THE 2012-13 JAMAICAN NATIONAL CRIME VICTIMIZATION SURVEY FINAL REPORT

Dr. Scot Wortley, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Centre of Criminology and Socio-Legal Studies,
University of Toronto

Dr. Randy Seepersad, Ph.D. Criminology Department, University of the West Indies

Sampling, Data Collection and Data Preparation Conducted by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN)

Report prepared for the Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica¹

¹ The first author can be reached at the Centre of Criminology, University of Toronto, 14 Queen's Park Crescent, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, M5S 3H1. Phone: 416-978-7124 (ext. 228). Email: scot.wortley@utoronto.ca

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER TITLE	PAGE
Highlights of the 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey	3
Executive Summary	10
Part One: Introduction.	32
Part Two: Methodology.	47
Part Three: Perceptions of Community Crime and Disorder	59
Part Four: Criminal Victimization in Jamaica	84
Part Five: Details of Recent Victimization Experiences	137
Part Six: Indirect Exposure to Crime.	176
Part Seven: Fear of Crime.	201
Part Eight: Crime Causation and Crime Prevention	221
Part Nine: Public Perceptions Of The Police, Criminal Courts and Corrections.	244
Part Ten: Public Perceptions and Experiences with Police Corruption, Police Brutality and the Police Complaints System	283
Part Eleven: Public Perceptions of the Citizen Security and Justice Program	300
Part Twelve: Self-Reported Substance Use and Criminal Activity	327
Part Thirteen: Conclusion.	348
References	360

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE 2012-13 JNCVS

- Data collection for the latest version of the *Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey* (JNCVS) was conducted by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) between October 2012 and April 2013.
- Previous versions of the JNCVS were conducted in 2006 and 2009.
- The final sample for the 2012-13 survey (3,556 respondents) is comparable to that of the 2009 survey (3,056 respondents) and 2006 survey (3,122 respondents). This allows for reliable comparisons of the data across surveys.
- For the most part, the demographic characteristics of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 surveys are remarkably similar. Once again, this increases confidence in the quality of the data and allows for comparability over time.
- A comparison of results from the 2006, 2009 and 2012 surveys reveals several positive trends. To begin with, self-reported victimization and criminal behaviour declined significantly between 2006 and 2012, as did reports of community-level crime problems and the frequency of witnessing violent incidents. Compared to previous surveys, respondents to the 2012-13 survey were also less likely to report the victimization of family members and friends. These findings are highly consistent with official crime statistics which also suggest that Jamaica experienced a decline in criminal behaviour over the past six years.
- The results also suggest that confidence in the Jamaican police increased significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. Although not as dramatic, similar improvements were recorded with respect to public perceptions of the criminal courts and corrections.

Self-Reported Criminal Victimization

- Victimization data collected by the JNCVS suggests that criminal victimization decreased in Jamaica between 2009 and 2012-13. This decline was observed for both violent and property crime.
- In 2006, 23.7% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a crime in the past year. This figure rose to 30.2% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 24.2% of respondents reported being a crime victim over the past twelve months. This represents a decline of 19.8% in the prevalence of criminal victimization between 2009 and 2012.
- In 2006, 8.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a violent crime in the past year. This figure rose to 10.0% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 7.3% of respondents reported being the victim of a violent crime over the past twelve months. This represents a 27.0% decline in the prevalence of violent victimization between 2009 and 2012-13.

- In 2006, 17.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a property crime in the past year. This figure rose to 23.6% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 19.2% of respondents reported being the victim of a property crime over the past twelve months. This represents an 18.6% decline in the prevalence of property victimization between 2009 and 2012-13.
- Overall, these JNCVS results are consistent with official police statistics which also show that violent crime including murders and shootings -- has declined in Jamaica since 2009.
- The JNCVS results also show that the rate of lifetime criminal victimization decreased from 61.4% in 2006, to 59.6% in 2009, and to 53.9% in 2012-13. This represents a 12.2% decrease in the prevalence of lifetime criminal victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The rate of lifetime violent victimization decreased from 31.7% in 2006, to 29.2% in 2009 to 25.6% in 2012-13. This represents a 19.2% decrease in the prevalence of lifetime violent victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The rate of lifetime property victimization decreased from 50.8% in 2006, to 49.4% in 2009 to 45.6% in 2012-13. This represents a 10.2% decline in the prevalence of lifetime property victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.

Self-Reported Criminal Behaviour

- Consistent with the observed decline in self-reported victimization, a comparison of the results from earlier versions of the JNCVS indicates that self-reported criminal behaviour also declined in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- This overall decline is observed for the majority of crimes including engaging in physical fights, assault without a weapon, assault with a weapon, carrying a gun in public, theft from other persons, robbery or extortion, using a gun on someone, and shoplifting.
- For example, in 2006, 7.2% of respondents indicated that they had been in a physical fight within the last year, compared to only 3.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, 1.9% of persons admitted that they had carried a gun in public within the last year, compared to only 0.7% in 2012-13.

Community Crime and Disorder

• The results suggest that community-level crime and disorder problems declined significantly in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.

- Compared to respondents from previous versions of the JNCVS, respondents to the 2012-2013 survey were less likely to report local problems with drug use, drug dealing, robbery, prostitution and several other measures of crime and disorder.
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents who report hearing gunshots in their local community also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-2013. For example, in 2006, 26% of respondents reported that they heard gunshots in their community once per month or more. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012 (a 58 percent decline over this six year period).
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents reporting community flight due to crime also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-2013.
- The results suggest that the local presence of both criminal gangs and corner crews declined significantly within Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 23% of respondents indicated that there was a criminal gang in their community. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012-13 (a 52 percent decline over this six year period).
- Only 4.5% of respondent report the presence of an Area Don within their local community. This figure has remained constant between 2006 and 2012-13.

Indirect Exposure to Crime

- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that both lifetime and recent exposure to violent crime in Jamaica declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 8.4% of respondents claimed that they had witnessed a murder at sometime in their life and 2.1% had witnessed a murder in the year before the survey. However, these figures drop to 7.3% and 1.1% respectively in 2012-13.
- Similarly, in 2006, 17.3% of respondents indicated that they had witnessed a robbery at some point in their life and 5.8% indicated that they had witnessed a robbery in the past year. These figures drop to only 10.1% and 2.7% respectively in 2012-13. Similar declines were also observed with respect to the witnessing of gun battles and serious assaults.
- Only a small minority of witnesses (less than 20%) talked to the police about the violent incidents they observed. However, the police reporting rate increased slightly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- One third of 2012-13 JNCVS respondents claim that a family member or friend has been murdered in Jamaica. This figure is down slightly from 36.3% in 2006. Similarly, in 2006, 8.6% of respondents claimed that they had a family member or friend who was murdered in the past year. This figure drops to only 5.8% in 2012-13. This finding is

consistent with other results that suggest that Jamaica experienced a decline in violent crime between 2006 and 2012-13.

Public Perceptions of Crime in Jamaica

- Although both survey data and official crime statistics suggest that crime in Jamaica declined between 2006 and 2012-13, most Jamaicans still believe that crime is increasing.
- Indeed, seven out of ten respondents (70%) to the 2012-13 JNCVS report that they think crime increased in Jamaica over the past five years. By contrast, only 13% feel that crime decreased over this time period.
- However, perceptions change dramatically when respondents are asked about their own community. For example, while 70% of respondents feel that crime in Jamaica increased over the past five years, only 14% feel that crime increased in their own community. In fact, 29% of respondents feel that crime decreased in their own community over the past five years and 52% feel that local crime levels remained about the same.
- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS also reveal that most Jamaicans (75%) believe that their community has less crime than other areas of the country.
- Overall, these results suggest that changes to crime rates in Jamaica are most likely to be experienced and perceived at the community level. In other words, respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS seem to have a more accurate perception about crime within their own communities than about crime in other regions of the country.

Public Perceptions of the Police

- The results suggest that most Jamaicans feel that the police are doing a either a "good job" or "an average job" performing their various duties. For example, three out of every four JNCVS respondents believes that the police are doing either a good job or an average job patrolling their neighbourhood (79.3%), ensuring community safety (78.5%), enforcing the law (76.3%) and being approachable or easy to talk to (76.8%).
- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that public opinion with respect to the performance of the Jamaican police improved quite dramatically between 2006 and 2012-13. Indeed, regardless of the law enforcement task identified by the survey, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "good job" increased over this three year period. By contrast, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "poor job" performing specific duties declined.
- For example, in 2009, only 26.6% of respondents felt that the police were doing a good job enforcing the law. This figure rises to 33.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, only

- 31.8% of the respondents felt that the police were doing a good job patrolling the streets, compared to 42.6% in 2012-13.
- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that many Jamaicans believe that the police treat some people better than others. For example, three out of every four respondents (75.5%) believe that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, two-thirds (68.7%) believe that the police treat younger people worse than older people and two-thirds (64.9%) believe that the police treat men worse than women.
- For the first time, the 2012-13 survey asked respondents about the perceived police treatment of Jamaica's homosexual population. Interestingly, relatively few respondents (22.1%) believe that homosexuals are treated worse by the police than heterosexuals. In fact, an almost equal proportion of the respondents (19.5%) believe that homosexuals are actually treated better by the police than heterosexuals. It should be noted, however, that a high proportion of respondents (29%) claim that they "don't know" how the police treat members of Jamaica's LGBT community.
- The data suggest that perceptions of police bias increased from 2006 to 2009, but dropped slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 22.3% of JNCVS respondents felt that poor people were treated "much worse" than wealthy people. This figure rises to 30.7% in 2009 -- before dropping back to 28.0% in 2012-13. In all cases, the 2012-13 rate of perceived police bias is higher than the 2006 rate, but slightly lower than the rate documented by the 2009 survey.

Public Perceptions of Police Corruption and Brutality

- A comparison with the results of the previous Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys reveals that public concerns about police corruption have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 71.2% of survey respondents felt that police corruption was a big or very big problem in Jamaica. By 2012-13 this figure had declined to only 57.3%.
- The results, nonetheless, indicate that the residents of Jamaica feel that police corruption is a much bigger problem than either police brutality or police harassment. However, while perceptions of police corruption have declined over the past six years, perceptions of police brutality increased slightly.
- In 2006, only 11.4% of respondents thought that police brutality was a big problem in Jamaica. This figure rose slightly to 14.2% in 2012-13.
- Although more than half of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS believe that police corruption is a big problem in Jamaica, only 2% claim that they have ever been the victim of police corruption and only 4% claim that they have ever been the victim of police

brutality. Only 1% of respondents report that they were the victim of police corruption or brutality in the past year.

- The results also suggest that the vast majority of respondents (over 85%) have never witnessed a case of police corruption or brutality.
- Furthermore, the proportion of respondents who report that they experienced or witnessed police corruption or brutality declined between the 2009 and 2012-13.

Public Perceptions of the Criminal Courts

- The results suggest that very few respondents think that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job. For example, only 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job helping crime victims, 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly and only 17.0% think the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials.
- While very few respondents feel that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job, a significant proportion rate the court's performance as average. However, an equally high proportion of respondents feel that the criminal courts are doing a poor job. In general, it appears that respondents are significantly less enthusiastic about the performance of the criminal courts than the performance of the police.
- In general, public perceptions of court effectiveness increased slightly between 2006 and 2009 but decreased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 45.2% of JNCVS respondents felt that the courts were doing a poor job providing justice quickly. This figure dropped to 39.8% in 2009 but rose back up to 43.1% in 2012-13. Overall, 2012-13 evaluations of court performance are better than they were in 2006 but worse than they were in 2009.
- Public support for the death penalty in Jamaica appears to have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. In 2006, for example, 80% of respondents supported the death penalty. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 68% -- a decline of twelve percentage points over this six year period.
- The perception that the sentences handed out by the Jamaican criminal courts are too lenient also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 56% of the JNCVS survey respondents felt that criminal sentences in Jamaica were too lenient. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 45%.

Public Perceptions of Corrections

• The data suggest that relatively few Jamaicans feel that the corrections system is doing "a good job" performing various duties. For example, only 13.5% feel that the corrections

- system is doing a good job punishing or deterring criminals and only 12.8% feel the system is doing a good job rehabilitating offenders.
- Nonetheless, as with policing and the criminal courts, the data also reveal that the reputation of the Jamaican corrections system has improved somewhat since 2006. Indeed, compared to 2006 JNCVS respondents, 2012-13 respondents are much less likely to report that the correctional system is doing a poor job. For example, in 2006, 49.0% of respondents felt that the corrections system was doing a poor job deterring criminals. By 2012-13 this figure had dropped to only 36.4%.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

PART ONE: INTRODUCTION

- The Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) has been developed and funded by the Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.
- The JNCVS is designed to contribute to the detailed and accurate analysis of major crime trends in Jamaica.
- The JNCVS questionnaire was developed by Dr. Scot Wortley (Centre of Criminology and Socio-legal Studies, University of Toronto), Dr. Randy Seepersad (Criminology Department, University of the West Indies) and officials from both the Ministry of National Security and STATIN.
- Although unique to Jamaica, the JNCVS is similar to crime victimization surveys conducted in other areas of the world. This design feature allows for cross-national comparisons.
- Sampling, survey administration, data entry and data cleaning have been conducted by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN).
- The *I*st Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey was conducted in 2006 and the 2nd in 2009. The current JNCVS is the 3rd in the series, with data collected from October 2012 to April 2013.
- The purpose of this report is to: 1) Provide a basic description of the 2012-13 JNCVS; 2) Compare the final sample for the 2012-13 JNCVS with that of the 2006 and 2009 JCNVS; 3) Examine basic patterns of criminal victimization; 4) Examine the issue of indirect exposure to crime (i.e., witnessing crime); 5) Examine the criminal victimization of family and friends; 6) Investigate public fear of crime; and 7) Explore public attitudes towards the Jamaican police and criminal justice system.
- When possible, comparisons with the results of the 2006 and 2009 surveys are provided.

PART TWO: METHODOLOGY

- The Statistical Institute of Jamaica conducted the 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey, on behalf of the Ministry of National Security.
- The sample design for the JNCVS was a multi-stage probability sampling design, with the first stage involving a selection of geographical areas called Enumeration Districts (EDs). Included among the sample of EDs, was a sub-sample of twenty-five "Crime Hot Spots," which were geographic areas/communities with relatively high reported incidents

of criminal activities. In total, the master sample consisted of 852 EDs. Of these, 263 or 30.9% were randomly selected.

- All the EDs were then stratified by parish and into urban and rural domains. The stratification placed each Primary Sampling Unit (PSU) into either an urban or a rural classification. Subsequent to this, dwellings within each PSU were selected.
- The final sample consisted of 2,430 dwellings in urban areas and 2,304 dwellings in rural areas. A responsible member, 16 years of age or over, from each household was asked to complete the survey. When there was more than one eligible respondent in the household, the household member with the next birthday was selected to be interviewed. The birthday selection method ensures that, within each household, respondents were randomly selected.
- The final sample drawn for the 2012-13 JNCVS consisted of 3,556 respondents. These respondents were drawn from a total of 3,610 households. This translates to a household response rate of 76.3% (i.e. 3,610 households responded out of the 4,734 dwellings which were selected). Randomly selected households were excluded from the study for many reasons, for example, if persons were not at home or if there were no respondents who met the age requirement of the study. The individual response rate was 98.5% (i.e. 3,556 individuals completed the interview of 3,610 individuals who were selected). This response rate is quite high by international survey research standards and increases confidence in the quality of the data.
- The final sample for the 2012-13 survey (3,556 respondents) is comparable to that of the 2009 survey (3,056 respondents) and 2006 survey (3,122 respondents). This allows for reliable comparisons of the data across surveys. The 2012-13 survey represents a 16.4% increase in sample size over the 2009 survey and a 13.9% increase over the 2006 survey.
- For the most part, the demographic characteristics of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 surveys are remarkably similar. Once again, this increases confidence in the quality of the data and allows for comparability. There are, however, a few small differences that should be noted.
- The average age of the 2012-13 sample is 44.1 years old, compared to an average age of 44.3 years in 2009 and 43 years in 2006.
- With respect to gender, the 2012-13 sample had more females (54.3%) than males (45.7%). This was similar to the gender distribution of the 2006 survey (52.3% females and 47.7% males). Only in 2009 was there an approximately equal number of females and males (50.6% females and 49.4% males).
- With respect to educational background, there is similarity across the three samples for most educational levels, though there are a few notable exceptions. The percentage of persons who completed primary school increased across the three samples, from 14.2% in 2006, to 16% in 2009, and 17% in 2012-13. In contrast, the percentage of persons who

- completed secondary school decreased across the three time periods, with 38.2% completing in 2006, 36.5% in 2009, and 32.3% in 2012-13.
- The average monthly income for persons in the 2012-13 survey was \$41,255. On average, the sample for the 2012-13 round of the survey appears slightly more affluent than the samples in previous years.
- The characteristics of the 2012-13 JNCVS sample were also compared to 2011 Census estimates for Jamaica (STATIN 2012). The JNCVS sample represents a reasonably accurate reflection of the Jamaican population. The results suggest, however, that the JNCVS sample is slightly older than the average adult Jamaican (16 years of age or older) and slightly more educated than members of the general population.

PART THREE: PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNITY CRIME AND DISORDER

- Respondents were asked how often thirteen different crime and disorder problems occurred in their community. These problems ranged from garbage in the street and public drunkenness to drug use, drug trafficking, robbery, rape and prostitution.
- Respondents identified drug use, drug dealing, garbage in the streets, robbery and public drunkenness as the most common crime and disorder issues affecting their communities.
 At least a third of all respondents report that these types of issues exist "at least sometimes" in their community. Other types of crime and disorder including sewage problems, vigilante justice, sexual assault, prostitution and vandalism are far less prevalent.
- Overall, the data suggest that the prevalence of specific community-level crime and disorder problems either decreased significantly or remained stable between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, only 25% of respondents indicated that drug use was "never" a problem in their community. By 2012-13 this figure had risen to 35%.
- In order to identify Parish-level differences in community crime and disorder problems, responses to the community crime and disorder questions were combined to create the *Perceived Community Crime and Disorder Index*. This index combines the responses to all thirteen community disorder questions into a single scale ranging from 0 to 65. The higher the score on this index, the higher the overall level of perceived community disorder.
- Respondents from the Parish of Kingston produced by far the highest scores on the *Perceived Community Disorder Index* (mean=17.02). The second highest score was produced by the residents of St. Andrew (mean=11.49), followed closely by St. James (10.29), Clarendon (10.16) and St. Mary (10.02). By contrast, respondents from St. Thomas (mean=3.82), Manchester (mean=3.98), Portland (mean=5.56) and Trelawny (mean=6.63) produced the lowest scores on this combined measure of community disorder.

- In 2012-13, one out of every ten respondents (11%) reported that they hear gunshots in their community at least once per month. This figure is down significantly from 2006 when one out of every four respondents (26%) claimed that they heard gunshots in their community once per month or more often.
- Hearing gunshots is much more common in some Parishes (especially Kingston and St. James) than in others.
- One out of ten respondents (12%) reports that people have moved away from their community in the past year because of crime and violence. This is down from 18% in 2006. Moving to escape crime and violence is much more prevalent in some Parishes especially Kingston, St. Andrew and St. James than other areas of the country.
- According to the 2012-13 JNCVS, very few Jamaicans (5%) feel that outsiders would be unsafe visiting their community. However, this figure rises to 23% among Kingston residents.

Gangs, Corner Crews and Area Dons

- A third of respondents (32.9%) believe that there is at least one corner crew operating in their community.
- One out of every ten respondents (11.9%) believes that criminal gangs are present in their neighborhood.
- One out of every twenty respondents (4.5%) claims that their community has an Area Don.
- According to the survey results, the prevalence of corner crews and criminal gangs may have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 39.1% of respondents claimed there were corner crews in their neighbourhood, compared to 32.9% in 2012-13. Likewise, in 2006, 22.9% of respondents stated that criminal gangs existed in their community, compared to only 11.4% in 2012-13. The presence of Area Dons, however, remained unchanged (4.3% in 2006 and 4.5% in 2012-13).
- Corner crews, criminal gangs and Area dons are more prevalent in Kingston, St. Andrew and St. James Parishes than other areas of Jamaica.
- Respondents who reported that corner crews, gangs or Area Dons existed in their community were asked if these people did positive or negative things for their local area. Four out of ten respondents (43%) felt that Area Dons did positive things for their community. This figure is down significantly from 58% in 2006. A third of respondents (31.2%) also felt that corner crews did positive things in their community. By contrast, only 9.6% of respondents felt that criminal gangs did positive things for their community.

- According to the respondents, the positive contributions of Area Dons include employment opportunities, assistance with health care needs, food and financial assistance for disadvantaged community members, educational and recreational opportunities for community youth and increased community safety. The identified benefits of corner crews include community beautification and cleanliness, public safety and assistance to the elderly.
- Only 18.9% of respondents felt that Area Dons had a negative impact on their community. By contrast, 78% felt that criminal gangs had a negative impact. More than a third of respondents (39.8%) also felt that corner crews had a negative impact on their community.
- According to the respondents, the negative impacts of criminal gangs include increased violence and gun-related crime as well as drug trafficking, property crime and prostitution. Gangs also increase fear of crime and reduce community solidarity. By contrast, the consequences of corner crews include minor criminality, harassment, increased noise and public intoxication.

PART FOUR: CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION IN JAMAICA

Trends in Criminal Victimization

- Overall, victimization data for the period 2006 to 2013-13 indicate that crime has decreased in Jamaica, with lifetime crime victimization showing a consistent decline over the six-year period, and with past year victimization showing a decline from 2009 to 2012-13.
- Where lifetime victimization rates are concerned, there was a consistent decrease over the period 2006 to 2012-13. More specifically, total lifetime victimization decreased from 61.4% in 2006, to 59.6% in 2009, and to 53.9% in 2012-13. From 2006 to 2012-13, this represents a decrease in lifetime total crime victimization by 12.2%.
- This decrease in total lifetime victimization was mirrored in total lifetime violent crime victimization and total lifetime property crime victimization. Where violent crimes are concerned, in 2006, 31.7% of the sample or one in three persons reported that they had been a victim of such crimes in their lifetime, compared to 29.2% in 2009 and 25.6% in 2012-13. From 2006 to 2012-13, this represents a decrease in lifetime violent crime victimization by 19.2%.
- Similarly, when we examine property crime victimization, in 2006, one in two persons (50.8% of the sample) reported that they were victims of such crimes in their lifetime, compared to 49.4% in 2009 and 45.6% in 2012-13. From 2006 to 2012-13, this represents a decrease in lifetime property crime victimization by 10.2%.

- Trends in past year victimization rates differ from that of lifetime victimization. For total past year victimization, as well as total past year violent and property crime victimization, there was an increase in rates from 2006 to 2009, and then a decrease in 2012-13.
- Where total past year victimization is concerned, in 2006 one in four persons or 23.7% of the sample reported that they were victimized. This rose to 30.2% in 2009, but decreased to 24.2% in 2012-13.
- When only violent crimes within the past year are considered, in 2006 one in twelve persons or 8.6% of the sample reported that they were victimized within the last year. This rose to 10% in 2009, but declined to the lowest level of the period (7.3% or one in fourteen persons) in 2012-13.
- When only property crimes within the past year are considered, in 2006 one in six persons or 17.6% of the sample reported that they were victims within the past year. In 2009 this rose to 23.6% and then declined to 19.2% in 2012-13.

Specifics of victimization incidents for the 2012-13 JNCVS

- The results of the 2012-13 victimization survey indicate that somewhat more than half (53.9%) of Jamaicans have been the victim of crime within their lifetime, with one in five persons (18%) being victimized once, one in ten persons (9.9%) being victimized twice, and one in four persons (26%) being victimized three or more times in their lifetime.
- When only violent crime is considered, one in four persons in Jamaica (25.6%) have been so victimized within their lifetime, with one in seven persons (13.8%) experiencing one incident of such victimization in their lifetime, one in twenty three persons (4.3%) experiencing two such incidents in their lifetime, and one in thirteen persons (7.5%) experiencing three or more such incidents in their lifetime.
- When only property crime is considered, approximately one in two persons in Jamaica (45.6%) have been so victimized within their lifetime, with one in five persons (18.3%) experiencing one incident of property crime victimization in their lifetime, one in eleven persons (9.3%) experiencing two such incidents in their lifetime, and one in six persons (18%) experiencing three or more such incidents in their lifetime.
- Overall, when lifetime crime victimization is considered, persons in Jamaica are almost twice as likely to become a victim of property crime (45.6% were so victimized) compared to becoming a victim of violent crime (25.6% were so victimized).
- The most prevalent forms of victimization which occurred within respondents' lifetime were praedial larceny (17.7% of the sample), general larceny/theft (13.5%), burglary (8.3%), threats without the use of a weapon (7.5%) and robbery at gunpoint (7.3%). The most infrequent forms of lifetime victimization were kidnapping (0.4%), extortion (0.8%), attempted break-ins (1.4%) and arson (1.6%).

- In general, males were more likely to have higher levels of lifetime crime victimization than females. More specifically, 57.8% of males sampled were victims of crime within their lifetime compared to 50.6% of females. When only violent crimes are considered, 29.4% of males were victims within their lifetime, compared to 22.6% of females. When only property crimes are considered, 48.9% of males were victims within their lifetime, compared to 42.4% of females.
- When victimizations within the past year alone are considered, one in four Jamaicans (24.2%) were victims. Within the past year, one in eight Jamaicans (13.0%) were victimized once, while 3.7% were victimized twice, and 7.4% were victimized three or more times.
- When only violent crimes within the past year are considered, one in fourteen Jamaicans (7.3%) were victims, with 5.1% being victimized once, 0.8% twice, and 1.4% three or more times.
- When only property crimes within the past year are considered, one in five Jamaicans (19.2%) were victims, with 10.1% being victimized once, 3.1% twice, and 5.8% three or more times.
- The most prevalent forms of crime victimization, when only incidents within the past year are considered were praedial larceny (9.9% of the sample), general larceny/theft (3.3%), threats without a weapon (2.6%), and assault with a weapon (2.1%). The least prevalent forms of victimization within the last year were kidnappings (0%), sexual assault (0.2%), arson (0.2%), extortion (0.2%), and car theft (0.3%).
- In general, males were more likely to have higher levels of past year crime victimization than females. More specifically, 27.8% of males sampled were victims of crime within the past year compared to 21.2% of females. When only violent crimes are considered, 8.7% of males were victims within the past year, compared to 6.1% of females. When only property crimes are considered, 22.2% of males were victims within the past year, compared to 16.7% of females.
- Where violent crimes are concerned, almost without exception, there is a decrease in victimization levels as persons get older for the majority of the violent crimes within the past year and within respondents' lifetime. Put differently, younger persons are more likely to become the victim of violent crimes than older persons.
- Where total lifetime crime is concerned, there is a gradual increase in levels of victimization until persons are approximately 50 years old, followed by a very gradual decrease as persons get older. Past year property crime, in contrast, affects all persons equally regardless of age.
- When the lifetime prevalence of crime victimization is considered, the parishes with the highest levels of lifetime victimization are Clarendon (where 67.3% of all respondents

indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within their lifetime), Trelawny (61%), St. James (60.8%), St. Elizabeth (60%), St. Andrew (57.9%) and St. Ann (57.9%). The parishes with the lowest levels of total lifetime victimization are St. Thomas (where 38.2% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within their lifetime), Westmoreland (42.2%), St. Catherine (47.9%) and St. Mary (42.9%).

- When the spatial distribution of self-reported criminal victimization is limited to crimes which occurred within the past year, the parishes with the highest reported levels of criminal victimization are Clarendon (where 32.7% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within the past year), Trelawny (32.1%), Manchester (29.8%), St. Mary (27.1%) and St. James (26.3%). The parishes with the lowest levels of past year criminal victimization are St. Andrew (where 18.0% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within the past year), Portland (19.0%), Westmoreland (21.1%), and St. Thomas (21.3%).
- The parishes of Clarendon, Trelawny and St. James are all among the top five where total lifetime as well as past year crime victimization is concerned. In contrast, the parishes of St. Thomas, Westmoreland, St. Catherine and St. Mary are among the five parishes with the lowest levels of lifetime as well as past year criminal victimization.

International comparisons

• Victimization data from the 2012-13 JNCVS were compared to victimization survey data from six other Caribbean countries (UNDP, 2012). The results indicate that victimization rates for burglary, robbery without a gun and rape and sexual assault are lower in Jamaica compared to other Caribbean countries. In contrast, the rates of praedial larceny, threats with a weapon, threats without a weapon, theft from vehicles, robbery at gunpoint, and assault with a weapon are higher in Jamaica compared to other Caribbean countries. Other crimes such as car theft, break-ins, kidnapping, fraud, and extortion exhibit similar rates in Jamaica as well as other Caribbean countries.

PART FIVE: DETAILS OF RECENT VICTIMIZATION EXPERIENCES

- All respondents were asked to provide specific details about the victimization incidents they had experienced in the past twelve months.
- Most recent victimization experiences (incidents that took place in the past twelve months) occurred within the victim's own home or on the street in their own community. With the exception of robbery, victimization incidents rarely occur in other public locations (i.e., work, school, parks, shopping or entertainment districts, etc.).
- Crime victims could not identify the offenders in half of all recent victimization cases. In those cases where the offender could be identified the data indicate that Jamaicans are

more likely to be victimized by strangers and acquaintances than family members or friends.

- The data indicate that the vast majority of offenders are male and under forty years of age.
- Weapons were used in about one-fourth of all crimes reported by the respondents. Knives and machetes are the most common type of weapon used in the crimes documented by this survey, followed by guns and clubs or other blunt instruments.
- The use of weapons varies dramatically by crime type. For example, weapons were used in 90% of all robberies but only 5% of thefts.
- The victims were physically injured in approximately five percent of all crimes documented by the survey. The majority of victim injuries stemmed from physical assaults, sexual assaults and robberies. Property crimes rarely resulted in physical injury to the victim.
- Only one-third of recent victimization cases (34%) were reported to the police. This reporting rate is up from 30% in 2009.
- When crimes are reported to the police, victims were often dissatisfied with how the police treated their case.
- Respondents often gave multiple reasons for not reporting their victimization experiences to the police. The perception that the crime was not serious enough is the most common reason for not reporting victimization incidents, followed closely by the belief that the police would not be able to do anything. Other popular reasons for not reporting victimization experiences to the police include a desire on the part of the victim to deal with the incident on their own, a belief that the police would not take the crime seriously, fear of the offenders and their associates, a lack of trust in the police, fear of the police, and a desire to avoid a reputation as an informer or snitch.
- Crime victims were often upset and frightened following their victimization experiences. Other common feelings include anger, hurt or disappointment, shock, depression and feelings of helplessness.
- A third of crime victims reported that they changed their way of life as the result of a recent victimization experience.

PART SIX: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME

Witnessing Crime

• In addition to asking respondents whether they had experienced various types of personal victimization, the 2012-13 JNCVS also asked respondents whether they had witnessed

five types of serious violent crime: 1) murder; 2) gun battles or shootings; 3) robberies; and 4) serious physical assaults or beatings.

- One out of every fourteen respondents (7.3%) reported that they had witnessed a murder at some time in their life. One out of every 100 respondents (1.1% of the population) claims to have witnessed a murder in the past twelve months.
- One out of every ten respondents (9.6%) indicates that they have witnessed a gun battle or shooting at some time in their life. One out of every fifty Jamaicans (1.9%) has witnessed a gun battle or shooting in the past twelve months.
- One out of every ten respondents (10.1%) indicates that they have witnessed a robbery at some time in their life. The data also indicate that one out of every thirty-seven Jamaicans (2.7%) witnessed a robbery in the past twelve months.
- Finally, one out of every six respondents (15.9%) indicates that they have witnessed a serious physical assault or beating at some point in their life. The data indicate that one out of every twenty-three Jamaicans (4.4%) witnessed a serious assault or beating in the past twelve months.
- The data suggest that the rate of witnessing violent crime in Jamaica declined significantly between 2006 and 1012. For example, in 2006, 2.1% of respondents claimed to have witnessed a homicide in the past year, compared to only 1.1% in 2012-13. Similarly, 9.3% of 2006 respondents witnessed a serious assault in the past year, compared to only 4.4% of the respondents to the 2012-13 survey.
- This overall decline in witnessing crime is highly consistent with the decline in self-reported victimization and the decline in community crime problems documented in other areas of the survey. The survey results are also consistent with official crime statistics. Together these findings strongly suggest that crime has declined in Jamaica over the past six years.
- Regardless of the type of crime, witnesses rarely talk to the police. Indeed, less than 15% of the respondents who had witnessed a violent crime claimed that they talked to the police about what they had seen. Nonetheless, the police reporting rate appears to have increased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13.
- Witnesses' reasons for not talking to the police include the belief that the crime incident was none of their business, the presence of other witnesses, a desire not to be labeled an informer or snitch, the belief that the police cannot protect witnesses, fear of the offenders or their associates, fear or distrust of the police and a desire not to appear in court.

The Victimization of Family and Friends

- In 2012-13, one out of every three respondents (34.5%) indicated that a family member or friend had been murdered in Jamaica at some point in their life. One out of every seventeen respondents (5.8%) indicated that a family member or friend was murdered in Jamaica over the past twelve months.
- 13.5% of respondents indicated that they had a family member or friend who had been shot in Jamaica at some time in their life. One out of 30 respondents (3.1%) indicates that a family member or friend was the victim of a shooting in the past twelve months.
- One out of every eight respondents (13.1%) respondents indicated that they had a family member or friend who has been seriously injured by violence in Jamaica at some time in their life. One out of every thirty respondents (3.3%) indicates that a family member or friend was seriously injured by violent crime in the past twelve months.
- One out of every fourteen respondents (6.9%) reports that they have a family member or friend who was raped in Jamaica at some point in their life. One out of every seventy-seven Jamaicans (1.3%) indicates that they have a family member or friend who was raped in the past twelve months.
- One out of every eighty-three respondents (1.2%) indicates that they have a family member or friend who has been the victim of extortion in Jamaica. One out of every two hundred respondents (0.5%) reports that a family member or friend has been the victim of extortion over the past twelve months.
- The data also suggests that the victimization of family members and friends may have declined over the past six years. For example, in 2006, 8.6% of all respondents reported that a friend or family member had been murdered in the past year. This figure drops to only 5.8% in 2012-13.

PART SEVEN: FEAR OF CRIME

Public Perceptions of Jamaican Crime Trends

• The majority of respondents (70%) felt that crime in Jamaica had increased over the last five years, while only 13% felt that crime had decreased, and 15% felt that crime levels have stayed about the same. Contrary to the perceptions of Jamaicans, the results of the current victimization survey indicate that crime in Jamaica is decreasing. More specifically, a comparison of the results of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that total lifetime crime victimization, total lifetime property crime victimization and total lifetime violent crime victimization levels have shown a consistent decline from 2006 to 2012-13. In addition, total past year crime victimization, total past year property crime victimization and total past year violent crime victimization have also shown a decline from 2009 to 2012-13.

• When asked about their own community, very few persons (14%) felt that crime had increased in their own community. Fully 29% of respondents felt that crime in their community had decreased, while 52% felt that crime levels in their community had stayed about the same over the last five years. Consistent with this, it was found that very few respondents felt that their community had more crime than other communities. Fully 75% of Jamaicans surveyed believed that their community had less crime than other communities in Jamaica. Perceptions about crime at the community level appear to be more consistent with the national decline in criminal victimization compared to perceptions about crime in Jamaica as a whole.

Fear of Public Places

- Respondents indicated that they feel safest in their own community during the day as well as night and while in their own homes.
- When activities outside of the home are considered after dark, the proportion of persons who are fearful increases dramatically. Approximately 30% of respondents indicated that they feel unsafe or very unsafe when using public transit after dark, when shopping after dark, and when using a restaurant after dark. Somewhat more than 30% of respondents indicated that they are fearful if they have to go to school or work after dark, and if they visit a bar or nightclub after dark.
- Women are much more likely than men to feel unsafe engaging in various public activities.
- For the most part, public fear while engaged in various activities seems to have decreased from 2006 to 2012-13. The most notable decreases occurred with the use of public transit after dark, going shopping or to a restaurant after dark, going to school after dark, and going to a nightclub or bar after dark.

Fear of Criminal Victimization

- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS reveal that a large proportion of Jamaicans are fearful of experiencing certain types of violent crime. Respondents report that they are most worried about kidnapping (with 19.9% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them) and sexual assault (18.7%). Comparatively fewer persons were very worried about being attacked by someone they know (12.4%) and burglary/break-ins (12.8%).
- Females are more fearful of being victimized than males for a range of crimes. The crimes that worried females the most were sexual assault (with 26.1% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them), kidnapping (24.7%), and being attacked by a stranger (19.9%). Males, in contrast, were most worried about kidnapping (14.2%), being attacked by a stranger (11.5%) and robbery (11.3%).

PART EIGHT: CRIME CAUSATION AND CRIME PREVENTION

Personal Crime Prevention Strategies

- The data indicate that Jamaicans employ a variety of strategies to prevent themselves and their families from becoming crime victims.
- The most common strategies employed are changing routine activities, installing new locks, security bars, and security fences.
- However, a significant proportion of respondents admit that they carry weapons including guns for personal protection (2.2% lifetime prevalence, and 1.2% within the last year).
- Less common strategies for preventing crime include hiring a security guard, joining a vigilante group, and staying away from one's own neighbourhood.

The Causes of Crime in Jamaica

- All respondents were asked what they thought were the major causes of crime in Jamaica.
- The results indicate that the majority of persons (74.1%) believed that unemployment was the most important cause of crime in Jamaica. The next most important cause identified was poverty, with 58.4% of the respondents agreeing that this was important. The third most important cause was a poor education system (31%).
- Other causes identified as important include poor parenting, drugs and drug addiction, gangs and gang culture, and poor morals and values.

Public Support for Government Crime Prevention Strategies

- Respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with fifteen different crime prevention strategies. In general, respondents were more supportive of social development strategies for reducing crime than crime suppression initiatives.
- For example, fully 97.1% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that creating more jobs was an important measure in the fight against crime. In addition, 93.5% felt that improving the education system would aid in crime reduction, while 87.8% felt that it was important to help convicted criminals find jobs upon release from prison. Similarly, 87.7% agreed or strongly agreed that creating programs to help parents raise their young children properly would translate to a reduction in crime.
- It should be stressed, however, that crime suppression efforts are also supported by a notable proportion of Jamaicans. For example, 90.3% of respondents felt that there was need for a better witness protection program, 82.1% felt that the police needed better training, and 81.7% felt that judges should hand down harsher sentences to convicted

offenders. In addition, 60% of respondents felt that the police needed better equipment, while 27.2% of respondents felt that the solution was to build more prisons and 53.6% felt that there was the need to hire more police officers.

• Public support for social development over law enforcement programs is further demonstrated by the fact that most Jamaicans (77.7%) believe that government efforts to reduce poverty will be more effective at reducing crime than hiring more police officers or increasing the severity of punishments.

<u>PART NINE: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THE POLICE, CRIMINAL COURTS AND CORRECTIONS</u>

Public Confidence in the Police

- The 2012-13 JNCVS asked respondents how well they thought the Jamaican police were performing eleven different duties. These duties ranged from enforcing the law to providing information to the public on how to prevent crime.
- In general, Jamaicans feel that the police are performing some duties better than others. For example, the majority of respondents (over 70%) feel that the police are doing a good or average job patrolling their communities, ensuring public safety, being approachable, enforcing the law, responding quickly when called, treating people fairly and with respect and preventing police brutality.
- By contrast, a high proportion of respondents think the police are doing a poor job responding providing information on how to reduce crime and preventing police corruption.
- In general, the data suggest that public perceptions of police effectiveness in Jamaica have improved significantly over the past six years. In general, respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS are much more likely to think the police are doing a good job and less likely to think they are doing a poor job than respondents to both the 2006 and 2009 surveys. This improvement in attitudes towards the police was particularly dramatic between 2009 and 2012-13.
- In order to summarize responses to the eleven questions about police performance we created the Police Evaluation Scale. The higher the score on this index the higher the respondent's overall evaluation of police performance. In 2012-13 the average score on the Police Evaluation Scale was 18.63 up significantly from 15.32 in 2009.
- Further analysis reveals that the public perceptions of police performance vary dramatically by region of Jamaica. The residents of St. Elizabeth (mean=21.1) and Trelawny (mean=20.4) score highest on the Police Evaluation Scale. The residents of St. Catherine, Clarendon, Hanover and St. Thomas also produced scores on the Police Evaluation Scale that are significantly above the national average (mean=18.63). By

contrast, respondents from Kingston (15.6), Manchester (mean=15.8) and St. James (mean=15.9) produced the lowest scores on the Police Evaluation Scale. All other Parishes produced mean scores that are either slightly above or slightly below the national average.

- In general, men and older people have more confidence in the Jamaican police than women and younger people.
- Confidence in the police also seems to decline with increasing education and social class. People with a university education or an upper-class background rate the police more negatively than those with a primary school education and those that report their social class position as "poor." This finding is consistent with the results of other surveys conducted in the United States, Canada and Europe.
- Regardless of Parish of residence and demographic characteristics, most respondents feel that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, young people worse than older people and men worse than women.
- For the first time in history, the 2012-13 JNCVS asked respondents about the police treatment of Jamaica's homosexual community. The results suggest that only a minority of respondents (22%) feel that the police treat homosexual Jamaicans worse than heterosexuals. An equal proportion of respondents (19%) feel that homosexuals are actually treated better by the police than heterosexuals.
- Perceptions of police bias remained relatively stable between 2006 and 2012-13. Respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS were just as likely to perceive police discrimination as the respondents to the 2006 survey.
- Perceptions of police bias are more pronounced among younger people and those with a university education.

Public Confidence in the Criminal Courts

- In general, respondents evaluate the performance of the criminal courts more negatively than the performance of the Jamaican police. Only a small minority of respondents (less than 20%) feel that the Jamaican criminal courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly, helping crime victims or ensuring fair trials for persons charged with criminal offences.
- Overall, 2012-13 evaluations of court performance are better than they were in 2006 but worse than they were in 2009.
- Public opinion with respect to the criminal courts varies from Parish to Parish. The residents of St. Thomas score the highest on the Court Evaluation Scale (mean=4.9), while respondents from Manchester score the lowest (2.7).

- Middle-aged respondents tend to evaluate the performance of the criminal courts more negatively than their younger and older counterparts.
- Perceptions of court effectiveness also decline with increasing education and social class position. University educated respondents and those who report an "upper-class" background are more likely to hold negative views about the criminal courts than their more poorly educated, lower-class counterparts.
- About half of all respondents feel that the sentences handed out to convicted criminals in Jamaica are too lenient. However, the percent of the population holding this view dropped from 56% in 2006 to only 45% in 2012-13. This is consistent with the results of Canadian and American research.
- Two out of every three respondents feels that the death penalty should be given to people convicted of murder in Jamaica. However, public support for the death penalty has dropped from 80% in 2006 to only 68% in 2012-13.
- In general, support for harsher sentences and the death penalty increase with age and decline with level of education.

Public Confidence in the Correctional System

- As with the criminal courts, Jamaicans tend to evaluate the performance of the correctional system more negatively than the police.
- Only a minority of respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS (less than 20%) feel that the Jamaican correctional system is doing a good job controlling inmates, deterring crime, rehabilitating offenders, deciding when to release offenders from prison and supervising offenders who have been released into the community.
- However, perceptions of the Jamaican correctional system did improve slightly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- Perceptions of the Jamaican correctional system vary little by gender or age. However, those with a university degree report more negative views than those with lower levels of educational attainment.
- A third of all respondents believe that prison conditions in Jamaica are too lenient. However, the proportion of the population holding this view dropped from 40% in 2009 to 35% in 2012-13.
- The vast majority of respondents (88%) feel that convicted criminals should receive counseling or treatment in prison. This figure is down slightly from 93% in 2009.

- Although nine out of ten Jamaicans support rehabilitation in principle, only 33% feel that the Jamaican government should spend more money on prison rehabilitation. Furthermore, the proportion of the population that feels the government should spend less on offender treatment programs increased from 24% in 2009 to 30% in 2012-13.
- Public support for offender rehabilitation efforts increase with both education and social class position. Age and gender, however, appear to have little impact on attitudes related to this important issue.

PART TEN: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES WITH POLICE CORRUPTION, POLICE BRUTALITY AND THE POLICE COMPLAINTS SYSTEM

Police Corruption and Brutality

- Six out of every ten respondents (57.4%) feels that police corruption is a "big" or "very big" problem in Jamaica. However, relatively few respondents (14.2%) feel that there is a big or very big problem with police brutality.
- The perception that police corruption is a big or very big problem in Jamaica diminished significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. However, the perception that police brutality is a problem increased slightly.
- Though the vast majority of respondents feel that police corruption is a big problem in Jamaica, only 2.0% report that they have ever experienced police corruption and less than one percent (0.8%) report being the victim of police corruption in the past year.
- One out of every twenty-six respondents (3.9%) reports that they have been the victim of police brutality at some point in their life. Only 1.5% reports being the victim of police brutality within the past year.
- One out of every seven respondents (13.8%) claims that they have witnessed an incident of police brutality at some point in their life. One out of nineteen (5.3%) report witnessing an incident of police brutality in the past year.
- Only 12.4% of respondents who witnessed a case of police brutality reported the incident to the authorities. Over half of those who did not report brutality claimed that they were afraid of retaliation from the police.

Perceptions of the Police Complaints Process

• The results suggest that about half of the Jamaican population (49%) know where to file a complaint against the police. However, the other half (51%) does not know where to file a complaint.

- Most respondents indicate that they would either lodge a complaint at their local police station or with the Police Complaints Authority.
- Further analysis reveals that knowledge about where to file a complaint against the police is unrelated to Parish of residence, gender, age or social class. However, respondents with higher levels of education are more likely to report that they know where to file a complaint than those with lower levels of educational attainment.
- Although half of the respondents know where they would make a complaint against the police, only 4% have actually filed a formal complaint against the police at some point in their life. The majority of these complaints involved allegations of police brutality, unfair or disrespectful treatment by individual police officers or charges of police corruption (extortion or bribery).
- The results suggest that the majority of complainants were "not satisfied at all" with how their complaint was handled.
- The vast majority of respondents (87.3%) indicated that they would indeed file a formal complaint if they ever had a negative experience with the police. This figure is up from 82.9% in 2009. This finding suggests that the majority of Jamaican residents have confidence in the police complaints process.

<u>PART ELEVEN: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THE CITIZEN SECURITY AND JUSTICE PROGRAM</u>

- The Citizenship Security and Justice Program (CSJP) is designed to reduce crime and violence in Jamaica and improve public attitudes towards the police and criminal justice system. The program delivers various prevention activities and strategic interventions that address individual, family and community risk factors.
- By 2013 the CSJP had been implemented in 39 vulnerable Jamaican communities. Most of these communities suffer from high rates of crime and social disorder.
- According to an analysis provided by STATIN, 374 of the 3,556 respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS (10.5% of the sample) live within a CSJP community.
- All respondents were asked if they had ever heard of the CSJP. The results reveal that public awareness of the CSJP is quite low. Indeed, only 16.8% of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that they have heard about the program.
- Public awareness of the CSJP, however, is significantly higher among respondents who live in CSJP communities (27.5%) than among respondents who live in non-CSJP communities (15.6%).

- All respondents who indicated that they had heard about the CSJP were asked if they knew whether the program was operating in their community. The results indicate that only 44 of the 374 respondents who live in a CSJP community (11.8%) were actually aware that the program was operational in their own area.
- All 598 respondents who were aware of the CSJP were asked to evaluate its effectiveness. Most of these respondents feel that the program is doing either a good (49.8%) or average job (30.3%) preventing crime. Only 6.4% feel that the CSJP is doing a poor job in this capacity. Similarly, nine out of ten respondents (89.3%) feel that the government should either increase funding for the CSJP or maintain current funding levels.
- Only 88 respondents (2.5% of the sample) believe that the CSJP is operational in their own community. The vast majority of these respondents feel that the program has reduced crime in their neighbourhood (73.8%) and made their community a better place to live (79.6%).
- Only 32 respondents (about 1% of the sample) indicated that they have in fact accessed the services provided by the CSJP. These 32 respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the services they had received from the program. The data suggest that almost all CSJP clients (84.4%) were either satisfied or very satisfied with the services they had received.
- Consistent with program objectives, respondents who reside in CSJP communities are more likely to report that crime in their local community has declined over the last five years (44.1%) than respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities (27.5%).
- Overall the rate of property victimization within CSJP communities is slightly lower than in non-CSJP communities. However, the rate of violent victimization is slightly higher.
- Respondents from CSJP communities report slightly higher levels of criminal offending than respondents from non-CSJP communities.
- CSJP and non-CSJP communities differ little with respect to fear of crime. However, the
 residents of CSJP communities are more likely to report local crime and disorder
 problems and are more likely to report that they have witnessed a violent crime in the
 past year.
- Respondents from CSJP communities are also more likely to report that they frequently hear gunshots in their community than respondents from non-CSJP communities.
- Respondents from CSJP communities are more likely to report that, over the past year, people have moved out of their community because of fear of crime.
- In general, respondents from CSJP communities have a lower opinion of the police than respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities.

- Overall, these results suggest that respondents who reside in CSJP communities tend to live in more violent, crime-prone areas than respondents who live in communities where the CSJP project is not offered. These findings are highly consistent with the argument that the CSJP program is using its resources wisely by targeting high-crime communities with the greatest need of intervention.
- Future evaluations of the CSJP program should directly observe changes in targeted communities over time and directly compare CSJP communities with a control group of high-crime communities in Jamaica that have not benefited from CSJP services. Unfortunately, such an analysis was not possible using data from the 2012-13 JNCVS.

PART TWELVE: SELF-REPORTED SUBSTANCE USE AND CRIMINAL ACTIVITY

Alcohol and Drug Use

- The data indicate that alcohol is by far the most commonly used intoxicant in Jamaica. Almost half of all respondents (47.2%) reported that they used alcohol at least once in the past twelve months and one out of seven respondents (14.8%) report that they consumed alcohol once per week or more often.
- Marijuana is the second most popular drug in Jamaica. According to the data, one out of every seven respondents (13.5%) used marijuana at least once in the past twelve months and one out of every twelve respondents (8.5%) used marijuana at least once per week.
- It is interesting to note that Jamaicans are more likely to be daily consumers of marijuana (5.3%) than daily consumers of alcohol (3.0%).
- Besides marijuana, the use of illegal drugs in Jamaica is extremely rare. For example, only 0.2% of the sample indicated that they used cocaine or crack cocaine within the last twelve months, while 0.1% used other drugs within a similar period.
- Alcohol and drug use is much more common among men than women. The data also indicate that alcohol and drug use is more prevalent among young Jamaicans than older Jamaicans.
- Overall, the data suggest that the prevalence of alcohol use has increased somewhat from 2006 to 2012-13, while marijuana usage has decreased somewhat for the same time period. More specifically, past year alcohol usage stood at 45.5% of the sample in 2006, 46.7% in 2009, and 47.2% in 2012-13. In contrast, past year marijuana usage stood at 14.9% of the sample in 2006, 14.7% in 2009, and 13.5% in 2012-13.

Self-Reported Criminal Activity and Gun Possession

- The results suggest that the majority of respondents have never engaged in the fourteen specific types of criminal behaviour documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS.
- Fighting is the most common form of deviant behaviour uncovered by the survey. One out of every three respondents (31%) reported that they have been in a fight at some time in their life and one out of every twenty seven respondents (3.7%) has been in a fight in the past twelve months.
- Other types of criminal activity are far less common. When lifetime prevalence of crime is examined, the next most prevalent crimes are assault without a weapon (4.5% of the sample), weapons assault (3.4%), prostitution (2.3%), and personal theft (1.8%).
- Interestingly, one in fifty nine persons (1.7%) reported that they have carried a gun in public at some point in their lives while one in seventy one persons (1.4%) indicated that they have sold illegal drugs within their lifetime. In addition, one in one hundred and twenty five persons (0.8%) indicated that they have used a gun on someone at some point in their lives.
- A comparison of the results of the 2006, 2009, and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys indicate that self-reported crime has decreased for the period under consideration. This applies for the majority of crimes including engaging in physical fights, assault without a weapon, assault with a weapon, carrying a gun in public, theft from other persons, robbery or extortion, using a gun on someone, and shoplifting.

Gang Membership

- Only 21 of the 3,556 respondents (0.6%) in the 2012-13 JNCVS claimed that they had been a gang member at some point in their life. Only two respondents indicated that they were currently the member of a gang.
- By contrast, 3.8% of the sample or one in twenty six persons indicated that they have a family member or friend who is a member of a gang.
- A comparison of results from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 surveys suggest that gang membership and association have declined significantly over this period. For example, in 2006, one out of every eighty-three respondents (1.2%) indicated that they had been a gang member at some point in their life. By 2009 this figure had dropped to one out of every two hundred respondents (0.5%) and in 2012-13 the figure stood at one out of every one hundred and sixty seven respondents (0.6%).

Arrest and Conviction

• The results suggest that 14.8% of respondents know someone with a criminal record. An additional 14.2% of respondents report that they themselves have been arrested. However,

- only 3.8% report that they have been convicted of a crime in a court of law. This discrepancy between arrest and conviction represents a conviction rate of 26.8%.
- Respondents who were convicted indicated that they were convicted for a wide range of crimes including murder (0.1% of the sample), manslaughter (0.1%), illegal possession of firearms (0.1%), assault with a weapon (0.8%), assault without a weapon (0.4%), drug trafficking (0.3%) and drug use (0.6%).

PART ONE: INTRODUCTION

Many countries rely on official crime statistics to offer an understanding of the nature and extent of criminal offending, and for the development of policy. Official crime data represent crimes reported or known to the police. For many reasons, persons may not report all incidences of crime victimization to the police, and as such, official data represent only a subset of all crimes committed. Alternative methodologies, including victimization and self report surveys are required if one is to more precisely estimate the nature and extent of criminal victimization in a particular place. More precise estimates of criminal offending will allow policy makers and other relevant personnel to make more informed decisions as they relate to crime control interventions. Victimization surveys are capable not only of assessing overall levels of criminal victimization, but can also gather rich information about the characteristics of victims and offenders, whether victimization incidents are reported to the police or not, why victimization incidents are not reported and the psychological impact of victimization experiences. In addition, victimization surveys are often used to measure attitudes towards the criminal justice system (i.e., evaluations of the police, the criminal courts, corrections, etc.), fear of crime, and perceptions about neighborhood safety and disorder.

As noted above, while there are limitations to official crime data, it is important to understand official data in order to determine what disparities exist between such data and data derived from other sources including victimization surveys. Official crime data indicate that, between 2000 and 2010, homicide rates in Jamaica were comparably higher than most other Caribbean countries (see Table 1.1 and Figure 1.1). During this time period, Jamaica averaged 1,349 murders per year and produced an average homicide rate of 51.7 murders per 100,000 persons. Belize had the next highest homicide rate in the Caribbean over this time period (35.8 per 100,000), followed by St. Kitts and Nevis (29.2) and Trinidad and Tobago (26.0 per 100,000). By contrast, Barbados, Grenada and Dominica all produced homicide rates of only 10 per 100,000 during this decade.

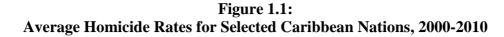
It is important to note, however, that homicide and other forms of violent crime have declined dramatically in Jamaica since 2009. For example, in 2009 Jamaica recorded a total of

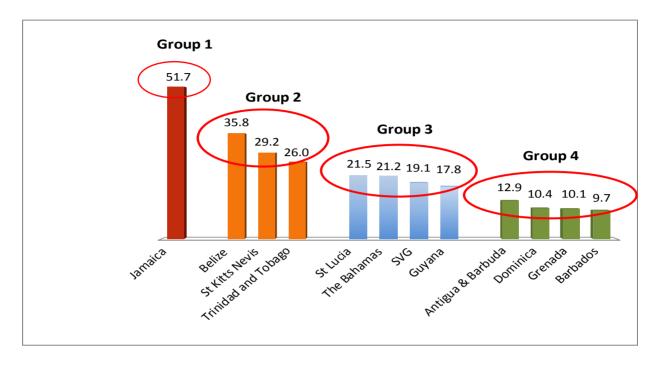
1,682 homicides. By 2012 this figure had dropped to only 1,079. In other words, there were 603 fewer homicides in Jamaica in 2012 than 2009 – a remarkable 36% decrease over a relatively short three-year period. Importantly, similar declines were also recorded for other violent crimes including robbery and shootings. This short-term trend has also been documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS. These findings are discussed in much greater detail in Part Four of this report.²

Table 1.1: Official Homicide Statistics for Selected Caribbean Nations, 2000 to 2010

	Trinidad & Tobago	Jamaica	Barbados	Grenada	St. Lucia	St. Vincent & Grenadines	St. Kitts & Nevis	The Bahamas	Dominica	Belize	Guyana	Antigua & Barbuda
2000	120	887	20	15	20	20	6	74	2	47	74	4
2001	151	1139	25	6	33	12	6	43	1	64	79	7
2002	171	1045	25	14	33	20	5	52	10	87	142	9
2003	229	975	33	8	28	11	10	50	8	67	206	6
2004	261	1471	22	6	36	21	11	44	8	79	131	7
2005	386	1674	29	11	37	24	8	52	8	81	142	6
2006	371	1340	35	11	39	13	17	61	5	92	163	14
2007	391	1583	25	11	27	36	16	78	7	97	115	19
2008	547	1618	23	16	36	27	23	73	7	103	158	14
2009	506	1682	19	7	37	20	27	86	13	97	117	16
2010	473	1428	31	10	44	25	20	94	11	132	139	7
Average	328	1349	26	10	34	21	14	64	7	86	133	10
Average rate	26.0	51.7	9.7	10.1	21.5	19.1	29.2	21.2	10.4	35.8	17.8	12.9

² At the time of writing this report, crime data enabling cross-national comparison within Caribbean r was only available until 2010. As discussed in Part Four of this Report, official data suggest that violent crime has declined significantly in Jamaica since 2010.



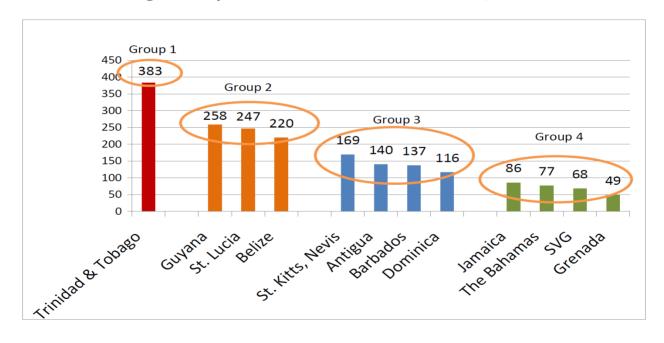


While Jamaica tends to outrank other Caribbean countries with respect to annual homicide figures, statistics on other types of crime produce a somewhat different picture. Most Caribbean countries, for example, have significantly higher robbery rates than Jamaica (see Table 1.2 and Figure 1.2). In fact, Jamaica appears to have one of the lowest rates of robbery in the region, along with the Bahamas, St. Vincent and the Grenadines and Grenada. For the period 2000 to 2010, there was an average of 86 robberies per 100,000 persons per year in Jamaica, compared to an average annual rate of 383 in Trinidad and Tobago, 258 in Guyana, 247 in St. Lucia and 220 in Belize.

Table 1.2: Official Robbery Statistics for Selected Caribbean Nations, 2000-2010

	Trinidad & Tobago	Jamaica	Barbados	Grenada	St. Lucia	St. Vincent & Sc. St. Sc. Sc. Grenadines	St. Kitts & Nevis	The Bahamas	Dominica	Belize	Guyana	Antigua & Barbuda
2000	4094	2331	428	50	290	81	69	219	57	574	1715	58
2001	4269	2109	312	31	299	101	43	206	104	546	1832	40
2002	4675	2021	350	85	352	74	63	207	103	571	2440	61
2003	4590	1710	316	44	324	63	54	258	73	441	1596	93
2004	3885	2103	289	38	385	62	52	199	80	442	1669	78
2005	4883	2210	330	45	419	73	90	198	104	653	1982	73
2006	5633	2009	367	50	375	79	75	188	76	526	2060	148
2007	4965	1601	392	60	380	56	119	194	71	514	1685	198
2008	5043	2660	394	43	490	47	102	262	71	-	1833	153
2009	6040	3021	383	43	601	68	108	316	79	545	2582	164
2010	5075	2850	487	71	348	117	84	336	67	477	-	120
Average	4832	2239	368	51	388	75	78	235	80	529	1939	108
Average rate	383	86	137	49	247	68	169	77	116	220	258	140

Figure 1.2: Average Robbery Rates for Selected Caribbean Nations, 2000-2010



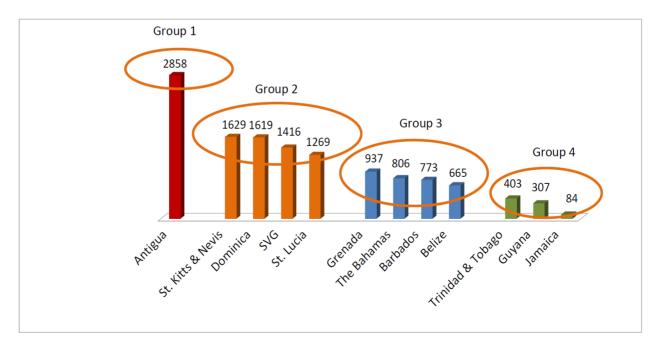
When it comes to burglary and break-ins (see Table 1.3 and Figure 1.3), official statistics suggest that Jamaica ranks the lowest in the Caribbean. During the 2000 to 2010 period, Jamaica's annual burglary and break-in rate stood at 84 per 100,000. By contrast, Antigua

produced an average burglary/break-in rate of 2,858 per 100,000. St. Kitts and Nevis and Dominica also produced rates greater than 1,600 per 100,000. In sum, an analysis of available official crime statistics suggests that, with the exception of homicide, Jamaica has a lower rate of crime than many other Caribbean nations.

Table 1.3: Official Burglary/Break-in Statistics for Selected Caribbean Nations, 2000-2010

	Trinidad & Tobago	Jamaica	Barbados	Grenada	St. Lucia	St. Vincent & Grenadines	St. Kitts & Nevis	The Bahamas	Dominica	Belize	Guyana	Antigua
2000	5623	2426	2861	1098	2072	1759	941	2434	1297	1852	3083	2145
2001	5016	2184	2574	583	2211	2172	733	1803	1286	1942	2518	2178
2002	4930	1769	2693	1069	2030	1691	896	2137	1551	1986	2589	2194
2003	4863	1401	1949	849	1887	1501	695	2581	1175	1713	2590	1880
2004	5214	2044	1883	861	1875	1563	585	2019	1012	1660	2588	2701
2005	4548	1653	1833	990	2049	1492	719	2255	1002	1758	2279	2784
2006	4973	1297	1846	1012	2102	1301	758	2628	1106	1514	1959	2607
2007	4958	1493	1594	879	1621	1144	735	2534	1004	1256	1813	2725
2008	4855	2449	1889	1008	2224	1107	761	2726	1019	-	1826	1873
2009	5744	3786	1808	1158	2124	1527	692	2668	1015	1286	1800	1635
2010	5207	3734	1919	1125	1680	1724	786	3133	935	1018	-	1445
Average	5085	2203	2077	967	1989	1544	755	2447	1127	1599	2305	2197
Average rate	403	84	773	937	1269	1416	1629	806	1619	665	307	2858

Figure 1.3: Average Burglary/Break-in Rates for Selected Caribbean Nations, 2000-2010



The Importance of Victimization Surveys

Although official data indicate that many countries within the Caribbean region outrank Jamaica on a range of violent and non-violent crimes, media reports often stereotype Jamaica as a disproportionately violent, crime-prone country. Unfortunately, perceptions about crime in Jamaica may affect both national and regional policies and damage the countries international reputation. Ultimately, inaccurate perceptions about crime in Jamaica could lead to a number of economic and social consequences. Thus, the use of victimization surveys represents an important step in the process of correcting misperceptions about crime in Jamaica, and represents an empirically sound approach to assess rates of criminal victimization such that the findings of such surveys can be used, in addition to official data, to properly inform policy and other relevant initiatives.

Estimates of crime from victimization surveys complement official crime statistics because such survey estimates are not prone to the same types of biases. The most obvious advantage of survey reports, in comparison with official crime statistics, is that the former include victimization incidents judged to be crimes by the victims, but which are not reported to or recorded by police agencies. This is often referred to as the "dark figure" of crime. Not all crimes are reported to or discovered by the police. People may be reluctant to report offences to the police for a wide variety of reasons. As such, the level of criminal activity indicated by victimization surveys typically exceeds that recorded in official records. As indicated above, victimization surveys can also collect data on a range of other factors which offer rich contextual data about criminal offending (e.g. fear of crime, reasons why people do not report crimes, offender and victim characteristics, the psychological effects of victimization, etc.) that can be used to inform government and criminal justice policy. When implemented on a periodic basis, victimization surveys can help the government document crime trends, the impact of crime on local populations and the effectiveness of criminal justice policies. It is for these reasons that the Government of Jamaica has developed and implemented the 2006, 2009, and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey.

Recent crime Victimization Research in Jamaica

The most recent data on criminal victimization collected in Jamaica appear in the United Nations Development Programme's 2010 Human Development Report. This survey collected data from a representative sample of over eleven thousand adults in seven Caribbean countries. Table 1.4 gives the percentages of people who were victims of crime in the last year (2009) and within the last ten years (2000-2010) in the seven countries surveyed by the United Nations Development Programme. In assessing victimization, eighteen different crimes were specified. These were: attempted murder, assault with a weapon, robbery at gunpoint, robbery with other types of weapons, sexual assault and/or rape, extortion/protection, domestic violence involving a partner, family violence, house break-ins in the day, house break-ins at night, motor vehicle theft, theft from a motor vehicle, kidnapping (for ransom), abduction, financial crimes/scams, praedial larceny, a threat to one's life by someone with a weapon and a threat to one's life by someone without a weapon.

Crimes within the last year comprised acts of victimization committed in 2009. The countries with the highest past year levels of victimization were Antigua and Barbuda (10.6% of the sample), St. Lucia (10.5%) and Barbados (10.4%). Countries with somewhat lower rates of past year victimization included Trinidad and Tobago (9.4%), Suriname (9.3%), and Guyana (8.3%). The country with the lowest recorded rate of victimization was Jamaica (5.2%). Where crime victimization within the last ten years was concerned, in all countries except Jamaica, over 20% of respondents reported such victimization. The highest rate occurred in Barbados (26.6% of the sample), followed by Suriname (24.1%), St. Lucia (22.9%), Trinidad and Tobago (22.6%), Antigua and Barbuda (22.4%), and Guyana (20.1%). Jamaica had the lowest rate of self-reported criminal victimization within the last ten years (17.4%).

Table 1.4:
Percent of Respondents Reporting Past Year Criminal Victimization, by Country,
2010 United Nations' Human Development Report

	Victim	ization	Sampla Siza
	Past year	Last 10 years	Sample Size
Antigua & Barbuda	10.6	22.4	1512
St. Lucia	10.5	22.9	1514
Barbados	10.4	26.6	1506
Trinidad & Tobago	9.4	22.6	1595
Suriname	9.3	24.1	1512
Guyana	8.3	20.1	1569
Jamaica	5.2	17.4	2000

Tables 1.5 and 1.6 provide victimization statistics by major crime type. When victimization within the last ten years is considered, the country with the largest proportion of persons who reported that they were victims of attempted murder were Antigua and Barbuda (1.4%), Barbados (1.3%), St. Lucia (1.2%) and Jamaica (1%). Where assault with a weapon is concerned, the countries with the highest rates were St. Lucia (4.5%), Barbados (3.7%) and Antigua and Barbuda (3%). Robbery with the use of a firearm was highest in Trinidad and Tobago (5.6%) and Guyana (3.7%). Robbery with other weapons was highest in Trinidad and Tobago (3.8%), Suriname (2.9%), Antigua and Barbuda and St. Lucia (both 2.8%). Self-reported rape victimization was highest in Antigua and Barbuda (2.2%) and Barbados (1.1%).

Where victimization within the last year was concerned, the highest rate of attempted murder was recorded in Antigua and Barbuda and St. Lucia (both 0.5%) and Barbados (0.4%). The highest rate of assault with a weapon was recorded in St. Lucia (2%), Barbados (1.9%), and Antigua and Barbuda (1.6%). Within the last year, the highest rate of robbery at gunpoint was recorded in Antigua and Barbuda (1.3%) and Trinidad and Tobago (1%). The highest rate of robbery with other weapons was recorded in Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana (both 1.1%) and

Suriname (0.7%). The highest rate of rape was recorded in Antigua and Barbuda and Barbados (both 0.7%) and Suriname (0.5%).

In sum, consistent with official crime statistics (discussed above), data from a recent international victimization survey also indicate that Jamaica actually has a lower level of violent and property crime than many other Caribbean nations. In other words, the level of crime and violence in Jamaica may not be as high as indicated in media reports. Furthermore, these findings underscore that the continued use of victimization surveys may contribute to a more accurate understanding of the crime environment in Jamaica and will provide an empirically sound basis upon which to develop social policy and various crime-related interventions.

Table 1.5:

Percent of Respondents Who Report Criminal Victimization over the Past Ten Years,
By Type of Crime, 2010 United Nations' Human Development Report

	Antigua & Barbuda	Barbados	St. Lucia	Guyana	Trinidad & Tobago	Suriname	Jamaica
Attempted murder	1.4	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0
Assault with weapon	3.0	3.7	4.5	1.7	2.3	1.3	2.5
Robbery at gunpoint	2.8	1.8	1.3	3.7	5.6	1.7	2.7
Robbery other weapons	2.8	2.5	2.8	2.4	3.8	2.9	2.5
Rape	2.2	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.7	0.7
Extortion	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4
Domestic violence	1.7	2.9	1.5	1.8	.9	1.7	1.1
Burglary / Break-in	10.1	9.0	11.6	5.5	5.4	15.5	3.6
Motor vehicle theft	1.0	0.5	1.2	0.3	1.1	2.5	0.5
Kidnapping /Abduction	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0
Sample size	1512	1506	1514	1569	1595	1512	2000

Table 1.6:
Percent of Respondents Who Report Criminal Victimization over the Past Year,
By Type of Crime, 2010 United Nations' Human Development Report

	Antigua & Barbuda	Barbados	St. Lucia	Guyana	Trinidad & Tobago	Suriname	Jamaica
Attempted murder	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Assault with a weapon	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.8
Robbery at gunpoint	1.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.1	0.4
Robbery other weapons	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.4
Rape	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3
Extortion	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0
Domestic violence	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5
Burglary / Break-in	4.3	2.3	4.4	2.4	2.8	6.4	1.5
Motor vehicle theft	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2
Kidnapping /Abduction	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Sample size	1511	1506	1514	1569	1595	1512	2000

The 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey

The Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) was originally developed and funded by the Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica with the assistance of researchers from the University of Toronto.³ The 2012-13 version of the JNCVS also received funding support from the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID).

The JNCVS is designed to contribute to the detailed and accurate analysis of major crime patterns and trends in Jamaica. The 2012-13 JNCVS questionnaire was developed by Professor Scot Wortley, Centre of Criminology and Sociolegal Studies, University of Toronto, Dr. Randy Seepersad, Criminology Department, The University of the West Indies, and officials from both the Ministry of National Security and STATIN. Although it contains several unique features, the JNCVS builds upon crime victimization surveys that have been conducted in other areas of the world. This design feature permits cross-national comparisons. Sampling, survey

41

_

³ Professor Scot Wortley led this team of researchers from the Centre of Criminology and Socio-legal Studies, University of Toronto. This team worked with MNS officials to develop the original 2006 survey. This survey has served as the basis for all subsequent JNCVS surveys. However, new questions were developed and added to both the 2009 and 2013 versions of the JNCVS.

administration, data entry and data cleaning for the 2012-13 JNCVS were conducted by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN).

The *I*st Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey was conducted in 2006 and produced a final sample of 3,112 respondents (see Wortley et al. 2007). Data collection for the 2nd Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey was conducted between January and July 2009 and produced a final sample of 3,056 respondents. Data collection for the 3rd Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey occurred from October 2012 to April 2013 and produced a final sample of 3,556 respondents. When possible the analysis presented below provides comparisons with the results of the 2006 and 2009 surveys.

Research Questions

The 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey was designed to answer more than thirty different research questions. These questions include the following:

- 1) Do Jamaicans think that crime has increased or decreased in their country over the past five years? To what extent has crime increased or decreased in the respondents' own communities?
- 2) Do specific crime and disorder problems exist in the respondents' local communities? Does the extent of community crime and disorder vary by region of the country?
- 3) How prevalent are corner crews, criminal gangs and Area Dons in Jamaica?
- 4) What are the perceived benefits and consequences of corner crews, criminal gangs and Area Dons?
- 5) What percentage of the Jamaican population has been the victim of a crime at some point in their life? What proportion of the population has been the victim of a crime in the past year? Are respondents more likely to be the victim of violent crime or property crime?
- 6) Does the rate of criminal victimization in Jamaica vary by Parish? Does the rate of victimization in Jamaica vary by age, gender and other demographic characteristics?
- 7) Did the rate of criminal victimization in Jamaica change between 2006 and 2012-13?
- 8) When and where do criminal victimization incidents take place? Does the timing and location of victimization incidents vary by the type of crime?

- 9) What is the nature of the victim-offender relationship? Are respondents more likely to be victimized by strangers or by people they know?
- 10) What proportion of criminal offenders are men? What is the average age of criminal offenders? Does the age and gender of offenders vary by type of crime? What are the other characteristics of offenders?
- 11) What proportion of criminal victimization experiences are reported to the police?
- 12) When people report crimes to the police to what extent are they satisfied or dissatisfied with the police response?
- 13) Why do some people decide not to report personal victimization experiences to the police? What are their reasons for not reporting?
- 14) What impact does crime have on crime victims? To what extent does it cause fear, anger and other emotions? To what extent do Jamaicans change their lives because of their criminal victimization experiences?
- 15) What proportion of the Jamaican population has witnessed a violent crime including murder, robbery and gun battles and serious assaults?
- 16) What proportion of respondents report the crimes they have witnessed to the police? Why do some respondents decide not to talk to the police about the crimes they have witnessed?
- 17) What proportion of Jamaicans have a family or close friend who has been the victim of a serious crime including murder and sexual assault?
- 18) How prevalent is fear of crime in Jamaica? Do respondents feel safe or unsafe when they engage in specific public activities? To what extent do the respondents fear that they will become the victim of a criminal offence?
- 19) Does fear of crime vary by gender, age and other respondent characteristics? Does fear of crime vary by region of the country?
- 20) How do Jamaicans evaluate the performance of the police, the criminal courts and the correctional system? Does confidence in the justice system vary by region of the country? Has confidence in the police and criminal justice system increased or decreased between 2006 and 2012-13?
- 21) Do respondents believe that police corruption and police brutality are problems in their local community? Have respondents ever personally experienced or witnessed police corruption and brutality?

