

**The Third International Self-report Study of Delinquency
among Juveniles in Switzerland and in Indonesia**

**Report to the Swiss National Science Foundation
(Project 100015_138401/1)
on the Survey conducted in Switzerland**

by

Martin Killias & Anastasiia Monnet Lukash

University of St. Gallen

Forschungsgemeinschaft Rechtswissenschaft

Tigerbergstrasse 21

CH-9000 St. Gallen

martin.killias@unisg.ch

anastasiia.lukash@unisg.ch

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Chapter 0

Introduction

0.1 Background

It is about 25 years ago when, in 1989, some 20 specialists of self-report surveys gathered in a conference hotel in Nordwijkerhout (NL) to discuss the feasibility of an international survey of juvenile delinquency using the method of self-reported questionnaires. The first author of this report was invited to participate in that meeting, as a specialist of conducting international, comparative victimization surveys. Indeed, the first international crime victimization survey (van Dijk, Mayhew & Killias 1990) had been in the field exactly about at that time. Encouraged by the success of that first truly international survey in the field of criminology, Dr. Josine Junger-Tas gathered around her a first steering group called to organize what then, in 1992, became the First International Self-reported Delinquency Survey (ISRD-1) in which 12 countries had participated (Junger-Tas, Terlouw & Klein 1994). Switzerland had been on board and it remained so at every sweep ever since with a national sample.

After that first attempt, it was felt that next sweeps would need to be more tightly standardized. The Steering Committee (of which the first author has remained a member since that time) started working on a new project from 2003. In 2006, a second survey was launched, with about 30 countries participating (ISRD-2). This larger project has led to two major publications (Junger-Tas et al. 2010, 2012). Already during the preparation of these two volumes, a new wave (ISRD-3) has been organized in which again some 30 countries are participating. The present report represents, so to speak, the first results of this new initiative, given that Switzerland and Finland are among the first to have their results ready for analysis and distribution. As with ISRD-2, the data of ISRD-3 will be publically accessible once the main analyses have been achieved. The data of all countries participating will be introduced into a central database located at the University of Hamburg. Since data collection is still ongoing in many countries, complete international analyses will be available not before 2016 at best. Since Switzerland has, through funds made available by the Swiss National Science Foundation (Switzerland and Indonesia), the Federal Office of Migration (Serbia) and the Jacobs Foundation (Ukraine, Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia, Kosovo and India), coordinated the ISRD-3 in nine countries all in all, we expect being able to present at least some comparative international data in the course of 2015 already.

0.2 The Swiss Report

The present report has been prepared keeping in mind that the first priority should be documenting the Swiss National Science Foundation with all details about the realization of this study that might be relevant to researchers who consider using these data for their own work. For that purpose, as well as for the Members of the SNF Council, having a detailed overview about what is in this project should be the priority. We have, therefore, presented several hundred mostly bivariate Figures and Tables that document the wealth of the questionnaire used and the

potential of a fairly large sample. Indeed, the 8 Chapters that follow give an account of correlates of juvenile delinquency that go beyond what has usually been communicated in research papers on this subject. Many more Figures and Tables have been prepared but, finally, eliminated from this report in order to keep it within reasonable size. They can be obtained from the authors on request. This broad thematic perspective has obviously had its price in the sense that we could not, at the same time and with the given resources, prepare multivariate analyses. Over the upcoming months, we are going to prepare a series of conference papers and publications devoted to several aspects of juvenile delinquency where more advanced methods of data analysis will be used. A second compromise required to refer to the existing literature only parsimoniously, i.e. at the end of each of the following chapters and to the extent it seemed necessary to explain certain findings in a broader context. Without such restrictions, the present report would have grown beyond any reasonable proportions.

The report of the project in Indonesia has been completed and presented to the Swiss National Science Foundation. We are happy that the Indonesian research team of the University of Surabaya had the courage and the energy to overcome all the endless obstacles (natural disasters and political troubles) that could not be reasonably anticipated.

0.3 Fieldwork in Switzerland

The fieldwork in Switzerland was relatively demanding, since more than over 200 classes out of more than 100 schools had to be contacted. In the end, more than 4'158 students in grades 7 to 9 have participated. Three cantons – St. Gallen, Aargau and Ticino – expressed interest in having a deeper, more detailed analysis of the situation in their canton.

Detailed indications on sampling, weighting and other aspects of the methodology can be found in the Technical Report (Chapter 9).

0.4 Acknowledgements

There are many people who, at some time or another over the last four years, have helped to bring this project to a good end. Our first thank goes to the Swiss National Science Foundation and in particular to *Dr. Kathrin Weder* whose support was absolutely decisive in the start and the realization of the project. We further acknowledge the kind and generous technical support that we received, all along this project, from other Members of the ISRD Steering Committee and in particular from *Prof.Dr. I. Haen Marshall*, from *Dr. D. Enzmann*, *Prof.Dr. M. Steketee* and *Prof.Dr. J. Kivivuori*. Regarding the survey in Switzerland, we received kind and efficient support from the Direction of the Conference of Education Departments, namely former cantonal *Minister I. Chassot*, *Secretary General H. Ambühl* and *Dr. T. Mattmann-Arnold*, from the many cantonal Departments who authorized us to interview students in their schools, from nearly 100 school principals and, last but not least, from nearly 200 school teachers. We feel deeply indebted to all these personalities and express here our sincere gratitude, including to all those that we omit mentioning here by their names but who have in many ways contributed to the success of this project.

St. Gallen/Lenzburg, 31 January 2015

Martin Killias

Anastasiia Monnet Lukash

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van Dijk J.J.M., Mayhew P. & Killias M. (1990) *Experiences of Crime across the World. Key findings of the 1989 International Crime Survey*, Deventer/Boston: Kluwer 1990

0.5.Abbreviations

CH = Switzerland

DE = German speaking part of Switzerland

FR – French speaking part of Switzerland

ITA – Italian speaking part (canton of Ticino)

SG – the canton of St. Gallen

AG – the canton of Aargau

GE – the canton of Geneva

ZH – the canton of Zurich

ltp – life time prevalence

lyp – last year prevalence

lmp – last month prevalence

IV – independent variable

DV – dependent variable

*** $p \leq .001$ (high significant)

** $.001 < p \leq .010$ (significant)

* $.010 < p \leq .050$ (nearly significant)

n.s. $p > .050$ (not significant)

Chapter 1

Juvenile Delinquency in Switzerland: An Overview

1.1. What this Chapter is about

Module 1 of the ISRD-3 questionnaire includes questions on the social background of respondents. In this Chapter, we shall present basic demographic information on our sample, both for the national as well as the several regional subsamples, i.e. on variables including age, sex, migrant status, religion and its importance, living arrangement, family influence, and ethnicity. In the second part, we shall present basic findings about delinquency and its distribution across space and time, as well as basic associations with social background variables, such as social wellbeing, ethnicity, religion, family constellation etc. We shall conclude with some information about victimization.

1.2. Social background variables

1.2.1. Gender and age in our samples

Table 1.1 informs about the distribution of male and female respondents across the national and the various regional subsamples.

Table 1.1 Gender by main sample and subsamples in %. Weighted data.

	Switzer land	DE	FR	ITA (TI)	SG	AG	GE	ZH
N=	4158	2560	956	642	625	555	268	266
male	48.7	48.5	48.6	51.8	47.8	52.4	47.7	44.9
female	51.3	51.5	51.4	48.2	52.2	47.6	52.3	55.1

Gender distribution in the national and the various regional samples is fairly even. With a proportion of about 50 per cent of boys and girls, the samples are in line with the gender distribution in the Swiss general population aged 12-16. According to population statistics of the Swiss Federal Statistical Office, 51.4% of the age-group 12-16 is male¹.

¹ Bevölkerung nach Alter und Geschlecht. Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO)
http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/themen/01/02/blank/key/alter/nach_geschlecht.html

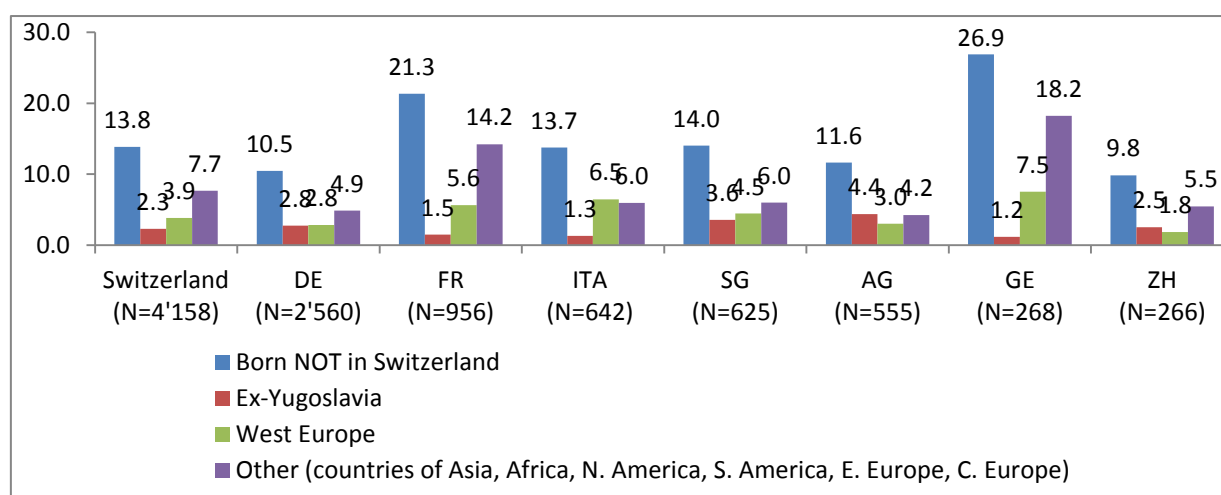
Table 1.2 Age of respondents in %. Weighted data.

Age	% in the main sample	% in total population ²
12	6.1	
13	26.1	24.8
14	31.2	24.7
15	25.6	25.1
16	9.6	25.5
17-19	1.4	

The age distribution in our national sample matches fairly well the student population in 7th – 9th grades of secondary schools. The proportion of students below 13 and above 16 is small, since these respondents may have experienced a somewhat unusual school career. In sum, the age and gender distribution in our sample matches population data very closely.

1.2.2. Birthplace

Since the ISRD-3 was designed to be conducted in some 30 countries around the globe, the instrument needed to take very different situations of migration into account. The solution adopted was to ask about country of birth of respondents and of their mothers and fathers, rather than about nationality in a formal sense. Since these questions were asked the same way in ISRD-2, comparisons between 2006 and 2013 are possible.

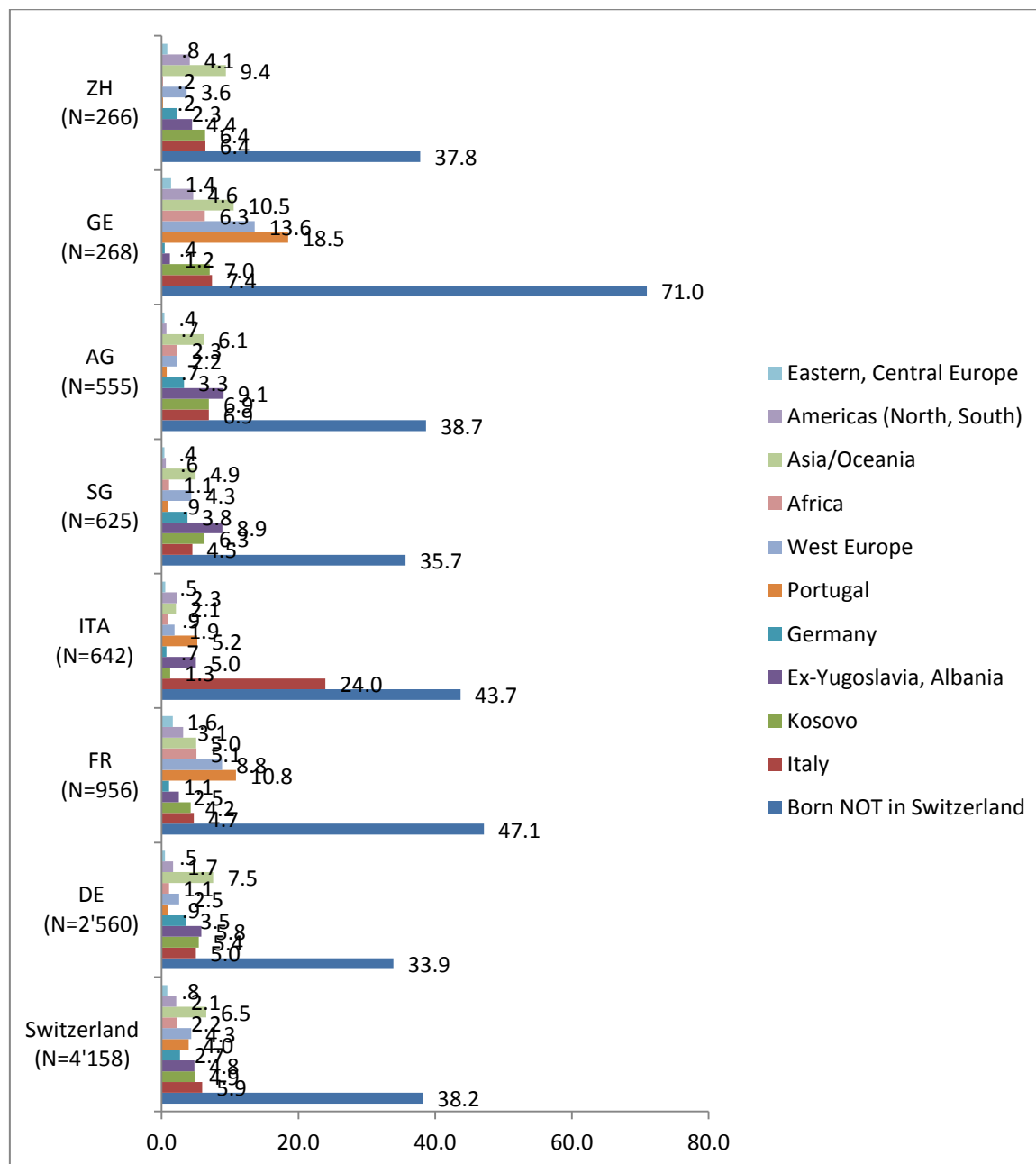
Figure 1.1 Respondents' birthplace by main and subsamples in %³.

²Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO), same source as in Footnote 1 (Tables je-d-01.02.01.02.03). Respondents of the survey were supposed to be in the 13-15 years range. Some younger and older subjects are in our sample because students were surveyed in classes.

³ Weighted data

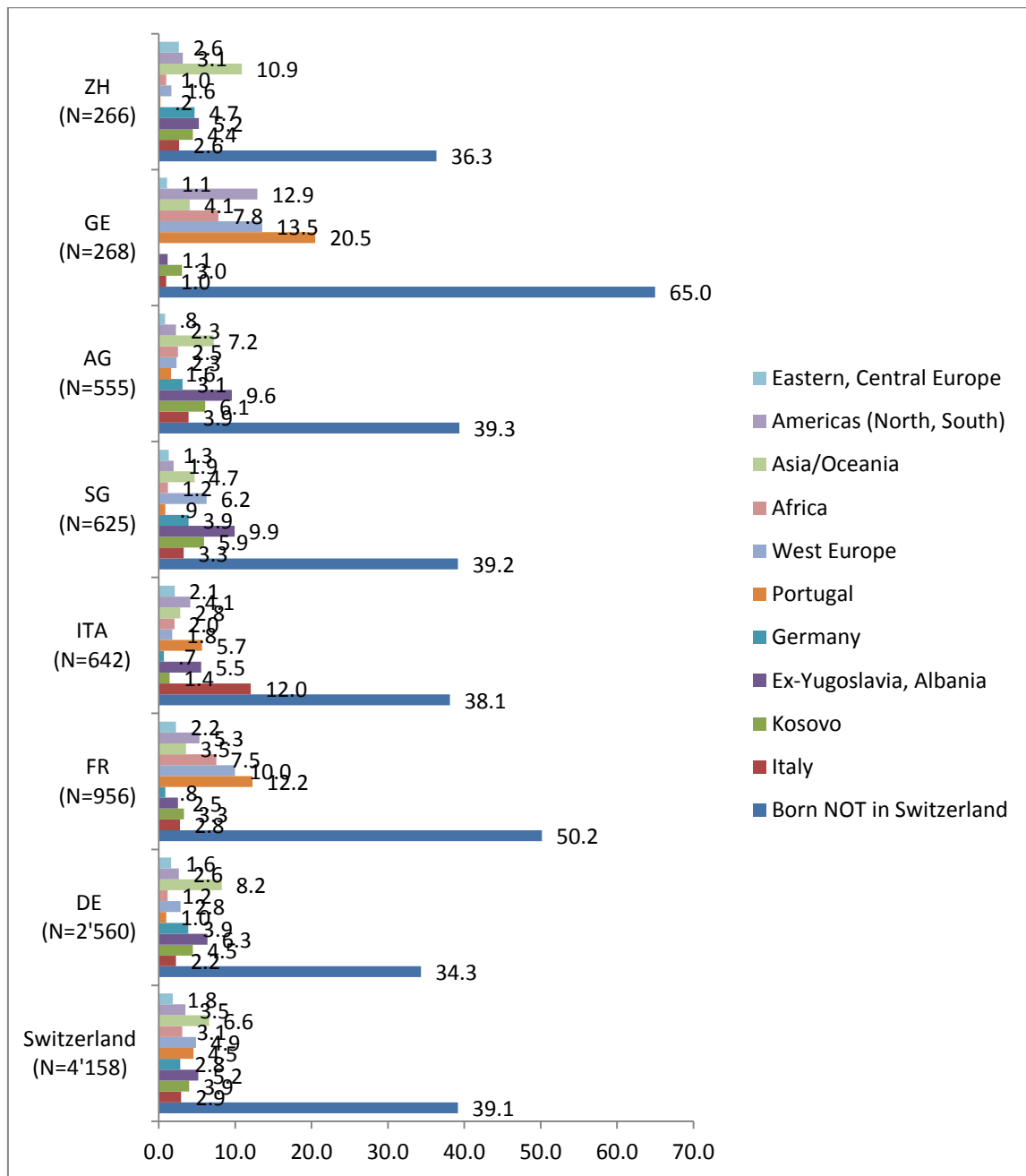
Nationwide, 14% of respondents were born outside of Switzerland. This percentage is 11% in German-speaking cantons and about twice that high in the Romandie (21%). The countries of birth are predominantly located in Asia, Africa, Americas, and Central/Eastern Europe. In comparison with 2006, fewer students were born in the countries of Ex-Yugoslavia,

Figure 1.2 Fathers' birthplace by main and subsamples in %⁴.



Fathers were more often born abroad than our respondents. In the Romandie, in Zurich and Geneva, close to, or over 50 per cent, of respondents have a father born abroad. As the following Figure illustrates, mothers were also very often born abroad.

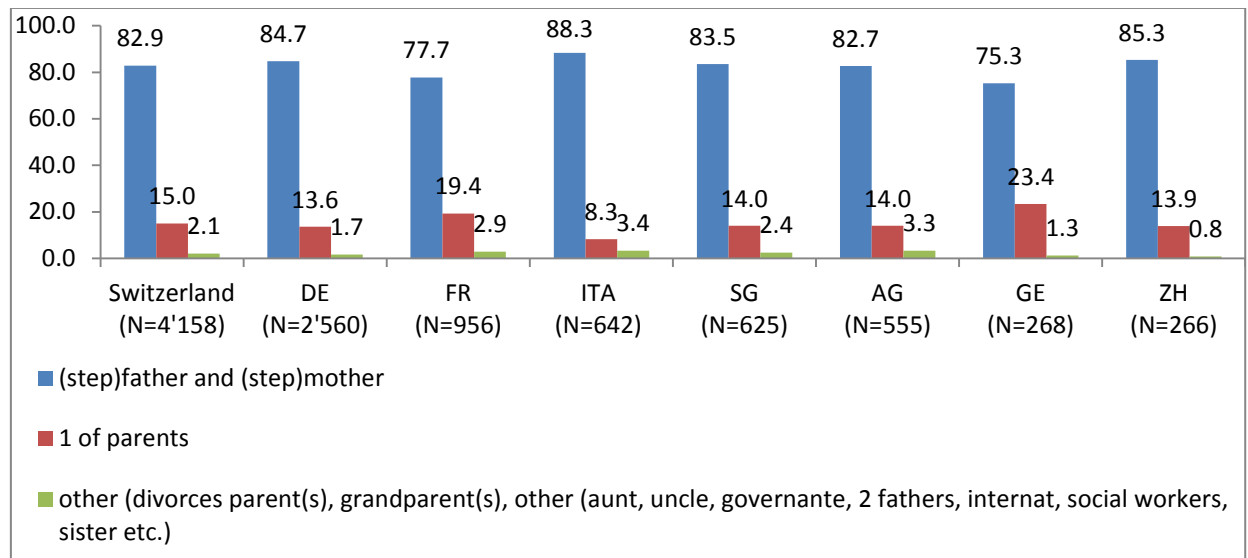
Figure 1.3 Mothers' birthplace by main and subsamples in %⁵.



1.2.3. Family constellations

The vast majority of respondents live with (step)father and (step)mother. Roughly one in six lives with one parent alone. Other arrangements are exceptional. There is little variation across Switzerland.

Figure 1.4 Who brought you up by main and different subsamples in %⁶.



Given the international character of the ISRD instrument, it was decided to include also an item on racial identity. Table 1.3 gives the details for Switzerland.

Table 1.3 To which group do you belong? (Minority) by main and subsamples in %⁷.

	Switzerland (N=4'158)	DE (N=2'560)	FR (N=956)	ITA (N=642)	SG (N=625)	AG (N=555)	GE (N=268)	ZH (N=266)
European	90.9	90.9	89.9	96.3	92.9	92.3	86.5	87.1
African	1.7	1.0	3.2	.6	.8	1.4	3.9	1.4
Asian	4.1	5.6	1.5	1.4	3.2	4.0	.6	7.5
Other	3.3	2.5	5.3	1.6	3.0	2.3	9.0	4.0

This is the country specific question, where each country must find its own variant. In Switzerland minorities were defined in the form of self-identification as European, African, Asian, and others.

Most of respondents identify themselves as Europeans in Switzerland.

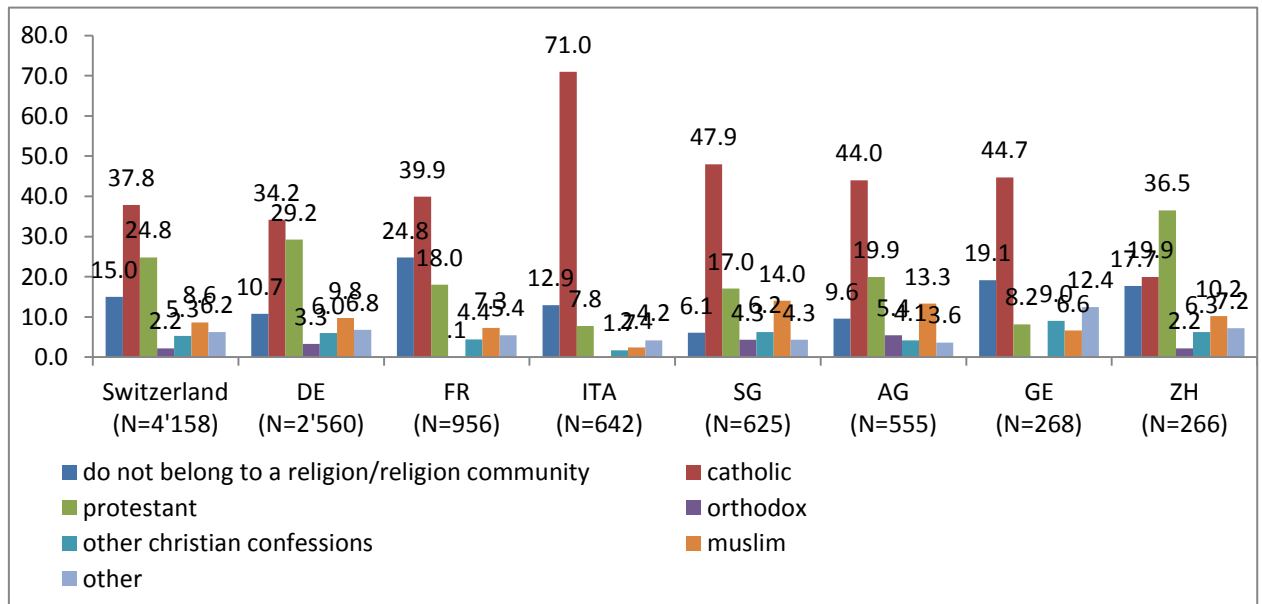
1.2.4 Religion

⁶ Weighted data

⁷ Weighted data

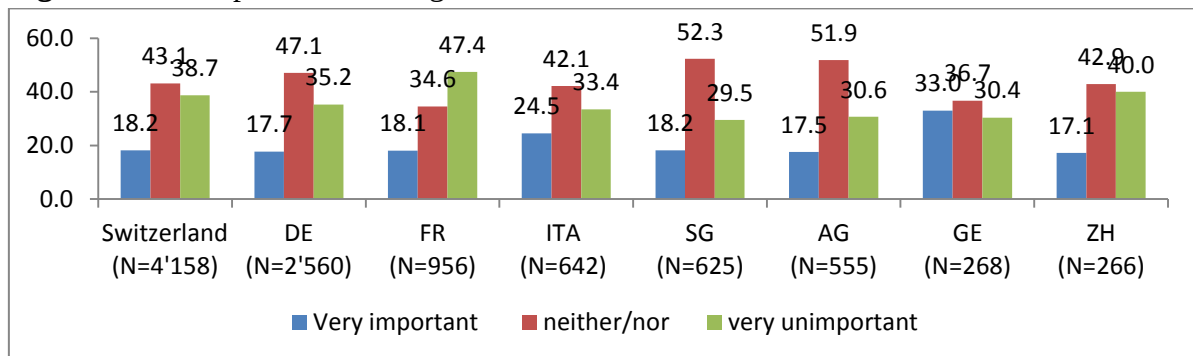
Although the interest in the questions regarding religion will be centred on international comparisons (some Muslim and other Non-Christian countries participate in ISRD-3), the following Figures disclose a few interesting patterns.

Figure 1.5 Religious affiliation in%⁸.



Most students belong to any of the Christian denominations. There is, not unexpectedly, some variation across the country. Particularly noteworthy is the low proportion of respondents that say belonging to the protestant (reformed) Church that used to be the dominant denomination one generation ago. Muslims are more frequent in Zurich, Aargau and St. Gallen.

Figure 1.6 Importance of religion in %⁹.



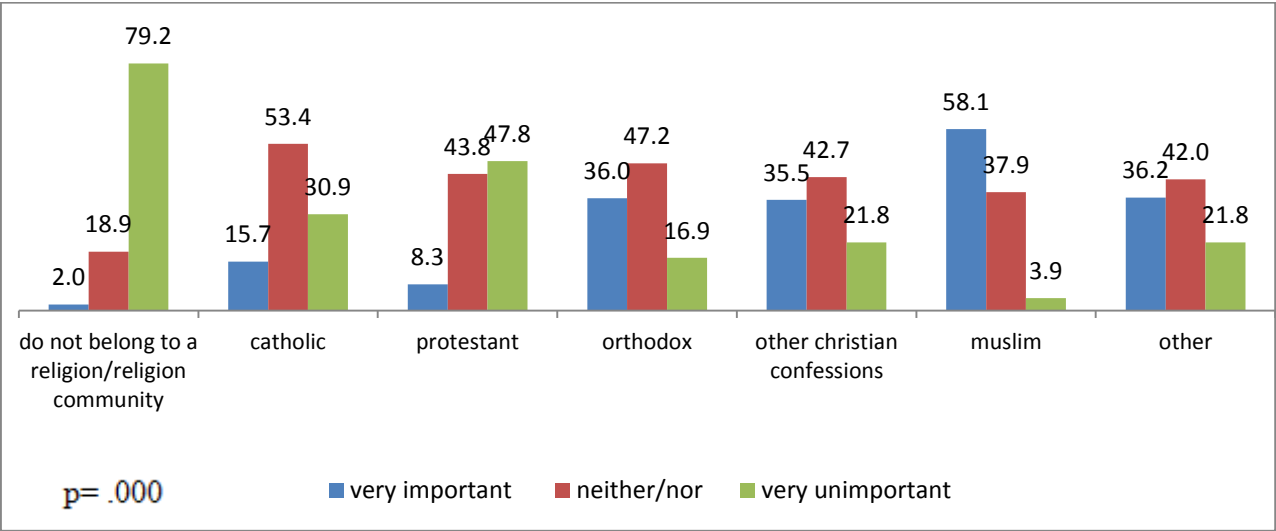
Beyond formal membership in any church or religion, the instrument asked about the importance religion plays in respondents' every-day life. As it turns out, students saying religion to be completely unimportant to them are more numerous than those attributing it much importance. This holds particularly true in French-speaking cantons. Weak attachment to religion is, as the

8 Weighted data

9 Weighted data

following Figure illustrates, particularly frequent among respondents who say to belong to the protestant church.

Figure 1.7 Importance of religion by religious affiliation in %¹⁰.

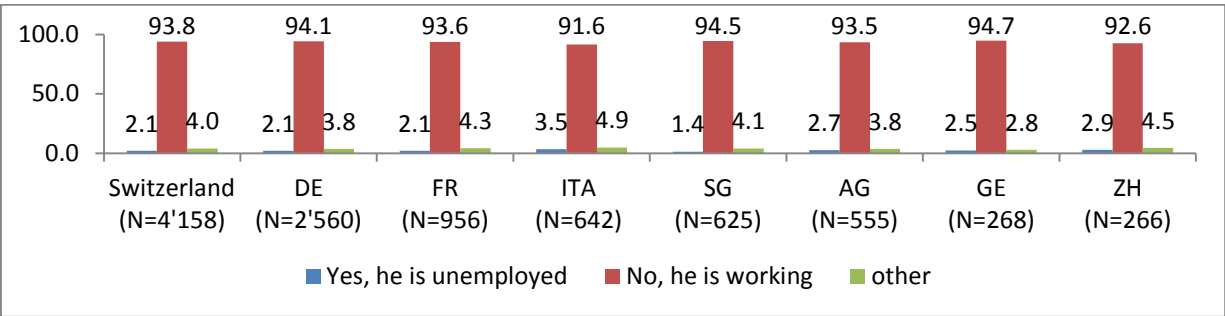


Religion is very important mostly for Muslims. It is also fairly important to students of Non-Christian or “other” Christian denominations.

