# <section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><text>



This document was prepared by the Crime Surveys Section of the Research, Development and Statistics Directorate of the Home Office. Although every effort has been made to ensure that the document is as accurate as possible at the time of printing, we cannot guarantee this.

# CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: BCS METHODOLOGY. HISTORY OF THE BCS. AIMS OF THE BCS. FIELDWORK. SAMPLE DESIGN. THE WEIGHTS. THE QUESTIONNAIRE.	• 3 • 3 • 4 • 6 • 7 • 8
CHAPTER 2: THE BCS COUNT OF CRIME	. 11
SCREENER QUESTIONS	. 11
VICTIM FORMS	. 12
OFFENCE CODING.	. 15
SCREENER OR VICTIM FORM COUNT OF CRIME	. 16
CHAPTER 3: DATA FILES	. 18
ACCESS TO THE BCS DATA	18
CASE IDENTIFICATION	. 18
VARIABLE NAMES	18
VALUE LABELS	19
MULTIPLE RESPONSE VARIABLES	19
DERIVED VARIABLES	20
DON'T KNOWS AND REFUSALS	20
CHAPTER 4: BCS ANALYSIS	21
Key Considerations	21
INDIVIDUAL BASED ANALYSIS	23
HOUSEHOLD BASED ANALYSIS	25
INCIDENT BASED ANALYSIS	26
RATES BASED ANALYSIS	30
OFFENCE CODES Appl	ENDIX A
BCS KEY INFORMATION APPI	ENDIX <b>B</b>
METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS APPI	endix C
GUIDE TO SPSS APPI	ENDIX D
PUBLICATIONS AND PAPERS ON THE BCS APPI	ENDIX E

# **CHAPTER 1 - BCS METHODOLOGY**

#### History of the BCS

The BCS was first conducted in 1982; the most recent completed sweep was in 1998. In total it has been carried out seven times by the Home Office. The table below summarises the survey companies who have worked with the Home Office on the design of the surveys and conducted the fieldwork since the first sweep. The eighth sweep is taking place between January and June 2000, and is being conducted by a consortium of the National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR) and the Office for National Statistics.

#### Table 1:Survey companies who have conducted the BCS

Year	Survey Company / Companies
1982	National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR)
1984	NOP
1988	NOP & National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR)
1992	National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR)
1994	Office for National Statistics (formerly OPCS)
1996	National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR)
1998	National Centre for Social Research (formerly SCPR)

#### Aims of the BCS

The main aim of the BCS is to estimate the extent of crime against individuals and their private property. It provides an alternative measure of crime to that provided by the recorded crime statistics. The BCS asks adults in private households in England and Wales about their experiences of criminal victimisation since the beginning of the previous year, regardless of whether or not they reported the incident to the police. The 1998 BCS asked about experiences of crime from 1 January 1997 to the date of the interview – a period of about 14 months. To enable comparisons between surveys, the core questions on victimisation have remained unchanged since the first sweep.

There are three BCS measures of the extent of crime in England and Wales:

Incident rates

The number of crimes per 10,000 adults (aged 16 plus) or households in England and Wales

Prevalence rates (also known as risks)
The percentage chance of an adult or household being a victim once or more

#### Crime count

The total number of crimes (calculated by applying the incident rates to population figures)

All three of these measures are calculated for the calendar year. So, the 1998 BCS measures crime in 1997<sup>1</sup>.

It has to be noted that the figures derived from the BCS are *estimates*. As a with any sample survey the BCS estimates are subject to sampling error and a range of other methodological limitations. These are summarised in Appendix C.

The survey includes demographic and lifestyle variables, both for the respondent and the head of household, which allow us to identify relative risks of victimisation by socioeconomic, demographic and lifestyle factors.

The BCS also collects information on the nature of crime, including where and when offences occur and the emotional, physical and financial impact of crime. On an ad-hoc basis it also covers various other crime-related issues such as concern about crime, attitudes to the police and drug misuse. The survey is also used to measure non-crime issues, such as experiences of fires, on an ad-hoc basis.

Further information about topics included can be obtained from the Crime Surveys Section if required. For some topics, trend analysis may prove difficult due to the fact that topics are not always covered by the same questions each time. For non-crime sections there is the concern that responses will be affected by the overall crime context of the survey. However, the Crime Surveys team take great care to minimise contextual effects by choosing the most appropriate place in the survey to place non-crime topics. The structure of the BCS questionnaire is covered in more detail later in this document.

#### Fieldwork

The interviews are conducted by the survey company (see Table 1 for further details). Respondents are interviewed face-to-face in their own home. Since 1994 the BCS has been a CAPI (Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing) survey. The questionnaire is a computer program which specifies the questions, the range and structure of permissible

<sup>1.</sup> Details collected about crimes in the year of the interview are excluded from the analysis.

answers, and the routing instructions. Responses to questions are entered directly into the laptop by the interviewer. CAPI improves the quality of the data.

In each sweep of the survey interviewing begins in January of the survey year and is substantially complete by April. A small number of interviews are conducted as late as the end of June, these mainly being re-issues to ensure a satisfactory response rate. Table 2 below shows the 1996 and 1998 fieldwork dates. It is important that interviewing occurs in the same period for each sweep because of the effect of recall on estimates (see Appendix C for further information).

	1996 <sup>1</sup>	1996 <sup>1</sup>	1998	1998
	Number	Cumulative %	Number	Cumulative %
January	3,555	20.8	1,868	12.5
February	7,814	66.5	6,628	56.8
March	4,506	92.8	3,863	82.7
April	1,034	98.9	1,918	95.5
May	145	99.7	506	98.9
June	24	99.9	148	99.9
Not stated	22	100	16	100
Total	17,101	100	14,947	100
Notes:				

Table 2:Fieldwork period, 1996 and 1998 BCS

1. Based on the 1996 core sample only.

The core sample size has varied from around 10,000 in the earlier sweeps to over 16,000 in the 1996 sweep. Table 3 details the number of respondents for each sweep:

#### Table 3:Core sample size 1982 to 1998 BCS

Year	Core sample size
1982 1984 1988 1992 1994 1996	10,905 11,030 10,392 10,520 14,520 16,348
1990	14,947

In all sweeps the BCS has achieved a relatively high response rate. The 1998 response rate was 79%. The main reasons for non-response at eligible addresses were (a) refusal either by the selected person or by the household before the respondent was selected and (b) non-contact. Table 4 details the response rates in each sweep. Note that some years included an 'ethnic boost' sample. This is discussed further in chapter 4.

	1982	1984	1988	1992	1994	1996	1998
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Core sample	80.8	77.3	77.4	76.7	76.7	82.5	78.7
Inner cities	72.7	72.6	71.3	71.0	71.0	77.8	73.4
Elsewhere	81.2	79.8	79.4	78.5	78.0	84.1	80.5
Ethnic minority boost	-	-	59.8	63.6	63.7	67.4	-

#### Table 4:Response rates 1982 to 1998 BCS

Notes:

1. The 1982 definition of inner city is not exactly comparable with those used in subsequent surveys.

2. Rounded figures for 1994 Inner cities and Elsewhere.

3. The 1982, 1984 and 1998 samples did not include an ethnic minority boost.

#### Sample design

The BCS sample is designed to give, after appropriate weighting, both a representative cross-section of private households in England and Wales, and of individuals aged 16 and over living in them<sup>2</sup>. Since 1992 the Small Users Postcode Address File (PAF) has been used as the sampling frame. The PAF, listing all postal delivery points in the country, represents the fullest register of household addresses as almost all households have one delivery point, or letterbox.

A stratified multi-stage random probability design is used to select the sample of addresses. As with all large scale surveys the BCS sample is clustered to keep costs at an acceptable level without compromising the quality of the sample. Since 1992 the procedure has been as follows. Postcode sectors are sorted into 10 standard regions<sup>3</sup>. Within each region, sectors are listed in order of population density and divided into three roughly equal-sized bands, in terms of the number of delivery points. Within each of the 30 strata, sectors are ordered in increasing order of the percentage of households with head of household's socio-economic group (SEG) defined as professional and managerial, other non-manual or skilled manual. By sampling systematically down the ordered list, using a random starting point, postcode sectors are selected with a probability proportional to size (number of PAF addresses).

Within each of the postcode sectors selected, the list of delivery points is divided into four equal-sized segments<sup>4</sup>. One of these segments is chosen at random.

<sup>2.</sup> The 1998 BCS included a core sample only. The BCS has also included an ethnic minority booster sample in some sweeps, including 1996 (Percy, 1998). In these previous sweeps the number of ethnic minorities in the sample was increased beyond their actual proportion in the general population to allow separate analysis of the victimisation experiences of these groups. An ethnic boost will be included in future BCS sweeps on an ad hoc basis.

<sup>3.</sup> London and the South East being treated as two separate regions for this purpose.

<sup>4.</sup> These are defined by listing addresses in alphanumeric order of postcode (and house number / name within postcode) and then dividing the list into equal-sized segments.

Where one address has more than one household, a single household is selected using random selection procedures. One adult aged 16 or over in each selected household is identified for interview using similar random-selection procedures. No substitution of respondents is allowed. Further details are covered in the 1998 BCS Technical Report (Hales and Stratford-1999).

Inner city areas are over sampled by a factor of about two.<sup>5</sup> Inner city areas are selected on the basis of classifying postcode sectors according to population density, level of owner-occupied tenure, and social class profile.

#### The weights

Data are weighted in a number of ways for analysis. Weighting serves two purposes: to correct for different sampling rates; and to take account of 'series' of similar incidents. In the 1998 BCS, the components of the weights are:

- an **inner city weight** to correct for the over-representation of inner city residents;
- a **dwelling unit weight** to correct for cases where more than one household was at an address on the PAF file;
- an **individual weight** to correct for the under-representation of individuals living in households with more than one adult (the chance of an adult being selected for interview is inversely related to the number of adults in the household);
- a **series weight** equal to the number of incidents in the series, applied to Victim Forms representing a series of incidents.

In sweeps of the BCS which also included an ethnic boost, the boost is only included when examining results by ethnic group. The boost is excluded from all other analysis.

Three weights are derived for analysis from the components listed above:-

Weight a = individual \* inner-city \* dwelling unit Used for individual based analysis

Weight b = inner-city \* dwelling unit Used for household based analysis

Weight i = weight a (or weight b) \* series weight

<sup>5.</sup> In order to enable separate description and estimates of victimisation in Inner City areas, these were sampled at nearly twice the rate of other areas. This was intended to have the effect of increasing the incidence of victims in the sample.

Used for incident based analysis

Which weight is appropriate for various types of analysis will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

#### The questionnaire

As mentioned previously, since 1994 the questionnaire has been conducted face-to-face using CAPI (Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing) - this allows sub-samples to be selected and complex routing during the questionnaire. The questionnaire has followed the same basic structure in all sweeps. First, all respondents are asked the main section. This includes warm up questions, including those about the type of area in which they live and their worries about crime. The main section also includes the 'screener' questions (these are discussed further in Chapter 2), but are essentially a means of identifying 'potential' victims of crime. Those identified as victims at the screener questions are asked the victim form section. The victim form collects full details about what happened in the crime. Each victim can complete a victim form for each crime experienced, up to a maximum of six. Victims are then asked either follow up A or follow up B. Non-victims are routed directly from the main section to either follow up A or B. The split between follow up A and B is random (though if there is an ethnic boost sample then all those in the boost are routed into the follow up which includes question on contact with the police). After the follow up, respondents are asked basic demographic information. Since 1992 respondents aged 16-59 have been asked to complete selfcompletion questionnaires.

Chapter 2 discusses in more detail how the BCS asks about experiences of crime (a process which involves both the screener questions, part of the main section of the BCS, and Victim Forms) and how the Home Office uses the information to count crime.

As well as the crime counting element, a number of other crime-related issues are covered. To ensure comparability, most questions on victimisation have remained the same in each sweep of the BCS, but other topics have varied. The main topics covered in the 1998 BCS are detailed in Table 5.

Table 5:	Main topics co	vered in the 1998	8 British Crime	e Survev

FULL SAMPLE (Main and demographic)	HALF SAMPLE (Follow Ups A & B)
Victimisation 'screener' questions Attitudes to local crime and incivilities Fear of crime Socio-demographic and lifestyle information	Contacts with and attitudes to the police Personal and household security measures Road rage Attitudes towards sentencing and the Criminal Justice System Attitudes to juvenile offenders Witnessing crime Knowledge of Victim Support
VICTIMS (Victim Form)	ALL 16 to 59 YEAR OLDS (Self-completion)
Details of victimisation incident Reporting to the police Police response and satisfaction with the police Victim intimidation Victim Support	Knowledge and use of illicit drugs Experience of stalking Experience of sexual victimisation

Figure 1: The 1998 British Crime Survey Questionnaire Structure



The interviewer then completes the remainder of the Address Record Form.

### **CHAPTER 2 - THE BCS COUNT OF CRIME**

The previous chapter discussed the structure of the BCS questionnaire and how the BCS measures experiences of crime. This chapter discusses in more detail how the BCS asks about experiences of crime and how the Home Office uses the information to count crime. The technical details of the analysis involved in estimating the extent of crime in England and Wales are discussed in Chapter 4.

There are two stages to the questionnaire for measuring experiences of victimisation. First, respondents are asked a series of screener questions on the main part of the questionnaire to assess if they have been a victim of crime. Second, those who have been victimised are asked detailed questions about exactly what happened on the victim forms.

#### **Screener questions**

The screener questions on the Main part of the BCS questionnaire are a series of questions which ask respondents whether or not they, or their household, have been victims of crime since January 1 of the preceding year. Respondents are first asked whether any of their household have experienced household offences, such as burglary and vehicle-related offences. They are then asked about their own personal experiences of personal offences, such as robbery and common assault. See Appendix A for a list of offences covered.

The 25 screener questions describe an experience in everyday language rather than using legal terminology. Examples of a household and a personal screener are given below:

Screener 12	"In the 13-14 months since the first of January 1997 has anyone got into
	this house/flat without permission and <u>stolen or tried to steal</u> anything?"

Screener 22 "And again (apart from anything you have mentioned already), since the first of January 1997, has anyone, including people you know well, <u>deliberately</u> hit you with their fists or with a weapon of any sort or kicked you or used force or violence on you in any other way?"