- 22) Do Jamaicans believe that the police and criminal courts treat everyone fairly or does treatment vary by gender, age and social class position?
- 23) Do Jamaicans feel that the sentences handed down by the criminal courts are too harsh, too lenient or about right?
- 24) Do Jamaicans feel that the death penalty should be given to people convicted of murder?
- 25) Do respondents feel that the conditions in Jamaican prisons are too harsh or too lenient?
- 26) Do respondents feel that convicted criminals should receive counseling or treatment in prison?
- 27) According to the respondents, what are the major causes of crime in Jamaica?
- 28) To what extent do Jamaicans support various government crime prevention policies? Are Jamaicans more likely to support law enforcement or social development programs?
- 29) How effective are the crime prevention interventions which are in place in various communities? What is the level of access to mitigating social services which are provided in various communities?
- 30) What proportion of Jamaicans consumed alcohol, marijuana and other illegal drugs in the past year? Has alcohol and drug use increased or decreased between 2006 and 2012-13?
- 31) What percentage of Jamaican residents have been involved in gangs? What percentage engaged in various types of criminal activity? What proportion of respondents has been arrested by the police and convicted of a crime? Has self-reported involvement in crime increased or decreased between 2006 and 2012-13?

Report Outline

The purpose of this report is to present the major findings from the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey and compare these findings with the results of the 2006 (see Wortley et al. 2007) and 2009 (see Wortley et al. 2010) JNCVS. Part Two of the report provides a detailed description of the survey methodology used to produce data for this project. This section includes a discussion of the sampling strategy and the survey instrument as well as the procedures followed with respect to interviewer training, data entry and data cleaning. Part Three of the report provides data on community-level measures of crime and disorder including the presence of corner crews, criminal gangs and Area Dons. Part Four explores the lifetime and past-year victimization experiences of survey respondents. A focus is placed on calculated rates

of both violent and property victimization and determining whether criminal victimization increased or decreased in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13. Part Five of the report explores the details of all reported victimization experiences that took place over the past twelve months. A focus is placed on the location and timing of crime, the nature of the victim-offender relationship, the use of weapons during the commission of crime, the nature of crime-related injuries, whether respondents report crime to the police, why respondents decide not to report crime and the impact of crime on individual victims.

Part Six of the report examines indirect or vicarious exposure to crime. Specifically, this section of the report documents the extent to which Jamaicans have witnessed violent crime and been exposed to crime through the victimization of family members and friends. Part Seven of the report explores fear of crime in Jamaica – including the extent to which respondents are fearful of engaging in specific public activities. Part Eight of the report explores the related issues of crime causation and crime prevention in Jamaica. This section documents the respondents' beliefs about the major causes of crime in Jamaica, the actions they have taken to ensure their own personal safety and what government policies they think will be the most effective at reducing crime. Part Nine of the report explores public perceptions of the criminal justice system. The data presented in this section focus on the respondents' opinions about effectiveness of the police, the criminal courts and correctional system in Jamaica.

Part Ten of the report documents public perceptions and experiences with respect to police corruption and police brutality in Jamaica. This section also explores the Jamaican populations' awareness of and confidence in the police complaints process. Part Eleven of the report documents the public awareness of the Citizen Security and Justice Program which operates in selected areas of Jamaica. This section also documents the extent to which respondents use this program and whether they believe it is effective at reducing crime or not. Part Twelve of the report explores the respondents' self-reported consumption of alcohol and illegal drugs as well as their involvement in gangs and various forms of criminal activity. This section also documents the extent to which Jamaicans are arrested by the police and convicted of criminal offences. Finally, Part Thirteen of the report provides a brief summary of major survey results and discusses the policy implications of these findings. This section also outlines how the

JNCVS can be used in the future to further our understanding of crime and criminal justice issues in Jamaica and gauge the effectiveness of government policies.

PART TWO: METHODOLOGY

The Statistical Institute of Jamaica conducted the 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey, on behalf of the Ministry of National Security. A brief outline of the survey methodology used for this project is provided below.

The Sampling Procedure

The sampling strategy for the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) was developed and implemented by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN). The sample strategy employed for the JNCVS involved a multi-stage probability sampling design, with the first stage being a selection of geographical areas called Enumeration Districts (EDs). Included among the sample of EDs, was a sub-sample of twenty-five "Crime Hot Spots," which were geographic areas/communities with relatively high reported incidents of criminal activities. In total, the master sample consisted of 852 EDs. Of these, 263 or 30.9% were selected. All the EDs were then stratified by parish and into urban and rural domains. The stratification placed each Primary Sampling Unit (PSU) into either an urban or a rural classification. This ensures that the data collected can be analysed at the urban/rural or at the national level. Subsequent to this, dwellings within each PSU were selected. The final sample consisted of 2,430 dwellings in urban areas and 2,304 dwellings in rural areas. During the final stage of the sampling process, a responsible member of the selected household, 16 years of age or over, was asked to complete the survey. When there was more than one eligible respondent in the household, the household member with the next birthday was selected to be interviewed. The birthday selection method ensures that, within each household, respondents were randomly selected. The final sample drawn for the 2012-13 JNCVS consisted of 3,556 respondents. These respondents were drawn from a total of 3,610 households. This translates to a household response rate of 76.3% (i.e. 3,610 households responded out of the 4,734 dwellings which were selected). The individual response rate was 98.5% (i.e. 3,556 individuals completed the interview of 3,610 individuals who were selected). This response rate is quite high by international survey research standards and increases confidence in the quality of the data.

The main focus of this design was to select a nationally representative sample that would provide estimates on the state of crime victimization at both the national and the regional (urban/rural) levels. The sampling frame for the Survey was developed by STATIN using information from the 2001 Population and Housing Census. A master sampling frame is developed after every Census and is updated every 4 to 5 years to include the most recent changes in the population using a listing of dwellings in the selected enumerated districts (EDs).

Questionnaires/Training Material

Four questionnaires were developed for the 2012-13 JNCVS. These survey instruments were developed by researchers from the Centre of Criminology, University of Toronto and Criminology Department, University of the West Indies, in collaboration with officials from the Ministry of National Security and STATIN. The main questionnaire gathered detailed information about the attitudes and experiences of each respondent. The second primary questionnaire, known as the Crime Incident Report, was only completed by respondents who had experienced a criminal victimization incident within the past 12 months. Details of the four instruments are listed below:

- 1. Individual Questionnaire This instrument collected information on the respondent's perceptions and experience with crime and victimization and addressed the following topics:
 - Part D: Demographic Information
 - Part N: Neighbourhood Disorder
 - Part V: Criminal Victimization Screener
 - Part F: Indirect Experience with Crime
 - Part G: Fear of Crime
 - Part H: Opinions about the Criminal Justice System
 - Part J: Crime Prevention
 - Part K: Police Complaints, Corruption and Police Brutality
 - Part L: Citizen Security and Justice Programme
 - Part M: Self-Reported Criminal Activity and Substance Abuse
- 2. Household Questionnaire The purpose of the household questionnaire was to provide information on the household composition and to help to identify respondents who were eligible

to be interviewed with the individual questionnaire. This questionnaire also included the respondent selection procedure and collected information on the socio-economic status of the respondent.

- 3. Crime Victimization Inventory This instrument provided a one page summary of the respondent's victimization experiences in the past twelve (12) months.
- 4. Crime Incident Report This instrument collected detailed information on victimizations that took place in the past twelve (12) months. One Crime Incident Report was completed for each type of victimization that took place in the past twelve month.

Staff Training

The training of trainers for the survey took place over the period October 22-23, 2012 in STATIN's Board Room and was conducted by Mr. Douglas Forbes the Project Manager and Miss Leesha Delatie-Budair the Project Coordinator. A total of thirteen (13) persons participated in this training which included eight (8) trainers, two (2) resource persons and a programmer. A total of eighty-nine (89) persons were subsequently invited to be trained as interviewers and interviewer supervisors for the survey. The training of interviewers took place from October 30 to November 02, 2012, at STATIN's offices located at Kingston, Linstead, Mandeville and Montego Bay. Based on the final test results and the trainers' assessment, 18 persons were chosen to be supervisors while 64 selected to be interviewers.

Data Collection

Data collection for the 2012-13 JNCVS took place from October 12, 2012 to April 10, 2013. During the data collection period, STATIN realized that the response rate especially for the smaller parishes such as Hanover, Trelawny and Kingston, were lower than what was expected. Therefore, in order to increase the response rate and to ensure that the sample was representative, the sample size was increased in these parishes.

The logistics of the survey was the responsibility of STATIN's Special Projects and the Field Administration Division, which distributed all the required material and administered the flow of the documents between its Head Office and the parishes. The supervisory task consisted of verifying that the fieldwork of the survey was executed with the established norms and guidelines laid down by STATIN. The field supervision activity was implemented immediately following the commencement of fieldwork. A mechanism was established to closely monitor the data collection activities under which supervisors and senior staff members of the survey team made frequent spot-checks to ensure that the data collection process took place according to instructions.

Three statisticians from STATIN's Surveys Division undertook field verification in eight (8) parishes. The findings from the spot checks and the field verification were compared to the original questionnaires and where discrepancies were found, the field supervisors were instructed to revisit the dwelling. Each Field Supervisor was assigned to randomly check two dwellings per interviewer. Additional dwellings based on their findings of missing or incomplete data were also assigned to be checked based on the findings of the Editor/Coders.

Editing, Coding and Data Entry

Data processing began on December 12, 2013 and was completed on March 28, 2013. The tables and validated dataset were finalized and delivered to the Ministry of National Security on April 10, 2013. The survey data entry and edit programmes were written using CSPro 2.5 software. This software is interactive and includes several verification checks such as range, skips and consistency checks.

To produce population estimates from the survey, weights were applied to the sample data to compensate for the probability of selection. The sample was weighted to represent the non-institutionalized population for each parish. The weighting procedure used for the survey accomplished the following objectives:

- Compensate for differential probabilities of selection for households and persons;
- Reduce biases occurring because non-respondents may have different characteristics from respondents; and

• Adjust for under-coverage in the sample frame and in the conduct of the main survey.

As part of this process, a weight was created for all the EDs to compensate for the changes in the number of dwellings that occurred between the time of the census and the time of the listing of dwellings. Another weight was also created to control the population totals for each parish. This is an iterative procedure that forced the weights to sum to a known population total. The weight is then normalized to the sample population totals using the demographic variables age and sex at the parish level from the 2011 Population Census.

Sample Description

Table 2.1 provides a basic description of the samples for the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys. The final sample for the 2012-13 survey (3,556 respondents) is somewhat larger than the final sample for the 2006 survey (3,122 respondents) and 2009 survey (3,056 respondents). This increase in sample size will positively impact on the generalizability of the findings, and improve the ability to compare findings from 2012-13 with that of previous years.

For the most part, the sample characteristics across the three surveys are quite similar. The average age of the 2012-13 sample is 44.1 years old, compared to an average age of 44.3 years in 2009 and 43 years in 2006. In the 2012-13 sample, 44.7% of the respondents were younger than forty years old, compared to 46% in 2009 and 49.3% in 2006. With respect to gender, the 2012-13 sample had more females (54.3%) than males (45.7%). This was similar to the gender distribution of the 2006 survey. Only in 2009 was there an approximately equal number of males and females. It is not expected that the slight discrepancy between males and females in the 2012-13 sample will affect the quality or generalizability of the data. Where marital status is concerned, there are some notable similarities as well as differences across the three samples. The percentage of persons married was relatively stable across the three years, ranging from 22.8% to 23.1%. The percentage of persons who were widowed in the sample increased slightly from 2009 to 2012-13, as did the percentage of persons living in visiting relationships. With respect to educational background, there is similarity across the three samples for most educational levels, though there are a few notable exceptions. The percentage of persons who completed primary school increased across the three samples, from 14.2% in

2006, to 16% in 2009, and 17% in 2012-13. In contrast, the percentage of persons who completed secondary school decreased across the three time periods, with 38.2% completing in 2006, 36.5% in 2009, and 32.3% in 2012-13. The employment status of the three samples is remarkably similar for most of the employment categories. In the case of full-time employment, however, there was a decrease from 47.9% in 2006 to 44% in 2012-13. This was mirrored by an increase in the number of persons who were unemployed, increasing from 9% in 2006 to 11.2% in 2012-13. The number of full-time students decreased from 5.4% in 2006 to 4.2% in 2012-13. Income data indicate that 3.2% of the sample earned less than \$JA 20,000 per month, while 34.6% earned between \$20,000 to \$40,000 per month. Only 1.3% earned between \$40,000 to \$60,000 per month, while 14.6% of the sample earned more than \$60,000 per month. The average monthly income for persons in the 2012-13 survey was \$41,255. On average, the sample for the 2012-13 round of the survey appears slightly more affluent than the sample in previous years. More specifically, smaller proportions of persons in the 2012-13 round reported having incomes in the two lowest income brackets compared to persons in the 2006 and 2009 surveys, while larger proportions of persons in the 2012-13 round indicate that they have monthly incomes in the \$20,000 to \$29,000 and \$30,000 to \$39,000 income brackets. Larger proportions also reported income in the highest income bracket (i.e. incomes of \$60,000 or more per month) compared to persons in previous surveys, though a somewhat smaller proportion reported incomes in the \$40,000 to \$60,000 income range.

The proportion of respondents living in several parishes was similar across the three victimization surveys. Such parishes include Kingston, Westmoreland, St. Elizabeth, Manchester and Clarendon. There were, however, a number of parishes with fairly different proportions of respondents across the three surveys. In the case of St. Andrew, 23.8% of the respondents from the 2006 survey resided in that parish, compared to 15.6% in 2009 and 17.4% in 2012-13. In the case of St. Catherine, in 2006, 19% of the sample was drawn from that parish, compared to 14.2% in 2009 and 17.5% in 2012-13. Importantly, in all three samples, the vast majority of respondents (over 70% in all cases) have resided in their current community for more than ten years. This finding should increase confidence in the accuracy of the regional comparisons provided throughout this report.

TABLE 2.1: Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents, 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys

CHARACTERISTIC	2006	2009	2012-13
AGE			
16-24 years old	16.0%	14.4%	15.0%
25-39 years old	33.3%	31.6%	29.7%
40-59 years old	32.0%	33.4%	34.9%
60 years of age or older	16.6%	19.1%	20.0%
Missing	2.1%	1.5%	0.0%
MEAN AGE	43.0 years	44.3 years	44.1 years
MEDIAN AGE	40.0 years	41.0 years	43.0 years
GENDER			
Male	47.7%	49.4%	45.7%
Female	52.3%	50.6%	54.3%
MARITAL STATUS			
Married	23.1%	23.0%	22.8%
Common Law	12.4%	13.9%	12.4%
Divorced/Separated	4.3%	3.5%	3.6%
Widowed	4.9%	6.4%	6.0%
Visiting	6.8%	10.2%	12.0%
Single (never married)	48.1%	42.7%	43.1%
Missing	0.4%	0.4%	0.1%
EDUCATION			
Some Primary School	8.7%	8.6%	7.2%
Completed Primary School	14.2%	16.0%	17.0%
Some Secondary School	21.9%	22.9%	22.1%
Completed Secondary School	38.2%	36.5%	32.3%
Some College	2.4%	2.7%	2.1%
College Diploma	5.9%	3.9%	4.4%
Some University	1.4%	1.4%	1.5%
Undergraduate University Degree	3.4%	2.7%	4.4%
Graduate or Professional Degree	0.7%	0.8%	1.2%
Other Training	2.4%	4.2%	2.0%
Missing/Other	0.6%	0.2%	5.8%

TABLE 2.1 (continued):
Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

CHARACTERISTIC	2006	2009	2012-13
EMPLOYMENT STATUS			
Working Full-time	47.9%	45.6%	44.0%
Working Part-time	15.6%	16.0%	16.1%
Unemployed (looking for work)	9.0%	9.8%	11.2%
Unemployed (not looking for work)	5.6%	6.9%	4.8%
Full-time Student	5.4%	4.6%	4.2%
Part-time Student	0.7%	0.5%	1.0%
Homemaker/Housewife	4.2%	4.5%	4.6%
Retired	6.6%	7.7%	9.1%
Disabled	1.9%	1.0%	2.0%
Hustling/Other	3.0%	3.3%	2.7%
Missing	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%
PERSONAL INCOME (JA\$)			
Less than \$10,000	16.8%	11.6%	0.8%
\$10,000 to \$19,999	17.5%	13.2%	2.4%
\$20,000 to \$29,999	10.1%	11.3%	17.9%
\$30,000 to \$39,999	5.5%	6.1%	16.7%
\$40,000 to \$49,999	2.8%	4.1%	1.1%
\$50,000 to \$59,999	1.3%	2.0%	0.2%
\$60,000 or More	2.8%	4.5%	14.6%
Missing	43.2%	47.2%	46.3%
RELIGION			
No Religion	12.2%	14.2%	14.2%
Anglican	3.7%	3.2%	3.7%
Pentecostal	11.8%	10.5%	11.9%
Baptist	8.2%	8.2%	8.0%
Roman Catholic	3.3%	2.9%	1.8%
United Church	2.0%	2.5%	2.4%
Methodist	2.2%	1.8%	2.0%
Seventh Day Adventist	13.0%	13.6%	13.8%
Jehovah's Witness	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%
Church of God in Jamaica	4.2%	4.4%	7.9%
Church of God of the Prophecy	5.3%	5.1%	3.7%
New Testament Church of God	6.4%	7.1%	7.4%
Other Church of God	7.6%	9.0%	8.1%
Rastafarian	2.7%	2.2%	2.2%
Other	14.6%	13.2%	10.4%
Missing	0.7%	0.6%	0.4%

TABLE 2.1 (continued):
Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

CHARACTERISTIC	2006	2009	2012-13
PARISH			
Kingston	4.7%	5.4%	5.7%
St. Andrew	23.8%	15.6%	17.4%
St. Thomas Portland	3.7%	6.8%	6.3%
	2.7%	5.1%	3.3%
St. Mary	4.2%	8.1%	4.8%
St. Ann	5.8%	5.4%	5.7%
Trelawny	2.6%	5.2%	4.5%
St. James	7.2%	5.4%	6.1%
Hanover	2.5%	4.7%	4.0%
Westmoreland St. Elizabeth	5.3%	5.4%	5.1%
Manchester	4.9%	5.0%	4.8%
	6.2%	7.5%	6.7%
Clarendon	7.5%	7.5%	8.3%
St. Catherine	19.0%	14.2%	17.5%
LENGTH OF TIME LIVING IN CURRENT COMMUNITY			
Less than Six Months Six Months to One Year	2.0%	1.4%	1.2%
One to Two Years	1.7%	1.3%	1.6%
	3.1%	2.0%	2.6%
Two to Five Years Five to Ten Years	6.9%	7.2%	6.6%
	14.5%	12.6%	17.4%
More than Ten Years	71.7%	75.4%	70.4%
SAMPLE SIZE	3,112	3,056	3,556

Sample Generalization

Table 2.2 compares the sample characteristics of the 2012-13 JNCVS with that of the population characteristics as measured in the 2011 Jamaican National Census. This comparison is important in the present context as it allows for an assessment of the degree to which the sample reflects the general population, and thus the extent to which the findings from the sample generalize to the population. The data indicate that the gender distribution of the 2012-13

JNCVS accurately reflects that of the population. In both cases, there is a slightly lower proportion of males than females. In the JNCVS sample, 45.7% were males while 54.3% were females, compared to 49.5% males and 50.5% females in the population. However, the data also indicate that the sample selected for the 2012-13 JNCVS is slightly older than the general population of Jamaica. More specifically, younger persons are somewhat under-represented in the survey compared to the general population. In the JNCVS 15% of persons were in the 16-24 age range compared to 23.3% in the 15-24 age range of the general population.⁴ Similar under representation occurred in the 25-39 age range. Where the JNCVS is concerned, 29.7% of the sample was within this age range, compared to 34.1% in the general population. Older persons, in contrast, are slightly over-represented in the JNCVS. In the JNCVS, 34.9% of the sample was in the 40-59 age range compared to 27.3% in the same age range within the general population. Similarly, persons 60 years or older made up 20% of the JNCVS sample, compared to 15.2% of the general population. This age discrepancy could have a minor impact on the national crime estimates produced by this survey. For example, previous research suggests that younger people are more involved in violent crime – as both victims and offenders – than older people (see review in Siegel and McCormick 2010). Thus, since the 2012-13 JNCVS slightly under-counts young people, national crime estimates produced by this study could be viewed as slightly conservative. It is interesting to note here that the same age issue arose with both the 2006 and 2009 JNCVS surveys. This might reflect that fact that older persons, in general, are easier to contact and more willing to participate in survey research than younger people. However, the fact that all three JNCVS surveys slightly under-represented younger people, and slightly overrepresented older people, suggests that the crime trends documented by the surveys are both stable and reliable.

Where residential location is concerned, for the most part, the JNCVS sample matches very closely with the 2011 population census data. For most parishes, there is less than 1% discrepancy in the proportion of persons who reside in the parish, compared to the proportion of the sample drawn from those parishes. These parishes include Portland, St. Mary, St. Ann, St. James, Westmoreland, St. Elizabeth, Manchester and Clarendon. In the case of Trelawny,

⁴ While the slightly higher figure in the population can be explained in part by the wider age range (i.e. the inclusion of 15 year olds in the population sample), this alone cannot account for the discrepancy between the proportion of persons in this age range in the JNCVS compared to the population.

Hanover and St. Catherine, the discrepancy was less than 2%. Only in the case of Kingston, St. Andrew and St. Thomas was the discrepancy between the population and JNCVS sample proportions larger then 2%. According to the 2011 census, 3.3% of the population of Jamaica resides in Kingston. The JNCVS sample from Kingston accounted for 5.7% of the overall sample. Similarly in St. Thomas, the census indicated that 3.5% of the population resides there, compared to 6.3% of the JNCVS sample which was drawn from this parish. Over-representation in both parishes does not compromise the survey findings as this indicates that the sample drawn is proportionately larger than the population residing in both parishes, improving generalizability for both areas. In the case of St. Andrew, in contrast, the census indicates that 21.3% of the population of Jamaica resides in this parish. The JNCVS sample contained 17.4% of persons from this parish. This represents a discrepancy of 3.9%. This under-representation in St. Andrew will only negatively impact on the findings if this parish is one with an unusually high or low level of crime compared to other parishes. Overall, the sample drawn for the 2012-13 JNCVS very closely matches the population distribution where parish is concerned, with the possible exception of St. Andrew.

Where education levels are concerned, the sample drawn for the 2012-13 JNCVS appears to be somewhat more educated than the general population of Jamaica. More specifically, while 45.7% of persons in the general population have a secondary school education, 54.4% of the JNCVS sample have a similar level of education. In addition, while 5.2% of the general population have tertiary level education other than university education, 9.2% of the JNCVS sample have a similar level of education. University level education is fairly similar for both the population (4.8%) and the JNCVS sample (4.4%). In accord with the above, more persons in the general population have only a primary level education (34.4%) compared to the JNCVS sample (17%).

To summarize, in our opinion, the sample produced for the 2012-13 JNCVS represents a reasonably accurate reflection of the Jamaican population. However, the slight over-sampling of older respondents as well as more educated respondents means that national estimates should be interpreted with caution. Based on previous research it is possible that the current survey may slightly under-estimate the true extent of criminal victimization in Jamaica.

Table 2.2: Comparison of the Sample Characteristics from the 2012-13 JNCVS with 2011 Population Census Data for Jamaica⁵

Demographic Characteristics	2011 Population Estimates from the Jamaican Census (Population 15 years of age or older) ⁶	2012-13 JNCVS Sample
GENDER :		
Male	49.5	45.7
Female	50.5	54.3
<u>AGE</u> :		
15/16-24 years old	23.3	15.0
25-39 years old	34.1	29.7
40-59 years old	27.3	34.9
60 years or older	15.2	20.0
PARISH OF RESIDENCE:		
Kingston	3.3	5.7
St. Andrew	21.3	17.4
St. Thomas	3.5	6.3
Portland	3.0	3.3
St. Mary	4.2	4.8
St. Ann	6.4	5.7
Trelawny	2.8	4.5
St. James	6.8	6.1
Hanover	2.6	4.0
Westmoreland	5.3	5.1
St. Elizabeth	5.6	4.8
Manchester	7.0	6.7
Clarendon	9.1	8.3
St. Catherine	19.1	17.5
EDUCATION		
No schooling	0.7	1.1
Pre-primary	4.8	7.2
Primary	34.4	17.0
Secondary	45.7	54.4
University	4.8	4.4
Other tertiary	5.2	9.2
Other/Not reported	4.5	6.7
SAMPLE SIZE	2,697,983	3,556

⁵ All figures quoted are percentages except for the sample sizes.

⁶ The age ranges in Jamaican census data do not allow for disaggregation at 16 years of age as was done with the victimization survey data. Thus, population percentages are calculated using the total population age 15 and older.

PART THREE: PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNITY CRIME AND DISORDER

Highlights

- The results suggest that community-level crime and disorder problems declined significantly in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- Compared to respondents from previous versions of the JNCVS, respondents to the 2012-2013 survey were less likely to report local problems with drug use, drug dealing, robbery, prostitution and several other measures of crime and disorder.
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents who report hearing gunshots in their local community declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-2013. For example, in 2006, 26% of respondents reported that they heard gunshots in their community once per month or more. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012.
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents reporting community flight due to crime declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-2013.
- The results suggest that the local presence of both criminal gangs and corner crews declined significantly within Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 23% of respondents indicated that there was a criminal gang in their community. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012-13.
- Only 4.5% of respondent report the presence of an Area Don within their local community. This figure has remained constant between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The results suggest that crime and disorder problems including drug dealing, robbery, gunshots and criminal gangs are much more prevalent in the Kingston Metropolitan Area than other regions of Jamaica.

Introduction

This section presents information on respondents' perceptions of crime and disorder in their own communities and their judgments about how these community-level problems may affect out-migration from and visits to their neighbourhoods. It also examines how often respondents hear gun shots in their own community. This information provides an import estimate of how prevalent crime and serious violence may be in particular areas of Jamaica. Finally, in this section we also explore whether or not the respondents feel that corner crews,

criminal gangs and "Area Dons" are present in their own community. Those respondents who acknowledge the presence of these phenomena in their own neighbourhood were also asked about the potential benefits and consequences associated with these groups. Finally, responses to this series of questions are presented for the fourteen parishes of Jamaica in order to determine whether some areas of the country are perceived to have more problems with crime and disorder than others. We also compare the results of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys in order to examine whether community-level crime and disorder have increased or decreased over the past six years.

Community Crime and Disorder

Our exploration of crime and disorder in Jamaica begins by analyzing respondents' answers to questions about how often thirteen specific activities or problems that might occur in their local community or neighbourhood. These conditions range from problems with homelessness and public drunkenness to criminal behavior and drug use. The results suggest that both illegal drug use and drug dealing are the most common problems facing residents within specific Jamaican communities (see Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1). For example, almost half of all respondents (48.8%) feel that drug use occurs "at least sometimes" in their community and a third (33.6%) feel that drug use "often" occurs. Similarly, more than a third of respondents (36.4%) stated that drug dealing "at least sometimes" occurs in their area and one out of every four respondents (25.9%) feels that there are "often" people selling illegal drugs within their community.

The data also suggest that robbery is a rather common problem within many Jamaican communities. A third of the respondents (36.3%), for example, claim that robbery at least sometimes occurs in their neighbourhood and almost one out of ten (8.7%) report that robbery often occurs within their community. However, it should be stressed that robbery and drug-related problems do not exist in all communities within Jamaica. Indeed, four out of ten respondents (41.8%) report that robbery "never" takes place in their community. Similarly, more than a third of respondents (35.2%) stated that drug use "never" occurs in their community and

_

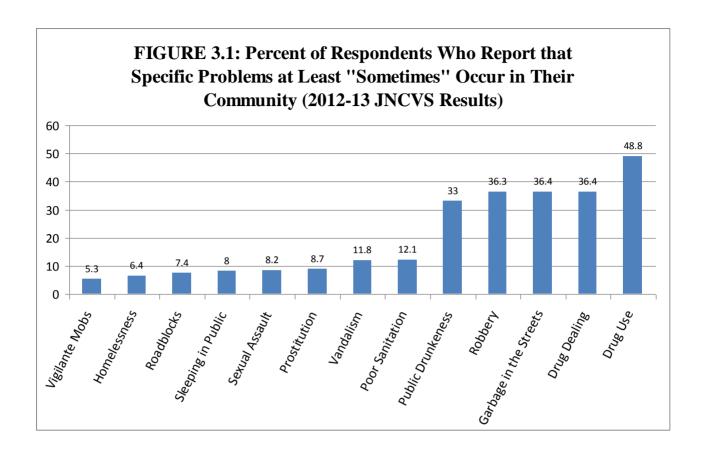
⁷ "At least sometimes" includes those who indicate that a problem sometimes, often, very often or always occurs in their community.

41.1% said that drug trafficking "never" takes place. Nonetheless, respondents generally feel that robbery and drug-related activities are much more widespread in their communities than other types of criminal behaviour including prostitution, sexual assault and vandalism. For example, seven out of every ten respondents stated that vandalism (72.1%), prostitution (71.4%) and sexual assault (70.3%) never takes place in their community.

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, other frequently cited community disorder problems include garbage in the streets and public intoxication. Over a third of respondents reported that these problems "at least sometimes" occur in their neighbourhood. By contrast, only 12.3% report frequent problems with poor sanitation and less than 10% report frequent problems with homelessness, people sleeping in public spaces and roadblocks. Similarly, only one out of every twenty respondents (5.3%) states that "vigilante mobs" sometimes occur in their community.

TABLE 3.1: How Often Specific Public Disorder Problems Occur within Respondents' Own Communities (2012-13 JNCVS)

Type of Community-Level	Never	Almost	Sometimes	Often	Very	Don't
Problem		Never			Often or	Know
					Always	
People sleeping in public places	80.8	9.4	4.8	1.4	1.9	1.8
Homelessness	79.8	10.7	4.2	1.1	1.0	3.2
Garbage or litter lying around	44.0	18.9	25.4	5.6	5.3	0.7
Poor sanitation or sewage	76.1	10.3	7.9	2.3	1.9	1.6
Roadblocks or public demonstrations	74.9	16.5	5.9	0.4	1.1	1.2
People being drunk or rowdy in public	49.9	14.6	20.8	5.9	6.4	2.4
Vandalism or property damage	72.1	13.7	9.6	1.2	0.9	2.4
People using illegal drugs	35.2	5.5	15.2	11.9	21.7	10.6
People selling illegal drugs	41.1	5.8	10.4	9.2	16.7	16.8
Prostitution	71.4	7.2	5.2	1.7	1.8	12.6
Robbery	41.8	18.4	27.6	4.6	4.1	3.4
Sexual Assault or Rape	70.3	15.0	6.6	0.8	0.8	6.5
Vigilante mobs	80.8	11.1	3.8	0.5	0.9	2.8



Trends in Community Crime and Disorder

Further analysis reveals that certain community-level crime and disorder problems may have decreased in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13 (see Table 3.2 and Table 3.3). For example, in 2006, 25.4% of all JNCVS respondents felt that drug use was "never" a problem in their community. By 2012-13 this figure had increased ten full percentage points to 35.2%. Similarly, in 2006, only 31.4% of respondents reported that drug dealing was "never" a problem in their community. By 2012-13 this figure increased to 41.1%. The results further suggest that, between 2006 and 2012-13, there has also been an increase in the percentage of Jamaicans who "never" experience community-level problems associated with people sleeping in public places, homelessness, garbage on the street, poor sewage and/or sanitation, roadblocks and demonstrations, vandalism, prostitution, robbery and sexual assault. The prevalence of public intoxication, however, has remained constant (see Table 3.2).

⁸ Please note that the question regarding vigilante mobs was excluded from this trends analysis. This particular question was not asked during either the 2006 or 2009 surveys.

It should be stressed, however, that while the number of respondents who "never" experience various community disorder problems may have increased between 2006 and 2012-13, the proportion of respondents who frequently experience these problems has remained quite stable (see Table 3.3). In fact, the proportion of respondents who "at least sometimes" experience community-level problems with robbery, prostitution and sexual assault increased slightly between 2006 and 2012-13. We must stress, however, that the general trends identified above are not very pronounced. Overall, between 2006 and 2012-13, the proportion of the population that "sometimes" experiences various community-level crime and disorder problems has been remained remarkably consistent.

TABLE 3.2:
Percent of Respondents Who Report that Certain Types of Public Disorder Problems
"Never" Occur within Their Own Community (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Community-Level	2006	2009	2012-13
Problem			
People sleeping in public places	78.1	74.3	80.8
Homelessness	72.7	74.0	79.8
Garbage or litter lying around	46.0	42.8	44.0
Poor sanitation or sewage	69.2	67.2	76.1
Roadblocks or public demonstrations	67.9	70.5	74.9
People being drunk or rowdy in public	49.4	42.7	49.9
Vandalism or property damage	66.2	62.4	72.1
People using illegal drugs	25.4	26.4	35.2
People selling illegal drugs	31.4	32.0	41.1
Prostitution	60.0	64.4	71.4
Robbery	37.8	38.0	41.8
Sexual Assault or Rape	63.3	67.3	70.3

TABLE 3.3: Percent of Respondents Who Report that Certain Types of Public Disorder Problems "At Least Sometimes" Occur within Their Own Community (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Community-Level Problem	2006	2009	2012-13
People sleeping in public places	8.7	9.8	8.0
Homelessness	8.3	7.9	6.4
Garbage or litter lying around	34.0	36.7	36.4
Poor sanitation or sewage	16.6	17.3	12.1
Roadblocks or public demonstrations	13.9	7.4	7.4
People being drunk or rowdy in public	31.0	39.4	33.0
Vandalism or property damage	13.8	14.9	11.8
People using illegal drugs	48.2	50.5	48.8
People selling illegal drugs	36.2	36.2	36.4
Prostitution	6.8	6.7	8.7
Robbery	34.8	32.5	36.3
Sexual Assault or Rape	7.8	6.6	8.2

Community Crime and Disorder by Parish

Additional analysis reveals that the perception of community-level crime and disorder varies dramatically from Parish to Parish (see Table 3.4). For example, 70.8% of the respondents from Kingston and 63.9% of the respondents from St. Andrew feel that drug use is at least sometimes a problem in their community. By contrast, only 12.9% of the respondents from St. Thomas and 14.3% of the respondents from Manchester feel that drug use is at least sometimes a problem in their area. Similarly, two-thirds of the respondents from Kingston (67.2%) and more than half of the residents of St. Andrew (55.3%) feel that drug trafficking is at least sometimes a problem in their neighbourhood. By comparison, only 8.0% of the respondents from St. Thomas and 11.3% of the respondents from Manchester report that drug trafficking is a common occurrence in their community. As another illustration, almost half of Kingston (49.0%) and St. Andrew residents (45.5%) report that robberies "at least sometimes" occur in their community. However, this figure drops to only 13.2% among Trelawny residents. It is somewhat impossible to determine, however, to what extent these regional variations are due to actual regional differences in drug and crime-related activity, regional differences in the perceptions or awareness level of respondents, or regional differences in the respondents'

willingness to discuss community disorder issues with STATIN interviewers. However, it should also be noted that these findings are quite consistent with official police data which also show higher than average crime rates for the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA) compared to other regions of Jamaica.

In order to better identify Parish-level differences in perceived community crime and disorder problems, responses to the community crime and disorder questions were combined to create two different scales or indexes. The *Perceived Community Disorder Index* combines the responses to all thirteen disorder questions into a single scale ranging from 0 to 65. The higher the score on this index, the higher the overall level of perceived community disorder. The *Perceived Community Crime Index* was created by combining responses to the six questions that dealt specifically with community crime (vandalism, drug use, drug dealing, robbery, sexual assault and prostitution). This scale ranges from 0 to 30; the higher the score on the scale the higher the perceived level of community crime.

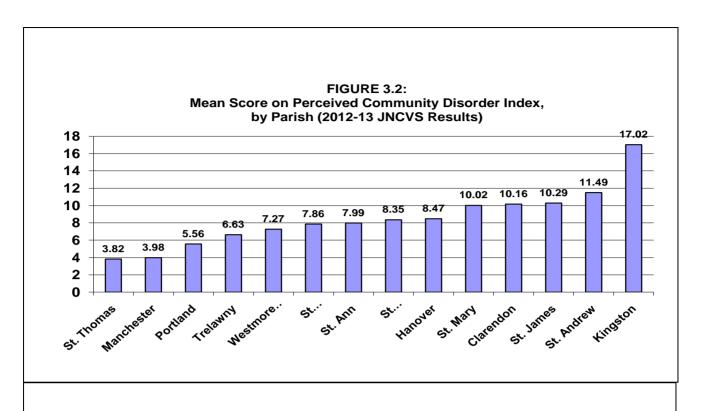
Figure 3.2 reveals that respondents from the Parish of Kingston produced by far the highest scores on the *Perceived Community Disorder Index* (mean=17.02). The second highest score was produced by the residents of St. Andrew (mean=11.49), followed closely by St. James (10.29), Clarendon (10.16) and St. Mary (10.02). By contrast, respondents from St. Thomas (mean=3.82), Manchester (mean=3.98), Portland (mean=5.56) and Trelawny (mean=6.63) produced the lowest scores on this combined measure of community disorder.

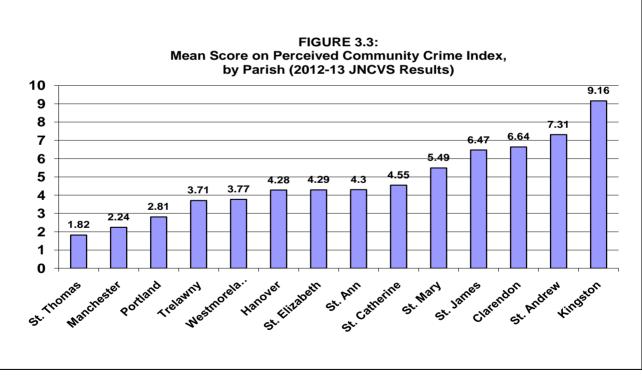
With respect to community-level criminal activity, Figure 3.3 reveals that respondents from Kingston once again produced the highest score on the *Perceived Community Crime Index* (mean=9.16). St. Andrew produced the second highest score on this measure (mean=7.31), followed closely by Clarendon (mean=6.64) and St. James (mean=6.47). By contrast, the lowest scores on the community crime index were produced by respondents from St. Thomas (mean=1.82), Manchester (mean=2.24) and Portland (mean=2.81).

⁹ Responses to the 13 community disorder questions were given the following scores: 0=Never; 1=Almost Never; 2=Sometimes; 3=Often; 4=Very Often; Always=5. A reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's Alpha of .816 for the *Perceived Community Disorder Index* and a Cronbach's Alpha of .726 for the *Perceived Community Crime Index*. These findings indicate that these items can be combined into acceptable scales.

TABLE 3.4:
Percent of Respondents Who Report that Specific Public Disorder Problems
At Least "Sometimes" Occur within Their Own Community, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Community- Level Problem	Kingston	St. Andrew	St. Thomas	Portland	St. Mary	St. Ann	Trelawny	St. James	Hanover	West- Moreland	St. Elizabeth	Manchester	Clarendon	St. Catherine
People sleeping in public														
places	13.4	12.3	4.9	4.3	14.7	7.4	4.4	2.8	7.1	8.9	14.7	3.4	9.5	4.2
Homelessness	20.8	8.3	4.0	2.8	11.8	10.4	1.9	2.3	7.1	7.8	7.6	1.3	5.1	2.7
Garbage or litter lying														
around	67.8	43.9	25.8	34.5	21.8	31.7	28.9	45.8	41.1	32.2	35.9	17.2	30.6	37.5
Poor sanitation or sewage	29.2	18.1	5.8	11.2	7.6	2.5	6.9	10.1	11.3	9.4	12.4	2.1	15.6	12.2
Roadblocks or public														
demonstrations	24.8	5.0	3.8	3.4	6.5	2.5	1.9	12.0	6.4	0.0	11.2	1.7	8.5	11.1
People being drunk or														
rowdy in public	44.6	24.9	12.4	27.6	53.5	37.1	40.3	28.6	52.5	41.1	45.3	30.3	31.8	30.3
Vandalism or property														
damage	26.7	11.8	10.7	10.3	11.8	9.4	3.8	8.8	8.5	8.3	17.6	5.0	13.9	13.1
People using illegal drugs	70.8	63.9	12.9	35.3	49.4	48.0	52.2	73.3	58.9	31.1	52.4	14.3	59.2	42.8
People selling illegal drugs	67.2	55.3	8.0	19.8	45.9	41.6	35.2	46.5	17.0	26.7	22.4	11.3	45.9	29.2
Prostitution	21.8	11.0	2.7	4.3	8.2	8.4	3.1	12.9	7.8	10.0	7.1	5.0	12.9	5.1
Robbery	49.0	45.5	16.4	19.0	44.7	18.8	13.2	44.7	21.3	18.9	37.6	36.6	58.2	37.7
Sexual Assault or Rape	22.8	9.2	3.6	3.4	6.5	2.0	2.5	16.1	8.5	12.2	5.9	2.1	12.8	6.1
Vigilante Mobs	21.8	5.0	3.6	2.6	4.1	8.4	2.5	1.4	2.8	0.6	2.4	2.1	4.4	6.9

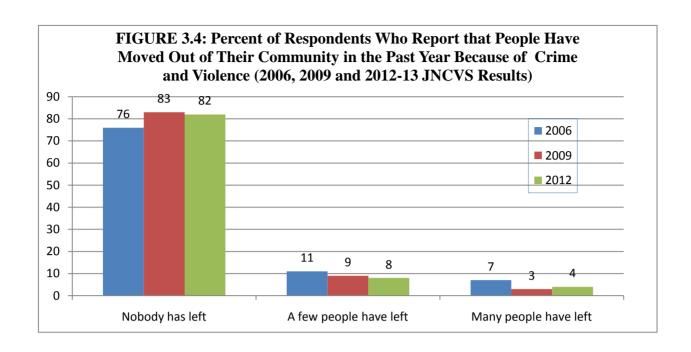




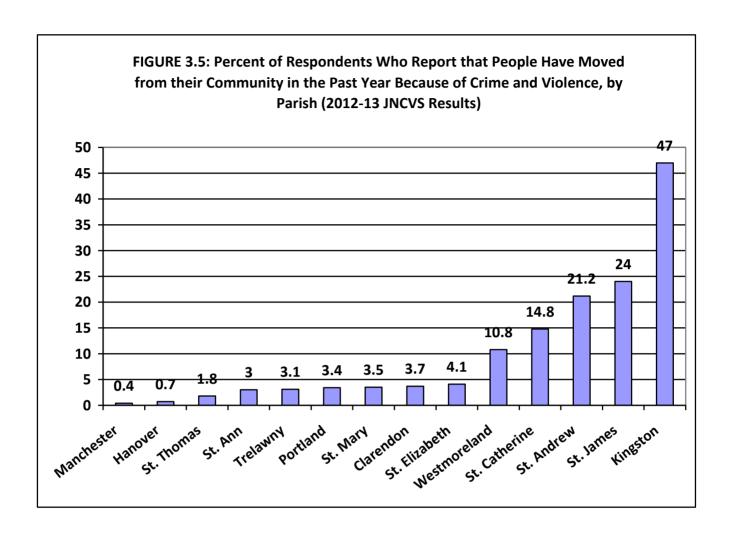
Community Flight Due to Crime and Violence

Another way of measuring the extent of community crime problems is to determine the extent of out-migration from a community. To measure this, all respondents were asked: "In your opinion, in the past year, have some people moved from your community because of violence or fear of crime?" The results reveal that that four out of every five respondents (82%) believe that *nobody* had moved from their community because of fear of crime or violence (see Figure 3.4). However, one out every twelve respondents (7.8%) felt that at least a few people had moved from their area because of fear of crime and an additional 4.4% felt that many people had moved for this reason.

Overall, the results also suggest that, between 2006 and 2012-13, the number of people in Jamaica who moved away from their community because of crime or violence has decreased slightly. For example, in 2006, 18% of JNCVS respondents indicated that at least a few people had moved from their community over the past year because of crime and violence. By 2012-13 this figure, however, drops to only 12%. It should be stressed, however, that these low numbers should not be interpreted as a general lack of concern or worry about community crime. Many people, for example, refuse to move despite fears about their personal safety. Others may indeed want to move out of their community -- but they may lack the economic means to do so. The topic of fear of crime is addressed more directly in a subsequent section of this report.



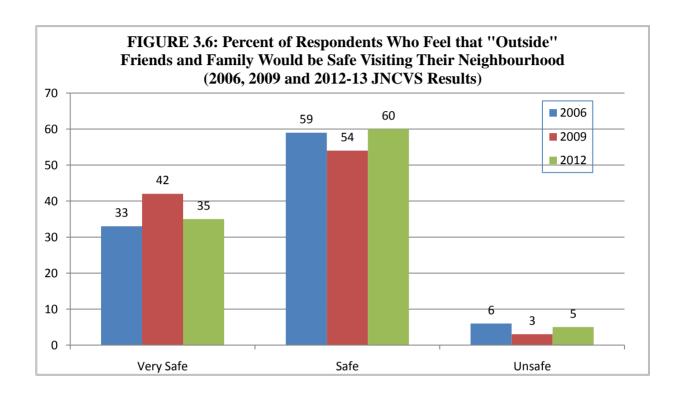
Further analysis reveals that moving residence because of fear of crime and/or violence varies dramatically from Parish to Parish (see Figure 3.5). For example, almost half of the respondents from Kingston (47.0%) report that at least a few people from their community moved away in the past year because of fear of crime and violence. The crime-related migration rate is also quite high for the residents of St. James (24.0%), St. Andrew (21.1%), St. Catherine (14.8%) and Westmoreland (10.6%). The rates for all other Parishes, however, drop below 5.0%. In fact, less than one percent of the respondents from both Manchester (0.4%) and Hanover (0.7%) report that people have moved from their community because of concerns about crime.



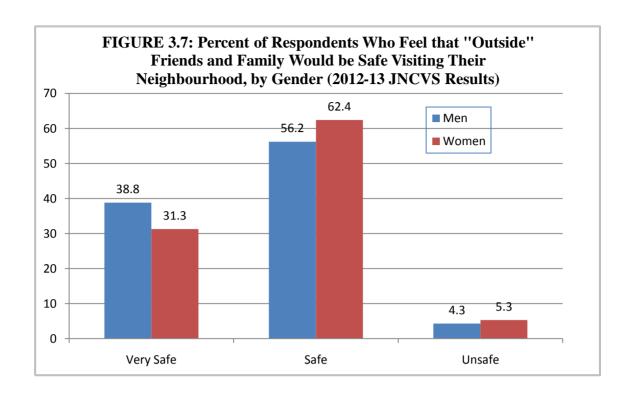
The Safety of Outsiders

Another way of measuring community crime is to examine the perceived safety of outsiders who venture into particular neighborhoods or communities. Therefore, all respondents were asked: "In your opinion, if relatives or friends who do not live in this community came to visit you in your neighbourhood (or area) would they be safe or unsafe?" The vast majority of respondents (94.4%) felt that their friends or relatives would be either very safe (34.8%) or safe (59.6%) entering their community. However, approximately one out of every 20 respondents (4.9%) feels that their friends or relatives would be unsafe if they came to visit them in their own community (see Figure 3.6). Interestingly, the perceived safety of outsiders appears to have decreased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. In the 2009 JNCVS, for example, 3% of respondents reported that outside friends or relatives would be "unsafe" if they visited their

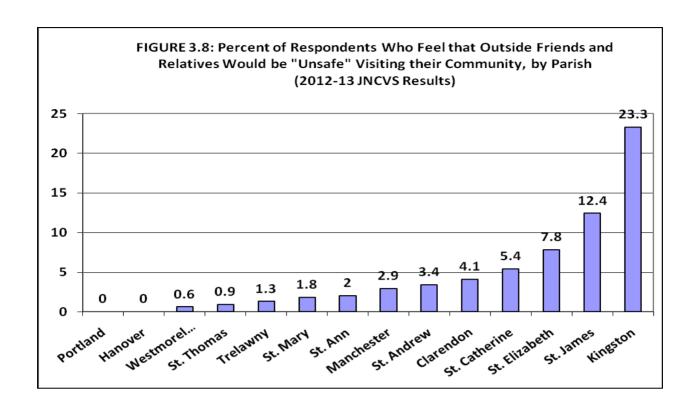
community. This figure climbs to approximately 5% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2009, 42% of respondents felt that their outside friends and relatives would be "very safe" in their community. This figure drops to only 35% in 2012-13.



The data also reveal that the vast majority of both male and female respondents believe that outsiders would be safe visiting their neighbourhood (see Figure 3.7). However, male respondents (38.8%) are slightly more likely than females (31.3%) to believe that visitors would be "very safe." However, only a slightly higher percentage of women (5.3%) than men (4.3%) feel that outsiders would, in fact, be unsafe if they visited their community.



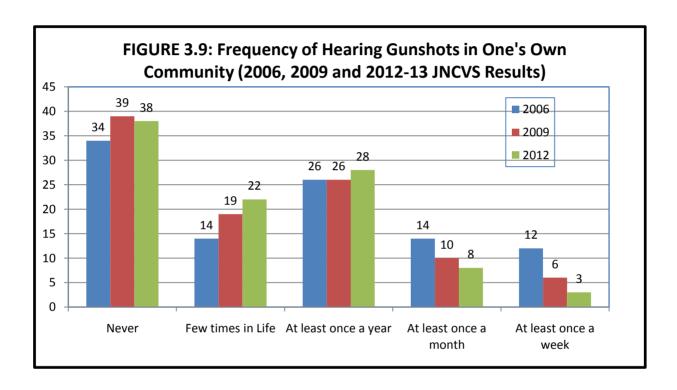
As with other measures of community crime and disorder, the perceived safety of outside friends and relatives varies dramatically from Parish to Parish (see Figure 3.8). For example, one-fourth of Kingston residents (23.3%) report that outside friends and family would indeed be unsafe if they visited them in their home community. No other Parish comes close to this figure. St. James respondents reported the next highest rate of unsafe visitation (12.4%), followed by St. Elizabeth (7.6%) and St. Catherine (5.4%). No other Parish rose above the 5.0% level. In fact, less than one percent of the residents of Portland, Hanover, St. Thomas and Westmoreland reported that outsiders might be unsafe visiting them in their own community.



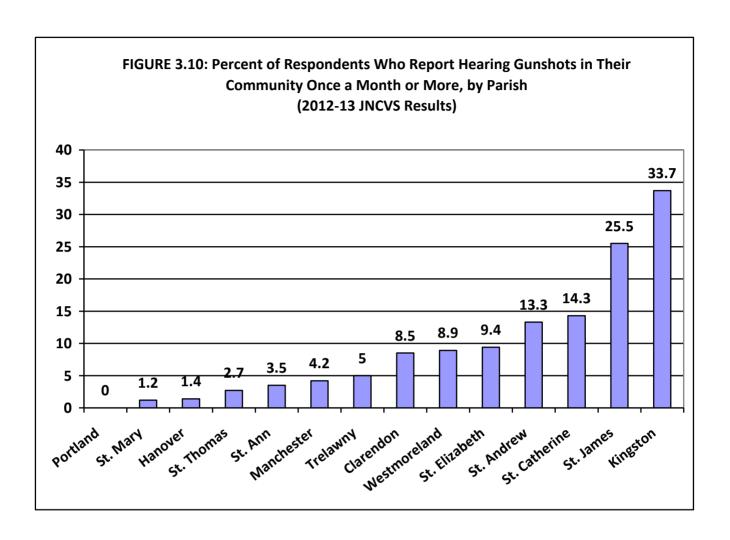
Gunshots in the Community

Another way of assessing relative community safety is to examine the prevalence of gunfire or shootings within specific areas. All respondents were therefore asked: "How often do you hear gunshots in your community?" Four out of every ten respondents (38.2%) claims that they have, in fact, *never* heard gunshots in their own community (see Figure 3.9). However, 22.2% have heard gunshots at sometime in their life and 39.6% claim that they hear gunshots in their community a few times a year or more often. Indeed, 10.9% of respondents report that they hear gunshots in their community at least once per month and one out of every twenty-nine respondents (3.4%) claims that they hear gunshots in their community at least once per week.

A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that community-level gunfire has decreased significantly in Jamaica over the past six years. For example, in 2006, 26% JNCVS respondents indicated that they heard guns in their community once a month or more often. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 11%. Similarly, in 2006, 12% of respondents reported that they heard gunshots in their community at least once per week, compared to only 3% in 2012-13.



As with other community safety indicators, the results also suggest that gunfire is much more prevalent in some sections of Jamaica than others (see Figure 3.10). For example, more than a third of Kingston residents (33.7%) report that they hear gunfire in their community at least once per month. It should be stressed, however, that this figure is down from 46% in 2006. In fact, most of the observed decline in gunshots over the past six years was reported by residents from the Kingston region. The residents of St. James (25.8%), St. Catherine (14.3%) and St. Andrew (13.3%) also experience relatively high rates of monthly gunfire. All other Parishes fall below the ten percent threshold. Hearing gunfire on a monthly basis is nonexistent or extremely uncommon in some Parishes including Portland (0.0%), St. Mary (1.2%), and Hanover (1.4%).



Corner Crews

Past research indicates that people hold different views about the definition and significance of corner crews in Jamaica. Some feel that corner crews represent criminal gangs and that their presence increases various forms of criminal activity in specific communities. Others feel that corner crews are harmless social groups that provide young men with companionship and a sense of belonging. In order to explore the prevalence of the corner crew phenomena, all respondents were asked: "Are there any corner crews in your community?" Approximately one-third of all respondents (32.9%) claim that corner crews are present in their community (see Figure 3.11). Interestingly, the existence of corner crews appears to have declined somewhat over the past six years. In 2006, 39.1% of JNCVS respondents reported the existence of corner crews in their community, compared to 33.8% in 2009 and 32.9% in 2012-13.

Corner crews are much more common in some Parishes than others (see Table 3.5). For example, 64.9% of the respondents from Kingston believe that there are corner crews in their community – as do 52.3% of the respondents from St. Andrew and 41.5% of the respondents from St. James. The presence of corner crews is also relatively common in St. Ann (38.6%), St. Catherine (33.3%), St. Mary (32.9%) and Trelawny (30.2%). By contrast, only 9.9% of the respondents from St. Elizabeth and 13.9% of Clarendon residents believe that there are corner crews in their community.

Those respondents that reported that there was a corner crew in their community (N=1,169) were asked if the corner crew did any good or positive things for their community. Almost a third of these respondents (31.2%) report that corner crews do good or positive things (see Figure 3.12). Further analysis reveals that these positive contributions include keeping the community clean (whitewashing walls, picking up litter, etc), helping the elderly, organizing sports activities for youth, helping youth with homework or school supplies, crime prevention (stopping area youth from becoming involved in crime), security services (including keeping the community safe from outside intruders). Other respondents commented that corner crews often provide entertainment (dominoes and football competitions, parties, etc.) and that their various social activities contributed to neighbourhood solidarity.

Respondents who stated that their community had a corner crew (N=1,169) were also asked if corner crews did any bad or negative things in their community (see Figure 3.13). Interestingly, while a third of respondents stated that corner crews had a positive influence, a slightly higher proportion (39.8%) believes that corner crews have a negative impact on their community. According to these respondents, negative impacts include loitering, blocking roads, gossiping, excessive noise, cursing, drinking in public, sexual harassment, drug use, drug trafficking, gambling, minor theft, robbery, fighting and gun-related violence. Several respondents also felt that the members of corner crews were a negative influence on the young people living in their community.

Distinguishing Corner Crews from Criminal Gangs

At the end of the section on corner crews, all respondents were asked" "In your opinion, is there a difference between a corner crew and a criminal gang?" The results suggest that the respondents are highly divided on this issue. Indeed, while half of all respondents (50.6%) feel that corner crews and criminal gangs are the same thing, 39.8% believe that they are different. An additional 1.9% responded to this question by stating that "It depends." The balance of the sample (8.5%) stated that they did not know if corner crews were the same as criminal gangs.

All respondents who felt that corner crews and criminal gangs are *different* types of social phenomena (N=1,383) were asked: "How are they different? What is the difference between a corner crew and a criminal gang?" In general, the respondents feel that corner crews typically consist of young men – often unemployed and/or out of school –- from the local community. These young men often hang out in public spaces (street corners, local parks, etc.) and engage in casual conversation and other harmless social activities (gossiping, playing sports, listening to music, etc.). Although these respondents concede that the members of corner crews often engage in minor forms of deviance (drinking, smoking marijuana, gambling, harassing young women, etc.), they maintained that corner crews rarely engage in organized criminal activity or serious forms of violence. Indeed, as discussed above, many respondents felt that corner crews take great pride in their community and often engage in positive social activities –- including assisting the elderly, organizing sports activities for neighbourhood youth, keeping the streets

clean of litter and performing minor repairs to community buildings and roads. Several respondents also felt that corner crews perform a valuable service because they keep watch over their communities and thus prevent criminal activity – especially crimes that might be committed by people who live outside of the community. In sum, many respondents feel that corner crews are relatively harmless social organizations that often serve as community "sentries" and thus contribute to both community pride and public safety.

By contrast, most respondents feel that the members of criminal gangs are selfish, have little community pride and are only motivated by greed. As such, they care little about other community residents and frequently engage in acts of violence or intimidation against their neighbours. Most respondents feel that it is the extent of organized criminal activity that most dramatically distinguishes corner crews from criminal gangs. While corner crews may periodically engage in minor forms of deviance, criminal gangs are commonly involved in organized drug dealing, theft, robbery and extortion. Furthermore, unlike corner crews, criminal gang members often carry weapons (including firearms) and often engage in serious forms of violence – including sexual assault, armed robbery and murder. Several respondents also felt that the violence associated with gang rivalries often puts entire communities at risk of violent victimization. These respondents often cited cases where innocent bystanders had been killed by stray gunfire during gang-related disputes. Finally, a few respondents stressed that criminal gangs are far more structured than corner crews. Corner crews, they argued, generally consist of a loosely-knit group of young men who see themselves as equals. On the other hand, criminal gangs are hierarchical with known leaders (generals) and known followers (soldiers).

Criminal Gangs

All respondents were also asked: "Are there any criminal gangs in your community?" One out of every ten respondents (11.4%) claims that criminal gangs are present in their community (see Figure 3.11). This figure includes those who feel that corner crews and criminal gangs are actually the same thing. Interestingly, the data suggest that criminal gang activity – at least as documented by the JNCVS – declined dramatically between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 22.9% of respondents reported that their community had a criminal gang

problem. This figure thus drops only 11.4% by 2012-13 – a remarkable 49% decline over a brief three year period. ¹⁰

As with corner crews, the findings suggest that criminal gangs are much more common in some Parishes than others (see Table 3.5). For example, 33.2% of the respondents from Kingston believe that there are criminal gangs in their community - as do 20.2% of the respondents from St. Andrew, 17.1% of the respondents from St. James and 13.1% of the respondents from St. Catherine. All other Parishes fall below the ten percent threshold. At the low end of the spectrum, none of the respondents from Portland (0.0%) and only 1.4% of Hanover residents believe that there is a gang presence in their neighbourhood.

Those respondents that reported that there are criminal gangs in their community (N=407) were asked if these criminal gangs did any good or positive things for their community. Only 9.6% of these respondents report that criminal gangs do good or positive things (see Figure 3.12). Further analysis reveals that these positive contributions are quite similar to the positive contributions made by corner crews. They include keeping the community clean, helping the elderly, helping community members find employment and keeping the community safe from outside intruders.

Respondents were also asked if criminal gangs did any bad or negative things in their community (see Figure 3.13). While only 9.6% of respondents felt that the criminal gangs in their community did positive things, 77.6% report that they have a negative impact. According to these respondents, the problems associated with criminal gangs include drug use, drug trafficking, major theft, robbery, extortion, fighting, gun violence, sexual assault, prostitution and murder. Several respondents also felt that the presence of criminal gangs greatly increased fear of crime and caused a breakdown in community relationships. A number also worried that criminal gangs were giving their community a bad name or reputation.

¹⁰ Unfortunately, respondents to the 2006 JNCVS were not asked questions about criminal gangs. Thus, 2006-2012 comparisons are possible.

Area Dons

Finally, all respondents were asked: "Does your community have an Area Don?" One out of every twenty respondents (4.5%) claims that their community has an Area Don (see Figure 3.11). The data further suggest that the community presence of Area Dons may have declined slightly since 2009. In 2006, during the first JNCVS survey, 4.3% of respondents claimed that their community had a Don. This figure rose to 5.4% in 2009 and has now dropped back down to 4.5%.

As with both corner crews and criminal gangs, Area Dons are much more common in some Parishes than others (see Table 3.4). For example, 9.9% of the respondents from Kingston believe that their community has an Area Don – as do 8.7% of the respondents from St. Andrew and 8.5% of the residents of St. Catherine. By contrast, not a single respondent (0%) from Trelawny, Hanover, or Manchester believes that there is an Area Don in their community.¹¹

Those respondents that reported that there is an Area Don in their community (N=159) were asked if this person did any good or positive things for their community. Almost half of these respondents (42.3%) report that the Area Don in their community does good or positive things (see Figure 3.12). However, this figure is down significantly from 2009 when 58% of respondents reported that Area Dons did positive things. Thus, it appears that the popularity of Area Dons in Jamaica may have declined slightly over the past three years.

Further analysis reveals that the positive contributions made by Area Dons include the provision of many basic services including financial assistance, employment opportunities, food, medical care, school supplies, road and building maintenance, garbage removal, dispute resolution and crime prevention. Others felt that Area Dons increased community cohesion by holding parties or stage shows and organizing sports and other recreational activities. Finally, several respondents felt that the Dons helped control young people in their community and provided youth with both career counseling and educational assistance.

¹¹ Interestingly, the percent of Kingston residents reporting an Area Don dropped from 26% in 2009 to only 10% in 2012. However, the proportion claiming that they "don't know" if their community has an Area Don or not rose from 8.7% to 21.8% during the same time period. This could mean that respondents are becoming increasingly unaware of the Don-related activity in their region. However, it could also mean that – for some reasons – the residents of Kingston have grown increasingly uncomfortable talking about Area Dons with STATIN interviewers.

Finally, respondents were also asked if the Area Don in their community did any bad or negative things to their community (see Figure 3.13). Although more than a third of respondents (42%) felt that Area Dons did positive things in their community, only 18.9% report that Area Dons have a negative impact. This figure is up slightly from 14% in 2009. According to our respondents, the problems associated with Area Dons include gang-related violence, organized crime, drug trafficking, extortion, gun violence and murder. Several respondents also felt that Area Dons serve as negative role models for the youth residing in their community.

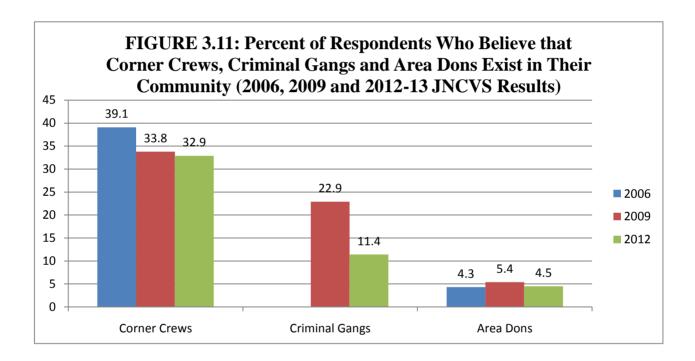
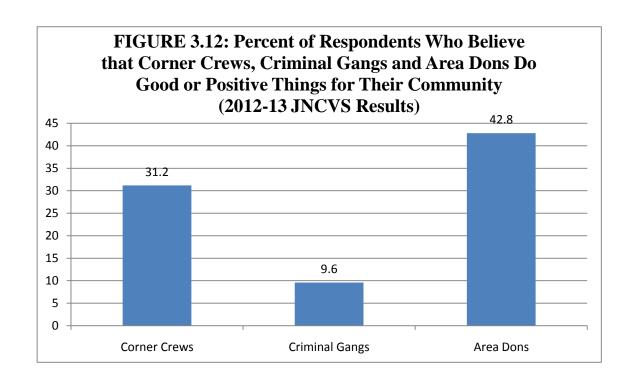
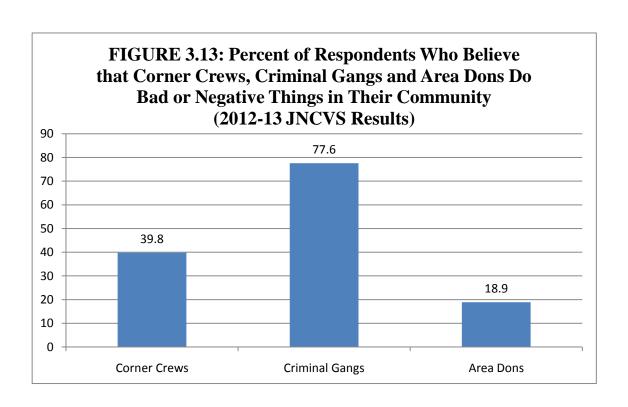


TABLE 3.5:
Percent of Respondents Who Believe that Corner Crews, Criminal Gangs and Area Dons
Exist Within Their Own Community, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Group in Community	Kingston	St. Andrew	St. Thomas	Portland	St. Mary	St. Ann	Trelawny	St. James	Hanover	West- Moreland	St. Elizabeth	Manchester	Clarendon	St. Catherine
Corner Crews	64.9	52.3	15.6	20.7	32.9	38.6	30.2	41.5	9.9	21.7	19.4	20.6	13.9	33.3
Criminal Gangs	33.2	20.2	4.4	0.0	6.5	2.5	7.5	17.1	1.4	7.8	4.1	7.1	6.1	13.1
Area Dons	9.9	8.7	0.9	0.9	1.8	0.5	0.0	3.2	0.0	6.1	1.2	0.0	1.7	8.5





PART FOUR: CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION IN JAMAICA

Highlights

- Victimization data collected by the JNCVS suggests that criminal victimization decreased in Jamaica between 2009 and 2012-13. This decline was observed for both violent and property crime.
- In 2006, 23.7% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a crime in the past year. This figure rose to 30.2% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 24.2% of respondents reported being a crime victim over the past twelve months. This represents a decline of 19.9% in the prevalence of criminal victimization between 2009 and 2012.
- In 2006, 8.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a violent crime in the past year. This figure rose to 10.0% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 7.3% of respondents reported being the victim of a violent crime over the past twelve months. This represents a 27.0% decline in the prevalence of violent victimization between 2009 and 2012-13.
- In 2006, 17.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a property crime in the past year. This figure rose to 23.6% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 19.2% of respondents reported being the victim of a property crime over the past twelve months. This represents an 18.6% decline in the prevalence of property victimization between 2009 and 2012-13.
- Overall, these JNCVS results are consistent with official police statistics which also show that violent crime including murders and shootings -- has declined in Jamaica since 2009.
- The JNCVS results also show that the rate of lifetime criminal victimization decreased from 61.4% in 2006, to 59.6% in 2009, and to 53.9% in 2012-13. This represents a 12.2% decrease in the prevalence of lifetime criminal victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The rate of lifetime violent victimization decreased from 31.7% in 2006, to 29.2% in 2009 to 25.6% in 2012-13. This represents a 19.2% decrease in the prevalence of lifetime violent victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The rate of lifetime property victimization decreased from 50.8% in 2006, to 49.4% in 2009 to 45.6% in 2012-13. This represents a 10.2% decline in the prevalence of lifetime property victimization in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.

Introduction

The 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) asked respondents to indicate whether they had been the victim of twenty one different types of criminal offences. Respondents were first asked about nine different types of violent crime including robbery with a gun, robbery without a gun, serious threats with a weapon, serious threats without a weapon, assault without a weapon, assault and rape, kidnapping and extortion. Respondents were also asked questions about twelve different types of property crime including motor vehicle theft, theft of items from a motor vehicle, theft of bicycles or motorbikes, burglary, attempted burglary, break-ins, attempted break-ins, larceny or personal theft, praedial larceny, vandalism, arson and fraud. Questionnaire items were derived from a number of international crime surveys including the American National Crime and Victimization Survey, the Canadian General Social Survey and the International Crime Victimization Survey.

This section of the report begins with a general discussion of the prevalence of each type of criminal victimization in Jamaica – with a focus on lifetime victimization and victimization within the past year. The report then compares the results of the 2006 and 2009 surveys with that of the 2012-13 survey in order to determine whether crime in Jamaica has increased or decreased over this time period. The report then explores whether the extent of victimization in Jamaica varies by region (parish) and discusses both gender and age differences in exposure to crime. The chapter concludes by comparing rates of violent and property victimization in Jamaica with that of other countries in the Caribbean region. The next section of this report (Part Five) presents a closer examination of the details of all victimization experiences that took place over the past twelve months including where and when victimization incidents take place, the nature of the victim-offender relationship, whether the respondent reported the incident to the police, why respondents do not report crime to the police and the impact that different types of crime have on crime victims.

Motor Vehicle Theft

All respondents were asked: "At some time in your life, have you or another member of your household ever had a car, truck or van stolen?" The results indicate that overall one in twenty five persons (4% of the sample) experienced this within their lifetime, with 3.7% of the sample experiencing this once, and 0.3% experiencing this twice within their lifetime (see table 4.1). Within the past year, 0.3% of the sample or one in three hundred and thirty three persons experienced motor vehicle theft.

Theft from Motor Vehicles

All respondents were asked: "At some time in your life, have you or another member of your household ever had money or other items stolen from your motor vehicle? This might include something from inside your car – like money, a purse or a bag – or a specific car part like a stereo, a wheel or a mirror?" The results indicate that one in sixteen persons (6.4% of the sample) experienced this in their lifetime, with 4.7% of the sample experiencing this once, 0.9% experiencing this twice and 0.8% experiencing this three or more times (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 1.6% experienced theft from a motor vehicle within the last year, while 2.6% experienced this within the last five years, and 2.2% more than five years ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 1.2% of the sample experienced theft from a motor vehicle once, while 0.3% experienced this twice, and 0.1% experienced this three or more times (see table 4.3).

Theft of Bicycles or Motorcycles

All respondents were asked: "At some time in your life, have you or another member of your household ever had a motor cycle or bicycle stolen?" The results suggest that one out of every eighteen persons experienced this crime (5.5% of the sample – see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.6% experienced theft of bicycles or motorcycles within the last year, while 2.2% experienced this within the last five years, and 2.7% experienced this more than five years ago (see table 4.2). The majority of persons who experienced this

experienced it only once in their lifetime. Within the past year, 0.7% of the sample or one in one hundred and forty two persons experienced theft of bicycles or motorcycles.

Burglary

All respondents were asked: "At some time in your life, has anyone ever broken into your home at night and stolen or tried to steal something?" The results indicate that one in twelve persons (8.3%) experienced this in their lifetime, with 6.3% of the sample experiencing this only once, 1.2% experiencing it twice, and 0.8% experiencing it three or more times (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 1.7% experienced burglary within the last year, 3% within the last five years, and 3.6% more than five years ago (see table 4.2). The majority of persons who experienced burglary experienced it only once in their lifetime. Within the past year, 1.7% of the sample or one in fifty nine persons experienced burglary (see table 4.3).

Attempted Burglary

Respondents were also asked: "Have you ever found evidence to suggest that someone tried to break into your home at night but failed? For example, have you ever discovered damage to doors, locks or windows that would suggest that someone tried to get into your home at night without permission?" The results indicate that one in twenty eight persons (3.6%) were victims of attempted burglary, with 3.1% of the sample experiencing this once, and 0.5% of the sample experiencing it more than once in their lifetime (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, it was discovered that 0.8% of the sample experienced attempted burglary within the last year, while 1.6% experienced this within the last five years (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.7% of the sample or one in one hundred and forty two persons experienced attempted burglary (see table 4.3).

Break-ins

All respondents were asked: "At some time in your life, has anyone ever broken into your home during the day and stolen or tried to steal something?" The results

indicate that one in seventeen persons (5.8%) experienced break-ins at some point in their life, with 4.1% experiencing it once, and 1.7% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). As the data in table 4.2 indicate, 1.9% of persons experienced break-ins within the past year, while 2.2% experienced it within the last five years, and 1.7% more than five years ago. It was also discovered that within the past year, 1.5% of the sample experienced break-ins once, while 0.4% experienced break-ins more than once (see table 4.3). Overall, one in fifty two persons (1.9%) experienced break-ins within the past year.

Attempted Break-ins

Respondents were also asked: "Have you ever found evidence to suggest that someone tried to break into your home during the day and failed? For example, have you ever discovered damage to doors, locks or windows that would suggest that someone tried to get into your home during the day without permission?" The results indicate that 1.4% or one in seventy one persons experienced attempted break-ins at some point in their lives (see table 4.1). One in every hundred persons or 1% experienced attempted break-ins once, while one in two hundred and fifty persons experienced this more than once. Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, data in table 4.2 indicate that 0.4% of the sample experienced attempted break-ins within the last year, while 0.6% experienced it within the last five years, and 0.5% more than five years ago. Within the past year, 0.4% of the sample or one in two hundred and fifty persons experienced attempted break-ins (see table 4.3).

Armed Robbery – Robbery with a Gun

All respondents were asked: "Have you ever been robbed by someone with a gun? Has anyone ever tried to take money or something else from you by threatening you with a gun or using a gun on you?" The results suggest that one in fourteen persons had been robbed at gunpoint at some point in their lives (7.3%), with 6.1% experiencing this once, 1.2% experiencing this more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 1.2% (one in every eighty three persons) experienced armed robbery within the last year, while 2.3% experienced this within the last five years, and 3.9% experiencing it more than five years ago (see table

4.2). The data in table 4.3 indicate that within the last year 1.1% of persons experienced armed robbery once, while 0.1% experienced it more than once. Overall, one in eighty three persons experienced armed robbery within the last year.

