



# **Youth Victimization and Reporting to Police**

## **First Results from the Third Round of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD3)**

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# Youth Victimization and Reporting to Police First Results from the Third Round of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD3)

## 1 Introduction

The young are often considered our greatest resource; children are viewed as human capital that society depends on for continued growth and sustainability. Children also deserve special protection against violence (United Nations 1990; Council of Europe 2012). That is why we are willing to invest a lot in improving youth policies, building better educational systems, stronger families, and happier communities. Children are also the cause of great worries among parents, educators, police and other adults, particularly during the teenage years, which are times of turmoil and transition, when youth rebel against adults, get involved in risky behavior, and start experimenting with illegal behavior. Young people are also quite vulnerable to being exploited and victimized, not only by strangers, but also by their peers, their parents, or other trusted adults. This report provides some international evidence about their experiences.

The third round of the International Self-Report Delinquency (ISRD3) project asks children from 7<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grade (12-16 year olds<sup>1</sup>) in over 30 countries about their experiences as victims of crime and as offenders; it also asks about their everyday lives and attitudes. In this report we present the first findings for the 15 countries for which preliminary comparative data are available.<sup>2</sup> Thus, this first findings report is based on the participation of more than 38,000 young people in cities or regions of Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Italy, Kosovo, Lithuania, Serbia, Switzerland, Ukraine and Venezuela. Each country organized its own fieldwork and translation, following a joint research protocol. The surveys were completed in schools, either online or through paper and pencil questionnaires. For more information on the methodology, see *Table 1* below. The survey should not be considered representative of the whole population of young people in these countries but instead of 7<sup>th</sup> to 9<sup>th</sup> grade stu-

dents in those cities or regions in which the data were collected. The selection of countries included in this primary report reflect the practical sequence of data collection rather than any substantial consideration regarding which countries are of interest to compare.

In incorporating questions about *offending*, the survey combines the methods of self-report delinquency surveys and of victimization surveys. The primary goal of the ISRD project is the analysis of risk factors of juvenile delinquency in a manner that enables us to factor in national differences and contextual sources of influence. Secondly, the project produces information that gives local stakeholders information about the specific patterns of youth crime in their areas. In addition to these goals, the project enables the comparison of delinquency patterns in various areas and cities. In this primary report, we focus on the third set of findings, planning to undertake more detailed risk factor analyses when more countries are in the dataset.

**Where can more information about the ISRD project be found?** For further details, up-to-date data collection situation and participating countries, consult the ISRD project website: <http://www.northeastern.edu/isrd>

## 1.1 Victimization - what do surveys tell us?

Criminologists have been conducting victimization surveys for many decades, primarily because they are considered a better way of measuring the volume of crime than police records. These surveys also have proven to be a useful source of information about fear of crime, police reporting behavior and self-protection measures. Victimization surveys show that criminal victimization is more widespread than official records indicate, that crimes often go unreported to the police, and that family and acquaintances are frequently the culprits of physical, sexual or emotional abuse.

The International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) has been conducting victimization surveys across the globe since the early 1990s; however, the ICVS does not include children below the age of sixteen. Although the ISRD3 covers self-reported delinquency in more detail than victimization survey, it nevertheless fills an important gap in covering victim experiences amongst the 12-16 year old age group, and whether the police were notified. Victimization information for the young teenagers has been scarce. The ISRD3 fills this gap, drawing on a large sample covering many different countries

Can we trust the responses of these young pupils to anonymous questionnaires? Will they tell us the truth about what has happened to them, what kinds of things they have done, or what they think? The science of survey research has advanced tremendously, and we can place a reasonable degree of confidence in our findings. Generally the self-report

method is regarded as reliable and sufficiently valid method of measuring both unrecorded and recorded delinquency (Junger-Tas & Marshall 1999; Thornberry & Krohn 2003; Krohn et al. 2010; Kivivuori 2011).

Yet a word of caution is in order here. We are reporting on the *preliminary* findings of surveys that have been done in many different countries. Although the same research procedures were used, it is never possible to have identical sampling methods and survey administration in different sites. There is variation with respect to pupil response rates, school participation rates, method of administration (online or paper and pencil), and types of supervision during survey administration, to mention the most obvious differences.

## 1.2 ISRD3 data collection

The emerging data collection patterns of the ISRD3 project are summarized in *Table 1* below. According to the research protocol, samples were to be city-based, covering youths from grades 7 to 9, corresponding to age categories 12/14 to 14/16. The ISRD project uses city sampling because the main research goal is theoretical explanation rather than the production of national statistics (Marshall & Enzmann 2012, 27). Yet, the size and types of cities vary across countries and some countries have opted for broader or national samples. For instance, in ISRD3, the Czech Republic and Switzerland use broader sampling frames than the other countries. Therefore, due to sample heterogeneity, we should refrain from overgeneralizing the findings to entire countries. However, for ease of presentation, we have presented findings in this report by country rather than by city (*Table 1*).

School based delinquency research has the merit of including socially disadvantaged youth groups that would be more difficult to reach in home-based interviews (Naplava & Oberwittler 2002). On the other hand, the school context creates specific challenges that need to be acknowledged in the interpretation of results. Probably the most relevant challenges relate to securing access to schools and consent procedures, which reflect the activities of important gatekeepers, such as principals and municipal school administrations. In the ISRD2, there was considerable variation in school participation rates (Marshall & Enzmann 2012, 37-38), and this is also the case in ISRD3 (see *Table 1*). As can be seen from the emerging data collection situation of ISRD3, school access and response rates remain a source of data variation (see *Table 1*). Such variation is not exceptional in cross-national projects. For instance, in the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD), the school participation rate ranged from 6 to 100 per cent<sup>3</sup>, while student response rates ranged from 78 to 95 per cent.

