

The author(s) shown below used Federal funds provided by the U.S. Department of Justice and prepared the following final report:

Document Title: **A Multi-city Assessment of Juvenile Delinquency in the U.S.: A Continuation and Expansion of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD)**

Author: **Ni He, Ph.D., Ineke Haen Marshall, Ph.D.**

Document No.: **238299**

Date Received: **April 2012**

Award Number: **2006-IJ-CX-0045**

This report has not been published by the U.S. Department of Justice. To provide better customer service, NCJRS has made this Federally-funded grant final report available electronically in addition to traditional paper copies.

<p>Opinions or points of view expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.</p>

NIJ Final Technical Report (4/23/09)

1

Report Title: A Multi-city Assessment of Juvenile Delinquency in the U.S.: A Continuation and Expansion of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD)

Award Number: 2006IJCX0045

Authors: Dr. Ni He (College of Criminal Justice, Northeastern University); Dr. Ineke Haen Marshall (College of Criminal Justice & Department of Sociology, Northeastern University)

Abstract:

This project is a part of the International Self-report Delinquency (ISRD) study. The ISRD study is now in its second sweep, involving more than 30 nations. A major goal for the ISRD study is to provide an ongoing assessment of (1) the prevalence and incidence of youthful offending; (2) the correlates of youthful crime and different explanations of crime; (3) various dimensions of delinquent trajectories; (4) social response to juvenile misbehavior; (5) the relative importance of micro-level (individual), meso-level (school and neighbourhood), and macro-level (city and country) variables for self-report delinquency and its correlates; and (6) the methodological implications for cross-national survey research. Data collection for the U.S. portion of the ISRD-2 study was carried out in the fall of 2006 and spring of 2007. The achieved US sample includes 2,571 7th to 9th grade students from 11 public and 4 private schools in three geographically and socio-economically diverse regions (Northeast, Southwest, and Midwest).

With regard to risk factors for juvenile delinquency, we find truancy to be of major concern (32.8% last month). The rates of alcohol use (41.5% life-time and 14.0% last month) and marijuana/hashish use (16% life-time and 7.9% last month) based on our sample are comparable to those from other major U.S. national studies. Theft (31.2% last year) and bullying (20% last year) are the two major victimization categories according to our study. The prevalence rates of being a victim of robbery/extortion (4.5%) and assault (4.1%) are noticeably much lower. The reporting (to the police) rate of bullying is particularly low (4.9%), compared to the rates for all other victimization categories (varying from 12.6% to 16.1%). Shoplifting (20.7%), group fight (16.0%), vandalism (15.9%) and carrying a weapon (14.3%) captured the highest life-time prevalence rates in all offense categories measured in our study. Similar observations are found in the corresponding last-year offense prevalence measures. Outcomes based on analyses of both attitudinal and behavioral (victimization and offense prevalence) measures across gender, grade level, city size and school types are quite consistent with predictions that could be made based on either relevant theories or previous studies. Students of different immigrant statuses do not differ in self-reported victimization and offending experiences. We also did not find statistically significant difference between genders with regard to age of onset for all variety of offenses. Our multivariate analyses (both OLS and Negative Binomial regressions) lend support to the theoretical relationships derived from social bonding, self-control, and social learning theories.

Findings included in the current report are based on U.S. ISRD-2 data only. The anticipated release of the merged cross-national ISRD-2 data will not only provide us an opportunity to compare our domestic findings with those of the other nations, it will also allow multi-level cross-national analyses.

Table of Contents

Abstract	1
Executive Summary	6
Introduction	14
Research Design and Methods	24
Study Results	32
Discussion and Conclusions	43
Dissemination of Research Findings	44
References	46

Attachments

ISRD-2 US Questionnaire

ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables

<i>Table 1:</i>	Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Alcohol and Soft Drug Use
<i>Table 2:</i>	Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Risk Factors
<i>Table 3:</i>	Last Year Prevalence of Victimization and Reporting to the Police
<i>Table 4:</i>	Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence of Offences
<i>Table 5:</i>	Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Alcohol and Soft Drug Use (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample)
<i>Table 6:</i>	Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Risk Factors (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample)
<i>Table 7:</i>	Last Year Prevalence of Victimization and Reporting to the Police (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample)

Table 8: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence (Aggregated Offences) (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (*Illustrated in Figures 1-2*)

Table 9: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Risk Factors by Size of City/Town

Table 10: Last Year Prevalence of Victimization and Reporting to the Police by Size of City/Town

Table 11: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence (Aggregated Offences) by Size of City/Town (*Illustrated in Figures 3-4*)

Addendum

Table A: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample)

Table B: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence by Size of City/Town

Table C: Life Time and Last Month Alcohol Prevalence: ISRD-2, Monitoring the Future (MTF), and Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS)

Table D: Life Time and Last Month Drug Use Prevalence ISRD-2, Monitoring the Future (MTF), and Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS)

USA Extra Tables I-VIII

Table I U.S. Sample Characteristics

Table II Characteristics of Large, Medium and Small US ISRD-2 City Samples

Table III Victimization and Offense: Life-time Prevalence by Gender, Grade level, City Size, and School Type

Table IV T-tests and ANOVA Tests of Attitudinal and Behavioral Measures by Gender, Grade Level, City Size and School Type

Table V Attitudinal, Socio-demographic and Behavioral (Life-time) Measures by Immigrant Status

Table VI Age of Onset for Individual Behavioral Measures by Gender

<i>Table VII</i>	OLS Regression Analyses Using Life-time and Last-year Versatility as DVs	5
------------------	--	---

<i>Table VIII</i>	Negative Binomial Regression Analyses Using Life-time and Last-year Versatility as DVs	
-------------------	--	--

ISRD-2 US Figures 1-6

Figure 1: Life-time Prevalence by City Size (ISRD-2 Table 8)

Figure 2: Last-year Prevalence by City Size (ISRD-2 Table 8)

Figure 3: Life-time Prevalence by City Size (ISRD-2 Table 11)

Figure 4: Last-year Prevalence by City Size (ISRD-2 Table 11)

Figure 5: Life-time Versatility Distribution

Figure 6: Last-year Versatility Distribution

Parental Consent Forms

Executive Summary

Overview of International Self-report Delinquency (ISRD) Study

This study builds and expands upon the experiences of the first large scale International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD-1) on the prevalence, incidence and correlates of youth crime conducted in 1991-1992 in 12 European countries and the U.S. The current study (ISRD-2) is a part of an international collaborative effort to repeat the ISRD-1 in more than 30 countries, including the United States in 2006-2008. The NIJ funding supported the U.S. portion of the ISRD-2. The following major objectives are to be independently assessed in each participating country and jointly analyzed through pooled cross-national survey data. They include: (1) to estimate the prevalence and incidence of youthful offending; (2) to examine the correlates of youthful crime and different explanations of crime; (3) to describe the dimensions of delinquent trajectories; (4) to examine the social response to juvenile misbehavior; (5) to assess the relative importance of micro-level (individual), meso-level (school and neighbourhood), and macro-level (city and country) variables for self-report delinquency and its correlates; (6) to analyze the methodological implications in cross-national survey research; and (7) to develop repeat studies to measure trends in youth delinquent behavior over time.

The ISRD-2 is explicitly comparative by design. More than 30 participating countries use common standardized data collection instruments and procedures, comparable sampling designs, and work closely together in data management and analysis. In each country, a large city or metropolitan area, a mid-size city, and a cluster of small towns are selected. The 7th to 9th grade classrooms in each of these cities/towns provide the sampling frames for the survey of (minimally) 2,100 students. A stratified multi-stage sampling procedure is applied to sites selected for the study whenever appropriate. The method of administration is self-administered pencil and paper questionnaire completed in a classroom setting. In addition to the self-report individual level data (including student assessment of neighborhood and school), city and national level indicators are collected and will be used in the multi-level cross-national analyses.

The ISRD-2 study offers the benefits of both standardized methodology and flexibility of culture-specific investigations. First, the cross-national comparative design survey will allow us to assess both the convergence and the divergence of self-reported delinquency in more than 30 nations. This design will help us to look beyond methodology and focus more on the substantive cross-national differences in the various dimensions of juvenile offending, victimization and on the relative impact of family, school, and social structure. Second, through cross-cultural comparisons, we will acquire more knowledge about the stable correlates of crime. The most significant correlates of juvenile delinquency will be identified and implications for more effective intervention strategies will be drawn. Third, the current study will pave the way for repeated studies in the future, which will enable us to measure international trends in youth delinquent behavior over time. And lastly, the research results will be disseminated to a wider

audience beyond the academic circle, including, but not limited to the national governments, the Council of Europe and the United Nations-related research institutes

US ISRD Research Design

The US ISRD study followed the ISRD2 city-based sampling protocol as much as possible, but – in view of some of the criteria listed above – some modifications from the standardized design had to be made. In spite of these necessary adjustments, the final sample still may be considered at least somewhat representative of the US youth (more discussions on limitations and comparisons of our results with those from well-known US national studies are included in later section of this report). In this context, it is important to emphasize that the primary ambition of the US component of the ISRD2 study was to test theoretical correlates of offending and victimization (through a socio-economically and geographically diverse sample), rather than to provide exact national estimates of prevalence and incidence, which makes the representativeness of the sample of lesser importance. The initial sample design for the United States was a city-based, purposeful sampling plan, requiring the selection of one large city, one medium-sized city, and three small towns. We selected the initial research sites based on geographic location representing different levels of socio-economic development (a large city in the Southwest (Texas), a medium city in the Midwest (Illinois), and a cluster of small towns in the Northeast (Massachusetts and New Hampshire) and logistic considerations (i.e. presumed access to schools and available research assistance). Because of refusal to participate by some of the originally selected school districts, the medium-sized city and small towns were replaced by closely matched and comparable selections in the same geographic area and a revised sampling plan was developed (including two rather than three small towns in the Northeast region). Because of some school districts' concerns about privacy and publicity and per protocol of the ISRD study, we will not specify the names of the cities and towns selected, nor will we reveal the identities of the individual participating schools.

We need to point out that the large Southwestern city proved the most challenging – but also the most interesting - research site. In order to gain access to the large Southwestern city, we went through lengthy reviews by each of the several school districts Institutional Review Boards (consisting of school administrators, teachers, community members and parents), and ultimately we were denied access in all but one of its school districts. This particular school district serves a predominantly Hispanic minority population and is one of the poorest school districts in the city. Although not ideal from a representativeness perspective, we were excited to be able to include this 'at risk' Hispanic youth population – a group which has not received sufficient attention from researchers in this country. We followed a modified stratified random sampling approach of 7th to 9th grade classrooms in this school district, and we ultimately were able to obtain a total of 524 useable questionnaires, at considerable effort and expense. One factor that made the research in this particular city very time-consuming and expensive was the active parental consent required by the school district. It proved to be very difficult to obtain the signed

parental consent forms from the students' parents, for a diversity of reasons (e.g. students did not give the form to the parent, the parents could not read English, and so on). Ultimately, the response rate from the selected school district in the large Southwestern city was 30.8 percent. The precise impact of the low response rate in our large city sample is difficult to assess. However, it's worth noting that prior research found different rates of sample attrition associated with active parental consent. Researchers argue that "higher risk" students are less likely to be included in active consent sample than in passive consent sample (Eaton et al., 2004; Esbensen et al., 1999; Ji et al., 2004; Unger et al., 2004).

The medium Midwestern city and the two small Northeastern towns required passive (i.e. parents only had to respond if they did not want their child to participate), rather than active parental consent, resulting in a higher participation rate (respectively 88.9%, 91.7% and 81.5%). Noteworthy is that the largest source of non-response in the US ISRD-2 was refusal by the originally selected school districts to allow access to their students, followed by the non-response resulting from the (active) parental consent procedures. The overall survey completion rate of students with parental consent was quite high with 93.4%. A response rate of 63.6% was achieved for all students sampled regardless of the types of parental consent. Overall, our achieved US sample (n=2,571) included students from 11 public schools from three geographically diverse regions (Southwest, Midwest, and Northeast), 3 private parochial schools (Northeast and Midwest), and one private non-parochial school (Midwest). The standardized English paper and pencil version of the questionnaire was used for the US ISRD-2 study. No changes were made to the design or content of the original ISRD questionnaire, nor were there any specific language problems. The survey instrument itself was not translated into other languages, although in the large Southwestern city, research assistants and site coordinators helped some students by translating questions for them. There were no changes to response options on the questionnaire, and no changes were made to the order of questions. No additional country-specific questions were included on the questionnaire.

Because of the considerable problems encountered in drawing the sample, and the adjustments that were needed to obtain a large enough number of completed questionnaires, before analyzing the findings, we closely examined the characteristics of the achieved ISRD2 US sample. Major sample characteristics can be summarized as follows: (1) there is a slight overrepresentation of males (52.3%). The sample is also slightly biased in the direction of older students (only 34.1% of the sample consists of 12-13 year olds, mean age is almost 14). In view of the age bias, it is not surprising that there is an overrepresentation of 9th graders (almost half, instead of one-third); (2) over one-fifth of the sample consists of private school students, which is larger than the national proportion of students who attend private schools (about 10%); (3) only one-fifth of the final sample comes from a large city, with about equal proportions drawn from medium and small towns (39.4% and 40.1% respectively). Another possibly confounding factor is that almost the entire large city sample is Hispanic, which complicates efforts to disentangle the effects of

city size and ethnicity. The selected school district in the large city was 97% Hispanic (compared to 57.5% in the other school districts in the selected large city). Making the picture even more complicated, 94.5% of the families in the sampled large city school district are considered ‘disadvantaged’ (compared to 56.9% in the other school districts of the large city). Almost 20% of the students in the large city school district are bilingual (use English as a second language) (compared to 7.5% in the other school districts of that city). The large city school district also had a lower graduation rate (71.9% compared to 86.7% of the large city). Thus, the large city subsample incorporates a mixture of poverty and immigration status, and as such is distinctly different from the small and medium size city samples.

Key US ISRD-2 Findings

Gender: As expected, we do find several statistically significant gender differences in behavioral measures. Males are more likely than females to have been the victim of robbery (5.4% vs. 3.6%), and theft (34.1% vs. 28.1%). No gender differences appear to exist with regard to being bullied or assaulted. Boys are more likely to vandalize (20.6% vs. 11.0%), to participate in a ‘frequent violent offenses’ [group fight and/or carry a weapon (28.5% vs. 15.0%)], in ‘rare violent offenses’ [robbery, purse snatching, assault (9.2% vs. 5.5%)], and ‘rare property offenses’ [burglary, bike or car theft, car break (12.0% vs. 6.4%)]. On the other hand, boys and girls appear equally likely to report having shoplifted (about one-fifth each). There are no gender differences with regard to self-reported soft drug use, hard drug use, alcohol use. Girls and boys are not different in their likelihood of having been involved in risky behavior. Generally speaking, these observations are not out of line with general expectations drawn from existing research and delinquency theory. An interesting finding is that there are no statistically significant gender differences between the age of onset for the different delinquency measures. Out of the ten attitudinal measures included in this study, statistically significant gender differences can be found in six. Although they report less family bonding and more negative life event, the female students in our sample observe greater level of school bonding and less extent of perceived neighborhood disorganization. They also report higher level of self control and report less pro-violence attitudes compared to their male counterparts.

Grade: 7th, 8th and 9th graders in our sample report similar (life-time) levels of having been the victim of a robbery/extortion and assault (between 3.2 and 5.0%). Ninth graders report a higher level of theft victimization (34.8%), but they are less likely to have been bullied (18.2% versus 19.9% for 7th grade and 23.6% for 8th graders). The findings with respect to offending are harder to interpret. We would expect that higher grades would tend to have higher prevalence of self-reported offending: this is typically not the case here. However, 9th graders do have a higher level of life-time soft drug use (17.8% vs. 12.3% and 16.0%), alcohol use (47.7% vs. 31.1% and 40.7%) and risky behavior (14.2% vs. 7.4% and 10.9%). On the other hand, 8th graders in our sample report the highest lifetime prevalence hard drug use (4.8% vs. 2.1% and 3.9%). Analyses with regard to attitudinal measures reveal that, with the exception of “neighborhood collective

efficacy”, statistically significant differences across different grades are observed. The pattern of such differences, however, can be difficult to discern without taking into consideration the impact of age.

City Size: City size consistently is related to offending, drug and alcohol use, and risky behavior: large city youth report the higher levels, followed by the medium size city sample, with the small town youth reporting the lowest levels. The picture with regard to victimization is less clear cut: our medium size city sample report the highest levels of being victimized by theft (35.1%) and robbery (5.8%), whereas there are no significant differences with regard to assault and bullying. More consistent results from analyses of attitudinal measures by city size are found. With the exception of “school bonding” variable, statistically significant differences can be found in all attitudinal measures across large, medium and small city groups. The contrasts between small and large city youth are particularly evident in the average measures of the following variables: family affluence, school crime, neighborhood collective efficacy, neighborhood disorganization, and pro-violence attitude. These findings are quite consistent with relevant theoretical predictions.

School Type: It is quite clear and consistent that public school students report higher levels of involvement in risky behavior, alcohol and drugs, and a variety of delinquent behavior. They also report a greater level of being the victims of robbery/extortion (5.3% vs. 2.0%). There is no statistical significant difference between public and private students with regard to other types of victimization, i.e., assault, theft and bullying.

Immigrant Status and Delinquency: Our large city sample includes a large proportion of immigrant youth, is less affluent, and more likely to include youth who speak a language other than English at home. In order to disentangle these potentially confounding effects, we did a preliminary analysis of the impact of immigrant status on self-reported delinquency. Hispanics are the fastest growing minority group according to the 2000 US Census report, a group which has notoriously been under-examined by US criminologists. The US ISRD-2 sample – unlike the bulk of other American delinquency studies – does not include data on ‘race’ (i.e. Black, White, Asian, Native American and so on), but rather focuses on ‘immigration status’ as a primary factor of interest. It is commonly thought that immigrants may differ significantly from the native population in attitudes, socio-demographic variables, victimization experiences and – last but not least – offending. Our study results suggest that – at least in the current ISRD-2 sample – immigrant youth do not differ very much from their native counterparts.

The two groups do not differ significantly with regard to their attitudes toward school (i.e. school bonding and perceived level of school crime), levels of self control, or pro-violent attitude. There are no significant differences with respect to their bond to the neighborhood and the perceived level of neighborhood disorganization, although the immigrant youth report a lower level of neighborhood collective efficacy. Immigrant youth in our sample report lower level of

family affluence but less negative life experiences. Immigrant youth report a somewhat higher level of family bonding (79.11 vs. 77.05). Of course, immigrant youth are much more likely than native youth to speak a language other than English at home (37.7%). Also, immigrant youth report a higher level of perceived discrimination: Although 61.4% indicate to have ‘never’ been treated badly based on skin color, language or religion, 23.1% answered ‘sometimes or often’. It should be noted that 14% of the responses of native youth also fall in that category. Nonetheless, immigrant and native youth do not differ significantly with regard to their victimization experiences nor do immigrant youth report higher (or lower) levels of offending.

Correlates of Versatility: Results of Exploratory Multivariate Analysis: The mostly descriptive (and simple bivariate hypothesis testing) analysis thus far has provided a number of reasonable insights into the attitudes and behaviors of the ISRD-2 sample. It also has become clear that a number of our variables are highly interrelated and most likely confound the results. The logical next step requires multivariate analysis; we would like to report on the preliminary results of one such effort. Rather than using simple life-time or last year prevalence measures (which are quite informative when presenting initial descriptive results), there is strong support for employing a versatility measure of delinquency instead. We present the results of baseline OLS regression analysis, using both life-time and last-year versatility measures as dependent variables.

The regression analysis includes the ‘typical’ predictors commonly used in delinquency research: measures related to family (bonding), social class (family affluence), school (bonding, school crime), neighborhood (bonding, collective efficacy, and disorganization), negative life events, self control, and pro-violent attitude. In addition, the main demographic variables of gender, family structure, grade, school type, and city size were included, as was immigration status. Our analyses show several noteworthy results. First, both life-time and last-year versatility measures share almost all of the theoretical predictors. The two exceptions are (1) the perceived level of school crime, which is not statistically significant for the life-time versatility measure; and (2) family affluence, which is not statistically significant for the last-year versatility measure. Second, all the significant theoretical predictors vary in the expected direction. Third, the amount of explained variance is quite respectable (R square .294 – life-time and .247 for last year). Fourth, immigrant status is not related to delinquency, holding other factors constant, which confirms our initial observations discussed in the preceding section. Fifth, low self-control appears to be related to delinquency, controlling for a host of other factors (supporting Gottfredson and Hirschi’s general theory of crime). Sixth, pro-violent attitudes appear to play a role in self-reported delinquency, supporting the importance of cultural attitudes as delinquency precursors. Seventh, gender, city size and school type appear to remain significant predictors, even after controlling for the effects of major theoretical predictors and other demographic factors.

In spite of the informative findings presented above, closer observation of the distributions of both the life-time and last-year versatility measures indicates a potential problem for their

inclusion as dependent variables in OLS regression analyses. Both of these dependent variables are not normally distributed (with the majority cases clustered at the value of zero), thus violating a key OLS regression assumption. Consistent to the approach widely used by researchers in similar circumstances, we considered the application of (zero inflated) negative binomial regression analysis, including the same set of attitudinal and demographic variables in the model. Interestingly, the key theoretical findings from earlier OLS analyses remain largely unchanged. There are two exceptions, however: (1) family affluence is no longer a predictor for either one of the versatility measures; and (2) family bonding is no longer a statistically significant predictor for last-year versatility measure. Similar core findings from both types of multivariate analyses give credence to the robustness of the theoretical relationships under investigation. Future analyses based on the US data will include different dependent variables and consider interactive effects in the statistical models.

Summary and Conclusion

Data collection for the U.S. portion of the ISRD-2 study was carried out in the fall of 2006 and spring of 2007 in four states, five cities and fifteen middle and high schools. Following the ISRD-2 protocol, we included one large city sample, one medium size city sample and a sample from a cluster of small townships. The geographic areas represented in the sample are diverse, from Northeast to Midwest to Southwest. A total of 4,045 seventh to ninth grade school youth was included in the sampling frame. We received a total of 2,571 returned questionnaires, a participation rate of 63.6%. As stated earlier in the methodology section, we had to make certain modifications to the originally proposed sampling plan. Parental consent and overall participation rates are generally much lower and vary significantly across classrooms in schools that require active parental consent. Our large city sample is based entirely on one school district and it is significantly biased towards including mostly low income Hispanic students. The rest of the schools included in the US ISRD-2 sample allow passive parental consent. Therefore, we are able to achieve very high parental consent and high overall participation rates from schools in both medium and small cities.

In the city-based ISRD-2 sampling design, our primary goal is not to achieve a nationally representative sample for the U.S. To facilitate cross-national comparison, the ISRD-2 protocol calls for even distribution of the sample across grades and cities of varying size. Our achieved sample includes disproportionately higher percentages of 9th grade students (49.8%) and a smaller sample size from the large city (20.5%). Proper sample weights have been created and can be applied for future analysis. In spite of the caveats, our sample is unique and could be very valuable in several ways. First, our sample covers multiple states, cities, schools and grades. This outcome is becoming increasingly more difficult to achieve for U.S. criminologists. The contrast in socio-economic statuses represented by these sites is desirable in a limited city-based sample. Second, we have a sizeable number of private school students (21.9%) and recent

immigrants (17.4% 1st and 2nd generation immigrants) in our sample. Both characteristics are not commonly seen but complimentary to existing US delinquency literature. Third, we have a Hispanic student sample from a large city, something that is rarely achieved in U.S. based delinquency studies. These unique characteristics of our sample afford us multiple dimensions for in-depth investigations.

