



STUDIES ON CRIME
AND JUSTICE
A SERIES FROM
THE DUTCH RESEARCH
AND DOCUMENTATION
CENTRE

DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE WESTERN WORLD

FIRST RESULTS OF THE
INTERNATIONAL SELF-REPORT
DELINQUENCY STUDY

EDITED BY JOSINE JUNGER-TAS,
GERT-JAN TERLOUW AND MALCOLM W. KLEIN

RDC - MINISTRY OF JUSTICE
KUGLER PUBLICATIONS - AMSTERDAM / NEW YORK

1994



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	vii
The international self-report delinquency study: some methodological and theoretical issues, <i>Josine Junger-Tas</i>	1
Self-reported delinquency in Helsinki, Finland, 1992, <i>Kauko Aromaa</i>	000
Self-reported offending among young people in England and Wales, <i>Benjamin Bowling, John Graham and Alec Ross</i>	000
The self-report delinquency study in Belfast, Northern Ireland, <i>Joan McQuoid</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency in the Netherlands, <i>Gert-Jan Terlouw and Gerben J.N. Bruinsma</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency in Liège, Belgium, <i>Michel Born and Claire Gauray</i>	000
Self-reported juvenile delinquency in Mannheim, Germany, <i>Peter Sutterer and Thomas Karger</i>	000
Self-reported juvenile delinquency in Switzerland, <i>Martin Killias, Patrice Villettaz and Juan Rabasa</i>	000
The self-report delinquency study in Portugal, <i>Eliana Gersão and Manuel Lisboa</i>	000
Self-reported juvenile delinquency in Spain, <i>Rosemary Barberet, Cristina Rechea-Alberola and Juan Montañés-Rodríguez</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency in 3 Italian cities, <i>Uberto Gatti, G. Fossa, E. Lusetti, M.I. Marugo, G. Russo and G.B. Traverso</i>	000
Key-findings of a preliminary self-report delinquency study in Athens, Greece, <i>Calliope D. Spinellis, Eleni Apospori, Mazia Kranidioti, Yiota Symiyianni and Nina Angelopoulou</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency in a midwestern American city, <i>Ineke Haen Marshall and Vincent J. Webb</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency in Germany after the reunification, <i>Klaus Boers, Michael Class and Peter Kurz</i>	000
Self-reported delinquency at age 18: New Zealand's Dunedin multidisciplinary health and development study, <i>Terri E. Moffitt, Phil A. Silva, Donald R. Lynam and Bill Henry</i>	000
Delinquency in thirteen Western countries: some preliminary conclusions, <i>Josine Junger-Tas</i>	000
Epilogue, <i>Malcolm W. Klein</i>	000

THE INTERNATIONAL SELF-REPORT DELINQUENCY STUDY: SOME METHODOLOGICAL AND THEORETICAL ISSUES

J. Junger-Tas

1. Introduction

There has always been some interest in comparative and cross-national research, but it has clearly increased in recent years. There are several reasons for this. One is that international contacts between policy makers as well as between scientists have become increasingly frequent. Another is that the need for collaboration in both these fields is ever more urgent. It is of very importance that policy makers gather information on the extent and nature of crime in comparable western countries and investigate how crime and delinquency relate to specific socioeconomic and cultural contexts. Delinquent behavior of young people is a problem in the entire western world: teenagers commit most of the crimes such as all kinds of theft, burglary, vandalism and violence. New insights and knowledge may eventually have an impact on the development of criminal policies in various countries.

This need for policy makers is reflected in the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Program and in the Council of Europe's efforts in bringing together scientists and policy makers of some 27 European countries with the objective of providing information on and improving and evaluating criminal policy.

However, a persistent and nagging problem in cross-national research is the lack of adequate instruments to enable reliable and valid comparisons. Major efforts have been made by the United Nations to achieve comparisons between nations on the basis of police and criminal justice statistics (Vetere and Newman, 1977; Pease and Hukkila, 1990). Interpreting the results presents major problems, however, because nations differ widely in the way they organize their police and court systems, the way they define legal categories and the way they collect and present their statistics. In fact, the lack of uniform definitions of criminal acts, of common measuring instruments and of a common methodology makes comparisons among countries extremely hazardous. It is in this area that the needs of policy makers and the interests of criminologists coincide.

Address for correspondence: Department of Justice, Research and Documentation Center, P.O. Box 20301, 2500 EH The Hague, The Netherlands

Criminologists have been interested for a long time in differences in crime between countries (Clinard, 1978; Friday, 1973; LePoole, 1977; Levinson, 1977; Vetere and Newman, 1977). At the same time, criminologists have been trying, not without success, to develop measures of crime to complement the existing official statistics which reflect police activities rather than the 'true' level of crime. Victim surveys are widely used as a corrective and sensitive measure of crime trends, and two large-scale international comparative victimization studies have yielded extremely interesting results (Van Dijk, *et al.*, 1990; Van Dijk and Mayhew, 1992).

In addition to victim surveys, another way to measure crime is through the use of self-reports. Both methods have their strengths and their limitations. Self-reports, however, have certain clear advantages over victim surveys. They make it possible to measure non-personal and victimless crimes as well as characteristics of offenders. Moreover, they can establish the prevalence and incidence of criminal acts committed by offenders and the relationship between types of crimes and types of offenders.

The ISRD study has three main objectives:

- To achieve comparability of prevalence and frequency of different types of delinquent behavior in the participating countries.
- To contribute to the *explanation of (differences in) delinquent behavior*, that is to try to advance theory building by examining whether generally accepted theoretical notions can be applied to all participating countries, and, if not, what differential factors might account for it.
- To contribute to the solution of a multitude of *methodological problems* related to cross-national research as well as to self-report methodology.

Two meetings were held at the Dutch Research and Documentation Center to coordinate the study. The first one, in the spring of 1990, was spent in finalizing a common-core measurement instrument. The second one, in the winter of 1990, discussed the results of pilot studies and made a number of changes in the survey instrument.

In this chapter I will review some of the methodological and theoretical problems that the participants were confronted with and the ways in which they tried to deal with them.

Stating this, it should be made clear that we are modest in our ambitions. For many of the problems and dilemmas there were no perfect solutions. The gap between the ideal design and reality forced some researchers to accept less than ideal solutions. Despite these caveats, developing this line of research remains a real challenge to all of us.

2. Some methodological problems: how are they managed?

2.1 Sampling method

One important question concerns the scope of the sample: national samples or city samples. Obviously if the objective is to compare national delinquency rates, nationally representative samples are needed. However, if we are interested in trying to explain some of the crime differences be-

tween countries, then we could do with smaller local samples. Of course, we would have liked to do both, but, although much attention was given to this matter, the harsh reality of funding limitations dictated the options available: only four participating study groups – in Switzerland, Portugal, the United Kingdom and The Netherlands – had sufficient funds to allow them to draw a national random sample; the others opted for city samples – Liège, Belfast, Athens, Dunedin, Helsinki, Omaha, and three cities in Italy (Genoa, Messina and Sienna), while Spain used a stratified national sample of cities. This means that comparisons of national delinquency rates had to be limited to those countries that drew national random samples, while the study of correlates of crime could be extended to all samples. However, in view of the many socioeconomic and cultural differences between countries that we cannot possibly control, we had to avoid rigid classifications. Wisdom suggests that the best we could do was compare the relative rank ordering of the prevalence of specific types of crimes in different countries and cities of comparable urbanization level.

This is not so much an immediate problem since this book presents a first overview of the findings, without comparative analysis. The next volume planned will be devoted to cross-national comparisons. At that point we must consider whether we can control for individual study differences or whether we should limit comparisons to those participants who used similar sampling methods.

Apart from sample scope, different sampling methods were used, each with its own problems and pitfalls. One of the most frequently used sampling methods was to select from some school population. Access was relatively easy and questionnaires were administered to groups of students. The shortcomings of this method are well known. Marginal students such as truants and drop-outs who are likely to be different from the average student on a number of variables including delinquency are excluded from the sample. Moreover, in some countries, the age limit for compulsory education is 16 years, which considerably restricts the age range of the sample. To this should be added that, as a consequence of extensive privacy regulations in a number of countries, access to schools is becoming more and more difficult and in some countries even impossible.

Several participants – Italy (three cities), Belgium (Liège), Nebraska (Omaha) and Finland (Helsinki) – had recourse to school samples, although their procedures differed. The Belgian researcher made a random selection of schools, where he approached students of 14 to 18 years of age (the limit of compulsory education is 18 years). The sample of those aged 18 to 21 was based on a random selection of population files. In the three Italian cities the schools were randomly selected according to type (preparatory schools, technical schools, etc.) and, within the schools, the subjects were also selected at random. The age range was 14 to 19 years.

The Finnish school sample was restricted to all 9th graders (15-16 years) and 11th graders (17-18 years). However, since compulsory education ends at age 16, those who did not continue their education were excluded.

The Omaha school sample included a random selection of public school students in 12 public high schools, aged 14 to 18. Despite the efforts of

these participants to achieve random selection of schools and subjects within the schools, there is no exact way of knowing to which extent truancy and/or drop-out may have introduced a bias in the findings of these studies, leading to a possible underestimation of delinquency in the target populations.

An obvious answer to this problem would be random sampling. However, random sampling does not ensure that one will achieve a representative sample. Some marginalized groups of juveniles, such as school drop-outs, unemployed youths, ethnic minority juveniles and institutionalized youths, are usually underrepresented. These youths are generally hard to reach, and even when one succeeds in getting in touch with them they often do not want to participate in such a study. Since one may anticipate that delinquency levels among these groups are higher than among the average respondents, this sampling method may also lead to an underestimation of the extent of delinquency in the youth population.

One solution in such a case is to combine a random sample with a stratified sample. This procedure was used by Hindelang and his colleagues in the Seattle study (1981) in order to estimate delinquency in a general school population as well as to maximize variance on delinquency. Another possibility is to draw a random sample and add specific groups of young people, such as students of vocational training schools, regular visitors of special youth clubs (which was done in the Omaha pilot of the ISRD project), or ethnic minority children living in specific neighborhoods (which was done in the Dutch and English studies). Still another way to include 'high risk' juveniles, known to have higher delinquency rates than the average youths, is to include institutionalized juveniles. This was done in the Los Angeles pilot, where 155 detainees in Central Juvenile Hall were interviewed (Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1992).

The following solutions were tried by some participants: Spain used a stratified sample, based on city size and randomly selected census sections. The sample is not representative for the country as a whole because rural areas were excluded. Moreover, as the samples were not proportional, weighting was needed. But sample size was large (2,100) and, in order to add a number of high-risk juveniles, an additional 250 young people in marginalized neighborhoods were interviewed. A comparable procedure was followed in The Netherlands, where a stratified country-wide random sample of 17 cities was drawn. The cities were selected on the basis of urbanization degree and geographical distribution. The sample size of 914 includes an oversampling of 68 Turkish and Moroccan youths in the two largest Dutch cities. Switzerland, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland also drew random samples. Moreover, in the English study, two samples were added: a random sample in high crime areas and a booster sample of ethnic minorities. The only exception is New Zealand where the research is part of a longitudinal study. The sample is a birth cohort and includes all young people aged 18 in one particular city (Dunedin).

2.2 Response

A number of factors may have an impact on the willingness of young people to participate in a self-report delinquency study. One such factor is prior contacts with the juvenile justice system. Research among juveniles (Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1983) has shown that such contacts have a serious impact on response rates: the highest response was among those who reported no prior police contacts; the lowest response was among those who had police contacts as well as prosecutor contacts. Similar results have been found for adult males, where response was also related to being known by the police (Veendrick, 1976). Unfortunately, there is not much that can be done to remedy this situation if one draws a random sample. The best option in this case is to oversample certain high-risk categories, which has indeed been done by a number of participants in the ISRD study.

Another problem may arise from differences in response rates between participating countries. The difficulty lies in explaining these differences. Of course, they may be related to shortcomings in the studies themselves. But they may also be related to unknown cultural differences among countries. Some countries may be 'oversolicited' by social or marketing research, while others are perhaps not yet used to this type of research. In both cases the situation can lead to low response rates. It is important, therefore, to collect information about non-response so that we can get a better idea about its characteristics. Five questions were added in the ISRD instrument which tap the state of the home, the maintenance of the building and of the other buildings in the street, the general appearance of the neighborhood and the presence of signs of vandalism. These questions, which are completed by the interviewers, were added in order to have some additional, and somewhat standardized, socioeconomic information. The information is collected for all potential respondents. As a result, non-response can be analyzed not only with respect to variables such as age and sex but also with respect to socio-economic status (SES). However, response also depends on the sampling method. In school samples, the response will generally be high, although Finland reports some cases of low response where only a few youngsters showed up in the special classes organized for the survey, due to the unusually fine weather for the season. This resulted in a total response rate of 75%, whereas this was 98% in Belgium. In the case of random samples non-response is generally higher. As far as the Dutch study is concerned, taking into account non-existent addresses and persons who had moved, the overall response rate was 61%. Response was clearly higher in the middle-sized (57%) and small cities (66%) than in the four large cities - including Amsterdam - (52%). The response rate among ethnic minorities was fairly similar to that of the Dutch sample, namely 63%. The Dutch study checked the representativeness of the sample on a number of variables, comparing it to the same-age youth population. With respect to sex, age distribution, school involvement, education and employment status, there were only slight differences.

An unexpected factor was the exceptionally good summer, which started

even before the month of June. Many young people did not keep their – even repeated – appointments and could not be traced. In Spain the response rate was 64% and among the high-risk youth even higher, at 75%. But in countries such as Portugal (95%) and Northern Ireland (92%), response was much higher. Where data were reported on non-response, we noted contradictory findings with respect to SES of respondents and non-respondents. In The Netherlands non-respondents lived in relatively more deteriorated living environments than respondents (in terms of upkeep of the home and street vandalism). In Spain, however, it was the other way around: there the respondents were living in a less attractive environment. As the other participants did not report on this matter, we cannot draw any definite conclusions at this stage of the study.

2.3 Data collection

There was consensus about the preferred mode of data collection. Considering the kind of data to be collected, the best method would be face-to-face interviews. However, this was not one of the options in all studies. Where it was impossible, as in the case of school samples, according to the Finnish researcher, some of the students had difficulties with the rather complex nature and the length of the questionnaire. In Italy all data were collected by face-to-face interviews during school hours and in rooms that were made available for this purpose.

An important point with respect to both reliability and validity was the preparation of the interviewers. In the Dutch main study, interviewers were given a one-day training session organized by one of the researchers and the marketing bureau, and, in addition, received elaborate written instructions. In the Dutch city sample research, undertaken by the University of Twente, a separate test-retest reliability study was conducted on a sub-sample of 65 youths.