National differences in individual level response rates can be partially related to differences in consent requirements and procedures. The so-called opt-in policy, where young people need written consent from parents in order to take part in the study, reduces response rates and may reduce observed delinquency rates (Courser et al. 2009; Marshall

2010). These challenges of comparative research reflect differential cultural and legal traditions and perceptions of school based research, ultimately reflecting deeply held cultural notions about the relative importance of protecting children *with* research, and protecting them *from* research. Generally, countries showing high school refusal rates may also show high individual level loss of data because both reflect the gatekeeping activities of the principals and school administrators.

Teacher presence during data collection is also a factor which introduces variation to the sample. ISRD data collection guidelines recommend that during responding, the administration of the surveys should be supervised by external research assistants rather than by teachers. In practice, there are differential procedures as teacher supervision is less costly especially in large countries (Marshall & Enzmann 2012, 59). Teachers may also insist on remaining in the class. For instance, the Finnish data collection involved outside research assistants as data collectors in all classes; it emerged as a surprise that in 25 per cent of classes, teachers had remained throughout the duration of data collection (Kivivuori et al. 2014). While the impact of teachers' presence remains to be investigated, prior experimental research suggests that supervision effects are small (Kivivuori et al. 2013).

Apart from variations associated with research design and data collection, it is of course possible that students are differentially accustomed to, and familiar with, surveys probing sensitive research topics. The ISRD survey includes some questions designed to flag associated validity threats. *Table 1* below shows the basic indicators for two of these: the percentage of students who say they would not admit to cannabis use in the survey even if they *had* done so, and the percentage of students who reported using the non-existent drug "Relevin". In the ESPAD project, which is methodologically comparable to ISRD, the average percentage of students unwilling to admit cannabis use was 10 per cent, and the average prevalence of "Relevin" users was 0.7 per cent (Hibell et al. 2012, 54). As can be seen from *Table 1*, the ISRD3 country datasets yield similar results for the response integrity questions, but with considerable variation between countries.

*Table 1* summarizes some of the core data features in the emerging ISRD3 dataset. It shows that there are differences between the manner in which the data were collected in the participating countries, cautioning us to keep in mind that some of the national differences discussed below may reflect methodological differences, rather than real differences. For instance, the school access rates vary considerably, and there is also variation in student response rates within schools granting access. The decision of schools to participate, and of students to respond, can be related to the core outcomes of the study (Coursier et al. 2009; Marshall 2010).

**Table 1** Data collection in the participating countries: Basic sample features.

Country	Data collection			Sample			Responding patterns			Technical report available		
	Data collection time	Data collection method	External survey administrator (%) <sup>a</sup>	Consent policy (%)	Teacher presence (%) <sup>a</sup>	N of Students	N of Cities	School access rate (%) <sup>b</sup>	Student response rate (%) <sup>c</sup>		Internal attrition (victimization) <sup>d</sup>	Would not admit marihuana use (%) <sup>e</sup>
Belgium	2013	pp	opt-out	100	90	3 497	4	68	84	1.6- 5.8	13.3	0.8
Bosnia-Herzegovina	2014-15	online				3 066	9 <sup>g</sup>			1.6- 2.9	30.6	0.6
Croatia	2013	pp	opt-in	100	13	1 741	2	80	59	0.7- 2.9	8.4	1.5
Czech Republic	2013	pp	opt-out	100	38	3 463	48 <sup>g</sup>	58	83	0.6- 5.9	7.0	0.5
Denmark	2012	online	opt-out	0	100	1 674	2	82	90	0.2- 1.1	12.1	0.6
Estonia	2013-14	online		100		3 780	3			0.6- 0.9	12.3	1.3
Finland	2013	online	mixed	100	25	2 203	2	96	84	0.0- 0.1	6.5	0.6
Germany	2015	mixed	opt-out	100	100	2 629	2	30	79	0.8- 2.0	9.9	0.9
Italy	2013-14	mixed				3 508	8			1.3- 5.4	12.1	0.8
Kosovo	2013	online				1 078	2			0.0- 0.1	31.1	1.8
Lithuania	2013	pp				2 770	5			1.3- 4.0	17.9	1.1
Serbia	2013-14	online	opt-out	100	4	650	2	75	92	0.0- 0.5	16.2	0.4
Switzerland	2013	online	opt-out	0	100	4 195	22 <sup>g</sup>	75	92	1.8- 2.1	11.4	1.9
Ukraine	2013	online				1 651	2			0.0- 0.0	25.6	0.5
Venezuela	2013-15	pp	rc	100	100	2 416	2	81	66	4.2- 10.5	29.8	1.4

a) % of data collection situations where teacher was present.

b) % of schools granting research access, from the initially sampled schools.

c) % students responding, from the student body of the classes participating in the study.

d) Lowest and highest % of nonrespondents in victimization questions, of respondents in the dataset.

e) % of respondents indicating they would "absolutely not" admit to marihuana use, had they used it.

f) % of students admitting to the use of the fictive drug "Relevin".

g) National sample, figure indicating locations/cantons.

pp = paper & pencil; rc = respondent consent only

#### Country notes:

Belgium: Information except total sample size and responding patterns refers to Wallonia.

Croatia: Technical report gives 41 % as the proportion of students whose parents declined participation; the student participation rate is calculated from this figure.