For each screener those who say they have experienced the type of incident described are then asked how many times they experienced this type of incident in the period. If they experienced such an incident on more than one occasion during the period, respondents are asked whether or not the incidents were similar in that 'the same thing was done under the same circumstances and probably by the same people'. If the respondent regards all the incidents as similar the incidents are known as '<u>series</u>' incidents. The treatment of '<u>series</u>' incidents is discussed later.

The screener questions have remained the same over all sweeps so that the results are comparable and a trend can be drawn. However, in 1992 a new screener was introduced to measure domestic violence. In 1992 incidents elicited from this screener were not followed up with a Victim Form. In 1994, 1996 and 1998 incidents arising from the domestic violence screener were followed up with Victim Forms.

#### Victim Forms

#### Moving from the screeners to Victim Forms

Each separate incident elicited from the screeners is followed up with a Victim Form. The Victim Form collects detailed information about the incident and it is this detailed information which is used to give the incident an offence code. The 1996 and 1998 sweeps had a maximum of six Victim Forms per respondent.<sup>1</sup> Therefore a maximum of six separate incidents could be followed up in detail. In only a very small proportion of cases does the number of separate incidents exceed six. In these cases six incidents are selected for Victim Forms following a procedure which gives priority to the rarer offences (i.e. violent offences)<sup>2</sup>.

In most cases victims experience discrete separate incidents, and each is followed up with a Victim Form. However, in some cases victims experience 'series' incidents as defined above. For 'series' incidents, only one Victim Form is used to collect details about the most recent incident in the series. This is to avoid repetitive questioning of the victim and Victim Forms being 'used up' on very similar offences. In calculating offence rates,

<sup>1.</sup> In the 1992 and 1994 surveys there was a maximum of five Victim Forms. In 1982, 1984 and 1988 there were a maximum of four Victim Forms.

<sup>2.</sup> Priority is given in reverse order of the screener questions. i.e. the last screener has the highest priority and the first the lowest.

however, series incidents are given a score equal to the number of incidents in the series, with an arbitrary top limit of five (see below for further details).

The examples given below illustrate the routing from screeners to Victim Forms.

#### Example 1

Respondent had not experienced any of the incidents described in the screener questions. No Victim Forms are completed. The respondent is routed directly onto the appropriate follow-up.

#### Example 2

Respondent had experienced on one occasion the type of incident described in screener 22 (on page 9) and their household had experienced on one occasion the type of incident described in screener 12. In this case, the respondent is asked one Victim Form for the incident from screener 22 and one Victim Form for the incident from screener 12.

#### Example 3

Respondent's household had experienced the type incident described in screener 12 twice but they were not 'series' incidents. The respondent is asked two Victim Forms - one for each separate incident from screener 12.

#### Example 4

Respondent's household had experienced the type of incident described in screener 12 twice but they were not 'series' incidents. The respondent had also experienced the type of incident described at screener 22 three times and these were similar or 'series' incidents. The respondent is asked three Victim Forms - one for each separate incident from screener 12 and one for the most recent 'series' incident from screener 22.

#### Short and Long Victim Forms

In the 1996 and 1998 surveys any respondent could be asked a maximum of six Victim Forms - three long Victim Forms and three short Victim Forms. The three long Victim Forms collect full details of what happened in the incident. The three Short Victim Forms only collect the key information required to code an incident into an offence. This is to reduce the interview time to a reasonable length.

Generally, if a respondent reports less than four separate incidents at the screeners each separate incident is given a Long Victim Form. If the respondent experiences more than three separate incidents only the first three incidents are given a Long Victim Form. The remaining incidents are given a Short Victim Form.

#### **Incidents outside England and Wales**

The only exception to this is for incidents which occurred outside of England and Wales. Victims are asked whether an incident happened outside England and Wales. Incidents which occurred outside England and Wales are always given a Short Victim Form, regardless of the whether or not the respondent has used up the three Long Victim Forms. This is because the information about these incidents is not used in Home Office analysis. Since the 1992 sweep of the survey such incidents have been given a valid offence code and so have to be excluded from the analysis using the variable which asks about where the incident happened. Since 1994 the variable '*wherhapp*' has been used to identify whether an incident occurred outside England and Wales, in 1992 it was V12.

The SPSS syntax to retain only those incidents occurring in England and Wales is as follows:

COMPUTE VALIDOFF=1.	Setting all cases to 1 on new validoff
	variable.
IF (WHERHAPP=2) VALIDOFF=0.	If happened abroad set validoff to 0.
SELECT IF (VALIDOFF=1).	Selecting cases where validoff is 1.

#### Questions on the long and short victim forms

In 1996 and 1998 the questions which are identical on both the Short and the Long Victim Forms have the same variable names. Some questions on the Short are slightly different to their counterparts on the Long and therefore have different variable names.

It is useful to check in any analysis whether or not the variable of interest is on only the Long Victim Form or on both the Long and Short. If the variable of interest is only on the Long then it is more efficient to only retain Long Victim Forms in the analysis. To retain only Long Victim Forms you need to exclude incidents where the variable 'vicno' is coded 4, 5 or 6.

The SPSS syntax to retain only those incidents occurring in England and Wales and only incidents on the long Victim Form is as follows:

COMPUTE VALIDOFF=1.	Setting all cases to 1 on new validoff
	variable.
IF (WHERHAPP=2) VALIDOFF=0.	If happened abroad set validoff to 0.
IF (VICNO, 4,5,6) VALIDOFF=0.	If short victim form set validoff to 0.
SELECT IF (VALIDOFF=1).	Selecting cases where validoff is 1.

The procedures for Long and Short Victim Forms in 1992 and 1994 surveys are similar. Although in these sweeps there were five Victim Forms – three Long and two Short – and the names of the variables on the Short do not match those on the Long even if the question is identical. In the 1982, 1984 and 1988 surveys there were a maximum of four Victim Forms, all of which were Long.

#### **Offence coding**

The information collected on the Victim Form comprises a series of closed pre-coded questions (a full set on the long Victim Form and an abbreviated set on the short Victim Form) and an open question at the beginning which asks respondents to describe in their own words what happened in an incident (this is typed into the CAPI program by the interviewer).

Each incident is given an offence code based on both responses to the closed questions and the description offered by respondents. Detailed coding instructions are in the Technical Reports. The coding instructions were developed in 1982 in consultation with the then Home Office Statistical Department and the statistical officers of a number of police forces.

In 1996 and 1998 a computer program was used to generate an initial offence classification for Victim Forms based on the closed questions. Coders employed by the survey company then confirmed or modified the initial classification and also classified those incidents the computer program was unable to classify. Coders made reference to the incident description in their decisions. In addition to this Home Office researchers check the coding of the survey. This is because (a) coding is very complex and (b) there are sometimes contradictions within the data (for example, between the closed response and incident description) and some decisions rely on a degree of subjectivity. The reliability and consistency of offence coding is key to producing trends in crime and therefore the Home Office puts a lot of effort into checking the data.

The final offence codes allocated to incidents fall into two main categories - valid offence codes and invalid offence codes. Invalid offence codes refer to incidents in which there was insufficient evidence that a criminal offence had occurred or the incident was out of scope of the survey (e.g., an incident in which the victim was a business). Only valid offence codes should be used in analysis – these are listed in Appendix A. In 1994, 1996 and 1998 the offence code is held on a variable called 'offence'<sup>3</sup>. The SPSS syntax to retain (a) only those incidents occurring in England and Wales (b) only Long Victim Forms and (c) only valid offence codes is as follows:

#### COMPUTE VALIDOFF=0.

IF ANY (OFFENCE, 11, 12, 13, 21, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 50, 51, 52, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 67, 71, 72, 73, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 91, 92, 93, 94) VALIDOFF=1. IF (WHERHAPP=2) VALIDOFF=0. IF ANY(VICNO, 4, 5,6) VALIDOFF=0. SELECT IF (VALIDOFF=1).

Often the interest will not be in one specific offence code but a group of offence codes, which form an offence category. For example, the codes 41, 42 and 43, which refer to robbery, attempted robbery and snatch theft, are often combined to form 'mugging'. Appendix A shows the types of offence category which are often used in BCS analysis.

#### Screener or Victim Form count of crime

As explained above the screeners are used to elicit if someone has been a victim and these are then followed up with a Victim Form which is given an offence code. In all Home Office analysis it is the offence coded Victim Forms which are used to produce the count of crime. The technicalities of how we do this analysis are covered in Chapter 4, but it is important to state why we use the Victim Form count rather than the responses to the screener questions (many of those conducting secondary analysis of the data use the screeners in their analysis).

First, the level of detail on the Victim Form allows an offence to be given a legal offence code following objective criteria. Some incidents from the screeners turn out not to have

<sup>3.</sup> In 1992 and 1988 the offence variable is 'V7', in 1984 it is 'V6' and in 1982 it is 'offence'.

been criminal incidents at all when followed up in detail (between 7% and 10% are not crimes). Also the final offence code may not correspond to the screener from which the Victim Form arose. For example, an incident elicited from the burglary screener may turn out to be a case of vandalism.

Second, an incident can be double counted on the screener. Despite careful wording of the questions the respondent may count a single incident on two screeners. Double counting can be identified from the Victim Form and thus avoided.

The use of the Victim Form to count crime has been criticised on two counts. The first is that the number of Victim Forms is limited to six per respondent and this places a limit on the number of crimes which can be counted using the Victim Forms. Whilst this is true our analysis suggests that the impact on the count is minimal. The second criticism is that the Home Office caps series incidents at five in calculating Victim Form based offence rates. Whilst this is true it is an analysis decision and we can change the cap in analysis. Again evidence shows that increasing the cap does not have a large impact on estimates.

# **CHAPTER 3 - DATA FILES**

This Chapter explains about access to BCS data files and their structure.

#### Access to the BCS data

The BCS data is deposited at the ESRC data archive. The ESRC hold the data for all sweeps of the survey. For each sweep there are at least two files. One holds the victim form information and the other the remaining parts of the questionnaire, with the exception of the self-completions. In sweeps where there have been self completions these are held separately and must be specifically requested for release<sup>1</sup>. Researchers who would like to conduct secondary analysis of the BCS data should contact The Data Archive, University of Essex, Colchester, CO4 3SQ. All BCS sweeps have also been deposited with the PRO UK National Digital Archive of Data sets, though the systems are not yet in place for them to be accessed through this source.

The Home Office holds the data slightly differently for internal analyses. For each survey there are only two SPSS data files. One file, the 'nonvf' holds all the information on the Main, Demographic, Follow-up A and B, and Self-Completion (and for the 1996 BCS Fires), the other file the 'vf' holds the Victim Form.

The Victim Form is kept as a separate file because it differs in structure to other parts of the questionnaire. All other parts of the questionnaire are simple flat data files - that is they have a case by variable structure in which each case is a unique individual. In contrast the Victim Form is hierarchical because a single individual in the sample could have more than one Victim Form.

#### **Case identification**

Each individual respondent has a unique case identifier consisting of a six digit number. This identifier is the same on each datafile on which information is held about the respondent. The case identifier variable is *rowlabel*. The case identifier enable files to be merged in which the cases are the same but the variables differ.

#### Variable names

Since 1994, the BCS has been a CAPI (Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing) survey. The variable names on the data files correspond to those used in the BLAISE computer program of the questionnaire. The variable names are given in the Technical Reports alongside the question to which they refer. Because of BLAISE conventions all

<sup>1.</sup> Note that not all self completions are currently deposited because of confidentiality and anonymity issues.

variable names are alpha or alpha-numeric and have a maximum of eight characters. The variable names attempt to be self-explanatory (e.g., 'Tenure' for housing tenure). However, some questions can not be easily summarised in eight characters and so the name is often a portmanteau word (e.g., whenvict for whether the incident occurred at the weekend or during week). The variable labels for multiple response variables are discussed under Multiple Response Variables.

On sweeps conducted prior to the introduction of CAPI (1982, 1984, 1988 and 1992) the variable names followed a different convention. In 1984, 1988 and 1992 the variable names are the question numbers prefixed by a letter to indicate which part of the questionnaire it refers to. So variables on the Main are prefixed M, those on the Victim Form V, those on Follow-up A FA, those on Follow-up B FB, those on the demographic D, and those on the Self-Completion SC. Variables on the 1982 data set have names. Further details are available from the Crime Surveys Section of the Home Office.

#### Value labels

Value labels are the labels given to the response categories of a variable. For example, the variable 'Sex' can take the numeric codes 1 and 2 and these can be labelled 'Male' and 'Female' respectively. Value labels ease the interpretation of analysis output. All sweeps of the BCS, except 1982 are fully or partially labelled. Labelling is more complete for the more recent sweeps.

#### Multiple response variables

Multiple response variables are those questions which permit respondents to choose more than one answer from the list of available options. In the following example from the 1998 BCS respondents could choose up to a maximum of 6 of the options listed.

Variable name	Ques	stion
Whemot00-	Whic	ch of these reactions did you PERSONALLY have?
Whemot05	SET	[6] OF Interviewer instruction Options
	1.	Anger
	2.	Shock
	3.	Fear
	4.	Difficulty in sleeping
	5.	Crying/tears
	6.	Other

In most BCS data files multiple response variables are set up so a set of variables (equal to the maximum number of answers that could be given) hold the responses to the question. The first variable records the 1st answer given, the second the 2nd answer given and so on. Since the 1994 survey all multiple response variables are denoted by a number suffix. So in the example above there are six variables called whemot00, whemot01, whemot02, whemot03, whemot04, whemot05 and whemot06. If a respondent answered codes 2 and 4 in response to this question, whemot00 would hold the code `2' and whemot01 `4'. All the other variables would be system missing.

Again naming conventions differed in sweeps prior to CAPI. Multiple response variables are denoted by the 'mr' suffix. So for example, the variables v40mr1, v40mr2, v40mr3, and v40mr4 are the variables which hold responses to the question v40.

#### **Derived variables**

In addition to the questions directly asked of respondents, the BCS data files also include derived variables. The derived variables are not the same for all sweeps of the survey, although those for held for the 1996 and 1998 sweeps are similar. Derived variables for the 1996 and 1998 BCS are specified in the Technical Reports. Information about derived variables held on previous sweeps is available from the Crime Surveys Section of the Home Office.