The Dutch pilot study indicated that the presence of a third party during the interview – frequently the mother – introduced some bias in the answers given: comparison of those who were alone with the interviewer and those accompanied by another person indicated a lower admission rate of delinquent acts in the second group. On the basis of these results particular attention was paid to this point during the interviewer training. As a consequence, in the main study the proportion of third parties present during the interview was reduced by almost one-tenth, the proportion of those intervening was reduced by half, and the difference in admitted delinquency between the two groups was considerably less pronounced in the main study than in the pilot (Terlouw and Junger-Tas, 1992). Of course in this respect a situation such as in the Italian and the Omaha study, where the interviewer and the respondent are alone in a room, is far preferable.

Except in the case of school samples where the questionnaire was self-administered, data collection was generally based on face-to-face interviews, sometimes combined with a self-administered section of the questionnaire. Most of the interviews took place in the home of the interviewees. Un-

fortunately, in a number of cases the respondent was not alone in the room with the interviewer. The Netherlands and Northern Ireland report that in 10% to 8% of the cases a third person influenced the interviewees' answers. This was one of the reasons that delinquency questions in the present study have been self-administered. For example, in the English study the socio-demographic questions were asked face-to-face, while the questions on drugs and on the other offences were asked via self-completion forms in two separate booklets. In Germany a similar method was followed.

It is very fortunate that the response rates are generally satisfactory and not too disparate. Although we are not sure as to what extent the results might be biased by non-response, the fact that in some studies additional samples of high-risk juveniles have been drawn while in others the sample is comparable with population data, would suggest that we can have some confidence in the generalizability of the findings.

2.4 *The survey instrument*

The instrument that is now used by participants is the result of a long process of negotiation among representatives of the different countries. It was no easy task to achieve consensus on the delinquency items that were to be included in the core list, that is those items on which we wanted to have comparative data. Some compromises had to be made, essentially between U.S. participants and the European ones, because of the fact that a number of acts which are offenses in the U.S are not so in Europe (alcohol use and purchase) or are not prosecuted (cannabis use).

Globally the questions covered five groups of variables: prevalence and frequency of delinquent behavior; circumstances of the act; social reactions to delinquency; social background variables; and some theoretical variables.

Prevalence and *frequency* are measured in different ways. All delinquency questions are introduced by 'did you ever....' (lifetime prevalence), followed by 'did you do it last year?' (current prevalence). The next question is then 'how many times did you do it' (frequency)*.

Circumstances of the act are measured by questions such as: did respondent act alone or with others, who was the victim, where did it happen.

Social reactions implied discovery of the act and reactions to it by parents, others or the police.

Social and demographic variables include sex, age, family composition, ethnicity, SES, education, school attendance or employment, leisure activities.

A limited number of *theoretical variables*, related to social control theory, include relations with parents, parental supervision, school involvement and performance, attitudes towards school and/or work and leisure activi-

*See for list of offenses Questionnaire p. ■

ties.

Of course we are talking here of the common-core instrument. Participants could, and did, add variables that were important in their own local situation. In this book, however, only the findings that relate to the core instrument will be reported.

There was much discussion about the level of detail that would still allow sufficient and reliable information. Several participants performed reliability tests, repeating earlier questions at the end of the interview (Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1992). In this pilot study internal consistency of the answers to six questions ranged from about 90% for five of them to 75% for shoplifting, a high frequency offense. The Spanish study similarly repeated a number of questions at the end of the questionnaire and compared the answers with the earlier answers given. They found high levels of reliability.

A more serious problem was the instrument's validity. For comparative purposes we agreed on a common-core operationalization of delinquency, including acts that are considered offenses if committed by an adult, in all participating countries. Status offenses are defined as 'problem' or deviant behavior but are not part of the delinquency definition as used in international comparisons. Moreover, we used a set of filtering questions, such as 'have you ever...' before going into details about the exact meaning and circumstances of the act. In order to optimize response validity, a number of studies used a mixed approach. The first and second part of the questionnaire, including all sociodemographic questions, was administered in face-to-face interviews. The third part of the questionnaire, that is, the selection of follow-up questions that refer to the admitted acts, was subsequently given to the respondent by the interviewer to complete.

Great care was also taken to have high item-specificity: for example, what exactly is meant by 'threatening other people'? Did the boy steal the car or did he merely use it for joy-riding? Further, the reference period for the detailed questions was one year only, since longer periods increase the risk of memory bias.

2.5 Concurrent validity

Another nagging methodological problem is how to achieve some measure of concurrent validity. What other sources on delinquent behavior are available to control our data? In many studies police reports are used to control whether the offenses figuring in the police reports were mentioned by the respondents. Such studies have been done both for adults (Veendrick, 1976) and for juveniles (Hindelang *et al.*, 1981; Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1983; Junger, 1990). The self-report method did not seem adequate in the case of adults: there was considerable underreporting of burglary, assaults and hit-and-run offenses. As for juveniles the results suggest moderate to high validity. However, there are indications that juveniles are far more inclined to talk with relative openness about their delinquent behavior than they are about their contacts with the juvenile justice system or the police. Unfortunately most participants in the ISRD study do not have the names and addresses

needed for this type of control, while others – on the basis of legal regulations – are not allowed to check validity this way.

One way to approach this problem is to check the data with data from other similar, or at least comparable, studies. This was tried by the Belgian and Spanish researchers, but they were not able to achieve the comparison. The questionnaires used were too dissimilar in several respects: the reference period for committing delinquent acts, the euphemistic wording in the definition of the acts (pinching or borrowing instead of stealing) which almost certainly undermined validity, and differences in the delinquency items. Moreover, the geographical areas covered and the sample ages were different.

Partial validity controls were introduced in the Dutch study by comparing delinquency data with results from two comparable studies: first, the bi-annual self-report study of a national random youth sample of 12- to 18-year-old minors, and second, a longitudinal self-report study of a 12- to 25-year-old sample. In the national youth study many questionnaire items are comparable to those of the ISRD study, while in the second study the ISRD questionnaire was used. Both data sets are also used to test external validity. The comparison showed considerable similarity in the results. A similar approach was used in the Omaha study, where the data were compared with two large self-report studies in the U.S – the Seattle study (Hindelang *et al.*, 1981) and the National Youth Survey (Elliott *et al.*, 1983). Considering the fact that the Omaha sample is a school-based one, there was a surprising similarity in the relative rank-ordering of the offenses.

The Finnish study used different techniques to check validity, such as a comparison with a qualitative study on self-reported criminal behavior among a similar school population and a parallel study in another Finnish city. An interesting partial validation resulted from the consultation of the so-called 'penalty books' of the sampled schools, wherein disturbances and (school) problem behaviors are recorded. Although no individual rates can be compared, this would allow for comparison of troublesome behavior with delinquent behavior at the classroom level.

There is one validity problem left that is hard to solve: the validity of the self-report method administered to ethnic minorities. One earlier Dutch study found large variations in validity among three different ethnic groups (Junger, 1990). One way to check validity is to compare the self-report data with police data. This was done in Junger's study.

Three ISRD participants (Switzerland, England and Wales, and The Netherlands) found that ethnic minorities reported fewer delinquent acts than their national counterparts. Unfortunately, there were no additional (police) data to operate a validity check so that the discrepancy between self-report data and official data on ethnic minorities remains essentially unexplained. If we also take into account the differential response validity between blacks and whites in American self-report studies (Hindelang *et al.*, 1981; Elliott and Ageton, 1980), we might venture the following tentative statements about this problem. The bulk of the research in this field tends to suggest that where specific ethnic groups are well-integrated in mainstream society – speaking the language and participating in the

country's economic and social life – response validity of these groups will not differ to any great extent from that of the national youth population. Where new immigrant groups participate in self-report studies, validity may be low, if only for cultural reasons. In the case of long-standing, very deprived minority groups, validity will at least be questionable. In practice this would mean that any research on ethnic minorities using self-report would require careful study of the social, economic and cultural position of the groups in question before conclusions can be drawn on response validity. Of course it would be better still to check response validity with another source of delinquent or problem behavior.

3. Some further methodological issues

Once the data collection of the individual studies was completed, there appeared to be several requirements for a useful analysis, recalling that the focus of the analysis is the country/city rather than the individual respondent. A first requirement was to reach agreement on at least the following *dependent variables*:

- the prevalence and frequency of delinquency either at the national level or at the city level (depending on the sample available);
- the nature of delinquency, for example the distribution of specific offenses or the proportion of property-related and violent offenders;
- the seriousness of delinquency measured, for example, by frequency and/or by the nature of the delinquent acts;
- the prevalence and frequency of 'problem' behavior (status offenses);
- the nature of problem behavior, such as differences in the amount of truancy and alcohol and drug use.

Second, in order to allow for simple comparisons in this first volume, and with an eye to later, more complex, comparative analyses in the next one, certain decisions had to be taken with respect to the independent variables, some of which had to be constructed on the basis of the existing data set.

The main *independent variables* were the following:

socioeconomic variables:

(un)employment father
 (un)employment mother
 education level
 source of income
 (part-time) employment
 unemployment respondent
 school drop-out
 degree of urbanization

demographic variables – composition of the population:

ethnicity/race
 age

sex
 single-parent family
 presence of stepparent
cultural variables with respect to adolescents and young adults:
 alcohol use
 drug use
 peer group involvement
other variables related to criminological theory:
 school performance
 school commitment
 work commitment
 bond with parents
 supervision by parents
 bond with friends
 organized leisure/sports participation

Some variables, such as education status, SES and ethnicity, present serious problems because of different definitions among countries.

With respect to *educational status*, long discussions and several trials to combine classifications based on the many different school systems resulted in the following definition: education status is defined as the level of education achieved, measured in completed school years. For those still in school this is the current level; for those who have left school this is the highest level achieved, whether completed with a diploma/certificate or not. Three categories were distinguished:

- *high*: university or comparable higher education; gymnasium/lycée or preparatory school leading to university;
- *medium*: professional, vocational or training schools leading to medium-skill jobs;
- *low*: vocational training, apprenticeships, no training after leaving elementary school, leading to low-skill jobs;

The assumption is that this classification is somewhat independent of age, since a youngster in a medium-level school will probably get a medium-level job. Thus, although he ages, his educational status will remain the same.

SES presents similar definitional problems. The final proposal was to combine father's professional status and the interviewer's estimate of the status of the home*. Father's professional status is classified as:

- lower class (unskilled job; unemployed)
- lower middle class (skilled job)
- middle class (employees; employers of middle-sized businesses)
- higher middle class (professions; jobs requiring higher education)
- upper class (employers in big enterprises)

Home status is evaluated by the interviewer at the end of the interview on the basis of home appearance, street appearance, evidence of vandalism and/or whether neighborhood is run down.

*This would be impossible in the case of school samples.

Finally, *ethnicity* is essentially based on the place of birth of the father and/or on races.

All this is fairly straightforward, and it helped to standardize to a certain extent the analysis of the individual studies. The results give us information on either entire countries or on cities. This allowed us to place one country/city next to another and to examine the question of whether relationships that are established in one of them are also valid in others. In order to make these comparisons worthwhile, we recommended that researchers conduct the analyses of the individual studies along similar lines, offering a common format for presentation of the results. This was indeed achieved and makes reading the different chapters much easier and more interesting.

In conclusion, however, a word of caution is required. In designing the ISRD study we tried to keep sources of variation between countries within certain limits. For example, we decided to restrict the study to countries in the western world so that there would not be too many differences in the economic, social and cultural situation of the participating countries and to ensure a more or less similar understanding and interpretation of most of the delinquency items. Also, all participants in the ISRD study used the common measurement instrument. (The Dunedin and E/W-German studies being partial exceptions).

However, as will already be evident, despite these similarities, there are considerable differences between studies in sampling method, sample scope and data collection. To just exactly what extent and in what ways these differences will influence the studies' results, we do not know. But of course they will have an impact on the closer comparisons to be conducted later on.

These future much more complex comparative analyses will be devoted to trying to explain variations in delinquency prevalence and frequency as well as variations in the nature of delinquency across participating countries. In addition we will examine the differential distribution of independent variables over the various individual country/city samples. To the extent that these variables are related to delinquency, their differential distribution over the various samples might offer some explanation for variations in delinquency.

It is clear, however, that for the purpose of these comparisons, decisions must be made on questions such as which countries or cities may be compared among themselves, what elements we might control for and what differences we would be willing to pass over for the sake of comparison. It will be of paramount importance to report carefully the steps that will be taken in this exercise, so that the scientific community can judge what has been done so far and support attempts to improve the methodology of international comparative research.

References

- Clinard, M.B. (1978), *Cities with Little Crime: The Case of Switzerland*. Boston, Mass., Cambridge University Press.
- Elliot, D.S. and R. Huizinga (1983), Social class and delinquent behavior in a national youth panel: 1976-1980. *Criminology*, 21: 2.
- Elliot, D.S. and S.S. Ageton (1980), Reconciling race and class differences in self-reported and official estimates of delinquency. *American sociological review* 45: 1.
- Friday, P.C. (1973), Problems in comparative criminology: comments on the feasibility and implications of research. *International Journal of Criminology and Penology*, 1:2.
- Hindelang, M.J. (1981), Variations in sex-race-age specific incidence rates of offending. *American Sociological Review*, 46.
- Hindelang, M.J., T. Hirschi and J.G. Weis (1981), *Measuring Delinquency*. Beverly Hills, Calif., Sage Publication.
- Junger, M. (1990), *Delinquency and Ethnicity: An Investigation on Social Factors relating to Delinquency among Moroccan, Turkish, Surinamese and Dutch Boys*. Boston, Mass. and Deventer, The Netherlands, Kluwer Law and Taxation Publications.
- Junger-Tas, J. et al. (1983), *Jeugddelinquentie: Achtergronden en Justitiële Reactie*. 's Gravenhage, Staatsuitgeverij.
- Junger-Tas, J. and G.J. Terlouw (1991), Het Nederlandse Publiek en het Criminaliteitsprobleem (I)(II). *Delikt en Delinkwent*, March and April Issues.
- Junger-Tas, J., M.W. Klein and X. Zhang (1992), Problems and dilemmas in comparative self-report delinquency research. *British Journal of Criminology*, forthcoming.
- Klein, M.W., ed. (1989), *Cross-national Research in Self-reported Crime and Delinquency*. Deventer, The Netherlands, Kluwer Academic Publications.
- Levinson, D. (1977), What have we learned from cross-cultural surveys? *American Behavioral Scientist*, 20:5.
- LePoole, F. (1977), Law and practice concerning the counterparts of 'persons in need of supervision' in some European countries with a particular emphasis on the Netherlands. In: Lee E. Teitelbaum, ed., *Beyond Control, Status Offenders in the Juvenile Court*. Cambridge, Mass., Ballinger Publication Company.
- Pease, K. and K. Hukkila (1990), *Criminal Justice Systems in Europe and North America*. Helsinki, Finland, Helsinki Institute for Crime Prevention and Control. (affiliated with the United Nations).
- Terlouw, G.J. and J. Junger-Tas (1992), The International Juvenile Self-report Delinquency Study: Design and first results of the Dutch study. Paper presented at the 44th Annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology. New Orleans, U.S.A.
- Van Dijk, J.J.M., P. Mayhew and M. Killias (1990), *Experiences of Crime Across the World*. Boston, Mass., and Deventer, The Netherlands, Kluwer Law and Taxation Publications.
- Van Dijk, J.J.M. and P. Mayhew (1992), Criminal victimization in the industrialized world: key findings of the 1989 and 1992 International Crime Surveys. The Hague, The Netherlands, Directorate for Crime Prevention, Ministry of Justice.
- Veendrick, L. (1976), *Verborgen en Geregistreeerde Criminaliteit in Groningen*. Groningen, The Netherlands, Rijksuniversiteit Groningen, Criminologisch Instituut.
- Vetere, E. and Gr. Newman (1977), International crime statistics: An overview from a comparative perspective. *Abstracts on Criminology and Penology*, 17:3.

SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY IN THE NETHERLANDS

Gert-Jan Terlouw¹ and Gerben J.N. Bruinsma²
Ministry of Justice¹, University of Twente²

1. Introduction

This chapter reports on the results of the Dutch survey for the international project on self-reported juvenile delinquency. First, we will briefly sketch The Netherlands in sociodemographic and socioeconomic terms. Then, the procedures used in sampling and the sample are discussed. After a description of the delinquency levels found in the sample, the relationship between socioeconomic and some other background characteristics of respondents and their offending behavior are analyzed. In conclusion we examine to what extent these characteristics can explain involvement in delinquency.

2. Sociodemographic and socioeconomic characteristics

The Netherlands is a relatively small country, occupying 41,526 square kilometers, including 498 square kilometers are occupied by Lake IJsselmeer and the North Sea. As of January 1, 1992, the population numbered 15,129,150 inhabitants, of which 4.8% were non-Dutch. The central and western part of the country are the most densely populated. A quarter of the inhabitants (24.9%) is in the age range 0-19, 33% in the range from 20-39 and the remainder is over 40 years of age (Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), 1993, p.35).

Among the 4.8% non-Dutch inhabitants the main groups are Turks (1.4%), Moroccans (1.1%; CBS, 1992b, May, p.35). Persons of Surinamese origin account for 1.5% of the population (Tas, 1992b). Many Surinamese (91.6%) have a Dutch passport as until 1975 Surinam was a Dutch colony. In comparison, 8% of the Turkish residents and 12% of the Moroccans have Dutch passports (Tas, 1992a, 1992b; Harmsen, 1992).

In big cities like Amsterdam and Rotterdam, the percentage of these ethnic groups is considerably higher. In the age group 14-21 (used in this study), the combined percentage of Turks and Moroccans in Amsterdam is estimated at 15.5%, and in Rotterdam at 14% (CBS, 1992, November, p.32, 36, 45). In the next few years the percentage of ethnic minorities in these age groups is expected to increase.

In the school year 1991/1992, there were 3,074,000 pupils/students in full-time education in The Netherlands (provisional figures, CBS, 1993,

Address for correspondence: G.J. Terlouw, Ministry of Justice, RDC, P.O. Box 20301, 2500 EH The Hague, The Netherlands.

p.446). Close to half of this group (45.8%) was in basic education, 3.6% in special education and 21.9% in secondary general education. Furthermore, 7.2% and 9.2% were in junior and senior vocational training respectively, while 6.6% were in vocational college and 5.7% in university.

In 1991, the labor force* in The Netherlands consisted of approximately 7,133,000 persons, aged 15-64, of which 60.3% were male and 39.7% were female (CBS, 1993, p.102). The registered unemployment rate for 1991 was 4.5% (16-64 year group), and 5.1% in the 16-24 year group (CBS, 1992a, p.18).

Unemployment among Turks, Moroccans and Surinamese, although slowly decreasing since 1988, is considerably higher (16-64 year group, respectively, 28%, 22% and 19%; Muus, 1992, pp. 30, 84).

3. Drug and alcohol policy

According to self-report data, in 1990, 3.8% of juveniles in the ages of 12-17 years had used soft drugs (cannabis). In big cities the percentage was higher (6.2%; Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1992). Though possession and trading soft drugs is illegal, possessing under 30 grams of cannabis products is classified as a misdemeanor and not as a criminal offense.

As for hard drugs (opiates and cocaine), from 1973 on the number of problematic (addicted) drug users has grown to an estimated 20,000-25,000, of which 40% in Amsterdam. Official figures indicate that over the same period, property crime grew proportionally. Property crime appears to be correlated with drug use: since 1973 the increase in property crime in Amsterdam has been two to three times higher than in cities which did not share the increase in problematic opiate users (Grapendaal *et al.*, 1991).

Dutch drug policy is midway between prohibition and legalization of drugs. Pragmatism (cost-benefit analysis) and harm reduction are its main features (Van Capelle, 1988). Important aspects of Dutch drug policy are the distinction which is made between 'soft' and 'hard' drugs (hard being those substances posing unacceptable risks), and that between drug users and drug traffickers, dealers, etc. Drug use is considered a health problem, and (thus) the Department of Health and Welfare is the first responsible for drug policy. The Ministry of Justice is concerned with combatting drug transport and crime.

Recent self-report surveys (1986, 1988 and 1990) show that in the age group of 12-17 about half of the juveniles use alcohol. Young people who use alcohol regularly are more often involved in offending behavior than the others (56% versus 26%; Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1992). The alcohol control policy pursued by the Dutch government aims at preventing the health and social risks associated with alcohol use. However, alcohol advertising

*The labor force, according to the definition used by the CBS, (in brief) consists of persons who perform some work for wages or salary, persons not receiving wages or salaries, who are self-employed or work for profit or family gain, and persons without work receiving unemployment benefits.

has not been banned from radio and television. Instead, since September 1990, the alcohol industry has been practising some self-restriction in this matter (Engelsman, 1990).

4. Sampling method and procedure

Two ISRD surveys were available for The Netherlands. One was conducted by the Research and Documentation Center (RDC) of the Ministry of Justice and the second by the University of Twente (UT). Both surveys used the standard ISRD questionnaire (see Questionnaire p. ■). For the present report, the surveys were combined, resulting in a sample size of 914 respondents.

The RDC sample contains 866 respondents, including 68 oversampled Turkish and Moroccan juveniles from Amsterdam and Rotterdam. Juveniles in the age group 14-21 were randomly sampled from the population registers of 15 cities spread over The Netherlands. The later addition of the UT sample was accounted for in the selection of these 15 cities. The number of respondents to be sampled from every city was weighted according to city size.

Before the fieldwork (Spring, 1992) the 108 interviewers received half a day of instruction on interviewing procedures and on the questionnaire. Turkish and Moroccan interviewers were available for interviews with youths from those ethnic groups.

The sociodemographic part of the questionnaire was administered in face-to-face interviews. The delinquency items were completed personally by the respondent while the interviewer was present.

The UT sample has 620 respondents from two cities in the eastern part of the country. The survey was conducted by students as part of their university study program. Apart from the fact that male interviewers interviewed only male respondents and female interviewers female respondents, the survey method did not differ from the one used for the RDC survey.

As mentioned above, for this report the RDC and the UT samples were combined. First we took the 'core' RDC sample (without the oversample) of 798 respondents. Then we calculated that, weighted according to city sizes, we needed 79 cases from the UT sample. These were randomly drawn from the 620 UT respondents. After combining the two samples, the percentage of Turks and Moroccans in Rotterdam and Amsterdam in the sample was weighted to match the population percentages in these cities. These ethnic juveniles were randomly drawn from the oversample and added to the main sample.

5. Response and non-response

The response success rate for the RDC survey was 56%. Non-response was mostly a result of the respondent not being at home when the interviewer tried to get in touch (each address had to be tried three times). Not in the

mood' was the most frequently heard argument for non-cooperation.

For the UT sample of 79 respondents, the response rate was, at 72.5%, considerably higher than that for the RDC sample. The overall non-response rate for the combined RDC-UT sample of 914 respondents was 43%.

On average, an interview took 29 minutes (the range being 10 to 80 minutes). Almost all interviews took place at the home of the respondent (96.1%). The remainder were conducted at the home of a friend of the respondent. Less than 1% took place in some public place, for example, a cafe or bar. In half of the interviews (55.3%) the interviewer was alone with the respondent. In 10.6% of the cases where other persons were present, the interviewers felt that those persons influenced the responses to the questions.

Many more interviewers considered the living circumstances 'good' for the response group than for the non-response group. The level of maintenance of the house/apartment and neighborhood is significantly higher for the group of respondents than for the non-response group*. Moreover, for 21.3% of the non-response addresses, the interviewers reported vandalism and/or graffiti in the vicinity of the home. For the response group this percentage was 16.3%. Therefore, it would seem that middle-class youths are overrepresented among the respondents.

6. Sample description and representativeness

The sample of 914 respondents consists of 51.4% girls and 48.6% boys, aged 14-21 years. For the population the gender distribution in this age group is 51% males and 49% females (CBS, 1992b, May, p.31).

The group contains 80.6% Dutch respondents, 5.6% Surinamese, 3.5% Moroccan and 5.1% Turkish respondents. The remaining 5.1% contains other ethnicities (e.g., Ghanese).

The age distribution in the sample does not really differ from that in the population. The main difference is found at age 21, which is somewhat underrepresented in the ISRD sample. Considered per ethnic group, the Dutch, Surinamese and 'other ethnicity' respondents are distributed fairly evenly over the ages. Moroccans appear slightly overrepresented at age 14-17 and underrepresented in the age group 19-21, while the Turks are (rather randomly it seems) underrepresented at the ages 18, 19 and 21.

Most of the respondents are still attending school (53.3%). About one out of three (30.2%) is combining school and work, while 11.5% has a job. The unemployment percentage is 5%. Of those unemployed, over half has had a job previously (56.5%). In the Dutch population the unemployment percentage for young people in the ages 16-24 was 5.1% in 1991 (CBS, 1992b, February, p.18). In the selection of ISRD respondents aged 16-21, the unemployment rate is 6.5%, slightly higher than the population figure. CBS statistics show that the unemployment percentage declines with

*House/apartment: one sample $\chi^2=197.6$, $p<.000$
Neighborhood: one sample $\chi^2=108.0$, $p<.000$

age, which might explain the difference between the ISRD and the population percentage (the ISRD subsample used for the comparison does not cover juveniles aged 22-24.)

Comparing the percentual distribution of ISRD respondents over educational types (subsample of 763 respondents in education) to the population distribution (schoolyear 1989-1990; CBS, 1992, pp. 428-443), we find that respondents in medium-level secondary general education are overrepresented in the ISRD sample, and university students are underrepresented. This may be accounted for by the difference in age groups: the ISRD sample is aged 14-21, while the population figures cover the age group 12-25. The underrepresentation of those aged 21 in the sample may also contribute to this.

Of the 151 respondents who left school (16.5%), just over half completed their last education successfully (54.5%). In this last group 34.6% has a junior vocational training diploma (highest achieved), while 32.1% finished senior vocational training with a diploma. Diplomas in medium- and high-level secondary general education were each achieved by approximately 16% of this group; 1.3% got a vocational college diploma (*i.e.*, higher professional training such as nursing or social work).

The rest of the group that is no longer in school dropped out. In this last selection, 44.6% of the respondents has only basic education, and 15.4% has a general secondary education, while 29.2% has a diploma in a lower vocational school. The group that successfully completed and the group that did not complete their last education differ significantly in unemployment percentage (respectively, 16.9% and 43.1% unemployed, $\chi^2=11.78$, $p < .001$).

Most respondents (63.9%) live at home with both parents. The percentage of respondents from a broken family is 14.8%, while 9.3% live on their own. About one in twenty respondents cohabitates with her/his boy-/girlfriend (5.1%) and 1.5% is married. This last percentage is just under the population percentage of married persons in the ages of 14-21, which is 2.1%.

Almost half of the respondents (47.7%) come from urbanized areas, that is, from cities of over 200,000 inhabitants. A quarter of the subjects (25.5%) comes from smaller municipalities (100,000-200,000 inhabitants), and the remaining subjects (26.8%, 245 respondents) are from rural areas and towns of less than 100,000. This distribution is a result of sampling criteria. The Surinamese respondents are almost exclusively from 200,000+ cities. Moroccan and Turkish respondents are mostly from heavily urbanized areas as well (71%).

7. Delinquency and problem behavior

Not counting alcohol use and status offenses like truancy and running away from home, 84.5% of the respondents admitted to having at least once 'ever' committed one (or more) of the acts asked for in the questionnaire. Tables I and II (Appendix) give the results for each 'ever' and 'last year' delinquency item (both prevalence and frequency; see also Tables III and IV (Appendix) for prevalence for each sex and age category).

About one out of every four respondents who reported delinquent behavior 'ever' had contacts with the police as a result of that behavior (24.6%).

Questions like 'did you ever ...' have a cumulative effect, however: the probability of an affirmative answer increases with age. This results in high percentages in the 'ever' column in Table I (Appendix) and in a high overall level of 'ever offending behavior'.

Asking whether the offense was committed 'last year' (the year before the moment of the interview) avoids this effect. Table I (Appendix) shows that the offender percentage drops significantly, most notably in the case of shoplifting, vandalism and fare dodging on (local) public transport (dropping 31.7%, 30.3% and 27.7% respectively). In some instances the percentages are not really comparable. For example, if respondents were no longer going to school over the year before the interview, a question about skipping classes is not very relevant. Summed over all types of behavior, the prevalence of delinquency in the year before the interview is 61.2%.

When we rank-order offenses according to prevalence level, we find the item 'not paying on local public transport' at the top of the 'ever' list at 47.3% (not counting alcohol use; see Table V, Appendix). This item ranks third in the 'last year' table, where 'staying away from school' comes first (26.4%). Globally, though, there is not much difference between the order of the offenses in the two tables. Shoplifting makes the biggest jump, dropping from the fifth place on the 'ever' list to the twelfth on the 'last year' list.

How do the ISRD delinquency figures compare to other representative samples from the Dutch juvenile population?

Representative samples of Dutch juveniles in the age group of 12-17 years were drawn up in 1988 and 1990 for a study concerning the development of juvenile delinquency (Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1992). Another sample representative for Dutch youth was drawn up in 1991 for the first wave of a longitudinal study on the effects of significant life events on different aspects of the life of young people, including criminal behaviors (Rutenfrans and Terlouw, 1994).

The 'last year' prevalence rates found for the ISRD sample are a bit higher than those for the other three samples. This may be explained by the fact that the ISRD sample does not contain 12- to 13-year-old youngsters, who are generally less involved in delinquent behavior than juveniles who are a few years older (Hirschi and Gottfredson, 1983; Junger-Tas *et al.*, 1985). Adding the 12- to 13-year-old respondents from the 1990 sample to the (RDC) ISRD sample for four offenses results in a lowering of the prevalence rates for these types of delinquent behavior to a level that does not really differ from the rates found for the 1988 and 1991 samples.