Denmark: Class access rate is given instead of school access rate.

Venezuela: 100% teacher presence based on description that "in each classroom, the student assistant, the team leader and the teacher were normally present".

More in-depth information about the strengths, problems and possible sources of divergence in national data collection is available in the country technical reports (Burianek et al. 2015; Bezic 2015; Farren & Kammigan 2015; Gavray 2015; Killias & Lukash 2015; Kivivuori et al. 2014; Libak-Pedersen 2013; Rodriguez et al. 2014; Stevkovicz & Ristanovicz 2015).

The ISRD project uses standardized questionnaires – with care taken to ensure linguistic equivalence in translation – to maximize cross-country comparability. Yet, even full standardization does not guarantee that respondent interpretation is the same everywhere. In addition to the factors discussed above, there are less tangible external and cultural factors which cannot be directly assessed by examining sample features like those shown in *Table 1*. For instance, the interpretation and meaning of questions and terms can differ in different cultural contexts. The sensitivity to perceive conflicts as violence reflects cultural differences between social groups and across time (Kivivuori 2014). Differential cultural sensitivity of various social groups can impact both police reporting and survey reporting. It is possible that such factors could also impact cross-national comparisons. For example, asking about physical punishment by parents, or being victimized by hate crime, may be interpreted differently by young people living in South America as compared to those in Northern Europe (Rodriguez et al. 2015). Some of the cultural differences in understanding question formulations can be explored in the future by using the follow-up questions which are available for countries using online data collection.

### 1.3 Measures of victimization and police notification

This report is a first look at the ISRD 3 findings from fifteen countries. We present preliminary findings for (1) victimization in the previous year and (2) whether the police were notified of this victimization. Data of countries for which population weights are available are weighted,<sup>4</sup> additionally, for all countries the confidence intervals of prevalence rates take into account the clustering of students within classes.

**Victimization measures.** The ISRD3 includes six questions about “some bad things that may have happened to you.” We tried to tap into things that may happen to young people frequently (e.g. theft, or cyberbullying) or things that can be serious (e.g. assault, or being beaten up by parents). We asked about *life-time prevalence* (i.e. did this ever happen to you?), as well as *last-year prevalence* (did this happen over the last year?). Because 15 year olds have a higher likelihood of ‘ever’ having been victimized than 12 year olds, it is more useful to look at ‘last year’ prevalence, where age makes no difference. Therefore, we will focus only on *last year prevalence* in reporting our findings below. The victimization items of the ISRD have been designed to be specific, for the purpose of minimizing the role of cultural interpretation as a source of bias. The questions are shown in *Appendix 1*.



**Police notification measures.** In this first findings report, we also show the percentage of incidents reported to the police. It should be noted that the police notification rate is a complex measure which simultaneously captures multiple social processes. In short, the police notification percentage reflects crime seriousness, aspect of victim-offender relationship, and societal factors (see the separate box below for more information for relevant interpretations). It is important to take account of police notification rates when interpreting official statistics of recorded crimes is inspected (Enzmann 2012).

**How should we interpret different police notification rates in different research locations?** Prior research suggests that the following aspects are important in determining police reporting likelihood:

**(1) Offence seriousness.** Reporting an incident to the police is strongly influenced by offence seriousness; the higher the perceived seriousness of a crime, the greater the probability that a victim will report his or her victimization to the police (Goudriaan et al. 2004, 959). A frequent reason for not reporting an incident is that it was 'not serious enough'. In contrast, incidents involving an *injury* to the victim are likely to be reported (Hart & Rennison 2003, 4). Thus, a high police notification rate can reflect a high prevalence of serious and (for violence) injury-causing cases. Similarly, a low police notification rate can mean that the offences tend to be less serious.

**(2) Victim-offender relationship.** The relationship between the victim and the offender is a strong predictor of victim help-seeking decisions. Acts committed by strangers are more likely to be reported to the police (Kaukinen 2002; Hart & Rennison 2003). Thus, a high police notification rate can reflect a high prevalence of offences committed by strangers. Correspondingly, a low police notification rate can reflect that many of the offences take place between previously acquainted persons, for instance in the school yard.

**(3) External factors.** Police notification can also reflect external factors related to the general social context (Goudriaan et al. 2004), cultural sensitivity to see conflicts as criminal (Kivivuori 2014), trust in the police, and beliefs about police competence and fairness. Thus, a high notification rate can reflect high trust towards the police, or lack of alternative and informal sources of conflict resolution. And conversely, a low police notification rate can reflect low trust in the police, or availability of informal conflict resolution mechanisms.

**Statistics.** In *Tables 2 to 7* in the next section, the left hand side of each table presents statistics on prevalence, and related confidence intervals. (Prevalence refers to the percentage of respondents who were victimized at least once in the preceding year.) Since the sample sizes and thus sampling errors of countries are different, we also present the 95% confidence intervals in the tables. In regard to police notification, it should be noted that

the absolute number of persons in the sample notifying to the police is very small. This is also reflected in the wider confidence intervals. To highlight that the police notification rates are based on small *Ns*, the tables give the number of victims in each sample. Of course, due to differences in sample and population sizes, the absolute numbers of victims should not be compared across countries. The right hand side of each table shows (incidence-based) rates of police notification of victimization. Prevalence-based reporting rates are shown in *Appendix 2* (see also Enzmann, 2012:153). In all tables, the countries are shown in alphabetical order.

