

NATIONAL PUBLIC OPINION SURVEY

ON CITIZEN PERCEPTION OF

AND **safety
security**

IN THE REPUBLIC OF CROATIA



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1.

BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE SURVEY

Type of survey	Quantitative research
Aims of the survey	The main goal of the survey was to determine citizen perception of safety and security in the Republic of Croatia and police procedures in their place of residence; and obtain information about citizen contacts with the police up to now, as well as their interest in future contacts.
Method	telephone interviewing (CATI) - N=2000 respondents interviewing in households - N=2500 respondents
Period of the survey conduction	May/June 2009
Delivered data	Final report, table report, database and 2500 of questionnaires conducted via face-to-face interviewing.
Project Manager	Tamara Kraus Ana Hromatko
Additional interpretation of the results and certain chapters	Professor Irena Cajner Mraovic, PhD.

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2.

INTRODUCTION

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In the past six years, a continuous increase of armed violence has been recorded in the Republic of Croatia. An increase of young perpetrators, urban violence and domestic violence is noticeable.

Croatian population still perceives crime as one of the largest concerns today as well as believing that local communities they live in are less safe compared to 20 years ago. Background for citizen concern can, on one hand, be found in media coverage portraying violence and crime and, on the other hand, in the legacy of warm organized and street crime, where suspicion that they have not disappeared in the last ten years exists.

Ministry of Interior (MUP) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have been cooperating on citizen safety and public security projects since year 2006. An outcome of this cooperation in the past three years has been seizure of large amounts of illegal weapons, ammunition and explosive devices, increase of the perception of security among the citizens and an improved communication of the local community and the police.

After three years of successful cooperation, a DfD Project (Destruction for Development Project Agreement) was signed between MUP and UNDP and mandated by Croatian government and it covers three main goals: arms control, violence prevention and community security.

MUP and UNDP are aware that the public perception of security is an essential starting point for establishing a national perception of security across the country and that the results of the public opinion survey will help both institutions in developing priorities in the institutionalization, that is sustainability of community policing strategy, as well as indicate to MUP where to make changes in general police approach to questions of citizen safety.

Main goals of the survey were to:

- Determine the general perception of safety of the Croatian population in their place of residence
- Determine citizens' perception on certain groups / occurrences that could represent a problem in their place of residence
- Determine the extent to which Croatian citizens were victims of some type of violence / crime
- Determine the level of (non)cooperation with the police in reporting different events and reasons for it
- Determine citizens' perception of self-defence (from a physical assault or attack on property) and protection measures they have undertaken
- Determine citizens' perception of police actions in their place of residence
- Determine citizens' perception of successfulness of the police work in different areas
- Determine the frequency of contacts between citizens and the police and evaluation of police behaviour in those contacts
- Determine citizens' level of interest in more frequent contacts with the police
- Determine the frequency of visiting the Web site www.mup.hr and the main reasons for (not)visiting this Web site
- Determine a general level of trust in other people and in certain organizations / institutions

Two quantitative methods were combined in conducting this survey: telephone interviewing and personal interviewing in households.

A total of 2000 interviews were conducted via telephone interviewing (CATI) and 2500 interviews were conducted via personal interviewing. Both samples were multiply stratified by the following variables: County, settlement size, gender and age. This means that for every County quotas were made first according to settlement size and then within each settlement size according to age and gender.

Settlements, as well as respondents, were chosen randomly. In telephone interviewing, a large amount of telephone numbers are loaded into the computer and randomly chosen when dialling. In personal interviewing in households, settlements where the survey was to be conducted were chosen randomly. The survey was conducted on a total of 207 sampling points (settlements). The size of the settlement in this survey is also representative, which means that in each County the number of sampling points (settlements) where the survey was to be conducted was determined based on the share of population in each settlement size category. The following categorization of settlements was used in the survey: up to 2.000 inhabitants, 2.001 - 10.000 inhabitants, 10.001 - 100.000 inhabitants and more than 100.001 inhabitants. In each sampling point (settlement) a maximum of 15 respondents were interviewed. Each interviewer received quotas for each sample point and the quotas consisted of an exact number of respondents by age and gender. Apart from that, the interviewers were given a name of a street (chosen randomly) as the starting point for each sampling point. After that they looked for respondents in given settlements according to standard GfK rule.

2.2.1. SAMPLE

This survey encompassed a total of **4500 respondents over 18 years old**.

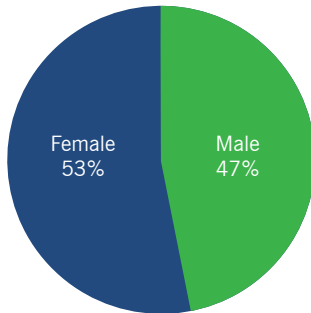
The sample was representative by Counties, settlement size, gender and age.

The following figures represent the structure of the sample this study was conducted on according to the most important demographic variables.

Sample:

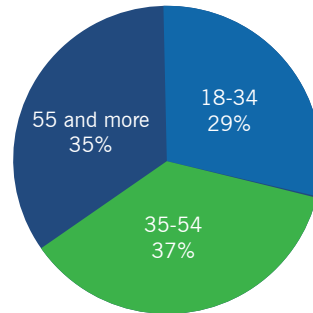
GENDER:

Sample structure by gender
N= 4500



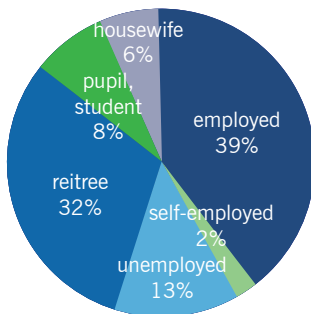
AGE:

Sample structure by age
N= 4500



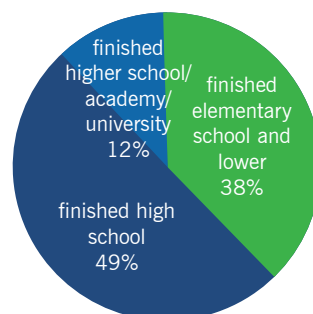
WORKING STATUS:

Sample structure by working status
N= 4500



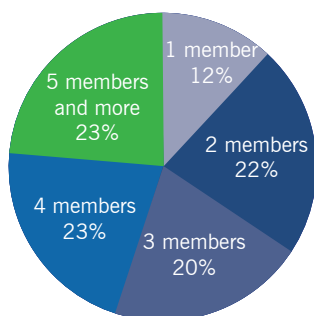
FINISHED EDUCATION:

Sample structure by education
N= 4500



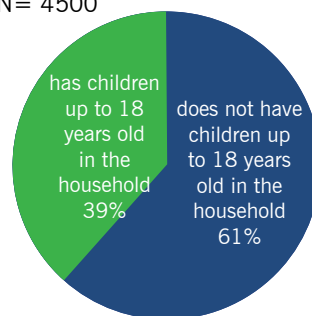
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS:

Sample structure by number of household
N= 4500



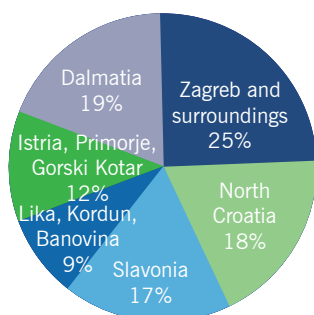
CHILDREN UP TO 18 YEARS OLD IN THE HOUSEHOLD:

Sample structure by number of children up to 18 years old
in the household
N= 4500



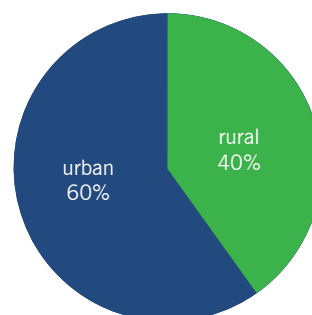
REGIONS:

Sample structure by regions
N= 4500



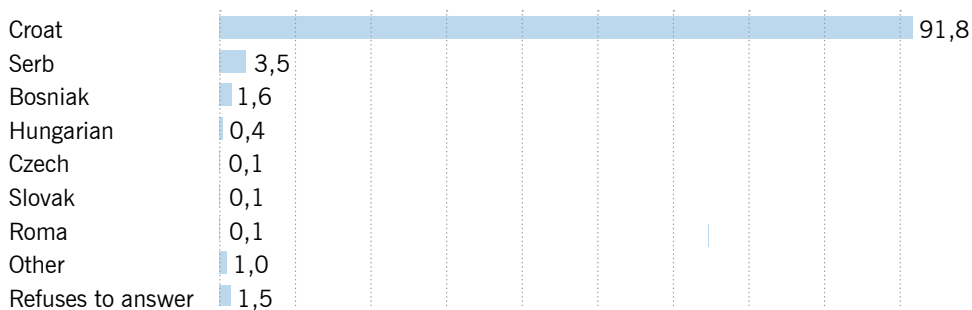
URBAN/RURAL:

Sample structure by settlement type
N= 4500



NATIONALITY:

Sample structure by nationality
N= 4500



The report is divided in 4 units in line with the questionnaire:

1. Part referring to the **perception of security** in respondents' place of residence
 2. Part referring to the **evaluation of police conduct** in respondents' place of residence
 3. Part referring to respondents' **contacts with the police**
 4. Part referring to the **informing about the police**
1. Part referring to the **perception of security** in respondents' place of residence includes their evaluation of the level of crime, disturbance of public peace, risk of becoming a victim of a criminal act. It examines whether some of nine stated events (for instance, car theft, pocket-picking etc.) had happened to them and their actions regarding those events – did they notify the police or not and how they would behave in the future if some of those events were to happen to them. This part also examines the extent to which some persons and occurrences represent a problem in their place of residence, how safe the respondents feel when they are alone at home or walking alone at night and can they protect themselves from a physical assault and assault on their property and have they already undertaken some protection measures and which ones are they.
 2. The part referring to **evaluation of police conduct** in their place of residence, the respondents evaluated the police / police officers on a line of 17 statements (for instance, police officers are motivated, open etc.), evaluated how successful the police is in disclosing and preventing different actions such as pocket-picking, burglaries, prostitution etc., as well as the existence of certain problems within the police.
 3. In the third part, referring to **respondents' contacts with the police**, we examined how many citizens had even contacted the police in the past twelve months, existence of unpleasant experiences with the police. We examined police visibility (patrolling on foot or in a car) in their neighbourhood, did the citizens help the police in the past year and do they have an intention of helping in the future as well, their interest in more frequent contacts with the police. Respondents' perception of objectivity and regularity of informing the public by the police and what should the police inform the public more on was also examined.
 4. The final part examined the frequency of visiting MUP Web site **www.mup.hr**, reasons for (not)visiting, main sources of information about the police. Some demographic questions, as well as questions referring to trust in other people and different institutions were also asked in this part.

The results of all questions are interpreted and graphically presented for the entire population, while the data representing the largest differences between some demographic groups are stated in one part of the interpretation.

2.4.

GFK RESEARCH TEAM

Project Manager: Tamara Kraus, Ana Hromatko
Manager of the data analyses department: Krunoslav Rimac
Manager of the field department: Mirko Bajić

2.5.

THE SAMPLE OF VARIABLES

In surveying the state of fear, one can treat the fear of crime as a multidimensional concept. This concept certainly consists of an experiential component, implying a conscious experience of feeling the fear, as well as a cognitive component, including the cognitive perception of a specific situation as threatening or dangerous. The feeling of fear always includes this component, regardless of how accurate or distorted that perception is. The third component of fear refers to the expression of that feeling, or the behavior of a person in a situation in which the person feels the fear. This behavior most frequently refers to the avoidance of perceived threat or danger, and the undertaking of self-protection measures¹.

2.6.

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL RELEVANCE OF THE SURVEY

Research on the fear of crime has a long tradition in criminology, but an even longer tradition in psychology. The advantage of these types of research can be found in solid theoretical foundation of the fear of crime as a psychological concept. This theoretical foundation can be analyzed in two phases. In phase one, we look at the conceptual structure of the fear of crime. In that process, we focus on conceptual and empirical connections between the fear of crime as a condition on the one hand, and as a disposition on the other. Recent psychological approaches study emotions as affective states that are characterized by reactions which include physiological, behavioral-expressive and subjective aspects. In accordance with that, the state of the fear of crime can be considered a multidimensional state. After that, one needs to conceptualize the object of that fear; in other words, the concept of crime. In phase two, we consider the methodological consequences of that conceptualization, in particular from the point of view of measurement, or evaluation of the fear of crime².

¹ More information on this issue can be found in Appendix 1: Conceptual and operational framework of the variables; Irena Cajner Mraovic, PhD

² More information on this issue can be found in Appendix 2: Theoretical and practical relevance of the survey; Irena Cajner Mraovic, PhD

3.

SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

PERCEPTION OF SECURITY IN THE PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Somewhat more than a half of citizens evaluate the amount of crime and disturbance of public peace in their place of residence as small. An even smaller percentage evaluates the risk of becoming a victim of a criminal act. Around 2/3 of citizens evaluate all mentioned threats as smaller in their place of residence compared to Croatian average.

Among nine examined criminal acts, the largest percentages of citizens were victims of a fraud that caused them a financial loss, followed by a physical assault and stolen bicycle / motorcycle. Less than 5% of citizens were victims of other criminal acts. Among all criminal acts stated, car thefts are to a highest extent reported to the police, followed by (attempted) burglary in their apartment or house. Rape (even though a small number of respondents stated being a victim of this criminal act), financial frauds and physical assaults are least often reported to the police. Most frequent reasons for not reporting financial frauds are either an attitude that the police is powerless in solving these problems or the victims solved this problem by themselves. Around a third of victims of physical assaults that did not report it to the police solved this problem by themselves.

Almost all respondents who were not a victim of these criminal acts believe they would report such a situation to the police in the future. Those who would not report it to the police, and their number is the largest in cases of pocket-picking and thefts of auto radio or bicycle / motorcycle, most often would do so because they believe that the police cannot do anything in such cases.

Among seven examined groups of people as possible sources of problems, undisciplined and insolent drivers represent the largest problem for the citizens, followed by persons under the influence of alcohol. Beggars represent the smallest problem.

Apart from perception of the extent to which different categories of people represent a problem in their place of residence, the perception of the extent of problems related to different occurrences was also examined. Among 16 appearances examined, wrong and improper parking and stopping vehicles represent the largest problem to the citizens (45% encounter this problem almost daily or often). Croatian citizens least often encounter prostitution and abandoned buildings where homeless people gather.

Croatian citizens do not express fear and a feeling of insecurity when they are alone at night in their apartment or house (93% feel safe) or when they are walking alone in their neighbourhood at night (86% feel safe). Around a half of citizens (57%) believe they can protect themselves from a physical assault and that they can protect their property (60%).

A sense of security and possibility of protection mentioned above is also confirmed by the fact that only 18% of citizens had undertaken some measures of protection from a physical assault or assault on their property. However, 1/3 is considering the possibility of undertaking safety measures. Safety measures in the largest percentage refer to not carrying larger amounts of money, watchdog or anti-theft doors.

EVALUATION OF POLICE CONDUCT IN THE PLACE OF RESIDENCE

The citizens evaluated the police on 17 different statements. Generally speaking, evaluations of the police are positive on most of the statements (a larger number of respondents agreed with the positive connotation of the statement). The citizens evaluated the police positively mostly in regards of an orderly appearance and politeness, while the smallest number agree that police officers are motivated and that the police is efficient in preventing crime.

Apart from evaluations of police actions and procedures in their place of residence, citizens' perception of police successfulness in disclosing and preventing certain criminal acts was also examined. Differences between disclosing and preventing certain criminal acts are not noticed, while the police is evaluated the best in preventing and disclosing violence in public places and the worst in preventing and disclosing bribe and corruption.

Almost all six problems within the police are equally evaluated. There is a trend of evaluating the lack of police officers as the largest problem and the inadequate educational system as the smallest one.

CONTACTS WITH THE POLICE

One third of the citizens has had contacts with the police in the past twelve months. Majority of persons who have had contact with the police in this period describe it positively because police officers devoted them either full or a decent amount of attention.

On the other hand, 22% of citizens or their family members and friends have had at least one negative experience with the police in their lifetime. Among 12% of those who had a personal unpleasant experience with the police, those experiences mostly referred to traffic police, followed by police patrols (maintaining public peace and order).

As far as police patrols in respondents' neighbourhoods are concerned, in the past month police patrols in cars are noticed to a highest extent (noticed by 77% of citizens), while almost a half (47%) never saw a police patrol on foot in their neighbourhood and around 1/3 had never seen police acting towards persons making a disorder.

16% of the persons interviewed had helped the police in the past twelve months, however 91% are willing to help in the future. However, citizens are divided in their desire for a more frequent contacts with police officers in the future (48% does not want such contacts and 45% does). A great majority agree that, for the purpose of maintaining order in their place of residence, a better cooperation between the police and the population is needed.

Somewhat more than a half of citizens (55%) believe that the police informs the public objectively and regularly, while around 1/3 have an opposite opinion. Majority of citizens believe that the police should inform the public more on all examined elements, especially on road traffic safety.

INFORMING ABOUT THE POLICE AND TRUST IN DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS

The main source of information about the police is television (67%). Frequency of visiting the Web site www.mup.hr is low – 86% had never visited this site. There are two main reasons for not visiting this Web site: either not having a need for this type of information or not having an Internet access. Those who did visit the Web site www.mup.hr most often did so to inform themselves about advice regarding citizens' documents.

4.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

PERCEPTION OF SECURITY IN THE PLACE OF RESIDENCE	4.1.
EVALUATION OF POLICE CONDUCT IN THE PLACE OF RESIDENCE	4.2.
CONTACTS WITH THE POLICE	4.3.
INFORMING ABOUT THE POLICE AND TRUST IN DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS	4.4.

4.1.

PERCEPTION OF SECURITY IN THE PLACE OF RESIDENCE

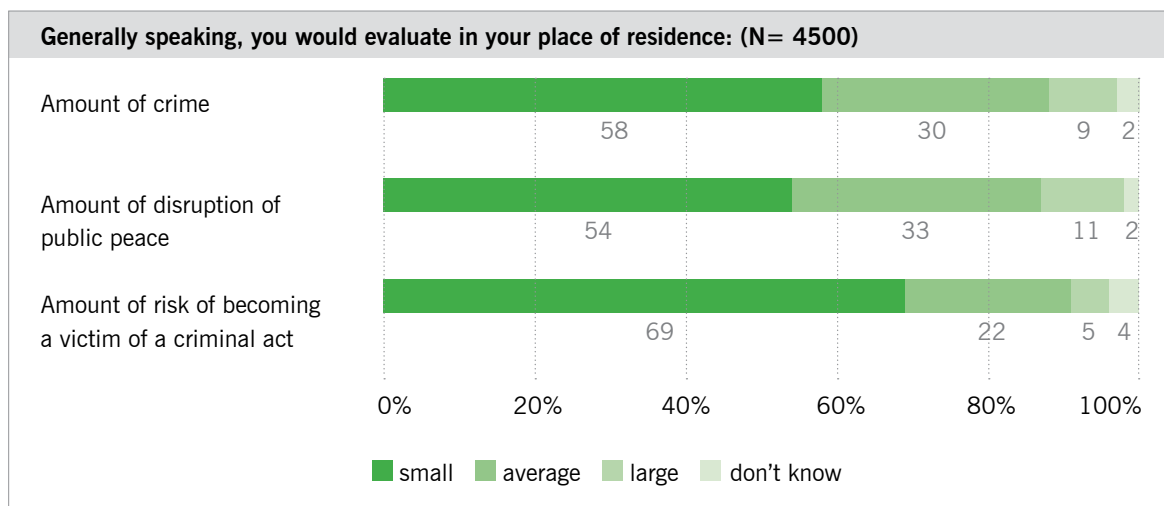
In order to examine the perception of safety, respondents were asked to evaluate the amount of crime, disruption of public peace and risk of becoming a victim of a criminal act in their place of residence and to compare them to the Croatian average.