1.2.5 Employment and economic wellbeing

Given the high unemployment rates in several Western countries, the following items will be of interest mostly in international comparisons.

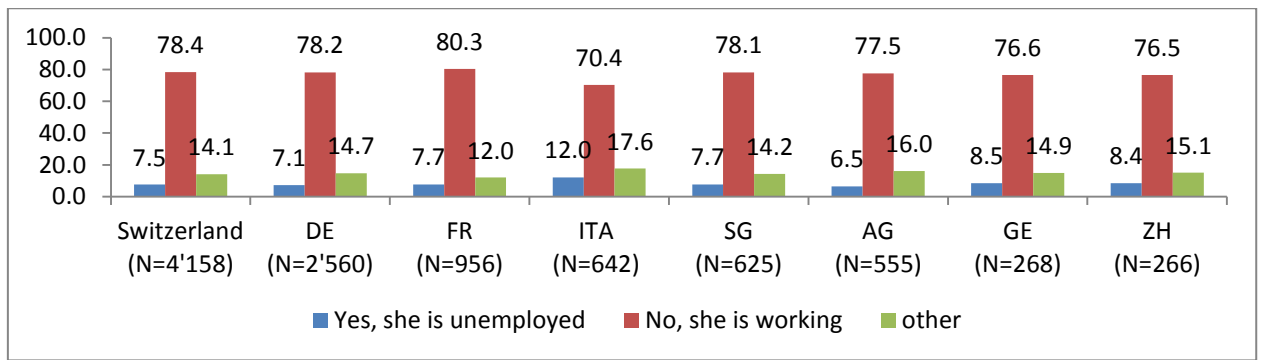
Figure 1.8 Fathers’ employment status by main and subsamples in %¹¹.



The level of unemployment is very low in Switzerland and does not vary across regions. Mothers are somewhat less employed, but still at a comparatively very high rate. Again, there is little variation across the country.

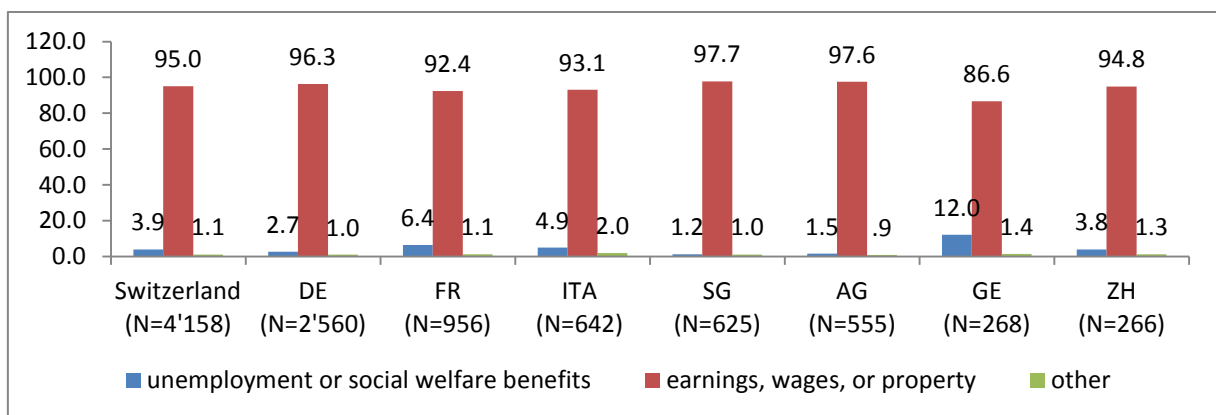
Figure 1.9 Mothers’ employment status by main and subsamples in %¹².

10 Weighted data
11 Weighted data



A related question is whether or not the family has its main income from father's and/or mother's earnings, or from other sources (mostly presumably social welfare).

Figure 1.10 Income: Earning, wages, salary and other source by main and subsamples in %¹³.

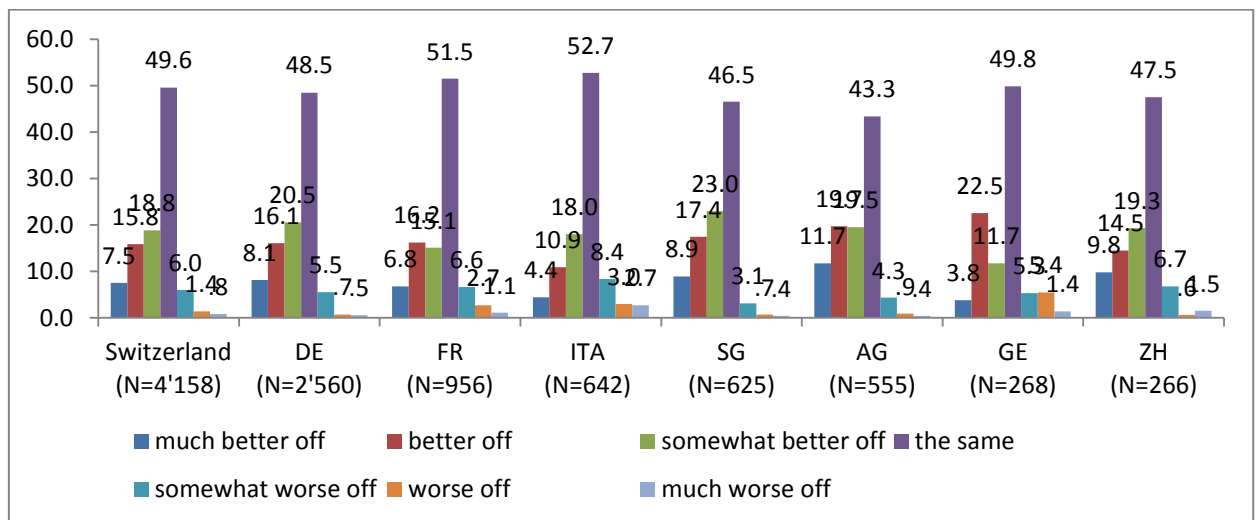


As Figure 1.10 illustrates, respondents' families obtain their incomes almost exclusively from earnings. Social welfare plays only in French-speaking cantons and in Geneva a more than marginal role.

12 Weighted data

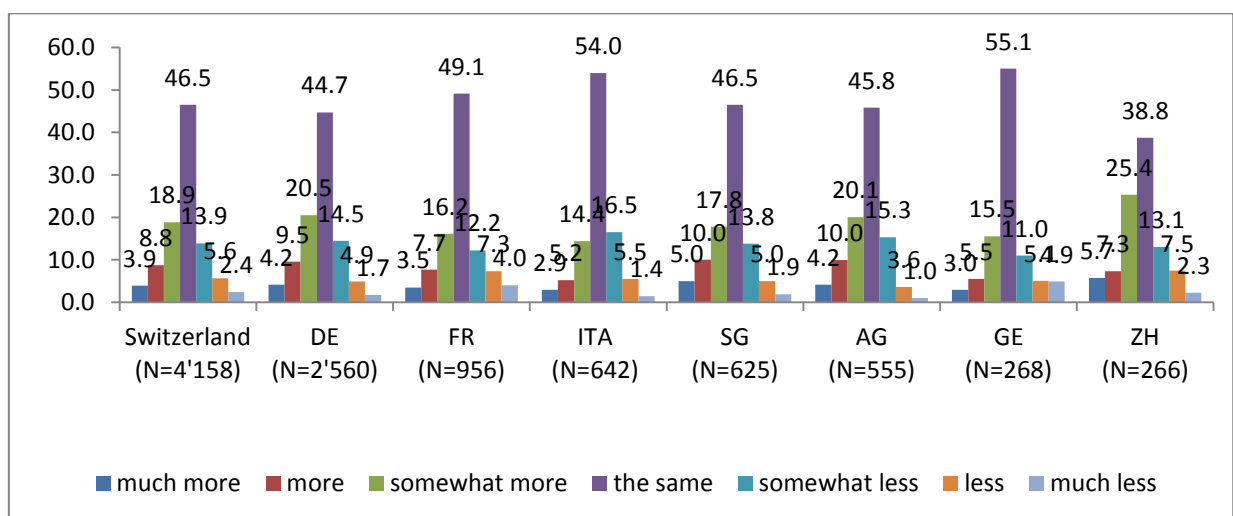
13 Weighted data

Figure 1.11 “How well-off is your family in comparison with others” by main and subsamples in %¹⁴.



By far the largest group among our respondents are those who say their family’s wellbeing to be about average. There are, in all regions, more students who say being better off than average families, than there are students who claim being worse off than other families.

Figure 1.12 “How much money do you have by your own”, in comparison with others in %¹⁵.



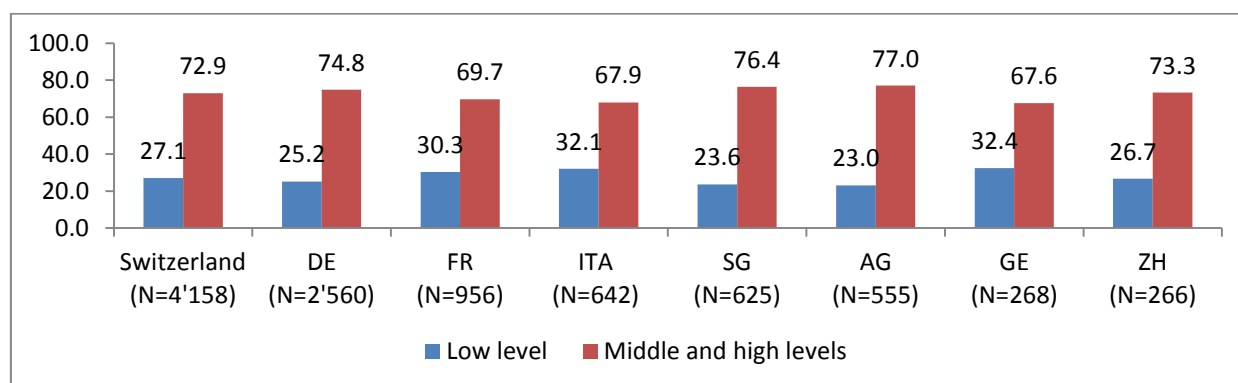
An additional question was about how much money juveniles have available for their own needs. The distribution is very similar to what came out in Figure 1.10 regarding the family’s economic situation. Also in this respect, roughly half of respondents rate themselves as average, while the overall distribution resembles very much a Gaussian curb in all regions.

14 Weighted data

15 Weighted data

In order to make these items more helpful for further analysis, an index has been constructed by collapsing, in dichotomized form, (1) the source of income of the family (unemployment or social welfare benefits vs. earnings, wages, or property of the parents); (2) the well-off of the family, compared to others (better/same vs. worse); (3) amount of respondent's personal money to spend (pocket money + presents + own earnings, etc.) in comparison with others (more/same & less). Respondents were rated as "middle or high levels" if (1) they get money from earnings, wages, property; (2) are better off or the same as other families; and (3) have more or the same amount as others to spend on personal needs.

Figure 1.13 Economic level in regions and selected cantons in %¹⁶.



As Figure 1.13 illustrates, between two thirds and three quarters of respondents rate themselves as middle or high levels.

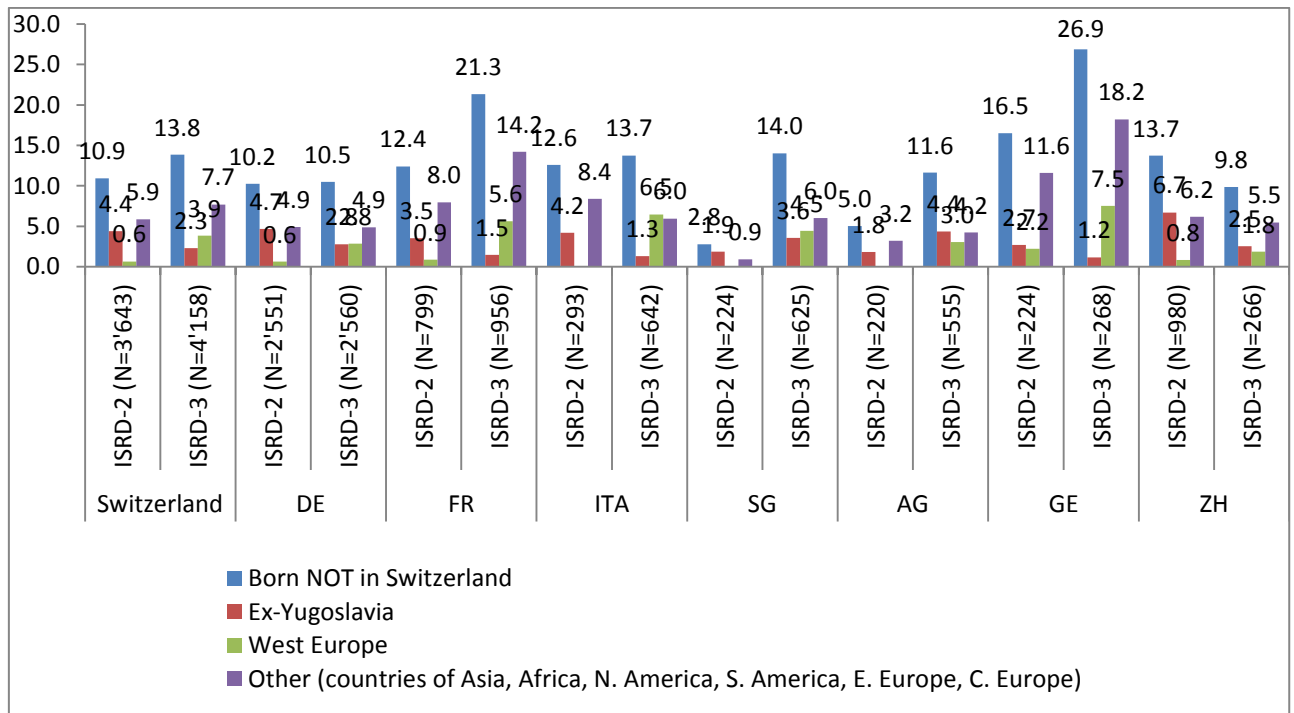
1.2.6 Changes between 2006 and 2013

Table 1.4 Age of respondents in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3.

	ISRD-2 (not weighted data)	ISRD-3 (weighted data)
12	3.2	6.1
13	20.3	26.1
14	33.0	31.2
15	30.1	25.6
16	11.7	9.6
17+	1.7	1.4

The age distribution is almost identical in 2006 and 2013. This underlines the fact that our sample is fairly representative for the student population in grades 7 to 9.

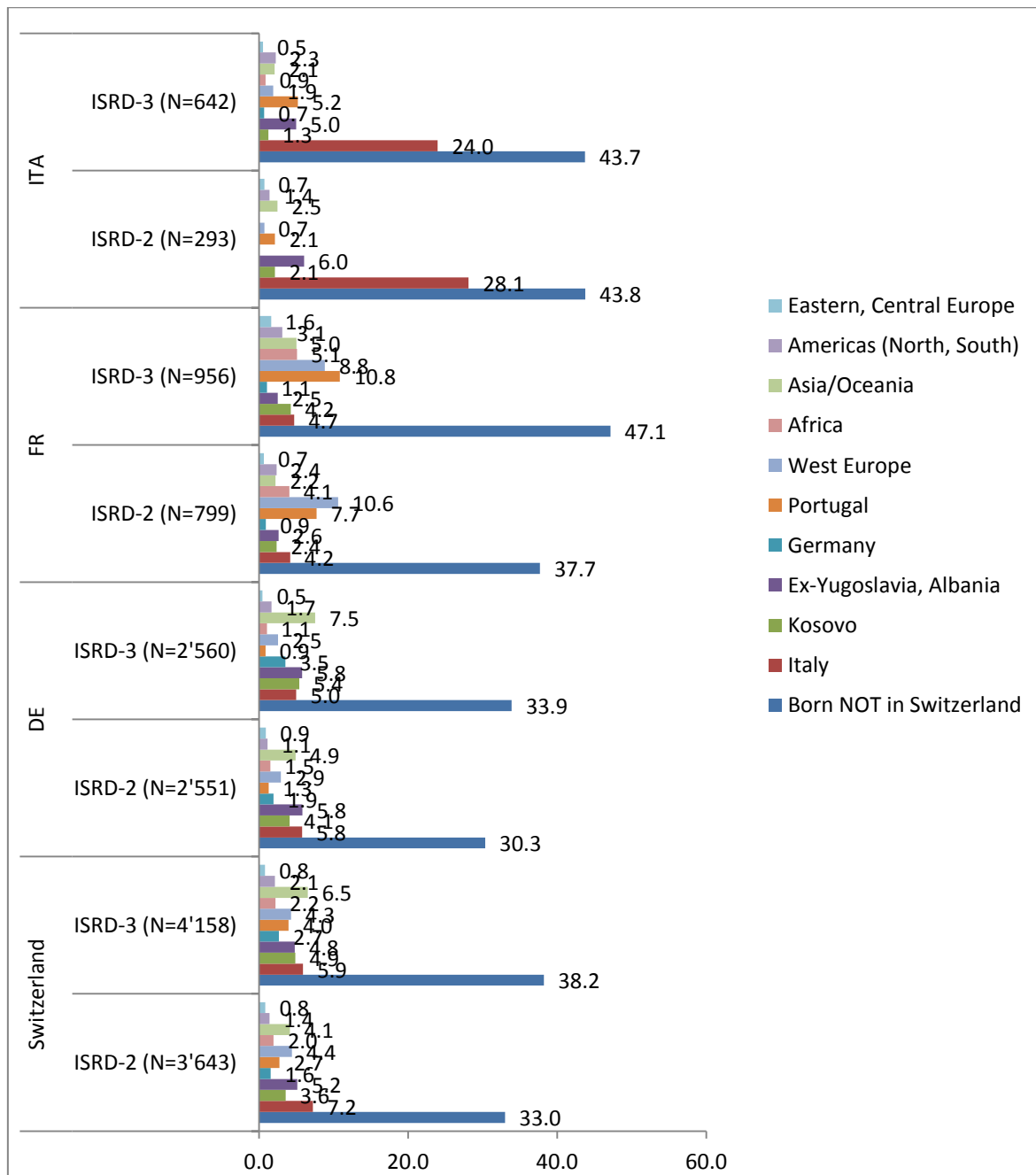
Figure 1.14 Respondents' birthplace by main and subsamples in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3¹⁷



As Figure 1.14 shows, the proportion of students born abroad has increased in Switzerland, particularly in French-speaking cantons. The percentage of students from former Yugoslavia has decreased. When we consider father's birthplace, the trend is similar between 2006 and 2013.

¹⁷ Weighted data (ISRD-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISRD-2, N=3643).

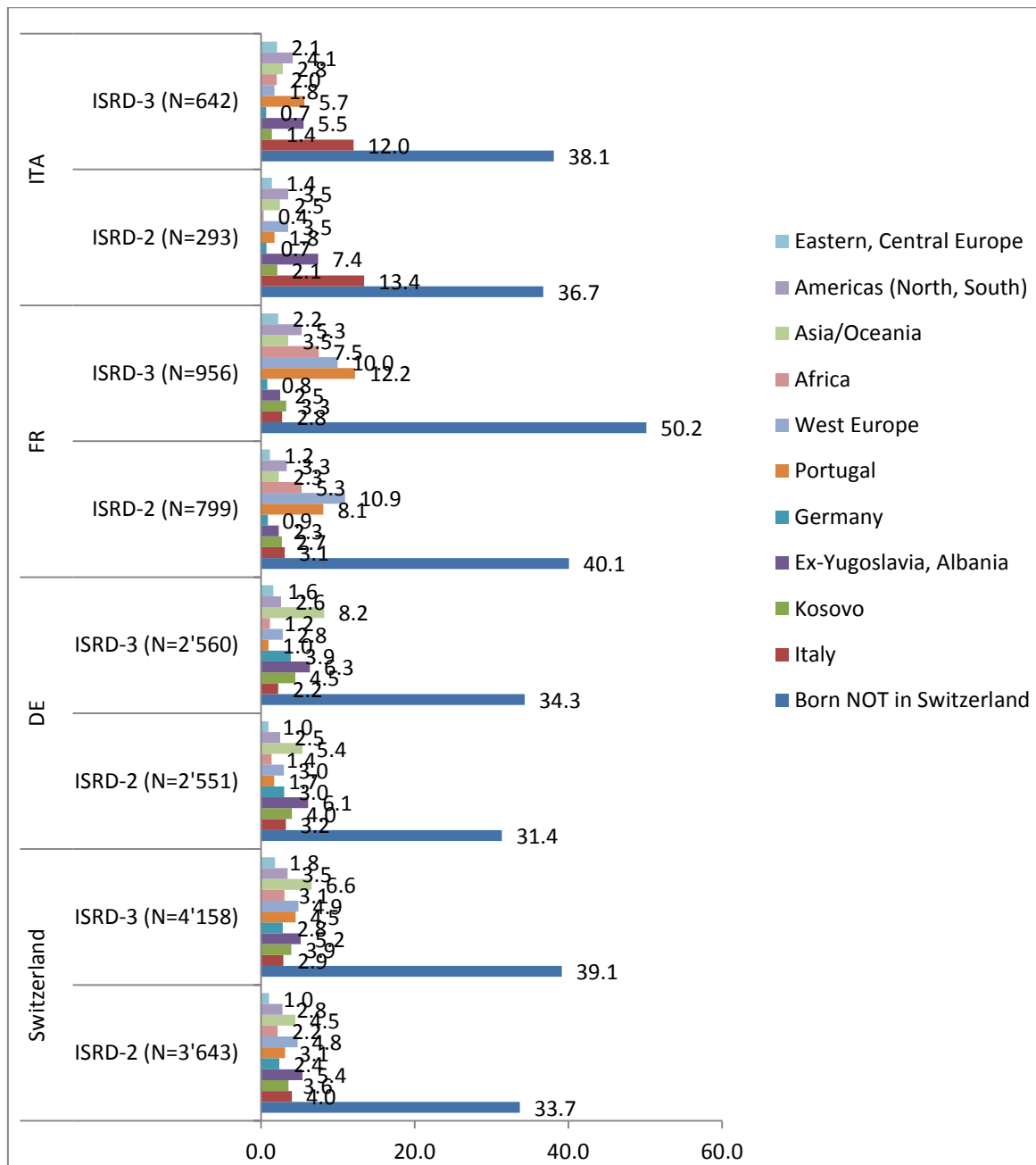
Figure 1.15 Fathers' birthplace by main and subsamples in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3¹⁸.



In general the proportion of respondents having fathers born abroad has increased from ISRD-2 to ISRD-3 in all regions. Some nationalities such as Italians have considerably decreased, whereas Yugoslavs have remained stable. No nationality seems to dominate. In other words, Switzerland's foreign population has increased overall and at the same time has become more diverse.

¹⁸ Weighted data (ISRD-2 and ISRD-3)

Figure 1.16 Mothers' birthplace by main and subsamples in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3¹⁹.

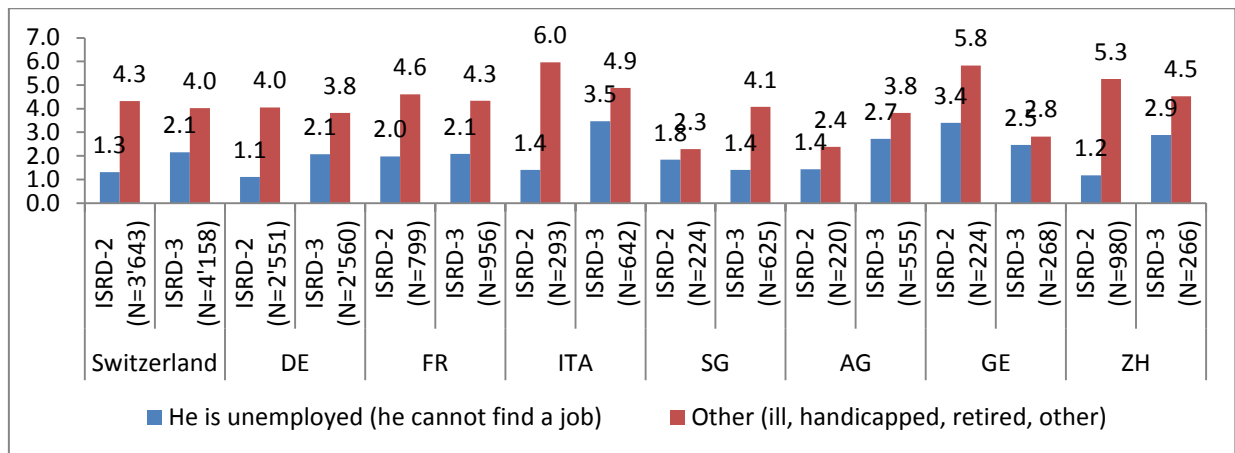


Compared to 2006, the proportion of respondents having a mother born abroad has increased. Again, there is no dominating group, Switzerland's immigrant population being fairly diverse.

Father's employment situation has remained unchanged since 2006. Both in 2006 and in 2013, over 90 per cent are (at least partially) employed.

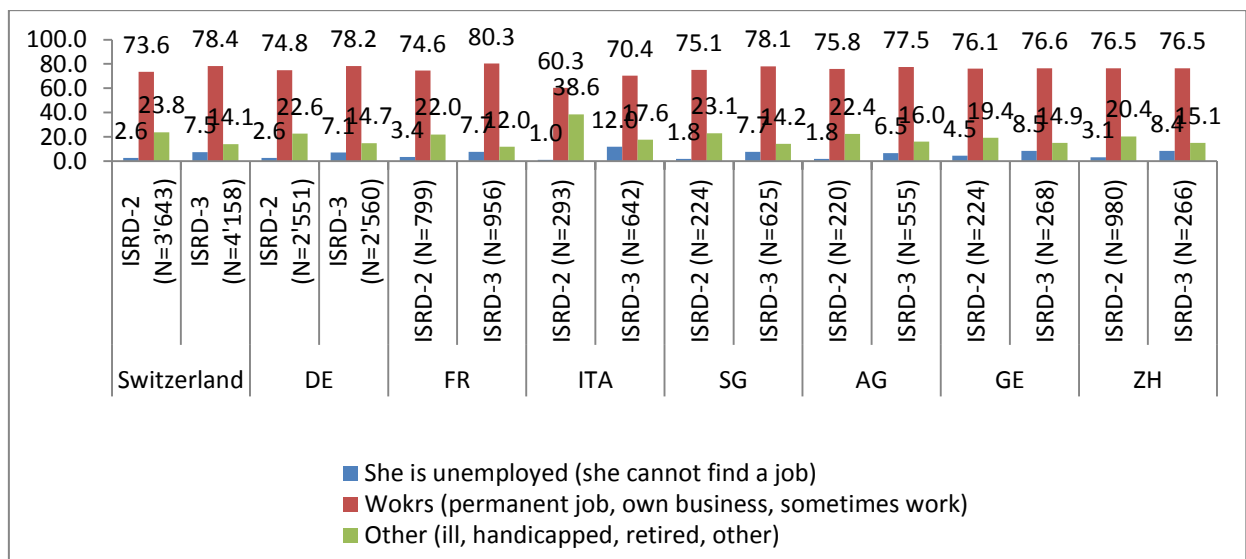
¹⁹ Weighted data (ISRD-2 and ISRD-3)

Figure 1.17 Percent fathers who are unemployed, in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3²⁰



Although the number of unemployed fathers has almost doubled between 2006 and 2013 (from 1.3 to 2.1 per cent in the national sample), the proportion of those who do not belong to the workforce (because of illness, handicaps etc.) has remained stable. With respect to mother's employment situation, no change between 2006 and 2013 can be observed, with the exception of a higher unemployment rate (that rose from 2.7 to 7.5 per cent).

Figure 1.18 Mothers' employment rate in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3²¹



As a result, the economic level (as defined above) has remained stable as well (not shown).

20 Weighted data (ISRD-2 and ISRD-3)

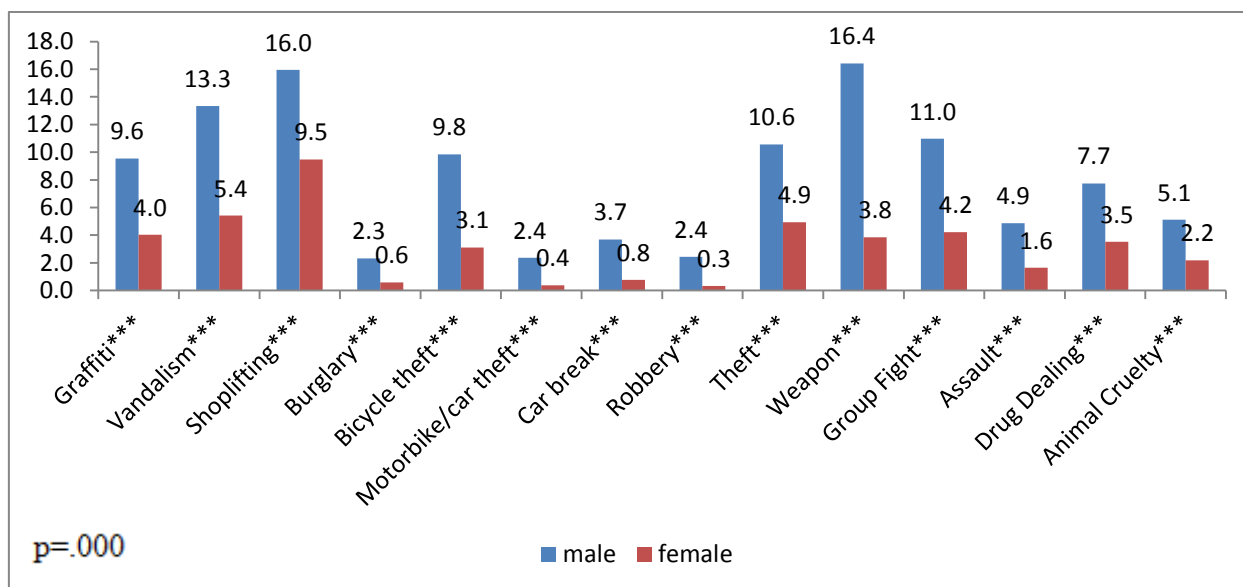
21 Weighted data (ISRD-2 and ISRD-3)

1.3 Association between social background and delinquency

1.3.1 Gender, age and delinquency

The Figure 1.19 and Table 1.4 illustrate the distribution of delinquency across gender and age.