## 2 First findings

In this overview, we present findings based on the victimization questions included in the ISRD3 sweep. The victimizations are grouped in three types: property-related victimization, violent victimization and parental use of physical force. The questions and their sequence in the questionnaire are shown in *Appendix 1*. Each victimization question was followed by an additional question on whether the incident/s were reported to the police.

### 2.1 Property offending related victimization

The ISRD3 had two victimization questions about offences where the offender wanted to acquire money or property: extortion/robbery and theft.

**Extortion/robbery.** This question probed cases where someone had wanted the respondent to give money or property by threatening. The question is likely to capture a wide range of behaviors, from a school yard bully demanding money from a smaller child to an adult stranger robbing a child of their mobile phone on the street. We therefore consistently label this victimization type as “extortion/robbery”, to avoid it being associated only with street robberies by unknown perpetrators. The first findings are shown in *Table 2* below.

**Table 2** Last year prevalence of *extortion/robbery* and % of cases notified to the police.

	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Notified to police (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Victims (N)	Cities (N)
Belgium	3.8	3.2	4.5	1.6	3 497	16.7	11.1	24.4	3.8	131	4
Bosnia/H.	4.8	4.0	5.8	1.6	3 066	22.7	16.2	30.9	11.7	145	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	3.8	2.9	4.9	0.7	1 741	10.7	5.1	21.1	1.5	65	2
Czech Rep.	3.7	3.0	4.5	0.6	3 463	11.6	7.6	17.4	3.9	127	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	3.1	2.3	4.1	0.2	1 674	9.1	3.9	19.7	7.8	51	2
Estonia	3.0	2.4	3.6	0.6	3 780	19.6	12.7	29.1	9.0	111	3
Finland	8.1	6.7	9.7	0.0	2 203	5.8	2.1	15.0	2.3	171	2
Germany	4.4	3.5	5.5	0.8	2 629	26.4	19.1	35.3	7.0	115	2
Italy	3.7	3.0	4.5	1.1	3 508	18.1	11.7	26.9	10.1	129	8
Kosovo	6.2	4.8	8.0	0.0	1 078	26.1	14.6	42.1	7.5	67	2
Lithuania	3.5	2.8	4.5	1.3	2 770	30.1	20.8	41.3	7.3	96	5
Serbia	7.5	5.6	10.0	0.0	650	28.7	17.2	43.9	4.1	49	2
Switzerland	3.3	2.6	4.0	1.8	4 195	8.8	4.3	17.1	9.8	143	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	4.2	3.2	5.6	0.0	1 651	16.2	9.3	26.7	5.7	70	2
Venezuela	7.8	6.7	9.1	5.5	2 416	22.5	16.8	29.4	18.0	178	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

The percentage of pupils victimized by extortion/robbery varies between countries, but always is less than ten percent. The highest rates are reported in Finland (8.1%), Venezuela (7.9%), and Serbia (7.5%). Eleven of the 15 countries manifest a rate which falls between 3 and 5 percentages. The lowest rate is found in Estonia (3.0%).

In regard to police notification, the highest rate is found in Lithuania (30.1%), while Serbia (28.7%) and Germany (26.4%) also have high rates. The lowest police notification rates are found in Denmark (9.1%), Switzerland (8.8%) and Finland (5.8%). As with other types of victimization, police notification likelihood may reflect multiple factors such of- fence seriousness, victim-offender relationship, trust towards the police, and the strength of informal/alternative conflict resolution mechanisms.

**Theft.** This type of victimization covers cases where something was stolen from the respondent. The 12 month prevalence rates and reporting rates are shown in *Table 3* below.

**Table 3** Last year prevalence of *theft* and % of cases notified to the police.

	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Notified to police (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Victims (N)	Cities (N)
Belgium	25.0	23.4	26.8	2.4	3 497	15.8	13.6	18.3	6.9	854	4
Bosnia/H.	18.2	16.6	20.0	2.2	3 066	20.4	17.2	23.9	4.8	547	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	21.1	18.6	23.9	1.7	1 741	13.9	10.9	17.5	0.3	361	2
Czech Rep.	25.3	23.5	27.2	1.7	3 463	14.1	12.1	16.4	5.3	861	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	19.4	17.3	21.5	0.3	1 674	21.6	17.6	26.3	3.4	323	2
Estonia	22.2	20.7	23.9	0.7	3 780	15.0	12.7	17.7	2.6	834	3
Finland	25.9	23.2	28.7	0.0	2 203	15.6	12.5	19.4	0.5	590	2
Germany	31.2	29.0	33.5	1.6	2 629	22.9	20.0	26.1	3.6	807	2
Italy	22.2	20.1	24.3	2.1	3 508	15.3	13.0	18.0	6.0	761	8
Kosovo	12.8	10.8	15.1	0.0	1 078	27.4	19.9	36.3	4.3	138	2
Lithuania	14.4	13.0	16.1	1.8	2 770	21.6	17.9	26.0	5.1	393	5
Serbia	25.8	22.0	30.1	0.5	650	27.3	21.8	33.6	3.0	167	2
Switzerland	26.9	24.2	29.8	1.9	4 195	15.1	12.4	18.2	2.5	1 109	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	19.8	17.5	22.4	0.0	1 651	17.6	14.3	21.4	2.4	327	2
Venezuela	18.9	16.6	21.4	7.7	2 416	9.7	7.1	13.1	28.5	421	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

Not surprisingly, theft was the most prevalent type of victimization. The low prevalence countries are Kosovo (12.8%) and Lithuania (14.4%) while Switzerland (26.9%) and Germany (31.2%) rank highest in theft prevalence. The other countries cluster between 18 and 26 percent prevalence rate.