Robbery without a Gun

Respondents were subsequently asked: "Apart from the cases that you have already told me about, has anyone ever tried to mug you or rob you without using a gun? For example, has anyone ever tried to take something from you by threatening to beat you, threatening to hurt you with a knife or some other weapon, or by actually attacking you?" The results indicate that one in twenty two persons (4.5%) experienced robbery without the use of a gun, with 3.9% experiencing this once, and 0.6% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, the data in table 4.2 indicate that 0.4% of the sample experienced robbery without a gun within the last year, while 4.1% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago. Within the past year, 0.4% of the sample or one in two hundred and fifty persons experienced robbery without the use of a firearm (see table 4.3).

Larceny (Personal Theft)

All respondents were then asked: "There are many other types of theft that do not involve robbery or the threat of violence. These crimes include things like pick-pocketing or stealing things – like a purse, wallet, jewelry, clothing or other items. These things can happen at home, work, at school, on the street, at the beach, on the bus or in other public places. Have you ever been the victim of this type of larceny or theft? Has someone ever stolen money or other items from you?" The results suggest that one in seven persons (13.5%) experienced larceny in their lifetime, with 9.7% experiencing it once, and 3.8% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 3.3% experienced larceny within the last year, while 10.2% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 3.3% of the sample or one in thirty persons experienced larceny (see table 4.3).

Praedial Larceny

All respondents were then asked: "Have you ever been the victim of praedial larceny? In other words, has anyone ever stolen fruit, vegetables, animals or other agricultural supplies from you property?" The results suggest that one in six persons (17.7%) experienced praedial larceny within their lifetime, with 5.3% experiencing it once, and 12.4% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 9.9% experienced praedial larceny within the last year, while 7.9% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 9.9% of the sample or one in ten persons experienced praedial larceny (see table 4.3).

Vandalism

All respondents were asked: "Has anyone ever purposely caused damage to your home or property? For example, has anyone ever purposely broken windows at your home, damaged fences or defaced your property with graffiti? Has anyone ever broken or damaged something else that you own like a motor vehicle?" The results suggest that one in thirty four persons (2.9%) were the victims of vandalism within their lifetime, with 1.8% experiencing it once, and 1.1% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.9% experienced vandalism within the last year, while 2% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.9% of the sample or one in one hundred and eleven persons experienced vandalism (see table 4.3).

Serious Threats with a Weapon

All respondents were asked: "Apart from the cases that you have already told me about, has anyone ever seriously threatened to cause you harm with a gun, a knife or some other kind of weapon? Has anyone ever threatened to hurt you by throwing something on you like boiling water or acid? Remember, I only want you to tell me about threats that you took seriously. Once again, these threats could be made by family members, friends, acquaintances or strangers." The results suggest that one in sixteen persons (6.4%) experienced serious threats with a weapon within their lifetime, with

3.6% experiencing it once, and 2.8% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 2% experienced serious threats with a weapon within the last year, while 4.3% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). When only the last year is considered, 2% of the sample or one in fifty persons experienced serious threats with a weapon (see table 4.3).

Serious Threats without a Weapon

All respondents were asked: "Apart from the cases that you have already told me about, has anyone ever seriously threatened to harm you without a weapon? For example, has anyone ever threatened to harm you by punching you or kicking you? Remember, I only want you to tell me about the threats that you took seriously. These threats could be made by family members, friends, acquaintances or strangers." The results suggest that one in thirteen persons (7.5%) experienced serious threats without a weapon within their lifetime, with 3.1% experiencing it once, and 4.4% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 2.6% experienced serious threats without a weapon within the last year, while 4.8% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 2.6% of the sample or one in thirty eight persons experienced serious threats without a weapon (see table 4.3).

Assaults with a Weapon

All respondents were asked: "Apart from the cases that you have already told me about, has anyone ever attacked you or assaulted you with a weapon like a gun, a knife, or a bat or has anyone tried to hurt you by throwing something on you like boiling water or acid? Once again, these assaults or attacks could be made by family members, friends, acquaintances or strangers." The results suggest that one in twenty persons (5.1%) was the victim of assault with a weapon within their lifetime, with 3.7% experiencing it once, and 1.4% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 1.1% experienced assault with a weapon within the last year, while 4% experienced this type of

victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 2.1% of the sample or one in forty eight persons experienced assault with a weapon (see table 4.3).

Physical Assaults (Assaults without a Weapon)

All respondents were asked: "Apart from the cases that you have already told me about, has anyone ever hit, attacked or assaulted you without a weapon? For example, has anyone ever kicked you, punched you, slapped you, pushed you or attacked you using some other kind of force? Once again, these assaults or attacks could be made by family members, friends, acquaintances or strangers." The results suggest that one in twenty eight persons (3.6%) experienced physical assaults without a weapon within their lifetime, with 2.1% experiencing it once, and 1.5% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.8% experienced physical assaults without a weapon within the last year, while 2.9% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.9% of the sample or one in one hundred and eleven persons experienced assaults without a weapon (see table 4.3).

Sexual Assault

All respondents were asked: "I now want to ask you about crimes called sexual assault or rape. Has anyone ever forced you or tried to force you into unwanted sexual activity by threatening you, holding you down or hurting you in some way? This would include acts committed by family members, friends, acquaintances or strangers." The results suggest that one in fifty nine persons (1.7%) experienced sexual assault within their lifetime, with 1.1% experiencing it once, and 0.6% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.1% experienced sexual assault within the last year, while 1.6% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.2% of the sample or one in five hundred persons experienced sexual assaults (see table 4.3).

Kidnapping

All respondents were asked: "Sometimes people are kidnapped and held for ransom or taken for some other reason. Have you or any member of your household ever been kidnapped?" The results suggest that one in two hundred and fifty persons (0.4%) experienced kidnapping within their lifetime, with no persons experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). All such persons experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2).

Arson

All respondents were asked: "Have you ever been the victim of arson? For example, has anyone ever tried to burn down your home or any other property that you own?" The results suggest that one in sixty three persons (1.6%) experienced arson within their lifetime, with 1.4% experiencing it once, and 0.2% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.2% experienced arson within the last year, while 1.5% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). When only the last year is considered, 0.2% of the sample or one in five hundred persons experienced arson (see table 4.3).

Fraud

All respondents were asked: "Have you ever been the victim of fraud? For example, has someone ever tried to do things like use your personal identification, use your credit cards or banking cards without your permission, or tried to cash cheques in your name? Has anyone tried to rip you off in some other way?" The results suggest that one in forty persons (2.5%) experienced fraud within their lifetime, with 1.9% experiencing it once, and 0.6% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.6% experienced fraud within the last year, while 1% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.6% of the sample or one in one hundred and sixty seven persons experienced fraud (see table 4.3).

Extortion

Finally, all respondents were asked the following question: "Extortion refers to the obtaining of money, or anything else of value, in exchange for protection, through the implied or explicit threat of force. Have you ever been the victim of extortion?" The results suggest that one in one hundred and twenty five persons (0.8%) experienced extortion within their lifetime, with 0.4% experiencing it once, and 0.4% experiencing it more than once (see table 4.1). Where the most recent incident of victimization in respondents' lifetime is concerned, 0.3% experienced extortion within the last year, while 0.6% experienced this type of victimization more than one year ago (see table 4.2). Within the past year, 0.2% of the sample or one in five hundred persons experienced extortion (see table 4.3).

TOTAL VICTIMIZATION LEVELS

The results of the 2012-13 victimization survey indicate that somewhat more than half (53.9%) of Jamaicans have been the victim of crime within their lifetime, with one in five persons (18%) being victimized once, one in ten persons (9.9%) being victimized twice, and one in four persons (26%) being victimized three or more times in their lifetime (see table 4.1). When only violent crime is considered, one in four persons in Jamaica (25.6%) have been so victimized within their lifetime, with one in seven persons (13.8%) experiencing one incident of such victimization in their lifetime, one in twenty three persons (4.3%) experiencing two such incidents in their lifetime, and one in thirteen persons (7.5%) experiencing three or more such incidents in their lifetime (see table 4.1). When only property crime is considered, approximately one in two persons in Jamaica (45.6%) have been so victimized within their lifetime, with one in five persons (18.3%) experiencing one incident of property crime victimization in their lifetime, one in eleven persons (9.3%) experiencing two such incidents in their lifetime, and one in six persons (18%) experiencing three or more such incidents in their lifetime (see table 4.1). Overall, persons in Jamaica are almost twice as likely to become a victim of property crime (45.6% were so victimized) compared to becoming a victim of violent crime (25.6% were

so victimized).¹² The most prevalent types of crime to occur within persons lifetimes are threats with a weapon, theft from vehicles, break-ins, bicycle and motorcycle theft, assaults with a weapon, and robbery (see figure 4.1). The most prevalent types of crime to occur within the past year were praedial larceny, general larceny, threats without a weapon, assaults with a weapon, threats with a weapon, break-ins, and burglary (see figure 4.2).

In terms of the most recent victimization incident, the data suggest that one out of every four Jamaicans were victimized within the past year (24%), while a similar proportion (26.6%) were victims within the past five years, and in the time period prior to the last five years, 24.9% were victims (see table 4.2). When victimizations within the past year alone are considered, one in four Jamaicans (24.2%) were victims (see table 4.3). Within the past year, one in eight Jamaicans (13%) were victimized once, while 3.7% were victimized twice, and 7.4% were victimized three or more times (see table 4.3). When only violent crimes within the past year are considered, one in fourteen Jamaicans (7.3%) were victims, with 5.1% being victimized once, 0.8% twice, and 1.4% three or more times (see table 4.3). When only property crimes within the past year are considered, one in five Jamaicans (19.2%) were victims, with 10.1% being victimized once, 3.1% twice, and 5.8% three or more times (see table 4.3).

_

¹² A respondent was coded as the victim of a *property crime* if they had experienced any of the following types of criminal victimization: car theft, theft from vehicles, bike or motorcycle theft, burglary, attempted burglary, break-in, attempted break-in, larceny/theft, praedial larceny, vandalism, arson or fraud. A respondent was coded as the victim of a *violent crime* if they had experienced any of the following types of victimization: armed robbery, robbery without a gun, threats with a weapon, threats without a weapon, assault with a weapon, assault without a weapon, sexual assault/rape, kidnapping or extortion.

TABLE 4.1:
Percent of Respondents Who Have Experienced Various Types of Criminal Victimization in Their Lifetime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Victimization	Number of Times Victimized in Lifetime					
	NEVER (%)	ONCE (%)	TWICE (%)	THREE OR MORE TIMES (%)		
Car Theft	96.0	3.7	0.3	0.0		
Theft from Vehicles	93.6	4.7	0.9	0.8		
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	94.5	4.7	0.6	0.2		
Burglary	91.7	6.3	1.2	0.8		
Attempted Burglary	96.4	3.1	0.4	0.1		
Break-in	94.2	4.1	1.1	0.6		
Attempted Break-in	98.6	1.0	0.3	0.1		
Robbery (at gunpoint)	92.7	6.1	0.9	0.3		
Robbery (without a gun)	95.5	3.9	0.4	0.2		
Larceny/Theft	86.5	9.7	2.1	1.7		
Praedial Larceny	82.3	5.3	3.0	9.4		
Vandalism	97.1	1.8	0.3	0.8		
Threats (with a weapon)	93.6	3.6	1.0	1.8		
Threats (without a weapon)	92.5	3.1	1.5	2.9		
Assaults (with a weapon)	94.9	3.7	0.7	0.7		
Assaults (without a weapon)	96.4	2.1	0.7	0.8		
Sexual Assault and Rape	98.3	1.1	0.3	0.3		
Kidnapping	99.6	0.4	0.0	0.0		
Arson	98.4	1.4	0.1	0.1		
Fraud	97.5	1.9	0.3	0.3		
Extortion	99.2	0.4	0.2	0.2		
TOTAL VIOLENT CRIME	74.4	13.8	4.3	7.5		
TOTAL PROPERTY CRIME	54.4	18.3	9.3	18.0		
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	46.1	18.0	9.9	26.0		

Sample Size=3,556

96

TABLE 4.2:
Percent of Respondents Who Have Experienced Various Types of Criminal Victimization, by Most Recent Victimization (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Victimization	Most Recent Victimization					
	NEVER (%)	PAST YEAR (%)	PAST FIVE YEARS (%)	MORE THAN FIVE YEARS AGO (%)		
Car Theft	95.9	0.3	1.7	2.1		
Theft from Vehicles	93.6	1.6	2.6	2.2		
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	94.5	0.6	2.2	2.7		
Burglary	91.7	1.7	3.0	3.6		
Attempted Burglary	96.4	0.8	1.6	1.2		
Break-in	94.2	1.9	2.2	1.7		
Attempted Break-in	98.5	0.4	0.6	0.5		
Robbery (at gunpoint)	92.6	1.2	2.3	3.9		
Robbery (without a gun)	95.5	0.4	1.7	2.4		
Larceny/Theft	86.5	3.3	5.1	5.1		
Praedial Larceny	82.2	9.9	4.9	3.0		
Vandalism	97.1	0.9	1.3	0.7		
Threats (with a weapon)	93.7	2.0	2.6	1.7		
Threats (without a weapon)	92.6	2.6	3.5	1.3		
Assaults (with a weapon)	94.9	1.1	1.8	2.2		
Assaults (without a weapon)	96.3	0.8	1.6	1.3		
Sexual Assault	98.3	0.1	0.4	1.2		
Kidnapping	99.6	0.0	0.2	0.2		
Arson	98.3	0.2	0.7	0.8		
Fraud	98.4	0.6	0.6	0.4		
Extortion	99.1	0.3	0.4	0.2		
TOTAL VIOLENT CRIME	70.1	7.3	10.8	11.8		
TOTAL PROPERTY CRIME	42.4	19.0	20.6	18.0		
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	24.5	24.0	26.6	24.9		

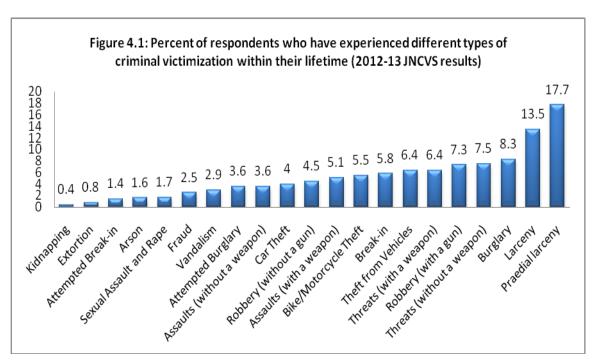
Sample Size=3,556

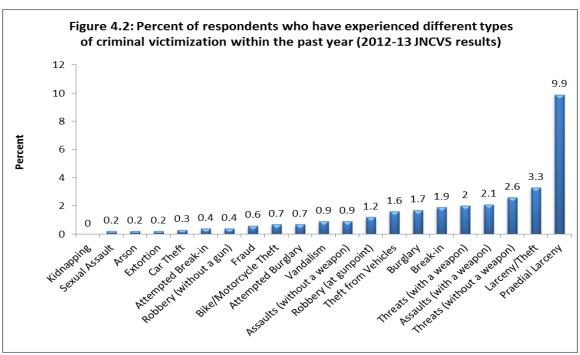
97

TABLE 4.3: Number of Victimizations in the Past Year, by Type of Victimization, (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Type of Victimization	Number of Times Victimized in Past Year						
	NEVER (%)	ONCE (%)	TWICE (%)	THREE OR MORE TIMES (%)			
Car Theft	99.7	0.3	0.0	0.0			
Theft from Vehicles	98.4	1.2	0.3	0.1			
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	99.3	0.6	0.1	0.0			
Burglary	98.3	1.5	0.1	0.1			
Attempted Burglary	99.3	0.6	0.1	0.0			
Break-in	98.1	1.5	0.3	0.1			
Attempted Break-in	99.6	0.3	0.1	0.0			
Robbery (at gunpoint)	98.8	1.1	0.1	0.0			
Robbery (without a gun)	99.6	0.4	0.0	0.0			
Larceny/Theft	96.7	2.5	0.5	0.3			
Praedial Larceny	90.1	3.9	1.7	4.3			
Vandalism	99.1	0.8	0.0	0.1			
Threats (with a weapon)	98.0	1.5	0.3	0.2			
Threats (without a weapon)	97.4	1.6	0.3	0.7			
Assaults (with a weapon)	97.9	1.0	0.0	1.1			
Assaults (without a weapon)	99.1	0.6	0.1	0.2			
Sexual Assault	99.8	0.1	0.0	0.1			
Kidnapping	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			
Arson	99.8	0.2	0.0	0.0			
Fraud	99.4	0.4	0.1	0.1			
Extortion	99.8	0.0	0.0	0.2			
TOTAL VIOLENT CRIME	92.7	5.1	0.8	1.4			
TOTAL PROPERTY CRIME	81.0	10.1	3.1	5.8			
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	75.9	13.0	3.7	7.4			

Sample Size=3,556





VICTIMIZATION TRENDS IN JAMAICA

This section compares victimization rates from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys. This comparison is important as it allows for an assessment of whether crime rates increased or decreased in Jamaica over this period. In addition, this section examines official crime data for the period 2000 to 2012 to determine if there are consistencies between victimization data and official police statistics.

Where lifetime victimization rates are concerned, there was a consistent decrease over the period 2006 to 2012-13 (see Table 4.4 and Figure 4.3). More specifically, total lifetime victimization decreased from 61.4% in 2006, to 59.6% in 2009, and to 53.9% in 2012-13. Thus, between 2006 and 2012-13, the lifetime criminal victimization rate declined by 12.2%.

This decrease in total lifetime victimization was mirrored by declines in both lifetime violent and lifetime property victimization. In 2006, 31.7% of the JNCVS sample reported that they had been the victim of a violent crime at some point in their lifetime, compared to 29.2% in 2009 and 25.6% in 2012-13. Thus, the trend data suggest that the lifetime violent victimization rate declined by almost twenty percent (19.2%) between 2006 and 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, one out of two respondents (50.8%) reported that they had been the victim of a property crime at some point in their life. This figure dropped to 49.4% in 2009 and 45.6% in 2012-13. Thus, between 2006 to 2012-13, the lifetime property crime victimization rate in Jamaica declined by more than ten percent.

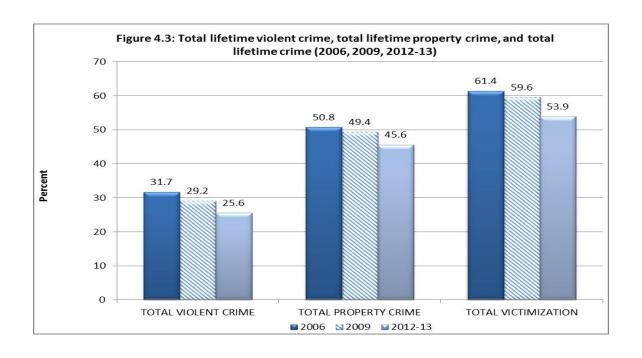
Overall, the above findings are consistent with decreases in reported victimization for a number of specific property and violent crimes. Where property crimes are concerned, consistent decreases occurred for car theft, bicycle and motorcycle theft, burglary, larceny, arson and fraud. Where violent crimes are concerned, consistent decreases were observed for robbery with and without a gun, threats with and without a weapon, assaults with and without a weapon, and sexual assault/rape. There were no specific violent or property crimes with a consistent upward trend during the period under consideration.

Trends in past-year victimization rates differ somewhat from the lifetime victimization figures. Overall, levels of past-year victimization rose between 2006 and 2009, but declined significantly between 2009 and 2012-13 (see Table 4.5 and Figure 4.4). In 2006, 23.7% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a crime in the past year. This figure rose to 30.2% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 24.2% of respondents reported being a crime victim over the past twelve months. This represents a decline of 19.9% in the prevalence of past-year criminal victimization between 2009 and 2012. Similar trends are observed for both violent and property victimization. For example, in 2006, 8.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a violent crime in the past year. This figure rose to 10.0% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 7.3% of respondents reported being the victim of a violent crime over the past twelve months. This represents a 27.0% decline in the prevalence of violent victimization between 2009 and 2012-13. Finally, in 2006, 17.6% of JNCVS respondents reported that they had been the victim of a property crime in the past year. This figure rose to 23.6% in 2009. However, in 2012-13, only 19.2% of respondents reported being the victim of a property crime over the past twelve months. This represents an 18.6% decline in the prevalence of property victimization between 2009 and 2012-13.

This general pattern – an increase in victimization between 2006 and 2009 and a decline in victimization between 2009 and 2012-13 – exists for a number of specific types of crime. These crimes include theft from motor vehicles, theft of bicycles and motorcycles, burglary, praedial larceny, vandalism, threats with and without the use of a weapon, assault without a weapon, sexual assault/rape, arson and fraud. As with lifetime victimization, however, there were some crimes for which there was an observed decrease over the entire time period under consideration. These offences include car theft, attempted burglary and robbery without a gun.

TABLE 4.4: Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced Various Types of Criminal Victimization in Their Lifetime, Results from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys

TYPE OF VICTIMIZATION	2006	2009	2012-13
Car Theft	5.0	4.4	4.0
Theft from Vehicles	7.4	5.6	6.4
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	9.2	7.6	5.5
Burglary	14.0	11.9	8.3
Attempted Burglary	6.8	5.7	3.6
Robbery (at gunpoint)	8.0	7.0	7.3
Robbery (without a gun)	6.3	4.4	4.5
Larceny/Theft	16.5	14.1	13.5
Praedial Larceny	17.6	22.9	17.7
Vandalism	4.5	5.3	2.9
Threats (with a weapon)	8.3	7.3	6.4
Threats (without a weapon)	11.8	9.8	7.5
Assaults (with a weapon)	6.2	5.7	5.1
Assaults (without a weapon)	6.8	6.2	3.6
Sexual Assault and Rape	2.4	2.4	1.7
Kidnapping	0.4	0.6	0.4
Arson	2.5	1.8	1.6
Fraud	3.8	2.5	2.5
Extortion	NA	1.6	0.8
TOTAL VIOLENT	31.7	29.2	25.6
TOTAL PROPERTY	50.8	49.4	45.6
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	61.4	59.6	53.9

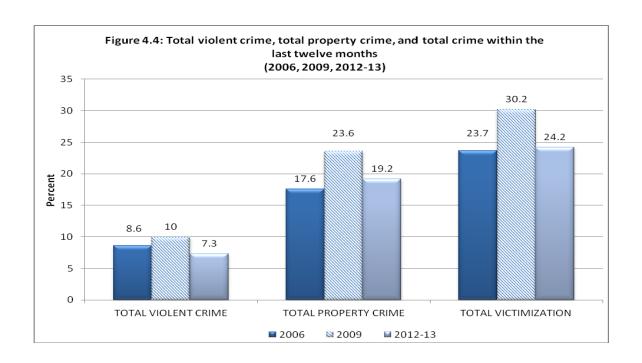


102

TABLE 4.5:
Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in the Past Twelve Months,
Results from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys

TYPE OF VICTIMIZATION	2006	2009	2012-13
Car Theft	0.6	0.5	0.3
Theft from Vehicles	1.7	2.0	1.6
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	1.3	1.4	0.7
Burglary	2.0	3.4	1.7
Attempted Burglary	1.5	1.1	0.7
Robbery (at gunpoint)	1.3	1.0	1.2
Robbery (without a gun)	0.8	0.6	0.4
Larceny/Theft	2.9	3.1	3.3
Praedial Larceny	8.1	13.7	9.9
Vandalism	0.9	2.2	0.9
Threats (with a weapon)	2.2	2.7	2.0
Threats (without a weapon)	3.1	3.9	2.6
Assaults (with a weapon)	1.5	1.5	2.1
Assaults (without a weapon)	0.8	1.5	0.9
Sexual Assault and Rape	0.1	0.5	0.2
Kidnapping	0.0	0.1	0.0
Arson	0.4	0.5	0.2
Fraud	0.5	0.8	0.6
Extortion	NA	0.7	0.2
TOTAL VIOLENCE	8.6	10.0	7.3
TOTAL PROPERTY	17.6	23.6	19.2
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	23.7	30.2	24.2

103



In order to better understand the trends in victimization data, comparisons were made with official crime data. Table 4.6 presents Jamaican data for selected crimes for the period 2000 to 2012. Figures 4.5 through 4.7 graphically illustrate this data to present a clearer representation of crime trends captured by official police statistics. Victimization data for the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys indicate that crime levels are decreasing in Jamaica. Official crime statistics, however, indicate that this downward trend may be limited to specific offences.

As Figure 4.5 illustrates, the trends in murder and shootings are fairly similar. Overall, the average number of murders and shootings per year was higher during the second half of the decade than the first half of the decade. For example, from 2000 to 2012, there was an average of 1,313 murders per year. However, from 2006 to 2012 the average number of murders increased to 1,411 per year. An examination of the average annual increase or decrease in the number of murders however reveals that while, for the entire time period under consideration (i.e. 2000 to 2012) the number of murders has increased by an average of 16 per year, within the period 2006 to 2012, the number of murders has actually decreased by an average of 41.8 per year. Overall, as figure 4.5 illustrates, while murders in Jamaica increased from 2000 to 2005, after this there was a

reversal and a steady decline in the number of murders from 2005 to 2012. The decline in the Jamaican homicide rate was particularly profound between 2009 and 2012. According to official police statistics, Jamaica recorded 1,682 homicides in 2009. This figure dropped to only 1,079 in 2012. In other words, there were 603 fewer murders in 2012 than 2009 – a remarkable 36% decline over this short three year period.

This pattern of change is mirrored when we look at official data on the number of shootings in Jamaica. Overall, for the period 2000 to 2012, there was an average of 1,381 shootings per year in Jamaica. This figure increases to 1,438 per year for the period 2006 to 2012. A closer examination of trends in shootings, however, reveals that while on average for the entire time period of 2000 to 2012 there was an increase in shootings by 21.6 per year, when more recent trends for the period 2006 to 2012 are considered, official data indicate that the number of shootings in Jamaica has declined by an average of 19.8 per year. As Figure 4.5 illustrates, a consistent decrease in shootings within Jamaica began around 2009. In 2009, for example, the country recorded 1,664 shooting incidents. This figure drops to only 1,224 by 2012. In other words, according to police statistics, Jamaica experienced 440 few shootings in 2012 than 2009 – a decline of 26% over this three year period. These observed declines in police-recorded murders and shootings between 2009 and 2012 are completely consistent with the overall declines in self-reported victimization rates documented by the Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys. Further analysis, however, reveals that these general declines may not exist for all crime types.

Table 4.6: Official Crime Data for Jamaica (2000-2012)

Year	Murder	Shootings	Rape	Carnal Abuse	Robbery	Break- Ins	Larceny
2000	887	965	870	434	2331	2426	274
2001	1139	1183	912	306	2109	2184	228
2002	1045	1270	875	270	2021	1769	251
2003	975	1145	931	377	1710	1401	258
2004	1469	1677	856	409	2103	2044	238
2005	1674	1646	746	346	2210	1653	186
2006	1330	1343	680	420	2006	1293	111
2007	1583	1448	712	508	1601	1493	99
2008	1618	1528	849	610	2660	2449	325
2009	1682	1664	695	578	3021	3788	511
2010	1442	1517	704	731	2850	3781	382
2011	1141	1341	815	521	3077	3409	372
2012	1079	1224	834	-	2686	3110	693
Average (2000-2012)	1313	1381	806	459	2337	2369	302
Average (2006-2012)	1411	1438	756	561	2557	2760	356
Average increase or decrease (2000-2012)	16.0	21.6	-3.0	7.9	29.6	57.0	34.9
Average increase or decrease (2006-2012)	-41.8	-19.8	25.7	20.2	113.3	302.8	97.0

Source: Ministry of National Security of Jamaica

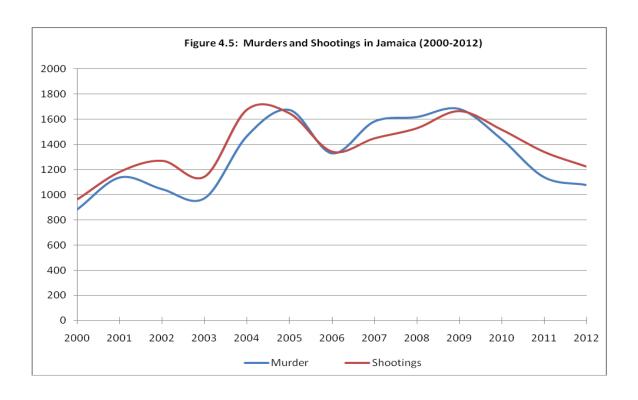
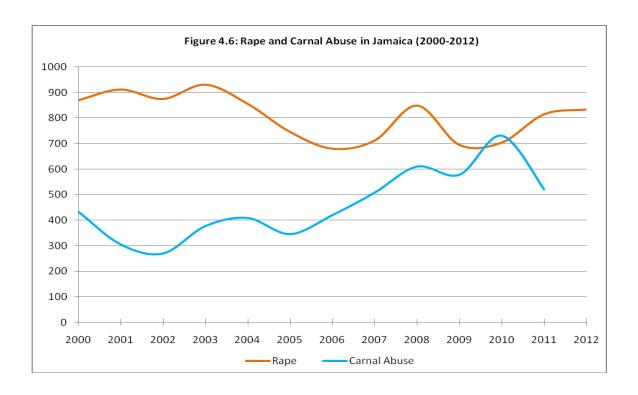


Table 4.6 and figure 4.6 show official crime data for rape and carnal abuse for the period 2000 to 2012. In the case of rape, for the period 2000 to 2012 there have been an average of 806 rapes per year. This has declined to an average of 756 per year for the period 2006 to 2012. On average, for the entire time period under consideration, rapes have declined by an average of 3 per year, while for the period 2006 to 2012, rapes have actually increased by an average of 25.7 per year. The lower average number of rapes for the period 2006 to 2012 can be explained by the long term overall decline in rapes. As a consequence of this, the annual average number of rapes in recent times is lower than that recorded during the earlier time period. Despite the fact that the overall average number of rapes is lower during the latter time period, there is a noted increase in the number of rapes within recent times, particularly after 2009. This accounts for the overall increase in rapes when the 2006 to 2012 time period is considered. In the case of carnal abuse, official crime data indicate that for the period 2000 to 2012 there was an average of 459 such incidents per year. This average increased to 561 such incidents per year for the period 2006 to 2012. Overall long term trends for the period 2000 to 2012 indicate that the number of incidents of carnal abuse has increased by an average of 7.9 incidents per year, while within more recent times (i.e. 2006 to 2011¹³) the number of incidents has increased by an average of 20.2 per year. The noted increases in rape and carnal abuse documented by official Jamaican crime statistics are not consistent with the overall decline in crime rates documented by the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys.

¹³ Official crime data for carnal abuse are not available for 2012.

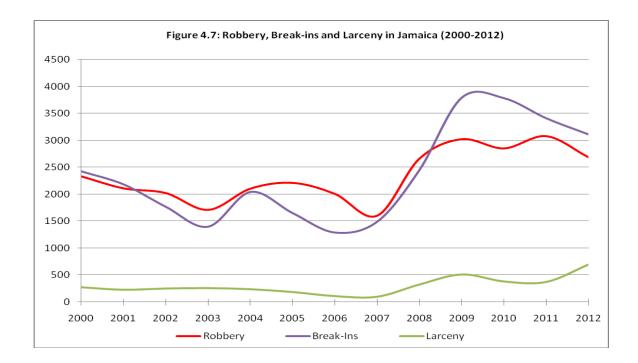


Official crime data for robberies, larceny and break-ins for the period 2000 to 2012 are shown in table 4.6 and figure 4.7. For the period 2000 to 2012 there was an average of 2,337 robberies per year, with this average increasing to 2,557 for the period 2006 to 2012. In the case of robberies, long term trends for the period 2000 to 2012 indicate that the number of robberies has increased by an average of 29.6 per year, while within more recent times (i.e. 2006 to 2012) the number of robberies has increased by an average of 113.3 per year. The trends in break-ins are very similar to that of robbery. For the period 2000 to 2012 there was an average of 2,369 break-ins per year, with this average increasing to 2,760 for the period 2006 to 2012. In the case of break-ins, long term trends for the period 2000 to 2012 indicate that the number of break-ins has increased by an average of 57 per year, while within more recent times (i.e. 2006 to 2012) the number of break-ins has increased by an average of 302.8 per year. Where larceny is concerned, there was an average of 302 such incidents per year for the period 2000 to 2012, with this average increasing slightly to 356 incidents per year for the period 2006 to 2012. For the period 2000 to 2012, the number of incidents of larceny increased by an average of 34.9 per year, with the number of incidents of larceny increasing by an average of 97 per year within more recent times (i.e. 2006 to 2012). The

noted increases in robbery, break-ins and larceny in official crime data are also not consistent with the noted decreases in victimization levels observed by the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys.

One of the ways that discrepancies in official crime data and victimization survey data may be explained relates to reporting practices. Victimization surveys are more likely than official data to capture the 'true' extent of victimization since many of the crimes which are reported in victimization surveys are not reported to the police, and hence do not become part of the official crime statistics. It is important t note, however, that murder statistics are not impacted by civilian reporting practices. The vast majority of homicides eventually become known to the police and are accurately recorded in official police statistics. As a result, homicide statistics are widely accepted as reliable. However, all other official crime statistics may reflect the willingness of civilians to report crime incidents to the police.

Many factors can affect reporting practices. Reporting practices may vary by crime type. For some types of crimes, persons may be very reluctant to report that such an incident has occurred, while for others, there may be fewer issues with regard to reporting, and hence a greater likelihood that they may be reported. If persons are more confident in the criminal justice system they may be more likely to report that crimes have occurred, while a lack of confidence may hinder reporting. If there are cultural changes which support reporting, such as changes in the beliefs about domestic violence, or if there are educational campaigns that stress the importance of reporting incidents of victimization, then it is more likely that such incidents will be reported. While reporting practices can affect official crime data, it must be acknowledged that changes in official data may reflect real changes in the level of crime. This is especially the case for crimes which are difficult to conceal, such as murders and shootings. In the present context, it should be noted, as indicated above, that the declines in murders and shootings, especially within more recent times is consistent with the observed decline in crime levels as discovered by an examination of data from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys. Reporting practices for other crimes such as rapes and other forms of sexual abuse are strongly affected by cultural factors, while reporting practices for robbery, break-ins and larceny may be affected by confidence in the Criminal Justice System, the level of education of victims and so on. As such, given that the reporting of such crimes may affect official crime data to a greater extent, it should not be expected that official crime data for such crimes will be perfectly consistent with victimization survey data. In fact, it is entirely possible for such crimes to be declining, as indicated by the JNCVS, while reporting practices nevertheless translate to an increase in the statistics within official crime data.¹⁴



VICTIMIZATION BY PARISH

Table 4.7 provides information on lifetime exposure to criminal victimization in Jamaica by Parish. The results indicate that the likelihood of experiencing specific types of criminal victimization varies dramatically from region to region. The parishes with the highest proportions of total lifetime crime victimization are, in descending order,

¹⁴ Previous research suggests that official crime statistics are also influenced by police practices with respect to recording crime incidents. Thus, part of the increase in official crime rates may reflect the fact that the Jamaican police are becoming better or more effective at recording the crimes that they become aware.

Clarendon (where 67.3% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within their lifetime), Trelawny (61%), St. James (60.8%), St. Elizabeth (60%), St. Andrew (57.9%) and St. Ann (57.9%). When only property crimes are considered, the parishes with the highest levels of victimization are the same ones with the highest levels of total lifetime victimization. The parishes with the highest levels of total lifetime property crime victimization are, in descending order, Clarendon (where 57.1% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more property crimes within their lifetime), Trelawny (52.2%), St. James (50.7%), St. Ann (49.5%) and St. Andrew (49%). The parishes with the highest proportions of total lifetime violent crime victimization, in descending order are St. James (where 36.4% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more violent crimes within their lifetime), St. Elizabeth (34.1%), St. Andrew (32%), Portland (31.9%) and Clarendon (31.3%).

As indicated in table 4.7, the parishes with the lowest reported proportions of total lifetime crime victimization are St. Thomas (where 38.2% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within their lifetime), Westmoreland (42.2%), St. Catherine (47.9%) and St. Mary (42.9%). The parishes with the lowest reported proportions of total lifetime property crime victimization are St. Thomas (where 33.3% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more property crimes within their lifetime), Westmoreland (37.8%), St. Catherine (39.4%) and St. Mary (40%). The parishes with the lowest reported proportions of total lifetime violent crime victimization are St. Mary (where 13.5% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more violent crimes within their lifetime), Westmoreland (14.4%), St. Thomas (18.2%) and St. Catherine (19.6%).

Table 4.8 provides information on exposure to criminal victimization within the last year in Jamaica by parish. The parishes with the highest proportions of total self-reported victimization within the past year in descending order are Clarendon (where 32.7% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within the past year), Trelawny (32.1%), Manchester (29.8%), St. Mary (27.1%) and St. James (26.3%). When only property crime victimization in the past year is considered, the

parishes with the highest levels are the same parishes with the highest levels of total past year crime victimization. In descending order, the parishes with the highest levels of past year property crime victimization are Clarendon (where 27.6% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more property crimes within the past year), Trelawny (25.8%), Manchester (24.4%), St. Mary (22.9%) and St. Elizabeth (20.0%). When only violent crime victimization in the past year is considered, the parishes with the highest levels, in descending order are St. James (where 10.6% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more violent crimes within the past year), Trelawny (10.1%), Kingston (9.9%), St. Elizabeth (8.8%) and Clarendon (8.5%).

As indicated in table 4.8, when past year victimization is considered, a number of parishes consistently stand out as those with a lower than average prevalence. For total past year crime victimization, the parishes with the lowest prevalence are St. Andrew (where 18.0% of all respondents indicated that they were the victim of one or more crimes within the past year), Portland (19.0%), Westmoreland (21.1%), and St. Thomas (21.3%). When only property crime victimization within the last year is considered, parishes with comparatively low prevalence of such victimization are St. Andrew (13.1%), Portland (14.7%), St. Thomas (16%), Kingston (17.3%), and Hanover (17.7%). When only violent crime victimization within the last year is considered, parishes with comparatively low rates of such victimization are Westmoreland (3.3%), Hanover (4.3%), St. Mary (5.3%), and St. Catherine (6.3%).

In summary, when lifetime and past year crime victimization data are considered simultaneously, a number of parishes are consistently over represented in terms of the proportion of total crime, property crime, and violent crime. These parishes are Clarendon, Trelawny and St. James. When lifetime and past year crime victimization data are considered simultaneously, a number of parishes have consistently low levels compared to other parishes. These are St. Thomas, Westmoreland, St. Catherine and St. Mary.

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 also give details on specific crimes within persons' lifetime and within the past year respectively. Where lifetime prevalence of robbery with a firearm is concerned, parishes which have a larger than average incidence of such crime include St. Andrew (where 12.0% of all respondents interviewed indicated that they were a victim of robbery with a firearm at least once in their lifetime), St. James (12.0%), Clarendon (11.6%), and Kingston (9.4%) – see table 4.7. Where past year prevalence of robbery at gunpoint is concerned, parishes which have larger than average proportions are Kingston (4.5%), St. Andrew (1.9%), and St. Catherine (1.9%) – see table 4.8. Where rape and sexual assault are concerned, parishes with unusually high lifetime prevalence levels are Portland (where 5.2% of all respondents interviewed indicated that they were a victim of rape or sexual assault at least once in their lifetime), Hanover (3.5%), and Clarendon (2.4%) – see table 4.7. Although the data in table 4.8 offer estimates of past year prevalence of rape and sexual assault, these are based on a very small number of such incidents, and as such, comparative estimates of prevalence according to parish may be misleading. Where burglary is concerned, lifetime prevalence rates are particularly high in Clarendon (where 15.0% of all respondents interviewed indicated that they were a victim of burglary at least once in their lifetime), Portland (12.1%) and St. Mary (11.2%) – see table 4.7. Where burglary within the past year is concerned, parishes with unusually high levels include Clarendon (4.8%) and Trelawny (3.1%) – see table 4.8. Tables 4.7 and 4.8 present lifetime and past year prevalence for a range of other crimes according to parish.

TABLE 4.7:
Percent of Respondents Who Report that They Have Experienced Different Types of Criminal Victimization in Their Lifetime, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of Victimization	Kingston	St. Andrew	St. Thomas	Portland	St. Mary	St. Ann	Trelawny	St. James	Hanover	West- Moreland	St. Elizabeth	Manchester	Clarendon	St. Catherine
Car Theft	2.0	6.8	0.0	8.6	4.7	4.5	1.9	5.1	1.4	3.3	0.0	4.6	4.4	4.2
Theft from Vehicles	6.4	9.1	1.8	5.2	4.7	6.9	2.5	9.2	5.0	3.9	3.5	8.4	6.8	7.1
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	7.4	8.1	4.0	10.3	4.1	3.0	1.9	5.1	4.3	7.8	8.8	2.1	6.8	4.2
Burglary	5.9	7.9	3.1	12.1	11.2	10.4	7.5	9.7	9.2	6.1	7.6	6.7	15.0	6.7
Attempted Burglary	1.5	4.4	3.1	3.4	2.9	2.0	2.5	5.1	3.5	1.7	2.9	1.3	8.5	3.7
Break-in	7.4	6.3	2.7	6.0	8.2	3.0	5.0	9.7	11.3	3.3	6.5	4.2	4.4	5.4
Attempted Break-in	2.0	1.1	1.3	0.0	0.6	2.0	1.9	5.5	1.4	0.6	0.0	2.5	1.0	0.6
Robbery (at gunpoint)	9.4	12.0	3.1	1.7	1.8	2.5	2.5	12.0	2.8	5.6	5.3	4.2	11.6	8.5
Robbery (without a gun)	4.0	8.4	3.6	0.9	2.9	3.5	3.8	5.5	3.5	1.1	1.2	4.2	6.1	3.8
Larceny/Theft	20.3	19.4	5.3	6.0	5.9	12.4	14.5	20.3	10.6	8.9	7.1	12.2	19.7	10.7
Praedial Larceny	6.4	9.9	20.4	20.7	14.7	22.3	32.7	16.6	21.3	20.6	27.1	26.1	29.9	10.9
Vandalism	5.0	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.9	2.5	3.8	2.8	2.8	1.1	4.7	3.8	5.4	1.6
Threats (with a weapon)	9.4	5.8	6.2	12.9	5.9	6.4	5.0	9.7	4.3	4.4	10.6	8.0	5.8	3.4
Threats (without a weapon)	3.5	7.4	6.2	9.5	4.7	10.9	17.0	12.4	9.9	1.7	11.8	6.3	6.8	5.6
Assaults (with a weapon)	9.4	4.7	4.4	10.3	4.1	5.0	4.4	6.0	7.8	3.3	11.2	1.3	6.5	2.4
Assaults (without a weapon)	1.5	4.2	3.6	6.9	1.8	1.0	8.2	6.9	4.3	1.7	8.8	4.2	4.4	1.0
Sexual Assault	0.5	1.9	1.3	5.2	0.6	1.0	1.3	0.9	3.5	1.1	2.4	1.3	2.4	1.8
Kidnapping	0.0	0.5	1.8	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.6
Arson	3.5	1.6	3.6	3.4	0.6	1.0	1.3	0.9	2.8	1.7	0.6	1.3	1.7	1.1
Fraud	3.0	4.2	0.9	1.7	1.2	0.5	6.3	6.0	2.1	2.2	1.2	1.7	2.4	1.8
Extortion	0.5	1.9	1.3	0.9	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	2.7	0.6
TOTAL VIOLENT CRIME	28.2	32.0	18.2	31.9	13.5	23.8	27.7	36.4	24.8	14.4	34.1	22.7	31.3	19.6
TOTAL PROPERTY CRIME	43.6	49.0	33.3	42.2	40.0	49.5	52.2	50.7	48.2	37.8	46.5	45.4	57.1	39.4
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	54.0	57.9	38.2	55.2	42.9	57.9	61.0	60.8	56.0	42.2	60.0	53.4	67.3	47.9
SAMPLE SIZE	202	618	225	116	170	202	159	217	141	180	170	238	294	624

TABLE 4.8:
Percent of Respondents Who Report that They Have Experienced Different Types of Criminal Victimization in the Past Year, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of	Kingston	St.	St.	Portland	St.	St.	Trelawny	St.	Hanover	West-	St.	Manchester	Clarendon	St.
Victimization	0.0	Andrew	Thomas		Mary	Ann	0.0	James	0.0	Moreland	Elizabeth	0.0	0.0	Catherine
Car Theft	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
Theft from Vehicles	2.5	1.5	0.9	0.9	2.4	0.5	0.0	2.3	1.4	0.0	1.2	3.4	2.0	1.9
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	1.5	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.3	0.0	1.4	1.7	1.8	0.0	0.7	0.6
Burglary	2.0	0.8	0.0	2.6	2.4	3.0	3.1	0.0	1.4	1.7	1.8	0.8	4.8	1.6
Attempted Burglary	0.0	0.8	0.9	1.7	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.0	1.2	0.0	1.7	1.1
Break-in	3.0	1.5	1.8	0.0	4.1	1.0	2.5	2.8	2.8	0.6	3.5	1.3	1.0	1.8
Attempted Break-in	1.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.6	2.3	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.2
Robbery (at gunpoint)	4.5	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	0.0	1.1	0.6	0.4	1.0	1.9
Robbery (without a gun)	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.3
Larceny/Theft	5.4	4.2	0.9	0.0	1.2	4.5	2.5	3.2	2.1	1.7	0.6	4.2	5.4	3.7
Praedial Larceny	4.0	3.6	11.1	11.2	11.2	9.4	16.4	11.1	8.5	13.9	11.2	16.4	18.0	7.7
Vandalism	1.5	0.6	1.3	0.0	0.6	0.0	2.5	1.4	0.7	0.6	1.8	1.3	1.4	0.3
Threats (with a weapon)	2.5	1.0	2.2	2.6	2.4	2.5	1.9	2.8	0.7	2.2	2.9	3.4	2.7	1.4
Threats (without a weapon)	1.0	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.4	5.0	5.7	5.1	2.1	0.6	3.5	3.4	3.7	1.6
Assaults (with a weapon)	2.0	0.8	0.9	2.6	1.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.4	0.0	1.8	0.0	1.4	0.6
Assaults (without a weapon)	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.9	1.2	0.0	1.9	1.4	0.7	0.6	1.8	0.8	1.4	0.5
Sexual Assault	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Kidnapping	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Arson	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Fraud	1.0	0.6	0.0	0.9	0.6	0.0	0.6	1.4	0.7	0.6	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.6
Extortion	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.2
TOTAL VIOLENT CRIME	9.9	6.8	6.7	6.9	5.3	8.4	10.1	10.6	4.3	3.3	8.8	7.6	8.5	6.3
TOTAL PROPERTY CRIME	17.3	13.1	16.0	14.7	22.9	18.8	25.8	19.8	17.7	18.3	20.0	24.4	27.6	19.4
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	23.8	18.0	21.3	19.0	27.1	24.8	32.1	26.3	22.0	21.1	25.9	29.8	32.7	22.8
SAMPLE SIZE	202	618	225	116	170	202	159	217	141	180	170	238	294	624

In order to further analyze the victimization results, by parish, six different victimization scales were created. These victimization scales better capture the total number of lifetime and past year victimization experiences reported by the JNCVS respondents. As discussed above, all respondents were first asked how many times in their life they had experienced 21 different types of criminal victimization. Responses to each of these questions were coded in the following manner: 0=Never; 1=Once; 2=Twice; 3=Three times; 4=Four times; 5=Five to nine times; 6=Ten times or more. The Total Lifetime Victimization Scale was created by combining responses to all 21 lifetime victimization questions. Respondents' scores on this victimization index range from 0 to 40 with a mean of 2.1 and standard deviation of 3.5. The Lifetime Violent Crime Victimization Scale was created by combining responses to the nine questions on violent crime: armed robbery, robbery without a gun, weapons-related threats, threats without a weapon, assaults with a weapon, assaults without a weapon, sexual assault and rape, kidnapping and extortion. Respondents' scores on this scale range from range 0 to 30 with a mean of 0.67 and a standard deviation of 1.9. The Lifetime Property Crime Victimization Scale was created by combining responses to the twelve questions on property crime: motor vehicle theft, theft from vehicles, bicycle/motorcycle theft, burglary, attempted burglary, break-ins, attempted break-ins, larceny/theft, praedial larceny, vandalism, arson and fraud. The respondents' scores on this index range from 0 to 24 with a mean of 1.38 and a standard deviation of 2.4.

Specific scales were also created to summarize the frequency of victimization within the past twelve months. All respondents were asked how often they had experienced each of the 21 different types of victimization within the past year. The exact number of victimization experiences in the past year was recorded for each type of criminal victimization. The *Total "Past Year" Victimization Scale* was created by summing the responses to all 21 victimization questions. Respondents' scores on this scale range from 0 to 100 with a mean of 0.77 and a standard deviation of 3.1. The "Past Year" Violent Crime Victimization Scale was created by summing responses to the nine questions about violent crime. Respondents' scores on this scale range from 0 to 33 with a mean of 0.17 and a standard deviation of 1.1. Finally, the "Past Year" Property Crime

Victimization Scale was created by summing responses to the twelve questions about property crime. Respondents' scores on this scale range from 0 to 100 with a mean of 0.6 and a standard deviation of 2.7.

In examining the results from the computed victimization scales, it is important to note that these scales measure the total number of victimization incidents per person in their lifetime and in the past year. This is different from the previous measures (tables 4.7 and 4.8) which measured the proportion of persons victimized in various parishes. It is possible, for example, to have a parish with a large proportion of crimes committed, yet the average number of crimes per person is low. This can happen, for example, if many persons report that they were victims of crime, yet for most persons, they were victimized only once or a few times. Conversely, it is possible to have parishes with a low proportion of crimes compared to other parishes, yet at the same time having a high average number of crimes per person. This can happen where only a few persons are victimized, but they are victimized many times. One instance when this can occur is where there are vulnerable populations which are susceptible to becoming victims of criminal offending. Given the above, it should not be expected that there will be consistency in the findings above (tables 4.7 and 4.8) with the findings below (figures 4.8 to 4.17).

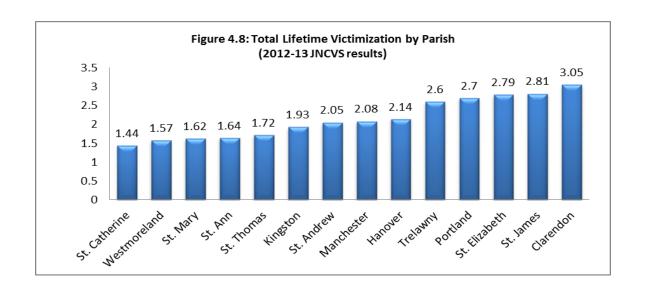
Where total lifetime crime victimization is concerned (see figure 4.8), the parishes with the highest levels are Clarendon (an average of 3.05 victimization incidents reported per person), St. James (2.81), St. Elizabeth (2.79), Portland (2.7) and Trelawny (2.6). The parishes with the lowest average number of lifetime victimization incidents per person are St. Catherine (1.44), Westmoreland (1.57), St. Mary (1.62) and St. Ann (1.64). When only violent crime victimization within respondents' lifetime is considered (see figure 4.9) the parishes with the highest average number of violent crime victimization incidents per person are St. Elizabeth (an average of 1.27 violent crime victimization incidents reported per person), Portland (1.03) and St. James (0.98). In all other parishes, persons interviewed reported an average of less than one violent crime victimization incident per person in their lifetime. Parishes with particularly low incidences of violent

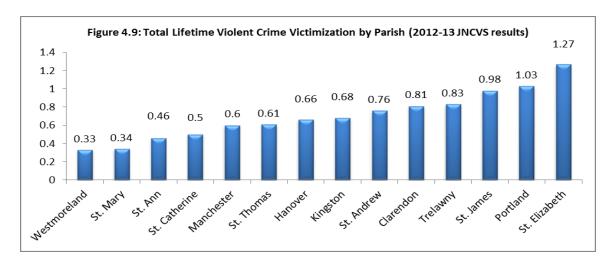
victimization are Westmoreland (0.33), St. Mary (0.34), St. Ann (0.46) and St. Catherine (0.50). When only property crime victimization within respondents' lifetime is considered (see figure 4.10) the parishes with the highest average number of such victimization incidents per person are Clarendon (an average of 2.24 property crime victimization incidents reported per person), St. James (1.83), Trelawny (1.77), and Portland (1.66). Parishes with particularly low incidences of property crime victimization are St. Catherine (0.95), St. Thomas (1.11), St. Ann (1.18) and Westmoreland (1.23).

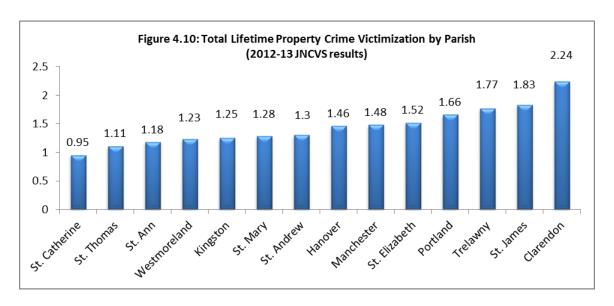
Where total past year crime victimization is concerned (see figure 4.11), the parishes with the highest levels are Clarendon (an average of 1.67 victimization incidents reported per person), St. James (1.08), Trelawny (1.03), Manchester (1.0), St. Thomas (0.96) and St. Mary (0.95). The parishes with the lowest average number of past year victimization incidents are St. Ann (0.39) and St. Catherine (0.40).

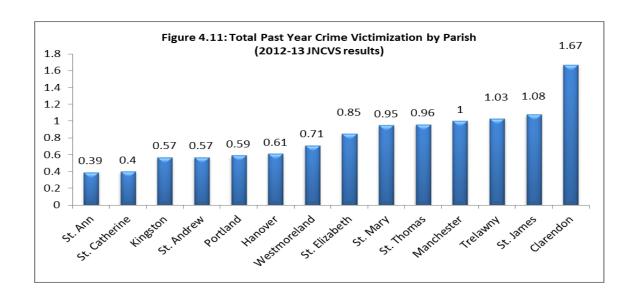
When only past year violent crime victimization is considered (see figure 4.12) the parishes with the highest average number of violent crime victimization incidents per person are Clarendon (an average of 0.33 violent crime victimization incidents reported per person within the last year), Trelawny (0.32), St. James (0.28), St. Elizabeth (0.22) and St. Andrew (0.18). All other parishes had averages of 0.15 or fewer incidents of violent crime victimization per person within the past year.

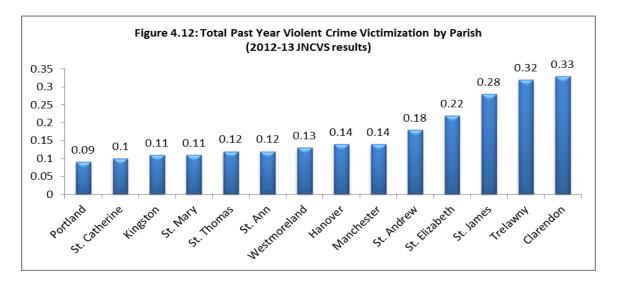
When only past year property crime victimization is considered (see figure 4.13) the parishes with the highest average number of property crime victimization incidents per person are Clarendon (an average of 1.34 property crime victimization incidents reported per person within the past year), Manchester (0.86), St. Thomas (0.85), St. Mary (0.84) and St. James (0.8). Parishes with lower than average rates of property crime victimization are St. Ann (0.27) and St. Catherine (0.31).

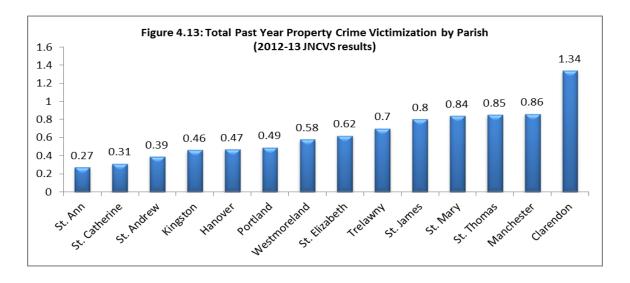










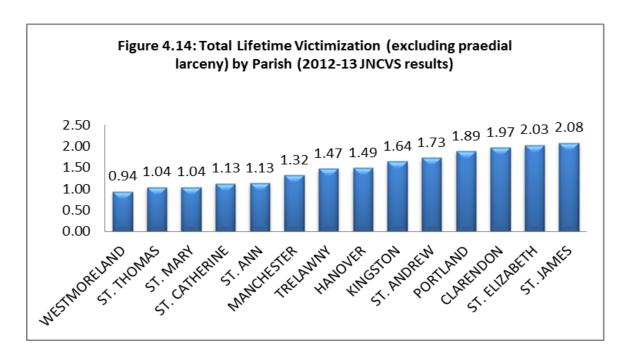


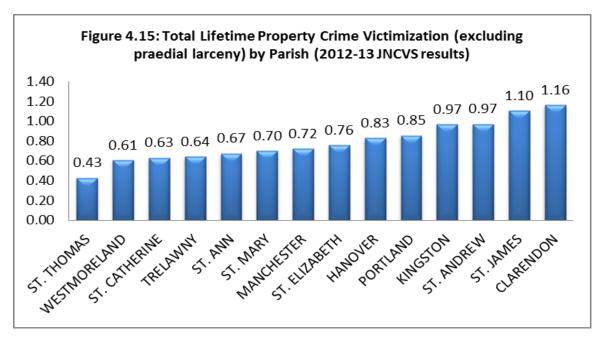
Given that the prevalence of praedial larceny exceeded that of the majority of other crimes, and has the potential to affect the above findings (i.e. figures 4.8 through 4.13 exclusive of figures 4.9 and 4.12) by skewing the findings in the direction of those parishes with higher than average levels of praedial larceny, four of the scales were recomputed, but praedial larceny was excluded in the recomputation. These scales were total lifetime victimization (figure 4.14), total lifetime property crime victimization (figure 4.15), total past year victimization (figure 4.16) and total past year property crime victimization (figure 4.17). The scales above which relate to violent crime victimization (i.e. figures 4.9 and 4.12) were not recomputed as praedial larceny is not a violent crime and thus did not impact upon the findings involving these measures.

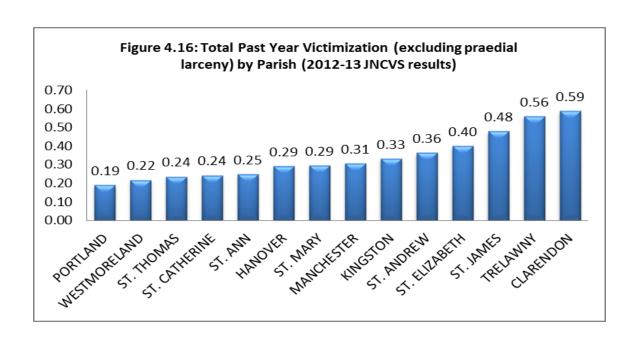
When praedial larceny is removed from the measure of total lifetime victimization (see figure 4.14) the parishes with the highest average number of victimization incidents per person are St. James (an average of 2.08 victimization incidents per person), St. Elizabeth (2.03), Clarendon (1.97) and Portland (1.89). The parishes with the lowest levels of lifetime victimization incidents per person are Westmoreland (0.94), St. Thomas (1.04) and St. Mary (1.04). When total lifetime property crime excluding praedial larceny is considered (see figure 4.15) the parishes with the highest levels of lifetime property crime victimization incidents per person are Clarendon (1.16), St. James (1.1), St. Andrew (0.97), Kingston (0.97) and Portland (0.85). The parishes with the lowest number of lifetime property crime incidents per person excluding praedial larceny are St. Thomas (0.43), Westmoreland (0.61), St. Catherine (0.63) and Trelawny (0.64).

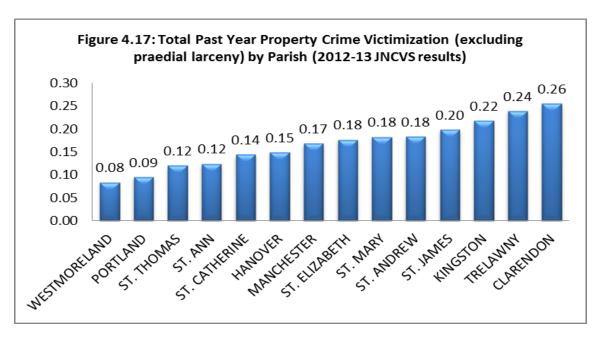
When total past year victimization excluding praedial larceny is considered (see figure 4.16), the parishes with the highest average number of incidents of per person are Clarendon (0.59), Trelawny (0.56), and St. James (0.48). Parishes with low total past year victimization excluding praedial larceny are Portland (0.19), Westmoreland (0.22), St. Thomas (0.24) and St. Catherine (0.24). The parishes with the highest average number of past year incidents of property crime victimization excluding praedial larceny (see figure 4.17) are Clarendon (0.26), Trelawny (0.24), Kingston (0.22), and St. James (0.2). Parishes with low levels of past year property crime victimization excluding

praedial larceny include Westmoreland (0.08), Portland (0.09), St. Thomas (0.12) and St. Ann (0.12).









GENDER AND VICTIMIZATION

Victimization trends according to gender in Jamaica are similar to those in other parts of the world where it has been found that males are more likely to become victims of crime compared to females. Table 4.9 shows the percent of males and females who have become victims of various crimes in their lifetime. A higher proportion of males were victims compared to females for fourteen of the twenty one crimes listed. In

contrast, a higher proportion of females were victims for only seven of the crimes listed, and for most of these, the disparities in rates of victimization between males and females were small. Overall, 57.8% of males sampled were victims of crime in their lifetime compared to 50.6% of females. When only violent crime is considered, 29.4% of males were victimized at least once in their lifetime compared to 22.6% of females. When only property crimes are considered, the lifetime victimization rate for males was 48.9% compared to 42.4% for females. Fairly large disparities in the proportion of male compared to female victimization were observed for a number of specific crimes. For example, 7.8% of males experienced theft from vehicles in their lifetime compared to 5.3% of females. Similarly, 8% of males experienced theft of a motorcycle or bicycle compared to 3.6% of females. Nine and a half percent of males experienced armed robbery compared to 5.4% of females. Similarly, where threats with a weapon is concerned, 8.2% of males compared to 4.7% of females experienced this. When assault with a weapon is considered, 6.6% of males experienced this compared to 3.7% of When we consider those crimes for which the female rate of victimization females. exceeded that of males the disparity was typically small, except for burglary, larceny, and sexual assault. For burglary, 9% of females compared to 7.4% of males were victims. For larceny, 13.9% of females compared to 12.9% of males were victims, and for sexual assault and rape, 3% of females were victims compared to 0.2% of males.

Table 4.10 shows past year victimization rates according to gender. Similar to lifetime victimization rates, a larger proportion of males than females were victims of past year victimization. Overall, 27.8% of males compared to 21.2% of females experienced criminal victimization within the past year. When only violent crimes within the last year are considered, 8.7% of males were victims compared to 6.1% of females. When only property crimes within the past year are considered, 22.2% of males were victims compared to 16.7% of females. Of the twenty one crimes listed in table 4.10, male victimization rates exceeded female victimization rates for thirteen. Of the eight crimes for which female rates exceeded that of males, the disparity in rates was typically very small. When theft from vehicles is considered, 2.5% of males were victims within the past year compared to 0.8% of females. When robbery at gunpoint is considered,

1.6% of males were victims compared to 0.9% of females. For larceny, 3.6% of males were victims within the last year compared to 3.1% of females. Similarly, where praedial larceny is concerned, 12.4% of males compared to 7.8% of females were victims. Similarly, for threats with a weapon, 2.6% of males compared to 1.6% of females were victims. When threats without a weapon is considered, 3.1% of males were victims compared to 2.2% of females.

TABLE 4.9:
Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in Their Lifetime, by Gender
(2012-13 JNCVS results)

TYPE OF	MALES	FEMALES
VICTIMIZATION		
Car Theft	4.3	3.9
Theft from Vehicles	7.8	5.3
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	8.0	3.6
Burglary	7.4	9.0
Attempted Burglary	3.3	3.9
Break-in	5.9	5.7
Attempted Break-in	1.2	1.6
Robbery at Gunpoint	9.5	5.4
Robbery (no gun involved)	5.1	4.0
Larceny/Theft	12.9	13.9
Praedial Larceny	23.0	13.4
Vandalism	3.5	2.4
Threats (with a weapon)	8.2	4.7
Threats (no weapon involved)	8.2	7.0
Assault With a Weapon	6.6	3.7
Assault (no weapon involved)	3.4	3.9
Sexual Assault and Rape	0.2	3.0
Kidnapping	0.6	0.4
Arson	1.4	1.9
Fraud	3.3	2.1
Extortion	1.5	0.6
TOTAL VIOLENCE	29.4	22.6
TOTAL PROPERTY	48.9	42.4
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	57.8	50.6

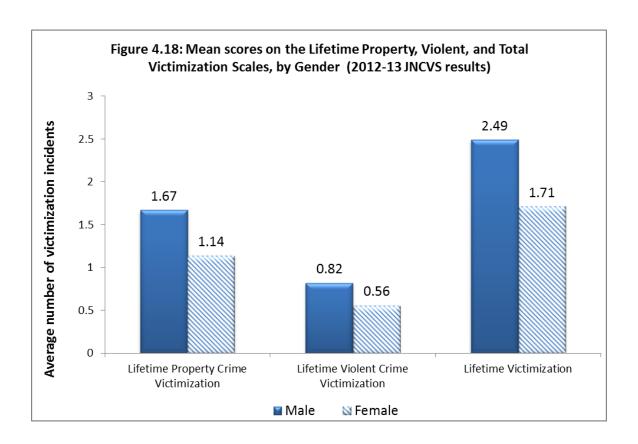
125

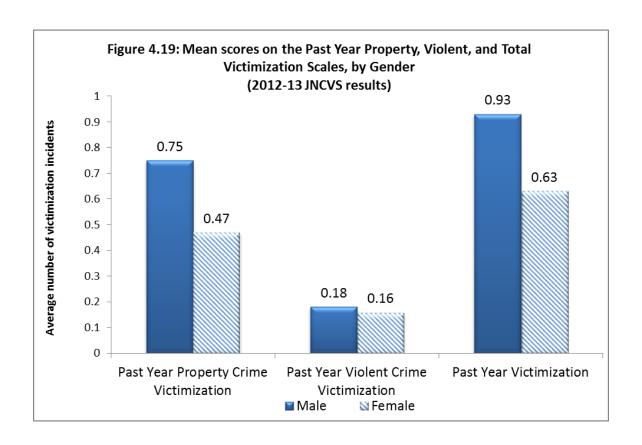
TABLE 4.10:
Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in the Past Year, by Gender
(2012-13 JNCVS results)

TYPE OF	MALES	FEMALES
VICTIMIZATION		
Car Theft	0.3	0.4
Theft from Vehicles	2.5	0.8
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	0.8	0.5
Burglary	1.7	1.7
Attempted Burglary	0.6	0.9
Break-in	2.0	1.7
Attempted Break-in	0.1	0.6
Robbery at Gunpoint	1.6	0.9
Robbery (no gun involved)	0.5	0.3
Larceny/Theft	3.6	3.1
Praedial Larceny	12.4	7.8
Vandalism	0.8	1.0
Threats (with a weapon)	2.6	1.6
Threats (no weapon involved)	3.1	2.2
Assault With a Weapon	1.5	0.8
Assault (no weapon involved)	0.5	1.1
Sexual Assault and Rape	0.0	0.2
Kidnapping	0.0	0.1
Arson	0.1	0.2
Fraud	0.9	0.3
Extortion	0.4	0.2
TOTAL VIOLENCE	8.7	6.1
TOTAL PROPERTY	22.2	16.7
TOTAL VICTIMIZATION	27.8	21.2

Figures 4.18 and 4.19 show the average number of victimization incidents for males and females for lifetime and past year crime victimization respectively. As figure 4.18 indicates, males experienced an average of 2.49 incidents of criminal victimization in their lifetime compared to and average of 1.71 for females. Where lifetime property crime victimization is concerned, males experienced an average of 1.67 incidents per person compared 1.14 for females. Where lifetime violent crime victimization is concerned, males experienced an average of 0.82 incidents per person compared 0.56 for

females. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests indicate that all differences between males and females in the lifetime victimization measures are statistically significant. Where past year crime victimization is concerned (see figure 4.19), males experienced an average of 0.93 incidents per person compared 0.63 for females. When property crime victimization within the past year is considered, males experienced an average of 0.75 incidents per person compared to an average of 0.47 for females. When violent crimes within the past year are considered, males experienced an average of 0.18 incidents per person compared to 0.16 for females. ANOVA tests indicate that gender differences in total crime victimization as well as property crime victimization within the past year are statistically significant. There are no statistically significant gender differences in the past year where violent crime victimization is concerned. Overall these results indicate that with the exception of violent crime victimization within the last year, males are more likely to become victims of crime in Jamaica compared to females.





AGE AND VICTIMIZATION

Tables 4.11 and 4.12 respectively show the proportion of persons within each age group who have been victimized within the past year, and within their lifetime. Figure 4.20 is a graphical representation of total past year and lifetime victimization according to age. These data indicate that there is a decrease in victimization levels as persons get older for lifetime violent crime, past year violent crime and total past year crime (see figure 4.20). Put differently, for these crimes, younger persons are more likely to be victimized than older persons. Where specific violent crimes are concerned, almost without exception, there is a decrease in victimization as persons get older for the majority of the violent crimes within the past year and within respondents' lifetime (see tables 4.11 and 4.12). The only exception to this pattern is with robbery without a gun, where younger and older persons are equally likely to be victimized. Where total lifetime crime is concerned, there is a gradual increase in levels of victimization until persons are approximately 50 years old, followed by a very gradual decrease as persons get older (see figure 4.20). For lifetime property crime in contrast, there is an increase in prevalence

rates with age until persons reach the age of approximately 70 years old, and thereafter there is a decline with increasing age. Past year property crime, in comparison, affects all persons equally regardless of age.

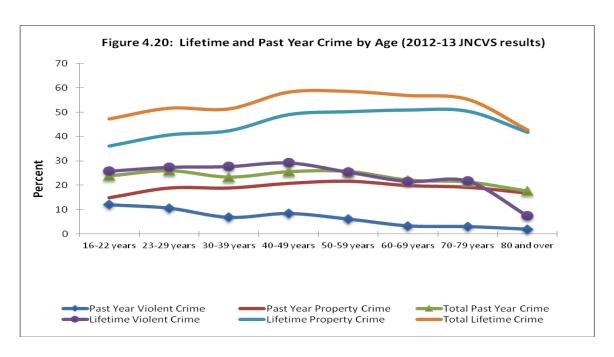
TABLE 4.11:
Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in the Past Year, by Age
(2012-13 JNCVS results)

TYPE OF	16-22	23-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80 and
VICTIMIZATION	Years	over						
Car Theft	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.3	0.4	0.0
Theft from Vehicles	1.0	1.7	1.2	3.0	0.3	1.8	2.6	0.9
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	0.8	0.6	1.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.9
Burglary	2.0	1.3	1.1	1.9	1.4	2.8	2.6	0.9
Attempted Burglary	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.0	0.5	0.3	1.3	0.0
Break-in	1.8	2.6	1.8	1.6	2.6	1.0	0.9	1.9
Attempted Break-in	0.2	1.1	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Robbery at Gunpoint	1.2	3.0	0.6	1.9	1.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Robbery (no gun involved)	1.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	.5	0.0	0.4	0.9
Larceny/Theft	3.8	4.8	4.0	2.8	2.6	2.6	1.7	2.8
Praedial Larceny	5.0	7.3	8.1	10.8	13.6	12.6	11.7	12.0
Vandalism	0.8	0.6	1.0	0.7	1.7	0.8	0.0	.9
Threats (with a weapon)	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.6	2.6	0.8	0.9	0.0
Threats (without a weapon)	5.0	3.7	2.3	2.5	1.9	1.8	1.3	.9
Assault (with a weapon)	1.5	1.9	0.7	1.9	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.0
Assault (without a weapon)	1.8	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.0	0.0
Sexual Assault	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kidnapping	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Arson	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fraud	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0
Extortion	0.0	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Past Year Violent Crime	12.0	10.6	6.8	8.4	6.1	3.3	3.0	1.9
Past Year Property Crime	14.8	18.8	18.6	20.7	21.6	19.8	19.1	16.7
Total Past Year Crime	23.8	25.9	23.3	25.5	25.6	22.1	21.3	17.6

TABLE 4.12:
Percent of Jamaican Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in their Lifetime, by Age
(2012-13 JNCVS results)

TYPE OF	16-22	23-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80 and
VICTIMIZATION	Years	over						
Car Theft	1.5	3.5	4.0	4.2	5.7	5.9	3.5	1.9
Theft from Vehicles	4.2	5.4	5.8	9.3	6.6	6.7	6.5	3.7
Bike/Motorcycle Theft	5.5	5.0	6.6	6.0	6.8	5.4	3.9	6.5
Burglary	5.5	6.7	6.6	10.9	7.5	11.3	10.4	11.1
Attempted Burglary	4.8	2.8	3.7	3.3	3.3	3.9	4.3	5.6
Break-in	4.5	5.0	4.8	7.0	7.5	6.4	4.8	3.7
Attempted Break-in	1.2	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.6	2.1	0.0	2.8
Robbery at Gunpoint	3.5	8.2	7.0	9.9	8.4	7.2	7.0	.9
Robbery (no gun involved)	6.0	3.2	4.7	4.3	5.1	4.6	3.9	2.8
Larceny/Theft	10.8	13.6	13.1	14.5	14.8	12.1	15.2	13.0
Praedial Larceny	9.2	14.0	13.1	17.5	23.2	25.4	28.3	23.1
Vandalism	1.5	2.6	3.4	3.6	3.5	2.8	1.7	1.9
Threats (with a weapon)	7.2	7.3	7.7	6.1	6.3	5.1	3.5	0.9
Threats (without a weapon)	11.5	9.9	6.5	8.4	6.4	6.9	4.8	1.9
Assault (with a weapon)	3.8	6.0	6.3	6.9	4.5	2.1	3.9	1.9
Assault (without a weapon)	3.8	5.4	3.6	4.6	3.3	2.3	2.6	0.0
Sexual Assault	2.2	3.9	2.1	1.2	1.6	1.3	0.4	0.0
Kidnapping	0.8	1.3	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0
Arson	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.8	2.3	1.5	2.6	0.9
Fraud	1.2	3.0	3.3	3.0	2.4	3.6	1.3	1.9
Extortion	0.2	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.7	1.5	1.3	0.9
Lifetime Violent Crime	25.8	27.4	27.7	29.2	25.4	21.6	21.7	7.4
Lifetime Property Crime	36.0	40.6	42.3	49.0	50.2	50.9	50.4	41.7
Total Lifetime Crime	47.2	51.6	51.3	58.2	58.5	56.8	55.2	42.6

130



VICTIMIZATION IN JAMAICA COMPARED TO OTHER CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

The data in table 4.13 allow for a comparison of victimization levels in Jamaica with that of other Caribbean countries. Data for the seven countries listed were collected by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 2010 from a sample of 11,207 persons. Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they had been victims of the crimes listed within the past year. In this study 'past year' refers to 2009. These findings are compared to victimization data from the 2012-13 JNCVS in table 4.13.