The delinquency questions were grouped (by summing) into six categories, according to the nature of the offenses (see Table VI, Appendix). Table 1 gives the 'ever' and 'last year' prevalence rate for the six delinquency classes. The percentage of respondents that scored on combinations of two delinquency categories is given in Table VII (Appendix).

Table 1. Categorized prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'ever' and 'last year' (all respondents, n=914)

Type	Ever n	%	Last year n	%
Property offenses	553	60.5	270	29.5
Overall violent offenses	526	57.5	268	29.3
violence against objects	419	45.8	128	14.0
violence against persons	350	38.3	202	22.1
Drug offenses	197	21.6	140	15.3
Other youth-related offenses	624	68.3	331	36.2
Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	772	84.5	559	61.2
'Problem' behavior without alcohol use	442	48.4	245	26.8

The following offenses have the highest 'last year' prevalence level in the delinquency categories (Table I, Appendix): buying stolen goods (11.6%, category property crime), vandalism (12.6%, category violence against objects), carrying a weapon (15.4%, violence against persons), soft drug use (15%, drug offenses), not paying on local public transport and driving without a license or insurance (both at approx. 20%, 'other youth-related offenses'), and skipping classes (26.4%, problem behavior).

About half of the violent offenders (52.2%) were involved in violence against persons only, while 24.6% reported violence against objects only. For the remaining 23.1% both types of behavior were recorded. Eight out of ten violent offenders (82.5%) reported carrying a weapon around, in most cases (59.5%) a stiletto or comparable knife. Table 1 tells us further that the highest 'last year' prevalence rate is observed for 'other youth-related offenses' (36.2%).

In addition to Table 1, Table II (Appendix), showing the categorized frequency scores for the 'last year' delinquency categories, informs us that over the 'last year', 143 respondents (15.6%) committed (any of the) 'other youth-related offenses' one or two times, 71 respondents 3 to 5 times etc. Twelve respondents reported committing (any of) these offenses 51 or more times. Compared to the offender frequency rates found for violent, property and drug offenses, the levels for 'other youth-related offenses' are fairly high.

Below we will look into the occurrence of delinquent behaviors in subgroups of the sample having different characteristics.

8. Sociodemographic characteristics and delinquency

8.1 Gender

In many respects, male respondents are more likely to have been involved in delinquent behavior in the year before the interview than female re-

spondents. The prevalence rates are shown in Table 2. Apart from problem behavior, for which the groups do not differ, there is a significant difference in prevalence between male and female respondents, especially for violent and property offenses.

Approximately twice as many male as female respondents committed property offenses and violence against objects. Violent behavior against persons was recorded for over four times as many males as females. The difference is less conspicuous for drug offenses and 'other youth offenses'. Males were about 1.3 times more likely to have been involved in these behaviors than females.

When controlled for age (14-15, 16-17, 18-19, 20-21 years), the difference between male and female respondents in prevalence of property crime, overall violence and violence against other persons holds for all age groups. For violence against objects (graffiti and vandalism), however, there are statistically significant prevalence differences between males and females in the age classes 14-15 and 20-21 years only (respectively, 29.2% versus 13%, $\chi^2=7.7$, $p<.01$ and 11.4% versus 4.1%, $\chi^2=5.0$, $p<.05$). In the ages 16-19 the sexes do not differ.

The significant difference between male and female respondents in the prevalence of drug offenses occurs mainly in the age group 20-21, in which 29.5% of the men as compared to 16.3% of the women reported such behavior over the last year ($\chi^2=6.3$, $p<.05$). In the ages 14-19 the difference is not statistically significant.

The age control also shows that differences between sexes found for 'other youth-related offenses' (i.e., not paying on public transportation etc.) are mainly due to significant differences that show up in ages 14-15 and 16-17*. From age 18 and up male and female respondents do not differ.

Table 2. Gender and prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'last year' (n=914)*

Type	Male		Female	
	n	%	n	%
Property offenses	175	39.4	95	20.2
Overall violent offences	192	43.2	76	16.2
violence against objects	83	18.7	45	9.6
violence against persons	163	36.7	39	8.3
Drug offenses	83	18.7	57	12.1
Other youth-related offences	190	42.8	141	30.0
Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	325	73.2	234	49.8
'Problem' behavior without alcohol use	121	27.3	124	26.4

*Property offenses $\chi^2=40.4$, $p<.001$. Overall violent offenses $\chi^2=80.7$, $p<.001$, violence against objects $\chi^2=15.8$, $p<.001$; violence against persons $\chi^2=107.1$, $p<.001$. Drug offenses $\chi^2=7.6$, $p<.01$. Other youth-related offenses $\chi^2=16.2$, $p<.001$. Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior $\chi^2=52.7$, $p<.001$.

*Male-female 14-15 prevalence 53.1%-28.3%, $\chi^2=12.9$, $p<.001$. Male-female 16-17 prevalence 51.6%-37.5%, $\chi^2=4.7$, $p<.05$

Overall, in all age groups a significantly higher percentage of respondents in the male group has been involved in delinquent behavior ('overall delinquency last year' indicator) than in the female group. The male prevalence level in the 14-15 year group is 74.3%, 32% higher than the females. For the older groups the difference averages about 20%.

8.2 Age

We found significant differences in delinquency prevalence 'last year' between age groups (Table 3). For violence (overall), the highest prevalence rate is found in the age group 14-17 (approximately 36.5%). This is mainly caused by the female subgroup, in which the violence prevalence is about 22.5% in the ages 14-17, decreasing to 11.5% for those over 17. In the male group the percentage of violent offenders diminishes as well but not significantly (from approximately 48.6% to 37.2% for the same age groups).

While for these age categories (14-17) the prevalence rate for violence against objects drops off steeply at age 18 (from approximately 21% down to approximately 7.6%), for violence against persons the cutoff point is not nearly as clear: there is a decline from 26.3% to approximately 18.5% for the 18- to 21-year-old respondents. For neither male nor female respondents does the percentage of respondents reporting violence against persons change significantly with age.

The age groups do not differ significantly regarding property crime: the

Table 3. Age and prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'last year' (n=914)*

Type	14-15		Age group 16-17		18-19		20-21	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Property offenses	56	27.3	81	34.4	65	29.4	68	27.0
Overall violent offenses	75	36.6	86	36.4	52	23.5	55	21.8
violence against objects	45	22.0	47	19.9	18	8.1	18	7.1
violence against persons	54	26.3	62	26.3	44	19.9	42	16.7
Drug offenses	8	3.9	36	15.3	41	18.6	55	21.8
Other youth-related offenses	86	42.0	106	44.9	84	38.0	55	21.9
Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	123	60.0	162	68.6	136	61.5	138	54.8
'Problem' behavior without alcohol use	23	11.2	62	26.3	87	39.4	73	29.0

*Overall violent offenses $\chi^2=21.4$, $p<.001$, violence against objects $\chi^2=33.7$, $p<.001$; violence against persons $\chi^2=9.5$, $p<.05$. Drug offenses $\chi^2=30.6$, $p<.001$. Other youth-related offenses $\chi^2=33.6$, $p<.001$. Problem behavior without alcohol use $\chi^2=43.8$, $p<.001$. Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior $\chi^2=10.0$, $p<.05$.

highest prevalence rate is found for the 16-17 year group (34.3%), and the lowest for the youngest (27.3%) and oldest group (27.0%).

Drug offenses show a steady and significant prevalence increase with age, from a negligible 3.9% for the 14-15 year group to 21.8% for the oldest respondents. This curve is found for male and female subgroups separately. Traveling on public transport without paying, etc., as combined in the 'other youth offenses' category, gets less with age, as Table 3 shows. This is for the greater part due to the male subgroup, where the prevalence level drops from approximately 52% to 20% for the older respondents. The percentage of offenders in the female group decreases as well (about 10%), but the decrease is not so impressive, the prevalence rate for the 14-17 year groups being about 33% (not significant).

Problem behavior is most common at the ages 18-19, where it was recorded for 39.4% of the respondents, for males and females equally.

The overall delinquency measure shows the highest prevalence level for the 16-17 year group (68.6%), going down to 54.8% for the 20-21 age group.

Though the pattern is similar for men and women separately, in none of these groups is the delinquency prevalence difference between the age groups statistically significant.

8.3 Educational status

The educational status of the respondents was measured by looking at their school achievements. For those still in school, we took the current level as an indicator for educational status, and, for respondents no longer in school, the highest level/class achieved, irrespective of whether the study was completed by a diploma or not. Educational status has three categories: high (n=146), medium (n=365) and low (n=403).

As for prevalence of property crime 'last year', no significant differences found between the three groups. In the low and medium educational level groups the prevalence rate is approximately 27.3%, and in the high education group 36.3%. The groups do differ on violence, however: 19.2% prevalence for the high education group going up to 36.5% for the low group. The same trend is visible in the subcategories violence against objects and violence against persons. For violent behavior against objects, the prevalence level ranges from 8.9% (high educational status) to 18.4% (low educational status), and for violence against persons the prevalence ranges from 13.7% to 28.3% for these groups respectively.

On the other hand, in the high education group a significantly higher percentage of respondents reported having been engaged in drug use or drug dealing in the year before the interview (26%). For the medium level group this is 16.4% and for the low education category 10.4%. Also, problem behavior like truancy and staying away from home is more common in the high education group than in the other groups (37.7% versus 32.9% and 17.4% for the low education group).

Using public transport like buses, subways and trains without paying or driving cars without a driver's license was recorded for more respond-

ents in the low educational status group than for those in the medium or high group (41.1%, 35.9% and 22.6% respectively)*.

Probably because of these mixed results for the various delinquency categories, the overall prevalence indicator - being the sum of most delinquency categories - does not show a significant difference in delinquency for the three educational subgroups (averaging about 61%).

8.4 Socioeconomic status and household composition

In order to get an estimate of the socioeconomic status (SES) of the respondent, we created an indicator by combining the occupational status of the father of the respondent with the interviewer's assessment of the status of the place (house/apartment, etc.) where the respondent lives. The two measures were given the same weight in the new SES indicator, which contains the categories high (n=59), medium high (n=162), medium (n=238), medium low (n=321) and low (n=129)7.

Significant differences in prevalence percentage between the five SES groups are observed for problem behavior only⁸. This behavior was most frequently recorded for medium-high and medium SES respondents (about 32%). Going from high to low SES, we observe roughly an inverted U prevalence curve. The low-SES group has a somewhat higher prevalence level than the medium-low group, however (25.6% versus 20.9%).

The percentage of respondents involved in property crime over the last year is, at about 30%, the same for the five SES groups. For violence, the low-SES group shows the highest prevalence rate (34.1%), followed by the high and medium-high SES respondents at approximately 30.7%. The medium and medium-low groups are at the bottom of the prevalence ranking (about 27.9%). The objects/persons violence subdivision alters the overall picture slightly. For violence against objects (graffiti, vandalism) the medium-high SES group ranks first at 18.5%, with the low and high group as runners-up (approximately 15.4%), while for violence against persons there is a steady prevalence-increase from high SES to low SES (18.6% to 27.9%). These differences are not statistically significant though.

The drug-offenses category shows an inverted U curve comparable to the one we found for problem behavior: from about 18% for the medium-high and medium SES respondents dropping off to 11.9% (high) and approximately 13.8% (low SES).

The prevalence rate of the remaining overall delinquency indicator and the 'other youth-related offenses' measure averages approximately 61% and 36% respectively, without any significant difference between SES groups.

*Overall violent offenses $\chi^2=19.8$, $p<.001$, violence against objects $\chi^2=11.8$, $p<.01$; violence against persons $\chi^2=17.5$, $p<.001$. Drug offenses $\chi^2=20.7$, $p<.001$. Other youth-related offenses $\chi^2=16.5$, $p<.001$. Problem behavior without alcohol $\chi^2=33.9$, $p<.001$.

⁷There are 5 missing answers on the SES indicator.

⁸Problem behavior without alcohol $\chi^2=11.5$, $p<.05$

Household composition is not associated with prevalence of property crime or violence (overall, objects or persons).

Among respondents from broken families, respondents who live alone and those who live in a household situation other than with parents or husband/wife and the two situations above (broken family or alone), we find a relatively high percentage of drug offenders (21.5%, 29.4% and 28.6% respectively *versus* approximately 11.2%) and juveniles with problem behavior (34.1%, 34.1% and 38.8% respectively *versus* approximately 23.5%).

The broken family respondents are also high on 'other youth offenses' (46.7% as compared to 36.8% for the next highest group: household with both parents present). On overall delinquency the prevalence rate among respondents who live alone and respondents from broken families (69.5%) is 11% higher than among other respondents*.

8.5 Ethnicity

Analyses of prevalence of delinquent behavior in the year before the survey and the ethnic group to which the respondent belongs show that the five different ethnic groups differ only on drug use/dealing and overall delinquency**. As for drugs, the highest prevalence level is found for the indigenous Dutch respondents, followed by the 'other ethnicity' group (respectively 17.2% and 14.9%). The percentage of drug offenders among Surinamese, Moroccan and Turkish juveniles is much lower at 7.8%, 3.1% and 2.1% respectively.

The overall delinquency indicator shows that the Surinamese, Dutch and 'other ethnicity' groups contain relatively many offenders at 70.6%, 62.7% and 57.4%. The percentage of offenders among the Moroccan and Turkish respondents is 37.5% and 46.8%.

For the other delinquency prevalence indicators, the ethnic groups do not differ significantly. The global prevalence rates for property crime and violence are 29.5% and 29.3%, whereas on both indicators Moroccan youth, at 12.5% and 18.8%, are markedly lower than the other groups.

While for graffiti plus vandalism the prevalence percentage is more or less the same for the five groups at 14%, the Moroccans are low in violence against persons at 12.5%, as compared to an overall level of 22.1%. The average offender percentage for the category 'other youth-related offenses' and 'problem behavior' is, 36.2% and 26.8%, respectively.

*Drug offenses $\chi^2=36.0$, $p<.001$. Other youth-related offenses $\chi^2=14.8$, $p<.01$. Problem behavior without alcohol $\chi^2=13.4$, $p<.01$. Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior $\chi^2=10.7$, $p<.05$.

**Drug offenses $\chi^2=14.3$, $p<.01$. Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior $\chi^2=14.5$, $p<.01$.

8.6 Source of incomes

The main sources of income the respondents mentioned could be classified into five categories: parents (34.3%), work (16.4%), parents+work (12.1%), scholarship (26.4%) and other sources (8.2%), including social welfare (2.3% of all respondents). There is a small group of 24 respondents (2.7%) that claims to have no money at all to spend*.

The income groups differ significantly in offender percentage on all delinquency indicators**. The average prevalence level for property crime and (overall) violence is, 29.7% and 29.4% respectively. The 'other income sources' group contains by far the most offenders for property crime (45.2%) and is high on violence as well (34.2%). Possibly property crime *itself* is this 'other income source' for this group. Other high scores on violence are found among those respondents who get their money from their parents (34.9%) and those who give parents+work as the main source of money (41.7%). This pattern is repeated in the subcategories violence against objects and personal violence.