Somewhat more than a half of citizens evaluate that the amount of crime and disruption of public peace in their place of residence is small, while around every tenth evaluates them as large (Figure 1). However, the estimated risk of the respondent himself/herself becoming a victim of a criminal act is smaller (more than two thirds evaluate it as small and less than a tenth as large).

The share of persons who perceive the amount of crime, disruption of public peace and the amount of risk of a person becoming a victim of a criminal act as small is, expectedly, higher in rural than in urban areas. Their share is also to a higher extent represented among persons of low educational status (finished elementary school or less) and among inhabitants of North Croatia and Lika. On the other hand, the share of citizens who perceive the amount of crime in their place of residence as high is higher in Zagreb and surroundings, Istria and Primorje and Dalmatia. The amount of disruption of public peace, as well as the risk of a person becoming a victim of a criminal act, according to participant's statements, is higher in Zagreb and surroundings and Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar than in other regions.

► Figure 1:

Evaluation of the amount of crime, disturbance of public peace and risk of a person becoming a victim of a criminal act in the place of residence (all respondents, N=4500)

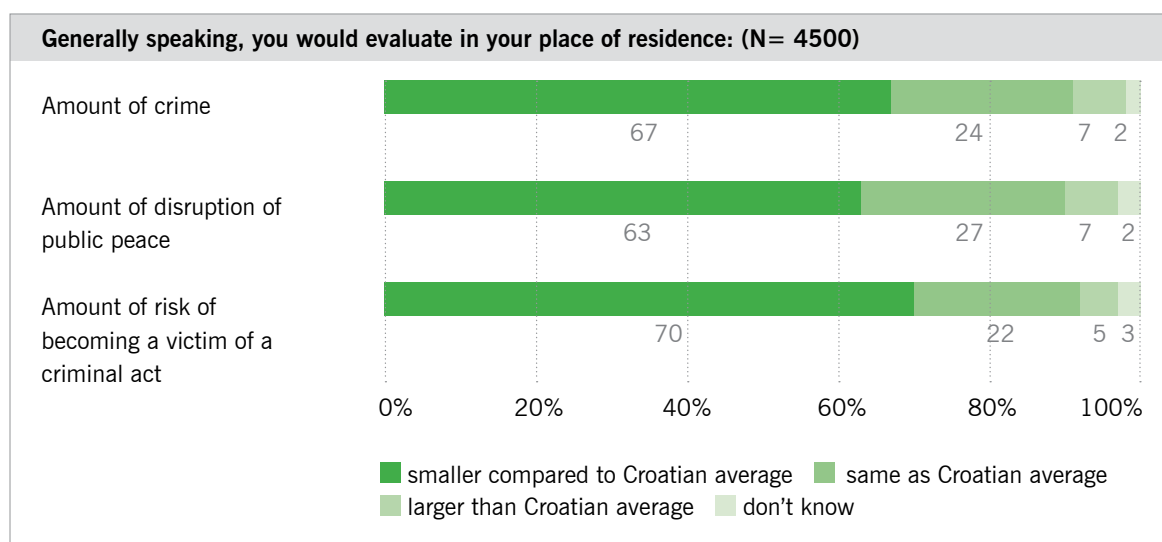


When respondents were asked to state the same evaluations compared to the average of the Republic of Croatia, two thirds and more evaluate the level of crime, disruption of public peace and the risk of becoming a victim of a criminal act as smaller compared to average (Figure 2). **When it comes to this issue, it is very likely that we are partly dealing with the issue of impact of the media on public opinion. Namely, the media portrayal of crime, and the conditions in society in general, paint a significantly more negative picture than the one based on exact data and real events, which leads citizens to conclude that the problems are taking place at some other locations in the country.**

However, it should be emphasized that somewhat less than a tenth of citizens, according to their statements, reside in a place of high levels of crime and disturbance of public peace, but also the risk of becoming victims of a criminal act themselves. The share of such persons is generally higher in urban areas and is also higher in Zagreb and surroundings than in other regions. On the other hand, the perception of safety compared to the average of the Republic Croatia is still the largest in Slavonia and Lika.

> Figure 2:

Evaluation of the amount of crime, disturbance of public peace and risk of a person becoming a victim of a criminal act in the place of residence compared to the average of Republic Croatia (all respondents, N=4500)

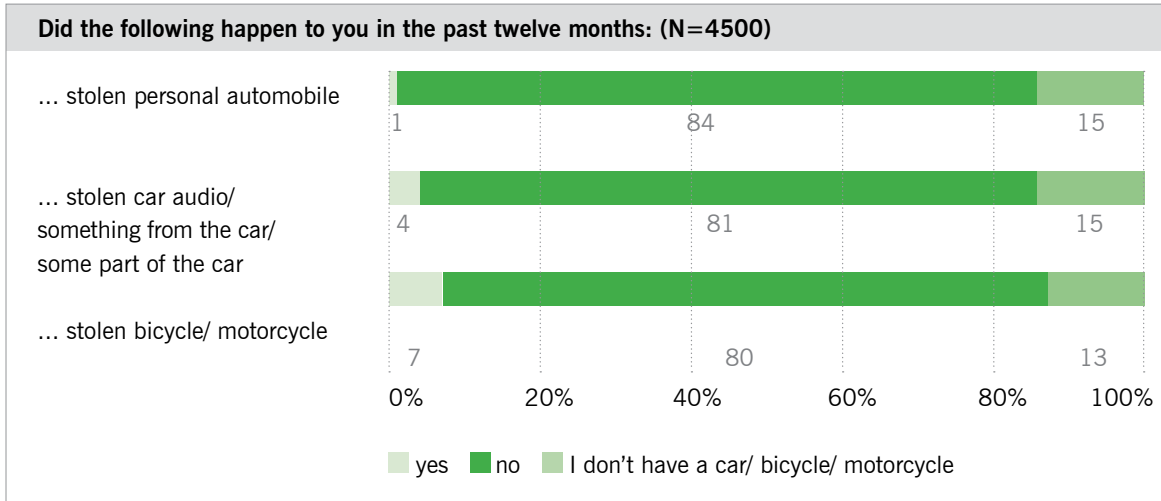


One of the aims of this survey was also to determine the share of persons whose personal automobile and/or something from their car and bicycle/motorcycle were stolen in the past twelve months (Figure 3), as well as the share of persons who were victims of other criminal acts in that period (Figure 4).

When it comes to automobile thefts, according to participant's statements, they are not a frequent occurrence – 1% of respondents stated that their car was stolen in the past year. Thefts of car radio or something else from a car are somewhat more frequent (they are mentioned by 5% of persons who own a car and they seem to be somewhat more frequent in Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar than in other regions), while bicycle/motorcycle thefts are most common (almost every tenth citizen who owns them states they were stolen in the past twelve months).

► Figure 3:

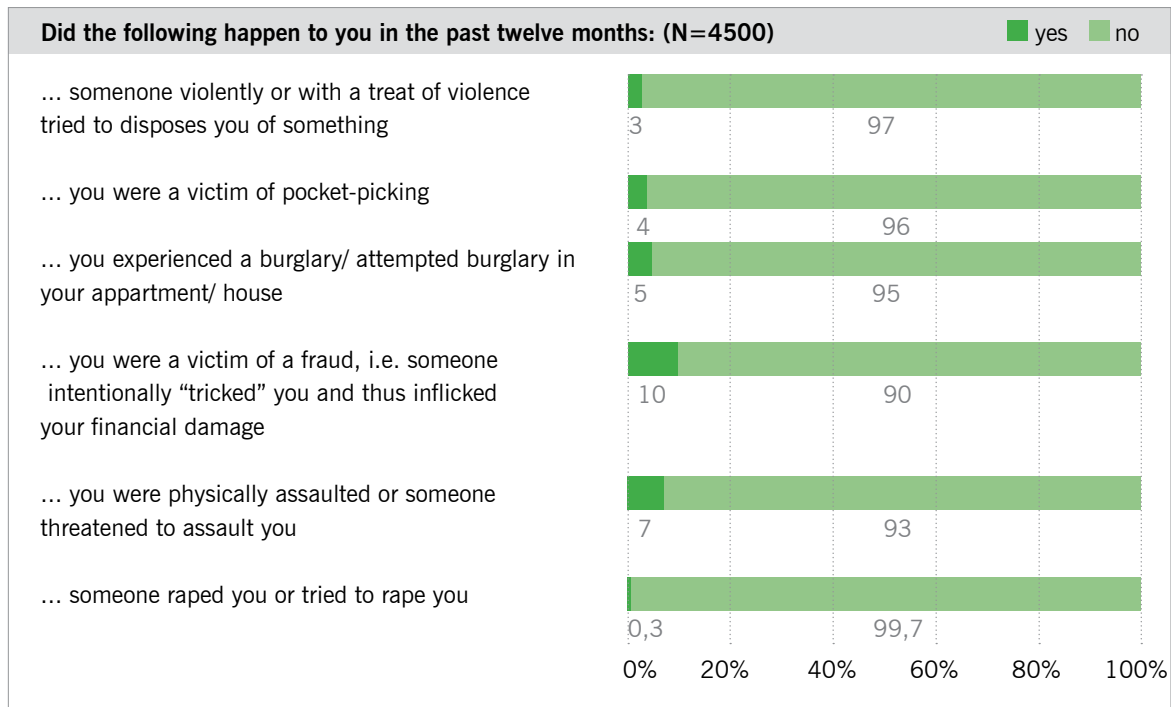
Share of persons whose personal automobile or something from the car / a part of car or bicycle/motorcycle was stolen in the past twelve months (all respondents, N=4500)



When it comes to other criminal acts (Figure 4), a large majority of citizens state they were not victims of such acts in the past year. Every tenth respondent was a victim of a fraud and a somewhat smaller number was physically assaulted and/or experienced a threat of a physical assault (physical assault is more often stated by men and persons under the age of 35 – pupils and students). Around 5% of citizens were victims of a burglary (or attempted burglary) in their own apartment or house, pocket-picking and (an attempt of) a violent dispossession of something. Rape or attempted rape was mentioned by a very small number of persons.

► Figure 4:

Share of persons who were victims of criminal acts in the past twelve months (all respondents, N=4500)

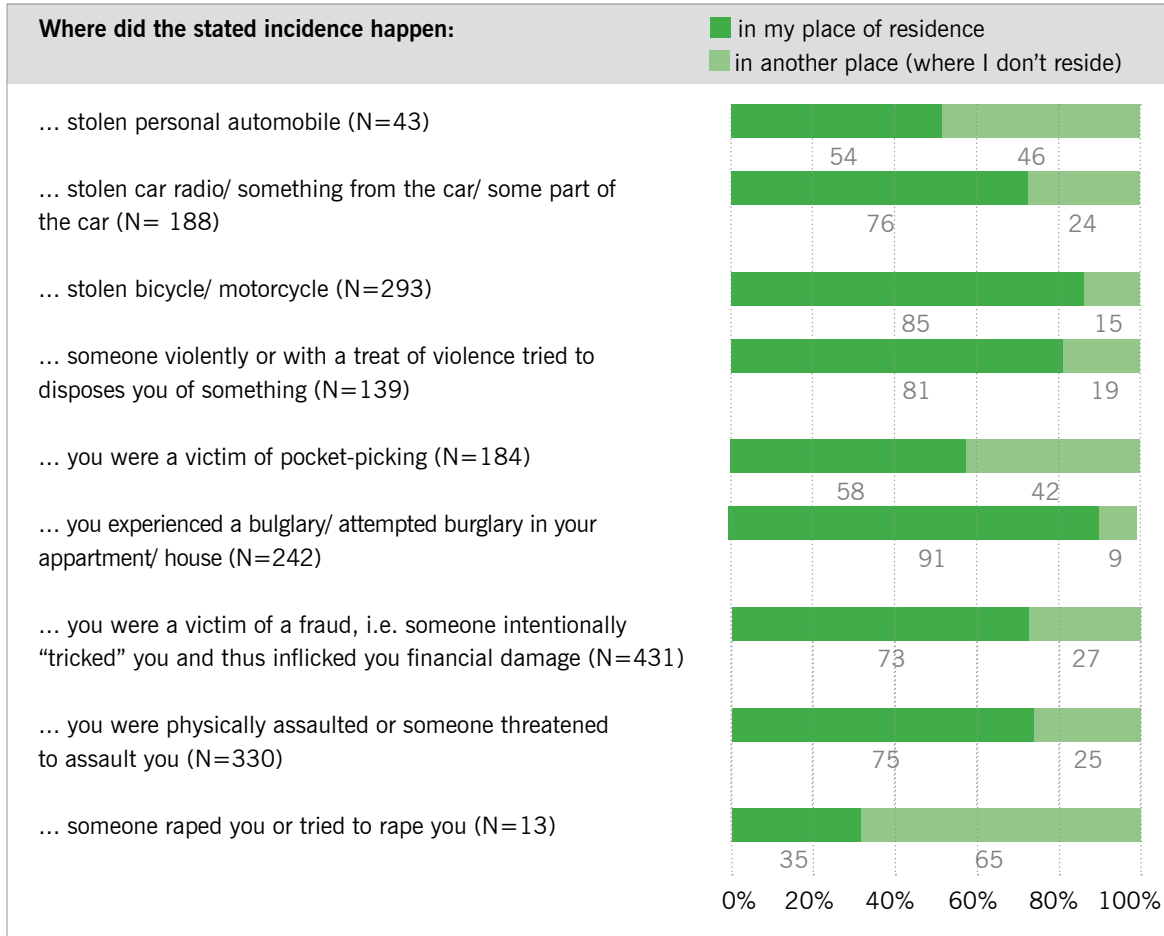


Car thefts and pocket-picking equally often occur in the pace of residence and in some other place (Figure 5). Victims of other criminal acts more often experienced them in their place of residence.

Car thefts and (attempted) burglary in the house or apartment are most often reported to the police, while thefts of car radio or other things/parts from the car and violent attempts of dispossession of something are reported somewhat rarely (Figure 6). When it comes to bicycle / motorcycle thefts and pocket-picking, half of respondents who were victims of such thefts in the past twelve months did not report them to the police. The share of persons who did not report a criminal act to the police is even higher when it comes to victims of frauds and physical assaults – even two thirds did not report such acts to the police. Victims of (attempted) rape rarely report such acts to the police; however, in contemplating these results one should have in mind that the number of respondents was very small, **as well as a well known fact that the so-called dark figures of crime are above average particularly in these types of criminal offences.**

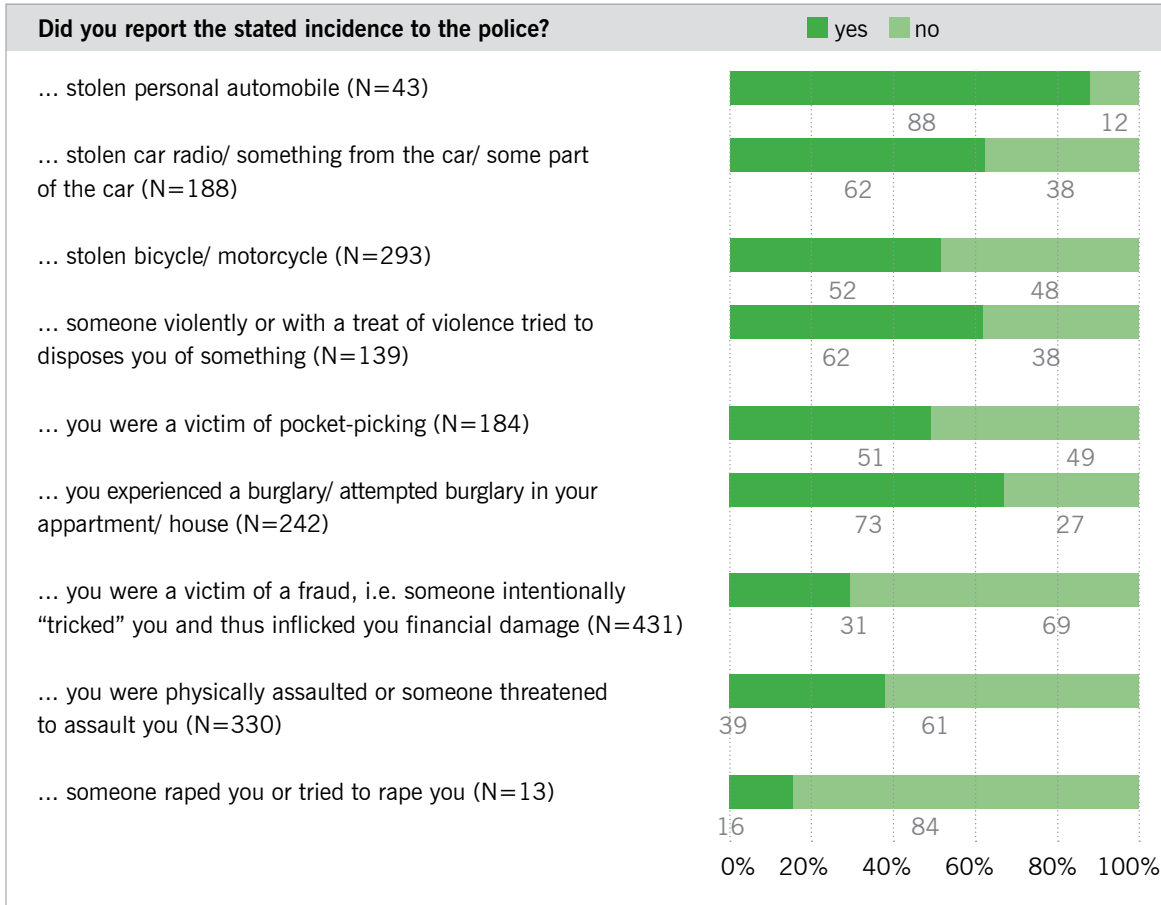
► Figure 5:

Place where respondents were victim of a certain criminal act (respondents who were victims of a certain criminal act in the past twelve months)



► Figure 6:

Share of victims of criminal acts who had reported them to the police (respondents who were victims of a certain criminal act in the past twelve months)