Figure 1.19 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by gender in %,N=4051-4068²²



Boys are more likely to commit offences than girls. The difference is highest for serious and violent offences, and weakest for shoplifting.

Table 1.4 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by age in %, N=4040-4061²³

	Graffiti	Vandalism	Shoplifting	Burglary	Bicycle theft	Motorbike/car theft	Car break	Robbery	Theft	Weapon	Group Fight	Assault	Drug Dealing	Animal Cruelty
11-12	3.3	5.3	7.3	0.4	1.6	0.4	3.3	0.8	4.9	6.1	6.1	1.2	0.8	3.3
13	3.9	8.6	10.8	0.7	2.3	0.2	1.3	0.7	6.6	6.6	5.7	1.6	1.4	3.6
14	5.6	7.5	10.4	0.6	4.1	0.7	1.4	0.7	7.0	8.8	5.0	2.4	4.7	3.7
15	9.5	11.0	16.2	2.1	11.5	2.8	2.9	2.0	9.1	13.1	9.6	4.6	8.3	3.4
16	11.6	14.5	17.8	3.9	13.4	2.3	3.9	2.8	9.3	16.4	15.0	6.5	13.2	3.4
17-19	7.8	10.0	16.0	2.0	5.9	3.9	2.0	0.0	16.0	10.2	8.0	0.0	14.0	0.0
p=	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.005	.001	.013	.000	.000	.000	.000	.840

22 Weighted data

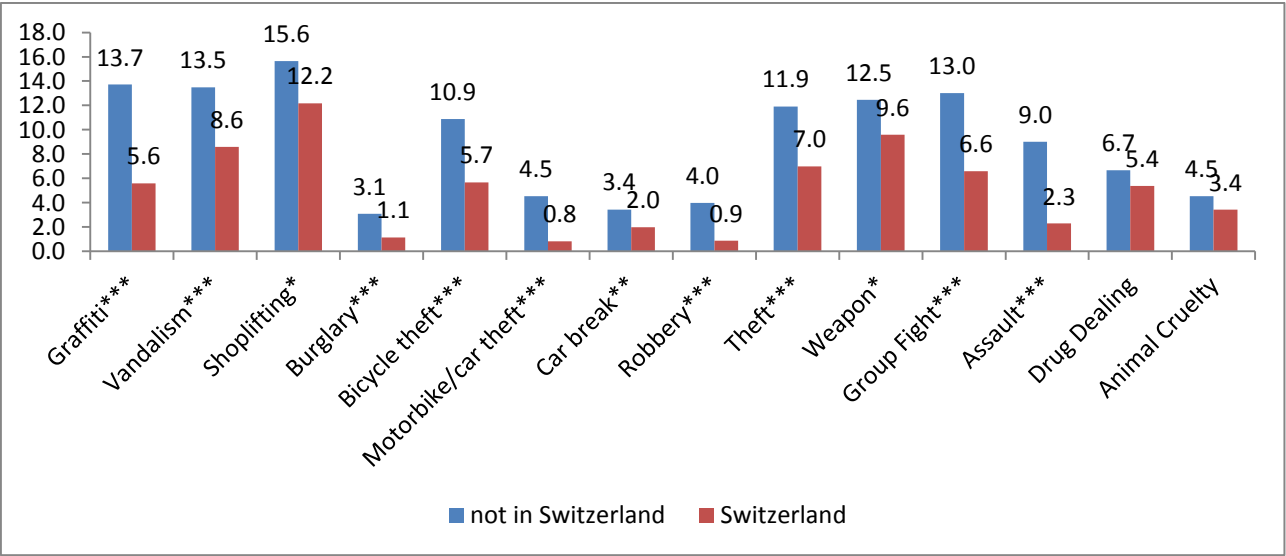
23 Weighted data

Respondents older than 14 are more likely to commit offences, the maximum being reached at age 16. The group of 17 and older students is, beyond its small size, characterized by an unconventional school career and, thus, not necessarily comparable to younger students. The differences across age are significant for most offences.

1.3.2 Birthplace and delinquency

Delinquency rates by birthplace (immigrant) background can be seen in the following Figures.

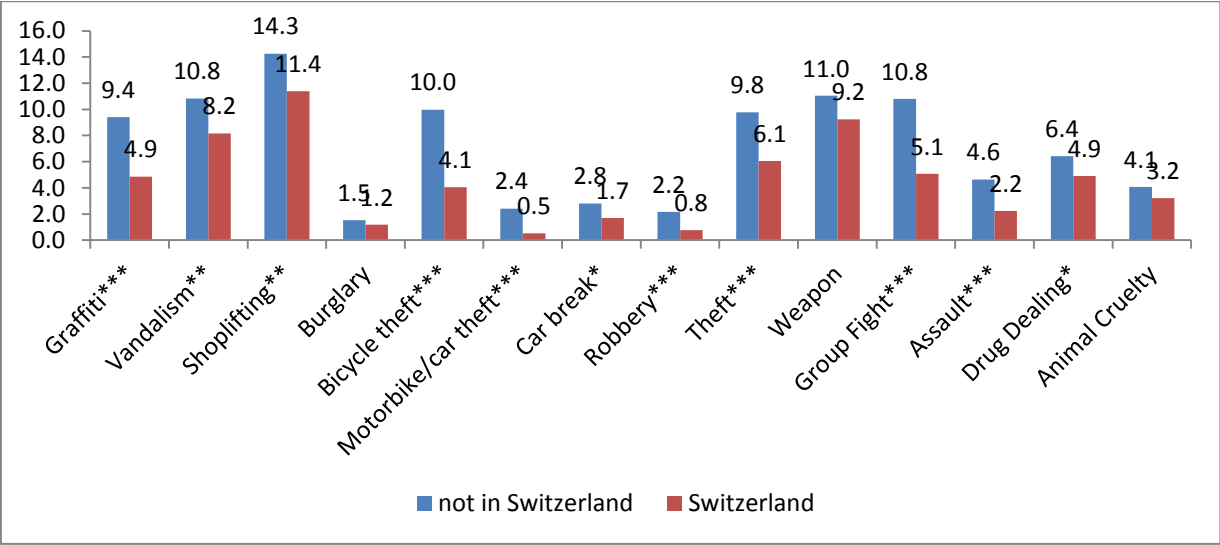
Figure 1.20 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by respondents' birthplace (dichotomized) in %, N=4048-4064²⁴



Respondents born abroad are more likely to commit offences. The difference is, although significant for most offences, not all too large when compared to other variables considered in this report. Drug dealing and shoplifting are two examples where youths born abroad do not differ significantly from juveniles who were born in Switzerland.

24 Weighted data

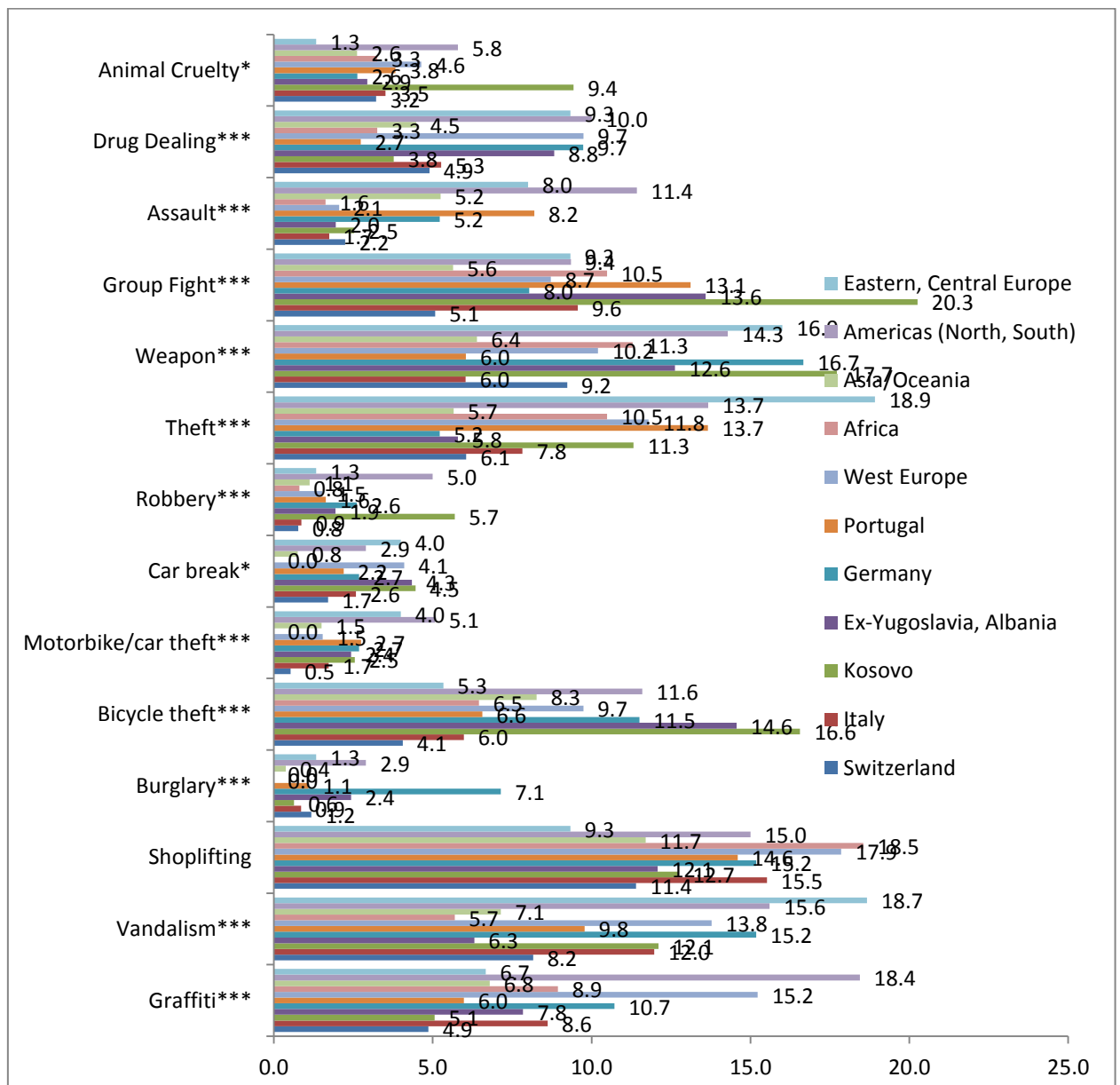
Figure 1.21 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by mothers' birthplace in %, N=4023-4041²⁵



Respondents whose mothers were born abroad report more offences than those, whose mothers were born in this country.

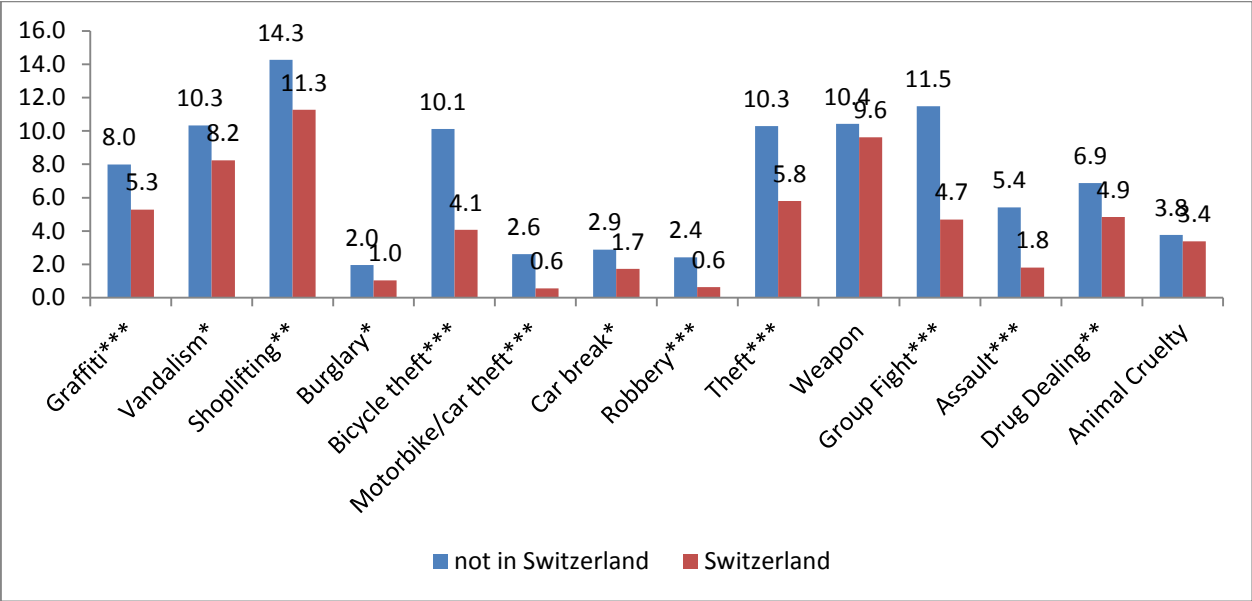
25 Weighted data

Figure 1.22 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by mothers' birthplace in % (detailed), N=4023-4041 ²⁶



If respondents with mothers born abroad commit more offences overall, Figure 1.22 shows that there is considerable variation across countries of origin.

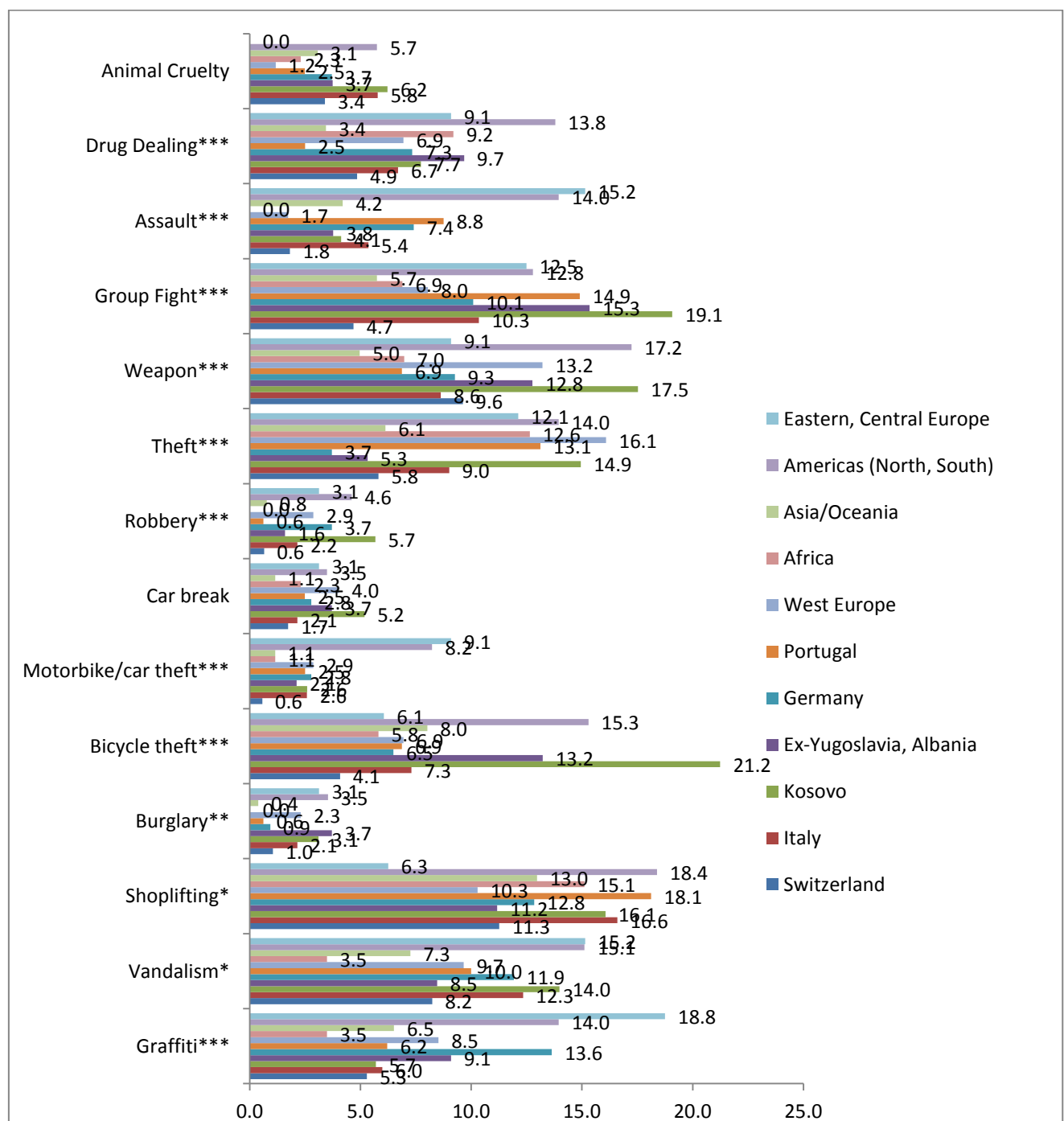
Figure 1.23 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by fathers' birthplace in %, N=3990-4005²⁷



Students, whose fathers were born not in Switzerland, report more offences. The differences are generally larger than according to mothers' birthplace. Again, the difference varies a lot across countries of origin (Figure 1.24).

²⁷ Weighted data

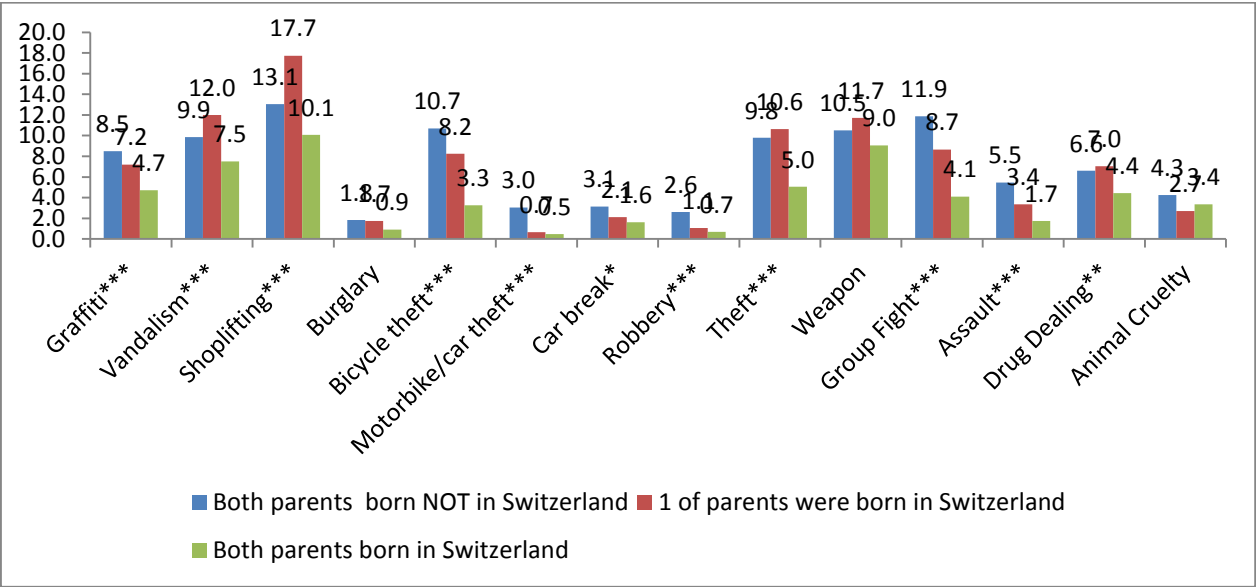
Figure 1.24 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by fathers' birthplace in % (detailed),N=3990-4005 ²⁸



Respondents with fathers born in Switzerland do not have the lowest rates of delinquency throughout all offences. For example, vandalism, shoplifting, carrying weapons, drug dealing and animal cruelty are cases where juveniles born in Switzerland have fairly high rates. In general,

however, father’s origin seems to be more important than respondents’ and mother’s country of birth. In the following Figure, we have combined the information on parental origin.

Figure 1.25 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by parents’ birthplace in %, N=3972-3991 ²⁹

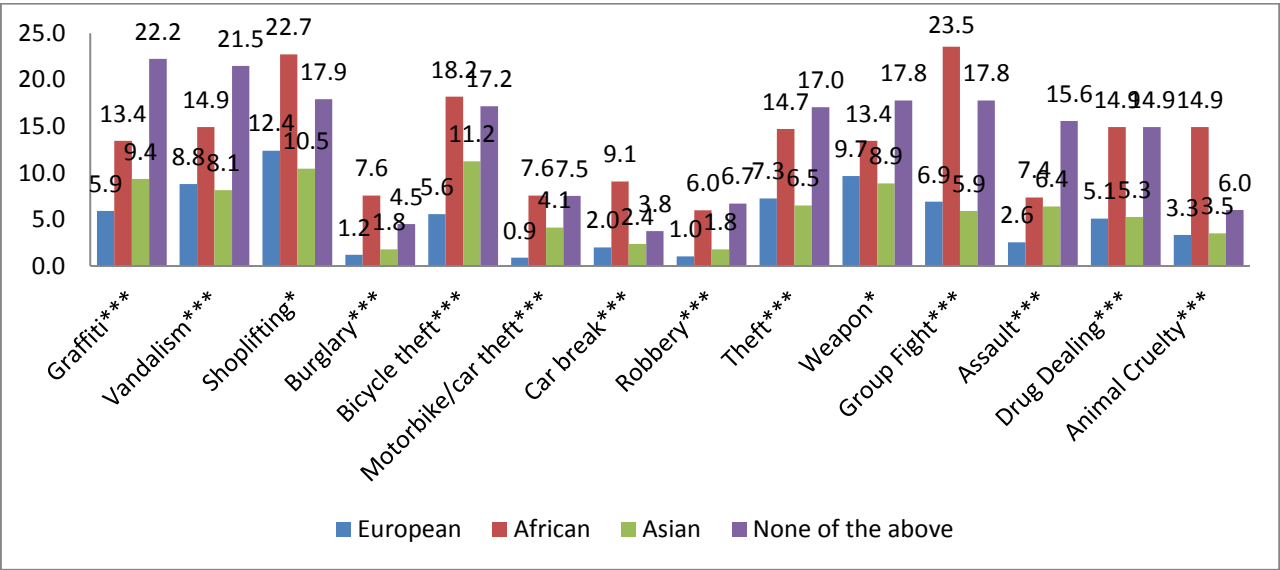


Respondents with parent(s) of foreign origin are more likely to commit an offence than their peers with both parents born in this country. Interestingly, respondents with only one parent born abroadtend to have the highest rates of shoplifting and drug dealing.

Given the international character of ISRD-3, it was necessary to assess ethnicity also by a question regarding racial characteristics. The following Figure shows the association and delinquency.

29 Weighted data

Figure 1.26 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by social groups, minorities in %, N=4043-4064³⁰



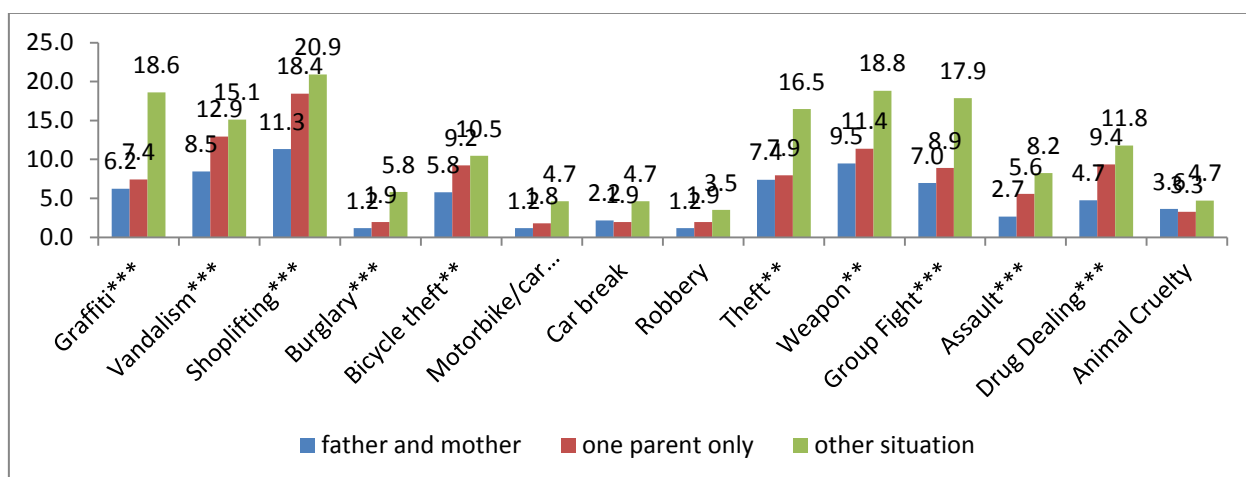
Students who indicated being Africans report higher delinquency rates than their European and Asian peers.

³⁰ Weighted data

1.3.3 Family constellation and delinquency

The following Figure illustrates the importance of the family background. The question in the instrument was, once more, not about formal settings, but about by whom the respondent actually has been brought up.

Figure 1.27 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Who brought you up?” in %, N=4052-4068³¹



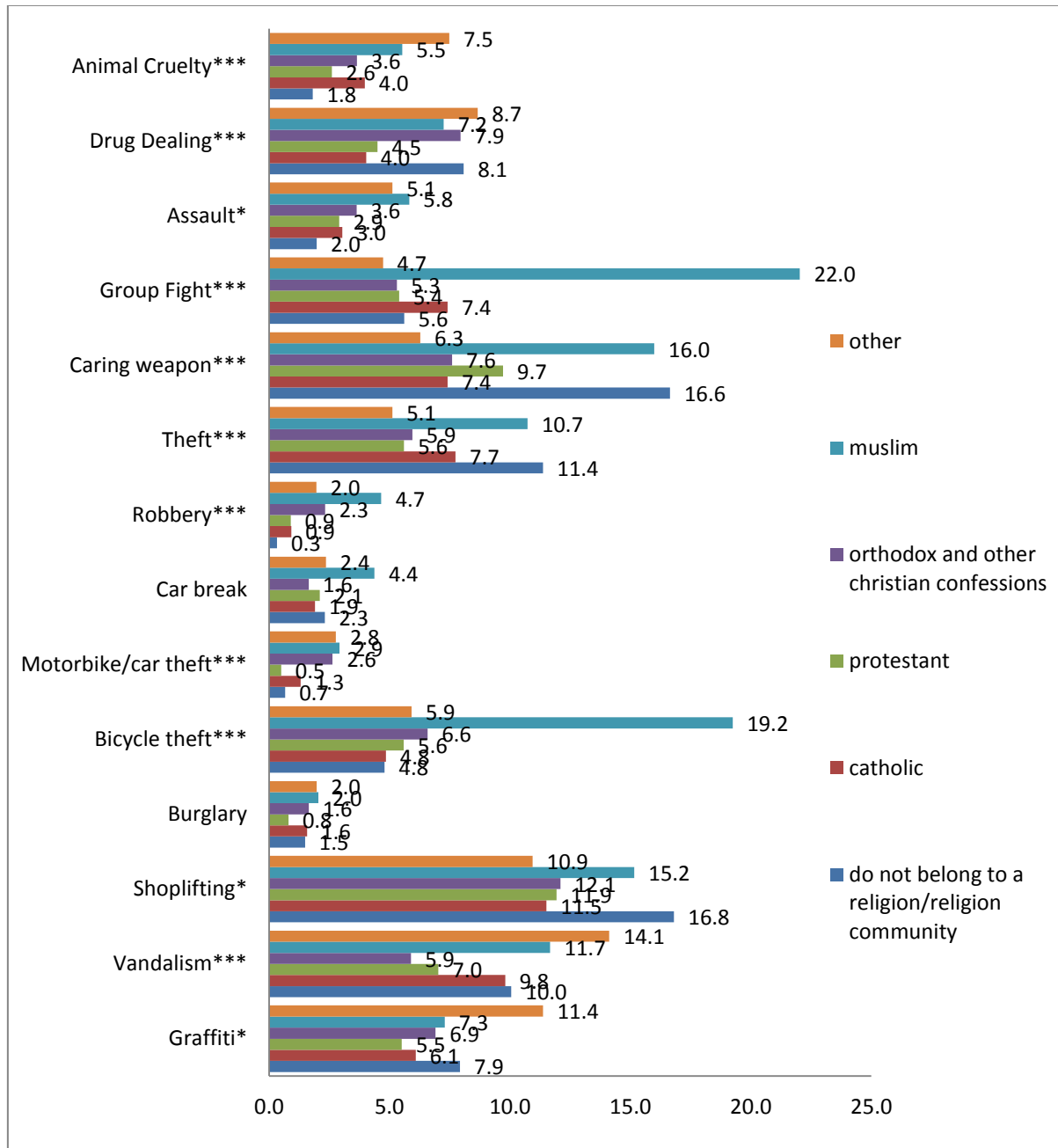
The findings shown in Figure 1.27 confirm the importance of being brought up by two parents, either natural or stepparents. Children from single-parent households have slightly higher delinquency rates. More problematic are respondents brought up in other settings.

31 Weighted data

1.3.4 Religion and delinquency

The following two Figures show delinquency rates by religious affiliation, and by the importance religion plays in respondents' every-day life.