With regard to risk factors for juvenile delinquency, we find truancy to be of major concern (32.8% last month). The rates of alcohol use (41.5% life-time and 14.0% last month) and marijuana/hashish use (16% life-time and 7.9% last month) based on our sample are comparable to those from other U.S. studies. Theft (31.2% last year) and bullying (20% last year) are the two major victimization categories according to our study. The prevalence rates of being a victim of robbery/extortion (4.5%) and assault (4.1%) are noticeably much lower. It's worth mentioning that the reporting (to the police) rate of bullying is particularly low (4.9%), compared to the rates for all other victimization categories (from 12.6% to 16.1%). Shoplifting (20.7%), group fight (16.0%), vandalism (15.9%) and carrying a weapon (14.3%) captured the highest life-time prevalence rates in all offense categories measured in our study. Similar observations are found in the corresponding last-year offense prevalence measures.

Important observations are documented in tables (see Tables IV) that explore both attitudinal and behavioral (victimization and offense prevalence) measures across gender, grade level, city size and school type in bivariate analyses. Overall, these observations are quite consistent with predictions that could be made based on either theory or previous studies. A few notable contrasts can be found in attitudinal and socio-demographic indicators. For example, native students report greater family affluence and neighborhood collective efficacy but also more negative life events. Students of recent immigrant status report higher level of family bonding but also more experience of being discriminated against. In spite of all these contrasts, students of different immigrant statuses do not differ in self-reported victimization and offending experiences. We also did not find statistically significant differences between genders with regard to age of onset for all varieties of offenses. Our multivariate analyses (both OLS and Negative Binomial regressions) lend support to the theoretical relationships derived from social bonding, self-control, and social learning theories. Findings included in the current report are based on U.S. ISRD-2 data only. The anticipated release of the merged cross-national ISRD-2 data set will not only provide us an opportunity to compare our domestic findings with those of the other nations, it will also allow multi-level cross-national analyses.

Introduction

14

Since the early seventies, there has been a growing interest in using the self-report method as a means of obtaining measures of juvenile misbehavior. The self-report method has now gained widespread use among researchers, both in the United States and abroad (Junger-Tas and Marshall, 1999; Klein, 1989; Thornberry and Krohn, 2000). Prompted by the need to examine the limitations and contributions of self-report methodology, researchers from fifteen industrialized countries gathered in 1988 in The Netherlands to participate in the NATO Advanced Research Workshop on Self-Report Methodology in Criminological Research. At this conference, researchers worked to resolve the many technical and policy-relevant issues of developing a suitable cross-national instrument that would avoid the many problems of using data of widely different content and quality from official agencies. The results were reported in the NATO-sponsored book, *Cross-National Research in Self-Reported Crime and Delinquency* (Klein, 1989). It was during the 1988 NATO workshop that the idea of developing the large scale International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD) was proposed. The Dutch Research and Documentation Center took the initiative to invite researchers of eleven countries to participate in this comparative trial survey (ISRD-1). The purpose of the ISRD-1 project was (1) to examine cross-national variability in patterns of correlates of self-reported delinquent behaviour; (2) to obtain measures of the relative rank ordering of prevalence of different types of youthful misbehaviour in industrialized countries; and (3) to contribute to the methodological development of the self-report method. After conducting several workshops and pilot studies in 1990, researchers reached an agreement on a basic core instrument and on basic methodological requirements for achieving comparability. Data collection took place in 1991 and 1992 in three Anglo-Saxon countries (Northern Ireland, England and Wales, and the USA), five countries from North-West Europe (The Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, Switzerland, Finland), and three countries from Southern Europe (Italy, Spain, Portugal). The first report with (mostly descriptive) findings for the participating countries was published in 1994 (Junger-Tas et al., 1994). More advanced multivariate analyses and theoretical interpretations using the merged comparative data file are presented in the second volume, published in November 2003 (Junger-Tas et al., 2003). The ISRD-2 project is considered a continuation and expansion of ISRD-1.

Over the past decade, the ISRD-1 study has received considerable attention from both American and European researchers. In addition to national reports (see for example, Bowling et al., 1994 for the UK), there was an EU-funded comparative report, focusing on Spain, the U.K., and the Netherlands (Barberet et al., 2000). Several panels focusing on the ISRD-1 have been organized at criminological research conferences (e.g., American Society of Criminology Annual Conferences in 1992, 1994, and 1999). The ISRD-1 core instrument has been used in subsequent surveys in several countries (e.g., Finland, the Netherlands, the US, Belgium, Germany). The validity and reliability of the ISRD-1 core questionnaire has been examined and found to be quite satisfactory (Killias, 1989; Zhang et al., 2000; Bruinsma, 1994; Marshall and Webb, 1990;

1994). In the United Nations' *Global Report on Crime and Justice* (Newman, 1999), the ISRD is discussed as a viable alternative method of collecting internationally useful data on juvenile offending (see also Neapolitan, 1997 and Howard et al., 2000). The unique contribution of the ISRD-1 is also illustrated by the fact that the comprehensive report on youth violence by the U.S. Surgeon General (2001) utilizes the results of the ISRD-1 to compare the violent behaviour of U.S. youth with their European counterparts (US Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Surgeon General, Youth Violence: A Report of the Surgeon General, 2001, Table 2-1, Chapter 2, http://www.mentalhealth.org/youthviolence/surgeongeneral/SG_Site/Summary.asp). The many interesting outcomes of the ISRD-1, as well as the lessons learned with respect to the methodology of comparative self-report measurement, have prompted some of the original researchers of the ISRD to take the initiative to repeat the ISRD-1 survey, with the ambition to start a series of such surveys. The second ISRD study includes considerably more countries than the first, in particular countries from Eastern and Central Europe. More than 30 countries have participated in ISRD-2¹. The ISRD-2 survey maintains the core set of questions from the ISRD-1, but it expands considerably to include questions on victimization experiences (including bullying), minority status, family variables, school variables, variables related to lifestyle and leisure, a self-control scale (Grasmick, et al., 1993), questions about major life events, attitudes towards violence, and questions about the school and neighbourhood.

Our current study constitutes the US portion of the ISRD-2. The US study – although part of the larger international ISRD-2 project - stands on its own and as such will contribute to the American body of knowledge about juvenile delinquency. Specifically, the first five objectives of the project are:

1. To describe the prevalence and incidence of youthful offending and victimization among 7th to 9th graders in the U.S.
2. To obtain more knowledge about correlates of delinquency and victimization among 7th to 9th graders in the US and to test different explanations of crime (social bonding, self control, life style, and routine activities).
3. To describe selected dimensions of delinquent trajectories among 7th to 9th graders in the US (i.e., age of onset, and versatility).
4. To examine the social response to juvenile misbehavior among 7th to 9th graders in the U.S.

¹ Armenia, Aruba, Austria, Belgium, Bosnia, Canada, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, N. Ireland, Norway, Poland, Russia, Scotland, Slovenia, Spain, Surinam, Sweden, Switzerland, United States, and Venezuela.

5. To examine the importance of individual-level characteristics, school and neighborhood context, as well as city-context for 7th to 9th graders' self-reported misbehaviour and victimization

16

In addition, however, there is the value-added component of the US study being part of a large international collaborative effort, which allows comparison of the American data with comparable European data on youthful offending and victimization. Thus, the second set of objectives of the project is:

6. To obtain measures of cross-national variability in the prevalence and incidence of different types of juvenile delinquency and victimization among 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
7. To obtain internationally comparable correlates of youthful misbehaviour and victimization and probe for national differences in the patterns of correlation among 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
8. To describe cross-national variability in selected dimensions of delinquent trajectories of 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
9. To describe cross-national differences in the importance of minority status with respect to self-reported offending and victimization patterns among 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
10. To describe cross-national variability in social response to offending by 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
11. To assess the relative importance of micro-level (individual), meso-level (school and neighborhood), and macro-level (city and country) variables for self-reported delinquency and its correlates among 7th to 9th graders in 30+ countries.
12. To advance understanding of the methodological issues involved in conducting cross-national survey research.
13. To pave the way to develop repeat studies to measure trends in youth delinquent behavior and victimization over time in a number of European and US 'ISRD' cities.

Literature Review

Delinquent behavior among adolescents poses a major problem in all Western countries; indeed, this age group accounts for the bulk of all street crime. Youth crime appears to be a pressing problem, both in the USA and in Europe (The Surgeon General, 2001; National Institute of Justice, 1998). Monitoring crime trends, which may allow the development of 'early warning systems' aimed at prevention, is becoming one of the priorities in many countries. Because of

growing sophistication in crime monitoring, we now know more than ever before about national and international crime trends. Although serious problems of cross-national measurement of crime remain (Pakes, 2004; Nelken, 2002; Pudney et al., 2000; Farrington, 1996; Joutsen et al., 1994), tremendous improvements have been made in recent years. Beginning in 1988, the International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) has collected victimization data from a large number of countries (van Dijk et al., 1990; van Dijk and Mayhew, 1992; Alvazzi del Frate et al., 1993; Zvekic and Alvazzi del Frate, 1995; Alvazzi del Frate, 1998; Alvazzi del Frate et al., 2000; Mayhew and van Dijk, 1997; Zvekic, 1998; van Kesteren et al., 2000; Nieuwbeerta, 2002). A total of five “sweeps” of the ICVS (1989, 1992, 1996, 2000 and 2004/2005) have been conducted so far; A sixth ‘sweep’ is scheduled for the spring of 2009. Efforts are also ongoing to improve the accuracy and usefulness of international crime statistics and to confront their drawbacks of underreporting and non-standard indicators (e.g., Killias, 2003, Kangaspunta et al., 1998). Because of more plentiful data sources both nationally and internationally, coupled with a growing understanding of the strengths and limitations of different measures of crime, we are now better able to recognize international divergences and convergences in trends (e.g., Junger-Tas, 1996; Lynch, 1995a, 1995b; Mayhew and Van Dijk 1997; Marshall 1996; Howard, Newman and Pridemore, 2000; Neapolitan 1997; Marshall and Block 2004; Farrington, Langan and Tonry, 2004)

Comparative researchers have long argued that cross-national research provides a very useful method for generating, testing, and further developing sociological theories (Kohn, 1989). A limited number of theoretical variables were included in the core instrument used in ISRD-1 study. For example, questions were adopted based on social bonding theory (Hirschi, 1969) to measure school performance, school commitment, work commitment, bond with parents, supervision by parents, bond with friends, and organized leisure and sports participation. Some participants of the ISRD-1 have since called for expansion of theoretical perspectives to be included in the new round of ISRD surveys (Klein, 1994). The following review succinctly highlights the theoretical and other important items included in the ISRD-2 study.

Theoretical Correlates of Juvenile Delinquency

Hirschi’s (1969) social bonding theory is one of the most frequently discussed and tested of all theories in criminology (Stitt and Giacomassi, 1992). It has occupied a central place in criminology (Akers and Sellers, 2004) and is endorsed by higher proportions of academic criminologists than any other theory (Ellis and Walsh, 1999). Hirschi (1969) argues that delinquent acts are due to weakened or broken individual bonds to society. Empirical research conducted in the past three decades is generally supportive of Hirschi’s social bonding theory, although not without caution (e.g., Warr, 2002; Junger-Tas, 1992, Jensen and Brownfield, 1983). The ISRD-2 study includes the traditional measures – of family, school, friends, and leisure - used to test social control theory.

In a more recent development, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) anchor their so-called “general theory” of crime and deviance on the major concept of self-control. Low self-control is predictive not only of crime but also of other types of analogous behaviors (e.g., excessive smoking, drinking). Low self-control is assumed to be due largely to ineffective or incomplete socialization in the child rearing process. Over the past several years, numerous researchers have utilized a ‘self control scale’ developed by Grasmick et al. (1993) to test this theory. Although empirical research has been generally supportive of the self-control theory, researchers have yet to find substantial support for the notion befitting self-control theory as a true general theory of crime (Pratt and Cullen, 2000). The ISRD-2 study includes an adaptation of the Grasmick et al. self-control scale.

Cohen and Felson’s (1979) routine activities theory places criminal victimization into an interrelated situational context. Three main categories of variables identified by Cohen and Felson are: 1) motivated offenders; 2) suitable targets; and 3) lack of capable guardianship. They argue that these three categories of variables affect the likelihood of victimization due to “direct-contact predatory violations.” (Cohen and Felson, 1979:589). Cohen and associates (1981) further elaborate the routine activities theory and present a more formalized version called “opportunity” theory. Theoretical elements predictive of criminal victimization include exposure, proximity, guardianship, and target attractiveness. Although findings tend to be supportive of most theoretical predictions according to the opportunity theory, research has yet to test the full models of routine activities and opportunity theories. Thus, the empirical validity of these theories has not been fully established (Akers and Seller, 2004). The ISRD-2 questionnaire includes questions which may be used to test routine activity theory (e.g., leisure time activities, presence of adults).

School and neighborhood characteristics are also relevant correlates of juvenile offending and victimization. Researchers have found that the likelihood of offending through delinquent peer association and unsupervised social activities is largely conditioned upon environmental factors, such as neighborhood and school characteristics. The same factors, in turn, are tied to the risk of victimization as well (Gottfredson, 1984; Sampson and Lauritsen, 1990; Lauritsen et al., 1991). Recent criminological scholarship looks into the interrelationships between student bonding, communal school organization, and school disorder. Researchers suggest that interventions that strengthen the communal organization of the school (e.g., establishing supportive and collaborative relations and setting common goals and norms) could increase student bonding, and lead to reductions in delinquency and victimization (Payne et al., 2003:773). The ISRD-2 questionnaire includes measures of school and neighborhood context.

Group-based Offending and Juvenile Gangs

One of the major themes in juvenile delinquency theory and research is the role of friends and the collective nature of much delinquent behavior. The study of gangs has a long tradition in the

United States, tracing its roots to Frederick Thrasher (1927) Herbert Asbury (1928). Such study has focused on theory development (Cohen, 1955; Cloward and Ohlin, 1960; Short and Strodtbeck, 1974), ethnographic description (Hagedorn, 1988; Vigil, 1988; Decker and Van Winkel, 1996) or policy and program evaluation (Klein, 1971; Klein and Maxson, 2006; Decker, 2003). An important reason for public concern about gangs is their role in facilitating criminal involvement. American research shows that gang members are arrested more often than their non-gang peers (Howell, 1994) and self-report more delinquent than non-gang youth (Esbensen & Huizinga, 1993). The exact nature of a youth gang and the role of gangs as a context for offending and victimization remain as yet largely unresolved. There is a growing interest in the degree to which American-style youth groups and gangs exist in other parts of the world. Leading gang-researcher Klein has created the Eurogang Working Group,

(<http://www.umsl.edu/~ccj/eurogang/euroganghome.htm>), a group of European and US scholars has worked for more than a decade on promoting a common set of definitions and methodologies for the comparative, cross-national study of gangs. This group has now produced two edited volumes (Klein, Kerner, Maxson and Weitekamp, 2001; Decker and Weerman, 2005) about gangs in twelve separate European nations. The ISRD-2 study has agreed to include the core gang questions of the Eurogang in the ISRD-2 questionnaire (see questions 27-33); these data will be analyzed in collaboration with the Eurogang research group.

Offending and Victimization

Research has suggested that juvenile offending and victimization are often closely related (e.g., Mustaine and Tewksbury, 1998; Jensen and Brownfield, 1986). In particular, the delinquent lifestyle is viewed as a strong indicator of both offending and victimization. For example, research based on National Youth Survey (NYS, now National Youth Survey-Family Study) suggests that the rate of victimization is highest among African Americans, males, and frequent offenders (Lauritsen et al., 1991). Other studies also confirm that violent juvenile offenders are often victims of violence themselves (Esbensen and Huizinga, 1991; Sampson and Lauritsen, 1990, 1994; Huizinga and Jakob-Chen, 1998). Recently, bullying (in particular in school settings) has been proposed as a significant concern – both because of its detrimental effects on the victims and because bullying is viewed as a precursor to more serious delinquent behavior (Dake, Price and Telljohann, 2003; Solberg and Olwens, 2003; Unnever, Colvin and Cullen, 2004). The current ISRD-2 study includes questions to directly assess victimization experiences (including bullying) of the respondents.

Immigration, Ethnicity, and Minority Status and Delinquency

Minorities – based on race, ethnicity or nationality - are a group of growing importance in the studies of crime and criminal justice (Tonry, 1997; Marshall, 1997; Phillips and Bowling, 2002). This is a controversial, much debated topic, often fraught with misconceptions. A key question in the discourse about ethnicity, migrants, and crime - in both Europe and North America -

revolves around the extent of criminal involvement of foreigners, recent, or second-or third-generation immigrants, and native or resident nonnative ethnic minorities relative to the larger society (Marshall, 1997; Martinez and Lee, 2000; Junger-Tas, 2001; Engbersen and van der Leun, 2001; Sampson et al., 2005). [Interesting in view of the earlier discussion of gang research, the study of gangs in the United States has largely been a study of immigration and ethnicity.] Very little explicitly comparative survey research has been done on the link between minority status, offending and victimization. The ISRD-2 study does include a set of questions about the youth's nationality (country of origin), language (spoken at home), experiences with discriminatory treatment, having friends with parents of foreign origin, and parents' disapproval of associating with friends whose parents are of foreign origin.

It should be noted here that there remains the unsettled issue of differential validity in self-report measures of juvenile delinquency (Junger-Tas and Marshall, 1999; Thornberry and Krohn, 2000). Thornberry and Krohn (2000) argue that this differential validity is perhaps the most significant methodological issue that needs to be addressed in future self-report studies. Although the ISRD-2 study does not intend to check for convergent validity (i.e., cross-check official criminal records and self-report measures of offending), the study will nevertheless collect original information (including minority status and perception of discrimination) which may be used to check for construct validity (i.e., address the theoretical relationship between minority status and self-reported delinquency).

Dimensions of Juvenile Delinquent Trajectories: Participation, Frequency, Versatility, Seriousness, and Age of Onset

Criminal career research has spurred the development of life course and developmental criminology (Piquero and Mazerrole, 2001; Benson, 2002; Piquero, Blumstein and Farrington, 2003). The criminal career approach (see Blumstein, Cohen, Roth and Visher, 1986) expands the traditional distinction between offender and non-offenders by stressing the need for the careful description of the different dimensions of the criminal involvement of 'active offenders.' There are – in the criminal career view – substantial differences in the dimensions of the criminal careers of offenders; these differences are believed to have important theoretical, methodological and policy implications. The primary pre-occupation of most criminal career research has been to establish how criminal careers or 'criminal trajectories' differ on such aspects as age of onset, duration, seriousness, frequency of offending and exit (or 'desistance'). Since criminal career researchers are interested in examining the longitudinal sequencing of offending, this approach is very closely associated with a strong preference for (prospective) longitudinal designs. Yet, cross-sectional self-report studies of offending (using retrospective recall), either among a sample of the general population, or among a sample of known offenders have also been used quite successfully in criminal career research (e.g. Chaiken and Chaiken, 1982; Horney and Marshall, 1991).

Self-report studies of delinquency have consistently included several of the key concepts employed in the criminal career approach: current ('last year') and lifetime ('ever') participation, frequency (incidence), seriousness, and specialization versus versatility ("variety") in offending (Huizinga and Elliott, 1987). In addition to investigating the prevalence, frequency, seriousness, and versatility of offending, criminal career-, life course- and developmental approaches seek to study the age of onset, chronicity, duration, and desistance of offending (Blumstein et al., 1986; Piquero et al., 2003; Farrington et al., 2003). *Age of onset* is one of the key parameters in the criminal career and developmental approach. Some self-report based research finds that the frequency of offending is highest for those who have the earliest ages of onset (Tolan and Thomas, 1995; Krohn et al., 2001; Benson, 2002; Donker, 2004; Delisi, 2005). A major – and as yet unresolved – point of contention is the assertion that early and later onset offenders are qualitatively different (Moffitt, 1993). The developmental approach assumes that, within the offender population, there are distinctive groups with distinctive etiologies that follow distinctive trajectories of offending. Most of the focus is on two categories of offenders – early onset persisters and late-onset desisters. The distinction between high- and low-rate offenders – and its correlates – is one of the major pre-occupations of criminal career research. The ISRD-1 analysis of the international data set found some support for the expected link between earlier age of onset and frequent serious self-reported offending (Junger-Tas et al., 2003). The ISRD-2 study is not designed to model the longitudinal sequencing of criminal offending as is done by prospective longitudinal studies (e.g. Krohn et al. 2003), but it will provide significant empirical evidence – because of its explicitly comparative approach – on the frequency, participation, seriousness, versatility, and age of onset (and their correlates) of a large sample of 12-15 year students in the US, and in other ISRD participating countries.

Self-report Methodology

The current study is a self-report survey of juvenile delinquency, designed explicitly for cross-national comparative purposes. Self-report surveys of delinquency have three different (often overlapping) purposes:

- (1) *To measure the prevalence and incidence of offending.* Self-reports are viewed as a useful supplement or alternative to official police statistics. See, for example, Elliott's (1994) presidential address in *Criminology* about the use of self-report data from the National Youth Survey (NYS) to estimate violent crime.
- (2) *To evaluate the correlates of offending.* Many self-report surveys include questions about social background variables (age, gender, ethnicity, social class), as well as theoretical concepts (self control, life-style, social bonding, and so on) to allow theory testing. The best-known example is Hirschi's (1969) *Causes of Delinquency*.
- (3) *To describe the trajectories of delinquent careers.* The dimensions of delinquent careers (age of onset, intermittency, seriousness, versatility, chronicity, and so on) may be

estimated from official data, but also from self-report surveys (see Blumstein et al., 1986). Exemplary of this approach are a number of longitudinal studies which focus on increasing knowledge about the epidemiology of delinquency and crime, risk and protective factors, etiological theories and life-course consequences of adolescent deviance (See, Thornberry et al., 2003).

Depending on their primary purpose, self-report surveys of juvenile offending may be *cross-sectional* (one time measurement only); *repeated cross-sectional* (measurements of different samples over time in order to simulate a longitudinal design), or *longitudinal* (repeated measurements of the same sample, for example the Denver Youth Survey, the Pittsburgh Youth Study, the Seattle Social Development Project, or the National Youth Survey). The current study uses a cross-sectional design, with as the longer-term goal to simulate a longitudinal design by repeating data collection on different samples in the selected ISRD cities.

The self-report method has long outgrown its infancy and by now appears a powerful and reliable research tool (Thornberry and Krohn, 2000). Over the last several decades a large volume of self-report studies of offending has accumulated, mostly in the US, but also in Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Europe, Japan, India, and South Africa. Unlike in the past, when most researchers limited their interest to their own country, researchers are now beginning to use these self-report data to draw comparative conclusions. Comparative analysis of self-report data has not only practical and policy implications, but they also provide an opportunity to test the universality of hypotheses in a situation of maximum differences (Przeworski and Teune, 1970; Kohn, 1989). Typically, comparative research is primarily interested in testing the assumption that no national differences exist in, for example, youth violence. If differences are found, then comparative researchers ordinarily identify the source of these differences as social, legal, or criminal justice processes (Farrington and Wikstrom, 1994). National differences in observations are interpreted in terms of meaningful concomitant variations between the countries compared (Marsh, 1967: 158).

Comparative research literature using self-report delinquency data varies in the degree to which they use explicit international standardization in the study design. The bulk of the analyses that draw upon survey data from multiple countries are not explicitly comparative by design. They often only provide an after-the-fact comparative interpretation of the data. Only few current studies actually follow the most preferred method, that of an explicit comparative design.

The weakest design – from a comparative perspective – draws conclusions about similarities and differences in findings in a number of disparate self-report studies done in different countries, using (somewhat or very) different instruments, and (somewhat or very) different samples. This approach is typically used in review articles which make conclusions about cross-national differences and similarities in prevalence and incidence of offending, as well as about the correlates of offending. A more solid approach - because of greater comparability in research

design - explores cross-national similarities and differences in national longitudinal studies. In a recent publication, *Taking Stock of Delinquency: An Overview of Findings from Contemporary Longitudinal Studies* (Thornberry et al., 2003), seven contemporary longitudinal studies of delinquency are discussed which represent three nations (UK, USA and Canada). These panel studies share a core set of design features, including repeated measurements and interviews with the focal group. There is not, however, explicit standardization of either the measurement instruments used or of the sample selection.

