5.1.1. Characterization of victims

The 1990s victim surveys demonstrated that the probability to get victimized by assault or threat was higher in case of men than in case of women. The 2003 survey indicated, however, a strong decrease of male victimization (the percentage of victims of violence among men decreased from 7.3% to 2.6%); the percentage of women which had increased up to 1999 fell considerably less by 2003 (from 5.5% to 3.8%). In 2008, just like in 2003, women were victimized by violence more than men.<sup>61</sup> According to the survey, the percentage of women among victims of crime was 55%.

In case of victimization of men and women, certain difference from the statistical picture of crime becomes evident. In case of crimes of violence registered in 2008, there were fewer women among victims than men – 40%. This means that more of these incidents are reported to the police if the victim is a man. Also, it has to be noticed that while in case of crimes of violence the

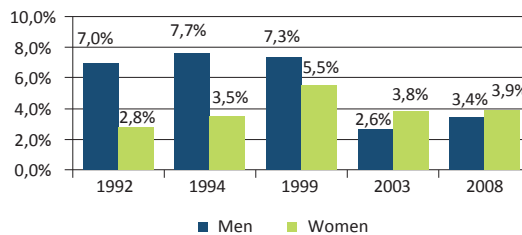
The number of men who have been victimized by violence has once again increased after great decrease.

<sup>61</sup> Women: 0.31 (reference: men). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

proportion of men and women is similar, 90% of people committing the crimes are men (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 29).

Similarly with 2003, the percentage of men in case of assaults and in the percentage of women in case of threats was slightly higher also in 2008.

It was found in a similar survey carried out in Sweden in 2009 (The Swedish National ..., 2010, pp. 19–21) that there were twice as many men among victims of assault (2.4% victims of respondents just like in Estonia) than women; in case of threats (4.1% victims in Sweden, 2.1% in Estonia) the victimization of men was slightly more likely than that of women. Swedes explained higher proportion of men with the fact that most assault take place in public places, while the victims of domestic assaults are mostly women. In Estonia this notion has also been supported by the 2008 analysis of criminal statistics (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 29). The analysis performed by the location of last incident of crime indicated that women have 10 percentage points higher rate of victimization occurring at their home or near home compared to men.

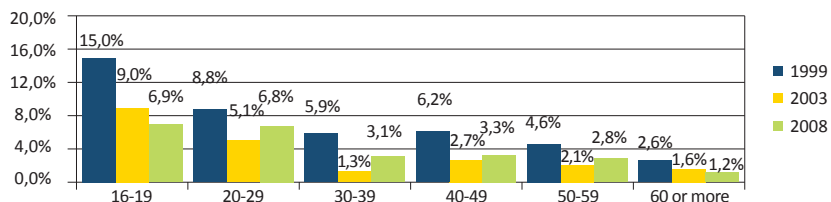


**Figure 27.** Percentage of assault/threat victims by sex (percentage among population)

## Age

It was found in the 2000 international victim survey that younger people are at higher risk to get victimized by a crime of violence than elderly people (Kesteren et al., 2000, p. 56). This is also confirmed by earlier Estonian victim surveys and criminal statistics which also show that young people commit more crimes of violence (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 28).

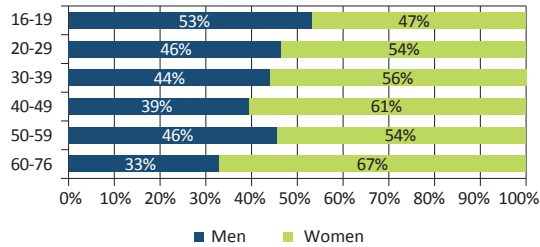
In 2008, the victimization rate by crime of violence was the highest among younger age groups. In 16–19 and 20–29 age groups, slightly less than 7% of inhabitants were victimized by an assault or a threat in the past year. The victimization rate continued to be over 3% among 30–59-year-olds but dropped to 1.2% among 60-year old and older people.



**Figure 28.** Percentage of assault/threat victims by age group (percentage among population)

Compared to two earlier surveys, the number of victims has decreased primarily in the youngest age group: in 1999, there were 15% of victims in age group 16–19. Compared to the previous survey, the number of victims in age groups 20–59 has increased by 1–2 percentage points.

If we look at prevalence of genders among victims in a certain age group, we see that the percentage of men is higher among 16-19-year-olds (53.2%); women dominate in other groups. The percentage of female victims of violence is the highest in the 60–76 (67.2%) and 40–49 (60.6%) age groups. These data may also explain why the violence victimization rate of women has exceeded the rate of men: this is probably caused by the decreasing number of victims among young men.



**Figure 29.** Distribution of assault/threat victims by gender (percentage among victims age group)

The survey carried out in Finland showed that the highest number of victims or violence occurred among young men (20–24 years); it was also found in the survey that the total victim rate is still slightly higher among women and starting from 35 years the percentage of female victims in the age group exceeds the percentage of men (Poliisin ylijohito, 2009, p. 24).

By age groups, there were also certain differences by the number of attackers involved in the last incident of violence: while in case of 20–49-year-olds there were more incidents with one attacker, in the younger and two older age groups the percentage of incidents involving two or more attackers was higher.

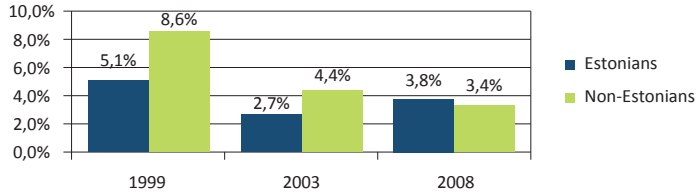
It was stated in the previous victim survey that non-Estonians are at much higher risk of falling victim to assault or threat of violence than Estonians, and it was explained that at last partially the reason may be that non-Estonians are living in cities where there is more violence (Saar et al., 2005, p. 27). This survey, however, demonstrates that the proportion of both Estonians and non-Estonians has changed. In 2008, more people were victimized by violence in the countryside<sup>62</sup> (3.9% of victims in small towns and villages, but 3.6% in small towns and cities).

3.8% of Estonians and 3.4% of non-Estonians were victimized by violence in the past year. Higher victimization rate of Estonians was also confirmed by regression analysis<sup>63</sup>. Compared to an interview carried out nine years before, increasingly less non-Estonians have been victimized; this indicator decreased especially remarkably – nearly twice – between 1999 and 2003. The indicator for Estonians also decreased noticeably during that period, increasing, however, by somewhat more than a percentage point with the next five years.

For the first time, violence victimization rate of Estonians was higher than the indicator of non-Estonians.

<sup>62</sup> Rural settlement: 0.63 (reference: urban settlement). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

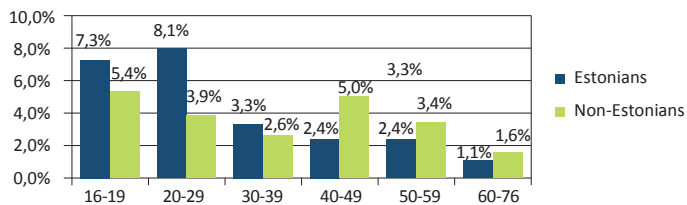
<sup>63</sup> Non-Estonian: -0.51 (reference: Estonian). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).



**Figure 30.** Percentage of assault/threat victims by nationality groups in 1999–2008 (percentage among population)

It became evident from the distribution of Estonian and non-Estonian victims by gender that the percentage of victims among men is very similar (3.5% and 3.3% respectively). Somewhat bigger but still statistically insignificant difference became evident in case of women, where 4.1% of Estonians and 3.5% of non-Estonians have been exposed to violence.

Comparison of Estonians with other ethnic groups shows that while there are more victims in younger age groups among Estonians, older people are more frequently exposed to violence among other nationalities. The regression analysis confirmed this conclusion in case of Estonians (compared to 16–19-year-old Estonian victims of violence, 40-year-old and older Estonians are less frequently victimized by violence)<sup>64</sup>; in case of non-Estonians no reliable connection with age was found.



**Figure 31.** Percentage of assault/threat victims by nationality and age groups (percentage among population)

### Other indicators

While it was stated in the previous victim survey that the unemployed are at higher risk of falling victim to violence (Saar, 2005, p. 28), this survey did not confirm it. 2.8% of the unemployed were victimized by violence; 3.8% and 5.0% respectively were victims among part-time and full-time workers. This could have been affected by low unemployment rate in 2007–2008. At the same time, similarly with the previous survey the highest violence victimization rate in 2008 was among students (8.3% in 2003, 8% in 2008), which is also natural because the majority of students are young people, among whom there are more victims in every field of activity.

The exposure of blue-collar and white-collar workers to violence in 2008 was not very different (2% and 3% of victims respectively); the size or the composition of household (number of dependent children) or economic viability also does not seem to be of relevance in case of victimization.

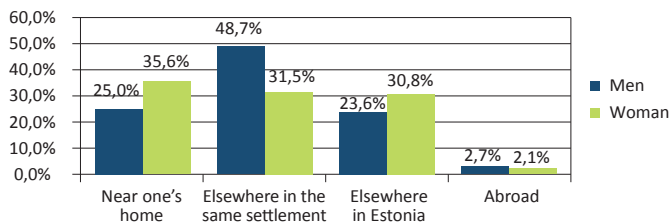
<sup>64</sup> 40–49:  $-0.89$  (reference: 15–19) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ); 50–59:  $-0.96$  (reference: 15–19) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ); 60–76:  $-1.35$  (reference: 15–19) ( $P \leq 0.01$ );

### 5.1.2. Last incident of violence

The majority of last incidents of violence took place in victims' home settlements (39.2%). 30.8% of victims experienced violence at home or near home. More than a quarter of incidents of violence take place outside home settlements (27.6% elsewhere in Estonia and 2.4% abroad).

When analysing these incidents more closely, it becomes evident that women and men are victimized in different places. While the number of victims among people who are abroad is similarly small (there is simply less possibilities for that because most respondents are in homeland for the most part of time) and there are no considerable differences by groups inside Estonia, incidents stand out among men where violence has been experienced in one's residence. Such a difference probably refers to incidents of violence which have occurred in different entertainment establishments and other public places where men are more frequently victims also by criminal statistics (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 29).

People living in the Virumaa region are more frequently exposed to violence outside their home neighbourhood.



**Figure 32.** Percentage of assault/threat victims by the location of last incident and victim's gender<sup>65</sup>

The analysis of the same indicator by victim's place of residence showed that while people living in North Estonia (in Harjumaa county and Tallinn) are most frequently exposed to violence at home or home town, the exposure to violence of people from elsewhere took place relatively more frequently outside their home town; it was especially visible in case of people living in the Virumaa region, among whom nearly half of the incidents took place outside the Virumaa county. Also, in case of people living in the Virumaa region, especially in the Ida-Virumaa county, a considerable number of incidents (5.4%) took place outside Estonia – this may refer to that fact that they often visit Russia and experience violence there.

### 5.1.3. Characterization of incidents

72.6% of people who are exposed to violence in the past year experienced one assault or threat. There were 17.8% of victims involved in two incidents; 9.6% involved in three or more incidents. According to this, the estimated amount of incidents of violence during the year was 52,000. From these 36.7% were assaults (43% in 2003), 63.3% of incidents were threats.

Physical violence mostly meant either hitting or holding somebody. There were few incidents when a person was shot, attacked with a knife or some other weapon; men were more exposed to these incidents. International comparison also shows that the use of a weapon in case of assaults and threats in Estonia is very rare in comparison with other countries (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 284). The attacker acted alone in about half of the incidents, in case of a quarter of incidents there

<sup>65</sup> The indicator "Close to one's home" also includes victimization at home.

were two persons attacking or threatening and in case of a quarter of incidents three or more persons. According to both Estonian and international victim survey, men are more frequently victimized in situations where there are two or more attackers, women, however, in a situation where one person uses violence (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 80).

The proportion of violent attacks committed by strangers has decreased.

In case of 36.6% of incidents, the victim knew the person using violence (or at least one person, if there were many). The corresponding 2003 indicator was similar (34% in 2003). In international comparison, the Estonian indicator is somewhat smaller; in other countries the victim knows the person using violence in about half of the incidents (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 80). 68.7% of victims who knew the attacker said that this was a person they currently knew; in case of 12.7% this was a current or former partner (11% in 2003), there were fewer of those cases where an attacker was a friend, relative or another acquaintance.

Both in Estonia and elsewhere (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 80), men know their attackers more seldom than women, although differences in Estonia are smaller: men in Estonia primarily know their attackers more often than men in other countries; the indicator for women is similar. Although this survey does not allow analysing the reasons in a more detailed manner, high consumption rate of alcohol in Estonia and drinking culture (people drink a lot strong alcohol – See e.g. Bye, 2008) may have their influence. Also the manslaughter statistics show that a victim and a killer often know each other and in case of men, manslaughter occurs as a result of a quarrel which has arisen in the course of drinking alcohol together (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 32).

20.4% of respondents thought that the reason could have been an earlier quarrel – women thought so more than men. 63% of respondents were injured as a result of the assault (65% in 2003); the female-male ratio among injured people was 60:40, which shows that women experience violence not only more than men but the incidents often have more serious consequences. However, this conclusion is to a certain extent in conflict with the statistics of crimes of violence with most serious consequences, i.e. manslaughter, where the percentage of men among persons killed is considerably higher.

Among the victims who were injured as a result of violence, nearly 70% did not turn to the doctor and 83% did not turn to the police.

Only 29.8% of injured people turned to a doctor or some other health care professional, among them the proportion of women was much bigger (40% of women and 14.7% of men). According to the previous victim survey, 43% of injured people turned to a doctor which shows that this number has considerably decreased. The data at hand do not allow examining the reasons to that.

In case of 17.2% cases of violence, the victim informed the police himself/herself or it was done at the victim's request (the police learned about 5.8% of incidents in some other manner than from the injured person), whereas slightly more women (17.8%; 16.5% men) and Estonians (19.1%; non-Estonians 12.3%) reported the incidents.

#### 5.1.4. Connections with overall safety

Victimization by violence is related to personal feeling of security and the quality of living environment.

People were asked how they assess their neighbourhood safety. It turned out that people who live in an area, the safety of which is considered to be poor, are more frequently victims of violence (there were 11.8% of victims in neighbourhoods with poor security and 3.0% in neighbourhoods with good security)<sup>66</sup>. This is a logical result in every way and also

<sup>66</sup> *Neighbourhood security is poor: 1.35 (reference: good) (P ≤ 0.001)*

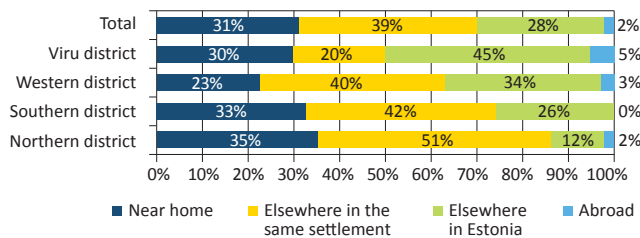
conforms to the fact that there are more people among victims who feel unsafe in their neighbourhood after dark<sup>67</sup>; at the same time, the insecurity expressed regarding the last question may be a result of victimization.

Violence victimization is also more frequent in areas where a person often encounters intoxicated or brawling people (percentage of victims 1.0% in case of “never”, 6.1% in case of “often”). This emerged especially clearly in case of Estonians<sup>68</sup>. In case of non-Estonians, victimization was related to whether a victim knows any people who use drugs<sup>69</sup> (they were victimized more often). Victimization was also admitted more by those who had been offered drugs or who had seen people trading drugs in their neighbourhood, using drugs or had found abandoned syringes.

The described connections refer to the links of crime and anti-social behaviour with drug addiction and alcoholism, as well as the resulting problems upon maintaining public order. This means that solving these social problems will probably help to reduce violence as well.

### 5.1.5. Geographic breakdown of violence

As it became evident, people living in different districts are exposed to violence at very different distances from home: people living in the Harjumaa county and Tallinn experience violence more in their neighbourhood, people living in the Virumaa region, however, outside their home settlement. Regional differences are also characterized by the following diagram.



**Figure 33.** Victimization by assault/threat according to district and distance of incident from home

As 30% of Estonian people are exposed to violence outside their home settlements, it can also be concluded that this will not fail to influence the geographic breakdown of crimes of violence, as the fact of victimization by a crime of violence is combined with the respondent’s place of residence in this indicator, not with the actual place of victimization<sup>70</sup> (for example, it is possible to get to know whether people living in the Tartumaa county are victimized more by crimes of violence but not whether the victimization rate is higher in the Tartumaa county). Therefore, this analysis uses as reference material the data of most common crimes of violence originating from the statistics of registered crimes, in case of which geographic distribution is based on the scene of crime and not on the victim’s place of residence.

Among the five bigger cities, the highest number of people are victimized in Pärnu (5.2%), followed by Narva (4.2%), Tartu (3.7%) and Tallinn (3.4%).

Violence rate in Pärnu is the highest both according to the victim survey and criminal statistics.

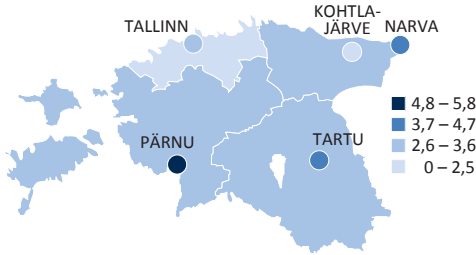
<sup>67</sup> Feels rather insecure alone in the dark 01.6 (reference: rather secure) ( $P \leq 0.001$ )

<sup>68</sup> Has seldom seen intoxicated brawlers: -0.93 (reference: often) ( $P \leq 0.001$ )

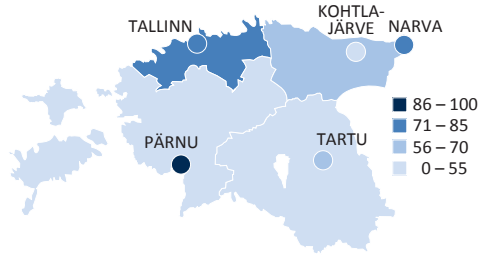
<sup>69</sup> Non-Estonians, knows one acquaintance who uses drugs: 1.66 (reference: does not know anyone) ( $P \leq 0.001$ )

<sup>70</sup> This question was not included in the survey.

The indicator for Kohtla-Järve was much lower in comparison with other cities (2.1%). Just like the victim survey, the 2008 criminal statistics also pointed out the high violence rate of Pärnu (Salla and Tammiste, 2009, p. 25); based on the data of registered crimes, most cases of violence occur during the night in nightclubs or in front of nightclubs<sup>71</sup>.



**Figure 34.** Percentage of population (%) victimized by assault/threat in 2008



**Figure 35.** Ratio of most common registered crimes of violence<sup>72</sup> per 100,000 inhabitants in 2008<sup>73</sup>

The comparison of two data sets also shows that the violence rate is higher in Narva and lower in Kohtla-Järve. However, the difference of two data sets becomes evident upon comparing the indicators for Harjumaa county and Tallinn. While according to the victim survey, the inhabitants of the Northern district are less frequently victimized by violence compared to other districts, criminal statistics indicates on the contrary that violence is focussed in Tallinn and Harjumaa county.

In some respects, this difference may probably be explained by Tallinn having the status of the centre of the country. People all over Estonia come to Tallinn (and also outside Estonia, if tourists are taken into account), thus there are

many more potential victims than permanent residents and the ratio of permanent residents and registered criminal offences gets much higher.

People living in Tallinn are not exposed to violence more than people living elsewhere.

## 5.2. Sexual harassment

The prevalence of sexual harassment was mapped with the victim survey for the first time. Two questions were asked, from which the first one concerned allusions, comments and sexual innuendos which were unpleasant for a respondent (hereinafter *non-physical harassment*), and the second concerned touching, stroking and other intentional physical contacts (hereinafter *physical harassment*).

Earlier victim surveys contained questions about sexual assaults which are related to more violence and use of physical strength (e.g. rape). These surveys have shown that there are less sexual assaults against women in Estonia in comparison with other countries: according

<sup>71</sup> In some respects, this conclusion also coincides with the victim survey results. In Western district (where Pärnu also belongs) the violence victimization rate of 20–29-year-old people (who probably visit entertainment establishments more frequently compared to older people) was considerably higher in comparison with other districts (there was 11.7% of 20–29-year-old victims of violence in the Western district and 4.9–7.6% in other districts).

<sup>72</sup> Also physical abuse and aggravated breach of public order have been taken into account.

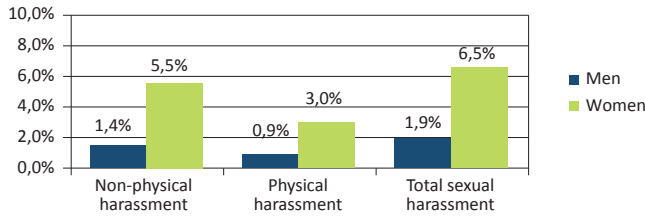
<sup>73</sup> E-file data.



to international victim survey (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 78), 0.3% of Estonian women had been exposed to them during 2003, when the average for compared countries was 0.6%; one of the highest indicators was in the USA and Sweden (1.4 and 1.3% respectively).

However, it became apparent in this survey that 4.4% of people were exposed to sexual harassment in the past year. 2.0% were exposed to non-physical harassment and 3.6% with non-physical harassment.

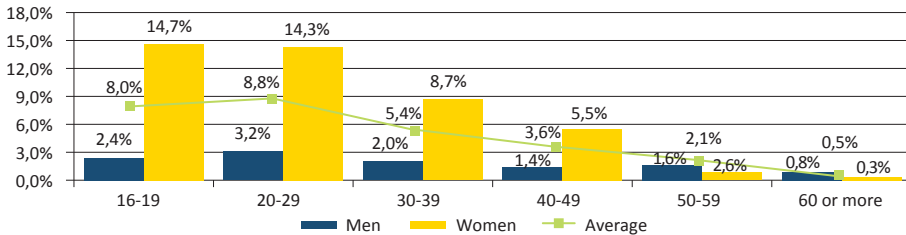
Although 95% of the people were not exposed to harassment, the differences inside socio-demographic groups were noticeable. For example, out of five harassed Estonian inhabitants, four are women; at the same time the gender differences are bigger in case of non-physical harassment and smaller in case of physical harassment.