For drug offenses the 'scholarship' and 'other source' groups rank at the top of the offender list. These groups are, 6% and 11% respectively above the mean offender percentage for drug crimes (15.2%). In case of 'scholarship' as the main source of income, we are probably talking about students who use drugs as part of their leisure-time behavior. The 'other source' group may consist of respondents with an unconventional lifestyle, since this group was also high on property crime, violence and 'other youth-related offenses' (below).

The mean prevalence on the 'other youth-related offenses' and 'problem behavior' measures is, 36.5% and 27% respectively. On the former indicator the group with the highest level of offenders is the 'other sources' group (50.7%), followed by the 'parents+work' group (44.4%), while on the latter measure the 'scholarship' group ranks first at 42.4%, some 15% above the mean.

Lastly, the 'other income source' and the 'parents+work' groups are the most delinquent as found on the overall delinquency indicator. About 70% of the juveniles in these groups was involved at least once in delinquent behaviors in the year before the interview, which is about 9% above average.

9. Some theoretical background factors and delinquency

One of the objectives of the ISRD project is to do some theory testing. Hirschi's (1969) social control theory specifying four elements (attachment,

*Nineteen respondents did not answer this question.

**Property crime $\chi^2=13.6$, $p<.05$. Overall violent offenses $\chi^2=28.3$ $p<.001$, violence against objects $\chi^2=28.4$, $p<.001$; violence against persons $\chi^2=16.4$, $p<.01$. Drug offenses $\chi^2=25.4$, $p<.001$. Other youth-related offenses $\chi^2=25.7$, $p<.001$. Problem behavior without alcohol $\chi^2=42.6$, $p<.001$. Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior $\chi^2=13.6$, $p<.05$

commitment, beliefs and involvement) that bind the individual to society was at the basis of most of the background questions selected. An analysis of some of these background characteristics and their relationship to delinquency in the past year yielded the results outlined below. We took a look mainly at questions concerning school/job performance and involvement, relationship with parents and parental supervision, socioeconomic status and socializing behavior (Table VIII, Appendix).

Violence against objects shows the least relationships to the background variables tested. Apparently, vandalism and graffiti are things all juveniles get involved in at some time or another.

For the rest, indicators for school performance and involvement like enjoying school and failing classes are significantly related to delinquency. Juveniles who generally (did) like going to school were less involved in delinquent behavior (overall) than those who do not enjoy school that much (57.4% versus 70.1%). Also, those who failed classes were higher on delinquency prevalence than those who did not. The opinion on the importance of doing one's best at school and getting a diploma, and the age of leaving school, are not related to involvement in delinquent behavior.

On the other hand, the prevalence of delinquency in the group of respondents who hold the attitude that it is important to work hard in order to achieve something in life is generally lower than the prevalence level among respondents who do not consider this important, with the exception of 'other youth offenses'. Drug offenses and problem behavior are more frequent among those who ever changed jobs than among the rest. The number of job changes is not related to delinquency, however. The same is true for whether or not a respondent has a job, and whether he/she likes the job. Nor is the status of the job the father of the respondent holds related to the respondent's involvement in delinquent behavior.

Parental supervision, as measured through questions as to whether parents generally know where the respondent is going when going out and with whom*, is related to all types of delinquent behavior (excluding violence against objects). For the overall delinquency level, the results show that the percentage of 'low supervision' respondents reporting offenses in the past year is, at approximately 81.5%, some 22% higher than the 'high supervision group'. This holds mostly when controlled for age: the effect is strongest in the ages of 18 and over, and for the question whether the parents are aware of the company their kids are in. Similar pictures emerge for the composite delinquency categories like property offenses etc. The quality of the relationship with father or mother is virtually unassociated with delinquency. Significant differences are found only for drug offenses (relationship with father) and overall violence and overall delinquency (relationship with mother). Globally, the highest prevalence rates are observed in the groups that state that they get along reasonably well with their parents. Family cohesion in the sense of how frequently the respondents go out with their family (e.g., to restaurants, movies, etc.) is in no way related to delinquent behavior, nor is whether or not the respondent has a steady (girl-/boy)friend.

*The correlation between the two questions is .40.

Looking at the company the respondent goes out with, the highest percentage of offenders is found in the groups that spend their leisure time with friends who are not associated with the school they attend or the place they work (as opposed to family, friends from school/work and steady girl-/boyfriend)*. This is also the group in which the percentage of parents who are unaware of the company their sons/daughters are in is highest (23%). Furthermore, among respondents who claim to have many 'real' friends, *i.e.*, 11 or more, we find significantly more offenders than among juveniles who say they have fewer than 10 'real' friends. This is true for all delinquency categories, except drug offenses and problem behavior. The difference is globally in the order of 10% to 25%.

For the overall delinquency measure, we see that in the non-offender group, with respect to personal problems, respondents almost always get support from their friends if that is the party they generally go out with or from family members if they mostly socialize with them. This (significant) difference is not found for the offenders, which could lead to the conclusion that the attachment level to friends/family might be lower among these respondents.

10. An overall picture

So far, only results from analyses concerning a (selected) set of single variables like age or enjoying school and categories of delinquent behavior have been presented. We would like to conclude with a global view to try to show how those respondent features which have shown to be individually important relate in combination to involvement in delinquent behavior.

The following variables were used to predict involvement in (overall) delinquent behavior 'last year' (alcohol use and problem behavior excluded):

Sex, age, educational status, SES, household composition, daily activities, ethnic group, source of income, company with which leisure time is primarily spent, enjoying school, failing classes, importance of working hard, parental supervision (knowing where one's children are when they go out), number of 'real' friends and support from friends in case of problems. Interaction effects were not accounted for in the analysis**.

Table 4 shows which of these variables proved to be significant predictors of (overall) delinquency in the past year***. Remarkably, age is not one of them. This may be an effect of the different types of delinquent behavior included in the overall measure. Table 3 showed that some types of offenses are more frequent in young respondents while other types are more common in older age groups.

*Property crime 44%, overall violence 42% and overall delinquency 76%.

**Logistic regression was used for the analysis (59 missing cases). In logistic regression a dichotomous dependent variable is predicted by one or more independent variables which can be categorical.

***See Appendix, Table IX for exact results.

Table 4. Significant predictors of involvement in delinquency 'last year' (overall) and direction of the relationship

Predictor	More delinquent if:
Sex	Male
Household type	Living alone
Daily activity	Study+work
Ethnicity	Surinamese
Liking school	Less
Working hard is important (attitude)	No
Parents know where you are going out	No
Number of 'real' friends	High
Support from friends in case of problems	Less probable

Some indicators, like household type and ethnicity, are categorical. For such indicators this implies in this analysis that the predictive value of a category in an indicator can only be understood in comparison to another category in that indicator: the reference group. For instance, for household type the reference group is 'living with both parents'. Table 4 shows that there is a greater risk of being an offender if one falls in the category 'living alone' - as compared to the delinquency risk in the comparison group 'living with both parents'.

Seven out of ten cases (70.5%) are predicted correctly by the nine predictors in the analysis (the 'last year' overall delinquency prevalence rate was 61.2%).

For the category non-offenders 49.2% of the cases are predicted correctly, while for the offenders it is 83.8%. The goodness of fit χ^2 test suggests this prediction model is acceptable (Table IX, Appendix).

These results indicate that, on average, respondents who have the features listed in Table 4 at the right have a high probability of being offenders. After all, only 16.2% of the juveniles possessing those features are incorrectly predicted as being non-delinquent.

We also know that the chance of being an offender is smaller for respondents who do not have such characteristics. However, there is much more uncertainty when forecasting non-offending for this set of respondents on an individual basis: the percentage of juveniles incorrectly predicted as being delinquent (false positives) is 50.8%. Apparently, in this

*The reference values (comparison groups) in the categorical variables are for: Household type : having both parents

Daily activity : study/school

Ethnicity : Dutch

Source of income : money from parents and/or work

Free time company : boy-/girlfriend/family/1-2 friends.

For the categorical variables, the analysis also shows whether certain characteristics are significant predictors of being less delinquent than the reference group. In this analysis we find that 'no study/school'(categorical variable 'daily activity'), 'Moroccan' (ethnicity), 'scholarship' (source of income) and 'alone' (leisure time company) are all significant predictors of being less delinquent than the reference group (see also Appendix, Table IX).

group the mean predicted probability level of offending is still fairly high, making adequate prediction difficult.

This is visible in the histogram of predicted probabilities (Table X, Appendix). Ideally, we would like to see a predicted probability of being delinquent of close to 0% for non-offenders, and of 100% for offenders.

However, a glance at the incorrectly predicted cases in the graph (the Y's to the left of the .5 point (50% chance) on the X axis and the N's to the right of that point) shows that non-offending is hard to predict; many non-offenders (N's) have a relatively high (>.5) estimated probability of being delinquent.

The model does a better job at predicting offenders; although there are some offenders (Y's) who have a predicted chance of less than 50% of being delinquent, for most offenders the predicted probability is over 65%. Many respondents are in the .4-.6 probability zone, indicating that it is difficult to predict whether they will be offenders.

Logistic regressions on the delinquency categories show that age does play a significant role as a predictor for the categories of violence against objects, drugs, and 'other youth-related offenses'. Age is also a significant predictor for 'problem behavior' (which is not a part of the overall delinquency measure). In this category, sex is non-significant.

Summarizing analyses on five delinquency categories (property crime, violence against objects and persons, drug offenses and 'other youth-related offenses**), the best general predictors are sex (all offending categories), liking school and daily activity (four offending categories), age, money source, failing classes and parental supervision (three categories)**. Ethnicity, though a significant predictor in the overall delinquency regression, does not play a significant predicting role in any of these separate analyses.

11. Conclusions

Summarizing, the most salient results from the Dutch ISRD survey are:

- The offender percentage for overall delinquent behavior 'last year' is 61.2%. The main contributing crime categories are property crime and violence (prevalence levels 29.5% and 29.3%), and 'other youth-related offenses' (36.2%).
- Within these crime categories, the most important factors are 'buying stolen goods' (11.6%), 'carrying a weapon' and 'vandalism' (15.4% and

*'Problem behavior' and overall violence are not included in these figures.

**Sex: males are associated with more delinquency.

Daily occupation: if study+work - more delinquent.

Liking school: more - less delinquent.

Age: Violence against objects: younger - more delinquent.

Drug offenses: younger - less delinquent.

Other youth-related offenses: younger - more delinquent.

Source of income other than parents, work, both, or scholarship: if so - more delinquent

Failed or Repeated classes: if yes - more delinquent.

Parents know where you are when going out: if yes - less delinquent.

- 12.6%), and 'driving without license or insurance' and 'using local public transport without paying' (20.7% and 19.6%).
- Globally, more male than female respondents are involved in delinquent behavior (overall 73.2% *versus* 49.8%). This is true for the separate crime categories as well, with the exception of problem behavior.
 - Delinquent behavior is most prevalent in the ages 16-17 (68.6%), generally dropping off steeply after age 19. This age-prevalence trend also shows up in the crime categories. Drug offenses (mainly soft drug use) is the only category that does not fit this picture: the prevalence rate increases steadily with age.
 - For overall delinquency, there is no difference between respondents of different educational status. Nonetheless, the low-status group is highest on violence and 'other youth-related offenses', while the high-educational-status group ranks at the top for drug offenses.
 - Socioeconomic status is not related to differences in delinquency. It is only problem behavior where we find that medium and medium-high SES respondents attain higher scores.
 - In general, ethnicity is not related to delinquency. The only significant differences are found for drug offenses, where the Dutch are the most frequent offenders, and for overall delinquency, where the Surinamese juveniles are highest, followed by the Dutch.
 - Respondents with (a) source(s) of income other than parents, work, parents+work or scholarship are highest on property crime, violence against persons, drug offenses, and 'other youth-related offenses'. The parents+work group tops the offender list for overall violence, its subcategory violence against objects and overall delinquency. Respondents who receive a scholarship are most likely to report problem behavior.
 - Violence against objects is generally, not, associated with respondent characteristics like school/job performance and involvement, parental attachment and supervision, SES and social behavior. Respondents who like school, do not fail classes and think it is important to work hard are less involved in delinquency than the other respondents.
 - Parental supervision is inversely related to the prevalence of delinquency. The perceived quality of the relationship with father or mother is generally not correlated with delinquency.
 - Respondents who say they have many 'real' friends and who go out with friends who do not have anything to do with the school they attend or the job they have, are more likely to have been involved in delinquent behavior (property crime, violence and overall delinquency).
 - Using the most important respondent characteristics from the base set selected as predictors of delinquency 'last year' results in a correct prediction for 71% of the cases. Offending is much better predicted than non-offending: many non-offenders still have a relatively high predicted probability of being delinquent. Generally, sex, daily activity, school involvement, the number of friends a respondent has and parental supervision appear to be the best predictors of involvement in different categories of offending.

References

- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) (1992a), Beroepsbevolking en geregistreerde werkloosheid. *Sociaal-Economische Maandstatistiek*, 92:2.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) (1992b), Stand en loop van de bevolking van Nederland naar land van nationaliteit. *Maandstatistiek van de Bevolking*, 92:5, pp. 31 and 35.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) (1992c), *Statistisch Jaarboek 1992*. 's-Gravenhage, The Netherlands, Staatsuitgeverij.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) (1992), *Maandstatistiek van de Bevolking*, 92/10, pp. 32, 36, 45. 's-Gravenhage: Staatsuitgeverij.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS) (1993), *Statistisch Jaarboek 1993*. 's-Gravenhage, The Netherlands, Staatsuitgeverij.
- Engelsman, E.L. (1990), Alcohol policy in the Netherlands: A three-pronged attack. *World Health Forum*, 11:3, 257-263.
- Grapendaal, M., E. Leuw and J.M. Nelen (1991), *De Economie van het Drugsbestaan*, WODC nr.115. Arnhem and Gouda, The Netherlands, Quint.
- Harmsen, C.N. (1992), Hoeveel allochtonen wonen er in Nederland? *Maandstatistiek van de Bevolking*, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS), 92:4, pp.6-8.
- Hirschi, T. (1969), *Causes of Delinquency*. Berkeley, Calif., University of California Press.
- Hirschi, T., and M. Gottfredson (1983), Age and the explanation of crime. *American Journal of Sociology*, 89:3.
- Junger-Tas, J., M.Junger and E. Barendse-Hoornweg (1985), *Jeugddelinquentie II: De Invloed van Justitieel Ingrijpen*, WODC nr.63. 's Gravenhage, The Netherlands, Staatsuitgeverij.
- Junger-Tas, J., M.K. Kruissink and P.H. Van der Laan, P.H. (1992), *Ontwikkeling van de Jeugdcriminaliteit en de Justitiële Jeugdbescherming: Periode 1980-1990*, WODC nr.119. Arnhem and Gouda, The Netherlands, Quint.
- Muus, Ph.J. (1992), *Migration, Minorities and Policy in The Netherlands*. Report on behalf of the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Amsterdam, The Netherlands, University of Amsterdam, CEMIO.
- Questionnaire for the International Self-Report Delinquency Project* (1991), Developed by the Research and Documentation Center, RDC, Ministry of Justice, The Hague, The Netherlands.
- Rutenfrans, C.J.C., G.J. Terlouw (1994), *Delinquentie, sociale controle en 'life events'. Eerste resultaten van een longitudinaal onderzoek*. WODC, nr. 131. Arnhem, Gouda Quint.
- Tas, R.F.J. (1992a), Niet-Nederlanders op 1 januari 1992, *Maandstatistiek van de Bevolking*, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS), 92:6, p.14.
- Tas, R.F.J. (1992b), Surinaamse en Antilliaanse bevolking in Nederland, 1 januari 1991, *Maandstatistiek van de Bevolking*, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS), 92:1, p.6.
- Van Capelle, M.A.A. (1988), Het Nederlandse drugsbeleid in hoofdlijnen. *Algemeen Politieblad*, 13, 291-296.