Beginning to approximate an explicit comparative design using self-report data is the International Dating Violence Study led by Murray Straus at the University of New Hampshire. In this study, sampling is not standardized (convenience samples of college students in different countries), but the same self-report instrument is used. A consortium of researchers in all major world regions conducts the study. Each member of the consortium uses a core questionnaire that is translated and then back translated to maintain 'conceptual equivalence' (Straus, 1969) across the sites. A detailed description of the study, including the questionnaire and all other key documents, is available on the website <http://pubpages.unh.edu/mas2>.

The most robust comparative survey research design requires international collaboration on the construction of a common self-report instrument, as well as on the use of standardized sampling procedures and data collection. There are a growing number of such examples, on a range of topics (e.g., World Values Survey). Focusing on juveniles, the best examples may be the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) study, testing school achievement in national samples of schools in Europe. Recently, the study is expanded to include an increasing number of non-European nations (e.g., Argentina, Chile, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Peru, and Thailand) (OECD, 2003). The best-known example within the field of criminology is the International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS), which administers the same core questionnaire on victimization to a number of national and city-samples in a large number of countries. The ISRD-1 – initiated a few years after the first ICVS data collection sweep - represents the first large-scale international effort to collect data on youthful offending and its correlates using common sampling and common instruments and joint analysis. The ISRD-2 study is aimed to build – and improve – upon the ISRD- 1.

The ISRD-2 study uses a (simplified) version of the core measurements of self-reported delinquency utilized in the National Youth Survey (NYS-Family Study), Monitoring the Future, the Denver Youth Study, the Pittsburgh Youth Study, and the Rochester Youth Development. Recall that the Surgeon General's Report on Youth Violence (2001) compared the results of ISRD-1 estimates of prevalence of violence with those generated by the Monitoring the Future estimates (Table 2-1) for the U.S. This suggests a certain degree of confidence by the lead researchers of the Surgeon General's report that the prevalence estimates generated by the ISRD-1 and U.S. studies of delinquency are comparable. Furthermore, there is no doubt that the proposed ISRD-2 study contributes to the American-based body of knowledge about youthful

misbehavior because it includes a number of theoretically relevant correlates which often are in one form or another – included in mainstream U.S. studies. Notwithstanding its relative degree of comparability with existing US studies, the U.S. ISRD-2 is not just yet one additional self-report study of delinquency. The ISRD-2 is modeled after the International Crime Victim Survey. Although initially met with considerable criticism, now even the staunchest critics of the ICVS must admit that the standardized cross-national approach to collection of victimization data has proven to provide tremendous additional insight in crime victimization which could not be gained by simply comparing the handful of somewhat comparable national crime victim surveys (See, for example, Nieuwbeerta, 2002). Applying this argument to the ISRD-2, confident conclusions about the uniqueness – or not – of American youth crime may only be made through a truly standardized design (including truly comparable questions measuring correlates of offending and victimization) employed across a large number of countries simultaneously.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

A Modular Design

The design of ISRD-2 needs to accommodate the fact that countries vary significantly in research resources. Perhaps, more importantly, countries also differ in their administrative and governmental structure, geographical characteristics, size of the population, and degree of urbanization, to mention but a few of the most obvious differences. The challenge, then, is to develop a research design that is flexible, realistic, and pragmatic. Equally important, however, is to achieve a design that provides a maximum of scientific rigor. Indeed, it is the goal of the ISRD-2 to allow reliable and valid cross-national comparisons of delinquent behavior and its correlates; such cross-national comparisons will only be legitimate if they are based on a sound comparative design.

One way to accommodate national differences is to follow a *modular* approach to both questionnaire constructions as well as to the sampling design². In a modular design, a distinction is made between a *core* part (of the instrument and the sample), which every participant has to include in order to be part of the ISRD-2 study, as well as additional (*optional*) modules, which may be included by those participants who have the funds and the interest to do so. Additional modules have to be also standardized in order to allow comparisons among subsets of countries. Thus, at the very minimum, each participant will have a core sample, using the core instrument. In addition, there will be a variety of additional (standardized) optional samples (and

² This recommendation is discussed more elaborately in chapter 8, *Delinquency in an International Perspective, The International Self-Reported Delinquency Study (ISRD)*, Junger-Tas, Marshall & Ribeaud, 2003.

questionnaire modules). This approach provides flexibility, while ensuring a basic minimum level of standardization and comparability.

City-Based Sampling

The majority of the ISRD-2 participating countries have opted for a city-based rather than a national random sample design for a number of reasons:

- The primary purpose of the study is to assess the theoretical correlates of juvenile delinquency, which makes the representativeness of the sample of secondary importance (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). City-based samples of 7th, 8th and 9th graders will quite likely permit the evaluation of the international similarities and differences of *correlates* of delinquency. Furthermore, provided that a comparable random sampling design will be maintained over time in the selection of schools and students within the selected ISRD-2 sites, we know that cross-national assessment of delinquency trends (i.e. prevalence and incidence) is possible.
- A city-based sampling design allows for multi-level Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) analyses (Raudenbusch and Bryk, 2002). Thus, one of the real benefits of this approach is the study's ability to use city-level contextual information that may be used in an HLM design. The possibility of simultaneous multi-level analyses creates a novel feature to the ISRD-2 design. In addition to city contextual information, we will collect school-based contextual information, which adds an additional level of analysis across countries. Thus, the city-based option has the very important advantage that multi-level statistical analyses may be conducted (country level, city level, school level, as well as individual level)
- City-based school samples are likely to cost less than national random samples of schools. Many countries lack a complete listing of schools (let alone 7th, 8th and 9th grade classrooms) to provide a sampling frame. Data collection will be less costly and more manageable in a handful of cities, rather than in a random selection of schools all over the nation.
- There is a significant methodological advantage to using structurally similar sampling units, such as cities. Structural similarities and differences between different cities may be used to assess the degree of comparability of cities, as well as the extent to which these variables play a role in the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency. Cities are better directly comparable than countries.
- The effects of policies are easier evaluated at the city-level rather than at the country-level. Using a metropolitan sub-sample (or a large city sample), we will address specific challenges, such areas encounter. Typically, such problems are more similar across

metropolitan areas than between such an area and the rest of the country. In a city-based design, structurally equivalent units are compared and accordingly, the impact of specific (crime) policies will be better assessable.

- City samples have an additional financial advantage, since the study could be of high interest to many cities (in the US and in Europe) to participate in a “benchmark” study, such as the ISRD-2. Therefore, some cities may be willing to finance a sub-sample in their area. Using a modular instrument, the ‘core’ questionnaire could be used as a template and schools could add (a limited amount of) additional information to meet local specific needs.

US Sample Design

The American ISRD-2 team followed the ISRD sampling protocol as much as possible; however, some deviations from the protocol proved to be inevitable. The idiosyncracies of the American school system forced the research team to use an alternate approach to accomplish study goals. The following sections describe the sample design of the American ISRD-2 study in detail.

Initial Sampling Design

A city-based sampling design consists of two stages: (1) selection of ISRD-2 cities; and (2) random selection of 7th, 8th and 9th grade classrooms in the selected ISRD-2 cities. According to this design, there should be one (1) metropolitan area or large city (defined as 500,000 plus/minus 20% - between 400,000-600,000 inhabitants); one medium-sized city (around 120,000 plus/minus 20% - 96,000-144,000) and a small town cluster (consisting of three towns with a population between 10,000 and 75,000). The initial sample design for the United States was a city-based, purposeful sampling plan, requiring the selection of one large city, one medium-sized city and three small towns. These cities and towns were selected based on their geographic locations, population sizes, representation of varying socio-economic strata, and their fit according to the ISRD sampling criteria. This sampling plan had to be adjusted as a result of refusal to participate by the school districts at some sites. Some of these sites were replaced and a revised sampling plan was developed. We provide a brief summary of the revised sampling design and outcome followed by more detailed site-specific illustrations. Overall, our achieved US sample included students from 11 public schools from three geographically diverse regions (Northeast; Southwest; and Midwest), 3 private parochial schools (located in Northeast region and Midwest region), and one other private non-parochial school (Midwest region).

Modified Design-Large City Sample

The large city was the only site included in the original sampling design we are able to keep (with qualifications). The researchers followed standard external research proposal review protocol required by each school district in the city. After lengthy reviews and final decisions

made by each of the school district's IRB Board (that consisted of representatives of school administration, teachers, community members and parents) we were denied access in all but one school district. In this one school district which was willing to cooperate we decided to treat all the available 7th to 9th grades classrooms as the sampling frame. This particular school district serves a predominately minority population (Hispanic) and is one of the school districts within the city with the least resources. Because "homeroom" structure is not used in this school district, we adjusted our design to acquire the list of all first period 7th to 9th grade classrooms in each of the middle and high schools in the school district. The School District's Evaluation Office cooperated fully with the researchers. We obtained our sampling frame based on the electronic student data file provided by the school district. We soon found out that the sizes of the first period classrooms varied greatly (thus rendering the ISRD Survey Manager sampling protocol less effective for our purpose), requiring a unique sampling method. To illustrate our approach, a step-by-step guide for acquiring a stratified random sample from one school in the school district is provided below. Same logic and procedure were applied to other schools in the same district.

Step-by-Step Sampling Illustration: Large City Sample

Eligible Students in the School District

7th grade (n=761); 8th grade (n=831); 9th grade (n=1,032)

Total 7th -9th (N=2,624)

Breakdowns by Schools

High Schools-9th grade (N=1,032)

HS1 (n=501)

HS2 (n=511)

Alternative HS (n=20)

Middle Schools-7th -8th grades (N=1,592)

MS1 (n=228)

MS2 (n=221)

MS3 (n=146)

MS4 (n=222)

Alternative MS (n=14)

The intended final sample for this school district is 700-to be evenly distributed among 7th to 9th graders per ISRD protocol. We would then expect to draw about 233 students in each grade ($233 \times 3 = 700$). Planning to oversample by 50 percent, we need to add 117 more students ($233 \times .50 = 117$) in each grade bracket (i.e., $233 + 117 = 350$). Therefore, we need to send out a total of 1,050 ($350 + 350 + 350 = 1,050$) parental consent forms and expect to be able to survey about 700 students.

Step 1: Stratifications based on both grades and campuses proportionately

High Schools-9 th grade	Proportion	Sample Size (350)
HS1 (n=501)	.48	168
HS2 (n=511)	.50	175
Alternative HS (n=20)	.02	7
<i>Total 9th grade: N=1,032</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>350</i>
Middle Schools-8 th grade	Proportion	Sample Size (350)
MS1 (n=228)	.27	95
MS2 (n=221)	.26	91
MS3 (n=146)	.18	63
MS4 (n=222)	.27	94
Alternative MS (n=14)	.02	7
<i>Total 8th grade: N=831</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>350</i>
Middle Schools-7 th grade	Proportion	Sample Size (350)
MS1 (n=198)	.26	91
MS2 (n=230)	.30	105
MS3 (n=137)	.18	63
MS4 (n=182)	.24	84
Alternative MS (n=14)	.02	7
<i>Total 7th grade: N=761</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>350</i>

Step 2: Stratification based on different classroom sizes (combined with systematic random sampling procedure). See one example below.

29

HS1 (intended sample size=**168**; see step 1):

<u>Estimate</u>	<u>Selection</u>			
<i>Classroom sizes:</i>	<i>Ave. class size</i>	<i>ith selection</i>	<i># of rooms</i>	<i># students</i>
- Less than 10 students (n=30)	5	6 th	5	25
- 10-19 students (n=8)	15	2 nd	4	60
- 20 and above (n=13)	20	3 rd	4	80
Total: (n=51)			13	165

Large City Sample Parental Consent Procedure

An active parental consent procedure was required by this school district in the large city site (the only site that requires active parental consent). Our initial approach included an oversample of 50% based on the targeted number of surveys. We had no knowledge of the parental consent response rate from any previous research conducted in the school district. Our first round of parental consent form distribution reached 1,092 students in 60 classrooms across all eligible campuses in the district. The response rate is quite low (about 10%) after the first two weeks. The researchers are forced to not only follow up with the original sample but also include additional classrooms. We added 22 additional large classrooms proportionally distributed according to grade levels and schools. This effort resulted in distribution of parental consent forms to a grand total of 1,703 students and 82 classrooms. The researchers were given a narrow one-week window of opportunity for the actual survey. We offered greater incentives to both teachers and students but had to forgo our third round of follow up in achieving desired sample size (700) due to both logistic and financial concerns. A total of 524 completed survey questionnaires were collected from this site.

Modified Design-Medium City Sample

Because of unanticipated major political problems involving a number of the school districts in the original medium-sized city that we selected, we replaced the original site by another mid-western city. The replacement site shared similar geographic and demographic characteristics. The sample at this site included public school districts, a private parochial school, and a small (privately funded) alternative school. This research site presents yet another unique challenge to the researchers, resulting in some unavoidable adjustments of the sampling plan. In one of the two school districts, we were able to acquire a written approval for research from the

Superintendent's office, yet individual school principals chose not to honor the request from the researchers and the written approval from the school district. In the other school district, we did not need to approach the Superintendent's office. Consideration and approval from the Principals were sufficient. The resulting sample included 1 high school and 1 middle school from the first public school district, 1 high school and 1 middle school from the second public school district, 1 parochial high school, and 1 alternative middle school. All students in 7th, 8th, and 9th grades at these schools were included in the sample. A passive parental consent process was used for this site. A total of 1,078 completed survey questionnaires were received from this site.

Modified Design-Small Town Cluster Sample

The three small towns originally selected for the survey were replaced by two comparable towns in the same (Northeast) region. Again, the obstacle was the unanticipated lack of cooperation of the school districts. The geographic and demographic characteristics of these replacement sites are similar to the original sites. The survey in the first small town included one high school and one junior high school (the only ones for this small township located in Metro-west of Massachusetts). The entire population of 7th through 9th graders at this site was used. Passive parental consent process was used and a total of 528 completed survey questionnaires were collected from this site. Our sample from the second small town (located in southern New Hampshire bordering Massachusetts) included 1 parochial high school and 1 parochial middle school. Again, passive parental consent process was allowed and a total of 441 completed questionnaires were collected from this site.

Questionnaire Content and Development

The standardized English version of the questionnaire was used for the United States ISRD-2 study (see PDF attachment titled *ISRD2-US-Questionnaire*). The paper and pencil version of the survey was used at all sites (there were no computerized versions used). There were no changes made to the design or content of the original English language questionnaire provided by the ISRD Steering Committee, nor were there any specific language problems which prevented the inclusion of original items. There were no changes to response options on the questionnaire, and no changes were made to the order of questions. No additional country-specific questions were included on the questionnaire. There was no pilot testing conducted in the United States for the ISRD-2 study³.

The survey instrument itself was not translated into other languages, however at the large Southwest city site research assistants and site coordinators helped some students by translating

³ A pilot test was conducted in Omaha, NE among the same age groups during the first wave of ISRD survey. There was no indication that the survey questionnaire was not age appropriate. ISRD-2 inherited many of the same questions used in ISRD-1.

questions (into Spanish) for them. This was accomplished with one of our bilingual site coordinators/translators sitting across the table from the participant with an additional copy of the survey instrument. The translator would then read the questions and response categories in Spanish for the student. The translator could not see the responses of the student. This was used for some students who spoke very limited English. Additionally, at the Midwest city site, some students had individual education plans in place which mandated the provision of a reader. This person sat across the table from the student and read the questions and response categories for the student. This individual could not see the responses the student provided.

ISRD2-US Study Response Rate Table

School	(1) # students selected in sample	(2) # non- consent	(3) % non- consent (2)/(1)*100	(4) # absent with consent	(5) % absent with consent	(6) # returned questionnaires	(7) % completion with consent (6)/[(1)- (2)]*100	(8) % participation out of sample (6)/(1)*100
Medium City	1213	23	1.9%	112	9.41%	1078	90.6	88.9
MS1	263	11	4.2%	24	9.52%	228	90.5	86.7
HS1	391	8	2.0%	50	13.05%	333	86.9	85.2
Alt. School	25	0	0.0%	13	52.00%	12	48.0	48.0
HS2	105	0	0.0%	7	6.67%	98	93.3	93.3
MS2	429	4	0.9%	18	4.24%	407	95.8	94.9
Small Town1	481	39	8.1%	0	0.00%	441	99.8	91.7
HS	221	2	0.9%	7	3.20%	212	96.8	95.9
MS	260	37	14.2%	0	0.00%	229	100.0	88.1
Small Town 2	648	74	11.4%	46	8.01%	528	92.0	81.5
MS	445	42	9.4%	33	8.19%	370	91.8	83.1
HS	203	32	15.8%	13	7.60%	158	92.4	77.8

Large City	1703	1157	67.9%	22	4.03%	524	96.0	30.8	32
HS1	236	160	67.8%	9	11.84%	67	88.2	28.4	
HS2	270	216	80.0%	6	11.11%	48	88.9	17.8	
MS1	346	169	48.8%	0	0.00%	177	100.0	51.2	
MS2	283	202	71.4%	6	7.41%	75	92.6	26.5	
MS3	340	236	69.4%	0	0.00%	104	100.0	30.6	
MS4	228	174	76.3%	1	1.85%	53	98.1	23.2	
TOTAL	4045	1293	32.0%	180	6.54%	2571	93.4	63.6	

Data Collection and Processing

School and site specific response rates with regard to both parental consent and survey questionnaire completion are included in the table above. Understandably, parental consent rates are very high in sites that require passive parental consent: Mid-size city (98.1%), small town A (91.9%), and small town B (88.6%). The large city site in our study that requires active parental consent yielded a rather low overall parental consent rate (32.1%) in spite of the full support of the Evaluation Office of the participating school district and the extra incentive measures provided by the researchers. Time constraint leading up to the actual week of survey prevented the 3rd round of follow-up on parental consent. The combined (passive and active) parental consent rate for the entire US ISRD-2 sample is 68 percent. A more technical illustration of data weighting procedure has been prepared and can be shared upon request.

The US data was entered in EpiData (per ISRD protocol) by our graduate research associates. The file definition and technical instructions which have been provided by the ISRD Steering Committee and Methodology Working Group were followed during data entry. Data entry rules were checked following data entry. The EpiData entry files were merged in SPSS using the files provided by ISRD Steering Committee. The data were saved in a SPSS data file where a standard procedure was administered to check and correct the file. These checks and corrections were documented in a SPSS Syntax file.

STUDY RESULTS

Study results presented in a set of standard prevalence tables are required by the ISRD Steering Committee of all participating countries (see in attached file under *ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables*). These tables anchor the core presentation of descriptive data on school youth

delinquency and victimization in a national chapter to be submitted to the ISRD-Steering Committee of each participating nation. Instructions from ISRD research protocol on the construction of each standard prevalence table are annotated in the attached file. For each nation that uses city-based sampling, these tables allow a baseline *descriptive* comparison of both the life-time and last year prevalence of major delinquency, victimization and reporting, and risk factor measures across sampled cities. Due to the nature of standardized ISRD-2 methodology, statistical information included in these tables can easily be compared cross-nationally among the 30+ participating nations. As indicated in each table, all the descriptive analyses achieved so far are based on *unweighted* data and valid cases.

Alcohol and Drug Use: Comparison of ISRD2 Sample with Two Other US Youth Surveys

Drawing a sample in a random fashion definitely increases the likelihood that the resulting sample is representative of the larger population, but it does not guarantee representativeness. Likewise, deviating from the ideal sampling design increases the likelihood, but does not guarantee that one ends up with a totally biased sample. We believe this latter scenario to be the case for the ISRD-2 sample. The representativeness of a sample may be evaluated by comparing it against other (representative) samples with known findings. We compare some of the ISRD2 results with regard to reported alcohol and drug use with two other well-known nationally representative youth surveys: The Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) and Monitoring the Future (MTF). Table C (in addendum section of the *ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables*) presents selected comparative figures on self-reported alcohol use among the ISRD-2 sample, YRBS, and MTF. The YRBS includes national, state and local school-based surveys of high school students in grades 9-12. In addition, some states and cities conduct a school based YRBS among middle schools (6th, 7th and 8th grade) students. In 2005, 10 states and 11 cities conducted a middle school YRBS. In our comparisons, we make use of data from 5 states and 8 local middle school surveys (grades 7 and 8) with weighted data, as well as the 9th grade YRBS data. The MTF Study asks a nationally representative sample of nearly 50,000 secondary school students in approximately 400 public and private schools (grades 8, 10 and 12) to describe their drug use patterns through self-administered questionnaires. We use only the 8th grade data from MTF. Unfortunately, it is not possible to compare the three surveys on all dimensions for all three grades.

With regard to ‘ever’ alcohol use, it appears that the 7th and 8th graders in the ISRD-2 sample are fairly comparable to those in the MTF and YRBS surveys. About 31 percent of the ISRD-2 7th graders reported that they had ever used alcohol, which falls on the lower side of the range reported by their counterparts in the middle school YRBS. The picture for the 8th graders is even more convincing: 40.7% of the ISRD-2 respondents reported ‘ever’ alcohol use compared to 40.5% (2006) and 38.9% (2007) of the MTF respondents in the same grade. The 40.7% reported by the ISRD-2 8th graders also is compatible with the range of 8th grade responses for ‘ever’ alcohol use in the YRBS study (35.2%-66.1% for the cities, and 43.5%-51.9% for the states – a

little higher than the ISRD-2 8th grade sample). The case to be made for the 9th grade is weaker: about 47 percent of the ISRD-2 9th graders reported to ‘ever’ have used alcohol, compared to 65.5% of their counterparts in the YRBS. Comparing the responses on the question of ‘ever’ having been drunk, there is a very close correspondence between the responses of the ISRD-2 8th graders (16.6%) and their MTF counterparts (17.9%). The same is true for last month alcohol use: 12.8% of the ISRD-2 8th grade sample versus 15.9% of the MTF 8th graders, a rather close match.

When looking at self-reported illegal drug use (Table D in addendum section of the *ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables*), it appears that the results with regard to marijuana use (both ‘ever’ and ‘last month’) are quite compatible between the three surveys. Twelve point three (12.3%) percent of the ISRD-2 7th graders report to ever having used marijuana, compared to between 8.5% and 11.7% (state samples) and 8.0% and 18.0% (city samples) in the YRBS. The 8th grade responses for lifetime marijuana use are even more comparable between the ISRD-2 sample (16.0%), and the MTF sample (15.7% in 2006, 14.2% in 2007). The ISRD-2 8th grade results also are quite consistent with the ranges reported for the YRBS state samples (12.7%-21.3%) and city samples (12.9%-38.2%). As was the case for ever alcohol use, the ISRD-2 9th graders report lower prevalence (17.8%) than their YRBS counterparts (27.5%). Last month marijuana use prevalence can only be compared between the ISRD-2 8th grade sample (8.4%) and the 8th grade MTF sample (6.5% in 2006 and 5.7% in 2007).

The results with regard to drug use other than marijuana show a greater discrepancy between the ISRD-2 and MTF (YRBS does not provide comparable data). Again, only the 8th grade responses may be compared between the two surveys, showing a lower prevalence for the 8th grade ISRD-2 sample. That is, about 5 percent of the ISRD-2 8th graders reported ‘ever’ having used illegal drugs other than marijuana, compared to 12.2% (2006) or 11.1% (2007) of their MTF counterparts; 2.1% of the ISRD-2 8th graders report last month illegal drug use other than marijuana, compared to 3.8% (2006) and 3.6% (2007) of the MTF 8th graders. This difference may be due, in part at least, to the different way of measuring this variable: the MTF specifies in total 19 drugs (including prescription drugs, in addition to marijuana or hash), compared to the ISRD-2 survey, which lists four drug categories.