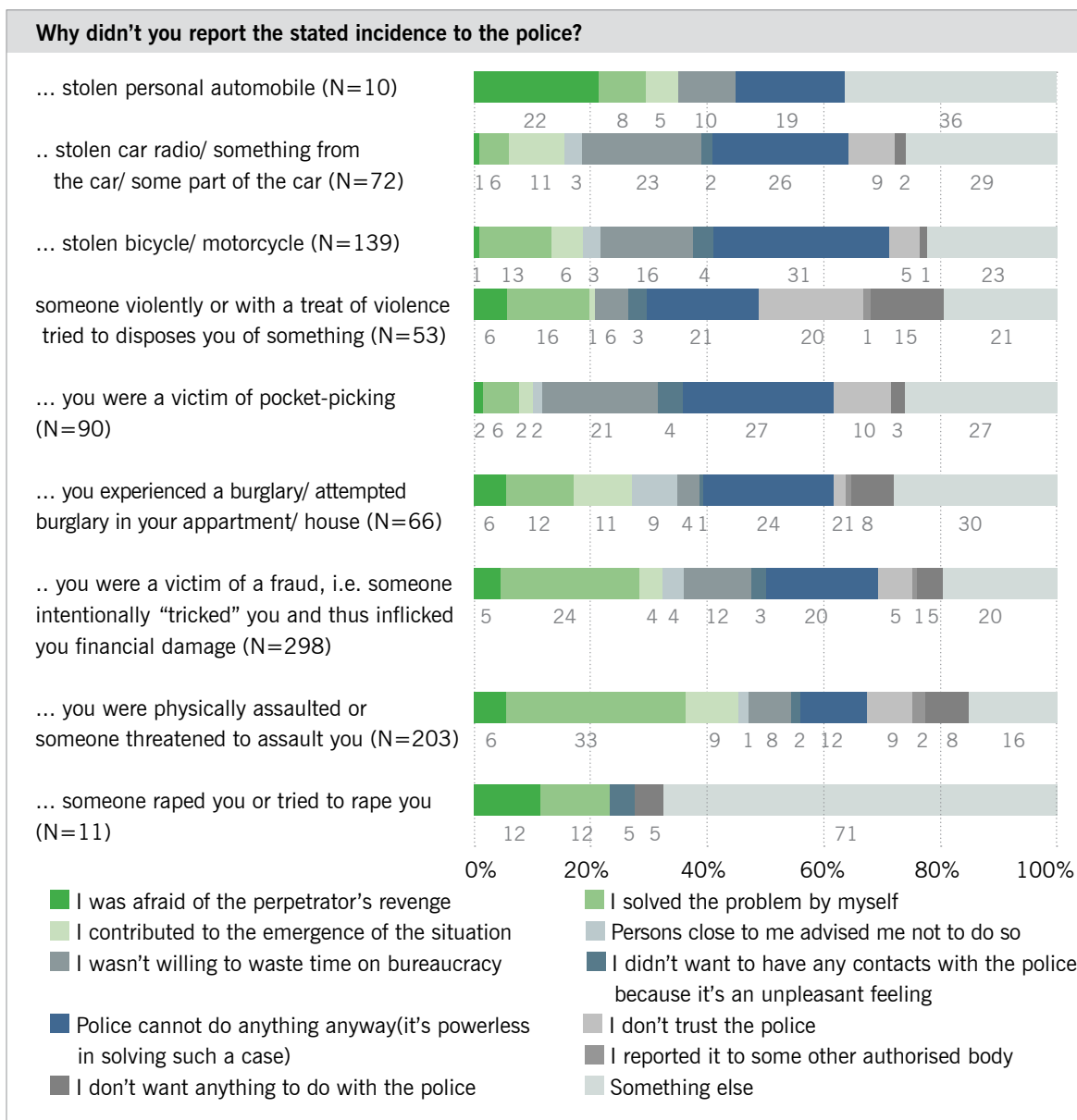
The reasons why victims of criminal acts did not report it to the police are different but three reasons are mentioned somewhat more often: police inability in solving cases, solving problems by themselves and unwillingness to waste time on bureaucracy (Figure 7). Solving problems independently (by themselves) is most often stated reason among persons who were victims of a physical assault, while victims of (attempted) burglary in their own apartment or house and bicycle / motorcycle thefts most often believe that in these situations the police could not have done anything anyway. Victims of fraud equally often state they solved the problem by themselves and that the police was powerless anyway, while in the case of pocket-picking and thefts of car radio (or other things from the car) most often mentioned reason, alongside police inability, is victim's unwillingness to waste time on bureaucracy.

The above mentioned facts clearly indicate that the citizens are partly losing their faith in the institutions of society, or that, at the very least, they do not perceive them as a service provided to citizens, but rather as an additional source of unnecessary difficulties. The link between social change and social disorganization in the area of criminology is conceptualized primarily within the framework of the theory of modernization. Changes in crime rates, in terms of damage to property and persons that takes place over time and in different areas, are connected to the economic development, with a particular emphasis on the processes of urbanization and industrialization. In the area of Central and Eastern Europe, the emphasis placed on economic reform in the course of transition meant that the remaining

social institutions in practice became subordinated to the economy. According to the theory of institutional anomie, this lack of institutional balance means that the degree of social control implemented by these institutions has decreased, and that the social conditions therefore favor the development of delinquency much more strongly. As opposed to that, examples of countries such as Sweden show that the policy of social security can proactively preserve the institutional balance of power, and therefore a higher degree of social control. In other words, the overall social policy of a social state can serve as a buffer zone between the citizens and the market; however, it is quite possible to weaken this buffer zone, and that is precisely what has happened in some countries in the 1990s.

► Figure 7:

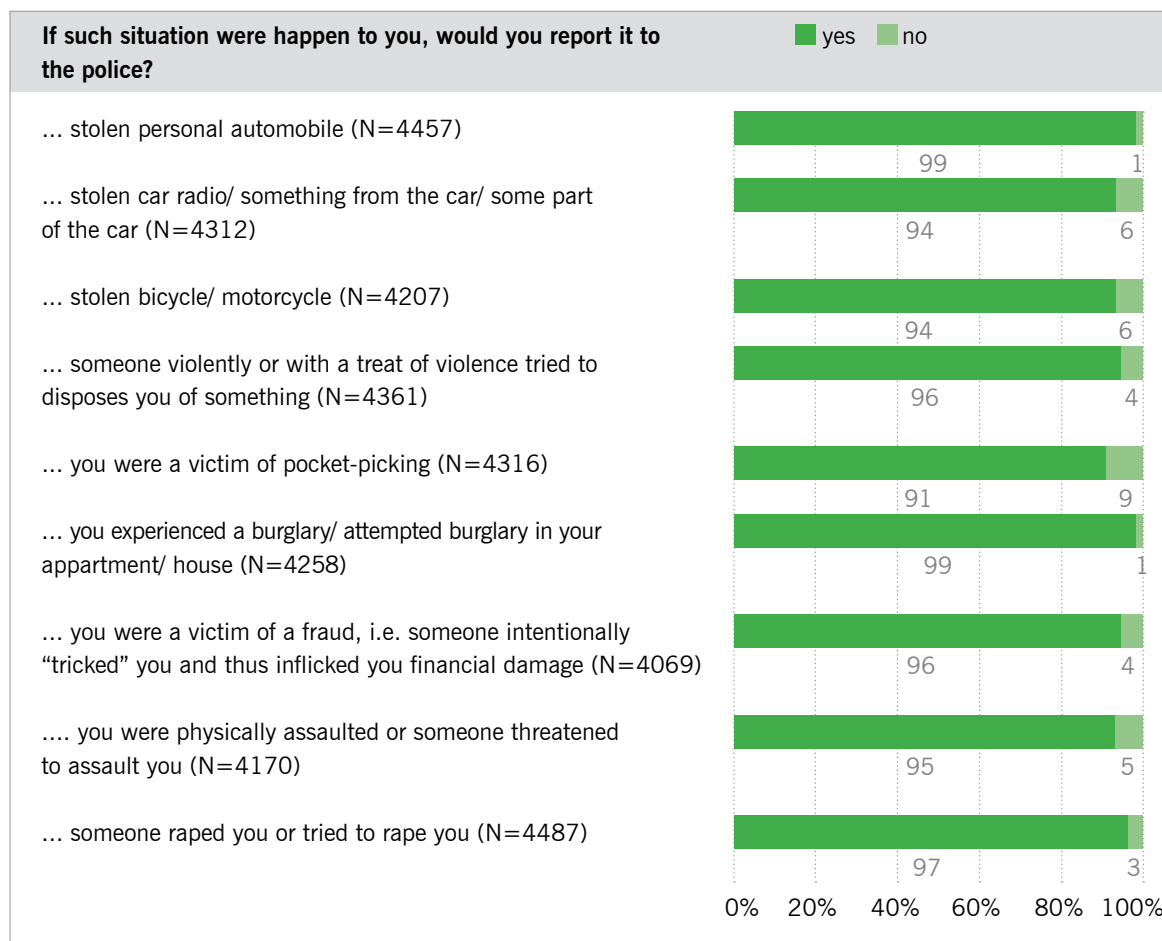
Reasons why victims of criminal acts did not report those acts to the police (respondents who were victims of a certain criminal act in the past twelve months)



Unlike persons who were victims of criminal acts in the past twelve months, almost all of those who were not victims believe they would report such a situation to the police (Figure 8). **We ought to emphasize that a number of corresponding foreign surveys provide the same result.** The share of persons who would not report such an act to the police is somewhat higher in the case of pocket-picking than other criminal acts.

► Figure 8:

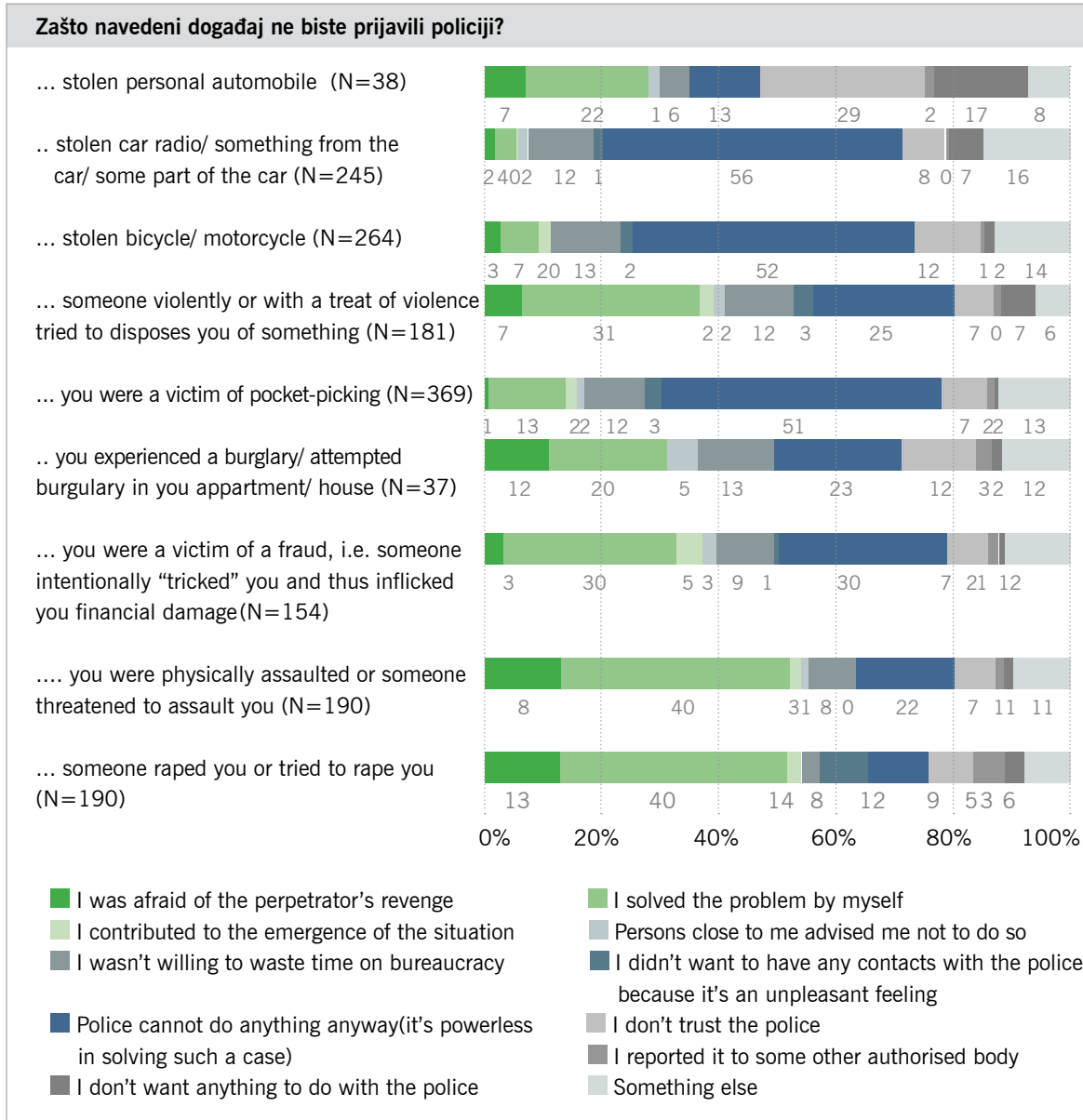
Willingness of the respondents to submit a report to the police if they were to become a victim of certain criminal acts (respondents who were not victims of a certain criminal act in the past twelve months)



Two main reasons why respondents would not report to the police if they were victims of a criminal act are the perception of police inability to solve such cases and confidence in solving problems by themselves (Figure 9). Solving problems by themselves is most often mentioned in situations of a physical assault and rape, while distrust in police ability is more expressed in situations of stolen car radio and other parts of a car (or other things from the car), pocket-picking and bicycle / motorcycle thefts. Both reasons are equally often mentioned for unwillingness to report frauds and violent (attempts) of dispossessions.

► Figure 9:

Reasons why respondents would not report to the police that they are victims of certain criminal acts (respondents who would not report to the police that they are victims of a certain criminal acts)

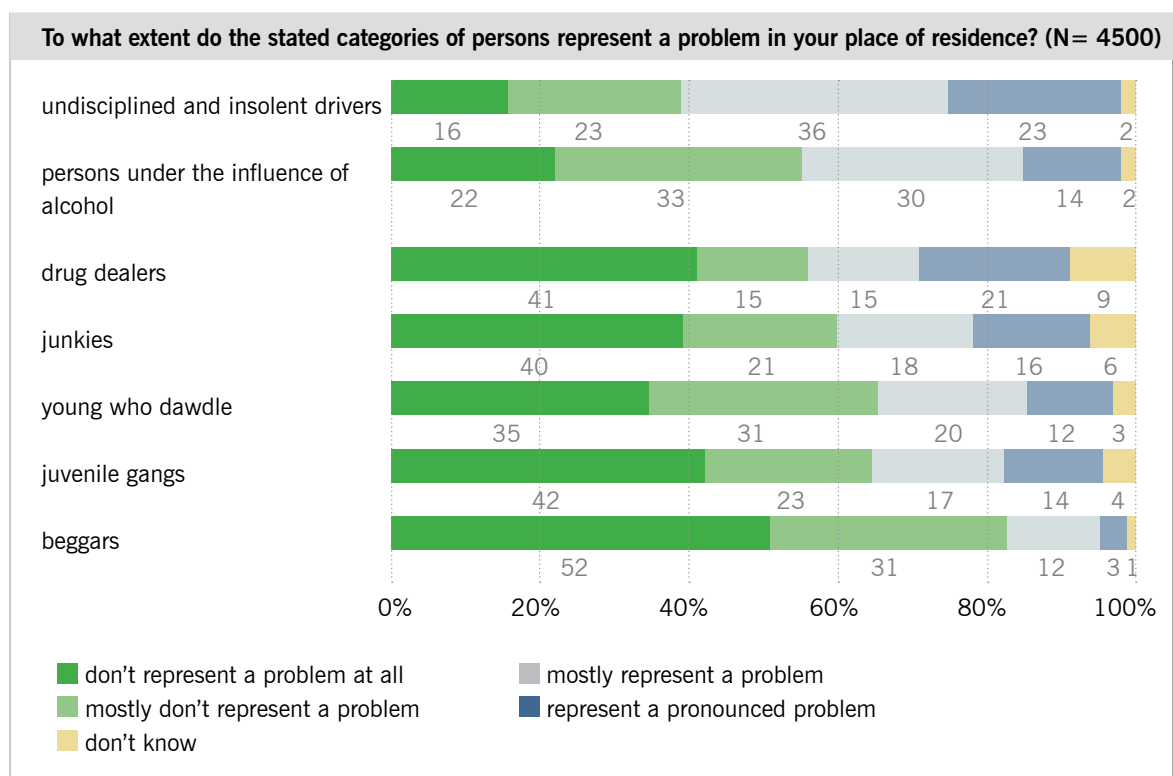


The extent to which Croatian citizens perceive different categories of persons as a problem in their own place of residence was also examined (Figure 10). The results show that undisciplined and insolent drivers represent a problem to the highest extent, i.e. they are perceived in this way by more than a half of respondents (59%). Persons under the influence of alcohol represent the second most frequent problem (as stated by 44% of citizens), followed by drug dealers and junkies (36%, that is 34%). On the other hand, beggars represent the smallest problem.

Expectedly, all stated categories of persons are perceived as a problem to a higher extent in urban areas than in rural areas. On the other hand, stated categories represent a smaller problem in North Croatia and Lika than in

other regions. The problem of drug dealers and junkies, according to statements made by the respondents, is more expressed in Dalmatia and Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar (around a half of citizens consider them a problem) and Zagreb and surroundings follow (around 40% of inhabitants). The problem of young people who dawdle is more expressed in Istria and undisciplined and insolent drivers represent a large problem in Zagreb and surroundings as well as in Istria. Even though the problem of beggars is generally perceived as less expressed than other problems, it should be emphasized it is more often perceived in Zagreb and surroundings than in other regions (almost a quarter compared to somewhat more than a tenth).

➤ Figure 10:
Perception of the extent to which different categories of persons represent a problem in respondent's place of residence (all respondents, N=4500)



Apart from the perception of the extent to which different categories of persons represent a problem in the place of residence, the perception of the extent of problems related to different instances was also examined (Figure 11). **Namely, we assumed it is possible that, in a certain environment, the problem might take the form of solely one individual (for example, a neighbor frequently returning home at a late hour, heavily drunk). Such a situation is significantly different from a case in which the problem is posed by a specific phenomenon (for example, a bar in which disorderly conduct connected to heavy drinking is occurring fairly regularly).**

Wrong and improper parking and stopping of vehicles is the most frequent problem respondents encounter with – almost a half (45%) face this problem often or almost daily. Problems that follow are filthy streets and green areas (a problem more than a quarter of population encounters often / almost daily), drinking and drug usage in the streets, damages of private property and public property, noise during the night (a quarter) and dangerous dogs, broils made by minors and violence between people (every fifth respondent). Prostitution is the least expressed problem – majority (72%) never encountered this problem in their place of residence.

As in the case of different categories of persons, all examined occurrences represent a problem to a higher extent in urban areas than in rural ones, and majority of them are a more frequent problem in Zagreb, Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar and Dalmatia than in Northern Croatia, Slavonia and Lika. Furthermore, negative occurrences related to the arrangement of space and environment, according to statements made by the citizens, is a more frequent problem in Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar than in other regions – inhabitants of this region more often than others encounter industrial pollution, ruined and abandoned buildings where unwanted persons gather (homeless people, junkies, delinquents...), devastated ATMs and phone booths and filth and trash on the streets and green areas. Wrong and improper parking and stopping vehicles is a more frequent problem in Dalmatia, dangerous dogs in Slavonia and begging in Zagreb and surroundings. Burglaries and robberies are more frequent in Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar, as well as in Zagreb and surroundings, than in other regions.

What follows is the data pointing to a significantly higher level of safety in Croatia, than the one that might be assumed on the basis of the media portrayal of the safety situation. Great majority of Croatian citizens (93%) feel safe when they are alone at night in their own apartment / house (Figure 12). A somewhat smaller number, but still a large majority (86%) also feel safe when they walk alone in their neighbourhood at night. A sense of security is generally higher in rural areas than in urban ones and men feel safer than women. Respondents older than 55 express somewhat lower feelings of safety than younger ones.