**Figure 36.** Breakdown of victims of harassment by gender

In the past year, 6.5% of women and 1.9% of men were exposed to harassment. The percentage of victims of non-physical and physical harassment among women was 5.5% and 3.0% respectively, yet much less among men.

The differences stand out also by age groups. The biggest number of harassment victims is apparent in younger age groups (8–9%); with advancing age, the number of victims decreases and there are less than 1% of victims among 60-year-old and older people.



**Figure 37.** Breakdown of harassment victims by age group and gender

While the differences among men are small by age groups, with the percentage of people harassed being 0.8–3.2%, in case of women these differences are much bigger – 14–15% of 29-year-old women and 5–9% of 20–49-year-old women have been victims and in case of women in their 50s the percentage of victims remained within the 2% limit.

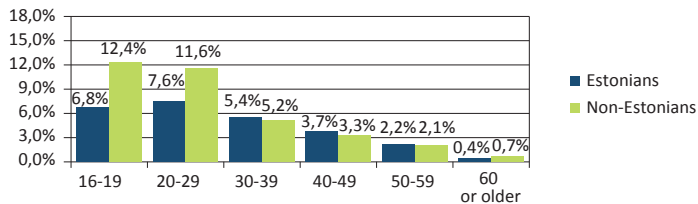
**Table 5.** Victims by type of harassment, victim's gender and age group

	Non-physical harassment			Physical harassment		
	Men	Women	Average	Men	Women	Average
16–19	1,0%	12,8%	6,3%	1,4%	7,4%	4,1%
20–29	2,7%	12,0%	7,4%	0,9%	6,7%	3,8%
30–39	1,6%	7,9%	4,7%	1,2%	3,8%	2,5%
40–49	1,1%	4,7%	3,0%	0,9%	1,9%	1,4%
50–59	1,3%	1,9%	1,6%	0,6%	1,7%	1,2%
60 and older	0,3%	0,3%	0,3%	0,6%	0,2%	0,3%

It became obvious from the ethnic group analysis that the percentage of victims is somewhat higher among non-Estonians: while 4.1% of Estonians were victimized by harassment in the past year, this figure was 4.9% for people from other nationalities, whereas the percentage of non-Estonian victims was somewhat higher both in case of non-physical and physical harassment.

Young non-Estonian women are most frequently victimized by harassment.

The biggest number of victims was especially clearly evident in two younger age groups. In the 16-19 age group, 12.4% of non-Estonians, but 6.8% of Estonians have been exposed to harassment; in the 20-29 age group the indicators are 11.6% and 7.6% respectively. There is also a difference between nationalities: the biggest number of victims among non-Estonians is in the youngest age group. Starting from the age of 30, the indicators for Estonians and non-Estonians level off.

**Figure 38.** Breakdown of harassment victims by age group and nationality

The comparison of districts showed that people living in the Virumaa region (6.8%) or the Harjumaa county (4.5%) are more exposed to harassment. In Southern and Western Estonia the percentage of victims is 3.2% and 3.3% respectively. This difference is probably due to a higher concentration of non-Estonians in Tallinn and Ida-Virumaa county when compared to the rest of Estonia, because there are more victims of harassment among them.

## 6. FRAUD AND CORRUPTION

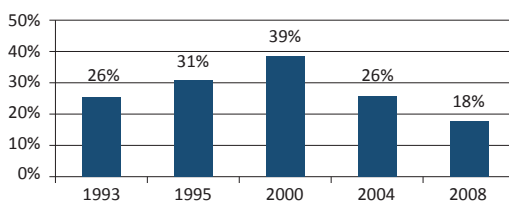
Mari-Liis Sööt, Kärt Vajakas (Data analysis)

### 6.1. Fraud

Entrepreneurs' experience with violations of law have been thoroughly studied and it has been found that companies have been victimized most by thefts and fraud: 20% of company managers and 12% of employees have been exposed to a theft or fraud committed by a customer or a partner in the past year (Ahven et al., 2008). This survey looked at the other side of consumer fraud, namely the victimization of common people. It was more specifically studied whether a respondent has been cheated with the quality or quantity of goods upon buying goods or providing a service during the last year. People admitting such exposure were also asked in which connection it occurred and whether they informed the police.

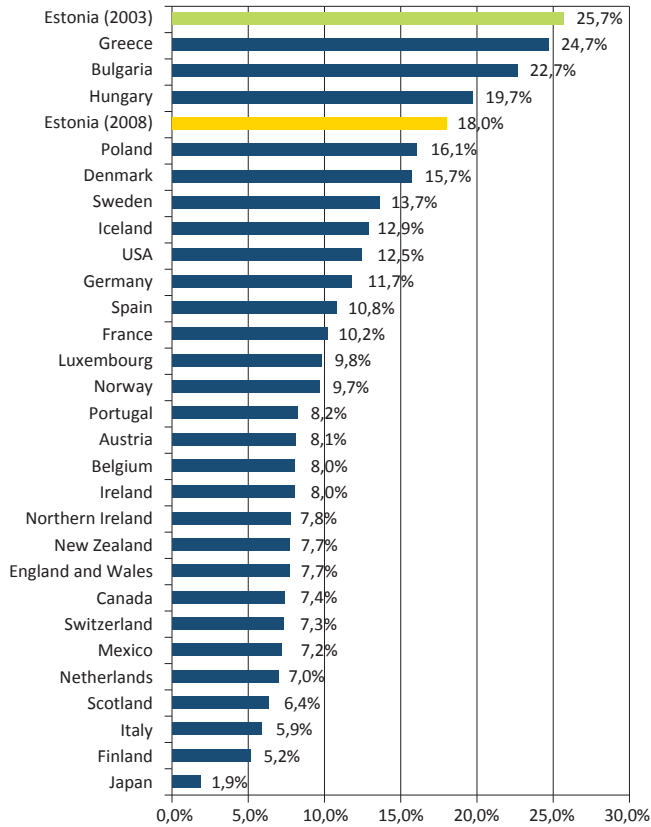
It turned out that 18% of the population has been exposed to consumer fraud, which is considerably less than in 2004 when this indicator was 26%. Compared to 2000, the decrease has been even more significant – 39% of people were exposed to fraud then.

There are increasingly less people victimized by consumer fraud.



**Figure 39.** Consumer fraud victims (percentage among respondents)

When we compare Estonia with international indicators (true, these are 2003–2004 indicators), the Estonian results are among the worst – 11% of respondents on the average fell victim to fraud elsewhere, whereas the lowest indicators were in Japan (2%), Finland (5%), Italy (6%), Scotland (6%) and the Netherlands (7%) (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 87).



**Figure 40.** Victims of fraud by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2008

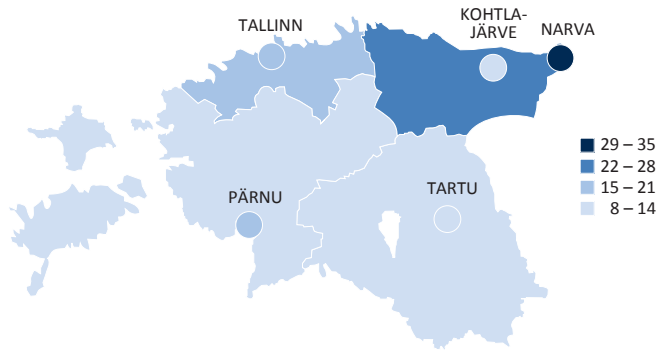
Younger people, women and non-Estonians<sup>74</sup> were more frequently victimized by fraud. For example, there were 21% of victims among 20-29-year-old people and 13% among people older than 60 years. 19% of women and 16% of men, and 22% of non-Estonians and 16% of Estonians had been exposed to fraud.

The probability of being victimized by a fraud was higher in cities and towns and smaller in the countryside<sup>75</sup>. The risk of getting cheated upon buying goods or ordering services is considerably higher in Northern Estonia and the Virumaa region. 24% of people living in the Viru district and 20% living in the Northern district have been victimized by consumer fraud; in the Western district its 14%<sup>76</sup>. Among bigger cities, the highest number of people victimized by fraud was in Narva (30%) and Tallinn (21%); the lowest figures, however, were in Kohtla-Järve (10%) and Tartu (13%).

<sup>74</sup> According to the logistic regression model  $b$  is coefficient: age:  $-0.01$ ; woman:  $0.15$  (reference: man); non-Estonian:  $0.27$  (reference: Estonian). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>75</sup> Rural settlement:  $-0.94$  (reference: urban settlement). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>76</sup> In case of this indicator the results of regression analysis and frequency distribution are somewhat different. According to regression analysis the highest number of victims in comparison with the western district was evident in the Northern and Southern district but the results of frequency distribution indicated that the highest number of victims was in the Viru district. B: Northern district:  $1.44$ , Southern district:  $1.04$ ; Viru district:  $0.73$  (reference: Western district). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).



**Figure 41.** Victims of fraud (%) in districts and bigger cities

Pensioners and respondents not working due to health reasons had been victimized by consumer fraud less than others – 12%, while in case of working people this indicator was 20%.

People coping with difficulty state more frequently that they have been victimized by fraud, in comparison with other people<sup>77</sup> – 22%; at the same time there are 12% of victims of fraud among people who cope easily. This connection may refer to more negative attitudes of pessimistic people (assuming that coping with difficulty is a pessimistic assessment to one's coping). They may interpret negative experience as fraud more often than other people. For example, if we take two people who have had the impression in a shop that they have not been treated quite right, dissatisfied people regard it as fraud with greater probability than people who are satisfied with their life. However, more definite proof regarding these connections requires a more thorough analysis.

38% of victims think that the police is not able to maintain public order and 22% think that the police is able to do that. 35% of victims think that the professional level of the police does not comply with requirements and 24% think that it does. Based on this, it may be concluded that falling victim to fraud and other crimes influences people's satisfaction with the police. But coming back to the "dissatisfaction" referred to in the previous section, the satisfaction with the police may be connected to how people respond to victimization, which can be interpreted through the perception of having experienced injustice. It turns out that those who were less satisfied with police's actions<sup>78</sup> had been victimized by fraud more<sup>79</sup>. 26% of those who do not believe that the police can maintain public order in their neighbourhood and 15% of those who think that the police can do that were victimized by fraud. According to 29% of victims of fraud, the professional level of the police does not comply with requirements, whereas 16% think it does. Based on this, it cannot be concluded that people who give a poor assessment to the police are victimized by fraud more (it would be equally absurd to state that those who are less satisfied with fire fighting encounter more fires), but it can be

Negative attitude may amplify negative experience.

Victims of fraud are less satisfied with the police than people not victimized by fraud.

<sup>77</sup> Without vocational, occupational or professional education (reference: with higher education); people coping with difficulty (reference: easily coping): 0.23. ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>78</sup> Characteristics, based on which satisfaction with the police was measured, were as follows: "How well is the police able to maintain public order in your neighbourhood?" and "Do the professional standards of Estonian police meet requirements?"

<sup>79</sup> Rather satisfied with the police – 0.49 (reference: not satisfied). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

assumed that negative attitude towards public institutions amplifies people's perception of negative experience. However, these hypotheses also need to be more thoroughly analysed in order to be proved.

Victims of theft and violence have been victimized more frequently also by fraud.

It is interesting that the victims of crimes against property or crimes of violence have also been victimized more by fraud.<sup>80</sup> 26% of theft victims admitted that they have been cheated with the quality or quantity of goods; in case of others who have not been victimized, the corresponding indicator was 16%. 34% of victims of violence and 17% of those who did not have such an experience state that they have been exposed to consumer fraud. There are also more

people among the victims of fraud who have experienced asking for a bribe – the corresponding indicator was 53% but as there were only 9 respondents, no far-reaching conclusions can be made. In case of others, this indicator was 18%. Repeat victimisation of the same person, which is also observed both in this survey (See chapters “Overall victimisation rate” and “Violence”) and earlier international surveys (Shaw and Pease, 2000), may refer to victims' social inclusion, residential area, etc. For example, when comparing the victims of different crimes (victims of all crimes and separately the victims of crimes against property, crimes of violence and fraud), we are mainly dealing with a Virumaa region inhabitant, who is non-Estonian, city dweller, a woman, in her 30s and with smaller income (fifth quintile).

**Table 6.** Socio-demographic and other indicators of consumer fraud victims (respondents who refused to answer or were not able to answer have been excluded)

	% (weighted)	Actual number of respondents
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	16%	319
Female	19%	396
<b>Age</b>		
16–19	18%	58
20–29	21%	142
30–39	21%	139
40–49	20%	139
50–59	15%	113
60–76	13%	124
<b>Nationality</b>		
Estonian	16%	456
Non-Estonian	22%	259
<b>Income quintiles</b>		
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile	19%	155
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	17%	136
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	16%	135
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	19%	145
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile	20%	144
<b>Coping</b>		
With difficulty	22%	178
With certain difficulty /quite easily	18%	498
Easily	12%	39

<sup>80</sup> Have been victimized by a crime against property: 0.08 (reference: has not been victimized). ( $P \leq 0.5$ ). Have been victimized by a crime of violence: 0.35 (reference: has not been victimized). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

	% (weighted)	Actual number of respondents
<b>Settlement type</b>		
Urban settlement (town, city)	19%	496
Rural settlement (small town, village)	15%	219
<b>Education</b>		
1 <sup>st</sup> stage (without vocational, occupational, professional education)	16%	272
2 <sup>nd</sup> stage (vocational and occupational education)	18%	127
3 <sup>rd</sup> stage (higher education)	20%	316
<b>Bigger cities</b>		
Kohtla-Järve	10%	14
Tartu	13%	35
Pärnu	17%	26
Narva	30%	65
Tallinn	21%	210
<b>Has been victimized by crimes against property</b>		
No	16%	486
Yes	26%	229
<b>Has been victimized by crimes of violence</b>		
No	17%	601
Yes	34%	114
<b>Has a border guard, police officer, customs official or some other official asked you to pay a bribe?</b>		
No	18%	706
Yes	53%	9
<b>Has informed the police or other authority?</b>		
Informed the police	2%	11
Informed other authority	5%	34
Did not inform	93%	670
<b>How well can the police maintain public order in your neighbourhood? S10</b>		
Very well	13%	30
Quite well	16%	348
Not very well	23%	167
Poorly	38%	61
Have not seen the police around here	18%	108
<b>Does the professional level of Estonian police meet requirements?</b>		
Meets completely	11%	43
Meets in general	17%	394
Does not meet in general	29%	122
Does not meet at all	30%	31
<b>How safe would you feel in your neighbourhood?</b>		
Completely safe	16%	218
Quite safe	18%	267
A bit unsafe	21%	194
Very unsafe	18%	36

The highest percentage of people exposed to fraud was evident upon making purchases in a shop, stall or elsewhere that, as was admitted by 14% of people exposed to a fraud in the past year. In case of other fields, the fraud experience was smaller - e.g. 2% had experienced fraud in course of construction and repair works and 1% in e-commerce. All in all, 2% of the population had been exposed to bank card fraud. A total of 21 people were victimised by credit card or internet fraud which forms 3% of people victimised by fraud.

These results resemble the results received last time – then, also, the highest percentage of frauds occurred in shops (20% of respondents) and the exposure to fraud was lower elsewhere (Saar et al., 2005, p. 37).

Although in general, women have been victimised by fraud more, men have been defrauded

more in hotels, restaurants and bars and they have also been victimised slightly more by bank card fraud<sup>81</sup>. Younger people (e.g. 5% of 16-19-year-old people compared to 1-3% in other age groups) as well as people living in cities (2% in the cities and 1% in the countryside) have been exposed to bank card fraud more. Also, company managers had been exposed to bank card fraud more than others (7% of entrepreneurs with paid workers compared to 0-2% of other groups).

Bank card frauds were more frequently reported to the police than other frauds.

Bank card frauds were reported to the police more than in case of frauds in general – 11% of victims reported those frauds and 2% of people reported other frauds; also, 5% reported it to some other authority and the rest did not report it to anybody. Compared to the earlier time, there is 1 percentage point more people who have informed the police but 4% less those who informed other authorities. People up to 30 years old are the most passive informants<sup>82</sup> of the police or some other authority: 95-98% of them did not inform anybody; 90-93% of people older than 30 years did not inform anybody either. Also, people with lower level of educations were more passive: 95% of them did not inform the police or other authorities compared to 92% of people with vocational and professional education.

## 6.2. Corruption

Like frauds, corruption has also been studied with special surveys in Estonia (Sööt and Vajakas, 2010; Liiv and Aas, 2007; Liiv, 2005), examining the people's assessments, opinions and experience with corruption. The definition of corruption varies in interviews, whereas the victim survey has approached corruption rather narrowly – only one form of corruption has been studied, i.e. bribe. Besides bribe there are also several forms of petty corruption, so that the victim survey does not provide a comprehensive picture about the level of corruption in the country. Also, it has to be noticed that the victim survey measures only petty corruption (i.e. the corruption of officials); the opposite of this is major corruption (i.e. political corruption), for the study of which population surveys are not suitable.

The exposure of inhabitants to asking for a bribe has considerably decreased.

Only 0.5% of people (17 respondents)<sup>83</sup> noted that a border guard, police officer, customs official or some other official has asked them to pay a bribe during the last year and nearly half of them paid it. At the same time, 5% (209 respondents) admitted that they are ready to offer a bribe to some official and 4% (8 respondents) admitted that they have done so; 2% of the latter also claimed that a bribe was accepted.

Although different methodology hinders the comparison of two surveys, it became obvious from the corruption survey (Sööt and Vajakas, 2010) that 4% of people paid a bribe (paid extra to an official, returned the favour or brought a gift), while 18% had been asked for it (officials had hinted that they want a bribe in the form of money, gift or favour). These numbers are much higher exactly because the questions of the corruption survey were broader and specified the definition of a bribe which was not done in this survey. It turned out in the Eurobarometer (2009) survey that 5% of Estonian inhabitants have been asked for a bribe during the last year.

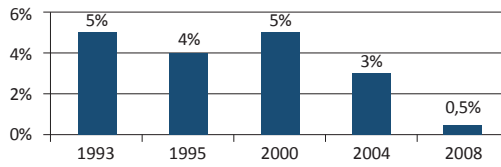
The number of people who have been asked for a bribe has decreased: 3% of people admitted that they had been asked for a bribe; 5% had been asked in 2000.

<sup>81</sup> All respondents were asked about exposure to bank card fraud, while the question about exposure to other fraud was asked only from these 18% of people who had answered that they had been defrauded with some goods or services.

<sup>82</sup> People who informed of bank card fraud have not been taken in account.

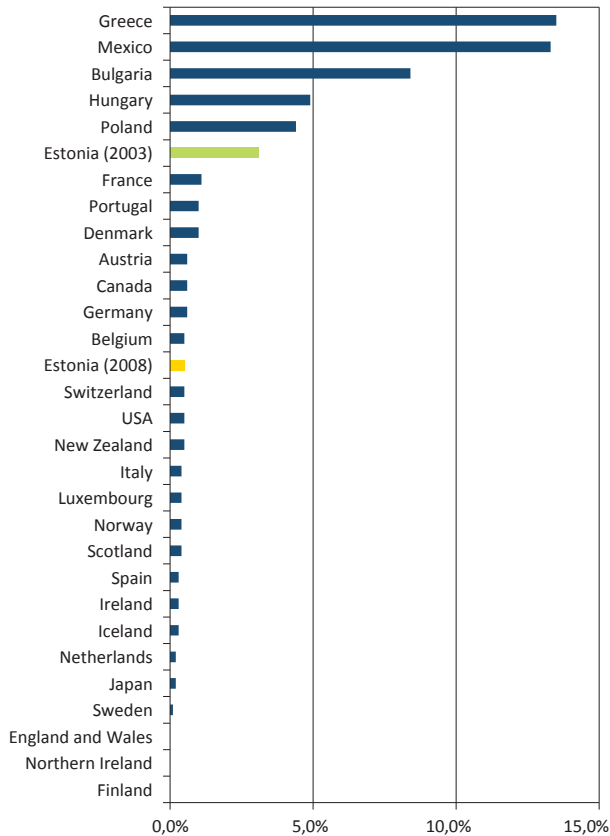
<sup>83</sup> Percentage on weighted data; number of respondents is an actual number of respondents i.e. unweighted data.





**Figure 42.** People exposed to asking for a bribe (percentage of respondents)

According to the 2004–2005 international victim survey, an average of 2% of inhabitants of countries participating in the survey has been asked for a bribe; for the majority of countries, this figure was 0.5%. Thus, in this respect Estonia has reached a better level than the European average (comparing Estonia's present result and that of other countries from five years ago) and we are on the same level with countries with low corruption level: Finland (0%), England and Wales (0%), Northern Ireland (0%), Sweden (0.1%), Netherlands (0.2%), Japan (0.2%), Iceland (0.3%), Spain (0.3%), Ireland (0.3%), etc. (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 90).



**Figure 43.** Percentage of inhabitants exposed to a bribe by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2008

By sectors, a bribe has been asked the most by a police officer, customs or border guard official or an employee of some other state authority (mentioned by 0.3%, 0.1% and 0.1% of respondents, respectively<sup>84</sup>). Also, a bribe has been most frequently given to police officers: by 6 respondents, i.e. 0.2% of inhabitants.

Younger people and non-Estonians are more willing to pay a bribe.

As there are so few people who have been exposed to corruption, the socio-demographic characteristics are not separately dealt with but it is possible to analyse who is willing to offer a bribe to an official. Younger people and non-Estonians are more willing to pay a bribe.<sup>85</sup>

5-8% of less than 29 years old people and 3-6% of people older than 30 years would pay a bribe; 7% of non-Estonians and 5% of Estonians would pay a bribe. People living in cities (6% of city dwellers and 4% of rural inhabitants) and people living in the Viru and Northern district are more willing to offer a bribe.<sup>86</sup> 6% of people living in the Viru and Northern district, 5% in the Western district and 4% in the Southern district would pay a bribe.