An examination of the data in table 4.13 indicates that there are a number of crimes for which the rates in the other countries exceed that of Jamaica. Of particular importance are burglary (1.7% for the JNCVS compared to 2.1% for the other countries except Jamaica), robbery without a gun (0.4% for the JNCVS compared to 0.7% for the other countries except Jamaica), and rape and sexual assault (0.2% for the JNCVS compared to 0.5% for the other countries except Jamaica).

The data in table 4.13 also indicate that for a number of crimes, persons in the 2012-13 JNCVS reported higher levels of past year victimization compared to persons in the UNDP survey. Pronounced differences in this respect occur for praedial larceny,

threats with a weapon, and threats without a weapon. For all of these crimes, respondents in the 2012-13 JNCVS reported higher rates of victimization than persons in the seven countries surveyed by the UNDP. Where praedial larceny is concerned, 9.9% of persons in the 2012-13 JNCVS reported that they had been victims within the past year compared to an average of 0.49% for all countries except Jamaica for which the UNDP collected data. When we consider threats with a weapon, 2% of Jamaicans in the JNCVS reported that this occurred to them within the last year, compared to an average of 0.53% for persons from the six UNDP countries excluding Jamaica. When we consider threats without a weapon, 2.6% of Jamaicans in the JNCVS reported that this occurred to them within the last year, compared to an average of 0.6% for persons from the six UNDP countries excluding Jamaica. Other crimes for which Jamaica exhibits a higher rate than for other Caribbean countries include theft from vehicles (1.6% in the JNCVS data compared to an average of 0.6% for all countries except Jamaica in the UNDP data), robbery at gunpoint (1.2% for the JNCVS compared to 0.6% for the other countries except Jamaica), and assault with a weapon (2.1% for the JNCVS compared to 1.4% for the other countries except Jamaica). For the other crimes listed in table 4.13, the rates in Jamaica are similar to those in the other Caribbean countries.

TABLE 4.13:
Percent of Respondents Who Have Experienced
Various Types of Criminal Victimization in 2009 (UNDP's "Caribbean-7")
compared to Past Year victimization in Jamaica

TYPE OF VICTIMIZATION	Antigua	Barbados	St. Lucia	Guyana	Trinidad and Tobago	Suriname	Jamaica	Jamaica 2012-13
Car Theft	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.3
Theft from Vehicles	0.8	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.6
Burglary	2.7	1.0	1.7	1.7	1.2	4.1	0.8	1.7
Break-in	2.1	1.5	3.0	0.8	1.8	3.9	0.7	1.9
Robbery at Gunpoint	1.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.1	0.4	1.2
Robbery (without a gun)	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.4	0.4
Praedial Larceny	0.1	0.6	1.0	0.3	0.9	0.0	0.8	9.9
Threats (with a weapon)	1.0	0.5	0.9	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.0	2.0
Threats (without weapon)	1.3	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.9	0.2	2.6
Assault (with a weapon)	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.3	1.1	0.4	0.8	2.1
Sexual Assault	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.2
Kidnapping	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

132

Fraud	0.9	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.2	0.6
Extortion	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2
Sample Size	1,511	1,506	1,514	1,569	1,595	1,512	2,000	3,556

SUMMARY

To the extent that the sample utilized in the 2012-13 JNCVS generalizes to the population of Jamaica, the results of the 2012-13 survey indicate that one in two persons in Jamaica (53.9%) have been the victims of some form of crime in their lifetime. When violent crimes are considered separately, one in four persons (25.6%) indicate that they were victims in their lifetime, and when property crimes are considered separately one in two persons (45.6%) indicate that they were victims in their lifetime.

When victimization within the past year is considered, one in four persons (24.2%) indicate that they have been victims. When violent crime within the past year is considered separately, one in thirteen persons (7.3%) indicate that they were victims, and when property crime within the past year is considered separately, one in five persons (19.2%) indicate that they were victims.

A comparison of victimization survey data from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys indicate that total lifetime victimization has decreased from 2006 to the present (see figure 4.3). This obtains even when total lifetime victimization is disaggregated into total lifetime violent crime and total lifetime property crime. In 2006, a total of 61.4% of respondents indicated that they were the victims of some form of crime in their lifetime, compared to 59.6% in 2009 and 53.9% in 2012-13. When only violent crimes within respondents' lifetime are considered, in 2006 a total of 31.7% reported that they were victims, compared to 29.2% in 2009 and 25.6% in 2012-13. When only property crimes within respondents' lifetime are considered, in 2006 a total of 50.8% reported that they were victims, compared to 49.4% in 2009 and 45.6% in 2012-13.

Comparison of past year victimization data indicate that for total, as well as violent and property crime victimization within the past year, there was an increase from 2006 to 2009, and then a decrease in 2012-13 (see figure 4.4). Where total past year victimization is concerned, 23.7% of the sample indicated that they were victims in 2006, compared to 30.2% in 2009 and 24.2% in 2012-13. When only violent crimes within the past year are considered, 8.6% reported that they were victims in 2006, compared to 10% in 2009 and 7.3% in 2012-13. When only property crimes within the past year are considered, 17.6% of the sample reported that they were victims in 2006, compared to 23.6% in 2009 and 19.2% in 2012-13.

The most prevalent types of victimization within respondents' lifetime were praedial larceny (with 17.7% of Jamaicans reporting that they were victims of this type of crime in their lifetime), general larceny (13.5%), burglary (8.3%), threats without a weapon (7.5%), robbery with a gun (7.3%), threats with a weapon (6.4%), theft from vehicles (6.4%), break-ins (5.8%), bicycle or motorcycle theft (5.5%) and assault with a weapon (5.1%). The most prevalent types of victimization within the last year were praedial larceny (9.9%), general larceny (3.3%), threats without a weapon (2.6%), threats with a weapon (2.0%), break-ins (1.9%) and burglary (1.7%).

Examination of the spatial distribution of self-reported criminal victimization in Jamaica indicate that, when all crimes except praedial larceny are considered, the parishes with the highest levels of lifetime victimization are St. James (in which 2.08% of the respondents indicate that they were the victims of at least one crime in their lifetime), St. Elizabeth (2.03%), Clarendon (1.97%), Portland (1.89%), St. Andrew (1.73%), and Kingston (1.64%). The parishes with the lowest levels of total lifetime victimization are Westmoreland (0.94%), St. Thomas (1.04%) and St. Mary (1.04%) – see figure 4.14.

When the spatial distribution of self-reported criminal victimization (except praedial larceny) is limited to crimes which occurred within the past year, the parishes with the highest reported levels of criminal victimization are Clarendon (0.59%), Trelawny (0.56%), St. James (0.48%) and St. Elizabeth (0.40%). The parishes with the

lowest levels of past year criminal victimization are Portland (0.19%), Westmoreland (0.22%), St. Thomas (0.24%) and St. Catherine (0.24%) – see figure 4.16.

The parishes of St. James, Clarendon and Trelawny are all among the top five where total lifetime as well as past year crime victimization is concerned. Data from the 2012-13 JNCVS therefore indicate that in these parishes historically there has been higher than average levels of crime, and these higher than average levels continue at present. In contrast, the parishes of St. Thomas, Westmoreland, St. Catherine and St. Mary are among the five parishes with the lowest levels of lifetime as well as past year criminal victimization. This indicates that in these parishes historically there has been a lower than average level of crime, and these lower than average levels continue at present. Quite interestingly, Portland is within the top five parishes where total lifetime victimization is concerned, but is within the bottom five where total past year victimization is concerned. This indicates that historically, Portland had a higher than average level of crime, but within recent times, Portland has become one of the parishes with a comparatively low level of crime. This position of Portland as a low crime parish within recent times holds even if we consider only past year violent crime (see figure 4.12) or past year property crime exclusive or praedial larceny (see figure 4.17).

Consistent with the international literature on gender and victimization, on average, males experience higher levels of criminal victimization compared to females in Jamaica (see figures 4.18 and 4.19). On average, within their lifetime, male respondents reported an average of 2.49 incidents of criminal victimization per person, compared to an average of 1.71 for females. When violent crimes within respondents' lifetime are considered, males reported an average of 0.82 crimes per person, compared to an average of 0.56 for females. Similarly, when property crimes within respondents' lifetime are considered, males reported an average of 1.67 crimes per person, compared to an average of 1.14 for females. When victimization is restricted to the past year, males reported an average of 0.93 incidents of victimization per person compared to 0.63 for females. When violent crimes within the past year are considered, males reported an average of 0.18 incidents per person compared to 0.16 for females. When property crimes within

the past year are considered, males reported an average of 0.75 incidents per person compared to 0.47 for females.

With respect to the relationship between age and criminal victimization it was found that younger persons were more likely to be victims of violent crimes than older persons. This applied for both lifetime violent crime and for past year violent crime. Younger persons were also more likely to be victims than older persons when total past year crime was considered. Where total lifetime crime is concerned, there is a gradual increase in levels of victimization until persons are approximately 50 years old, followed by a very gradual decrease as persons get older. Past year property crime, in contrast, affects all persons equally regardless of age (see figure 4.20).

PART FIVE: DETAILS OF RECENT VICTIMIZATION EXPERIENCES

Highlights

- Most recent victimization experiences (incidents that took place in the past twelve months) occurred within the victim's own home or on the street in their own community. With the exception of robbery, victimization incidents rarely occur in other public locations (i.e., work, school, parks, shopping or entertainment districts, etc.).
- Crime victims could not identify the offenders in half of all recent victimization cases. In those cases where the offender could be identified the data indicate that Jamaicans are more likely to be victimized by strangers and acquaintances than family members or friends.
- The data indicate that the vast majority of offenders are male and under forty years of age.
- Weapons were used in about one-fourth of all crimes reported by the respondents.
 Knives and machetes are the most common type of weapon used in the crimes documented by this survey, followed by guns and clubs or other blunt instruments.
- The use of weapons varies dramatically by crime type. For example, weapons were used in 90% of all robberies but only 5% of thefts.
- The victims were physically injured in approximately five percent of all crimes documented by the survey. The majority of victim injuries stemmed from physical assaults, sexual assaults and robberies. Property crimes rarely resulted in physical injury to the victim.
- Only one-third of recent victimization cases (34%) were reported to the police. This reporting rate is up from 30% in 2009 and 28% in 2006.
- When crimes were reported to the police the victims were often dissatisfied with how the police treated their case.
- Victim satisfaction with the police response, however, increased dramatically when the police showed up in person to talk to the victim and investigate the crime. Furthermore, most victims were "very satisfied" when the police talked to or apprehended the offender(s).
- Respondents often gave multiple reasons for not reporting their victimization experiences to the police. The perception that the crime was not serious enough is

the most common reason for not reporting victimization incidents, followed closely by the belief that the police would not be able to do anything. Other popular reasons for not reporting victimization experiences to the police include a desire on the part of the victim to deal with the incident on their own, a belief that the police would not take the crime seriously, fear of the offenders and their associates, a lack of trust in the police, fear of the police, and a desire to avoid a reputation as an informer or snitch.

- Crime victims were often upset and frightened following their victimization experiences. Other common feelings include anger, hurt or disappointment, shock, depression and feelings of helplessness.
- A third of crime victims reported that they changed their way of life as the result of a recent victimization experience.

Introduction

As discussed in Part Five of this report, all respondents to the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) were asked whether they had experienced twenty-two different types of criminal victimization. Those respondents that had experienced a criminal victimization in the past twelve months were asked to complete a "Crime Incident Report." The Crime Incident Report (CIR) is designed to gather detailed information about specific cases of victimization. This information includes: 1) The time and location of the incident; 2) The number of offenders; 3) The age and gender of offenders; 4) The nature of the victim-offender relationship; 5) The use of weapons; 6) The extent of financial loss; 7) Personal injuries; 8) Whether or not the incident was reported to the police; 9) Satisfaction with the police response; 10) Reasons for not reporting the crime to the police; and 11) The impact of the incident on the victim. One CIR was filled out for each type of victimization experienced in the past year. For example, if a respondent had experienced one assault and one theft in the past year, a separate CIR was completed for each of these crimes. However, if a respondent had experienced multiple incidents of the same type of crime – for example two thefts – a CIR was filled out for only the most recent event.

All the information from the Crime Incident Reports was entered into a Crime Incident dataset. Overall, this dataset contains information on 1,103 distinct victimization incidents that took place in the past 12 months. These 1,103 incidents were

reported by 862 different respondents (mean=1.28 incidents per respondent). Six hundred and seventy-six of these individuals (78.7%) reported only one type of victimization experience in the past year. However, 144 respondents (16.7%) reported two victimization incidents and 40 respondents (4.6%) reported experiencing three or more victimization incidents in the past year.

In order to streamline the analysis, the original twenty types of victimization were collapsed into ten major crime categories. These categories include: 1) Theft (includes motor vehicle theft, theft from a motor vehicle, bike theft and larceny); 2) Praedial larceny; 3) Burglary (includes burglary, attempted burglary, break-ins and attempted break-ins); 4) Vandalism/Property damage (includes arson); 5) Robbery (includes robbery with and without a gun); 6) Threats (includes threats with and without a weapon); 7) Physical Assaults (includes assaults with and without a weapon); 8) Sexual Assault; 9) Fraud/Extortion (includes the one case of reported kidnapping); and 10) Other. Almost a third (31.7%) of the victimization incidents captured by the survey involved praedial larceny (the theft of food, livestock or other agriculture goods). The next most common type of victimization incident involved theft (18.9%), followed by burglary/break-ins (15.2%), threats (15.0%) assaults (6.3%), robbery (5.2%) and vandalism (3.4%). All other types of victimization fall below the 3% level (see Table 5.1).

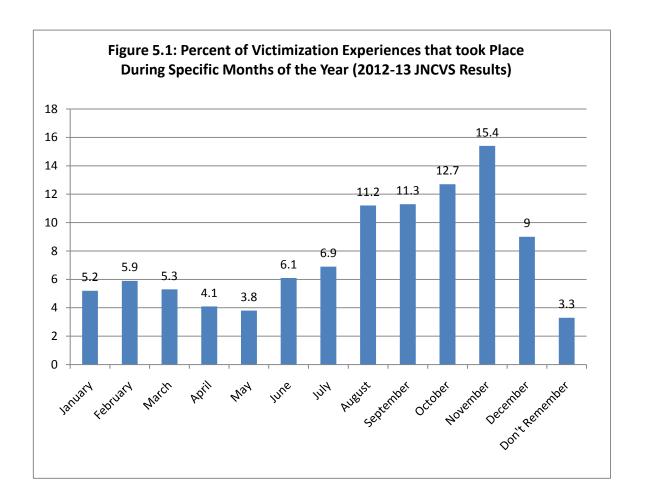
Table 5.1: Total Number of Victimization Incidents Documented by Crime Incident Reports (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	NUMBER	PERCENT OF
	OF CASES	ALL CASES
Theft	209	18.9
Praedial Larceny	350	31.7
Burglary	168	15.2
Vandalism	38	3.4
Robbery	57	5.2
Threats	165	15.0
Assaults	69	6.3
Sexual Assaults	4	0.4
Fraud/Extortion	31	2.8
Other	12	1.1
TOTAL	1,103	100.0

Time of Year

Respondents were first asked to recall the month that each victimization incident took place. The data suggest that November is the most crime-ridden month of the year in Jamaica. Indeed, one out of six victimization incidents (15.4%) reported by the respondents apparently took place in this month (see Figure 5.1). A significant proportion of crime also took place in October (12.7%), September 11.3%) and August (11.2%). Indeed, over half of all victimization incidents (50.6%) reported by the JNCVS respondents took place during the four month period between August and November. According to the data, victimization is least likely to occur in May (3.8% of all cases), April (4.1%) and January (5.2%). At this time, it is somewhat difficult to explain this pattern of responses. A comparison of these self-report data with police statistics might establish their validity. We also cannot dismiss the possibility that these responses reflect respondent recall problems. In other words, respondents who cannot accurately identify the month of their victimization list "October" as a seemingly neutral response. These responses may also reflect the questioning process. If you recall, for each type of crime, respondents were only supposed to report their most recent victimization. In other words,

the monthly crime data observed above may actually be influenced by the timing of the respondent interviews.



In order to simplify the analysis we collapsed the 12 months of the year into four seasons: 1) Winter (December, January and February); 2) Spring (March, April and May); 3) Summer (June, July and August); and Fall (September, October and November). Table 5.2 presents the proportion of victimization experiences that took place during each season – by crime type.

The data suggest that, in general, criminal victimization in Jamaica is more likely to occur during the Fall (39.4%) and Summer months (24.1%) than during the Winter (20.0%) or Spring period (13.1%). This general pattern exists for most types of victimization including theft, praedial larceny, burglary, vandalism and assaults.

Robberies, however, are more likely to occur during the Winter (35.1%) and Fall (33.3%) than the Summer (22.8%) and Spring (8.8%). Interestingly, regardless of the type of crime, the Spring months (March, April and May) appear to be the safest period of the year in Jamaica.

Table 5.2: Percent of Criminal Victimization Incidents that Occurred within Specific Seasons, by Crime Type (2012-13 JNCVS)

CRIME	WINTER	SPRING	SUMMER	FALL	DON'T
TYPE					REMEMBER
Theft	16.3	13.9	25.4	41.6	2.9
Praedial Larceny	16.6	11.7	22.0	46.9	2.9
Burglary	16.7	20.2	28.0	32.1	3.0
Vandalism	28.9	7.9	31.6	31.6	0.0
Robbery	35.1	8.8	22.8	33.3	0.0
Threats	25.5	8.5	23.6	35.8	6.7
Assaults	21.7	18.8	24.6	33.3	1.4
Sexual Assaults	25.0	25.0	50.0	0.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	29.0	16.1	16.1	29.0	9.7
Other	25.0	0.0	8.3	66.7	0.0
TOTAL	20.0	13.1	24.1	39.4	3.3

Days of the Week

Respondents were also asked to recall the day of the week that each victimization incident took place. If the respondent could not identify the specific day of the week, they were then asked if the crime took place on a weekday or on the weekend (see Table 5.3). Overall, the data suggest that victimization incidents are most likely to take place on Saturdays (10.5%) and Fridays (10.4%). By contrast, they are least likely to occur on Mondays (4.6%) and Tuesdays (5.6%). Overall, six out of ten victimization experiences documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS (62.0%) took place during the week. ¹⁵ Approximately one-third (29.6%) took place on the weekend. However, 8.4% of all respondents could not remember the day of the week that their most recent victimization occurred.

¹⁵ For the purposes of this analysis, Friday was considered a day of the week. However, if we classify Friday as being part of the weekend the proportion of victimizations taking place on the weekend jumps from 29.6% to 40.0%.

Table 5.4 presents the proportion of all criminal victimization experiences that took place on weekdays or weekends – by type of crime. The data suggest that, in general, property crimes – including theft, burglary and praedial larceny — are significantly more likely to occur during the week than on the weekend. This pattern may reflect the fact that many people must go to work or school during the week and subsequently leave their properties unprotected. The data further suggest that robberies and assaults are slightly more likely to occur on the weekend — particularly weekend evenings. Perhaps this pattern reflects the fact that people are more likely to be out late at night on the weekend than during the week and thus become the target of predatory criminals. However, other violent crimes — including threats — tend to be more evenly distributed throughout the week. This finding suggests that personal disputes may erupt at any point during the week.

Table 5.3: Percent of All Victimization Incidents that Occurred On Specific Days of the Week (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	NUMBER OF	PERCENT OF
	CASES	ALL CASES
Monday	51	4.6
Tuesday	62	5.6
Wednesday	96	8.7
Thursday	102	9.2
Friday	115	10.4
Saturday	116	10.5
Sunday	79	7.2
Weekday (specific day not known)	131	11.9
Weekend (specific day not known)	258	23.4
Can't Remember	93	8.4
TOTAL	1,103	100.0

Table 5.4: Percent of All Victimization Incidents that took Place during the Week or on the Weekend, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	WEEKDAY	WEEKEND	CAN'T
			REMEMBER
Theft	60.8	31.6	7.7
Praedial Larceny	60.9	28.3	10.9
Burglary	65.5	25.6	8.9
Vandalism	57.9	39.5	2.6
Robbery	59.6	38.6	1.8
Threats	63.6	29.7	6.7
Assaults	59.4	33.3	7.2
Sexual Assaults	100.0	0.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	64.5	16.1	19.4
Other	66.7	33.3	0.0
TOTAL	62.0	29.6	8.4

Time of the Day

Respondents were also asked what time of the day each victimization incident took place. One out of every six respondents (16.8%) either does not know or can't recall the exact time of day that the crime occurred (see Table 5.5). Not knowing is particularly common for certain types of property crime – including burglary – in which the victim was not present when the offence occurred. Overall, the data suggests that crimes in Jamaica are less likely to occur in the early morning -- between 4:00 and 8:00 am -- than during other times of the day. Indeed, only 8.9% of all reported victimization incidents took place during this time of day. By contrast, crimes are most likely to occur during the early afternoon – between noon and 3:00 pm. For example, 17.4% of all victimization incidents took place during this time period.

Table 5.6 presents data on the timing of victimization incidents by crime type. Morning refers to the period between 4:00 am and Noon. Afternoon refers to the period between Noon and 6:00 pm. Evening refers to the time between 6:00 pm and 9:00 pm. Finally, Late Night refers to the period between 9:00 pm and 4:00 am. The findings suggest that the majority of property crimes either took place during the day (morning or afternoon) or that the respondent does not know when the crime took place. Previous

research suggests that property crime is most likely to occur when victims are absent and thus unable to protect their property. Thus, burglaries and break-ins often occur during the daylight hours when people are at home or school.

Unlike property offences, the majority of robberies (54.4%) and sexual assaults (100.0%) took place after dark (i.e., between 6 pm and 4:00 am). Interestingly, other types of violence, including threats and assaults, are more likely to occur in the afternoon hours (Noon to 6:00 pm) than at night. For example, according to the respondents, 40.6% of physical assaults took place in the afternoon period. By contrast, only 26.0% took place after 6:00 pm. This finding may be explained by the fact that the afternoon period is when people in Jamaica are the most likely to be out in public spaces and thus most likely to encounter people with whom they have interpersonal disputes.

Table 5.5: Percent of All Victimization Incidents that Occurred at Particular Times of the Day (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	NUMBER OF	PERCENT OF
	CASES	ALL CASES
Early morning (4:01 am to 8:00 am)	98	8.9
Late morning (8:01 am to Noon)	142	12.9
Early afternoon (12:01 pm to 3:00 pm)	192	17.4
Late afternoon (3:01 pm to 6:00 pm)	140	12.7
Early evening (6:01 pm to 9:00 pm)	114	10.3
Late evening (9:01 pm to Midnight)	117	10.6
After Midnight (12:01 am to 4:00 am)	115	10.4
Can't Remember/Don't know	186	16.8
TOTAL	1,103	100.0

Table 5.6: Percent of All Victimization Incidents that took Place at Particular Times of the Day, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	MORNING	AFTERNOON	EVENING	LATE	DON'T
				NIGHT	KNOW/
					CANNOT
					REMEMBER
Theft	17.2	31.6	9.1	27.3	14.8
Praedial	22.0	23.4	4.9	16.8	33.1
Larceny					
Burglary	16.7	24.4	7.1	38.1	13.7
Vandalism	15.8	36.8	5.3	26.3	15.8
Robbery	22.8	22.8	26.3	28.1	0.0
Threats	27.3	43.0	20.0	7.3	2.4
Assaults	30.4	40.6	13.0	13.0	2.9
Sexual Assaults	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	32.3	48.4	6.5	3.2	9.7
Other	33.3	16.7	33.3	16.7	0.0
TOTAL	21.8	30.1	10.3	21.0	16.8

Location of Victimization

Research suggests that people typically fear public spaces outside of their own community much more than private spaces or the streets within their own neighbourhoods (see, for example, the survey findings presented in Part Seven of this report). It is thus interesting to note that the majority of recent victimization experiences (55.8%) reported by the 2012-13 JNCVS respondents took place in private locations (i.e., the respondents' own homes or the homes of family members or friends). An additional 13.9% took place on the respondents' own farms or agricultural properties and 13.9% took place on the streets within the respondents' own communities. By contrast, only 11.2% of all victimization incidents took place on the streets outside of the respondents' own neighbourhoods, 7.0% took place in other public locations (bars, markets, public parks, beaches, public transit, etc.) and 4.1% took place at work or school (see Figure 5.2).

Crime locations, however, vary significantly by crime type (see Table 5.7). For example, almost all cases of burglary (97.0%) and vandalism (78.9%) took place at the

respondents' own residences – as did the majority of thefts (53.1%) and praedial larcenies (53.4%). An additional forty-two percent of larcenies took place on the respondents' private farms, fields or orchards. By contrast, the majority or robberies (68.4%) took place on the streets either within (36.8%) or outside (31.6%) the respondents' own communities. By contrast, only 14.0% of robberies took place in a private residence. The data also suggest that Jamaicans are more likely to be threatened, physically assaulted and sexually assaulted close to home than away from their community. For example, two-thirds (66.7%) of all physical assaults either took place in a private residence (34.8%) or on the streets within the respondents' own community (31.9%).

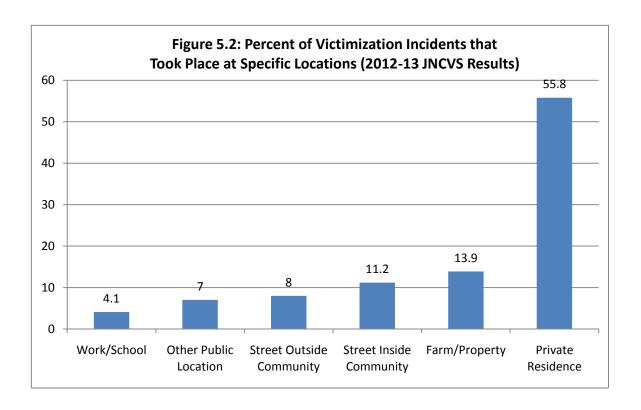


Table 5.7: Percent of Victimization Incidents that took Place at Specific Locations, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	Private Home	On the Street	Work Or	Other Public	Farm Or
		20200	School	Location	Property
Theft	53.1	23.0	6.2	17.7	0.0
Praedial Larceny	53.4	1.7	0.6	2.0	42.3
Burglary	97.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
Vandalism	78.9	7.9	0.0	7.9	5.3
Robbery	14.0	68.4	5.3	10.5	1.8
Threats	46.7	39.4	7.3	5.5	1.2
Assaults	34.8	59.4	2.9	2.9	0.0
Sexual Assaults	50.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	32.3	16.1	22.6	29.0	0.0
Other	33.3	41.7	8.3	16.7	0.0
TOTAL	55.8	19.2	4.1	7.0	13.9

Number of Offenders

Respondents were also asked to identify the number of offenders involved in each victimization incident (see Table 5.8). In the majority of cases (52.3%) the respondents simply claimed that they never saw the offenders and were thus unsure about their numbers. This is particularly true for certain property crimes including praedial larceny (80.3%), burglary (66.7.1%) and theft (75.6%). Respondents were, however, able to identify the number of offenders for most violent, interpersonal crimes. According to the data, the vast majority of threats (80.6%) and physical assaults (73.9%) involved only one offender. In fact, robbery is the only type of violent crime that usually involves multiple offenders. Only 24.6% of robberies involved a single offender. By contrast, 75.4% of robberies involved two or more assailants and almost half (42.1%) involved three or more offenders. It is also important to note that two out of the four sexual assaults (50.0%) reported by JNCVS respondents involved three or more offenders. This would put these crimes into the "gang-rape" category.

Table 5.8: Number of Offenders, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	ONE	TWO	THREE OR	DID NOT
	OFFENDER	OFFENDERS	MORE	SEE
			OFFENDERS	OFFENDERS
Theft	20.1	1.4	2.9	75.6
Praedial Larceny	13.1	3.1	3.4	80.3
Burglary	23.2	6.5	3.6	66.7
Vandalism	34.2	13.2	10.5	42.1
Robbery	24.6	33.3	42.1	0.0
Threats	80.6	8.5	10.9	0.0
Assaults	73.9	17.4	8.7	0.0
Sexual Assaults	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	54.8	22.6	9.7	13.0
Other	41.7	16.7	0.0	42.1
TOTAL	32.8	7.6	7.3	52.3

The Gender of Offenders

All respondents were asked if they had seen or witnessed the offenders involved with each victimization incident. The offenders could be identified in only 526 of the 1,103 victimization incidents (47.7%) documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS. In many cases – including incidents of theft and burglary – respondents simply were not present when the crime took place and thus can't provide details with respect to the offenders' characteristics. However, those respondents that stated that they had seen the offenders were asked to identify their gender. When respondents could identify the gender of the offender(s) they were much more likely to state that the offender was male than female (see Table 5.9). Overall, 86.9% of identified offenders were male. By contrast, only 8.2% of identified offenders were female and an additional 4.9% of victimization incidents involved both male and female offenders. Males represent the vast majority of offenders – over 75 percent – for each type of crime. Female offenders, nonetheless, are most prevalent in cases of assault (14.5%), fraud (13.8%), threats (10.9%) and theft (10.0%) and physical assault (11.2%). By contrast, female offenders were involved no sexual assaults and only 1.8% of robberies.

It should be stressed that males represent the vast majority of the offenders reported by the JNCVS respondents – regardless of the gender of the victim. In other words, regardless of the nature of the crime, women are rarely victimized by other women. For example, seven out of every ten assaults committed against female victims was committed by a male assailant. However, female respondents are slightly more likely than males to report that they were physically assaulted by a female offender. Overall, these findings are highly consistent with the international research literature which suggests that – regardless of the nation under study – males constitute that vast majority of criminal offenders. This finding also challenges the hypothesis that female crime is on the increase in Jamaica.

Table 5.9: Gender of Offenders, by Type of Crime¹⁶ (2012-13 JNCVS)

CRIME TYPE	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH MALE AND FEMALE
Theft	86.0	10.0	4.0
Praedial Larceny	91.2	1.5	7.4
Burglary	92.7	1.8	5.5
Vandalism	77.3	0.0	22.7
Robbery	98.2	1.8	0.0
Threats	85.5	10.9	3.6
Assaults	82.6	14.5	2.9
Sexual Assaults	100.0	0.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	75.9	13.8	10.3
Other	57.1	42.9	0.0
TOTAL	86.9	8.2	4.9

Age of the Offenders

As discussed above, there were only 526 cases in which the victim stated that they saw the offender or offenders. These respondents were subsequently asked to identify the approximate age of the offenders involved in their case. In 36 of these 526 victimization

¹⁶ This table only includes incidents in which the victim saw or could identify the offenders. It does not include cases in which the offender was not observed.

incidents (6.8% of the sample), the respondents still reported that they could not identify or even estimate the age of the offenders. That leaves us with 490 victimization incidents in which the age of the offender or offenders could be estimated (see Table 5.10). An analysis of this data suggests that the vast majority of crimes (over 70%) in Jamaican society are committed by young adults (18-39 years of age). Overall, 39.4% of respondents claimed that the offender or offenders were between 25 and 39 years of age and an additional 33.1% stated that the offenders were between 18 and 24 years. By contrast, only 20% of offenders were said to be 40 years of age or older and only 6.7% were identified as 17 years of age or younger. This general pattern offending exists across crime types. For example, seven out of every ten assault offenders (70.3%) were between 18 and 39 years of age. By contrast, only 4.7% were 17 years of age or younger and only 25.0% were 40 years of age or older. Similarly, 92.4% of all robbery offenders were either 18-24 years of age (52.8%) or 25-39 years-old (39.6%). By contrast, only 5.7% of all robbery offenders were younger than 18 years and only 1.9% were 40 years of age or older. In general, these findings are consistent with the results of other victimization surveys conducted in Canada, the United States and Great Britain.

Table 5.10: Age of Offenders, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	17	18-24	25-39	40 Years
	Years	Years	Years	or Older
	Or Less			
Theft	16.7	27.1	39.6	16.7
Praedial Larceny	9.1	27.3	43.9	19.7
Burglary	15.9	52.3	27.3	4.5
Vandalism	5.0	40.0	20.0	35.0
Robbery	5.7	52.8	39.6	1.9
Threats	1.9	28.7	42.0	27.4
Assaults	4.7	23,4	46.9	25.0
Sexual Assaults	0.0	50.0	0.0	50.0
Fraud/Extortion	3.6	32.1	35.7	28.6
Other	16.7	16.7	33.3	33.3
TOTAL	6.7	33.1	39.4	20.8

Victim-Offender Relationship

As discussed above, respondents were asked if they had observed the offender or offenders involved in each victimization incident. Those respondents who had seen the offender or offenders were asked if they knew these individuals or if they were strangers (see Figure 5.3). The results indicate that in more than half of all cases (53.3%) the respondent did not see or observe the crime or could not tell if the offender was someone they knew or not. However, the data also indicate that almost a third of all offenders (32.1%) were known to the victim. An additional 14.6% of offenders were identified as strangers. Furthermore, according to the data, acquaintances and neighbours are much more likely to be identified as offenders than family members, friends or intimate partners (i.e., spouses, boyfriends, girlfriends or friends).

The nature of the victim-offender relationship, however, varies significantly by crime type (see Table 5.11). For example, respondents were rarely able to identify the offender in cases of theft, praedial larceny and burglary. This finding is not that surprising. After all, these are the types of property crime that are most likely to take place when witnesses are absent. However, when it comes to violent, interpersonal crimes – including physical assaults and threats — the victims were usually able to identify the offender. Analysis of this data suggests that Jamaicans are much more likely to be threatened, assaulted and sexually assaulted by people they know than by strangers. Indeed, almost nine out of every ten offenders in cases of that involved either threats (86.7%) or physical assault (85.5%) were known to the victim. By contrast, only 10.9% of threats and 14.5% of assault incidents involved strangers. Nonetheless, strangers do seem to dominate some forms of criminal offending. Indeed, the vast majority of robberies (87.7%) that were reported by JNCVS respondents were apparently committed by strangers. Furthermore, the offenders were identified as strangers in three out of the four sexual assaults reported by JNCVS respondents (75.0%).

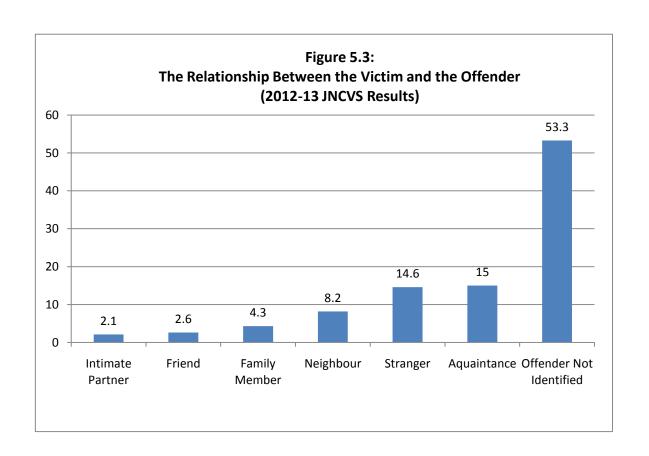


Table 5.11: Nature of the Relationship between the Victim and the Offender, By Type of Criminal Victimization (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	Friend	Intimate	Acquaintance	Neighbour	Family Member	Stranger	Offender
		Partner			Member		Never Identified
Theft	1.4	0.0	6.7	4.8	0.0	11.5	75.6
Praedial	0.8	0.0	7.4	4.6	1.1	5.4	80.9
Larceny							
Burglary	0.6	0.0	7.7	6.5	1.8	16.1	67.3
Vandalism	2.6	2.6	23.7	21.1	7.9	0.0	42.1
Robbery	0.0	0.0	12.3	0.0	0.0	87.7	0.0
Threats	6.7	6.7	41.2	18.8	13.3	10.9	2.4
Assaults	7.2	14.5	26.1	17.4	20.3	14.5	0.0
Sexual Assaults	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	12.9	0.0	25.8	3.2	3.2	29.0	25.8
Other	8.3	8.3	16.7	8.3	0.0	16.7	41.7
TOTAL	2.6	2.1	15.0	8.2	2.6	14.6	53.3

Financial Loss

Respondents were also asked if anything was lost, stolen or damaged as a result of each victimization incident (see Figure 5.4). The data indicate that nothing was lost, stolen or damaged in about one-fourth of all cases (26.7%). Approximately one-third of all cases (33.7%) involved the theft of food, agricultural products or livestock. The majority of these cases involved praedial larceny -- but others involved the theft of food in other social settings (school, work, public parks, etc.). An additional 24.6% involved the theft of other material goods including televisions, computers, home appliances, stereo equipment and car parts. One out of every ten cases (11.1%) involved the loss of money. Other goods lost through criminal victimization include cell phones (8.5% of all cases), bikes (1.5%), clothing (3.6%), jewelry and motor vehicles (2.0%).

Respondents who had lost money or goods as a result of crime were then asked to estimate the approximate value (in Jamaican dollars) of their loss. Estimates ranged from \$1,000 to \$1 million. Further analysis indicates that the extent of financial loss varies dramatically by crime type (see Table 5.12). For example, the vast majority of threats (98.2%) and physical assaults (89.9%) did not involve any financial loss. By contrast, a half of all robberies (50.9%) and a third of all thefts, burglaries and frauds involved losses of \$18,000 or more. Importantly, according to the data, very few victims (only 6.2%) ever recovered the items or money they had lost as a result of a victimization incident.

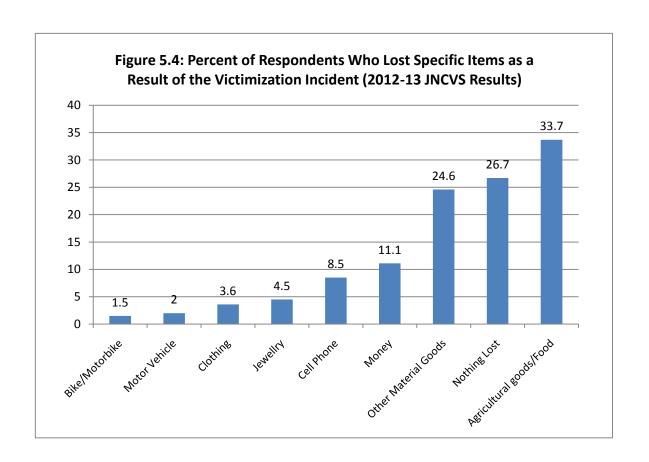


Table 5.12: Estimated Financial Losses Associated with Reported Incidents of Criminal Victimization, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	No	\$1,000	\$2,001	\$6,001	More
	Financial	to	to	to	Than
	Loss	\$2,000	\$6,000	\$18,000	\$18,000
Theft	1.4	7.7	22.0	25.8	32.5
Praedial Larceny	0.6	21.1	18.6	16.9	15.7
Burglary	22.0	9.5	10.7	11.3	31.0
Vandalism	2.6	2.6	10.5	26.3	23.7
Robbery	7.0	1.8	12.3	19.3	50.9
Threats	98.2	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0
Assaults	89.9	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Sexual Assaults	75.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0
Fraud/Extortion	35.5	3.2	12.9	9.7	32.3
Other	75.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	16.7
TOTAL	26.7	10.0	13.3	14.4	20.3

The Use of Weapons

Respondents were asked whether a weapon was involved in each reported incident of criminal victimization documented by the JNCVS. The data suggest that a weapon was used in approximately one out of every four incidents (22.6%). Knives, machetes or other sharp weapons (including shears and scissors) were used in one out of every eight reported crimes (12.2%), guns were used in one out of every fifteen crimes (6.8%) and a club, rock or other blunt object was used in one out of every 28 incidents (3.5%). Other weapons – including battery acid, pepper spray and automobiles – were used in only eight of the 1,103 cases (0.7%) documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS (see Table 5.13).

The use of weapons, of course, varies quite significantly by type of crime. For example, over eighty-five percent of property crimes – including theft, burglary and praedial larceny – did not involve the use of a weapon. By contrast, nine out of ten robberies (89.5%) involved a weapon. Robberies were also much more likely to involve a firearm than any other type of crime. For example, three-quarters of robberies (77.2%) involved a firearm, compared to 25.0% of sexual assaults, 10.1% of threats and less than 5% of all other types of crime. It is important to note however, that knives and clubs were used in over half of all reported cases of physical assault (56.5%) and a third of all threat incidents (31.5%). Finally, a fourth of all vandalism cases (26.3%) involved the use of a club, rock or other blunt object. We assume that the weapon in such incidents was used to inflict property damage rather than to threaten or attack victims.

¹⁷ It is interesting to note that a knife was used in 7.4% of all praedial larcenies. However, it is uncertain whether this weapon was used to threaten or attack victims or just to harvest the fruits and vegetables being stolen.

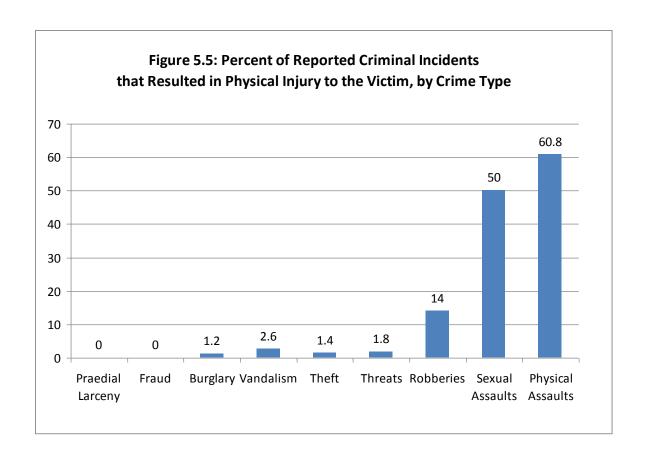
Table 5.13: Percent of Reported Criminal Victimization Incidents that Involved Weapons, By Type of Weapon and Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	No	Club, Rock	Knife	Firearm
	Weapons	or Other	or	
	Involved	Blunt Object	Machete	
Theft	94.7	1.0	3.8	0.5
Praedial Larceny	91.1	0.9	7.4	0.6
Burglary	84.5	3.0	7.7	4.8
Vandalism	57.9	26.3	15.8	0.0
Robbery	10.5	0.0	12.3	77.2
Threats	58.2	4.8	26.7	10.3
Assaults	42.0	14.5	42.0	1.4
Sexual Assaults	50.0	0.0	25.0	25.0
Fraud/Extortion	93.5	0.0	32	3.2
Other	91.7	8.3	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	77.4	3.5	12.2	6.8

Physical Injury

Respondents were asked whether they had been physically injured as a result of each victimization incident they reported. Overall, only 60 of the 1,103 victimization incidents (5.4%) documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS resulted in a physical injury to the respondents. Twenty-three respondents claim that they were cut by a knife or machete, thirty-three report that they were badly bruised or battered and four respondents claimed that they suffered broken bones. Over half of those injured by their victimization (51.7%) had to visit a hospital and 31.7% had to miss school or work because of the severity of their injuries.

Not surprisingly, injury rates vary dramatically by crime type (see Figure 5.5). For example, almost two-thirds of all assaults (60.8%) and half of all sexual assaults (50.0%) resulted in physical injuries to the victim. One out of every seven robberies (14.0%) also resulted in an injury to the victim. However, the injury rate for all other types of crime drops below three percent. In fact, according to the data, no injuries resulted from cases of praedial larceny or fraud.



Reporting Crimes to the Police

All respondents who claimed a criminal victimization experience in the past year were asked whether or not they reported these incidents to the police. Overall, the data suggest that only 34.2% of all criminal victimization incidents that took place in 2012-13 were reported to the police (see Table 5.14). This reporting rate is up slightly from only 30.4% in 2009.

The police reporting rate varies significantly by crime type. For example, half of all assaults (55.1%), burglaries (51.2%), robberies (50.9%) and sexual assaults (50.0%) were reported to the police, compared to only 25.8% of fraud/extortion cases, 16.0% of praedial larcenies and 33.0% of thefts. Further analysis suggests that the more "serious" the crime, the more likely it is to be reported to the police. For example, more than half of all crimes that resulted in physical injury (56.7%) were reported to the police, compared to only a quarter of crimes (36.6%) that did not result in injury. Similarly, 52.3% of crimes that involved a gun were reported to police, compared to only 22.4% of

crimes that did not involve a weapon. Finally, only 11.5% of crimes that resulted in a loss of \$2,000 or less were reported to the police, compared to 60.7% of crimes that resulted in a financial loss of \$18,000 or more.

Table 5.14: Percent of Respondents Who Reported Victimization Incidents to the Police, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	REPORTED CRIME TO THE POLCE	DID NOT REPORT CRIME TO THE POLICE
Theft	33.0	67.0
Praedial Larceny	16.0	84.0
Burglary	51.2	48.8
Vandalism	42.1	57.9
Robbery	50.9	49.1
Threats	43.6	56.4
Assaults	55.1	44.9
Sexual Assaults	50.0	50.0
Fraud/Extortion	25.8	74.2
Other	8.3	91.7
TOTAL	34.2	65.8

Victim Perceptions of Police Actions

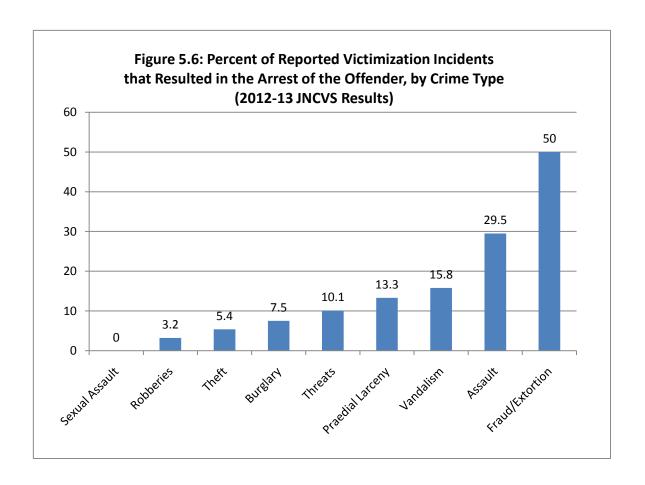
According to the data, 377 respondents reported recent victimization experiences to the police. The police found out about an additional 37 crimes (3.3% of all cases) through other means (i.e., the crime was reported by other witnesses or the police actually witnessed the crime themselves). Thus, the police ultimately found out about only 414 of the 1,103 crimes reported by the 2012-13 JNCVS respondents (37.5%). These 414 respondents were subsequently asked a series of questions about how the police dealt with their victimization. The data indicate that the police visited the scene of the crime 63.3% of time. Furthermore, the police talked directly to the victim in approximately 70% of all cases. An additional 16.9% of victims claimed that they talked to the police on the phone. According to the victims, the police conducted a full investigation in less than half of all cases (43.7%). However, only 30.0% of victims claimed that the police

actually talked to the offenders and only 25.8% stated that the police gave offenders a warning. Finally, according to the respondents, only one out of every ten victimization incidents (11.8%) resulted in an offender being arrested and/or charged with a criminal offence (see Table 5.15).

Table 5.15: Police Actions Related to Reported Victimization Incidents (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

ACTION TAKEN BY THE POLICE	PERCENT	OF
	CASES	
Visited the scene of the crime		63.3
Talked to the victim in person		68.4
Talked to the victim over the phone		16.9
Conducted a full investigation		43.7
Talked to the offender		30.0
Gave the offender a warning		25.8
Arrested or charged the offender		11.8

Further analysis reveals that the rate of arrest varies dramatically by type of crime (see Figure 5.6). For example, arrests were made in half of all the fraud/extortion cases that were reported to the police. Similarly, almost a third of all cases of physical assault (29.5%) resulted in the arrest of an offender. This statistic likely reflects the fact that --compared to other crimes -- a large proportion of assaults result in physical injury and might thus be taken more seriously by the police. Furthermore, in most assault cases, the offender is someone who is known to the victim (i.e., an acquaintance, family member, neighbour or friend). Thus, compared to crimes involving unknown offenders, it may be much easier for police officers to identify and apprehend the offenders in physical assault cases. At the other end of the spectrum, only 3.2% of robberies and 5.4% of thefts resulted in arrest – likely because these crimes are much more likely to be perpetrated by strangers. Indeed, previous research on policing suggests that if the victim cannot directly identify the offender -- the chances of arrest decline significantly.

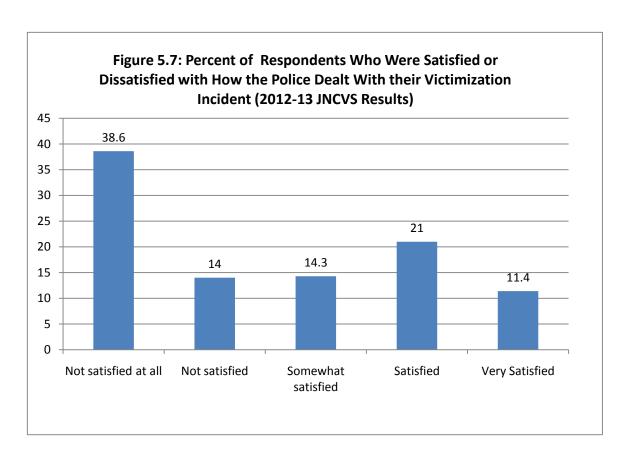


Satisfaction with the Police Response

In all cases where the victimization was reported to the police, respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the police response (see Figure 5.7). The results suggest that over half of all crime victims (52.6%) were either "not satisfied" (14.0%) or "not satisfied at all" (38.6%) with the police response. An additional 14.9% were only "somewhat satisfied" with how the police dealt with their case. By contrast, only 11.5% of all respondents were "very satisfied" with the police response.

Further analysis suggests that satisfaction with police response is strongly linked to the actions that the police take in response to calls for service. When the police take specific actions and demonstrate that they are taking the victimization incident seriously - the general level of victim satisfaction increases (see Table 5.16). For example, 57.3% of all crime victims were satisfied or very satisfied with the police when the police

actually showed up when called and talked with the victim (and other witnesses) in person. By contrast, only 27.9% of victims were satisfied or very satisfied when the police did not report to the scene and talk to the victim in person. Similarly, 71.0% of victims were satisfied or very satisfied with the police response when it was perceived that the police had talked to the offender. By contrast, only 37.5% of victims were satisfied or very satisfied when the police did not talk to the offender. Finally, 75.5% of victims were satisfied or very satisfied with how the police dealt with a case when an offender was arrested, compared to only 42.7% of cases in which an offender was never charged.



Respondents who called the police were also asked if they thought the police should have done anything else when dealing with their particular victimization incident. One third of the respondents (39.1%) stated that the police did everything they should have and that no further actions were required. However, almost two-thirds of the respondents (60.8%) felt that the police should have taken further action. For example, 32.4% of crime victims felt that the police should have treated their case more seriously.

An additional 36.6% felt that the police should have conducted a better investigation, 14.9% stated that the police should have responded more quickly to the incident and 10.6% felt the police should have been more supportive or sympathetic. Finally, 11.3% of crime victims felt that the police should have arrested the offender and an additional 5.7% felt that the offender should have at least been warned.

Table 5.16: Percent of Respondents Who Were Satisfied With How the Police Dealt With Their Victimization Incident, by Type of Action Taken by the Police (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

POLICE	Not	Satisfied or
ACTIONS	Satisfied	Very
		Satisfied
Came to the scene of the crime	42.7	57.3
Did not come to the scene of the crime	72.1	27.9
Talked to the victim in person	43.8	56.2
Did not talk to the victim in person	73.8	26.2
Talked to the victim on the phone	37.1	62.9
Did not talk to the victim on the phone	56.8	43.2
Conducted a full investigation	34.3	65.7
Did not conduct a full investigation	67.7	32.3
Talked to the offender	29.0	71.0
Did not talk to the offender	62.5	37.5
Warned the offender	24.3	75.7
Did not warn the offender	62.1	37.9
Arrested the offender	24.5	75.5
Did not arrest the offender	57.3	42.7

Reasons for Not Reporting Victimization Incidents to the Police

As discussed above, approximately two-thirds of all victimization incidents (62.5%) were not reported to the police. Respondents who did not talk to the police were subsequently asked to provide all of their reasons for not reporting. Only four respondents (0.7%) could not provide a reason. However, 43.6% provided one reason for not reporting, 40.9% provided two reasons, 11.7% provided three reasons and 3.1% of respondents provided four or more reasons for not reporting personal victimization experiences to the police. On average, each of these respondents provided two reasons for not reporting. These findings suggest that victims put a great deal of thought into

their decision to call the police or not. Clearly, they fail to report when they perceive that the consequences of reporting outweigh the potential benefits (see Table 5.17).

The perception that the victimization incident was not serious enough to warrant police attention (provided by 38.0% of respondents) is the most commonly given justification for not calling the police (see Figure 5.8). This reason is particularly common among property crime victims who suffered minimal financial loss. It is also common for minor threats and assault cases that did not involve weapons or personal injury. The second most common reason for not reporting victimization incidents to the police (provided by 21.5% of respondents) is the perception that the police would not be able to do anything or that nothing beneficial would result from talking to law enforcement officials. A number of respondents simply stated that reporting to the police would be "a waste of time." This justification is particularly common among the victims of minor property crime and in cases where the offender could not be identified by the victim. A general lack of faith in the police was also expressed by an additional fifth of respondents (18.0%) who claimed that they did not report their victimization because they believe that the police "would not care." Finally, one out of every fourteen respondents (7.3%) stated that they did not report their victimization because they do not trust the police and therefore do not like dealing with them.

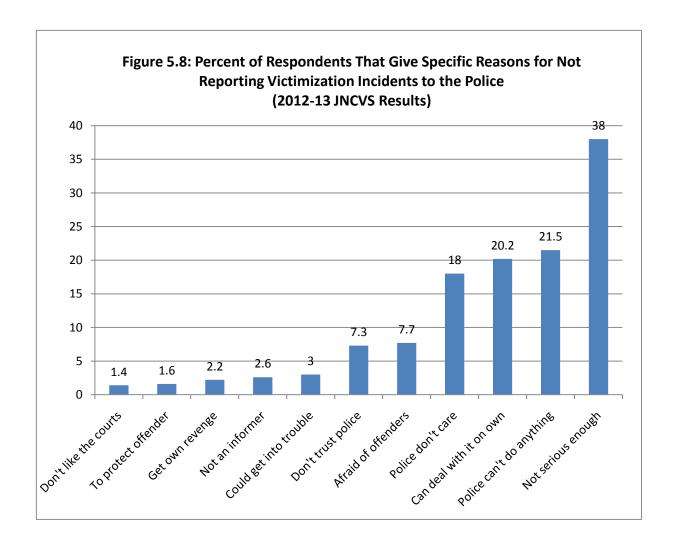
An additional fifth of respondents (20.2%) claimed that they could deal with the victimization on their own and did not require the assistance of the police. Many of these respondents also claimed that the crime was not serious enough to warrant police attention. Interestingly, fear of offender retaliation is a relatively uncommon reason for not talking to the police. Indeed, less than ten percent of respondents (7.7%) failed to report their victimization because they feared the offender or the offender's family and friends. This justification, however, is significantly more common among the victims of serious violence – especially in cases where the offender is known to the victim.

A small proportion of victims did not report their victimization experience to the police because they were afraid they could get into trouble with the police (3.0%) or they

did not want to be labeled a snitch or an informer (2.6%). This finding shows that some respondents not only fear retaliation from offenders, but also the possibility that reporting to the police will ruin their reputation within their own community. Less prevalent reasons for not reporting crimes to the police include a desire to protect the offender (particularly common when the respondent was victimized by a spouse or family member); a dislike of the criminal courts; and a desire to seek personal revenge.

Table 5.17: Number of Reasons Respondents Give for Not Reporting Victimization Incidents to the Police (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

NUMBER OF REASONS	NUMBER OF	PERCENT OF
FOR NOT REPORTING CRIME TO THE POLICE	RESPONDENTS	RESPONDENTS
Zero	4	0.7
One	301	43.6
Two	282	40.9
Three	81	11.7
Four or More	21	3.1
Mean # of Reasons	1.9	97



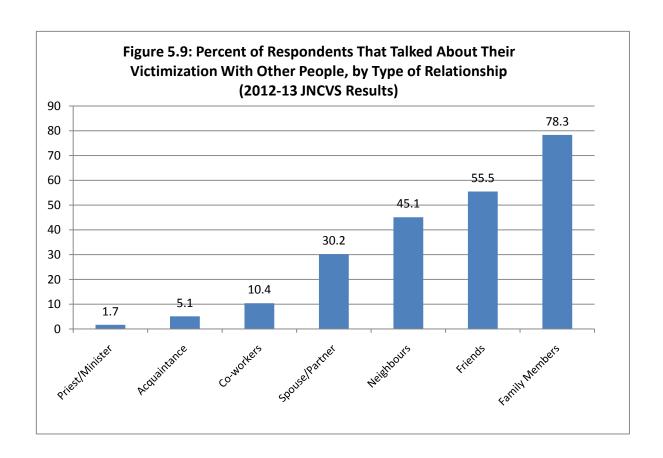
Reporting Victimization to Others

Besides the police, previous research suggests that crime victims often seek support from other people in their social networks. Thus, all respondents who had experienced a recent victimization incident were asked if they had talked to anyone else – other than the police – about this crime. Overall, 92.1% of all respondents talked to another person – besides the police – about their latest victimization experience. Only 7.9% of all victims kept the crime all to themselves.

Eight out of ten crime victims (78.3%) reported the crime to at least one family member (see Figure 5.9). An additional 55.5% talked to their friends, 45.1% talked to their neighbours, 30.2% talked to their spouse or intimate partner, 10.4% talked to co-

workers, 5.1% talked to acquaintances and 1.7% talked to their priest or minister. Other respondents indicated that they talked to fellow members of their religious congregation. Some actually went so far as to speak with the family members or friends of the offender. Finally, two respondents skipped talking to the police and reported the victimization to their community's Area Don.

As discussed above, 7.9% of all recent crime victims (87 individuals) stated that they did not talk about their most recent victimization experiences to the police or to anyone else. In other words, they kept the incident totally to themselves. These respondents were subsequently asked why they had decided not to talk to anyone about their personal victimization experiences. More than half of these respondents (57.6%) simply felt that the crime they had experienced was too minor to discuss with anyone. It was not worth mentioning. Another fifth of these respondents (20.7%) felt that they were able to deal with the victimization incident on their own. Others (8.8%) stated that they just did not trust anyone enough to discuss the matter. Less common reasons for not talking about personal victimization incidents include shame or embarrassment (4.0%) and fear of the offenders (2.3%). A couple of respondents also stated that they did not tell family members about the crime because they were afraid these family members would seek revenge and ultimately get themselves in trouble with the police.



Seeking Revenge

All recent crime victims were asked the following question: "Sometimes when people become the victim of a crime they try to get revenge or get back at the people who committed the offense. Did you ever try to get revenge on the person or take reprisal actions against the persons who committed this crime? According to the data, revenge was sought in only 42 of the 1,103 recent victimization incidents (3.8%). In only 7 of these 42 cases (16.6%) did the respondents seek revenge with the help of a family member or friend. Physically assaulting, beating or attacking the offender is by far the most common revenge strategy. This "physical retaliation" strategy was reported in 31 of the 42 revenge cases (73.4%). Two respondents actually indicated that they had "killed" the person who had victimized them. Ten other cases (23.8%) involved public shaming (cursing the person in public) or making threats. In one other case the victim stated that they had gotten revenge by ruining the offender's reputation.

The Emotional Impact of Victimization

Respondents were first asked how upset they were by each victimization incident that took place in the past twelve months (see Figure 5.10). The results suggest that almost two-thirds of all victims (64.5%) were "very upset" by the criminal activity they had experienced. An additional 16.7% were "upset" and 13.4% were "a little upset." Only a small minority of respondents (5.4%) were "not upset at all" by recent victimization incidents.

The data suggest that people are most likely to be "very upset" by sexual assaults (100.0%), physical assaults (78.3%), vandalism (76.3%), robbery (75.4%), burglary (70.2%) and threats (66.7%). By contrast, only 55.4% of respondents were "very upset" by praedial larcenies (see Table 5.18). The data indicate, however, that the more "serious" the crime, the more upsetting it is to the victim. For example, over 80% of respondents who lost money or goods worth \$18,000 or more were "very upset" by the crime, compared to only 44% of respondents who lost money or goods worth \$2,000 or less. Similarly, when a gun was involved, over 90% of victims were "very upset" by the crime. This figure drops to only 60% for crimes that did not involve a weapon. Finally, 87% of victims who were injured by the offender were "very upset" by the crime, compared to 61.2% of victims who were not injured.

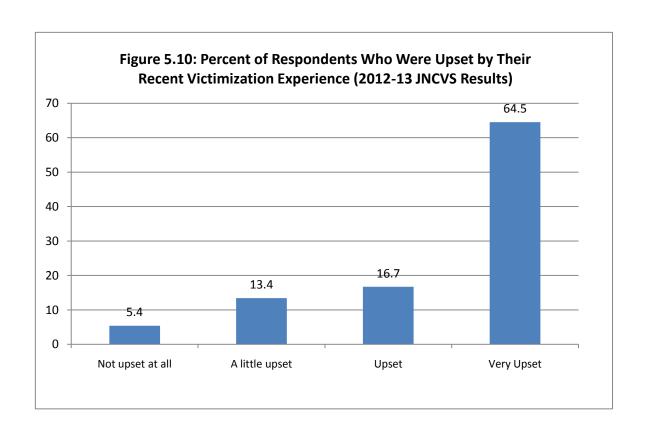


Table 5.18: Percent of Respondents That Were Upset by their Recent Victimization, by Crime Type (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	Not Upset At All	A Little	Upset	Very Upset
		Upset		
Theft	6.7	13.9	15.3	64.1
Praedial Larceny	6.3	18.3	20.0	55.4
Burglary	3.6	13.1	13.1	70.2
Vandalism	0.0	10.5	13.2	76.3
Robbery	1.8	10.5	12.3	75.4
Threats	8.5	7.3	17.6	66.7
Assaults	1.4	8.7	11.6	78.3
Sexual Assaults	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fraud/Extortion	3.2	9.7	25.8	61.3
Other	8.3	16.7	25.0	50.0
TOTAL	5.4	13.4	16.7	64.5

Respondents were also asked about how frightened they were by the victimization incidents they had reported to the survey research team (see Figure 5.11). The results

indicate that a third of all crime victims (30.8%) were "very frightened" by the crimes they had experienced in the past year. An additional 15.1% were "frightened" and 20.2% were only "a little frightened" by their most recent victimization experiences. By contrast, a third of the sample (33.6%) claimed that they were "not frightened at all." The results also suggest that respondents are most likely to be very frightened by sexual assaults (100.0%), robberies (61.4%) and physical assaults (53.8%). On the other hand, they are least likely to be frightened by praedial larceny, fraud and theft (see Table 5.19).

Not surprisingly, the more serious the crime, the more likely it is to produce fear. For example, 45.7% of respondents who had lost \$18,000 or more reported that they were "very frightened" by the crime, compared to only 14.0% who lost \$2,000 or less. Similarly, when a gun was involved, over 80% of victims reported that they were very frightened by the crime. By contrast, only 20% of victims were very frightened when the crime did not involve a weapon. Finally, 66% of victims who were injured by the offender claim that they were very frightened by the crime, compared to only 25.1% of victims who were uninjured.

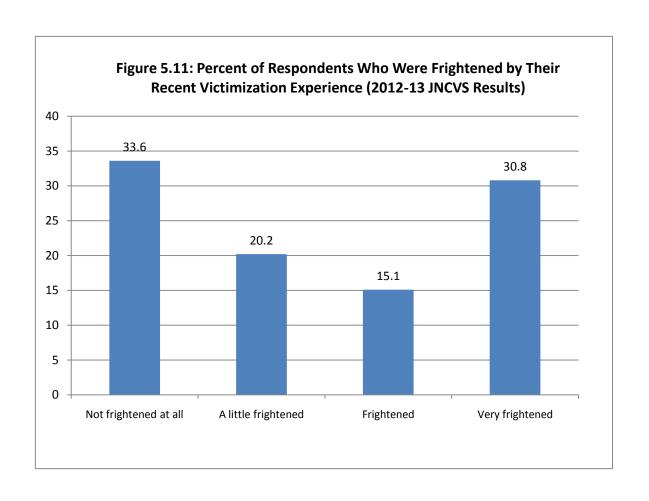


Table 5.19: Percent of Respondents That Were Frightened by their Recent Victimization, by Crime Type (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	Not	A	Frightened	Very
	Frightened	Little		Frightened
	At All	Frightened		
Theft	38.3	17.2	18.2	26.3
Praedial Larceny	46.3	18.6	14.0	21.1
Burglary	14.9	25.6	19.0	39.9
Vandalism	26.3	26.3	23.7	23.7
Robbery	12.3	10.5	15.8	61.4
Threats	32.7	26.1	9.7	31.5
Assaults	17.4	17.4	11.6	53.8
Sexual Assaults	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fraud/Extortion	48.4	21.4	16.1	12.9
Other	50.0	29.4	8.3	25.0
TOTAL	33.6	20.2	15.1	30.8

Respondents were also asked if they had changed the way they live because of specific victimization incidents (see figure 5.12). The results suggest that one out of every three crime victims (33%) actually changed their life because of the crime. Victims are most likely to be changed by burglaries, robberies and frauds (see Table 5.20). On the other hand, victims are least likely to change as a result of praedial larceny. Once again, the more serious the crime, the more likely it is to change the victim's way of life. For example, 40.0% of victims who lost \$18,000 or more as a result of a crime claimed that they have changed the way they lived. By contrast, only 11.2% of victims who lost \$2,000 or less claimed that they have changed. Similarly, 48.0% of the victims of gun-related crime claim that they have changed the way they live. This figure drops to only 26.5% in cases where no gun was involved. Finally, 44.1% of victims who were injured by a crime claim that they have changed their life, compared to only 27.3% of victims who were uninjured.

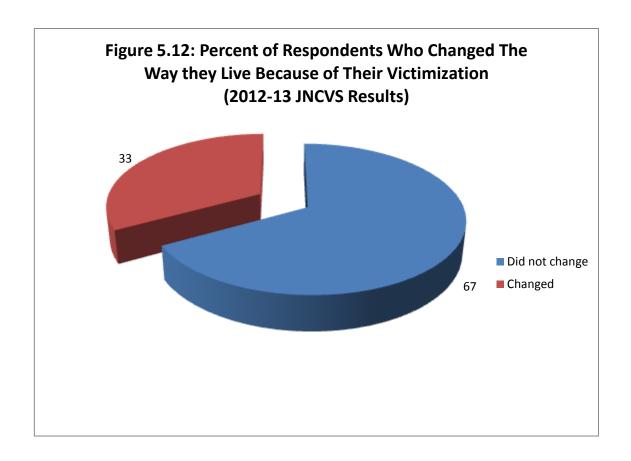
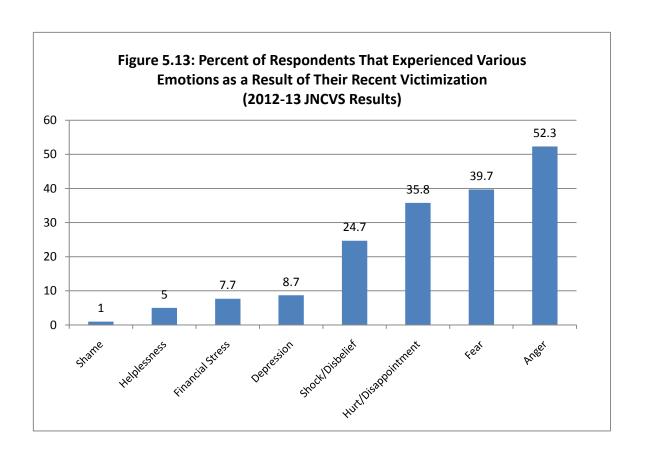


Table 5.20: Percent of Respondents That Changed the Way They Live as a Result of Their Recent Victimization, by Crime Type (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	Changed Life	Did Not Change Life
Theft	35.4	62.7
Praedial Larceny	19.1	80.0
Burglary	46.4	53.6
Vandalism	34.2	65.8
Robbery	45.6	49.1
Threats	35.8	62.4
Assaults	44.8	52.2
Sexual Assaults	25.0	75.0
Fraud/Extortion	35.5	64.5
Other	16.7	83.3
TOTAL	33.0	67.0

Finally, all respondents were asked to describe, in their own words, how they felt after each reported victimization incident (see Figure 5.13). The results suggest that anger and fear were the two most prevalent emotions. Over half of all victims (52.3%) stated that they were angry after their last victimization experience and forty percent claimed that they felt afraid. Other common emotions reported by crime victims include hurt or disappointment (35.8%) and shock or disbelief (24.7%). Furthermore, almost one out of ten respondents (9.7%) stated that they felt depressed after becoming the victim of a crime. Less common post-victimization feelings include anxiety or stress over finances (7.7%), helplessness (5.0%) and shame or embarrassment (1.0%).



PART SIX: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME

Highlights

- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that both lifetime and recent exposure to violent crime in Jamaica declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 8.4% of respondents claimed that they had witnessed a murder at sometime in their life and 2.1% had witnessed a murder in the year before the survey. However, these figures drop to 7.3% and 1.1% respectively in 2012-13.
- Similarly, in 2006, 17.3% of respondents indicated that they had witnessed a robbery at some point in their life and 5.8% indicated that they had witnessed a robbery in the past year. These figures drop to only 10.1% and 2.7% respectively in 2012-13. Similar declines were also observed with respect to the witnessing of gun battles and serious assaults.
- Respondents residing in the greater Kingston Metropolitan Area are more likely
 to report that they have witnessed a violent crime than respondents from other
 regions of Jamaica.
- Only a small minority of witnesses (less than 20%) talked to the police about the violent incidents they observed. However, the police reporting rate increased slightly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- Common reasons for not talking to the police include the presence of other witnesses, fear of the offenders, distrust of the police and a desire not to be labeled a snitch or informer. However, most respondents claim that they did not report the crimes they witnessed to the police because it was "none of their business."
- One third of 2012-13 JNCVS respondents claim that a family member or friend has been murdered in Jamaica. This figure is down slightly from 36.3% in 2006. Similarly, in 2006, 8.6% of respondents claimed that they had a family member or friend who was murdered in the past year. This figure drops to only 5.8% in 2012-13. This finding is consistent with other results that suggest that Jamaica experienced a decline in violent crime between 2006 and 2012-13.

Introduction

In the previous two sections of this report we explored the respondents' own experiences with criminal victimization. Personal victimization, however, is not the only way that Jamaicans can be impacted by crime. In this section of the report we explore the respondents' indirect or vicarious exposure to crime -- including the victimization of family members and friends as well as violent crimes that they may have directly witnessed or observed. This type of indirect exposure to crime is extremely important to document. Indeed, previous research suggests that witnessing violent crimes can be extremely traumatizing and contribute to both fear of crime and feelings of anxiety. Furthermore, some scholars argue that constant exposure to violence may ultimately contribute to an individual's own level of violent behaviour. The victimization of family members and close friends can also cause depression, increase fear of personal victimization and produce feelings of frustration, powerlessness and extreme anger. Unfortunately, anger and frustration sometimes result in acts of violent retribution.

Witnessing Crime

All respondents were asked whether they had witnessed four types of serious violent crime: 1) murder; 2) gun battles or shootings; 3) robberies; and 4) serious physical assaults or beatings (see Table 6.1 and Table 6.2). The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that one out of every fourteen Jamaican residents (7.3%) has witnessed a murder at some time in their life. One out of every 50 respondents (2.0%) reports that they have actually witnessed two or more murders over the course of their lifetime. Finally, one out of every ninety-one Jamaicans (1.1% of the population) claims to have witnessed a murder in the past twelve months.

One out of every ten respondents (9.6%) indicates that they have witnessed at least one gun battle or shooting at some time in their life. The data further suggest that one out of every twenty-one respondents (4.8%) have actually witnessed two or more gun battles or shootings. Finally, one out of every fifty-two Jamaicans (1.9%) has witnessed a gun battle or shooting in the past twelve months.

One out of every ten respondents (10.1%) indicates that they have witnessed at least one robbery at some time in their life. One out of every twenty-two (4.6%) has witnessed two or more robberies. Finally, the data indicate that one out of every thirty-seven Jamaicans (2.7%) witnessed a robbery in the past twelve months.

One out of every six respondents to the 2012-13 survey (15.9%) indicates that they have witnessed at least one serious physical assault or beating -- in which someone was seriously injured -- at some point in their life. One out of every twelve respondents (8.3%) has witnessed two or more serious assaults. Finally, the data suggest that one out of every twenty-three Jamaicans (4.4%) witnessed a serious assault or beating in the past twelve months (see Table 6.1 and Table 6.2).