Kosovo (27.4%) and Serbia (27.3%) manifest the highest rate of notifying thefts to the police, while this rate is low in Venezuela (9.7%) and Croatia (13.9%). In most countries, the reporting rate is between 15 and 25 percentages of the incidents.

## 2.2 Assault, hate crime and cyberbullying

**Assault.** The assault question covered acts of violence that required the victim to seek medical assistance. This question taps relatively serious assaults, so it is not surprising that a fairly small proportion of pupils in the 15 countries respond that they were assaulted last year, ranging from 1.5% to 7.8% (*Table 4*).

**Table 4** Last year prevalence of *assault* and % of cases notified to the police.

	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Notified to police (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Victims (N)	Cities (N)
Belgium	4.6	3.9	5.4	1.7	3 497	18.4	12.4	26.5	7.6	158	4
Bosnia/H.	6.7	5.8	7.7	1.9	3 066	23.4	17.3	30.7	6.4	202	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	3.6	2.7	4.8	1.0	1 741	9.9	4.8	19.4	6.5	62	2
Czech Rep.	4.1	3.4	4.9	0.8	3 463	11.7	7.7	17.4	3.6	140	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	3.5	2.7	4.4	0.4	1 674	11.0	4.4	25.0	17.2	58	2
Estonia	7.8	6.8	9.0	0.6	3 780	16.8	12.1	22.9	5.8	294	3
Finland	2.9	2.1	3.8	0.0	2 203	8.9	4.2	17.6	1.4	73	2
Germany	4.6	3.8	5.5	0.8	2 629	29.5	21.4	39.2	6.7	120	2
Italy	4.1	3.4	4.9	1.3	3 508	10.2	6.7	15.1	8.5	141	8
Kosovo	1.5	0.9	2.3	0.0	1 078	54.5	33.2	74.3	12.5	16	2
Lithuania	4.0	3.3	4.8	1.3	2 770	25.6	18.1	34.9	10.2	108	5
Serbia	7.4	5.6	9.8	0.2	650	26.7	16.9	39.4	4.2	48	2
Switzerland	3.8	3.1	4.7	1.8	4 195	14.6	7.6	26.3	7.7	155	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	3.9	3.1	5.1	0.0	1 651	11.0	6.1	19.0	1.5	65	2
Venezuela	1.8	1.3	2.6	4.2	2 416	15.8	7.1	31.3	19.0	42	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

Estonia (7.8%), Serbia (7.4%) and Bosnia-Herzegovina (6.7%) emerge as countries with highest prevalence rates of assault victimization while Finland (2.9%), Venezuela (1.8%) and Kosovo (1.5%) cluster at the bottom. Most of the countries have assault victimization rates in the range of 3 to 5 per cent.

The rates of police notification were comparatively low in Finland (8.9%), Croatia (9.9%) and Italy (10.2%), while they were high in Germany (29.5%), Serbia (26.7%) and Lithuania (25.6%). The extremely high notification rate in Kosovo has a very wide confidence interval due to the small number of victims. As noted above, the police notification rates can capture offence seriousness, victim-offender relationship, or external cultural and social factors. Thus, a low percentage of reporting can reflect non-serious victimizations, high presence of incidents involving acquainted persons (as in playground cases), and low trust in the police, or the availability of informal conflict resolution mechanisms.

**Hate crime.** The ISRD3 incorporated a new question on crimes motivated by the identity of the victim. The question was about incidents where someone threatened the respondent with violence or committed physical violence against you *because* of his/her religion, language, skin color, social or ethnic background, or some other similar reason.

Table 5 below shows that young people experience hate crimes in all fifteen countries. The prevalence of this victimization type is not very high, ranging from 1.5% in Kosovo to a high of 6.5% in Estonia. Eleven of the 15 countries had hate crime prevalence rates ranging from 3 per cent to 6 per cent.

**Table 5** Last year prevalence of hate crime and % of cases notified to the police.

	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Notified to police (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Victims (N)	Cities (N)
Belgium	5.0	4.3	5.9	2.3	3 497	4.7	2.8	7.7	8.1	172	4
Bosnia/H.	3.5	2.9	4.2	2.1	3 066	12.7	8.0	19.4	8.7	104	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	2.5	1.9	3.3	0.8	1 741	5.4	1.7	15.6	2.3	43	2
Czech Rep.	4.0	3.3	4.8	1.0	3 463	3.0	1.4	6.3	4.4	137	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	3.4	2.5	4.5	0.2	1 674	5.4	2.2	12.8	0.0	56	2
Estonia	6.5	5.7	7.4	0.7	3 780	4.2	2.1	7.9	11.1	244	3
Finland	5.2	4.0	6.7	0.0	2 203	3.6	1.5	8.5	5.4	111	2
Germany	5.3	4.5	6.3	1.3	2 629	6.3	3.5	11.2	5.8	138	2
Italy	3.9	3.3	4.7	1.5	3 508	5.9	3.3	10.5	10.3	136	8
Kosovo	1.5	1.0	2.3	0.0	1 078	32.6	19.3	49.4	6.3	16	2
Lithuania	3.0	2.4	3.8	1.6	2 770	1.7	0.6	4.5	8.4	83	5
Serbia	4.5	3.0	6.6	0.0	650	22.5	9.7	44.2	10.3	29	2
Switzerland	5.6	4.7	6.8	1.9	4 195	6.4	3.6	11.1	5.2	213	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	2.2	1.6	3.1	0.0	1 651	0.5	0.1	4.0	8.1	37	2
Venezuela	3.8	3.1	4.7	5.1	2 416	5.3	1.7	15.3	31.8	88	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

Kosovo had the highest reporting rate (32.6%), but again had a very small sample of victims, so the estimate is highly imprecise. Serbian victims appear to be likely to report incidents to the police (22.5%). Most of the countries had notification rates ranging from 3 to 6 per cent.