Overall, two thirds of citizens state they are no places they avoid going to due to a sense of insecurity, while every fourth avoids certain places. **We would like to emphasize that these are also quite important indicators of the respondents' overall quality of life, given the fact that the limitation of movement due to the fear of victimization endangers one of the fundamental human rights and liberties – the right to the freedom of movement.** The share of persons who avoid certain places is higher in urban areas and among women, pupils / students and highly educated respondents. At the regional level, the share of such persons is higher in Zagreb and surroundings than in other regions – more than a third of inhabitants of this region avoid certain places due to a sense of insecurity (in the City of Zagreb, almost a half)

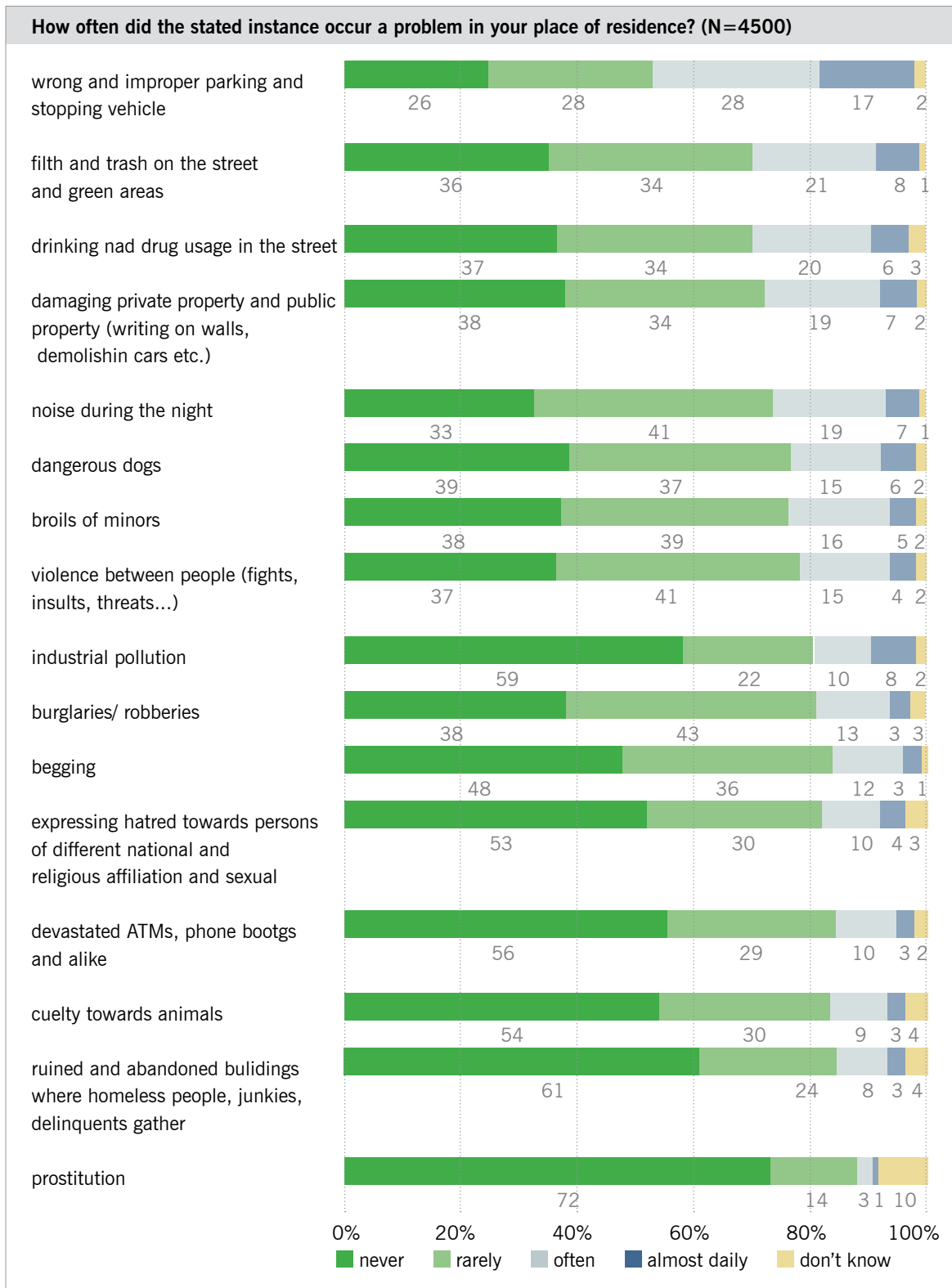
Apart of the sense of safety, the perception of own possibilities of self-protection and protection of personal property in case of a physical assault was also examined (Figure 13). The results show that these two evaluations are very similar, whereat the possibility of protecting property is generally expressed to a somewhat higher extent than the possibility of protecting one self.

More than half of citizens (57%) believe that they can protect themselves from a physical assault, while a somewhat larger number (60%) express a belief in their ability of protecting personal property. Around a third expresses the perception of inability of self-protection / perception of property.

Belief in own abilities, in case of both self-protection and protection of property, is significantly higher among men than among women and decreases with age.

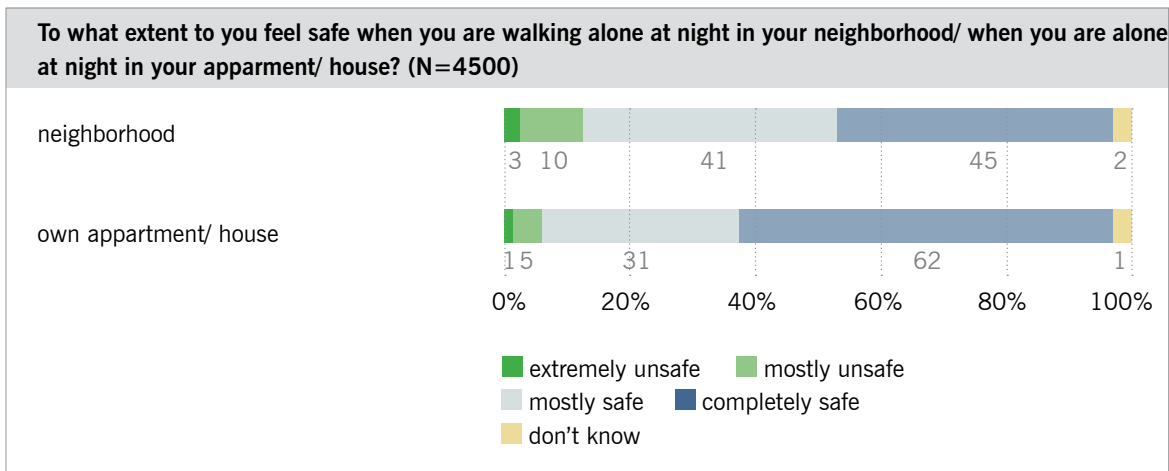
► Figure 11:

Perception of the extent to which different occurrences represent a problem in respondent's place of residence



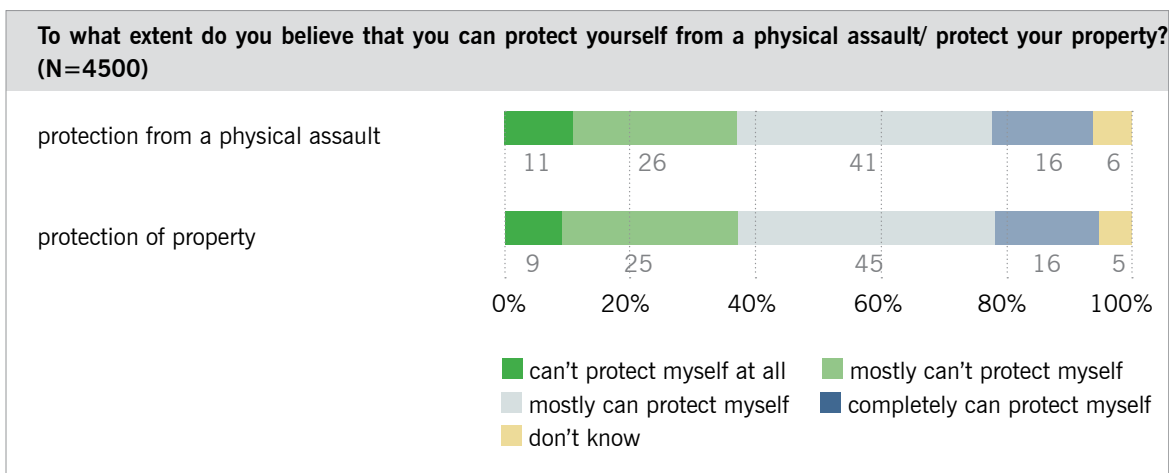
► Figure 12:

Respondents' sense of security when they walk alone at night in their neighbourhood and when they are alone at night in their apartment / house (all respondents, N=4500)



► Figure 13:

Perception of own abilities of self-protection / protection of personal property in case of a physical assault (all respondents, N=4500)



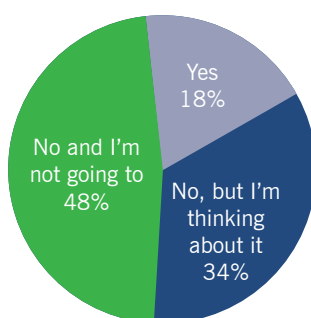
Whether respondents had undertaken some measures to protect themselves from a physical assault or an assault on property was also examined (Figure 14) and, if so, what specific measures are they (Figure 15).

Despite the expressed sense of security, every fifth Croatian citizen has already undertaken some measures of protecting from an assault and an additional third is considering it. The share of persons who have already undertaken some measures is higher in urban areas and among highly educated persons, and is at the same time higher in Zagreb and surroundings than in other regions.

> Figure 14:

Undertaking some measures of protection from a physical assault and assault on property (all respondents, N=4500)

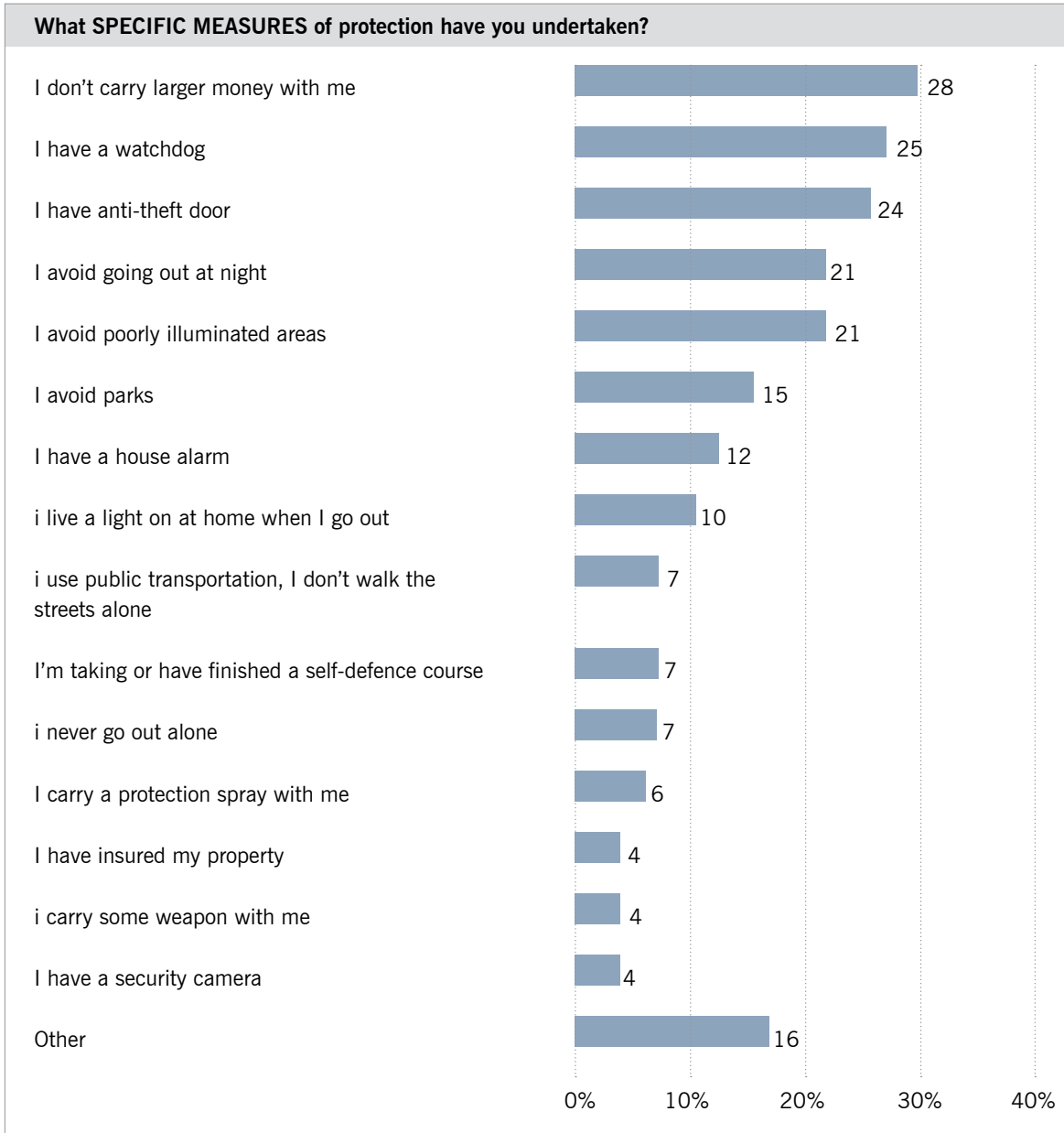
Have you undertaken some measures of protection of physical assault/ assault on your property? (N= 4500)



Specific measures these individuals have already undertaken are quite diverse, but most often mentioned are not carrying larger amounts of money, watchdog and anti-theft doors, as well as avoiding poorly illuminated areas and generally going out at night. **As a matter of fact, we might conclude that the Croatian society still has the capacity of a healthy society.**

► Figure 15:

Specific measures of protection from a physical assault and assault on property (respondents who have undertaken some measure, N=821)



This survey examined the attitude of Croatian citizens towards different police actions and procedures in their place of residence, the perception of successfulness in uncovering and preventing different criminal acts and the perception of presence of different problems within the police.

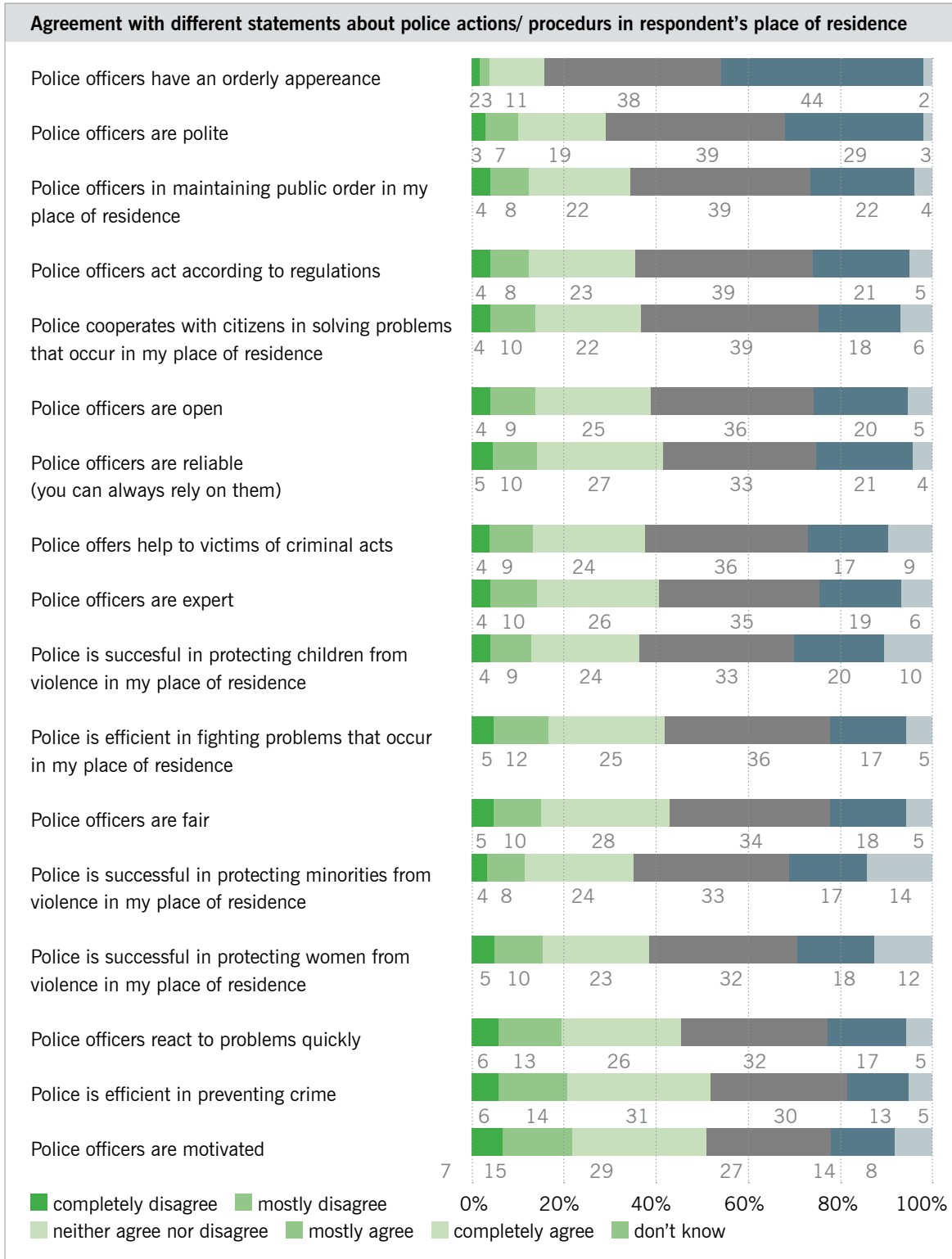
Generally speaking, the evaluations of police procedures on different statements are not very negative, however there is room for improvement (Figure 16). The share of persons who give negative evaluations is between a tenth and a fifth.