APPENDIX

Table I. Prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'ever' and 'last year' (n=914)

Type	Ever		Last year	
	n	%	n	%
Stealing from telephone booth or automata	51	5.6	10	1.1
Shoplifting	336	36.8	47	5.1
Stealing at school	222	24.3	76	8.3
Stealing at home	122	13.3	38	4.2
Stealing from work	67	7.3	36	3.9
Stealing bike/moped/motor	114	12.5	48	5.3
Stealing a car	2	.2	-	-
Stealing from/out car	16	1.8	3	.3
Pickpocketing	6	.7	-	-
Snatching a purse or bag	5	.5	1	.1
Burglary	63	6.9	15	1.6
Stealing other	90	9.8	30	3.3
Buying stolen goods	215	23.5	106	11.6
Selling stolen goods	64	7.0	24	2.6
Prevalence property offenses	553	60.5	270	29.5
Graffiti	119	13.0	34	3.7
Vandalism	392	42.9	115	12.6
Carrying a weapon	246	26.9	141	15.4
Threatening somebody	9	1.0	2	.2
Engagement in riots etc.	175	19.1	92	10.1
Arson	50	5.5	8	.9
Beating up non-family	61	6.7	23	2.5
Beating up family	8	.9	3	.3
Hurting with weapon	27	3.0	6	.7
Overall violent offenses	526	57.5	268	29.3
- Violence against objects	419	45.8	128	14.0
- Violence against persons	350	38.3	202	22.1
Soft drug use	194	21.2	137	15.0
Hard drug use	16	1.8	10	1.1
Soft drug selling	18	2.0	6	.7
Hard drug selling	5	.5	2	.2
Prevalence drug offenses	197	21.6	140	15.3
Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	432	47.3	179	19.6
Fare dodging train	195	21.3	69	7.5
Driving without license/insurance	367	40.2	189	20.7
Prevalence other youth-related offenses	624	68.3	331	36.2
Overall delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	772	84.5	559	61.2
Truancy	431	47.2	241	26.4
Running away	63	6.9	13	1.4
Alcohol use	730	79.9	694	75.9
Prevalence 'problem' behavior without alcohol use	442	48.4	245	26.8

Table II. Frequency of delinquent behaviors last year* (n=914)

Type	Not		1, 2 times		3-5 times		6-10 times		11-50 times		51 or more	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Stealing from telephone booth or automata	904	98.9	10	1.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shoplifting	867	94.9	28	3.1	9	1.0	6	.7	4	.4	-	-
Stealing at school	838	91.7	56	6.1	13	1.4	4	.4	3	.3	-	-
Stealing at home	876	95.8	23	2.5	8	.9	6	.7	1	.1	-	-
Stealing from work	878	96.1	25	2.7	7	.8	3	.3	1	.1	-	-
Stealing bike/moped/motor	866	94.7	38	4.2	8	.9	1	.1	1	.1	-	-
Stealing a car	914	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stealing from/out car	911	99.7	2	.2	1	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pickpocketing	914	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Snatching a purse or bag	913	99.9	1	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burglary	899	98.4	13	1.4	2	.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stealing other	884	96.7	19	2.1	7	.8	4	.4	-	-	-	-
Buying stolen goods	808	88.4	89	9.7	14	1.5	3	.3	-	-	-	-
Selling stolen goods	890	97.4	18	2.0	4	.4	2	.2	-	-	-	-
Total property offenses	644	70.5	161	17.6	57	6.2	26	2.8	24	2.6	2	.2
Graffiti	80	96.3	16	1.8	10	1.1	7	.8	1	.1	-	-
Vandalism	799	87.4	76	8.3	29	3.2	8	.9	2	.2	-	-
Carrying a weapon	773	84.6	90	9.8	13	1.4	10	1.1	17	1.9	11	1.2
Threatening somebody	912	99.8	2	.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Engagement in riots, etc.	822	89.9	65	7.1	19	2.1	7	.8	1	.1	-	-
Arson	906	99.1	3	.3	4	.4	-	-	1	.1	-	-
Beating up non-family	891	97.5	18	2.0	2	.2	3	.3	-	-	-	-
Beating up family	911	99.7	3	.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hurting with weapon	908	99.3	5	.5	1	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Overall violence	646	70.7	134	14.7	53	5.8	34	3.7	33	3.6	14	1.5
- Violence against objects	786	86.0	74	8.1	34	3.7	14	1.5	6	.7	-	-
- Violence against persons	712	77.9	113	12.4	36	3.9	15	1.6	24	2.6	14	1.5

Table II. Cont'd.

Type	Not		1, 2 times		3-5 times		6-10 times		11-50 times		51 or more	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Soft drug use	777	85.0	68	7.4	28	3.1	13	1.4	20	2.2	8	.9
Hard drug use	904	98.9	4	.4	3	.3	2	.2	1	.1	-	-
Soft drug selling	908	99.3	5	.5	-	-	1	.1	-	-	-	-
Hard drug selling	912	99.8	1	.1	1	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total drug offenses	774	84.7	66	7.2	31	3.4	12	1.3	22	2.4	9	1.0
Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	735	80.4	82	9.0	43	4.7	23	2.5	24	2.6	7	.8
Fare dodging train	845	92.5	44	4.8	17	1.9	6	.7	2	.2	-	-
Driving without license/insurance	725	79.3	90	9.8	45	4.9	33	3.6	20	2.2	1	.1
Total other youth-related offenses	583	63.8	143	15.6	71	7.8	45	4.9	60	6.6	12	1.3
Overall incidence delinquent behavior without alcohol and problem' behavior	355	38.8	193	21.1	119	13.0	80	8.8	121	13.2	46	5.0
Truancy	673	73.6	102	11.2	70	7.7	37	4.0	31	3.4	1	.1
Running away	901	98.6	9	1.0	2	.2	2	.2	-	-	-	-
Alcohol use	220	24.1	285	31.2	114	12.5	79	8.6	137	15.0	79	8.6
Total problem' behavior without alcohol use	669	73.2	103	11.3	71	7.8	37	4.0	33	3.6	1	.1

Table III. Prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'lastyear' by sex (n=914)

Type	Male		Female	
	n	%	n	%
Stealing from telephone booth or automata	8	1.8	2	0.4 *
Shoplifting	28	6.3	19	4.0
Stealing at school	47	10.6	29	6.2 *
Stealing at home	21	4.7	17	3.6
Stealing from work	22	5.0	14	3.0
Stealing bike/moped/motor	40	9.0	8	1.7 *
Stealing a car	-	-	-	-
Stealing from/out car	3	0.7	-	-
Pickpocketing	-	-	-	-
Snatching a purse or bag	1	0.2	-	-
Burglary	11	2.5	4	0.9
Stealing other	21	4.7	9	1.9 *
Buying stolen goods	72	16.2	34	7.2 *
Selling stolen goods	21	4.7	3	0.6 *
Prevalence property offenses	175	39.4	95	20.2 *
Graffiti	23	5.2	11	2.3 *
Vandalism	73	16.4	42	8.9 *
Carrying a weapon	119	26.8	22	4.7 *
Threatening somebody	1	0.2	1	0.2
Engagement in riots etc.	74	16.7	18	3.8 *
Arson	7	1.6	1	0.2 *
Beating up non-family	21	4.7	2	0.4 *
Beating up family	2	0.5	1	0.2
Hurting with weapon	4	0.9	2	0.4
Overall prevalence violent offenses	192	43.2	76	16.2 *
- Violence against objects	83	18.7	45	9.6 *
- Violence against persons	163	36.7	39	8.3 *
Soft drug use	80	18.0	57	12.1 *
Hard drug use	8	1.8	2	0.4 *
Soft drug selling	5	1.1	1	0.2
Hard drug selling	2	0.5	-	-
Prevalence drug offenses	83	18.7	57	12.1 *
Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	96	21.6	89	17.7
Fare dodging train	42	9.5	27	5.7 *
Driving without license/insurance	131	29.5	68	12.3 *
Prevalence other youth-related offenses	190	42.8	141	30.0 *
Overall delinquency prevalence without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	325	73.2	234	49.8 *
Truancy	118	26.6	123	26.2
Running away	9	2.0	4	0.9
Alcohol use	338	76.1	356	75.7
Prevalence 'problem' behavior without alcohol use	121	27.3	124	26.4

*significant difference at the .05 level

Table IV. Prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'last year' by age (n=914)

Type	14-15		16-17		18-19		20-21	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Stealing from telephone booth or automata	4	2.0	3	1.3	3	1.4	-	-
Shoplifting	15	7.3	18	7.6	9	4.1	5	2.0*
Stealing at school	20	9.8	27	11.4	15	6.8	14	5.6
Stealing at home	10	4.9	18	7.6	5	2.3	5	2.0*
Stealing from work	-	-	14	5.9	13	5.9	9	3.6*
Stealing bike/moped/motor	6	2.9	12	5.1	11	5.0	19	7.5
Stealing a car	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stealing from/out car	1	0.5	1	0.4	-	-	1	0.4
Pickpocketing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Snatching a purse or bag	6	2.9	2	0.8	5	2.3	2	0.8
Burglary	11	5.4	11	4.7	3	1.4	5	2.0*
Stealing other	18	8.8	23	9.7	28	12.7	37	14.7
Buying stolen goods	8	3.9	7	3.0	4	1.8	5	2.0
Selling stolen goods	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total property offenses	56	27.3	81	34.3	65	29.4	68	27.0
Graffiti	16	7.8	15	6.4	3	1.4	-	-*
Vandalism	43	21.0	39	16.5	15	6.8	18	7.1*
Carrying a weapon	40	19.5	46	19.5	29	13.1	26	0.3*
Threatening somebody	-	-	2	0.8	-	-	-	-
Engagement in riots, etc.	25	12.2	25	10.6	22	10.0	20	7.9
Arson	3	1.5	4	1.7	-	-	1	0.4
Beating up non-family	9	4.4	6	2.5	6	2.7	2	0.8
Beating up family	1	0.5	-	-	1	0.5	1	0.4
Hurting with weapon	1	0.5	3	1.3	1	0.5	1	0.4
Overall violence	75	36.6	86	36.4	52	23.5	55	21.8*
- Violence against objects	45	22.0	47	19.9	18	8.1	18	7.1*
- Violence against persons	54	26.3	62	26.3	44	19.9	42	16.7*

Table IV. Cont'd.

Type	14-15		16-17		18-19		20-21	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Soft drug use	7	3.4	36	15.3	39	17.6	55	21.8*
Hard drug use	-	-	-	-	6	2.7	4	1.6*
Soft drug selling	1	0.5	3	1.3	2	0.9	-	-
Hard drug selling	-	-	1	0.4	1	0.5	-	-
Total drug offenses	8	3.9	36	15.3	41	18.6	55	21.8*
Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	49	23.9	61	25.8	36	16.3	33	13.1*
Fare dodging train	14	6.8	15	6.4	26	11.8	14	5.6
Driving without license/insurance	55	26.8	62	26.3	50	22.6	22	8.7*
Total other youth-related offenses	86	42.0	106	44.9	84	38.0	55	21.8*
Overall prevalence delinquency without alcohol and 'problem' behavior	123	60.0	162	68.6	136	61.5	138	54.8*
Tvucancy	22	10.7	60	25.4	86	38.9	73	29.0*
Running away	3	1.5	3	1.3	4	1.8	3	1.2
Alcohol use	110	53.7	185	78.4	189	85.5	210	83.3*
Total 'problem' behavior without alcohol use	23	11.2	62	26.3	87	39.4	73	29.0*

*significant difference at the .05 level

Table V. Overall rank-ordering of prevalence of delinquent behaviors 'ever' and 'last year' (use of alcohol excluded; n=914)

Type	Prev.%	Ever Rank	Type	Prev.%	Last year Rank
Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	47.3	1	Truancy	26.4	1
Truancy	47.2	2	Driving w/o license/insurance	20.7	2
Vandalism	42.9	3	Fare dodging tram/bus/metro	19.6	3
Driving w/o license/insurance	40.2	4	Carrying a weapon	15.4	4
Shoplifting	36.8	5	Soft drug use	15.0	5
Carrying a weapon	26.9	6	Vandalism	12.6	6
Stealing at school	24.3	7	Buying stolen goods	11.6	7
Buying stolen goods	23.5	8	Engagement in riots etc.	10.1	8
Fare dodging train	21.3	9	Stealing at school	8.3	9
Soft drug use	21.2	10	Fare dodging train	7.5	10
Engagement in riots, etc.	19.1	11	Stealing bike/moped/motor	5.3	11
Stealing at home	13.3	12	Shoplifting	5.1	12
Graffiti	13.0	13	Stealing at home	4.2	13
Stealing bike/moped/motor	12.5	14	Stealing from work	3.9	14
Stealing other	9.8	15	Graffiti	3.7	15
Stealing from work	7.3	16	Stealing other	3.3	16
Selling stolen goods	7.0	17	Selling stolen goods	2.6	17
Burglary	6.9	18	Beating up non-family	2.5	18
Running away	6.9	18	Burglary	1.6	19
Beating up non-family	6.7	20	Running away	1.4	20
Stealing from telephone booth/automata	5.6	21	Stealing from telephone booth/automata	1.1	21
Arson	5.5	22	Hard drug use	1.1	21
Hurting with weapon	3.0	23	Arson	.9	23
Soft drug selling	2.0	24	Hurting with weapon	.7	24
Stealing from/out car	1.8	25	Soft drug selling	.7	24
Hard drug use	1.8	25	Stealing from/out car	.3	26
Threatening somebody	1.0	27	Beating up family	.3	26
Beating up family	.9	28	Threatening somebody	.2	28
Pickpocketing	.7	29	Hard drug selling	.2	28
Snatching a purse or bag	.5	30	Snatching a purse or bag	.1	30
Hard drug selling	.5	30	Stealing a car	-	31
Stealing a car	.2	32	Pickpocketing	-	32
Alcohol use	79.9		Alcohol use	75.9	

Table VI. Categories of delinquent behaviors

1. Problem behavior	=	items 1 + 2 in ISRD delinquency questionnaire
2. Property crime	=	items 20 through 33
3. Overall violence	=	violence objects + violence persons
a. Violence against objects	=	items 6 + 7 through 19
b. Violence against persons	=	items 34 through 40
4. Drug offenses	=	items 41 + 42 + 44 + 45
6. Other youth-related offenses	=	items 3 + 4 + 5
6. Overall delinquency	=	Property crime + Overall violence + Drug offenses + Other youth-related offenses

Table VIII. Cont'd.