**Cyberbullying.** This type of victimization refers to offensive behavior involving e-mail, instant messaging, text messages, and other such media. Table 6 shows that cyberbullying appears to be a common event – with the exception of Denmark (8.3%) and Switzerland (8.7%), all countries report comparable rates in the low to middle teens. In Ukraine (16.7%), Estonia (16.0%), Italy (15.9%), Serbia (15.4%), Belgium (15.3%) and Bosnia-Herzegovina (15.3%) the prevalence of cyberbullying victimization exceeded 15 per cent.

**Table 6** Last year prevalence of cyber bullying and % of cases notified to the police.

	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Notified to police (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Victims (N)	Cities (N)
Belgium	15.3	13.8	16.9	4.1	3 497	2.2	1.5	3.2	7.2	513	4
Bosnia/H.	15.3	13.6	17.1	2.6	3 066	5.5	3.9	7.7	4.4	456	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	13.7	12.0	15.6	1.8	1 741	2.6	1.1	6.3	0.4	234	2
Czech Rep.	14.0	12.7	15.3	2.8	3 463	1.9	1.2	3.1	5.3	470	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	8.3	7.1	9.6	1.1	1 674	0.5	0.1	2.0	8.8	137	2
Estonia	16.0	14.5	17.7	0.8	3 780	4.1	2.5	6.7	5.3	602	3
Finland	13.6	11.8	15.5	0.0	2 203	1.0	0.5	1.9	2.0	298	2
Germany	12.1	10.8	13.5	1.7	2 629	4.8	3.0	7.4	6.4	313	2
Italy	15.9	14.5	17.3	3.4	3 508	5.3	3.4	8.1	8.0	538	8
Kosovo	12.9	10.8	15.4	0.0	1 078	15.5	10.9	21.6	2.9	139	2
Lithuania	14.5	13.1	16.1	3.0	2 770	0.8	0.5	1.5	7.4	391	5
Serbia	15.4	13.2	17.8	0.0	650	5.2	2.7	10.1	5.0	100	2
Switzerland	8.7	7.3	10.3	2.0	4 195	11.4	6.9	18.3	4.3	347	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	16.7	15.1	18.5	0.0	1 651	1.6	0.9	3.0	1.8	276	2
Venezuela	12.0	10.4	13.8	8.2	2 416	2.1	0.9	5.0	29.7	266	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

Cyber-bullying is an offence which is rarely reported to the police. Apart from Kosovo (15.5%), Swiss youths had the highest notification rate (11.4%). In all the other countries, the notification rate was 5.5% or lower.

## 2.3 Physical force by parents

The ISRD3 included two measures of the **use of physical force by parents**. Key conventions and declarations on the rights of the child adopted by the United Nations and the Council of Europe require that children are protected from all forms of violence, including violence by near-relations and within families (United Nations 1990; Council of Europe 2012; for a summary of current legislation in different countries, see Council of Europe 2015).

In regard to physical force used by parents, two questions were asked. The first question probed incidents involving hitting, slapping and shoving. We label this behavior as *parental physical punishment*. The second question probed incidents involving hitting with an object, punching, kicking or beating up the child. This more serious type of domestic violence is labelled *parental maltreatment*. Both questions included the prompt that the respondent should include cases where the parent committed such acts as a punishment for something the child had done. These questions did not incorporate a follow-up on police notification. The prevalence levels of the two categories are both shown in *Table 7* below.

**Table 7** Last year prevalence of *parental physical punishment* and *parental maltreatment*, %.

	Parental physical punishment					Parental maltreatment					Cities (N)
	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students (N)	Prevalence (%)	CI Lower	CI Upper	Missing (%)	Students( N)	
Belgium	21.3	19.8	22.9	5.8	3 497	5.1	4.3	5.9	2.8	3 497	4
Bosnia/H.	21.4	19.7	23.3	2.9	3 066	4.4	3.6	5.3	2.8	3 066	9 <sup>a</sup>
Croatia	22.2	20.2	24.5	2.9	1 741	4.7	3.7	6.0	1.9	1 741	2
Czech Rep.	38.7	36.8	40.5	5.9	3 463	7.2	6.3	8.2	2.0	3 463	48 <sup>a</sup>
Denmark	3.6	2.8	4.6	1.0	1 674	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.9	1 674	2
Estonia	15.8	14.5	17.2	0.9	3 780	4.9	4.2	5.8	0.9	3 780	3
Finland	12.9	11.3	14.8	0.1	2 203	2.9	2.2	3.8	0.0	2 203	2
Germany	11.5	10.3	12.9	2.0	2 629	4.1	3.4	5.0	1.2	2 629	2
Italy	26.7	24.7	28.7	5.4	3 508	6.7	5.7	7.8	2.6	3 508	8
Kosovo	11.3	9.3	13.7	0.0	1 078	1.2	0.7	2.0	0.1	1 078	2
Lithuania	18.0	16.4	19.8	4.0	2 770	3.7	3.1	4.5	1.7	2 770	5
Serbia	25.9	22.0	30.2	0.3	650	4.6	3.1	6.8	0.2	650	2
Switzerland	19.1	17.3	21.0	2.1	4 195	5.5	4.4	6.7	2.0	4 195	22 <sup>a</sup>
Ukraine	21.6	19.3	24.2	0.0	1 651	3.8	2.8	5.0	0.0	1 651	2
Venezuela	20.1	17.9	22.4	10.5	2 416	9.8	8.4	11.3	7.7	2 416	2

a) National sample (number of regions or local units).