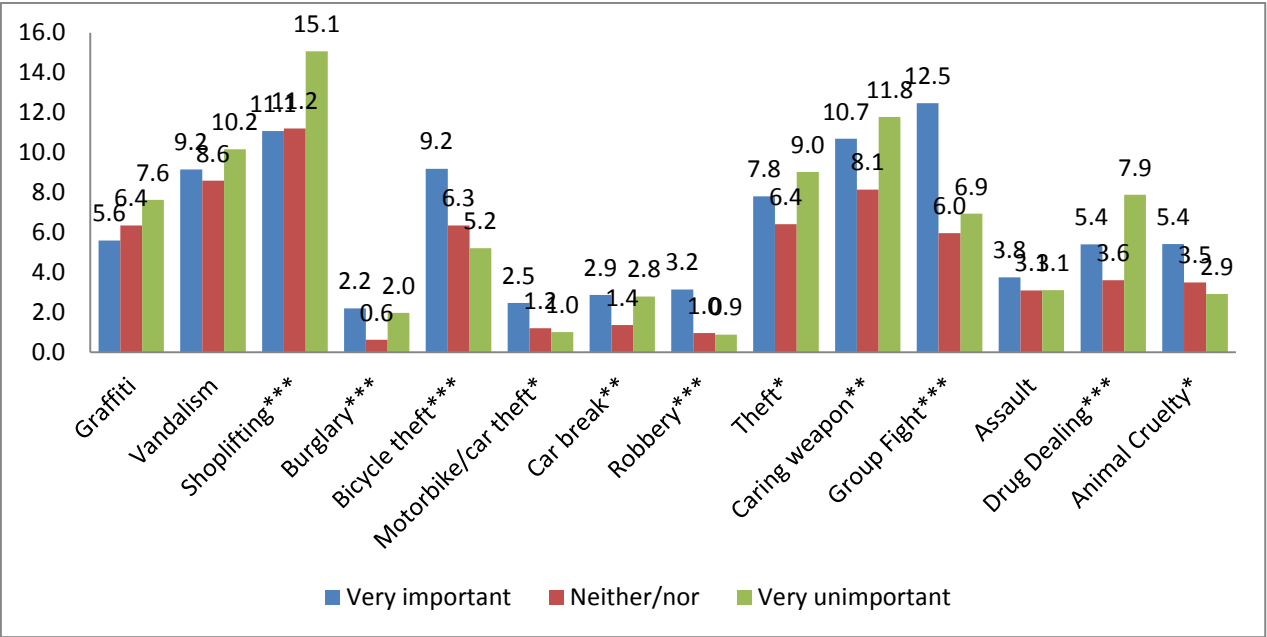
Figure 1.28 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by religious affiliation in %, N=4021-4040 ³²



32 Weighted data

Students who indicate Islam or religions of Asia or Africa as their affiliation have rather higher delinquency rates. The same is true, for some offences, also for respondents who say not to belong to any religion. In some offences, Orthodox students are also more delinquent. Catholics and Protestants generally have the lowest delinquency rates. This result obviously can be attributed to integration, since both Protestants and Catholics are likely from Swiss background.

Figure 1.29 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by importance of religion in %, N=4036-4052³³



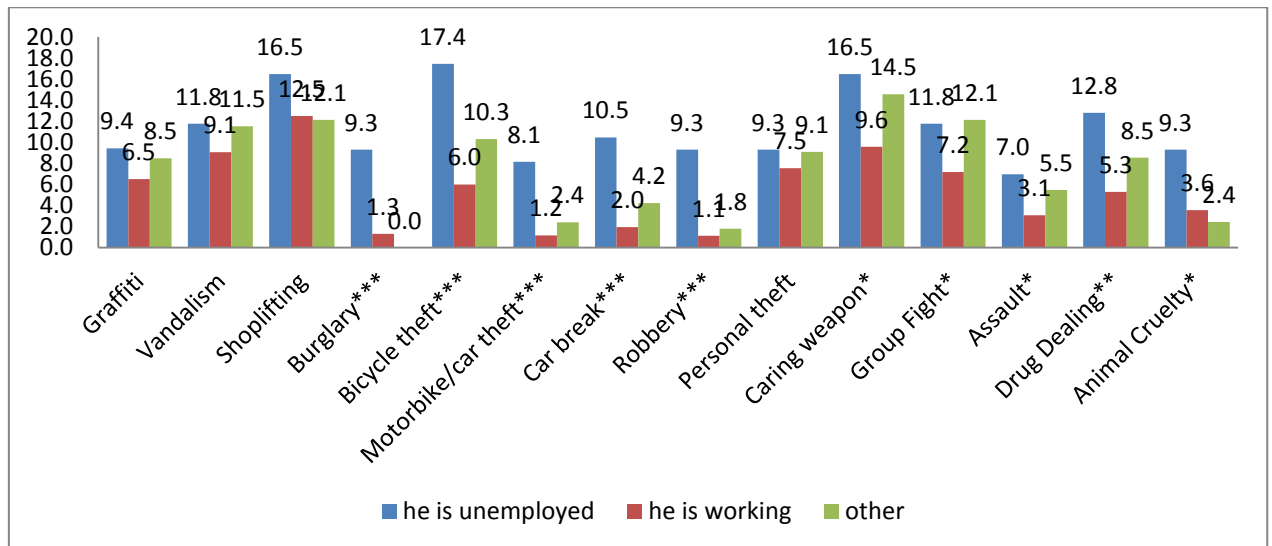
Most offences are reported by students for whom religion is either very important or not important at all. This apparently paradoxical result could be related to the various attitudes of the several religions to stealing and violence.

33 Weighted data

1.3.5 Economic status and delinquency

The following Figures illustrate the importance of several indicators of social and economic conditions of the respondents' families.

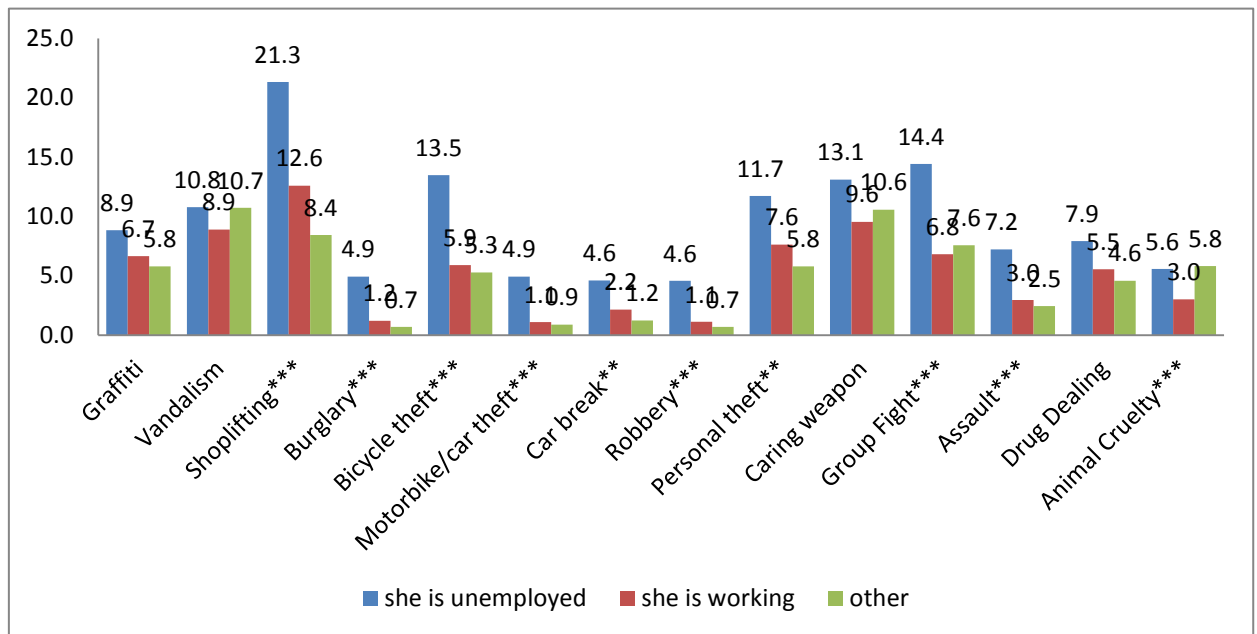
Figure 1.30 Fathers' employment status in %, N=4024-4041 ³⁴



Students, whose fathers work permanently, have lower rates of delinquency. The highest delinquency rates can be found among respondents whose father is unemployed. This could point to the importance of economic strain, but might be also seen as an outcome related to other social problems. In a country with very low unemployment rates, persons not belonging to the workforce are likely to be confronted with other social problems, too. Similar results can be found for mother's employment status.

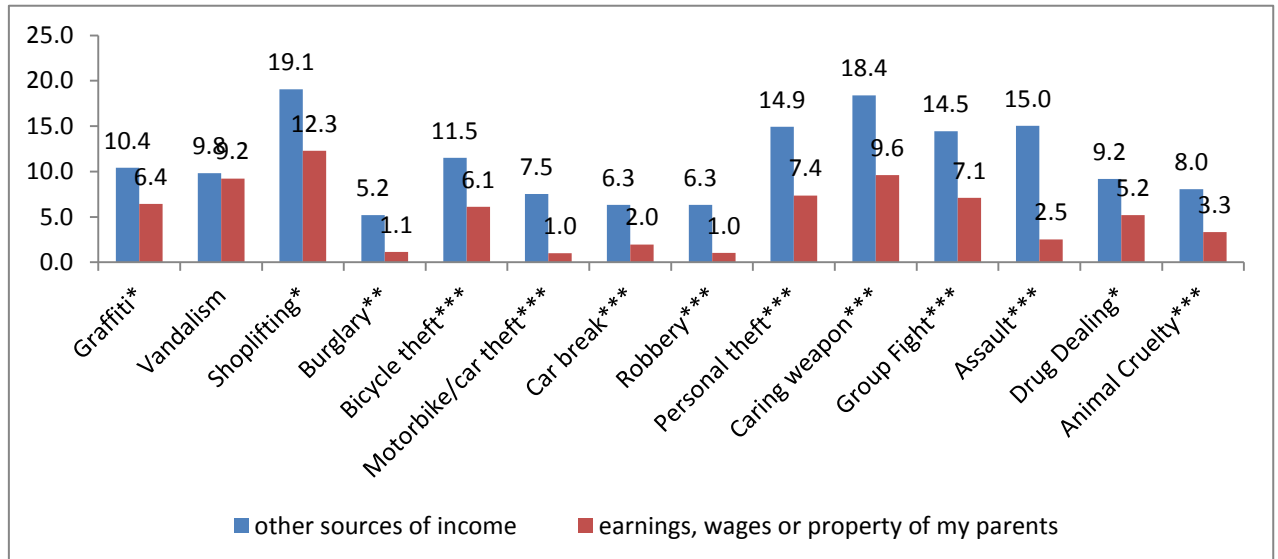
³⁴ Weighted data

Figure 1.31 Mothers' employment status in %, N=4042-4062³⁵



Students are more likely to commit an offence if their mothers are unemployed and cannot find a job. However, if mothers do not work for other reasons, the effect is quite different from what has been observed for the father (Figure 1.30).

Figure 1.32 Source of income of the family in %, N=4016-4034³⁶

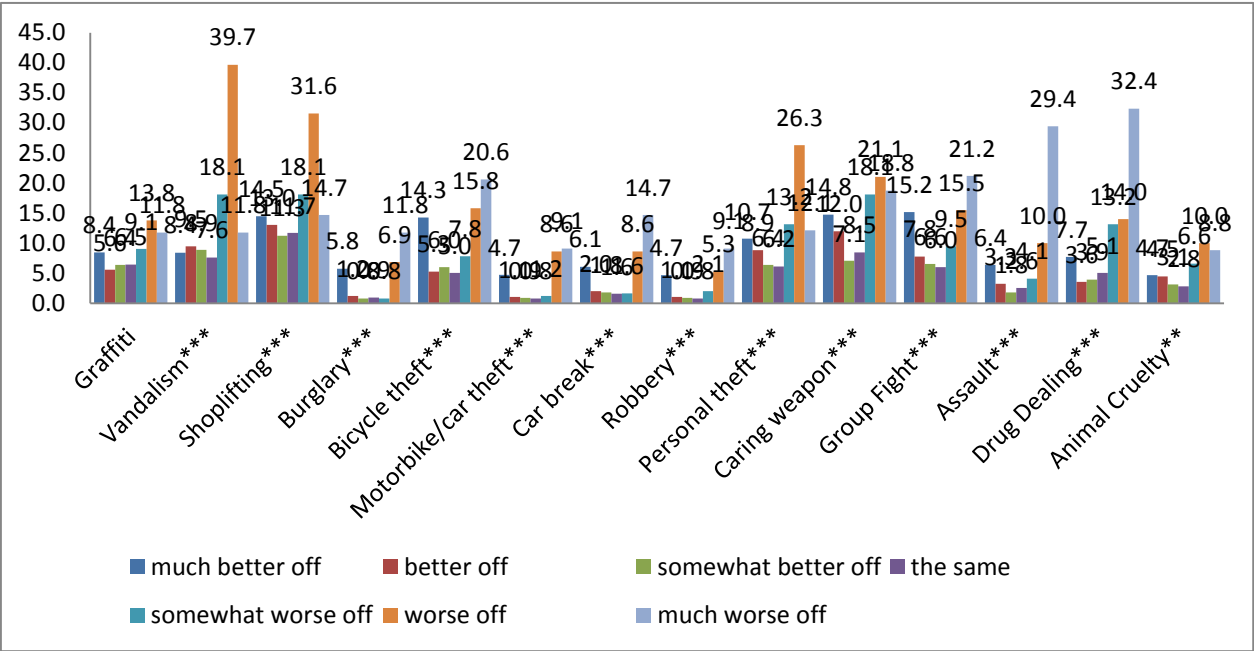


35 Weighted data

36 Weighted data

The role of social problems other than just economic strain due to unemployment is underlined by Figure 1.33. Indeed, respondents from families who receive their income mainly through sources other than earnings or wages have considerably higher delinquency rates.

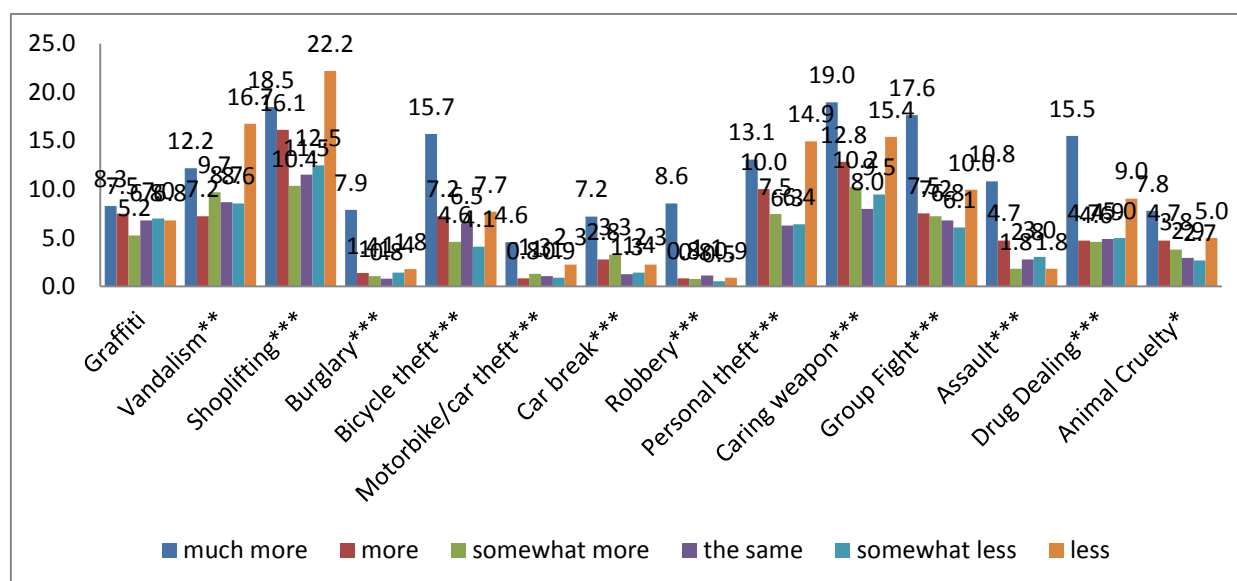
Figure 1.33 “How well-off is your family compared to others” and delinquency in %, N=4026-4041³⁷



Students who say their family is worse and much worse off than other families have the highest delinquency rates in general and with regard to the most serious offences in particular. Interestingly, the difference is striking only for the extreme category (“much worse”), not really for those who describe their family’s economic situation as just “worse” or “some worse”. It may well be that the “much worse” category is characterized by many other social problems as well. The relatively moderate importance of economic strain as such is further underlined by the often also higher delinquency rates among those who say their family is “much better off”.

37 Weighted data

Figure 1.34 Own money to spend in comparison with others in %, N=4026-4041³⁸



The findings presented in Figure 1.35 illustrate this further. Also when respondents are asked about own money they have at their disposal, it is not so much the perceived inequality with respect to others but probably the extreme situation that is associated with higher delinquency rates. The question, again, is whether it is lack of money or the co-occurrence of many related social problems that lead to delinquency.

1.4 Comparison between ISRD-2 and ISRD-3

1.4.1 Trends in delinquency

Trends in delinquency over all three ISRD sweeps (1992, 2006 and 2013) are presented in Chapter 7 (Figure 7.2). Similar trends can be seen with regard to victimization (increase from ISRD-2 to ISRD-3, Table 4.2). In this Chapter, we are looking whether the association with some of the independent variables considered in the preceding sections has changed.

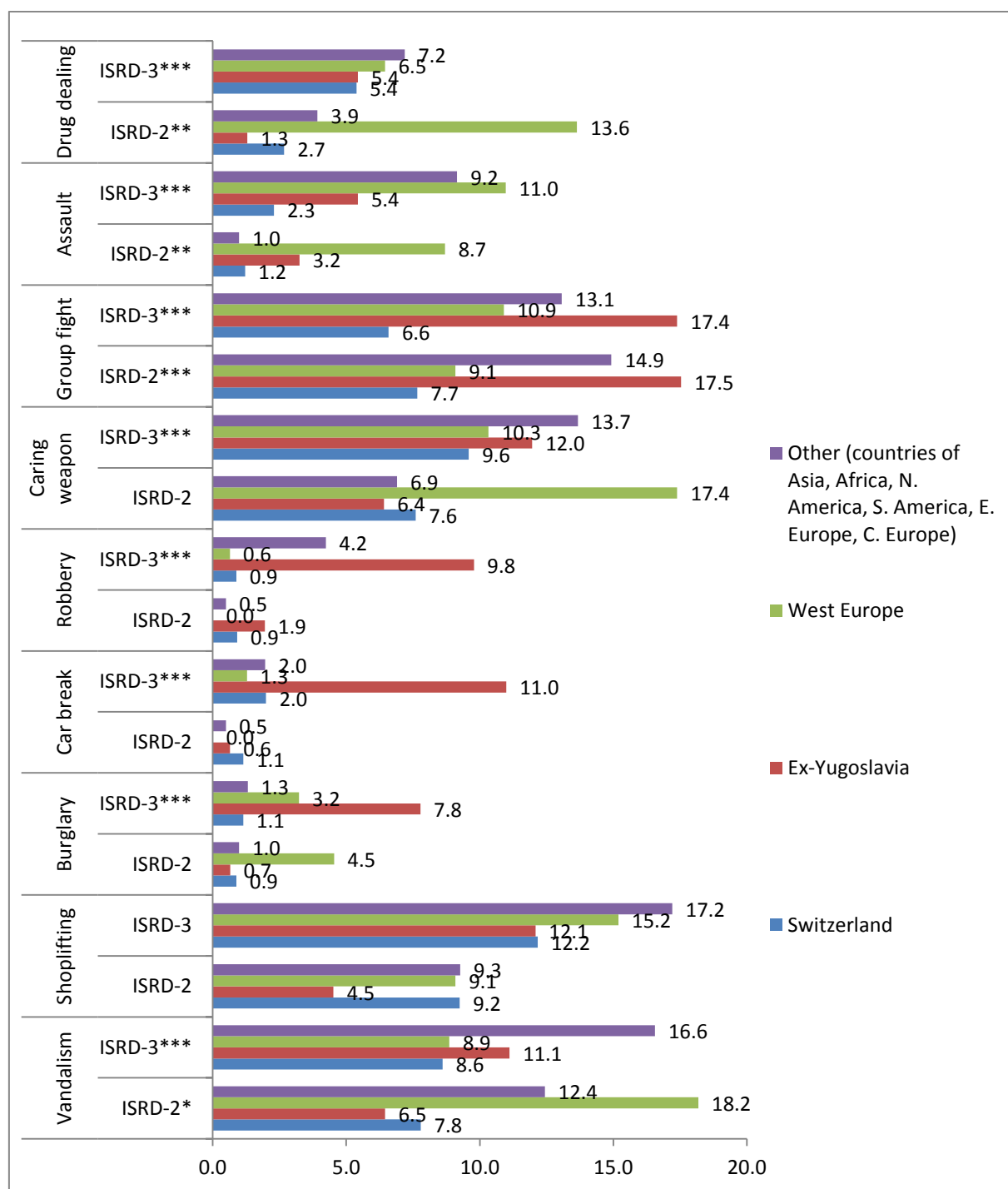
1.4.2 Demographic characteristics and delinquency

As data not shown suggest, delinquency has, since 2006, increased in about even proportions among girls and boys. The same is true for the several age brackets (not shown). Delinquency has in both sweeps been concentrated among those aged 15 and above, and this gap has become slightly more pronounced in 2013.

³⁸ Weighted data

With respect to birthplace, we consider here the association between delinquency and country of birth of the respondents (Figure 1.36).

Figure 1.35 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by respondents' birthplace in % for 2006 and 2013³⁹



³⁹ISRD-2 – not weighted data, N= 3648; ISRD-3 - weighted data, N=4158

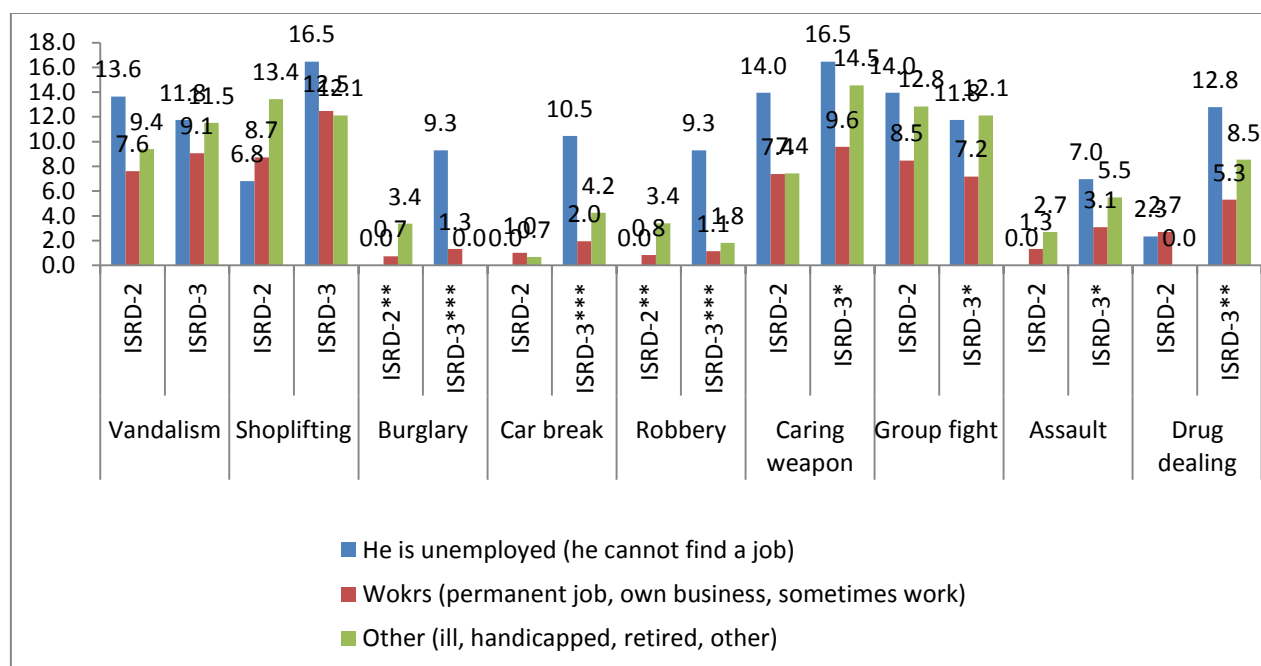
Delinquency increased, over the last seven years, mostly among juveniles born in Ex-Yugoslavia and in a residual category of “other” countries. However, it increased also among respondents born in Switzerland. The only group with a clearly different trend are juveniles from other Western European countries whose delinquency rate decreased for most offences.

Parents’ countries of birth are similarly associated with delinquency in 2006 and in 2013. This holds true for fathers’ as well as for mothers’ origin (data not shown).

1.4.3 Economic status and delinquency in 2006 vs. 2013

Parental unemployment has been shown to be significantly associated with delinquency (Figures 1.18 and 1.19). The following Figure suggests that this association may have become even stronger in 2013. Eventually, unemployment goes more along with personal and social problems today than a few years ago.

Figure 1.36 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by fathers’ employment in % for 2006 and 2013,⁴⁰

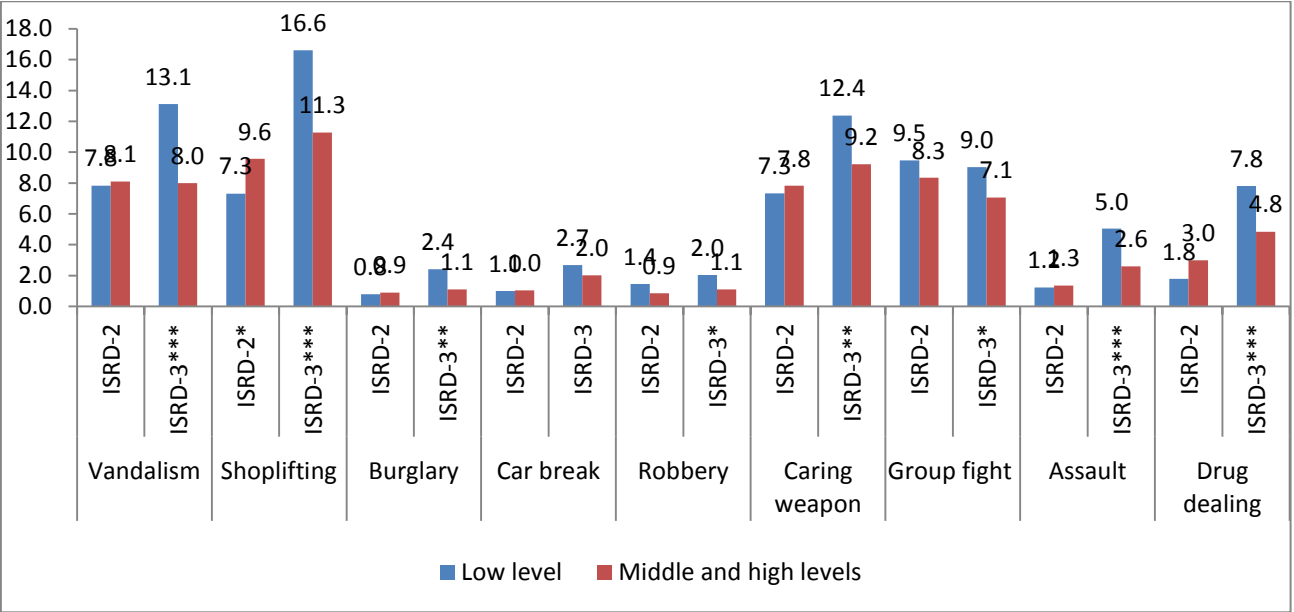


Students whose fathers are unemployed or who do not work for other reasons are more likely to commit an offence (both in 2006 and in 2013). However, this association became more significant in 2013. For mother’s unemployment, the association is not as strong and the increase is less consistent since 2006 (data not shown). It could be that unemployment of fathers and mothers has different social meanings and that it is differentially associated with personal or social problems.

⁴⁰Weighted data (ISR2, N=3648 and ISR3, N=4158)

In this context, it is interesting to see that, according to Figure 1.37, the relationship between economic well-being and delinquency of respondents is not as straightforward as one might suspect. Although delinquency increased more, from 2006 to 2013, among those whose families are less well off, the difference is not consistent for all offences nor is it systematically strong.

Figure 1.37 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by economic level in % for 2006 and 2013⁴¹



This underlines, once more, the possibility that the association between parental unemployment and delinquency is indeed mediated by higher exposure to social and/or personal problems.

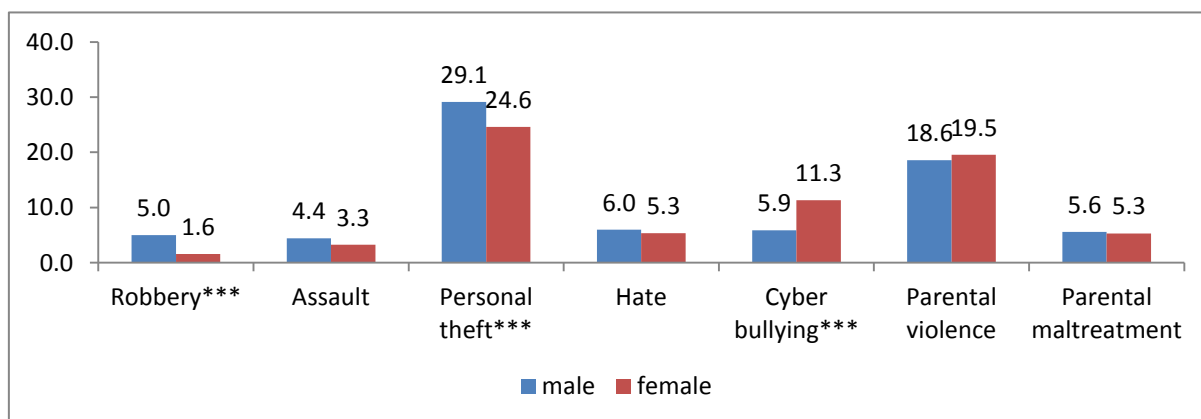
41ISRD-2 – not weighted data, N= 3648; ISRD-3 - weighted data, N=4158 (4006-4021)

1.5 Victimization and demographic background

1.5.1 Gender and age

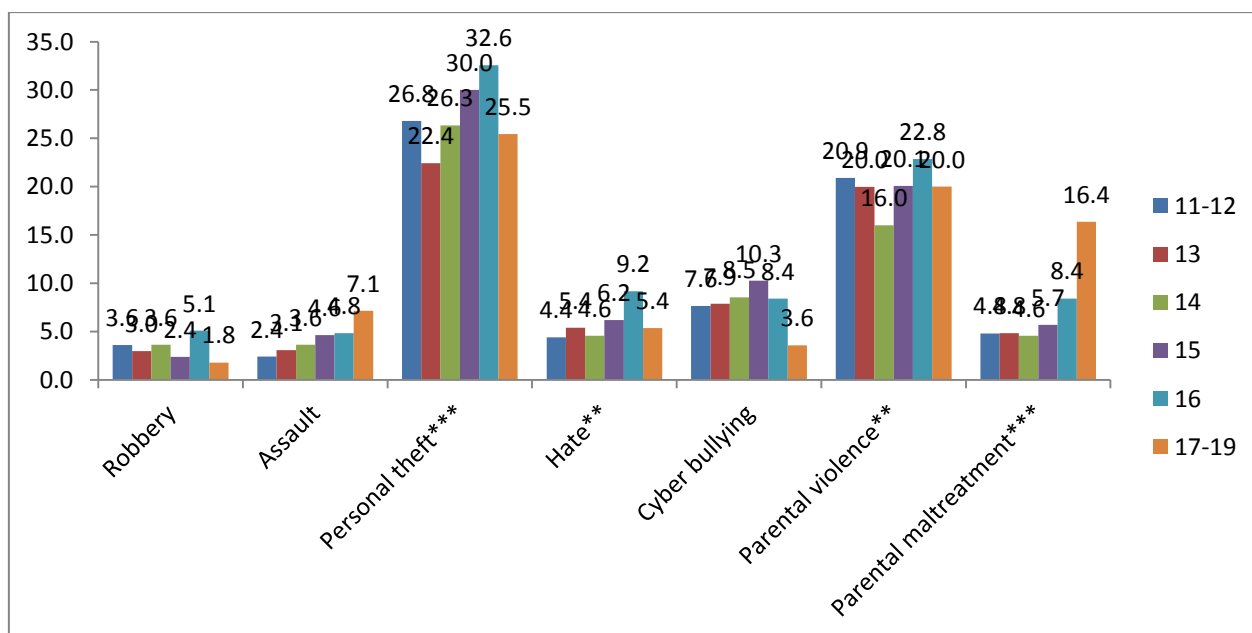
The ISRD is not simply a survey of self-reported delinquency, but also a victimization survey. The following Figures show how victimization relates to gender and age.