The results of this preliminary set of comparisons (which will be expanded on a later date, by also making comparisons between reported victimization and offending prevalence between the ISRD-2 and other major US youth surveys) provides some reassurance that our sample has a reasonable degree of comparability with other randomly selected youth samples in the US. However, because of the significant differences between the characteristics of the three subsamples, in the remainder of this section, we pay specific attention to highlight our findings separately for, respectively large, medium and small cities.

Risky Behavior, Victimization and Delinquency

Because of the importance of alcohol and drug use as possible risk factors for delinquency, it is important to take a closer look at the findings for the US sample. About 40 percent of the sample report having at least once tried beer or wine, with about one-fourth reporting trying strong liquor (see Table 1). Soft drug use is much less common (16% has 'ever' tried it). About 12 out of every 100 students report drinking beer or wine recently (last month), about 9 out of 100 report recent use of hard liquor, and 8 out of 100 students recently used soft drugs. Table 9 shows the findings with regard to alcohol (beer/wine and strong spirits) and soft drug use by size of city. Small town students report less alcohol use (33.6% 'ever' and 9.8% 'last month') than the medium and large city youth (respectively 45.7% and 48.7% 'ever' and '17.2% and 15.7% 'last month'). A similar pattern is found for soft drug use: the small city students report lower lifetime and recent use (9.5% and 6.5%) than the medium (17.8% and 10.0%) and large city (24.6% and 8.9%) students.

Table 9 also shows that small town youth appear to be less involved in risky alcohol and drug use behavior than their medium and large city counterparts. Large city youth also appear to be more at risk with regard to skipping school (truancy): 39.6% report to have skipped school last month (compared to 31.9% in the medium size city and 30.2% in the small towns). It should be noted, however, that a considerable portion of the entire sample (roughly one-third) did skip school at least once during the last month. When combining alcohol consumption together with soft drug use and truancy to create an indicator of a risky life style, it is quite evident that small town youth is much less likely to have a risky life style (7.7%) than either medium (13.8%) or large city (14.3%) youth.

Victimization

Almost one-third of the sample report having been the victim of theft, and one out of five students reported being bullied (see Table 3). The more serious victimization experiences (robbery and assault) are reported in much lower frequencies (about 4 out of every 100 students). Overall, it is unlikely that victims go to the police: the likelihood ranges between 16.1% (assault) to 4.9% (bullying). But note that this is for the total sample; analysis of the three subsamples show considerable differences. Indeed, Table 10 shows that there are differences in victimization experiences between youth from different city sizes: small town youth appears to be at the lowest risk of victimization, with the exception of bullying (19.1%). About eighteen percent (17.6%) of the students from the large city sample are being bullied; the medium city sample indicates the highest level (22.0%). Large city victims appear considerably more likely to go to the police to report their victimization than their medium or small town counterparts. This is most striking in the case of robbery: 36.4% of the large city victims went to the police, compared to only 5.7% of the medium city victims and 10.7% of the small town victims. Comparable differences are found for assault and theft victimizations. One possible interpretation for the higher reporting rate in the large city may be that the nature of the victimization is more serious in large cities, compared to the medium and small cities.

Self-Reported Offending

36

The prevalence of self-reported offending in the US ISRD-2 sample (for both ‘ever’ and ‘last year’) fits expected patterns: low prevalence for serious offenses and higher prevalence for minor offenses (see Table 4 for results for total sample). Shoplifting is the most frequently committed ‘ever’ offense (20.7%), followed by participating in a group fight (16.0%), vandalism (15.9%) and carrying a weapon (14.3%). The more serious offenses such as car theft (1.9%), burglary (2.1%), robbery (3.2%), assault (4.3%), and pick pocketing/purse snatching (2.7%) occur relatively infrequent.

The figures for the total sample provide a misleading picture, however, since there are significant differences between the three subsamples (see Table B). Virtually without exception, both lifetime and last year prevalence for all listed offenses are lowest for the small town sample. Exception is last month XTC/speed use: 1.3% small town, 0.9% medium city, 0.4% large city. Conversely, the large city sample tends to report the highest prevalence, with the exception of assault (5.1% ‘ever’ and 2.5% ‘last year in large city versus 5.5% and 2.8% in medium city) and drug dealing (5.1% ‘ever’ and 2.9% ‘last month’ in large city versus 6.8% ‘ever’ and ‘5.3% ‘last month in medium city). In order to more clearly show these differences, Figure 1 presents the lifetime prevalence for grouped offenses, as well as some individual categories (shoplifting, vandalism, computer hacking). Figure 2 does the same for last year (or last month – drug use) prevalence.

Selective Additional Analyses Based on US Data

US Extra Tables I-VIII

Findings shown in the following tables (see in attached file under *US Extra Tables I-VII*) provide more detailed descriptive statistics on US samples and some exploratory bivariate and multivariate analyses. These analyses only scratched the surface of what could potentially be achieved through comparative studies conducted both domestically and cross-nationally. In fact, the merged survey data from all ISRD-2 participating nations include more than 73,000 cases from over 30 countries. The data merging process is now being completed.

Because of the considerable problems encountered in drawing the sample, and the adjustments that were needed to obtain a large enough number of completed questionnaires, before analyzing the findings, we need to closely examine the characteristics of the achieved ISRD-2 US sample. Table I shows that the US sample deviates somewhat from the proposed sample in terms of demographics. The ISRD-2 sample protocol asks for 700 7th, 8th and 9th graders (representing the 12-15 age group), in equal proportions, for, respectively the large, medium, and small cities. There is a slight overrepresentation of males (52.3%). The sample is also slightly biased in the direction of older students (only 34.1% of the sample consists of 12-13 year olds, mean age is almost 14). In view of the age bias, it is not surprising that there is an overrepresentation of 9th

graders (49.8%). Over one-fifth of the sample consists of private school students, which is larger than the national proportion (about 10%) of students who attend private schools.⁴ Only one-fifth of the final sample comes from a large city, with about equal proportions drawn from medium and small towns (39.4% and 40.0% respectively). Another possibly confounding factor is that almost the entire large city sample is Hispanic, which complicates efforts to disentangle the effects of city size and ethnicity. The selected school district in the large city was 97% Hispanic (compared to 57.5% in the other school districts in the selected large city). Making the picture even more complicated, 94.5% of the families in the sampled large city school district are considered ‘disadvantaged’ (compared to 56.9% in the other school districts of the large city). Almost 20% of the students in this large city school district are bilingual (use English as a second language) (compared to 7.5% in the other school districts of that city). The large city school district also had a lower graduation rate (71.9% compared to 86.7% of this large city). Thus, the large city subsample incorporates a mixture of poverty and immigration status, and as such is distinctly different from the small and medium size city samples. Table II provides a more detailed picture of the basic differences between the large, medium and small city samples. Table II indicates that there are no private school students included in the large city sample, which further shapes the distinct character of the large city sample. Public schools tend to be more common in less prosperous areas, and are more likely associated with poorer socio-economic conditions than private schools (which are represented in the small and medium size city samples). In order to further explore the group differences on the key attitudinal and behavioral measures adopted by the ISRD-2 study, we present the following findings based the US data.

Gender: As expected, we do find several statistically significant gender differences in behavioral measures (see Tables III). Males are more likely than females to have been the victim of robbery (5.4% vs. 3.6%), and theft (34.1% vs. 28.1%). No gender differences appear to exist with regard to being bullied or assaulted. Boys are more likely to vandalize (20.6% vs. 11.0%), to participate in a ‘frequent violent offenses’ [group fight and/or carry a weapon (28.5% vs. 15.0%)], in ‘rare violent offenses’ [robbery, purse snatching, assault (9.2% vs. 5.5%)], and ‘rare property offenses’ [burglary, bike or car theft, car break (12.0% vs. 6.4%)]. On the other hand, boys and girls appear equally likely to report having shoplifted (about one-fifth each). There are no gender differences with regard to self-reported soft drug use, hard drug use, alcohol use. Girls and boys are not different in their likelihood of having been involved in risky behavior. Generally speaking, these observations are not out of line with general expectations drawn from

⁴ National Center for Education Statistics (2003). “Trends in the Use of School Choice: 1993-1999”. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2003031>.

existing research and delinquency theory. An interesting finding is that there are no statistically significant gender differences between the age of onset for the different delinquency measures (see Table VI).

Out of the ten attitudinal measures (see Table IV), statistically significant gender differences can be found in six. Although they report less family bonding and more negative life event, the female students in our sample observe greater level of school bonding and less extent of neighborhood disorganization. They also perceive higher level of self control and report less pro-violence attitude compared to their male counterparts.

Grade: As indicated in Table III, 7th, 8th and 9th graders report similar (life-time) levels of having been the victim of a robbery/extortion and assault (between 3.2 and 5.0%). Ninth graders report a higher level of theft victimization (34.8%), but they are less likely to have been bullied (18.2% versus 19.9% for 7th grade and 23.6% for 8th graders). The findings with respect to offending are harder to interpret: Since these are life-time ('ever') prevalence figures, we would expect that higher grades would tend to have higher prevalence of self-reported offending: this is typically not the case here. However, 9th graders do have a higher level of life-time soft drug use (17.8% vs. 12.3% and 16.0%), alcohol use (47.7% vs. 31.1% and 40.7%) and risky behavior (14.2% vs. 7.4% and 10.9%). On the other hand, 8th graders in our sample report the highest lifetime prevalence hard drug use (4.8% vs. 2.1% and 3.9%). Analyses with regard to attitudinal measures (See Table IV) reveal that, with the exception of "neighborhood collective efficacy", statistically significant differences across different grades are observed. The pattern of such differences, however, can be difficult to discern without taking into consideration the impact of age.

City Size: As noted before, city size consistently is related to offending, drug and alcohol use, and risky behavior: large city youth report the higher levels, followed by the medium size city sample, with the small town youth reporting the lowest levels (see in Table III). The picture with regard to victimization is less clear cut: here the medium size city sample report the highest levels of being victimized by theft (35.1%) and robbery (5.8%), whereas there are no significant differences with regard to assault and bullying. More consistent results from analyses of attitudinal measures by city size can be found in Table IV. With the exception of "school bonding" variable, statistically significant differences can be found in all attitudinal measures across large, medium and small city groups. The contrasts between small and large city youth are particularly evident in the average measures of the following variables: family affluence, school crime, neighborhood collective efficacy, neighborhood disorganization, and pro-violence attitude. These findings are quite consistent with relevant theoretical predictions.

School Type: It is quite clear and consistent that public school students report higher levels of involvement in risky behavior, alcohol and drugs, and a variety of delinquent behavior (see Table III). They also report a greater level of being the victims of robbery/extortion (5.3% vs. 2.0%).

There is no statistical significant difference between public and private students with regard to other types of victimization, i.e., assault, theft and bullying.

39

Table IV shows that the public school ISRD-2 sample – without exception – reports lower family affluence, weaker family bonds, more major negative life events, weaker school bonding, a higher level of school crime, less attachment to neighborhood, more crime in neighborhood, lower collective neighborhood efficacy, a greater sense of neighborhood disorganization, more pro-violent attitudes and involvement in a greater variety of offenses than private school ISRD-2 students.

Immigrant Status and Delinquency: The preceding analysis shows that city size and type of school (public vs. private) are important bivariate correlates of self-reported offending and risky behavior. The large city sample includes a large proportion of immigrant youth, is less affluent, and more likely to include youth who speak a language other than English at home (see Table II). In order to disentangle these potentially confounding effects, we did a preliminary analysis of the impact of immigrant status on self-reported delinquency. As noted in the introduction, Hispanics are the fastest growing minority group in the US, a group which has notoriously been under-examined by US criminologists. The US ISRD-2 sample – unlike the bulk of other American delinquency studies – does not include data on ‘race’ (i.e. Black, White, Asian, Native American and so on), but rather focuses on ‘immigration status’ as a primary factor of interest. It is commonly thought that immigrants may differ significantly from the native population in attitudes, socio-demographic variables, victimization experiences and – last but not least – offending. Our study results (see Table V) suggest that – at least in the current ISRD-2 sample – immigrant youth do not differ very much from their native counterparts.

The two groups do not differ significantly with regard to their attitudes toward school (i.e. school bonding and perceived level of school crime), levels of self control, or pro-violent attitude. There are no significant differences with respect to their bond to the neighborhood and the perceived level of neighborhood disorganization, although the immigrant youth report a lower level of neighborhood collective efficacy. Immigrant youth in our sample report lower level of family affluence but less negative life experiences. Immigrant youth report a somewhat higher level of family bonding (79.11 vs. 77.05). Of course, immigrant youth are much more likely than native youth to speak a language other than English at home (37.7%). Also, immigrant youth report a higher level of perceived discrimination: Although 61.4% indicate to have ‘never’ been treated badly based on skin color, language or religion, 23.1% answered ‘sometimes or often’. It should be noted that 14% of the responses of native youth also fall in that category. Nonetheless, immigrant and native youth do not differ significantly with regard to their victimization experiences nor do immigrant youth report higher (or lower) levels of offending (see Table V).

Correlates of Versatility: Results of Exploratory Multivariate Analysis: The mostly descriptive (and simple bivariate hypothesis testing) analysis thus far has provided a number of reasonable insights into the attitudes and behaviors of the ISRD-2 sample. It also has become clear that a number of our variables are highly interrelated and most likely confound the results. The logical next step requires multivariate analysis; we would like to report on the preliminary results of one such effort. Rather than using simple life-time or last year prevalence measures (which are quite informative when presenting initial descriptive results), there is strong support for employing a versatility measure of delinquency instead.⁵ Table VII presents the results of baseline OLS regression analysis,⁶ using both life-time and last-year versatility measures as dependent variables.

The regression analysis includes the ‘typical’ predictors commonly used in delinquency research: measures related to family (bonding), social class (family affluence), school (bonding, school crime), neighborhood (bonding, collective efficacy, and disorganization), negative life events, self control, and pro-violent attitude. In addition, the main demographic variables of gender, family structure, grade, school type, and city size were included, as was immigration status. Examination of Table VII shows several noteworthy results. First, both life-time and last-year versatility measures share almost all of the theoretical predictors. The two exceptions are (1) the perceived level of school crime, which is not statistically significant for the life-time versatility measure; and (2) family affluence, which is not statistically significant for the last-year versatility measure. Second, all the significant theoretical predictors vary in the expected direction. Third, the amount of explained variance is quite respectable (R square .294 – life-time and .247 for last year). Fourth, immigrant status is not related to delinquency, holding other factors constant, which confirms our initial observations discussed in the preceding section (see Table V). Fifth, low self-control appears to be related to delinquency, controlling for a host of other factors (supporting Gottfredson and Hirschi’s general theory of crime). Seventh, pro-violent attitudes appear to play a role in self-reported delinquency, supporting the importance of cultural attitudes as delinquency precursors. Eighth, gender, city size and school type appear to

⁵ ISRD-2 Steering Committee and Methodology Working Group suggest the measurement of life-time and last-year versatility based on 14 variables. For example, the syntax in SPSS for the life-time versatility measure (*versatlt*) reads:

“compute versatlt =
100*trunc(mean.10(vandlt,shoplt,burglt,biclt,carlt,hacklt,carbtp,picklt,weaplt,robbtp,gfiglt,astlt,drudlt,#rdrult)*14)/14”

⁶ These baseline OLS regression models serve more as a diagnostic tool for this report. It’s worth mentioning that no multicollinearity problem was detected in the statistical models. All VIF measures are well under 4.

remain significant predictors, even after controlling for the effects of major theoretical predictors and other demographic factors. Finally, the positive impact of “private school” on the dependent variables is the only surprise in our regression models.⁷ On the other hand, we understand that our sample includes sizeable private school students (526 or 21.9% of total sample size) from two out of three U.S. study sites. Future analyses with sample weight adjustment and site specific comparisons could shed lights to this interesting observation.

In spite of the interesting findings presented above, closer observation of the distributions of both the life-time and last-year versatility measures (see Figures 5 & 6) indicates a potential problem for their inclusion as dependent variables in OLS regression analyses. Both of these dependent variables are not normally distributed (with majority of cases clustered at the value of zero), thus a violation of a key OLS regression assumptions. Consistent with the approach widely used by researchers in similar circumstances, we considered the application of (zero inflated) negative binomial regression analysis. The same set of attitudinal and demographic variables is included in the model. The key theoretical findings from earlier OLS analyses remain largely unchanged. There are two exceptions, however, in that (1) family affluence is no longer a predictor for either one of the versatility measures; and (2) family bonding is no longer a statistically significant predictor for last-year versatility measure. Similar core findings from both types of multi-variate analyses give credence to the robustness of the theoretical relationships under investigation. Future analyses based on the US data can include different dependent variables and consider interactive effects in the statistical models.

Collection of National Indicators and Potential Cross-national Multi-level Analysis: Per ISRD research protocol, national indicator data is to be collected from all participating countries. The United States indicators were collected from the 2000 Census, Uniform Crime Reports, World Values Survey, city police department websites, city school websites, World Economic Forum, World Audit, Transparency International, United Nations databases (including HEUNI), and the International Crime Victimization Survey. The main variables collected are grouped into *nine* categories: population by age and sex, population diversity, household composition, unemployment, income inequality and poverty, housing and residential mobility, education, officially recorded crime and delinquency, and social control by law enforcement. These variables were collected at the national, regional, state, county, city, and sub-city district levels in the United States. The *first* category – population by age and sex – included the following variables: number of total resident population, number of male resident population, number of female resident population, and population in the following age categories: 0-11, 12-17, 18 and

⁷ Bivariate correlations between “private school” and life-time and last-year versatility measures are -.114 and -.090, respectively. Both correlations are statistically significant at .05 level. Apparently the direction of these relationships had changed when this dummy variable was inserted into the multi-variate OLS regression models.

older, and 15-24. The *second* category – population diversity – included the following variables: number of residents who are non-nationals, non-nationals as a proportion of the total population, number of nationals born abroad, nationals born abroad as a proportion of total population, number of ethnic minorities, number of residents who are non-nationals younger than 15, and any other measure of population diversity specific to the country. The *third* category – household composition – included the following variables: number of lone parent households, proportion of households that are lone parent households, number of households, average size of households, and divorce rate. The *fourth* category – unemployment – included the following variables: unemployment rate, number of economically active population, number of unemployed, unemployment rate in the year 2000, percentage of the population unemployed longer than 6 months, percentage of the population unemployed longer than five years, and the percentage of unemployed who are under the age of 25. The *fifth* category – income inequality and poverty – includes the following variables: number (or percentage) of population living under the national poverty threshold, number (or proportion) of households reliant on social assistance benefits, household income: first quintile earnings, household income: fifth quintile earnings, ratio of first to fifth quintile earnings, income inequality measured by the gini-index gross income for all, and income inequality measured by the gini-index gross income for persons in full-time employment. The *sixth* category – housing and residential mobility – included the following variables: number of households owning own dwelling, percentage of households living in own dwelling, number of households living in social housing, percentage of households living in social housing, and the number of people who have moved within the last five years. The *seventh* category – education – includes the following variables: number of students leaving compulsory education without a diploma, proportion of students not completing compulsory education, number of students completing secondary education, proportion of students continuing education after completing compulsory education. The *eighth* category – officially recorded crime and delinquency – includes the following variables: number of recorded intentional (completed) homicides, the number of recorded assaults, number of recorded robberies and extortions, number of recorded rapes, number of recorded burglaries, number of recorded car thefts, number of recorded violent crimes against persons, and number of recorded property crimes. The *final* category – social control by law enforcement – included the following variables: number of people under the age of 18 that have come to the attention of the police, number of people under the age of 18 that have come to the attention of the police for intentional (completed) homicides, number of people under the age of 18 who have come to the attention of police for assaults, the number of people under the age of 18 that have come to the attention of police for robberies and extortions, the number of people under the age of 18 that have come to the attention of the police for rapes, the number of people under the age of 18 who have come to the attention of police for burglaries, the number of people under the age of 18 who have come to the attention of police for theft, the number of people under the age of 18 who have come to the attention of police for violent crimes against persons, and the number of people under the age of 18 who have come to the attention of police for property crimes.

Additional indicators were collected only at the national level. These indicators were collected for all participating countries by the United States research team. This included *fourteen* variables from the European Sourcebook, *forty-two* variables from the International Crime Victim Survey, *forty-two* variables from the World Values Survey, *eight* variables from the UN HEUNI dataset, *nine* variables from the World Economic Forum, *five* variables from the World Audit, *thirty-two* variables from United Nations databases, and *three* variables from Transparency International. All of these variables are being combined into a large database which links the indicators not only to the different ISRD countries and cities, but also to the individual level data allowing for cross-national multi-level analyses.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Data collection for the U.S. portion of the ISRD-2 study was carried out in the fall of 2006 and spring of 2007 in four states, five cities and fifteen middle and high schools. Following the ISRD-2 protocol, we included one large city sample, one medium size city sample and a sample from a cluster of small townships. The geographic areas represented in the sample are diverse, from Northeast to Midwest to Southwest. A total of 4,045 seventh to ninth grade school youth was included in the sampling frame. We received a total of 2,571 returned questionnaires, a participation rate of 63.6%. As stated earlier in the methodology section, we had to make certain modifications to the originally proposed sampling plan. Parental consent and overall participation rates are generally much lower and vary significantly across classrooms in schools that require active parental consent. Our large city sample is based entirely on one school district and it is significantly biased towards including mostly low income Hispanic students. The rest of the schools included in the US ISRD-2 sample allow passive parental consent. Therefore, we are able to achieve very high parental consent and overall participation rates from schools in both medium and small cities.

In a city-based ISRD-2 sampling design, our goal is not to achieve a nationally representative sample for the U.S. To facilitate cross-national comparison, ISRD-2 protocol calls for even distribution of the sample across grades and cities of varying size. Our achieved sample includes disproportionately higher percentages of 9th grade students (49.8%) and a smaller sample size from the large city (20.5%). Proper sample weights have been created and can be applied for future analysis.

In spite of the caveats, our sample is unique and is very valuable in several ways. First, our sample covers multiple states, cities, schools and grades. The contrasts in socio-economic status represented by these sites are much needed in a limited city-based sample. Second, we have a sizeable private school students (21.9%) and recent immigrants (17.4% 1st and 2nd generation immigrants) in our sample. Third, we have a Hispanic student sample from a large city, which is

a rather unusual sample for U.S. based delinquency studies. These unique characteristics of our sample afford us multiple dimensions for in-depth investigations.

44

With regard to risk factors for juvenile delinquency, we find truancy to be of major concern (32.8% last month). The rates of alcohol use (41.5% life-time and 14.0% last month) and marijuana/hashish use (16% life-time and 7.9% last month) based on our sample are comparable to those from other U.S. studies. Theft (31.2% last year) and bullying (20% last year) are the two major victimization categories according to our study. The prevalence rates of being a victim of robbery/extortion (4.5%) and assault (4.1%) are noticeably much lower. It's worth mentioning that the reporting (to the police) rate of bullying is particularly low (4.9%), compared to the rates for all other victimization categories (from 12.6% to 16.1%). Shoplifting (20.7%), group fight (16.0%), vandalism (15.9%) and carrying a weapon (14.3%) captured the highest life-time prevalence rates in all offense categories measured in our study. Similar observations are found in the corresponding last-year offense prevalence measures.

Important observations are documented in tables that explore both attitudinal and behavioral (victimization and offense prevalence) measures across gender, grade level, city size and school type in bivariate analyses. Overall, these observations are quite consistent with predictions that could be made based on either theory or previous studies. A few notable contrasts can be found in attitudinal and socio-demographic indicators. For example, native students report greater family affluence and neighborhood collective efficacy but also more negative life events. Students of recent immigrant status report higher level of family bonding but also more experience of being discriminated against. In spite of all these contrast, students of different immigrant statuses do not differ in self-reported victimization and offending experiences. We also did not find statistically significant difference between genders with regard to age of onset for all variety of offenses. Our multivariate analyses (both OLS and Negative Binomial regressions) lend support to the theoretical relationships derived from social bonding, self-control, and social learning theories. Findings included in the current report are based on U.S. ISRD-2 data only. The anticipated release of the merged cross-national ISRD-2 data will not only provide us an opportunity to compare our domestic findings with those of the other nations, it will also allow multi-level cross-national analyses.

DISSEMINATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

US ISRD-2 National Chapter, submitted to the ISRD Steering Committee. This chapter will be published as part of a collection of 28 national reports in Enzmann et al, *Juvenile Delinquency in Europe and Beyond: An International Perspective on Key Issues and Causes* (Springer, September 2009).

US ISRD-2 Technical Report, Submitted to the ISRD Steering Committee

A number of additional publications on the international results of the ISRD-2 are planned.

45

List of Conference Presentations:

Ni He, Ineke Haen Marshall & Ling Ren, "School Crime Victimization, Delinquency and Immigrant Youth: An Analysis of US ISRD-2 Data." Paper to be presented at the annual meeting of American Society of Criminology (Philadelphia, PA, November, 2009).

Ineke Haen Marshall, Ni He & Chris E. Marshall. "Low Self-control and Self-reported Victimization and Delinquency among a 12-15 Year Old Sample of Students." Paper to be presented at the annual meeting of American Society of Criminology (Philadelphia, PA, November, 2009).

Ni He, Ineke Haen Marshall & Man Jia. "Sense and Sensitivity: An Exploration of Delinquency Measurement, Analytical Techniques and Statistical Outcomes." Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Society of Criminology (St. Louis, MO, November, 2008).

Ni He, Ineke Haen Marshall, Meghan Peel & Wendy Sawyer. "International Self-report Delinquency (ISRD): Preliminary Findings from the U.S." Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Society of Criminology (Atlanta, GA, November, 2007).

Ineke Haen Marshall & Ni He. "Attitudes toward violence among Three ISRD School Samples in the U.S.: An Exploratory Analysis of a Controversial Theory." Paper presented at European society of Criminology Conference (Bologna, Italy, September, 2007).

REFERENCE

46

- Akers, R. L. and Christine S. Sellers (2004). *Criminological Theories: Introduction, Evaluation, and Application*. Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing.
- Alvazzi del Frate, A., Hatalak, O. & Zvekic, U. (editors)(2000). *Surveying Crime: A Global Perspective*. Proceedings of the International Conference. Rome, 19-21 November 1998. Italy, National Institute of Statistics.
- Alvazzi del Frate, Anna (1998) 'Victims of Crime in the Developing countries'. UNICRI Publication no 57, Rome, Italy.
- Alvazzi del Frate, Anna, Zvekic, Ugljesa, Dijk, Jan J.M. van (editors)(1993) 'Understanding Crime, Experiences of Crime and Crime Control, Acts of the International Conference'. Rome, 18-20 November 1992. UN publication No.49.
- Asbury, Herbert. (1928). *The Gangs of New York*. Garden City, NY: Garden City Publishing Company.
- Barberet, Rosemary, Benjamin Bowling, Josine Junger-Tas, Cristina Rechea-Alberole, John van Kesteren and Andrew Zurawan (2000). *Self-Reported Juvenile Delinquency in England and Wales, The Netherlands and Spain*. A Report to DG XXII of the European Commission Funded by Action E.II of Youth for Europe, 1997-1999.
- Benson, M. L. 2002 *Crime and the Life Course*, Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Co.
- Blumstein, A., J. Cohen, J.A. Roth, and C. Visher (eds). *Criminal Careers and "Career Criminals"*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Blumstein, A., J.. Cohen, and D. Nagin (1985). "Delinquency Careers: Innocents, Desisters, and Persisters", pp. 137-168 in Michael Tonry and Norval Morris, (eds.), *Crime and Justice*, Volume 6. Chicago:, University of Chicago Press.
- Bowling, Benjamin, John Graham, and Alec Ross (1994). Self-reported Offending among Young People in England and Wales. In Junger-Tas, Josine, Gert-Jan Terlouw, and Malcom W. Klein (1994). *Delinquent Behavior among Young People in the Western World: First Results of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Kugler Publications. Pp. 42-64.
- Bruinsma, G.I.N. (1994). The Test-retest Reliability of the ISRD Self-Report Instrument. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Society of Criminology (Nov.), Miami, FL.

- Cloward, Richard A. and Lloyd E. Ohlin (1960). *Delinquency and opportunity. A theory of delinquent gangs*. New York: The Free Press.
- Cohen, Albert K. (1955). *Delinquent boys*. New York: The Free Press.
- Cohen, Lawrence E. and Marcus Felson (1979). "Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activities approach." *American Sociological Review* 44: 588-608.
- Cohen, Lawrence E., James Kluegel, and Kenneth Land (1981). "Social inequality and predatory criminal victimization: An exposition and test of a formal theory." *American Sociological Review* 46:505-524.
- Dake, Joseph; Price, James H.; Telljohann, Susan K. 2003. "The nature and extent of bullying at school." *Journal of School Health*, vol. 73, no. 5, pp. 173-180.
- Decker, Scott H. (2003). *Policing Gangs and Youth Violence*. California: Wadsworth.
- Decker, Scott H. & Barrik Van Winkle (1996). *Life in the gang. Family, friends, and violence*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Decker, Scott H. and Frank Weerman. (2005). *European Street Gangs and Troublesome Youth Groups*. Lanham, MD: Alta Mira.
- Delisi, M. 2005. *Career Criminals in Society*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Donker, A. 2004 'Precursors and prevalence of young-adult and adult delinquency', Leiden: University of Leiden.
- Eaton, Danice K., Lowry, Richard, Brener Nancy D., Grunbaum, Jo Anne, and Kann, Laura. 2004. "Passive Versus Active Parental Permission in School-based Survey Research: Does the Type of Permission Affect Prevalence Estimates of Risk Behaviors?" *Evaluation Review*, 28:564-577.
- Elliot, Delbert S. (1994). Serious Violent Offenders: Onset, Development Course, and Termination. The American Society of Criminology 1993 Presidential Address. *Criminology*, 32:1-21.
- Elliott, D. S., Huizinga, D. and Ageton, S. S. (1985). *Explaining Delinquency and Drug Use. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications*.
- Ellis, Lee and Anthony Walsh (1999). "Criminologists' opinions about causes and theories of crime and delinquency." *The Criminologist* 24 (4): 1, 4-6.
- Engbersen G. & J. Van Der Leun (2001). The Social Construction of Illegality and Criminality. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research* 9: 51-70.

- Enzmann, Dirk, Beata Gruszcynska, Ineke Haen-Marshall, Josine Junger-Tas, Martin Killas, and Majone Steketee (2009). *Juvenile Delinquency in Europe and Beyond: An International Perspective on Key Issues and Causes*. Springer.
- Esbensen, F. and D. Huizinga (1991). "Juvenile Victimization and Delinquency". *Youth and Society* 23:208-228.
- Esbensen, Finn-Aage, Miller, Michelie, Taylor, Terrence, He, Ni, and Freng, Adrienne. (1999). "Differential Attrition Rates and Active Parental Consent." *Evaluation Review*, 23:316-335.
- Farrington, David P. (1996). Quantitative Criminology in the United Kingdom in the 1990s: A Brief Overview. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 12:249-263.
- Farrington, David, Patrick A. Langan and Michael tonry (Eds.), *Cross-National Studies in Crime and Justice*, 2004, U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs .
- Farrington, David P., Darrick Jolliffe, J. David Hawkins, Richard F. Catalano, Karl G. Hill, and Rick Kosterman (2003). Comparing Delinquency Careers in Court Records and Self-Reports. *Criminology*, 41:933-958.
- Farrington, David P., Rolf Roeber, Megda Stouthamer-Loeber, Welmoet B. Van Kammen, and Laura Schmidt (1996). "Self-reported Delinquency and a Combined Delinquency Seriousness Scale Based on Boys, Mothers, and Teachers: Concurrent and Predictive Validity for African-Americans and Caucasians." *Criminology* 34:493-517.
- Farrington, David P. and Per-Olof H. Wikstrom (1994). Criminal Careers in London and Stockholm: A Cross-national Comparative Study. In Elmar G.M. Weitekamp and Hans-Jurgen Kerner (eds.), *Cross-national Longitudinal Research on Human Development and Criminal Behavior*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.
- Gottfredson, Michael and Travis Hirschi (1990). *A General Theory of Crime*. Palo Alto, CA: Standard University Press.
- Graham, John and Benjamin Bowling (1995). *Young People and Crime*, Home Office Research Study 145, London: Home Office.
- Grasmick, H.G., C.R. Tittle, R.J. Bursik, Jr. and B. J. Arneklev (1993). "Testing the Core Empirical Implications of Gottfredson and Hirschi's General Theory of Crime". *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 30:5-29.
- Hagedorn, John. (2005). The Global Impact of Gangs. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, Volume 21, # 2: 153-169.

- Hindelang, M.J., T. Hirschi, and J.G. Weis (1981). *Measuring Delinquency*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of Delinquency*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Howard, Gregory J., Graeme Newman, and William A. Pridemore (2000). Theory, Method, and Data in Comparative Criminology. In *Criminal Justice 2000 Series*, Vol. 4. Washington DC: US National Institute of Justice. Pp. 139-211.
- Howell, James C. (1994). Recent gang research: program and policy implications. *Crime & Delinquency*, 40: 495-515.
- Huizinga, D. and C. Jakob-Chen (1998). Contemporaneous Co-occurrence of Serious and Violent Juvenile Offending and Other Problem Behaviors. In R. Loeber and D. P. Farrington (eds.), *Serious and Violent Juvenile Offenders: Risk Factors and Successful Interventions*, pp. 47-67. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Huizinga, D. and Elliott, D. S. "Juvenile Offenders: Prevalence Offenders Incidence, and Arrest Rates by Race." *Crime and Delinquency* 33(2): 206-223, 1987.
- Huizinga, D., and D.S. Elliott (1986). "Reassessing the Reliability and Validity of Self-report Delinquent Measures." *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 2:293-327.
- Jensen, G.F. and D. Brownfield (1983). "Parents and Drugs". *Criminology* 21:543-554.
- Ji, Peter, Porkorny, and Jason, Leonard. 2004. "Factors Influencing Middle and High School's Active Parental Consent Return Rates." *Evaluation Review*, 28:578-591.
- Joutsen, Matti, Peter Wetzels and Pat Mayhew (1994). "Innovations in Criminal Justice Research." *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research* (Special Issue), 2:5-116.
- Junger-Tas, J. (2001). "Ethnic Minorities, Social Integration and Crime." *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research* 9:5-29.
- Junger-Tas, Josine (1996). "Youth and Violence in Europe: A Quantitative Review." *Studies on Crime and Crime Prevention*, 5:31-58.
- Junger-Tas, Josine (1992). "An Empirical Test of Social Control Theory." *Journal of Quantitative Criminology* 8:9-28.
- Junger-Tas, Josine, Gert-Jan Terlouw, and Malcom W. Klein (1994). *Delinquent Behaviour Among Young People in the Western World: First Results of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Kugler Publications.

- Junger-Tas, Josine and Ineke Haen Marshall (1999). The Self-Report Methodology in Crime Research, pp 291-367 Michael Tonry (ed.), *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research*, volume 25.
- Junger-Tas, Josine, Ineke H. Marshall, and Denis Ribeaud with the collaboration of M. Killias, G.J. Terlouw, N. Bruining, M. Born, Ni He, C. Marshall and U. Gatti (2003). *Delinquency in an International Perspective: The International Self-Reported Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Kugler Publications.
- Kangaspunga, Kristiina, Matti Joutsen, and Natalia Ollus (eds.) (1998). *Crime and Criminal Justice in Europe and North America, 1990-1994*. Helsinki: European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations.
- Kilias, M. (ed), *European Sourcebook of Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics – 2003* (Second Edition). The Hague, Netherlands: Boom Juridische Uitgevers, Research and Documentation Cente Dutch Ministry of Justice, publication 212.
- Killias, Martin (1989). *Les Suisses face au Crime*. Grusch, Ruegger.
- Klein, Malcolm W. (1994). Epilogue. In Junger-Tas, Josine, Gert-Jan Terlouw, and Malcom W. Klein (1994). *Delinquent Behavior among Young People in the Western World: First results of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Kugler Publications. Pp. 381-385.
- Klein, Malcolm W. (1989). *Cross-national Research in Self-Reported Crime and Delinquency*. Los Angeles: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Klein, Malcolm W. and Cheryl L. Maxson. 2006. *Street Gang Patterns and Control*. New York: Oxford.
- Klein, Malcolm W. Hans-Jürgen Kerner, Cheryl L. Maxson & Elmar G.M. Weitekamp (eds. 2001), *The Eurogang Paradox: Street Gangs and Youth Groups in the U.S. and Europe*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Kohn, Melvin L. (1989). Cross-national Research as an Analytical Strategy. In *Cross-national Research in Sociology*, edited by Marvin L. Kohn. Bevely Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Krohn, Marvin D., Terrence P. Thornberry, Craig Rivera, and Marc LeBlanc (2001). Later Delinquency Careers. In Rolf Loeber and David Farrington (ed.s), *Child Delinquents: Development, Intervention, and Service Needs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kyvsgaard, B. 2003 *The criminal career. The Danish longitudinal study*, Cambridge, UK.: Cambridge University Press.

- Lauritsen, J. L., Sampson, R. J., and Laub, J. H. (1991). "The link between offending and victimization among adolescents." *Criminology* 29:265-292.
- Lynch, J. (1995a). Crime in International Perspective. In J.Q. Wilson and J. Petersilia (eds.), *Crime* (pp. 11-38). San Francisco, CA:ICS Press.
- (1995b). Building Data Systems for Cross-national Comparisons of Crime and Criminal Justice Policy: A Retrospective. *ICPSR Bulletin*, 15:1-6.
- Marsh, Robert Mortimer (1967). *Comparative Sociology: A Codification of Cross-societal Analysis*. New York: Harcourt Brace Javanovich.
- Marshall, I. H. (1996). How Exceptional is the United States? Crime Trends in Europe and the United States. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 4:7-34.
- Marshall, I. H. (1997). *Minorities, Migrants, and Crime: Diversity and Similarity across Europe and the United States*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Marshall, I.H. & C.R.Block (2004). "Maximizing the Availability of Cross-National Data on Homicide." *Homicide Studies*, 8, 3 (August), 267-310.
- Marshall, I. H. and V. J. Webb (1990). Omaha ISRD Pilot Study. Paper presented at the Meeting of International Self-report Delinquency Project. The Hague, The Netherlands.
- Marshall, I. H. and V. J. Webb (1994). Self-reported Delinquency in a Mid-western American City. In J. Junger-Tas et al. (1994), *Delinquent Behavior Among Young People in the Western World: First Results of the International Self-report Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Kugler Publications. Pp. 319-342.
- Martinez, Ramiro, and Matthew T. Lee. 2000. On Immigration and Crime. *Criminal Justice 2000*. Volume I, pp. 485-524. U.S. Department of Justice.
- Maxfield, M. G. & E.Babbie (2001). *Research Methods for Criminal Justice and Criminology*, (3d edition). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
- Mayhew, P., Dijk, J.J.M. van. (1997). *Criminal Victimization in eleven Industrialized Countries: Key findings from the 1996 International Crime Victims Survey*. The Hague: Ministry of Justice, WODC.
- Moffit, T.E. (1993). "Adolescence Limited and Life Course Persistent Antisocial Behavior: A Development Taxonomy". *Psychological Review* 100:674-701.
- Mustaine, E. E. and R. Tewksbury (1998). "Predicting Risks of Larceny Theft Victimization: A Routine Activity Analysis Using Refined Lifestyle Measures". *Criminology* 36:829-858.

- Nansel, Tonja R.; Overpeck, Mary D.; Haynie, Denise L.. 2003. Relationships between bullying and violence among US youth." *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, vol. 157, no. 4, pp. 348-353.
- National Institute of Justice (1998). *Trends in Juvenile Violence in European Countries: A Research Preview*. Washington DC: Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice.
- Neapolitan, Jerome L. (1997). *Cross-national Crime: A Research Review and Sourcebook*. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press.
- Nelken, David, *Comparing Criminal Justice*, pp. 175-202 in Mike Maguire, Rod Morgan and Robert Reiner (eds.), the *Oxford Handbook of Criminology* (third edition), Oxford University Press. (2002)
- Newman, G. Ed., (1999). *Global Report on Crime and Justice*, United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention. Centre for International Crime Prevention, Oxford University Press.
- Nieuwbeerta, P. (ed). (2002). *Crime Victimization in Comparative Perspective. Results from the International Crime Victims Survey, 1989-2000*. The Hague, Netherlands: Boom Juridische Uitgevers.
- OECD (2003). *PISA Newsletter*, Issue 9, October, 2003. OECD Programme for International Student Assessment. Paris, France.
- Office of the Surgeon General, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2001). *Youth Violence: A Report of the Surgeon General*.
(http://www.mentalhealth.org/youthviolence/surgeongeneral/SG_Site)
- Pakes, Francis (2004). *Comparative Criminal Justice*. Portland, OR: Willan Publishing.
- Payne, Allison A., Denise C. Gottfredson, and Gary D. Gottfredson (2003). "School as communities: The relationships among communal school organization, student bonding, and school disorder." *Criminology* 41:749-777.
- Phillips, Coretta and Ben Bowling, *Racism, Ethnicity, Crime and Criminal Justice*, pp.579-619 in Mike Maguire, Rod Morgan and Robert Reiner (eds.), the *Oxford Handbook of Criminology* (third edition), Oxford, University Press. (2002)
- Piquero, Alex R., David P. Farrington, and Alfred Blumstein (2003). *The Criminal Career Paradigm*. In Michael Tonry (ed.), *Crime and Justice*. Vol. 30. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

- Pratt, T.C. and F. T. Cullen (2000). "The Empirical Status of Gottfredson and Hirschi's General Theory of Crime: A Meta-analysis." *Criminology* 38:931-964.
- Przeworski, A. and Teune, H. (1970). *The Logic of Comparative Social Inquiry*. New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- Pudney, Stephen, Derek Deadman, and David Pyle (2000). The Relationship between Crime, Punishment and Economic Conditions: Is Reliable Inference Possible When Crimes are Under-recorded? *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 163:81-97.
- Raudenbusch, Stephen and Anthony Bryk (2002). *Hierarchical Linear Models - Applications and Data Analysis Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sampson, R. J. and J.L. Lauritsen (1994). Violent Victimization and Offending: Individual-, Situational- and Community-level Risk Factors. In A.J. Reiss, Jr. and J.A. Roth (eds.), *Understanding and Preventing Violence: Social Influences*. Vol. 3, pp. 1-114. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Sampson, Robert, Jeffrey D. Morenoff and Stephen Raudenbush, Social Anatomy of Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Violence, *American Journal of Public Health*. Vol. 95:224-232 (February 2005).
- Sampson, R. J. and J.L. Lauritsen (1990). "Deviant lifestyles, proximity to crime and the offender-victim link in personal violence." *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 27:110-139.
- Solberg, Mona E.; Olweus, Dan. 2003. Prevalence estimation of school bullying with the Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire." *Aggressive Behavior*, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 239-268.
- Stitt, B. Grant and David J. Giacopassi (1992). "Trends in the Connectivity of Theory and Research in Criminology." *The Criminologist* 17:1, 3-6.
- Straus, M.A. (1969). Phenomenal Identity and Conceptual Equivalence of Measurement in Cross-national Comparative Research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 31:233-239.
- The U.S. Surgeon General (2001). Youth Violence: A Report of the Surgeon General. Public Health Service, Washington DC.
- Trasher, Frederick M. (1927). *The gang: a study of 1,313 gangs in Chicago*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Thornberry, T.P. (1989). Panel Effects and the Use of Self-reported Measures of Delinquency in Longitudinal Studies. In M. W. Klein (ed.), *Cross-national Research in Self-Reported Crime and Delinquency*. Los Angeles, CA: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

- Thornberry, Terrence P. and Marvin D. Krohn (2000). The Self-Report Method for Measuring Delinquency and Crime. In *Criminal Justice 2000 Series*, Vol. 4. Washington DC: US National Institute of Justice. Pp. 33-83.
- Thornberry, Terrence P., Marvin D. Krohn, Alan J. Lizotte (eds.) (2003). *Taking Stock of Delinquency: An Overview of Findings from Contemporary Longitudinal Studies*. New York, NY: Kluwer.
- Tolan, Patrick H. and Peter Thomas (1995). Implications of Age of Onset for Delinquency Risk. II: Longitudinal Data. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 23:157-181.
- Tonry, Michael (ed.) (1997). Ethnicity, Crime, and Immigration: Comparative and Cross-National Perspectives. *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research*. Vol. 21. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Unger, Jennifer, Gallaher, Peggy, Palmer, Paula, Baezconde-Garbanati, Lourdes, Trinidad, Dennis, Cen, Steven, and Johnson, C. Anderson. 2004. "No News is Bad News: Characteristics of Adolescents Who Provide Neither Parental Consent nor Refusal for Participation in School-based Survey Research." *Evaluation Review*, 28:52-63.
- Unnever, James D.; Colvin, Mark; Cullen, Francis T., Crime and coercion: A test of core theoretical propositions. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 244-268, 2004
- Van Dijk, J.J.M., & Mayhew, P. (1992). *Criminal victimization in the Industrialized World: Key findings of the 1989 and 1992 International Crime Surveys*. The Hague: Ministry of Justice, Department of Crime Prevention.
- Van Dijk, J.J.M., Mayhew, P. & Killias, M. (1990). *Experiences of crime across the world: Key findings from the 1989 International Crime Survey*. Deventer: Kluwer Law and Taxation.
- Van Kesteren, J.N., Mayhew, P. & Nieuwbeerta, P. (2000) *Criminal Victimization in Seventeen Industrialized Countries: Key-findings from the 2000 international Crime Victims Survey*. The Hague, Ministry of Justice, WODC.
- Vigil, Diego (1988). *Barrio Gangs*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Warr, Mark (2002). *Companions in Crime: The Social Aspects of Criminal Conduct*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Zhang, Sheldon, Theodore Benson, and Xiaogang Deng (2000). A Test-retest Reliability Assessment of the International Self-report Delinquency Instrument. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28:283-295.

Zvekic, Ugljesa (1998) Criminal victimization in countries in transition. UNICRI Publication no 61, Rome, Italy.

55

Zvekic, U. & Alvazzi del Frate, A. (1995) Criminal victimization in the Developing World. United Nations Publication no 55, Rome, UNICRI.

Questionnaire #

□ □ □ □

QUESTIONNAIRE ISRD 2

8/28/2008

Hello,

This questionnaire is about you and your friends. We are interested in getting to know more about your life, school, what you do in your free time and about the problems you might have. The questions are about your personal experience and your opinions, but you are free to answer them or not.

Of course the questionnaire is anonymous: your name is not on it, your parents or your teachers won't see your answers. The questionnaires will be analyzed by researchers from Northeastern University in Boston.

If there are any questions you don't understand, please ask the assistant who has come to your classroom to help you. Don't think too much about answering the questions, just answer them spontaneously.

Thank you very much for your effort

Phil He and Ineke Marshall

City □ □ □ □ □

Code □ □ □ * □ □ * □ * □ □ □ □ | □ □

PART I – SOME QUESTIONS ON THE WAY YOU LIVE

1. Are you male or female

- (1) ☐ Male
- (2) ☐ female

2. How old are you?

- (1) ☐ 12
- (2) ☐ 13
- (3) ☐ 14
- (4) ☐ 15
- (5) ☐ 16
- (6) ☐ 17

3. Where you born in this country?

- 3.1 (1) ☐ Yes
- (2) ☐ No, I was born in → If no: ↗

3.2

How old were you when you _____ years old
came in this country?