A large majority of Croatian citizens believes that police officers have an orderly appearance (Figure 16). Two thirds perceive them as polite and a somewhat smaller number believe that police is efficient in maintaining public order in their place of residence, acts according to regulations, cooperates with local population in solving problems and that police officers are open. On the other hand, statements that generate somewhat lower levels of agreement are efficiency in solving crime and motivation of police officers. Around a half of respondents agree with the remaining statements, **which still poses a very high value.**

The level of agreement with statements tested is generally higher in rural areas and among persons with low levels of education and increases with age. On the regional level, inhabitants of Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar are more critical than inhabitants of other regions, while inhabitants of Northern Croatia, Slavonia and Lika are least critical. It should also be mentioned that pupils and students have a more critical attitude towards police actions and procedures. **That is in line with expectations, given the fact that younger persons have a tendency to relate to social institutions with a higher degree of criticism.**

► Figure 16:

Agreement with different statements about police actions and procedures in respondent's place of residence (all respondents, N=4500)



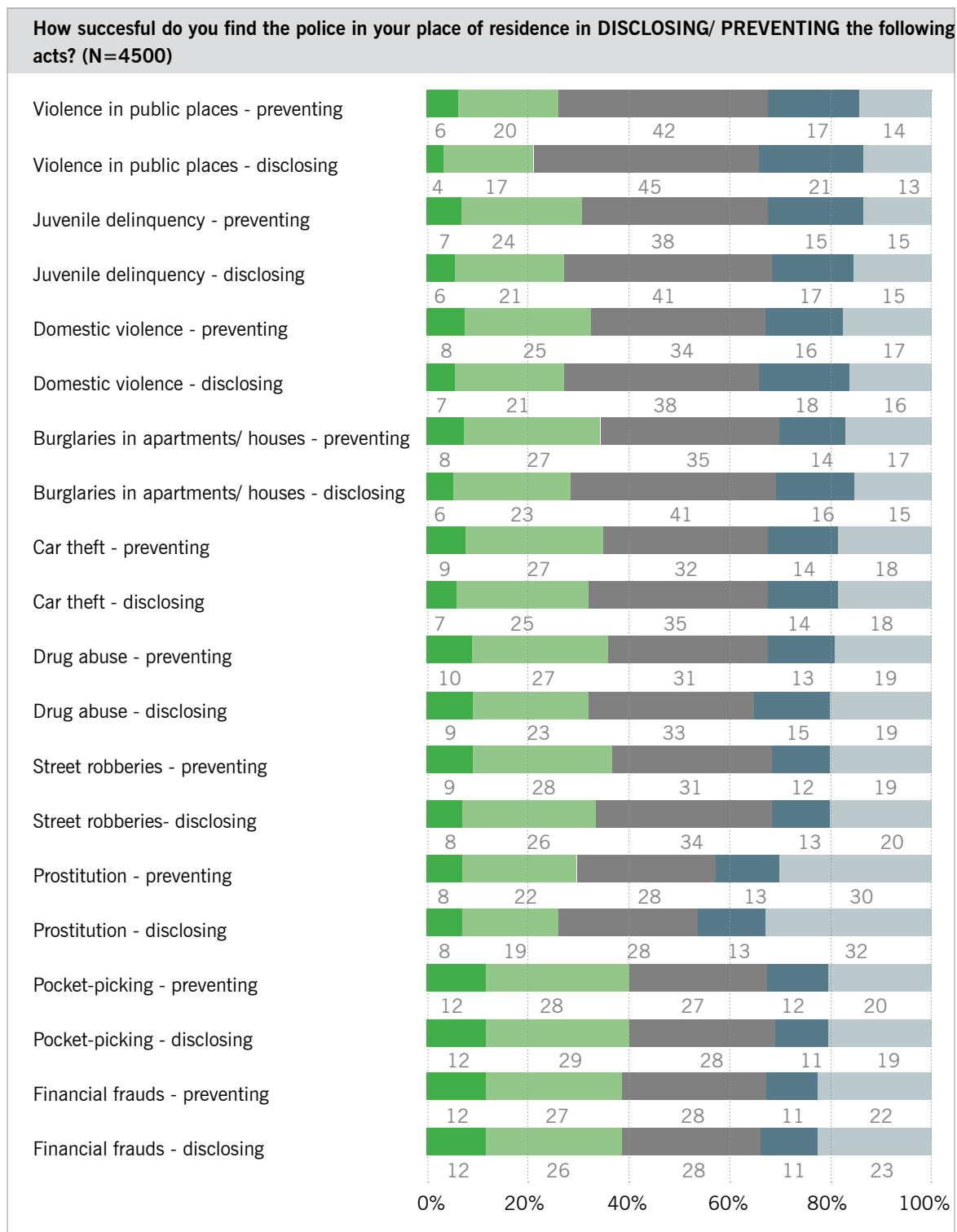
Apart from the evaluation of police actions and procedures in citizen's place of residence, their perception of police successfulness in disclosing and preventing certain criminal acts was also examined (Figure 17).

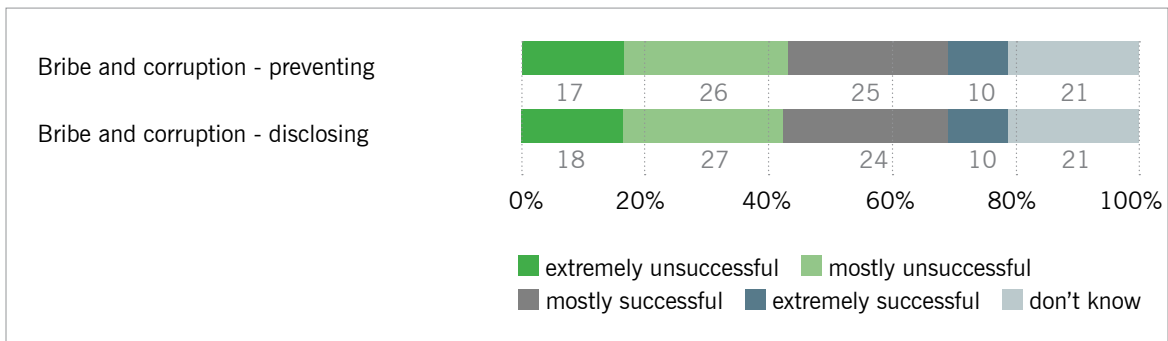
Generally speaking, disclosing criminal acts is evaluated less or equally successful as preventing and average grades on the 1 to 5 agreement scale are between 2,3 and 3,0. The highest police successfulness is perceived in preventing and disclosing violence in public places, followed by juvenile delinquency, domestic violence and burglaries in apartments / houses. Around a half of respondents believe that police is successful in preventing and disclosing car thefts, drug abuse and street robberies, while somewhat more than a third evaluate it as unsuccessful. On the other hand, almost a half evaluate police as unsuccessful in preventing and disclosing corruption.

Inhabitants of Zagreb and Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar generally evaluate police successfulness in preventing and disclosing criminal acts more negatively than inhabitants of other regions. The evaluation of police successfulness decreases with the increase of educational level and there is tendency of middle/aged respondents (35-55 years old) evaluating successfulness higher than younger and older citizens. **It is very likely that persons with a higher level of education also apply more demanding criteria of successfulness in general, which includes the social institutions. A higher degree of criticism among younger persons is a product of the already mentioned tendency of members of this age group to criticize society in general. Senior citizens, on the other hand, display a higher level of the fear of victimization caused by criminal offences in a number of surveys (see Singer, Kovčo Vukadin, Cajner Mraovic, 2005 for more detail), precisely due to their lower physical strength, and thus a lower capacity to protect themselves.**

► Figure 17:

Evaluation of police successfulness in preventing and disclosing certain actions in respondent's place of residence (all respondents, N=4500)

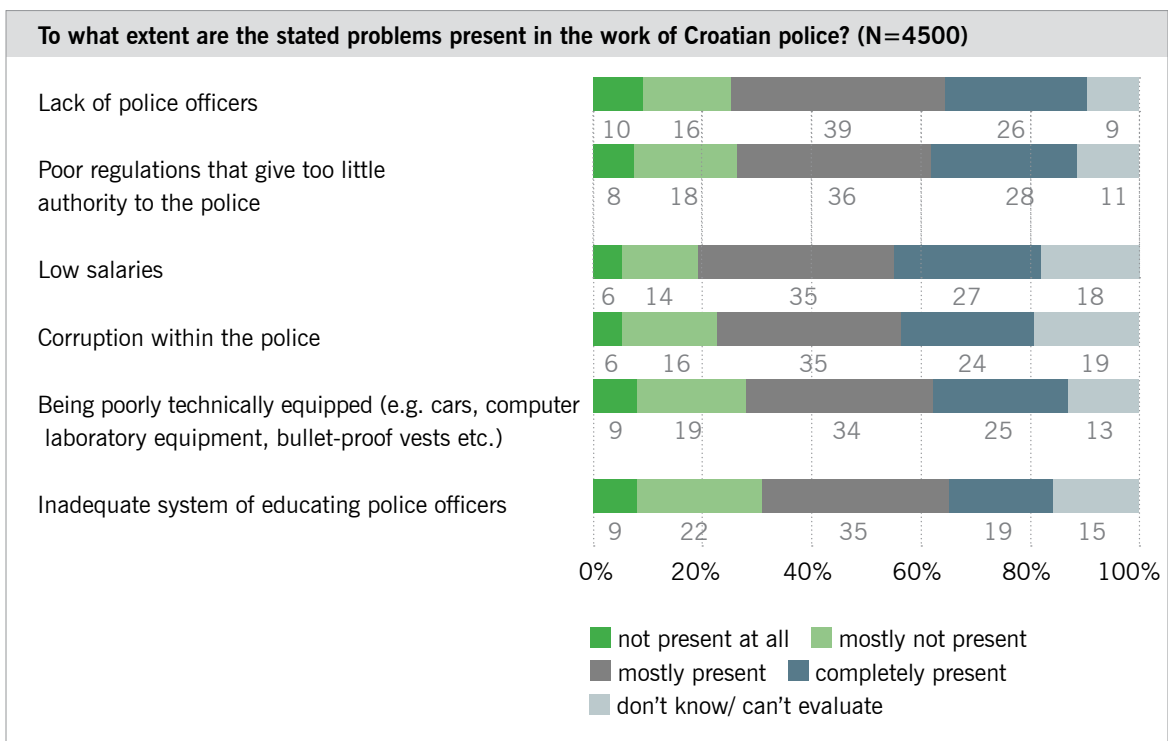




Around two thirds of Croatian citizens believe that lack of police officers, poor regulations that give police too little authority and low salaries are problems that police faces with (Figure 18). Only a somewhat smaller number believe that corruption within the police, poor technical equipment and inadequate system of educating police officers are also problems that police encounters in its work.

Problems in the work of police stated above are generally more often recognized by inhabitants of Zagreb, Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar and Dalmatia and persons who live in urban areas. Additionally, the share of persons who believe that these problems are present in police work increases with educational level.

► Figure 18:
Perception of presence of certain problems in police work (all respondents, N=4500)

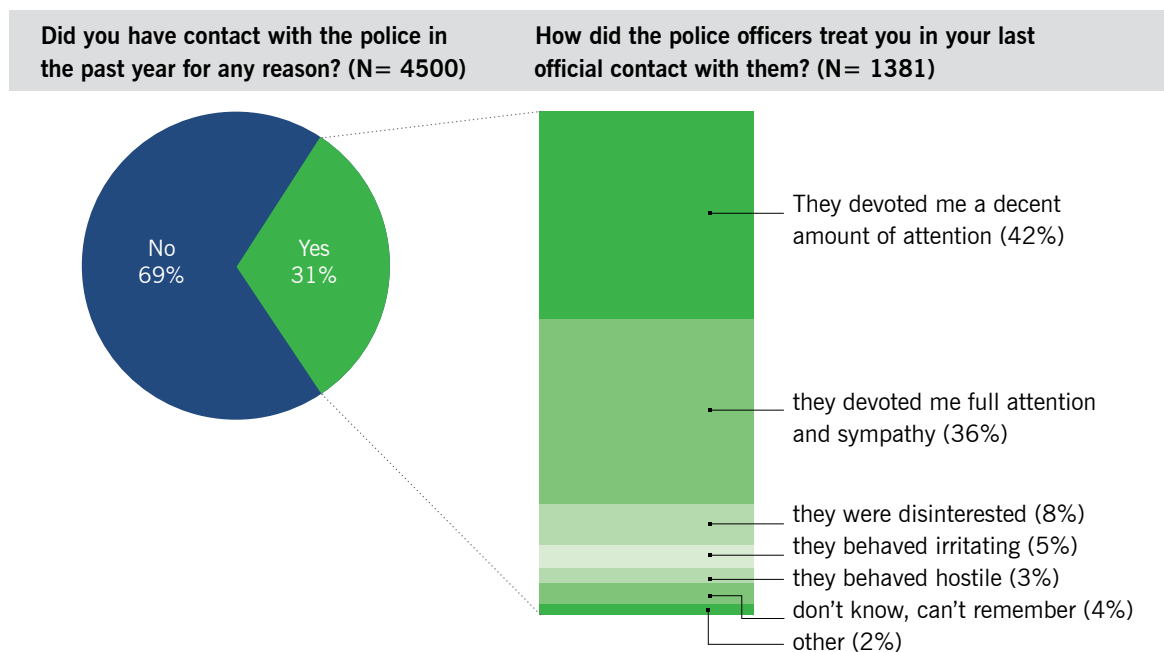


Overall, one third of all respondents have had contacts with the police in the past twelve months (Figure 19). The share of persons who have had contacts with the police is equal in all regions, but is somewhat higher in urban areas than in rural ones (33% vs. 28%) and among men than among women (36% vs. 26%). There are also differences regarding age - persons older than 55 less often state having contacts with the police than younger ones (one fifth compared to somewhat more than a third). It is interesting to mention that the share of persons who have had contacts with the police increases with the educational level (22% of persons with finished primary school or less, 35% of persons with finished high school and 41% of highly educated respondents). At the level of working status, the share of persons who have had personal contacts with the police is somewhat higher among private entrepreneurs. On the other hand, housewives and retirees mention such contacts more rarely than others. **We can conclude that these results have to do with the actual radius of movement of respondents, and their potential exposure to risks.**

Majority of persons who have had contacts with the police in the past twelve months describe the actions of police officers at the last official contact positively, stating that the officers devoted them a decent amount of attention (42%) or even full attention and sympathy (36%). Around a tenth (8%) describe them as uninterested and an equal number expresses a negative evaluation of police officers (5% believes they behaved irritating towards them and 3% evaluate their behaviour as hostile). Persons younger than 35 mention lack of interest and negative behaviour somewhat more often than others. **This particular piece of data must be taken into account with a certain degree of caution, given the fact that we had already stated earlier that younger persons have a tendency to display above-average criticism towards social institutions. As a matter of fact, and generally speaking, we might conclude that the data received in this fashion portrays the Croatian police as a highly professional service.**

► Figure 19:

Share of respondents who have had contacts with the police in the past twelve months (all respondents, N=4500) and evaluation of police officers' conduct at the last official contact (respondents who have had contacts with the police in the past twelve months, N=1381)



Apart from personal contacts with the police in the past twelve months (regardless of the reason), one of the areas of interest was determining the share of population who have had negative experiences with the police (regardless of the time period) and areas those experiences were related (Figure 20).

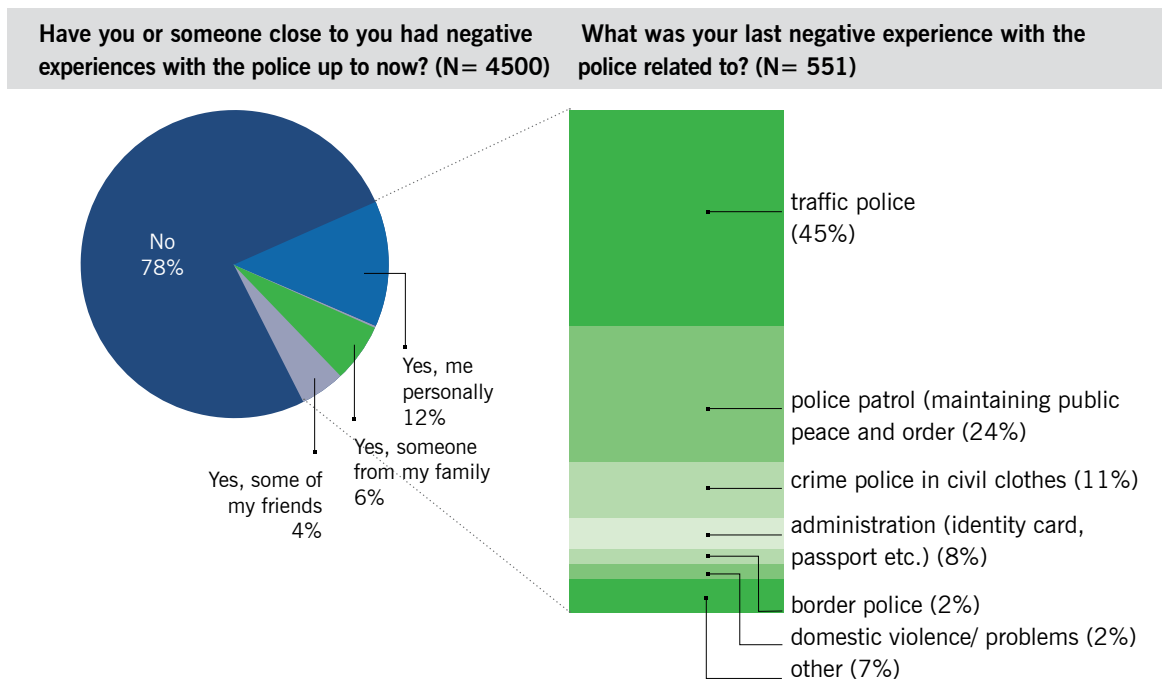
Overall, based on respondents' statements, almost a quarter of the population (23%) has had negative experiences with the police. Around a tenth (12%) have had personal negative experiences and an equal number (11%) stated that persons in their close environment (family members or friends) have had such experiences.

Every fifth man (18%) has had negative experiences with the police and an additional tenth are familiar with such experiences in their close environment. Women had personal negative experiences considerably less often (7%), but are equally familiar with such experiences in their close environment as men. Negative experiences (both personal and in close environment) generally decrease with age – they are stated by somewhat more than a third of persons under the age of 35 (whereat one fifth personally experienced them), compared to around a quarter of middle-aged persons and a tenth of those older than 55. There are also differences regarding education – negative experiences (both personal and in the environment) are less often stated by persons of low educational status (finished primary school or less) than by those of middle and high education (around a tenth compared to a quarter).

Unpleasant experiences were most often related to traffic police and, somewhat more rarely, to police patrols assigned to maintaining public peace and order (including football matches).

Such experiences with traffic police are more often mentioned by men, urban population and middle-aged persons (35-55 years old). On the other hand, inhabitants of Slavonia have had negative experiences with traffic police less often than inhabitants of other regions, but almost twice as often than others mention negative experiences with police patrols.

> Figure 20:
Share of negative experiences with the police (all respondents, N=4500) and the area those negative experiences were related to (respondents who have had personal negative experience with the police, N=551)

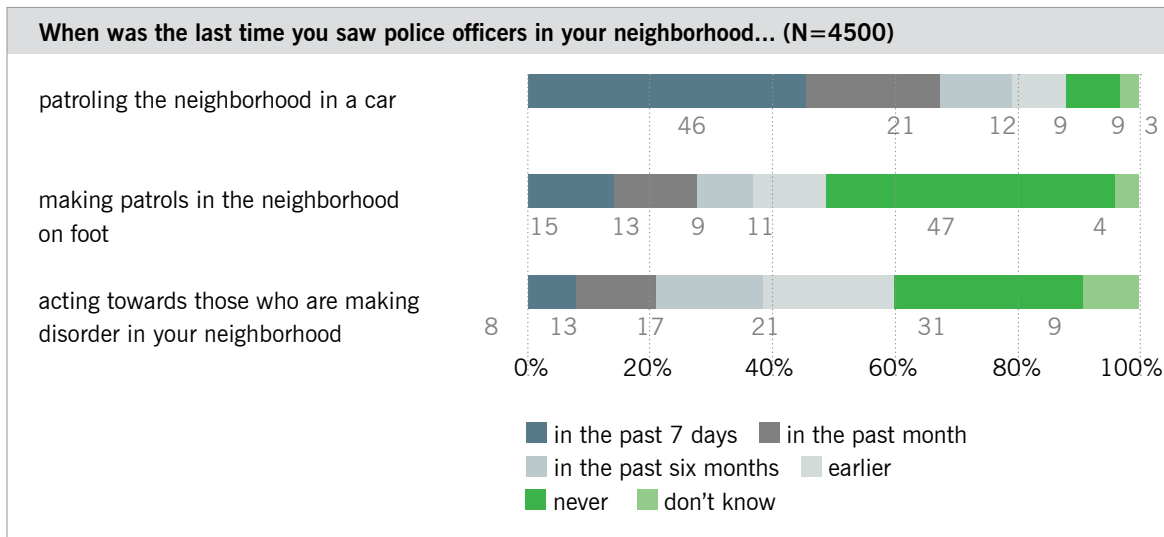


Apart from the experiences with the police, visibility of its actions was also examined (Figure 21). According to respondents, police officers patrolling in cars is the most often noticed police activity – within a month before survey conduction, it was noticed by two thirds of citizen (whereat half of them noticed it within a week prior to the survey), while around a quarter notice patrols on foot and treatment towards persons who were making a disorder.