Figure 1.38 Victimization (last year prevalence) by gender in %, N=4120-4136⁴²



Males are more often victims of delinquency than females whenever violence and aggression are involved, such as in robbery and assault. They are also more often victims of theft and hate crimes, probably because of their greater presence in urban night-life. Girls, in turn, become more often victims of cyber bullying and parental assault.

Figure 1.39 Victimization (last year prevalence) by age in %, N=4111-4125⁴³



42 Weighted data

43 Weighted data

Respondents become victims of all offences at all ages, except robbery and hate crimes that are more often experienced at age 16 or older. Also victims of parental assault are more often young men of 16 or 17. These situations may be related to domestic conflict where older adolescents are relatively often involved – as victims, but quite often also as offenders.⁴⁴

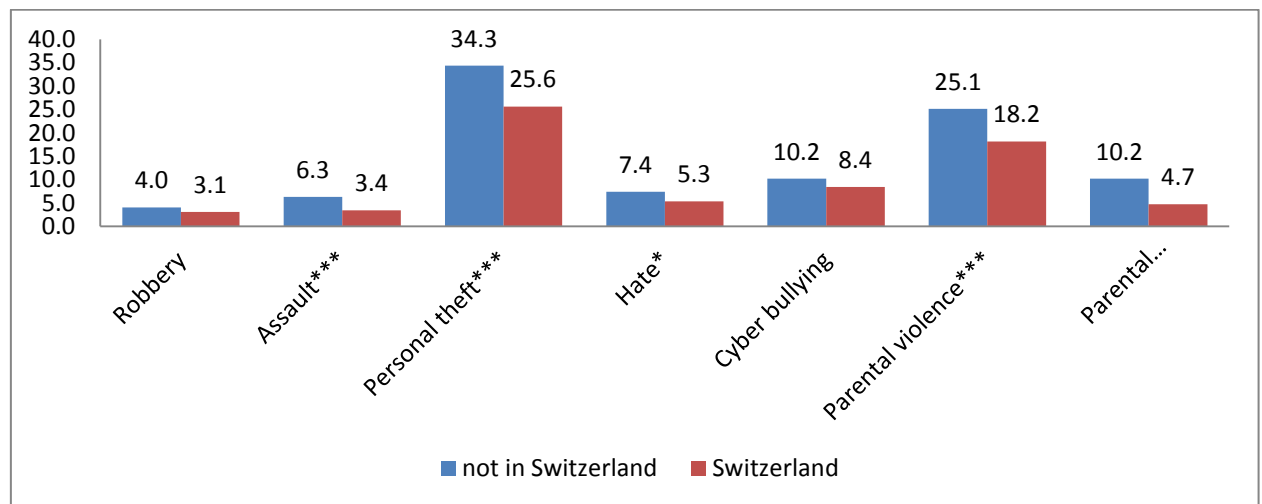
The findings in Figure 1.39 are challenging. In ISRD-2, it has often been observed that delinquency rates in Eastern and Asian countries are extremely low, whereas victimization rates were not. The favorite explanation had been that these juveniles may feel more inhibited to report offences they actually had committed, than experiences as victims. Although this possibility certainly has to be considered, it might also be that juveniles of younger ages often experience victimizations from older peers. The results presented in Figure 1390 offer some support to this hypothesis. Indeed, it is not very plausible why our respondents were so much inhibited to self-report offences, and the idea that they were actually victims of somewhat older juveniles is certainly appealing. We shall look into that when we analyze the detailed circumstances of experienced offences, since gender, age and a few more characteristics of the assailant have also been recorded in the questionnaire.

⁴⁴ See the survey on domestic violence in the Canton of Geneva, conducted in 2012-13 by our team.

1.5.2 Birthplace and victimization

As mentioned above, foreign origin has been measured by recording the country of birth of respondents and their parents. In connection with delinquency, we have seen that the fact of having been born abroad, or of having foreign-born parents, is associated with higher rates of delinquency (Figures 1.21-1.26). In this section, we shall look at victimization by having been born abroad.

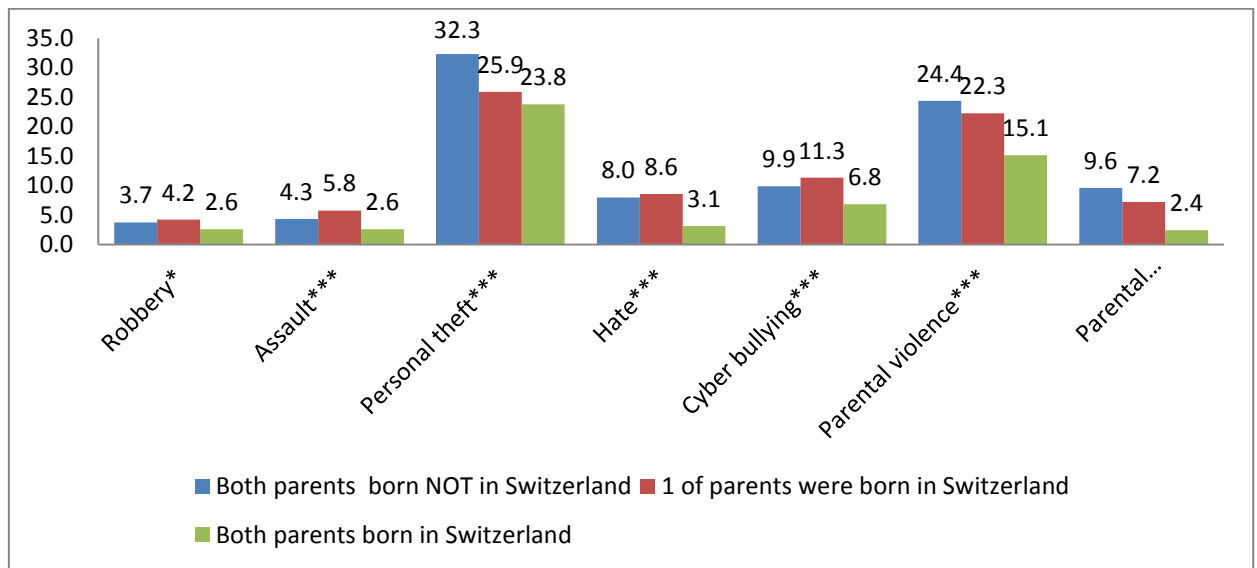
Figure 1.40 Victimization (last year prevalence) by respondent's birthplace in %, N=4118-4132⁴⁵



Although respondents born abroad are more likely to become victims of delinquency, the differences are less pronounced than in Figure 1.21. The same is true when parents' county of birth is considered (Figure 1.42).

⁴⁵ Weighted data

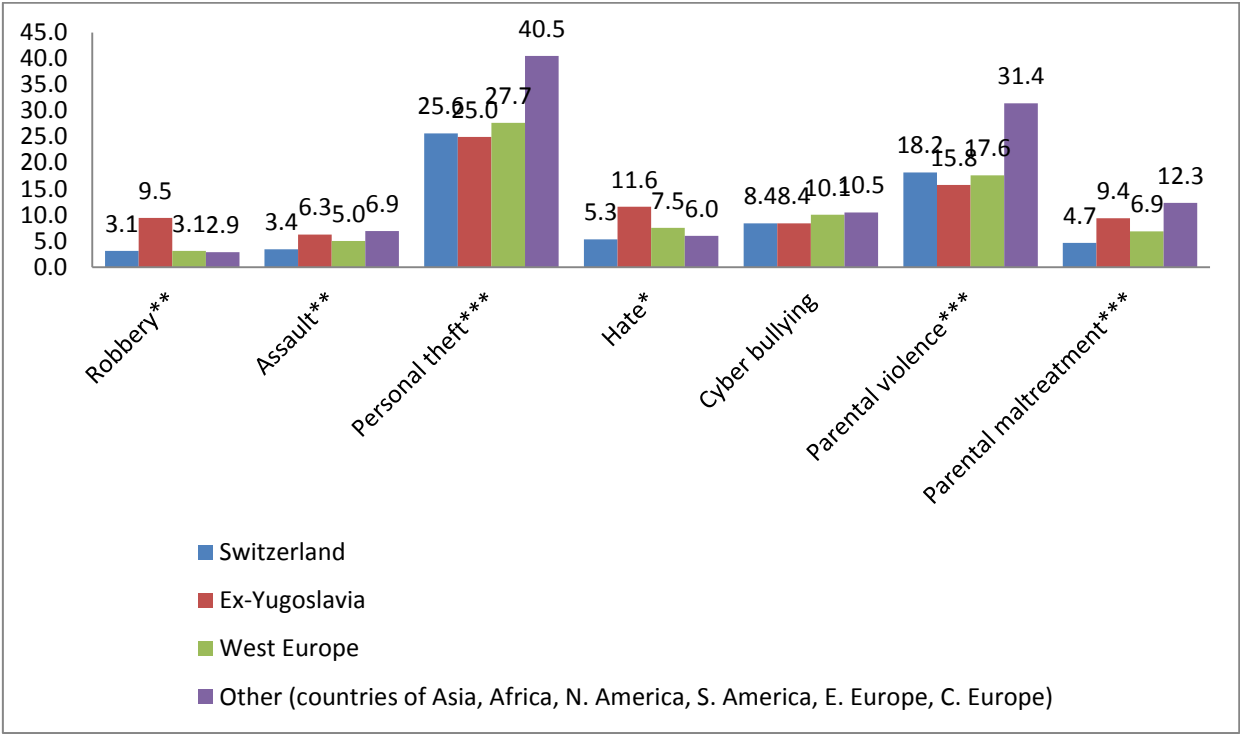
Figure 1.41 Victimization (last year prevalence) by parents' birthplace in %, N=4042-4057⁴⁶



Students with parents born abroad have higher victimization rates than those with both parents born in Switzerland. As in Figure 1.25, children with one foreign-born parent seem to be more exposed, for several types of victimizations, than those with two parents who arrived from another country. Beyond this paradoxical finding, the differences are far more moderate in Figure 1.41 than in Figure 1.25. Again, there is some indication that victimization and delinquency are not as narrowly interrelated as often has been pretended. Further, offending and victimization are by far not always intra-ethnic events. Indeed, it is not implausible that offenders – whoever they are – may look out for victims of predatory crimes without caring much about their socio-demographic profile.

The same observation is true with respect to countries of origin of victims. Although Swiss-born respondents are less often victimized, the differences by country of origin are less important than in connection with offending (see Figures 1.22, 1.24). With the exception of hate crimes, the difference is largest with respect to maltreatment by parents.

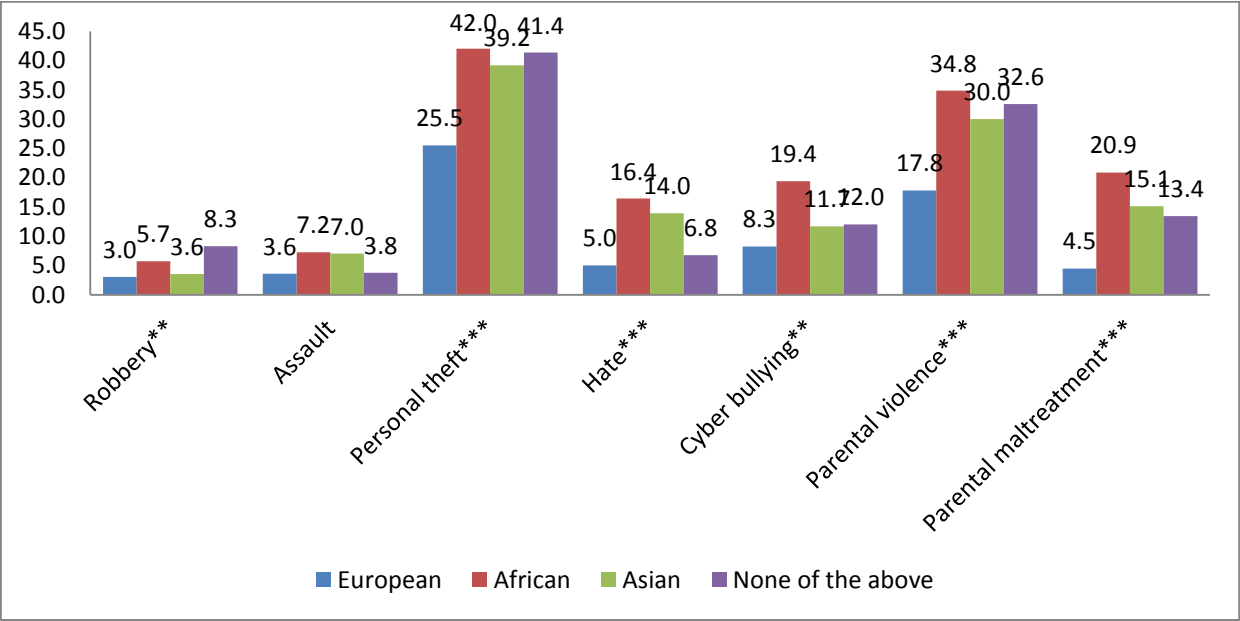
Figure 1.42 Victimization (last year prevalence) by birthplace in %, N=4116-4132⁴⁷



The last item on migration included in ISRD-3 concerns the racial background of the respondent. In Figure 1.26, we have seen that delinquency is strongly associated with racial minority status. How does this relate to victimization?

⁴⁷ Weighted data

Figure 1.43 Victimization (last year prevalence) by minority in %, N=4114-4128⁴⁸



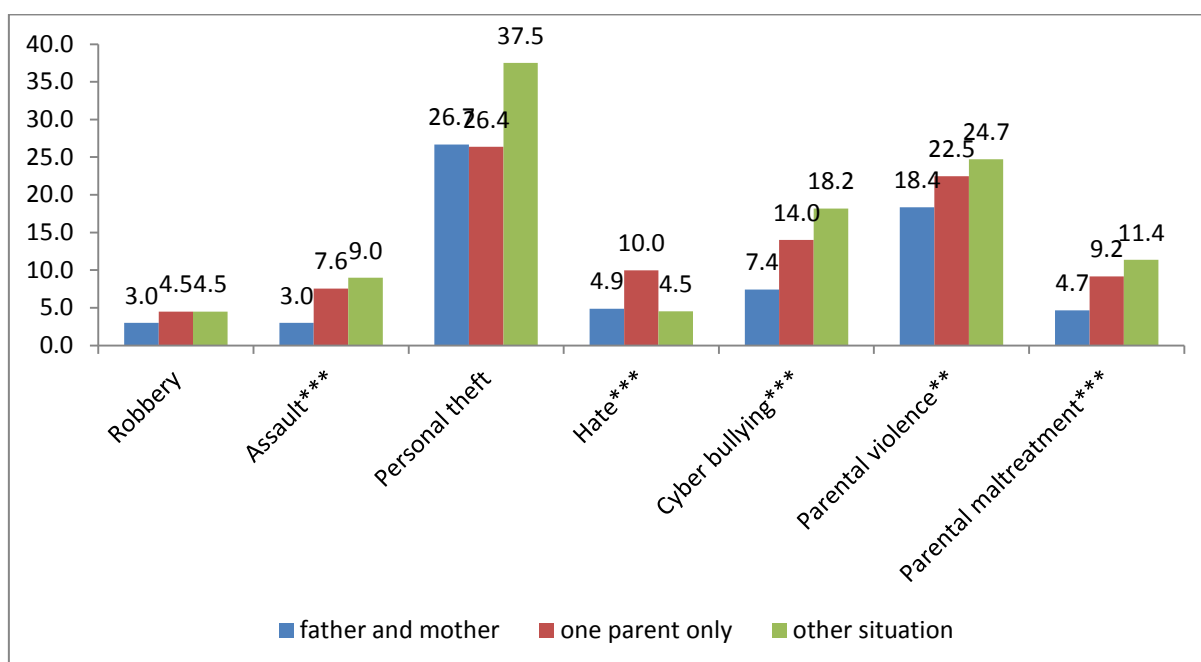
Although racial minorities are more often victims of all sorts of offences – particularly of hate crimes and parental maltreatment – the differences are by and large far less pronounced than in Figure 1.26. In other words, a racial minority status seems more important for understanding delinquency than victimization.

48 Weighted data

1.5.3 Different family configurations and delinquency

As we have seen in Figure 1.27, delinquency varies considerably across family constellation. Juveniles brought up by two parents are better protected than those who are living in single-parent families or in other arrangements (home, foster parents etc.). How does this relate to victimization?

Figure 1.44 Victimization (last year prevalence) by “Who brought you up?” in %, N=4127-4135⁴⁹



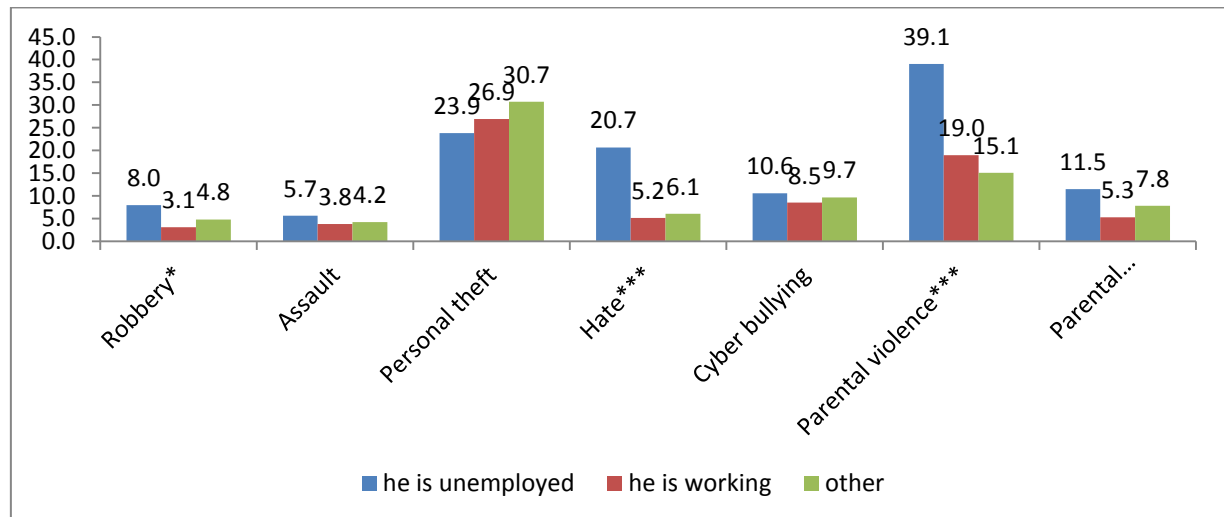
Students, who were brought up by both parents, are less victimized than those who grew up in single-parent families or in other arrangements. However, the difference is minimal between two- and one-parent families. Even for children growing up in other settings, the difference with respect to victimization is by far not as large as it is for delinquency (Figure 1.26). Again, we see that victimization is not distributed exactly in the same way as delinquency, and certain variables may be important for delinquency that are not that crucial when it comes to victimization. It might be that victimization, to some extent, is distributed more randomly, and that victims often had the bad luck of being at the bad moment at the bad place.

⁴⁹ Weighted data

1.5.4 Social standing and economic well-being

Respondents whose father is unemployed are considerably more often victims of parental assault and maltreatment. Presumably unemployment goes along with domestic problems as well.

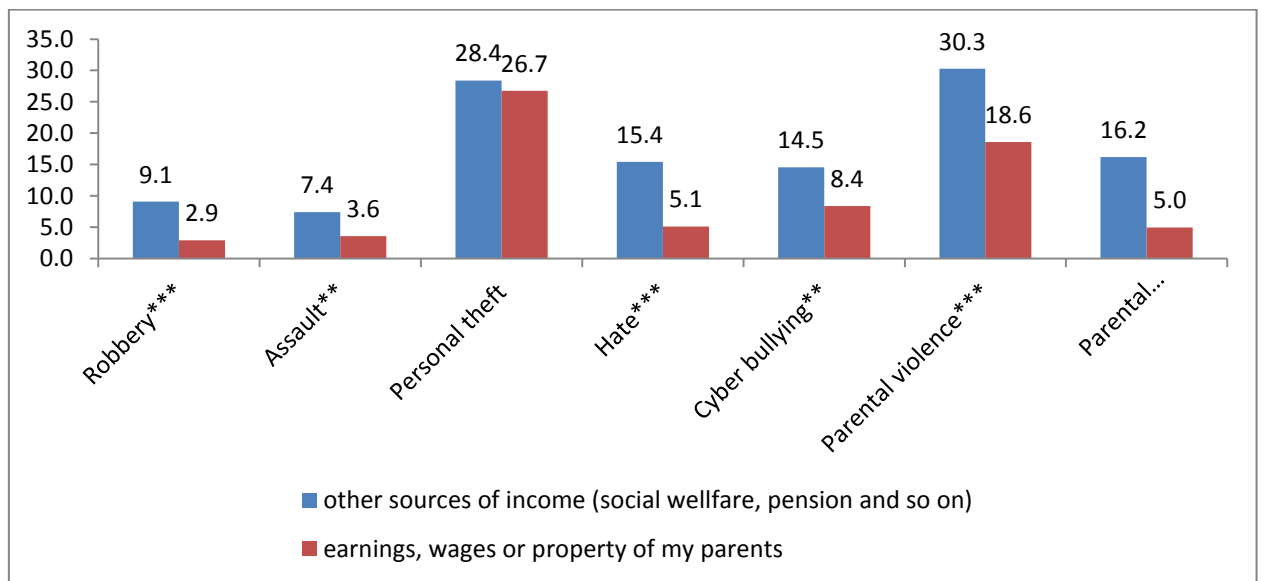
Figure 1.45 Victimization (last year prevalence) by father's employment in %, N=4093-4107⁵⁰



Mother's employment status, however, is clearly less important in this respect (not shown). Similar results are found if the family's main source of income is considered: families supported by welfare payments are characterized by far more parental assault and maltreatment.

⁵⁰ Weighted data

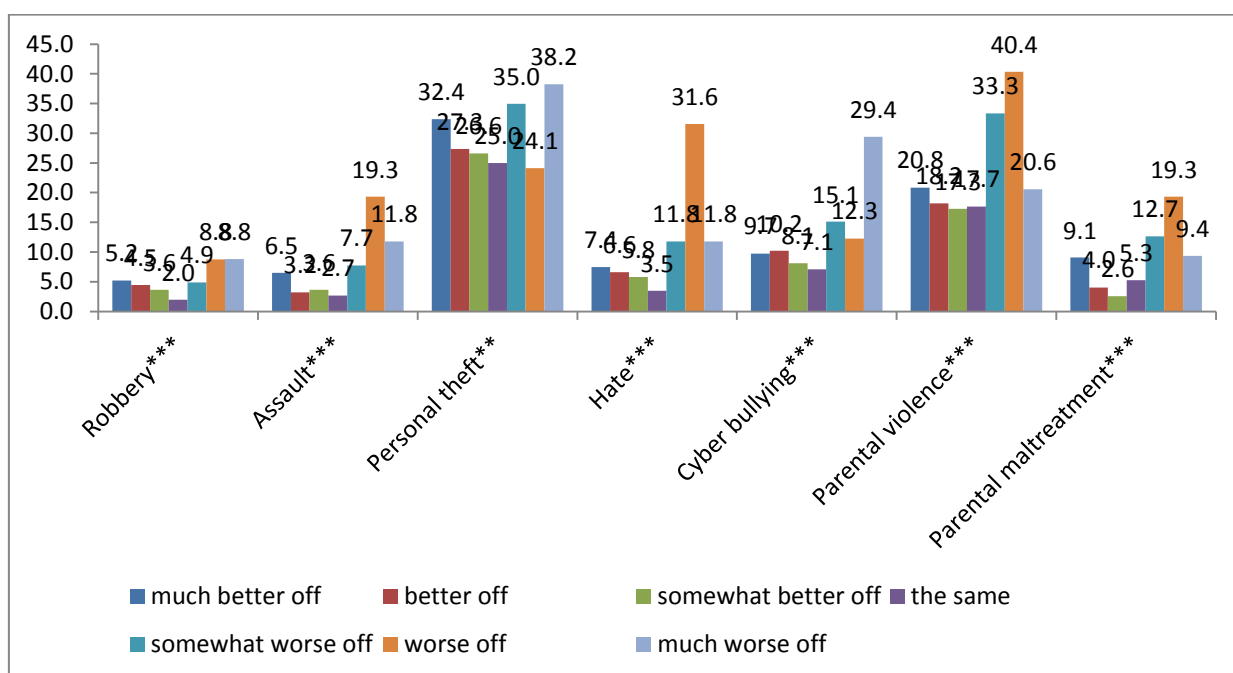
Figure 1.46 Victimization (last year prevalence) by main source of income in %, N=4109-4122⁵¹



As the following Figure illustrates, this is largely true also for families who operate under financial strain (Figure 1.47). Compared to Figure 1.32 where respondents whose families are “much worse off” admitted to committing far more offences than those above the bottom, the same extreme position does not seem to be associated with victimization to the same extent, perhaps with the exception of cyber bullying and assault. Once more, it seems that variables that are highly correlated to delinquency are not that much related to victimization.

⁵¹ Weighted data

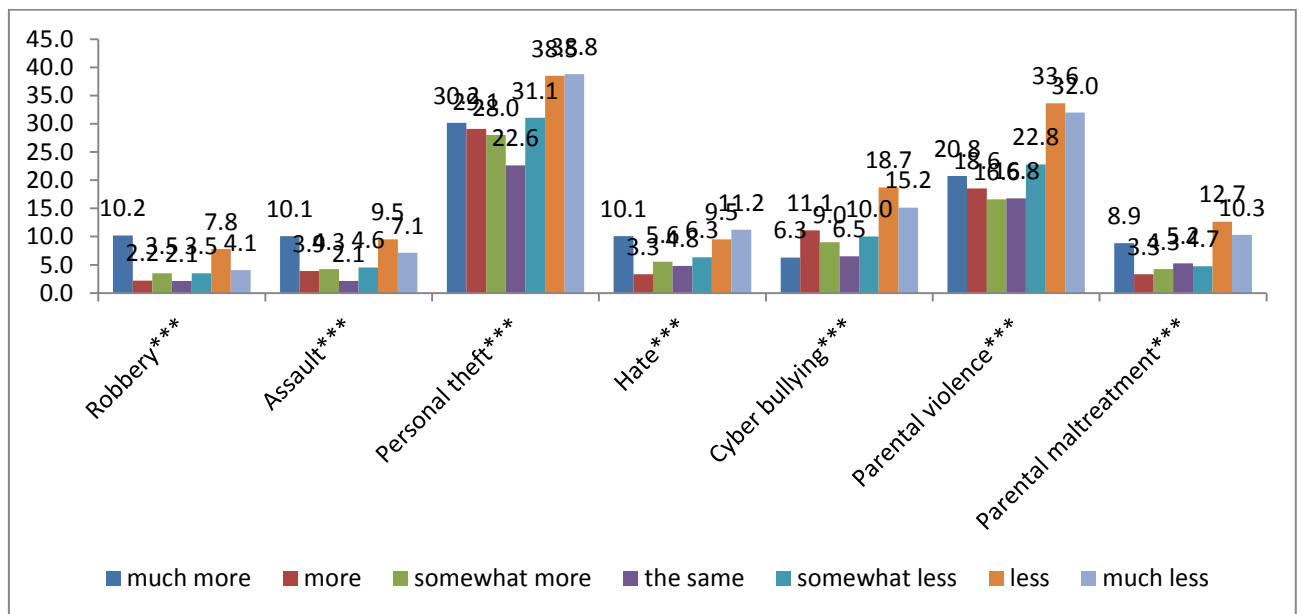
Figure 1.47 Victimization (last year) by “how well-off is your family compared to others” in %, N=4100-4109⁵²



The same is true with respect to money respondents have at their disposal for their own needs. Although students with much less resources than others are more often victims of all types of offences, the association is clearly more gradual and continuous.

⁵² Weighted data

Figure 1.48 Victimization (last year prevalence) by own money compared to others in %, N=4090-4101⁵³



Compared to Figure 1.34, the distribution in Figure 1.48 is again far more continuous. If poor people are far more involved in delinquency, they are not necessarily that much more often victims of offences.

1.6 Conclusions: Factors of delinquency and victimization

- Delinquency is committed disproportionately by boys.
- The age of culmination is in the range of 16 years.
- The number of students born abroad, or having parents born abroad is increasing.
- The number of students born in Ex-Yugoslavia has decreased since 2006, but delinquency of this group has increased. On the other hand, students from Western European countries have increased, but they reported fewer offences in 2013 in comparison with 2006.
- Respondents with parents born abroad are more delinquent than their peers with parents of Swiss origin. The difference is less strong than with many other variables and not entirely consistent across offence types.
- Students brought up by two parents are least often involved in delinquency and less often victimized.
- Unemployment among mothers and fathers has increased since 2006. It is associated with higher delinquency rates. Students from poor families are far more often involved in delinquency. With respect to victimization, the association is less strong.