Again, a connection between behaviour and satisfaction with the police becomes evident – those who are satisfied with the police would pay a bribe less likely<sup>87</sup>. 20% of those who think that the police cannot maintain public order and 7% of those who think that the police can maintain public order would pay a bribe. 26% of people who think that the professional level of the police is low and 8% of those who are satisfied would pay a bribe.

People's readiness for corruption was also studied in the corruption survey (Sööt and Vajakas, 2010), from which it became apparent that non-Estonians and younger people are more willing to pay a bribe. People living in big cities and in the Virumaa region and Northern and Central Estonia also stood out.

<sup>84</sup> This is a percentage among the total sample.

<sup>85</sup> Age: -0.03; non-Estonian: 0.28 (reference: Estonian). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>86</sup> Rural settlement: -0.51 (reference: city); Northern district: 0.01, Southern district: 0.03; Viru district: 0.36 (reference: Western district). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>87</sup> Satisfied with the police: -0.64 (reference: not satisfied). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

## 7. CRIME REPORTING AND SATISFACTION WITH THE POLICE

Triin Rannama, Jako Salla

This chapter analyses the reporting of crimes to the police, the reasons why victims do not turn to the police and how the police actions are assessed by those who have turned to the police. Assessments to the professional level of the police and the police capacity to maintain public order are observed.

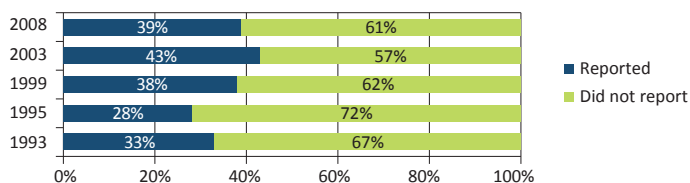
### 7.1. Crime reporting<sup>88</sup>

So that the police could solve a crime, a crime victim, persons who saw the crime or heard about it have to report it to the police. Still, a large proportion of crime never reaches the police. There are several reasons for that, starting from people's insufficient legal awareness, their personal and cultural convictions up to distrust of the police and other law enforcement authorities. For example, the last international victim survey (2003/2004 data) pointed out that in Estonia and Poland, in comparison with other countries, the crime reporting rate had grown the most. This was associated with the police system reforms which have increased people's trust towards the police (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 112).

The last victim survey in Estonia showed that the overall crime reporting rate has been unstable after the restoration of independence, wavering between 35-37% by types of crime (Saar et al., 2004, p. 38). In case of this indicator the overall rate was formed by 11 types of crime<sup>89</sup> and the indicator value, not including sex crimes, was 33% in 2008, which refers to increased police reporting. Thus, a setback has occurred in police reporting after the great growth in the beginning of the decade.

In international comparison, the summary indicator for police reporting is formed by five types of crime: theft from a car, bicycle theft, theft from home, attempted theft from home and theft of personal property. Based on these indicators, the police reporting rate increased from the low level in 1995 (28%) up to 43% by 2003 (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 110). However, according to the 2009 survey, the victims' reporting activity fell – 61% of victims did not report the crime to the police.

In Estonia, crimes are reported to the police less frequently than in other countries. Compared to the previous survey, the reporting rate has decreased.



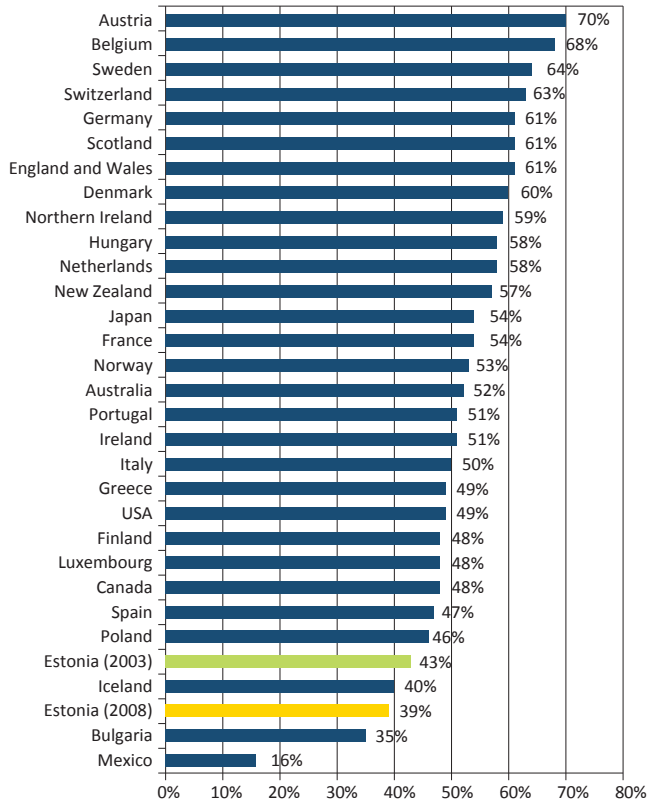
**Figure 44.** Overall rate of reporting the crimes to the police, based on 5 types of crime (percentage of people victimised)

<sup>88</sup> The 2009 survey included a question on reporting: "Did the police learn what had happened? Did (1) you inform the police or asked somebody else to do it, (2) did the police learn what had happened some other way, or (3) did not learn about it? The reporting indicators have been calculated using the first two reply options."

<sup>89</sup> Car theft, theft from a car, car vandalism, bicycle theft, theft from a summer cottage, country home or allotment, theft and attempted theft from home, theft from a garage, hovel or shed, robbery, theft of personal property, assault/threat, sex crimes and incidents.

Compared to 2003, among the five types observed/referred to above, the reporting of thefts committed from cars and living quarters decreased; in case of other types the reporting rate remained similar with the previous survey.

In international comparison, Estonian people are passive when reporting crimes to the police. In 2003, Estonia was 27th among the 30 compared countries. The Estonian indicator – 43% in 2003 and 39% in 2008 – is similar, for example, to Bulgaria, Iceland and Poland. The highest number of crimes was reported in Austria, Belgium and Sweden where the police received information about 64–70% of crimes.



**Figure 45.** Overall rate of reporting crimes to the police based on 5 types of crime by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2008 (percentage of people victimised)

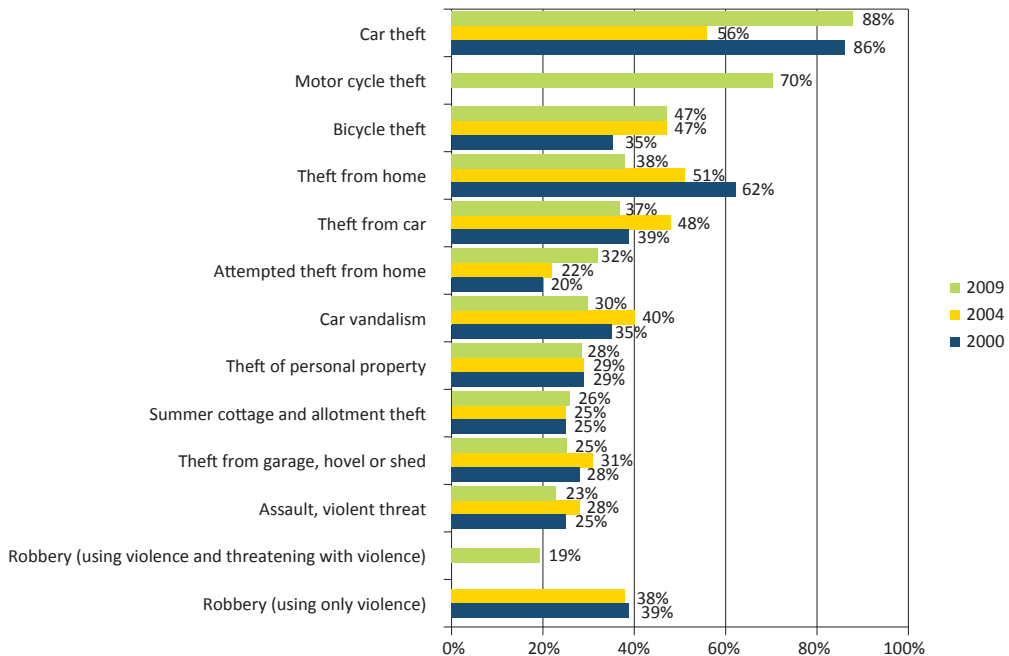
Frequency of reporting to the police depends on a type of crime. In most countries, nearly all car and motorcycle thefts and 75% of burglaries are reported. Sexual assaults are reported the least (15% on the average) (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 109). During the last decades, there have been no common trends in the crime reporting activeness in the countries compared, except for bicycle theft, reporting of which has decreased nearly everywhere (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 112).

### 7.1.1. Comparison by types of crim

People were asked in this survey about reporting to the police in case of 12 types of crime, whereas for the first time information was requested about reporting motorcycle thefts (incl. motor scooters and mopeds).

The most frequently reported crime in Estonia, just like elsewhere in the world, is car theft (88% of victims), in case of which material damage is probably the biggest and the reporting to the police is often a precondition for getting insurance indemnity. Next were the motorcycle, motor scooter and moped thefts which were reported by only a few people (the number of these vehicles in Estonia is obviously smaller in Estonia than other compared countries).

The police receives information on a quarter of assaults and violent threats. Three quarters of the incidents remain unknown to the police.



**Figure 46.** Percentage of people reporting crimes to the police, by type of crime<sup>90</sup>

The police receives the least information on crimes committed by using violence and threatening with violence (19% of robberies and 23% of assaults and threats were reported).

Compared to the previous survey, reporting to the police has decreased in case of five types of crime, most of all in case of car vandalism and thefts from cars (-10 percentage points or more); the reporting of crimes of violence also decreased to some extent. In case of two types of crime the reporting rate increased (attempted theft from home and car theft).

<sup>90</sup> Compared to the previous survey, the question about robberies changed – while up to 2004 information was asked about people's exposure to robberies which had been committed only using violence, in 2009 information was asked also about robberies committed threatening with violence besides robberies committed using violence. As the number of assaults taken into account increased several times (less serious incidents were added), it is no longer possible to form a common time series.

**Table 7.** Types of crime in case of which reporting to the police increased, decreased or remained on the same level

Increased	Remained on the same level	Decreased
Car theft	Bicycle theft	Theft from home
Attempted theft from home	Theft of personal property	Theft from car
	Theft from a summer cottage or allotment	Car vandalism
		Theft from a garage, hovel or shed
		Assault, violent threat

The police reporting rate is quite different within Estonia, reaching for example in case of bicycle thefts from 9% in the Viru district to 62% in the Southern district. Lower indicators were especially characteristic of the Viru district; high indicators were evident in most in the Western district.

**Table 8.** Crime reporting rate by district and type of crime

	Northern district	Viru district	Southern district	Western district
Theft from car	41%	37%	30%	27%
Car vandalism	30%	30%	25%	37%
Bicycle theft	43%	9%	62%	57%
Theft from a summer cottage or allotment	21%	25%	35%	27%
Theft from home	42%	39%	37%	22%
Attempted theft from home	24%	50%	23%	52%
Theft from a garage, hovel or shed	27%	26%	20%	31%
Robbery	25%	11%	21%	33%
Theft of personal property	27%	26%	28%	35%
Assault, violent threat	16%	14%	43%	21%
<b>Average</b>	<b>30%</b>	<b>27%</b>	<b>32%</b>	<b>34%</b>

### 7.1.2. Reasons for not reporting

These victims who did not turn to the police were asked to name the reasons for that. While 12 reply options were provided earlier (Saar et al., 2005, p. 40), this time there were 4 options<sup>91</sup>, whereas also several reasons could be mentioned.

Similar with the international victim survey (Dijk, 2007, p. 113; The Burden of ..., p. 70), the main reason in Estonia was also the fact that the crime was not considered to be serious enough to turn to the police. For types of crimes compared in the survey, 49-79% of victims wrote this as the reason for not reporting.

The victims of summer cottage, country home or allotment theft (79%) and the victims of thefts committed from home (78%) were the ones who did not turn to the police most frequently due to the reason that the incident was not considered to be sufficiently important.

<sup>91</sup>Why didn't you report the incident to the police? (1) It was not a serious incident, damage was not especially big? (2) Did you solve the incident yourself; did you know this person? (3) Were you afraid of revenge, did not dare to report? (4) Was there any other reason?

The smallest number of people who did not consider the incident to be sufficiently important was evident in case of victims of robberies (52%) and bicycle thefts (49%).

**Table 9.** Reasons why crimes have not been reported to the police (percentage of victims who have not reported to the police; the sum is not 100%, as it was possible to choose between different reply options)

	It was not a serious incident	I solved the incident myself	I was afraid of revenge	Other reason
Theft from car	78%	5%	2%	17%
Car vandalism	73%	9%	2%	17%
Bicycle theft	49%	12%	5%	35%
Theft from summer cottage, country home or allotment	79%	10%	1%	12%
Theft from home	70%	15%	3%	14%
Attempted theft from home	73%	10%	5%	14%
Theft from garage, hovel or shed	71%	9%	2%	18%
Robbery	52%	23%	5%	20%
Theft of personal property	56%	12%	5%	30%
Assault, violent threat	64%	18%	8%	12%

A victim solved the crime himself/herself in 5-23% of incidents; fear of revenge was the reason for not reporting in 1-8% of incidents and other reasons in case of 12-35% of victims.

Primarily victims of violence have started to solve the incidents themselves (robbery 23%; assault and threat 18%). Evidently the reason is that in their case the victim is directly exposed to the criminal offender while, for example, in case of crimes related to cars the victim does not see the criminal offender in most occasions.

Victims of assault and violent threat were the ones who most frequently did not turn to the police because of fear of revenge, which can be explained with people's actual concern about their health. However, victims of summer cottage, country home or allotment thefts are not afraid of revenge, just like these people who have been victimised by car related crimes.

Both the previous victim survey in Estonia and the European Crime and Safety Survey<sup>92</sup> showed that many people do not turn to the police also because they do not believe that the police would do something to solve the incident<sup>93</sup>. The highest number of such people was evident in case of car vandalism (47%), robbery (43%) and theft committed from a car (42%) (Saar et al., 2005, p. 41)

Compared to other European countries, Estonian people believe less that the police will do something to solve a crime.

## 7.2. Satisfaction with police actions

People who were victimised by a crime and also reported it to the police were asked to assess satisfaction with police actions. In the previous international victim survey, the Estonian people's satisfaction with the police was the lowest among countries compared (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 114). Based on the summary indicator of five types of crime compared, 33% of Estonian people were satisfied with police actions (average of countries 58%); the indicators were the highest in

<sup>92</sup> *European Crime and Safety Survey*

<sup>93</sup> *This reply option was not used in this survey.*

Denmark (75%), Switzerland and Finland (72% in both countries), thus the Estonian indicator was more than two times worse than that of the top countries (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 115).

Based on the data of this survey, it is not possible to calculate a summary indicator which is compatible with other surveys<sup>94</sup>. But it can be said that Estonia would have probably improved its position in terms of international comparison, because compared to the previous survey the satisfaction with police actions in case of assaults and threats sharply improved in 2009. This change is probably related to entry into force of the new Code of Criminal Procedure in 2004 which made criminal prosecution obligatory in case of many violence related incidents (proceedings regarding private charges had to be used before).

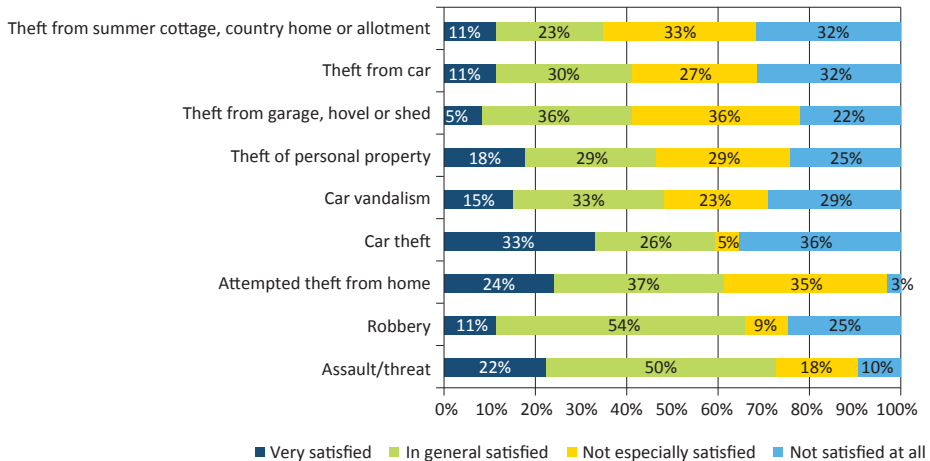
Satisfaction with police action also grew in case of thefts of personal property and car vandalism.

Satisfaction with police actions in solving incidents of violence has considerably grown.

**Table 9.** Crime victim satisfaction with police actions – change compared to 2004

Satisfaction grew	Satisfaction remained on the same level	Satisfaction diminished
Theft from garage, hovel or shed	Theft from car	Theft from home
Assault/threat	Attempted theft from home	Bicycle theft
Theft of personal property		Theft from summer cottage, country home or allotment
Car theft		
Car vandalism		

In 2009, the highest satisfaction indicators were apparent in case of violence related crimes (rather satisfied 65-72% of victims who had reported the crime) and the lowest indicators in case of thefts from a summer cottage, country home or allotment (rather satisfied 34%).



**Figure 47.** People’s satisfaction assessment to police actions in solving the incidents (percentage of people victimised by corresponding crime who have reported it to the police)

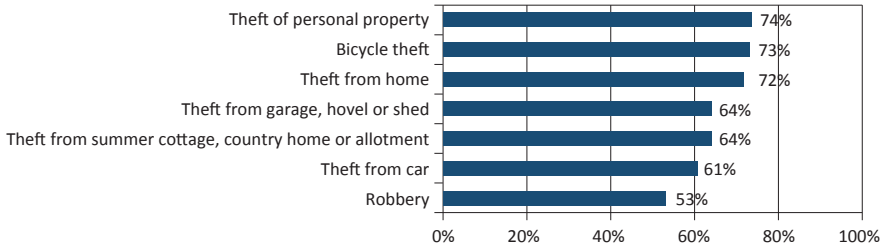
<sup>94</sup>The question about robberies has changed and the question about victimisation by sex crimes is no longer included.



### 7.2.1. Reasons for dissatisfaction

The respondents who reported the crimes but were not satisfied with police actions were also asked about their reason for dissatisfaction.<sup>95</sup> Compared to the previous victim survey, the number of options offered to a potential respondent decreased by one fifth (9 options in the previous survey).

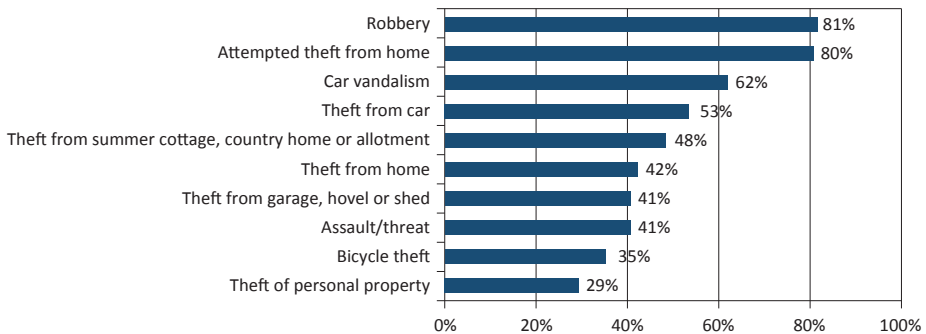
Victims most frequently mentioned as a reason for dissatisfaction that the police could not find stolen or robbed property (assessment of 66% of victims<sup>96</sup>). On the average, for 51% of victims the reason for dissatisfaction was that the police did not apprehend a criminal offender.



**Figure 48.** Percentage of victims who were dissatisfied with police actions, as the police did not find their property

Victims of personal property theft were most dissatisfied with the police because of not getting back their property; only every fourth among them who had reported the crime to the police was satisfied with police actions. Dissatisfaction among the victims of bicycle theft (73% dissatisfied) and the victims of theft committed from living quarters (72% dissatisfied) was nearly as big. The smallest number of people dissatisfied was evident among robbery victims (53%).

In case of 81% of robbery victims and 80% of victims of attempted theft at home, the reason for dissatisfaction was the fact that the criminal offender was not apprehended.



**Figure 49.** Percentage of victims who were dissatisfied with police actions, as the criminal offender was not caught

<sup>95</sup> Why were you dissatisfied? (1) Did the police not find your property? (2) Did the police not apprehend the offender? (3) Did the police not inform you sufficiently of the course of investigation? (4) Was there any other reason?

<sup>96</sup> Car vandalism, attempted thefts at home, assaults/threats (no property to retrieve) and car and motorcycle thefts (too small number of respondents) have not been taken into account).

37% of victims who had reported crimes to the police were not satisfied that the police did not inform them sufficiently of the course of investigation. 9% pointed out “other circumstances” as reasons for dissatisfaction. Primarily victims of attempted theft at home and victims of assault and threat complained about the shortage of information (60% and 46% of victims correspondingly). According to international victim survey, the majority of European countries are characterised by growing dissatisfaction with the amount of information received from the police (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 118).

### 7.3. People’s assessment to the police

Besides indirect assessments to the police work which are expressed, for example, by the crime reporting level and assessments to contacts with the police, the opinions of all people (not only victims or people who had had contacts with the police) concerning police actions were studied with two questions:

- How well can the police maintain public order?
- Does the professional level of Estonian police meet the requirements?