Spends free time mostly with whom	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Go out with whom in the evening	*	*	-	-	-	-	-	*
Supported by friends	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*
Number of real friends	*	*	*	*	-	*	-	*
Friends had problems with police	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Does organized sports/leisure	*	-	*	-	-	-	-	-
Interviewer sex	-	*	-	*	-	-	-	-
Interviewer age	-	-	*	-	*	-	-	*

*significant relationship at the .05 level

P = property crime; V = overall violence; VO = violence against objects (vandalism+graffiti); VP = violence against persons; D = drug use/selling; OY = other youth-related offenses; PB = problem behavior; TOT = total delinquency (without alcohol and problem behavior).

Table IX. Significant predictors of involvement in delinquency 'last year' (overall)

Predictor	Significance	(Exp.)B
Sex	0.000	0.324
Household type (living alone) *	0.001	2.808
Daily activity (study+job) *	0.001	1.899
Daily activity (no study/school) *	0.008	0.540 #
Ethnicity (Surinamese) *	0.014	2.441
Ethnicity (Moroccan) *	0.027	0.349 #
Source of income (scholarship) *	0.002	0.558 #
Company with whom most free time is spent (alone) *	0.016	0.543 #
Liking school	0.011	1.328
Working hard is important (attitude)	0.008	2.498
Parents know where you are going	0.006	2.394
Number of 'real' friends	0.004	1.255
Support from friends in case of problems	0.003	0.754

* The reference values (comparison groups) in these categorical variables are for:

Household type : having both parents

Daily activity : study/school

Ethnicity : Dutch

Source of income : money from parents and/or work

Free time company : boy-/girlfriend/family/1-2 friends

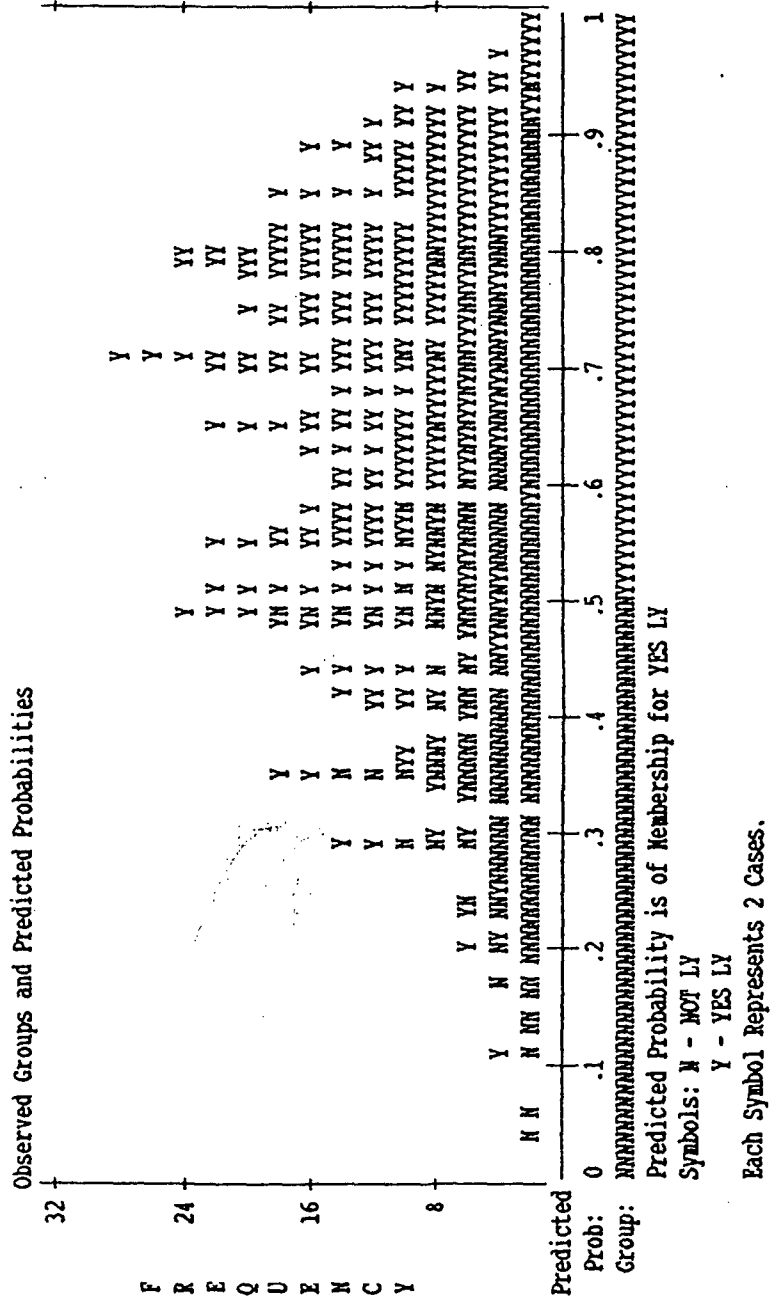
This feature is a significant predictor of being less delinquent than the corresponding reference group (see also footnote on p. 117).

Observed delinquency	Predicted delinquency	
	No	Yes
NO	162	167 (49.2% correct)
YES	85	441 (83.8% correct)

Percentage correctly predicted cases=70.53% (n=855)

Goodness of fit $\chi^2=848.74$, $p=0.40$

Table X. Histogram showing predicted probability versus observed involvement in delinquency (overall) last year (n=855)



DELINQUENCY IN THIRTEEN WESTERN COUNTRIES: SOME PRELIMINARY CONCLUSIONS

Josine Junger-Tas

This book presents a review of the main results of the ISRD survey in thirteen western countries. The outcomes of the individual studies are reported in the preceding chapters. Although we do not present any comparative analysis, it certainly is worthwhile to try to draw some conclusions on the basis of the material presented, considering the fact that a common instrument is used, as well as a number of similar samples.

Reviewing the contributions, four studies – in Switzerland, England, Portugal and The Netherlands – are based on national random samples, and one – Spain – on a large, stratified urban sample. These will first be compared. Two studies are based on city samples – the cities of Mannheim (Germany) and Belfast (Northern Ireland) – and one on a stratified sample – Athens (Greece). Three more cities had recourse to school samples – Omaha (Nebraska, U.S.A.), Helsinki (Finland) and the Italian cities – while one city has a mixed approach – Liège (Belgium). Two additional studies have been included in the book, a cohort study in a New Zealand city and some preliminary results of a survey done in East and West Germany. Neither is not strictly comparable to the other studies: they differ considerably in sampling method and used only part of the common survey instrument. But because we have for the first time some East German data available as well as some results of a New Zealand self-report study, we decided to include them as 'extra' information at the end of the book. However, they will not be included in this global overview of the survey results.

It is clear that differences in the sampling methods and data collections used, limit the assertions that can be made on the basis of the available research results. This is the more so because at this moment we have not yet introduced any techniques to correct some of the problems related to these differences. Therefore our claims for generalization of the research outcomes are rather modest. However, despite this obvious difficulty, it is worth trying to examine some of the basic general trends that can be found in the studies. This exercise is the first step in attempting to discover to what extent there are similarities and differences between western countries in the volume, nature and make-up of delinquency of young people in these countries.

Address for correspondence: Ministry of Justice, RDC, PO Box 20301, 2500 EH The Hague, The Netherlands.

Table 1. Prevalence rates in five countries

	Ever	Last 12 months
Netherlands (n=914)	84.5	61.2
England and Wales (n=1.223)	65.9	44
Portugal (n=1000)	81.5	57.2
Switzerland (n=970)	90.3	72.2
Spain (n=2.100)	81.1	57.8

Table 2. Prevalence of three categories of delinquent behavior in five countries (last 12 months)

	Property	Violence	Drugs
Netherlands	29.5	29.3	15.3
England and Wales	16	15.8	25.9
Portugal	21.4	29.5	11.3
Switzerland	33.5	29.1	20.9
Spain	20.1	34.5	15.4

Table 3. Prevalence of four violent acts in five countries (last 12 months)

	Vandalism	Carrying weapon	Group fights part. in riots	Beating up non-family
Netherlands	12.6	15.4	10.1	2.5
England & Wales	3.5	9.4	6.3	1.4
Portugal	16.1	10.8	11.1	2.5
Switzerland	17.0	11.2	8.8	0.9
Spain	16.3	8.4	17.2	2.3

1. Delinquent behavior

Considering first the national random samples, Table 1 shows the delinquency rates*, excluding so-called 'problem behavior' (status-offenses).

Without looking at the detailed list of delinquent acts and comparing the acts one by one, it is of course impossible to draw any but very global conclusions. What one might say is that the rates are roughly similar, with the exception of the United Kingdom, which shows clearly lower rates. An interesting outcome is the striking similarity in delinquency rates in Spain and in Portugal.

The following table, which compares three different categories of behaviors, suggests where we may find some of the differences.

As can be seen, property offending shows some differences, with The Netherlands and Switzerland – two highly prosperous countries – showing the highest rates and England, Portugal and Spain having lower rates.

* The treatment of missing values differs per country, which might have had a slight effect on the delinquency rates presented in the book.

Table 4. Prevalence rates in seven city samples

	Ever	Last 12 months
Mannheim (n=300)	82.3	51
Belfast (n= 883)	75.5	47.3
Liège (n=618)	82.5	56.1
Athens (n=300)	96.9	85.1
Omaha (n=539)	87.4	61.2
3 Italian cities (n=1009)	85	64.6
Helsinki (n=1.672)	94.8	79.5

Table 2 shows again fairly similar rates for violent offenses – except for England which has considerably lower rates. The rates for violence are relatively high. This is due to the combination of violence against objects, such as vandalism, and violence against persons. In order to get a better understanding in the distribution of different violent behaviors the following table presents some more details (Table 3).

Looking at vandalism, the rates do not differ a great deal except for England which seems to have extraordinarily low rates. We included in this category 'carrying a weapon', which shows fairly high rates in most of the countries. It seems that nowadays, when young people go out, carrying baseball bats and all kinds of stabbing weapons has become accepted as a normal thing to do. Group fighting is most prevalent in The Netherlands, Portugal and Spain and lowest in England and Switzerland. As for beating up a person not belonging to one's family, that is a rather rare event. We also looked at the rates for hurting someone with a weapon, and these rates are even lower, with England having the highest rate (1.4) and The Netherlands and Switzerland the lowest (0.7).

There are some interesting differences in the rates for drug use. The data suggest that England and Switzerland have relatively more drug use among young people than Holland, Spain and Portugal. In all five countries drug use is mainly restricted to cannabis use, although the number of respondents mentioning other drugs is somewhat higher in England than in the other countries.

Looking at separate offenses, there is again much similarity in the acts that are committed by the largest number of young people. All studies mention vandalism, fare evasion, buying or selling stolen goods (which is more frequent than one might have thought), driving without a license, fights and riots, carrying a weapon and cannabis use as the most frequently committed offenses.

The following samples are all city samples, three of which are exclusively school-based (Omaha, Helsinki and Genoa, Messina and Siena). As a consequence, these have a more limited age range (14-18+ instead of 14-21) (Table 4).

Again the similarity – with the exceptions of Athens and Helsinki – is striking. What is especially striking, and somewhat surprising, is that the school samples, despite their limited age range, do not show different rates compared to the other samples. This may be related to the fact that

Table 5. Prevalence of three categories of delinquent behavior in seven city samples (last 12 months)

	Property	Violence	Druguse
Mannheim	20.7	21.7	7
Belfast	25.5	23.8	19.9
Liège	27.3	29.9	8.2
Athens	34.9	51.8	9.1
Omaha	36.9	34.9	17.3
3 Italian cities	16.7	14	6.3
Helsinki	38.6	34.7	13.2

Table 6. Prevalence of some violent acts in seven city samples (last 12 months)

	Vandalism	Carrying weapon	Group fights part. in riots	Beating up non-family
Mannheim	4.7	13.7	4.3	0.7
Belfast	12.5	6.5	6.1	2.4
Liège	13.6	13.3	7.3	2.9
Athens	54.5	12.6	19.9	6.2
Omaha	13.7	18.0	15.0	4.3
Three Italian cities	7.6	3.4	10.4	2.1
Helsinki	19.6	12.4	12.6	1.0

criminal activity is very much age-related and has its peak in adolescence, so that the age range of 19-21 might not add much to the general prevalence rates.

As far as property offenses are concerned, prevalence rates for Mannheim, Belfast and Liège are somewhat similar, Italy shows lower rates and Omaha, Athens and Helsinki higher ones (Table 5). Violence shows a similar pattern, with higher rates in Omaha, Helsinki and Athens. The high rates in Athens are due to the large number of acts of vandalism that were reported, as we can see in Table 6.

Athens has a very high rate of vandalism, while Mannheim and the Italian cities have very low rates. The other cities show fairly similar rates. Carrying a weapon seems to be most frequent in Omaha and least frequent in Italy and Belfast, with very little difference in the other cities. Group fights or rioting do not seem to occur very frequently in the cities of Belfast, Mannheim and Liège but seem to occur at least twice as often in the other cities. Finally, beating up someone remains a very rare event, although a little less so in Omaha and Athens. The highest rate of hurting someone with a weapon is found in Omaha, but it is low even there (2.4). Drug use appears to be relatively low in southern European countries (see also Portugal). Maybe the penetration of (soft) drug use in the youth population of these countries is not yet as great as in western Europe and the United States. However, surprisingly, Mannheim's respondents also report low drug use, while Belfast and Omaha report the highest rates of drug use. With respect to the nature of the offenses most frequently com-

mitted, we find the same acts as those previously mentioned in the case of the national samples. The outcomes presented should be interpreted with caution: much more detailed and in-depth analysis is needed to be able to say more about possible explanations of differential delinquency rates.

2. Sociodemographic factors and delinquency

Considering the correlates of offending, the nature of the sample – country or city – is of less importance. However, it should be remembered that at this stage of the study we did not control for all possible other intervening factors.