It should also be emphasized that half of citizens never saw police officers making patrols on foot in their neighbourhood, whereat the share of such persons is the highest in North Croatia (64%) and lowest in Slavonia (32%). One third of citizens had never seen dealings with persons making a disorder and their share is again somewhat smaller in Slavonia than in other regions. On the other hand, the share of persons who had never seen police officers patrolling in cars is somewhat higher in Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar and Dalmatia. **One might conclude, generally speaking, that the police servants are not sufficiently available to citizens, in particular if we have in mind the intent of the Croatian police to act in accordance with the principles of community policing.**

> Figure 21:

Visibility of certain police actions in the neighbourhood (all respondents, N=4500)



Cooperation between police and citizens, as well as citizens' attitudes toward future cooperation with the police were also examined in this survey (Figure 22).

More than a third of respondents (38%) state they never had any contact with the police, whereat the share of such persons is higher among women, older than 55 and persons of low educational status. At the regional level, inhabitants of Slavonia, Lika and Dalmatia mention more often than others that they did not have any contact with the police. Majority of persons who did have such contacts state they received answers to their questions and help they expected, while around a fifth expresses dissatisfaction with their last contact with the police.

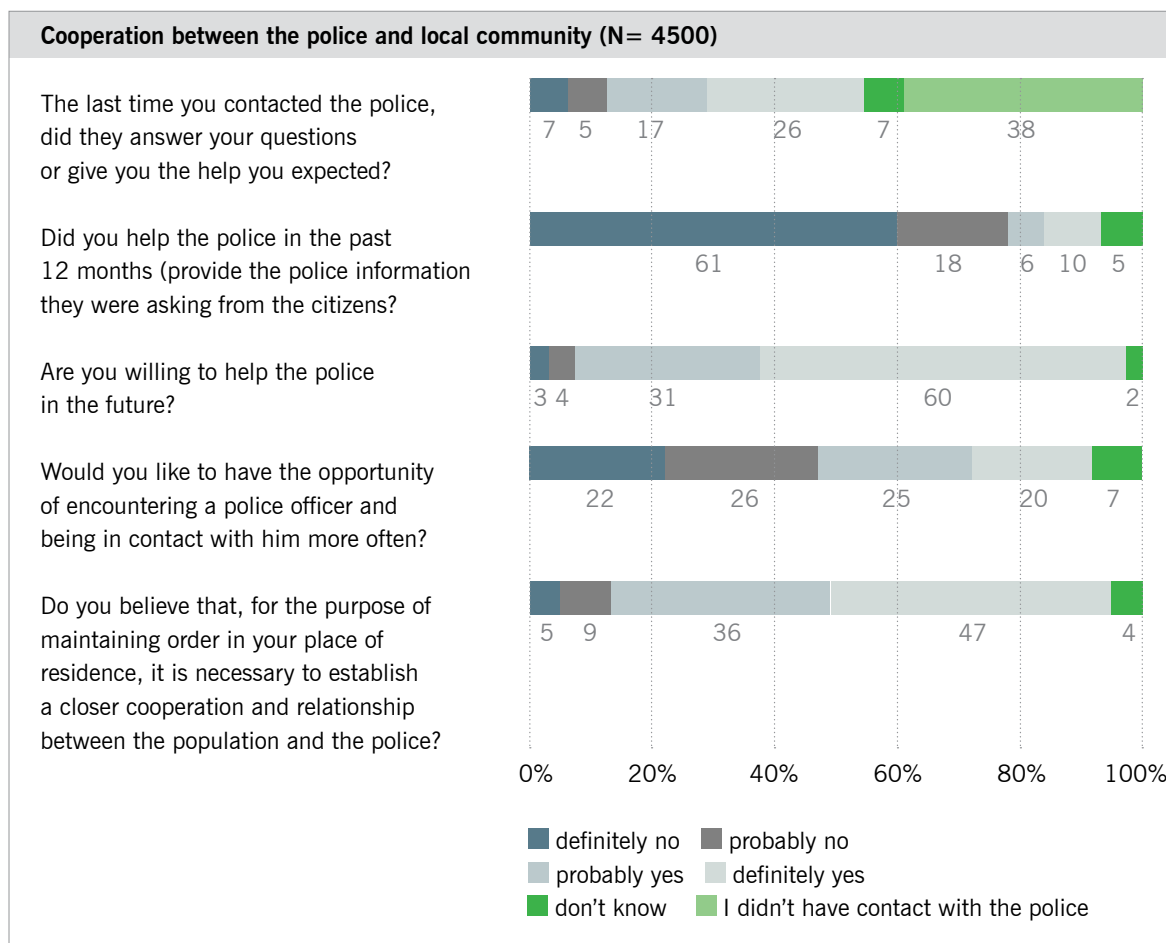
Somewhat less than a fifth of citizens (16%) helped the police by providing them with information in the past year. Majority of citizens (79%) did not help the police in this way, however since a large majority (91%) state that they are willing to help the police in the future, we can assume that the reason is not unwillingness to help but not having the information that could be of help to the police, at least in majority of cases.

Majority (82%) also believe that, for the purpose of maintaining order in their place of residence, it is necessary to establish a closer cooperation and relationship between the local population and the police. However, one part of them do not believe that they should personally contribute to establishing a better cooperation and relationship.

Namely, when it comes to personal contact and encountering with police officers, the citizens are divided in their opinion – around a half would like to have the opportunity for such encounters more often, while the other half would not. **On the basis of experiences stemming from similar foreign surveys, we may freely conclude that the latter portion of responses is more realistic, pointing to the clear readiness of persons to become personally engaged.**

> Figure 22:

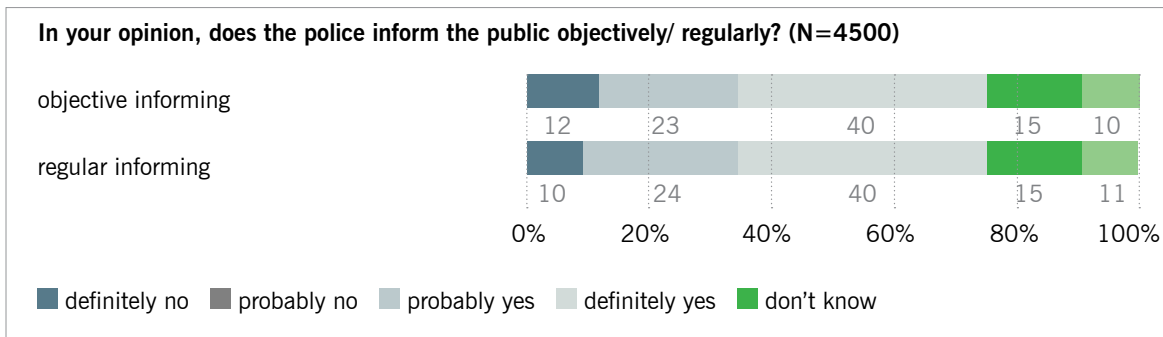
Cooperation between the police and Croatian citizens (all respondents, N=4500)



Citizens' perception of objectivity and regularity of informing by the police is also of high importance. The results show that somewhat more than a half of all respondents believe that the police informs the public objectively and regularly, while around a third expresses the opposite attitude (Figure 23). The share of persons who believe that the police informs the public objectively is somewhat higher in Northern Croatia, Lika and Slavonia than in other regions and slightly increases with age.

► Figure 23:

Perception of objectivity and regularity of informing the public by the police (all respondents, N=4500)

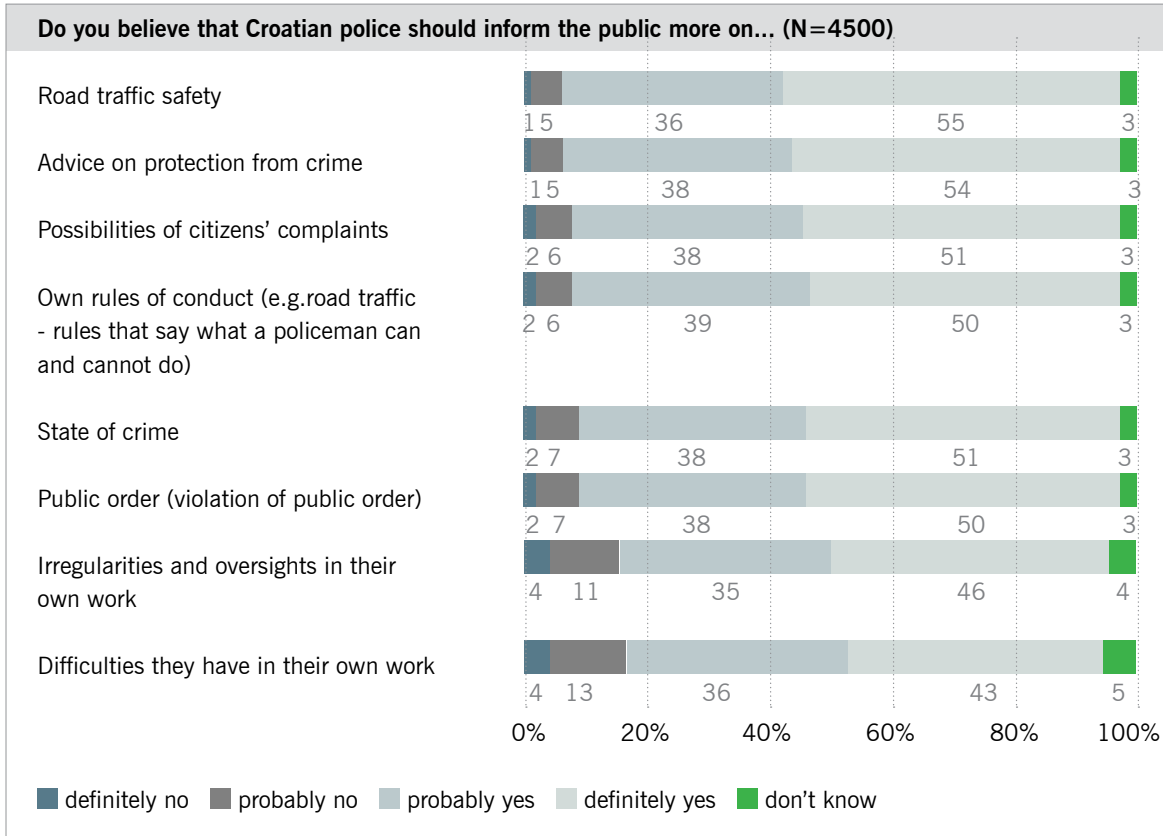


Alongside the perception of objectivity and regularity of informing the public, the perception of citizens regarding the need of a higher degree of informing the public by about different elements by the police was also examined (Figure 24).

A great majority of respondents, regardless of their demographic characteristics, generally believe that the police should inform the public more about all tested elements – road traffic safety, advice on protection from crime, possibilities of citizens' complaints and own rules of conduct, as well as about the state of crime and violations of public order. Compared to the elements mentioned, irregularities and oversights in police work, as well as difficulties the police encounters in its own work, are in a somewhat lower degree perceived as elements the police should inform the public more on, however majority believes that the public should be more informed about these elements as well. **This data is completely in accordance with the issues that were already proven to be the biggest annoyance for our respondents: various risky situations connected to road traffic.**

► Figure 24:

Perception of a need for a higher degree of informing the public about different elements by the police (all respondents, N=4500)



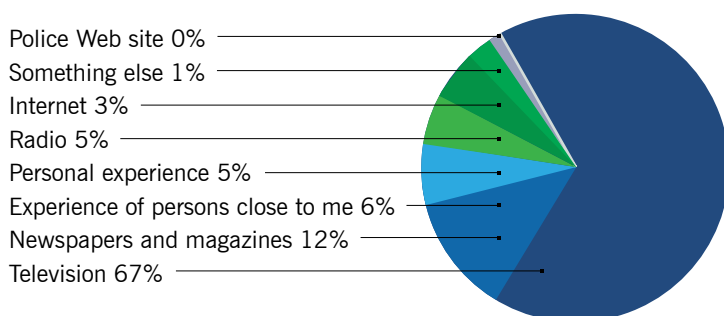
The main source of information about the police is television – two thirds of all interviewed persons inform themselves about the police via TV (Figure 25). Newspapers and magazines are the main source of information for around every tenth Croatian citizen, while an equal number mention experience (whether personal or experience of close persons). Internet as the main source of information about the police is generally used by a very small number of citizens, while almost no one uses MUP Web site.

Women, persons over the age of 55 and persons with low education (finished primary school or less) use the television as the main source of information more often than men, persons under the age of 55 and respondents with middle or high education. Internet is more often used by those under the age of 35, middle or highly educated people and those still in schooling.

► Figure 25:

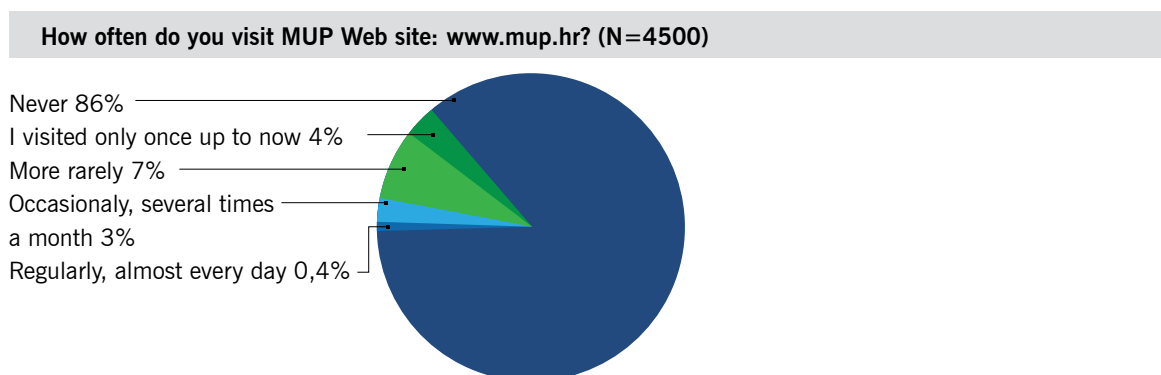
Main source of information about the Croatian police (all respondents, N=4500)

What is your main source of information about Croatian police? (N= 4500)



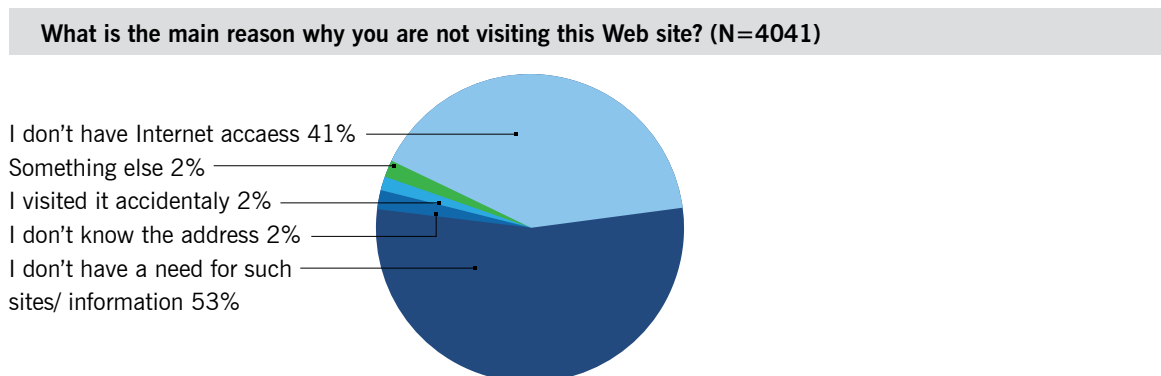
Visiting of the MUP Web page is generally low. A great majority of the respondents (86%) have never visited it and those who did do it rarely, thus the fact that this page is not a source of information about the police is not surprising (Figure 26). Visiting the page at least once is more often mentioned by men and urban population than women and people in rural areas (around a fifth compared to a tenth). The share of persons who have visited the Web site at least once decreases with age (24% of persons under the age of 35, 15% of middle-aged persons and 4% of those over the age of 55) and increases with the educational level (5% of respondents with low educational level, 17% of middle and 24% of highly educated people). At the regional level, around a quarter of inhabitants of Zagreb and surroundings have visited the Web site at least once, compared to around a tenth in other regions.

► Figure 26:
Frequency of visiting MUP Web site (all respondents, N=4500)



There are two main reasons for not visiting MUP Web site (Figure 27) – not having a need for such information (53%) and not having Internet access (41%). Not having a need for information available at the Web site is especially often mentioned by the youngest respondents (under the age of 35), persons of high education and inhabitants of Istria, Primorje and Gorski Kotar, while the inability of accessing the Internet is more often stated by the older population (55 years old and more) and persons with low level of education.