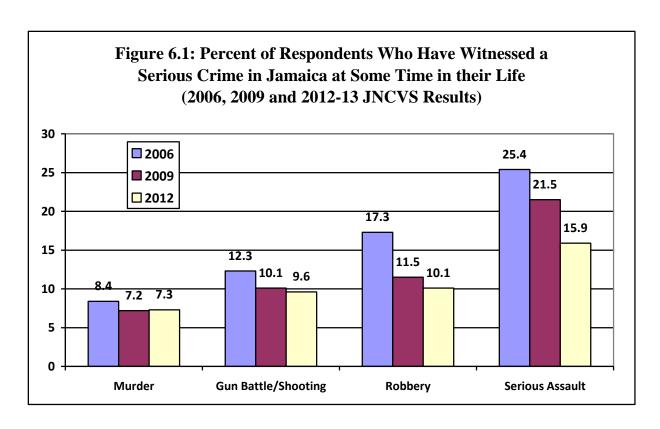
Table 6.1: Percent of Respondents that Have Witnessed Serious Incidents of Violent Crime in Jamaica (2012-13 JNCVS)

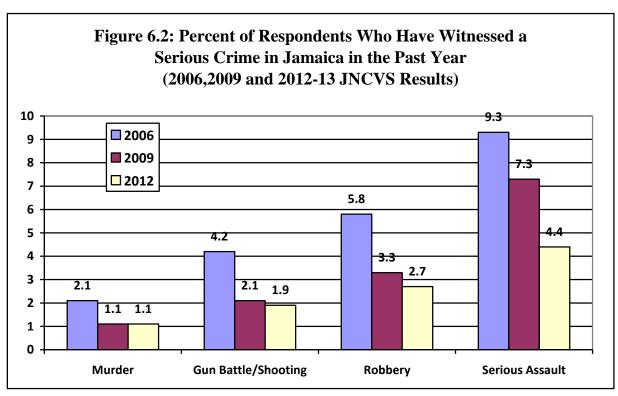
Number of Times	MURDER	SHOOTINGS OR GUN BATTLES	ROBBERY	SEVERE BEATINGS OR ASSAULTS
Never	92.7	90.4	89.9	84.1
Once	5.3	4.8	5.5	7.6
Two or More Times	2.0	4.8	4.6	8.3
EVER	7.3	9.6	10.1	15.9

Table 6.2: Percent of Respondents that Have Witnessed Serious Incidents of Violent Crime, by Most Recent Incident (2012-13 JNCVS)

Last Time	MURDER	SHOOTINGS	ROBBERY	SEVERE
Witnessed		OR GUN		BEATINGS
		BATTLES		OR
				ASSAULTS
Never	92.7	90.4	89.9	84.1
In the past year	1.1	1.9	2.7	4.4
In the past 5 years	1.5	3.1	3.4	4.3
More than 5 years ago	4.7	4.6	4.0	7.2
EVER	7.3	9.6	10.1	15.9

A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that both lifetime and recent exposure to violent crime in Jamaica may have declined between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 8.4% of respondents claimed that they had witnessed a murder at sometime in their life and 2.1% had witnessed a murder in the year before the survey. However, these figures drop to 7.3% and 1.1% respectively in 2012-13 (see Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2). Similarly, in 2006, 17.3% of respondents indicated that they had witnessed a robbery at some point in their life and 5.8% indicated that they had witnessed a robbery in the past year. These figures drop to only 10.1% and 2.7% respectively in 2012-13. Declines also emerged with respect to witnessing both gun battles and serious assaults. For example, in 2006, 9.3% of respondents had witnessed a serious assault in the past year, compared to only 4.4% in 2012-13. Likewise, in 2006, 4.2% of respondents indicated that they had witnessed a gun battle in the past year, compared to only 1.9% in 2012-13. This apparent decline in witnessing violent crime could reflect two different processes. On the one hand, Jamaican residents may be witnessing less violent crime because the actual level of violence in Jamaica declined between 2006 and 2012-13. On the other hand, Jamaicans could also be less likely to witness criminal events because they are spending less time in public places where violent crimes take place (perhaps put of concern for their personal safety).





The data presented in Table 6.3 demonstrate that the witnessing of violent crime in Jamaica varies quite dramatically from Parish to Parish. For example, 13.4% of the respondents from Kingston claim that they have witnessed a murder at some time in their life, compared to only 2.8% of the residents of Hanover and 2.9% of the residents of Manchester. Similarly, almost a quarter of the respondents from Kingston (22.8%) and a fifth of St. Andrew residents (19.6%) report that they have witnessed a gun battle or shooting at some time in their life. By contrast, only 1.8% of the residents from St. Thomas and St. Elizabeth report that they have witnessed a shooting or gun battle. The residents of Kingston (20.3%), St. Andrew (19.4%) and St. James (12.4%) are also much more likely to report witnessing robberies than individuals who reside in other areas of Jamaica. Finally, a quarter of the residents of Kingston (25.2%), St. Andrew (23.5%) and Portland (24.1%) indicate that they have witnessed a serious physical assault at some time in their life. By contrast, only 9.3% of the residents of St. Thomas report that they have witnessed this type of violent crime.

Similar results emerge when the results with respect to witnessing violent crime over the past year are examined (see Table 6.3). For example, one out of every thirteen Kingston residents (7.9%) reports that they witnessed a gun battle or shooting over the past year. By contrast, over the same time period, gun battles or shootings were not witnessed by any of the residents (0.0%) of St. Ann, Westmoreland or St. Elizabeth. Similarly, 7.4% of Kingston respondents reported that they had witnessed a robbery in the past year, compared to 0.0% of the residents of Portland and Trelawny and less than one percent of the residents of St. Ann, Hanover and Manchester. One conclusion that might be drawn from the data is that violent crime is much more prevalent in some Parishes than others. However, it is impossible to confirm this hypothesis because the survey did not ask respondents *where* they had witnessed the crimes that they reported to the interviewers. For example, it is possible that a resident of St. Mary might have witnessed a violent crime while visiting Kingston – or vice versa. Therefore, any conclusions drawn from the Parish data must be viewed as tentative. Nonetheless, these findings are highly consistent with observed patterns of personal victimization by Parish

and the results with respect to perceived community crime and disorder (see Part Three and Part Four of this report).

Table 6.3: Percent of Respondents that Have Witnessed Serious Incidents of Violent Crime, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS)

Parish	MUR	DER	SHOOTINGS OR GUN BATTLES		ROBBERY		SEVERE BEATINGS OR ASSAULTS	
	Ever	Past	Ever	Past	Ever	Past	Ever	Past
		Year		Year		Year		Year
Kingston	13.4	1.0	22.8	7.9	20.3	7.4	25.2	6.9
St. Andrew	11.3	1.5	19.6	3.4	19.4	4.7	23.5	7.0
St. Thomas	5.8	2.2	1.8	0.9	3.1	1.3	9.3	2.7
Portland	8.6	0.0	12.9	0.9	6.0	0.0	24.1	6.0
St. Mary	4.1	0.6	4.7	1.2	7.1	3.5	10.6	4.1
St. Ann	5.0	0.5	4.5	0.0	3.5	0.5	10.4	2.0
Trelawny	4.4	1.3	2.5	0.6	6.9	0.0	11.9	2.5
St. James	11.5	0.9	5.5	1.8	12.4	4.6	15.2	6.0
Hanover	2.8	0.7	6.4	0.0	5.7	0.7	12.1	2.8
Westmoreland	7.8	0.6	7.2	1.7	8.3	1.7	15.6	3.3
St. Elizabeth	3.5	0.0	1.8	0.0	7.1	1.2	10.6	2.9
Manchester	2.9	0.4	5.5	2.1	5.0	0.8	10.5	2.5
Clarendon	6.5	2.4	4.8	0.3	6.5	1.7	13.3	4.4
St. Catherine	6.4	1.0	11.2	1.6	9.6	3.2	16.3	4.2

The survey results also suggest that Jamaican men are significantly more likely to witness violent crime than Jamaican women (see Figure 6.3). For example, almost twice as many male respondents (9.5%) than female respondents (5.4%) report that they have witnessed a murder at some time in their life. Compared to females, males are also more likely to report that they have witnessed a shooting (12.1% vs. 7.5%), a robbery (13.0% vs. 7.6%) and a serious physical assault (18.6% vs. 13.6%).

Finally, the data suggest that there is a strong negative relationship between age and the likelihood of witnessing a violent crime (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5). In other words, despite the fact that older people -- by definition -- have had more time on this earth in which to witness a crime, they are actually less likely than younger people to report ever witnessing a serious incidence of violence. For example, 24.1% of 16-20 year-olds report

that they witnessed a serious physical assault at some time in their life, compared to only 14.0% of 51-60 year-olds and 8.8% of respondents 61 years of age or older. Similarly, 8.6% of 16-20 year-olds report that they have witnessed a serious assault in the past twelve months, compared to only 2.2% of 51-60 year-olds and 0.4% of those 61 years of age or older. The same negative relationship between age and witnessing violent crime exists for murder, shootings and robberies.

The fact that young people are much more likely to have witnessed violence in the past year is not surprising. Previous research suggests that younger people are much more likely than older people to engage in public leisure activities – especially late night activities -- that take them away from the home. Many of these activities take place in the types of social settings (i.e., bars, nightclubs, parties, etc.) where violence is most likely to occur. Older people, on the other hand, are much more likely to spend their time in private settings (i.e., their own home or the homes of friends and relatives) and thus have less opportunity to witness violent crime. This does not explain, however, why young people are also more likely than older people to have *ever* witnessed violent crime. After all, older people were once young and in the past they likely engaged in the same types of social activities as today's youth. Why therefore are they still significantly less likely to report *ever* witnessing a violent crime? One possibility is that today's Jamaican youth are, in fact, experiencing higher levels of violence than young people did ten, twenty or thirty years ago. Another possibility is that older people in Jamaica cannot remember – or do not want to talk about – the violence they have witnessed in the distant past. These possible explanations require further research attention.

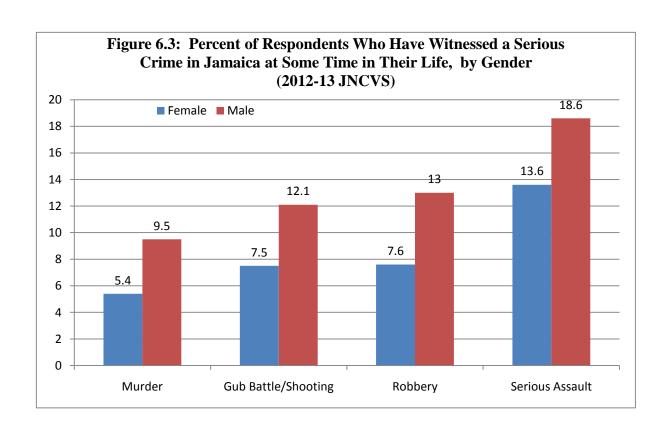


Table 6.4: Percent of Respondents that Have Ever Witnessed Serious Incidents of Violent Crime, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS)

Age Group	A MURDER	A SHOOTING OR GUN	A ROBBERY	A SEVERE BEATING OR
•		BATTLE		ASSAULT
16-20 years	7.9	12.6	12.2	24.1
21-30 years	7.9	12.6	11.0	18.8
31-40 years	7.9	10.9	10.7	17.7
41-50 years	8.5	10.1	10.9	16.4
51-60 years	6.7	7.8	10.2	14.0
61 years or older	5.0	4.9	6.7	8.8

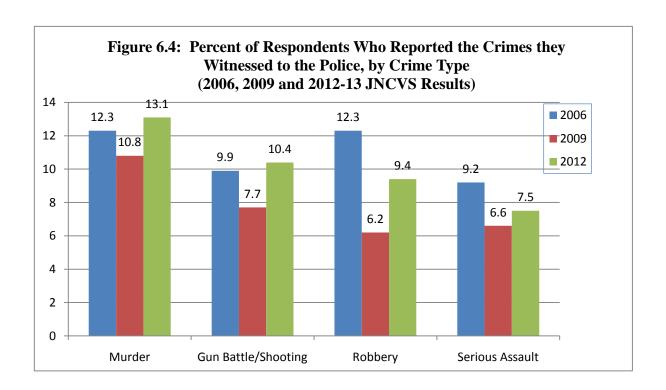
Table 6.5: Percent of Respondents that Have Witnessed a Serious Crime in the Past Year, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS)

Age Group	A MURDER	A SHOOTING OR GUN BATTLE	A ROBBERY	A SEVERE BEATING OR ASSAULT
16-20 years	2.5	4.0	6.5	8.6
21-30 years	2.1	3.5	3.8	7.7
31-40 years	0.7	1.9	2.4	5.0
41-50 years	1.0	1.5	3.4	4.8
51-60 years	0.5	1.1	1.5	2.2
61 years or older	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.4

Reporting Crimes to the Police

All respondents who claimed that they had witnessed specific types of violent crime at some point in their life were asked whether they reported the last incident they had observed to the police. The survey results suggest that very few Jamaicans actually talk to the police about the crimes that they have witnessed (see Figure 6.4). For example, in 2012-13, only 13.1% of those who had witnessed a murder and 10.4% of those who had witnessed a gun battle talked to the police about these crimes. Similarly, according to the 2012-13 survey results, less than ten percent of those who had witnessed a robbery (9.4%) or a serious assault (7.5%) indicated that they had talked to the police about these crimes. The fact that so few Jamaican residents will talk to the police about the crimes they have witnessed could make it extremely difficult for the criminal justice system to identify, arrest and convict criminal offenders.

Although police reporting rates in Jamaica remain quite low by international standards, the JNCVS results also suggest that Jamaicans may actually be getting more comfortable talking to the police. For example, in 2009, only 6.2% of those who witnessed a robbery reported this crime to the police, compared to 9.4% of the respondents to the 2012-13 survey. Between 2009 and 2012-13, police reporting rates also increased for murder (from 10.8% to 13.1%), gun battles (7.7% to 10.4%) and serious physical assaults (6.6% to 7.5%).

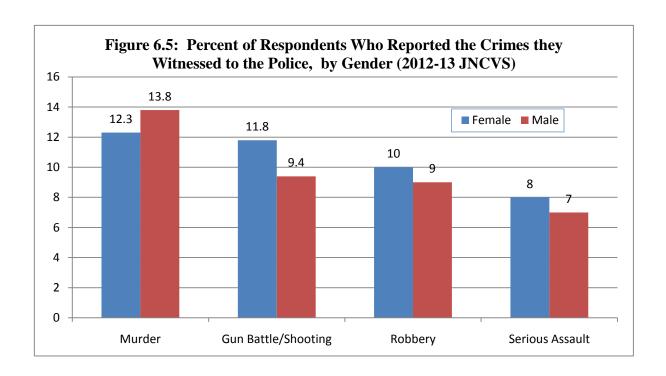


The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS reveal that police reporting rates vary significantly from Parish to Parish (see Table 6.6). For example, a third of St. Thomas residents (30.8%) and 26.3% of Clarendon residents who witnessed a murder talked to the police about this crime. By contrast, none of the murder witnesses (0.0%) from Kingston, Portland, Hanover or St. Elizabeth indicated that they talked to the police about the violence they had witnessed. Similarly, 28.6% of St. Mary residents who had witnessed a gun battle or shooting talked to the police, compared to 0.0% of Portland, Hanover, St. Elizabeth and Manchester residents who had witnessed a similar crime. The reporting rates within different Parishes might reflect the types of violence that takes place within these communities as well as local levels of trust and confidence in the police.

Table 6.6: Percent of Respondents Who Reported the Crimes they had Witnessed to the Police, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS)

Parish	MURDER	SHOOTINGS	ROBBERY	SEVERE
		OR GUN		BEATINGS
		BATTLES		OR
				ASSAULTS
Kingston	0.0	6.8	7.0	3.8
St. Andrew	7.0	11.7	3.3	5.6
St. Thomas	30.8	25.0	14.3	23.8
Portland	0.0	0.0	14.3	0.0
St. Mary	14.3	28.6	16.7	11.1
St. Ann	10.0	11.1	14.3	14.3
Trelawny	14.3	25.0	8.3	5.3
St. James	16.0	23.1	7.4	6.1
Hanover	0.0	0.0	12.5	17.6
Westmoreland	21.4	23.1	6.7	3.6
St. Elizabeth	0.0	0.0	8.3	5.6
Manchester	42.9	0.0	0.0	4.0
Clarendon	26.3	23.1	26.3	12.6
St. Catherine	17.5	5.8	18.3	8.0

Overall, the data reveal few gender differences with respect to police reporting rates (see Figure 6.5). In general, the vast majority of both male and female witnesses did not talk to the police about the most recent violent crimes they had observed. Nonetheless, the data do indicate that men are slightly more likely to report murder than their female counterparts. For example, 13.8% of male respondents talked to the police about the last murder they had witnessed, compared to 12.3% of female respondents. By contrast, women are slightly more likely than men to report gun battles (11.8% vs. 9.4%), robberies (10.0% vs. 9.0%) and serious physical assaults (8.0% vs. 7.0%).



In general, there also appears to be a positive relationship between age and reporting crimes to the police (see Table 6.7). In other words, younger people are less likely to talk to the police about the crimes they have witnessed than older people. For example, only 5.7% of the 16-20 year-olds who witnessed a gun battle or shooting talked to the police about this crime, compared to 18.6% of 51-60 year-olds and 18.6% of those 60 years of age or older. Similarly, 21.6% of 51-60 year-olds and 17.6% of respondents 61 years of age or older talked to the police about the murders they had witnessed. By contrast, none of the 16-20 year-old murder witnesses (0.0%) talked to the police about the homicides they had observed. Nonetheless, it is important to stress that, regardless of the type of crime or the age of the respondent, the vast majority of witnesses (at least 75% from each age group) did not talk to the police about the violent crimes they had observed. Thus, regardless of age, civilian cooperation with police investigations of violent crime in Jamaica is quite rare.

Table 6.7: Percent of Respondents that Reported the Violent Crimes They Witnessed to the Police, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS)

Age Group	A MURDER	A SHOOTING OR GUN BATTLE	A ROBBERY	A SEVERE BEATING OR ASSAULT
16-20 years	0.0	5.7	5.7	0.0
21-30 years	13.2	9.9	7.1	5.7
31-40 years	10.5	7.7	7.6	9.4
41-50 years	12.3	7.5	8.2	8.3
51-60 years	21.6	18.6	9.7	10.4
61 years or older	17.6	18.8	15.6	10.2

Reasons for Not Reporting Crime to the Police

All respondents who indicated that they had witnessed a serious crime – but had not reported this crime to the police – were subsequently asked to explain why they did not report the incident (see Table 6.8). The vast majority of these respondents – between 90% and 95% for each type of crime covered by the survey – provided at least one reason for not reporting to the police. However, a large number of respondents provided more than one reason for not reporting violent crime. For example, among those who failed to report a murder, 10.7% did not provide a reason, 50.2% provided only one reason for not reporting, 26.9% provided two reasons and 12.2% provided three or more reasons for not talking to the police. Overall, these data suggest that deciding whether to talk to the police or not represented a rational decision-making process in which witnesses consider the possible benefits and consequences of reporting crime to criminal justice officials. The data clearly suggest that most witnesses in Jamaica feel that the potential consequences of reporting crime outweigh the potential benefits.

According to the data, the most common reason for a witness in Jamaica not to report a violent crime is that they feel the incident "was none of their business" (Table 6.9). For example, over half or the respondents (53.5%) who did not report serious assaults claimed that they did not report this crime because it was none of their business. It is easy to dismiss such a justification as being indicative a cold, uncaring person who lacks any sense of civic responsibility or empathy for the crime victim. However, it is

also quite possible that this particular justification has a greater hidden meaning. For example, respondents may not want to delve into other people's "business" because they fear for their personal safety (i.e., retaliation from the offender or the offender's friends and family members). Some may also feel that the police would not be able to protect them from offenders if they did report the crime. Others may want to avoid being labeled a snitch or an informer. Others perhaps feel that the crime victim somehow deserved their fate – as when one gang member is murdered by another. What is clear from the "not my business" justification, however, is the feeling among JVCVS respondents that reporting crimes to the police may have an adverse effect on one's life.

While the "not my business" justification is quite vague and subject to various interpretations, other respondents gave much more direct reasons for not reporting crimes to the police. The second most common reason for not reporting crimes is the presence of other witnesses. More than a third of murder, robbery and serious assault witnesses, for example, did not talk to the police because they felt that there were many other witnesses and they would not be able to provide the police with additional information. Similarly, one out of every four witnesses to shootings (27.7%) also provided this reason for not talking to the police. Clearly, the presence of other witnesses may absolve some individuals of any feelings of responsibility that they must talk to the police.

A relatively large proportion of witnesses also claimed that they did not report the violent crimes they had witnessed to the police because the police actually witnessed or were somehow involved in the incident. For example, one out of every six shooting witnesses (15.6%) and one out of every eight murder witnesses (12.1%) did not report the crime to the police because the police themselves were witnesses to the incident. The data also suggest that the police themselves were actually involved in one out of every seven gun battles (14.7%) witnessed by the respondents. Finally, in a significant proportion of cases, the respondents claimed that they did not have to talk to the police because the offenders had already been arrested.

Fear of the offenders is another common reason for not talking to the police about violent crime. Indeed, one out of every six murder witnesses (16.7%) and one out of every seven shooting witnesses (14.0%) did not report the crime to the police because of their fear of the offenders. A related justification is the belief that the police cannot protect witnesses from offenders. For example, 6.7% of murder witnesses and 5.0% of robbery witnesses did not report the crime to the police because they felt that the police would not be able to protect them. In addition, a significant proportion of respondents did not report the crimes they had witnessed to the authorities because they do not trust the police or because they fear the police. For example, one out of every ten robbery witnesses (9.3%) claim that they did not talk to law enforcement officials because they do not trust the police. Similarly, one out of every seventeen murder witnesses (5.8%) did not report the crime because they fear the police.

It is also important to note that a significant proportion of witnesses explicitly stated that they did not talk to the police about the crimes that they had observed because they did not want to be labeled as an informer or a snitch. For example, one out of every eight murder witnesses (11.6%) did not talk to the police because they feared being labeled a snitch, as did one out of every nine shooting witnesses (11.5%), one out of every twelve assault witnesses (9.2%) and one out of every seventeen robbery witnesses (6.2%).

Less common reasons for not talking to the police include the desire to avoid having to provide testimony in court, to protect the offenders, to avoid getting into trouble with the police, to avoid getting into trouble with one's family, and the belief that talking to the police would not do any good. A few respondents also claimed that they did not report crimes to the police because they felt that the victim "deserved it." A few others failed to report because the incident involved family members and they felt that people should not get involved in domestic disputes.

Table 6.8: Percent of Respondents that Gave One or More Reasons for Not Reporting Crimes to the Police (2012-13 JNCVS)

Number of Reasons for Not Reporting Crimes to the Police	MURDER	SHOOTING OR GUN BATTLE	ROBBERY	SERIOUS ASSAULT OR BEATING
None	10.7	8.3	5.9	10.1
One	50.2	55.3	63.4	58.2
Two	26.9	25.2	22.3	28.1
Three or More	12.2	11.2	8.4	3.6
AVERAGE	1.81	1.41	1.39	1.27

Table 6.9: Percent of Respondents Who Provided Specific Reasons for Not Reporting Crimes to the Police, by Type of Crime (2012-13 JNCVS)

REASONS FOR NOT REPORTING CRIMES TO THE POLICE	MURDER	GUN BATTLE OR SHOOTING	ROBBERY	SERIOUS ASSAULT OR BEATING
Many other witnesses	37.1	27.7	37.4	33.7
The offender was caught	6.3	1.4	6.9	4.3
None of my business	41.1	48.6	52.9	53.5
Police can't protect me	6.7	4.7	5.0	4.3
Not an informer/snitch	11.6	11.5	6.2	9.2
To protect the offenders	1.8	0.3	0.3	1.6
Might get in trouble with family	2.7	0.7	0.3	1.0
Don't want to go to court	8.5	6.4	4.7	6.5
Police witnessed the crime	12.1	15.6	4.6	7.5
Afraid of the offenders	16.7	14.0	10.0	6.3
Afraid of the police	5.8	3.5	2.8	1.4
Don't trust the police	9.8	7.5	9.3	5.5
Reporting would not help	6.3	6.8	10.3	8.0
The police were involved	0.0	14.7	0.0	0.2
Might get into trouble with the police	0.8	0.3	0.6	0.2
Would hurt reputation	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.6
Other reasons	17.4	11.5	12.1	17.3
Sample Size	224	278	321	510

The Victimization of Family and Friends

A second strategy for documenting indirect or vicarious exposure to crime is to ask about the victimization of family members and friends. In 2012-13, one out of every three respondents (34.8%) indicated that a family member or friend had been murdered in Jamaica at some point in their life (see Figure 6.6). One out of every seventeen respondents (5.8%) indicated that a family member or friend was murdered in Jamaica over the past twelve months. The recent murder of family members or friends seems to have declined slightly between 2006 and 2012-13. In 2006, one out of eleven respondents (8.7%) indicated that a family member or friend had been murdered in the past year, compared to only 5.8% in 2012-13 (see Table 6.10). This finding, along with the data on personal victimization experiences and witnessing crime, suggests that serious violence in Jamaica may have declined during this six year period.

The 2006 JNCVS only asked about the murder of family members or friends. However, beginning in 2009, JNCVS respondents were also asked whether they knew of a family member or close friend who had been the victim of extortion, a shooting, serious violence and sexual assault (see Figure 6.6). According to the 2012-13 data, 18.6% of Jamaicans know of a family member or friend who has been shot. One out of every thirty respondents (3.3%) report that a family member or friend was shot in the past twelve months. This figure is up slightly from 3.1% in 2006 (see Figure 6.7).

In 2012-13, 13.1% of respondents indicated that a family member or friend had been the victim of "serious violence" at some time in their life and 2.6% stated that a member of their family or a friend had been seriously hurt by violence in the past year. This figure is down slightly from 3.0% in 2009.

One out of fourteen respondents (6.9%) to the 2012-13 survey reports that they know a family member or friend who has been raped in Jamaica and 1.3% know a family

_

¹⁸ Please note that the 2006 JNCVS only asked respondents about the murder of family members and friends. It did not ask about other types of criminal victimization. Thus, only 2009-2012 comparisons are available for rape, extortion, serious violence and shootings.

member or friend who was raped in the past year. This figure (1.3%) is identical to the 2006 survey results. Finally, knowledge about the extortion victimization of family members and friends is quite rare. Only 1.2% of the respondents know of a family member or friend who has ever been victimized in this manner and only half a percent (0.5%) know of someone who was the victim of extortion in the past year. This number is down from 1.0% in 2006 (see Table 6.10).

The data from the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that a sizeable proportion of the Jamaican population (14.0%) have lost more than one family member or friend to murder (see Table 6.11). Indeed, one out of every thirteen respondents (8.0%) indicates that three or more of their friends or relatives has suffered a violent death. By contrast, less than one percent of respondents report that they have three or more family members or friends who have been the victim of rape or extortion. Interestingly, previous research suggests that non-lethal forms of violence (shootings, rapes, assaults, etc.) are actually much more common than murder. However, both 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS respondents were much more likely to report that a family member or friend has been the victim of murder than the victim of other types of non-lethal violence. This finding may indicate that many Jamaicans do not discuss their personal victimization experiences with their family members or friends. This hypothesis is consistent with the fact that crime victims – especially sexual assault victims – rarely report their victimization experiences to the police (see Part Five of this report). By contrast, the crime of murder is much more difficult to hide and is thus bound to be discovered by a victim's friends and relations.

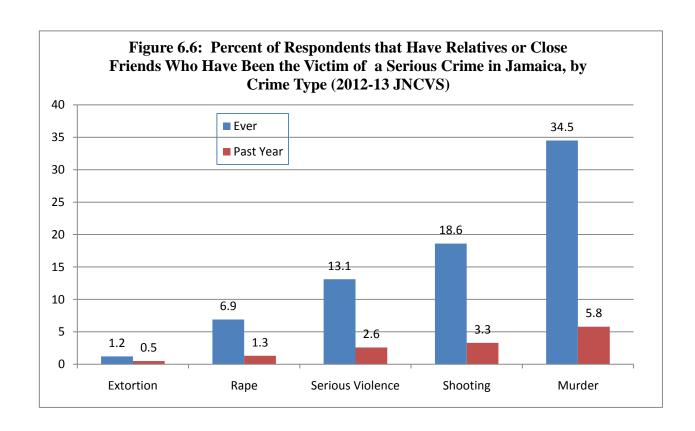


Table 6.10: Percent of Respondents Who Report that a Family Member or Friend has been the Victim of a Serious Crime in Jamaica (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Number of Family Members or	MUR	DER	SEX	E OR UAL AULT	SHOO	TING	SERI VIOLI		EXT(ORTION
Friends	Ever	Last	Ever	Last	Ever	Last	Ever	Last	Ever	Last
Victimized		Year		Year		Year		Year		Year
2006	36.3	8.6	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2009	33.8	7.3	7.2	1.3	13.5	3.1	13.4	3.0	1.5	1.0
2012-13	34.5	5.8	6.9	1.3	18.6	3.3	13.1	2.6	1.2	0.5

Table 6.11: Percent of Respondents Who Report that One or More Family Members or Friends that Have Been the Victim of a Serious Crime in Jamaica (2012-13 JNCVS)

Number of Family Members or Friends Victimized	MURDER	RAPE OR SEXUAL ASSAULT	SHOOTING	SERIOUS VIOLENCE	EXTORTION
None	65.5	93.1	81.4	86.9	98.8
One	20.5	5.5	11.4	8.5	0.8
Two	6.0	0.7	2.9	2.1	0.1
Three or More	8.0	0.7	4.3	2.5	0.3

The data also suggest that a significant proportion of the Jamaican population has lost a member of their immediate family to violent crime (see Table 6.12). For the purposes of this report, an immediate family member includes spouses, children, parents and siblings. The "Other Relative" category includes aunts, uncles, grandparents, cousins, nieces, nephews and in-laws. Finally, the "Friend" category includes friends as well as co-workers and neighbors. One out of every twelve respondents (8.1%) has lost an immediate member of their family to murder, 20.3% have lost a more distant relative and 17.1% have lost a close friend. One out of every forty-seven respondents (2.1%) reports an immediate family member who has been raped, one out of every thirty-one respondents (3.2%) reports an immediate family member who has been seriously injured by violence, one out of every thirty-two (3.1%) has an immediate family member who has been shot and one out of every three hundred and thirty-three (0.3%) has an immediate family member who has been the victim of extortion.

Table 6.12: Percent of Respondents Who Report That Family Members or Friends Have Been the Victim of a Serious Crime in Jamaica, by Type of Relationship

Type of Relationship	MURDER	RAPE OR SEXUAL ASSAULT	SHOOTING	SERIOUS VIOLENCE	EXTORTION
Immediate Family	8.1	2.1	3.1	3.2	0.3
Other Relative	20.3	3.2	7.2	6.0	0.5
Friend	17.1	3.9	6.9	5.1	0.6

Overall, the data suggest that the proportion of Jamaicans who have lost relatives or close friends to violent crime varies from Parish to Parish (see Table 6.13). For example, over 40% of respondents from Kingston, St. Andrew and St. James report that they have family members or friends who have been murdered in Jamaica, compared to only 21.3% of the residents of St. Thomas. Similarly, 41.1% of Kingston residents report that they have a family member or friend who has been the victim of a shooting, compared to only 5.0 of the residents of St. Ann. It must be stressed, however, that we do not know from the data which areas of Jamaica these crimes took place in. It is possible, therefore, for a respondent from St. Ann to report the shooting of a family member in Kingston. We should not automatically assume therefore, that the data presented in Table 6.13 actually reflect the level of crime within each of these jurisdictions. Nonetheless, when compared to the other regional crime and victimization data presented in this report, it becomes clear that violent crime is much more prevalent in some regions of Jamaica – including Kingston, St. Andrew, St. James and St. Catherine – than others.

Table 6.13: Percent of Respondents Who Report that they have Family Members of Friends Who Have Been the Victim of a Serious Crime in Jamaica, Parish

Parish	MURDER	RAPE OR	SHOOTING	SERIOUS	EXTORTION
		SEXUAL		VIOLENCE	
		ASSAULT			
Kingston	52.5	7.9	41.1	18.3	1.0
St. Andrew	42.7	8.6	27.5	14.9	3.2
St. Thomas	21.3	5.3	13.8	8.9	0.0
Portland	37.1	8.6	13.8	16.4	0.0
St. Mary	35.3	4.1	11.2	8.8	0.0
St. Ann	23.3	3.0	5.0	6.9	0.5
Trelawny	33.3	8.8	10.7	7.5	0.0
St. James	45.2	7.4	12.0	16.1	0.0
Hanover	27.7	4.3	10.6	14.9	0.0
Westmoreland	25.6	6.1	22.8	18.9	0.0
St. Elizabeth	30.0	4.1	9.4	8.2	1.2
Manchester	24.8	4.6	15.1	9.2	1.7
Clarendon	32.7	7.5	19.0	9.2	2.4
St. Catherine	34.8	8.8	20.2	16.7	1.3

The data reveal relatively few gender differences with respect to the victimization of family members and close friends (see Figure 6.7). However, compared to their male counterparts, female respondents are somewhat more likely to report that they have a family member or friend who has been the victim of rape or sexual assault. Female respondents are also slightly more likely to report that they have a family member or friend who has been seriously injured by violence in Jamaica. This gender difference might reflect the tendency of victims to discuss personal experiences with male rather than female confidants.

Finally, the survey results suggest that, in general, younger respondents are more likely than older respondents to have family members or friends who have been the victim of a violent crime (see Table 6.14). For example, 36.7% of 16-20 year-olds and 38.9% of 21-30 year-olds report that they have lost a family member or close friend to murder. By contrast, only 24.2% of those 61 years of age or older report that they have experienced such a loss. Similarly, 22.3% of 16-20 year-olds and 24.2% of 21-30 year-olds report that a family member or good friend has been a gunshot victim. By comparison, only 9.5% of those 61 years of age or older report that someone close to them has been the victim of a shooting. The same basic pattern also exists with respect to rape, shootings, serious violence and extortion.

Age differences with respect to vicarious victimization are even more pronounced when recent crime incidents are considered. For example, 7.2% of 16-20 year-olds and 8.9% of 21-30 year-olds report that one of their family members or friends was murdered in the past year. This figure drops to only 2.5% among respondents 61 years of age or older. Similarly, four out of every one hundred 16-20 year-olds (4.0%) report that they know of a family member or friend who was raped over the past year, compared to one out of every one thousand respondents (0.1%) over sixty years of age.

The results with respect to the recent (past year) victimization of family and friends make perfect sense. Young people are more likely to engage in the types of public leisure activities that increase the likelihood of victimization (i.e., staying out late

at night, going to bars, nightclubs, parties, etc.). It is not surprising, therefore, that young people are more likely than older people to report friends who have been the recent victim of a violent crime. However, it is somewhat surprising that younger Jamaicans are more likely to report *ever* having a friend or family member that has been victimized. After all, older Jamaicans have had more years in which to accumulate vicarious experiences with victimization. It is likely that these findings reflect one of two realities:

1) The current cohort of young people in Jamaica are experiencing more violence than previous youth cohorts; or 2) Older people do not like to talk about the victimization of family members or friends and have thus under-reported these incidents to the survey team.

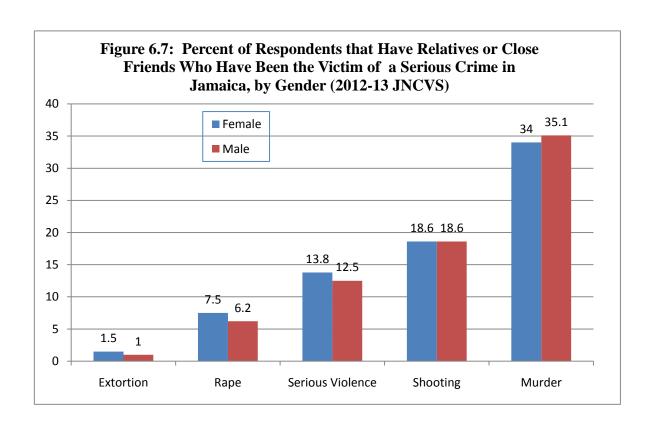


Table 6.14: Percent of Respondents that Report that They Have Family Members or Friends Who Have Been the Victim of a Serious Crime at Some Time in Their Life, by Age (2012-13 JNCVS)

Age Group	MURDER	RAPE OR SEXUAL	SHOOTING	SERIOUS VIOLENCE	EXTORTION
		ASSAULT			
16-20 years	36.7	11.2	22.3	15.1	1.4
21-30 years	38.9	8.8	24.2	15.4	1.2
31-40 years	38.0	6.9	20.9	15.1	1.4
41-50 years	38.2	9.1	20.9	14.9	1.9
51-60 years	31.8	5.3	15.5	11.3	0.7
61 years or older	24.2	2.5	9.5	7.6	0.7

Table 6.15: Percent of Respondents that Report that They Have Family Members or Friends Who Have Been the Victim of a Serious Crime in the Past Year, by Age (2012-13 JNCVS)

Age Group	MURDER	RAPE OR SEXUAL ASSAULT	SHOOTING	SERIOUS VIOLENCE	EXTORTION
16-20 years	7.2	4.0	4.0	2.5	0.7
21-30 years	8.9	2.3	5.0	4.7	0.6
31-40 years	6.0	1.1	4.0	2.5	0.6
41-50 years	6.1	1.3	3.9	3.0	0.9
51-60 years	4.7	0.7	2.4	1.5	0.2
61 years or older	2.7	0.1	1.0	1.0	0.3

PART SEVEN: FEAR OF CRIME

Highlights

- The majority of respondents (70%) felt that crime in Jamaica had increased over the last five years, while only 13% felt that crime had decreased, and 15% felt that crime levels have stayed about the same. The fear of crime in Jamaica as well as the perceptions about crime appear to be inconsistent with the noted declines in crime which have been observed in the current victimization survey data as well as in official crime data where murders and shootings are concerned (see part four of this report).
- When asked about their own community, very few persons (14%) felt that crime had increased in their own community. Fully 29% of respondents felt that crime in their community had decreased, while 52% felt that crime levels in their community had stayed about the same over the last five years.
- It was also found that very few respondents felt that their community had more crime than other communities. Fully 75% of Jamaicans surveyed believed that their community had less crime than other communities in Jamaica. Perceptions about crime at the community level appear to be more consistent with the national decline in criminal victimization that has been observed in victimization data for the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS.
- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS reveal that a large proportion of Jamaicans are fearful of experiencing certain types of violent crime. Respondents report that they are most worried about kidnapping (with 19.9% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them) and sexual assault (18.7%). Comparatively fewer persons were very worried about being attacked by someone they know (12.4%) and burglary/break-ins (12.8%).
- Females are more fearful of being victimized than males for a range of crimes. The crimes that worried females the most were sexual assault (with 26.1% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them), kidnapping (24.7%), and being attacked by a stranger (19.9%). Males, in contrast, were most worried about kidnapping (14.2%), being attacked by a stranger (11.5%) and robbery (11.3%).

Introduction

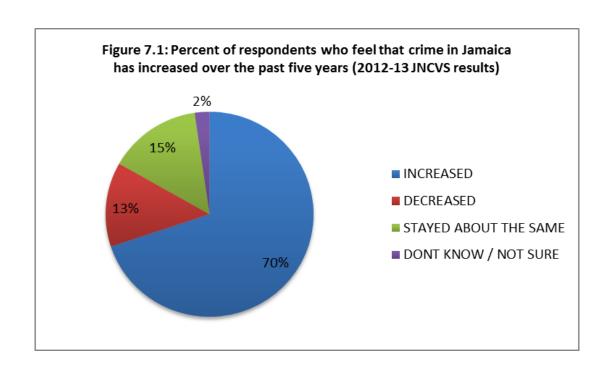
This section of the report examines respondent's perceptions and apprehensions about crime, personal safety and the threat of criminal victimization. The section is divided into four parts. The first part examines how Jamaicans perceive the level of crime in their own community and how their community compares to other areas of Jamaica. The second section examines Jamaicans feelings of personal safety when they engage in specific public and private activities. Part Three explores Jamaicans fear of experiencing different types of criminal victimization including robbery and sexual assault. Part Four investigates the extent to which Jamaicans change their day-to-day activities because of the threat of criminal victimization. Differences across gender, age group and Parish are highlighted.

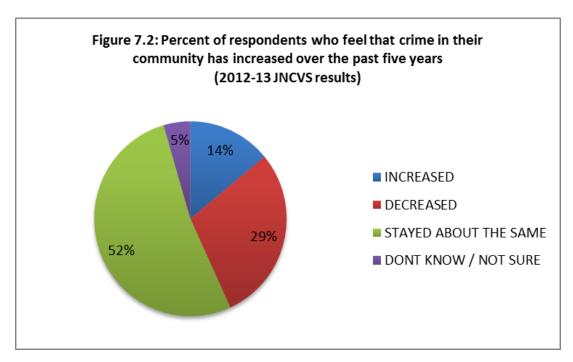
The majority of respondents (70%) felt that crime in Jamaica had increased over the last five years, while only 13% felt that crime had decreased, and 15% felt that crime levels have stayed about the same (see figure 7.1). Despite the fact that such a large proportion of the sample felt that crime in Jamaica had increased, much fewer persons (14%) felt that crime had increased in their community (see figure 7.2). In fact, 29% of respondents felt that crime in their community had decreased, while 52% felt that crime levels in their community had stayed about the same over the last five years. Consistent with this, very few respondents (5%) felt that their community had more crime than other communities (see figure 7.3). Fully 75% of Jamaicans surveyed believed that their community had less crime than other communities in Jamaica, while 18% felt that their community had about the same level of crime compared to other communities in Jamaica. These findings indicate that most respondents believe that while crime has increased in Jamaica, their own communities were not as prone to this trend compared to other communities.

Opinions about national and local crime trends tend to be consistent across gender and age groups. For example, men (66.5%) are just as likely as women (72.7%) to believe that crime in Jamaica has increased over the past five years. Likewise, a similar

proportion of males (15.1%) and females (11.7%) felt that crime in Jamaica had decreased over the past five years. With respect to crime in the community, 13.2% of males and 14.7% of females felt that crime in their communities had increased over the last five years, while 29.5% of males and 29.0% of females felt that crime in their community had decreased. When respondents were asked to compare crime levels in their community with other communities, a similar proportion of males (4.9%) and females (5.4%) felt that their community had more crime than other communities. Likewise, a similar proportion of males (75.3%) and females (74.0%) felt that their communities had less crime than other communities.

Persons also shared similar opinions about crime trends regardless of age. For example, 67.4% of 15-29 year olds felt that crime in Jamaica had increased over the last five years, compared to 70.3% of 30-64 year olds and 71.8% of persons older than 65 years of age. In comparison, 14.1% of 15-29 year olds thought that crime in Jamaica had decreased over the last five years, while 13.1% of 30-64 year olds, and 12.5% of persons older than 65 shared this opinion. In a similar manner, persons of different age groups also held similar opinions with respect to crime in their communities. For example, 14% of 15-29 year olds thought that crime in their community had increased, compared to 15% of 30-64 year olds and 10% of persons older than 65 years of age. In comparison, 32.3% of 15-29 year olds thought that crime in their communities had decreased within the last five years, compared to 28% of 30-64 year olds and 29.1% of persons older than 65 years of age.





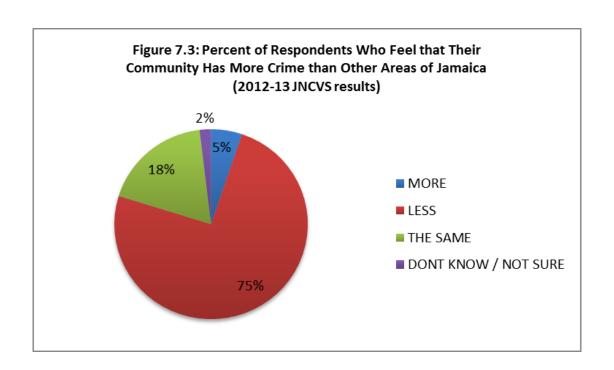


TABLE 7.1: Percent of respondents who believe that crime has increased in Jamaica and in their own neighbourhood in the past five years, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

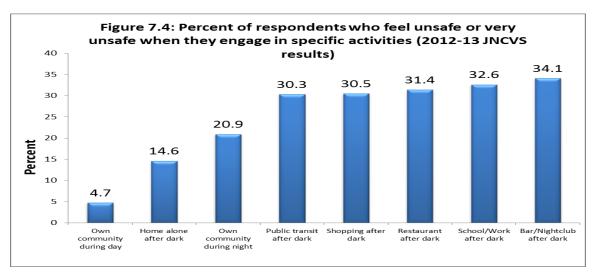
PARISH	Percent of respondents who believe that crime has increased in Jamaica in the past five years	Percent of respondents who believe that crime has increased in Their own neighbourhood in the past five years	Percent of respondents who believe that their neighbourhood has more crime than other areas of Jamaica
Kingston	67.3	24.8	14.4
St. Andrew	56.1	10.2	4.9
St. Thomas	62.7	9.8	3.6
Portland	69.0	7.8	0.9
St. Mary	65.3	14.1	2.4
St. Ann	79.7	9.4	3.5
Trelawny	81.8	26.4	4.4
St. James	75.1	23.0	7.4
Hanover	71.6	10.6	4.3
Westmoreland	79.4	3.9	0.0
St. Elizabeth	79.4	21.2	6.5
Manchester	81.5	10.1	3.4
Clarendon	68.7	7.5	2.7
St. Catherine	70.5	18.4	7.9

Public perceptions of crime do vary somewhat by Parish (see Table 7.1). For example, fewer respondents in the parishes of St. Andrew, St. Thomas, St. Mary and Kingston believe that crime has increased in Jamaica within the last five years (an average of 62.8% for these parishes) compared to respondents in Westmoreland, St. Elizabeth, St. Ann, Manchester and Trelawny (an average of 80.4% for these parishes). In a similar manner, persons from different parishes had differing opinions about whether crime had increased in their communities within the last five years. An average of 7.7% of the residents from Westmoreland, Clarendon, Portland, St. Ann and St. Thomas felt that crime had increased in their neighbourhoods within the last five years, compared to an average of 22.8% of the residents from St. Catherine, St. Elizabeth, St. James, Kingston and Trelawny.

Personal Safety in Public Spaces

All respondents were asked whether they would feel safe or unsafe engaging in eight different activities: 1) Walking alone in their own neighbourhood during the day; 2) Walking alone in their own neighbourhood after dark; 3) Using public transportation after dark; 4) Spending time at home after dark; 5) Going shopping after dark; 6) Going to a restaurant after dark; 7) Going to a nightclub, bar or stage show after dark; and 8) Going to school or work after dark.

Respondents indicated that they feel safest in their own community during the day as well as night and while in their own homes (see figure 7.4). Only 4.7% of respondents indicated that they feel unsafe or very unsafe when in their own communities during the day. This increases to 20.9% when respondents were asked about feelings of safety in their own community at night. While in their own homes after dark, 14.6% of respondents feel unsafe or very unsafe. When activities outside of the home are considered after dark, the proportion of persons who are fearful increases dramatically. Approximately 30% of respondents indicated that they feel unsafe or very unsafe when using public transit after dark, when shopping after dark, and when using a restaurant after dark. Somewhat more than 30% of respondents indicated that they are fearful if they have to go to school or work after dark, and if they visit a bar or nightclub after dark.



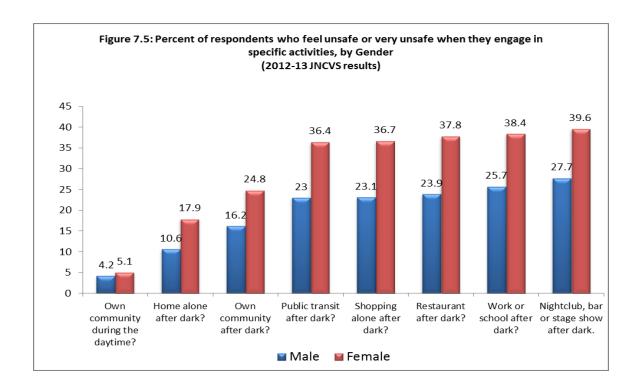
For the most part, public fear while engaged in various activities seems to have decreased from 2006 to the present (see table 7.2). The most notable decreases occurred with the use of public transit after dark, going shopping or to a restaurant after dark, going to school after dark, and going to a nightclub or bar after dark. For example, in 2006, 50.6% of respondents indicated that they felt unsafe or very unsafe when using public transit at night, compared to 45.4% in 2009 and 30.3% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, 44.8% of respondents indicated that they felt unsafe or very unsafe when going shopping after dark compared to 40.8% in 2009 and 30.5% in 2012-13. Less dramatic decreases in feeling unsafe occurred for walking alone in one's community after dark and spending time alone at home after dark. Part of the reason for smaller decreases in these areas may be that levels of fear for these activities are already comparatively low.

TABLE 7.2: Percent of Respondents Who Feel Unsafe or Very Unsafe When They Engage In Specific Activities, 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results

How safe would you feel	2006	2009	2012-13
Walking alone in your community during the daytime?	NA	4.6	4.7
Spending time at home alone after dark?	16.1	14.3	14.6
Walking alone in your community after dark?	24.6	23.5	20.9
If you had to use public transit after dark?	50.6	45.4	30.3
If you went out shopping alone after dark?	44.8	40.8	30.5
If you went out to a restaurant after dark?	47.9	43.5	31.4
If you went to work or school after dark?	48.5	45.7	32.6
If you went to a nightclub, bar or stage show after dark.	51.3	49.9	34.1

NA = Question was not asked in the 2006 JNCVS

Consistent with Canadian, American and British research, and similar to the results of the 2006 and 2009 JNCVS, data for the current round of the survey indicate that Jamaican women are significantly more apprehensive about engaging in public activities than Jamaican men – especially if these activities take place after dark (see Figure 7.5). For example, 39.6% of females indicate that they feel unsafe or very unsafe if they go out to clubs or bars at night, compared to 27.7% of males. Similarly, 38.4% of females indicate that they feel unsafe or very unsafe if they if they go to work or school after dark compared to only 25.7% of males. These gender differences hold for all of the activities listed in figure 7.5.



Victimization surveys conducted in Canada, the United States and Great Britain consistently find a strong positive relationship between age and fear of public spaces. In general, previous studies have found that older people are much more afraid of venturing into public spaces, especially at night, than their younger counterparts. The relationship between age and fear of public spaces is somewhat more complex for Jamaica (see table 7.3). For those activities which evoke the lowest levels of fear (walking in your own community during the day, staying at home alone after dark, and walking in your own

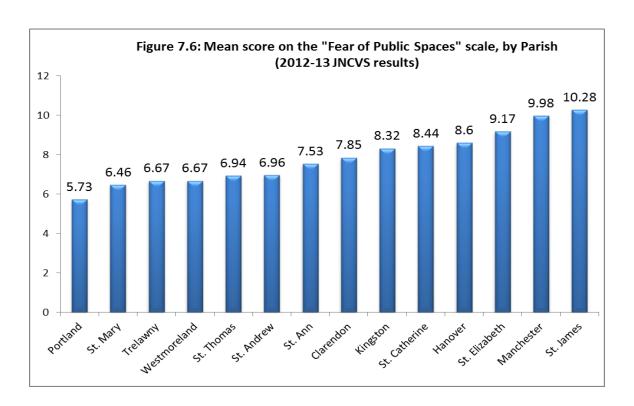
community after dark) there appears to be little relationship between age and levels of fear. More specifically, older as well as younger persons have an equal level of concern about these types of situations. With respect to the situations which evoke higher levels of fear (using public transit, going shopping, to a restaurant, to work or school, or to a bar or club after dark) there is a decline in levels of fear as persons progressively get older, from the age of 16 until they reach the 41-50 age range, and then the level of fear increases steadily as persons become older than fifty years of age. These findings indicate that the often observed increase in fear as persons get older applies in Jamaica only after persons pass the age of fifty. Conversely, it appears that as persons in Jamaica mature from young adults into middle age, their levels of fear decrease for a range of situations.

TABLE 7.3: Percent of Respondents Who Feel Unsafe or Very Unsafe Engaging in Specific Activities, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of Activity	16-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or
	yrs	yrs	yrs	yrs	yrs	older
Walk in own community during the daytime	4.3	3.6	6.1	6.3	3.3	3.9
Stay home alone after dark	15.8	13.9	15.4	14.6	14.5	13.9
Walk in own community after dark	19.4	21.2	21.1	21.3	20.5	20.8
Go shopping after dark	32.4	30.7	30.7	27.9	29.6	32.5
Go to a restaurant after dark	31.7	33.0	31.7	27.7	31.1	33.5
Use public transit after dark	30.6	31.0	31.9	28.9	27.8	31.2
Go to school or work after dark	36.7	34.5	33.0	29.1	30.4	34.0
Go to a bar/nightclub after dark	35.3	36.3	34.5	31.3	31.5	36.2

In order to analyze fear by Parish, we combined responses to the above eight questions into a "Fear of Public Spaces" scale. For each question, responses were coded in the following manner: 0=very safe; 1=safe; 2=unsafe; 3=very unsafe. Combining responses to the eight items produces a scale that ranges from 0 to 24 (mean = 7.9, SD = 5.1, alpha=.94). The higher the score on this scale the greater the fear of engaging in public activities. An analysis of this scale reveals that fear of public places tends to vary by region in Jamaica (see Figure 7.6). Parishes with the highest levels of fear of public

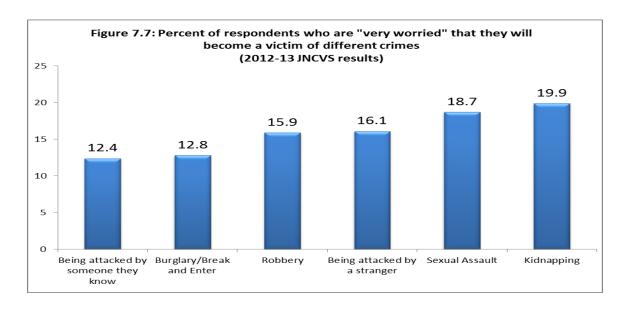
spaces are St. James (a mean score of 10.28 on the 'Fear of Public Spaces' scale), Manchester (9.98), St. Elizabeth (9.17) and Hanover (8.6). Parishes with a comparatively lower level of fear of public spaces are Portland (5.73), St. Mary (6.46), Trelawny (6.67) and Westmoreland (6.67).

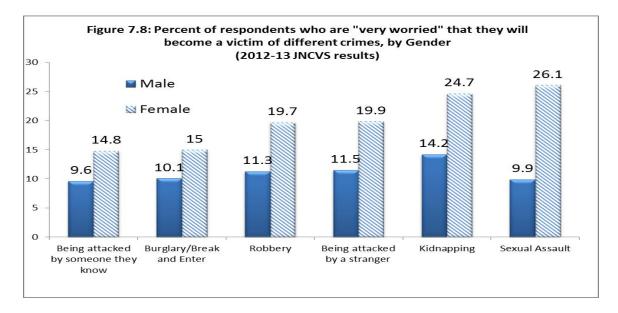


Fear of Criminal Victimization

In addition to asking respondents about their fear or apprehension of public spaces, we also asked about how worried they were about becoming the victim of six different types of criminal offence: 1) Burglary/Break and Enter; 2) Robbery 3) Being attacked by a stranger; 4) Being attacked by someone they know; 5) Sexual Assault and 6) Kidnapping. The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS reveal that a large proportion of Jamaicans are fearful of experiencing certain types of violent crime (see Figure 7.7). Respondents report that they are most worried about kidnapping (with 19.9% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them) and sexual assault (18.7%). Comparatively fewer persons were very worried about being attacked by someone they know (12.4%) and burglary/break-ins (12.8%).

When these results are disaggregated by gender (see figure 7.8) it was discovered that females were more fearful of being victimized than males for the range of crimes. The crimes that worried females the most were sexual assault (with 26.1% reporting that they are "very worried" about this happening to them), kidnapping (24.7%), and being attacked by a stranger (19.9%). Males, in contrast, were most worried about kidnapping (14.2%), being attacked by a stranger (11.5%) and robbery (11.3%).





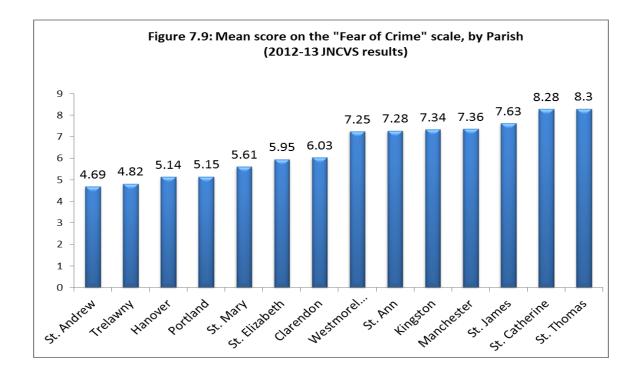
As discussed above, international victimization surveys have consistently shown that fear of criminal victimization tends to increase with age. However, the data from the 2012-13 JNCVS once again suggest that this classic "age-fear" relationship does not exist in Jamaica. In fact, the survey results indicate that young Jamaicans (16-20 year-olds) worry the most about crime and that fear of criminal victimization actually decreases with age (see table 7.4). For example, it was found that 16.5% of 16-20 year olds were very worried about being attacked by someone they know, compared to 9.8% of 51-60 year olds and 7.4% of persons older than 60 years of age. Similarly, 19.8% of 16-20 year olds were very worried about being robbed, compared to 10.7% of 51-60 year olds, and 11.4% of persons older than 60 years of age. This pattern is repeated for the other crimes in table 7.4. These findings were also similar to that of the 2009 JNCVS.

TABLE 7.4: Percent of respondents who are "very worried" that they may become the victim of different types of crime, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

How worried are you about	16-20 yrs	21-30 yrs	31-40 yrs	41-50 yrs	51-60 yrs	61 or older
Being attacked by someone you know	16.5	15.1	14.0	13.4	9.8	7.4
Burglary/Break and Enter	12.9	14.1	15.4	15.2	9.6	8.8
Robbery	19.8	19.5	18.4	16.7	10.7	11.4
Being attacked by a stranger	25.9	20.3	16.9	17.7	10.5	9.8
Sexual Assault	28.4	26.3	21.2	18.8	13.3	8.9
Kidnapping	27.7	24.4	23.4	19.8	16.0	11.7

In order to analyze fear of criminal victimization by Parish, we combined responses to the above six questions into a "Fear of Criminal Victimization" scale. For each question, responses were coded in the following manner: 0=Not worried at all; 1=Not very worried; 2=A little worried; 4=Very worried. Combining responses to the six items that measure fear of criminal victimization produces a scale that ranges from 0 to 18 (mean=6.59, SD=5.67, alpha=.91). The higher the score on this scale the greater the fear of criminal victimization. An analysis of this scale reveals that fear of criminal victimization tends to vary significantly by region of Jamaica (see Figure 7.9). For example, fear of criminal victimization appears to be highest in St. Thomas (a mean score of 8.30), St. Catherine (8.28), St. James (7.63) and Manchester (7.36). The data also

indicate that fear of criminal victimization is lowest in St. Andrew (4.69), Trelawny (4.82), Hanover (5.14) and Portland (5.15).



While it is the case that many respondents in the 2012-13 round of the JNCVS express that they are very worried about a range of crimes, it is important to note that these findings are part of an overall downward trend in the levels of fear from 2006 to the present (see table 7.5). For the crimes of burglary/break-ins, robbery, being attacked by a stranger, and sexual assault, the percent of respondents who indicate that they are "very worried" about this happening to them has steadily decreased from 2006 to 2012-13. More specifically, in 2006 21.2% of respondents indicated that they were very worried about burglary and break-ins compared to 13.8% in 2009 and 12.8% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006 24.5% of respondents indicated that they were very worried about robbery, compared to 17.2% in 2009 and 15.9% in 2012-13. The only crime for which there was a small increase in the level of fear was being attacked by someone known to them. This increase occurred from 2009 to 2012-13 (see table 7.5).

TABLE 7.5: Percent of respondents who are "very worried" that they may become the victim of different types of crime, 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS results

How worried are you about	2006	2009	2012-13
Being attacked by someone you know	14.4	10.3	12.4
Burglary/Break and Enter	21.2	13.8	12.8
Robbery	24.5	17.2	15.9
Being attacked by a stranger	26.4	18.1	16.1
Sexual Assault	25.4	19.6	18.7
Kidnapping	NA	19.9	19.9

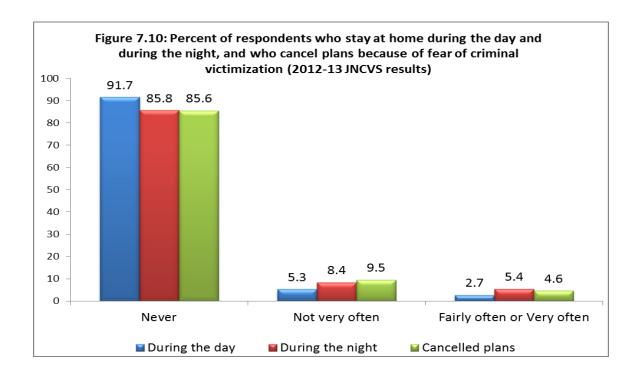
 \overline{NA} = Question was not asked in the 2006 JNCVS

Changing Behaviour Due to Fear of Crime

Fear of crime can be particularly damaging if it prevents people from venturing out of their homes into the realm of public life. On a large scale such behaviour can undermine civil society, cause damage to the economy and engender social isolation. In order to document how fear may impact the behaviour of Jamaicans we asked the following three questions: 1) Do you ever stay at home during the daytime because you are afraid of becoming the victim of a crime or violence?, 2) Do you ever stay at home at night because you are afraid of becoming the victim of a crime or violence?, and 3) Have you ever deliberately cancelled plans to go out because of fear of becoming the victim of crime or violence?

The results indicate that a larger proportion of respondents (5.4%) stay at home fairly often or very often during the night due to fear of criminal victimization, compared to the proportion who stay at home fairly often or very often during the day for the same reason (2.7%) – see figure 7.10. Similarly, 8.4% of respondents occasionally stay at home during the night due to fear of criminal victimization, compared to 5.3% of respondents who indicate that they occasionally stay at home during the day for the same reason. The data in Figure 7.10 also indicate that 9.5% of respondents occasionally

cancel plans due to fear of criminal victimization, while 4.6% cancel plans often or fairly often for the same reason.

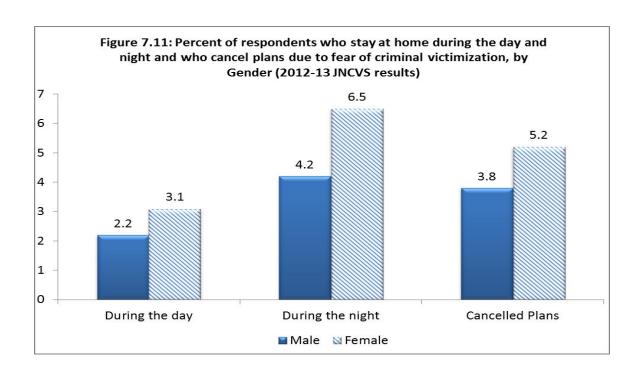


The data once again reveal that women are significantly more impacted by fear of criminal victimization than men (see Figure 7.11). For example, 3.1% of females stay at home during the day either fairly often or very often due to fear of criminal victimization compared to 2.2% of males. While the proportion of persons who stay at home during the night increases, females (6.5%) still outnumber males (4.2%). Similarly, 5.2% of females cancel plans fairly often or very often due to fear of criminal victimization compared to 3.8% of males.

With respect to age, for the three behavioural measures employed, there appears to be a general decline in fear as persons get older (see figure 7.12). With respect to staying at home during the day due to fear of criminal victimization, 3.6% of 16-20 year olds report that they do so fairly often or very often. The proportion increases slightly to 4.1% for 21-30 year olds. This is followed by a general decline as persons get older. For persons older than 60 years of age, only 2.5% report that they stay at home during the day due to fear of criminal victimization. With respect to staying at home during the night

due to fear of criminal victimization, 6.1% of 16-20 year olds report that they do so fairly often or very often. The proportion increases to 7% for 21-30 year olds, and then declines as persons get older, to reach a low of 4.5% for persons older than 50 years of age. With respect to canceling plans due to fear of criminal victimization, 5.4% of 16-20 year olds reported that they do so often or very often. This increases slightly to 5.9% for 21-30 year olds, and then decreases to a low of 2.5% for persons older than 60 years of age.

When the three behavioural questions were disaggregated by parish (see table 7.6) it was discovered that the parishes with the highest proportion of persons who indicate that they stay at home during the day fairly often or very often due to fear of criminal victimization are St. James (6.5% of the respondents), Kingston (5%), St. Andrew (3.7%) and St. Ann (3.0%). Parishes in which the largest proportion of respondents stays at home during the night due to fear of victimization are St. Elizabeth (10%), Clarendon (7.8%), St. James (6.9%), St. Ann (6.9%), and Kingston (6.4%). Parishes in which the largest proportion of respondents cancelled plans either fairly often or very often due to fear of criminal victimization are Kingston (6.4%), St. James (6%), Clarendon (5.4%) and St. Andrew (5%).



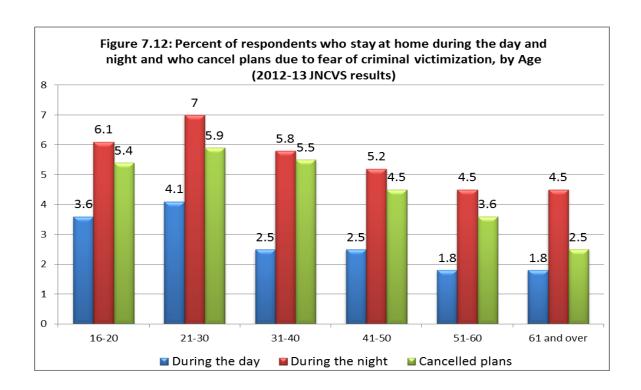
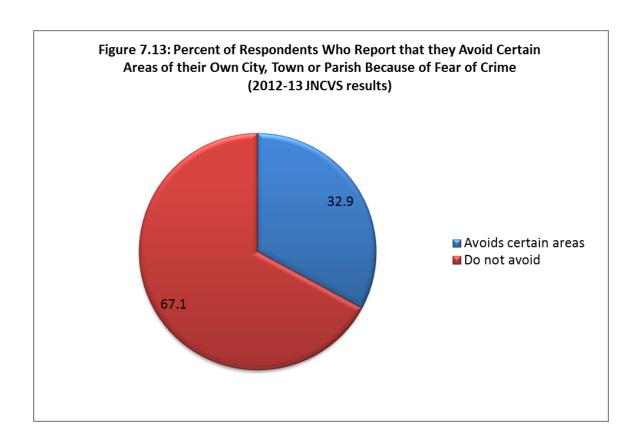


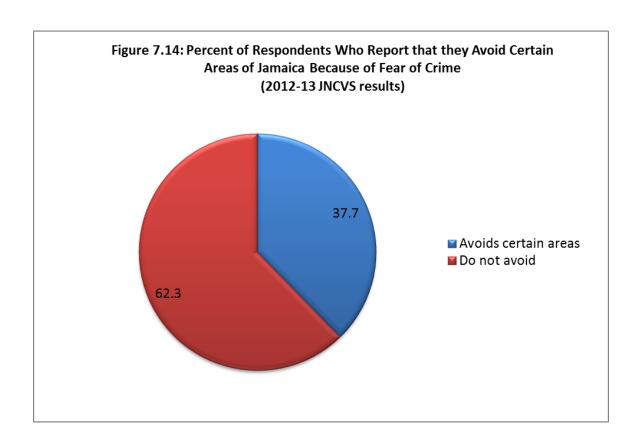
Table 7.6: Percent of respondents who stay at home during the day and night, and who cancel plans due to fear of criminal victimization, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	During the day	During the night	Cancelled plans
St. Mary	0.0	5.3	2.9
Westmoreland	0.6	2.8	3.9
Hanover	0.7	2.8	4.3
Portland	0.9	2.6	0.9
St. Elizabeth	1.8	10.0	4.7
Trelawny	1.9	6.3	2.5
Manchester	2.1	5.5	4.6
St. Thomas	2.2	3.6	4.0
St. Catherine	2.4	5.0	4.8
Clarendon	2.4	7.8	5.4
St. Ann	3.0	6.9	3.5
St. Andrew	3.7	4.9	5.0
Kingston	5.0	6.4	6.4
St. James	6.5	6.9	6.0

Another way of measuring whether fear of crime impacts behaviour is to ask respondents whether they avoid certain areas or communities because of fear of criminal

victimization. We began by asking respondents whether they avoid any areas of their own city, town or parish because of crime (see Figure 7.13). Almost a third of respondents (32.9%) report that they do avoid certain areas of their own city, town or parish because of fear of criminal victimization. We also asked respondents if they ever avoided other areas of Jamaica, outside of their own region, because of crime (see Figure 7.14). Somewhat more than one third (37.7%) indicate that they do avoid some areas of Jamaica because of crime. We asked these respondents to identify the specific areas of Jamaica that they try to avoid. The majority of these respondents identified Kingston or areas within Kingston. Areas within the Kingston region that appear to have particular notoriety include the Tivoli Gardens and Trench Town as well as most of the downtown area. It should be stated, however, that Kingston is not the only jurisdiction that respondents identified as having a bad reputation. A significant number of respondents also stated that they avoid Montego Bay, Spanish Town, Flankers, and Clarendon.





The data suggest that the extent to which respondents avoid certain areas of Jamaica varies significantly by Parish (see Table 7.7). For example, 64.5% of the residents from St. James report that there are areas within their own city, town or parish that they avoid because of crime. Similarly, in St. Catherine 43.1% of the residents report that they avoid areas in their own parish due to crime. Other parishes with similarly high proportions of persons who indicate that there are areas that they actively avoid within their parish are Clarendon (40.8%), Trelawny (38.4%), St. Andrew (37.5%) and Kingston (36.1%). A number of parishes, in contrast, have relatively few people who report that they avoid areas within their own city, town or parish because of crime. These include St. Mary (8.2%), St. Ann (10.9%), Portland (12.9%), and St. Elizabeth (15.3%). Interestingly, these parishes are the same ones in which very large proportions of persons report that they avoid other areas of Jamaica due to crime. For example, 43.5% of the respondents from St. Mary avoid other areas of Jamaica because of crime. The figure rises to 59.9% in St. Ann, 56% in Portland, and 56.5% in St. Elizabeth. This represents persons who are comfortable in their own parish, but who refrain from venturing to other areas of Jamaica due to fear of crime. Other parishes with a relatively high proportion of persons who report that they avoid other areas of Jamaica because of crime include Manchester (55%) and Trelawny (68.6%).

TABLE 7.7: Percent of Respondents That Avoid Certain Areas of Jamaica Because of Fear of Crime, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

PARISH	Percent of Respondents Who Avoid Certain Areas of their City, Town or Parish Because of Fear of Crime	Percent of Respondents Who Avoid Certain Areas of Jamaica Because of Fear of Crime
St. Mary	8.2	43.5
St. Ann	10.9	59.9
Portland	12.9	56.0
St. Elizabeth	15.3	56.5
St. Thomas	16.4	25.3
Hanover	21.3	44.7
Westmoreland	27.2	30.6
Manchester	34.9	55.0
Kingston	36.1	23.8
St. Andrew	37.5	15.2
Trelawny	38.4	68.6
Clarendon	40.8	43.9
St. Catherine	43.1	33.2
St. James	64.5	41.5

PART EIGHT: CRIME CAUSATION AND CRIME PREVENTION

Highlights

- The data indicate that Jamaicans employ a variety of strategies to prevent themselves and their families from becoming crime victims. The most common strategies employed are changing routine activities, installing new locks, security bars, and security fences. Some respondents even admitted that they carry weapons including guns for personal protection (2.2% lifetime prevalence, and 1.2% within the last year). Less common strategies for preventing crime include hiring a security guard, joining a vigilante group, and staying away from one's own neighbourhood.
- All respondents were asked to indicate what they thought were the major causes of crime in Jamaica. The results indicate that the majority of persons (74.1%) believed that unemployment was the most important cause of crime in Jamaica. The next most important cause identified was poverty, with 58.4% of the respondents agreeing that this was important. The third most important cause was a poor education system (31%). Other causes identified as important include poor parenting, drugs and drug addiction, gangs and gang culture, and poor morals and values.
- In general, respondents were more supportive of social development strategies for reducing crime than crime suppression initiatives.

Introduction

This section of the report explores public perceptions of crime causation and crime prevention. It begins by examining the types of actions Jamaicans take to protect themselves and their families from criminal victimization. This section then examines public perceptions regarding the causes of crime and violence within Jamaica and reviews how Jamaicans view the effectiveness of various governmental crime prevention policies. This chapter also documents how gender, age, education and social class impact respondents' attitudes and behaviours.

Personal Crime Prevention Strategies

All respondents were asked whether they had ever engaged in fourteen different crime prevention strategies in order to protect themselves or their family from criminal victimization. These strategies include: 1) changing routine activities or avoiding certain areas; 2) installing new locks; 3) installing security bars; 4) Installing a security fence; 5) Installing a security system; 6) Taking a self-defence course; 7) Obtaining a guard dog; 8) Obtaining a gun; 9) Carrying a gun in public; 10) Carrying another type of weapon (knife, pepper spray, etc) in public; 11) Moving or changing one's address; 12) Staying away from one's own neighbourhood; 13) Hiring a security guard; and 14) Becoming involved with a vigilante group.

The results (see table 8.1) reveal that the most common strategy employed by Jamaicans to reduce the risk of criminal victimization is changing routine activities. In fact, one in four respondents (22.7%) indicated that they have done this, with 13.7% doing so within the last twelve months. One in seven persons (14.7%) indicated that they have installed new locks as a strategy, with 7.1% of respondents doing so within the last year. One in eight persons (12.6%) indicated that they have carried some type of weapon other than a gun as a means of self protection, with 8.8% doing so within the last year. A similar proportion of persons (12.5%) indicated that they have installed security bars in their homes or businesses as a means of protection, with 2.2% doing so within the last year. Other commonly used strategies include installing a security fence (with 6.1% of the sample doing so at some point in their lives), obtaining a guard dog (4.6%), and installing an alarm or security system (3.4%). A number of other strategies were employed by smaller proportions of the sample. For example, 2% of the sample or one in fifty persons indicated that they obtained a gun as a means of protection, with 0.8% doing so within the last year. Further, one in forty five persons (2.2%) indicated that they carried a gun in public, with 1.2% doing so within the last year. In addition, 1.8% indicated that they took a self-defence course, 1.2% joined a vigilante group, and 1% hired a security guard. Overall, 40.8% of the sample had engaged in at least one type of crime prevention strategy in their lifetime, with 24.7% of the sample doing so within the last year.

Table 8.1: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	EVER	IN THE PAST TWELVE MONTHS
Changed routine or normal activities	22.7	13.7
Installed new locks	14.7	7.1
Installed security bars on home or business	12.5	2.2
Installed a security fence around property	6.1	1.0
Installed an alarm or security system	3.4	0.8
Taken a self-defence course	1.8	0.6
Obtained a guard dog	4.6	1.9
Obtained a gun	2.0	0.8
Carried a gun in public	2.2	1.2
Carried another type of weapon in public	12.6	8.8
Moved or changed address	2.4	0.4
Stayed away from own neighbourhood	2.3	0.9
Hired a security guard	1.0	0.5
Joined a vigilante group	1.2	0.5
Used one or more crime prevention strategy	40.8	24.7

A comparison of results from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys suggests that the use of personal safety strategies may be declining somewhat among the Jamaican population (see table 8.2). The most notable decreases from 2006 to 2012-13 occurred with respect to changing routing activities (a decline from 27.3% in 2006 to 22.7% in 2012-13), installing new locks (a decline from 20.3% to 14.7%), installing security bars (a decline from 16.2% to 12.5%), installing security fences (a decline from 7.6% to 6.1%), and carrying weapons apart from guns in public (a decline from 15.3% to 12.6%). A number of other activities also exhibited declines from 2006 to 2012-13, though the decreases were not as pronounced. These include installing alarms or security systems, taking a self-defence course, carrying a gun in public, moving or changing address, and staying away from one's neighbourhood.