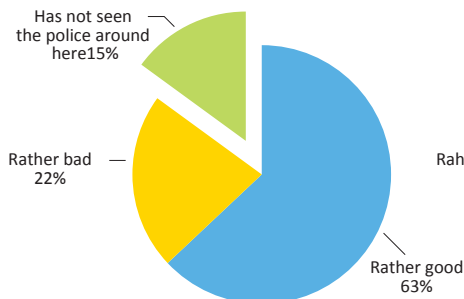
Compared to the 2004 victim survey, the set-up of question about public order was a bit different (in 2004 it was asked: “How well can the police control crime in your residential area?”), thus the results of this survey cannot be exactly compared. In order to perceive the overall trend, earlier results are subsequently also pointed out.

63% of Estonian people think that the police can maintain public order sufficiently well or very well.

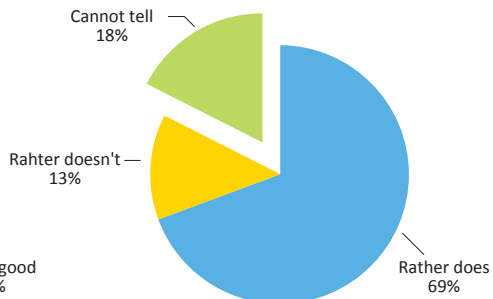
It became evident from the 2009 survey that 63% of Estonian inhabitants assessed the ability of the police to maintain public order in their neighbourhood rather good (“very well” or “sufficiently well”), 22% thought it was rather poor (“not especially well” or “poorly”), whereas only 4% thought that the police maintains public order poorly. Also, the 2009 Opinion Survey of the Police and Border Guard

Administration which contained a similar question (“How well can the police control crime in your residential area?”) reached the same result: two thirds of respondents think that the police can control crimes rather well (Rannama, 2010, p. 64).

69% of people thought the professional level of the police rather met the requirements, 18% could not form their opinion.

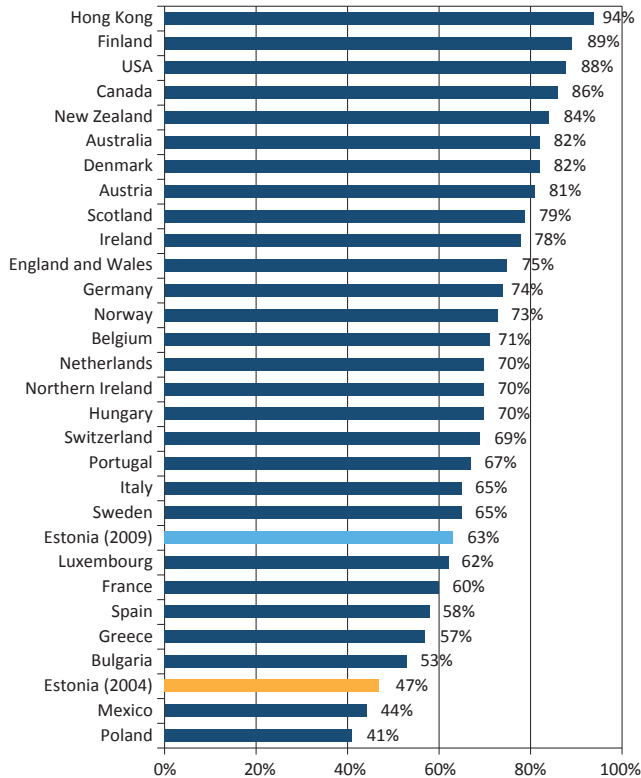


**Figure 50.** How well can the police maintain public order?



**Figure 51.** In your opinion, does the professional level of Estonian police meet requirements?

In 2004, Estonian people's assessment to the police capacity in terms of international comparison was very poor: the assessment to the police capacity to control crime in the neighbourhood was lower from the Estonian indicator only in Mexico and Poland (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 142). A police performance index<sup>97</sup> was developed in international victim survey according to which Estonia was among the countries compared on the 29th-30th place together with Turkey. According to that index, the highest summary indicator was in Denmark and Austria (Dijk et al., 2007, pp. 144-144). Comparing the Estonia's 2009 assessment with the assessments of other countries in 2004, it could be said that the Estonia's position has improved by some places by now.



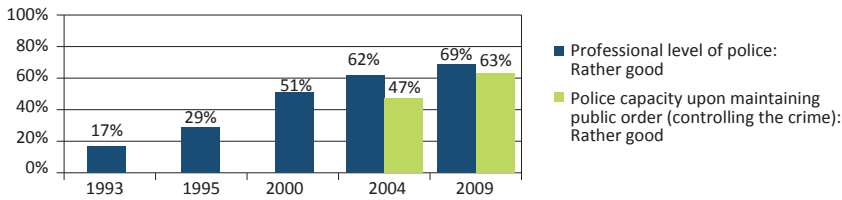
**Figure 52.** Percentage of inhabitants in whose opinion the police controls crime rather well (in 2009: maintains public order) in neighbourhood, by countries in 2004/2005 and in Estonia in 2009

Although the Estonian people's assessment still considerably falls behind other developed countries, the assessments both to the police capacity and the police professional level show consistent growth. Compared to 2004, the number of positive assessments to the professional level of the police grew by 7 percentage points to 69%, and the assessment to the police's capacity to maintain order grew by 16 percentage points up to 63%.

Estonians' opinion concerning the police is improving, but still considerably falls behind other developed countries.

<sup>97</sup> The index was formed by combining the reporting activity of five crimes, satisfaction indicators of police actions and crime control indicator.

Compared to the first half of the 1990s, the opinions concerning the professional level of the police have greatly improved. The percentage of inhabitants who think that the police's professional level is good has increased several times. For example, compared to 1993, four times more people gave a positive assessment in 2009. In international victim survey, the improvement of assessments given to the work done by the police is interpreted with reducing crime and improving feeling of security that is put to the police's account (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 141); the same factors have probably influenced also the improvement of opinions in Estonia.



**Figure 53.** People's positive assessments to the police's professional level and capacity

Leaving out people who have not seen the police in their neighbourhood or could not assess the police's professional level, it became evident from the analysis of survey results that 74% of the population assessed police actions upon maintaining public order to be rather good and 84% assessed the police's professional level to be good.

Although the assessment has improved, socio-economic groups are still considerably different in their opinions. In this paper, the differences have been viewed by nationality, age and income (Figure 54) and attention has been paid to assessment which concerned police capacity to maintain public order<sup>98</sup>.

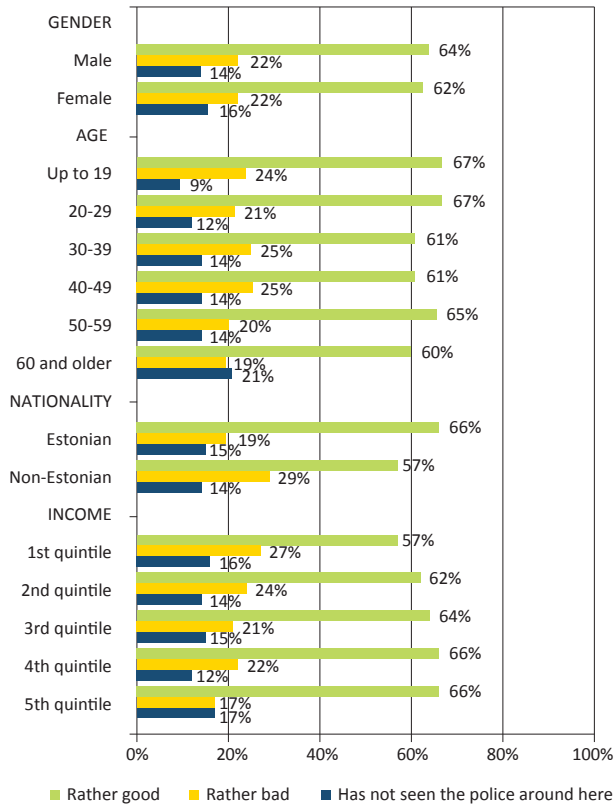
Estonians considered the police more capable of maintaining public order (78%) than non-Estonians (66%). Positive assessments of both groups to police capacity have grown more than twice during the decade; in 2000, 34% of Estonians, 27% of Russians and 25% of people from other nationalities thought that the police can control crime rather good (Saar et al., 2004, p. 44).

While in the beginning of the 1990s young people were most critical in respect to police capacity (Aromaa and Ahven, 1995, p. 26), the situation has changed during the last decade. In 2009, young people (up to 29 years old) believed in the police capacity to maintain public order the most: 67% of them gave a positive assessment. 30-49 years old (61%) and 50-59 years old (65%) were less convinced about that. It can be pointed out as a comment that with advancing age the percentage of those people grew who had not seen the police in their neighbourhood, thus the police capacity was not assessed either.

Also, the 2004 victim survey showed that the opinion among 50 years old and older people concerning police capacity to maintain public order was worse than in other age groups. At that time, the assessment of 30-49 years old people tended to be rather similar with younger people's opinion who assessed police capacity to be better than the average, while the opinion of middle-aged people tended to resemble the one of more sceptical older age groups.

Several studies (Allen et al., 2006; Franki et al., 2005; Kusowi et al., 1997) have shown that people with lower socio-economic status are less satisfied with the police. It was also confirmed by this survey, where it became evident that there were less people in the first or the lowest quintile who assessed police capacity to maintain public order to be very good or rather good than among other income groups; the same tendency also characterized the attitudes towards police's professional level. Lower satisfaction of economically disadvantaged people with police actions in controlling crimes was evident also in the previous victim survey (Saar et al., 2004, p. 47).

<sup>98</sup> There are no significant differences in assessments concerning the ability to maintain public order and the professional level.



**Figure 54.** Assessment to police capacity to maintain public order in respondent's place of residence by gender, nationality and income quintile (percentage among corresponding population group)

Trust in police capacity to maintain public order is largely influenced by how safe a person feels in his/her neighbourhood, including how a person perceives his/her living area. This survey showed that assessments to neighbourhood security and police capacity to maintain public order are connected: people who think that their neighbourhood safety is good, more frequently assessed police capacity to maintain public order to be also good. 73% of people who thought that their living area was safe were of the opinion that the police does good work in their neighbourhood in maintaining public order; only 28% of people who stated that their neighbourhood safety is poor thought so.

There were considerably more people who believed in police capacity among those who felt completely or quite safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (68%) than among people who felt unsafe walking in the dark (44%).

The feeling of security may also be affected by a probability that in his/her neighbourhood a person comes into contact with people violating public order or some other factors disturbing the feeling of security. This is evidenced by questions about the extent to which a respondent encounters offenders and offences: if and how often a respondent encounters intoxicated or brawling people, or has seen people trading drugs, using drugs, or found, for example, syringes abandoned by drug addicts.

People who have often seen an intoxicated or brawling person in their neighbourhood, use of drugs or trading in drugs, also believed less in the police capacity to maintain order than people who encounter the above-described persons seldom or not at all.

Police capacity to maintain security depended on many factors: means, possibilities, management skills, professionalism, etc. Looking at the connection of assessment given to police professionalism and capacity, it became evident that people who

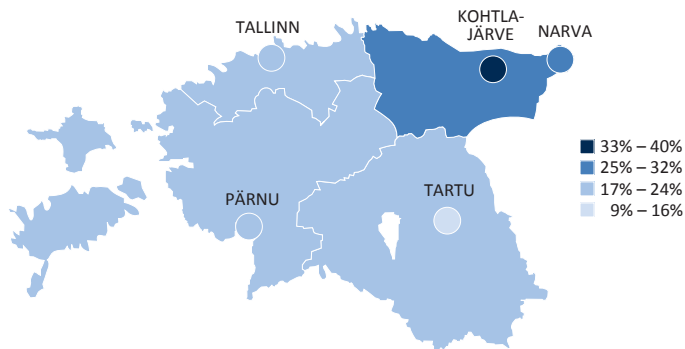
thought that the police's professional level meets requirements also assessed higher the police capacity to maintain public order (79%). On the other hand, the opinion of those who considered the police unprofessional was much lower (24%).

People's assessments to police capacity to maintain order differ not only by the comparison of socio-demographic and economic indicators. Comparing the percentage of people who gave negative assessment to the police, it turned out that there are slightly more people giving negative assessments in cities (23% in urban settlements and 20% in small towns); dissatisfaction is highest in small towns (30% thought police capacity in maintaining public order was rather poor).<sup>99</sup> The percentage of negative assessment was smaller in big cities in comparison with corresponding law enforcement districts.

In 2009, only 9% of the people in Tartu<sup>100</sup> gave a negative assessment to police capacity, while in Kohtla-Järve, the city with the highest indicator, 32% did so. All in all, it was the Virumaa region that stood out against other districts: the assessment to police capability was the worst there; however, it has to be taken into consideration that there are much more negative assessments in the Ida-Virumaa county than in the Lääne-Virumaa county<sup>101</sup>.

Insufficient feeling of security and negative experience in public places diminish the trust in police capacity to maintain public order.

According to 72% of people living in the Pärnu city, the police can maintain public order well, 54% of people living Kohtla-Järve hold that opinion.



**Figure 55.** Estonian inhabitants who think that the police cannot maintain public order sufficiently well in their neighbourhood, by districts and bigger cities (percentage of population, incl. the ones who did not encounter the police)

It also came evident based on the 2009 Police Opinion Survey that people living in the Virumaa region, especially in the Ida-Virumaa county, believed less than the average in the police capacity to control crime. Just like in the victim survey, Kohtla-Järve where the percentage of negative assessment was the highest (49%) and Tartu with 13% of population not satisfied with the police capacity stood out in the Police Survey against other bigger cities (Rannama, 2010).

<sup>99</sup> The percentage of people who had not encountered the police is highest in villages (21%) and lowest in small towns (3%).

<sup>100</sup> Most of interviewing was done before the Security Police Board arrested the former Southern Police Prefect Aivar Otsalt and several other officers associated with the Southern Police Prefecture as suspects of crime, thus, these events did not influence the people's opinions.

<sup>101</sup> For example, 9.2% of people in the Lääne-Virumaa county assess the police capacity very good, while 2.5% of people in the Ida-Virumaa county gave the police the same high assessment.

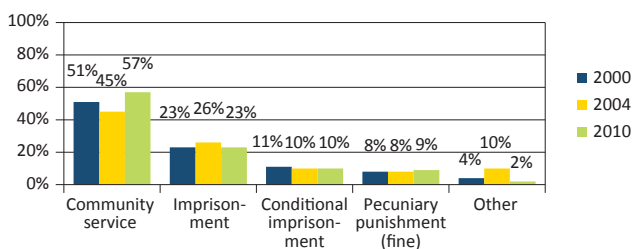
## 8. ATTITUDES TOWARDS PUNISHMENT

Mari-Liis Sööt, Kärt Vajakas (Data analysis)

It was studied what kind of punishment people would request for a 21-year-old male who has been convicted of burglary for the second time. Most people (57%) requested for him community service<sup>102</sup>. There were about 50% less people who requested imprisonment (23%) and 10% of people in favour of conditional sentence – thus, 33% were in favour of imprisonment, 9% requested pecuniary punishment (“fine”) and 2% requested other punishment.

In comparison with 2004 the percentage of people in favour of imprisonment has slightly decreased and reached the 2000 level: in 2004, 26% of respondents requested imprisonment; 23% both in 2009 and 2000. The percentage of those who consider community service as suitable punishment has increased: 57% requested community service in 2009, 45% in 2004 and 51% in 2000.

Estonians’ opinion concerning the police is improving, but still considerably falls behind other developed countries.



**Figure 56.** People in favour of different types of punishment (21-year-old male has been found guilty of second burglary. This time, he stole a colour TV set. Which of the following punishments would be the most suitable in your opinion?)

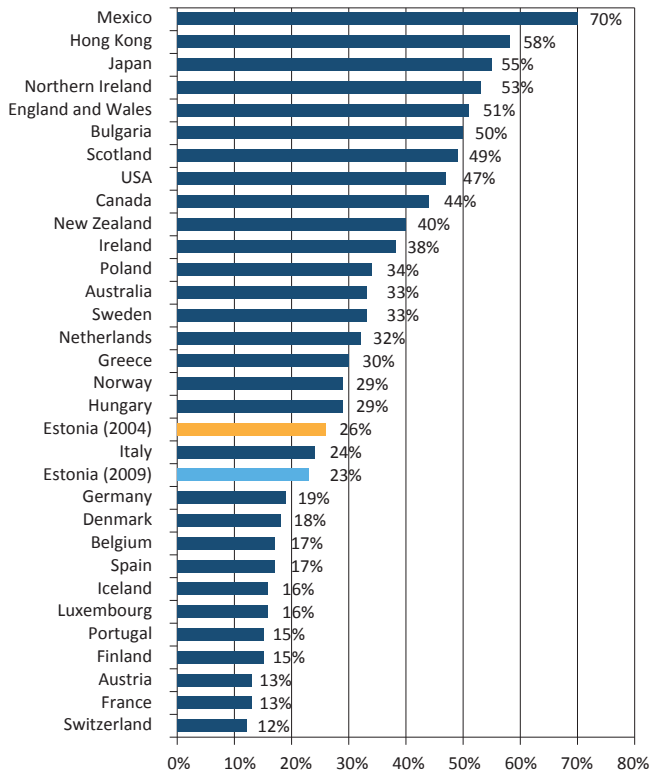
Nearly half of people requesting imprisonment (48%) thought that the thief of the TV set should be in prison 6 months up to one year, and nearly one third (27%) found that the punishment should last 2-3 years. 17% of respondents in favour of imprisonment supported less than 6 months’ punishments. 2% of people thought that the punishment should last longer than 6 years.

It has been found in the victim survey that attitudes towards punishment also express the development level of the society, i.e. respondents from developed countries prefer equally two types of punishment: about 40% prefer community service and the same percentage also prefers imprisonment. However, in developing countries the majority of respondents support imprisonment (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 147). In terms of the 2004 comparison, imprisonment was requested less than in Estonia by e.g. the Swiss (12%),

The number of people in favour of imprisonment has increasingly decreased; alternative punishments are more frequently requested.

<sup>102</sup> Community service can be imposed in Estonia instead of 2 years of imprisonment and upon termination of criminal proceedings due to inexpediency. Community service is often applied in case of traffic offences and crimes against property (Abven and Krusement, 2010).

the French (13%), the Austrians (13%), the Finns (15%), the Portuguese (15%) and other; imprisonment was requested more than here by people in Mexico (70%), Hong Kong (58%), Japan (55%), Northern-Ireland (53%), Turkey (53%, but also in Norway (29%) and Sweden (33%). Yet, even in these countries the attitudes may have changed, so this has to be kept in mind while comparing the indicators. A connection has also been found between the number of prisoners and desire for punishment: in countries where there are relatively fewer prisoners, imprisonment is less frequently requested. However, in case of Estonia such a rule has not been observed: we have a high number of prisoners per 100,000 inhabitants (in 2010, 265 detained persons per 100,000 inhabitants) and at the same time Estonia is not distinguished by a desire for severe punishment (*ibid.*).



**Figure 57.** Rate of people requesting imprisonment, by countries in 2004/2005 and in Estonia in 2008

Non-Estonians (28%, Estonians 21%) and people living in the city (24%, in the countryside 21%)<sup>103</sup> were rather in favour of imprisonment. Imprisonment was requested the least in the Southern district (16%, 26% in the Northern district).<sup>104</sup> As a general rule, non-Estonians also requested longer terms of punishment: e.g. 21% of Estonians and 12% of non-Estonians requested less than 6 months' punishment. Longer terms of punishment were also requested by people with lower income.

<sup>103</sup> Non-Estonians: 0.22 (reference: Estonian); rural settlement: -0.48 (reference: city). ( $P \leq 0.001$ )

<sup>104</sup> Northern district: -0.14; Southern district -0.16; Western district: -0.14 (reference: Viru district d). ( $P \leq 0.001$ )



Connections of the desire for punishment (the wish for more severe punishment is meant by this) to the use of tabloids, racial prejudice and fear have been found in surveys (Demker et al., 2008; Costelloe et al., 2002). For example, according to the 2005 interview, people who were afraid of crime supported capital punishment more (41%) than people with strong feeling of security (30%) (Estonian Institute for Open Society, 2005).

The victim survey indicates a connection between victimization, satisfaction with the police and desire for punishment – victims of crimes against property and crimes of violence request imprisonment more than others (still, the regression model does not indicate a connection in case of the latter).<sup>105</sup>

27% of theft victims and 22% of people who have not been victimized would request imprisonment. In case of community service, the indicators confirm the same tendency – people who have not been victimized would request more community service than others: 58% and 53% respectively. 27% victims of crimes of violence and 23% of people without such an experience are in favour of imprisonment; community service would be requested by 57% of those who have not been victimized crimes of violence and by 53% of those who have. At the same time, no such tendency is noticeable in case of victims of corruption and fraud; 23% of them would request imprisonment and 57% community service, and 25% of people who have not encountered corruption or fraud would request imprisonment and 57%, again, would request community service.

People who are less afraid (feel secure in their neighbourhood) request less imprisonment<sup>106</sup>; 25% of those who feel insecure and 23% of those feeling secure would request imprisonment for the colour TV set thief.

Satisfaction with the police is also connected to requested punishment – the more dissatisfied the person, the bigger the wish for strict punishment. People who are more critical with respect to the police request more imprisonment.<sup>107</sup> 22% of those who find that the professionalism of Estonian police rather meets the requirements and 29% of people who think that it rather does not meet the requirement, request imprisonment.

Similar tendencies can be seen also in case of those who request conditional imprisonment; they have been victimized either by crimes against property or crimes of violence.<sup>108</sup> For example, 11% of victims of violence would request conditional imprisonment but in case of other people this indicator is 9%. They also feel more fear in their neighbourhood.<sup>109</sup>

Community service is requested more by women (women 58% and men 56%), Estonians (Estonians 59% and non-Estonians 52%) and people living in the Southern district (65% in Southern district, e.g. 56% in Northern district).

People who have been victimised by some crime, who feel unsafe in their neighbourhood and who are not satisfied with the police want more severe punishments.