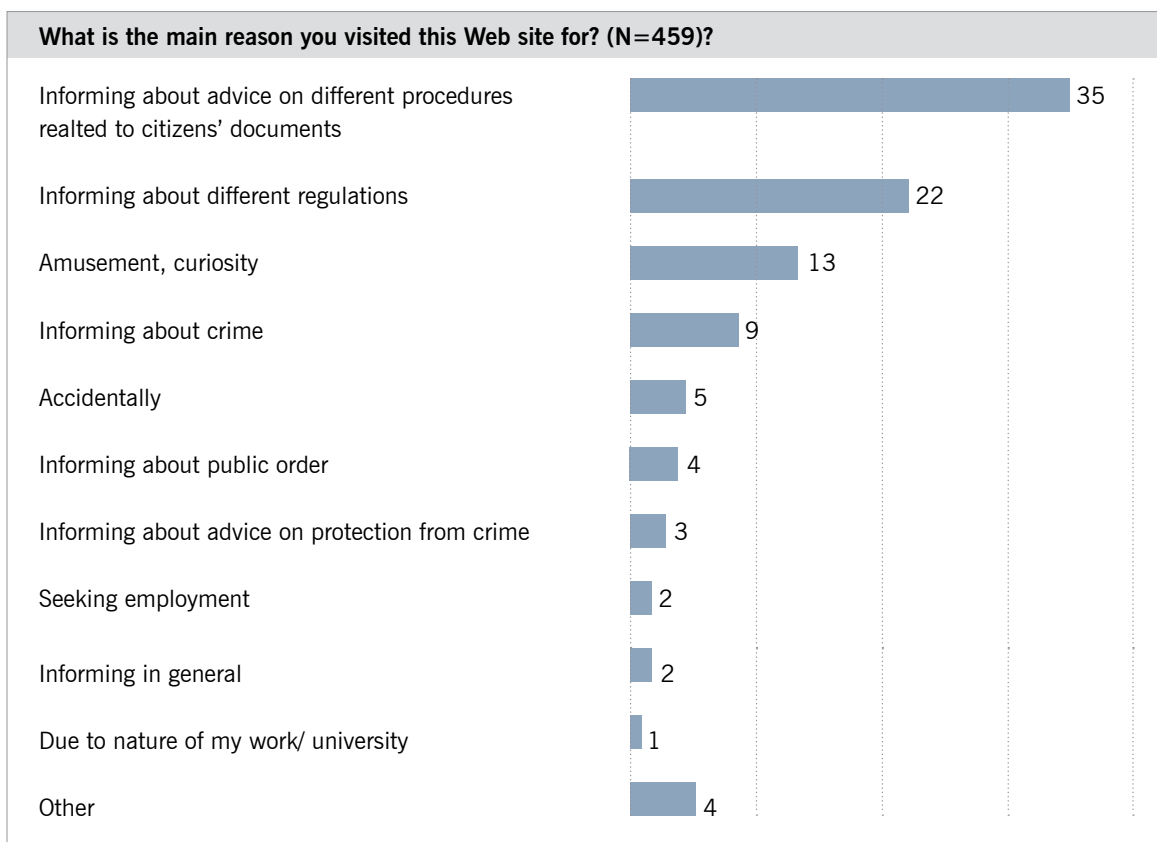
► Figure 27:
Main reason for not visiting MUP Web site (respondents who have never visited the Web site or have visited it only once, N=4041)



On the other hand, respondents who visited MUP Web site more than once, most often did so to inform themselves about the procedures related to citizens' documents and to inform themselves about different regulations (Figure 28). Apart from that, reasons stated somewhat more often are amusement and curiosity and informing about crime, while other reasons are mentioned by a smaller number of persons.

► Figure 28:

Main reason for visiting MUP Web site (respondents who visited it more than once, N=459)

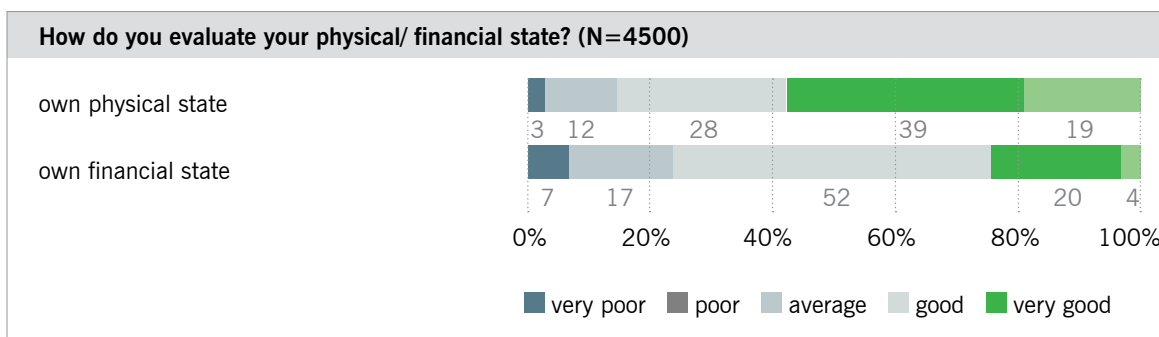


At the very end of the questionnaire, respondents were asked several questions about their physical and financial state and possibility of turning to neighbours for help in case of a need, trust in other people and trust in different institutions of the Republic Croatia.

When it comes to physical state of the respondents, more than a half (58%) evaluate it as good or very good, while somewhat more than a tenth are dissipated (Figure 29).

Men give a positive evaluation of their physical state more often than women, as well as persons living in urban areas compared to rural population (two thirds compared to a half). Expectedly, the share of persons who evaluate their own health positively significantly decreases with age (84% of respondents under the age of 35, 64% of middle-aged and only 30% of persons over the age of 55) while at the same time the share of dissipated persons increases (3% of those younger than 35, 8% of middle-aged and 31% of persons over the age of 55). In line with age differences, positive evaluations of health are more frequent among employed and persons in schooling than among retirees and housewives. It is interesting to mention that two thirds of unemployed respondents (66%) evaluate their own health as (very)good, while a tenth (11%) state they are dissipated. Evaluations of physical state also differ regarding respondents' educational level – around two thirds of persons with middle or high education give a positive evaluation, compared to only somewhat more than a third of persons with low education (finished primary school or less). At the regional level, evaluation of own physical state is more positive in Zagreb and surroundings and coastal regions (Istria, Primorje, Gorski Kotar and Dalmatia) than in Northern Croatia, Slavonia and Lika.

► Figure 29:
Evaluation of own physical and financial state (all respondents, N=4500)



When it comes to the evaluation of own financial state, half of respondents (52%) evaluates it as average, a quarter (24%) as (very)good and a quarter as (very)poor. Demographic differences are generally in the same direction as in the case of evaluating own physical state, but are, compared to them, pronounced to a somewhat lesser degree.

Own financial state is more positively evaluated by men than by women, as well as by respondents in urban areas compared to rural ones. Evaluation of financial state also decreases with age and, expectedly, increases with educational level. The share of persons who evaluate their own financial state as (very)good is higher among pupils/students (42%) and employed (31%) and self-employed (30%) respondents than among retirees (15%) and housewives (11%). It is interesting to mention that every fifth unemployed person (19%) evaluates its financial state positively. Regional differences are not as pronounced as in the case of health evaluation, however the share of persons who evaluate their financial state as (very)good is somewhat lower in Lika and Northern Croatia than in other regions (around a fifth compared to a quarter).

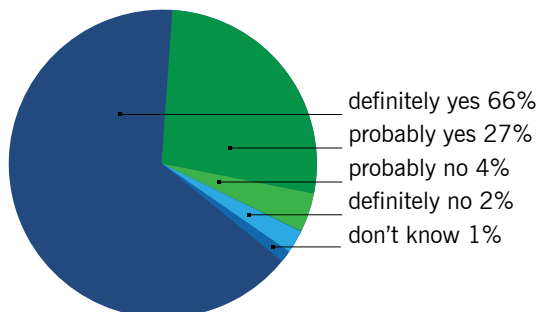
One of the indicators of the financial state of the household is owning a personal automobile. Three quarters of households (76%) own a car, whereat the share of such households is lower in (69%) and Lika (64%) than in other regions. Additionally, the share of households that own a car increases with the number of household members – only a third of single households own a car, compared to two thirds of two-member households and a great majority of households with three and more members.

Apart from evaluating physical and financial state, respondents were also asked to evaluate the possibility of turning to neighbours for help (Figure 30). According to their statements, it seems that neighbourly relations are at a very high level – a great majority of interviewed Croatian citizens (93%) believe that, in case of a need, they can turn to some of their neighbours for help. There are no significant differences regarding demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, education, type of settlement, working status, and region).

► Figure 30:

Possibility of turning to neighbours for help in case of a need (all respondents, N=4500)

In a case of need, can you turn to some of your neighbours for help? (N=4500)

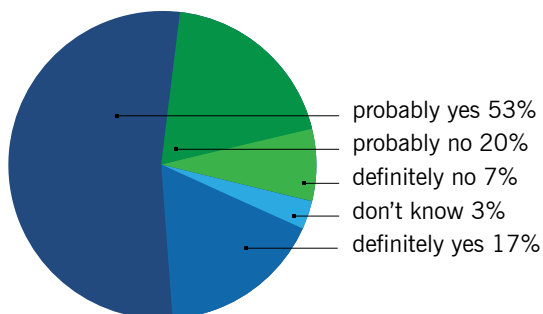


However, the share of persons who express a tendency of trusting other people is lower (70%) and every fourth person expresses a general distrust towards others (Figure 31). The only more significant demographic difference is related to respondents' educational level – with the increase of the educational level, the tendency of trusting other people also increases (65% of persons with low education, 72% of middle and 79% of highly educated persons). Additionally, the share of distrustful persons is somewhat higher among the unemployed and housewives than among employed, retirees and persons in schooling (around a third compared to a fourth).

► Figure 31:

Level of trust in other people (all respondents, N=4500)

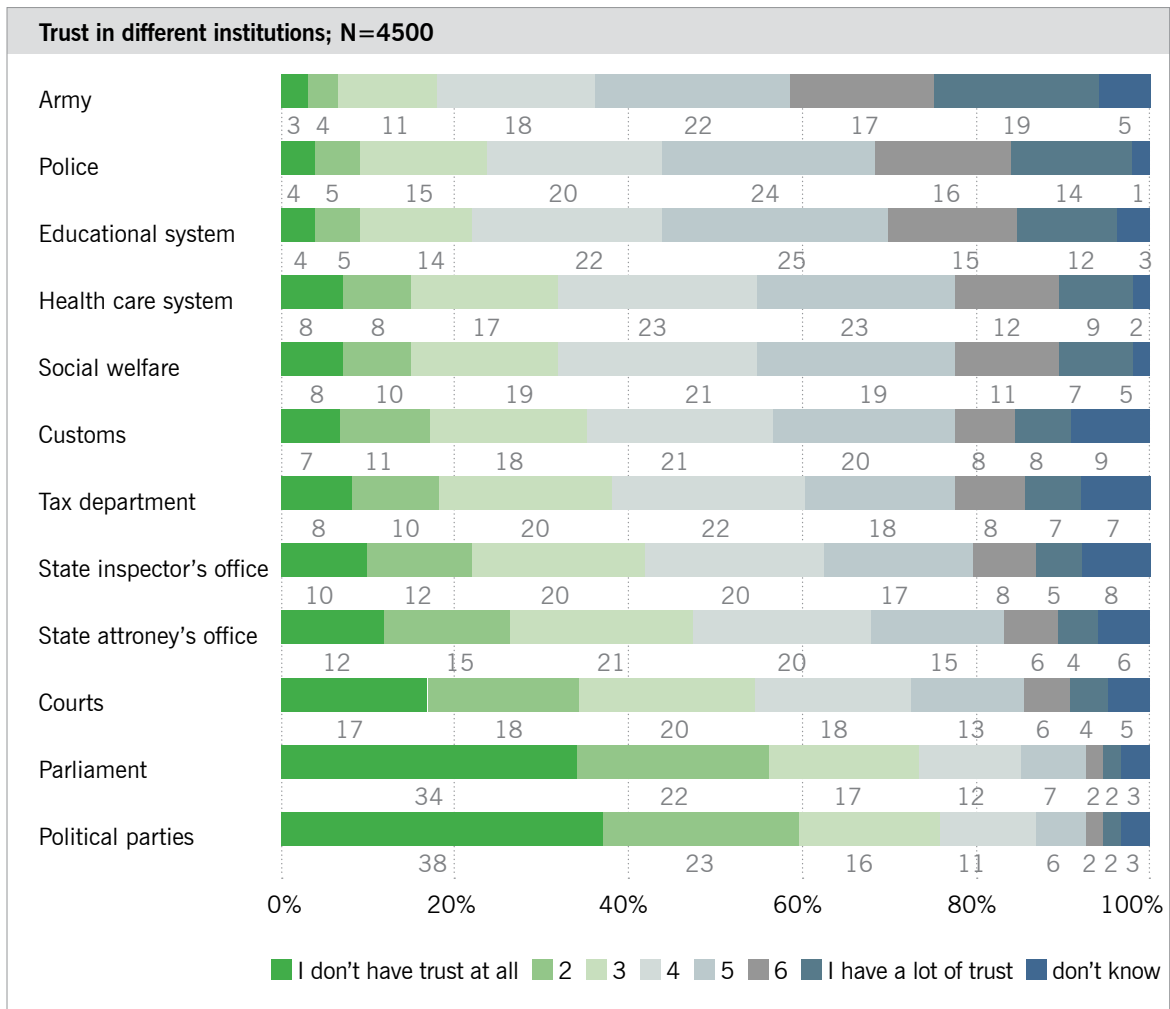
Generally speaking, are you inclined to trust other people? (N= 4500)



Apart from trust in other people, one of the areas of interest in this survey was the level of trust in different Croatian institutions. The results show that citizens' trust is not at an exceptionally high level (Figure 32). The level of trust of Croatian citizens is the highest when it comes to the army (average grade on a 1 to 7 scale is M=4,9), whom more than a third of persons (36%) have exceptional trust in, that is on a scale from 1 to 7 give the highest grades (6 and 7). The police is in the second place, with 30% of citizens who have a high degree of trust in it, followed by education (27%). The degree of expressed trust is convincingly the lowest when it comes to political parties and the Parliament – more than a half of respondents (61% and 57%, respectively) express a high distrust (on a scale from 1 to 7, give the lowest grades, i.e. 1 and 2).

Generally speaking, inhabitants of rural areas and persons of low educational level express somewhat higher levels of trust in the institutions than urban population and persons of middle or high educational status.

► Figure 32:
Level of trust in different Croatian institutions (all respondents, N=4500)



5.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is a common assumption that the maintenance of public order, or supervision, represents the fundamental function of police in the community. This assumption stems from the fact that such a controlling function in society is indeed given in full only to the police. The dominant "police culture" absolutely supports the control and the preservation of public order as primary tasks of the police. "Real" police tasks are perceived as paramilitary operations with the purpose of establishing the public order and uncovering criminal offences. At the other end of the continuum, one finds the function of a service, which is quite general and connected to various forms of behavior in the community that does not exclusively constitute crime. This function is rather poorly appreciated, as it does not represent the "real" police work. Such an *ethos* of the police organization is created and supported by the very structure of the police, which still very frequently includes the elements of a military-bureaucratic organizational structure. In practice, it can still happen that a larger share of the controlling function is focused solely on specific, most frequently marginalized, minority and helpless groups of citizens.

While the function of the paramilitary police is, dominantly, the supervision and preservation of public order, with a minimal addition of the elements of care, one can despite that note examples of police activities in which the balance between control and care is significantly more complex. The community policing is such an example. However, in case of the majority of police officers, regardless of their position in the police organization, the control still seems to be the dominant function. In other words, the new scheme, such as community policing, is only "glued" upon the existing system, into which it does not fit, and with which it is not harmonized.

In other words, the functioning of **community policing and problem-solving policing**, as new police strategies that have proven to be particularly appropriate and efficient precisely in relation to sensitive groups of the population in numerous foreign experiences, requires certain changes in the current theory and practice of police procedures. That primarily assumes better adjustment of the police to the needs of the community in which it is active, which is possible only if the police has relevant information on these needs³.

The results of this survey provide us precisely such information, which is why a brief summary of the results is due.

APPENDIX 1:

Conceptual and operational framework of the variables

The conceptual link with the behavioral aspect of the fear of crime is less clear than the connection with the affective and cognitive component. For example, situations are possible in which the behavioral component remains fairly invisible to the environment. A person can be literally paralyzed due to the feeling of fear, or a person can have a high degree of self-control in relation to that feeling. In both cases, the behavior is not noticeable; in other words, only a skilled observer, or someone who knows the particular person fairly well, will be able to detect that person's affective condition. The integral part of this issue is actually based on the question what do we mean by the concept of behavior. First, we can understand this concept as an intentional, planned and controlled behavior (e.g. carrying pepper spray in a purse). Secondly, we can understand it as visible behavior that does not necessarily have to be intentional, planned and controlled (indicators of fear at the level of non-verbal communication).

³ More information on this issue can be found in Appendix 3: Opportunities and perspective of applying the survey results in police practice; Irena Cajner Mraovic, PhD

Finally, we can understand the behavior as implying invisible reactions, such as physiological ones, for example. The issue of relevance of each of these behavior concepts, when we talk about the fear in general and the fear of crime in particular, has been tackled by a number of authors (Cacioppo and others, 1993; Zajonc, McIntosh, 1992; Stemmler and others, 2001).

One does not find these three components in the dispositional fear of crime, but they exist in case of the situational fear of crime. It needs to be noted that the components of the situational fear of crime are considered indicators of the dispositional fear of crime, which is why measuring the dispositional fear of crime must include the aforementioned three components. However, in doing that, one must take into consideration the key differential characteristic of the fear of crime, and that is crime as an object of fear.

There is a logical conclusion to this debate on the fear of crime: the dispositional fear of crime can be estimated by measuring the exposure of a person to each of the three identified components of the fear of crime. That can be done through estimating the frequency of experience of situational fear (Spielberger and Sydeman, 1944). When we wish to investigate the cognitive component, we raise a question such as: "How likely do you think that something can happen to you?" Finally, when we evaluate the behavioral component, we raise questions such as: "How frequently do you react/undertake measures/ behave in a certain way...?" Through these questions, one evaluates how present the fear of crime is in the experience of a person, or how present is it in a person's everyday life.

The cognitive component of the fear of crime is typically measured by evaluating the risk; the respondents are asked to estimate the likelihood of a certain type of experience in the future.

When it comes to the behavior, we must be aware of the fact that all behavior indicative of the state of fear need not necessarily be caused by an acute situation of fear. As opposed to a scared look on a face, or crossing over to the other side of the street due to the perceived danger, types of behavior such as taking a self-defense class, or opening a life-insurance policy, are measures that a person undertakes connected to one's fear; however, the latter situations are separated in time and space from a specific fear-inducing situation. In most cases, the latter type of behavior occurs due to the fear of crime; that, however, is not a necessary precondition, nor the only one. Therefore, one can raise the question up to which extent do such types of behavior genuinely induce the fear of crime, in true sense of that concept. Namely, even if we suppose that the fear of crime is, at any rate, present, one can raise the question regarding the level of that fear. For example, a person can be afraid that someone may attack him or her on the street during the night, but may take a self-defense course only when a friend talks him or her into it. Therefore, what we are talking about here is determining the motive of self-defensive behavior.

APPENDIX 2:

Theoretical and practical relevance of the survey

There is a stereotype that most people have about crime, and it is that crime takes place somewhere outside, that it includes violent activities, and that the perpetrator is a person unknown to the victim. Naturally, reality is quite different from that perception. The fear of crime is a concept including a wide variety of threats, such as the threat to one's life and physical integrity, material loss, humiliation, etc. The common factor is the fact that the threat is a result of behavior that is considered criminal. It is precisely for that reason that the fear of crime represents a very peculiar concept that is homogenous in terms of normative evaluation, but it is heterogeneous in terms of individual relevance, explanations and consequences. Therefore, the question is: which particular aspect, or a set of aspects of crime, produces the fear of crime. It may seem threatening if a certain person is behaving in a manner making it clear that this particular person is consciously and deliberately violating social or moral norms, in order to fulfill certain goals. If such behavior is recurring frequently, regardless of the issue whether several persons are repeating that behavior, or a single person in a variety of situations, a perception will arise that social or moral values are being eroded. Most people observing such behavior will feel that it is a threat to the normative system that they rely upon (Tyler and others, 1997, 109). Therefore, both the victim of such behavior, but also the observer, may feel threatened by the signs of this erosion of the normative system, given the fact that the malfunctioning of this system implies their own lack of security.