The change in the proportion of persons engaging in various self protection behaviours from 2009 to 2012-13 were generally small, with all changes except two having a magnitude of less than one percent. The only activities which showed some

level of change from 2009 to 2012-13 were installing alarms or security systems (an increase from 2% in 2009 to 3.4% in 2012-13) and carrying weapons apart from guns (a decrease from 16.3% in 2009 to 12.6% in 2012-13). When taken together, the data in table 8.2 indicate that there was a consistent decrease in self protection behaviours from 2006 to 2009, and this decrease was sustained in 2012-13.

Table 8.2: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	2006	2009	2012-13
Changed routine or normal activities	27.3	23.6	22.7
Installed new locks	20.3	14.5	14.7
Installed security bars on home or business	16.2	11.5	12.5
Installed a security fence around property	7.6	6.3	6.1
Installed an alarm or security system	3.7	2.0	3.4
Taken a self-defence course	2.2	1.7	1.8
Obtained a guard dog	4.6	4.2	4.6
Obtained a gun	2.4	1.3	2.0
Carried a gun in public	2.9	1.8	2.2
Carried another type of weapon in public	15.3	16.3	12.6
Moved or changed address	2.6	1.9	2.4
Stayed away from own neighbourhood	3.3	1.9	2.3
Hired a security guard	NA	0.4	1.0
Joined a vigilante group	NA	NA	1.2

Overall, male and female respondents tend to employ similar personal safety strategies in a range of areas (see table 8.3). The difference in the proportion of males and females who engaged in various activities does not exceed two percent for the following behaviours: installing alarms, taking a self-defence course, joining a vigilante group, obtaining a guard dog, staying away from one's own neighbourhood, changing one's address, hiring a security guard, and installing a security fence. There are, however, some notable gender differences where some of the strategies are concerned. Males are much more likely than females to carry a weapon other than a gun in public (14.6% vs. 10.8%), to obtain a gun (3.8% vs. 0.8%), and to carry a gun in public (3.4% vs. 0.8%). Males are also somewhat more likely to change routine activities than females (23.9% vs.

21.6%). On the other hand, females are more likely than males to install security bars (13.7% vs. 11.2%), and install new locks (16% vs. 13.2%).

Table 8.3: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	Males	Females
Changed routine or normal activities	23.9	21.6
Installed new locks	13.2	16.0
Installed security bars on home or business	11.2	13.7
Installed a security fence around property	6.0	6.2
Installed an alarm or security system	4.1	2.9
Taken a self-defence course	2.4	1.2
Obtained a guard dog	4.9	4.4
Obtained a gun	3.4	0.8
Carried a gun in public	3.8	0.8
Carried another type of weapon in public	14.6	10.8
Moved or changed address	2.6	2.3
Stayed away from own neighbourhood	2.5	2.1
Hired a security guard	1.0	.9
Joined a vigilante group	1.5	0.9
Used one or more crime prevention strategy	41.5	40.1

When the relationship between age and crime prevention strategies is considered (see table 8.4) there are a number of activities which show clear increases in prevalence as persons get older, as well as a number which show clear decreases. The behaviours which exhibit an increase in usage as persons get older include installing security bars, installing security fences and installing alarms or security systems. Where installing security bars is concerned, only 6.8% of persons in the 16-20 age range indicate that they have done so; this increases gradually as persons get older to 20.3% for persons who are older than 60 years of age. Similarly, installing security fences increases from 4% in the youngest age group, to 9.5% in the oldest. Installing alarms or other security systems increases from 0.4% in the youngest age group to 5% in the oldest. The activities which show a clear decline as persons get older are changing routine activities and carrying a weapon other than a gun. Where changing routine activities is concerned, 23% of persons in the 16-20 age range indicate that they have employed this strategy. There is

some stability in the use of this strategy until persons reach 50 years of age, and then a decline in usage to 17.5% for persons in the oldest age range. Similarly, 15.1% of persons in the youngest age range report carrying a weapon other than a gun. This decreases to 5.6% for persons older than 60 years of age. The other crime prevention strategies listed in table 8.4 exhibit stability in usage with age.

Table 8.4: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION	16-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61+
STRATEGIES	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS
Changed routine or normal activities	23.0	25.6	25.6	24.3	19.5	17.5
Installed new locks	9.7	12.9	16.1	17.7	13.6	15.0
Installed security bars	6.8	6.1	9.7	14.6	14.9	20.3
Installed a security fence	4.0	4.2	5.0	5.5	7.5	9.5
Installed an alarm or security system	0.4	1.8	2.6	3.9	5.5	5.0
Taken a self-defence course	1.4	2.6	0.8	2.5	1.5	1.6
Obtained a guard dog	5.4	4.7	4.4	4.5	5.5	4.0
Obtained a gun	0.4	2.6	1.5	2.1	3.1	1.6
Carried a gun in public	0.7	3.0	1.9	2.2	2.9	1.6
Carried another type of weapon	15.1	17.2	14.8	12.8	10.9	5.6
Moved or changed address	2.5	2.9	3.0	2.4	2.0	1.8
Stayed away from neighbourhood	1.4	3.3	2.6	3.1	1.5	1.2
Hired a security guard	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.0
Joined a vigilante group	1.1	1.7	1.0	1.5	1.5	0.4
Used one or more crime prevention strategy	40.6	42.5	43.4	42.3	38.5	36.6

Some of the age difference in the use of personal safety strategies could be the result of age-related differences in wealth. In other words, people with higher personal incomes may be able to afford certain types of crime prevention strategies including new locks, security bars, security fences, guard dogs etc. This assertion is supported by the results presented in tables 8.5 and 8.6. Table 8.5 shows the percent of respondents who engaged in various crime prevention strategies according to level of education, while table 8.6 disaggregates such strategies according to perceived social class.

Table 8.5: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization, by Education (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	Primary school or less	Some high school or high school diploma	Some college or college degree	Some university or university degree
Changed routine or normal activities	14.6	22.8	25.1	40.2
Installed new locks	11.3	12.3	21.6	34.6
Installed security bars	10.3	9.3	22.1	37.8
Installed a security fence	5.2	4.8	11.7	14.6
Installed an alarm or security system	2.1	2.1	8.2	15.4
Taken a self-defence course	0.7	1.7	2.6	4.7
Obtained a guard dog	3.5	4.4	5.2	11.0
Obtained a gun	1.2	1.9	3.5	4.3
Carried a gun in public	1.2	2.4	3.9	2.4
Carried another type of weapon	9.5	13.7	12.1	13.0
Moved or changed address	1.8	2.2	4.3	4.3
Stayed away from neighbourhood	1.3	2.4	2.6	3.9
Hired a security guard	0.7	0.7	1.7	3.5
Joined a vigilante group	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.2
Used one or more crime prevention strategy	31.2	40.8	46.3	63.4

In table 8.5 a number of activities increased in frequency as persons became more educated. These same activities increased in frequency as perceived social class increased (see table 8.6). These activities are: changes in routine activities, installing security bars, installing new locks, utilizing alarms and security systems, installing security fences and obtaining guard dogs. More specifically, 40.2% of persons with university level education changed their routine activities, compared to much fewer persons with education levels at or below the college level (25.1%), the high school level (22.8%) and the primary school level (14.6%). Similarly, 34.6% of persons with university level education utilized new locks, compared to only 11.3% of persons with primary or lower levels of education. When installing security bars are considered, 37.8% of persons with university level education utilized this security measure, compared to only 10.3% of persons with primary level education. As stated, similar decreases are observed for other security measures including utilizing alarms and security systems,

installing security fences and obtaining guard dogs. As indicated, these same activities decrease in frequency as perceived social class decreases (table 8.6). This may indicate that persons who are more educated or who are in a higher economic class are better able to 'purchase security' for themselves and their families. While there were increases in the usage of a number of crime prevention strategies with education and perceived class, there were a number of strategies which were utilized to fairly similar degrees by persons regardless of their level of education or class. These include joining a vigilante group, carrying a gun, and moving or changing one's address.

Table 8.6: Percent of Respondents Who Have Used Various Strategies In Order to Prevent Criminal Victimization, by Subjective Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	POOR	MIDDLE	UPPER
		CLASS	CLASS
Changed routine or normal activities	21.9	23.2	28.4
Installed new locks	11.4	18.9	24.5
Installed security bars	6.8	19.6	30.4
Installed a security fence	3.6	8.8	20.6
Installed an alarm or security system	1.5	5.4	18.6
Taken a self-defence course	1.5	1.9	5.9
Obtained a guard dog	3.6	5.3	17.6
Obtained a gun	1.4	2.9	2.9
Carried a gun in public	1.6	3.2	2.0
Carried another type of weapon	12.9	11.8	14.7
Moved or changed address	2.4	2.4	3.9
Stayed away from your own neighbourhood	2.5	1.9	2.9
Hired a security guard	0.5	1.3	4.9
Joined a vigilante group	1.0	1.5	2.0
Used one or more crime prevention strategy	62.9	54.5	48.0

Beliefs about the Causes of Crime in Jamaica

All respondents were asked the following question about the causes of crime: "What do you think the major causes of or reasons for crime and violence in Jamaica? Please list as many causes or reasons that you like." Only 16 respondents (0.4%) could not provide an answer to this question. In other words, 99.6% of the respondents could

list at least one major cause of crime and violence in Jamaica. Overall, 11.1% of all respondents listed only one cause, 24.9% listed two causes, 26.1% listed three causes, 15% listed four causes and 22.5% listed five or more causes. On average, respondents identified 3.7 major causes for crime and violence in Jamaica (see table 8.7).

Table 8.7: Percent of Respondents that believe that Certain Factors are a Major Cause of Crime and Violence in Jamaica (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CAUSE OF CRIME	PERCENT
Unemployment	74.1
Poverty	58.4
Poor educational system	31.0
Poor parenting	19.9
Drugs – drug addiction	19.9
Gangs – gang culture	19.0
Poor morals or values	18.8
Politics – political corruption	18.5
Greed – Desire for easy money	17.4
Family breakdown	13.4
Absent fathers	12.6
Influence of music, television or movies	9.8
Deportation from other countries	9.6
Hopelessness or alienation	5.7
Government does not care	5.5
Lack of religion	5.1
Influence of foreign cultures	4.6
Youth culture	4.1
Other	19.3

The results indicate that the majority of persons believed that unemployment was the most important cause of crime in Jamaica (see table 8.7). In fact, 74.1% of respondents believed this to be so. The next most important cause identified was poverty, with 58.4% of the respondents agreeing that this was important. The third most important cause was a poor education system. Fully 31% of the sample felt that this was an important cause of crime. It is interesting to note that the three top causes of crime are all linked to economic deprivation, either directly or indirectly. Poor parenting, drugs and drug addiction, and gangs and gang culture were also identified as important in understanding crime in Jamaica. Nineteen percent of the respondents identified each of

these factors as important. While poor parenting was identified by a large proportion of respondents as important, other family variables also stood out for respondents. Fully 13.4% of respondents identified family breakdown as an important cause of crime, while 12.6% indicated that the absence of fathers was important. Other important causes which were identified by respondents include poor morals or values (18.8%) and a desire to make easy money (17.4%). Interestingly, 18.5% of respondents indicated that politics and political corruption was important, though only 5.5% believed that the government did not care about the crime situation in Jamaica. In addition to the causes listed in table 8.7, 19.3% of respondents listed other causes of crimes. Some of the most prevalent responses included "bad mind", corruption, greed, lack of opportunities, laziness, peer pressure, scamming and seeking revenge.

When opinions about the causes of crime are examined within the context of gender (see table 8.8), the results indicate that there are many causes for which equal proportions of males and females believe that they are important, while for other causes, there are gender differences in opinion. Some of the causes which are seen as equally important by males and females include family breakdown, youth culture, greed and a desire for easy money, the influence of movies, music and television, poor parenting, the influence of foreign cultures, the importance of criminal deportation, gangs and gang culture, drugs and drug addiction, absent fathers and hopelessness or alienation. Despite agreement on the above, males and females disagreed on the importance of a number of other potential causes of crime in Jamaica. More males than females felt that poverty, a lack of governmental caring, and politics and political corruption were important causes of crime in Jamaica. In contrast, more females than males felt that poor morals and values, a poor educational system, unemployment, and lack of religion were important causes of crime in Jamaica.

Table 8.8: Percent of Respondents that believe that Certain Factors are a Major Cause of Crime and Violence in Jamaica, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CAUSE OF CRIME	MALE	FEMALE
Poverty	59.6	57.5
Unemployment	72.9	75.1
Gangs – gang culture	19.2	18.7
Youth culture	3.6	4.5
Poor educational system	29.7	32.2
Poor parenting	20.0	19.9
Lack of religion	4.0	6.1
Deportation from other countries	9.8	9.4
Influence of foreign cultures	4.7	4.5
Greed – desire for easy money	17.2	17.6
Politics – political corruption	21.2	16.2
Influence of music, television or movies	9.7	9.9
Family breakdown	12.4	14.3
Absent fathers	13.0	12.2
Hopelessness or alienation	6.5	5.1
Government does not care	7.0	4.2
Drugs – drug addiction	20.2	19.6
Poor morals or values	17.3	20.0
Other	19.3	19.4

The relationship between age and opinions about the causes of crime is shown in table 8.9. In general, younger respondents tend to identify more causes of crime in Jamaica than their older counterparts. For example, on average, 16-20 year-olds identified 3.8 major causes of crime. By contrast, respondents 60 years of age or older identified an average of only 3.5 causes. Further analysis reveals that, for some of the causes of crime listed in table 8.9, there is a general decrease in the proportion of persons who believe that these are important as persons get older. That is, younger persons are more likely to report that these are important as causes of crime than older persons. These include unemployment, poverty, a poor educational system, gangs and gang culture, and the influence of music, movies and television. As an example, when we consider poverty, fully 61.5% of 16-20 year olds report that this is an important cause of crime compared to 52.7% of persons older than 60 years of age. As another example,

79.9% of 16-20 year olds are of the opinion that unemployment is an important cause of crime in Jamaica, compared to 69% of persons who are older than 60 years of age. It may be the case with poverty and unemployment that younger persons experience these to a greater extent than older persons, and are thus more aware of their effects. In contrast, older persons are more likely to report that deportation and lack of religion are more important as causes of crime than younger persons. For example, 8.3% of persons older than 60 years of age report that lack of religion is an important cause of crime, compared to only 3.2% of persons in the 16-20 age range. Similarly, 8.9% of persons older than 60 years of age report that deportation is an important cause of crime, compared to 5.8% of persons who are younger than 20 years of age.

Table 8.9: Percent of Respondents that believe that Certain Factors are a Major Cause of Crime and Violence in Jamaica, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CAUSE OF CRIME	16-20 YRS	21-30 YRS	31-40 YRS	41-50 YRS	51-60 YRS	61+ YRS
Poverty	61.5	61.1	62.5	55.6	59.1	52.7
Unemployment	79.9	72.8	74.8	77.9	73.5	69.0
Gangs – gang culture	26.3	20.4	18.8	18.3	16.2	17.5
Youth culture	5.4	4.1	4.8	4.0	2.5	4.0
Poor educational system	34.5	33.6	34.1	31.7	29.8	24.0
Poor parenting	19.4	19.5	18.8	19.8	20.7	21.2
Lack of religion	3.2	4.1	3.5	4.9	5.8	8.3
Deportation	5.8	8.9	10.1	10.6	11.1	8.9
Influence of foreign cultures	3.6	3.6	5.1	5.8	4.2	4.3
Greed – desire for easy money	19.1	16.9	15.4	19.5	18.2	16.6
Politics – political corruption	13.7	19.4	20.1	18.8	18.4	17.7
Music/television/movies	14.7	10.4	8.6	9.2	10.7	8.3
Family breakdown	12.6	12.4	12.3	15.1	13.6	14.2
Absent fathers	15.8	11.8	11.6	14.0	13.6	10.7
Hopelessness or alienation	7.6	4.8	5.1	6.1	5.3	6.5
Government does not care	6.1	5.9	6.2	4.9	4.9	5.0
Drugs – drug addiction	22.7	17.7	18.6	20.9	21.8	19.6
Poor morals or values	18.0	17.7	19.9	19.8	18.2	18.2
Other	11.9	18.9	19.3	18.6	18.2	24.6

The data reveal a significant relationship between educational attainment and beliefs about crime causation (see Table 8.10). Those with higher levels of education tend to identify more reasons for crime in Jamaica than those with little formal schooling. For example, on average, respondents with a university degree or some university level education identified 5.2 major causes of crime in Jamaica. By contrast, those with primary school or less identified only 3.2 reasons on average.

Table 8.10: Percent of Respondents that believe that Certain Factors are a Major Cause of Crime and Violence in Jamaica, by Level of Education (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CAUSE OF CRIME	Primary school or less	Some high school or high school diploma	Some college or college degree	Some university or university degree
Poverty	58.8	58.4	61.5	56.7
Unemployment	70.8	75.2	76.6	70.9
Gangs – gang culture	15.0	18.9	23.4	28.7
Youth culture	2.0	4.0	7.8	7.5
Poor educational system	23.7	30.6	40.7	46.1
Poor parenting	14.6	18.9	31.2	38.6
Lack of religion	4.8	4.7	6.1	5.5
Deportation	8.1	9.2	11.3	16.9
Influence of foreign cultures	2.5	4.0	9.1	11.8
Greed – desire for easy money	15.1	17.3	21.6	21.7
Politics – political corruption	17.1	16.7	24.7	30.7
Music/television/movies	6.7	9.3	15.6	19.3
Family breakdown	9.8	12.2	18.2	32.3
Absent fathers	8.1	12.8	14.7	22.8
Hopelessness or alienation	4.1	4.9	10.0	12.6
Government does not care	5.2	5.6	4.3	5.9
Drugs – drug addiction	18.2	18.9	23.8	28.7
Poor morals or values	12.8	18.4	25.1	35.4
Other	17.2	18.2	22.5	27.6

The data in table 8.10 indicate that respondents from all educational backgrounds are equally likely to identify unemployment, poverty and a lack of religion as causes of

crime in Jamaica. However, those with higher levels of education are more likely to identify a number of causes as being relatively more important as causes of crime than persons with lower levels of education. These causes include gangs and gang culture, a poor educational system, poor parenting, poor moral values, drugs and drug addiction, politics and political corruption, and family breakdown. For example, 28.7% of persons with university level education indicate that gangs and gang culture are important causes of crime in Jamaica, compared to 15% of persons with only primary level education. Similarly, 46.1% of persons with university level education indicate that a poor education system is to blame for crime in Jamaica, compared to 23.7% of persons with only a primary school education.

Finally, we also examined the relationship between self-reported social class and beliefs about the causes of crime in Jamaica (see table 8.11). The results suggest that middle-class respondents identify more reasons for crime in Jamaica (mean=4.1 reasons) than those who describe themselves as poor (mean=3.4 reasons) or upper class (mean=3.1 reasons). The results further suggest that fewer persons from the upper class believe that unemployment is an important cause of crime in Jamaica compared to person in the lower classes. More specifically, 63.7% of persons in the upper class believe that unemployment is important, compared to approximately 74% in the middle and poor classes. Quite paradoxically, the opposite pattern is observed for poverty. More persons in the upper class (70.6%) believe that poverty is an important cause of crime in Jamaica, compared to persons in the middle (55.7%) and poor class (59.5%). For all other potential causes of crime in table 8.11, persons in the upper class are more likely than persons in the lower classes to indicate that these are important in Jamaica. For example, 24.5% of respondents in the upper class believe that gangs and gang culture are important causes of crime in Jamaica compared to 22.4% of persons in the middle class and 16.5% of persons in the poor class. The most pronounced class differences in opinion about the importance of various causes occur with beliefs about the importance of a poor educational system, poor parenting, the impact of deportation, family breakdown, absent fathers, hopelessness and alienation, the belief that the government does not care, drugs and drug addiction, and poor moral values. For all of these possible causes of crime in Jamaica, the proportion of persons in the upper class who believe that they are important exceeds the proportion of persons in the poor class who have similar beliefs by at least ten percent.

Table 8.11: Percent of Respondents that believe that Certain Factors are a Major Cause of Crime and Violence in Jamaica, by Subjective Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS results)

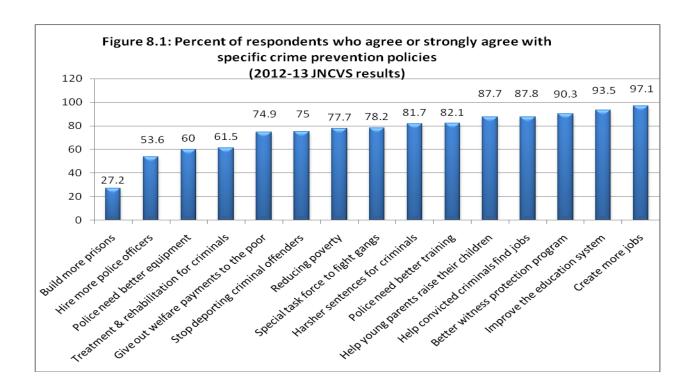
CAUSE OF CRIME	POOR	MIDDLE CLASS	UPPER CLASS
Poverty	59.5	55.7	70.6
Unemployment	74.5	74.3	63.7
Gangs – gang culture	16.5	22.4	24.5
Youth culture	3.0	5.3	10.8
Poor educational system	27.5	35.6	42.2
Poor parenting	16.9	23.8	29.4
Lack of religion	3.5	7.0	11.8
Deportation	7.3	12.3	19.6
Influence of foreign cultures	2.9	6.7	9.8
Greed – desire for easy money	15.5	19.6	24.5
Politics – political corruption	17.2	19.9	25.5
Music/television/movies	8.5	11.7	12.7
Family breakdown	10.8	16.6	27.5
Absent fathers	11.6	13.2	24.5
Hopelessness or alienation	3.9	7.9	14.7
Government does not care	5.2	5.2	16.7
Drugs – drug addiction	17.9	22.4	29.4
Poor morals or values	15.6	22.7	33.3
Other causes	17.6	21.2	29.4

Public Support for Government Crime Prevention Policies

The 2012-13 JNCVS asked all respondents whether they agree or disagree with fifteen different policy statements dealing with the issue of crime prevention. Some of these statements deal with crime prevention through law enforcement and the criminal justice process, while other statements deal with crime prevention through economic and social development (see table 8.12 and figure 8.1).

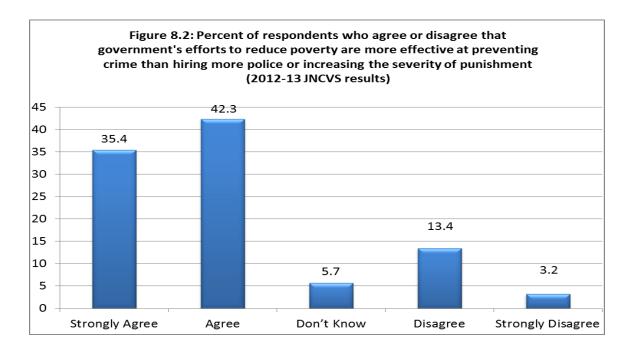
Table 8.12: Percent of Respondents Who Agree or Disagree With Various Government Crime Prevention Policies (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION POLICY	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Need to hire more police officers.	19.9	33.7	35.8	9.6	1.0
Police need better equipment	23.0	37.0	30.8	8.3	0.9
Jamaica needs to build more prisons	9.2	18.0	50.5	20.3	2.0
Judges need to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals	45.0	36.7	13.0	3.0	2.3
Government needs to create more jobs	77.5	19.6	2.1	0.6	0.2
Need to improve the education system	68.7	24.8	4.7	1.3	0.5
Government should give out welfare payments to the poor	36.6	38.3	19.1	4.9	1.1
Reducing poverty will be more effective than hiring more police officers	35.4	42.3	13.4	3.2	5.7
Police officers need better Training	44.9	37.2	13.6	2.8	1.5
Other countries need to stop deporting criminal offenders to Jamaica	36.4	38.6	17.9	4.3	2.8
Jamaica needs to develop a special task force to fight gangs and organized crimes	36.9	41.3	15.2	4.2	2.4
Jamaica needs to spend more money on treatment and rehabilitation programs for convicted criminals	25.4	36.1	27.7	7.5	3.3
Jamaica needs to help convicted criminals find jobs when they are released from prisons	43.4	44.4	8.3	1.8	2.1
Need to create programs to help young parents raise their children Properly	45.1	42.6	9.3	2.1	0.9
Jamaica needs to create a better witness protection program	50.1	40.2	4.7	1.8	3.2



The data suggest that Jamaicans are somewhat more supportive of efforts to curb crime through social development programs than efforts to deter crime through law enforcement and punishment (see table 8.12 and Figure 8.1). For example, fully 97.1% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that creating more jobs was an important measure in the fight against crime. In addition, 93.5% felt that improving the education system would aid in crime reduction, while 87.8% felt that it was important to help convicted criminals find jobs upon release from prison. Similarly, 87.7% agreed or strongly agreed that creating programs to help parents raise their young children properly would translate to a reduction in crime. It is also instructive to note here that 35.4% of respondents strongly agreed and 42.3% agreed that the government's efforts to reduce poverty will be more effective at reducing crime than hiring more police officers or increasing the severity of punishment (see figure 8.2). In contrast, only 27.2% of respondents felt that the solution was to build more prisons, while 53.6% felt that there was the need to hire more police officers. In addition, 60% felt that the police needed better equipment, such as better weapons or cars, to reduce crime. Despite this, there were a number of law enforcement options that many respondents felt were important. More specifically, 90.3% of respondents felt that there was need for a better witness

protection program, 82.1% felt that the police needed better training, and 81.7% felt that judges should hand down harsher sentences to convicted offenders. Overall, these data indicate that while there appears to be a leaning toward social interventions, many Jamaicans prefer a mix of both social and law enforcement alternatives.



When law enforcement policy options are considered separately, the most important ones are creating a better witness protection program (with 90.3% of respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing that this was important in the fight against crime), the use of better training for police (82.1%), and harsher sentences for criminals (81.7%). The law enforcement options which were seen as least important were building more prisons (with only 27.2% of persons believing that this would be effective) and hiring more police officers (53.6%). When only social policy alternatives are considered, the most important ones were creating more jobs (97.1% of respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing that this was important), improving the educational system (93.5%) and helping convicted criminals find jobs upon release from prison. Consistent with the observation that Jamaicans were in support of social interventions, even the least popular options from among such interventions still received considerable support. For example,

the least popular social policy alternative was giving social welfare payments to the poor. This was supported by 74.9% of respondents.

According to the survey results, there are very few gender differences with respect to the effectiveness of different crime prevention strategies (see Table 8.13). For example, almost all of the men (96.8%) and women (97.3%) surveyed agreed that the government needs to create more jobs in order to reduce crime. Gender differences with respect to opinions about other types of crime prevention initiates are similarly small. In fact, the difference in proportion of males versus females who support various policy options does not exceed 2% for all except two of the policy options listed below. The first of these relates to the need for judges to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals. Seventy nine percent of males, compared to 83.9% of females support this. The second area is with respect to providing better equipment for police. This policy alternative is supported by 58.5% of males and 61.3% of females.

Table 8.13: Percent of Respondents Who Agree or Strongly Agree With Various Statements about Crime Prevention, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION POLICY	MALE	FEMALE
Need to hire more police officers	53.5	53.7
Police need better equipment	58.5	61.3
Jamaica needs to build more prisons	27.2	27.2
Judges need to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals	79.0	83.9
Government needs to create more jobs	96.8	97.3
Need to improve the education system	93.2	93.8
Government should give out welfare payments to the poor	74.2	75.5
Poverty reduction more effective than hiring more police officers	78.3	77.3
Police officers need better training	81.5	82.6
Stop deporting criminal offenders to Jamaica	75.2	74.7
Develop a special task force to fight gangs and organized crimes	77.4	78.8
Treatment and rehabilitation programs for convicted criminals	62.5	60.8
Help convicted criminals find jobs	87.8	87.8
Need for programs to help young parents raise their children	87.4	88.0
Jamaica needs to create a better witness protection program	90.3	90.3

The data also suggest that, in most cases, age does not impact opinions about various crime prevention strategies (see Table 8.14). For example, the proportion of persons who support the creation of jobs as a policy alternative is similarly high regardless of age group. The same applies to the need for improvements in the educational system. In both cases, the proportion of persons from the various age ranges in support of these options exceeds ninety percent. Despite the above, there are a few areas for which we see a gradual increase in support as persons get older. For example, 78.8% of 16-20 year olds believe that judges need to give out harsher sentences, and this figure increases gradually until the eldest age group where 84.9% of persons older than 60 years of age support this policy option.

There is also a general consensus among people from different educational backgrounds about the effectiveness of various crime prevention strategies (see table 8.15). For example, over 90% of the respondents from each educational category agree that the government can reduce crime by increasing jobs and improving the educational system. However, the data suggest that respondents with lower levels of educational attainment are somewhat more supportive of building more prisons, hiring more police officers, giving out welfare grants to the poor, and stopping the deportation and return of criminal offenders to Jamaica. By contrast, those with higher levels of education are more supportive of utilizing better training for police, the use of treatment and rehabilitation for convicted criminals, and the use of better equipment by the police.

Finally, the results of the survey suggest that persons in the lower classes are somewhat more supportive of certain approaches to crime prevention than their counterparts in upper classes (see table 8.16). These include the need to build more prisons, giving out welfare payments to the poor, and providing programs for young parents to assist with raising their children. For example, 78.6% of poor persons believe that the provision of welfare payments to poor persons will alleviate the crime situation in Jamaica, compared to 70.8% of persons in the middle class and 54.9% of persons in the upper class. In contrast to the above, there are a number of interventions which are more likely to be supported by persons in the upper class compared to the lower classes. These

include the need to hire more police officers, the provision of better equipment and training for the police, and the need to create a better witness protection program. For example, 80.9% of persons in the poor class believe that police officers need better training, compared to 83.2% of persons in the middle class and 89.2% of persons in the upper class. The other interventions listed in table 8.16 were equally likely to be supported by all persons regardless of class.

Table 8.14: Percent of Respondents Who Agree or Strongly Agree With Various Government Crime Prevention Policies, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION POLICY	16-20 YRS	21-30 YRS	31-40 YRS	41-50 YRS	51-60 YRS	61+ YRS
Need to hire more police officers	60.8	48.1	52.4	52.8	56.5	55.8
Police need better equipment	57.2	53.9	59.4	62.3	64.0	62.2
Jamaica needs to build more prisons	28.4	24.4	25.1	27.1	31.6	28.2
Judges need to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals	78.8	80.8	79.8	81.2	83.3	84.9
Government needs to create more jobs	99.3	97.6	97.4	96.3	97.8	95.5
Need to improve the education system	96.8	93.6	94.0	93.7	94.2	90.8
Government should give out welfare payments to the poor	81.3	77.5	74.0	70.3	72.9	76.9
Poverty reduction more effective than hiring more police officers	79.5	78.5	78.7	78.2	79.3	73.6
Police officers need better training	88.5	80.0	81.4	82.4	82.0	81.9
Stop deporting criminal offenders to Jamaica	78.4	75.6	75.9	74.1	73.8	73.4
Develop a special task force to fight gangs and organized crimes	80.9	78.4	78.4	76.8	79.6	76.7
Treatment and rehabilitation programs for convicted criminals	60.8	61.6	61.9	63.6	61.3	59.6
Help convicted criminals find jobs	89.9	89.4	87.4	86.9	89.8	85.2
Need for programs to help young parents raise their children	91.7	90.6	88.1	87.9	84.9	85.0
Jamaica needs to create a better witness protection program	92.1	90.0	91.4	90.9	89.6	88.6

Table 8.15: Percent of Respondents Who Agree or Strongly Agree With Various Government Crime Prevention Policies, by Level of Education (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION POLICY	Primary school or less	Some high school or high school diploma	Some college or college degree	Some university or university degree
Need to hire more police officers	57.9	53.1	50.6	49.2
Police need better equipment	64.1	57.9	59.3	67.3
Jamaica needs to build more prisons	34.8	26.1	21.6	19.3
Judges need to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals	82.8	81.7	80.1	77.6
Government needs to create more jobs	97.0	97.5	96.5	95.3
Need to improve the education system	92.0	94.7	90.9	92.1
Government should give out welfare payments to the poor	80.9	77.0	61.5	50.0
Poverty reduction will be more effective than hiring more police officers	74.8	78.5	76.6	79.5
Police officers need better training	82.0	81.1	85.7	88.2
Stop deporting criminal offenders to Jamaica	74.0	76.2	72.3	66.5
Develop a special task force to fight gangs and organized crimes	77.1	79.0	75.3	74.4
Treatment and rehabilitation programs for convicted criminals	56.7	62.4	61.9	76.0
Help convicted criminals find jobs	87.2	89.0	83.1	86.2
Need for programs to help young parents raise their children	86.3	89.2	86.6	83.1
Jamaica needs to create a better witness protection program	87.2	91.4	90.5	94.1

Table 8.16: Percent of Respondents Who Agree or Strongly Agree With Various Government Crime Prevention Policies, by Subjective Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME PREVENTION POLICY	POOR	MIDDLE CLASS	UPPER CLASS
Need to hire more police officers	54.4	52.1	57.8
Police need better equipment	59.5	60.6	62.7
Jamaica needs to build more prisons	28.4	25.9	24.5
Judges need to give out harsher sentences to convicted criminals	81.3	82.2	80.4
Government needs to create more jobs	97.5	96.3	97.1
Need to improve the education system	94.3	92.6	93.1
Government should give out welfare payments to the poor	78.6	70.8	54.9
Poverty reduction will be more effective than hiring more police officers	76.5	80.0	72.5
Police officers need better training	80.9	83.2	89.2
Stop deporting criminal offenders to Jamaica	74.9	75.1	72.5
Develop a special task force to fight gangs and organized crimes	76.8	80.4	72.5
Treatment and rehabilitation programs for convicted criminals	59.2	65.1	57.8
Help convicted criminals find jobs	87.2	89.1	82.4
Need for programs to help young parents raise their children	87.8	88.1	81.4
Jamaica needs to create a better witness protection program	88.4	93.0	93.1

PART NINE: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THE POLICE, CRIMINAL COURTS AND CORRECTIONS

Highlights

- The results suggest that most Jamaicans feel that the police are doing a either a "good job" or "an average job" performing their various duties. For example, three out of every four JNCVS respondents believes that the police are doing either a good job or an average job patrolling their neighbourhood (79.3%), ensuring community safety (78.5%), enforcing the law (76.3%) and being approachable or easy to talk to (76.8%).
- Relatively few respondents believe that the police are doing a "poor job." Respondents are most likely to report that the police are doing a "poor job" when it comes to preventing police corruption (39.1%), providing information on how to reduce crime (34.5%), preventing police brutality (32.4%) and responding quickly when called (32.2%).
- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that public opinion with respect to the performance of the Jamaican police improved quite dramatically between 2006 and 2012-13. Indeed, regardless of the law enforcement task identified by the survey, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "good job" increased over this three year period. By contrast, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "poor job" performing specific duties declined.
- For example, in 2009, only 26.6% of respondents felt that the police were doing a good job enforcing the law. This figure rises to 33.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, only 31.8% of the respondents felt that the police were doing a good job patrolling the streets, compared to 42.6% in 2012-13.
- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that many Jamaicans believe that the police treat some people better than others. For example, three out of every four respondents (75.5%) believe that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, two-thirds (68.7%) believe that the police treat younger people worse than older people and two-thirds (64.9%) believe that the police treat men worse than women.
- For the first time, the 2012-13 survey asked respondents about the perceived police treatment of Jamaica's homosexual population. Interestingly, relatively few respondents (22.1%) believe that homosexuals are treated worse by the police than heterosexuals. In fact, an almost equal proportion of the respondents (19.5%) believe that homosexuals are actually treated better by the police than

heterosexuals. It should be noted, however, that a high proportion of respondents (29%) claim that they "don't know" how the police treat members of Jamaica's LGBT community.

- The data suggest that perceptions of police bias increased from 2006 to 2009, but dropped slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 22.3% of JNCVS respondents felt that poor people were treated "much worse" than wealthy people. This figure rises to 30.7% in 2009 -- before dropping back to 28.0% in 2012-13. In all cases, the 2012-13 rate of perceived police bias is higher than the 2006 rate, but slightly lower than the rate documented by the 2009 survey.
- The results suggest that very few respondents think that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job. For example, only 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job helping crime victims, 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly and only 17.0% think the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials.
- While very few respondents feel that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job, a significant proportion rate the court's performance as average. However, an equally high proportion of respondents feel that the criminal courts are doing a poor job. In general, it appears that respondents are significantly less enthusiastic about the performance of the criminal courts than the performance of the police.
- In general, public perceptions of court effectiveness increased slightly between 2006 and 2009 but decreased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 45.2% of JNCVS respondents felt that the courts were doing a poor job providing justice quickly. This figure dropped to 39.8% in 2009 but rose back up to 43.1% in 2012-13. Overall, 2012-13 evaluations of court performance are better than they were in 2006 but worse than they were in 2009.
- However, it is important to note that public support for the death penalty in Jamaica appears to have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. In 2006, for example, 80% of respondents supported the death penalty. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 68% -- a decline of twelve percentage points over this six year period.
- The perception that the sentences handed out by the Jamaican criminal courts are too lenient also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 56% of the JNCVS survey respondents felt that criminal sentences in Jamaica were too lenient. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 45%.
- The data suggest that relatively few Jamaicans feel that the corrections system is doing "a good job" performing various duties. For example, only 13.5% feel that the corrections system is doing a good job punishing or deterring criminals and only 12.8% feel the system is doing a good job rehabilitating offenders.

Nonetheless, as with policing and the criminal courts, the data also reveal that the reputation of the Jamaican corrections system has improved somewhat since 2006. Indeed, compared to 2006 JNCVS respondents, 2012-13 respondents are much less likely to report that the correctional system is doing a poor job. For example, in 2006, 49.0% of respondents felt that the corrections system was doing a poor job deterring criminals. By 2012-13 this figure had dropped to only 36.4%.

Introduction

How people perceive the criminal justice system is an important issue. For example, previous research suggests that people who have a low opinion of the justice system are less likely to cooperate with police investigations or provide testimony in court. Other research suggests that people who have a low opinion about the criminal justice system – or view the justice system as biased or unfair – are more likely to become involved in criminal behaviour (see review in Wortley and Tanner 2008). In order to address this important issue and determine how Jamaican view the police, criminal courts and corrections, the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) asked a series of questions about the Jamaican criminal justice system. The survey first explored attitudes towards the Jamaican police service, followed by questions about the criminal courts and correctional system.

Public Perceptions of the Jamaican Police

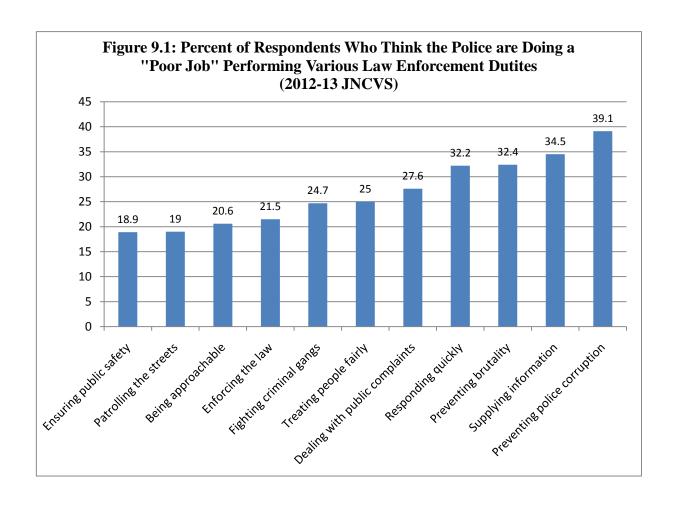
All respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS were asked eleven questions about the performance of the Jamaican police. Respondents were asked whether, in their opinion, the police were doing a good job, an average job or a poor job: 1) Enforcing the law; 2) Responding quickly when called; 3) Being approachable and easy to talk to; 4) Supplying information on how to reduce crime; 5) Ensuring the safety of community residents; 6) Treating people fairly and with respect; 7) Patrolling neighbourhoods; 8) Fighting criminal gangs; 9) Preventing police brutality; 10) Preventing police corruption; and 11) Dealing with public complaints.

The results suggest that most Jamaicans feel that the police are doing a either a "good job" or "an average job" performing their various duties (see Table 9.1 and Figure 9.1). For example, eight out of ten JNCVS respondents (79.3%) feel that the police are doing either a good job (42.6%) or an average job (36.7%) patrolling their neighbourhood. Similarly, three out of four respondents believe that the police are doing a good or average job ensuring community safety (78.5%), enforcing the law (76.3%) and being approachable or easy to talk to (76.8%). The percentages are somewhat lower with respect to the other seven police activities covered by the 2012-13 survey. For example, only half of the respondents (54.2%) believe that the Jamaican police are doing either a good job (17.4%) or average job (36.8%) preventing police corruption.

It is also important to note that while a high proportion JNCVS respondents rate the performance of the Jamaican police as only "average," relatively few believe that the police are doing a "poor job" (see Table 9.1 and Figure 9.1). Respondents are most likely to report that the police are doing a "poor job" when it comes to preventing police corruption (39.1%), providing information on how to reduce crime (34.5%), preventing police brutality (32.4%) and responding quickly when called (32.2%). By contrast, respondents are least likely to report that the police are doing a poor job ensuring public safety (18.9%) and patrolling the streets (19.0%).

Table 9.1: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Law Enforcement Duty	A Good	Average	A Poor	Don't
	Job	Job	Job	Know
Enforcing the law.	33.7	42.6	21.5	2.2
Responding quickly when they are called.	25.4	38.1	32.2	4.2
Being approachable and easy to talk to?	30.2	46.6	20.6	2.6
Supplying information on ways to reduce crime.	21.9	37.2	34.5	6.5
Ensuring the safety of people your community.	35.5	43.0	18.9	2.7
Treating people fairly and with respect.	26.0	47.1	25.0	2.0
Patrolling your neighbourhood.	42.6	36.7	19.0	1.7
Managing or fighting criminal gangs.	26.9	40.0	24.7	8.2
Preventing police brutality.	20.9	41.0	32.4	5.8
Preventing corruption among police officers.	17.4	36.8	39.1	6.8
Dealing with public complaints.	21.0	46.6	27.6	4.8



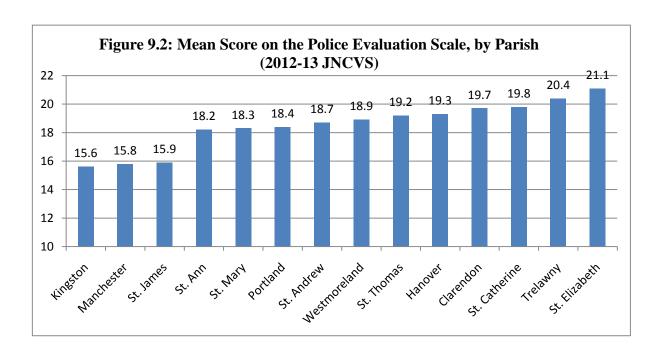
A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that public opinion with respect to the performance of the Jamaican police improved quite dramatically between 2009 and 2012-13 (see Table 9.2). Indeed, regardless of the law enforcement task identified by the survey, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "good job" increased over this three year period. By contrast, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "poor job" performing specific duties declined. For example, in 2009, only 26.6% of respondents felt that the police were doing a good job enforcing the law. This figure rises to 33.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, only 31.8% of the respondents felt that the police were doing a good job patrolling the streets, compared to 42.6% in 2012-13. As another illustration of this positive trend, in 2009, over half of the respondents (56.6%) felt that the police were doing a poor job preventing police corruption. This figure drops to only 39.1% in 2012-13. Likewise, in 2006, 50.1% of respondents felt that the police were doing a poor job preventing police brutality. This figure drops to only 32.4% in 2012-13. In sum, the data strongly indicate that public perceptions of police effectiveness have increased since the first JNCVS was conducted in 2006. It is impossible to entirely explain this positive trend. However, it is possible that recent improvements in police training and policing standards are having a positive impact on the quality of policing in Jamaica.

Table 9.2: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

	YEAR	A	Average	A Poor	Don't
		Good	Job	Job	Know
	2006	Job 29.3	37.0	30.6	3.2
Enforcing the law.	2009	26.6	41.8	28.3	3.2
Linoreing the law.	2012-13	33.7	42.6	21.5	2.2
	2012-13	19.9	29.9	45.1	5.0
Responding quickly when called.	2009	18.2	36.6	38.3	6.9
Responding quickly when cancu.	2009	25.4	38.1	32.2	4.2
					3.3
Being approachable and easy to talk to.	2006	26.3	42.7	27.7 25.9	
Deing approachable and easy to talk to.	2009	25.1	44.4		4.5
	2012-13	30.2	46.6	20.6	2.6
Supplying crime prevention information.	2006	17.4	30.5	44.1	8.1
Supplying crime prevention information.	2009	13.2	34.1	42.4	10.3
	2012-13	21.9	37.2	34.5	6.5
Engueina public sofety	2006	29.0	35.8	30.4	4.8
Ensuring public safety.	2009	26.1	42.8	27.4	3.8
	2012-13	35.5	43.0	18.9	2.7
T4:	2006	18.3	41.5	36.4	3.8
Treating people fairly and with respect.	2009	17.6	45.2	33.6	3.5
	2012-13	26.0	47.1	25.0	2.0
D	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
Patrolling the streets.	2009	31.8	36.2	29.4	2.6
	2012-13	42.6	36.7	19.0	1.7
	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
Managing or fighting criminal gangs.	2009	19.4	35.1	34.8	10.6
	2012-13	26.9	40.0	24.7	8.2
	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
Preventing police brutality.	2009	10.1	31.7	50.1	8.0
	2012-13	20.9	41.0	32.4	5.8
	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
Preventing police corruption.	2009	7.9	27.0	56.6	8.5
	2012-13	17.4	36.8	39.1	6.8
	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
Dealing with public complaints.	2009	12.2	44.6	36.6	6.6
	2012-13	21.0	46.6	27.6	4.8

NA = Question was not asked in the 2006 JNCVS

In order to better summarize responses to the eleven questions about police performance we created a Police Evaluation Scale (see Figure 9.2). The eleven original questions were first recoded (0=a poor job; 1=don't know; 2=an average job; 3=a good job) and then summed to create a scale ranging from 0 to 33. The higher the score on this measure the higher the respondent's overall evaluation of police performance (alpha=.898). According to the 2012-13 JNCVS data, the average score on the Police Evaluation Scale is 18.63. This is up significantly from only 15.32 in 2009 (a 22 percent improvement over this brief three year period). Further analysis reveals that public perceptions of police effectiveness vary dramatically from Parish to Parish. The residents of St. Elizabeth (mean=21.1) and Trelawny (mean=20.4) score highest on the Police Evaluation Scale, followed by the residents of St. Catherine (mean=19.8), Clarendon (mean=19.7), Hanover (mean=19.3) and St. Thomas (mean=19.2). By contrast, respondents from Kingston (15.6), Manchester (mean=15.8) and St. James (mean=15.9) produced the lowest average score on the Police Evaluation Scale. All other Parishes produced mean scores on the Police Evaluation Scale that were either slightly above (Westmoreland and St. Andrew) or slightly below the national average (Portland, St. Mary and St. Ann).



Additional analysis reveals very few gender differences with respect the evaluation of police performance in Jamaica (see Table 9.3). Although males (mean=18.94) score slightly higher on the Police Evaluation Scale than their female counterparts (mean=18.36), this difference does not reach statistical significance. Nonetheless, it appears that males are slightly more likely than females to think the police are doing a "good job" at various law enforcement duties. For example, 35.1% of male respondents feel that the police are doing a good job enforcing the law, compared to 32.5% of females. Similarly, 28.6% of males respondents feel that the police are doing a good job fighting gangs, compared to 25.5% of female respondents. In no case did female respondents report a higher level of police satisfaction than men.

While the relationship between gender and perceptions of police effectiveness is weak, the data suggest that there is a strong, positive relationship between age and opinions about police performance (Table 9.4). In general, older respondents hold much more positive views about the police than younger respondents. For example, those in the oldest age category (61 years of age or older) score significantly higher on the Police Evaluation Scale (mean=21.23) than either 16-20 year-olds (mean=15.73) or those who are 21-30 years of age (mean=16.35). As further illustration, the data suggest that 43.3% of those 61 years of age or older feel that the police are doing a good job enforcing the law, compared to only 21.9% of those 16-20 years of age and 28.3.1% of those between 21 and 30 years-old. Similarly, almost half of respondents 61 years of age or older (43.5%) feel that the police are doing a good job ensuring public safety. This figure drops to only 24.5% among 16-20 year-olds. This basic relationship exists for all other law enforcement activities.

Table 9.3: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS)

Do you think the local police are doing a Good job	Male	Female
Enforcing the law?	35.1	32.5
Responding quickly when they are called?	27.4	23.8
Being approachable and easy to talk to?	31.3	29.2
Supplying information to the public on ways to reduce crime?	23.9	20.2
Ensuring the safety of the people who live in your community?	36.6	34.5
Treating people fairly and with respect?	27.3	24.9
Patrolling your neighbourhood?	43.7	41.7
Managing or fighting criminal gangs?	28.6	25.5
Preventing police brutality?	21.5	20.4
Preventing corruption and crime among police officers?	17.4	17.3
Dealing with public complaints?	22.2	19.9
MEAN SCORE ON THE POLICE EVALUATION SCALE	18.94	18.36

Table 9.4: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties, by Age (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the local police are doing	16-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61+
a Good job	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS
Enforcing the law?	21.9	28.3	29.2	33.1	40.9	43.3
Responding quickly when they are called?	16.5	19.8	20.8	26.1	31.3	34.3
Being approachable and easy to talk to?	19.1	23.8	25.6	30.3	36.0	41.1
Supplying information crime prevention?	13.3	17.2	19.1	24.4	24.9	28.2
Ensuring public safety?	24.5	29.2	31.7	37.3	41.5	43.5
Treating people fairly and with respect?	16.2	21.0	21.1	28.6	31.5	33.1
Patrolling your neighbourhood?	35.3	38.1	39.2	46.5	45.3	47.8
Managing or fighting criminal gangs?	20.9	24.1	22.9	29.2	31.3	30.6
Preventing police brutality?	19.1	17.5	18.4	22.4	22.4	24.9
Preventing corruption?	13.7	15.3	15.1	17.7	21.1	19.9
Dealing with public complaints?	17.3	18.2	19.9	19.1	24.4	25.4
MEAN SCORE ON THE POLICE						
EVALUATION SCALE	15.73	16.35	17.55	19.05	20.53	21.23

Analysis of the 2012-13 JNCVS results suggests that there is also a negative relationship between educational attainment and evaluations of police performance (see Table 9.5). In general, those with higher levels of education are more critical of the police than those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, respondents in the lowest educational category (primary school or less) scored significantly higher on the Police Evaluation Scale (mean=20.69) than those with a university or college degree (mean=15.83). As further illustration, 43.3% of respondents with primary school or less feel that the police are doing a good job enforcing the law, compared to only 21.3% of those with a university education. Similarly, 42.7% of respondents with primary school or less feel that the police are doing a good job ensuring public safety, compared to only 26.8% of those who have attended university. Once again, this general pattern exists for all other questions about police performance.

Table 9.5: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties, by Level of Education (2012-13 JNCVS)

Do you think the local police are doing a Good job	Primary School or	High School	College	University
u 000u joo	Less	5411001	0011080	C 111 (C1 210 j
Enforcing the law?	43.3	33.0	24.6	21.3
Responding quickly when they are called?	31.8	26.1	17.3	13.0
Being approachable and easy to talk to?	35.9	28.5	27.0	28.3
Supplying information on crime prevention?	26.9	21.9	16.2	15.0
Ensuring public safety?	42.7	34.3	30.9	26.8
Treating people fairly and with respect?	31.8	25.6	21.4	16.5
Patrolling your neighbourhood?	47.1	43.3	38.2	29.5
Managing or fighting criminal gangs?	29.4	27.7	24.0	17.3
Preventing police brutality?	23.9	21.6	16.4	13.0
Preventing corruption?	21.2	18.1	12.3	7.1
Dealing with public complaints?	26.3	21.5	14.7	21.0
MEAN SCORE ON THE POLICE				
EVALUATION SCALE	20.69	18.39	17.12	15.83

With respect to social class position, the results suggest that "upper-class" respondents have the most negative views about police performance; while "lower-class" respondents have the most positive (see Table 9.6). For example, respondents who classify themselves as "poor" produced the highest score on the Police Evaluation Scale

(mean=18.84), followed by "middle-class" respondents (mean=18.40) and those who consider themselves to be "upper-class" (mean=17.57). As a further illustration of this general pattern, 36.5% of poor respondents feel that the police are doing a good job enforcing the law, compared to 30.8% of middle-class and only 19.6% of upper-class respondents. Similarly, 19.0% of poor respondents believe the police are doing a good job preventing corruption, compared to 15.85 of middle-class respondents and only 5.9% of upper-class respondents.

Table 9.6: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties, by Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS)

Do you think the local police are doing	Poor	Middle-	Upper-
a Good job		Class	Class
Enforcing the law?	36.5	30.8	19.6
Responding quickly when they are called?	27.6	23.1	15.7
Being approachable and easy to talk to?	31.0	29.3	27.5
Supplying information on crime prevention?	22.9	21.1	14.7
Ensuring public safety?	36.7	34.2	29.4
Treating people fairly and with respect?	27.3	24.5	19.6
Patrolling your neighbourhood?	45.5	39.4	32.4
Managing or fighting criminal gangs?	28.4	25.4	18.8
Preventing police brutality?	22.0	20.0	9.8
Preventing corruption?	19.0	15.8	5.9
Dealing with public complaints?	22.6	19.1	13.7
MEAN SCORE ON THE POLICE			
EVALUATION SCALE	18.84	18.40	17.57

Perceptions of Police Bias

The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that many Jamaicans believe that the police treat some people better than others (see Figure 9.3 and Table 9.7)). For example, three out of every four respondents to the 2012-13 survey (75.5%) believe that the police treat poor people worse or much worse than wealthy people, two-thirds (68.7%) believe that the police treat younger people worse or much worse than older people and two-thirds (64.9%) believe that the police treat men worse or much worse than women.

For the first time in the history of the JNCVS, the 2012-13 version of the survey asked respondents about the perceived police treatment of Jamaica's homosexual population. Interestingly, relatively few respondents (22.1%) believe that homosexuals are treated worse by the police than heterosexuals. In fact, an equal proportion of the respondents (19.5%) believe that homosexuals are actually treated better than heterosexuals (see Table 9.7). Furthermore, a third of respondents (28.9%) claimed that they "don't know" how the police treat homosexuals. This "don't know" figure is much higher for the question about homosexual treatment than for any of the other group comparisons covered by the survey. For example, only 3.2% of respondents stated that they "don't know" how men are treated by the police compared to women. This finding may reflect the fact that many Jamaicans do not know members of the Gay or Lesbian community and thus can't comment on their relative treatment by the police.¹⁹

Further analysis reveals that public perceptions of police bias in Jamaica remained about the same between 2006 and 2012-13. Overall, the proportion of the Jamaican population that perceives police discrimination based on social class, age and gender varied by only a few percentage points from one year to the next (see Table 9.7). If anything, the data suggest that perceptions of bias increased from 2006 to 2009, but dropped slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 22.3% of JNCVS respondents felt that poor people were treated "much worse" than wealthy people. This figure rises to 30.7% in 2009 -- before dropping back to 28.0% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, only 17.5% of respondents felt that men were treated much worse than women. This figure rises to 25.7% in 2009 -- before dropping back to 20.6% in 2012-13. Importantly, in all cases, the 2012-13 rate of perceived police bias is higher than the 2006 rate, but slightly lower than the rate documented by the 2009 survey.

The data also suggest that perceptions of police bias vary significantly by Parish (see Table 9.8). Perceptions of police bias appear to be particularly high in Kingston compared to other regions of Jamaica. For example, 90.6% of the respondents from

¹⁹ It is also possible that some respondents were uncomfortable answering questions about Jamaica's homosexual community.

Kingston and 90.0% of the respondents from St. Mary feel that the police treat poor people worse or much worse than wealthy people. By contrast, only 64.0% of St. Thomas residents and 69.8% of Trelawny residents share the same opinion. Similarly, over 75% of the residents of Kingston (78.2%) and St. James (75.6%) feel that the police treat young people worse than older people, compared to only 59.8% of the residents of St. Thomas. Likewise, 74.3% of Kingston residents and 73.3% of Westmoreland residents feel that the police treat men worse than women, compared to only 59.9% of St. Andrew residents and 61.9% of St. Ann residents. Finally, 46.5% of Kingston residents feel that the police treat homosexuals worse than heterosexuals, compared to only 5.75 of Hanover residents and 8.2% of respondents from St. Elizabeth.

The data also suggest that men are only slightly more likely to perceive police bias than women (see Table 9.8). For example, 77.2% of male respondents feel that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, compared to only 74.1% of female respondents. Male respondents are also more likely than female respondents to perceive police bias against young people (70.5% vs. 67.1%) and men (68.1% vs. 62.2%). Men and women, however, are equally likely to perceive police bias against Jamaica's homosexual community.

Overall, perceptions of police bias appear to be greater among young people than older Jamaicans (see Table 9.8). For example, 78.1% of 16-20 year-olds and 81.5% of 21-30 year-olds feel that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, compared to only 66.5% of those 61 years of age or older. Similar age differences exist with respect to perceived police bias against younger people, males and members of the homosexual community.

The data also reveal a positive relationship between education and perceptions of police bias. In general, those with higher levels of education are more likely to perceive police bias than those with lower levels of educational attainment (see Table 9.8). For example, 83.5% of respondents with a university education feel that the police treat poor people worse or much worse than wealthy people, compared to only 68.6% of those with

primary school or less. Similar educational differences exist with respect to perceived police bias against younger people, males and members of the homosexual community.

Finally, the data suggest that respondents who self-report their economic situation as "upper class" are less likely to perceive police bias than people who rate themselves as "middle-class" or "poor.' For example, 76.7% of "poor" respondents and 74.7% of "middle-class" respondents feel that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people. By contrast, this perception is held by only 64.7% of "upper-class" respondents. Similar social class differences exist with respect to perceived police bias against younger people, males and members of the homosexual community.

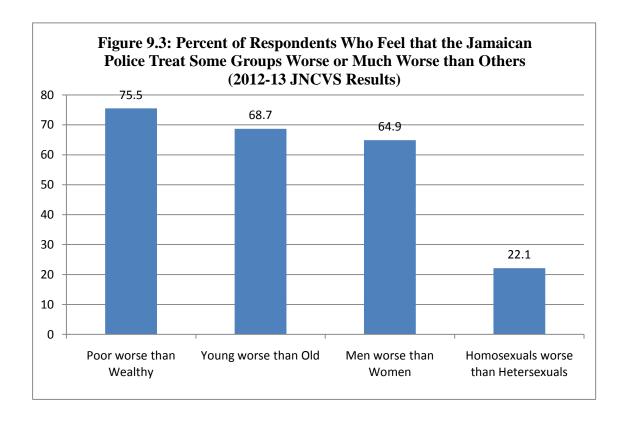


Table 9.7: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police Treat Some People Better or Worse than Others, 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results

Do you think the Jamaican	YEAR	Much	Better	The	Worse	Much
Police treat		Better		Same		Worse
Poor people better, worse or the	2006	0.4	0.8	18.2	52.1	22.3
same as wealthy people?	2009	0.4	0.5	16.8	45.4	30.7
	2012-13	0.2	0.6	19.6	47.5	28.0
Young people better, worse or the	2006	0.5	1.3	29.8	50.0	12.8
same as older people?	2009	0.3	0.9	26.8	45.4	21.4
	2012-13	0.2	1.0	26.6	49.4	19.3
Men better, worse or the same as	2006	0.5	1.3	30.8	45.3	17.5
women?	2009	0.3	0.6	28.3	40.5	25.7
	2012-13	0.1	0.6	31.1	44.3	20.6
Homosexuals better, worse or the	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
same as heterosexuals?	2009	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	2012-13	4.6	14.9	29.6	14.3	7.8

Table 9.8: Percent of Respondents that Believe that the Police Treat Some People Worse than Others, by Selected Respondent Characteristics (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Respondent Characteristics	Poor Worse than Wealthy	Young Worse	Men Worse than Women	Homosexuals Worse than
Character istics	than weating	than Old	than women	Heterosexuals
<u>Parish</u>				
Kingston	90.6	78.2	74.3	46.5
St. Andrew	80.7	69.6	59.9	16.5
St. Thomas	64.0	59.8	66.2	19.1
Portland	70.7	63.8	68.1	19.0
St. Mary	90.0	68.8	65.9	31.8
St. Ann	73.3	65.8	61.9	15.8
Trelawny	69.8	63.5	66.0	28.3
St. James	80.2	75.6	62.2	32.3
Hanover	72.3	70.2	66.7	5.7
Westmoreland	70.8	67.2	73.3	12.8
St. Elizabeth	72.4	71.2	65.9	8.2
Manchester	71.0	71.4	63.4	23.9
Clarendon	74.5	68.4	66.7	28.2
St. Catherine	72.3	67.1	63.8	22.3
<u>Gender</u>				
Male	77.2	70.5	68.1	22.2
Female	74.1	67.1	62.2	22.0
Age Group				
16-20 years	78.1	69.1	69.1	25.9
21-30 years	81.5	74.9	74.7	26.2
31-40 years	78.3	71.7	70.8	23.5
41-50 years	76.3	66.9	62.9	23.1
51-60 years	73.5	69.1	61.5	19.6
61 years or more	66.5	60.5	52.1	16.0
Education				
Primary of Less	68.6	64.6	57.5	19.0
High School	77.4	70.0	68.0	22.9
College/Training	76.7	68.0	63.1	24.6
University	83.5	74.4	71.3	23.6
Social Class				
Poor	76.7	69.1	65.2	23.3
Middle-Class	74.7	68.5	64.8	20.7
Upper-Class	64.7	66.7	62.7	17.6

Perceptions of the Criminal Courts

All respondents were asked whether they thought the criminal courts in Jamaica were doing a good job, an average job or a poor job performing three different legal duties: 1) Providing justice quickly, 2) Helping crime victims; and 3) Ensuring a fair trial for people charged with a crime. The results suggest that very few Jamaicans think the criminal courts are doing a good job (see Table 9.9). For example, only 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job helping crime victims, 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly and only 17.0% think the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials.

While very few respondents feel that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job, a significant proportion would rate the court's performance as average. However, an equally high proportion of respondents feel that the criminal courts are doing a poor job. For example, 43.1% of respondents feel that the courts are doing a poor job providing justice quickly, 35% think the courts are doing a poor job helping victims and 31.2% feel that the courts are doing a poor job ensuring fair trials. In general, it appears that respondents are significantly less enthusiastic about the performance of the criminal courts than the performance of the police.

As with perceptions of the police, it appears that perceptions of the criminal courts have wavered slightly between 2006 and 2009 (see Table 9.10). In general, public perceptions of court effectiveness increased slightly between 2006 and 2009 – but decreased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 45.2% of JNCVS respondents felt that the courts were doing a poor job providing justice quickly. This figure dropped to 39.8% in 2009 – but rose back up to 43.1% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, 34.4% of respondents felt that the courts were doing a poor job ensuring fair trials. This figure dropped to 27.0% in 2009 – before rising back to 31.2% in 2012-13. Overall, 2012-13 evaluations of court performance are better than they were in 2006 – but worse than they were in 2009.

Table 9.9: Percent of Respondents that Believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Legal Duties, 2012-13 JNCVS Results

Do you think the criminal courts are doing a Good job, a Poor job or an Average job	A Good Job	An Average Job	A Poor Job	Don't Know
Providing justice quickly?	15.5	30.8	43.1	10.5
Helping crime victims?	15.5	36.4	35.3	12.8
Ensuring a fair trial for people				
charged with a crime?	17.0	39.5	31.2	12.2

Table 9.10: Percent of Respondents That Believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Legal Duties, 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results

Do you think the criminal courts are doing a Good job, a Poor job or an Average job	YEAR	A Good Job	An Average Job	A Poor Job	Don't Know
	2006	14.5	31.5	45.2	8.8
Providing justice quickly?	2009	12.7	36.6	39.8	10.9
	2012-13	15.5	30.8	43.1	10.5
	2006	14.4	34.3	39.9	11.5
Helping crime victims?	2009	12.1	40.7	34.5	12.8
	2012-13	15.5	36.4	35.3	12.8
Ensuring a fair trial for people	2006	17.9	37.5	34.4	10.1
charged with a crime?	2009	16.1	45.6	27.0	11.4
	2012-13	17.0	39.5	31.2	12.2

In order to summarize responses to the three questions about the performance of the criminal courts, we created a Court Evaluation Scale (see Figure 9.4). The three original questions were first recoded (0=a poor job; 1=don't know; 2=an average job; 3=a good job) and then summed to create a scale ranging from 0 to 9. The higher the score on this index the higher the respondent's overall evaluation of the criminal court's performance (alpha=.810). Analysis reveals that the residents of St. Thomas score highest on the Court Evaluation Scale (mean score=4.90). Likewise, respondents from St. Elizabeth (mean=4.66), St. Mary (mean=4.59), Portland (mean=4.59), St. Ann (mean=4.45) and Hanover (mean=4.42) all produced scores on the Court Evaluation Scale that are significantly above the national average (mean=3.93). By contrast,

respondents from Manchester (mean=2.71), St. James (mean=2.73) and St. Catherine (mean=3.64) all produced scores on the Court Evaluation Scale that are relatively low compared to other regions of Jamaica. All other Parishes produced scores that are either at or close to the national average.

Gender differences in the perceived effectiveness of Jamaica's criminal courts are not statistically significant (see Table 9.11). Nonetheless, male respondents are slightly more likely than their female counterparts to feel that the courts are doing a good job. For example, 18.3% of males feel that the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials, compared to 16.0% of females. With respect to age, the results suggest that middle-aged respondents tend to evaluate the courts less favorably than those in the youngest and oldest age categories (see Table 9.12). For example, 16-20 year-olds produced an average score of 4.30 on the Court Evaluation Scale. The mean score for those 61 years and older is 4.08. However, respondents between 31 and 40 years (mean=3.79) and between 41 and 50 years (mean=3.71) both produced average scores on the Court Evaluation Scale that are significantly less than the national average (3.93).

The results also suggest that there is a negative relationship between education and the perceived effectiveness of the criminal courts in Jamaica (see Table 9.13). In general, respondents with a least some college or university education evaluate the court's performance less favorably than those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, respondents with a university education produced a significantly lower score on the Court Evaluation Scale (mean=3.24) than those with a primary school or less (mean=4.12). As a further illustration, one out of five respondents with a primary school education (19.7%) feel that the courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly, compared to one out of every seventeen respondents with a university education (5.9%).

Finally, respondents who report that they are "poor" or "middle-class" tend to be the more positive about the criminal courts in Jamaica than those from the "upper-class" (see Table 9.14). For example, 17.6% of poor respondents and 16.7% of middle-class respondents feel that the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials. This figure,

however, drops to only 9.8% among upper-class respondents. Overall, poor respondents scored highest on the Court Evaluation Scale (mean=3.96), followed by middle-class (mean=3.91) and upper-class respondents (mean=3.73).

In sum, demographic differences with respect to the evaluation of the Jamaican criminal courts are quite small. Regardless of area of residence, gender, age, education and social class, the results of the 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that the vast majority of Jamaican residents believe the criminal courts are doing a "poor" or "average" job with respect to providing justice quickly, helping crime victims and ensuring fair trials.

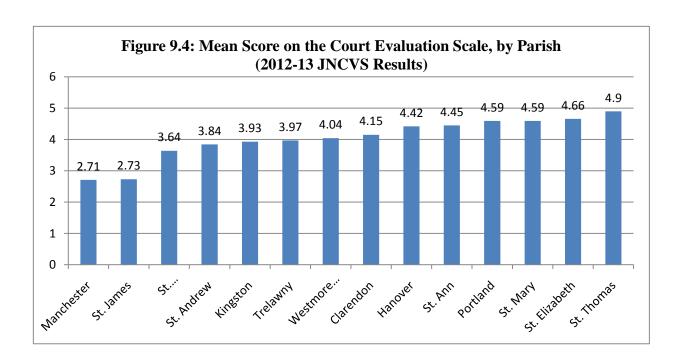


Table 9.11: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Legal Duties, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the criminal courts are doing a Good		
<i>job</i>	Male	Female
Providing justice quickly?	16.1	15.0
Helping crime victims?	16.0	15.1
Ensuring a fair trial for people charged with a crime?	18.3	16.0
MEAN SCORE ON THE COURT EVALUATION		
SCALE	3.95	3.82

Table 9.12: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Legal Duties, by Age (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the criminal courts are	16-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61+
doing a Good job	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS	YRS
Providing justice quickly?	16.5	13.8	15.7	13.3	16.5	18.1
Helping crime victims?	15.5	13.3	13.6	16.4	17.3	17.4
Ensuring a fair trial for people charged						
with a crime?	19.1	16.8	15.4	16.2	17.1	19.1
MEAN SCORE ON THE COURT						
EVALUATION SCALE	4.30	3.82	3.79	3.71	4.15	4.08

Table 9.13: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Legal Duties, by Level of Education (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the criminal courts are	Primary	High	College/	University
doing a Good job	School or	School	Training	
	Less			
Providing justice quickly?	19.7	16.3	9.5	5.9
Helping crime victims?	19.6	16.1	11.0	4.7
Ensuring a fair trial for people charged				
with a crime?	18.5	17.9	14.5	10.2
MEAN SCORE ON THE COURT				
EVALUATION SCALE	4.12	4.00	3.64	3.24

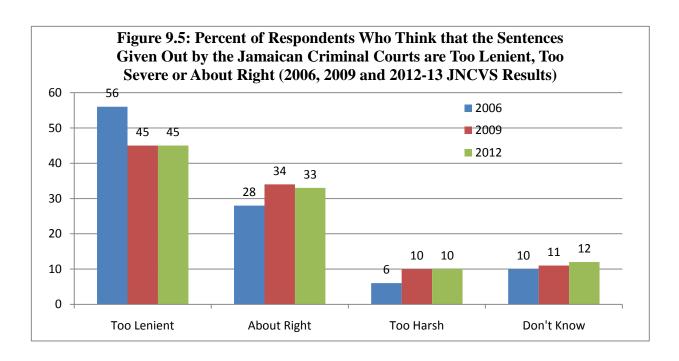
Table 9.14: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Criminal Courts are doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Legal Duties, by Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

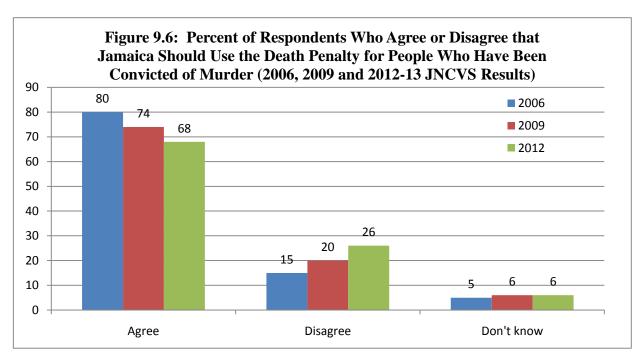
Do you think the criminal courts are doing a Good		Middle	Upper
<i>job</i>		Class	Class
Providing justice quickly?	17.6	13.1	5.9
Helping crime victims?	17.4	13.3	6.9
Ensuring a fair trial for people charged with a crime?	17.6	16.7	9.8
MEAN SCORE ON THE COURT EVALUATION SCALE	3.96	3.91	3.73

Public Opinion about Criminal Sentencing

Respondents were also asked two questions about the sentencing of offenders by the Jamaican criminal courts: 1) Are sentences handed down by the courts in Jamaica too lenient or too harsh; and 2) Should the Jamaican courts use the death penalty for people convicted of murder. Almost half of the respondents (45.2%) to the 2012-13 survey feel that the sentences handed down by the criminal courts in Jamaica are too lenient (see Figure 9.5). An additional 33.0% believe the sentences are "about right." By contrast, only 9.7% feel that that the sentences handed down in Jamaica are too harsh (see Figure 9.5). It is also interesting to note that the perception that the sentences handed out by the Jamaican criminal courts are too lenient seems to have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 56% of the JNCVS survey respondents felt that criminal sentences in Jamaica were too lenient. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 45% -- a notable decline of eleven percentage points over this short, six year period.

Two out of every three respondents to the 2012-13 survey (67.7%) believes that death penalty should be used in Jamaica for individuals convicted of murder. By contrast, only 25.6% believe that the death penalty should be banned (see Figure 9.6). However, it is important to note that public support for the death penalty in Jamaica appears to have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. In 2006, for example, 80% of respondents supported the death penalty. By 2012-13 this figure drops to only 68% -- a decline of twelve percentage points over this six year period. Clearly, the trend data suggest that Jamaicans are becoming more moderate with respect to their beliefs about criminal punishment.





The percent of respondents who feel that criminal sentences are "too lenient" varies dramatically by Parish of residence – as does support for the death penalty (see Table 9.15). For example, six out of ten respondents from St. Thomas (60.4%), Trelawny (59.1%) and St. James (59.0%) feel that criminal sentences are too lenient, compared only a third of the residents of St. Andrew (36.7%), Kingston (38.6%), St. Catherine

(38.9%) and Hanover (39.0%). Similarly, almost eighty percent of respondents from St. Elizabeth support the death penalty (78.2%), compared to only half of St. Thomas residents (49.3%). Support for the death penalty also appears to be relatively high in Clarendon (75.2%), Trelawny (74.8%), St. James (74.7%) and Westmoreland (73.9%). By contrast, support for the death penalty is relatively low in St. Mary (62.9%), Kingston (63.4%), St. Catherine (65.2%) and St. Andrew (65.9%).

Gender differences with respect to attitudes towards criminal sentencing are not statistically significant (see Table 9.15). Females, however, are slightly more likely than men (46.1% vs. 44.2%) to feel that criminal sentences are too lenient. Female respondents (68.4%) are also slightly more likely than male respondents (66.9%) to support the death penalty.