Chapter 2

Family, parental control and delinquency

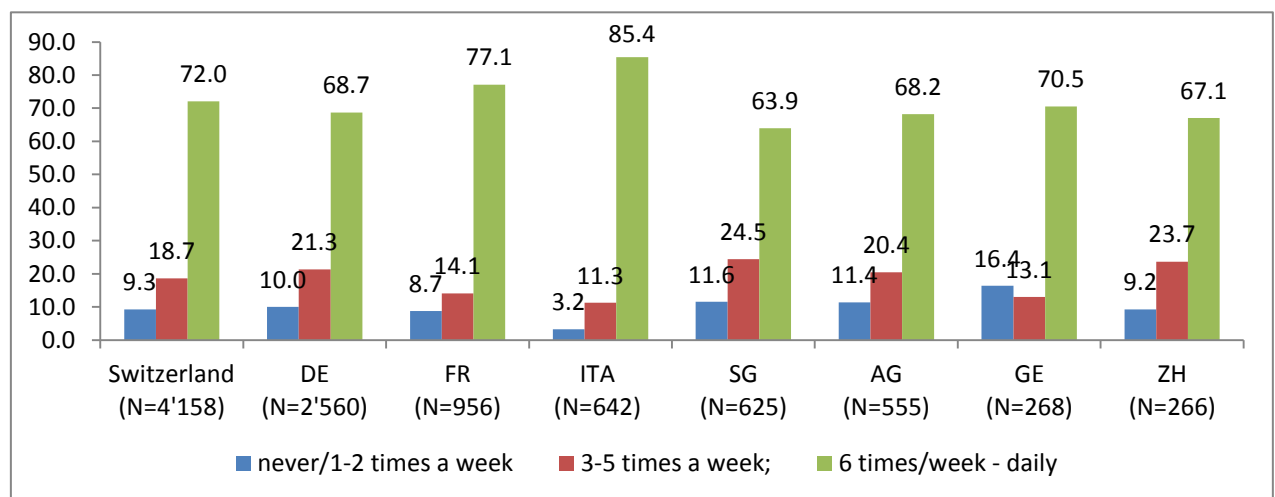
2.1 Overview

Module 2 of the questionnaire includes an expanded measure of family life and bonding (parental control, parents' supervision) with lots of variables. In this chapter we discuss only issues of dinner with family and parental control as among the most influential for juvenile delinquency.

2.2 Family life and parental control across regions

2.2.1 Dinner with family

Figure 2.1 "How many days a week do you usually eat an evening meal with your parent(s)?" by main and subsamples in %⁵⁴



72% of respondents reported about eating an evening meal together with parents 6 times per week or daily. This tradition is the most developed in Italian speaking (85.4%) and in French speaking cantons (77.1%), particularly in the canton of Geneva it is 70.5%. Such level is the lowest in German speaking cantons (68.7%), for instance in the canton of Zurich (67.1%). One reason may be that juveniles attend in highly urbanized areas like Zurich often schools at some distance from their homes.

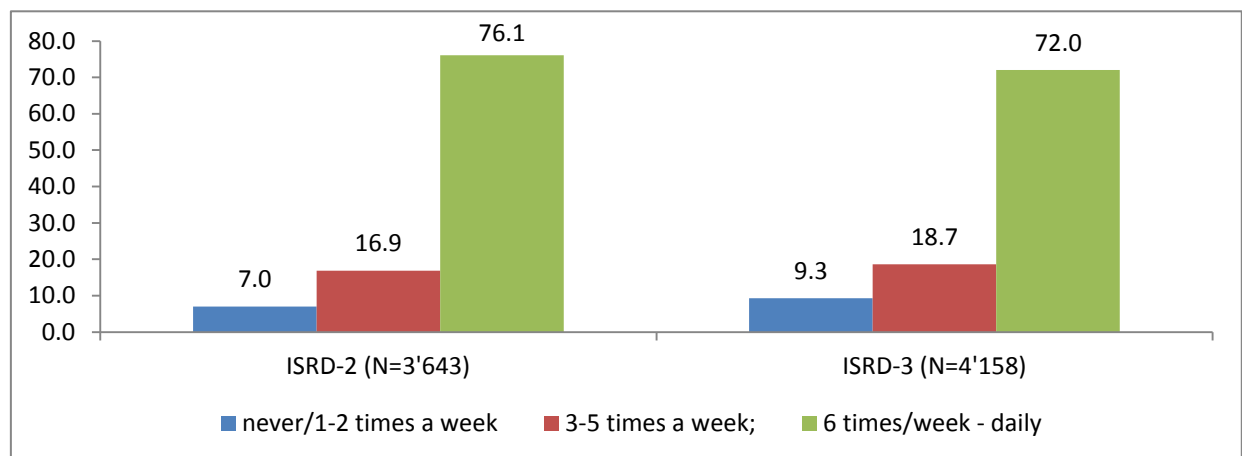
More than 80% of respondents in age of 11-12 have a dinner with their families 6 times per week or daily. This percentage is decreasing with age. For instance, 65% among the 15 years old

⁵⁴ Weighted data

students eat dinner almost every day at home. By 16 years, this proportion drops to 57% (p=.000).

Among those reporting to eat dinner with their families “never or 1-2 times per week”, 7.4% have mothers born in Switzerland, and 12.2% abroad. Among mothers born abroad, 18.2% were born in Asia including Oceania, 20.5% in Eastern/Central Europe and 23.1% in the countries of South and North Americas. 14.6% were born in Ex-Yugoslavia, except Kosovo. The lowest percentage of mothers was born in Kosovo (4.4%) and Portugal (3.8%).

Figure 2.2 “How many days a week do you usually eat an evening meal with your parent(s)?” in % for 2006 and 2013⁵⁵



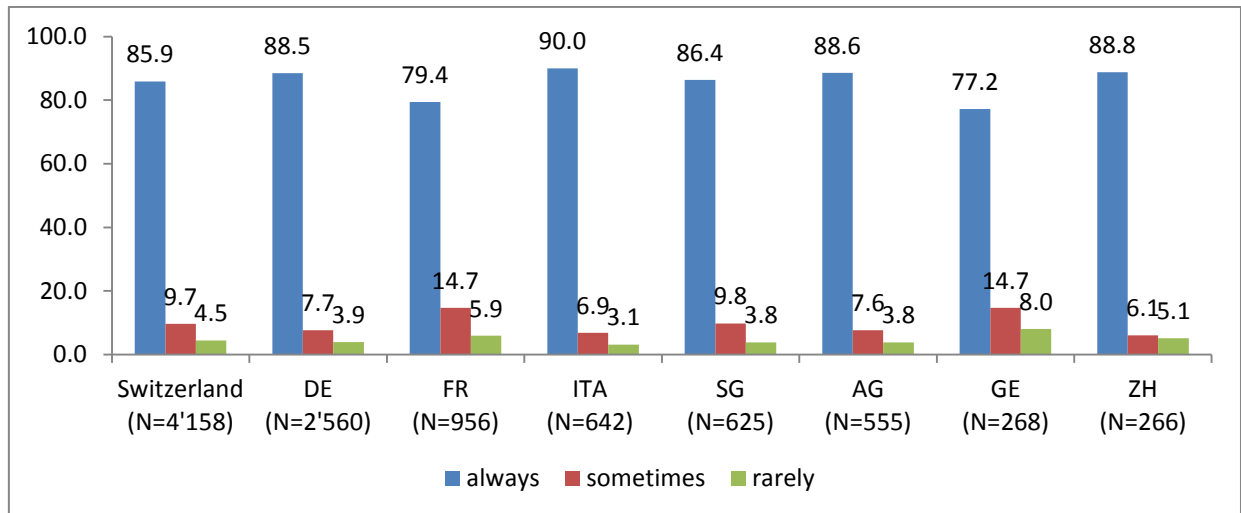
Having dinner at home has changed little since 2006. In 2013 slightly more students than in 2006 reported having dinner with parents once or twice per week or never.

⁵⁵ ISR2-2 – not weighted data, ISR3-3 - weighted data

2.2.2 Parental control

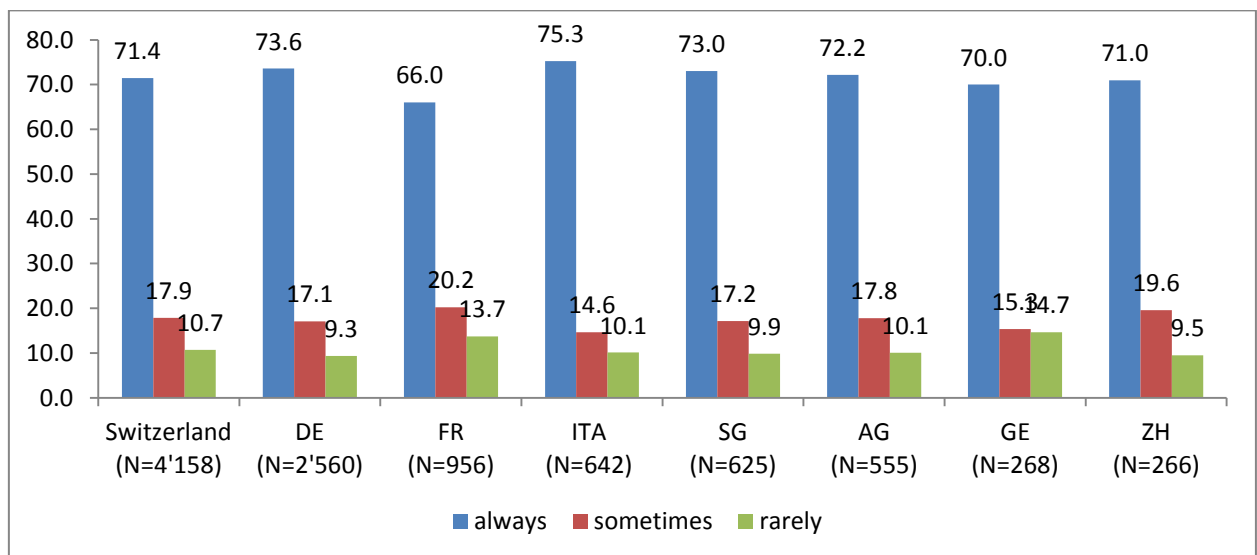
The following Figures inform on how parents try to control their offspring.

Figure 2.3 “My parents know where I am when I go out” in %⁵⁶



This is one of the best controlled fields by parents. Only 4.5% and of respondents reported that their parents rarely know where they are when they go out. Such percentage is slightly higher in French speaking cantons and in Zurich.

Figure 2.4 “My Parents know what I am doing when I go out” in %⁵⁷

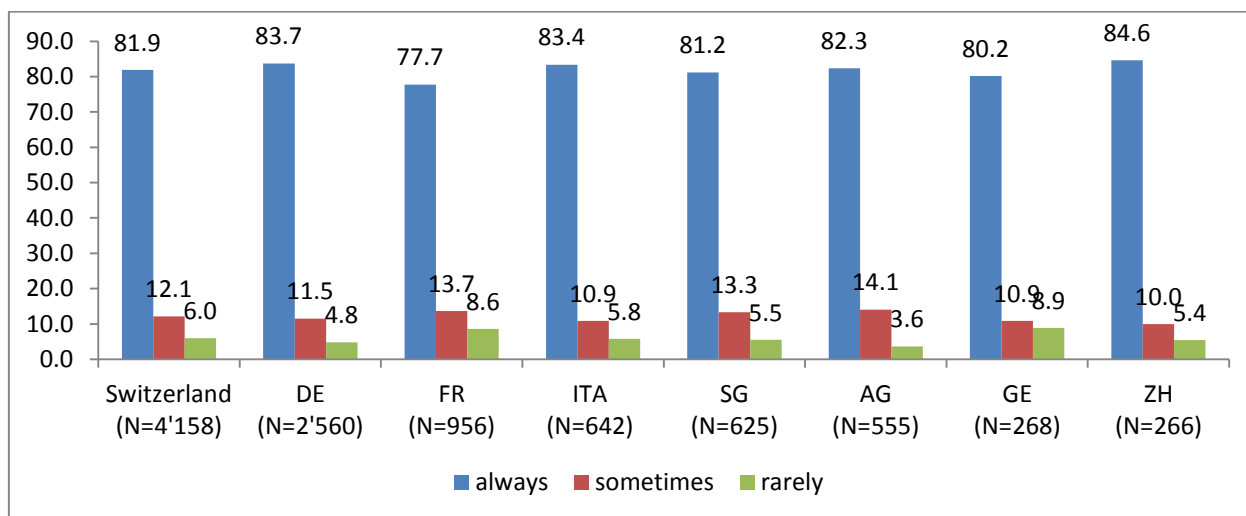


56 Weighted data

57 Weighted data

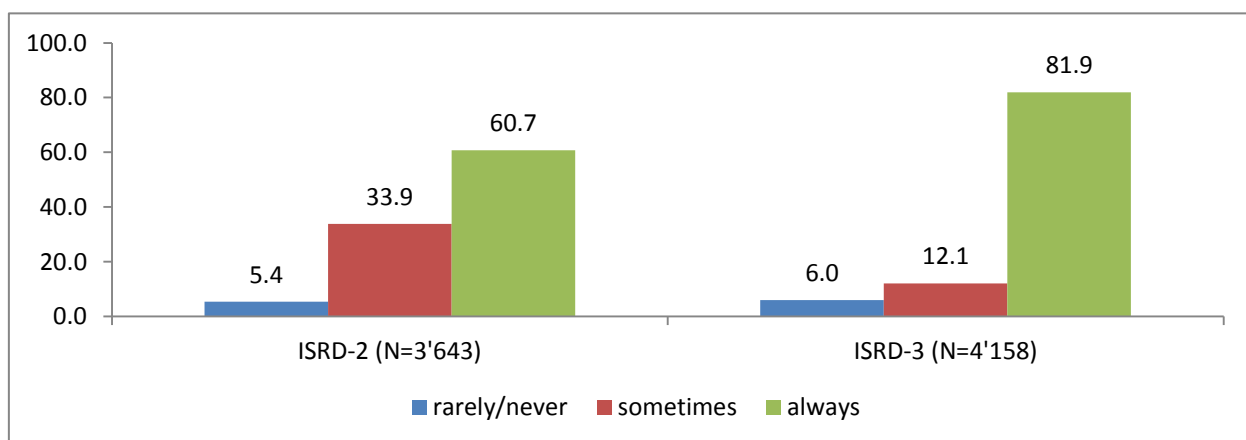
If parents usually know where their children spend time, they are obviously less well informed about what they do when they go out.

Figure 2.5 “My parents know what friends I am with when I go out” in %⁵⁸



Most parents know friends of their children.

Figure 2.6 “My parents know friends I am with when I go out”. In % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3⁵⁹

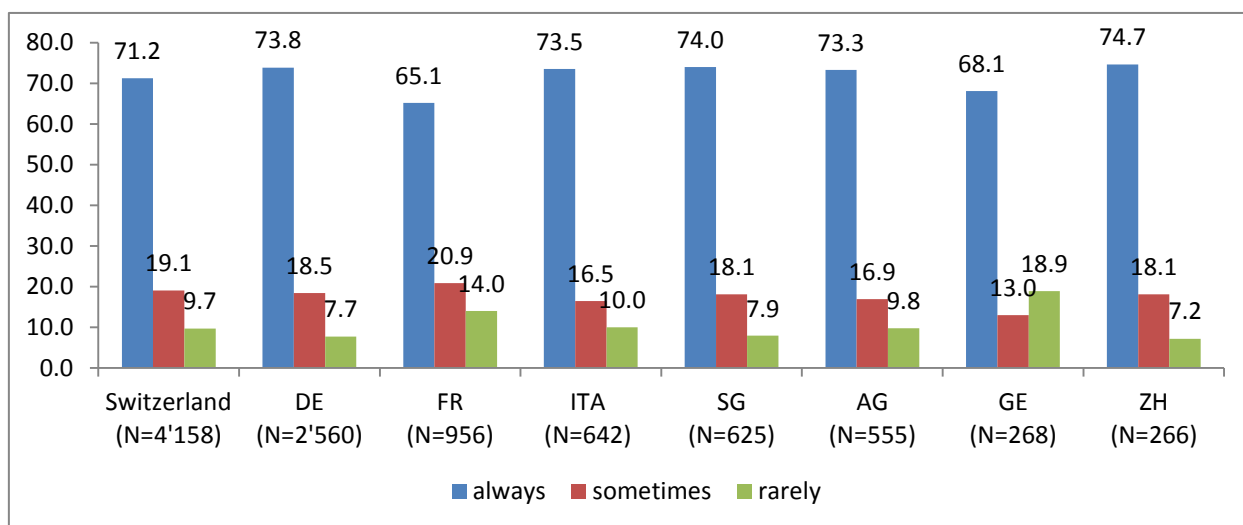


In 2013 compared to 2006, more parents always know whom their children spend time with while going out. Cell phones obviously make control of the whereabouts of children much easier for parents.

58 Weighted data

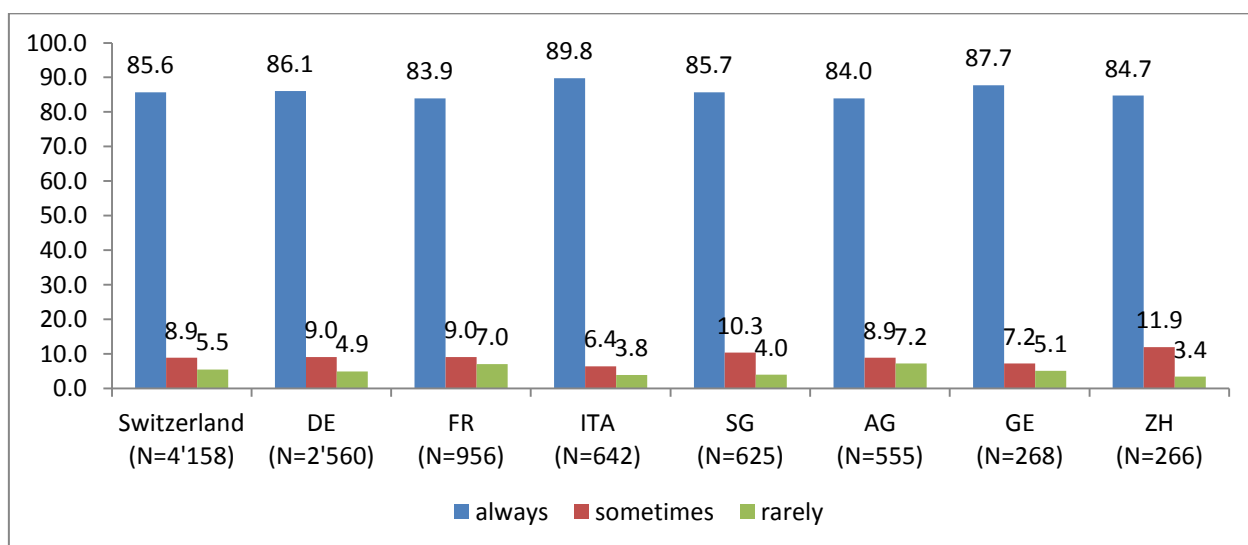
59 ISRD-2 – not weighted data, ISRD-3 - weighted data

Figure 2.7 “If I have been out, my parents ask me what I did, where I went and who I spent time with” by main and subsamples in %⁶⁰



About one third of parents sometimes or rarely know where and whom their children spend leisure-time with. This proportion does not vary much across regions.

Figure 2.8 "If I go out in the evening my parents tell me when I have to be back home" in %⁶¹

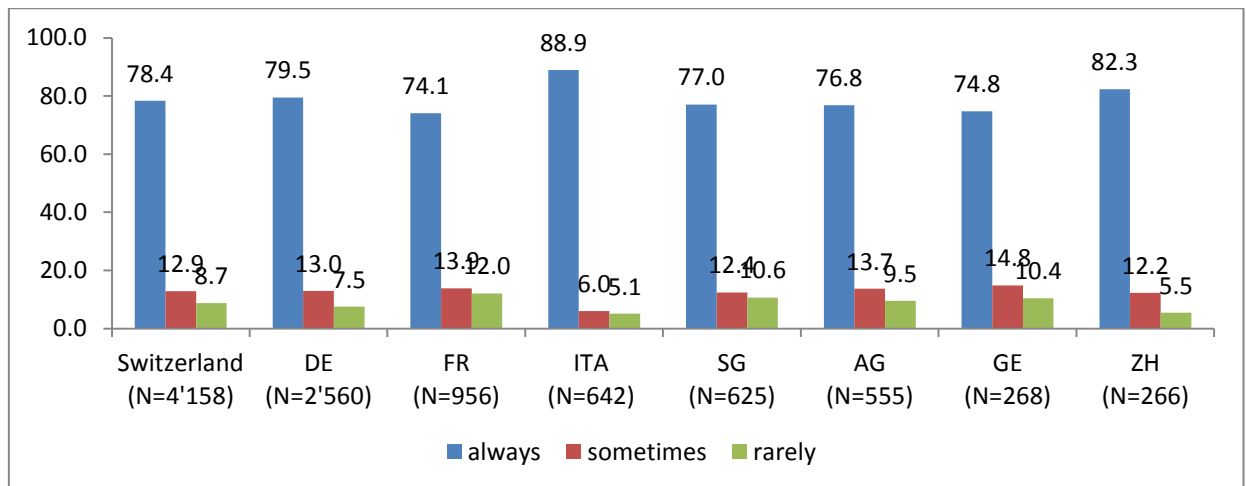


Most parents always tell their children when to come home after going out.

60 Weighted data

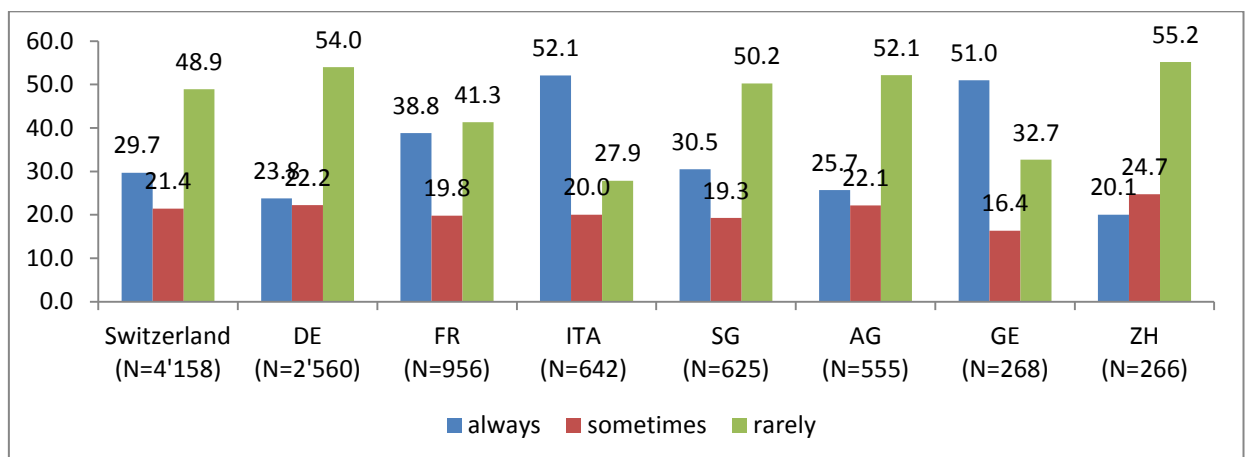
61 Weighted data

Figure 2.9 Has to let parents know if it gets late in %⁶²



Most of students must always call their parents when they are returning later than planned. This percentage is the highest in Ticino. Cell-phones make keeping parents informed much easier.

Figure 2.10 Parents check on homework in %⁶³

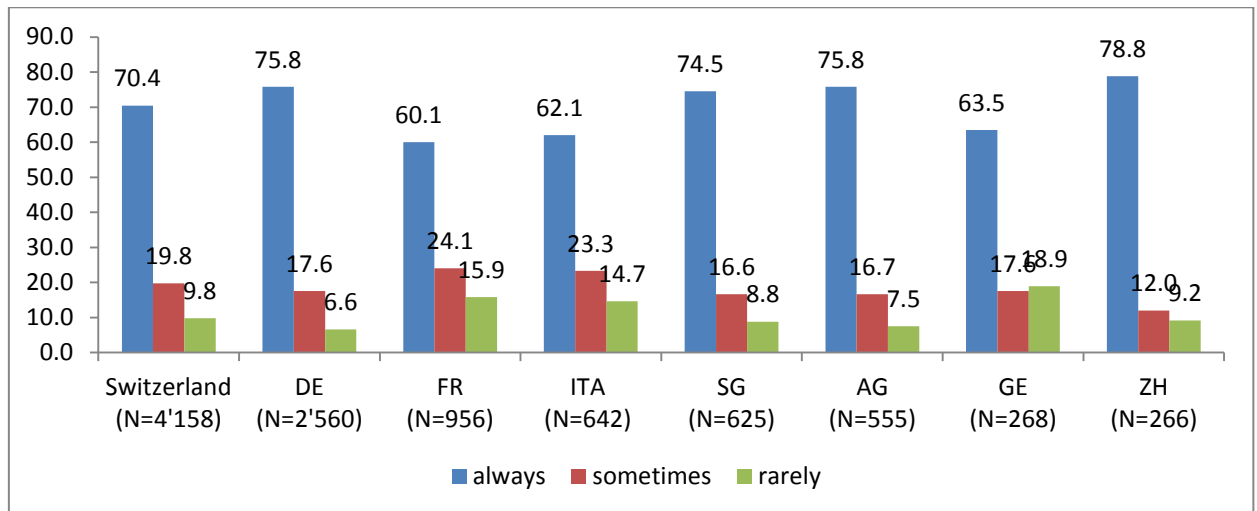


Parents seem to exercise less control on school homework. About half of parents do not check if their children did their homework. This percentage is the highest in the canton of Zurich where 55.2% of parents rarely check their homework. In Romandie and Ticino, more parents always check their children's homework. There is almost no correlation between delinquency and checking homework by parents.

62 Weighted data

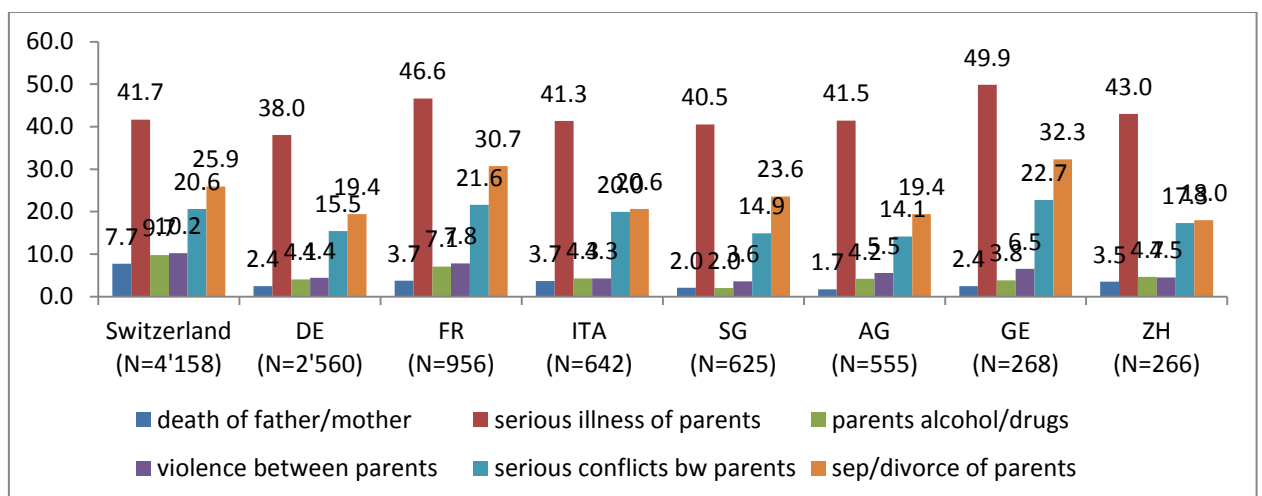
63 Weighted data

Figure 2.11 “I tell my parents who I spend time with” in %⁶⁴



This type of parental control is very different across regions. Children in Romandie keep their parents less regularly informed about whom they spend time with. Roughly two in five students keep their parents informed about what they during leisure-time in general, during afternoon-hours or what they spend their money for (not shown). These habits hardly differ across regions.

Figure 2.11_1 Experiencing any of the following events in %⁶⁵



French speaking cantons have one of the highest levels of negative events that were reported by respondents.

64 Weighted data

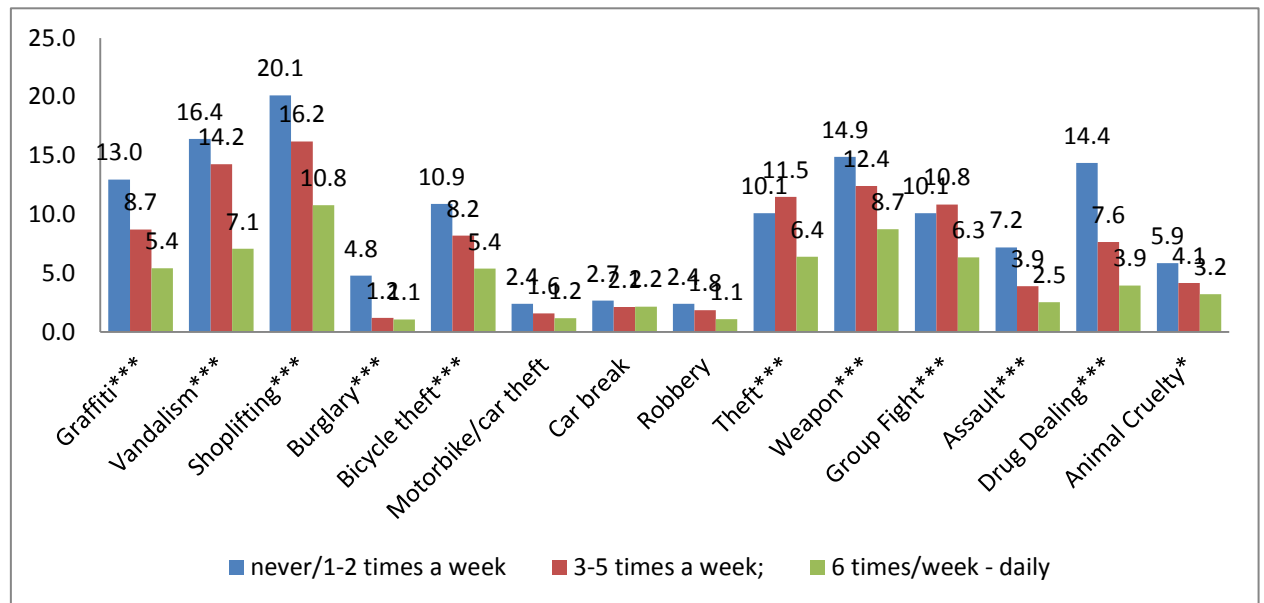
65 Weighted data

2.3 Family life, parental control and delinquency

2.3.1 Family life and delinquency

Among the many variables on family life collected in module 2 of the questionnaire, taking evening meals with parents turned out to be particularly relevant.