#### Don't know and refusal codes

Since the introduction of CAPI the paper representation of the questionnaire which is included in the Technical Reports does not indicate don't know and refusal codes for every question. This is because respondents are not usually explicitly given these options. However, for every question respondents may say they do not know or refuse to answer and these are valid responses. The code for don't know is '9' for code frames up to 7, '99' for code frames up to 97, and so on. The code for refusal is '8', '98' and so on.

Prior to the introduction of CAPI the reverse holds. '9', '99' and so on denote refusals or question not completed in error; '8', '98' and so on denote don't knows.

# **CHAPTER 4 - BCS ANALYSIS**

The BCS is a large and complex data set which provides a rich source of data for analysis. However it is important that anyone undertaking analysis fully understands the nature of the data and the conventions in conducting analysis.

This chapter discusses the four types of analysis: individual-based analysis, householdbased analysis, incident-based analysis, and rates-based analysis. First though, the general considerations which apply to all types of analysis are discussed.

#### **Key considerations**

#### What cases to include?

As discussed in Chapter 1 the 1988, 1992, 1994, and 1996 sweeps of the survey included an ethnic boost sample to increase the number of Asian and Afro-Caribbean respondents in the sample<sup>1</sup>. However, for the majority of analysis only the 'core' sample should be included. The ethnic boost sample is only retained if the intention is to make a statement about the different ethnic minority groups (i.e. comparing the different ethnic groups). The variable which identifies whether the case is from the 'core' sample or the 'ethnic boost' is called 'vfscrn' for the vf file and 'scrn' for the 'nonvf' file.

Cases where 'vfscrn' is coded 0 on the vf file ('scrn' coded 0 on the 'nonvf') are in the 'core' sample. The following SPSS syntax will retain only 'core' cases for analysis of the Victim Form.

COMPUTE VALIDOFF=0.	Set all cases to 0 on new variable validoff.
IF (VFSCRN=0) VALIDOFF=1.	Set cases to 1 if they are part of core
	sample.
SELECT IF (VALIDOFF=1).	Select cases where validoff is 1.

#### Weighting

Chapter 1 discussed in some detail the sample design of the BCS and how this relates to weighting of the data. In analysis, data are weighted to (a) correct for different sampling

<sup>1.</sup> The 2000 BCS will also include an ethnic boost.

rates and (b) to account for 'series' incidents. There are three weights which are used in analysis: weighta, weightb and weighti. Which weight is appropriate for which type of analysis is discussed below. In interpreting and presenting the analysis the weighted percentages, means, etc should be used. Unweighted information is only used for the sample size.

#### Routing

The BCS has relatively complex routing. Therefore it is very important that the routing is understood. Routing will effect the interpretation of analysis and whether or not new variables need to be constructed to measure the concept. For the 1994, 1996 and 1998 sweeps the questionnaires in the Technical Reports provide the routing instructions above the questions in square brackets. Although every effort has been made to ensure the paper questionnaire accurately represents the BLAISE program this can not be guaranteed. The routing instructions in sweeps before 1994 are given above the questions and alongside responses to questions.

#### Don't know and refusal codes

In most analysis refusal codes are excluded. Don't know codes are also usually excluded unless there is interest in don't know responses, for example in the case of attitudinal questions. It is often useful to run frequencies on the variables as a first stage in any analysis to examine the distribution of responses and the proportion of don't know and refusal responses. If refusal and don't know codes are to be excluded the variable needs to be recoded. For example, the variable 'wburgl' has the following codes:

Wburgl How worried are you about having your home broken into and something taken?

- 1. Very worried
- 2. Fairly worried
- 3. Not very worried
- 4. Not at all worried
- 5. Not applicable
- 8. Refused
- 9. Don't know

For analysis this could be recoded into a new variable 'burgw' with only codes 1, 2, 3 and 4.

RECODE wburgl (5=SYSMIS) (8=SYSMIS) (9=SYSMIS) (ELSE=Copy) INTO burgw. EXECUTE.

#### **Base number**

The number of cases upon which analysis is based is important as it influences the precision (standard error) of the estimates. The Home Office considers that the base should be a minimum of 100 cases. Even with bases of over 100 tests of statistical significance may be appropriate.

#### Significance tests

Standard analysis packages, such as SPSS, calculate significance tests on the assumption of a Simple Random Sample design. For the BCS which has a complex design these calculations are not strictly accurate. To take account of the sample design the Deft (design factors) are calculated for some key variables. Deft is the ratio of the actual standard error for the complex design to the standard error from a Simple Random Sample of the equivalent size. Selected design factors are given in the Technical Reports.

#### **Types of analysis**

The Home Office now use SPSS as the main data analysis package for the BCS. This section goes through the logic of different types of BCS analysis rather than providing SPSS syntax. Appendix D includes a basic guide to using SPSS and also a copy of the syntax used for the most complicated BCS analysis – rates analysis.

#### Individual-based analyses

Individual-based analysis is when the intention is to make statements about the characteristics, attitudes or experiences of adults in the sample. There are two sub-types of individual-based analysis:

(a) Individual-based analysis based on the Main, Demographic, Follow-up A, Follow-up B or Self-Completion sections of the questionnaire only. This is the most common type of individual-based analysis. Examples of the types of statement arising from this type of analysis include:

"XX% of adults in the sample were male"

"XX% of women were very worried about being raped"

"XX% of adults think their local police do a very or fairly good job"

"XX% of men aged 16 to 24 said they had tried cannabis in the last year"

"XX% of women aged 16 to 59 had experienced persistent and unwanted attention"

The table below illustrates an individual-based analysis from the 1998 BCS.

	(1998 BCS)		g
Percentages	Inner city areas	Non-inner city areas	All areas
Men	15	9	10
16-29	22	16	17
30-59	14	10	11
60+	5	3	3
Women	11	8	8
16 20	18	16	16

8

3

9

8

3

9

Table 6:	Percentage feeling in danger of attack from a stranger in the last year
	(1998 BCS)

All Notes:

1. Source 1998 British Crime Survey.

16-29

30-59

60 +

(b) The second type of individual-based analysis is when statements are made about victims of personal crimes. For example;

"XX% of assault victims were married" "XX% of robbery victims were men"

11

13

2

To make this type of statement the information across all Victim Forms for each victim is summarised onto one record which identifies whether they were a victim of the offence(s) of interest. The flattened Victim Form is then merged with the information held on the nonvf data file.

It is important to recognise that statements about the characteristics of victims are not the same as incident-based analysis in which statements are made about incidents (see Incident-based analysis). This is because a victim can experience more than one incident.

#### ALL INDIVIDUAL-BASED ANALYSIS SHOULD BE WEIGHTED BY WEIGHTA.

#### Household-based analyses

Household based analysis is when the intention is to make statements about the characteristics or experiences of households in the sample.

(a) The most common type of household-based analysis is based on the Main, Demographic, Follow-ups, fires or Self-Completion elements of the questionnaire. Examples include:

"XX% of households in the sample had a household income of less than £5,000"

"XX% of households had home contents insurance"

"XX% of households had a burglar alarm"

"XX% of households were left unoccupied for 5 or more hours on an average weekday"

"XX% of households experienced household fire in the last two years"

Table 7 illustrates a household-based analysis.

Percentages	All hous	seholds
	1996	1998
Burglar alarm	21	24
Double / deadlocks <sup>3</sup>	70	72
Window locks <sup>4</sup>	69	71
Light timers/sensors <sup>5</sup>	40	48
Internal	-	23
External	-	38
Window bar/grills	9	8
Unweighted N	7,971	7,396

Table 7:Trends in ownership of home security devices, 1996 and 1998

Notes:

Source 1996 and 1998 BCS.
Excludes victims of burglary at a previous address.

Excludes victures of burgiary at a previous address.
Double or deadlocks on the outside doors of the house.

Windows with locks which need keys to open them.

 Lights that operate either on a timer or sensor switch. The 1998 question differentiated between external and internal lights, the 1996 question did not. (b) The second type of household-based analysis is analysis in which statements are made about households who were victims of household crimes. For example;

"XX% of burgled households were rented privately" "XX% of households who experienced a vehicle-related theft were in inner cities"

As with the individual-based victim analysis, information on the Victim Form needs to be merged with the information held on the nonvf data file to make this type of statement. The same procedure applies.

#### ALL HOUSEHOLD-BASED ANALYSIS SHOULD BE WEIGHTED BY WEIGHTB.

#### Incident-based analysis (Victim form analysis)

This comprises analyses where the intention is to make statements about the nature of incidents of crime using the information collected on the Victim Form. Incident-based analysis usually examines the nature of specific offence types or compares different types of offence.

(a) The most common type of incident-based analysis only uses information from the Victim Form. Examples of the types of statement arising from this type of analysis include:

"XX% of burglaries occurred during the evening or night"

"XX% of burglaries with entry took place during the evening or night, compared to XX% of attempted burglaries"

"In XX% of violent incidents the victim was emotionally affected"

"In XX% of incidents of theft of a vehicle the vehicle was later recovered "

"XX% of burglaries were reported to the police, compared to XX% of robberies"

Table 8 is an example of incident-based analysis.

Percentages	With entry	Attempts	All
Door	63	71	66
Window	44	35	40
Other	2	3	3
Front	38	40	39
Back	50	48	50
Side	10	8	8
More than one way	2	3	3

<b>Fable 8:</b>	Point of entry in burglaries (1996 BCS)
-----------------	---

(b) Another type of incident-based analysis involves bringing in information from other parts of the questionnaire also. For example to make the following types of statement:

"XX% of burglaries involved people living alone" "XX% of violent incidents were against men aged 16 to 24"

To carry out this type of analysis the information held on the nonvf file needs to be merged with the Victim Form. However, as each case can have more than one Victim Form, and in this analysis we are making statements about incidents, the information held on the nonvf file must be repeated to each Victim Form for the case.

#### ALL INCIDENT-BASED ANALYSIS SHOULD BE WEIGHTED BY WEIGHTI.

There are several other considerations in conducting incident-based analysis. These are discussed below:

- Recall period The Victim Forms hold information on all incidents reported to the survey which occurred during the recall period. As already discussed the full recall period is from January 1 of the year preceding the survey to the date of the interview a period of about 14 months. In incident-based analysis Victim Forms for the whole recall period are usually retained. In rates-based analysis discussed next only incidents occurring in the calendar year are retained.
- Incidents happening outside England and Wales Since 1992 incidents which occurred outside of England and Wales have been given a Short Victim Form and a

valid offence code.<sup>2</sup> For incident-based analysis only those incidents which occurred within England and Wales are retained. Incidents occurred abroad if the variable '*wherhapp*' (V12 in 1992) is coded 2.

- Short victim forms The Short Victim Form only includes those key questions necessary to give the incident an offence code and omits many of the additional questions included on the Long Victim Form. If the variable of interest is only on the Long Victim Form it is more efficient to restrict analysis to the Long Victim Forms. To restrict analysis to Long Victim Forms those with vicno coded 4, 5 or 6 should be excluded. However, if the variable is on both Long and Short then both can be retained for analysis. As mentioned above incidents happening outside of England and Wales should always be excluded from the analysis using the *wherhapp* variable.
- Offence codes Incident based analysis should only include valid offence codes (see Appendix A for a list of valid offence codes and the type of offence category which can be examined). Usually interest will be in specific offence codes and therefore only Victim Forms with the relevant offence codes need to be retained for analysis. For example, if the interest is in burglary in a dwelling only codes 51, 52 and 53 need to be retained. Note that due to the small number of sexual incidents collected in the survey it is not possible to conduct reliable incident-based analysis for sexual offences.
- **V7 checks** In the 1994 survey V7 checks were introduced for the first time. They were also included in the 1996 and 1998 surveys. These are a series of key questions asked at the beginning of every Victim Form. The variable names for these questions are prefixed by V7.

#### For example;

V71

"Was any property stolen, or taken without permission, even if the victim later got it back?"

<sup>2.</sup> In 1982, 1984 and 1988 incidents outside of England and Wales were given and invalid offence code.

Responses to the V7 questions influence whether or not victims are asked some equivalent questions later in the Victim Form. For example, later in the Victim Form there is a question equivalent to V71 called Stolitem.

[ASK IF V71 NE YES]

Stolitem "Can, I check, was anything at all stolen, even if you later got it back?"

The routing above stolitem indicates that the question is only asked if the victim did not say something was stolen at V71. The majority of the V7 checks operate in the same way with a similar question being asked later in the Victim Form only if the respondent did not say 'yes' at the V7 check. It is very important to be aware of the routing above the questions and how they may influence the analysis. In the example given, if the intention was to examine the proportion of incidents in which something was stolen a new variable would have to be created to include responses to both V71 and stolitem.

#### Rates-based analysis (incidence rates and prevalence rates)

There are two types of offence rates which can be calculated from the BCS – incidence rates and prevalence rates. Both are usually given for the calendar year i.e., rates from the 1998 BCS refer to crimes in 1997.

- **Incidence rates** give the number of crimes experienced per 10,000 households or adults in the calendar year. Rates of household offences are per 10,000 households and personal offences are per 10,000 adults. Incident rates can be grossed up by population figures to give the total number of crimes in England and Wales in the year. Table 9 shows the incidence rates for selected offences across the sweeps of the BCS.
- **Prevalence rates** (also called prevalence risks) give the percentage of households or adults in the sample who were the victim of an offence once or more during the calendar year. Unlike incidence rates, prevalence rates take no account of the number of victimisations experienced. It simply divides people into victims and non victims. Table 10 shows the trend in prevalence rates.

	Rates per 10,000 adults/households				% chang 1981 t	je :0	% change 1993 to	% change 1995 to
	1981	1993	1995	1997	199	)7	1997	1997
Rates per 10,000 househo	olds							
Vandalism	1,481	1,638	1,614	1,345	-9		-18 *	-17 *
Vehicle vandalism	850	867	875	745	-12		-14 *	-15 *
Other vandalism	630	771	739	600	-5		-22 *	-19 *
Burglary	409	855	829	756	85	*	-12	-9
Attempts	150	364	358	351	134	*	-4	-2
With entry	258	491	471	405	57	*	-18 *	-14
All vehicle thefts	955	2,092	2,039	1,607	68	*	-23 *	-21 *
Theft from vehicle	702	1,235	1,192	998	42	*	-19 *	-16 *
Theft of vehicles	156	262	236	173	11		-34 *	-27 *
Attempts of & from	98	595	610	435	344	*	-27 *	-29 *
Bicycle theft	118	290	312	253	114	*	-13	-19 *
Rates per 10,000 adults								
All BCS violence	558	887	989	815	46	*	-8	-18 *

# Table 9:BCS incidence rates of victimisation between 1981 / 1993 / 1995 and<br/>1997

Notes:

2. \* indicates the change is statistically significant at the 5% level (two tailed).