The data also indicate that the perception that criminal sentences are too lenient in Jamaica tends to increase with age. There is also a positive relationship between age and support for the death penalty (see Table 9.15). For example, 49.9% of respondents 61 years of age or older feel that criminal sentences are too lenient in Jamaica, compared to only 38.8% of 16-20 year-olds. Similarly, three-quarters of respondents 61 years of age or older (73.8%) support the death penalty, as do 74.9% of 51-60 year-olds. By contrast, support for the death penalty drops to 57.6% among 16-20 year-olds and 60.7% among respondents between 21 and 30 years of age.

The results suggest that the belief that sentences are too lenient tends to increase with education. For example, 53.8% of respondents with a university education feel that criminal sentences in Jamaica are too lenient -- compared to only 43.0% of respondents with a primary school education. Support for the death penalty, however, declines with level of education. For example, three quarters of respondents with primary education or less support the death penalty, compared to only 64.2% of respondents with a university education (see Table 9.15).

Finally, the data indicate that there is a positive relationship between social class position and the belief that criminal sentences in Jamaica are too lenient (see Table 9.15). For example, 63.7% of respondents who report an "upper-class" background feel that criminal sentences are too lenient -- compared to only 47.1% of middle-class and 43.2% of poor respondents. Support for the death penalty, however, does not appear to waver by social class position. Overall, poor respondents (69.6%) are most likely to support the death penalty, followed closely by those from upper-class (67.6%) and middle-class backgrounds (65.2%).

Table 9.15: Public Attitudes towards Criminal Sentences and the Death Penalty in Jamaica, by Selected Respondent Characteristics (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Respondent	Percent Who	Percent Who Think
Characteristics	Think That	Jamaica Should Use
	Sentences are	the Death Penalty for
n · 1	Too Lenient	Convicted Murders
<u>Parish</u>	20.6	62.4
Kingston	38.6	63.4
St. Andrew	36.7	65.9
St. Thomas	60.4	49.3
Portland	41.4	69.0
St. Mary	58.2	62.9
St. Ann	41.6	68.8
Trelawny	59.1	74.8
St. James	59.0	74.7
Hanover	39.0	70.2
Westmoreland	45.0	73.9
St. Elizabeth	41.2	78.2
Manchester	50.8	68.1
Clarendon	49.3	75.2
St. Catherine	38.9	65.2
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	44.2	66.9
Female	46.1	68.4
Age Group		
16-20 years	38.8	57.6
21-30 years	39.9	60.7
31-40 years	44.2	65.7
41-50 years	46.5	69.3
51-60 years	49.1	74.9
61 years or more	49.9	73.8
Education		
Primary of Less	43.0	72.5
High School	43.4	66.1
College/Training	52.7	67.0
University	53.5	64.2
Social Class		
Poor	43.2	69.6
Middle-Class	47.1	65.2
Upper-Class	63.7	67.6

Public Perceptions of the Jamaican Correctional System

All respondents were asked whether they thought the Jamaican correctional system is doing a good job, an average job or a poor job performing five different corrections-related duties: 1) Supervising and controlling offenders in prison; 2) Punishing or deterring criminals so they won't commit future crimes; 3) Treating or rehabilitating criminals so they won't commit future crimes; 4) Deciding when it is safe to release offenders from prison; and 5) Monitoring and supervising offenders who have been released back into the community.

As with the performance of the police and the criminal courts, the data suggest that very few Jamaicans feel that the corrections system is doing "a good job" performing various duties (see Table 9.16). For example, only 18.0% of respondents feel that the corrections system is doing a good job deciding when to release offenders, only 15.2% feel the system is doing a good job controlling offenders in prison, only 13.9% think the system is doing a good job monitoring offenders after they have been released from prison, only 13.5% feel that the system is doing a good job punishing or deterring criminals and only 12.8% feel the system is doing a good job rehabilitating offenders.

Nonetheless, the data also reveal that the reputation of the Jamaican corrections system has improved somewhat since 2006 (see Table 9.17). Indeed, compared to 2006 JNCVS respondents, 2012-13 respondents are much less likely to report that the correctional system is doing a poor job. For example, in 2006, 49.0% of respondents felt that the corrections system was doing a poor job deterring criminals. By 2012-13 this figure had dropped to only 36.4%. Similarly, in 2006, 40.6% of respondents felt that the correctional system was doing a poor job monitoring offenders once released into the community. By 2012-13 this figure had dropped to only 29.0%. Similar results are found for controlling offenders in prison, rehabilitating offenders so they don't offend in the future and deciding when offenders should be released from prison. It should be noted, however, that the percentage of respondents who believe that the correctional system is doing "a good job" remained relatively unchanged between 2006 and 2012-13. Thus, the improved rating of the correctional system by JNCVS respondents stems

largely from a drop in the percentage of respondents who think the system is doing "a poor job" and an increase in the number of respondents who feel the system is doing "an average job."

Table 9.16: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Correctional System is Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Duties (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

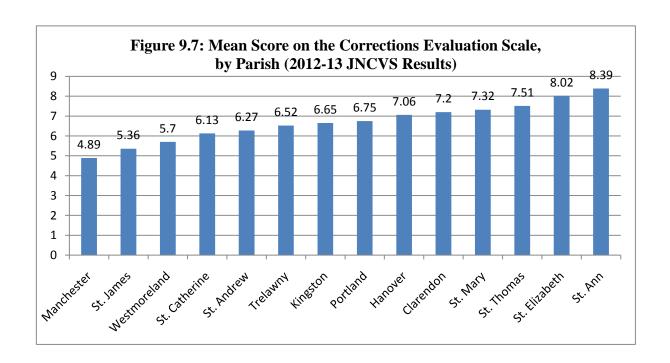
Do you think the Correctional	A Good	An	A Poor	Don't
System is doing a Good job, a Poor	Job	Average	Job	Know
job or an Average job		Job		
Supervising and controlling				
offenders in prison?	15.2	35.8	33.4	15.7
Punishing or deterring criminals so				
they won't commit future crimes?	13.5	35.5	36.4	14.6
Treating or rehabilitating criminals				
so they won't commit future crimes?	12.8	33.8	37.4	16.0
Deciding when it is safe to release				
offenders from prison?	18.0	32.9	25.0	24.0
Monitoring/supervising offenders				
released into the community?	13.9	32.1	29.0	25.0

Table 9.17: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Correctional System is doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Duties (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the Correctional System is doing a Good job, a Poor	YEAR	A Good Job	An Average	A Poor Job	Don't Know
job or an Average job			Job		
Supervising and controlling	2006	14.3	28.4	43.6	13.7
offenders in prison?	2009	17.7	38.4	28.4	15.5
	2012-13	15.2	35.8	33.4	15.7
Punishing or deterring criminals so	2006	12.4	27.1	49.0	11.5
they won't commit future crimes?	2009	12.3	36.7	40.3	10.6
	2012-13	13.5	35.5	36.4	14.7
Treating or rehabilitating criminals	2006	NA	NA	NA	NA
so they won't commit future	2009	10.9	37.5	38.3	13.2
crimes?	2012-13	12.8	33.8	37.4	16.0
Deciding when it is safe to release	2006	13.2	27.4	33.1	26.4
offenders from prison?	2009	13.6	36.2	22.6	27.6
	2012-13	18.0	32.9	25.0	24.0
Monitoring/supervising offenders released into the community?	2006	10.7	22.0	40.6	26.6
	2009	12.4	27.7	31.2	28.8
	2012-13	13.9	32.1	29.0	25.0

NA = Question was not asked in the 2006 JNCVS

In order to summarize responses to the five questions about the performance of the correctional system, we created a Corrections Evaluation Scale (see Figure 9.7). The five original questions were first recoded (0=a poor job; 1=don't know; 2=an average job; 3=a good job) and then summed to create a scale ranging from 0 to 15. The higher the score on this index the higher the respondent's overall evaluation of Jamaica's correctional system (alpha=.752). As with the Police and Court Evaluation Scales, the results suggest that evaluations of the Jamaican correctional system vary significantly from Parish to Parish. The most favourable perceptions are held by the residents of St. Ann (mean=8.39) and St. Elizabeth (mean=8.02). The residents of St. Thomas (mean=7.51), St. Mary (mean=7.32), Clarendon (mean=7.20) and Hanover (mean=7.02) also produced scores on the Corrections Evaluation Scale that are significantly above the national average (mean=6.56). By contrast, the residents of Manchester (mean=4.89), St. James (mean=5.36), Westmoreland (mean=5.7) and St. Catherine (mean=6.13) are least likely to evaluate the corrections system as effective.



Overall, the data reveal only slight gender differences with respect to overall evaluations of the Jamaican correctional system (see Table 9.18). Male respondents, however, score somewhat higher than female respondents on the overall Corrections Evaluation Scale (mean score=6.73 vs. 6.41). As further illustration of this general pattern, 17.1% of male respondents believe that the corrections system is doing a good job controlling offenders in prison, compared to 13.8% of female respondents. Similarly, 20.8% of male respondents feel that the corrections system is doing a good job deciding when it is safe to release offenders back into the community, compared to only 15.9% of female respondents. Male respondents are also slightly more likely than females to think that the corrections system is doing a good job deterring criminals, rehabilitating offenders and monitoring offenders once released.

Further analysis reveals that age has very little impact on perceptions of the corrections system. In fact, age differences with respect to average scores on the Corrections Evaluation Scale do not reach statistical significance (see Table 9.19). Nonetheless, the data suggest that middle-aged respondents (41-50 years of age) tend to evaluate corrections more negatively than respondents from other age groups. For

example, 41-50 year-olds produced a mean score of 6.21 on the Corrections Evaluation Scale, compared to 6.68 for 16-20 year-olds and 6.69 for those sixty-one years of age or older.

Additional analysis reveals that the perceived effectiveness of Jamaica's correctional system declines with education (see Table 9.20). Indeed, those with only a high school education score the highest on the Corrections Evaluation Scale (mean=6.76), followed closely by those with primary school or less (mean= 6.69). By contrast, those with a university background produced an average score of only 5.40 on this measure. As an additional illustration of this general pattern, 14.4% of respondents with a high school education feel that the corrections system is doing a good job rehabilitating offenders, compared to 12.8% of those with primary school or less, 11.7% of those with some college or training and only 3.9% of those with a university background.

Finally, the data also suggests that the perceived effectiveness of the corrections system declines slightly with social class position (see Table 9.21). For example, those who rate themselves as poor recorded an average score of 6.60 on the Corrections Evaluation Scale, compared to 6.52 for middle-class and 6.35 for upper-class respondents. As a further example of this general pattern, 13.9% of poor respondents think the corrections system is doing a good job deterring criminals, compared to 13.3% of middle-class respondents and only 5.9% of upper-class respondents.

In sum, demographic differences with respect to the evaluation of the Jamaican correctional system are quite small. Regardless of area of residence, gender, age, education and social class, the results of the 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that the vast majority of Jamaican residents believe the correctional system is doing a "poor" or "average" job with respect to controlling offenders in prison, deterring criminals from future offending, rehabilitating or treating offenders, deciding when it is safe to release offenders from prison and monitoring offenders once they have been released back into the community.

Table 9.18: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Correctional System is doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Duties, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the Correctional System is doing		
a Good job	Male	Female
Supervising and controlling offenders in	17.1	13.8
prison?		
Punishing or deterring criminals so they won't		
commit future crimes?	14.3	12.8
Treating or rehabilitating criminals so they		
won't commit future crimes?	14.0	11.8
Deciding when it is safe to release offenders		
from prison?	20.8	15.9
Monitoring/supervising offenders released into		
the community?	15.8	12.4
MEAN SCORE ON THE CORRECTIONS		
EVALUATION SCALE	6.73	6.41

Table 9.19: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Correctional System is doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Duties, by Age (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the Correctional System is doing a Good job	16-20 YRS	21-30 YRS	31-40 YRS	41-50 YRS	51-60 YRS	61+ YRS
Supervising and controlling offenders in prison?	15.5	15.9	15.8	12.8	14.5	16.8
Punishing or deterring criminals so they won't commit future crimes?	16.2	14.4	12.8	12.1	13.1	14.1
Treating or rehabilitating criminals so they won't commit future crimes?	15.5	13.8	12.7	11.0	13.1	12.5
Deciding when it is safe to release offenders from prison?	17.8	19.7	16.1	18.6	20.2	16.3
Monitoring/supervising offenders released into the community?	14.4	14.2	12.7	14.5	15.3	13.2
MEAN SCORE ON THE CORRECTIONS EVALUATION SCALE	6.68	6.47	6.46	6.21	7.00	6.69

Table 9.20: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Jamaican Correctional System is doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Duties, by Level of Education (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Do you think the Correctional System is	Primary	High	College/	Universit
doing a Good job	School	School	Training	y
	or Less			
Supervising and controlling offenders in	16.4	16.3	13.0	6.7
prison?				
Punishing or deterring criminals so they				
won't commit future crimes?	13.7	15.6	9.3	3.9
Treating or rehabilitating criminals so they				
won't commit future crimes?	12.8	14.4	11.7	3.9
Deciding when it is safe to release offenders				
from prison?	18.5	20.2	13.4	8.7
Monitoring/supervising offenders released				
into the community?	13.9	15.5	11.9	5.9
MEAN SCORE ON THE				
CORRECTIONS EVALUATION SCALE	6.69	6.76	6.08	5.40

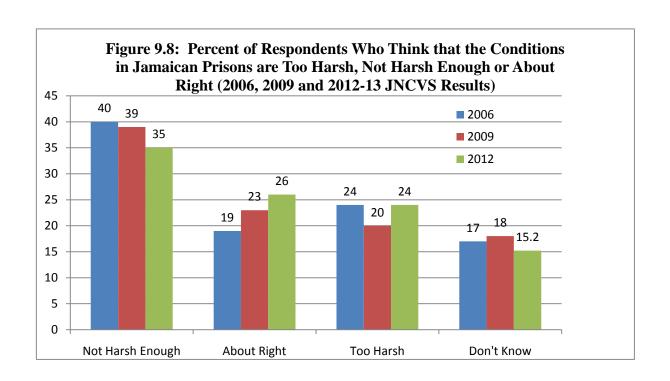
Table 9.21: Percent of Respondents who believe that the Correctional System is doing a "Good Job" Performing Various Duties, by Social Class (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

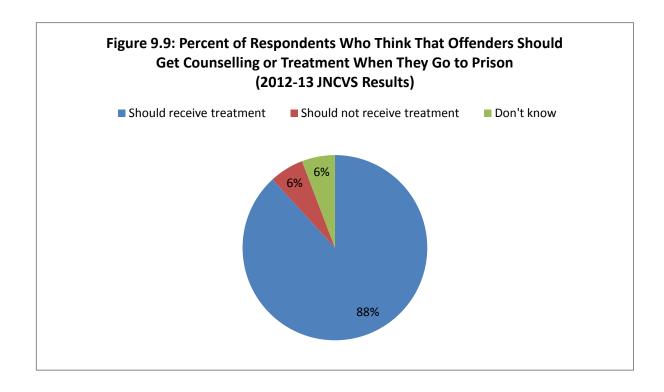
Do you think the Correctional System is	Poor	Middle	Middle
doing a Good job		Class	Class
Supervising and controlling offenders in	15.6	14.4	16.7
prison?			
Punishing or deterring criminals so they			
won't commit future crimes?	13.9	13.3	5.9
Treating or rehabilitating criminals so they			
won't commit future crimes?	13.3	12.4	9.8
Deciding when it is safe to release offenders			
from prison?	18.4	18.0	11.8
Monitoring/supervising offenders released			
into the community?	14.1	13.9	11.8
MEAN SCORE ON THE			
CORRECTIONS EVALUATION SCALE	6.60	6.52	6.35

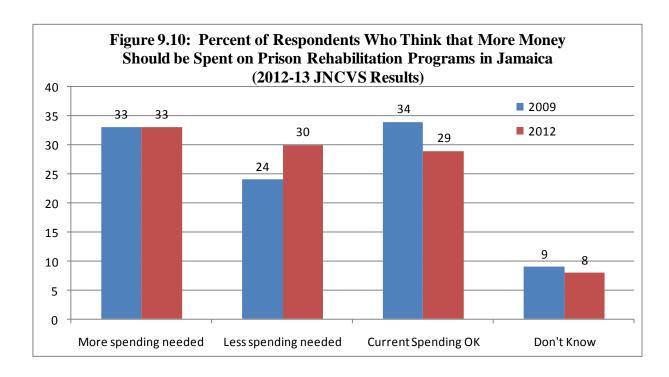
Public Perceptions of Jamaican Prison Conditions

Respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS are quite split in their assessment of prison conditions within Jamaica. While 26.4% believe that prison conditions are "about right," 23.8% believe prison conditions are too harsh and 34.6% feel that prison conditions are not harsh enough. Further analysis reveals that public opinion with respect to prison conditions in Jamaica has not changed dramatically since 2006 (see Figure 9.8). However, there has been a slight decline in the percentage of respondents who believe Jamaican prison conditions are not harsh enough (from 40% in 2006 to 35% in 2012-13) and a slight increase in the percentage of respondents who feel that prison conditions are "about right" (from 19% in 2006 to 26% in 2012-13). The percentage of respondents who feel that prison conditions are too harsh has remained unchanged (24% in 2006 and 24% in 2012-13).

In general, Jamaican citizens overwhelmingly support the idea of offender rehabilitation or treatment. For example, 88.2% of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS feel that convicted criminals should receive counseling or treatment while in prison. By contrast, only 6% feel that prison inmates should not receive any treatment at all (see Figure 9.9). However, support for rehabilitation appears to have dropped slightly over the past three years -- from 93% in 2006 to 88% in 2012-13. Furthermore, Jamaicans are increasingly divided when it comes to increased government funding for prison rehabilitation programs. For example, 33% of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS feel that more government funds should be spent on prison rehabilitation programs. This figure is identical to that produced by the 2009 JNCVS. However, the proportion of Jamaicans who feel that less money should be spent on rehabilitation increased from 24% in 2009 to 30% in 2012-13 (see Figure 9.10).







The data from the 2012-13 JNCVS reveal that beliefs regarding Jamaican prison conditions vary considerably from Parish to Parish (see Table 9.22). For example, 72.9% of St. Mary residents and 53.3% of the respondents from St. Thomas feel that Jamaican prisons are not harsh enough. By contrast, this view is held by less than 40% of respondents from all other Parishes. At the low end of the spectrum, only 20.0% of Manchester and 23.1% of St. Andrew residents feel that prisons are not harsh enough. Additional analysis reveals that 94.0% of St. James residents believe that offender should get rehabilitation or treatment while serving time in prison. Indeed, over 90.0% of the respondents from most other Parishes agree that prisoners should be offered rehabilitation services. The only exceptions are the respondents from St. Mary (78.8%), Trelawny, Kingston and St. Catherine. Support for prison rehabilitation drops to approximately eighty percent within these regions. While the vast majority of respondents from each Parish -- at least 79% -- feel that rehabilitation should be provided – attitudes towards the funding of treatment programs varies dramatically from region to region. For example, only 11.6% of St. Thomas residents believe the Government of Jamaica should spend more money on rehabilitation. However, support for increased funding rises to 52.5% among Hanover residents and to 65.9% for respondents from St. James.

Interestingly, the results of the 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that attitudes towards prisons and prison rehabilitation programs vary little by gender (see Table 9.22). However, male respondents (35.4%) are slightly more likely than females (30.6%) to support increased government funding for offender treatment programs. Additional analysis also reveals few age differences with respect to prison-related beliefs. An equal proportion of both young and old respondents feel that Jamaican prisons are too harsh, that offenders should receive treatment in prison and that the Jamaican government should spend more money on rehabilitation programs. As an illustration of this general pattern, 36.0% of 16-20 year-olds feel that Jamaican prisons are too lenient, as do 37.1% of respondents 61 years of age or older (a difference of only one percentage point). Similarly, 87.5% of 16-20 year-olds feel that offenders should receive rehabilitation services while incarcerated, compared to 87.8% of those 61 years of age or older (a difference of less than half a percentage point).

Finally, the data do suggest that, in general, attitudes towards Jamaican prisons vary slightly by both education and social class position. In general, respondents with a university education are less likely to think Jamaican prisons are too lenient, more likely to believe that offender rehabilitation is a necessity and are more likely to believe that the Jamaican government should increase funding for prison treatment programs (see Table 9.22). Furthermore, compared to poor and middle-class respondents, upper-class respondents are more likely to support mandatory treatment for offenders and increased funding for rehabilitation services. Interestingly, upper-class respondents are also slightly more likely to feel that the current conditions within Jamaican prisons are too lenient.

Table 9.22: Public Perceptions of Specific Correctional Issues, By Selected Respondent Characteristics (2012-13 JNCVS)

Respondent Characteristics	Percent Who Feel that Jamaican Prisons are not Harsh Enough	Percent Who Feel that Inmates Should get Counseling or Treatment in Prison	Percent Who Feel that More Government Money Should be Spent on the Rehabilitation of Criminal Offenders
<u>Parish</u>			
Kingston	32.2	80.2	36.6
St. Andrew	23.1	90.8	42.2
St. Thomas	53.3	93.8	11.6
Portland	32.8	94.0	27.6
St. Mary	72.9	78.8	34.1
St. Ann	31.7	90.1	17.8
Trelawny	39.8	78.8	20.8
St. James	36.9	94.0	65.9
Hanover	38.3	91.5	52.5
Westmoreland	34.4	92.8	30.0
St. Elizabeth	20.0	93.5	48.2
Manchester	28.6	90.3	29.4
Clarendon	32.3	92.5	21.8
St. Catherine	35.4	81.4	25.5
Gender			
Male	34.6	88.5	35.4
Female	34.6	88.0	30.6
Age Group			
16-20 years	36.0	87.8	31.3
21-30 years	33.7	87.4	32.2
31-40 years	32.5	88.9	32.4
41-50 years	32.3	86.9	32.8
51-60 years	37.5	91.1	33.8
61 years or more	37.1	87.5	33.5
Education			
Primary of Less	33.7	86.3	25.4
High School	34.4	87.7	33.5
College/Training	41.0	90.7	35.4
University	27.6	94.5	49.2
Social Class			
Poor	34.2	86.4	29.9
Middle-Class	34.7	90.8	36.7
Upper-Class	39.2	91.2	40.2

PART TEN:

PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES WITH POLICE CORRUPTION, POLICE BRUTALITY AND THE POLICE COMPLAINTS SYSTEM

Highlights

- A comparison with the results of the previous Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys reveals that public concerns about police corruption have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 71.2% of survey respondents felt that police corruption was a big or very big problem in Jamaica. By 2012-13 this figure had declined to only 57.3%.
- The results, nonetheless, indicate that the residents of Jamaica feel that police corruption is a much bigger problem than either police brutality or police harassment. However, while perceptions of police corruption have declined over the past six years, perceptions of police brutality increased slightly.
- In 2006, only 11.4% of respondents thought that police brutality was a big problem in Jamaica. This figure rose slightly to 14.2% in 2012-13.
- Although more than half of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS believe that police corruption is a big problem in Jamaica, only 2% claim that they have ever been the victim of police corruption and only 4% claim that they have ever been the victim of police brutality. Only 1% of respondents report that they were the victim of police corruption or brutality in the past year.
- The results also suggest that the vast majority of respondents (over 85%) have never witnessed a case of police corruption or brutality.
- Furthermore, the proportion of respondents who report that they recently experienced or witnessed police corruption or brutality declined between the 2009 and 2012-13.
- Most respondents (over 80%) claim that they would file an official complaint if they were treated unjustly by the police. The majority of respondents also claim that they know how to file a complaint.
- Overall, these figures could represent growing public confidence in the police and the police complaints process.

Introduction

Government corruption, police corruption and police brutality have emerged as major issues in many countries. This section of the report begins by exploring public perceptions of police corruption and brutality in Jamaica. We then explore actual experiences with corruption and brutality before investigating public perceptions and experiences with the police complaints system.

Public Perceptions of Police Corruption and Brutality

All respondents to the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey were asked whether they thought police corruption, harassment and brutality were problems within Jamaica. The results indicate that the residents of Jamaica feel that police corruption is a much bigger problem than either police brutality or harassment (see Figure 10.1). For example, six out of every ten JNCVS respondents (57.3%) feel that police corruption is either a big or very big problem in their local community. By contrast, only one out of every seven respondents (14.2%) feels that police brutality is a big or very big problem. Similarly, only 13.2% feel that police harassment is a big problem. Indeed, seven out of ten respondents feel that police brutality and police harassment are not problems at all in Jamaica. By contrast, only 22.6% feel that corruption is not a problem.

A comparison with the results of the previous Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys reveals that public concerns about police corruption have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13 (see Figure 10.2). For example, in 2006, 71.2% of survey respondents felt that police corruption was a big or very big problem in Jamaica. By 2012-13 this figure had declined to 57.3% -- a decline of almost fourteen percentage points. However, while perceptions of police corruption seem to have declined over the past six years, perceptions of police brutality have increased slightly. For example, in

2006, 11.4% of respondents thought that police brutality was a big problem in Jamaica. This figure dropped to 8.0% in 2009 before rising again to 14.2% in 2012-13. In other words, between 2009 and 2012-13, the percent of Jamaicans who view police brutality as a problem almost doubled.²⁰

Public perceptions concerning police corruption, harassment and brutality vary considerably from Parish to Parish (see Table 10.1). For example, eight out of ten Kingston residents (81.7%) view police corruption as a major problem in Jamaica, as do 77.4% of the respondents from St. James. The perception of police corruption is also relatively high among the residents of St. Catherine (68.3%), Portland (65.5%), St. Andrew (64.9%), St. Mary (62.9%) and Hanover (61.7%). By contrast, only 29.4% of Manchester residents and 30.8% of the respondents from Trelawny think that police corruption is a big problem in their community. A similar pattern of results emerges with respect to perceived police brutality and harassment. For example, Kingston residents are also more likely than the residents of other Parishes to view police brutality and harassment as major problems in their community.

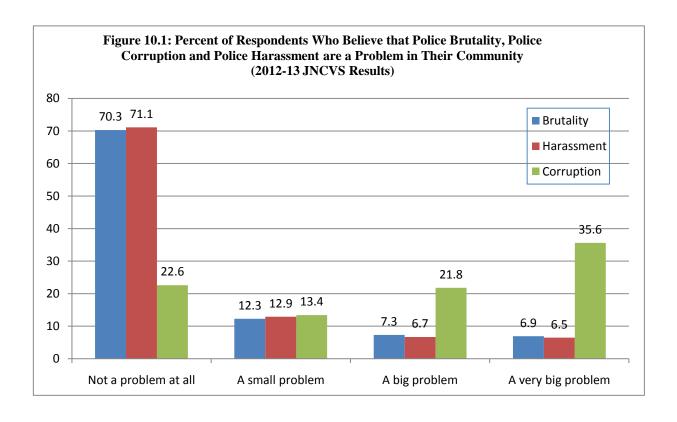
The data indicate that Jamaican men are just as likely as Jamaican women to view police corruption, brutality and harassment as problems in their communities (see Table 10.1). However, male respondents are slightly more likely than females to view corruption as a problem, while females are slightly more likely than males to identify problems with police brutality and harassment.

Additional analysis reveals that younger respondents are significantly more likely than older respondents to feel that police are corrupt (see Table 10.1). For example, almost two-thirds of 21-20 year-olds (63.7%) feel that police corruption is a big or very big problem in their community, compared to only 50.7% of respondents who are sixty-one years of age or older. Similarly, 19.8% of 16-20 year-olds feel that police brutality is a major problem, compared to only 7.7% of those in the oldest age category. Finally,

²⁰ The question about police harassment was not asked in the 2006 and 2009 surveys. Thus, a trends analysis is not possible with respect to this issue.

22.3% of 16-20 year-olds feel that police harassment is a problem in their community, compared to only 6.1% of those over sixty years of age.

The results with respect to education are mixed (see Table 10.1). In general, respondents with a high school (60.1%) or university education (59.1%) are most likely to perceive that police corruption is a major problem in Jamaica. However, university educated respondents are actually less likely than other respondents to view police brutality and harassment as major issues. Finally, respondents who define themselves as "upper-class" are less likely to identify police corruption, brutality and harassment as "big problems" than people who self-identify as "poor."



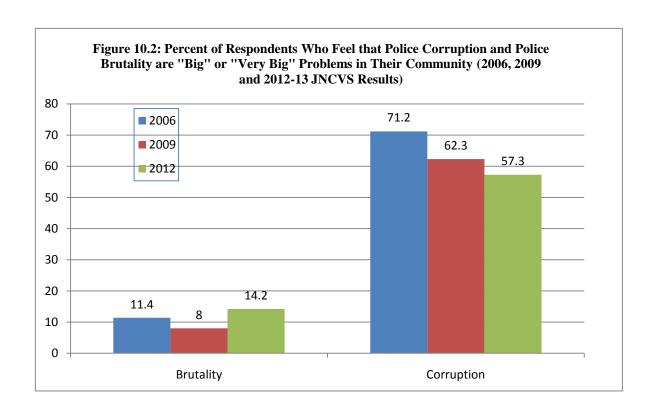


Table 10.1: Percent of Respondents who feel that Police Corruption and Police Brutality are "Big" or "Very Big" Problems in Their Community, by Selected Respondent Characteristics (2012-13 JNCVS Results)

Respondent	Police	Police	Police
Characteristics	Corruption	Brutality	Harassment
Parish			
Kingston	81.7	37.6	38.1
St. Andrew	64.9	11.2	9.9
St. Thomas	54.2	37.3	32.4
Portland	65.5	9.5	11.2
St. Mary	62.9	8.8	11.8
St. Ann	44.1	3.0	3.5
Trelawny	30.8	3.1	2.5
St. James	77.4	6.5	8.8
Hanover	61.7	2.1	5.0
Westmoreland	59.4	2.8	6.7
St. Elizabeth	35.9	4.7	4.1
Manchester	29.4	8.0	8.4
Clarendon	37.4	3.1	3.4
St. Catherine	68.3	29.2	22.3
Gender			
Male	57.8	13.0	12.6
Female	56.9	15.3	13.7
Age Group			
16-20 years	60.1	19.8	22.3
21-30 years	63.7	16.6	16.9
31-40 years	59.1	16.3	14.7
41-50 years	60.1	15.8	13.0
51-60 years	50.5	11.8	11.1
61 years or more	50.7	7.7	6.1
Education			
Primary or Less	51.8	11.2	9.9
High School	60.1	17.1	16.2
College/Training	55.5	11.2	9.9
University	59.1	9.1	7.9
Social Class			
Poor	58.0	15.7	14.2
Middle-Class	56.9	12.1	12.1
Upper-Class	51.0	13.7	6.9

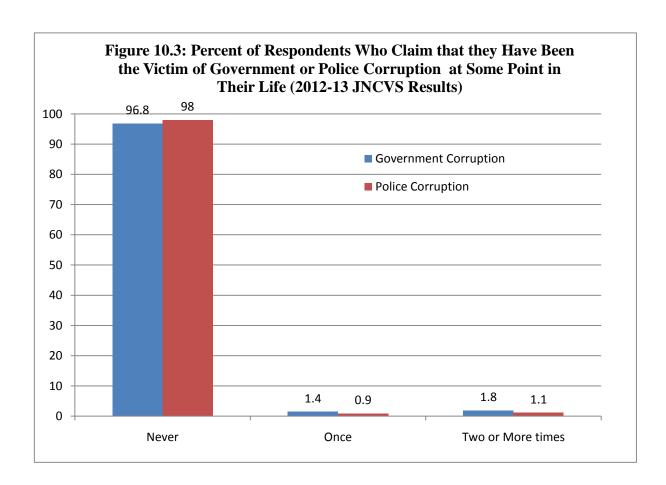
Personal Experiences with Government and Police Corruption

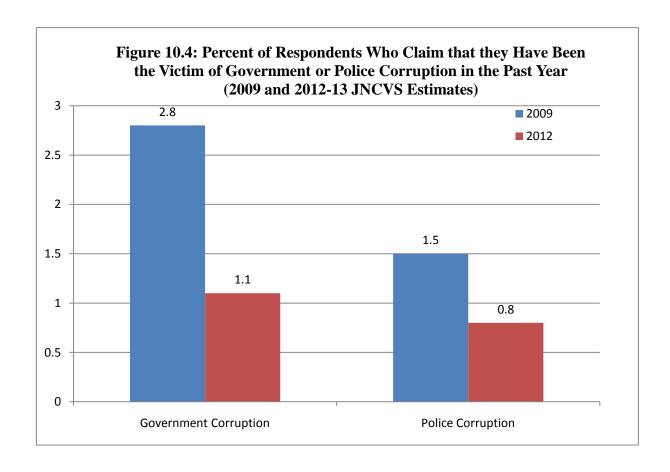
Respondents were asked two questions about their personal experiences with both government and police corruption: 1) Has a government official – like a customs officer, politician or inspector – ever asked you or expected you to pay a bribe or tried unfairly to take money or something else from you?; and 2) Police corruption refers to cases in which police officers engage in criminal activity for money. Police corruption also refers to cases in which the police accept bribes or try to take money from ordinary citizens. Have you ever directly experienced police corruption? We only want you to tell us about things you have personally experienced. We are not talking about things you may have heard about from someone else or things you might have seen on television or read about in the news.

Although the vast majority of respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS feel that corruption is a major problem in Jamaica (see discussion above), very few actually report that they themselves have been the victim of either government or police corruption at some time in their life (see Figure 10.3). Indeed, only 3.2% of respondents report that they have ever been a victim of government corruption and even fewer respondents (2.0%) report that they have ever been the victim of police corruption. Recent corruption-related victimization is even less common. Indeed, only one out of every ninety-one respondents (1.1%) has been the victim of government corruption in the past year and only one out of every one hundred and twenty-five respondents (0.8%) has been a victim of police corruption over the same time period (see Figure 10.4). It is also important to note that reports of government and police corruption declined slightly between the 2009 and 2012-13 surveys. In 2006, 2.8% of respondents reported that they had been the victim of government corruption in the past year, compared to only 1.1% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, 1.5% of respondents claimed that they were the victim of police corruption over the past twelve months, compared to only 0.8% in 2012-13.

As discussed, only 70 respondents (2.0% of the sample) claimed that they had been the victim of police corruption at some time in their life. These 70 respondents were subsequently asked if they had complained to the police about their experiences.

Only 9 of these 70 respondents (12.9%) claimed that they reported their experiences with police corruption to the authorities. The 61 respondents who did not report their negative experiences were then asked why they did not complain. Over half of these respondents (52.5%) claimed that they did not complain about the incident because they were afraid of retaliation by the police. An additional 36.1% simply stated that they do not trust the police, 24.5% stated that complaining to the police would not do any good and 19.7% stated that they did not want to appear in court. A couple of respondents claimed that they either did not have the time to make a formal complaint or they did not know how to do so.





Personal Experiences with Police Brutality

All respondents were asked the following question about police use of force: Police brutality refers to cases in which the police unfairly use physical force or weapons against a civilian without a good reason. In your opinion, have you ever been a victim of police brutality? The results suggest that very few Jamaican residents have ever been the victim of police brutality (see Figure 10.5). Only one out of every twenty-six respondents (3.9%) reports being a victim of police brutality at some point in their life. Only one out of every sixty-seven respondents (1.5%) indicates that they were the victim of police brutality in the past year. These findings are completely consistent with the fact that the vast majority of respondents (over seventy percent) also feel that police brutality is not a problem at all in Jamaica (see discussion above).

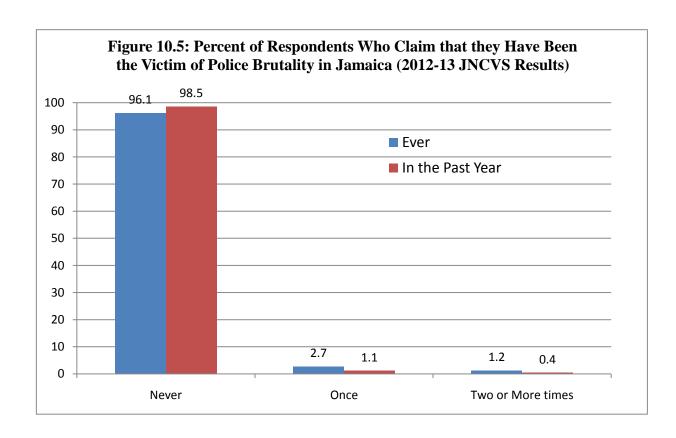
A comparison of the 2012-13 with the 2009 JNCVS results produces somewhat confusing trend-related results. On the one hand, the percentage of respondents "ever" experiencing police brutality drops from 4.6% in 2009 to 3.9% in 2012-13. On the other hand, the percent of respondents reporting police brutality in the past year rose from 1.0% in 2009 to 1.9% in 2012-13 (see Figure 10.6).

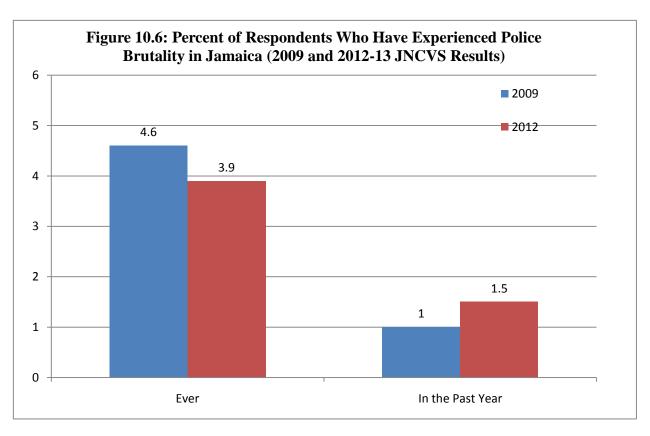
Respondents to the 2009 JNCVS were also asked the following question about witnessing police brutality: Have you ever directly witnessed police brutality against another person? Please note that we only want you to tell us about things you have seen in person. We are not talking about things you may have heard about from someone else or things you may have seen on television or read about in the news. While the results suggest that only 3.9% of respondents have been the victim of police brutality, a much higher percentage (13.8%) reports that they have witnessed police brutality at some time in their life (see Figure 10.7). In fact, one out of every twelve respondents (8.3%) reports that they have witnessed police brutality on two or more occasions in their life and one out of every twenty respondents (5.3%) claims that they have witnessed police brutality in the past twelve months.

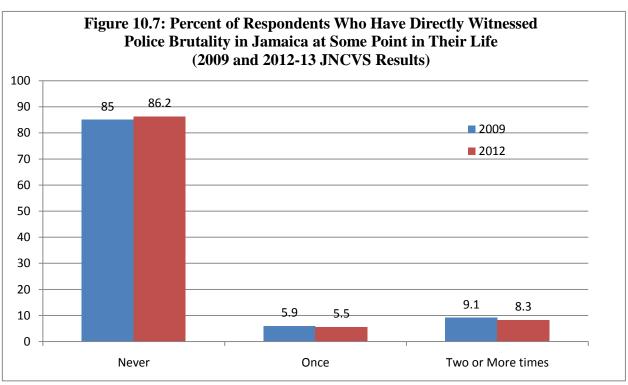
A comparison with the results of the previous JNCVS suggests that the witnessing of police brutality in Jamaica declined slightly between 2009 and 2012-13 (see Figure 10.7). For example, in 2009, 15.0% of respondents reported that they had witnessed police brutality at some time in their life, compared to 13.8% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2009, 6.4% of respondents reported seeing at least one incidence of police brutality in the past twelve months, compared to 5.3% in 2012-13.

The 491 respondents who claimed to have witnessed police brutality at some point in their life were subsequently asked whether they had complained about these incidents to law enforcement or other government authorities. Only 61 of these 491 individuals (12.4%) actually filed a formal report or complaint. The 430 respondents who did not file a report against the police were asked why they did not register an official complaint about the alleged case of police brutality they had witnessed. Over

half of these respondents (58.1%) claimed that they did not report the brutality they had witnessed because they were afraid of the police. Furthermore, an additional 43.9% of respondents claimed that they did not report police brutality because it was "none of my business." One out of five respondents who remained silent about police brutality (20.4%) claimed that they did not report the incident they had witnessed because they do not trust the police and 15.8% claimed that they did not report because it "would not do any good." Other less common reasons for not reporting police brutality include the presence of other witnesses (22.2%), not wanting to be labeled a snitch (6.2%), a desire to avoid court (1.0%) and not knowing where to file a report (1.3%). Interestingly, one-tenth (10.2%) of respondents did not report police brutality because they felt the victim deserved the harsh treatment they had received.



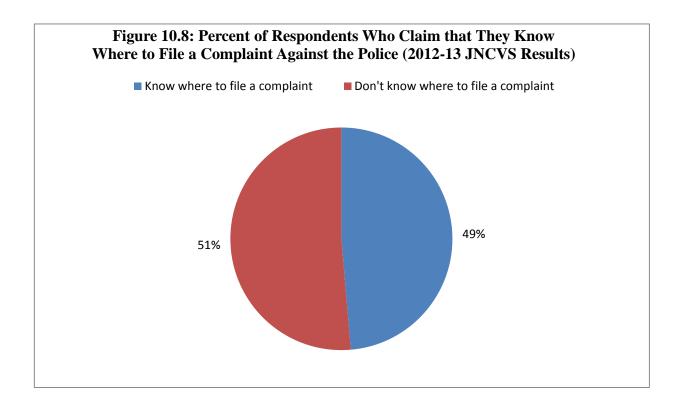




Public Perception and Experiences with the Police Complaints Process

The investigation into public perceptions of Jamaica's police complaints process began with the following question: *Sometimes people have problems with or complaints about the police. Do you know where citizens can go to make a complaint against the police?* The results suggest that about half of the Jamaican population (48.6%) knows where to file a complaint against the police. However, the other half (51.3%) does not know where to file a complaint (see Figure 10.8). This figure is almost identical to the results of the 2006 JNCVS.

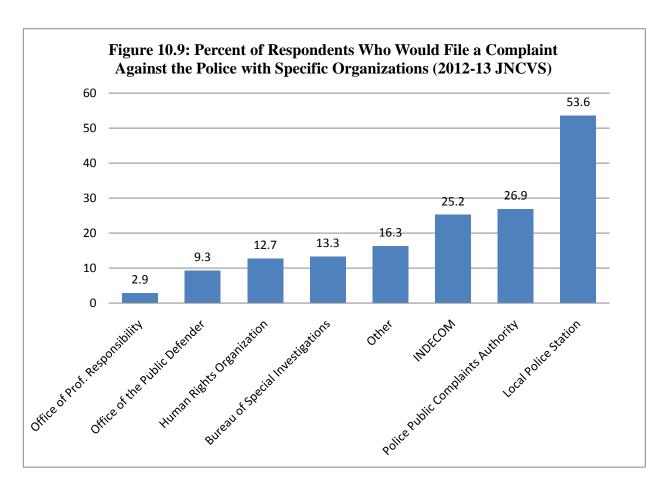
Further analysis reveals that knowledge about where to file a complaint against the police is unrelated to Parish of residence, gender, age or social class. However, respondents with higher levels of education are more likely to report that they know where to file a complaint. For example 65.0% of respondents with a university education reported that they know where to file a formal complaint against the police, compared to only 46.9% of people with primary school or less.

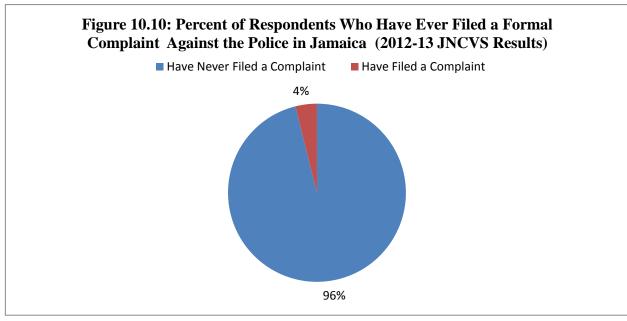


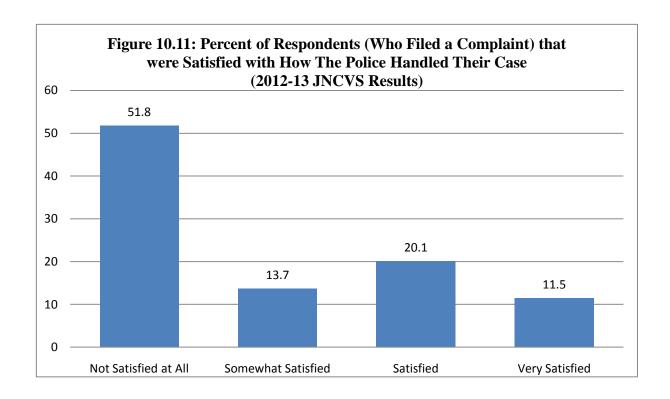
The 1,727 respondents who indicated that they knew where to file a complaint against the police were subsequently asked to name all of the organizations where a citizen of Jamaica could file a complaint (see Figure 10.9). Over half of these respondents (53.3%) reported that a civilian could file a complaint at a local police station. The Police Complaints Authority was the second most identified organization for filing complaints against the police (26.9%), followed by INDECOM (25.2%), the Bureau of Special Investigations (13.3%) and a variety of human rights organizations (12.7%). A small minority of respondents also identified the Office of the Public Defender (9.3%) and the Office of Professional Responsibility (2.9%). It is also important to note that 16.3% of respondents identified "other" organizations where civilians might file complaints against the police. Closer analysis reveals that most of these respondents would just file their complaint with a local police station. However, a number of respondents stated that they would directly complain to the Police Commissioner, Police Headquarters or to the Ministry of National Security.

Although half of the 2012-13 JNCVS respondents know where they would make a complaint against the police, further analysis reveals that only 137 individuals (only 3.9% of all respondents) have actually filed a formal complaint against the police at some point in their life (see Figure 10.10). The majority of these complaints involved allegations of police brutality, unfair or disrespectful treatment by individual police officers or charges of police corruption (extortion or bribery).

All respondents who indicated that they had filed a formal complaint against the police were asked the following question: "Were you satisfied with the way your complaint was handled by the police?" The results suggest that the majority of complainants (51.8%) were "not at all satisfied" with how their complaint was handled (see Figure 10.11). An additional 13.7% were only somewhat satisfied. On the other hand, one-third of all complainants (31.6%) were either satisfied (20.1%) or very satisfied (11.5%) with how their case was resolved. Importantly, the percentage of complainants who were at least somewhat satisfied with how their case was handled increased slightly from 39.6% in 2009 to 45.6% in 2012-13.



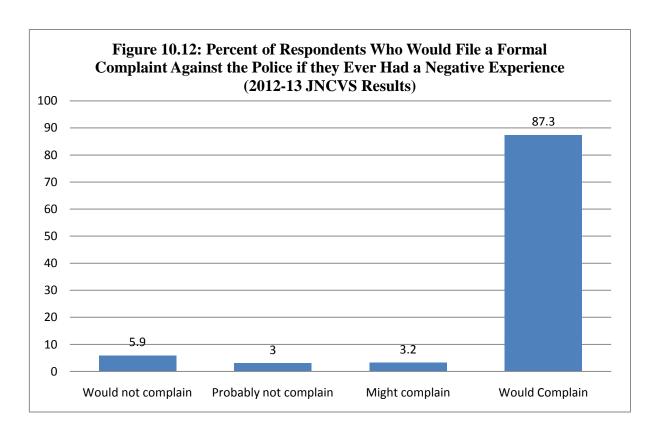




In order to test public confidence in Jamaica's police complaints process, all respondents were asked the following question: In the future, if you ever had a negative experience with the police, would you make a complaint to the Police Public Complaints Authority or some other organization? For example, if you were the victim of unfair treatment, police brutality or police harassment, would you file a complaint or would you remain silent about it? In response to this question, the vast majority of respondents (87.3%) indicated that they would indeed file a formal complaint if they ever had a negative experience with the police (see Figure 10.12). This figure is up from 82.9% in 2009. This finding suggests that the majority of Jamaican residents have confidence in the police complaints process. However, a significant minority or respondents stated that they either would not complain (5.9%), that they probably would not complain (3.0%) or that they don't know if they would complain or not (3.2%).

Finally, all respondents who indicated that they would not or might not file a formal complaint against the police (sample size=429) were asked why they might not make a complaint. Half of these respondents (51.9%) indicated that they would not complain because they are afraid of possible police retaliation. One respondent stated,

for example, that he would not complain because "it can cause you your life." Another stated that if he complained against an individual officer "they might come and try to hurt me." Others feared that if they complained against the police they may lose their jobs or that they or their family members could be unfairly arrested. An additional third of respondents (33.3%) indicated that they would not complain because they felt that the complaining would not do any good. Similarly, a fifth of respondents (20.0%) stated that they would not complain because they believe the police would cover up their wrong doings. These respondents generally expressed the belief that the police would lie to protect themselves and their colleagues and that ultimately, nothing positive would result from making a complaint. One out of every twenty-nine respondents (3.4%) indicated that they would not complain because they do not know how to formally file a complaint against the police. A few respondents indicated that they would not complain because they would just "leave it to God" to provide justice.



PART ELEVEN: PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THE CITIZEN SECURITY AND JUSTICE PROGRAM

Highlights

- The Citizenship Security and Justice Program (CSJP) is designed to reduce crime and violence in Jamaica and improve public attitudes towards the police and criminal justice system. The program delivers various prevention activities and strategic interventions that address individual, family and community risk factors.
- By 2013 the CSJP had been implemented in 39 vulnerable Jamaican communities. Most of these communities suffer from high rates of crime and social disorder.
- According to an analysis provided by STATIN, 374 of the 3,556 respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS (10.5% of the sample) live within a CSJP community.
- All respondents were asked if they had ever heard of the CSJP. The results reveal that public awareness of the CSJP is quite low. Indeed, only 16.8% of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS indicate that they have heard about the program.
- Public awareness of the CSJP, however, is significantly higher among respondents who live in CSJP communities (27.5%) than among respondents who live in non-CSJP communities (15.6%).
- All respondents who indicated that they had heard about the CSJP were asked if they knew whether the program was operating in their community. The results indicate that only 44 of the 374 respondents who live in a CSJP community (11.8%) were actually aware that the program was operational in their own area.
- All 598 respondents who were aware of the CSJP were asked to evaluate its effectiveness. Most of these respondents feel that the program is doing either a good (49.8%) or average job (30.3%) preventing crime. Only 6.4% feel that the CSJP is doing a poor job in this capacity. Similarly, nine out of ten respondents (89.3%) feel that the government should either increase funding for the CSJP or maintain current funding levels.
- Only 88 respondents (2.5% of the sample) believe that the CSJP is operational in their own community. The vast majority of these respondents feel that the program has reduced crime in their neighbourhood (73.8%) and made their community a better place to live (79.6%).

- Only 32 respondents (about 1% of the sample) indicated that they have in fact accessed the services provided by the CSJP. These 32 respondents were asked how satisfied they were with the services they had received from the program. The data suggest that almost all CSJP clients (84.4%) were either satisfied or very satisfied with the services they had received.
- Consistent with program objectives, respondents who reside in CSJP communities are more likely to report that crime in their local community has declined over the last five years (44.1%) than respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities (27.5%).
- Overall the rate of property victimization within CSJP communities is slightly lower than in non-CSJP communities. However, the rate of violent victimization is slightly higher.
- Respondents from CSJP communities report slightly higher levels of criminal offending than respondents from non-CSJP communities.
- CSJP and non-CSJP communities differ little with respect to fear of crime. However, the residents of CSJP communities are more likely to report local crime and disorder problems and are more likely to report that they have witnessed a violent crime in the past year.
- Respondents from CSJP communities are also more likely to report that they
 frequently hear gunshots in their community than respondents from non-CSJP
 communities.
- Respondents from CSJP communities are more likely to report that, over the past year, people have moved out of their community because of fear of crime.
- In general, respondents from CSJP communities have a lower opinion of the police than respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities.
- Overall, these results suggest that respondents who reside in CSJP communities tend to live in more violent, crime-prone areas than respondents who live in communities where the CSJP project is not offered. These findings are highly consistent with the argument that the CSJP program is using its resources wisely by targeting high-crime communities with the greatest need of intervention.
- Future evaluations of the CSJP program should directly observe changes in targeted communities over time and directly compare CSJP communities with a control group of high-crime communities in Jamaica that have not benefited from CSJP services. Unfortunately, such an analysis was not possible using data from the 2012-13 JNCVS.

Introduction

In this section of the report we explore public awareness and perceptions of the Citizenship Security and Justice Program (CSJP). This program is funded by the Inter-American Development Bank and the Government of Jamaica, and more recently by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID). The focus of Phase I of this initiative was to enhance citizen security and justice in Jamaica by: 1) Preventing crime and violence; 2) Strengthening crime management capabilities; and 3) Improving the delivery of judicial services. The Ministry of National Security completed CSJP Phase I in December 2009. In January 2011, CSJP Phase II was expanded to 39 volatile and vulnerable communities. Of these communities, nineteen are located in Kingston and St. Andrew Parishes, ten are in St. James, four are in St. Catherine and three are in Clarendon. The program also serves one community in St. Ann, one in St. Mary and one in Westmoreland.

The general objective of the CSJP II program is to contribute to crime and violence reduction in disadvantaged communities through the financing and implementation of prevention and strategic interventions to address identified individual, family and community risk factors. The primary objectives of Phase II are:

- 1. To contribute to a reduction in the level of major crimes and interpersonal violence:
- 2. To increase the public perception of safety; and
- 3. To strengthen the capacity of the Ministry of National Security to oversee and execute the citizen security program;

In order to achieve the stated objectives, Phase II of the CSJP utilizes two main components:

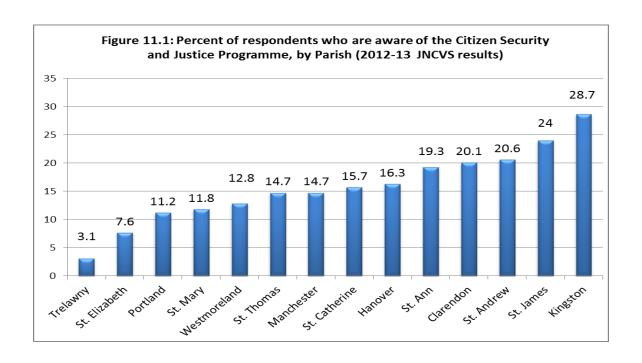
<u>Community Action</u>: Program funds will finance technical assistance, civil works and equipment in the following areas: (i) Community Mobilization and Governance; (ii) Delivery of Violence Prevention Services; (iii) Establishment of Community Multi-Purpose Centres; (iv) Development of a Restorative and Community Justice Policy and Establishment of Community Justice Tribunals; and (v) Social Marketing and Public Education Campaigns.

Institutional Strengthening of the Ministry of National Security: The program will finance technical assistance and equipment in the following areas: (i) The development of evidenced-based policies; and (ii) The implementation of an integrated Management Information System to monitor trends in crime and violence, facilitate information exchange and assist in policy and program formulation.

Public Awareness of the Citizenship Security and Justice Program

All respondents to the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS) were asked: "Have you ever heard of the Citizenship Security and Justice Program (CSJP)?" The data reveal that public awareness of the CSJP is quite low. Indeed, at the time of the survey, only 16.8% of all respondents indicated that they had heard about the program. However, further analysis reveals that people who live in communities where the CSJP is being implemented are more aware of the program than people who live in other areas. According to STATIN, 374 respondents (or 10.5% of the sample) lived in CSJP communities at the time of the survey. More than a quarter of these respondents (27.5%) report that they have heard about the CSJP, compared to only 15.6% of respondents who live in non-CSJP communities.

Further analysis reveals that awareness of the CSJP is highest among the residents of Kingston (28.7%), St. James (24.0%), St. Andrew (20.6%), Clarendon (20.1%) and St. Ann (19.3%). By contrast, only 3.1% of Trelawny residents and 7.6% of St. Elizabeth residents report that they have heard about the CSJP (see Figure 11.1). Not surprisingly the program is not being offered in these two Parishes. Although awareness of the CSJP is significantly higher in the Parishes and communities where it is being offered, it is important to note that seven out of ten respondents (72.5%) who live in CSJP communities are still unaware of the program's existence. Furthermore, all respondents who indicated that they had heard about the CSJP were asked whether they knew if the program was being implemented in their community. The results suggest that only 44 of the 374 respondents who actually live in CSJP communities (11.8%) are aware that the CSJP is operating within their own community.



Awareness of Services offered to the Community

All respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS were asked: "Does the Citizen Security and Justice Program offer services in your community?" Only 88 respondents (2.5% of the sample) reported that CSJP services were provided in their own community. As it turns out, 44 of these 88 respondents (50%) are incorrect. Although they may think the CSJP program operates in their community, official data indicates that it does not.

Nonetheless, all 88 respondents who thought that the CSJP program operated in their community were asked about the types of services that the program provides (see Table 11.1). About a third of these individuals (29.5%) reported that the CSJP provides assistance with respect to finding employment. An additional 26.1% feel that the program provides classes in both English and Mathematics. One in five respondents reported that the program provides lessons in conflict resolution (22.7%), parenting skills (21.6%), homework assistance (21.6%) and peace education (19.3%). At the other end of the spectrum, only 6.8% were aware that CSJP conducts corner meetings with at-risk youth, only 2.3% were aware that the program conducts home visits and only one respondent (1.1% of the sample) was aware of CSJP's Rapid Impact Project. Although

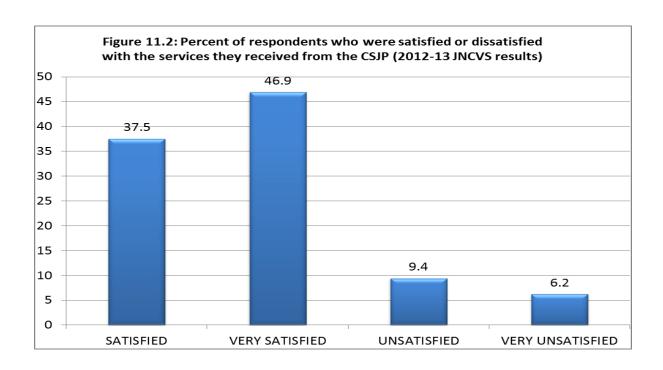
CSJP also provides training in theatre skills, none of the respondents reported knowledge of this service.

Table 11.1: What type of services does the CSJP provide in your community? (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of service	Percent
Help with finding employment	29.5
Classes in CXC English and Mathematics	26.1
Conflict Resolution	22.7
Parenting Education	21.6
Homework Assistance	21.6
Peace Education	19.3
Remedial/Lifelong Learning	15.9
Multi-purpose Centres	14.8
Counseling	13.6
Mentoring	8.0
Remedial Reading	6.8
Organizational Development	6.8
Corner Meetings with at-risk youth	6.8
Home Visits	2.3
Rapid Impact Project	1.1
Theatre Skills	0.0

Personal Use of CSJP Services

All respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS were asked: "In your life, have you ever accessed any of the services offered by the CSJP?" Only 32 persons or 0.9% of the sample indicated that they had accessed such services. The 32 respondents who had accessed CSJP services were asked how satisfied they were with the program (see Figure 11.2). The data indicate that the vast majority of CSJP clients (84.4%) were either satisfied (37.5%) or very satisfied (46.9%) with the services they had received. Only 15.6% reported that they were unsatisfied (9.4%) or very unsatisfied (6.2%).



The 32 respondents who indicated that they had accessed CSJP services were subsequently asked what services they had used (see table 11.2). The data indicate that conflict resolution – reported by 25% of clients -- was the most commonly used CSJP service. Other commonly used services include classes in CXC English and Mathematics (18.8%), parenting education (12.5%), peace education (12.5%), and organizational development (12.5%). Services which were accesses infrequently include remedial reading (0%), theatre skills (3.1%), home visits (3.1%), and homework assistance (3.1%). In addition, only 3.1% of persons who accessed services indicated that they had participated in a Rapid Impact Project.

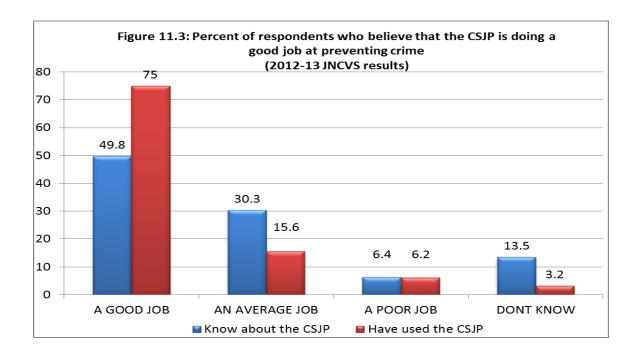
Table 11.2: CSJP services that persons have accessed (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of service	Percent
Conflict Resolution	25.0
Classes in CXC English and Mathematics	18.8
Parenting Education	12.5
Peace Education	12.5
Organizational Development	12.5
Counseling	9.4
Corner Meetings with at-risk youth	9.4
Help with finding employment	6.2
Remedial/Lifelong Learning	6.2
Multi-purpose Centres	6.2
Mentoring	6.2
Homework Assistance	3.1
Home Visits	3.1
Rapid Impact Project	3.1
Theatre Skills	3.1
Remedial Reading	0.0

Overall Evaluation of the Citizenship Security and Justice Program

As indicated above, only 16.8% of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS (598 respondents) indicated that they had heard about the CSJP program. These 598 respondents were asked: "Do you think the CSJP is doing a good job, an average job or a poor job providing appropriate crime prevention initiatives to the communities it serves?" Overall, 49.8% of these respondents believe that the CSJP is doing a good job, while 30.3% feel that the CSJP is doing an average job. By contrast, only 6.4% feel that the CSJP is doing a poor job (see figure 11.3). It is also important to note that respondents who have actually used CSJP services tend to evaluate the program more highly than those respondents who have only heard about the program. For example, 75% of respondents who have used CSJP services believe that the program is doing a good job preventing crime, compared to 49.8% of those who have only heard about the program.

Understandably, those who have only heard about the program are more likely to report that they don't know whether the CSJP is doing a good job or not.

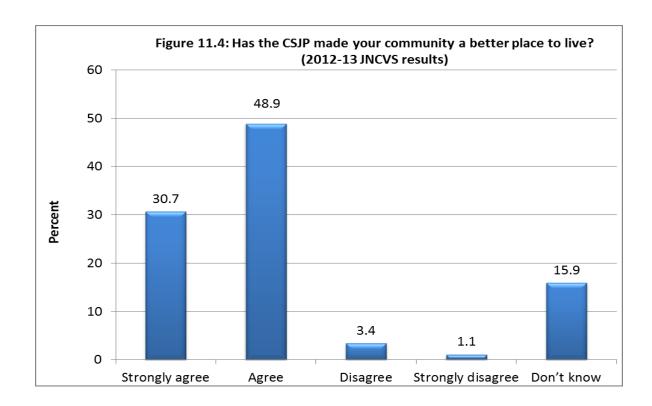


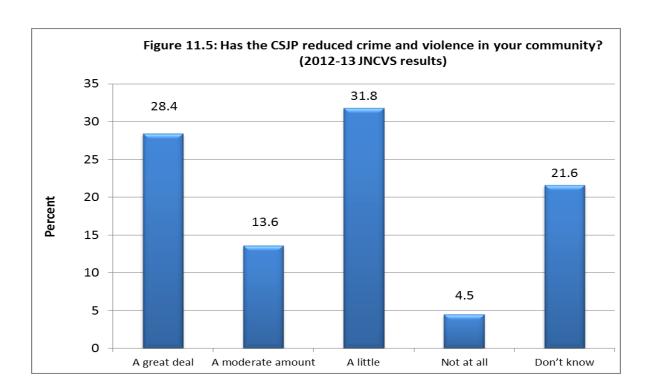
As a means of getting even more insight into respondents' opinions about the CSJP, all persons were asked: "In your opinion, do you think the Government of Jamaica should continue funding for the CSJP?" Fully 43.3% of persons who know about the CSJP feel that the government should increase funding for the program, while 46% feel that funding should be kept at the same level. Only a small minority (1.8%) feel that funding should be decreased or stopped (2.3%) altogether.

Respondents were also asked "Do you think the CSJP is a good way to spend taxpayers' money?" The results suggest that a large proportion of respondents feel that the CSJP is an excellent (22.7%) or a good (60.2%) way to spend taxpayers' money. By contrast, only a small minority of respondents feel that the CSJP is a poor (6%) or very poor (2.7%) way to spend taxpayers' money.

As discussed above, only 2.5% of the sample (88 respondents) believe that the CSJP program is operating in their community. Nonetheless, these 88 respondents were asked the following question: "Do you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree that the CSJP has made your community a better place to live?" The results

suggest that eight out of ten respondents (79.6%) agree or strongly agree that the CSJP has improved their community (see Figure 11.4). These 88 respondents were then asked: "In your opinion, has the CSJP reduced crime and violence in your community?" Most respondents (73.8%) feel that the CSJP program has indeed reduced crime in their community (see Figure 11.5). One out of four (28.4%) feel that the CSJP has reduced crime in their community a great deal, 13.6% feel that the program has reduced crime a moderate amount and 31.8% feel that the program has reduced crime a little.





In order to get a clearer picture of the impact that the CSJP has had on specific communities, all respondents were asked: "In your opinion, has the CSJP helped your community improve in any of the following ways?" The results in Table 11.3 indicate that 50% of respondents feel that the CSJP has helped persons in their communities to find jobs. An additional 43.2% feel that the CSJP has provided educational support for youth and 33% feel that the CSJP has helped to resolve interpersonal conflicts in their community.

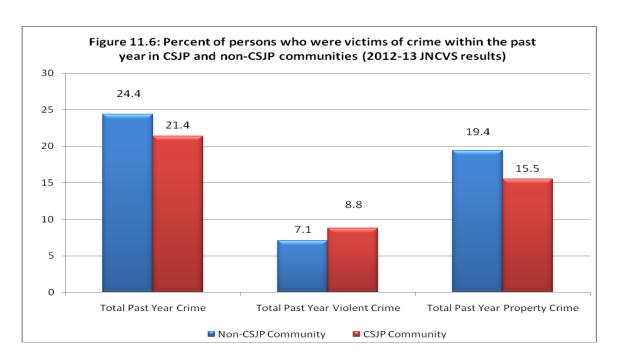
Table 11.3: Has the CSJP helped your community improve in any of the following ways? (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Help provided to communities	Percent
Helped people find jobs	50.0
Provided educational support for youth in the community	43.2
Helped to resolve conflict in the community	33.0
Provided parenting skills	23.9
Helped to reduce crime	23.9
Provided youth with leisure activities that helped them to stay out of trouble	22.7
Helped to establish a Community Action Committee	13.6
Helped people cope better with emotional problems	10.2

Victimization levels in CSJP vs. non-CSJP communities

A potential strategy for evaluating the impact of the CSJP program is to compare the crime victimization levels of people who reside in CSJP communities with victimization levels of people who reside in communities where the program is not offered. The percent of respondents who were victims of crime within the past year in CSJP and non-CSJP communities is provided in Figure 11.6. Overall, the findings indicate that respondents residing in CSJP communities (24.4%) were less likely to have been victimized within the past year than persons residing in non-CSJP communities (21.4%).

Property crime victimization within the last year is also lower in CSJP communities compared to non-CSJP communities. In the case of communities which did not benefit from the CSJP intervention, 19.4% of persons reported that they were the victim of a property crime within the past year, compared to 15.5% of persons in CSJP communities. The lower levels of total crime victimization and property crime victimization in CSJP communities, when compared to non-CSJP communities may attest to the benefits of the CSJP intervention -- especially when you consider that the communities which were chosen for the CSJP intervention are the very communities in Jamaica that have traditionally experienced higher than average crime rates.



While there have been noted gains in CSJP communities with respect to overall crime levels and property crime levels, the level of violent crime in CSJP communities still somewhat exceeds that of other communities in Jamaica. More specifically, 7.1% of persons in non-CSJP communities report that they were the victim of one or more violent crimes within the past year, compared to 8.8% of persons in CSJP communities. While this seems to suggest that the CSJP may not be as successful in its fight against violent crimes, these findings must be considered within the context of longer term gains in CSJP communities. CSJP communities were originally selected because of their comparatively high levels of violent crimes, and the small difference in violent crime levels when we compare CSJP to non-CSJP communities (a difference of only 1.7%) suggest that the CSJP intervention may be closing the gap in terms of violent crime. A more rigorous investigation of this hypothesis, however, would require longitudinal crime victimization data from CSJP and non-CSJP communities. Such data would allow one to observe changes in crime levels over time in CSJP and non-CSJP communities.

While figure 11.6 indicates that fewer persons in CSJP communities have been victims of total crime and property crimes within the past year, Figure 11.7 indicates that for total crime, property crime and violent crime victimization within the past year, the average number of incidents of victimization per person is higher in CSJP communities compared to non-CSJP communities. More specifically, when all 21 crimes which were examined in this study are considered simultaneously, persons in non-CSJP communities experienced an average of 0.74 incidents of crime victimization per person within the last year, compared to an average of 1.0 for persons in CSJP communities. When only violent crimes within the past year are considered, persons in non-CSJP communities experienced an average of 0.15 incidents per person, compared to an average of 0.32 incidents per person in CSJP communities. When only property crimes within the past year are considered, persons in non-CSJP communities experienced an average of 0.59 incidents per person, compared to an average of 0.59 communities.

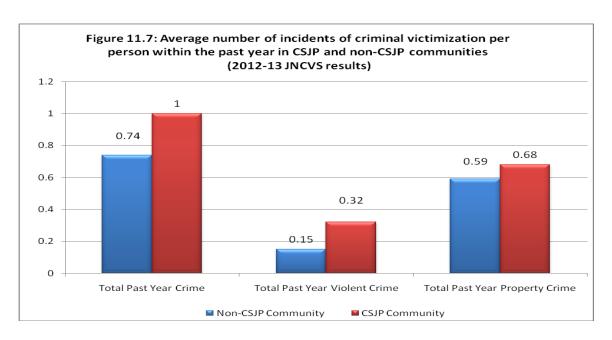


Table 11.4 shows the percent of persons who experienced specific types of crime within the past year in non-CSJP and CSJP communities. The most prevalent types of crime within the past year in CSJP communities were praedial larceny (6.7% of persons in such communities reported that they were so victimized), followed by threats without a weapon (3.5%), larceny (3.2%), break-ins (2.4%), robbery with a gun (2.1%), and threats with a weapon (2.1%). The most prevalent types of crime within the past year in non-CSJP communities were praedial larceny (10.3%), larceny (3.3%), threats without a weapon (2.5%), and threats with a weapon (2%).

The data in table 11.4 indicate that there are a number of crimes for which persons in non-CSJP communities report higher levels of victimization compared to persons in CSJP communities. These include praedial larceny, theft of bicycles/motor bikes, motor vehicle theft, theft from motor vehicles, attempted burglary, arson, attempted break-in, robbery without a gun, larceny and fraud. The most pronounced differences are with praedial larceny (10.3% of persons in non-CSJP communities report that they were a victim of this crime within the last year compared to 6.7% of persons in CSJP communities), theft of bicycles/motor bikes (0.7% in non-CSJP communities vs. 0% in CSJP communities) and motor vehicle theft (0.4% in non-CSJP communities vs. 0% in CSJP communities).

On the other hand, the data in table 11.4 also indicate that the prevalence of a number of crimes is higher in CSJP communities compared to non-CSJP communities. These crimes include robbery with a gun, threats without a weapon, break-ins, assault with a weapon, assault without a weapon, burglary, vandalism, sexual assault/rape and threats with a weapon. The most pronounced differences are with robbery with a gun (2.1% of persons in CSJP communities report that they were a victim of this crime within the last year compared to 1.1% of persons in non-CSJP communities), threats without a weapon (3.5% in CSJP communities vs. 2.5% in non-CSJP communities) and break-ins (2.4% in CSJP communities vs. 1.8% in non-CSJP communities).

TABLE 11.4: Percent of persons who experienced specific types of crime within the past year, by non-CSJP vs. CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Motor Vehicle Theft	0.4	0.0
Theft From Motor Vehicles	1.6	1.3
Theft of Bicycles/Motor Bikes	0.7	0.0
Burglary	1.7	1.9
Attempted Burglary	0.8	0.5
Break-In	1.8	2.4
Attempted Break-In	0.4	0.3
Robbery with a gun	1.1	2.1
Robbery without a gun	0.4	0.3
Larceny	3.3	3.2
Praedial Larceny	10.3	6.7
Vandalism	0.9	1.1
Threats with a weapon	2.0	2.1
Threats without a weapon	2.5	3.5
Assault with a weapon	1.1	1.6
Assault without a weapon	0.8	1.1
Sexual Assault/Rape	0.1	0.3
Kidnapping	0.0	0.0
Arson	0.2	0.0
Fraud	0.6	0.5
Extortion	0.3	0.3

Fear of crime in CSJP vs. non-CSJP communities

Respondents in the 2012-13 JNCVS were asked to indicate how safe or unsafe they felt when engaging in eight specific activities (see table 11.5). Persons in CSJP communities were most fearful of going to a bar, nightclub or stage show after dark (fully 35.6% indicated that they felt unsafe or very unsafe when they engaged in this activity), going shopping after dark (33.4%), going to a restaurant after dark (33.4%) and going to work or school after dark (32.6%). Persons in non-CSJP communities felt the most unsafe when going to a bar, nightclub or stage show after dark (34%), going to work or school after dark (32.6%), and going to a restaurant after dark (31.2%).

With the exception of using public transit after dark, persons in CSJP communities are more fearful than persons in non-CSJP communities. The most pronounced differences occurred with respect to levels of fear when spending time at home alone after dark (18.4% of persons in CSJP communities indicated that they felt unsafe or very unsafe when doing so compared to 14.1% of persons in non-CSJP communities), walking alone in their community after dark (24.3% in CSJP communities vs. 20.5% in non-CSJP communities), and going shopping alone after dark (33.4% in CSJP communities vs. 30.1% in non-CSJP communities).