2.1 Gender

In all participating countries, boys commit more offenses than girls. This varies between 1.5 to 2 times as many property offenses to about 2 to 4 times as many violent offenses, in particular violence against persons. Some offenses, such as shoplifting and fare evasion, are reported by as many girls as boys. This is also true for 'problem behavior' or status offenses. In general the more serious (and violent) the offense, the greater the difference between boys and girls. Drug use is also mentioned by more boys than girls, although the disparity is not always that large: 1.5 times as many boys as girls in the England and Wales, The Netherlands, Spain and Mannheim, twice as many in Switzerland, Portugal and Belfast and about three times as many in Italy and Liège. In two cities, Omaha and Athens, drug use is mentioned by as many boys as girls, while in Helsinki more girls than boys report drug use. However, in the latter case, the girls report mainly the use of pain-killers or tranquilizers.

2.2 Age

Confirming what has been found in much of the self-report literature, the peak age of offending in the participating countries is 16-17 years (Hirschi and Gottfredson, 1983; Wikström, 1990; Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990; Junger-Tas, 1992a). However, there are some differences according to offense category. Peak age of property crime is indeed 16-17; for vandalism and graffiti, it is 14-15, but violence against persons peaks at a later age (18-19, and in England 20). Drug use starts at a later age and continues well after adolescence. This is also true for alcohol use and such offenses as driving without a license, fare evasion, stealing at work, selling stolen goods and stealing a car. Generally girls start somewhat later than boys and stop at an earlier age. For example in England, the peak age for boys is 16-17 and for girls 16. Although in a number of countries differences in offending prevalence between age categories are not (or hardly) significant, the trends are similar in all of them.

2.3 Education

Two countries – the United States and England and Wales – have education systems that differ from most of the European states. Indeed the former have one school type – high school in the U.S and the comprehensive school in England and Wales – within which there might be some differentiation, while the latter generally differentiate between levels of education, where each level has its specific schools. Thus most of these countries have schools for lower (vocational) training, medium (technical) education and higher education, which might be of a technical nature or university preparatory. This means that in the case of Omaha and the United Kingdom, we have no data available on the relation between educational level and delinquent behavior. The other studies, however, tell us a rather identical story.

The main finding is that, overall, there is hardly any relationship between educational level and delinquent behavior. However, one has to differentiate between offense types. For example, in all studies, violence is fairly strongly related to the lower educational levels, that is, the lower the education level, the violent the offenses. In general property offenses show no relationship to education level, although several studies showed a lower number of reported property offenses among those who had left school and found employment. Fare evasion and driving without a license seem to increase with educational level in some countries (Mannheim), but not in others (Portugal and The Netherlands).

The results with respect to drug use are particularly interesting, with the exception of southern Europe, where there is too little reported drug use to show any clear trends. Some of the other studies indicate that (soft) drug use is more frequent among those who are involved in the higher education streams. This is the case for the Netherlands, Spain and Mannheim. Others, however, looked at what happened when respondents had left school. The Belgian study suggests that drug use appears to be related to a lack of further prospects. For example, it was found that 7% of the students had reported drug use. This proportion increased to 14% among those who had left school but were employed, and to 22% among those who had left school but did not have a job. In Switzerland drug use is also higher among those who are unemployed after having left school than among students. In Belfast the number of drug offenses is significantly higher among school leavers than among students.

2.4 Socioeconomic status

In general there appears to be no relationship between socioeconomic status and delinquency. This outcome is no different from what has been reported in the research literature on self-report studies (Hindelang *et al.*, 1981). One of the reasons for this finding probably is that self-report surveys include a fairly large number of non-serious offenses that seldom appear in police statistics (Hindelang, 1981). For example, fare evasion is a characteristic and frequent offense of students who belong to the higher social strata, whereas the more serious violent offenses tend to be more

often committed by the lower social strata. Some indications for this tendency have been found in the ISRD studies. For example, in the Belfast study, there is a trend of more reported property and violent offenses in the lower socioeconomic groups, with significant differences for such offenses as stealing cars, buying stolen goods and arson. More young people from the lower strata report committing delinquent acts, and they also commit these with greater frequency than young people from higher social strata.

Another interesting outcome in the Belfast study is the existence of a relationship between delinquent behavior of young people and their source of income: of those who are on welfare, 66.3% reported committing one or more delinquent acts during the last 12 months, as opposed to 43% of those who have a job and 27.8 of those with a scholarship. The young people on welfare reported essentially more violent offenses and more drug offenses. The Swiss study looked at school failure in relation to the father's social status and found more reported offenses among those whose low educational status predicts a lower social position in future than their father's position. Again, a number of studies indicated more violence in the lower strata (Belfast, The Netherlands and Mannheim), and the Belgian study found more drug use among those whose father was unemployed, but on the whole no strong relations have been established between delinquent behavior and socioeconomic status.

2.5 Ethnicity

A number of countries have hardly any identifiable and sizable ethnic minority groups in their population. This is the case for Northern Ireland, Portugal, Greece, Italy and Spain. Switzerland, The Netherlands, England and Wales, the United States, Belgium and Germany have large groups of minorities, whose origins lay in North Africa, India, Asia, South America and the Caribbean.

In most of these countries, with perhaps the exception of the United States, there is a nagging problem in comparing delinquent behavior of the indigenous youth population with that of minority populations. This is related to the fact that most self-report studies seem to indicate that minority groups have lower prevalence rates than indigenous youth, while they are heavily over-represented in official police statistics. For example, Switzerland, The Netherlands, England and Liège report either no difference or lower rates for minorities in property offenses and violent acts. Some of them (Liège and Mannheim) indicate more problem behavior and drug use among minorities, but this outcome may heavily depend on the minorities' background. For example, the English study found one drug user in four among white youth, one in eight among blacks and one in twelve among Asians. The American findings stands in contrast to what has been reported so far. No difference was found in prevalence of property offenses, other offenses and alcohol use among whites, blacks and Hispanics. However, violent offenses and drug offenses were most prevalent among Hispanics, followed by blacks and then by whites.

The question is how to explain the disparity in self-reported and re-

corded delinquency? Several explanations might be forwarded. Although we know that the more delinquent members of the indigenous youth population are difficult to reach with self-report surveys, this problem might be even more pronounced in the case of minority groups. There are also indications that some minority youngsters have more difficulties in answering or completing the questions, depending on length of residence in the host country and how well integrated they are. Another factor may be a certain tendency to discriminatory practices by the police and the criminal justice system in general. However, research done in the United States and in The Netherlands (Petersilia, 1985; Junger, 1990) does not show any evidence of police discrimination. Finally, it is possible that the response validity of minority respondents is lower than that of indigenous respondents, a factor that might be related to either differential cultural norms and values or to fear or mistrust of authorities or both. Actually we really do not know, and more research is needed to answer this question.

3. Some selected bonding factors and delinquency

3.1 *Family variables*

As mentioned before, we added some theoretical background variables to the questionnaire, based on social control theory. There are only a few of them because we did not want the questionnaire to become too voluminous.

As we know from the literature, the quality of the relationships with father and mother have a very important effect on the likelihood of delinquent behavior of young people (Hirschi, 1969; Laub and Sampson, 1988; Wells and Rankin, 1991; Junger-Tas, 1992b). All studies report less delinquency when there is a close relationship with parents. With the exception of Portugal, most studies reveal that the relationship with the father appears to be as important as the relation with the mother, especially with regard to violence, drug offenses and problem behavior. The English survey found that the likelihood of running away from home is four times as great when the relationship with the mother is disturbed, but nine times as great when there is a bad relation with the father.

Having a boy- or girlfriend is related in a more complex way to delinquent behavior. In earlier surveys in The Netherlands (Junger-Tas and Kruissink, 1988, 1990), it appeared to be the high number of girlfriends succeeding each other that was related to the likelihood of delinquency: the more girlfriends, especially at younger ages, the greater the risk of offending behavior, truancy, high alcohol use and drug use. Our conclusion was that there exists a sort of 'risky' lifestyle among young people, of which heavy alcohol use, drug use, truancy and delinquent behavior are essential aspects. Comparable findings are shown by the Spanish study. This finding has also been confirmed in some of the other ISRD data. For example, the Belfast study noted that the existence of a special boy/girlfriend was related to more delinquent behavior unless the respondents wanted the relationship to last. Similarly the English survey draws attention to the fact that having a girlfriend in one's early teens is related to

more offending, but a steady relationship at a later age, as well as marriage, is related to less offending.

Parental supervision is a very strong predictor of delinquency in all studies (Wells and Rankin, 1988; Farrington, 1986). Two English researchers found in an earlier study that effective parental supervision is dependent on the quality of the relationship with the parents: when that relationship is bad, the supervision cannot be effective because the juveniles keep their parents uninformed about their whereabouts and their friends (Riley and Shaw, 1985).

The questions as phrased in the ISRD instrument have both a communication dimension and a control dimension ('do your parents know where you are going and with whom?'). In most of the ISRD studies, these variables are strongly related to all types of offending behavior, as might be expected on the basis of the research literature. The Dutch study found no relationship between parental supervision and vandalism and concluded that the frequency of acts of vandalism is so great among the young that it does not differentiate between the well-supervised and the less-supervised.

But generally, the less supervision, the more delinquent behavior, including alcohol consumption and drug use and problem behavior.

3.2 Some school and work variables

All studies mention that liking school is strongly related to delinquent behavior. Those who like school report considerably less delinquent involvement than those who do not like school. The relationship holds for every type of offending behavior, although there are some minor variations.

Liking school is of course related to successful performance or school achievement. One outcome in a number of countries is the strong relationship between repeating classes and violent behavior. This has been found in Italy, Athens, Spain, Portugal and Belfast. The other studies merely report the relationship with overall delinquency. Liège observed that the correlation was especially strong with repeating classes in the past and not in the last 12 months. The suggestion was made that the significant variable might be the negative reactions of teachers and family as well as the juvenile's perception of failure in school that triggered off the tendency to delinquent behavior, an explanation that seems to be based on labeling theory (Lemert, 1967). An additional explanation of the relationship with violent behavior would be the strong feelings of frustration among young people facing school failure, which has also been found in earlier research (Junger-Tas, 1988).

Questions such as 'do you believe in working hard to achieve success in life' or 'is it important to work hard in school in order to get a diploma' have variable outcomes. In some cases there is no relationship at all to delinquency. In a number of cases, however, there appears to be a negative relationship with drug use, alcohol use and problem behavior. But, as we know, questions that tap attitudes very often do not show any (or at most a weak) relationship with the dependent variable.

3.3 A concluding note

Presenting the main findings so far with the necessary caution, we may say the following.

- There appears to be a great similarity in rates of delinquent behavior in the countries that participated in the ISRD survey, as well as in the nature of the offenses that are most frequently committed;
- an exception to this finding is drug use, which does not seem to have penetrated as deeply in the youth culture in southern Europe as is the case in western Europe and in the United States;
- the ratio of boys to girls' criminality is 1.5:1 for property offenses and drug use and 2:1 to 4:1 for violence, with violence against persons showing the largest disparity. There is very little or no difference between the sexes with respect to fare evasion, shoplifting and problem behavior;
- the peak age for property offenses is 16-17; for vandalism it is 14-15; for violence against persons 18-19. Drug use starts rather late and does not stop at age 21;
- the lower the educational level, the more the violent behavior is reported;
- drug use seems related to early school-leaving and to unemployment;
- there is a striking disparity in delinquency self-reports of ethnic minorities and their over-representation in police statistics;
- both the relationships with the mother and with the father are important to delinquency;
- parental supervision appears to be a strong predictor of delinquent behavior in all participating countries;
- the stronger the bond with school, the less delinquent behavior. School failure is found to be related to violent offenses.

An important conclusion is that the similarity in prevalence rates seems independent of the nature of the samples drawn, an outcome that we had not expected. This certainly suggests that self-report measures are fairly robust, despite differences in sampling method, method of administration and probably other not-yet-considered differences in cultural values and socioeconomic situations as well.

Another conclusion is that 'ever' prevalence rates are generally quite high, which may mean that some delinquent or deviant behavior forms part of the growing-up process of western children. However, 'last year' prevalence rates are considerably lower and suggest that on average half to two-thirds of normal young people aged 14 to 21 do commit an occasional offense of a not-too-serious nature in a one-year period.

In volume II further multi-variate analysis of the data combined in one standardized data-set will shed more light on these preliminary findings.

References

- Farrington, D.P. (1986), Stepping stones to adult criminal careers. In D. Olweus *et al.*, eds., *Development of Antisocial and Prosocial Behavior*, pp. 359-384. New York, Academic Press.
- Gottfredson, M.R., T. Hirschi (1990), *A General Theory of Crime*. Stanford, CA, Stanford University Press.
- Hindelang, M.J. (1981), Variation in sex-race-age specific incidence rates of offending. *American Sociol. Review*, vol. 46.
- Hindelang, M.J., T. Hirschi, J. Weis (1981), *Measuring Delinquency*. Beverly Hills, Sage Publication.
- Hirschi, T. (1969), *Causes of Delinquency*. Berkeley, Los Angeles, University of California Press.
- Hirschi, T., M.R. Gottfredson (1983), Age and the explanation of crime, *American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 89, no. 3.
- Junger-Tas, J. (1988), Causal factors: Social control theory. In J. Junger-Tas and R. Block, eds., *Juvenile Delinquency in The Netherlands*. Berkeley, Amstelveen, Kugler Publication.
- Junger, M. (1990), *Delinquency and Ethnicity - An Investigation on Social Factors relating to Delinquency among Moroccan, Turkish, Surinamese and Dutch Boys*. Deventer, Boston, Kluwer Law and Taxation Publication.
- Junger-Tas, J. (1992a), Criminaliteit en leeftijd. *Justitiële Verkenningen*, vol. 18, nr. 3.
- Junger-Tas, J. (1992b), Changes in the family and their impact on delinquency. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, vol. 1, no. 1.
- Junger-Tas, J., and M. Kruissink (1988), *De Ontwikkeling van de Jeugdcriminaliteit in 1986*. Den Haag, WODC, Ministerie van Justitie.
- Junger-Tas, J., M. Kruissink (1990), *De Ontwikkeling van de Jeugdcriminaliteit: 1980 - 1988*. Den Haag, WODC, Ministerie van Justitie.
- Laub, J.H., R.J. Sampson (1988), Unraveling families and delinquency: A reanalysis of the Gluecks data. *Criminology*, vol. 26, no. 3.
- Lemert, E.M. (1967), *Human Deviance, Social Problems and Social Control*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
- Petersilia, J. (1985), Racial disparities in the criminal justice system: A summary, *Crime and Delinquency*, vol. 31, 15-34.
- Riley, D., M. Shaw (1985), *Parental Supervision and Juvenile Delinquency*. London, Home Office Research Unit, No. 83.
- Wells, L.E., J.H. Rankin (1998), Direct parental controls and delinquency. *Criminology*, vol. 26, no. 2.
- Wells, L.E., J.H. Rankin (1991), Families and delinquency: A meta-analysis of the impact of broken homes. *Social Problems*, vol. 38, no. 1.
- Wikström, P.-O.H. (1990), Age and Crime in a Stockholm Cohort. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, vol. 6, no. 1.