<sup>105</sup> Has been exposed to crimes against property: 0.73 (reference: has not been exposed); has been exposed to a crime of violence: -0.30 (reference: has not been exposed). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>106</sup> Feels rather secure in one's neighbourhood: -0.24 (reference: feels insecure), is rather satisfied with the police: -0.15 (reference: is rather not satisfied) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>107</sup> Rather satisfied with the police: -0.24 (reference: is not satisfied). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>108</sup> Has been victimized by a crime against property: 0.49 (reference: has not been victimized); has been victimized by a crime of violence: 0.07 (reference: has not been victimized). ( $P \leq 0.5$ ).

<sup>109</sup> Feels rather secure in one's neighbourhood: -0.10 (reference: feels insecure). ( $P \leq 0.01$ ).

**Table 11.** Connection between the desire for punishment (21-year-old male has been found guilty of second burglary. This time, he stole a colour TV set. Which of the following punishments would be most suitable in your opinion?) and other indicators

	Pecuniary punishment (fine)		Imprisonment		Community service		Conditional imprisonment	
	% *	N**	%	N	%	N	%	N
<b>Gender</b>								
Male	9%	182	23%	459	56%	1138	10%	200
Female	9%	195	23%	483	58%	1247	9%	197
<b>Age</b>								
16–19	12%	42	19%	63	56%	180	12%	42
20–29	9%	62	26%	168	55%	383	10%	69
30–39	7%	52	23%	157	58%	404	10%	70
40–49	8%	60	22%	148	57%	397	10%	71
50–59	8%	66	24%	191	57%	458	9%	68
60–77	10%	95	22%	215	58%	563	8%	77
<b>Nationality</b>								
Estonian	8%	249	21%	606	59%	1750	10%	300
Non-Estonian	10%	128	28%	336	52%	635	8%	97
<b>Income quintiles</b>								
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile	10%	90	21%	176	57%	492	10%	82
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	9%	79	25%	203	58%	479	8%	72
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	10%	87	23%	200	56%	501	9%	78
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	8%	67	23%	183	58%	471	10%	76
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile	7%	54	24%	180	56%	442	12%	89
<b>Coping</b>								
With difficulty	11%	99	24%	206	55%	488	7%	55
With certain difficulty /quite easily	8%	248	23%	659	58%	1724	10%	302
Easily	9%	29	24%	77	52%	171	13%	40
<b>District</b>								
Northern district	7%	100	26%	364	56%	781	9%	135
Southern district	9%	108	16%	181	65%	751	9%	99
Western district	10%	86	22%	181	55%	470	12%	96
Viru district	11%	83	28%	216	50%	383	9%	67
<b>Bigger cities</b>								
Kohtla-Järve	17%	24	25%	36	44%	62	14%	19
Tartu	5%	14	12%	32	74%	206	8%	23
Pärnu	6%	10	22%	35	59%	97	12%	17
Narva	7%	16	44%	93	40%	89	8%	16
Tallinn	7%	75	26%	265	57%	578	8%	80

	Pecuniary punishment (fine)		Imprisonment		Community service		Conditional imprisonment	
	% *	N**	%	N	%	N	%	N
<b>Type of settlement</b>								
Urban settlement (town, city)	9%	242	24%	626	57%	1519	9%	241
Rural settlement (small town, village)	9%	135	21%	316	57%	866	10%	156
<b>Education</b>								
1 <sup>st</sup> stage (without vocational, occupational, professional education)	10%	176	23%	387	58%	1009	9%	164
2 <sup>nd</sup> stage (vocational and occupational education)	10%	76	25%	190	55%	431	8%	64
3 <sup>rd</sup> stage (higher education)	7%	125	23%	365	57%	944	10%	169
<b>Bigger cities</b>								
Kohtla-Järve	17%	24	25%	36	44%	62	14%	19
Tartu	5%	14	12%	32	74%	206	8%	23
Pärnu	6%	10	22%	35	59%	97	12%	17
Narva	7%	16	44%	93	40%	89	8%	16
Tallinn	7%	75	26%	265	57%	578	8%	80
<b>How well can the police maintain public order in your neighbourhood?</b>								
Very well	7%	17	18%	46	63%	161	12%	32
Quite well	9%	218	22%	505	58%	1374	10%	226
Not very well	10%	74	26%	193	55%	412	8%	62
Poorly	10%	16	30%	49	49%	82	8%	13
Have not seen the police around here	8%	49	24%	145	57%	343	10%	61
<b>Does the professional level of Estonian police meet the requirements?</b>								
Meets completely	8%	33	19%	73	59%	235	12%	44
Meets in general	8%	219	23%	558	58%	1464	10%	244
Does not meet in general	9%	39	27%	115	53%	236	10%	43
Does not meet at all	13%	13	32%	35	40%	44	7%	7
<b>How safe would you feel in your neighbourhood?</b>								
Completely safe	10%	140	23%	318	56%	793	10%	146
Quite safe	8%	130	23%	351	59%	951	9%	136
A bit unsafe	9%	87	24%	216	57%	533	10%	94
Very unsafe	9%	19	28%	56	51%	105	10%	21
<b>Victimization by different types of (respondents who said "yes")</b>								
Crimes against property (international attribute)	9%	68	27%	194	53%	399	9%	70
Crimes of violence	8%	31	27%	88	53%	181	11%	38

\* Here and in other columns: weighted percentage.

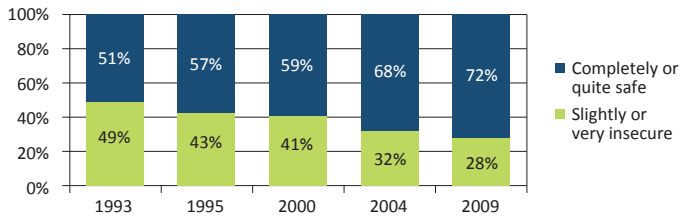
\*\* Unweighted N: here and in other columns it is the actual number of respondents.

## 9. FEAR OF CRIME, SECURITY AND SECURITY MEASURES

Jako Salla

### 9.1. Fear of crime

People's fear of crime is assessed with the question "How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?"<sup>110</sup> In 2009, 72% of the population felt safe on the street. The feeling of security of Estonian people has increasingly grown; in 1993, every second person felt insecure on a dark street in his/her neighbourhood; the change was most noticeable between 2000 and 2004 when the proportion of people feeling insecure diminished by 9 percentage points to 32%.



**Figure 58.** "How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?"

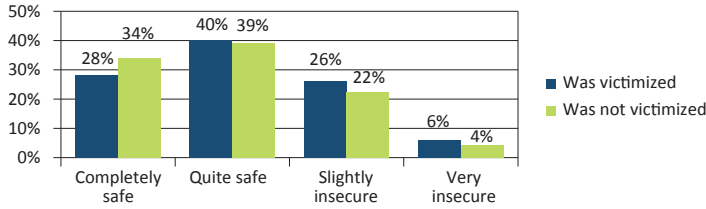
In 2009, 33% of people said that they feel completely safely on a dark home street, 39% felt quite safe, 23% slightly insecure and 5% very insecure.

While Estonian victimization indicators are often at the top in international comparison and the indicators of confidence in the police are low, in terms of the feeling of security we are approaching the average of countries compared. Although, we had the highest fear of crime among 22 countries with the 2000 indicator - the percentage of people feeling insecure exceeded nearly twice the international average (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 131).

Different indicators of victimization and fear of victimization may also be caused by fear resulting from other negative aspects of life. For example, it was found in the last international victim survey that the feeling of insecurity is in strong correlation with whether the person has encountered drug addiction (the people having seen trading or use of drugs or having discovered syringes, also have the biggest fear (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 133).

Although one could think that crime victims feel the greatest fear, the data of this survey does not confirm this. Differences between victims and other people are very small by groups. For example, 6% of victims and 4% of other people felt very unsafe on a neighbourhood street after dark.

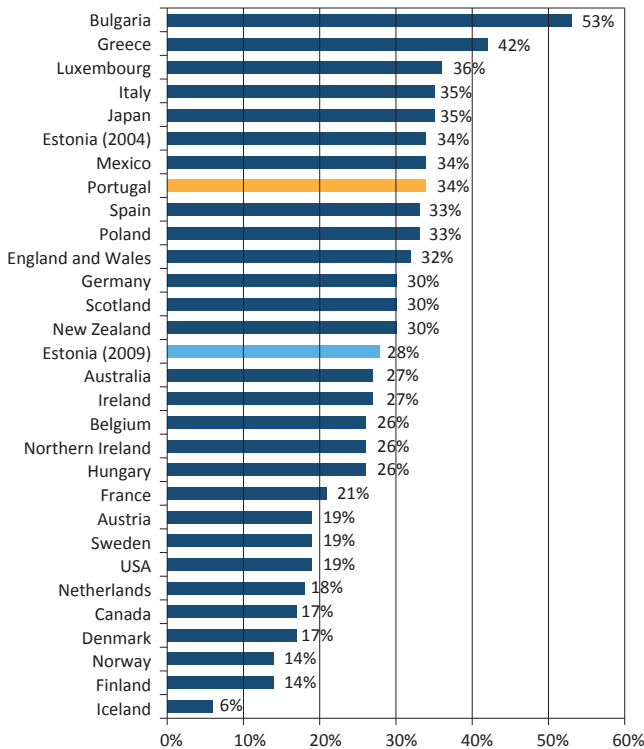
<sup>110</sup> If a respondent says that he/she does not go out at that time, the person is asked how secure he/she would feel if he/she would go out.



**Figure 59.** Answers to a question “How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?” corresponding to victimization by some crime in the past year before the interview.

### 9.1.1. International comparison and national differences

While in 2004, the Estonian indicator (34%) was on the same level with Mexico and Portugal, the 2009 indicator would place Estonia on the same level with Ireland and Australia. People living in Bulgaria and Greece feel the most insecure walking alone after dark, people living in Northern European countries (Iceland, Finland, Sweden) feel the most secure. It becomes apparent while comparing the Finnish 2004 indicator with the 2009 Estonian result that there are more than twice as many people among Estonian population who feel insecure.



**Figure 60.** Percentage of people who felt insecure walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, by countries in 2004/2005 and in Estonia in 2009

As a whole, people living in big cities feel less secure than people in the countries. Also, the feeling of security of people living in Tallinn is weaker than the average in Estonia, but compared to 2004 the decrease has been comparable (49% of people living in Tallinn felt themselves insecure in 2004, 37% in 2009).

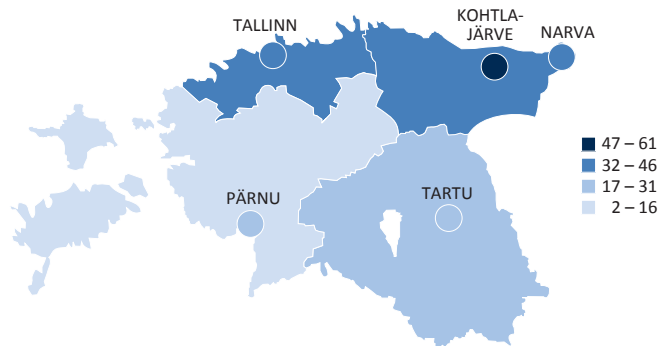
In 2004, the feeling of security of people living in Tallinn was similar with Istanbul and Lisbon and Madrid; based on the 2009 indicator, Tallinn would be between Budapest and Belfast. Cities which differ from others by considerably stronger feeling of security are Hong Kong and Reykjavik.

Indicators for feeling of security have remained stable in international comparison for a couple of decades; besides Estonia, the feeling of security had considerably increased also in Australia, USA and Canada (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 133).

While in general, Estonian indicators have considerably improved in international comparison, differences inside Estonia are still considerable. The proportion of people feeling insecure in their neighbourhood varies by several

multiples between districts and among bigger cities. While in the Western district 16% of people felt slightly or very insecure, in the Northern and Viru district the proportion was twice as big (33% and 34% respectively). In terms of cities, people living in Kohtla-Järve felt most at risk on the home street: 36% of them felt rather insecure and 21% felt very insecure. In comparison with other cities, the difference was especially big concerning the percentage of people feeling very insecure: elsewhere this remained between 3-7%. People living in Kohtla-Järve who feel very insecure did not differ by whether the person had been victimized by a crime in the past year.

Every fifth inhabitant of Kohtla-Järve feels very insecure walking in the neighbourhood after dark.



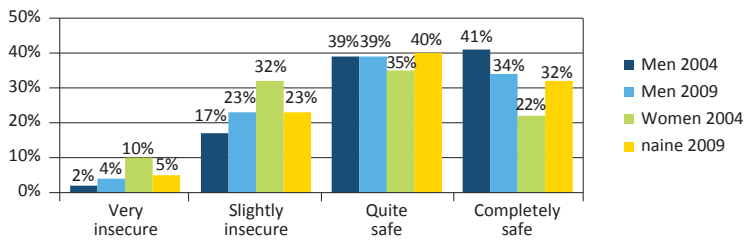
**Figure 61.** Percentage of people feeling insecure walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (%) in districts and bigger cities

### 9.1.2. Differences by groups

Earlier surveys have pointed out certain groups whose fear of crime is bigger. Women and elderly people are more insecure. Men's lower level of fear may be related to a smaller willingness to admit fear, but in case of older people darkness may cause fear of other accidents as well (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 133). Women's fear is increased by physical weakness in comparison with men which prevents them to fight back the attacker (Saar et al., 2005, p. 49).

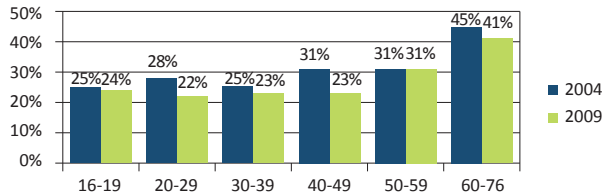
The feeling of security of men and women has evened up.

While the 2004 Estonian victim survey showed that among women there are considerably less those who feel completely safe on the street and more those who feel slightly or very insecure (Saar et al., 2005, p. 50), in 2009 these differences have almost disappeared. 73% of men and 72% of women feel rather safe walking alone on the street after dark. Overall growth of the feeling of security is mainly due to women – the percentage of women feeling rather insecure has decreased and the percentage of women feeling rather secure has increased; in case of men the percentage of those who feel rather insecure has slightly increased and the percentage of those who feel completely safe has decreased.



**Figure 62.** People feeling insecure walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark

Certain changes have also occurred in age groups. The feeling of security has improved the most in 40-49 and 20-29 age groups (8 and 6 percentage points respectively); the percentage of people who felt unsafe remained the same (31%) among 50-59-year-old people. The insecurity of people walking outside alone in the dark remains on a similar level (22-24%) up to the 40s, after that it considerably increases. Of people older than 60 years already 40% feel insecure on a dark street.

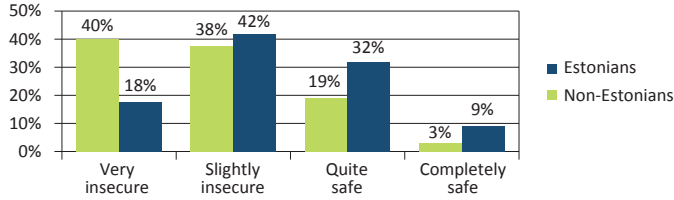


**Figure 63.** Percentage of people feeling insecure walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark by age in 2004 and 2009

While in general there are more women than men who feel insecure, in 2009 there were more men than women among the 40-49 age groups who felt insecure (25% men, 22% women). But in general it can be said that there are no great differences in age groups by gender, insecurity grows noticeably in both groups after 60s.

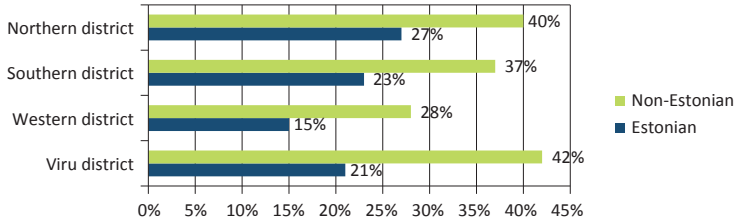
Differences in the feeling of security also occur by nationality: in general, Estonians feel safer on dark streets.<sup>111</sup> The percentage of those who feel rather unsafe is 22% among Estonians but nearly two times bigger, i.e. 40% among non-Estonians.

<sup>111</sup> Non-Estonian: - 0.43 (reference: Estonian). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).



**Figure 64.** “How safe to you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?”

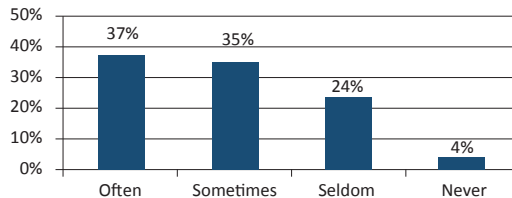
There are considerably more people among Estonians than non-Estonians who feel completely safe and much less those who feel slightly or very insecure. Although it could be assumed that the non-Estonians’ fear is related to their place of residence being in cities or also in districts (Tallinn, Ida-Virumaa county) where the crime rate is higher, the data of the current survey do not confirm this. On one hand, the insecurity indicator of Estonians is lower both in cities and rural settlements; on the other hand, the comparison of districts also shows that the fear among non-Estonians is higher both in the Viru district and elsewhere in Estonia.



**Figure 65.** Percentage of people feeling insecure walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, by district and nationality

### 9.1.3. Other possible factors affecting the fear of crime

While international victim survey established a connection between a drug problem and fear of crime, this survey does not show any strong connection there; however, the connection of fear of crime to whether and how often a person encounters brawling and/or intoxicated people in one’s neighbourhood was confirmed. People who often meet brawling and/or intoxicated people in their neighbourhood have much higher insecurity about going out alone after dark than those who do not encounter such people or encounter them infrequently<sup>112</sup>.

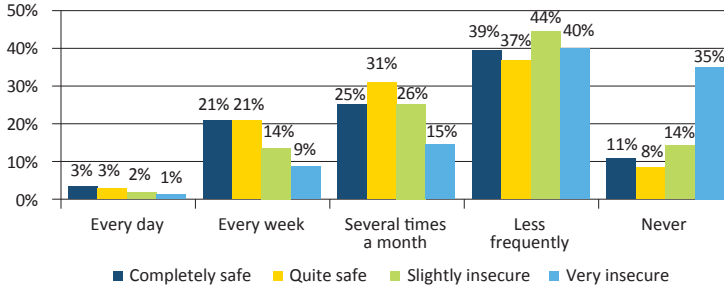


**Figure 66.** Percentage of people feeling rather insecure in their neighbourhood, in accordance with how often they have seen brawling and/or intoxicated people near their homes

<sup>112</sup> Never: 0.69; Seldom: 0.39; Sometimes: 0.34 (reference: often). ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).



The feeling of security also affects the people’s habits. People feeling very insecure avoid going out for recreational or entertainment purposes in the evening considerably more compared to others: 35% of people who felt very insecure completely avoided going out, while there were 8%-14% of such people in other groups.

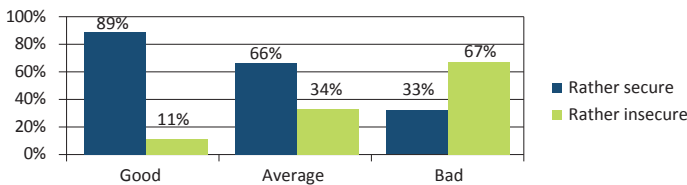


**Figure 67.** Percentage of people according to the frequency of going out for recreational or entertainment purposes and assessment to feeling of security related to walking in their neighbourhood after dark

## 9.2. Assessments to residential security

While a person’s assessment to the security of going out alone after dark helps to assess how someone personally perceives the dangers, another question of the victim survey about security shows how the security of the neighbourhood is perceived in general: “What is the level of security of your neighbourhood considered to be?”<sup>113</sup>

Assessments to one’s fear and neighbourhood largely coincide. 89% of people feeling safe on a dark street in their neighbourhood also assess their neighbourhood security to be good, and most people who rather feel insecure, assess their neighbourhood security to be poor. At the same time, every third person who thought that the security was poor felt rather secure on a dark neighbourhood street – this may indicate that some people see dangers rather for other people, or personal security is assessed better than general security.



**Figure 68.** People’s assessments to their neighbourhood security according to whether a person feels rather secure or insecure on a dark home street

37% of people thought that the security of their neighbourhood was good, 51% thought it was average, 7% thought it was poor and 5% could not give an assessment.

<sup>113</sup> Reply options: good, average, poor, cannot tell.

The following differences became evident in assessments to one's neighbourhood security:

- Women assess security more negatively – there were 55% of women and 45% of men who thought that the security was poor;
- With advancing age, the assessments to security become worse: 5% of up to 19-year-old people thought the security was poor; 15%–17% of 20–39-year-old people and 20%–22% of older people thought so;<sup>114</sup>
- Estonians' assessments to security are better: 22% of non-Estonians and 44% of Estonians thought the security was good; 11% of Russians and 5% of Estonians thought the security was poor;<sup>115</sup>
- Rich people assess the security to be better: people who belonged to the 5th income quintile gave positive assessments to security the most; people who assessed the security to be poor included the highest number of people belonging to the middle income quintile;<sup>116</sup>
- Crime victims<sup>117</sup> assessment to security is worse<sup>118</sup>: 30% of victims thought the security was good while 40% of other people thought it was good; 14% and 5% respectively thought the security was poor;
- Assessments to security are better where people help each other: 54% of people, in whose opinion residents in their neighbourhood mostly help each other, assessed the security to be good; 30% of those who think that people are mostly on their own in the neighbourhood gave the security an equally high assessment<sup>119</sup>;
- Security is assessed to be worse in the neighbourhood where there are more intoxicated or brawling people to be seen<sup>120</sup>: 17% of people living in such places gave the security assessment "poor"; only 1% of people who do not encounter such people in their neighbourhood gave the same assessment.<sup>121</sup>

### 9.3. Home security measures

We wanted to find out in the survey, which security measures people use to protect their domestic property. It is an important topic, taking into consideration that it has been assumed in earlier surveys that the protection of one's property may have positive impact on the growth of general security (Dijk, 2007, p. 138). Seven specific measures<sup>122</sup> were offered to respondents, plus the options of "other measure" and "neighbourhood watch". Compared to previous survey, "security door" was added to the list.