Table 11.5: Percent of respondents who feel unsafe or very unsafe when they engage in specific activities, by non-CSJP vs. CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

How safe would you feel	Non-CSJP	CSJP
	Communities	Communities
If you went to a nightclub, bar or stage show after dark.	34.0	35.6
If you went out to a restaurant after dark?	31.2	33.4
If you went out shopping alone after dark?	30.1	33.4
If you went to work or school after dark?	32.6	32.6
If you had to use public transit after dark?	30.3	29.9
Walking alone in your community after dark?	20.5	24.3
Spending time at home alone after dark?	14.1	18.4
Walking alone in your community during the daytime?	4.5	5.9

Table 11.6 shows the percent of persons who are very worried about specific crimes. Persons in CSJP communities are the most worried about kidnapping (with

20.3% indicating that they are very worried that this will happen to them), rape or sexual assault (19.3%), and being attacked by a stranger (17.9%). Persons in non-CSJP communities are most concerned about the same crimes, with 19.8% reporting that they are very worried about kidnapping, 18.6% about rape or sexual assault and 15.8% about being attacked by a stranger. Almost invariably, persons in CSJP communities are more worried about the specified crimes than persons in non-CSJP communities, though for the most part, the differences in the proportion of persons who are very worried are not that large. The most notable differences occurred with being attacked by a stranger, where 17.9% of persons in CSJP communities compared to 15.8% of persons in non-CSJP communities were very worried that this would happen to them. The other notable difference occurred with robbery, where 17.1% of persons in CSJP communities compared to 15.7% of persons in non-CSJP communities were very worried that this would happen to them. With respect to being attacked by someone they knew, more persons in non-CSJP communities were very worried about this happening to them (12.6%) compared to persons in CSJP communities (11%).

TABLE 11.6: Percent of persons who are very worried that they will become the victim of specified crimes, by non-CSJP vs. CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Break-ins	12.7	13.1
Robbery	15.7	17.1
Attacked by a stranger	15.8	17.9
Attacked by someone that you know	12.6	11.0
Rape or sexual assault	18.6	19.3
Kidnapping	19.8	20.3

While there is evidence that overall victimization in CSJP communities is going down (see figure 11.6), the data in tables 11.5 and 11.6 indicate that persons in CSJP communities are still comparatively more fearful than persons in non-CSJP communities.

This is not surprising as levels of fear may be impacted by the history of criminal victimization, and where victimization is declining, this may be followed by a decline in levels of fear, but only after residents come to realize that such declines in crime levels are being sustained. While this is the case, the data in table 11.7 indicate that persons in CSJP communities do recognize that there is a decline in terms of the levels of crime in their community, despite the fact that they also recognize that their communities have high levels of crime compared to other communities in Jamaica. More specifically, 8.6% of persons in CSJP communities recognize that their community has more crime than other communities, compared to 4.8% of persons in non-CSJP communities who feel the same. This indicates that persons in CSJP communities are aware that crime is a problem in their communities. Despite this, more persons in CSJP communities than non-CSJP communities feel that crime in Jamaica and in their communities specifically is declining, compared to persons in non-CSJP communities. According to the data, 16.3% of persons in CSJP communities believe that crime has decreased in Jamaica within the last five years, compared to only 12.9% of persons in non-CSJP communities. In addition, fully 44.1% of persons in CSJP communities believe that crime in their community has decreased over the last five years, compared to only 27.5% of persons in non-CSJP communities. This finding is all the more significant given the comparatively higher crime levels which would have been one of the main criteria for selecting communities for CSJP intervention. These data indicate that despite these high crime levels (which persons are aware of), they recognize that their communities, and by extension Jamaica as a whole, is making progress where crime reduction is concerned.

TABLE 11.7: Percent of respondents who agree with specific statements about crime in Jamaica and in their communities, by non-CSJP vs. CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Crime in Jamaica has decreased over the past five years	12.9	16.3
My community has more crime than other communities in Jamaica	4.8	8.6
Crime in my community has decreased within the last five years	27.5	44.1

Self-Reported Drug Usage and Criminal Behaviour in CSJP vs. non-CSJP communities

Table 11.8 shows the percent of persons who have used alcohol and other drugs within the last year, with the results disaggregated according to CSJP and non-CSJP communities. The results indicate that alcohol usage is somewhat higher in non-CSJP communities than in CSJP communities, but that marijuana usage is higher in CSJP communities compared to non-CSJP communities. More specifically, 47.8% of persons in non-CSJP communities reported that they used alcohol within the last year compared to 42% in CSJP communities. With respect to marijuana usage, in contrast, 13.4% of persons in non-CSJP communities reported usage within the past year compared to 14.4% in CSJP communities. The use of cocaine/crack and other drugs is almost negligible in both types of communities.

TABLE 11.8: Percent of persons who have used specified drugs within the last year, by non-CSJP vs. CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Alcohol	47.8	42.0
Marijuana	13.4	14.4
Cocaine or Crack	0.2	0.3
Other drugs	0.1	0.0

Table 11.9 shows the percent of persons who have ever been in a gang or have family or close friends who are gang members. The results are disaggregated according to CSJP and non-CSJP communities. The data indicate that the proportion of persons who were ever in a gang and who have family and friends who are gang members is higher in CSJP communities compared to non-CSJP communities. More specifically, while 0.5% of persons in non-CSJP communities report that they were ever in a gang, 1.1% of persons in CSJP communities report the same. Similarly, while 3.6% of persons

in non-CSJP communities report that they have family members or close friends who are current gang members, 5.1% of persons in CSJP communities report the same.

TABLE 11.9: Gang membership in non-CSJP and CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Ever been a gang member	0.5	1.1
Family/friends who are gang members	3.6	5.1

Table 11.10 shows the percent of persons who self-reported that they committed specified crimes within the past year. The results are disaggregated according to CSJP and non-CSJP communities. The data indicate that overall, respondents in CSJP communities reported committing a higher level of crime than persons in non-CSJP communities. When all crimes are considered simultaneously, 9.9% of persons in CSJP communities reported that they have committed a crime within the last year, compared to 6% in non-CSJP communities. When specific crimes are examined, a larger proportion of persons in CSJP communities than in non-CSJP communities reported that they had engaged in burglary/break-ins, carrying a gun in public, assault, having sex with someone for money, selling illegal drugs, using a weapon on someone, larceny and being involved in a physical fight. The most notable differences were with being involved in a physical fight (with 5.3% of persons in CSJP communities reporting that they did so within the past year compared to 3.5% of persons in non-CSJP communities), and larceny (1.6% for CSJP communities compared to 0.4% for non-CSJP communities). In contrast, persons in non-CSJP communities reported higher levels of involvement in holding/carrying drugs for someone, theft from a motor vehicle, shoplifting, motor vehicle theft and robbery. For the most part, however, the proportion of persons in non-CSJP communities who engaged in these crimes was only slightly higher than the proportion of persons in CSJP communities who engaged in these crimes.

TABLE 11.10: Percent of persons who have committed various crimes in non-CSJP and CSJP communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	Non-CSJP Communities	CSJP Communities
Motor vehicle theft	0.1	0.0
Theft from a motor vehicle	0.2	0.0
Burglary/break-in	0.2	0.3
Shoplifting	0.2	0.0
Larceny	0.4	1.6
Robbery	0.4	0.3
Physical fight	3.5	5.3
Assault	0.9	1.3
Used a weapon on someone	0.8	1.6
Carried a gun in public	0.7	0.8
Shooting	0.3	0.3
Sold illegal drugs	0.4	1.1
Had sex with someone for money	1.1	1.6
Held/carried drugs for someone	0.3	0.0
Total	6.0	9.9

Perceived Community Crime and Disorder in CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities

The results suggest that local problems with crime and disorder are more pronounced within CSJP communities than non-CSJP communities (see Table 11.11). For example, 49.5% of respondents who live in CSJP communities report that people sell drugs in their community "at least sometimes," compared to only 34.8% of people who live in non-CSJP communities. Similarly, almost half of all respondents (48.1%) who reside in CSJP communities report that robbery "at least sometimes" takes place in their community, compared to only 34.9% of those who live in Non-CSJP areas. On average, respondents from CSJP communities scored significantly higher than other respondents on both the Perceived Community Disorder Index (Mean=106.35 vs. 79.09) and the Perceived Community Crime Index (Mean=86.39 vs. 58.97).²¹

_

²¹ The higher the scores on these indexes the higher the perceived level of community crime and disorder. See Part Nine for a detailed description of these measures.

TABLE 11.11: Percent of Respondents Who Report that Certain Types of Public Disorder Problems "At Least Sometimes" Occur within Their Own Community: A Comparison of CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of Community-Level	Non-CSJP	CSJP
Problem	Communities	Communities
People sleeping in public places	7.5	12.6
Homelessness	5.7	12.3
Garbage or litter lying around	34.0	56.7
Poor sanitation or sewage	11.1	20.3
Roadblocks or public demonstrations	7.2	9.6
People being drunk or rowdy in public	33.4	30.2
Vandalism or property damage	11.7	12.8
People using illegal drugs	47.1	63.1
People selling illegal drugs	34.8	49.5
Prostitution	8.1	13.6
Robbery	34.9	48.1
Sexual Assault or Rape	7.3	16.3
Vigilante Mobs	5.1	6.4

The results further suggest that people are more likely to move out of CSJP communities than non-CSJP communities because of fear of crime or violence (see Table 11.12). For example, 43.8% of the respondents who reside in CSJP communities stated that, over the past year, at least a few people had moved from their community because of fear of crime or violence. By contrast, only 8.5% of the respondents in non-CSJP communities stated that people had moved from their neighbourhood for this reason.

TABLE 11.12: Percent of Respondents Who Report that People Have Moved Out of Their Community in the Past Year Because of Crime and Violence:

A Comparison of CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Number of People Who	Non-CSJP	CSJP
Moved Because of Fear of	Communities	Communities
Crime		
Nobody Moved	85.9	49.2
Only a few people	5.5	27.8
Many people	3.0	16.0
Don't know	5.6	7.0

The results also suggest that respondents from CSJP communities are much more likely to hear gunshots in their community than the residents of non-CSJP communities (see Table 11.13). In fact, 40.8% of the respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities report that they "never" hear gunshots in their community, compared to only 16% of the respondents who reside in communities where the CSJP operates. Similarly, one out of four CSJP residents claims that they hear gunshots in their community at least once per month, compared to only 9.5% of non-CSJP residents.

TABLE 11.13: Percent of Respondents Who Report Hearing Gunshots in their Community: A Comparison of CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Frequency of Hearing	Non-CSJP	CSJP	
Gunshots	Communities	Communities	
Never	40.8	16.0	
A few times in life	23.4	12.6	
About once a year	6.9	8.3	
A few times a year	18.4	39.3	
Once a month or more	9.5	22.5	
Don't know	1.0	1.3	

Witnessing Violent Crime in CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities

The results also suggest that the residents of CSJP communities are more likely to have recently witnessed a violent crime than the residents of communities that do not offer this program (see Table 11.14). For example, 12.8% of respondents who live in CSJP communities report that they witnessed a violent crime in the past twelve months, compared to only 7.5% of respondents who reside in non-CSJP communities. Overall, compared to other respondents, those who live in CSJP neighbourhoods are more likely to report that they recently witnessed a murder, gun battle, robbery or serious assault.

TABLE 11.14: Percent of Respondents Who Report Hearing Gunshots in their Community: A Comparison of CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Type of Crime Witnessed	Non-CSJP	CSJP		
in the Past Year	Communities	Communities		
Murder	1.0	1.9		
Shooting	1.5	4.5		
Robbery	2.6	3.5		
Serious Assault	4.3	5.9		
Any Violent Crime	7.5	12.8		

Public Perceptions of the Police in CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities

Overall, there is little evidence to suggest that the residents of CSJP communities perceive the police differently than other Jamaicans (see Table 11.15). If anything, CJSP residents are somewhat more likely to report that the police are doing "a poor job" than non-CSJP residents. For example, 26.7% of CSJP residents feel that the police are doing a "poor job" being approachable and easy to talk to, compared to 19.9% of non-CSJP residents. Similarly, 39.3% of respondents living in CSJP communities feel that the police are doing a "poor job" with respect to curbing brutality, compared to 31.6% of respondents living in non-CSJP neighbourhoods. However, an important exception exists with respect to police patrols. In fact, CSJP residents are significantly more likely than non-CSJP residents to feel that the police are doing a "good job" patrolling the streets of their community. Nonetheless, an examination of the overall Police Evaluation Scale (see description in Part Nine of this Report) suggests that respondents residing in CSJP communities evaluate the performance of the police slightly more negatively (mean=17.76) than respondents who live in communities that do not offer the CSJP program (mean=18.73). It is also important to note than the residents of CSJP communities are more likely to report that police corruption is a major problem in Jamaica. For example, 80.3% of the respondents who live in a CSJP community believe that police corruption is a "big" or "very big" problem in Jamaica, compared to only 54.6% of respondents who live in communities that do not offer the CSJP program.

TABLE 11.15: Percent of Respondents Who Believe that the Jamaican Police are Doing a Good Job, an Average Job or a Poor Job Performing Various Law Enforcement Duties, A Comparison of CSJP and Non-CSJP Communities (2012-13 JNCVS results)

	YEAR	A	Average	A Poor
		Good	Job	Job
		Job		
	CSJP	33.4	38.5	25.7
Enforcing the law.	Non-CSJP	33.7	43.1	21.1
	CSJP	25.9	34.8	34.5
Responding quickly when called.	Non-CSJP	25.4	38.5	31.9
	CSJP	23.8	47.3	26.7
Being approachable and easy to talk to.	Non-CSJP	30.9	46.5	19.9
	CSJP	20.9	33.7	38.5
Supplying crime prevention information.	Non-CSJP	22.1	37.6	34.0
	CSJP	38.5	40.6	19.0
Ensuring public safety.	Non-CSJP	35.1	43.3	18.9
	CSJP	21.4	48.1	28.9
Treating people fairly and with respect.	Non-CSJP	26.5	47.0	24.5
	CSJP	52.9	31.6	14.4
Patrolling the streets.	Non-CSJP	41.4	37.3	19.5
	CSJP	27.5	34.2	29.4
Managing or fighting criminal gangs.	Non-CSJP	26.8	40.6	24.1
	CSJP	16.8	36.6	39.3
Preventing police brutality.	Non-CSJP	21.4	41.5	31.6
	CSJP	16.0	32.9	46.5
Preventing police corruption.	Non-CSJP	17.5	37.2	38.2
	CSJP	17.6	44.7	33.7
Dealing with public complaints.	Non-CSJP	21.3	46.8	26.9

Discussion

Overall, these results suggest that respondents who reside in CSJP neighbourhoods live in more violent, crime-prone communities than respondents who live in communities where the CSJP project is not offered. In addition, the results also suggest that residents in CSJP communities also tend to have more negative perceptions about the police. At first glance these findings might be interpreted as evidence that the CSJP is not effective. In our opinion, this would be a very unfair assessment. It would be more accurate to state that these findings likely reflect the fact that the CSJP project targets socially disadvantaged, high-crime communities. In fact, these findings are highly

consistent with the argument that the CSJP program is using its resources wisely by targeting communities with the greatest need of intervention.

A more comprehensive evaluation of the CSJP would involve comparing CSJP communities to a matched control group sample of non-CSJP communities. This control group would only include communities that have similar levels of crime and social disadvantage. A more comprehensive evaluation would also use longitudinal data to examine changes in crime rates over time within both CJJP and non-CSJP communities. Finally, a more comprehensive evaluation would interview a larger sample of individuals who have actually used CSJP services. Unfortunately, such a comprehensive evaluation is beyond the scope of the 2012-13 JNCVS.

As discussed, it is not surprising that the JNCVS data indicates that CSJP communities have higher crime levels than other communities in Jamaica. After all, the CSJP is designed to service these very types of areas within Jamaica. In the future, the selection of a more suitable control group should involve the collection of community-level data on all criteria which are used for the selection of communities for CSJP intervention. Among other things, this would involve the careful mapping of official crime data in Jamaica over a period of time to determine which communities are comparable to CSJP communities in terms of crime levels. This would also involve examining community level data on other factors which are relevant to the selection of CSJP communities. Such factors may include resources within the communities which could be used in the intervention, poverty at the community level, the proportion of households which have single parent families, the average level of education at the community level, and other such factors. The collection and analysis of such data at the community level is required in order to determine which communities are comparable to CSJP communities and thus suitable for use in assessing the effectiveness of the CSJP.

_

²² In support of this argument, we compared the respondents in CSJP communities with respondents who live in selected "high-crime" Parishes (i.e., St. Catherine and Kingston). This analysis – not reported in the current report – revealed slightly smaller differences between CSJP and non-CSJP communities with respect to various measures of community crime and disorder. Nonetheless, CSJP communities still emerged as slightly more crime-prone than communities that did not receive program services.

²³ The analysis presented in this report compares CSJP communities with all other communities in Jamaica. In other words, the comparison group includes both high and low crime areas.

The other type of comparison involves the examination of longitudinal crime data. Such data will allow for the mapping of crime levels over time in CSJP communities to determine what changes have occurred after the implementation of the CSJP. It is recommended that subsequent versions of the JNCVS continue to collect data which will allow for the precise identification of CSJP communities so that crime levels can be mapped in a longitudinal manner.

PART TWELVE: SELF-REPORTED SUBSTANCE USE AND CRIMINAL ACTIVITY

Highlights

- Overall, the data suggest that the prevalence of alcohol use has increased somewhat from 2006 to 2012-13, while marijuana usage has decreased somewhat for the same time period. The use of other drugs in Jamaica is comparatively rare.
- The data indicate that alcohol is by far the most commonly used intoxicant in Jamaica. Almost half of all respondents (47.2%) reported that they used alcohol at least once in the past twelve months and one out of seven respondents (14.8%) report that they consumed alcohol once per week or more often.
- Marijuana is the second most popular drug in Jamaica. One out of every seven respondents (13.5%) used marijuana at least once in the past twelve months and one out of every twelve respondents (8.5%) used marijuana at least once per week.
- Besides marijuana, the use of illegal drugs in Jamaica is extremely rare. For example, only 0.2% of the sample indicated that they used cocaine or crack cocaine within the last twelve months, while 0.1% used other drugs within a similar period.
- Alcohol and drug use is much more common among men than women and among young persons than older persons.
- Respondents were also asked to indicate whether they have engaged in fourteen specific types of criminal behaviour. The results suggest that the majority of respondents have never engaged in the various types of criminal behaviour documented by the 2012-13 JNCVS.
- Fighting is the most common form of deviant behaviour uncovered by the survey. One out of every three respondents (31%) reported that they have been in a fight at some time in their life and one out of every twenty seven respondents (3.7%) has been in a fight in the past twelve months.
- Other types of criminal activity are far less common. When lifetime prevalence of crime is examined, the next most prevalent crimes are assault without a weapon (4.5% of the sample), weapons assault (3.4%), prostitution (2.3%), and personal theft (1.8%).
- A comparison of the results of the 2006, 2009, and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys indicate that self-reported crime has decreased for the period under consideration. This applies for the majority of crimes including

engaging in physical fights, assault without a weapon, assault with a weapon, carrying a gun in public, theft from other persons, robbery or extortion, using a gun on someone, and shoplifting.

Introduction

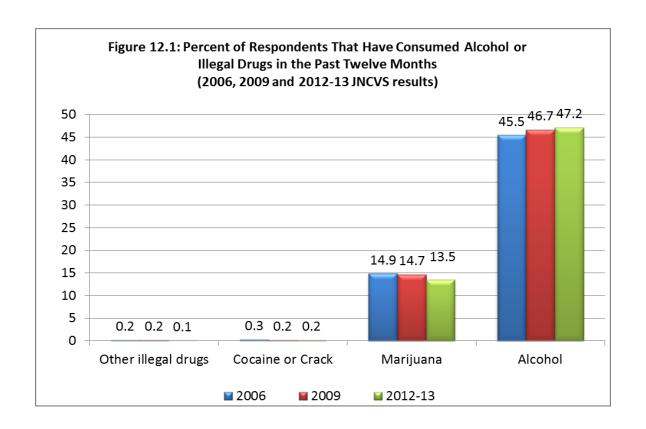
One of the aims of the 2012-13 JNCVS was to document self-reported drug and alcohol use, gang membership and personal involvement in various criminal activities. This section of the report begins by exploring self-reported alcohol and drug use. We then examine the extent to which the survey respondents have personally engaged in fourteen different types of criminal behaviour. We conclude this section of the report by examining the respondents' direct and indirect involvement with criminal gangs and whether respondents have ever been arrested or convicted of a crime. An analysis of gender, age and regional differences is provided. As discussed in earlier sections of this report, most crimes committed in Jamaica are never reported to the police and are thus never recorded in official crime statistics. The findings presented in this chapter, therefore, represent an important alternative source of crime data.

Alcohol and Drug Use

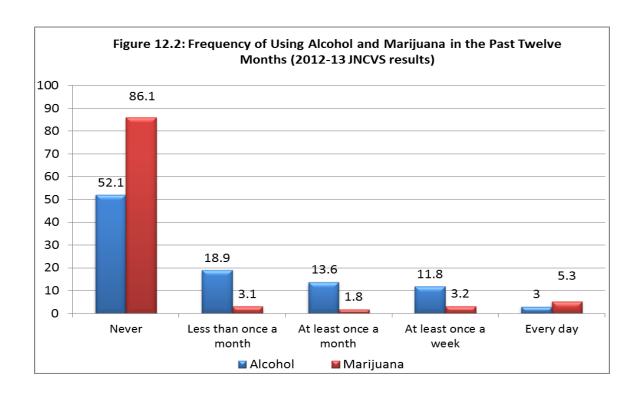
All respondents were asked if they had consumed alcohol, marijuana or cocaine in the past twelve months. Respondents were also asked if they had used any other type of illegal drug in the past year. Respondents who had consumed another type of drug were asked to identify the drug that they had used. The data indicate that alcohol is by far the most commonly used intoxicant in Jamaica (see figure 12.1 and figure 12.2). Indeed, almost half of all respondents (47.2%) reported that they used alcohol at least once in the past twelve months and one out of seven respondents (14.8%) report that they consumed alcohol once per week or more often. Marijuana is the second most popular drug in Jamaica. According to the data, one out of every seven respondents (13.5%) used marijuana at least once in the past twelve months, and one out of every thirty one respondents (3.2%) used marijuana at least once per week, and one out of every nineteen persons (5.3%) use marijuana on a daily basis. It is interesting to note that Jamaicans are

more likely to be daily consumers of marijuana (5.3%) than daily users of alcohol (3.0%). Besides marijuana, the use of illegal drugs in Jamaica is quite rare. For example, only 0.2% of the sample indicated that they used cocaine or crack cocaine within the last twelve months, while 0.1% used other drugs within a similar period.²⁴

The data in figure 12.1 indicate that the prevalence of drug use in Jamaica has not changed from 2006 to 2012-13. The proportion of the sample that used other illegal drugs within the last twelve months remained at or below 0.2% for this time period. Likewise, the proportion of persons who used cocaine or crack cocaine remained at or below 0.3% for the time period under consideration. From 2006 to 2012-13 there was a very small decrease in the usage of marijuana; down from 14.9% in 2006 to 13.5% in 2012-13. Where alcohol was concerned, there was a very small increase in usage, up from 45.5% in 2006 to 47.2% in 2012-13.



²⁴ Because of the small sample size, frequency of use was not calculated for cocaine or other illegal drugs. Gender, age and regional differences were also not examined for these drug types.



With respect to gender, the data indicate that men are much more likely to use alcohol and marijuana than females (see Table 12.1). Almost two-thirds of male respondents (64.2%) report that they consumed alcohol in the past year, compared to 32.9% of females. Similarly, one-fourth of all male respondents (24.6%) used marijuana in the past year, compared to only 4.3% of females. In addition, the weekly usage of alcohol and marijuana is higher for males than for females. The data indicate that 19.1% of males use alcohol at least once per week compared to 5.6% of females. Similarly with marijuana, 6.3% of males report usage at least once per week, compared to only 0.6% of females.

The data also indicate that, in general, alcohol and marijuana consumption decline with age (see Table 12.2). For example, 57.7% of 16-29 year-olds report that they consumed alcohol in the past year, compared to 54.4% of 30-49 year-olds and only 32.6% of respondents 50 years of age or older. Similarly, 14.7% of 16-29 year-old respondents report that they used marijuana in the past year, compared to 16.5% of 30-49 year-olds and 9.6% of those 50 years of age or older. It is important to note, however, that for persons who use alcohol and marijuana on a daily basis, the frequency of usage is

similar regardless of age. For example, 2.8% of 16-29 year olds use alcohol on a daily basis, compared to 3.7% of 30-49 year olds and 2.3% of persons older than 50 years of age. Similarly, 5.9% of 16-29 year olds use marijuana on a daily basis, compared to 6.4% of 30-49 year olds and 3.8% of persons older than 50 years of age.

Table 12.1: Frequency of Alcohol and Marijuana Use, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS results)

FREQUENCY OF USE	ALCO	OHOL	MARIJUANA			
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Never	35.3	66.2	75.0	95.4		
Less than once a month	20.9	17.2	4.7	1.9		
At least once a month	18.9	9.1	3.3	0.6		
At least once a week	19.1	5.6	6.3	0.6		
Every day	5.3	1.0	10.3	1.2		

Table 12.2: Frequency of Alcohol and Marijuana Use, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

FREQUENCY OF	A	ALCOHOL	1	M	MARIJUANA			
USE	16-29	16-29 30-49		16-29	30-49	50		
	Years	Years	Years	Years	Years	Years		
			or Older			or Older		
			Older			Older		
Never	42.1	44.9	66.4	85.2	83.0	90.0		
Less than once a month	24.0	21.0	13.3	3.4	4.0	2.2		
At least once a month	18.0	15.0	9.1	1.9	2.3	1.2		
At least once a week	12.9	14.7	7.9	3.5	3.8	2.4		
Every day	2.8	3.7	2.3	5.9	6.4	3.8		

Finally, the data indicate that the prevalence of alcohol and marijuana use varies by region of Jamaica (see Table 12.3). For example, 59.1% of the respondents from Trelawny, 57.2% of the respondents from Westmoreland and 55.4% of the respondents from Kingston indicate that they consumed alcohol in the past year. By contrast, 42.2% of the respondents from St. Thomas, 42.2% from Portland, 41.8% from Hanover, and 40.1% from St. James indicate that they used alcohol in the past twelve months.

Similarly, 20% of the respondents from Westmoreland, 18.9% from Trelawny, 18.3% from Kingston, and 16.6% from St. James admit that they used marijuana in the past twelve months, compared 10.3% of the respondents in Portland, 9.2% in Clarendon, and 8.0% in Manchester. Quite interestingly, the parishes of Westmoreland, Trelawny and Kingston are the three parishes with the highest levels of usage of alcohol and marijuana.

Table 12.3: Percent of Respondents that Report Using Alcohol and Marijuana in the Past Twelve Months, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

PARISH	ALCOHOL	MARIJUANA
Trelawny	59.1	18.9
Westmoreland	57.2	20.0
Kingston	55.4	18.3
St. Ann	54.0	15.3
St. Elizabeth	51.2	12.4
Clarendon	47.3	9.2
St. Andrew	47.2	14.2
St. Mary	44.1	12.4
Manchester	44.1	8.0
St. Catherine	43.8	11.7
St. Thomas	42.2	12.4
Portland	42.2	10.3
Hanover	41.8	14.9
St. James	40.1	16.6

Self-Reported Criminal Activity

All respondents were asked if they had "ever" engaged in fourteen different types of criminal activity. Those respondents that reported that they had engaged in a particular type of criminal activity at some time in their life were asked if they had engaged in this type of behaviour in the past twelve months. The types of crime examined by the survey – and the corresponding questions – are outlined below:

1. Motor Vehicle Theft: Have you ever stolen a motor vehicle like a car, truck or motorcycle?

- **2.** *Theft from Motor Vehicles:* Have you ever broken into a car or truck to steal something?
- 3. **Burglary:** Have you ever broken into a home or business to steal something?
- 4. Shoplifting: Have you ever stolen food or other items from a store or business?
- **5.** *Personal Theft:* Have you ever stolen money or other items from a stranger or somebody you know?
- **6. Robbery/Extortion:** Have you ever used force or the threat of force to get money or other items from another person?
- 7. Fighting: Have you ever been in a physical fight with another person?
- 8. Assault: Have you ever punched or kicked someone when they were not fighting back?
- 9. Weapons Assault: Have you ever attacked someone with a weapon and tried to seriously hurt them?
- 10. Gun Carrying: Have you ever carried a gun in public?
- 11. Gun Use: Have you ever used a gun on another person?
- **12. Drug Trafficking:** Have you ever sold illegal drugs?
- 13. Prostitution: Have you ever had sex with someone for money?
- 14. Drug Possession: Have you ever held or carried drugs for someone else?

The results suggest that the majority of the respondents have never engaged in the majority of criminal behaviour documented by the survey (see table 12.4). However, one out of every three respondents (31%) reports that they have been in a fight at some time in their life and one out of every twenty seven respondents (3.7%) has been in a fight in the past twelve months. Other types of criminal activity are far less common. When lifetime prevalence of crime is examined, the next most prevalent crimes are assault (4.5% lifetime prevalence), weapons assault (3.4%), prostitution (2.3%), and personal theft (1.8%). Quite interestingly, one in fifty nine persons (1.7%) reported that they have carried a gun in public at some point in their lives while one in seventy one persons (1.4%) indicated that they have sold illegal drugs within their lifetime. In addition, one in one hundred and twenty five persons (0.8%) indicated that they have used a gun on someone at some point in their lives.

Not surprisingly, past year prevalence of various offences is lower than lifetime prevalence. Apart from being engaged in a fight, the next most prevalence offences within the last year are prostitution (1.2%), assault (0.9%), weapons assault (0.9%), and carrying a gun in public (0.7%). In addition, one in three hundred and thirty three persons (0.3%) indicated that within the last year they used a gun on someone.

Table 12.4: Percent of Respondents That Have Engaged in Specific Types of Criminal Activity in their Lifetime and Over the Past Twelve Months (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME TYPE	EVER	PAST YEAR
Motor vehicle theft	0.4	0.1
Theft from a motor vehicle	0.4	0.1
Burglary (Break and Enter)	0.4	0.2
Theft from retail stores or businesses	0.7	0.2
Stolen money from other people	1.8	0.5
Robbery or Extortion	1.0	0.4
Been in a physical fight with another person	31.0	3.7
Attacked someone who was not fighting back	4.5	0.9
Attacked someone with a weapon	3.4	0.9
Carried a gun in public	1.7	0.7
Used a gun on another person	0.8	0.3
Sold illegal drugs	1.4	0.5
Had sex with someone for money	2.3	1.2
Carried or held drugs for someone else	1.1	0.3

A comparison of the results of the 2006, 2009, and 2012-13 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Surveys indicate that self-reported crime has decreased for the period under consideration (see table 12.5). This applies for the majority of crimes including engaging in physical fights, assault without a weapon, assault with a weapon, carrying a gun in public, theft from other persons, robbery or extortion, using a gun on someone, and shoplifting. For example, in 2006 7.2% of persons indicated that they had been in a physical fight within the last year, compared to 5.4% in 2009 and 3.7% in 2012-13. In 2006, 2% of respondents indicated that they had assaulted someone within the past year, compared to 1.3% in 2009 and 0.9% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006 1.9% of

persons admitted that they had carried a gun in public within the last year, compared to 1.4% in 2009 and 0.7% in 2012-13. A number of other offences exhibited some stability between 2006 and 2009, but then a decline from 2009 to 2012-13. These include selling illegal drugs, and carrying or holding illegal drugs for someone. Overall the data indicate that self-reported criminal offending declined between 2006 to 2012-13.

Table 12.5: Percent of Respondents That Have Engaged in Specific Types of Criminal Activity in the Past Twelve Months (2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS Results)

CRIME TYPE	2006	2009	2012-13
Motor vehicle theft	0.6	0.5	0.1
Theft from a motor vehicle	0.6	0.5	0.1
Burglary (Break and Enter)	0.6	0.5	0.2
Theft from retail stores or businesses	0.8	0.6	0.2
Stolen money from other people	1.3	0.9	0.5
Robbery or Extortion	1.1	0.7	0.4
Been in a physical fight with another person	7.2	5.4	3.7
Attacked someone who was not fighting back	2.0	1.3	0.9
Attacked someone with a weapon	1.6	1.4	0.9
Carried a gun in public	1.9	1.4	0.7
Used a gun on another person	0.8	0.6	0.3
Sold illegal drugs	1.1	1.3	0.5
Had sex with someone for money	1.1	1.6	1.2
Carried or held drugs for someone else	1.0	1.3	0.3

Past year and lifetime self-reported offending according to gender are shown in table 12.6. While the results indicate that Jamaican men are more likely to engage in various types of crime than Jamaican women, the difference between males and females is not very large for most offences. For example, within the past year, 0.2% of males compared to 0.1% of females engaged in motor vehicle theft. Similar figures are observed for theft from a motor vehicle and burglary. The only offences for which there are notable gender differences when crimes within the past year are considered are carrying a gun in public (1.5% for males vs. 0.1% for females) and prostitution (1.8% for males vs. 0.6% for females). When self-reported criminal offending within respondents' lifetime is considered, while the discrepancy between male and female offending

becomes more pronounced, the differences are still not that large. For example, 0.7% of males indicated that they had committed motor vehicle theft within their lifetime compared to 0.2% of females – a difference of only 0.5%. Similarly, 0.8% of males indicated that they had engaged in burglary within their lifetime compared to 0.2% of females – a difference of only 0.6%. The only crimes within persons' lifetime for which there are pronounced gender differences are engaging in physical fights (a 9.9% gender difference), carrying a gun in public (2.8% difference) and prostitution (2.1% difference).

Table 12.6: Percent of Respondents That Have Engaged in Specific Types of Criminal Activity, by Gender (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME TYPE	PAST YEAR		EV	ER
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Motor vehicle theft	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.2
Theft from a motor vehicle	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.2
Burglary (Break and Enter)	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.2
Theft from retail stores or businesses	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.5
Stolen money from other people	0.6	0.5	2.2	1.5
Robbery or Extortion	0.4	0.3	1.3	0.8
Been in a physical fight with another person	3.9	3.5	36.4	26.5
Attacked someone who was not fighting back	0.9	0.9	5.0	4.1
Attacked someone with a weapon	1.3	0.6	4.4	2.5
Carried a gun in public	1.5	0.1	3.2	0.4
Used a gun on another person	0.5	0.1	1.5	0.3
Sold illegal drugs	0.9	0.2	2.3	0.6
Had sex with someone for money	1.8	0.6	3.4	1.3
Carried or held drugs for someone else	0.4	0.2	1.7	0.6

Previous victimization surveys have almost always revealed that the frequency of self-reported criminal activity decreases with age. While this holds true for the majority of crimes examined in the 2012-13 JNCVS, there are a few notable exceptions (see table 12.7). These exceptions are motor vehicle theft and carrying a gun in public. The data revealed that 0% of persons 16-29 years of age reported that they were engaged in motor vehicle theft within the last year, compared to 0.1% of persons 30-49 years of age, and 0.2% of persons older than 50 years of age. Similarly, 0.5% of persons in the 16-29 age

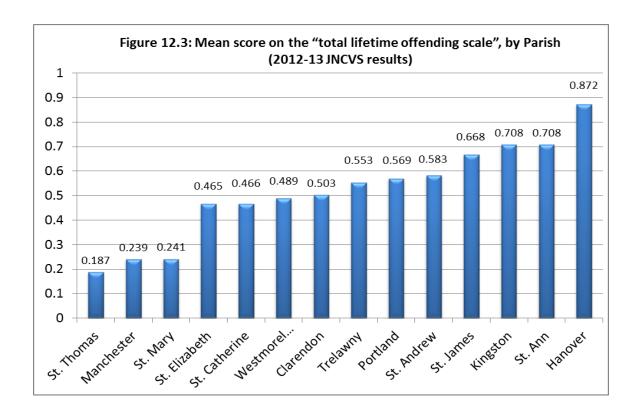
range reported that they carried a gun in public within the last year, compared to 0.7% in the 30-49 age range and 0.9% in the oldest age range. Despite these findings, for many other crimes, the frequency of engagement declined as persons got older. For example, 7.2% of persons in the 16-29 age range reported that they had been in a physical fight within the last year, compared to 3.9% of 30-49 year olds and 1.2% of persons older than 50 years of age. Similarly, 1.5% of persons in the 16-29 age range reported that they attacked someone with a weapon within the last year, compared to 0.9% of 30-49 year olds and 0.6% of persons older than 50 years of age. Other offences which exhibited a decline with age include stealing money from others, prostitution, and selling illegal drugs.

Table 12.7: Percent of Respondents That Have Engaged in Specific Types of Criminal Activity in the Past Twelve Months, by Age Group (2012-13 JNCVS results)

CRIME TYPE	16-29	30-49	50 Years
	Years	Years	or Older
Motor vehicle theft	0.0	0.1	0.2
Theft from a motor vehicle	0.0	0.2	0.2
Burglary (Break and Enter)	0.0	0.2	0.2
Theft from retail stores or businesses	0.2	0.1	0.2
Stolen money from other people	1.0	0.6	0.2
Robbery or Extortion	0.6	0.3	0.3
Been in a physical fight with another person	7.2	3.9	1.2
Attacked someone who was not fighting back	1.9	0.6	0.6
Attacked someone with a weapon	1.5	0.9	0.6
Carried a gun in public	0.5	0.7	0.9
Used a gun on another person	0.3	0.1	0.3
Sold illegal drugs	0.6	0.5	0.4
Had sex with someone for money	1.5	1.4	0.7
Carried or held drugs for someone else	0.5	0.2	0.2

In order to examine self-reported criminal offending by parish, we computed a scale which measured the total lifetime offending per person. For each of the crimes utilized (see table 12.8), a score of 0 was given where persons reported that they never

engaged in this crime in their lifetime, and a score of 1 was given where persons engaged in the activity. These scores were summed for the range of crimes, giving a measure with a minimum value of 0 and a maximum value of 14. The mean of this measure across the entire sample was 0.51 and the standard deviation was 0.986. Figure 12.3 shows the mean score on the "total lifetime offending scale" according to parish. The parishes with the highest level of self-reported lifetime offending were Hanover (with a mean score of 0.872), St. Ann (0.708), Kingston (0.708), and St. James (0.668). The parishes with the lowest levels of self-reported lifetime offending were St. Thomas (0.187), Manchester (0.239) and St. Mary (0.241).



The data in table 12.8 are consistent with the findings from the "total lifetime offending scale". When we consider the parish of Hanover, the one with the highest average score in the total lifetime offending scale, we see that this parish is within the top four in terms of the rate of self-reported criminal offending for a wide range of crimes as follows: motor vehicle theft (with 0.7% of respondents indicating that they had engaged in this crime within their lifetime), shoplifting (0.7%), robbery/extortion (1.4%),

engaging in physical fights (44.7%), assault without a weapon (24.1%), assault with a weapon (5.7%), carrying a gun in public (2.8%), and prostitution (3.5%). The parish of St. Ann comes within the top four parishes in terms of the prevalence of physical fights (46%), assault without a weapon (12.9%), assault with a weapon (5.4%), and holding drugs for someone (2.5%). The parish of Kingston comes within the top four parishes in terms of the prevalence of theft from a vehicle (0.5%), burglary (2%), shoplifting (3%), personal theft (4.5%), being engaged in physical fights (45%), attack with a weapon (5.4%), and attack without a weapon (6.4%). The parish of St. James falls within the top four parishes in terms of the prevalence of theft from a motor vehicle (0.5%), robbery/extortion (1.4%), attack with a weapon (5.1%), selling illegal drugs (2.3%), and prostitution (4.6%).

In contrast to the above, the parishes of St. Thomas, Manchester and St. Mary have comparatively low levels of self-reported criminal offending (see figure 12.3). Consistent with this, the data in table 12.8 indicate that St. Thomas is among the parishes with the lowest levels of motor vehicle theft (0%), personal theft (0%), robbery/extortion (0%), engaging in physical fights (14.7%), assault with (1.8%) and without (0.9%) a weapon, carrying a gun (0%), using a gun on someone (0%), prostitution (0.4%), and holding illegal drugs (0%). Likewise, Manchester is among the parishes with the lowest levels of a wide range of crimes, including motor vehicle theft (0%), personal theft (0%), robbery/extortion (0.4%), engaging in physical fights (16.8%), weapons assault (1.3%), and prostitution (0.4%). In a similar manner, St. Mary has comparatively low rates of engaging in physical fights (14.1%), assault with (1.2%) and without (1.8%) a weapon, using a gun on someone (0%), and selling illegal drugs (0%).

The data in table 12.8 can also be used to rank parishes in terms of the prevalence of specific crimes. For example, the parishes with the highest rates of burglary are Kingston, St. Catherine, Portland and St. Andrew with rates ranging from 0.8% to 2%. The parishes with the highest rates of robbery/extortion are Westmoreland, Portland, St. Catherine, Hanover and St. James with rates ranging from 1.4% to 2.8%. The parishes with the highest rates of carrying a gun are Portland, St. Catherine, Hanover and

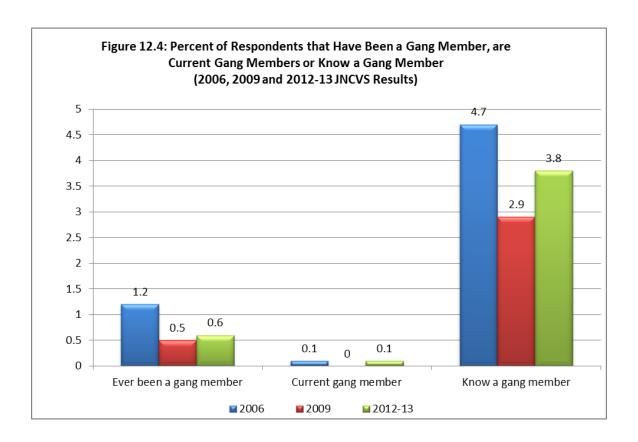
Clarendon with rates ranging from 2.7% to 4.3%. The parishes with the highest rates of using a gun on someone are Portland, St. Catherine, Clarendon, St. Andrew and St. Ann with rates ranging from 1% to 2.6%. Finally, the parishes with the highest rates of selling illegal drugs are Portland, St. Andrew, St. James and St. Catherine with rates ranging from 1.6% to 3.4%.

Table 12.8: Percent of Respondents Who Have Engaged in Specific Criminal Behaviours at Some Point in Their Life, by Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Crime Type	Kingston	St. Andrew	St. Thomas	Portland	St. Mary	St. Ann	Trelawny	St. James	Hanover	Westmoreland	St. Elizabeth	Manchester	Clarendon	St. Catherine
Motor vehicle theft	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.9	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.8
Theft from a vehicle	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
Burglary	2.0	0.8	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Theft from store	3.0	0.6	0.0	0.9	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.4
Stole from others	4.5	2.8	0.0	2.6	1.8	0.5	0.6	1.8	1.4	3.3	0.6	0.0	1.7	1.9
Robbery/Extortion	0.5	1.1	0.0	1.7	1.2	0.5	0.0	1.4	1.4	2.8	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.6
Physical fight	45.0	34.1	14.7	34.5	14.1	46.0	45.3	43.8	44.7	29.4	28.2	16.8	34.4	22.3
Attack/Assault	6.4	4.7	0.9	1.7	1.2	12.9	1.3	4.1	24.1	5.0	2.4	2.1	3.1	2.4
Attacked - Weapon	5.4	4.9	1.8	0.9	1.8	5.4	2.5	5.1	5.7	2.2	2.4	1.3	4.1	2.4
Carried a gun	1.0	1.8	0.0	4.3	1.2	0.5	0.6	0.5	2.8	0.6	0.0	1.3	2.7	3.2
Used a gun	0.5	1.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	1.0	0.6	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.6	0.4	1.0	1.8
Sold illegal drugs	1.0	2.9	0.9	3.4	0.0	1.5	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.0	1.6
Sex for money	0.5	1.9	0.4	1.7	1.2	0.0	3.8	4.6	3.5	2.8	8.2	0.4	2.0	2.7
Held drugs	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.6	2.5	0.6	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.8	0.4	0.3	2.4

Gang Membership

As discussed in Part Three of this report, one out of every nine Jamaicans (11.4%) feels that there are criminal gangs in their own neighbourhood or community. In order to further our investigation into the gang phenomena, we asked all respondents: 1) whether they themselves had ever been the member of a gang; and 2) whether they were currently in a criminal gang, and 3) whether they had had any family or friends who were gang members. Only 21 persons or 0.6% of the sample indicated that they had ever been in a criminal gang, while only two persons indicated that they were currently in a criminal gang. In addition, 3.8% of the sample or one in twenty six persons indicated that they had family or friends who were gang members.



A comparison with data from the 2006 and 2009 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys (see figure 12.4) indicates that the proportion of persons who report ever having been in a gang has declined from 2006 to 2012-13. In 2006, 1.2% of respondents indicated that they were in a gang at some point in their lives. This declined

to similarly low levels in 2009 and 2012-13 (0.5% and 0.6% respectively). Self-reported current gang membership has been similarly low across the three victimization surveys and has not exceeded 0.1%. It should be noted here, however, that it may be possible that persons may under-report current gang membership for many reasons including the fear of reprisals from their fellow gang members. The proportion of persons who reported that they knew a gang member declined from 4.7% in 2006 to 2.9% in 2009, but thereafter increased to 3.8% in 2012-13.

Table 12.9 examines lifetime gang membership and knowing gang members within the context of gender, age, and location. The findings indicate that males are more likely than females to have ever been in a gang, and also more likely to know gang members. More specifically, males are five times more likely to have been involved in a gang at some point in their lives than females. The data indicate that 1% of males reported lifetime gang membership compared to 0.2% of females. In addition, one in twenty males (4.9%) report knowing at least one gang member, compared to one in thirty four females (2.9%). The data in table 12.9 further indicate that lifetime gang membership is similar regardless of age. More specifically, 0.8% of 16-29 year olds report that they were a gang member at some point in their lives, compared to 0.7% of 30-49 year olds and 0.7% of persons older than 50 years of age. In contrast, older persons are less likely to be acquainted with gang members. Fully one in sixteen persons or 6.1% of those in the 16-29 age range indicate that they know gang members, compared to 4.1% of persons in the 30-49 age range and 1.9% in the 50 and older age range. The results in table 12.9 also indicate that lifetime gang membership, as well as knowing persons in gangs vary significantly by parish. Comparatively more persons in Portland (1.7%), St. Andrew (1.3%) and Trelawny (1.3%) report being a gang member at some point in their lives, compared to persons in the other parishes. For the parishes of St. Thomas, Westmoreland, St. Elizabeth and Manchester, no persons reported being a gang member within their lifetime. Table 12.9 also indicates the proportion of persons, by parish, who report that they know persons in gangs. The parishes with the highest proportions in this respect are Kingston (10.4%), St. Andrew (5.8%), St. Catherine (4.8%) and St. James (4.1%). The parishes with the lowest proportion of persons who

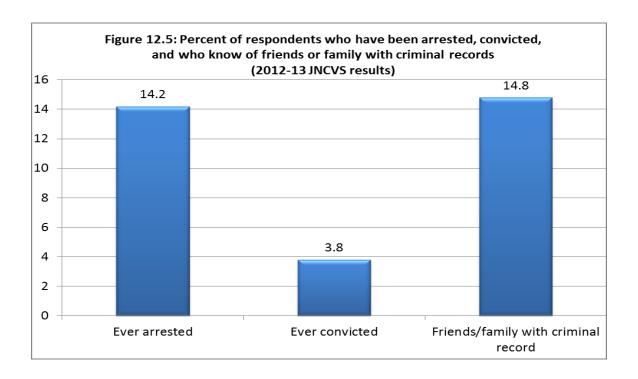
report knowing gang members are St. Mary (0.6%), St. Elizabeth (1.2%), Clarendon (1.4%) and Westmoreland (1.7%). Interestingly, with the exception of St. Andrew, the parishes with the highest proportion of persons who report having been gang members are not the same parishes with the highest proportion of persons who report knowing gang members. One might expect that self-confessed gang members would know other people who are involved in the gang culture. It is possible that this discrepancy may be explained by a 'code of silence' which exists among gang members. That is, they prefer not to give information about other gang members. A similar observation was made in the 2009 JNCVS.

Table 12.9: Percent of Respondents Who Have Been a Gang Member or Know a Gang Member, by Gender, Age and Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Respondent	Ever Been a	Know a		
Characteristics	Gang Member	Gang Member		
<u>Gender</u>				
Male	1.0	4.9		
Female	0.2	2.9		
Age Group				
16-29 years	0.8	6.1		
30-49 years	0.7	4.1		
50 years or older	0.7	1.9		
Parish of Residence				
Kingston	0.5	10.4		
St. Andrew	1.3	5.8		
St. Thomas	0	2.2		
Portland	1.7	2.6		
St. Mary	0.6	0.6		
St. Ann	0.5	2.0		
Trelawny	1.3	2.5		
St. James	0.5	4.1		
Hanover	0.7	2.8		
Westmoreland	0	1.7		
St. Elizabeth	0	1.2		
Manchester	0	3.8		
Clarendon	0.3	1.4		
St. Catherine	0.5	4.8		

Arrest and Conviction

All respondents were asked if they had ever been arrested by the police, if they had ever been convicted of a crime in a court of law and whether they had any family members or friends with a criminal record (see Figure 12.5). The results suggest that 14.2% of respondents had been arrested for a crime, but only 3.8% were actually convicted. This represents a conviction rate of 26.8%. Respondents who were convicted indicated that they were convicted for a wide range of crimes including murder (0.1% of the sample), manslaughter (0.1%), illegal possession of firearms (0.1%), assault with a weapon (0.8%), assault without a weapon (0.4%), drug trafficking (0.3%) and drug use (0.6%). The last four crimes stated above were the most important in terms of convictions as the majority of persons who were convicted, were convicted for these crimes. Figure 12.5 further indicates that 14.8% of the sample knew other persons who had criminal records.



Further analysis (see table 12.10) reveals that males are more likely than females to have been arrested for a crime, to be convicted of a crime, and to know other persons who have criminal records. More specifically, 23.1% of males compared to 6.6% of

females indicated that they have been previously arrested, while 6.8% of males and 1.3% of females indicated that they have been convicted of a crime in the past. In addition, 16.4% of males and 13.2% of females indicated that they knew a family member or friend with a criminal record. These findings indicate that males are 3.5 times more likely than females to be arrested, 5.2 times more likely to be convicted, and 1.2 times more likely to know persons with a criminal record.

Table 12.10: Percent of Respondents Who Have been Arrested, Convicted or Know Someone with a Criminal Record, by Gender, Age and Parish (2012-13 JNCVS results)

Respondent Characteristics	Have Been Arrested by the Police	Have Been Convicted of a Crime	Have a Family Member or Friend with a Criminal Record
<u>Gender</u>			
Male	23.1	6.8	16.4
Female	6.6	1.3	13.2
Age Group			
16-29 years	10.4	2.2	20.3
30-49 years	16.1	4.5	16.2
50 years or older	14.6	4.2	9.4
Parish of Residence			
Kingston	20.3	3.5	30.7
St. Andrew	16.2	2.9	17.5
St. Thomas	13.8	2.7	7.1
Portland	30.2	7.8	19.0
St. Mary	14.7	3.5	17.6
St. Ann	10.9	2.5	18.3
Trelawny	6.9	3.8	8.2
St. James	13.4	3.7	13.4
Hanover	15.6	5.7	14.2
Westmoreland	15.6	3.9	11.7
St. Elizabeth	19.4	5.9	8.8
Manchester	8.4	2.9	12.2
Clarendon	17.3	9.2	14.3
St. Catherine	9.0	1.9	12.5

Analysis according to age reveals that older persons are more likely than persons in the youngest age group to report that they were arrested or convicted, though in contrast, older persons were less likely to report that they knew others with a criminal

record (see table 12.10). According to the data, 10.4% of 16-29 year olds reported that they were previously arrested, compared to 16.1% of 30-49 year olds and 14.6% of persons older than 50 years of age. Similarly, 2.2% of persons in the 16-29 age range report that they were previously convicted, compared to 4.5% of persons in the 30-49 age range and 4.2% of persons older than 50 years of age. It may be the case that 16-29 year-olds may not be old enough to have generated serious experience within the criminal justice system, hence their lower rates of arrest and conviction. Despite this, younger persons were more likely to report that they knew others with a criminal record than older persons. More specifically, 20.3% of persons in the 16-29 age range reported that they knew other persons who had a criminal record, compared to 16.2% of persons in the 30-49 age range and 9.4% of persons 50 years of age or older.

The data in table 12.10 reveal significant spatial differences in arrest, conviction, and knowing persons with criminal records. A large proportion of persons in the parishes of Portland (30.2%), Kingston (20.3%), St. Elizabeth (19.4%) and Clarendon (17.3%) report that they had been arrested at some point in their lives. A comparatively smaller proportion of persons from Trelawny (6.9%), Manchester (8.4%) and St. Catherine (9%) reported that they had been arrested at some point in their lives. The parishes with the highest rates of conviction were Clarendon (9.2%), Portland (7.8%), St. Elizabeth (5.9%) and Hanover (5.7%). In contrast, the parishes with the lowest rates of conviction are St. Thomas (2.7%), St. Ann (2.5%), and St. Catherine (1.9%). Interestingly, the parishes of Portland, St. Elizabeth and Clarendon are among the top parishes for both arrest and conviction rates, while the parish of St. Catherine is among those with the lowest rates of arrest and conviction. Table 12.10 also indicates the proportion of persons in each parish who admit that they know others with a criminal record. The parishes with the highest proportion of persons who so admit are Kingston (30.7%), Portland (19%), St. Ann (18.3%) and St. Mary (17.6%). The parishes with the lowest proportion of persons who indicated that they knew someone with a criminal record were St. Elizabeth (8.8%), Trelawny (8.2%) and St. Thomas (7.1%).

PART THIRTEEN: CONCLUSION

The sections above have documented the major findings from the 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey (JNCVS). The 2012-13 JNCVS is the third major victimization survey to be conducted in Jamaica. The first JNCVS was completed in 2006 while the second was completed in 2009. All three surveys are based on large, representative samples of the general Jamaican population. An extensive review of the literature reveals that these three surveys are amongst the largest and most detailed victimization surveys ever conducted in the Caribbean region. Importantly, the use of almost identical survey instruments in 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 allow for an analysis of crime trends in Jamaica and changes in public attitudes over this six year period.

As the findings presented above demonstrate, the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys covered many other issues apart from criminal victimization. These surveys also provide valuable information about how Jamaican residents deal with crime, why they do or do not report criminal incidents to the police and how crimes have affected their lives. The survey also produced data on Jamaican residents' fear of crime and the measures they sometimes take to protect themselves from becoming crime victims. In addition, the project documents how Jamaicans feel about the criminal justice system – how they evaluate the activities of the police, the courts, the prison system and specific crime prevention programs. Finally, the survey explored the Jamaican population's beliefs about crime causation and what government policies they think will reduce crime.

An extensive review of the major findings is provided in the Executive Summary and in the various chapters presented above. However, this following section briefly highlights findings that deserve special attention.

Crime Trends in Jamaica

- According to JNCVS results, lifetime victimization rates in Jamaica declined consistently between 2006 and 2013-13.
- Recent victimization rates -- documenting victimization incidents that took place over the past twelve months actually increased from 2006 to 2009 -- but declined significantly between 2009 and 2012-13.
- The total lifetime victimization rate or proportion of the sample ever victimized by a crime -- decreased from 61.4% in 2006 to only 53.9% in 2012-13. This represents a decrease in crime by 12.2% over this six year period.
- In 2006, a third of the JNCVS sample (31.7%) indicated that they had been the victim of a violent crime at some point in their life. This figure drops to 25.6% in 2012-13.
- Similarly, in 2006, one out of every two respondents (50.8%) reported that they had been the victim of a property crime at some point in their life. This figure drops to 45.6% in 2012-13.
- A somewhat different pattern emerges with respect to recent or past year -- victimization. In 2006, one in four JNCVS respondents (23.7%) reported that they were victimized at least once in the past twelve months. This figure climbed to 30.2% in 2009, before dropping to 24.2% in 2012-13. In other words, the overall rate of past year victimization was lower in 2012-13 than 2009, but slightly higher than the rate recorded in 2006.
- The overall decline in past year victimization is even more pronounced when violent crimes are examined in isolation. In 2006, one in twelve respondents (8.6%) reported that they had been the victim of a violent crime in the past twelve months. This figure rose to 10% in 2009, but subsequently declined to only 7.3% in 2012-13. The 2012-13 rate of violent victimization is the lowest ever recorded by the JNCVS.
- In 2006, one in every six JNCVS respondents (17.6% of the sample) reported that they were the victim of at least one property crime within the past year. In 2009 this figure rose to 23.6% before dropping back to 19.2% in 2012-13. Thus, in 2012-13, the rate of past year property victimization is lower than it was in 2009. However, this rate is still higher than the rate recorded by the 2006 survey.
- Importantly, the crime trends documented by the JNCVS survey data are highly consistent with official Jamaican crime statistics (recorded by the police) that also show a significant decline in crime rates especially over the past three years. This consistency between survey data and official crime statistics increases confidence that Jamaica is really experiencing a decline in criminal behaviour.

Self-Reported Criminal Behaviour

- Consistent with the observed decline in self-reported victimization, a comparison of the results from earlier versions of the JNCVS indicates that self-reported criminal behaviour also declined in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- This overall decline is observed for the majority of crimes including engaging in physical fights, assault without a weapon, assault with a weapon, carrying a gun in public, theft from other persons, robbery, extortion, using a gun on someone, and shoplifting.
- For example, in 2006, 7.2% of respondents indicated that they had been in a physical fight within the last year, compared to only 3.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, 1.9% of persons admitted that they had carried a gun in public within the last year, compared to only 0.7% in 2012-13.

Community Crime and Disorder

- The results suggest that community-level crime and disorder problems declined significantly in Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13.
- Compared to respondents from previous versions of the JNCVS, respondents to the 2012-13 survey were less likely to report local problems with drug use, drug dealing, robbery, prostitution and several other measures of crime and disorder.
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents who report hearing gunshots in their local community also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 26% of respondents reported that they heard gunshots in their community once per month or more. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012-13 (a 58 percent decline over this six year period).
- The percentage of JNCVS respondents reporting community flight due to crime also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- The results suggest that the local presence of both criminal gangs and corner crews declined significantly within Jamaica between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 23% of respondents indicated that there was a criminal gang in their community. This figure drops to only 11% in 2012-13 (a 52 percent decline over this six year period).
- Only 4.5% of respondent report the presence of an Area Don within their local community. This figure has remained constant between 2006 and 2012-13.

Indirect Exposure to Crime

- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that both lifetime and recent exposure to violent crime in Jamaica declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 8.4% of respondents claimed that they had witnessed a murder at sometime in their life and 2.1% had witnessed a murder in the year before the survey. However, these figures drop to 7.3% and 1.1% respectively in 2012-13.
- Similarly, in 2006, 17.3% of respondents indicated that they had witnessed a robbery at some point in their life and 5.8% indicated that they had witnessed a robbery in the past year. These figures drop to only 10.1% and 2.7% respectively in 2012-13. Similar declines were also observed with respect to the witnessing of gun battles and serious assaults.
- Only a small minority of witnesses (less than 20%) talked to the police about the violent incidents they observed. However, the police reporting rate increased slightly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- One third of 2012-13 JNCVS respondents claim that a family member or friend has been murdered in Jamaica. This figure is down slightly from 36.3% in 2006. Similarly, in 2006, 8.6% of respondents claimed that they had a family member or friend who was murdered in the past year. This figure drops to only 5.8% in 2012-13. This finding is consistent with other results that suggest that Jamaica experienced a decline in violent crime between 2006 and 2012-13.

Public Perceptions of Crime in Jamaica

- Although both survey data and official crime statistics suggest that crime in Jamaica declined between 2006 and 2012-13, most Jamaicans still believe that crime is increasing.
- Indeed, seven out of ten respondents (70%) to the 2012-13 JNCVS report that they think crime increased in Jamaica over the past five years. By contrast, only 13% feel that crime decreased over this time period.
- However, perceptions change dramatically when respondents are asked about their own community. For example, while 70% of respondents feel that crime in Jamaica increased over the past five years, only 14% feel that crime increased in their own community. In fact, 29% of respondents feel that crime decreased in their own community over the past five years and 52% feel that local crime levels remained about the same.

- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS also reveal that most Jamaicans (75%) believe that their community has less crime than other areas of the country.
- Overall, these results suggest that changes to crime rates in Jamaica are most likely to be experienced – and perceived -- at the community level. In other words, respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS seem to have a more accurate perception about crime within their own communities than about crime in other regions of the country.

Public Perceptions of the Police

- The results suggest that most Jamaicans feel that the police are doing a either a "good job" or "an average job" performing their various duties. For example, three out of every four JNCVS respondents believes that the police are doing either a good job or an average job patrolling their neighbourhood (79.3%), ensuring community safety (78.5%), enforcing the law (76.3%) and being approachable or easy to talk to (76.8%).
- A comparison with the results of previous JNCVS surveys suggests that public opinion with respect to the performance of the Jamaican police improved quite dramatically between 2006 and 2012-13. Indeed, regardless of the law enforcement task identified by the survey, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "good job" increased over this six year period. By contrast, the proportion of respondents who feel that the police are doing a "poor job" performing specific duties declined.
- For example, in 2009, only 26.6% of respondents felt that the police were doing a good job enforcing the law. This figure rises to 33.7% in 2012-13. Similarly, in 2006, only 31.8% of the respondents felt that the police were doing a good job patrolling the streets, compared to 42.6% in 2012-13.
- The results of the 2012-13 JNCVS suggest that many Jamaicans believe that the police treat some people better than others. For example, three out of every four respondents (75.5%) believe that the police treat poor people worse than wealthy people, two-thirds (68.7%) believe that the police treat younger people worse than older people and two-thirds (64.9%) believe that the police treat men worse than women.
- For the first time, the 2012-13 survey asked respondents about the perceived police treatment of Jamaica's homosexual population. Interestingly, relatively few respondents (22.1%) believe that homosexuals are treated worse by the police than heterosexuals. In fact, an almost equal proportion of the respondents (19.5%) believe that homosexuals are actually treated better by the police than heterosexuals. It should be noted, however, that a high proportion of respondents

- (29%) claim that they "don't know" how the police treat members of Jamaica's LGBT community.
- The data suggest that perceptions of police bias increased from 2006 to 2009, but dropped slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 22.3% of JNCVS respondents felt that poor people were treated "much worse" than wealthy people. This figure rises to 30.7% in 2009 -- before dropping back to 28.0% in 2012-13. In all cases, the 2012-13 rate of perceived police bias is higher than the 2006 rate, but slightly lower than the rate documented by the 2009 survey.

Public Perceptions of Police Corruption and Brutality

- A comparison with the results of the previous Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys reveals that public concerns about police corruption have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13.
- For example, in 2006, 71.2% of survey respondents felt that police corruption was a big or very big problem in Jamaica. By 2012-13 this figure had declined to only 57.3%.
- The results, nonetheless, indicate that the residents of Jamaica feel that police corruption is a much bigger problem than either police brutality or police harassment. However, while perceptions of police corruption have declined over the past six years, perceptions of police brutality increased slightly.
- In 2006, only 11.4% of respondents thought that police brutality was a big problem in Jamaica. This figure rose slightly to 14.2% in 2012-13.
- Although more than half of the respondents to the 2012-13 JNCVS believe that police corruption is a big problem in Jamaica, only 2% claim that they have ever been the victim of police corruption and only 4% claim that they have ever been the victim of police brutality. Only 1% of respondents report that they were the victim of police corruption or brutality in the past year.
- The results also suggest that the vast majority of respondents (over 85%) have never witnessed a case of police corruption or brutality.
- Furthermore, the proportion of respondents who report that they experienced or witnessed police corruption or brutality declined between the 2009 and 2012-13.

Public Perceptions of the Criminal Courts

• The results suggest that very few respondents think that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job. For example, only 15.5% think the courts are

doing a good job helping crime victims, 15.5% think the courts are doing a good job providing justice quickly and only 17% think the courts are doing a good job ensuring fair trials.

- While very few respondents feel that the criminal courts in Jamaica are doing a good job, a significant proportion rate the court's performance as average. However, an equally high proportion of respondents feel that the criminal courts are doing a poor job. In general, it appears that respondents are significantly less enthusiastic about the performance of the criminal courts than the performance of the police.
- In general, public perceptions of court effectiveness increased slightly between 2006 and 2009 but decreased slightly between 2009 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 45.2% of JNCVS respondents felt that the courts were doing a poor job providing justice quickly. This figure dropped to 39.8% in 2009 but rose back up to 43.1% in 2012-13. Overall, 2012-13 evaluations of court performance are better than they were in 2006 but worse than they were in 2009.
- Public support for the death penalty in Jamaica appears to have declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. In 2006, for example, 80% of respondents supported the death penalty. By 2012-13 this figure dropped to only 68% -- a decline of twelve percentage points over this six year period.
- The perception that the sentences handed out by the Jamaican criminal courts are too lenient also declined significantly between 2006 and 2012-13. For example, in 2006, 56% of the JNCVS survey respondents felt that criminal sentences in Jamaica were too lenient. By 2012-13 this figure dropped to only 45%.

Public Perceptions of Corrections

- The data suggest that relatively few Jamaicans feel that the corrections system is doing "a good job" performing various duties. For example, only 13.5% feel that the corrections system is doing a good job punishing or deterring criminals and only 12.8% feel the system is doing a good job rehabilitating offenders.
- Nonetheless, as with policing and the criminal courts, the data also reveal that the reputation of the Jamaican corrections system has improved somewhat since 2006. Indeed, compared to 2006 JNCVS respondents, 2012-13 respondents are much less likely to report that the correctional system is doing a poor job. For example, in 2006, 49.0% of respondents felt that the corrections system was doing a poor job deterring criminals. By 2012-13 this figure had dropped to only 36.4%.

These results are only a sample of the major findings that emerged from this survey. However, they clearly demonstrate the potential that survey methods have with respect to documenting patterns of criminal victimization, the impact of victimization, fear of crime, attitudes and opinions about the criminal justice system and public beliefs regarding crime prevention.

Survey Strengths and Weaknesses

The 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys (JNCVS) have a number of distinct strengths. First of all, both studies involved large, random samples of Jamaican households from all regions of the country. In other words, the study was not restricted to large urban areas typically associated with crime and disorder. The Statistical Institute of Jamaica was also able to achieve extremely high response rates. Over 80% of the households contacted for these three studies agreed to take part in the survey. Typically, North American survey researchers will accept a response rate of only 50%. Thus, the high response rate, combined with the large random sample, increases confidence that the findings that emerged from the JNCVS are in fact representative of the views and experiences of the Jamaican population. These high response rates are also an indication that Jamaicans are concerned about crime and justice issues and want to express their opinions to both survey researchers and government Indeed, when asked at the end of the interview if they had any further comments, most respondents indicated that they thought the 2012-13 victimization survey was a good idea and that the government should continue to monitor citizen experiences and opinions in the future.

Another potential strength of the JNCVS is the large number of victimization questions that were asked and the fact that respondents were asked to report on both their lifetime and recent (past year) victimization experiences. Asking about lifetime victimization may reduce the risk of telescoping (see discussion above) and thus produce more accurate estimates of recent victimization experiences. The inclusion of lifetime victimization measures will also allow researchers to better investigate the impact of all

previous victimization experiences on other variables including fear of crime and perceptions of the criminal justice system. The survey also asked about self-reported criminality, a fact that permits an analysis of the relationship between victimization and offending.

Unlike other victimization surveys, the JNCVS also asked respondents to report on the crimes that they had witnessed as well as their own victimization experiences. This line of questioning produced estimates of indirect or vicarious exposure to crime. Such indirect experiences may have just as profound an impact of attitudes and behaviours as personal victimization incidents. Finally, the JNCVS also asked a variety of questions about fear of crime, attitudes towards the justice system and beliefs about crime prevention. These questions greatly expand the potential audience for this survey. Indeed, the Jamaican police, criminal courts and corrections system could use the results of this survey to evaluate their efforts and examine public opinion regarding their institutions. Future victimization surveys using the same questions will allow Jamaican officials to evaluate the relative effectiveness of new criminal justice policies and practices.

The potential methodological weaknesses of the JNCVS should be also be flagged. However, it should be stressed that the weaknesses associated with the JNCVS are quite similar to those that characterize most other victimization surveys – including those conducted in the United States, Canada and Great Britain (see review in Siegal and McCormick 2010). First of all, it is quite possible that the final sample did not include hard-to-reach populations including homeless people, those without a permanent address and those living in informal, improvised housing settlements. If such groups are more vulnerable to criminal victimization than others, the victimization estimates produced by this survey could significantly under-estimate the true level of criminal victimization in Jamaica. The fact that the survey did not capture the experiences of institutionalized populations – including prison inmates – could also lead to an under-estimation of crime in Jamaica.

It is also possible that those who are deeply involved in criminal lifestyles (including gang members, drug dealers and drug addicts) are more difficult for survey researchers to contact than regular, law-abiding citizens. Furthermore, even if contacted, gang members and other criminal offenders may have "trust issues" and thus refuse to participate in a government-sponsored victimization survey. This point is important because previous research suggests that gang members and other offenders are much more likely to be the victim of serious violence than other types of people. Thus, if gang members and other criminal offenders are under-represented in the final JNCVS sample, the victimization estimates produced by this study must be viewed as conservative.

Finally, a comparison of the final sample characteristics with the characteristics of the general population (derived from the Jamaican Census) reveals that the respondents to the JNCVS are slightly older than general population estimates would predict (see the detailed discussion in Part Two of this report). In particular, it appears that persons 16 to 24 years of age are somewhat under-represented in the current sample. Importantly, previous research suggests that young people in this age group are more vulnerable to various forms of violent victimization than older people (Siegel and McCormick 2010). Thus, the fact that the current sample under-represents young people may have resulted in victimization estimates that are somewhat lower than would have been produced if there was more adequate representation in this age range. It should be noted, however, that the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 JNCVS surveys all slightly under-represented the youth population 16-24 years of age and over-represented the older population (50 years or older). The fact that the sample characteristics of all three JNCVS surveys have remained consistent suggests that the trends documented by these surveys are stable.

Of course sampling issues are not the only problems that mark victimization surveys. Researchers are also worried about how accurately or honestly respondents answer specific questions. Do some respondents, for example, under-report their victimization experiences? Do other respondents exaggerate their involvement in crime? Do respondents accurately report their attitudes towards the police and the criminal justice system? Do they accurately report their fear of crime? At this time, these

questions are impossible to answer. However, previous research suggests that while there is often a margin of error, victimization surveys typically produce estimates of crime that accurately document general crime trends and general crime patterns within specific locations.

Additional Analysis of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican Crime Victimization Survey

The results presented above represent the first attempt at analyzing the data from the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys. While the analyses presented represent a comprehensive examination of the JNCVS data, there are more advanced types of analysis to which the data can be subjected. The focus was placed on highlighting how specific questions were answered, calculating victimization rates and exploring bivariate relationships between selected independent and dependent variables. However, the data has much greater potential. Advanced statistical analyses – often referred to as multivariate analysis – can also be used on these data in order to answer much more complex research questions. For example multivariate analysis could be used to determine the respondent and community characteristics that increase or decrease the probability of criminal victimization. Similarly, advanced statistical techniques could also be used to identify the social determinants of fear of crime or public attitudes towards the criminal justice system.

In sum, perhaps the most important contribution of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Surveys is that they provide a *baseline* for measuring victimization rates, fear of crime and attitudes towards the criminal justice system in Jamaica. The results of future victimization surveys in Jamaica (using similar sampling strategies and similar questions) can now be compared to the results of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 surveys in order to identify long term crime trends. This will allow researchers to address a number of important research questions: Is criminal victimization in Jamaica increasing or decreasing? Is the basic pattern or character of victimization changing? Are Jamaicans more or less likely to report victimization incidents to the

police? Is fear of crime increasing or decreasing? Are evaluations of the police and criminal justice system getting better or getting worse? Are attitudes towards crime prevention changing? Is alcohol and drug use increasing or decreasing? Is self-reported criminal activity increasing or decreasing? These are important questions that would have been far more difficult to answer without these three groundbreaking surveys. These three surveys have produced the first results of their kind in Jamaica – and will likely be compared with the results of future research for years to come.

Of course victimization surveys cannot and should not replace official crime statistics and other sources of information about crime and criminal justice issues in Jamaica. However, surveys such as the JNCVS can supplement and complement official data and subsequently help both researchers and policy-makers to better understand the crime problem in this country. The results of victimization surveys can also be used to evaluate crime prevention and law enforcement efforts and could lead to the development of more effective policies. The potential of victimization surveys has already been demonstrated in the United States, Canada and England. For decades now, these nations have conducted periodic victimization surveys to supplement the crime data they collect from official sources (the police, the courts and corrections). Now, with the completion of the 2006, 2009 and 2012-13 national victimization surveys, Jamaica is also in a position to provide enhanced analysis of crime and victimization issues.

REFERENCES

Agozino, B., B. Bowling, B. Ward and G. Bernard. 2009. "Guns, Crime and Social Order in the West Indies." *Criminology and Criminal Justice* 9: 287-305.

Cole, Julio and Andres Marroquin. 2009. "Homicide Rates in a Cross-Section of Countries: Evidence and Interpretations." *Population and Development Review* 35 (4): 749-776.

Johnson, Nicola. 2010. "Towards De-Garrisonisation in Jamaica: A Place for Civil Society." *Crime Prevention and Community Safety* 12 (1): 1-23.

Organization of American States. 2008. *Public Security in the Americas: Challenges and Opportunities*. Washington DC: General Secretariat: Organization of American States.

Siegel, Larry and Chris McCormick. 2010. *Criminology in Canada: Theories, Patterns and Typologies (Fourth Edition)*. Toronto: Nelson.

STATIN. 2009a. The Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey 2009: Administrative Report. Kingston, JA: Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.

STATIN. 2009b. *The 2009 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey: Survey Instrument*. Kingston, JA: Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.

STATIN. 2009c. The 2009 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey: Crime Incident Report. Kingston, JA: Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.

STATIN. 2009d. *The 2009 Jamaican National Crime Victimization Survey: Interviewer Training Manual.* Kingston, JA: Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.

STATIN. 2012 Population and Housing Census 2011, General Report Volume 1. Kingston Jamaica.

World Bank. 2003. Jamaica: The Road to Sustained Growth (Report No. 26088-JM).

Wortley, Scot and Julian Tanner. 2008. "Money, Respect and Defiance: Explaining Ethnic Differences in Gang Activity Among Canadian Youth." Pp. 181-210 in Frank van Gemert, Dana Peterson and Inger-Lise Lien (Eds) *Youth Gangs, Migration and Ethnicity*. Willan Publishing: London.

Wortley, Scot, Rosemary Gartner, Randy Seepersad and Andrea McCalla. 2007. *The 2006 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey: Final Report*. Kingston, Jamaica: Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.

Wortley, Scot. 2010. *The 2009 Jamaica National Crime Victimization Survey: Final Report*. Kingston, Jamaica. Ministry of National Security, Government of Jamaica.