Two preliminary statements may be useful in order to avoid potential misleading interpretations, or misunderstandings of the concept of the fear of crime. First, the concept of the fear of crime is used here in terms of the individual fear of becoming a victim of a criminal offense (it is the fear of an individual that precisely he or she might be victimized by a criminal offence). Such a concept is different from a more general worry caused by crime (Skogan, 1993), or from the perception of scope or volume of crime. Secondly, there is a very wide debate in the area of psychology on the distinction between feelings and emotions, and the links between anxiousness and fear (Frijda, 1993; Öhman, 1993; Power and Dalgleish, 1997). In tackling the research of the fear of crime, it is not necessary to resolve these issues, because we are focusing on the reactions in relation to a defined and recognizable external threat, although that threat, and here we refer to crime, can sometimes be quite vague and insufficiently defined.

It is important to make a conceptual difference between the fear of crime as a kind of a personal characteristic on the one hand, and the fear of crime as momentary affective condition on the other. This is important, because the fear of crime as a personal characteristic is relatively stable, while fear of crime as momentary affective condition is largely a product of a specific situation. This distinction was first introduced by Catell (Catell, Scheier, 1961), and it was further elaborated by Spielberger (1966, 1972). Despite certain empirical difficulties (Schwenkmezger, 1985), the conceptual explanation of this distinction seems to be quite clear. For example, someone might be afraid that he or she might be victimized by some type of criminal attack, when this person is walking at night through a dark park, or a poorly lit street, or when engaging in an exchange with an unknown person, or when the person hears a sudden noise behind him or her, the origin of which noise is unknown. In such cases, the fear of crime is an acute condition, which typically ceases fairly quickly. Still, we must have in mind that such emotional experiences, in the long run, can contribute to the development of the fear of crime as a personal characteristic, particularly if such experiences are being repeated frequently in the live of a specific individual (Frijda, 1993).

In contrast to previous examples, the fear of crime as a personal characteristic refers to the tendency of a person to feel fear regarding one's own victimization, regardless of a specific stimulus, or a specific situation. Such a shape of the fear of crime, therefore, constitutes a personal characteristic that is quite stable in a given person, but it can vary significantly from one person to another. There is also a link between these two forms of the fear of crime, in the sense that persons in whom the fear of crime is a stronger personal characteristic will be inclined to react to specific situations with a higher emotional intensity; in other words, they will become more scared, and the feeling of fear caused by a specific stimulus will last longer in such persons (Spielberger, 1972). Therefore, we might say that the fear of crime as a personal characteristic is also a parameter that regulates or determines the current feeling of fear as a consequence of a specific situation. From that perspective, the fear of crime as a personal characteristic is also a predisposition for the situational fear of crime, which is why it is frequently referred to in literature as the dispositional fear of crime.

Although the dispositional fear of crime is relatively stable in an individual, it too, under certain circumstances, can vary in the course of time. These circumstances most frequently have to do with developmental changes connected to the conditions and modalities of personal growth and development of each human being. Therefore, the dispositional fear of crime is influenced to a higher degree by characteristics of social environment (e.g. growing up with fearful parents), or by a certain dimension of personality (e.g. anxiousness), or other personal characteristics (e.g. perceptive capacities, or the capacity of stress management), rather than by the characteristics of specific situations.

The link between the dispositional fear of crime and the situational fear of crime is conceptual in nature. The dispositional fear of crime is conceptualized as an individual tendency to react "timidly". The growth of the dispositional fear of crime is also raising the probability that a specific person in a certain provocative situation would manifest the situational fear of crime. Furthermore, that means that a person with a higher level of the dispositional fear of crime would experience the state of situational fear of crime more frequently. If the results of a specific piece of research on this matter do not show such statistically relevant and clear correlation, that means that there is something wrong in the methodology of that survey, or that the dispositional fear of crime is wrongly measured, or that the situations which were assumed to cause the situational fear of crime were wrongly chosen.

The link between the dispositional fear of crime and the situational fear of crime has other forms as well. There

is the issue whether the current condition of the situational fear of crime, frequently recurring in a specific person, would impact upon the elevation of the level of dispositional fear in that person, and that depends on various personal characteristics, such as, for example, the capacity of facing fear.

The influence of the situational fear of crime on the dispositional fear of crime can be moderated by characteristics or individual behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986). It is justified to assume that persons who believe in their personal capacities important for the preservation of one's safety would be better equipped to handle threatening situation more efficiently, compared to persons who do not have such expectations – or trust in that type of personal capacities. Furthermore, the link that we are discussing here can also be influenced by some other variables, among which the dominant variables are physical health, personal resources for coping with stress, and social support (Greve, 1998, 2000).

Still, we must note that even sporadic manifestations of the situational fear of crime can impact upon the previously outlined personal characteristics. For example, the level of self-confidence of an individual is partly determined by that individual's experiences, in which their efficient responses to situations were either proven, or absent. The experiences of the situational fear of crime can represent relevant experiences in that sense, and this is an issue that deserves to be looked at in more depth.

APPENDIX 3:

Opportunities and perspectives of applying the survey in police practice

1. Matrix of care and supervision

One cannot say that individuals are unable to grasp, or even perceive certain events in detail, or that they are unable to recognize certain relations among phenomena; the fact of the matter is that, in certain areas of life, we have a tendency towards very specific and clear messages. In other words, people form superficial perceptions of a number of activities, which makes it easier for them to find their way in social space. That allows us to quickly determine the essence of these activities, without spending too much time on details. In that fashion, the wider public perceives the population as a primary control mechanism of society; in other words, people typically perceive exclusively supervisory functions of community policing.

Personal experiences of people and the portrayal of the police in the media play a crucial role in shaping our perceptions of the police, or the nature of the police organization and the purpose of police work. When people watch TV movies, and the depicted scenes of arrest in which police officers are dressed in paramilitary uniforms, or when they watch police officers in cars with sirens and rotating lights as they chase the criminals, they find it hard not to think of the police as a typical mechanism of social control. It is precisely that stereotype of the police, the most widespread in the public, which emphasizes the controlling function of police work. However, when we think of social workers, or probation officers, we deal with other, equally widespread stereotypes; we typically perceive all these professions as strictly delineated categories, which makes the task of social learning easier for us. However, that simplified learning is not complete. When we make stereotypes out of professions, and when we shape our perceptions on the basis of key characteristics that we have perceived, we typically forget or disregard activities that also form part of the scope of work of these professions, and that are, in one way or another, falling outside the range of these stereotypes, or are partly even opposed to them. Thus, for example, Raynor (1985) is asking whether probation or protective supervision exists in order to help people who came in conflict with the law, or in order to reduce crime. Similarly, Davies (1985: 30) explains that a social worker is contributing to the preservation of the community by implementing a certain type of supervision over its deviant members, or by providing financial and other kinds of assistance, in order for such individuals to develop their capabilities to the maximum, thus surviving in the community in a socially acceptable and legal way. Something similar might also be said of the police, which deals with control, but also care.

2. Control

What we can find in our head, but also on newspaper pages and in the movies, is an image of a police servant as a "crime fighter", or as part of that thin blue line protecting society from violence and anarchy on the streets. As opposed to that, the image of a police officer as a provider of services that are not connected to crime is, at best, vague and incomplete (Punch, 1979), and it most frequently does not even exist in perceptions of the majority of people (Reiner, 1994). Even if we are aware of the fact that providing services to citizens and caring for them are also part of the police tasks, it is still very difficult to perceive these functions as the key purpose of the police and the foundation of the existence and organization of the police as a social institution. It is important to add here that these are not merely the perceptions of the public, or lay persons, but that police officers themselves are prone to such perceptions on the police, and they themselves have a tendency in most cases to interpret their function and role in the community in terms of supervision rather than care (Stephens, Becker, 1994). However, despite stereotypes and lack of understanding that prevail in the community, or among the overall population, and despite the police culture emphasizing "real" police work in terms of supervision and fighting crime, in reality there is also care and the provision of services as an undeniable and significant aspect of police work. It is even more important to emphasize the fact that, within police tasks, there are a number of areas in which it is impossible to distinguish the elements of care and supervision. In such cases, not only are care and supervision undertaken in parallel, or together; they are even mutually dependent, and it is practically impossible to implement one without the other. Such areas of police work primarily include the strategy of community policing, followed by work on uncovering and combating sexual crime, in particular the sexual abuse of children. In many of these activities, the police is engaged together with the representatives of other social services. However, it may happen that the police temporarily takes over some of the functions of social workers, and it is also possible that social workers implement some functions of supervision, which are primarily in the police domain. In practice, that means we must take a step back from the stereotypes and simplified perceptions of individual professions, the goal of which is to strip and simplify the definition and purpose of these professions to the maximum. When it comes to the police, that simplification boils down to the issue of whether the police role is primarily one of supervision, or care. However, the modern police service does not pose such a question, given the fact that its core function is twofold, encompassing both care and supervision. The procedures of modern police are frequently developed in such a way that they represent a matrix of care and supervision, and within this framework these functions can overlap and mutually assist each other.

3. Care for citizens

Not only can we perceive a major share of police tasks as the simultaneous implementation of care and supervision at the practical level; there are also good philosophical, or theoretical reasons for that. In the past, police officers were frequently presented as citizens in uniform, which emphasized the fact that a police officer as an individual does not have bigger or wider powers than any other citizen. However, over time this position has changed significantly, so police today has the authority to arrest persons, keep persons at the crime scene, stop people and search them, etc. However, despite the fact that powers of police officers and other citizens are no longer comparable, the idea of police as mechanism of citizen protection was preserved, and it has had an important influence on police thought in the course of the entire police history.

Each citizen enjoys certain fundamental rights connected to the nature of his or her citizenship (Marshall, 1976). The citizenship is a value concept, and within its meaning there are a number of other social values and estimates. As these values and estimates are changing, and that is precisely taking place in open and democratic societies, so our concept of citizenship is changing as well, together with the rights stemming from that concept. Despite the oscillations of social powers constantly modifying the perceived meaning of the citizenship concept, the fundamental points of view regarding crucial and essential elements of citizenship must exist and coexist at any time. Furthermore, most of the

original opinions on the meaning of citizenship of the mentioned author, written in the late 1940s, could be accepted today as well.

Marshall (1976) speaks of the three essential elements of the citizenship concept: political, civil and social. To simplify matters to the maximum, the political element is satisfied when adults have the right to vote and when they can choose their representatives to democratic institutions. The civil element of citizenship, according to this author, is the most important element of the concept, because it is a venue through which an individual can fulfill or defend all his or her rights connected to the political and social element of citizenship. However, neither the political, nor the civil element is relevant for this particular analysis; what we are interested in the most in this particular case is the social aspect of citizenship, which we must tackle in order to obtain a philosophical foundation for the matrix of care and control as police tasks.

The social component of citizenship refers to the rights of citizens to enjoy a minimum of standards of security and welfare. Marshall (1976) recognizes social care and education as social institutions that are most closely connected with the fulfillment of these elements. The author was mostly focused on social security issues, arguing that the social element of citizenship is necessary in order to minimize social and material differences among the "haves" and the "have nots". Overcoming the gap between these two groups at the opposite end of the spectrum is envisaged by Marshall (1976) as a process of defining and fulfilling the rights of all citizens to a minimum living standard compatible with civilized existence and the satisfaction of basic everyday living needs. However, in our analysis we need not necessarily be limited to this "stripped" definition of social security. Namely, social security can also include reasonable expectations of citizens to, for example, be able to walk the streets without the fear of violent attacks, or that they can live without the fear of crime in general. In other words, social security can also encompass the idea of safety in a wider sense of the word; safety from crime, violence and other forms of victimization. Furthermore, given the fact that crime and violence continue to exist in all advanced societies, this expanded social element of the citizenship concept also includes the rights of citizens who were victims of crime to a proper investigation of these criminal offences. In the scope of that scenario, the police role does not only include the suppression and prevention of crime and other forms of deviations in society, which constitute basic control functions, but it also includes securing a decent minimum standards of security, which is the function of care, falling in the scope of provision of services to citizens. Obviously, care and control are inseparable at this level, and they actually provide the theoretical and philosophical legitimacy for necessary linking of these two police functions. Still, some social groups have not always enjoyed such safety and protection. Various social minorities in particular, as well as women and children, frequently find themselves at the very edge of police attention and intervention. In other words, there are members of the community for whom the social component of citizenship is frequently disregarded, or even excluded. In that sense, it is important to emphasize that modern ethical principles and codes of conduct of the police place a particularly strong emphasis on fairness, equality, respect and compassion, all of which is included in the function of care for citizens. Furthermore, the implementation of these ethical principles of police procedures would go in the direction of protecting social rights of all citizens.

Naturally, the control of certain individuals is necessary to protect all other individuals in society. From the point of view of clear legal definitions and boundaries of police powers, the supervisory function of the police is, at the same time, a function of care for all citizens, including potential or actual criminals. The very definition of legal, and not just moral boundaries of behavior, turns the law into a mechanism of both supervision and care. Such definitions enable citizens to know "the rules of the game", and boundaries within which the society will tolerate certain forms of their behavior. Also, legal provisions very clearly inform the citizens on what would happen, and what they can expect if they breach the law and get caught. Finally, it is important to emphasize that the law is valid for all, and that ignoring the law can by no means represent an excuse for one's behavior.

In addition to the fact that there are certain philosophical and pragmatic reasons for linking care and supervision in police work, this linkage, without a doubt, always takes place in practical experience, regardless of whether

we admit it or not. There are only three questions: 1) Up to what extent are certain police activities based on the components of care and supervision? 2) How does the police create its own identity, and how does it construct its own professional roles; in other words, are care and supervision emphasized, and are they even distinguished from each other? 3) How does the public perceive the police, and what implication does that have for future role and efficiency of the police in society?

3. 1. Estimating care and supervision

In order to respond to the first question – in order to estimate up to what extent are police activities a combination of care and supervision – we must analyze the process of creating procedural policies within the police organization. That would provide us with the information on the extent to which certain police policy, and activities pertaining to it, is created in order to fulfill primarily supervisory functions, or the function of care for citizens. Therefore, we must focus on the declared goals of police organization and police procedures. For example, if we take into consideration a wide scale of behavior leading to the disturbance of public order, the paramilitary police can be treated as a case of both care and supervision from the theory's point of view, given the fact that its goal is to reestablish order in a manner necessary for the civilized existence of all citizens. In other words, although the goal is to reestablish order, which is the function of care, given the fact that the establishment of order is in the interest of all citizens, the behavior of the police in such cases will nevertheless be primarily influenced by the need to reestablish supervision. Therefore, at the practical level, the care for citizens will not be at the forefront, while the police intervention will primarily manifest its control function.

The next example of a potential combination of care and control is the treatment of sexually abused persons, towards whom the police organization policy is formulating a very clear function of care. Namely, modern-day police officers realize that they have a duty to treat the victims of sexual violence or family violence with substantial sensitivity, empathy and care. Such an approach is not only beneficial for the victims of such criminal offences, but it also, as argued by Edwards (1994), represents assistance in gathering better-quality evidence on the basis of which the criminal prosecution of perpetrator can proceed more smoothly. Therefore, although the emphasis is on care, we can note a significant control function of police procedures in these cases as well. However, regardless of the type of intentions that can be noticed in police proceedings that the police organization is prescribing in such cases, the victims will ultimately perceive what is happening to them in reality. In other words, the victims will not perceive that the policy of police organization is favoring care that officers ought to provide to the victims of sexual and family violence, unless specific police officers that are involved in procedures in such cases actually express that care in practical work, and this is something the police officers cannot do if they do not have appropriate objective capacities for that, particularly if they are not adequately trained for such work. Even when these aspects are ensured, the lack of empathy towards victims of family violence or sexual violence in some police officer circles can undermine the original goals of police organization, or goals of the policy on police procedures. This means that one cannot evaluate the combination of care and supervision in police procedures solely on the basis of the analysis of declared policy of police organization; it is also necessary to analyze the implementation of that policy. Namely, it is possible that current procedures of police officers in specific cases represents a mixture of declared purposes of their service and officers' own attitudes. It is also possible that police procedures in daily practice become contrary to what their organization – the police service – has declared as its core goal. Powers of police officers frequently allow them to change the declared policy of their organization significantly in their practical work, which makes it no surprise that they are described as "street bureaucrats" in some circles. What is most worrying in this matter is the fact that police work is not subject to sufficient observation quite frequently, which is why it takes some time before one can notice a discrepancy between the declared police organization's policy and its implementation in daily practice. An additional factor in this process is the police subculture, emphasizing solidarity among police officers.

Furthermore, one can also engage in the evaluation of the primary purpose of police procedures on the basis of results of various evaluation studies. In practice, various indicators of the quality of police procedures are being used more frequently, and a particular emphasis is placed on the relation between the efficiency of the police and funds allocated by the state for the police as a state institution. In order to conduct such analyses, criteria must be set for evaluating the functioning of the police, and that can subsequently show whether the policy is directed primarily towards care, or supervision.

3.2. Police identity

The second question is marked by a clear paradox: if most of police work is actually a combination of care and supervision, why do so many police officers tend to define their social role as primarily supervision, disregarding, or even denying the function of care? Furthermore, the police as a whole does not accept, or even strongly declines attempts to decrease its supervisory function, in particular the function of supervision over a certain territory. As argued by Holdaway (1984: 36), the territory patrolled by the police belongs to them, and they do not allow any activities of individuals or groups that might jeopardize that feeling of control. This is also the reason why the police is more intensely oriented towards certain specific groups of the population. Namely, certain marginal groups, in particular those of younger males who belong to ethnic minorities, constitute a certain threat to social stability from the point of view of police (Hain, 1980: 5).

Furthermore, the police is a quasi-militant organization with a hierarchical command structure, relying not only on the supervision of disturbances and crime in the community, but also on the supervision over own officers. Although it is characteristic for all democratic police forces in recent times to invest substantial efforts in education of their staff, in particular police leaders, and to emphasize professional development, advising on stress issues, and the development of internal communication and collaboration among staff members, the patrolling police officers still have a very traditional outlook. One needs to add one more fact to this, which is that gender misbalance within the police service, and to a certain extent racial misbalance as well, serve to preserve the dominant male culture within the police, a culture that is not only reluctant to define the police role as one of care for citizens, but actually considers that kind of work not to be "male" work at all.

The fact that today there is an obvious discrepancy between the declared policy of police organization, and policy that is realistically implemented, in particular at the level of patrolling officers, significantly impacts upon the decrease of citizens' trust to the police. Specifically speaking, it is of utmost importance that the police enjoys certainty in terms of its tasks, in order to be able to efficiently implement them, and in order for citizens to perceive the police as an entity that does its work.

3.3. Perceptions of police

The third issue raised refers to the manner in which the police aims to change itself; in other words, what are the implications of such a change. Perceptions of the police that exist among the general public are fairly complex, but, at this point in time, there is still the dominant perception of the police as an institution for the control of crime. We have already pointed out that this perception depends on contacts between the citizens and the police, but also, to a large extent, on the mass media. However, regardless of the sources of these perceptions, the fact remains that the attitudes of the public regarding the police are vital for proper police functioning. Namely, the police can implement its duties only if it collaborates with the citizens, and that collaboration cannot take place unless the police simultaneously fulfils its role as the service to citizens. First and foremost, the citizens are sources of information on events that are interesting from the point of view of controlling crime. Secondly, the supervisory function in society can sometimes be implemented through efficient care for citizens; however, the care cannot be provided unless the citizens accept it. All that might remind us of a kind of a vicious circle, because if citizens do not accept the police as a source of potential services or care, they will not require the police to fulfill such tasks.