30% did not use any security measures at all<sup>123</sup>. This indicator has continuously decreased. For example in the 1995 survey there were nearly twice as many such people (59%). Compared

<sup>114</sup> With advancing age, the proportion of people who could not assess security also increased; there were already 26% of them among 60–76-year-old people.

<sup>115</sup> Non-Estonians' worse assessments to security were statistically significant only among people living in cities. Non-Estonians assessing the neighbourhood security to be poor: 0.69 (reference: Estonians assess the neighbourhood security to be good) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>116</sup> Also, those who assessed the economic viability of household better had more positive assessment.

<sup>117</sup> All types of acts identified in the survey, except consumer frauds and bribe.

<sup>118</sup> Thinking that their neighbourhood security is poor: 0.76 (reference: thinking that it is good) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>119</sup> CITY: Thinking that their neighbourhood security is poor, people are mostly on their own: 1.39 (reference: thinking it is good, mostly help each other) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ); COUNTRYSIDE: Thinking that their neighbourhood security is poor, people are mostly on their own: 1.96 (reference: thinking it is good, mostly help each other) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>120</sup> CITY: considering neighbourhood security to be poor, never encountered intoxicated/brawling people: -4.06 (reference: considering it good, often encountered intoxicated/brawling people) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ); COUNTRYSIDE: considering neighbourhood security to be poor, never encountered intoxicated/brawling people: -2.11 (reference: considering it good, often encountering intoxicated/brawling people) ( $P \leq 0.001$ ).

<sup>121</sup> Similar division also characterized districts where people more frequently encounter drug addiction.

<sup>122</sup> Reply options to the question: Do you have the following security measures or equipment at your home? Do you have ... Burglar alarm, Safety lock on door, Security door, Window or door bars, security jambs, Dog for scaring off burglars, High fence, Guard or security guard, Have you joined a neighbourhood watch?, Other security measure (several options could be chosen)

<sup>123</sup> For the purpose of comparability, the following characteristics were used for the general indicator: Burglar alarm, Safety lock on door, Security door, Window or door bars, security jambs, Dog for scaring off burglars, High fence, Guard or security guard.

to 2004, the percentage of people who did not use any security measures decreased by 4 percentage points.

At the same time, increased use of security measures does not mean that the indicators for all measures have increased. The popularity of safety locks has grown the most; more than half of households now have them. Compared to 1999, 5 times more households use a safety lock for the protection of home; compared to 2004, the growth is also considerable – 12 percentage points. Increased purchasing power of people is probably behind the growth of this indicator – proper locks have been bought together with a new front door.

While security doors and safety locks are more common in cities, there are more those in the countryside whose property is protected by a dog (17% in the city, 44% in the countryside). Every fourth household has a dog for scaring off thieves.

**Table 12.** Use of security measures in 1993–2009

	1993	1995	2000	2004	2009
Safety lock on door	10%	17%	23%	40%	52%
Dog for scaring off burglars	19%	24%	24%	27%	25%
High fence	1%	2%	2%	4%	11%
Burglar alarm	3%	3%	4%	7%	10%
Window or door bars, security jambs	1%	3%	5%	4%	2%
Guard or security guard	0%	0%	0%	2%	1%
Does not use above-specified measures	66%	59%	53%	34%	30%
Security door					49%
Other security measure					3%
Have you joined the neighbourhood watch?					5%

Building high fences for the protection of property has considerably increased. While in 1993 only 1% of households had a high fence, already 11% did in 2009. It probably has other purposes also besides protecting a home – organizing parking, protection of vehicles against thefts and vandalism.

The use of burglar alarm has also increased, probably thanks to the development of the sector (GSM solutions, integration with other services) and better availability of the service. In 2009, every tenth household used burglar alarm; compared to 2004, the growth was 3 percentage points. However, only wealthier people can afford burglar alarms; a burglar alarm protected the homes of 4% of households which cope with difficulty and 19% of households which cope easily.<sup>124</sup>

Bars disappear from windows and doors; they are replaced by safety locks and burglar alarms.

At the same time, the use of window and door bars declined down to the level of first half of the 1990s; 2% of households used them in 2009. The proportion of households, the homes of which were guarded by a guard or security guard, was also very small – 1%. This indicator also includes cases where a living area or an apartment building is guarded by security guards.

<sup>124</sup> In case of people coping with certain difficulty, a burglar alarm was used for the protection of home by 10%.

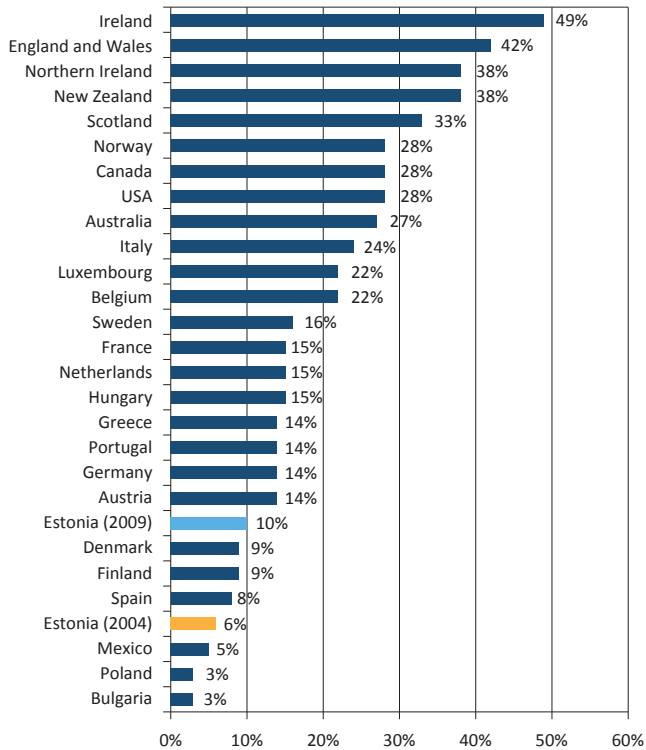
**Table 13.** Use of most common security measures by districts

	Northern district	Viru district	Southern district	Western district
Burglar alarm	18%	5%	5%	5%
Safety lock on door	75%	55%	30%	29%
Window or door bars, security jambs	3%	3%	1%	1%
Dog for scaring off burglars	19%	22%	31%	32%
High fence	13%	8%	12%	10%
Does not use any of the specified measures	16%	31%	44%	45%

In terms of districts, the Southern and Western districts were similar where the usage activity of security measures, with the exception of dogs, is considerably lower than elsewhere. While 44%-45% of people do not use any measures in these districts, there were 31% of such households in the Viru district and only 16% in the Northern district. Compared to other districts, the Northern district also differed by a considerably bigger use of burglar alarms.

The use of burglar alarms and security doors has been compared in the international victim survey. In countries where the risk of burglary is higher, more security measures are used for the protection of home. The reason is that the risk of burglary is considered lower in better protected households. It has been found in earlier surveys that the burglar alarm makes a place of residence more attractive for burglars but at the same time forces a criminal offender to discontinue the burglary in many cases (in case of households with burglar alarm, the percentage of attempted thefts was higher than that of completed thefts, when compared to households where there was no burglar alarm) (Dijk, 2007, p. 138).

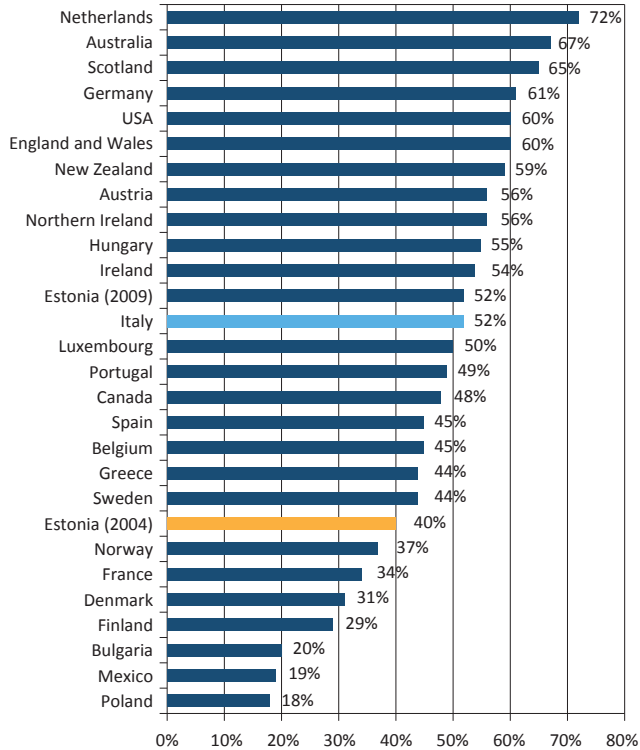
In 2004/2005, an average of 16% of households in the countries compared used a burglar alarm (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 136). The Estonian indicator was lower both in 2004 and 2009. Alarm equipment is used especially actively in English speaking countries: for example, nearly every second home in Ireland was protected by a burglar alarm but in Finland the use of this measure was relatively little (9% in 2004).



**Figure 69.** Percentage of households having burglar alarms for the protection of home, by countries in 2004/2005 and in Estonia in 2009

In the capitals of countries compared, there was a burglar alarm on the average in every fifth household; the Estonian indicator was 11% in 2004 and 16% in 2009. In 2004-2005, the indicator ranged between 10%-20% e.g. in Amsterdam, Berlin, Vienna, Helsinki, Lisbon and Brussels. The percentage of homes having a burglar alarm was the lowest in Warsaw (5%) and the highest in Dublin (71%) (Dijk, 2007, p. 137).

In terms of using safety locks, Estonia is among the average countries (Dijk, 2007, p. 137). In 2004-2005, an average of 45% of people living in the countries compared had a safety lock, which is between Estonia's 2004 indicator (40%) and 2009 indicator (52%). But the 2010 indicator for Tallinn rose in the comparison of capitals to the level of Sydney, sharing the first place with it – 78% of households in both cities had safety locks on their home doors; these were followed by Budapest, Oslo and Amsterdam (72% in all of them). Stockholm had 60% of households with security locks, Helsinki 47%, Warsaw 46% and Reykjavik has the lowest indicator (13%).



**Figure 70.** Proportion of households having a safety lock on their front door, by countries in 2004/2005 and in Estonia 2009.

### 9.3.1. Neighbourhood watch

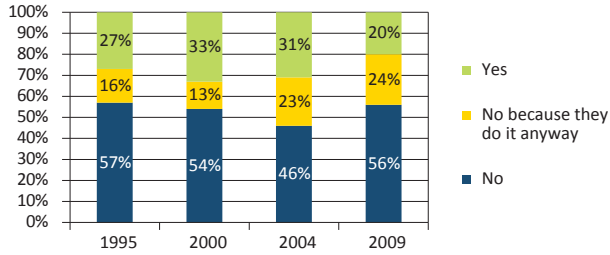
5% of households said that they had joined neighbourhood watch; the indicator varies from 2% in the Western district to 8% in the Virumaa region<sup>125</sup>. 6% of people living in cities and 5% living in the countryside took part in neighbourhood watch.

The questionnaire also included a question about whether neighbours or a janitor is asked to keep an eye on the apartment during absence from home.<sup>126</sup> It turned out that 20% of people asked to do it; 24% said that they don't have to ask because this is done anyway and 56% said that they do not ask help from other people.

Compared to previous surveys, the percentage of people who asked for help from others was the smallest in 2009.

<sup>125</sup> Northern district 6%, Southern district 5%.

<sup>126</sup> Please think about the last time when there was nobody at your home for at least 24 hours. Did you ask your neighbours or janitor to keep an eye on your apartment? Either (1) yes; (2) no because they will do it anyway; or (3) no?

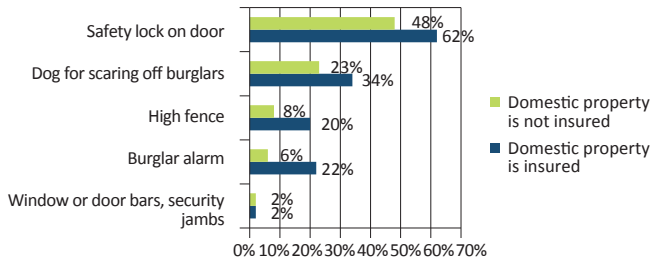


**Figure 71.** Percentage of answers to the question “Did you ask your neighbour or janitor to keep an eye on your apartment (the last time there was nobody at your home for 24 hours)?”

### 9.3.2. Insuring domestic property

Every fourth household (25%) has insured domestic property against theft. In 2000, the percentage of insured households was 12%, in 2004 it was 22%. Thus, the number of homes insured against theft has increased, but the growth rate has slowed down in comparison with the first half of the decade. Property is somewhat more frequently insured by people living in the countryside (29% in the countryside, 23% in the city) and people with better level of economic coping (easily coping 33%, coping with difficulty 14%).

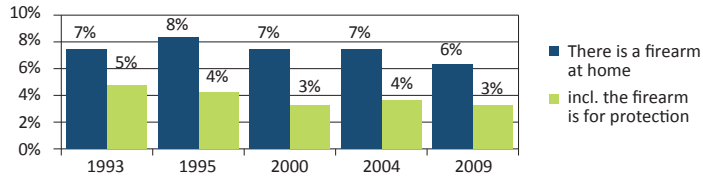
People who insure their home use also other security measures for the protection of property more than those who have not insured their property. On the one hand this is probably related to the economic situation of household (who can pay insurance premiums, can probably invest into other security measures as well); on the other hand, insurance terms may also affect the use of security measures. The most noticeable difference between insurers and non-insurers becomes evident in case of burglar alarm use: 22% of insurers use it, while 6% of non-insurers do.



**Figure 72.** Use of security measures, by whether the domestic property of household has been insured or not

### 9.3.3. Weapon for home protection

The number of firearms in Estonian homes has decreased. In 2009, 6.3% of households had a firearm. However, in 1995 there were still 8.3% of households in which there was at least one firearm. The weapon was meant for the protection against offenders in case of 3.2% of the population; in case of remaining people these could have been hunting guns or collection weapons.



**Figure 73.** Percentage of households having firearms

Slightly more than a half (51%) of households with firearms had a shotgun; 36% had a pistol or revolver and 13% had both types of weapons. Compared to 2004, the percentage of pistols and revolvers has increased relatively more.

The percentage of firearms in households living in the countryside is considerably higher than in the city: every tenth household living in the countryside, but every twentieth living in the city has a firearm. At the same time there are relatively more of those in the city who have a firearm for protection against criminal offenders (47% of weapon owners in the city and 32% in the countryside).



## 10. ENCOUNTERS WITH DRUG ADDICTION

Andri Ahven

Questions about people's encounters with drugs and drug-related problems were determined with a victim survey for the first time in 2004; the same questions were also asked in 2009<sup>127</sup>. The first question follows the wording used in the Eurobarometer survey and later in the international victim survey. In addition, questions about offering drugs to the respondent and about drug use among his/her acquaintances were asked in Estonia. The two last questions dealt with the situation at the time of the interview, therefore the year of the survey is referred to in this chapter in case of all questions.

The opinion that the situation is only getting worse is not such a rare one in this field. The victim survey results do not confirm such negative opinions. Compared to 2004, no big changes have occurred: most people do not encounter drug problems very often, they have not been offered any drugs and they do not know anybody among their acquaintances to whom drugs have been offered either. At the same time, offering drugs to young women has become more frequent – see more details later.

General division of replies in 2004 and 2009 was quite similar; there were some differences only with respect to encounters with drug problems.

**Table 14.** People's encounters with drug problems in 2004 2009 (percentage of respondents)<sup>128</sup>

	2004	2009
<b>Respondent has encountered a drug problem in his/her neighbourhood in past 12 months</b>		
Often	10%	6%
Sometimes	12%	11%
Seldom	12%	15%
Never	63%	69%
Cannot tell/no answer	3%	0%
<b>Respondent has been offered drugs sometimes</b>		
No	90%	89%
Yes, free of charge	3%	5%
Yes, for money	2%	3%
Has been offered both for money and free of charge	4%	3%
Cannot tell/no answer	1%	0%
<b>Respondent has acquaintances who have used drugs</b>		
Don't know anyone	78%	78%
I know one	7%	7%
I know several	14%	14%
Cannot tell/no answer	1%	0%
Number of people interviewed	1687	4181

<sup>127</sup> In the 2009 victim survey, the following questions were asked: 1) "How often have you seen in your neighbourhood people trading in drugs, using drugs (either injecting, smoking or taking) or found, for example, syringes left behind by drug addicts since <current month of last year >?" 2) "Have you ever been offered any drugs (sedatives or sleeping pills without doctor's prescription, marijuana, hashish, amphetamine, ecstasy, opium, heroin, cocaine etc.)?" 3) "Is there anyone among your acquaintances who has used or is using drugs?"

<sup>128</sup> These numbers are rounded and therefore their sum is not always 100%.

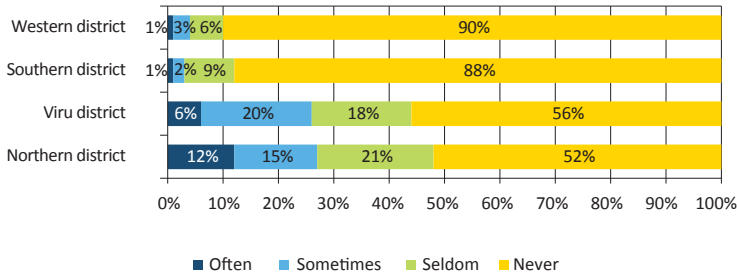
### 10.1. Drug problems in respondent's place of residence

In 2009, 69% of people interviewed said that they had not encountered any trading in drugs, use of drugs or other problems in their neighbourhood during the last year.<sup>129</sup> 17% admitted having encountered it sometimes or often. Compared to 2004, the percentage of people having encounters with drug problems decreased by 6 percentage points.

The number of people encountering drug problems is decreasing. Non-Estonians encounter drug problems more frequently.

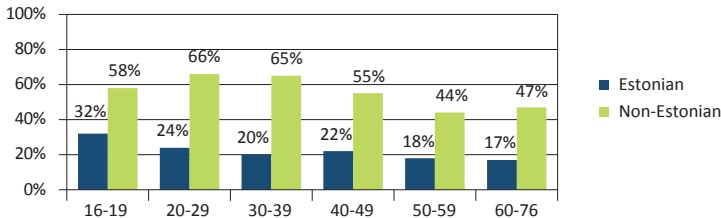
There were clear differences between urban and rural environment and among districts. 22.5% of urban settlement inhabitants and 3% of rural settlement inhabitants had encountered drug problems. Big differences became evident by districts: these phenomena had been encountered by 48% of people interviewed in the Northern district and by 44% in the Virumaa region, but by only 10-12% in the Southern and Western district. It has to be taken into consideration that

the question about encounters with drug problems reflects the situation in the immediate proximity of respondent's place of residence – thus, conclusions cannot be made about the extent of the respondents having encounters elsewhere.



**Figure 74.** People who have encountered drug problems in their neighbourhood in past 12 months, by districts

Due to regional differences, ethnic groups also differed to a great extent: 21% of Estonians and 55% of non-Estonians had encountered the problem (incl. frequent encounters by 3% and 13%, respectively).



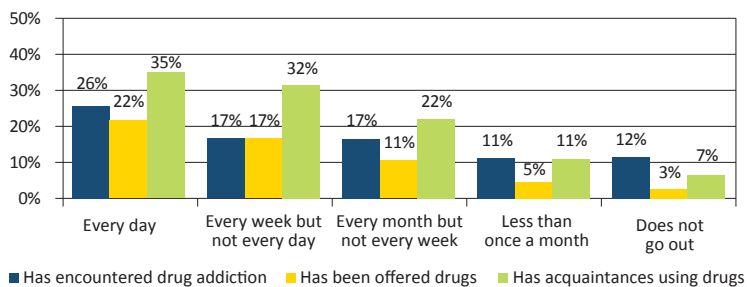
**Figure 75.** People who have encountered drug problems in their neighbourhood in past 12 months, by age group and nationality (%)

<sup>129</sup> In case of Estonian data, reply options "Often", "Sometimes" and "Seldom" were regarded as an encounter; in international comparison reply options "Often" and "Sometimes" have been taken into account in this case.

Men and women practically did not differ with respect to this question and the differences were rather small also in the 16-49 age groups – not taking into account differences between nationalities. People up to 29 years old (37%) had encountered drug problems the most and 60 years and older (26%) the least.

There were considerably less people among interviewed Estonians than among non-Estonians who had encountered drug problems in all age groups. Among Estonians, 16-19-year-old people encountered drug problems most frequently; among non-Estonians, 20-29-year-old people and nearly as much the 30-39-year-old people did so.

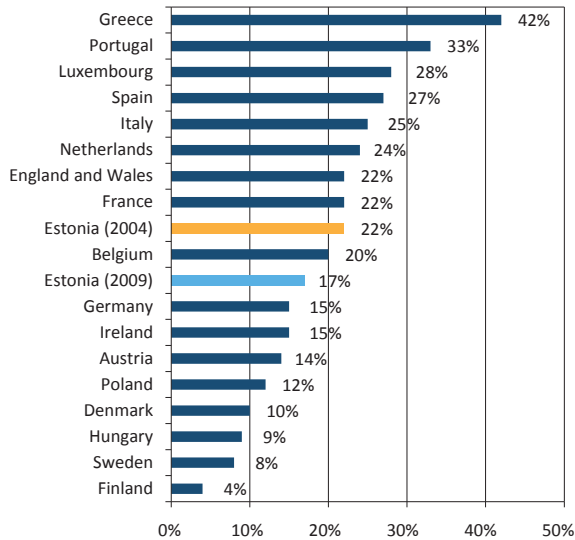
Comparing the interviewed people by the frequency of going out for recreational, entertainment or exercising intentions, it appeared as expected that the more frequently people went out, the more they had encounters with drug addiction and offering drugs and the more probably the respondent had used drugs with or had acquaintances using drugs – this concerned young people the most.