<sup>1.</sup> Source 1982, 1994, 1996 and 1998 BCS.

	1981	1983	1987	1991	1993	1995	1997
Percentage of households,	victims once	e or more o	of:				
Vandalism	9.2	9.5	9.8	8.6	10	10.2	8.2
Vehicle vandalism	5.7	6.4	5.9	5.7	6.1	6.3	5.1
Other vandalism	3.9	3.5	4.4	3.4	4.3	4.4	3.5
Burglary	3.4	4.0	4.9	5.3	6.5	6.3	5.6
Attempts	1.4	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.9	2.9	2.7
With entry	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.5	4.0	3.7	3.2
Percentage of vehicle owne	rs, victims c	once or mo	re of:				
All vehicle thefts	10.8	12.4	15.7	18.2	19.7	19.5	15.7
Theft from vehicle	8.2	9.4	11.8	11.8	12.3	12.2	10.2
Theft of vehicle	2.1	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.3	2.8	2.1
Attempts of/from	1.1	1.6	2.4	4.8	6.4	6.4	4.8
Vehicle vandalism	8.5	9.2	8.4	7.6	8.2	8.5	6.7
Percentage of bicycle owne	rs, victims c	nce or mo	re of:				
Bicycle theft	2.7	3.2	3.9	5.5	5.4	5.8	4.8
Percentage of adults (16+),	victims onc	e or more	of:				
All BCS violence	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.6	4.7	5.2	4.7
Any BCS crime	27.7	29.9	32.4	34.9	39.2	39.3	34.1

# Table 10:Percentage of households / adults victims once or more: 1981 to<br/>1997

Notes:

1. Source 1982, 1984, 1988, 1992, 1994, 1996 and 1998 BCS.

2. Risks for violence are based on adults. Risks for vandalism, burglary, vehicle thefts, and bicycle thefts are based on households.

Rates analysis is essentially a household or individual based analysis as the aim is to make statements about the number of incidents of crime per household/adult or the proportion of households/adults victimised. It should be noted that the Home Office do not publish BCS results on sexual offences (rape, attempted rape and indecent assault) because the number of such incidents counted by the survey is too small for reliable analysis.

Rates based analysis is the most complicated type of analysis carried out. The general logic is outlined below and Appendix D shows an example of the syntax used for this type of analysis.

• The Victim Form is modified to (a) exclude abroad cases (b) retain 'core' sample and (c) retain valid offence codes only. Both Long and Short Victim Forms are retained.

- The number of incidents each Victim Form refers to is calculated. In the case of single incident Victim Forms this is simply 1 if the incident occurred within the calendar year. For 'series' incidents this is the total number of incidents which occurred within the calendar year.
- For 'series' incidents the number of incidents is capped at 5. Therefore if someone reports 10 incidents in a 'series' only 5 are counted. The limit is to avoid extreme cases distorting the rates.
- The hierarchical data held on the Victim Form is then collapsed into a flattened form. A series of vectors are set up to count the number of incidents of different offence types experienced by the household or individual. For example, a vector could be set up to count burglary codes, another to count common assault codes, and so on. For each respondent, the vector sums up the number of incidents of the specified offence type across all their Victim Forms. This gives the total number of incidents for each offence type experienced by that household or individual.
- Nonvf file is modified to retain the core sample only.
- The flattened Victim Form is then merged with the nonvf file and all cases on the nonvf are retained. This is so both victims and non-victims are retained in the new working file.
- Following this non-victims are given a value of 0 for incident counting variables. For prevalence rates victims should have values set to 100, for incidence rates they should be the actual count.
- The rates can then be calculated on the basis of victims and non-victims. For personal offences weighta is required and for household offences weightb.

As well as looking at rates for the whole sample, it is possible to examine for different sub-samples. For example, in examining the risks of vehicle related offences the sample is usually restricted to vehicle owning households. Similarly rates of bicycle theft are often given just for bicycle owning households. Moreover, in examining rates separately for households or individuals with different characteristics the BCS has shown how the

risks of victimisation vary across the population. Figure 2 shows those types of household most at risk of burglary.



#### Figure 2: Households most at risk of burglary

# **APPENDIX A – OFFENCE CODES**

## Valid offence codes

#### List of valid offence codes

Offences fall into two groups – personal offences in which only the respondent can be the victim and household offences in which the respondent and/or other members of the household can be the victim. These are listed below. Note that although threats are valid BCS offence codes they are not included in most BCS analyses conducted by the Home Office as the incidents do not always meet the criteria of a criminal offence. Also sexual offences (codes 31, 34, 35) are not analysed because the small number of incidents picked up by the survey means the results would be unreliable.

Code	Description
11	Serious wounding
12	Other wounding
13	Common assault
21	Attempted assault
31	Rape
32	Serious wounding with sexual motive
33	Other wounding with sexual motive
34	Attempted rape
35	Indecent assault
41	Robbery
42	Attempted robbery
43	Snatch theft from the person
44	Other theft from the person
45	Attempted theft from the person
67	Other theft
73	Other attempted theft
85	Other criminal damage (£20 or under)
86	Other criminal damage (over £20)
91	Threat to kill/assault made against, but not necessarily to respondent
92	Sexual threat made against, but not necessarily to respondent
93	Other threat/intimidation made against, but not necessarily to respondent
94	Threats against others, made to respondent

#### **Personal offences**

## Household offences

nouse	:nord offences
Code	Description
50	Attempted burglary to non-connected domestic garage/outhouse
51	Burglary in a dwelling (nothing taken)
52	Burglary in a dwelling (something taken)
53	Attempted burglary in a dwelling
55	Theft in a dwelling
56	Theft from a meter
57	Burglary from non-connected domestic garage/outhouse (nothing taken)
58	Burglary from non-connected domestic garage/outhouse (something
	taken)
60	Theft of car/van
61	Theft from car/van
62	Theft of motorbike, scooter or moped
63	Theft from motorbike, scooter or moped
64	Theft of pedal cycle
65	Theft from outside a dwelling
71	Attomated that of from confision
/1 72	Attempted theft of/from motorbile second monod
12	Attempted then of from motorbike, scooler, moped
80	Arson
81	Criminal damage to motor vehicle (f20 or under)
82	Criminal damage to motor vehicle (over £20)
83	Criminal damage to the home (f20 or under)
84	Criminal damage to the home (over f20)
04	Criminal damage to the nonic (over 220)
# **BCS offence categories**

In most analyses rather than a specific offence code the interest is in a group of like offence codes which form an offence category. Although offence codes can be grouped in numerous ways there are certain categories which are often used in BCS analysis. These are listed below:

onenee euregones	
Category	Codes
All burglary in a dwelling	51, 52, 53
With entry	51, 52
With loss	52
Attempted	53
Attempted or no loss	51, 53
All vehicle-related thefts	60, 61, 62, 63, 71, 72
Theft of	60, 62
Theft from	61, 63
Attempted	71, 72
All vandalism	80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86
Vehicle vandalism	81, 82
Other vandalism	80, 83, 84, 85, 86
Bicycle theft	64
Other household thefts	50, 55, 56, 57, 58, 65
Other thefts of personal property	67, 73
All BCS violence	11 12 13 21 32 33 41 42 43
Wounding	11, 12, 32, 33
Common assault	13. 21
Mugging	41, 42, 43
Wounding and Robbery	11, 12, 32, 33, 41, 42
Threats	91, 92, 93, 94

## **Offence** categories

# **APPENDIX B – BCS KEY INFORMATION**

The table below compares key features across all sweeps of the BCS. It is a useful reference guide for those who wish to analyse BCS data.

	82	84	88	92	94	96	98
Survey company	SCPR <sup>6</sup>	NOP	SCPR <sup>6</sup> /	SCPR	OPCS <sup>5</sup>	SCPR <sup>6</sup>	SCPR <sup>6</sup>
			NOP				
Core sample size	10,905	11,030	10,392	10,059	14,520	16,348	14,947
Response rate	81%	77%	77%	77%	77%	83%	79%
Sampling frame <sup>1</sup>	ER	ER	ER	PAF	PAF	PAF	PAF
Ethnic boost sample	×	×	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	×
Teenage boost	×	×	×	$\checkmark$	×	×	×
sample							
CAPI/PAPI	PAPI	PAPI	PAPI	PAPI	CAPI	CAPI	CAPI
Variable names	Variable	Question	Question	Question	BLAISE	BLAISE	BLAISE
	name	number	number	number	name	name	name
Don't know code	8, 98,	8, 98,	8, 98,	8, 98,	9, 99,	9, 99,	9, 99,
	etc	etc	etc	etc	etc	etc	etc
Refusal code	9, 99 etc	9, 99 etc	9, 99,	9, 99,	8, 98,	8, 98,	8, 98,
			etc	etc	etc	etc	etc
No. of victim forms	4	4	4	5	5	6	6
V7 checks	×	×	×	×	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
Self-completion	×	×	×	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
element							

# Comparing the sweeps: 1982 to 1998 BCS

Notes:

1. ER refers to the Electoral Register and PAF to the Small Users Postcode Address File.

2. PAPI is Paper and Pencil Interviewing; CAPI Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing.

3. BLAISE is the computer program used for CAPI.

4.  $\star$  means does not apply;  $\checkmark$  that it does apply.

5. OPCS merged with the Central Statistical Office (CSO) in 1998 to form the Office For National Statistics (ONS).

6. Social and Community Planning Research (SCPR) has now changed its name to the National Centre for Social Research.

# **APPENDIX C - METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS**

The BCS like any sample survey has several methodological limitations.

• Sampling error

As only a sample of the population is questioned, findings are subject to sampling error. That is the results may differ to those which would have been obtained if the whole population had been interviewed. The error depends on the size and design of the sample, and the size of the estimate. Although, the BCS is large by the standards of most surveys, its estimates will be imprecise, particularly for rare crimes such as robbery and serious assault.

• Non-response

As in any sample survey, it is difficult to represent the population adequately. Some respondents are impossible for interviewers to locate at home, and others refuse to be interviewed. Non-response has implications for the measurement of crime if non-respondents have different experiences of victimisation to respondents. For example, young men tend to be less likely to respond but have higher than average risks of victimisation. Conversely, non-victims may be less likely to respond because they have less interest in the survey than victims. To explore the implications of non-response on survey estimates those who refused to participate in the 1996 BCS were asked a short set of questions about their experiences of crime. The balance of the evidence is that, if anything, non-respondents face slightly lower crime risks (Lynn,1997).

• Recall

The BCS asks respondents to recall their experiences of crime since January 1 of the preceding year -a period of about 14 months. The BCS crime measure is thus dependent on respondents' ability to accurately remember their experiences in the reference period. There are several problems which could prevent accurate recall:

- > respondents could simply forget a relevant incident;
- respondents could remember an incident, but think it happened before the reference period and therefore not report it in the interview; conversely, respondents may remember an earlier incident as happening within the reference period and thus erroneously report it;<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1.</sup> The full 'recall period' in the BCS is from the 1st January of the year preceding the interview until the date of the interview – about 14 months. In calculating the number of incidents within a given year, only those incidents which happened in the previous calendar year are counted.

non-victims may feel obliged to report an offence to the interviewer and therefore invent an incident to report.

A qualitative follow-up study of 35 1996 BCS respondents explored the accuracy with which respondents reported incidents to the survey. The study found that respondents put a great deal of effort into recalling when incidents occurred (White and Lewis, 1998).

• Unwillingness to report

Respondents may not wish to report incidents to the survey for a variety of reasons. A particularly problematic offence is domestic violence. Victims may not want to divulge their experiences, particularly if the offender is in the room during the interview.<sup>2</sup>

## • Definitions of crime

Incidents which are legally offences may not be reported to the survey if the respondent does not view them as such.<sup>3</sup> The definitional problem is particularly relevant to minor incidents and some forms of violence. Moreover, different social groups may have different perceptions of what does and does not constitute a crime. Evidence suggests that better-off groups have a lower threshold of tolerance and are therefore more likely to report minor incidents to the survey (Sparks et al., 1977).

Overall methodological studies suggest that victimisation surveys are likely to undercount more trivial offences (e.g., vandalism and some assaults) and sensitive offences (e.g. sexual offences and domestic violence). Generally though, more serious incidents are likely to be over counted, as more salient events tend to be pulled forward in time.

<sup>2.</sup> Procedures are used to try to overcome this problem. The question is on a show card and interviewers are instructed that this section of the interview can be postponed if others are present during the interview.

<sup>3.</sup> In an attempt to overcome this problem the BCS screener questions ask whether the respondent has experienced certain types of event and do not use legal terminology or refer to specific offences.

# APPENDIX D – A BASIC ANALYSIS GUIDE TO SPSS FOR BCS

## Where do I find the British Crime Survey data? (For Crime Surveys Section only)<sup>1</sup>

The BCS data are located in the shared directory Data.

Within this directory there are subdirectories for each sweep of the BCS.

For each sweep there are two data files (called .sav files) vf98.sav and nonvf98.sav. These contain the victim form questions and all other questions respectively.

The shared directory Data is protected so that the data can not be over-written.



<sup>1.</sup> Other internal RDS staff should request the appropriate data files from the Crime Surveys Section. External researchers can obtain the data via the ESRC.

## What are the windows in SPSS?

When SPSS is first opened the only window that is automatically opened is the Data Editor, shown below.