4. In what country was **your mother** born?

- (1) ☐ She was born in:
- (2) ☐ She was born in another country, namely _____
- (3) ☐ She was born in another country, but I don't know where
- (4) ☐ I don't know

5. In what country was **your father** born?

- (1) ☐ He was born in:
- (2) ☐ He was born in another country, namely _____
- (3) ☐ He was born in another country, but I don't know where
- (4) ☐ I don't know

6. Are you living with your own mother and father?

- (1) ☐ Yes, I live with my own mother and father
- (2) ☐ I live part of the time with my mother and part of the time with my father
- (3) ☐ I live with my mother
- (4) ☐ I live with my father
- (5) ☐ I live with my mother and her partner/my stepfather
- (6) ☐ I live with my father and his partner/my stepmother
- (7) ☐ I live with family (such as grand parents, an aunt, brother/sister....)
- (8) ☐ I live with a foster family
- (9) ☐ I live with other people, namely -----

7. What language do you most often speak with the persons you live with?

- (1) ☐ The language of the country/province where I now live
- (2) ☐ My native language, different from the one in this country/province/region
- (3) ☐ Other, namely -----

8. Have people ever treated you badly because of your religion or the language you speak, or the color of your skin?

- (1) ☐ No, never
- (2) ☐ Once
- (3) ☐ Sometimes
- (4) ☐ Often

9. Does **your father (or the man you live with) have a job?**

- (1) ☐ He has a steady job
- (2) ☐ He works at his own business
- (3) ☐ He sometimes has work
- (4) ☐ He would like to work, but he can't find a job
- (5) ☐ He has a long term illness/disability
- (6) ☐ He is retired
- (7) ☐ No, other reason, -----
- (8) ☐ There is no man living in the house

10. Does **your mother (or the woman you live with) have a paid job?**

- (1) ☐ She has a steady job
- (2) ☐ She has her own business
- (3) ☐ She sometimes has work
- (4) ☐ She would like to work, but she can't find a job
- (5) ☐ She has a long term illness/disability
- (6) ☐ She takes care of the household
- (7) ☐ No, other reason,-----
- (8) ☐ There is no woman living in the household

11. Do you have a room of your own?

- (1) ☐ Yes
(2) ☐ No, I share my room with other members of the family

12. Do you have a computer at home that you are allowed to use?

- (1) ☐ Yes
(2) ☐ No

13. Do you own a mobile phone?

- (1) ☐ Yes
(2) ☐ No

14. Does your family own a car?

- (1) ☐ Yes
(2) ☐ No

SOME BAD THINGS THAT MAY HAVE HAPPENED TO YOU

15. Thinking back over the last 12 months, did any of the following happen to you; did you –or somebody else- report this to the police? Please answer 15.1 – 15.4

		It did not happen in the last 12 months	It did happen in the last 12 months.	How many times was the incident reported to the police?	
		(0)	(give your best guess)	(give your best guess)	
15.1	Someone wanted you to give him/her money or something else (watch, shoes, mobile phone) and threatened you if you did not do it?	<input type="radio"/> timestimes	
15.2	Someone hit you violently or hurt you so much that you needed to see a doctor?	<input type="radio"/> times times	
15.3	Something was stolen from you (such as a book, money, mobile phone, sport equipment, bicycle...)?	<input type="radio"/> times times	
15.4	You were bullied at school (other students humiliated you or made fun of you, hit or kicked you, or excluded you from their group)?	<input type="radio"/> times times	

YOUR FAMILY

16. How do you usually get along with the man you live with (father, stepfather....)

- (1) ☐ I get along just fine
- (2) ☐ I get along rather well
- (3) ☐ I don't get along so well
- (4) ☐ I don't get along at all
- (5) ☐ There is no man in the house

17. How do you usually get along with the woman you live with (your mother or stepmother?)

- (1) ☐ I get along just fine
- (2) ☐ I get along rather well
- (3) ☐ I don't get along so well
- (4) ☐ I don't get along at all
- (5) ☐ There is no mother or other woman in the house

18. How often do you and your parents (or the adults you live with) do something together, such as going to the movies, going for a walk or hike, visiting relatives, attending a sporting event, and things like that?

- (1) ☐ More than once a week
- (2) ☐ About once a week
- (3) ☐ About once a month
- (4) ☐ A few times a year
- (5) ☐ About once a year
- (6) ☐ Almost never

19. How many days a week do you usually eat the evening meal with (one of) your parents (or the adults you live with)?

- (1) ☐ Never
- (2) ☐ Once
- (3) ☐ Twice
- (4) ☐ Three times
- (5) ☐ Four times
- (6) ☐ Five times
- (7) ☐ Six times
- (8) ☐ Daily

20. Do your parents (or the adults you live with) usually know who you are with when you go out?

- (1) ☐ Always
- (2) ☐ Sometimes
- (3) ☐ Rarely/never
- (4) ☐ I don't go out

21. When you go out at night do your parents (or the family you live with) generally tell you at what time you have to be back?

- (1) ☐ I don't go out
 (2) ☐ No, they don't
 (3) ☐ Yes, they →
 do

If yes: ↗

21.1 Do you do what they tell you?

- (1) ☐ Always
 (2) ☐ Sometimes
 (3) ☐ Rarely/never

22. Have you ever experienced any of the following serious events?

	No (1)	Yes (2)
22.1 Death of a brother/sister	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.2 Death of your father or mother*	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.3 Death of somebody else you love	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20.4 Long or serious illness of yourself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.5 Long or serious illness of one of your parents* or of someone else close to you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.6 Problems of one of your parents with alcohol or drugs*	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.7 Repeated serious conflicts or physical fights between your parents *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22.8 Separation/divorce of your parents*	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* by parents we also mean step- or adoptive parents

LEISURE TIME

23. How many times a week do you usually go out at night, such as going to a party or a disco, go to somebody's house or hanging out on the street?

- (1) ☐ Never, I don't go out at night
 (2) ☐ Once
 (3) ☐ Twice
 (4) ☐ Three times
 (5) ☐ Four times
 (6) ☐ Five times
 (7) ☐ Six times
 (8) ☐ Daily

24. Outside school how much time do you spend on an average school day on each of these activities? Please answer all questions (24.1 – 24.7)

	None	½ hour	1 hour	2 hours	3 hours	4 h. or +
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
24.1 Doing homework	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.2 Reading a book	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.3 Watching TV, playing games or chatting on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.4 Reading magazines or comic strips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.5 Hanging out with friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.6 Playing sports	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24.7 Playing a music instrument	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

25. When you go out in the week-end, how do you most often get where you want to go (more than one answer possible)?

- (1) ☐ I don't go out in the week-end
- (2) ☐ I walk
- (3) ☐ My father/ mother give me a ride
- (4) ☐ I take my bike
- (5) ☐ I take my scooter
- (6) ☐ I take public transportation (bus, train, tramway, tube...)
- (7) ☐ Other, -----

26. With whom do you spend most of your free time (one answer only)?

- (1) ☐ On my own
- (2) ☐ With my family
- (3) ☐ With one to three friends
- (4) ☐ With a larger group of friends (4 or more)

27. Some people have a certain group of friends that they spend time with, doing things together or just hanging out. Do you have a group of friends like that?

- (1) ☐ No => skip question 28-34 and go to question 35
- (2) ☐ Yes

28. Which one of the following best describes the ages of people in your group?

- (1) ☐ Under twelve
- (2) ☐ Twelve to fifteen
- (3) ☐ Sixteen to eighteen
- (4) ☐ Nineteen to twenty-five
- (5) ☐ Over twenty-five

29. Does this group spend a lot of time together in public places like the park, the street, shopping areas, or the neighbourhood?

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes

30. How long has this group existed?

- (1) ☐ Less than three months
- (2) ☐ Three months to less than one year
- (3) ☐ One to four years
- (4) ☐ Five to ten years
- (5) ☐ Eleven to twenty years
- (6) ☐ More than twenty years

31. Is doing illegal things (against the law) accepted by or okay for your group?

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes

32. Do people in your group actually do illegal things (against the law) together?

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes

33. Do you consider your group of friends to be a gang?

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes

34. Are they all boys or all girls, or is it a mixed group?

- (1) ☐ We are all boys
- (2) ☐ We are all girls
- (3) ☐ It is a mixed group

35. How many of your friends have parents of a foreign origin?

- (1) ☐ None at all
 (2) ☐ Only some
 (3) ☐ Many of them
 (4) ☐ All of them

36. People often differ with regard to their origin, their religion and their beliefs. Do your parents approve of you having friends who belong to a different (ethnic) group?

- (1) ☐ Yes
 (2) ☐ No
 (3) ☐ I don't know

37. When you hang out with your friends: (please answer all questions: 37.1 – 37.9)

	We usually....	Never (1)	Sometimes (2)	Often (3)	Always (4)
37.1	go to discos or pop concerts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.2	play in a band	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.3	drink a lot of beer/alcohol or take drugs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.4	smash or vandalize things just for fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.5	shoplift just for fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.6	play sports	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.7	play computer games or chat on the computer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.8	frighten and annoy people around us just for fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37.9	Other, namely----- -----	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

38. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements of violent behavior done by young people?

		Fully agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Fully Disagree (4)
38.1	A bit of violence is part of the fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38.2	One needs to make use of force to be respected	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38.3	If somebody attacks me, I will hit him/her back	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38.4	Without violence everything would be much more boring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38.5	It is completely normal that boys want to prove themselves in physical fights with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

39. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (please answer all questions)

		Fully agree (1)	Somewhat agree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Fully disagree (4)
39.1	I act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.2	I do whatever brings me pleasure here and now, even at the cost of some distant goal.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.3	I'm more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.4	I like to test myself every now and then by doing something a little risky	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.5	Sometimes I will take a risk just for the fun of it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.6	Excitement and adventure are more important to me than security.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.7	I try to look out for myself first, even if it means making things difficult for other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.8	If things I do upset people, it's their problem not mine.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.9	I will try to get the things I want even when I know it's causing problems for other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.10	I lose my temper pretty easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.11	When I'm really angry, other people better stay away from me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39.12	When I have a serious disagreement with someone, it's usually hard for me to talk calmly about it without getting upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

40. Did you ever have an accident that was so serious you had to see a doctor, such as during sports or traffic accident (not a simple cut or wound)?

- (1) ☐ No
 (2) ☐ Once
 (3) ☐ ----- times

SCHOOL

41. Do you usually like school?

- (1) ☐ I like it a lot
 (2) ☐ I like it fairly well
 (3) ☐ I do not like it very much
 (4) ☐ I do not like it at all

42. Have you ever been held back, that is did you ever have to repeat a grade?

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes, once,
- (3) ☐ Yes, more than once

43. Did you ever stay away from school for at least a whole day without legitimate excuse in the last 12 months?

- (1) ☐ Never
- (2) ☐ 1 or 2 times
- (3) ☐ 3 or more times

44. How well do you do in school compared to other students in your class?

- (1) ☐ I am doing better than most of my classmates
- (2) ☐ I am an average student
- (3) ☐ I am not doing very well

45. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your school?
(please answer all questions:45.1-45.8)

		I fully agree (1)	I somewhat agree (2)	I somewhat disagree (3)	I fully disagree (4)
45.1	If I had to move I would miss my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.2	Teachers do notice when I am doing well and let me know	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.3	I like my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.4	There are other activities in school besides lessons (sports, music, theatre, disco's)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.5	There is a lot of stealing in my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.6	There is a lot of fighting in my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.7	Many things are broken or vandalized in my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45.8	There is a lot of drug use in my school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

46. What do you think of doing after you finish compulsory school? (Compulsory means that you are forced to go to school)

- (1) ☐ I will look for a job
- (2) ☐ I will start an apprenticeship
- (3) ☐ I will start training on the job
- (4) ☐ I will (continue to) attend a school where I can learn a trade
- (5) ☐ I will continue my education (in my school) preparing for higher education
- (6) ☐ Other : _____
- (7) ☐ I don't know yet

YOUR NEIGHBOURHOOD

47. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your neighborhood? (Please answer all questions)

		I fully agree (1)	I somewhat agree (2)	I somewhat disagree (3)	I fully disagree (4)
47.1	If I had to move, I would miss the neighbourhood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.2	My neighbors notice when I am misbehaving and let me know	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.3	I like my neighborhood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.4	There is a lot of space for children to play	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.5	There is a lot of crime in my neighborhood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.6	There is a lot of drug selling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.7	There is a lot of fighting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.8	There are a lot of empty and abandoned buildings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.9	There is a lot of graffiti	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.10	People around here are willing to help their neighbors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.11	This is a close-knit neighborhood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.12	People in this neighborhood can be trusted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47.13	people in this neighborhood generally don't get along with each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Part II – QUESTIONS ON THINGS YOUNG PEOPLE SOMETIMES DO

48. Young people sometimes engage in illegal activities. How many friends do you know who have done something of the following? (Please answer all questions)			
	<i>(either check "no" or fill in the number)</i>	<i>(check)</i>	<i>(your best guess)</i>
48.1	I have friends who used soft or hard drugs like weed, hash, XTC, speed, heroin or coke.	<input type="radio"/> no	yes, ____ friends
48.2	I have friends who did steal something from a shop or department store.	<input type="radio"/> no	yes, ____ friends
48.3	I have friends who entered a building with the purpose to steal something.	<input type="radio"/> no	yes, ____ friends
48.4	I have friends who did threaten somebody with a weapon or to beat him up, just to get money or other things from him.	<input type="radio"/> no	yes, ____ friends
48.5	I have friends who did beat someone up or hurt someone badly with something like a stick or a knife.	<input type="radio"/> no	yes, ____ friends

49. Did you ever drink beer, breezers or wine?

(1) ☐ No

(2) ☐ Yes

→ if
yes

go to
Q.49



Please answer all questions:
49.1-49.7

49.1 How old were you when you drank beer, breezer, cider or wine for the first time?

_____ years old

49.2 Did you ever get drunk on this?

- (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

49.3 Did you drink during the last 4 weeks?

- (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

49.4 The last time, how many glasses, cans or (small) bottles did you drink?

____ glasses
----- (small) bottles
----- cans

49.5 The last time, did you drink alone or with others?

- (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With my parents
(3) ☐ With other adults
(4) ☐ Only with other kids

49.6 The last time, did any adult notice your drinking?

- (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ My parents
(3) ☐ The police
(4) ☐ A teacher
(5) ☐ Someone else

49.7 The last time, did you get punished for drinking?

- (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
(3) ☐ Nobody noticed

50. Did you ever drink strong spirits (gin, rum, vodka, whisky)?

(1) ☐ No go to Q. 51

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



please answer all questions: 50.1-50.7

50.1 How old were you when you drank this for the first time? _____ years old

50.2 Did you ever get drunk on this? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, _____ times

50.3 Did you drink during the last 4 weeks? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, _____ times

50.4 The last time, how many glasses did you drink? _____ glasses

50.5 The last time, did you drink alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

50.6 The last time, did any adult notice your drinking? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ My parents
(3) ☐ The police
(4) ☐ A teacher
(5) ☐ Someone else

50.7 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ Not applicable

51. Did you ever use weed, marijuana or hash?

(1) ☐ No go to Q. 52

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes go to



Answer all questions: 51.1-51.5

51.1 How old were you when you used this for the first time? _____ years old

51.2 Did you use it during the last 4 weeks? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, _____ times


51.3 The last time, did you do use alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ Only with other kids

51.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ My parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

51.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

52. Did you ever use drugs such as XTC or speed?

(1) ☐ No go to Q.53

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes go to 

Answer all questions: 52.1-52.5

52.1 How old were you when you used this for the first time? _____ years old

52.2 Did you use this during the last 4 weeks? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, _____ times


52.3 The last time, did you use it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

52.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

52.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

53. Did you ever use drugs such as LSD, heroin or coke?

(1) ☐ No go to Q. 54

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes go to 

Answer all questions: 53.1-53.5

53.1 How old were you when you used this for the first time? _____ years old

53.2 Did you use it during the last 4 weeks? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, _____ times


53.3 The last time, did you use it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ Only with other kids

53.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

53.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

54. Did you ever damage on purpose something, such as a bus shelter, a window, a car or a seat in the bus or train or?

- (1) ☐ No go to Q. 55

- (2) ☐ Yes → If yes go to 

Answer all questions: 54.1-54.5

54.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

54.2 Did you do this during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ___ times


54.3 The last time, did you do this alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

54.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

54.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

55. Did you ever steal something from a shop or a department store?

- (1) ☐ No go to Q. 56

- (2) ☐ Yes → If yes 

Answer all questions: 55.1-55.5

55.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

55.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ___ times

55.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

55.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

55.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

56. Did you ever break into a building with the purpose to steal something?

(1) ☐ No go to
57

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 56.1-56.5

56.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

56.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

56.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

56.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

56.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

57. Did you ever steal a bicycle, moped or scooter?

(1) ☐ No go to
Q.58

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 57.1-57.5

57.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

57.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

57.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

57.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

57.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

58. Did you ever steal a motorbike or car?

(1) ☐ No go to

Q.59

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 58.1-58.5

58.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

58.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

58.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

58.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

58.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

59. When you use a computer did you ever download music or films?

(1) ☐ No go to

Q.60

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 59.1-59.6

59.1 Did you think it was illegal? ☐ No
☐ Yes

59.2 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

59.3 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

59.4 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

59.5 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

59.6 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

60. Did you ever use your computer for ‘hacking’?

(1) ☐ No

go to
Q.61

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 60.1-60.5

60.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

60.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

60.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

60.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

60.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

61. Did you ever steal something out of or from a car?

(1) ☐ No

go to
Q.62

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 61.1-61.5

61.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

61.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

61.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

61.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

61.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

62. Did you ever snatch a purse, bag or something else from a person?

(1) ☐ No go to
Q. 63

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 62.1-62.5

62.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

62.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

62.3 The last time, were you on your own or together with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

62.4 The last time were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

62.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

63. Did you ever carry a weapon, such as a stick, knife, or chain (not a pocket-knife)?

(1) ☐ No go to
Q. 64

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 63.1-63.5

63.1 How old were you when you carried a weapon for the first time? _____ years old

63.2 Did you do this during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

63.3 The last time, on what occasion did you carry a weapon? (1) ☐ I always carry a weapon
(2) ☐ When I did go to school
(3) ☐ When I was going out with friends

63.4 The last time were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

63.5 The last time did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

64. Did you ever threaten somebody with a weapon or to beat them up, just to get money or other things from them?

(1) ☐ No go to
Q.65

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 64.1-64.5

64.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

64.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

64.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ With adults
(3) ☐ With other kids

64.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

64.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

65. Did you ever participate in a group fight on the school playground, a football stadium, the streets or in any public place?

(1) ☐ No go to
Q.66

(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 65.1-65.5

65.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

65.2 Did you fight during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ____ times

65.3 The last time, what kind of fight was that? (1) ☐ We fought with other kids
(2) ☐ There were also adults fighting

65.4 The last time, were you found out? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

65.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

66. Did you ever intentionally beat up someone, or hurt him with a stick or knife, so bad that he had to see a doctor?

- (1) ☐ No go to
Q. 67
(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 66.1-66.5

66.1 How old were you when you did this for the first time? _____ years old

66.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ___ times

66.3 The last time, were you alone or with others? (1) ☐ I was alone
(2) ☐ I was with other kids
(3) ☐ I was with adults

66.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

66.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

67. Did you ever sell any (soft or hard) drugs or act as an intermediary?

- (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes → If yes



Answer all questions: 67.1-67.5

67.1 How old were you when you did sell this for the first time? _____ years old

67.2 Did you do it during the last 12 months? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes, ___ times

67.3 The last time, did you do it alone or with others? (1) ☐ Alone
(2) ☐ I was with other kids
(3) ☐ I was with adults

67.4 The last time, were you found out then? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ By my parents
(3) ☐ By the police
(4) ☐ By a teacher
(5) ☐ By someone else

67.5 The last time, did you get punished? (1) ☐ No
(2) ☐ Yes
☐ No I wasn't found out

This is all we wanted to ask you. Thank you so much for your help!

ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables (USA)

Risk behavior and prevalence of alcohol consumption, soft drug use, and truancy

Table 1 and Table 5 show the prevalence of alcohol consumption and soft drug use. Additionally, a combined score of alcohol consumption together with soft drug use, truancy and an indicator of risky life style can be used (Table 2, Table 6, and Table 9). Note that prevalence of alcohol consumption and soft drug use is displayed in separate tables and not together with the prevalence of self-reported delinquency (offences).

Table 1: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalences of Alcohol and Soft Drug Use (USA)

	life-time		last month	
	%	% missing	%	% missing
beer/wine	39.9	3.5	12.4	4.3
strong spirits	25.0	4.7	9.2	5.0
marijuana, hashish use	16.0	4.5	7.9	4.8

n = 2401; unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

Truancy has been asked referring to the last year whereas alcohol and drug use have been asked referring to the last month. This is why there is no life-time prevalence for truancy (Table 2). "Risk" assesses whether at least two of the following three behaviors have been reported: (1) Having drunken beer/wine or strong spirits at least once during the last month, (2) having used marijuana/hashish at least once during the last month, and (3) being truant at least once during the last year.

Table 2: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Risk Factors (USA)

	life-time		last month ^a	
	%	% missing	%	% missing
alcohol total ^b	41.5	3.2	14.0	3.3
marijuana, hashish use	16.0	4.5	7.9	4.8
truancy	–	–	32.8	1.0
two risk factors present	–	–	11.5	3.2

n = 2401; unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a truancy: last year prevalence

^b beer/wine and strong spirits

Note that throughout the tables the prevalence rates are based on the number of valid cases only. In all tables the percentage of missing cases are given per variable and the total number of cases are indicated either in the table footnote or a column header.

Victimization experiences

The last year prevalences of victimizations are shown in Table 3, Table 7, and Table 10. Everybody should include the information of Table 3 and Table 7 in the national chapter. However, whether you include also the information of Table 10 depends on the problems you try to answer in your chapter.

Note that the base of the prevalence of reporting an incident to the police is the number of victims, not the number of valid cases. If a respondent did experience one incident of victimization but did not indicate whether it was reported to the police no reporting to the

police has been assumed¹. Therefore, the number of cases in the table footnote is sufficient to (re)construct the number of cases of all cells of the table.

Table 3: Last Year Prevalence of Victimization and Reporting to the Police (USA)

	victimization		reporting to the police ^a
	%	% missing	%
robbery/ext.	4 . 5	6 . 5	13 . 6
assault	4 . 1	6 . 6	16 . 1
theft	31 . 2	6 . 0	12 . 6
bullying	20 . 0	6 . 3	4 . 9

n = 2401; unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a percentage based on number of victims; no answer: no reporting assumed

Self-reported delinquency

Additional to the victimization experiences (*Table 3* and *Table 7*) the prevalence of self-reported delinquency reported in *Table 4* and *Table 8* belong to the "musts" of every participant: *Table 4* displays life-time and last year prevalences of each item separately, *Table 8* reports this for the large city and other inhabitants using aggregated prevalence measures (indexes) (note that the reference frame for hard drug use has been the last month instead of the last year).

If, additionally, you consider to report incidences (frequencies) of delinquent behavior, please note that due to the non-normal distribution of the incidences and due to (not yet identified) outlying cases means and standard deviations are very misleading. There are ideas on how to deal with this issue but we think that it is premature to focus on this now. If you want to report the frequency of delinquency, for the time being we suggest to categorize the incidences in incidence classes like 0, 1, 2–4, 5–9, ≥ 10 .²

¹ See the [data entry rules](#).

² If you consider reporting offending rates based on offenders only (thus, if you consider dropping those never having committed the delinquent act) you are in fact trying to report something similar to lambda (see: Blumstein et al., 1986, pp. 4-5 and pp. 12-30; Horney & Marshall, 1991). It is understandable why you want to do this (the data are less skewed and the percentages of incidence categories look less small). However, it is debatable to define "active offenders" based on a single type of offence committed during the last year. What is more, many readers would like to know the percentage of frequent offenders (say five acts and more during the last year) based on *all* respondents!