**Figure 76.** Encounters with drug problems, by frequency of spending time out (percentage of people interviewed)

Among other factors, the assessment to one's neighbourhood security depends on personal encounters with crime and drug addiction. There were several times less people who had encountered drug addiction among people interviewed who thought their neighbourhood security was poor. Differences with parallel trend, although much smaller, became evident in encounters with offering drugs to the respondent and in the existence of acquaintances using drugs.

In terms of international comparison, Estonia's level was close to European average according to the 2004 victim survey: 22% of people interviewed in Estonia had encountered drug problems often or sometimes (not taking into account the ones who had encountered drug problems seldom); according to the survey carried out in 15 old EU Member States, the same indicator was 21% on the average (Dijk et al., 2007, p. 96). In 2009, Estonia's level was slightly lower than this (17%).



**Figure 77.** Respondents' encounters with drug problems, by countries in 2003/2004 and in Estonia in 2009 (percentage of people interviewed)

There were relatively many people who had encountered drug problems in Greece (42%), Portugal (33%) and Luxembourg (28%); there were few in Finland (4%), Sweden (8%), Hungary (9%) and Denmark (10%). However, in case of Finland and Sweden the credibility of survey is made questionable by a big decrease compared to the previous indicators<sup>130</sup>. In most European countries, the percentage of people who have encountered drug problems has increased since the beginning of observations in 1996.

## 10.2. Offering drugs to respondents

In 2009, 89% of people interviewed said that they have never been offered drugs (the same indicator was 90% in 2004). Drugs had been offered sometimes to 10% but it is not known when. Offered have been made both free of charge and for money. There have been no significant changes when compared to the 2004 survey.

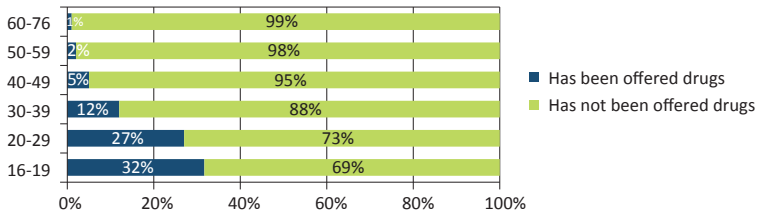
In contrast to the previous question, people living in the city and in the countryside and Estonians and non-Estonians almost did not differ here. Changes between districts were also relatively small: drugs had been offered to 16% of respondents in the Virumaa region and to 9%-11% in other districts. In general, the breakdown of answers was similar also in 2004.

15% of men and 7% of women had been offered drugs.

Clear differences by respondent's age became evident; 16-19-year-old respondents had been offered drugs most frequently and 59-year-old and older respondents almost not at all.

Offering drugs to young women has grown.

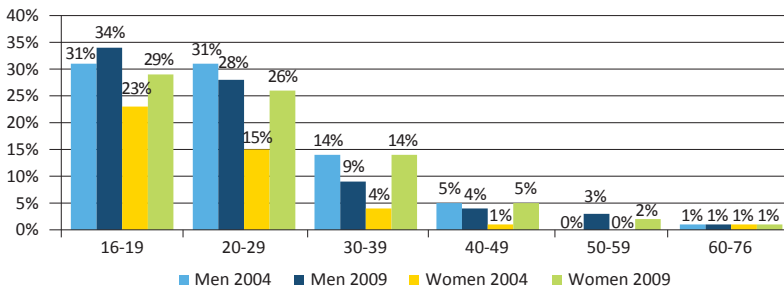
<sup>130</sup> Finland's indicator was five times lower than the 2002 level (20%) and Sweden's indicator nearly two times smaller (15%) – see the chapter on methodology about problems with sample credibility in these countries.



**Figure 78.** People who had ever encountered offering of drugs, by age (%)

Compared to 2004, the percentage of those 16-29-year-old respondents grew who had been offered drugs at some time (25% in 2004 and 28% in 2009) – this is mainly due to more frequent offering of drugs to young women which has brought along a discernible decrease of difference between men and women.

According to the 2009 survey, drugs had been offered to 34% of 16-19-year-old and 28% of 20-29-year-old men, and to 29% and 26% of women in same age groups respectively. Compared to 2004, the indicators for men are on the same level, but the growth of percentage of women in most age groups is remarkable: e.g. the percentage of 20-29-year-old women who had been offered drugs increased from 15% to 26%. Surveys carried out by the Tallinn University among 16-64-year-old people in 2003 and 2008 show a similar trend in drug use: the percentage of 25-34-year-old women who had used drugs at least once in their life had increased nearly three times (Tallinn University, 2010; Abel, 2005).

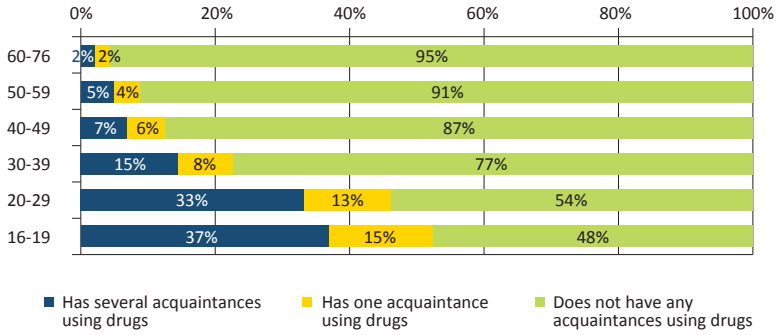


**Figure 79.** Men and women who had encountered offering of drugs in 2004 and in 2009, by age (%)

People interviewed who often spend time out had had encounters with offering of drugs most frequently; they are also primarily young people.

### 10.3. Drug use among respondent’s acquaintances

People less than 19 years of age had most frequently acquaintances who use or have used drugs (52%), whereas one third of young people had several such acquaintances. The older the respondents are, the smaller the number of such acquaintances is. Compared to 2004, the percentage of people interviewed who have such acquaintances has slightly increased in the 16–39 age groups (most of all among 20-29-year-old people where this indicator increased from 40% to 46%).



**Figure 80.** Existence of acquaintances who use drugs (%)

25% of men and 19% of women had acquaintances who used drugs. There were no changes compared to 2004.

There were more people among non-Estonians who had acquaintances using drugs than among Estonians (25% and 20% respectively). Compared to 2004, the difference has decreased (these indicators were 33% and 16% back then). Differences had parallel trends in all age groups, being the smallest among 20–29-year-old people and the biggest among 50–59-year-old people.<sup>131</sup>

People living in the Virumaa region had the highest number of acquaintances using drugs (31%), next came the Northern (21%), the Southern (19%) and the Western (18%) districts. Virumaa region differed from other districts to the same extent as in 2004.

Respondents who often spend time going out (mainly young people) had considerably more acquaintances who use drugs than the ones who seldom spend time going out.

Every fifth resident of Estonia knows or is acquainted with somebody who uses or has used drugs.

<sup>131</sup> 45% of 20–29-year-old Estonians and 48% of non-Estonians had acquaintances who use drugs; among 50–59-year-old people these figures are 4% and 17%, respectively.

## 11. VICTIMIZATION AND SECURITY AMONG THE YOUTH

Anna Markina, Kaire Tamm

Young people's encounters with crime have been dealt with more from the offender's point of view in Estonia. Victimization of young people is acknowledged much less, although the experience of victim considerably affects a young person's development and subsequent coping in life, and is often a risk factor for young people's offences (Soo, 2004; Finkelhor, 2008). However, in recent years the experiences of children and young people have been studied more, e.g. in connection with school violence (see Kõiv, 2006; Strömpl et al., 2007, etc.), sexual harassment (see Soo & Kutsar, 2004; Soo, 2005, etc.) and internet crime (see EU Kids Online, 2009). Just a few years ago, Estonia participated for the first time in an international comparative study where 7th-9th grade pupils were asked about their encounters with offences as well as victimization (Markina & Šahverdov-Žarkovski, 2007). Young people have also been asked in previous victim surveys, but the sample size in the 2009 survey enables to analyse them as a separate group and more thoroughly.

This chapter gives an overview of the victimization of young people aged 16-26 years<sup>132</sup>, focusing on the victimization of young people by thefts of personal property and crimes of violence. Also young people's encounters with drug addiction and feeling of security have been analysed. Thus, crimes in the victim survey database by which young people had been directly victimized were considered in more detail and crimes committed against young people's households were excluded from the analysis.

Previous victim studies carried out in Estonia and other countries show that young people are more frequently victimized by crimes than the elderly, and with advancing age the risk of victimization decreases (Saar et al., 2002; Saar et al., 2005; van Dijk, van Kesteren, Smit, 2007). The 2009 victim survey shows the same tendency: while 35.6%, i.e. nearly every third young person<sup>133</sup> in the age group of 16-26 years was victimized by at least one crime in the past year, 27.6% of 27-45-year-olds and one fifth (20.4%) of 46-76-year-olds were victimized. According to the 2009 data, there were more young victims in all studied types of crimes when compared to other age groups, much more so in case of crimes of violence; the number of victims of personal property thefts differed less by age.

More frequent victimization of young people has been substantiated in surveys in many ways, mostly by young people's life style. Young people spend more time away from home and are exposed to activities (e.g. go to parties, use alcohol) which create a more probable possibility to meet potential offenders and be victimized by a crime (Finkelhor, 1996). It has to be also borne in mind that the percentage of young people is high not only among victims but that young people also commit more crimes than older people. For example in 2008, criminal activity was the highest among the 18-24 and younger age groups (Salla et al., 2009, 20).

In comparison with other age groups, young people are more at risk and are more frequently victimized primarily by violence.

<sup>132</sup> The determination of the youth age group was based on the maximum age of youth prescribed in § 2 of the Youth Work Act. The youngest person interviewed in the victim survey was 15 years old, but as only one person was actually interviewed in this age group, the data still predominantly cover the experience of 16-26-year-old victims.

<sup>133</sup> In case of overall victimization rate, both the events which have taken place personally with a young person and offences against household consisting of young persons has been taken into account.

## 11.1. Thefts of personal property

In 2008, 5% of young people were victimized by thefts of personal property (e.g. a handbag, wallet, jewellery, clothes, etc.).<sup>134</sup> Young people have been victimized by this type of thefts somewhat more frequently than elderly people; in 2008, 3.5% of 27-45-year-old people and 3.1% of 46-76-year-old people had encountered thefts of personal property.

The percentage of young people victimized by theft of personal property has considerably decreased.

Compared to the previous survey, young people have been victimized by a theft of personal property two times less. In 2003, 10.7% of these young people were victimized by such thefts. The percentage of people victimized by thefts of personal property has also decreased among the total population of Estonia (from 6.3% in 2003 down to 4% in

2008), but in case of young people the decrease has been considerably bigger.

Minors are at higher risk being victimized by thefts of personal property than young adults.<sup>135</sup> Nearly one tenth of the interviewed young people of age 16-17 and only 3.1% of 24-26-year-old people were victimized by a theft of personal property; the latter resembles the victim rate among older people. Other surveys also refer to extensive prevalence of thefts of personal property among schoolchildren, e.g. in 2006 personal property was stolen from 18.7% of 7<sup>th</sup>-9<sup>th</sup> grade pupils (Markina & Šahverdov-Žarkovski, 2007), in Czech Republic 16.9% and in Hungary 23.6% (Markina & Saar, 2009).

Women<sup>136</sup> and Estonians<sup>137</sup> are victimized more to some extent: 5.2% of women and 4.7% of men, and 5.1% of Estonians and 4.7% of non-Estonians are victimized.

In the comparison of districts it turned out that the biggest risk of being victimized is in the Western district.<sup>138</sup> The victimization rate of young people living in Tallinn (5.3%) was similar to the average indicator (5%).

Young people living in the city were victimized more in the municipalities where they live; young people living in the countryside were victimized more outside their municipalities.

Victimization probability is higher in case of young people living in the countryside than in case of young people living in the city<sup>139</sup>: 5.7% and 4.7% respectively. At the same time it should be taken into consideration that young people living in the countryside and in the city are victimized by theft in different locations. Young people living in the countryside were much less victimized in the municipalities where they

live and more elsewhere in Estonia and abroad: while the majority, i.e. 75.4% of young people living in cities were victimized in the municipalities where they live, this was the case for only a quarter (23.8%) of young people living in the countryside.

Interesting differences became evident also with respect to the victimization location of young and older people. Older people were victimized near their homes more frequently than young people: 27-45-year-old people by more than two times and 46-76-year-old people by more than three times. Young people were victimized more abroad while e.g. respondents aged 46-76 did not mention this as a place of theft at all. Probably this is also affected by different travelling frequency and habits of young people and older people.

<sup>134</sup> 46 respondents aged 16-26 were victimized by a theft of personal property.

<sup>135</sup> 18-20 years old: 0.515; 21-23 years old: 0.433; 24-26 years old: 0.351 (reference: 16-17 years old).

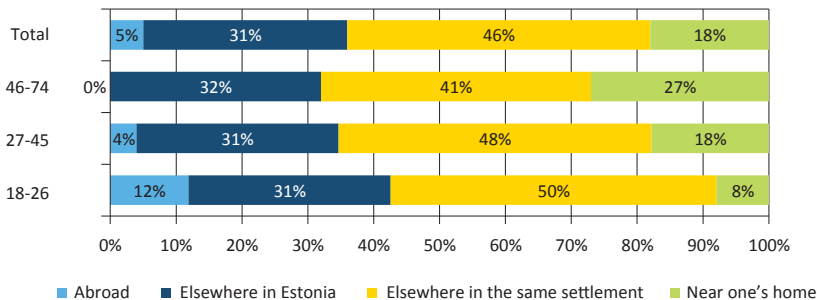
<sup>136</sup> Woman: 1.22 (reference: man).

<sup>137</sup> Non-Estonian: 0.93 (reference: Estonian).

<sup>138</sup> District: Southern: 0.597; Northern 0.903; Viru district: 0.971 (reference: Western district).

<sup>139</sup> Rural settlement: 1.23.



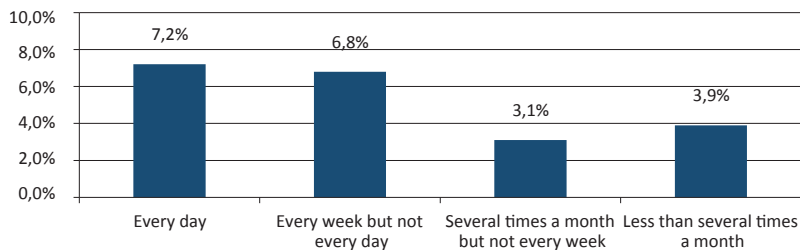


**Figure 81.** Place of victimization by thefts of personal property, by young people and other age groups

Last incident of theft occurred at the restaurant for 19.2% of young people, on the street for 16.8%, at school for 14.3%, in public transport vehicle for 14.2%, at a place of work for 10.9% and elsewhere for 24.7%. Compared to other age groups, more frequent victimization of young people by thefts at school and at restaurants stands out. Minors were more frequently victimized by theft at school and only young adults at restaurants, which, taking into consideration the compulsory school attendance and young people's lifestyle, corresponds to the expectations in every way.

Personal property was stolen from young people more frequently at school, from young adults also at restaurants.

According to regression analysis, young people who are socially more active, that is, they go out more in the evenings for recreational or entertainment purposes (e.g. go to the cinema, theatre, visiting, in clubs, in pubs) are more frequently victimized by thefts of personal items.<sup>140</sup> While 7.2% of young people who go out every night had been victimized by this crime, the corresponding indicator was lower among young people who went out less frequently.



**Figure 82.** Victimization by thefts of personal property among young people, by frequency of going out in the evenings

The majority of young people (92.3%) who were victimized by theft of personal property were exposed to this offence once in the past year; slightly less than one tenth (7.7%) of young people were victimized by a theft of personal property repeatedly.

<sup>140</sup> Spare time: every week but not every day: 1.187; several times a month but not every week: 0.537; less frequently: 0.698 (reference – every day).

The median value of property stolen from young people remained between 500-1,000 EEK. In case of pickpocketing, which formed nearly one half of the incidents, the value of stolen property did not exceed 500 EEK.<sup>141</sup>

In general, young people do not promptly report thefts of personal property to the police; in the young people's opinion the police learned about 23% of theft incidents of their personal property (overall reporting rate with respect to these crimes was 28%). Minors report of the incidents especially infrequently: nearly 94% of minors said that the police did not get to know about their theft incidents. It turned out that the theft of a more valuable property is reported to the police more frequently. According to young people, the police did not get to know about the incidents at all when the value of stolen property was less than 500 EEK, while in case of stolen property worth 1,000-3,000 EEK the rate of reporting to the police was one third (33.7%)

## 11.2. Crimes of violence

Both earlier Estonian victim surveys (Saar et al., 2002, 118; Saar et al., 2004, p. 24) and the surveys of other countries (Suomi ..., 2009, p. 25; Hashima & Finkelhor, 1999, pp. 805-806) have indicated more frequent victimization of young people in comparison with other age groups.

In 2008, 9.4% of young people were victimized by crimes of violence (incl. assault, threat and robbery), 8% in 2004. In 2008, young people most frequently encountered non-physical sexual harassment<sup>142</sup> (8.0%) among the crimes of violence under consideration; 7% were victimized by assault and threat with violence<sup>143</sup>, 5% by physical harassment<sup>144</sup> and 3.2% by robberies<sup>145</sup>. Assault, threats and robberies are included under the common denominator of violence below. Incidents of sexual harassment are analysed separately.

Analysing victimization by violence in age groups, it became evident that young adults, i.e. young people aged 18-26-years have a higher probability of being victimized by violence in comparison to minors<sup>146</sup>.

Young men (10.7%) have been more frequently victimized by crimes of violence than women (8%); higher risk of men to being victimized by violence was also confirmed by the regression analysis results.<sup>147</sup> Bigger percentage of men

among victims only characterizes the younger age group; however, women have been more frequently victimized among older people. Victim surveys of other countries have also pointed out the same tendency (Suomi ..., 2009, 24; Hashima & Finkelhor, 1999, pp. 806-807).

Among young people, 10.4% of Estonians and 6.6% of non-Estonians were victimized by crimes of violence in the past year; regression analysis also showed higher victimization rate of Estonians<sup>148</sup>.

Young people living in the countryside face higher probability of being victimized by crime than young people living in the city<sup>149</sup>. However, it should be noted here that similarly with thefts, young people living in the countryside are more frequently victimized outside their home locality. For example, while the majority (75.5%) of young people living in the city were victimized by assault and threat in their home locality but not near home, the majority

Young men are at the highest risk of being victimized by violence.

<sup>141</sup> 21 respondents aged 16-26 were victimized by pickpocketing.

<sup>142</sup> 63 respondents aged 16-26 were victimized by non-physical harassment.

<sup>143</sup> 60 respondents aged 16-26 were victimized by assault and/or threat with violence.

<sup>144</sup> In 2009, 39 young people were victimized by physical harassment.

<sup>145</sup> 29 respondents aged 16-26 were victimized by robbery.

<sup>146</sup> Age: 18-20 years old: 1.931; 21-23 years old: 2.227; 24-26 years old: 1.123 (reference: 16-17).

<sup>147</sup> Gender: women 0.751 (reference: men).

<sup>148</sup> Nationality: non-Estonians: 0.584 (reference: Estonians).

<sup>149</sup> B: Rural settlement: 1.277.

of young people living in the countryside (67.9%) were victimised elsewhere in Estonia. In case of robberies, the percentage of young people living in the city and in the countryside who were victimized elsewhere in Estonia was rather similar, but among young people living in the countryside there were more those who were victimized near home – 25.3% and 18.5% respectively. While young people living in the city were not victimized by violence abroad at all, nearly 8% (7.5%) of young people living in the countryside were victimized by assault and one fifth (17.5%) by robbery.

Compared to the Western district, the risk of being victimized by a crime of violence is higher in the Viru district but the smallest possibility to encounter crimes of violence is in the Southern and Northern district.<sup>150</sup> 7.2% of young people living Tallinn were victimized by crimes of violence.

As expected, young people who frequently go out in the evenings are more frequently victimized by crimes of violence. 13% of young people who go out every day and 8.1% of young people who go out less frequently were victimized by crimes of violence in the past year.<sup>151</sup>

### 11.2.1. Characterization of crimes of violence

The majority of young people had been victimized by one crime of violence in the past year. 24.5% of young people were victimized more than twice by an assault/threat, 16.1% by robberies.

On the average, a third of crimes of violence took place in a group, whereas the percentage of crimes committed in a group was higher in case of street violence. The victims of young perpetrators of violence are mostly their own peers and acquaintances (Salla, 2010b, pp. 9–10).

According to victim survey, with respect to young people's cases of violence the incidents committed by a group formed nearly one half, in case of assault and threat even more than a half (56.3%), in case of robberies slightly less than half (49.2%). Young people knew the attacker in 35.7% of cases and in 30% of incidents thought that the reason for what had happened was an earlier quarrel with the attacker: 27.1% in case of robbery and 26.2% in case of assault/threat.

Nearly half of violence incidents involving young people took place in group and every third young person knew the attacker.

Consequences of violence in case of young people were as follows: 59.9% of young people were injured as a result of attacks; damages to health were caused to nearly one fifth (18.9%). Property stolen from young people was not very valuable; their median value remained between 500-1,000 EEK.

### 11.2.2. Sexual harassment

The 2009 victim survey studied the people's encounters with both physical and non-physical sexual harassment. 9% of young people claimed that they had been victimized by sexual harassment; the majority of them were 18-26 years old.<sup>152</sup> Compared to older people, young people's encounters with sexual harassment are much frequent: 5.4% of 27-45-year-old people and 1.5% of 46-76-year-old people claimed that they had been victimized by sexual

<sup>150</sup> B: Viru district: 1.159; Northern district: 0.878; Southern district: 0.989 (reference: Western district). As a result of frequency distribution, the number of violence crime victims was the biggest in the Western district.