📺 Unt	titled	I - SPSS	5 Data	Editor									8	<u>e</u>	2017			9 SPS 842	S.	. 8 ×
<u>F</u> ile <u>E</u>	Edit	⊻iew	<u>D</u> ata	<u>T</u> ransform	<u>S</u> tatisti	ics <u>G</u> rap	hs <u>U</u> t	ilities	<u>W</u> indo	w <u>H</u>	elp									
SPSS SI	PSS E	e   I	6	<b>Щ</b> ∦	e C		< M	X=	<u>ide</u>	۳	<b>!?</b>	≣ rĭ∎		傘国	S Q					
																				-
		var		Var		var		V	ar		var		١	/ar	Va	IF	V	/ar	V	ar
1																				
2																				
3																				
4	L																			
5	L																			
6	L																			
7	L																			
8	L																			
9	L																			
10	L																			
11	H									_										
12	H									_										
13	H									_										
14	H									_										
15					I										1		1		1	•
									SP:	SS Pr	ocessor	is read	ły							
🖪 Sta	art	] @ 0	Ì) 🖉	1   <u>e</u> s	en <	\$DO	۳M	i	🛅 Unt.	🛅	Out	2	.int	🕎 Mi	📑 Sy.	. 🖻	Exp		<b>.</b>	16:31

However, SPSS has two further windows that can be opened using the pull-down menus (hence forth denoted as  $\geq$ ).

- ➤ File
- > New
- > Data / Syntax / Output

## Warning!

Only one Data Editor window (i.e. one data file) can be open at a time. If a second data file needs to be opened (using either syntax or the pull-down menus) the first must be saved, otherwise any changes made will be lost.

## What is the Data Editor?

When SPSS is opened the Data Editor is empty. To open a file either use the pull down menus or syntax (this will be explained later).

File
Open
Any .sav file

The Data Editor looks much like a spreadsheet package such as EXCEL. Rows are cases and columns are variables. The variable names appear across the top. The data file can either be viewed as the response codes (numeric) or the response labels. To switch between the two:

ViewValue labels

Value labels can be created by either (a) using syntax (b) double clicking on the variable name or (c)

DataDefine variable

(b) or (c) will bring up the dialog box below.

Untitled - SPSS Data Editor	
$\underline{F} ile  \underline{E} dit  \underline{V} iew  \underline{D} ata  \underline{T} ransform  \underline{S} ta$	atistics <u>G</u> raphs ∐tilities <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp
200 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 -	e >×m × ⊑ 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1= 1=
	*
var var	Define Variable 🔀 rar var var
1	Variable Name: VAR00001
2	Variable Description
3	Variable Label:
4	Missing Values: None
5	Alignment: Right
6	Change Settings
7	Type Missing Values
8	Labels Column Format
9	Measurement
10	© Sgale C Ordinal C Nominal
11	
12	OK Cancel Help
13	
14	
15	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
•	Processor is readu
Store Constant	
Seloun   C & S   Source	

This dialog box also allows missing values to be defined.

SPSS has two types of missing values; system defined and user defined. System defined missing are denoted as '.' in the Data Editor and appear when no data was originally entered, while user missing are numeric and defined by the user (in BCS user missing = -7). Missing values are excluded from most calculations.

From the Data Editor window basic data manipulation such as sorting cases, selecting subsets of the data, re-coding and computing new variables are possible.

Data
Sort cases / split file or...
Transform
Compute / recode

In each case by choosing one of the above from the pull-down menus a dialog box appears, for example the compute new variable dialog box shown below.

📲 Compute Variable		×
Target Variable: Type&Label	Numeric <u>E</u> xpression:	4
A       key         Image: Constraint of the second sec	+       <>       7       8       9       Eunctions:       ABS(numexpr)         -       <=	×

Although dialog boxes are convenient for simple data manipulations they quickly become cumbersome for more complex operations. Also the dialog boxes do not allow any permanent record of the instructions to SPSS.

Most dialog boxes have a 'Paste' button. By clicking on this rather than the 'OK' button (which immediately processes the instructions) the SPSS syntax (or instructions) are pasted into the syntax window.

III Frequencies		X
<ul> <li>causec6</li> <li>causec7</li> <li>causec8</li> <li>causem</li> <li>qualife</li> <li>neightyp</li> <li>homealon</li> <li>worrcrim</li> <li>unit uset</li> </ul>	Variable(s):         Image: walkdark         Image: walkdark <td>OK Paste Reset Cancel Help</td>	OK Paste Reset Cancel Help
B Syntaxl - SPSS Syntax Editor File Edit View Statistics Graphs Utilities Bun Window	нер Теф Т Ц П — Я Р , М И Ф	Marca O Cara
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=walkdark /ORDER ANALYSIS.		
	SPSS Processor is ready	Ln 1 Col 1 CAP
🔀 Start 🥔 🐼 💋 🔤 Sen 🖑 DO 💷 Mi	葡no 間Out gunt I Mi 图	Sy 🔍 Exp 🐼 🖉 🖓 16:35

## What is the syntax window?

A syntax file is simply a text file that contains instructions or commands (shown on previous page). The command language allows you to save your jobs in a syntax file so that you can repeat or amend your analysis at a later date.

There are many sources of information about SPSS syntax.

- Pasting syntax from dialog boxes.
- The SPSS v8 syntax help function

$\mathbf{b}$	Help
*	Syntax guide
$\mathbf{A}$	Base

- Examples of basic syntax (at Annex A of this paper).
- Examples of syntax used for the British Crime Survey (at Annex B of this paper).

A few basic syntax rules worth bearing in mind:-

- Each command must begin on a new line and end with a full stop.
- Most subcommands are separated by slashes (/).
- Each line of syntax must not exceed 80 characters.
- Variable names must be spelt out fully.
- Variable names should not include full stops (e.g. screen.no).
- Variable names must not exceed 8 characters

Please refer to Annexes A and B for further guide to syntax.

To run a syntax file the pull down menu 'run' gives the following options:



## Warning!

The default run icon in the syntax window  $\blacktriangleright$  is 'run current' – this will not run the whole syntax file or selected syntax. To overcome this, it is possible to customise the tool bars. This is covered later in the paper.

The most common reason for running a syntax file is to produce statistics or charts – output.

## What is the output window?

The output window (called the Output Viewer shown below) is opened automatically when any statistics or charts are requested either through a dialog box or syntax.

Chapter 2 frequencies       SPSS View         File       Edit       View       Insert       Fgmat       Stat         Image: Second	rer istics <u>G</u> raphs Utili IIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIII	ties <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp			w X -	<u>0</u> 34	<u>- 8 ×</u>		
Cutput C	Chapter	Chapter 2 - knowledge							
JUVSEX					Valid	Cumulative			
	Valid	Mainly by young	Frequency	Percent 14.0	Percent	Percent			
	valiu	Mainly by young Mainly by older	4044 2350	82	16.5	20.2			
		Equally by both	7936	27.4	55.3	100.0			
		Total	14339	49.6	100.0	100.0			
	Missing	System	14586	50.4					
	Total		28925	100.0					
			JUVSE	×		Quantative			
			Frequency	Percent	Percent	Percent			
	Valid	Mainly by boys	9778	33.8	68.0	68.0			
		Mainly by girls	61	.2	.4	68.5			
		Equally by both	4533	15.7	31.5	100.0	-		
	•								
P SPSS Processor is ready									
Start   @ A 21   23 Se	. <u>ZD</u> <u>Mi</u>	<u>m</u> no <u>m</u> O	🖉 un 🕎 I	Mi 🛐 Sy	<u>Q</u> Ex 🛱 (	c \ 🐼 🗄	0 16:36		

The left pane of the Output Viewer contains an outline view of the output contents.

The right pane contains statistical tables, charts and text output.

## What is the left pane?

Title	Usually something unhelpful such as 'frequency'.	
Notes	Brief summary of the file size, missing values etc.	
Statistics	Number of valid cases and number missing.	
Frequencies etc The output requested.		

By double clicking on the 'books' outputs can be closed or opened.

To alter the outputs that are opened / closed by default use the Output Viewer's pull down menus.

- > Edit
- > Options

This allows syntax to be printed alongside output (as with PStat) although this does increase processing time.



What is the right pane?

The right pane contains all of the outputs opened in the left pane (see above).

There are many types of charts and tables available, some of which are detailed below.



To edit the charts /tables click on the relevant section.

The charts /tables can be pasted into Word or Excel.

## What are the most useful icons?

Icons are included in the toolbars at the top of the Data Editor and syntax window by default. Toolbars can be customised using the pull down menus and dialog box below.

- > View
- > Toolbars

To insert an icon in the toolbar click on the icon and drag it to the position required.

<u>C</u> ategories		ОК
File Edit View	Separator     Separator     New Data	Cancel
Insert Data	SPEE SPEE New Syntax	New Tool
Transformations Statistics Graphs Gallery Chart Chart Formatting	New Script     Open     Save     Close     Image: Save	Help
Customizing Toolbar:	Syntax Editor	
	<u>  \$                                  </u>	<u>} B</u> 
	Edit Tool Properties	Reset Toolbar

Some icons which may prove useful for the Data Editor window:-

New Data Editor window
New syntax window
Find a value within the selected variable
Go to a variable (type first letter of the variable name)



View value labels

Some icons which may prove useful for the syntax window:-



#### Annex A

#### Opening and saving files

File=I/Data/nonvf98.sav.

Execute.

Save outfile='G:/NT files/My documents...

/compressed.

Basic commands (data manipulation)

Eq	Equal to	
<i>Gt or</i> >	Greater than	
<i>Lt or</i> <		Less than
Ne or <>	Not equal to	
Le or <=	Less than or equal to	

 $Ge \ or >=$  Greater than or equal to

*If (males gt 3 & females ge 3) yes=tenure. Execute.* 

*Compute males=females+others. Execute.* 

*Recode tenure (1=2) (2=1). Execute.* 

## Basic commands (anaylsis)

*Frequencies variables=sentence.* 

Descriptives variables=sentence /statistics=mean stdev min max.

*Crosstabs* /tables=dob by sentence.

Means /table=male by area /cells=mean stdev count.

### To split the file

Sort cases by sex. Split file separate by sex. To turn the split file off Split file off.

Weighting the data

Weight by weighta. To turn this off Weight off.

## <u>Do if</u>

Do if (yrhired lt 87). Recode race (1=5) (2=4) (4=2) (5=1) (else=sysmis). End if. Execute. Can include extra if commands Else if (yrhired ge87). Recode race (else=sysmis).

### <u>Select if</u>

Select if permanently selects cases. Cases not selected are dropped from the working file. *Select if (age ge 25).* 

Execute.

If the selection is only wanted for the next command use the temporary command.

Temporary Select if (age ge 25) Descriptives variables=sex /statistics mean.

## To display file information

## **Display sorted names**

# Variable names only (alphabetically)

Index	above plus positions
Labels	above plus variable labels
Variables	above plus missing variables
Dictionary	all file information

Annex B

## **Matching files**

## Adding new variables



match files /file=* ◀ /file='I\Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav' /by rowlabel. execute. ►	* denotes the working file, i.e. the one open in the Data Editor window.
/ indicates a subcommand.	

## Matching one to many (eg non victim form to the victim form)

match files
/file=*
/table='I \Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav'
/by rowlabel.
execute. 💌

Matches one (table subcommand) to many (file subcommand). It assigns the values of the non victim form to each victim form. Final file only includes case numbers that are included in the many file.

### Adding new cases (eg combining 1996 and 1998 sweeps of the BCS)

add files	
/file=*	
/file='I \Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav'	
/keep=age sex.	
execute.	
$\backslash$	

By default all variables are included in the new file, use the keep subcommand if only some variables are needed.

## Example of BCS anaylsis; Research Findings 83 Table 5

get file='I\Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav'

/keep rowlabel acorn incity rubbish1 vandals1 quallife weight.a. execute.

recode rubbish1 (1,2=1) (3,4=0) (else=sysmis) into rubbish2. format rubbish2 (f8.0). execute. Sets the variable to zero decimal places, default is two.

recode vandals1 (1,2=1) (3,4=0) (else=sysmis) into vandals2. format vandals2 (f8.0). execute.

compute inscale=rubbish2+vandals2. format inscale (f8.0). execute.

format areatype (f8.0).

execute.

recode inscale (0=0) (1, 2=1) (else=sysmis) into incivgp2. format incivgp2 (f8.0). execute.

recode quallife (1 thru 3=1) (4 thru 7=2) (8 thru 10=3) (else=sysmis) into qualgrp. format qualgrp (f8.0).

Means if quallife equals 1, 2 or 3 set qualgrp equal to 1.

recode quallife (else=copy) into quality. format quality (f8.0). execute. Copies all values of quallife (not already recoded) into quality recode acorn (1 thru 9, 27=3) into areatype / incity (1=1) into areatype /areatype (1,3=copy) (else=2).

The second recode line overwrites the first etc.

recode tothhinc (1, 2, 9=1) (3=2) (4=3) (5=4) (6=5) (7, 8=6) into hhinc. format hhinc (f8.0). execute. if (sex=1 & age ge 16 & age le 64) rworkage=1. if (sex=2 & age ge 16 & age le 59) rworkage=1. format rworkage (f8.0). execute. if (hohsex=1 & hoh.age ge 16 & hoh.age le 64) hworkage=1. if (hohsex=2 & hoh.age ge 16 & hoh.age le 59) hworkage=1. format hworkage (f8.0). execute. if (workhoh=1 or hlastwk=1 or hlastwk=2) hoh.unem=1. recode hlastwk (3, 4=2) (5 thru 10=3) into hoh.unem / hworkage (sysmis=4) into hoh.unem. format hoh.unem (f8.0). execute. if (rwork=1 or rlastwk=1 or hlastwk=2) resp.une=1. recode rlastwk (3, 4=2) (5 thru 10=3) into resp.une / rworkage (sysmis=4) into resp.une. format resp.une (f8.0). execute. recode limits (1=1) (else=0) into disabled. format disabled (f8.0). execute. value labels respune 1'emp' 2'unemp' 3'inactive' 4'not work age' / hohunem 1'emp' 2'unemp' 3'inactive' 4'not work age' / hhinc 1'under 5' 2'under 10' 3'under 15' 4'under 20' 5'under 30' 6'more' /areatype 1'inner' 2'urban' 3'rural' /incivgp2 0'none' 1'some' /qualgrp 1'1 to 3' 2'4 to 7' 3'8 to 10' Assigns value labels. /disabled 1'yes' 0'no'. execute. Weights the data. Weight by weight.a. crosstabs /tables sex structur3 tenharm respune hohunem areatype incivgp2 hhinc disabled council by qualgrp. Weight off.