Table 4: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence of Offences (USA)

	life time		last year ^a	
	%	% missing	%	% missing
group fight	16.0	5.2	9.7	5.6
carrying a weapon	14.3	4.9	10.0	5.5
assault	4.3	5.1	2.2	5.6
pick pocketing/snatching	2.7	5.0	1.3	5.2
robbery/extortion	3.2	5.0	2.1	5.2
vandalism	15.9	4.7	8.7	5.0
shoplifting	20.7	4.9	9.2	5.5
bicycle/motor bike theft	5.1	4.7	2.1	5.0
car break	5.6	4.9	2.8	5.1
burglary	2.1	4.7	1.2	4.9
car theft	1.9	4.8	1.1	4.9
computer hacking	4.6	4.9	3.1	5.2
drug dealing	5.0	5.3	3.4	5.6
XTC/speed use	2.4	4.5	1.0	4.6
LSD/heroin/cocaine use	2.5	4.8	1.1	4.9

n = 2401; unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a XTC/speed and LSD/heroin use: last month prevalence

Prevalence rates for large city and other inhabitants

Because some countries used national samples opposed to city based samples, prevalence measures are not compatible across nations. Therefore it is useful to report the prevalence rates separately for the large city (or large cities) and the remaining sample (i.e. "other"). To report these figures is possible for participants using city based samples as well as for those using national samples (because the latter did over sample one large city). The (column) header titles in the following tables are suggestions that you should adapt to your needs (for example, instead of "large city sample" and "rest of sample" you could use "Zurich" and "not Zurich" or "rest of Switzerland"). But don't forget to report the number of cases of both, the large or oversampled city (or cities) sample and the rest of the sample in the column header or in a table footnote.

Note that with the exception of alcohol and soft drug use the following tables use aggregated measures (indexes) of prevalences instead of single items. We recommend to use combined 'last year' prevalences for ease of analysis and presentation if you report comparisons of several (separate) groups of respondents (this applies not only for the comparison of "large city" and "other" inhabitants but also for gender, migrants, grades, etc.)

Table 5: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Alcohol and Soft Drug Use (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (USA)

	large city sample (<i>n</i> = 493)				rest of sample (<i>n</i> = 1908)			
	life time		last month		life time		last month	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
beer/wine	47.8	1.2	13.5	2.2	37.8	4.1	12.1	4.9
strong spirits	28.3	1.8	10.1	2.0	24.2	5.4	8.9	5.7
marijuana/hashish use	24.8	1.8	8.9	2.2	13.6	5.1	7.6	5.5

unweighted data; prevalences based on valid cases

Table 6: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalence of Risk Factors (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (USA)

	large city sample (<i>n</i> = 493)				rest of sample (<i>n</i> = 1908)			
	life time		last month ^a		life time		last month ^a	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
alcohol total ^b	48.7	0.8	15.7	0.8	39.7	3.8	13.5	3.9
marijuana, hashish use	24.8	1.8	8.9	2.2	13.6	5.1	7.6	5.5
truancy	–	–	39.6	0.2	–	–	31.1	1.2
two risk factors present	–	–	14.3	0.8	–	–	10.7	3.8

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a truancy: last year prevalence^b beer/wine and strong spirits**Table 7: Last Year Prevalences of Victimization and Reporting to the Police (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (USA)**

	large city sample (<i>n</i> = 493)			rest of sample (<i>n</i> = 1908)		
	victimization		reporting to the police ^a	victimization		reporting to the police ^a
	%	% miss.	%	%	% miss.	%
robbery/ext.	4.7	5.7	36.4	4.5	6.8	7.4
assault	4.8	6.1	21.7	3.9	6.8	14.3
theft	29.2	5.5	24.8	31.7	6.1	9.7
bullying	17.6	6.7	7.3	20.6	6.2	4.3

unweighted data; prevalences based on valid cases

^a percentage based on number of victims; no answer: no reporting assumed

Table 8: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence (Aggregated Offences) (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (USA)

	large city sample (n = 493)				rest of sample (n = 1908)			
	life time		last year ^a		life time		last year ^a	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
freq. violent offences ^b	34.2	0.8	22.9	0.8	18.8	5.5	13.4	5.8
rare violent offences ^c	9.6	0.4	5.1	0.4	6.9	5.6	4.0	5.7
vandalism	20.1	1.2	9.7	1.8	14.8	5.6	8.4	5.9
shoplifting	27.5	1.8	12.5	2.6	18.9	5.7	8.3	6.3
rare property offences ^d	14.9	0.6	7.6	0.6	7.7	5.1	3.8	5.2
computer hacking	6.3	0.6	3.9	1.2	4.2	6.0	2.9	6.3
drug dealing	5.1	0.6	2.9	1.0	4.9	6.6	3.5	6.8
hard drugs use ^e	5.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	3.2	5.1	1.7	5.2

unweighted data; prevalences based on valid cases

^a hard drug use: last month prevalence

^b group fight and carrying a weapon

^c pick pocketing/snatching, robbery/extortion, and assault

^d burglary, bicycle/motor bike theft, car theft, and car break

^e XTC/speed and LSD/heroin/cocaine use

Prevalence rates for large cities, medium sized cities, and small towns

The following tables show prevalence rates for more than two groups. For ease of presentation again only aggregated (combined) measures of prevalences have been used.

Table 9: Life-Time and Last Month Prevalences of Risk Factors by Size of City/Town (USA)

	large city (<i>n</i> = 493)				medium sized city (<i>n</i> = 946)				small towns (<i>n</i> = 962)			
	life time		last month ^a		life time		last month ^a		life time		last month ^a	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
alcohol total ^b	48.7	0.8	15.7	0.8	45.7	2.6	17.2	2.6	33.6	4.9	9.8	5.2
marijuana, hashish use	24.8	1.8	8.9	2.2	17.8	3.7	10.0	3.9	9.5	6.5	5.3	7.0
truancy	–	–	39.6	0.2	–	–	31.9	0.7	–	–	30.2	1.6
two risk factors present	–	–	14.3	0.8	–	–	13.8	2.6	–	–	7.7	4.9

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a truancy: last year prevalence^b beer/wine and strong spirits**Table 10: Last Year Prevalences of Victimization and Reporting to the Police by Size of City/Town (USA)**

	large city (<i>n</i> = 493)			medium sized city (<i>n</i> = 946)			small towns (<i>n</i> = 962)		
	victimization		reporting to the police ^a	victimization		reporting to the police ^a	victimization		reporting to the police ^a
	%	% miss.	%	%	% miss.	%	%	% miss.	%
robbery/ext.	4.7	5.7	36.4	5.8	5.6	5.7	3.2	7.9	10.7
assault	4.8	6.1	21.7	4.6	5.7	17.1	3.3	7.8	10.3
theft	29.2	5.5	24.8	35.1	4.7	10.4	28.2	7.6	8.8
bullying	17.6	6.7	7.3	22.0	4.9	4.0	19.1	7.5	4.7

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a percentage based on number of victims; no answer: no reporting assumed

Table 11: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalences (Aggregated Offences) by Size of City/Town (USA)

	large city (<i>n</i> = 493)				medium sized city (<i>n</i> = 946)				small towns (<i>n</i> = 962)			
	life time		last year ^a		life time		last year ^a		life time		last year ^a	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
freq. violent offences ^b	34.2	0.8	22.9	0.8	23.7	3.4	18.1	3.7	13.7	7.6	8.6	7.8
rare violent offences ^c	9.6	0.4	5.1	0.4	9.1	3.5	5.6	3.6	4.6	7.7	2.4	7.8
vandalism	20.1	1.2	9.7	1.8	18.7	3.8	10.7	4.1	10.9	7.3	6.1	7.6
shoplifting	27.5	1.8	12.5	2.6	22.9	4.0	9.8	4.4	14.8	7.4	6.7	8.1
rare property offences ^d	14.9	0.6	7.6	0.6	9.4	3.3	4.6	3.3	6.0	7.0	3.0	7.1
computer hacking	6.3	0.6	3.9	1.2	4.3	4.0	3.5	4.2	4.1	7.9	2.3	8.3
drug dealing	5.1	0.6	2.9	1.0	6.8	4.2	5.3	4.4	3.0	8.8	1.7	9.1
hard drugs use ^e	5.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	4.0	3.8	1.5	3.9	2.4	6.4	1.8	6.4

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

^a hard drug use: last month prevalence

^b group fight and carrying a weapon

^c pick pocketing/snatching, robbery/extortion, and assault

^d burglary, bicycle/motor bike theft, car theft, and car break

^e XTC/speed and LSD/heroin/cocaine use

Addendum to “ISRD-2 Standard Prevalence Tables (USA)”

This addendum contains two tables of which one (either *Table A*– if you used a national sample or city based samples – or *Table B* – if you used city based samples and want to show results for all types of cities/towns) is the “**master table**” that *each* participant should include in his/her national chapter. *Table A* (or *Table B*) differs from *Table 8* (or *Table 11*) in that the prevalence of *individual* offenses opposed to *aggregated* offenses are reported. The reason to ask everybody to include this table in the national chapter is that comparisons of different countries are only possible based on the results of the large cities whereas comparisons of data for the whole nation will be misleading because some countries used national samples whereas other countries used city based samples.

Additionally, we **recommend** to include also *Table 7* (if you used a national sample) or *Table 10* (if you used city based samples and want to show differences for all types of cities/towns) in your national chapter because victimization experiences and the rate of notifying the police help to validate the self-reported delinquency rates and can be compared to officially reported crime rates.

Table A: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence (Large City Sample vs. Rest of Sample) (USA)

	large city sample (<i>n</i> = 493)				rest of sample (<i>n</i> = 1908)			
	life time		last year		life time		last year	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
group fight	26.9	1.2	15.8	1.2	13.0	6.2	8.0	6.7
carrying a weapon	21.3	1.0	13.1	1.2	12.4	5.9	9.1	6.7
assault	5.1	0.4	2.5	1.0	4.0	6.3	2.1	6.8
pick pocketing/snatch.	4.1	1.4	2.1	1.6	2.3	5.9	1.1	6.1
robbery/extortion	5.1	0.8	2.9	1.2	2.7	6.1	1.8	6.3
vandalism	20.1	1.2	9.7	1.8	14.8	5.6	8.4	5.9
shop lifting	27.5	1.8	12.5	2.6	18.9	5.7	8.3	6.3
bicycle/motor bike theft	7.4	1.0	2.7	1.2	4.5	5.7	2.6	6.0
car break	9.8	0.6	4.9	0.6	4.4	6.0	2.2	6.2
burglary	3.3	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.8	5.6	1.0	5.7
car theft	3.9	1.4	2.5	1.4	1.4	5.7	0.7	5.8
computer hacking	6.3	0.6	3.9	1.2	4.2	6.0	2.9	6.3
drug dealing	5.1	0.6	2.9	1.0	4.9	6.6	3.5	6.8
XTC/speed use	2.3	1.4	0.4	1.4	2.4	5.3	1.1	5.4
LSD/heroin/cocaine use	4.1	2.0	1.4	2.0	2.1	5.5	1.0	5.6

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

Table B: Life-Time and Last Year Prevalence by Size of City/Town (USA)

	large city (<i>n</i> = 493)				medium sized city (<i>n</i> = 946)				small towns (<i>n</i> = 962)			
	life time		last year		life time		last year		life time		last year	
	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.	%	% miss.
group fight	26.9	1.2	15.8	1.2	17.0	4.0	11.1	4.8	9.0	8.3	4.9	8.6
carrying a weapon	21.3	1.0	13.1	1.2	16.6	3.7	13.1	4.4	8.0	8.0	5.0	8.8
assault	5.1	0.4	2.5	1.0	5.5	3.9	2.8	4.5	2.5	8.7	1.4	8.9
pick pocketing/snatch.	4.1	1.4	2.1	1.6	2.9	3.8	1.7	3.9	1.7	8.0	0.5	8.2
robbery/extortion	5.1	0.8	2.9	1.2	3.6	3.9	2.5	4.2	1.7	8.2	1.1	8.3
vandalism	20.1	1.2	9.7	1.8	18.7	3.8	10.7	4.1	10.9	7.3	6.1	7.6
shoplifting	27.5	1.8	12.5	2.6	22.9	4.0	9.8	4.4	14.8	7.4	6.7	8.1
bicycle/motor bike theft	7.4	1.0	2.7	1.2	5.8	3.7	2.6	4.1	3.1	7.6	1.2	7.9
car break	9.8	0.6	4.9	0.6	5.6	3.9	2.9	4.1	3.2	8.0	1.5	8.3
burglary	3.3	1.2	1.9	1.6	2.0	3.7	1.0	3.9	1.6	7.4	1.0	7.5
car theft	3.9	1.4	2.5	1.4	2.0	3.5	0.9	3.6	0.8	7.9	0.5	8.0
computer hacking	6.3	0.6	3.9	1.2	4.3	4.0	3.5	4.2	4.1	7.9	2.3	8.3
drug dealing	5.1	0.6	2.9	1.0	6.8	4.2	5.3	4.4	3.0	8.8	1.7	9.1
XTC/speed use	2.3	1.4	0.4	1.4	3.2	3.9	0.9	4.1	1.7	6.7	1.3	6.7
LSD/heroin/cocaine use	4.1	2.0	1.4	2.0	2.6	4.1	1.0	4.2	1.5	6.9	1.0	7.0

unweighted data; prevalence based on valid cases

Table C: Life Time and Last Month Alcohol Prevalence: ISRD-2, Monitoring the Future (MTF), and Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS)

		ISRD-2	MTF	YRBS
<i>Lifetime Alcohol use</i>				
	7th	30.9	NA	28.3-41.7 * 26.3-49.8 **
	8th	40.7	40.5 (2006) 38.9 (2007)	43.5 -51.9 * 35.2-66.1 **
	9th	47.3	NA	65.5
<i>Lifetime drunk</i>				
	7th	10.7	NA	NA
	8th	16.6	17.9	NA
	9th	23.8	NA	NA
<i>Last Month Use</i>				
	7th	7.9	NA	NA
	8th	12.8	15.9	-
	9th	17.5	-	35.7
* range for the states				
**range for the cities				

Table D: Life Time and Last Month Drug Use Prevalence ISRD-2, Monitoring the Future (MTF), and Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS)

		ISRD-2	MTF	YRBS
<i>Lifetime Marijuana Use</i>				
	7th	12.3	NA	8.5-11.7* 8.0-18.0 **
	8th	16.0	15.7 (2006) 14.2 (2007)	12.7-21.3 * 12.9-38.2 **
	9th	17.8	NA	27.5
<i>Last Month Marijuana Use</i>				
	7th	5.1	NA	NA
	8th	8.4	6.5 (2006) 5.7 (2007)	NA
	9th	9.1	NA	NA
<i>Lifetime Drug Use other than Marijuana</i>				
	7th	2.1	NA	NA
	8th	4.9	12.2 (2006) 11.1 (2007)	NA
	9th	3.7	NA	NA
<i>Last Month Drug Use Other than Marijuana</i>				
	7th	1.1	NA	NA
	8th	2.1	3.8 (2006) 3.6 (2007)	NA
	9th	1.6	NA	NA
* range for the states				
**range for the cities				

Table I
U.S. Sample Characteristics (N=2,401)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Valid n (%)</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>α (# of items)</u>
Gender				
Male	1,253 (52.3)			
Female	1,144 (47.7)			
Age				
12	285 (11.9)			
13	532 (22.2)			
14	719 (30.0)			
15	756 (31.6)			
Grade				
7th	606 (25.2)			
8th	600 (25.0)			
9th	1,195 (49.8)			
School Type				
Private	526 (21.9)			
Public	1,875 (78.1)			
City Size				
Large City (L)	493 (20.5)			
Medium City (M)	946 (39.4)			
Small Cities (S)	962 (40.0)			
Family				
Intact	1,765 (73.8)			
Single Parent	536 (22.4)			
Other	90 (13.8)			
Native Status				
1 st Gen. Migrant	90 (3.8)			
2 nd Gen. Migrant	327 (13.6)			
Native Born	1,981 (82.6)			
Language Spoken at Home				
English	2,189 (91.7)			
Other	198 (8.3)			
Family Affluence		85.93	19.90	.39 (4)
Family Bonding		77.42	19.36	.47 (4)
Life Event-Total		26.56	17.89	.50 (8)
School Bonding		72.22	21.76	.64 (4)
School Crime		43.87	27.10	.81 (4)
Neighborhood Bonding		70.23	28.29	.76 (3)
Neighborhood Disorganization		18.76	26.54	.90 (5)
Neighborhood Collective Efficacy		63.17	29.05	.82 (3)
Self control		57.30	22.68	.88 (12)
Pro-violence attitude		43.22	24.90	.79 (5)
Versatility Measures				
Life-time		7.39	13.75	
Last Year		4.07	9.87	

Table II
 Characteristics of Large, Medium and Small US ISRD-2 City Samples

		Large city		Medium city		Small city	
Gender	Male	235	47.7%	501	53.1%	517	53.8%
	Female	258	52.3%	442	46.9%	444	46.2%
Age*	12	98	19.9%	22	2.3%	166	17.3%
	13	158	32.1%	103	10.9%	271	28.2%
	14	157	31.9%	244	25.9%	318	33.1%
	15	68	13.8%	491	52.1%	197	20.5%
	16+	11	2.2%	82	8.7%	10	1.0%
	Mean	13.47		14.55		13.60	
Grade*							
	7th	196	39.8%	116	12.3%	294	30.6%
	8th	185	37.5%	114	12.1%	301	31.3%
	9th	112	22.7%	716	75.7%	367	38.1%
School*							
	Private	0	0.0%	86	9.1%	440	45.7%
	Public	493	100.0%	860	90.9%	522	54.3%
Native*	1 st .gen	37	7.5%	31	3.3%	22	2.3%
	2 nd gen	143	29.1%	73	7.7%	111	11.5%
	Native	312	63.4%	840	89.0%	829	86.2%
Language							
at home*	English	326	74.8%	895	95.2%	926	96.9%
	Other	123	25.2%	45	4.8%	30	3.1%
*p <.05							

Table III

Victimization and Offense: Life-time Prevalence by Gender, Grade level, City Size, and School type (N=2,401; percentages reported in table)

<u>Victimization</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Grade</u>			<u>City Size</u>			<u>School</u>	
	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	<u>L</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>Private</u>	<u>Public</u>
Robbery	3.6	5.4*	3.2	4.9	5.0	4.7	5.8	3.2*	2.0	5.3*
Assault	4.7	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.8	4.6	3.3	3.4	4.3
Theft	28.1	34.1*	26.5	28.4	34.8*	29.2	35.1	28.2*	34.6	30.2
Bullying	19.5	20.2	19.9	23.6	18.2*	17.6	22.0	19.1	22.7	19.2
<u>Offenses</u>										
Shoplifting	20.4	20.9	21.2	19.1	21.3	27.5	22.9	14.8*	14.6	22.5*
Vandalism	11.0	20.6*	15.2	18.8	15.0	20.1	18.7	10.9*	12.7	16.9*
Marijuana/Harsh	15.8	16.2	12.3	16.0	17.8*	24.8	17.8	9.5*	6.6	18.8*
Group fight/Carry weapon	15.0	28.5*	21.1	23.7	21.6	34.2	23.8	13.8*	14.8	24.3*
Rob/Extortion/Snatching/Assault	5.5	9.2*	5.5	7.4	8.5	9.7	9.0	4.7*	3.9	8.6*
Burg/Bike/Car theft/Car break-in	6.4	12.0*	10.5	9.3	8.6	15.0	9.4	6.1*	5.0	10.6*
Ecstasy/LSD/Heroin/Cocaine	3.8	3.5	2.1	4.8	3.9*	5.1	4.0	2.6*	2.2	4.1*
Beer/Wine/Spirits	42.5	41.0	31.1	40.7	47.7*	48.9	46.0	34.0*	36.2	43.4*
At least 2 risk factors	12.1	11.2	7.4	10.9	14.2*	14.5	14.2	7.8*	7.7	12.8*

* p< .05.

Table IV

T-tests and ANOVA tests of Major Attitudinal and Behavioral Variables by Gender (a), Grade level (b), Region (c) and School Type (d)

	Gender (a)		Grade (b)			City Size (c)			School (d)	
	Female	Male	7 th	8 th	9 th	L	M	S	Private	Public
Family affluence (b, c, d)	86.39 (20.07)	85.52 (19.94)	78.72 (22.37)	84.86 (19.91)	90.12 (17.30)	69.71 (24.54)	89.96 (16.78)	90.28 (15.28)	93.77 (13.82)	83.72 (20.78)
Family bonding(a, b, c, d)	75.64 (20.08)	79.02 (18.56)	80.49 (18.27)	77.66 (18.70)	75.75 (20.04)	78.90 (18.26)	74.47 (21.05)	79.55 (17.77)	81.45 (16.30)	76.28 (20.00)
Life event total (a, b, c, d)	28.03 (17.17)	25.21 (18.41)	24.52 (16.70)	27.70 (18.16)	27.02 (18.26)	28.15 (17.96)	27.56 (18.95)	24.76 (16.60)	21.62 (13.70)	27.97 (18.68)
School bonding (a, b, d)	74.50 (20.84)	70.11 (22.38)	72.25 (21.67)	67.73 (22.30)	74.42 (21.21)	72.28 (21.16)	71.72 (22.53)	72.69 (21.30)	74.07 (21.18)	71.69 (21.90)
School crime (b, c, d)	44.02 (27.54)	43.72 (26.67)	37.81 (28.67)	42.95 (27.56)	47.32 (25.48)	54.18 (27.25)	47.64 (25.41)	34.69 (25.81)	26.64 (20.99)	48.85 (26.62)
Nhood bonding (b, c, d)	69.48 (28.45)	70.90 (28.12)	73.16 (27.81)	70.40 (28.39)	68.70 (28.35)	68.66 (28.34)	69.05 (28.61)	72.27 (27.81)	75.30 (24.65)	68.77 (29.08)
Nhood efficacy (c, d)	64.41 (29.66)	62.87 (28.48)	62.92 (29.95)	62.46 (29.54)	63.63 (28.38)	51.59 (28.12)	64.06 (29.08)	68.33 (27.82)	72.75 (24.60)	60.33 (29.66)
Nhood disorg (a, b, c, d)	17.38 (25.47)	20.06 (27.45)	20.07 (27.54)	22.81 (28.75)	16.14 (24.56)	36.82 (30.87)	16.06 (24.82)	11.89 (20.84)	7.19 (15.91)	22.11 (28.02)
Self control (a, b, c, d)	59.29 (22.16)	55.44 (22.99)	58.72 (23.97)	55.02 (22.84)	57.71 (21.87)	53.50 (24.25)	56.40 (22.05)	60.18 (22.11)	63.48 (19.67)	55.51 (23.18)
Pro-violence (a, b, c, d)	37.64 (23.29)	48.36 (25.33)	42.76 (25.95)	45.99 (25.64)	42.08 (23.89)	50.35 (25.84)	42.36 (24.73)	40.42 (23.87)	36.75 (21.94)	45.08 (25.39)
LT versatility (a, c, d)	5.53 (11.29)	9.13 (15.53)	6.95 (13.71)	7.90 (13.54)	7.35 (13.87)	10.78 (16.49)	8.36 (14.77)	4.51 (9.90)	4.66 (10.39)	8.19 (14.50)
LY versatility (a, c, d)	2.69 (7.41)	5.40 (11.60)	3.60 (9.84)	4.32 (9.29)	4.18 (10.16)	5.65 (11.97)	4.89 (10.83)	2.36 (6.86)	2.58 (7.88)	4.52 (10.35)

* a, b, c, d indicate statistically significant group differences ($p < .05$).