Figure 2.12 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “How many days a week do you usually eat an evening meal with your parent(s)?” in %, N=4046-4062⁶⁶



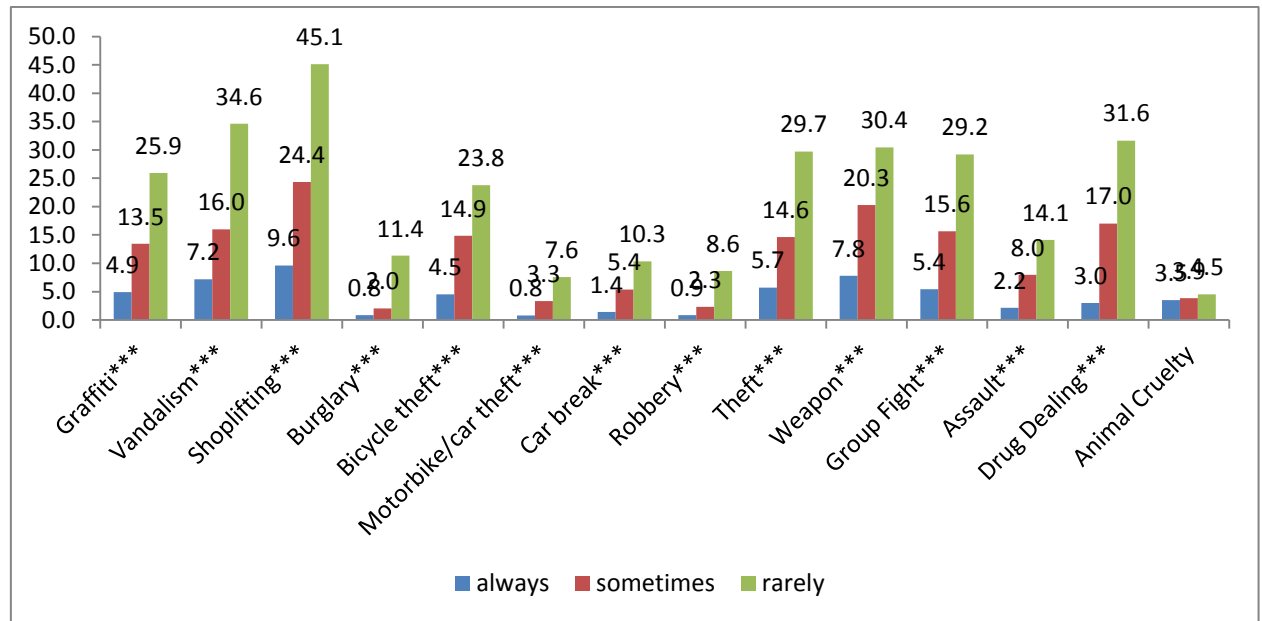
Frequency of having dinner with parents relates significantly to delinquency. Respondents who rarely eat with their parents commit more offences of all types.

66 Weighted data

2.3.2 Parental control and delinquency

The following Figures all relate to parental control. The frequencies and the regional distribution have been presented in the first part of this chapter.

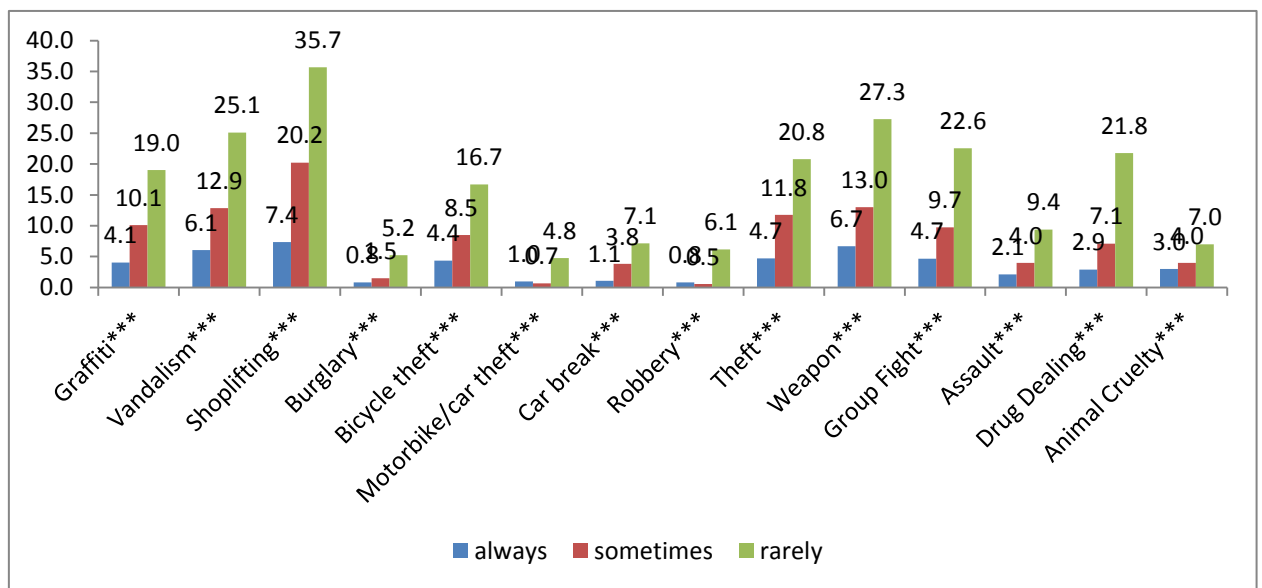
Figure 2.13 Delinquency (last year) by "My parents know where I am when I go out" in %, N=4050-4067⁶⁷



This Figure shows that respondents whose parents are rarely aware of their children's whereabouts are committing far more offences of all types. For instance, more than 11% of students who rarely kept their parents informed of their whereabouts admitted having committed burglary, in comparison to only less than 1.0% among those whose parents always were informed about this. This difference is consistently strong for all serious offences.

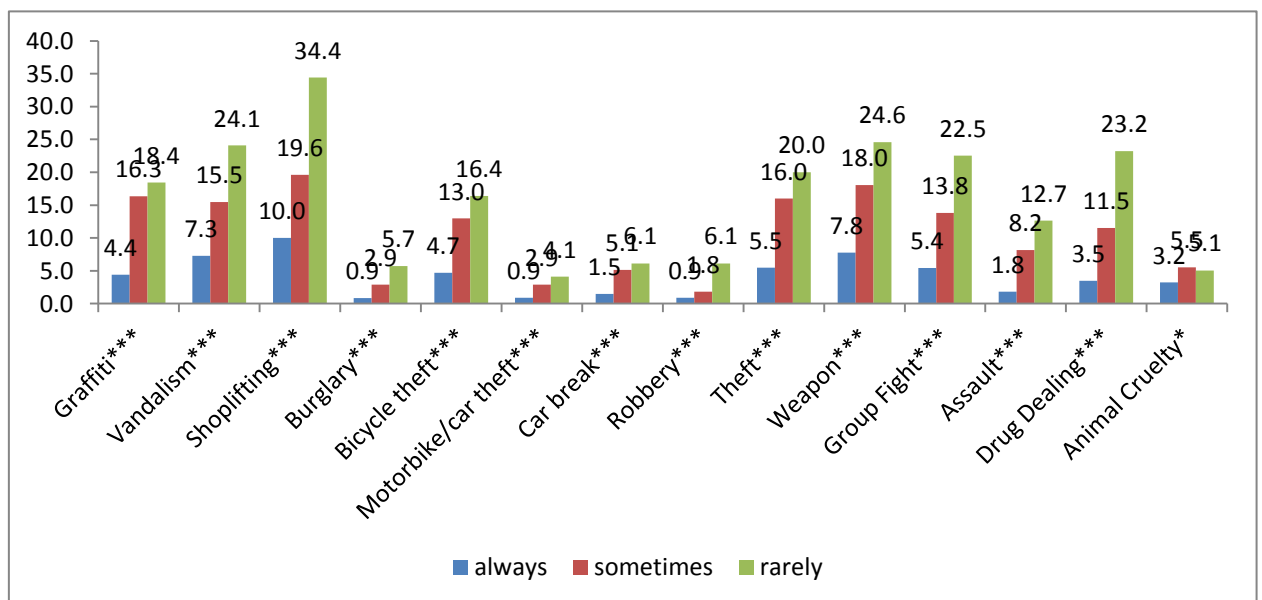
⁶⁷ Weighted data

Figure 2.14 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "My parents know what I am doing when I go out" in %, N=4050-4068⁶⁸



The association is precisely the same when we look at whether or not parents are informed about what their children are doing when going out. For the following Figures, the findings are basically showing always the same mechanism.

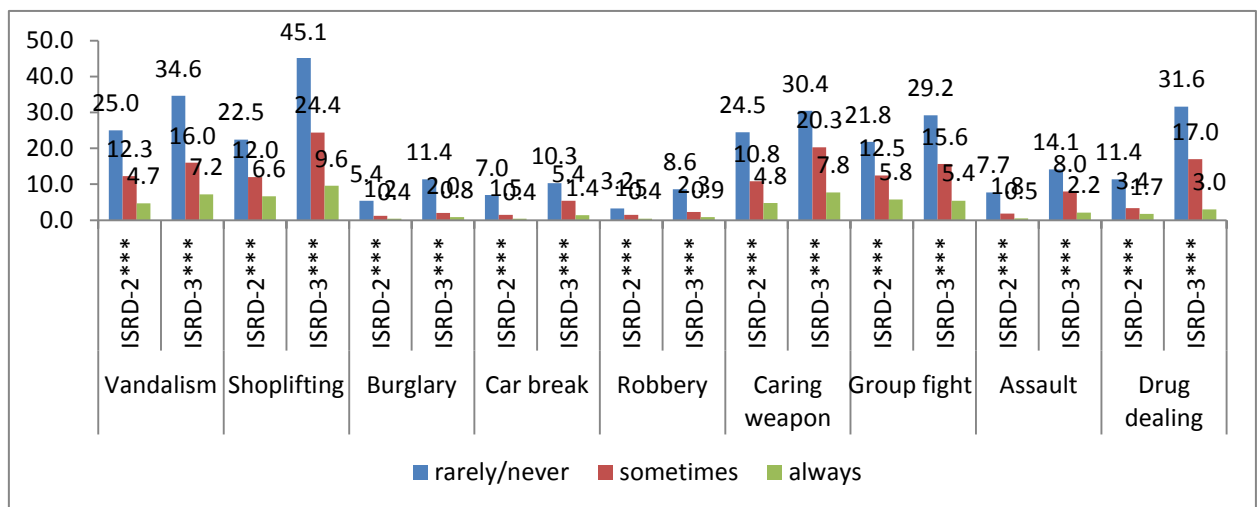
Figure 2.15 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "My parents know what friends I am with when I go out" in %, N=4047-4063⁶⁹



68 Weighted data

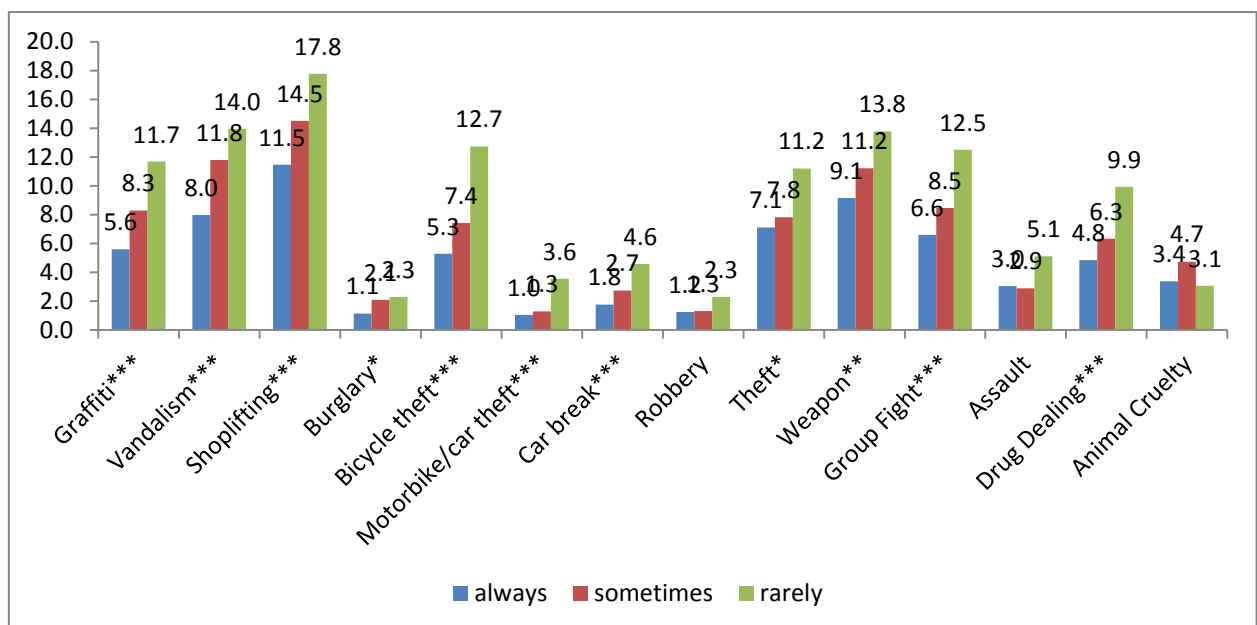
69 Weighted data

Figure 2.16 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “My parents know what friends I am with when I go out” in % for ISRD-2 and ISRD-3⁷⁰



The association between parents’ control about their children’s whereabouts and delinquency has remained unchanged from 2006 to 2013. Although parents may control better than a few years ago their children’s night-time activities, this control, probably facilitated by the widespread use of cell phones, may remain largely limited to geographic location but not really allow parents to control what children actually do.

Figure 2.17 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "If I have been out, my parents ask me what I did, where I went and who I spent time with" in %, N=4046-4064⁷¹

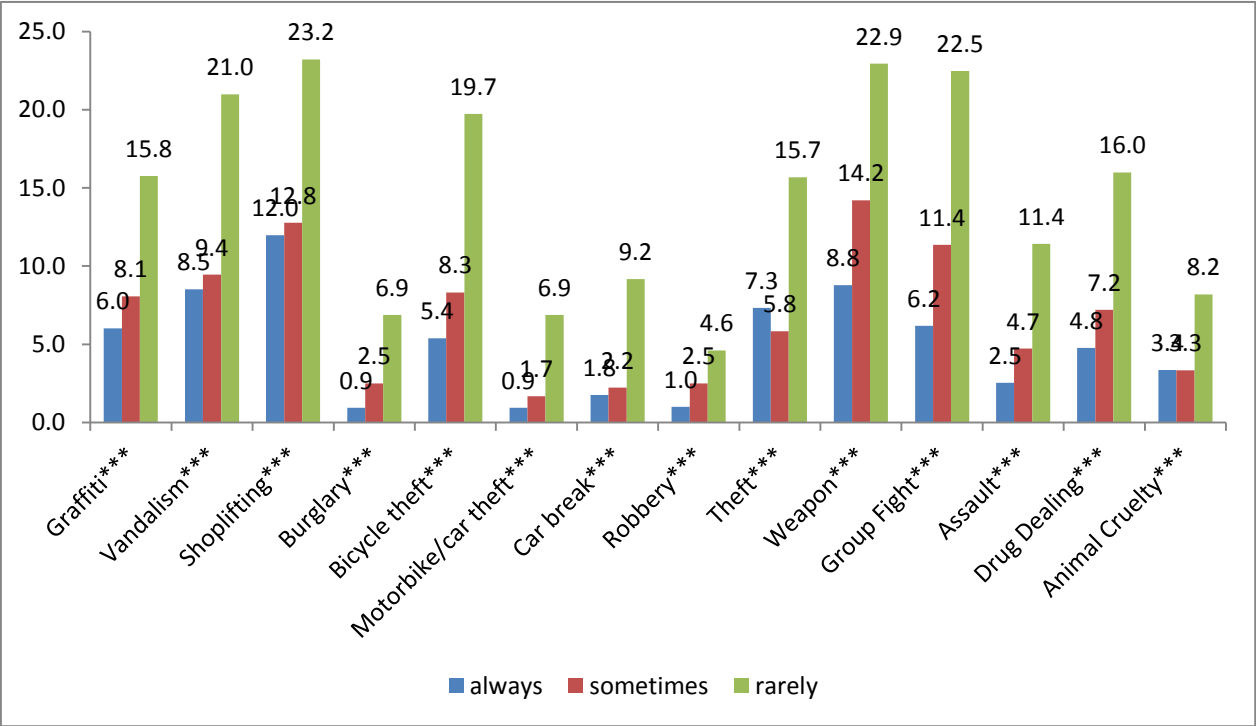


70 ISRD-2 – not weighted data, ISRD-3 - weighted data

71 Weighted data

Apparently, parents of delinquent juveniles ask less about where, with what and with whom they had spent time. This could indicate that the lack of parental information might be related to a lack of parental active control, or a lack of parents’ interest for what their children are doing during leisure-time and when going out.

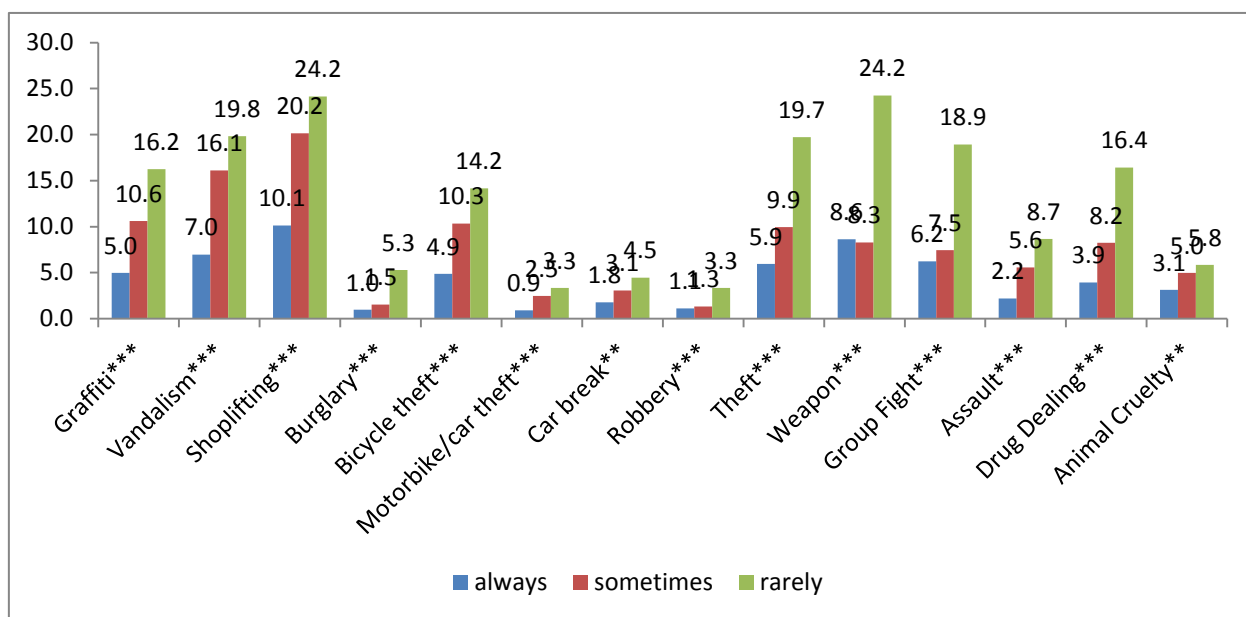
Figure 2.18 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "If I go out in the evening my parents tell me when I have to be back home" in %, N=4041-4058⁷²



Respondents whom the parents rarely or never tell the time they have to be back home are committing more offences of all types. This again points to a possible lack of parental initiative and involvement in how their children shape leisure-time activities.

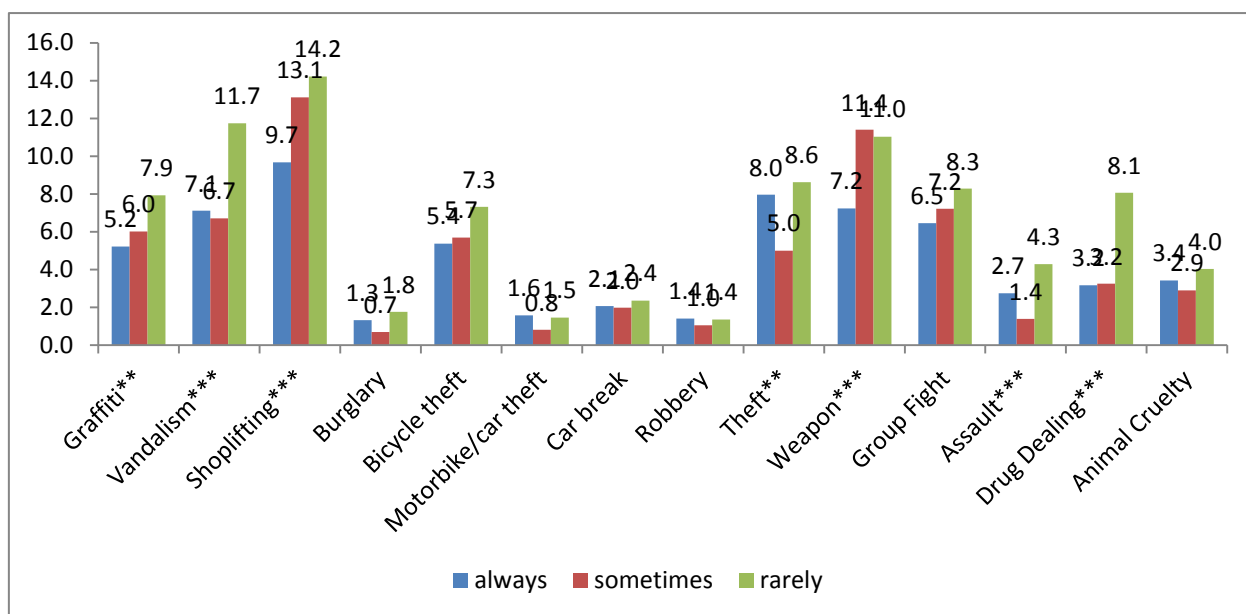
72 Weighted data

Figure 2.19 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “If I am out and it gets late I have to call my parents and let them know” in %, N=4045-4060⁷³



Again, juveniles who do not have to inform their parents about being late when returning home are committing more offences of all kinds.

Figure 2.20 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "My parents check if I have done my homework" in %, N=4048-4065⁷⁴

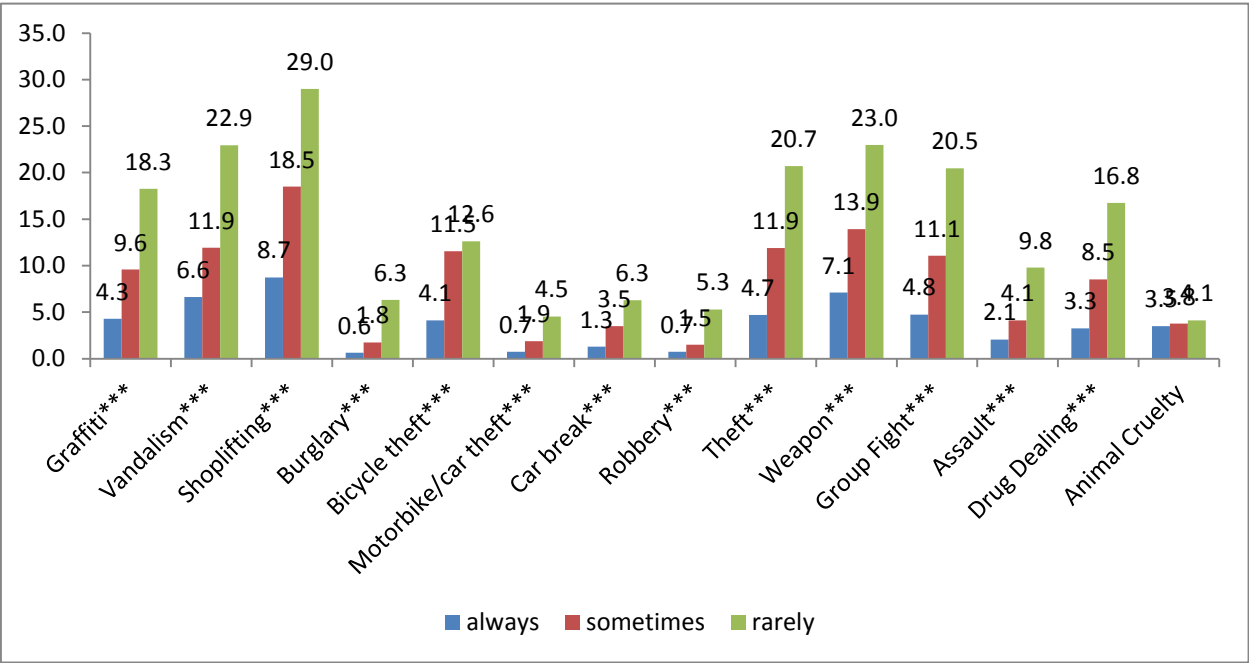


73 Weighted data

74 Weighted data

Contrary to other forms of parental control, checking children’s homework is only weakly, inconsistently and mostly not significantly related to delinquency.

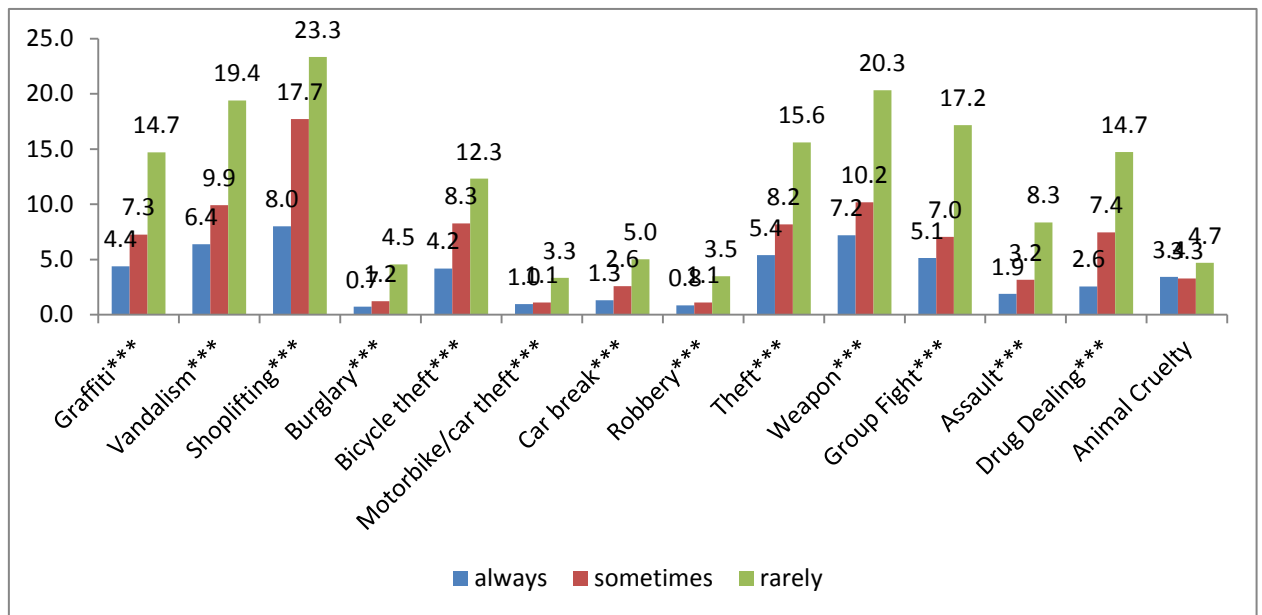
Figure 2.21 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "I tell my parents who I spent time with" in %, N=4041-4061⁷⁵



There is a significant relation between delinquency (last year prevalence) and informing parents about whom respondents spend time with.

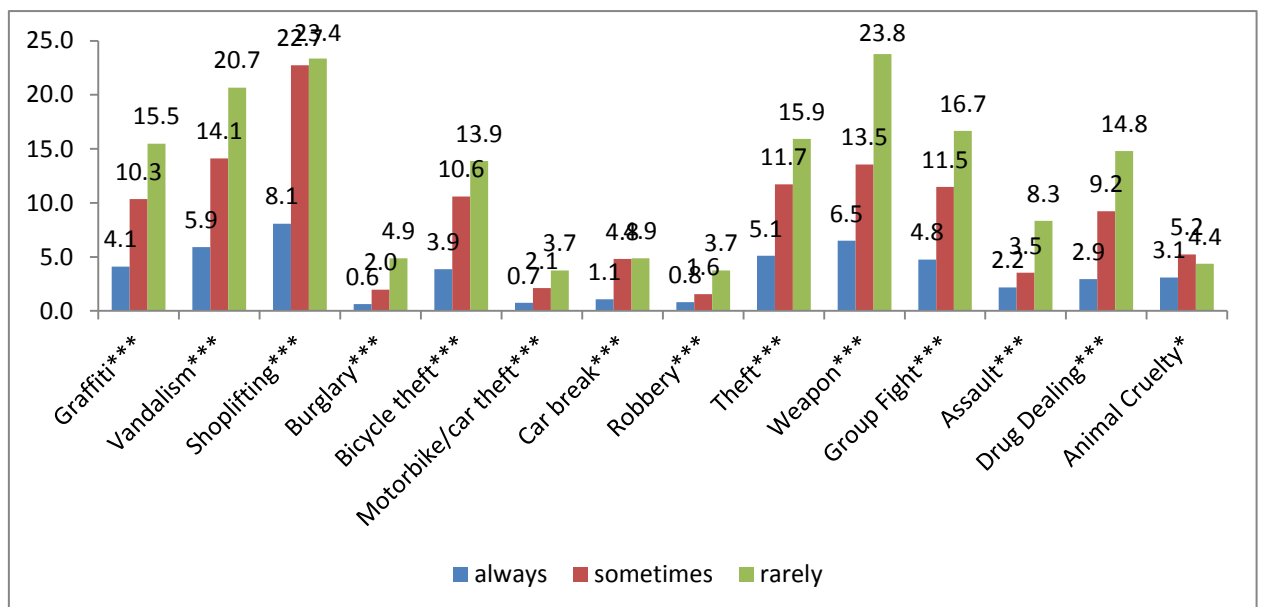
75 Weighted data

Figure 2.22 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “I tell my parents how I spend my money” in %, N=4047-4064⁷⁶



Parental control over financial matters is also related to delinquency, although not as strongly as control over leisure-time in general.