Switches

weight off.

the

## Example of BCS derived variables; creating the relate variable

get file='l\Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav". execute.

if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & any(v78,2,8,9) & any(descroff,2,8,9)) relate=1. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & any(knewoff,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9) & any(seenoff1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9)) relate=1. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & any(knewoff,3,4,5,6,7,8,9) & any(seenoff,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9)) relate=1. if (any(vicno,4,5,6) & any(v78,2,8,9)) relate=1. if (any(vicno,4,5,6) & wellknow=4) relate=1. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & any(howknow1,1,2)) relate=2. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & (howknow2=1 or howknow2=2 or howknow3=1 or howknow3=2 or howknow4=1 or howknow4=2)) relate=2. if (any(vicno,4,5,6) & any(wellknow,2,3)) relate=2. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & howknow1=3) relate=3. if (any(vicno,1,2,3) & (howknow2=3 or howknow3=3 or howknow4=3)) relate=3. if (any(vicno,4,5,6) & wellknow=1) relate=3. recode relate (sysmis=0). execute.

format relate (f1.0). execute.

This is included as a check.

frequencies variables=relate.

save outfile='G:\JMattinson\SPSS datasets etc\1998\Final victim form 98.sav' /compressed.

The variable relate needed to be added permanently to vf98.sav. The file has to be saved in the user area and then transferred into I:/Data. To do this ITG have to take the file protection off.

## The 1998 British Crime Survey rates file

GET FILE='I \Data\BCS98\vf98.sav'. EXECUTE .

\*The following syntax retains valid offence codes, victims in E&W & victims in the calendar year only

\* can be used at the beginning recode nseries (998=2) (996, 997, 999=sysmis). of a line to indicate the line is compute validoff=0. text rather than syntax. execute. if (offence ge 11 & offence le 13) validoff=1. if (offence=21) validoff=1. if (offence ge 31 & offence le 35) validoff=1. if (offence ge 41 & offence le 45) validoff=1. if (offence ge 50 & offence le 53) validoff=1. if (offence ge 55 & offence le 58) validoff=1. if (offence ge 60 & offence le 65) validoff=1. if (offence=67) validoff=1. if (offence ge 71 & offence le 73) validoff=1. if (offence ge 80 & offence le 86) validoff=1. if (offence ge 91 & offence le 94) validoff=1. execute. if (wherhapp=2) validoff=0. if (nseries=0 & (yrincid=1 or yrincid=3)) validoff=0. if (nseries=0 & (gtrincid=1 or gtrincid=6 or gtrincid=8)) validoff=0. if (nseries=0 & mthincid=98 & yrincid=8) validoff=0. execute. select if (validoff=1). execute. \*The following syntax is to take account of series of incidents if (missing(njanmar)) njanmar=0. Changes both user if (missing(naprjun)) naprjun=0. and system missing if (missing(njulsep)) njulsep=0. values to zero. if (missing(noctdec)) noctdec=0. if (missing(njanpres)) njanpres=0. execute.

if (njanmar=97) njanmar=5. if (naprjun=97) naprjun=5. if (njulsep=97) njulsep=5. if (noctdec=97) noctdec=5. if (njanpres=97) njanpres=5.

59

execute.

if (nseries=0) number=1. if (nseries ge 1 & nseries le 100) number=njanmar+naprjun+njulsep+noctdec. execute.

if ((njanmar=98 or njanmar=99 or naprjun=98 or naprjun=99 or njulsep=98 or njulsep=99 or noctdec=98 or noctdec=99)

```
& (njanpres ge 0 & njanpres le 97)) number=nseries-njanpres. execute.
```

if ((njanmar=98 or njanmar=99 or naprjun=98 or naprjun=99 or njulsep=98 or njulsep=99 or noctdec=98 or noctdec=99) & (njanpres=98 or njanpres=99)) number=nseries. execute.

if (number gt 5) number=5. execute.

```
*The following syntax sets up the matrix of offence groups (44 columns wide)
```

```
vector p(44).
loop #i=1 to 44.
compute p(#i)=0.
end loop.
execute.
```

if (any(offence,80,81,82,83,84,85,86)>0) p1=p1+number.

if (any(offence,81,82)>0) p2=p2+number.

if (any(offence,80,83,84,85,86)>0) p3=p3+number.

if (any(offence,51,52,53)>0) p4=p4+number.

if (any(offence,53)>0) p5=p5+number.

if (any(offence,51,53)>0) p6=p6+number.

if (any(offence,51,52)>0) p7=p7+number.

if (any(offence,52)>0) p8=p8+number.

if (any(offence,55)>0) p9=p9+number.

if (any(offence,61,63)>0) p10=p10+number.

if (any(offence,60,62)>0) p11=p11+number.

if (any(offence,71,72)>0) p12=p12+number.

```
if (any(offence,60,61,62,63,71,72)>0) p13=p13+number.
```

if (any(offence,60,61,62,63,71,72,81,82)>0) p14=p14+number.

if (any(offence,64)>0) p15=p15+number.

if (any(offence,50,55,56,57,58,65)>0) p16=p16+number.

if (any(offence,51,52,53,60,61,62,63,64,71,72,80,81,82,83,84,85,86)>0)

p17=p17+number.

If(any(offence,50,51,52,53,55,56,57,58,60,61,62,63,64,65,71,72,80,81,82,83,84,85,86)> 0) p18=p18+number.

if (any(offence,43,44,45,51,52,53,60,61,62,63,64,71,72)>0) p19=p19+number.

if (any(offence,31,34,35)>0) p20=p20+number.

if (any(offence,13,21)>0) p21=p21+number.

if (any(offence,11,12,32,33)>0) p22=p22+number.

```
if (any(offence,41,42)>0) p23=p23+number.
if (any(offence,43,44,45)>0) p24=p24+number.
if (any(offence,41,42,43,44,45)>0) p25=p25+number.
if (anv(offence,41,42,43)>0) p26=p26+number.
if (anv(offence.67.73)>0) p27=p27+number.
if (any(offence, 11, 12, 32, 33, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45)>0) p28=p28+number.
if (any(offence,11,12,13,21,31,32,33,34,35,41,42,43,44,45,67,73)>0) p29=p29+number.
if (any(offence,11,12,13,21,32,33,41,42,43,44,45,67,73)>0) p30=p30+number.
if (any(offence, 11, 12, 13, 21, 32, 33)>0) p31=p31+number.
if (any(offence, 11, 12, 32, 33, 41, 42)>0) p32=p32+number.
if (any(offence,91,92,93,94)>0) p33=p33+number.
if(any(offence,11,12,13,21,32,33,41,42,43,44,45,50,51,52,53,55,56,57,58,60,61,62,63,6
4,65,67,71,72,73,80,81,82,83,84,85,86)>0) p34=p34+number.
if (any(offence, 11, 12, 13, 21, 32, 33, 41, 42, 43)>0) p35=p35+number.
if (any(offence,41,42,43)>0) p36=p36+number.
if (any(offence,60)>0) p37=p37+number.
if (any(offence,61)>0) p38=p38+number.
if (any(offence,71)>0) p39=p39+number.
if (any(offence,60,61,71)>0) p40=p40+number.
if (violgrp=1) p41=p41+number.
if (violarp=2) p42=p42+number.
if (violgrp=3) p43=p43+number.
if (violgrp=4) p44=p44+number.
```

execute.

\*The following syntax flattens the matrix by unique identifier (rowlabel) and assigns variable names to the offence groups

```
aggregate outfile='G:\My Documents\NT Files\SPSS datasets etc\1998\temp98.sav'
/break=rowlabel
/vandalis=sum(p1)
/mv.vand=sum(p2)
/homevand=sum(p3)
/burglary=sum(p4)
/burgatts=sum(p5)
/burgatno=sum(p6)
/burgentr=sum(p7)
/burgloss=sum(p8)
/theftdwe=sum(p9)
/theftfmv=sum(p10)
/theftomv=sum(p11)
/attmvthf=sum(p12)
/allmvthf=sum(p13)
/allmvcri=sum(p14)
/bikethef=sum(p15)
/othhhctd=sum(p16)
/tohhcltd=sum(p17)
/totalhh=sum(p18)
/acquisit=sum(p19)
/sexoffen=sum(p20)
```

/wounding=sum(p22) /robbery=sum(p23) /theftper=sum(p24) /thfp.rob=sum(p25) /mugging=sum(p26) /othpthef=sum(p27) /topthcls=sum(p28) /totalper=sum(p29) /totperls=sum(p30) /allassau=sum(p31) /violence=sum(p32) /threats=sum(p33) /totalbcs=sum(p34) /contact=sum(p35) /mugging1=sum(p36) /offenc60=sum(p37) /offenc61=sum(p38) /offenc71=sum(p39) /of60to71=sum(p40) /domestic=sum(p41) /mugging2=sum(p42) /stranger=sum(p43) /acquain=sum(p44).

```
*The following syntax merges the flattened victim form file with the main etc file
```

GET FILE='I\Data\BCS98\nonvf98.sav'. EXECUTE .	Aggregated files are already
sort cases by rowlabel (A).	(in this case rowlabel).
if (motorcyc=1 or car=1) vehowner=1. execute.	
*If motorcyc=0 & car=0 then vehowner=sysmis by defa	ult
recode ownbike (1=1) (else=0) into bikowner. execute.	
match files /file='G:\My Documents\NT Files\SPSS datasets etc\19 /file=* /by rowlabel.	98\temp98.sav'
It is this file	that is used to calculate incidence
format vandalis to acquain (f8.0). and prevale execute.	nce rates.

save outfile='G:\My Documents\NT Files\SPSS datasets etc\1998\temp98.sav'

/compressed.

\*The following syntax calculates the incidence rates

recode vandalis to acquain (sysmis=0).

weight by weightb. descriptives variables=vandalis to acquisit /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

weight by weighta. descriptives variables= sexoffen to acquain /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

#### \*The following syntax is for vehicle owners

weight by weightb. temporary. select if (vehowner=1). descriptives variables=mv.vand, theftfmv to allmvcri /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

The temporary command means the selection will only be for the next command (usually it is permanent).

\*The following syntax is for bike owners

weight by weightb. temporary. select if (bikowner=1). descriptives variables=bikethef /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

\*The following syntax is for sexual offences against women

weight by weighta. temporary. select if (sex=2). descriptives variables=sexoffen /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off. \*The following syntax is for sexual offences against men

weight by weighta. temporary. select if (sex=1). descriptives variables=sexoffen /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

#### \*The following syntax calculates the prevalence rates

get file='G:\My Documents\NT Files\SPSS datasets etc\1998\temp98.sav'. execute.

recode vandalis to acquain (0=0) (sysmis=0) (else=100). execute.

weight by weightb. descriptives variables=vandalis to acquisit /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

weight by weighta. descriptives variables= sexoffen to acquain /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

\*The following syntax is for vehicle owners

weight by weightb. temporary. select if (vehowner=1). descriptives variables=mv.vand, theftfmv to allmvcri /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

#### \*The following syntax is for bike owners

weight by weightb. temporary. select if (bikowner=1). descriptives variables=bikethef /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off. \*The following syntax is for sexual offences against women

weight by weighta. temporary. select if (sex=2). descriptives variables=sexoffen /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

## \*The following syntax is for sexual offences against men

weight by weighta. temporary. select if (sex=1). descriptives variables=sexoffen /statistics mean stdev min max. weight off.

# APPENDIX E - PUBLICATIONS AND PAPERS ON THE BCS

There have been a large number of publications on results from the British Crime Survey. These are listed below. The main reports are listed first. Thereafter, publications dealing with particular topics are shown. The topics are:

Attitudes to crime and sentencing	Methodology
Autocrime	Multiple victimisation
Burglary	Police issues
Crime prevention	Race and victimisation
Drugs	Reporting to the police
Drunken driving	Risks of crime
Effects of victimisation	Self-reported offending
Elderly and crime	Teenagers
Fear of crime	Stolen goods
Household fires	Violent crime
Commercial crime	Women and crime

There are then some general publications listed, a number of Technical Reports, and some publications relating to the BCS in Scotland and the 1993 Scottish Crime Survey, and the 1994

# MAIN OVERVIEW REPORTS

### 1998 BCS

Mirrlees-Black, C., Budd, T., Partridge, S and Mayhew, P. (1998). *The 1998 British Crime Survey: England and Wales*. Home Office Statistical Bulletin 21/98. London: Home Office HO

Particular topics covered are: Extent of BCS crime in 1997 Trends in BCS crime

Comparison of BCS and recorded crime Unequal risks

#### 1996 BCS

Mirrlees-Black, C., Mayhew, P. and Percy, A. (1996). *The 1996 British Crime Survey: England and Wales*. Home Office Statistical Bulletin 19/96. London: Home Office HO

Particular topics covered are: The extent of crime Reporting to the police Violent crime

Burglary Cars and theft Fear of crime

#### **1994 BCS**

Mayhew, P., Mirrlees-Black, C. and Aye Maung, N. (1994). *Trends in crime: Findings from the 1994 British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 14. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department. HO

#### 1992 BCS

Mayhew, P., Aye Maung, N. and Mirrlees-Black, C. (1993). *The 1992 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Study No. 132. London: HMSO. HO

Particular topics covered are:Reporting to the policeCars and theftBurglaryViolence

Mayhew, P. and Aye Maung, N. (1992). Surveying Crime: findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey. Research Findings No. 2. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department. HO

#### 1988 BCS

Mayhew, P., Elliott, D. and Dowds, L. (1989). *The 1988 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Study No. 111. London: HMSO. HO

Particular topics covered are: Reporting to the police Ethnic minority risks Crime at work Neighbourhood Watch

#### 1984 BCS

Hough, M. and Mayhew, P. (1985). *Taking Account of Crime: findings from the second British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Study No. 85. London: HMSO. **OP** 

Particular topics covered are:

Reporting to the policeFear of crimeThe impact of crimeDealing with crime: public attitudes

#### 1982 BCS

Hough, M. and Mayhew, P. (1983). *The British Crime Survey: first report*. Home Office Research Study No. 76. London: HMSO. **OP** 

Particular topics covered are: Who is at risk? Fear of crime Experience and expectations of the criminal justice system

#### **AREA PATTERNS OF CRIME**

**Davidson, R. N.** (1992). *Crime in your Neighbourhood*. Report to the Home Office. Hull: University of Hull.

Hope, T. and Hough, M. (1988). 'Area, crime and incivilities: findings from the British Crime Survey'. In Hope, T. and Shaw, M. (Eds.), *Communities and Crime Reduction*. London: HMSO.