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

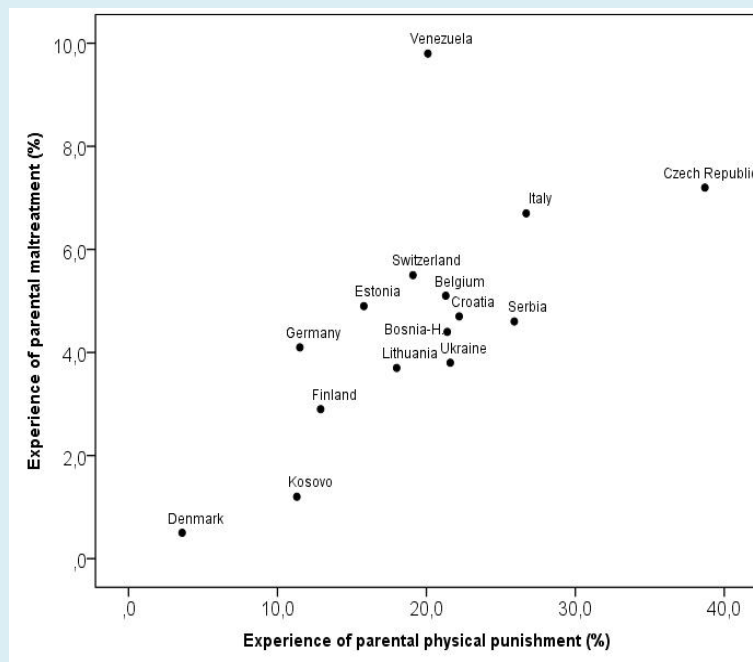
The left hand side of the *Table 7*, capturing the use of parental physical punishment, shows that there is substantial variation in the use of such disciplinary methods in the countries represented here. The Czech Republic (38.7%), Italy (26.7%) and Serbia (25.9%) rank highest, while only 3.6 per cent of Danish youths had experienced physical punishments by parents. Germany (11.5%), Kosovo (11.3%) and Finland (12.9%) also show relatively low prevalence rates.

The right hand side of the *Table 7* shows that the rates of more serious physical maltreatment by parents. As expected, these figures are lower than the less serious forms reported above. Venezuela ranks highest (9.8%) and Denmark lowest (0.5%). Comparatively high readings are seen also in the Czech Republic (7.2%) and Italy (6.7%).

The link between parental physical punishment and more serious maltreatment can be seen in *Figure 1*. Differences in the prevalence of parental physical force may partially reflect differential national legislation, or the presence of subcultures which accept corporal punishment. Since police notification of domestic incidents is likely to be very low, the ISRD3 questionnaire did not contain a question on that dimension.



**Country-level association between physical punishment and maltreatment.** There is a relatively strong country-level correlation between the prevalence of parental physical punishment and serious parental maltreatment. This correlation is the highest between any two ISRD victimization items in the current selection of 15 countries (Spearman's rank order correlation .646,  $p=.009$ ,  $N=15$ ). In *Figure 1*, the interconnectedness of these two phenomena is highlighted by a scatterplot. Denmark emerges as the country with lowest level of parental physical punishment and maltreatment (*Figure 1*).



**Figure 1** Experience of parental physical punishment and serious maltreatment victimization (%): country-level scatterplot ( $N=15$ ).

### 3 Concluding discussion

**Current findings.** Regarding the substantive findings reported above, we would encourage considerable caution in interpretation. The primary goal of the ISRD project is the testing of theories about dynamics of youth offending and victimization. While the study highlights the limitations of official statistics, showing the large proportion of unreported crimes, it is not intended to serve as a corrective for official statistics. Furthermore, as can be observed from *Table 1* above, there is considerable variation in the way the survey has been carried out in different countries. And of course, the comparative space is in flux as new countries are being entered to the dataset. This report simply covers victimization and police notification for under half of participation countries. Fuller results, including findings on offending and alcohol and drug use, will be reported later.

The questions on physical violence by parents were incorporated in the study because of the increasing recognition that this type of behavior is an important social problem which needs to be prevented and researched (United Nations 1990; Council of Europe 2012). The current findings (see *Table 7* and *Figure 1* above) suggest that the new ISRD

**UPYC (Understanding and Preventing Youth Crime): A Comparative study in France, Germany, the Netherlands, the UK and the US** is a research project which builds on the ISRD3 data and extends data collection by including contextual data on youth policies and structures. More information may be found at:

<http://www.northeastern.edu/isrd/upyc>

questions measuring use of physical violence by parents work fairly well and appear to capture a single dimension of violent control behavior by parents against their children.

**Future research.** This report presents the first findings based on the results from the first fifteen countries that have completed the data collection. The findings, while interesting as such, serve to underscore the great analytic potential in the emerging ISRD3 dataset. In addition to what young people tell us about their victimization experience, we shall learn more about self-reported delinquency, alcohol

and drug use, neighborhood, family, school and friends, moral beliefs, and contacts with the police, in a large number of national contexts. For several countries, the survey includes additional questions (for example, on gangs, or on violence, or animal cruelty).