<sup>151</sup> B: every week but not every day: 0.696; several times a month but not every week: 0.505; less frequently: 0.513 (reference: every day).

<sup>152</sup> In 2009, 77 respondents ages 16-26 were victimized by verbal and/or physical sexual harassment.

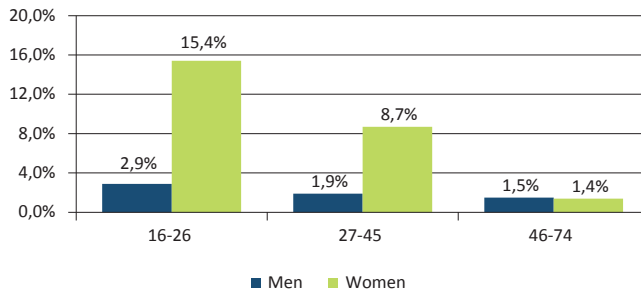
harassment. As questions dealing with harassment were added to the 2008 victim survey for the first time, it is not possible to assess changes in the victimization rate.

Experience related to sexual and gender harassment has been studied in the framework of gender equality monitoring which have also referred to a considerably wider prevalence of sexual harassment among young people. In 2008, young people aged 15–24 were most frequently exposed to sexual harassment by opposite sex both among women and men; nearly a quarter of Estonian people have experienced sexual harassment in some form (Ministry of Social Affairs, 2010, pp. 146–147).

Young women are most frequently victimized by sexual harassment

Women feel much more harassed in comparison with men. In 2008, 15.4% of young women and 2.9% of men regarded themselves as victims of sexual harassment – regression

analysis showed that young women have as much as 6.6 times higher risk of being victimized than men.<sup>153</sup>



**Figure 83.** Victimization by sexual harassment, by age groups and gender

There is a higher probability of being victimized by sexual harassment in case of non-Estonians<sup>154</sup>, young people living in the countryside<sup>155</sup>, and young people living in the Viru, Northern and Southern districts as opposed to the Western district<sup>156</sup>.

One should be very careful upon interpreting sexual harassment prevalence data. The perception of conduct relating to sex as dangerous is individual – what one person considers improper conduct and harassment, need not be so in another person's opinion. The perception of such conduct as dangerous or not is influenced by people's prejudices, values and attitudes, past experience and several other factors, including for example social and economic environment. Higher danger to young people may be affected by their lifestyle (they go out more, interact with peers, and actively look for contact with opposite sex). On the other hand, it should be taken into consideration that due to the immaturity of cognitive and emotional development, children and young people understand sexual behaviour differently than grown-ups (Soo & Kutsar, 2004; Rosental and Tilk, 1999).

### 11.3. Encounters with drugs

Young people's encounters with drugs were analysed on the basis of two questions: has he/she ever been offered drugs and does he/she have acquaintances using drugs. While conclusions

<sup>153</sup> Gender: woman: 6.585 (reference: man).

<sup>154</sup> Nationality: non-Estonian: 1.573 (reference: Estonian).

<sup>155</sup> Settlement type: rural: 2.180 (reference: urban settlement).

<sup>156</sup> District: Viru region: 2.180; Northern: 1.999; Southern: 1.047 (reference: Western).

about the availability and spread of drugs can be made based on the first question, the second question gives an overview about the extent of drug use among young people. It has been found in surveys that the connection between the offences of a respondent and his/her friends is very strong, and minors whose friends have used drugs often also use drugs themselves (Markina & Šahverdov-Žarkovski, 2007).

Earlier victim surveys (Saar et al., 2002; Saar et al., 2005) have shown that older people's encounters with drug addiction are much more infrequent and this is mostly a problem concerning the young generation. It also became evident from the 2009 survey that both offering drugs and drug use is more related to young people. Health behaviour surveys indicate that drug use has gradually grown and become a problem already among schoolchildren (Allaste, 2008, pp. 22–30; Aasvee et al., 2009, pp. 46–47).

Offering drugs is much more common among young people than in other age groups.

### 11.3.1. Offering drugs

In 2008, nearly one third (29.8%<sup>157</sup>) of young people aged 16–26 said that they have been offered drugs; the majority of 46–76-year-old (98%) and 27–45-year-old (88.8%) respondents did not have such encounters. Offering drugs in the young people's age group is more frequent among 18–20-year-olds, among whom more than one third (36%) have been offered drugs sometimes; 24–26-year-olds have had less frequent encounters: every fourth (25.1%) of them has been offered drugs.

Compared to previous victim survey, no abrupt changes occurred in 2009 regarding the percentage of young people who have been offered drugs; it has grown by 1.4%: in 2003 drugs had been offered to 28.4%. The percentage of people who have been offered drugs for free has increased<sup>158</sup>: drugs had been offered for free to 7.9% in 2003 and to 13.7% in 2008. This significant growth deserves special attention, because the pupils' drug use survey of 2007 showed that the majority of 16-year-old experimenters with drugs got the substance for free from their friends and there are increasingly more young people among pupils who think that they could obtain narcotic substances if they want to.

Frequent offers of drugs have made them rather easily available for young people.

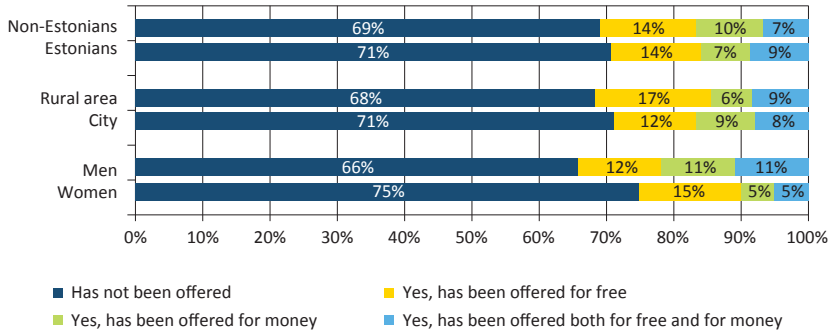
Drugs are more easily available for young people than for women. In 2008, drugs had been offered to nearly one third of young men (34.2%) and to nearly a quarter of women (25.2%). Similar tendencies were evident also in 2004: 33.5% of young men and 22.9% of women answered that they have been offered illegal drugs either for free or for pay.

Exposure to offering drugs is rather similar among young Estonians and non-Estonians: in 2009, 29.4% of Estonians and 30.9% of non-Estonians were offered drugs. In 2003, 22.9% of Estonians replied that drugs were offered to them; the percentage was much higher among non-Estonian youth – 40.3%. Thus, in five years the frequency of offering drugs has levelled off more among young people by nationality.

Estonian and Russian young people are exposed to drugs offers almost equally. The difference between ethnic groups has considerably decreased.

<sup>157</sup> 250 of 16–26 year old respondents said that drugs have been offered them sometimes.

<sup>158</sup> The question was: „Have you been ever offered any drugs? ... 1. No, 2. Yes, for free, 3. Yes, for money, 4. Yes, both for money and for free.



**Figure 84.** Offering drugs to young people, by gender, residence and nationality

In comparison of districts, drugs are offered more actively among the young people living in the Viru district (38.6%); young people living in the Southern district (2.9%) have been exposed to offering drugs the least. Although the small sample doesn't allow for a more thorough analysis, it has to be taken into consideration that the indicators may largely differ within one district. For example, in Tallinn the exposure to offering drugs is much smaller than in the Harjumaa county: drugs were offered to every fourth person in Tallinn and to every third in the Harjumaa county (except Tallinn) (34.4%). Similar tendency can also be observed in case of Tartu – 17.1% of young people were offered drugs, whereas the Southern district indicator without the young people of Tartu was 28.1%.

### 11.3.2. Drug use

According to the victim survey, half of young people aged 16-26 (50.5%)<sup>159</sup> admitted that they have acquaintances who have used or are using drugs. As many as nearly 60% (57.7%) of young people aged 18-20 admitted to drug use among their acquaintances. Compared to 2004, no big changes have occurred with this respect; nearly half (49.3%) of young people said that they have drug using acquaintances back then as well.

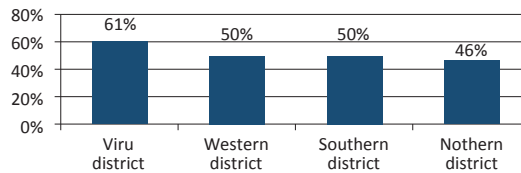
Young people knew more frequently several (35.9%) drug using acquaintances (14.6% knew one); based on this, it may be assumed that young people use more drugs in a company of others. At the same time, this was also characteristic of older users.

Young men admitted the existence of such acquaintances slightly more often (52%) than women (48.8%). Based on the school survey on drugs, it turned out that among schoolchildren aged 15-16 years, girls admitted the use of narcotic substances among their friends more than boys. It was explained with the circumstance that young girls may interact more with older people than boys (Allaste, 2009, p. 29).

There were no significant differences in the percentage of drug-using acquaintances in case of Estonians and non-Estonians. The school survey on drugs indicates that differences by nationalities may occur with respect to substances tried (Allaste, 2009, p. 40).

Young people living in the Viru district predominantly admitted drug use among their acquaintances (61.0%), and young people living in Narva did so even more – 63.1%. In the Southern and Western district half of young people had drug using acquaintances and less than half of young people living in the Northern district and 45.9% in Tallinn admitted it.

<sup>159</sup> 418 respondents aged 16–26 had drug-using acquaintances.



**Figure 85.** Drug use among people's acquaintances, by districts (percentage of youth who know drug users)

As expected, spending time out more frequently is related to the availability of drugs and drug use. The more frequently a young person spends time out, the bigger the probability that he/she will be offered drugs and that he/she has drug using acquaintances. Nearly half of young people spending time out every night had been offered drugs and nearly two thirds admitted drug use among their acquaintances; one fifth of young people spending time out less frequently than a couple of times a month had been offered drugs and 42% had drug using acquaintances.

#### 11.4. Security

40.3% of young people found that their neighbourhood security is good, whereas young adults considered their neighbourhood more secure than minors.

Young women feel less secure in comparison with men<sup>160</sup>: 42.9% of men and 37.4% of women thought their neighbourhood security was good. By nationality, more non-Estonians<sup>161</sup> thought their neighbourhood to be insecure: 45.3% of Estonians and 26.8% of non-Estonians thought that their neighbourhood security was good. In case of geographical breakdown it became evident that in comparison with the Western district, the young people of the Southern and Viru district thought their neighbourhood was less secure and the young people of the Northern district thought that it was more secure. Young people living in the countryside<sup>162</sup> gave positive assessments to their neighbourhood security: 53.5% of young people living in the countryside and 34.2% of young people living in the city considered their neighbourhood security to be good.

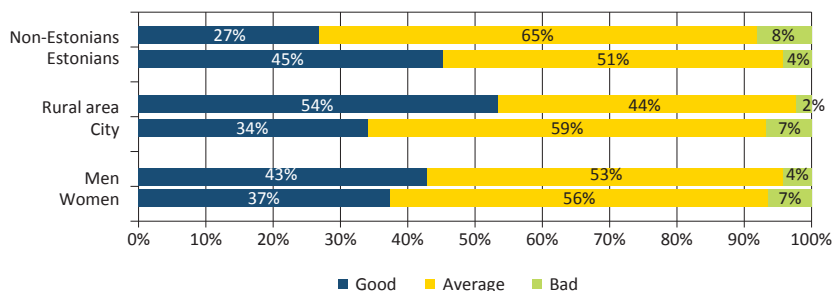
Somewhat stronger feeling of security and significantly smaller fear of crime is characteristic of young people in comparison with older people.

Half of young people living in the countryside and only one third of young people living in the city thought that their neighbourhood security was good.

<sup>160</sup> Gender: female: 0.143 (reference: male)

<sup>161</sup> Nationality: non-Estonian: 0.65 (reference: Estonian)

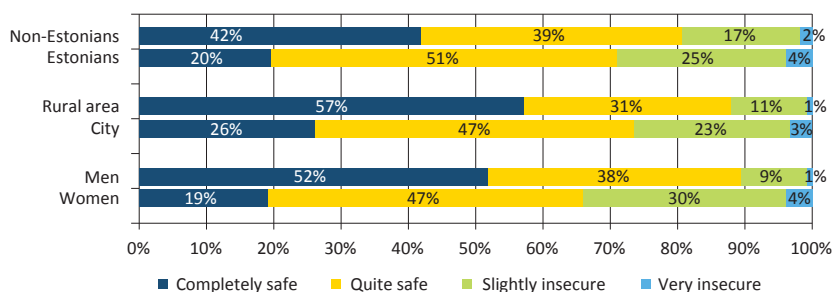
<sup>162</sup> Location: countryside: 2.443 (reference: city)



**Figure 86.** Young people’s assessments to their neighbourhood security

Young people spending time out more frequently think that their neighbourhood is more secure than young people spending time out seldom<sup>163</sup>. Young people who have not been victimized by crimes think the security is better: 45.2% of young people who had not been victimized by any crime thought their neighbourhood security was good; 31.1% of young people who had been victimized by at least one crime shared this opinion. The same tendency became evident in case of theft of personal property, violence and harassment: there were more people who thought that their neighbourhood security was good among those who had not been victimized.

The following differences became evident when analysing young people’s answers to the question: “How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?” While slightly more than half of young people (51.6%) feel completely safe, only about one fifth (19.1%) of women do so. Also, non-Estonians compared to Estonians and young people living in the city compared to young people living in the countryside feel less secure.



**Figure 87.** How safe does a young person feel walking alone in his/her neighbourhood after dark

The frequency of spending leisure time does not significantly affect the fear of crime. 40% of young people spending time out every day dared to walk in the dark quite safely; 38.8% of young people going for a few times a month did so.

It does not directly affect the fear of crime whether a young person has been victimized by some crime or not. 76.7% of young people who had been victimized by at least one crime and 78.7% of young people who had not been victimized by any crime dared to walk completely

<sup>163</sup> Frequency of going out: less frequently: 0.288; several times a month but not every week: 0.560; every week but not every day: 0.964 (reference: every day).



safely after dark. However, certain differences became evident by crimes. 37.8% of young people who had not been victimized by sexual harassment felt completely safe walking after dark, but only 13.3% of harassment victims did. Still, it should be taken into consideration here that young women were most frequently victimized by harassment and their fear of crime is generally higher as well. The results in case of victimization by crimes of violence were somewhat conflicting, i.e. victims felt safer: 41.5% of victims and 35% of others felt completely safe. Here, too, one explanation may be that young men are more often victimized by violence and their overall feeling of security is generally stronger. Victimization by a theft of personal property does not substantially influence the fear of crime: 34.6% of victims and 35.7% of other people felt completely safe.

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## ANNEX 1. Number of respondents, by age, gender and nationality

Age during interview	Total	Men	Women	Estonians	Non-Estonians
15	1	1	0	0	1
16	78	41	37	70	8
17	74	39	35	58	16
18	79	34	45	55	24
19	98	56	42	79	19
20	89	39	50	65	24
21	84	37	47	54	30
22	62	33	29	45	17
23	69	32	37	51	18
24	69	36	33	49	20
25	56	28	28	41	15
26	67	33	34	44	23
27	64	31	33	50	14
28	48	22	26	31	17
29	76	42	34	51	25
30	65	28	37	52	13
31	57	25	32	40	17
32	62	28	34	43	19
33	72	28	44	56	16
34	78	41	37	57	21
35	79	44	35	62	17
36	75	32	43	53	22
37	79	40	39	57	22
38	65	34	31	51	14
39	62	35	27	46	16
40	61	23	38	51	10
41	60	29	31	44	16
42	71	35	36	49	22
43	67	32	35	46	21
44	63	29	34	45	18
45	74	36	38	53	21
46	85	39	46	59	26
47	63	24	39	50	13
48	74	37	37	45	29
49	76	43	33	45	31
50	81	34	47	59	22
51	88	36	52	60	28

Age during interview	Total	Men	Women	Estonians	Non-Estonians
52	84	44	40	47	37
53	85	46	39	51	34
54	81	48	33	55	26
55	78	32	46	50	28
56	79	43	36	50	29
57	81	36	45	54	27
58	59	25	34	42	17
59	89	44	45	56	33
60	76	37	39	57	19
61	68	36	32	44	24
62	61	37	24	45	16
63	50	16	34	35	15
64	55	20	35	46	9
65	46	34	12	39	7
66	75	25	50	65	10
67	72	30	42	55	17
68	71	38	33	47	24
69	54	26	28	33	21
70	74	35	39	46	28
71	69	32	37	47	22
72	54	24	30	34	20
73	61	28	33	44	17
74	42	21	21	30	12
75	41	20	21	29	12
76	5	3	2	4	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>4181</b>	<b>2016</b>	<b>2165</b>	<b>2971</b>	<b>1210</b>

## ANNEX 2. Size of population and sample, by district, gender and age group, and inclusion probability

Stratum No.	District	Gender	Age group	Population	Sample	Inclusion probability
1	Harjumaa county	Men	15–34	77289	592	0,00766
2			35–54	67801	486	0,00717
3			55–74	43990	291	0,00662
4		Women	15–34	75646	554	0,00732
5			35–54	75595	534	0,00706
6			55–74	65223	440	0,00675
7	Ida-Virumaa county, Tartumaa county, Pärnumaa county	Men	15–34	60165	435	0,00723
8			35–54	52779	391	0,00741
9			55–74	34243	240	0,00701
10		Women	15–34	58887	430	0,00730
11			35–54	58846	395	0,00671
12			55–74	50772	340	0,00670
13	Remaining counties	Men	15–34	59911	424	0,00708
14			35–54	52556	384	0,00731
15			55–74	34099	244	0,00716
16		Women	15–34	58638	359	0,00612
17			35–54	58598	388	0,00662
18				50558	340	0,00672

### ANNEX 3.

## International comparability of survey data: types of crime and summary indicators regarding which it is possible to compare Estonian data with international indicators<sup>164</sup>

	Percentage of people victimized by crime (10 types of crime) <sup>165</sup>	Number of incidents per 100 people (9 types of crime) <sup>166</sup>	Percentage of people who have reported crimes to the police (5 types of crime)	Satisfaction of people who have reported crimes to the police upon solving the incidents (5 types of crime)
Car theft	X	X		
Theft from car	X	X	X	X
Motor cycle, motor scooter or moped	X	X		
Bicycle theft	X	X	X	
Theft from home	X	X	X	X
Attempted theft from home	X		X	
Theft of personal property	X	X	X	
Robbery	X	X		X
Assault or threat	X	X		X
Sexual crimes and incidents	X	X		X

<sup>164</sup> Based on the publication analysing the European Union 2004–2005 victim survey results (Dijk et al., 2007). Questions about car vandalism were left out from this survey and therefore summary indicators do not cover this type of crime.

<sup>165</sup> All types of crime are represented in all five international surveys during 1989–2005.

<sup>166</sup> Same comment.



## ANNEX 4.

### Types of crime used in the survey and distribution, by summary indicators

	Overall victimization rate	Crimes against property	Vehicle related crimes	Burglaries of thefts	Crimes of violence <sup>167</sup>	Unclassified
<b>Crimes against the entire household</b>						
Car theft	X	X	X			
Theft from car	X	X	X			
Car vandalism	X	X	X			
Motor cycle, motor scooter or moped	X	X	X			
Bicycle theft	X	X	X			
Theft from home	X	X		X		
Attempted theft from home	X	X				
Theft from summer cottage, country home or allotment	X	X		X		
Theft from garage, hovel or shed	X	X		X		
<b>Events which have happened to the respondent personally (does not include events which have happened to other members of household)</b>						
Theft of personal property	X	X				
Robbery	X	X			X	
Assault or threat	X				X	
Sexual harassment	X				X	
Consumer fraud						X
Asking for bribe						X
Offering drugs						X

<sup>167</sup> The materials published by the Estonian Statistical Office have also considered sexual harassment under crimes of violence and offences against a person, but this report considers them separately, as we wanted to preserve the comparability with earlier surveys.

## Earlier published in the series of criminal policy surveys:

	Title	Authors	Year
1	The International Crime Victim Survey in Estonia 2004	Jüri Saar, Anna Markina, Kait Oole, Aigi Rešetnikova	2005
2	Corruption in Estonia: Study of Three Target Groups 2004	Mari-Liis Liiv	2005
3	Socio-economic and Demographic Factors Affecting Crime	Toomas Raus, Liis Timmusk	2005
4	Crime in Estonia 2006	Mari-Liis Liiv (Editor), team of authors	2007
5	Deviant Behaviour of Estonian Minors	Anna Markina, Beata Šahverdov-Žarkovski	2007
6	Corruption in Estonia: Study of Three Target Groups 2006	Mari-Liis Liiv, Kadri Aas	2007
7	Overview of Crime Prevention Planning	Jim Hilborn	2007
8	Crime in Estonia 2007	Mari-Liis Sööt (Editor), team of authors	2008
9	Study of Encounters of Enterprises with Crime	Andri Ahven, Andu Rämmer, Kadri Rootalu, Rein Murakas	2008
10	Crime in Estonia 2008	Andri Ahven, Jarno Jakobson, Urvo Klopets, Anne Kruusement, Eyke Laur, Astrid Laurendt-Haniõja, Külli Luha, Heli Rennik, Jako Salla, Mari-Liis Sööt, Kaire Tamm, Brit Tammiste	2009
11	Recidivism in Estonia	Andri Ahven, Jako Salla, Siim Vahtrus	2010
12	Crime in Estonia 2009	Andri Ahven, Jarno Jakobson, Urvo Klopets, Anne Kruusement, Anu Leps, Heli Rennik, Jako Salla, Laidi Surva, Mari-Liis Sööt, Kaire Tamm	2010
13	Corruption in Estonia: Study of Three Target Groups 2010	Mari-Liis Sööt, Kärt Vajakas	2010

Victim survey homepage: [www.just.ee/victim](http://www.just.ee/victim)