**Mirrlees-Black**. (1998) *Rural areas and crime: findings from the British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 64. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Directorate. **HO** 

#### ATTITUDES TO CRIME AND SENTENCING

Hough, M. (1988). 'Public attitudes to sentencing'. In, Harrison, A. and Gretton, J. (Eds.), *Crime UK 1988*. Newbury: Policy Journals.

**Hough, M. and Lewis, H** (1986) 'Penal hawks and penal doves: attitudes to punishment in the British Crime Survey'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 21. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **HO** 

Hough, M. Moxon, D. and Lewis, H. (1987). 'Attitudes to punishment'. In, Pennington, R. and Lloyd-Bostock, S. (Eds.), *The Psychology of Sentencing*. Oxford: Centre for Socio-Legal Studies.

Hough, M. and Moxon, D. (1985). 'Dealing with offenders: popular justice and the views of victims'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 24, 160-175.

Hough, M. and Roberts, J. (1998). Attitudes to punishment: findings from the British Crime Survey. *Home Office Research Study No.179*. London: Home Office. HO

Hough, M. And Roberts, J. (1998). *Attitudes to punishment: findings from the British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 64. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Directorate. HO

**Pease, K.** (1988). *Judgements of crime seriousness: evidence from the 1984 British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 44. London: Home Office. **HO** 

Walker, N. and Hough, M. (Eds.) (1988). Public Attitudes to Sentencing. Farnborough: Gower.

#### AUTOCRIME

**Clarke, R.V. and Mayhew, P.** (1994). 'Parking patterns and car theft risks: policy-relevant findings from the British Crime Survey' In, *Crime Prevention Studies, Vol. III*, Clarke, R.V. (Ed.). Monsey, New York: Criminal Justice Press.

**Hope, T.** (1987). 'Residential aspects of autocrime'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 23. London: Home Office Research Unit. London: HMSO.

#### BURGLARY

**Budd, T.** (1999). *Burglary of Domestic Dwellings: Findings from the British Crime Survey*. Home Office Statistical Bulletin 4/99. London: Home Office **HO** 

**Elliott, D. and Mayhew, P.** (1988). 'Trends in residential burglary: an update'. *Research Bulletin,* No. 25. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **HO** 

Hough, M. (1987). 'Offenders' choice of target: findings from victim surveys'. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 3, 355-370.

**Hough, M.** (1984). 'Residential burglary: findings from the British Crime Survey'. In, Clarke, R.V.G. and Hope, T. (Eds.), *Coping with Burglary*. Boston, Mass.: Kluwer-Nijhoff.

**Hough, M. and Mo, J.** (1986) 'If at first you don't succeed: findings on attempted burglary from the British Crime Survey'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 21. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **HO** 

Hope, T. (1984). 'Building design and burglary'. In, Clarke, R.V.G. and Hope, T. (Eds.), *Coping with Burglary*. Boston, Mass.: Kluwer-Nijhoff.

Lewis, H. and Mo, J. (1986). 'Burglary insurance: findings from the British Crime Survey'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 22. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. HO

Litton, R. (1990). 'Aspects of moral hazard'. *Journal of the Society of Fellows* (The Chartered Insurance Institute), 5, 2-15.

Litton, R. (1987). 'Crime and insurance'. The Geneva Papers on Risk and Insurance, 12, 198-225.

Mayhew, P. (1987) 'How are we faring on the burglary front? A comparison with the US and Canada'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 23. 1987. London: Home Office. HO

**Mayhew, P.** (1987). *Residential Burglary: a comparison of the US, Canada and England and Wales.* National Institute of Justice. Washington, DC **HO** 

**Mayhew, P.** (1984). 'Target-hardening: how much of an answer?'. In, Clarke, R.V.G. and Hope, T. (Eds.), *Coping with Burglary*. Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff,

#### **CRIME PREVENTION**

**Dowds, L. and Mayhew, P.** (1994). *Participation in Neighbourhood Watch: findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey analysis.* Research Findings No. 11. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department **HO** 

**Hope, T.** (1988). 'Support for Neighbourhood Watch: a British Crime Survey analysis'. In Hope, T. and Shaw, M. (Eds.), *Communities and Crime Reduction*. London: HMSO.

Mayhew, P. (Unpublished report). Neighbourhood Watch: findings from the 1996 British Crime Survey. London: Home Office. HO

#### DRUGS

**Ramsay, M and Partridge, S.** (1999). *Drug Misuse Declared in 1998: Results from the British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research Study No. 197. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Dowds, L.** (1995). *Drug education amongst teenagers: a 1992 British Crime Survey analysis.* Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 86. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department **HO** 

Mott, J. and Mirrlees-Black, C. (1995). Self-reported drug misuse in England and Wales in 1991: findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey. Home Office Research Study. London: HMSO.

**Mott, J. and Mirrlees-Black, C.** (1993). *Self-reported drug misuse in England and Wales in 1991: main findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey.* Research Findings No. 7. London: HMSO.

Mott, J. (1985). 'Self-reported cannabis use in Great Britain in 1981'. *British Journal of Addiction*, 80, 37-43.

**Ramsay, M and Partridge, S.** (1999). *Drug Misuse Declared in 1998: Results from the British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research Study No. 197. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Ramsay, M. and Percy, A.** (1997) A national household survey of drug misuse in Britain: a decade of development. *Addiction*, 92, 931-937.

Ramsay, M. and Percy, A. (1996). Drug misuse declared: results of the 1994 British Crime Survey.

Research Findings No. 33. London: Home Office HO

**Ramsay, M. and Percy, A.** (1996). *Drug misuse declared: results of the 1994 British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research Study No. 151. London: Home Office **HO** 

**Ramsay, M. and Spiller, J.** (1997). Drug misuse declared in 1996: latest results from the British Crime Survey. Home Office Research Study No. 172. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Ramsay, M, and Spiller, J.** (1997). Drug misuse declared in 1996: key results from the British Crime Survey. Research Findings No. 56. London: Home Office. **HO** 

#### **DRUNKEN DRIVING**

**Riley, D.** (1986). 'Drinking drivers: the limits to deterrence?'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 24, 241-256.

**Riley, D.** (1984). 'Drivers' beliefs about alcohol and the law'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 17. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **HO** 

#### **EFFECTS OF VICTIMISATION**

Hough, M. (1985). 'The impact of victimisation: findings from the British Crime Survey'. *Victimology: an International Journal*, 8, 488-497.

Maguire, M. and Corbett, C. (1986). *The Effects of Crime and the Work of Victim Support Schemes*. Cambridge Studies in Criminology, 56. Aldershot: Gower. (Chapter 3).

**Mawby, R.I.** (1991). 'The effects of victimisation'. Final report to the Home Office. Plymouth: Plymouth Polytechnic.

**Mawby, R.I.** (1991). 'Responding to crime victims'. Final report to the Home Office. Plymouth: Plymouth Polytechnic.

**Mawby, R.I.** (1988). 'Age, vulnerability and the impact of crime'. In, Maguire, M. and Pointing, J. (Eds.), *Victims of Crime: A New Deal.* Milton Keynes: Open University Education Enterprises.

Mawby, R.I. and Gill, M.L. (1987). Crime Victims: needs, services and the voluntary sector. London: Tavistock

**Mayhew, P.** (1993). 'Measuring the effects of crime in victimisation surveys'. In, Bilsky, W., Pfeiffer, C. and Wetzels, P. (Eds.), *Criminal Victimisation and Fear of Crime among the Elderly -Survey Research: Past, Present and the Future.* Stuttgart: Enke Verlag.

#### **ELDERLY AND CRIME**

Clarke, R.V.G., Ekblom, P., Hough, M. and Mayhew, P. (1985). 'Elderly victims of crime and exposure to risk'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 24, 81-89.

#### FEAR OF CRIME

Box, S., Hale, C. and Andrews, G. (1988). 'Explaining fear of crime'. British Journal of Criminology, 28, 340-356.

Hale, C., Pack, P. and Salked, J. (1994). The structural determinants of fear of crime: an analysis using Census and crime survey data from England and Wales. *International Review of Victimology*, 3, 211-233.

Hough, J.M. (1995). Fear of Crime in England and Wales: findings from the 1994 British Crime Survey. Research Findings No. 25. London: HMSO.

**Hough, M.** (1995) *Anxiety about Crime: Findings from the 1994 British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research Study No. 147. London: Home Office **HO**
**Maxfield, M.G.** (1987). "Incivilities and fear of crime in England and Wales and the United States: a comparative analysis". Paper presented at American Society of Criminology Meeting, Montreal, November 1987.

Maxfield, M.G. (1987). *Fear of Crime: findings from the 1984 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 43. London: Home Office. **OP** 

**Maxfield, M.G.** (1984). *Fear of Crime in England and Wales*. Home Office Research Study No. 78. London: HMSO. **OP** 

Mayhew, P. (1985). 'The effects of crime: victims, the public and fear'. In, *Research on Victimisation. Collected Studies in Criminological Research*. Vol. XXIII. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Mirrlees-Black, C. and Allen, J. (1998). *Concern about Crime: findings from the 1998 British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 83. London: Home Office. HO

Mirrlees-Black, C. and Aye Maung, N. (1994). *Fear of Crime: findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 9. London: Home Office. HO

Smith, S.J. (1987). 'Fear of crime: beyond a geography of deviance'. *Progress in Human Geography*, 11, 1-23.

Smith, S.J. (1987). 'Social relations, neighbourhood structure and the fear of crime in Britain'. In, Evans, D.J. and Herbert, D.T., *The Geography of Crime*. London: Routledge.

**Young, J.** (1988). 'Risk of crime and fear of crime: a realist critique of survey-based assumptions'. In, Maguire, M. and Pointing, J. (Eds.), *Victims of Crime: A New Deal*. Milton Keynes: Open University Education Enterprises.

### **HOUSEHOLDS FIRES**

**Budd, T. and Mayhew, P.** (1997) *Fires in the Home in 1995: Results from the British Crime Survey.* Home Office Statistical Bulletin 9/97. London: Home Office **HO** 

Home Office (1995). 'Household fires in England and Wales: information from the 1994 British Crime Survey'. Chapter 7 in *Fire Statistics, UK, 1993*. London: Home Office. HO

Home Office (1994). 'Household fires in England and Wales: information from the 1992 British Crime Survey'. Chapter 7 in *Fire Statistics UK*, 1991. London: HMSO.

May, C. (1990). *Household Fires: findings from the British Crime Survey 1988*. Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 57. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. OP

### METHODOLOGY

**Aye Maung, N.** (1996). 'Survey design and interpretation of the British Crime Survey.' In, Walker, M. (Ed.), *Interpreting Crime Statistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

**Bottomley, K., Pease, K.** (1986). *Crime and Punishment: Interpreting the Data.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Lynn, P. (1997). 'Sampling Frame Effects on the British Crime Survey.' *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 160, Part 2, 253-269.

**Mayhew, P.** (1994). 'Comment on Victimization Surveys'. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research.* Vol 2, No. 4. Special Issue: "Innovations in Criminal Justice Research". (Selected papers from the Fourth Colloquium on Crime and Criminal Justice Policy in Europe, Switzerland, September 1994).

Tarling, R. (1986). 'Statistical applications in criminology'. The Statistician, 35, 369-388.

# MULTIPLE VICTIMISATION

Barr, R. and Pease, K. (1992). 'A place for every crime and every crime in its place'. In, Evans, D.J., Fyfe, N.R. and Herbert, D.T. (Eds.), *Crime, Policing and Place: essays in environmental criminology*. London: Routledge.

Ellingworth, D., Farrell, G. and Pease, K. (1995). 'A victim is a victim is a victim? Chronic victimisation in four sweeps of the British crime Survey'. *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol.35, No.3, 360-365.

**Farrell G.** (1993). 'The measurement of repeat victimisation probabilities'. In, M.Tonry and N.Morris (Eds.), *Crime and Justice*. Vol. 29. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

**Farrell, G.** (1992). 'The measurement of repeat victimisation probabilities'. In, M. Tonry and N. Morris, *Crime and Justice*. Vol. 29. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Farrell, G. (1992). 'Multiple Victimisation: its extent and significance'. *International Review of Victimology*, 2, 85-102.

**Farrell, G, and Pease, K.** (1993). *Once Bitten, Twice Bitten.* Crime Prevention Unit Paper No. 46. London: Home Office. **HO** 

Hope, T. (1995). 'The flux of victimisation'. *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 35, No.3, 327-342.

Lasley, J.R. and Rosenbaum, J.L. (1988). 'Routine activities and multiple personal victimisation'. *Social Science Research*, 73, 47-50.

**Osborn, D.R., Trickett, A., and Elder, R.** (1992). 'Area characteristics and regional variates as determinants of area property crime levels.' *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 8, 265-285.

**Pease, K.** (1993). 'Individual and community influences on victimisation and their implications for crime prevention'. In, D.P. Farrington, R.J. Sampson and P-O. Wikstrom (Eds.), *Integrating Individual and Ecological Aspects of Crime*. Stockholm: National Council for Crime Prevention.

**Pease, K.** (1992). 'Individual and community influences on victimisation and their implications for Crime Prevention.' In, Farrington, D.P, Sampson, R.J. and Wikstron, P-O, (Eds.), *Integrating Individual and Ecological Aspects of Crime*. Stockholm: National Council on Crime Prevention.

**Pease, K., Farrell, G. and Phillips, C.** (1995). 'Like taking candy: why does repeat victimisation occur?' *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 35, No.3, 384-399.

**Trickett, A., Osborn, D. and Ellingworth, D.** (forthcoming). 'Simple and repeat victimisation: the influences of individual and area characteristics'. Manchester: University of Manchester. (1993). (Submitted for publication).

**Trickett, A., Osborn, D. and Ellingworth, D.** (1995) 'Property Crime Victimisation: The roles of individual and area influences'. *International Review of Victimolgy*. Vol. 3, 273-295.

**Tseloni, A. Osborn, D.R. and Pease, K**. (1994). 'The modelling of threats: evidence from the British Crime Survey'. *International Review of Victimology*. Vol. 3, 235-261.

Trickett, A., Osborn, D.R., Seymour, J. and Pease, K. (1992). 'What is different about high crime area?' *British Journal of Criminology*, 32, 81-89.