Table V

Attitudinal, Socio-demographic and Behavioral (Life-time) Measures by Immigrant Status (N=2,401)

<u>Attitudinal</u>	Immigrant Status			
	<u>Immigrants</u>		<u>Natives</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Family Affluence*	79.80	22.02	87.24	19.18
Family Bonding*	79.11	19.61	77.05	19.30
Life Event-Total*	24.70	18.34	26.96	17.77
School Bonding	72.17	22.89	72.21	21.53
School Crime	42.31	27.52	44.18	26.99
Nhood Bonding	67.98	29.31	70.66	28.04
Nhood Disorganization	20.61	27.52	18.34	26.29
Nhood Collective Efficacy*	59.83	29.30	63.84	28.95
Self control	58.60	23.11	57.01	22.58
Pro-violence attitude	42.18	24.54	43.41	24.96

Socio-Demographic (in %)

Family		
- Intact	77.1	73.1
- Single Parent	18.8	23.2
- Other	4.1	3.7
Language*		
- Language of the country	62.3	97.9
- Other language	37.7	2.1
Discrimination*		
- Never	61.4	77.0
- Once	15.4	9.1
- Sometimes/Often	23.1	14.0

Victimization (in %)

Robbery	4.1	4.6
Assault	4.6	4.0
Theft	29.6	31.5
Bullying	20.4	19.8

Offending (in %)

Shoplifting	18.5	21.2
Vandalism	15.4	16.0
Marijuana/Hash	14.3	16.3
Group fight/Carry weapon	22.1	22.0
Rob/Extortion/Snatching/Assault	6.5	7.6
Burg/Bike/Car theft/Car break-in	8.7	9.4
Ecstasy/LSD/Heroin/Cocaine	4.3	3.5
Beer/Wine/Spirits	43.2	41.3
At least 2 risk factors	10.7	11.7

* p < .05.

Table VI
Age of Onset for Delinquency Measures by Gender*

	Age (in years)					
	N	<u>Male</u> Mean	SD	N	<u>Female</u> Mean	SD
Beer/Wine	436	11.38	2.69	439	11.74	2.44
Spirits	270	12.77	1.70	275	12.59	2.05
Marijuana/Hash	179	12.07	2.15	173	12.45	1.82
XTC	24	13.33	1.40	25	13.24	1.74
L/H/C	25	12.92	2.10	26	13.23	1.97
Vandalism	229	11.09	2.54	113	11.52	2.22
Shoplifting	216	10.71	2.81	212	10.45	3.11
Burglary	30	12.47	2.33	8	13.13	2.23
Bicycle Theft	75	11.88	2.20	30	12.20	1.85
Car Theft	27	13.04	2.30	13	13.77	1.78
Illegal Download	661	11.70	1.91	612	12.01	1.67
Computer Hacking	71	12.76	1.34	27	12.63	1.36
Car Breaking	79	11.95	2.25	39	12.00	1.91
Pickpocketing	29	12.31	2.49	25	12.28	2.17
Weapon Carrying	212	11.54	2.47	90	11.83	1.99
Robbery	47	12.09	1.92	19	12.32	2.29
Gang Fight	218	12.06	2.09	124	11.78	2.25
Assault	48	11.58	2.77	33	11.58	3.13
Drug Dealing	62	12.94	2.11	38	13.32	1.49

*None of the t-tests of delinquency measures by gender are statistically significant at .05 level.

Table VII
OLS Regression Analyses Using Life-time and Last-year Versatility as DVs

	<u>Life-time</u>			<u>Versatility</u>		
	b	SE	Beta	b	SE	Beta
Family Affluence	-.034*	.015	-.050	-.019	.011	-.040
Family Bonding	-.074*	.015	-.109	-.052*	.011	-.108
Life Event-Total	.088*	.015	.119	.053*	.011	.101
School Bonding	-.044*	.013	-.072	-.034*	.009	-.080
School Crime	.011	.011	.024	.016*	.008	.048
Nhood Bonding	.003	.011	.007	.003	.008	.009
Nhood Collective Efficacy	.000	.011	.002	.004	.008	.012
Nhood Disorganization	.084*	.012	.168	.068*	.009	.192
Self control	-.086*	.016	-.148	-.039*	.012	-.096
Pro-violence attitude	.082*	.015	.155	.051*	.011	.136
Male	2.591*	.517	.100	2.071*	.378	.112
Intact Family	-.072	.614	-.002	-.179	.449	-.008
Immigrant	-.606	.679	-.018	-.477	.496	-.020
8 th Graders	-.090	.717	-.003	-.023	.525	-.001
9 th Graders	.102	.686	.004	.000	.502	.000
Private School	1.589*	.720	.052	1.236*	.526	.057
Medium City	2.261*	.664	.085	1.508*	.485	.080
Large City	1.990*	.850	.063	.301	.622	.013
Constant	13.104*	2.408		6.662*	1.761	
Adjusted R square		.294*			.247*	
F ratio		47.25			37.33	
N		2,001			1,998	

* $p < .05$.

Table VIII
Negative Binomial Regression Analyses Using Life-time and Last-year Versatility as DVs

	<u>Life-time</u>		<u>Versatility</u>	<u>Last-year</u>	
	Coef.	SE		Coef.	SE
Family Affluence	-.004	.003		-.001	.004
Family Bonding	-.007*	.003		-.007	.004
Life Event-Total	.013*	.003		.012*	.005
School Bonding	-.008*	.003		-.010*	.003
School Crime	.006*	.002		.009*	.003
Nhood Bonding	-.002	.002		-.001	.003
Nhood Collective Efficacy	-.002	.002		-.001	.003
Nhood Disorganization	.007*	.002		.013*	.003
Self control	-.018*	.003		-.018*	.005
Pro-violence attitude	.016*	.003		.023*	.004
Male	.554*	.110		.692*	.145
Intact Family	-.191	.129		-.265	.168
Immigrant	.007	.142		-.260	.185
8 th Graders	.210	.151		.309	.198
9 th Graders	.226	.146		.269	.196
Private School	.492*	.163		.671*	.215
Medium City	.373*	.146		.562*	.196
Large City	.609*	.176		.452	.231
Constant	2.073*	.519		.355	.684
Lalpha	1.554	.047		2.027	.058
Alpha	4.732	.224		7.593	.438
Log likelihood	-4457.872			-3,056.829	
Pseudo R2	.044			.053	
N	2,001			1,998	

* p < .05.

ISRD-2 US Study Figures 1-6

Figure 1: Life-time Prevalence By City Size (ISRD-2 Table 8)

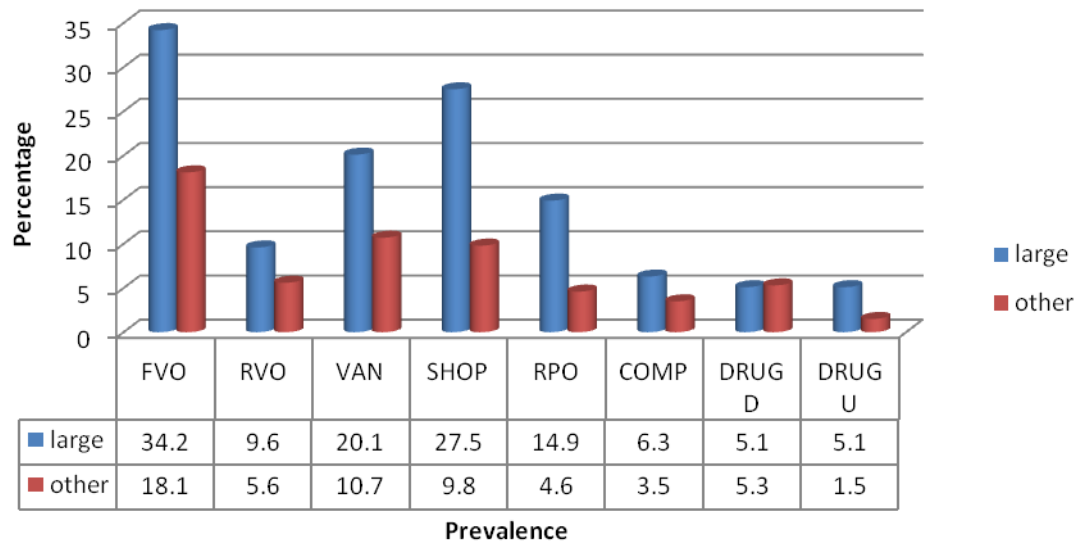


Figure 2: Last-year Prevalence By City Size (ISRD-2 Table 8)

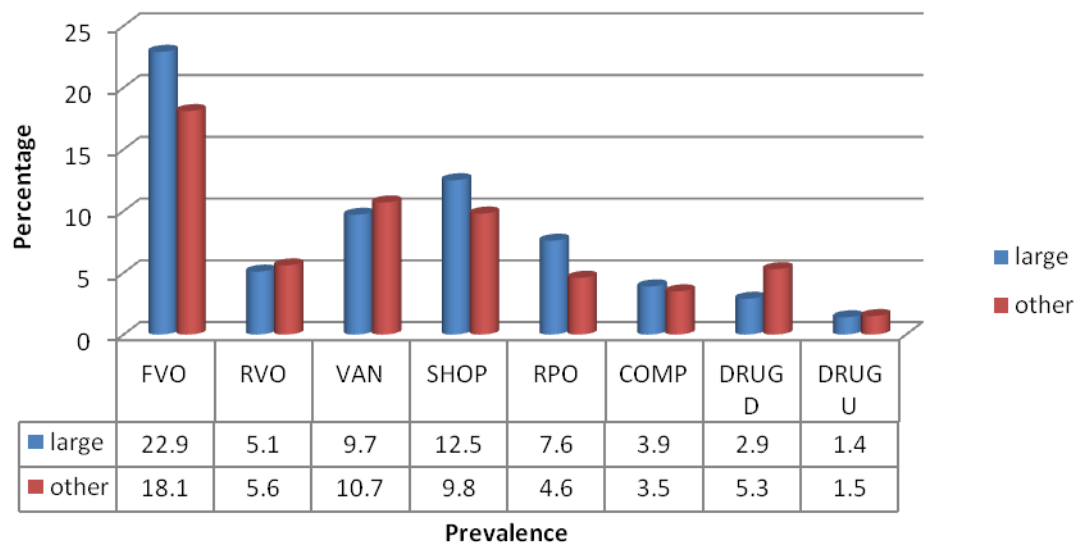


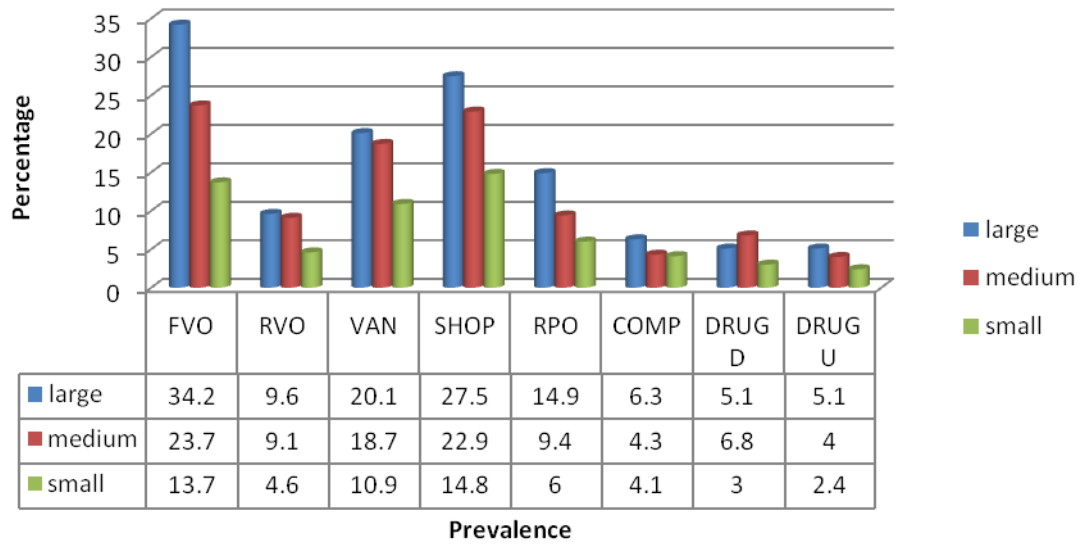
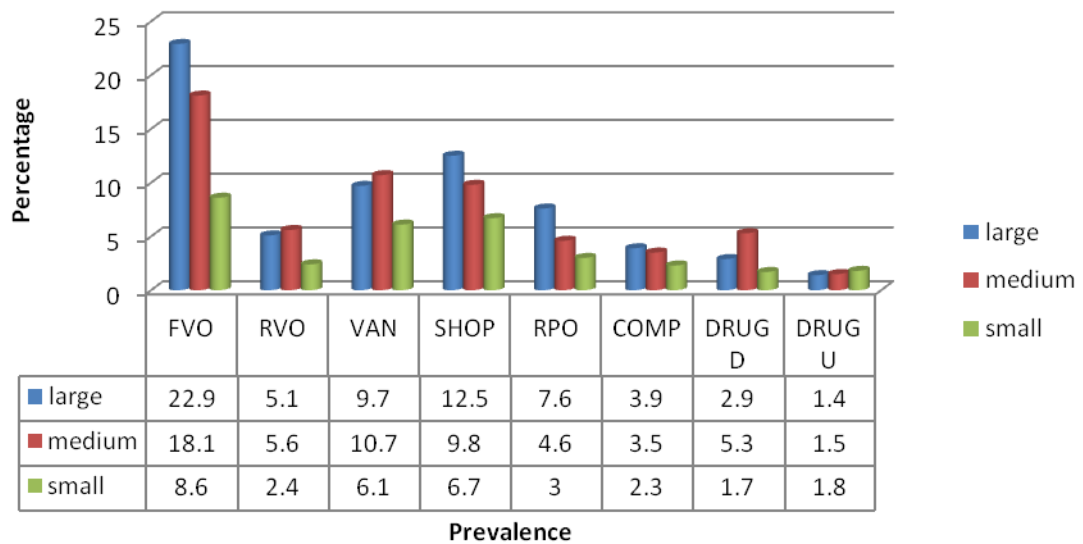
Figure 3: Life-time Prevalence By City Size (ISRD-2 Table 11)**Figure 4: Last-year Prevalence By City Size (ISRD-2 Table 11)**

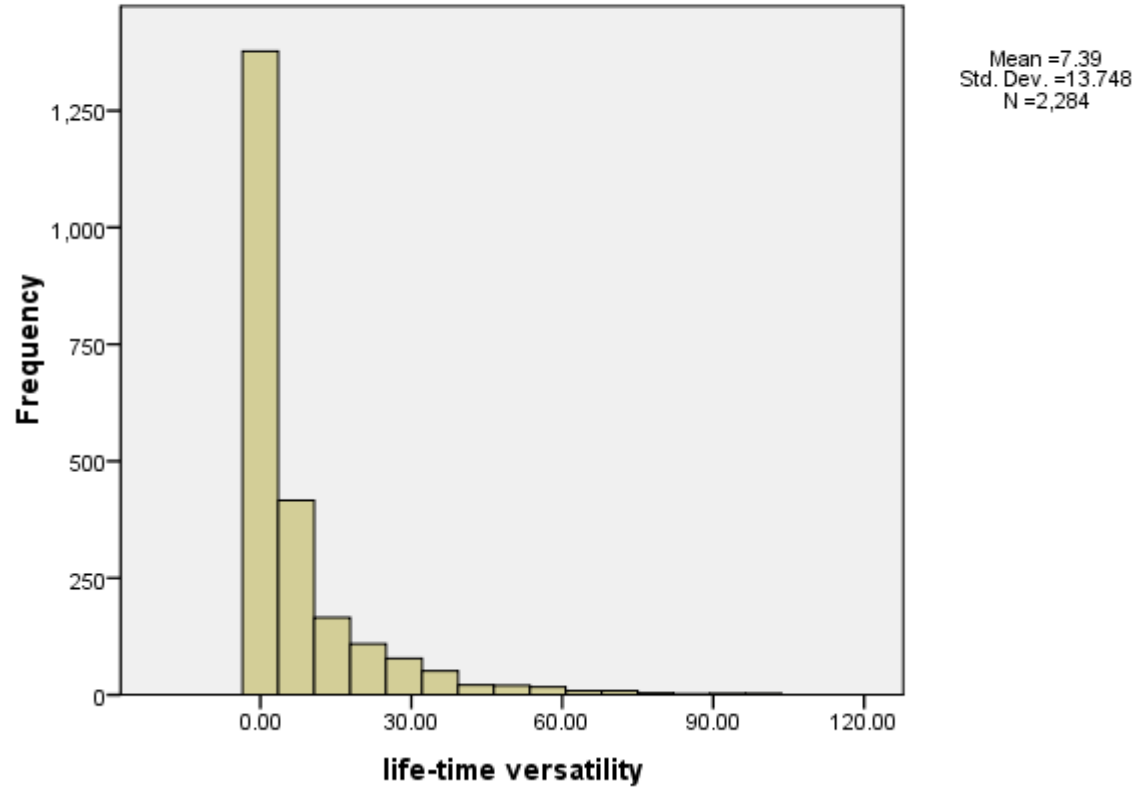
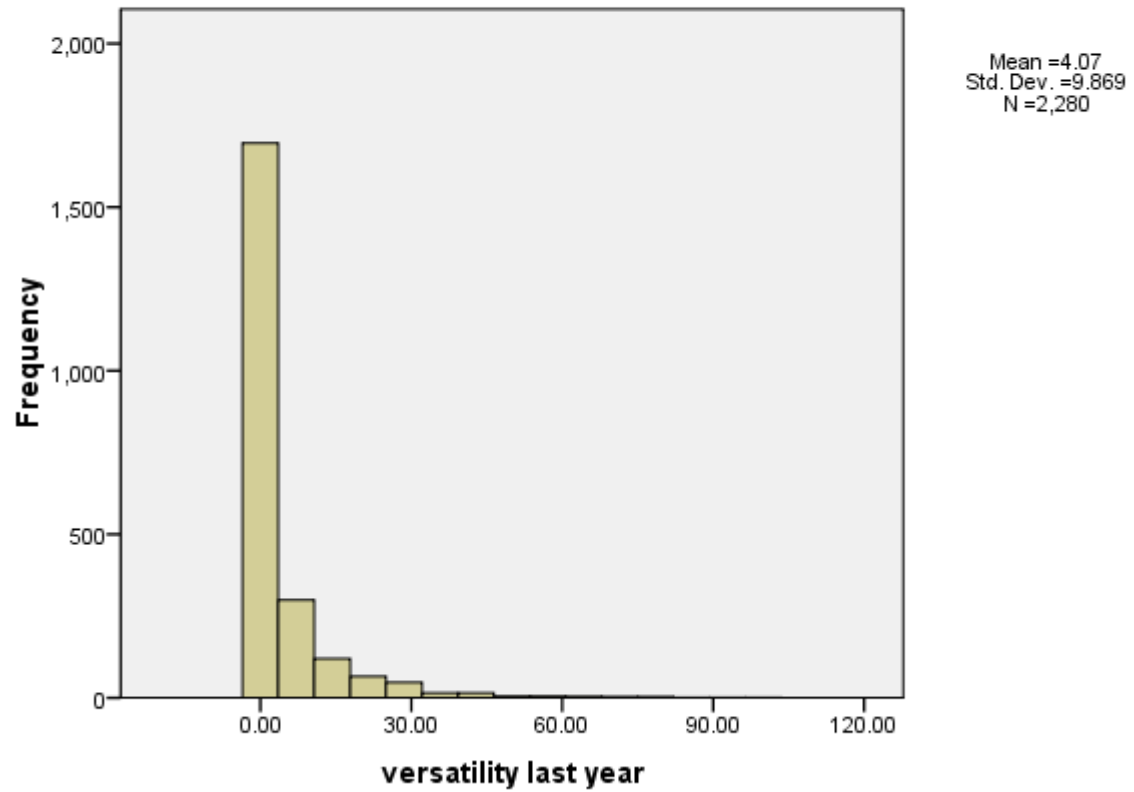
Figure 5: Life-time Versatility Distribution

Figure 6: Last-year Versatility Distribution

ISRD-2 US Study Parental Consent Forms



Northeastern
UNIVERSITY

Higher Learning. Richer Experience.

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Researchers from Northeastern University (Boston, MA) are participating in a 30-nation international study on young people's lifestyle and behavior, including rule-breaking behavior. The U.S. portion of the study, funded by the National Institute of Justice, will involve more than 2,000 youth in multiple cities. Students from grades 7-9 in selected schools nationwide are asked to complete a questionnaire in their home rooms. The survey should take no more than 30 minutes. This is a one-time study; you or your child will never be contacted by us again.

Your child has been asked to participate in this research because his/her school was selected for the study. Participation in this study is of course voluntary. The questionnaire is **anonymous**; your child will not give his/her name, nor will the name of the school be mentioned. All research funded by the U.S. Department of Justice is covered by federal regulations which guarantee confidentiality to research participants. Your child's answers will be used for research purposes only and the findings will be reported only for groups of respondents.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with your child's participation in this study. Although there are no personal benefits to you or your child, the U.S. participation in this international study will provide us a tremendous opportunity to learn from the successes – and failures – of other countries' youth policies and programs.

We hope that this letter gives you the information you need. If you have any questions, feel free to contact us directly. Our e-mail addresses are: nhe@neu.edu (Phil He) and j.marshall@neu.edu (Ineke Marshall). You can reach us by phone at 617-373-2622. In addition, you may contact Human Subjects Research Protection, Division of Research Integrity, 413 Lake Hall, Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115. Tel.: 617-373-7570.

IF YOU DO NOT OBJECT TO YOUR CHILD'S PARTICIPATION, IT IS NOT NECESSARY TO RETURN THIS FORM

Please complete the following if you do **NOT** want your child to participate. Please return the form to us by _____. A pre-paid, self-addressed envelop is provided for your convenience.

Child's Name (Please print): _____

Parent's/Guardian's name (Please print): _____

Parent's/Guardian's Signature: _____

Date: _____

THANKS!

APPROVED
NU IRB# 06-03-08
VALID: 9/19/06
THROUGH: 9/5/07



Dear Parent or Guardian,

Researchers from Northeastern University (Boston, MA) are participating in a 30-nation international study on young people's lifestyle and behavior, including rule-breaking behavior. The U.S. portion of the study, funded by the National Institute of Justice, will involve more than 2,000 youth in multiple cities. Students from grades 7-9 in selected schools nationwide are asked to complete a questionnaire in their home rooms. The survey should take no more than 30 minutes. It is a one-time study; you or your child will never be contacted by us again.

Your child has been asked to participate in this research because his/her classroom was selected for the study. Participation in this study is of course voluntary. The questionnaire is anonymous; your child will not give his/her name, nor will the name of the school be mentioned. All research funded by the U.S. Department of Justice is covered by federal regulations which guarantee confidentiality to research participants.

Your child's answers will be used for research purposes only and the findings will be reported only for groups of respondents. With this letter, we are asking you to give your permission to have your child participate in this study. If you do not wish your child to participate, we also would appreciate your response.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with your child's participation in this study. Although there are no personal benefits to you or your child, the U.S. participation in this international study will provide us a tremendous opportunity to learn from the successes – and failures – of other countries' youth policies and programs.

We hope that this letter gives you the information you need. If you have any questions, feel free to contact us directly. Our e-mail addresses are: n.he@neu.edu (Dr. Ni "Phi" He) and l.marshall@neu.edu (Dr. Ineke Haen Marshall). You can reach us by phone at 617-373-2622. In addition, you may contact Human Subjects Research Protection, Division of Research Integrity, 413 Lake Hall, Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115. Tel.: 617-373-7570.

You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to allow your child to participate in this research study. You have read and understood the information above. Please return the form to us by _____. A pre-paid, self-addressed envelop is provided for your convenience.

Child's Name (Please print): _____

- [☐] My child **HAS** my permission to participate
 [☐] My child does **NOT** have my permission to participate

Parent's/Guardian's Name (Please print): _____

Parent's/Guardian's Signature: _____

Date: _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