Future research needs are of course multiple and the possibilities almost endless. Much of the emerging research will reflect the main goal of the ISRD project, the study of the theoretical predictors of delinquency. On-going work, such as the UPYC project<sup>5</sup>, will

serve these general goals. In the future, it will be of interest to examine how the prevalence of youth offending varies in the participating countries, and the country-level relationship between victimization and offending. In regard to police notification likelihood, the risk of offenders to become known to the police can be similarly explored, and compared with the victimization-based findings shown in this report. And of course, the follow-up questions on offending patterns can be used for instance to specify which sub-types of victimization and offending generate the observed differences between the countries.

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## Appendix 1: ISRD3 Victimization Questions

### *Some bad things that may have happened to you*

4.1. Try to remember: Did any of the following things ever happen to you? If so, was it reported to the police?

- a) Someone wanted you to give them money or something else (like a watch, shoes, mobile phone) and threatened you if you refused?

Has this ever happened to you?\*

- no (If no, continue with question b)  
 yes How often has this happened to you in the last 12 months? \_\_\_ times  
How many of these incidents were reported to the police? \_\_\_ incidents

- b) Someone hit you violently or hurt you – so much that you needed to see a doctor?

- c) Something was stolen from you (such as a book, money, mobile phone, sport equipment, bicycle ... )?

- d) Someone threatened you with violence or committed physical violence against you because of your religion, the language you speak, the colour of your skin, your social or ethnic background, or for similar reasons?

- e) Has anyone made fun of you or teased you seriously in a hurtful way through e-mail, instant messaging, in a chat room, on a website, or through a text message sent to your mobile phone?

- f) Has your mother or father (or your stepmother or stepfather) ever hit, slapped or shoved you? (Include also times when this was punishment for something you had done.)

- g) Has your mother or father (or your stepmother or stepfather) ever hit you with an object, punched or kicked you forcefully or beat you up? (Include also times when this was punishment for something you had done.)

\*) This question set was the same in each victim question, with the exception that questions f and g on parental violence did not have the police notification question. For possible divergences in wordings, see country technical reports.

## Appendix 2: Prevalence based police notification rates

Appendix 2 Table Prevalence of police notification, % of victims (prevalence-based count).

	Extortion/robbery		Theft		Assault		Hate crime		Cyberbullying																
	% notified	95%-CI for 95%-CI to % missing N victims	% notified	95%-CI for 95%-CI to % missing N victims	% notified	95%-CI for 95%-CI to % missing N victims	% notified	95%-CI for 95%-CI to % missing N victims	% notified	95%-CI for 95%-CI to % missing N victims															
Belgium	283	209	372	31	131	234	205	265	63	854	184	327	57	158	117	75	179	58	172	73	53	98	60	513	
Bosnia/H.	356	275	447	90	145	291	249	338	40	547	288	226	359	54	202	265	185	365	58	104	118	93	148	33	456
Croatia	172	94	293	15	65	206	169	247	03	361	203	114	335	48	62	143	64	288	23	43	39	18	79	04	234
Czech Rep.	187	123	274	31	127	201	171	235	49	861	170	108	257	36	140	83	45	147	29	137	56	37	83	43	470
Denmark	229	124	385	59	51	326	276	380	22	323	204	116	334	155	58	143	71	266	00	56	24	08	71	73	137
Estonia	275	191	379	18	111	202	176	231	14	834	185	144	235	27	294	100	64	151	53	244	88	63	121	13	602
Finland	45	19	100	00	171	201	163	246	00	590	153	80	275	00	73	71	30	159	09	111	30	14	65	07	298
Germany	345	267	433	43	115	310	276	347	26	807	395	315	481	50	120	137	86	213	51	138	104	68	155	48	313
Italy	252	184	335	78	129	234	204	266	55	761	209	146	290	50	141	136	85	211	81	136	86	64	114	67	538
Kosovo	344	244	459	45	67	361	279	451	36	138	467	204	749	63	16	533	266	783	63	16	265	191	354	22	139
Lithuania	389	279	512	63	96	287	242	337	43	393	402	308	504	102	108	52	19	135	72	83	38	22	65	56	391
Serbia	347	234	480	00	49	407	308	515	30	167	457	306	615	42	48	321	195	480	34	29	143	85	230	20	100
Switzerland	174	95	297	42	143	230	193	271	12	1109	307	209	427	19	155	151	94	232	19	213	158	106	231	23	347
Ukraine	235	140	367	29	70	273	223	328	24	327	292	193	416	00	65	28	03	196	27	37	51	28	91	07	276
Venezuela	299	240	366	174	178	156	119	201	283	421	265	134	457	190	42	83	29	215	318	88	48	27	85	293	266

Figures represent preliminary findings subject to change after data merging. For question formulations, see Appendix 1.

## Endnotes

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- 1 Children in the 7th grade are typically aged 12-13 at entry; those in the 8th grade are typically 13-14, and those in the 9th grade are typically 14-15. They are almost a year older at the end of the school year, and thus our sample covers children aged 12 to 16 year.
- 2 This Report will be updated with each new 5 countries with completed data collection. All results in this report are preliminary findings subject to change in the international data merging process.
- 3 The six per cent reading was from the UK. The next lowest rates were from Norway (32 %) and Germany (40 %).
- 4 Finland and Switzerland.
- 5 UPYC (Understanding and Preventing Youth Crime) is a project embedded within ISRD3 covering England & Wales (ESRC grant ES/L016656/1), France, Germany (DFG grant EN 490/1-1), The Netherlands, Scotland and the USA (grant NSF 1419588), funded by the research councils of each country under the 'Open Research Area' collaborative funding programme.