### POLICE ISSUES

**Bucke, T.** (1995). *Policing and the Public: findings from the 1994 British Crime Survey.* Research Findings No. 28. London: Home Ofice **HO** 

**Bucke, T.** (1997). *Ethnicity and contacts with the police: Latest findings from the British Crime Survey.* Research Findings No. 59. London: Home Office. **HO** 

Maxfield, M.G. (1988). 'The London Metropolitan Police and their clients: victim and suspect attitudes' *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 25, 188-206. Mirrlees-Black, C. and Budd, T. (1997). *Policing and the public: Findings from the 1996 British Crime Survey*. Research Findings No. 60. London: Home Office. HO

Moxon, D. and Jones, P. (1984). 'Public reactions to police behaviour: some findings from the British Crime Survey'. *Policing*, 1, 49-56.

**Skogan, W.G.** (1995). *Contacts between Police and Public: findings from the 1992 British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research Study No. 134. London: HMSO.

**Skogan, W.G.** (1990). *The Police and Public in England and Wales: a British Crime Survey Report.* Home Office Research Study No. 117. London: HMSO.

**Southgate, P.** (1984). 'Crime and attitude surveys as an aid to policing'. *Research Bulletin,* No. 18. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **OP** 

Southgate, P. and Ekblom, P. (1984). *Contacts between Police and Public: findings from the British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Study No. 77. London: HMSO. **OP** 

# **RACE AND VICTIMISATION**

**Aye Maung, N. and Mirrlees-Black, C**. (1994). *Racially Motivated Crime: a British Crime Survey analysis*. Home Office Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 84. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department. **HO** 

**FitzGerald, M. and Hale, C.** (1996). *Ethnic minorities: victimisation and racial harassment. Findings from the 1988 and 1992 British Crime Surveys.* Home Office Research Study No. 154. London: Home Office **HO** 

**FitzGerald, M. and Hale, C.** (1995). *Ethnic minorities: victimisation and racial harassment from the 1988 and 1992 British Crime Surveys.* Research Findings No. 39. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Percy, A.** (1998). *Ethnicity and victimisation: findings from the 1996 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Statistical Bulletin.6/98 London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Home Office** (1996). 'Racial incidents figures and the British Crime Survey'. Appendix ii.In *Taking Steps: Multi-agency responses to racial attacks and harassment*. The third report of the Inter Departmental Racial Attacks Group. London: Home Office **HO** 

# **REPORTING TO THE POLICE**

**Dowds, L. and Budd, T.** (1997). *Victim and witness intimidation: findings from the British Crime Survey.* Home Office Research and Statistics Directorate. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Mayhew, P.** (1993). 'Reporting crime to the police: the contribution of victimisation surveys'. In, Bilsky, W., Pfeiffer, C. and Wetzels, P. (Eds.), *Criminal Victimisation and Fear of Crime among the Elderly - Survey Research: Past, Present and the Future.* Stuttgart: Enke Verlag.

Shah, R. and Pease, K. (1992). 'Crime, race and reporting to the police'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 31, 192-200.

# **RISKS OF CRIME**

**Aye Maung, N. and Budd, T.** (1997) *Victimisation, concern about crime and disability: findings from the 1994 and 1996 British Crime Surveys.* Home Office Research and Statistics Directorate. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Gottfredson, M.R.** (1984). *Victims of Crime: the dimensions of risk*. Home Office Research Study No. 81. London: HMSO. **OP** 

Hope, T. (1986). 'Council tenants and crime'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 21. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **OP** 

Hough, M. (1990). 'Threats: findings from the British Crime Survey'. *International Review of Victimology*, 1, 169-180.

**Hough, M.** (1987). Crime surveys and crime risks. Paper presented at the Workshop on the design and use of the National crime Survey, Maryland, July 1987.

Hough, M. and Lewis, H. (1989). 'Counting crime and analysing risks: findings from the British Crime Survey'. In, Evans, D.J. and Herbert, D.T., *The Geography of Crime*. London: Routledge.

**Mawby, R.I. and Firkins, V.** (1986). 'The victim/offender relationship and its implications for policies: evidence from the British Crime Survey'. Paper presented to World Congress of Victimology, Orlando, July 1986.

**Maxfield, M.G.** (1987). 'Household composition, routine activity, and victimization: a comparative analysis'. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 3, 301-320.

**Maxfield, M.G.** (1987). 'Lifestyle and routine activity theories of crime: empirical studies of victimization, delinquency and offender decision-making'. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 3, 275-282.

Miethe, T.D. and Meier, R.T. (1990). 'Opportunity, choice and criminal victimization: a test of a theoretical model'. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 27, 243-266.

**Osborn, D., Trickett, A. and Elder, R.** (1992). 'Area characteristics and regional variates as determinants of area property crime levels. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 8, 265-285.

Sampson, R.J. (1988). 'Local friendship ties and community attachment in mass society: a multilevel systemic model. *American Sociological Review*, 53, 766-779.

Sampson, R.J. and Groves, W.B. (1989). 'Community structure and crime: testing social disorganization theory'. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, 774-802.

**Sampson, R.J. and Wooldredge, J.D.** (1987). 'Linking the micro and macro-level dimensions of lifestyle-routine activity and opportunity models of predatory victimization'. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 3, 371-393.

**Tseloni, A., Osborn, D.R. and Pease, K.** (1994). 'The modelling of threats: evidence from the British Crime Survey'. *International Review of Victimology*, 3, 235-261.

**Veysey, B.M. and Messner, S.F.** (1999) 'An elaboration of Sampson and Groves's 'Community Stucture and Crime''. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 36, no 2, 156-174.* 

## **SELF-REPORTED OFFENDING**

Mayhew, P. and Elliott, D. (1990). 'Self-reported offending, victimization, and the British Crime Survey'. *Victims and Violence*, 5, 83-96.

Walker, M. (1983). 'Self-reported crime studies and the British Crime Survey'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 22, (3), 168-176.

# TEENAGERS

**Aye Maung, N.** (1995). Young people, victimisation and the police: British Crime Survey findings on experiences and attitudes of 12 to 15 year olds. Home Office Research Study No. 140. London: HMSO.

**Aye Maung, N.** (1995). Young people, victimisation and the police: British Crime Survey findings on experiences and attitudes of 12 to 15 year olds. Home Office Research Findings No. 17. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department.

# STOLEN GOODS

**Sutton, M.** (1998). *Handling stolen goods and theft: A market reduction approach.* Home Office Research Study No. 178. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Sutton, M.** (1998). *Handling stolen goods and theft: A market reduction approach*. Home Office Research Findings No. 69. London: Home Office. **HO** 

# **VIOLENT CRIME**

**Budd, T.** (1999). Violence at Work: Findings from the British Crime Survey. A Home Office/Health & Safety Executive Occasional Paper. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Davidoff, L. and Dowds, L.** (1989). 'Recent trends in crimes of violence against the person in England and Wales'. *Research Bulletin*, No. 27. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **OP** 

**Davidson, R. N**. (1992). 'Neighbourhood patterns of violence'. Report to the Home Office. Hull: University of Hull.

**Davidson, R.N.** (1989). 'Micro-environments of violence'. In, Evans, D.J, and Herbert, D.T., *The Geography of Crime*. London: Routledge.

Hough, M. (1986). 'Victims of violent crime'. In, Fattah, E. (Ed.), *Reorienting the Justice System: from crime police to victim policy*. London: Macmillan.

**Hough, M. and Sheehy, K.** (1986) 'Incidents of violence: findings from the British Crime Survey'. *Research Bulletin,* No. 20. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. **OP** 

**Mirrlees-Black, C.** (1999). 'Domestic Violence: Findings from a new British Crime Survey selfcompletion questionnaire.' Home Office Research Study No. 191. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Mirrlees-Black, C.** (1995). 'Estimating the extent of domestic violence: findings from 1992 British Crime Survey.' *Research Bulletin*, No. 37. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department **HO** 

**Mirrlees-Black, C. and Byron, C.**(1999). '*Domestic Violence: Findings from the BCS selfcompletion questionnaire.*' Research Findings No. 86. London: Home Office. **HO** 

**Sampson. R.J.** (1987). 'Personal violence by strangers: an extension and test of the opportunity model of predatory victimization'. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 78, 327-356.

### WOMEN AND CRIME

**Buck, W. Chatterton, M. Pease, K.** (1995). *Obscene, threatening and other troublesome telephone Calls to Women in England and Wales: 1982-1992.* Home Office Research and Planning Unit Paper No. 84. London: Home Office Research and Statistics Department. **HO** 

**Mawby, R.I.** (1988). 'Women and crime: from victimization rates to crime experience.' Paper presented to 10th International Congress of Criminology, Hamburg 1988.

Pease, K. (1986). 'Obscene telephone calls in England and Wales'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 24, 275-281.

**Percy, A. and Mayhew, P**.(1997) 'Estimating sexual victimisation in a national crime survey: a new approach'. *Studies on crime and crime prevention.* Vol.6, No. 2

**Widom, C.S. and Maxfield, M.G.** (1984). 'Sex roles and the victimization of women: evidence from the British Crime Survey'. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Society Of Criminology, Cincinnati, November, 1984.

Worrall, A and Pease, K. (1986). 'Personal crimes against women: findings from the 1982 British Crime Survey'. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 25, 118-124.

# GENERAL

British Journal of Criminology. (1984). 'Review symposium'. (The British Crime Survey: first report). *British Journal of Criminology*, 24, 195-205. **OP** 

Hope, T. (1984). 'The first British Crime Survey: current and future research'. *Research Bulletin,* No. 18. London: Home Office Research Unit. **OP** 

**Hough, M**. (1990). 'Crime surveys and the measurement of crime'. In, Bluglass, R. and Bowden, T. (Eds.), *Principles and Practice of Forensic Psychiatry*. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone.

**Hough, M.** (1987). 'Developing a new index of crime: the British Crime Survey'. In, Bradley, U. (Ed.), *Applied Marketing and Social Research*. (2nd Edition). London: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

**Hough, M**. (1986). 'Counting crime: an overview of the British Crime Survey', in Mawby, R. (Ed.), Crime Victims. Proceedings of a Conference in Plymouth, February 1986. Plymouth: Plymouth Polytechnic.

Mayhew, P. and Hough, M. (1991). 'The British Crime Survey: the first ten years'. In, G. Kaiser *et al.* (Eds.), *Victims and Criminal Justice*. Freiburg: Max-Planck Institute for Foreign and International Penal Law. Reprinted in: *Journal of the Market Research Society*, 32, 23-38.

Mayhew, P. and Hough, M. (1988). 'The British Crime Survey: origins and impact'. In, Maguire, M. and Pointing, J. (Eds.), *Victims of Crime: A New Deal*. Milton Keynes: Open University Education Enterprises.

Mayhew, P. and Hough, M. (1983). 'A note on the British Crime Survey. British Journal of Criminology, 23, 394-295.

Mayhew, P. and Hough, M. (1982). 'The British Crime Survey.' *Research Bulletin*, No. 14. London: Home Office Research and Planning Unit. HO

### **TECHNICAL REPORTS**

**SCPR.** (1999) *1998 British Crime Survey Technical Report.* London: Social and Community Planning Research.

**SCPR.** (1996) *1996 British Crime Survey Technical Report.* London: Social and Community Planning Research.

**Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (OPCS).** (1995). *The 1994 British Crime Survey Technical Report.* London: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys.

**SCPR.** (1993). *The 1992 British Crime Survey Technical Report*. London: Social and Community Planning Research.

**NOP/SCPR.** (1989). 1988 British Crime Survey Technical Report. London: NOP/SCPR Market Research Limited.

**NOP Market Research Limited.** (1985). *1984 British Crime Survey Technical Report*. NOP/9888. London: NOP Market Research Limited.

Hall, J.F. and Walker, A.M. (1985). User Manual for the first British Crime Survey, 1982. London: Survey Research Unit, Polytechnic of North London.

Wood, D.S. (1983). *British Crime Survey: Technical Report*. London: Social and Community Planning Research.

# SCOTLAND

Allen, M.A. and Payne, D. (1991). Crime Prevention in Scotland: findings from the 1988 British Crime Survey). A Scottish Office Central Research Unit Paper.

Anderson, S. And Leitch, S. (1996) *Main findings from the 1993 Scottish Crime Survey*. A Scottish Office Central Research Unit Paper. Edinburgh: Scottish Office

**Chambers, G. and Tombs, J.** (Eds.). (1984). *The British Crime Survey: Scotland*. A Scottish Office Social Research Study. Edinburgh: HMSO.

**Curren, J.** (1987). *The Police and the Public in Scotland (The 1982 British Crime Survey)*. Central Research Unit Paper. Edinburgh: Scottish Office.

Hammersley, R. (1994). Use of controlled drugs in Scotland: findings from the 1993 Scottish Crime Survey. A Scottish Office Central Research Unit Paper. Edinburgh: Scottish Office

**Kinsey, K. and Anderson, S**. (1992). *Crime and the Quality of Life: public perceptions and experiences of crime in Scotland*. Central Research Unit Paper. Edinburgh: Scottish Office.

Mayhew, P. and Smith, L.J.F. (1985). `Crime in England and Wales and Scotland: a British Crime Survey comparison'. *British Journal of Criminology*, 25, 148-159.

**Payne, D.** (1992). *Crime in Scotland: findings from the 1988 British Crime Survey.* Central Research Unit Paper. Edinburgh: Scottish Office.

# **COMMERCIAL CRIME**

**Mirrlees-Black, C. and Ross, A.** (1995) *Crime against retail and manufacturing premises: findings* from *the 1994 Commercial Victimisation Survey*. Home Office research Study No. 146 London: Home Office. **HO** 

Mirrlees-Black, C and Ross, A. (1995) *Crime against retail premises in 1993*. Research Findings No. 26 London: Home Office. HO

**Mirrlees-Black, C. and Ross, A.** (1995) *Crime against manufacturing premises in 1993.* Research Findings No. 27. London: Home Office. **HO** 

All publications marked HO are available from the Information Publications Group of the Research, Development and Statistics Directorate:

Room 201 Home Office 50 Queen Anne's Gate London SW1H 9AT

Tel: 020 7273 2084

Or by Internet email <a href="mailto:rds.ho@gtnet.gov.uk">rds.ho@gtnet.gov.uk</a>

RDS Internet site http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/index.htm