Figure 2.23 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "I tell my parents where I am most afternoons after school" in %, N=4047-4065⁷⁷



76 Weighted data

77 Weighted data

Also control over afternoon-hours is somewhat related to delinquency. Respondents who always keep their parents informed about where they spend after-school hours commit substantially fewer offences of all sorts. This is in line with observations in other studies (e.g. Walser 2013) that a non-trivial part of offending tends to occur in the later afternoon, after school hours.

2.4 Conclusions

Family life and parental control play an important role in students' life. It is strongly related to juvenile delinquency. For instance, children, whose parents do not know where and with whom their children spend time when they go out, are more likely to commit any type of offences. At the same time parental control like checking homework is only weakly associated with delinquency.

Over time, parental control did not change that much since 1992 (ISRD-1). Parents of most children still fixed hours for returning home and they were informed about their children's whereabouts at similar proportions. From this perspective, it is not easy to understand why delinquency did increase that much over time, from 1992 to 2006 and from 2006 to 2013, as shown in Chapter 7. Perhaps the relevant changes are not really measured through questions like these, i.e. questions regarding hours and locations of going out, but more about what actually occurs during these moments. This obviously is hard to measure, particularly since it is hard to anticipate in advance what might be relevant in a few years.

Chapter 3

Attitudes towards and perceptions about the school, school performance and delinquency

2.1 Overview

In this chapter, we shall analyse delinquency in the light of several school variables, namely

- students' feelings about their school, i.e. whether they like their school, whether they would miss their school in case they had to move, whether they like going to school in the morning, whether they find classes interesting, whether they would miss their teacher in case of a change, and how important it is to them what their favourite teacher thinks about them,
- how students perceive the school environment, i.e. whether they see there a lot of stealing, vandalism, fighting or drug use, and
- how students describe their own performance and behaviour at school, i.e. whether they see themselves as good or rather poor students, whether they have repeated a grade during their career, what their future plans are (in terms of education) and whether or not they have engaged in truancy.

These school variables are measured by module 3 of the questionnaire.

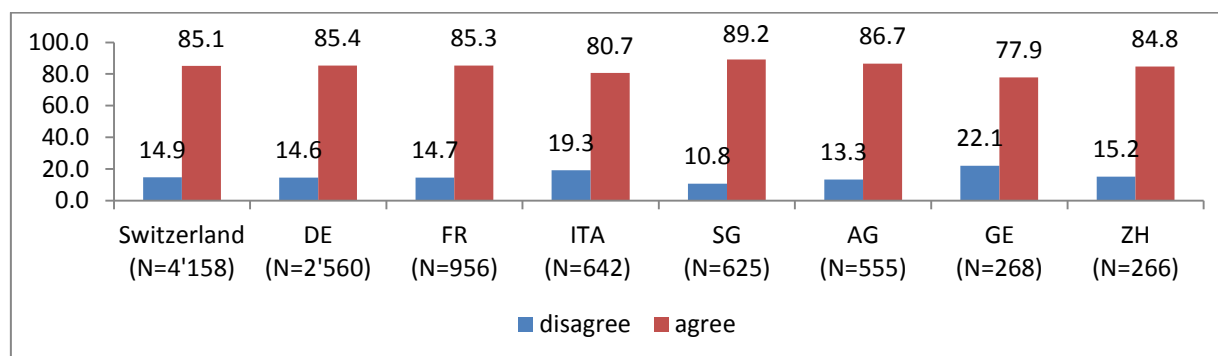
In section 3.2, the distribution of these school variables across Switzerland's several subsamples will be presented. In the following section, we shall see how these several school variables relate to self-reported delinquency. In the final section (3.4), the results will be summarized and discussed.

3.2 Descriptive Statistics

3.2.1 Feelings about school

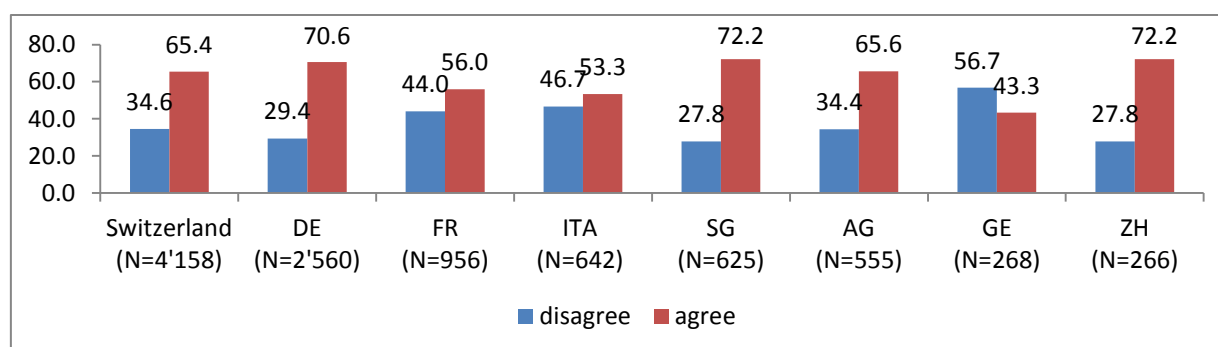
Question 3.1 (see appendix 9.1) was about the student's attitude towards his/her school. We first present the answers across the several subsamples.

Figure 3.1 "If I had to move, I would miss my school" by main and subsamples in %⁷⁸.



More than 80 per cent of students would miss their schools if they have to move. This proportion holds constant across language and regions. The attachment seems weakest among students in Zurich.

Figure 3.2 "Most mornings I like going to school" by main and subsamples in %⁷⁹

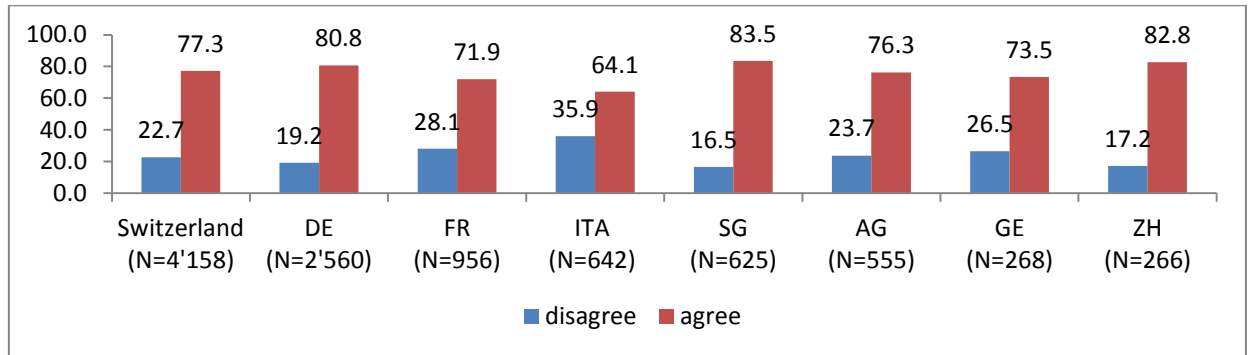


About one third of respondents do not like going to school in the morning. This proportion is higher in French speaking cantons and particularly in the canton of Geneva than in German speaking cantons and especially in the canton of St. Gall. The difference between Geneva and St. Gall is rather high (43 vs. 72% liking to go to school in most mornings). Generally, the attitude towards the school is less positive when concrete situations are being presented, as in Figure 3.2, than in more abstract or hypothetical situations, as in Figures 3.1 and 3.2.

⁷⁸ Weighted data

⁷⁹ Weighted data

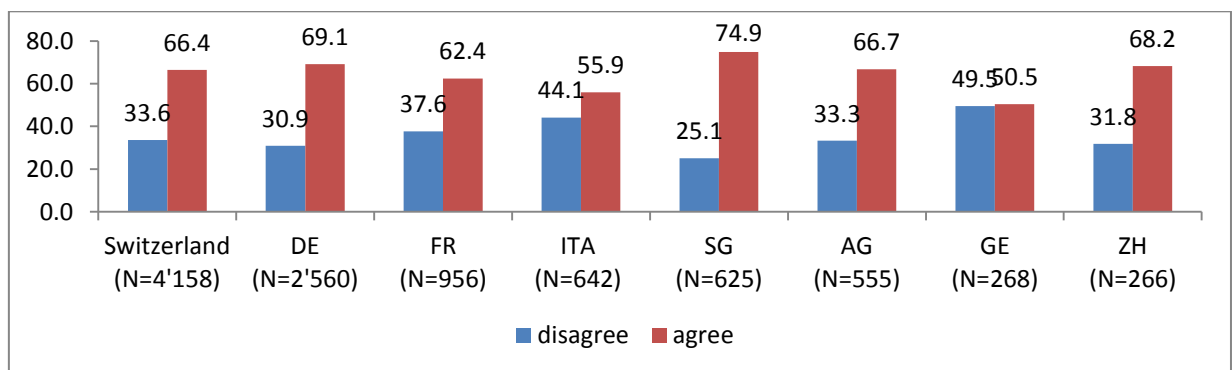
Figure 3.3 “I like my school” by main and subsamples in %⁸⁰.



As in Figure 3.1, the results do not differ much across regions in Figure 3.3. Schools seem most popular in St-Gall and least so in Ticino.

The same differences, as in Figure 3.2., appear when the question turns to the interest students have in following lessons (Figure 3.4). Apparently, students in Geneva and in Ticino find their lessons less interesting than in the canton of St-Gall.

Figure 3.4 “Our classes are interesting” by main and subsamples in %⁸¹.



The differences across regions are substantial, although nearly two students in three feel the lessons at school are interesting.

The question whether or not students would miss their teacher in case they had to move allowed to grade answers in six levels. Figure 3.5 gives the detailed replies. In Figure 3.6, the scope of possible answers is reduced to a scale of three levels.

80 Weighted data

81 Weighted data

Figure 3.5 “If I had to move, I would miss my teacher” by main and subsamples in %⁸².

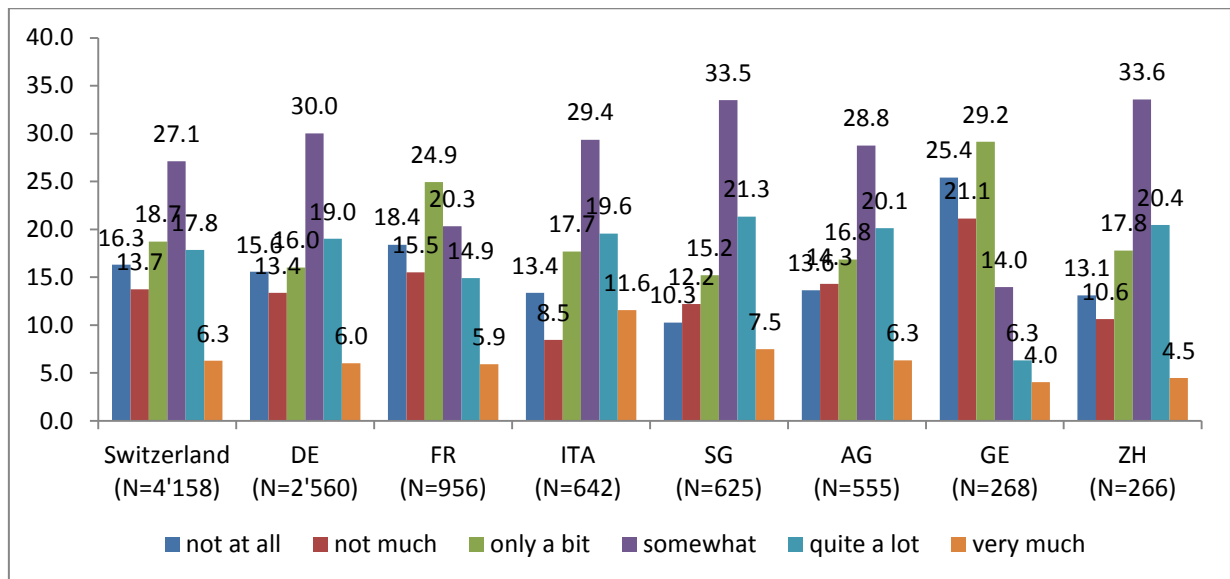
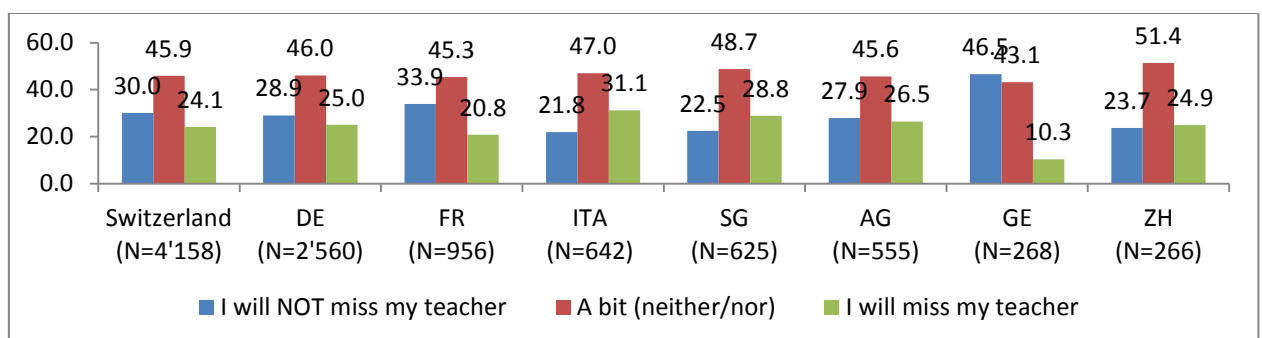


Figure 3.6 “If I had to move, I would miss my teacher” (same as Fig. 3.5, reduced to 3 categories) in %.⁸³



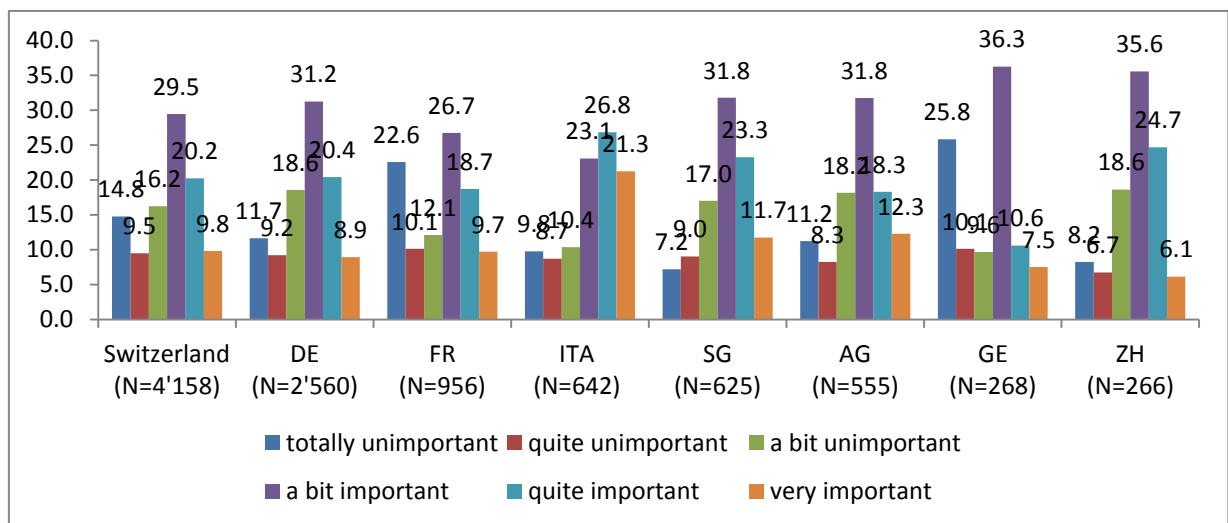
In all regions of Switzerland students would somewhat miss their teachers if they have to move. Nearly one student in two would not miss their teacher in Geneva. In the other regions, however, differences across subsamples are not as pronounced. Apparently, the popularity of teachers is only moderately related to school attachment.

The following Figures 3.7 and 3.8 present the results concerning students' attitudes towards their image among teachers. Figure 3.7 gives the results in six, Figures 3.8 in three levels.

82 Weighted data

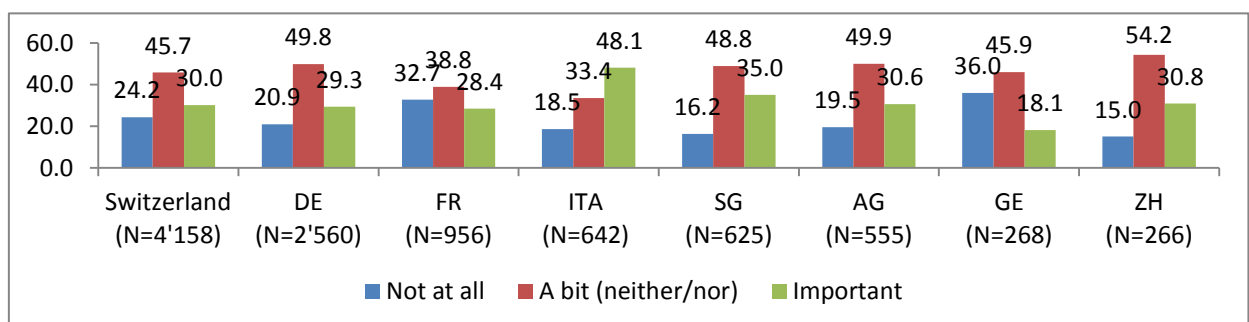
83 Weighted data

Figure 3.7 “It is important for me, how my favourite teacher thinks about me” by main and subsamples in %⁸⁴.



For most students, it is “a bit important” and “quite important” what their favourite teacher thinks about them. In some regions, however, a sizeable proportion of students do not care what their teacher thinks about them.

Figure 3.8 “It is important for me, how my favourite teacher thinks about me” (same as Fig. 3.7, reduced to 3 categories) in %⁸⁵



Overall and especially for the main sample, the distribution is almost perfectly normal. Most students feel that their teacher’s opinion is “a bit important” or “a bit unimportant”. Notable exceptions are Ticino and St-Gall where students care much more about their teacher’s opinion, and Geneva at the opposite side of the distribution.

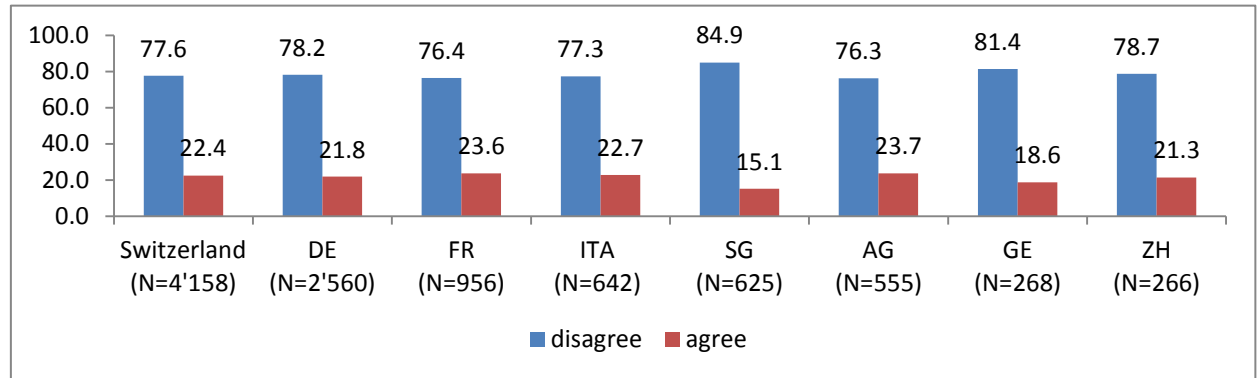
84 Weighted data

85 Weighted data

3.2.2 Perceptions about the school environment

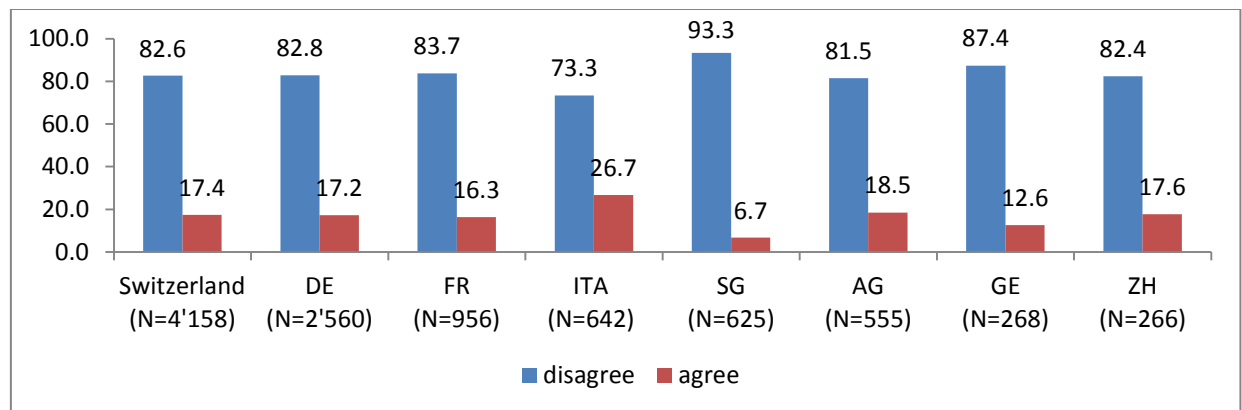
Students have been asked whether stealing, fighting, drug use or vandalism is common or not at their school. The results are given in the following Figures 3.9-3.12.

Figure 3.9 “There is a lot of stealing in my school” in %.



For Switzerland as a whole, one respondent in four agrees with the statement that stealing is common at his/her school. This proportion does not differ much across regions, with the exception of St-Gall where only 15 per cent say that there is a lot of stealing at their school.

Figure 3.10 “There is a lot of fighting in my school” in %⁸⁶

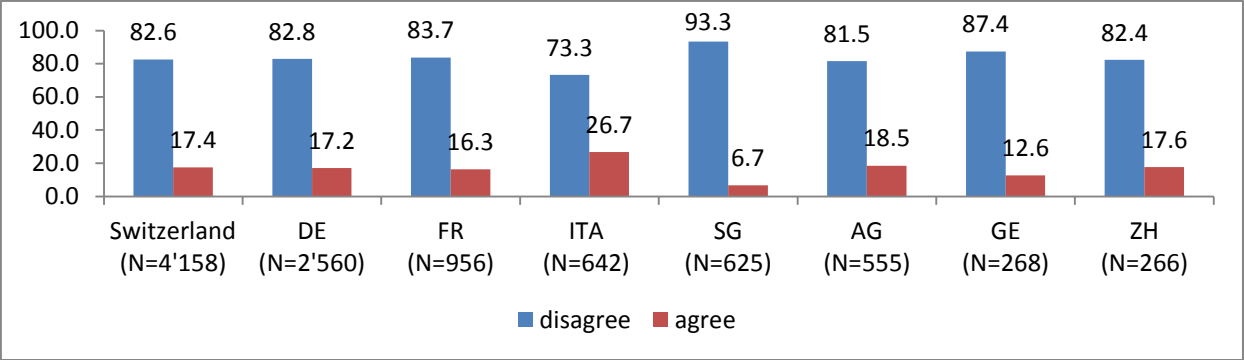


The prevalence of fighting seems to vary more across regions. More than one quarter of students say fighting is common at their school in the canton of Ticino, but only 16 and 17 per cent in German and French speaking cantons respectively; and less than 10 per cent in the canton of St-Gall.

With respect to vandalism at school, there is again a fairly constant proportion of students who report this being common at their school, with Ticino and St-Gall being the exceptions.

⁸⁶ Weighted data

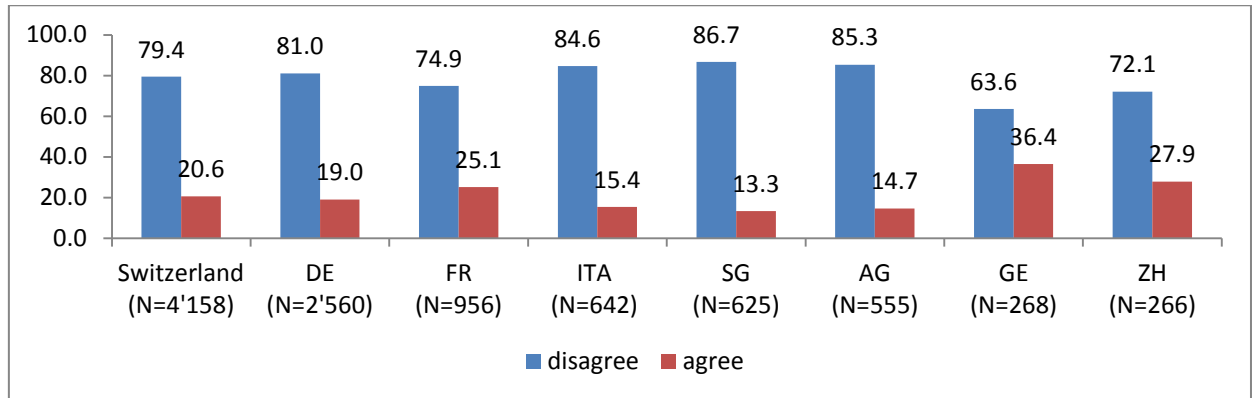
Figure 3.11 “Many things are broken or vandalized in my school”by main and subsamples in %.⁸⁷



In the case of Ticino, it might be that the high prevalence of vandalism at schools is influenced by the presumably high prevalence of graffiti and broken objects in the public space in neighbouring Italy. However, the rather even distribution across regions may also reflect a nation-wide policy among schools to swiftly replace or remove broken items.

⁸⁷ Weighted data

Figure 3.12 “There is a lot of drug use in my school” by main and subsamples in %.⁸⁸

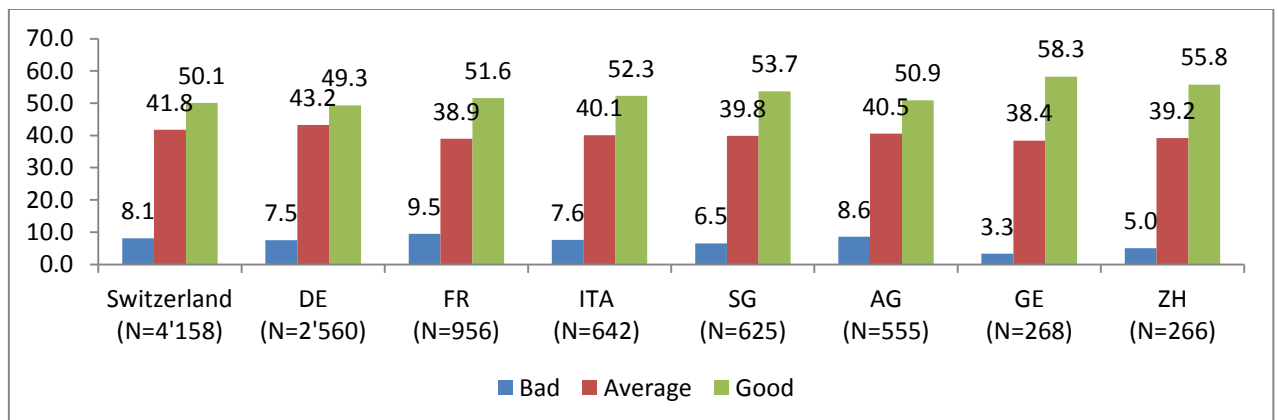


Drug use (presumably of cannabis) seems also to vary substantially across regions. In French-speaking cantons, one respondent in four says drug use to be common at his/her school, whereas only 19 and 15.4 per cent say so in the German and Italian speaking cantons. Noteworthy are the high proportions in Geneva and in Zurich (36 and 28 per cent) and the low rate in St-Gall (13.3 per cent). There is a fairly strong association between perceived drug use among fellow-students and respondents' own drug use (see Figure 3.26).

3.2.3 Performance at school and truancy

Students have been asked whether they see themselves as good (or rather poor) students, whether they ever have, during their school career, repeated a grade and whether or not they have stayed away from school during an entire day (at least) during the last 12 months without any legitimate excuse.

Figure 3.13 “How well do you do at school?” by main and subsamples in %.⁸⁹

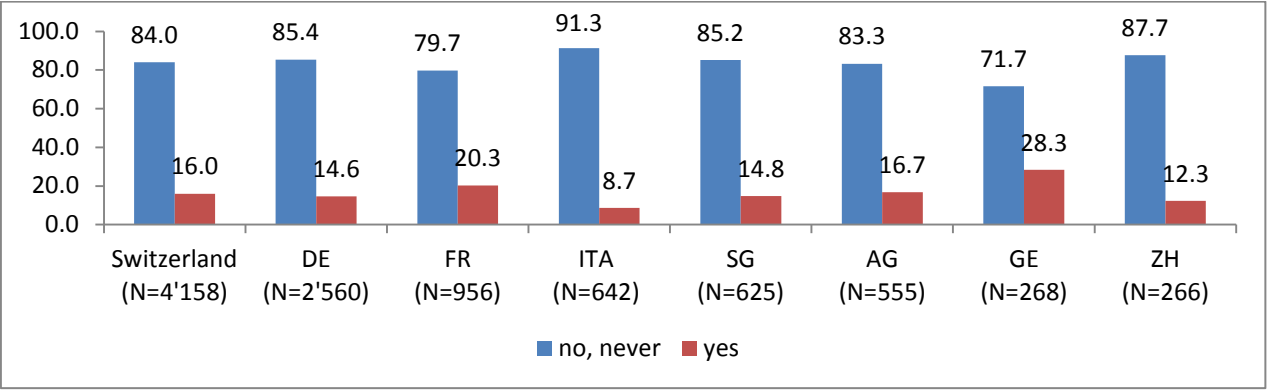


⁸⁸ Weighted data

⁸⁹ Weighted data

One half of respondents in Switzerland identify themselves as good students. This percentage is relatively stable across all regions. However, students in the canton of Geneva rank themselves more often as “good students”. This strangely contrasts with the findings reported above where students in Geneva often seem to have more problematic attitudes towards their school and teachers.

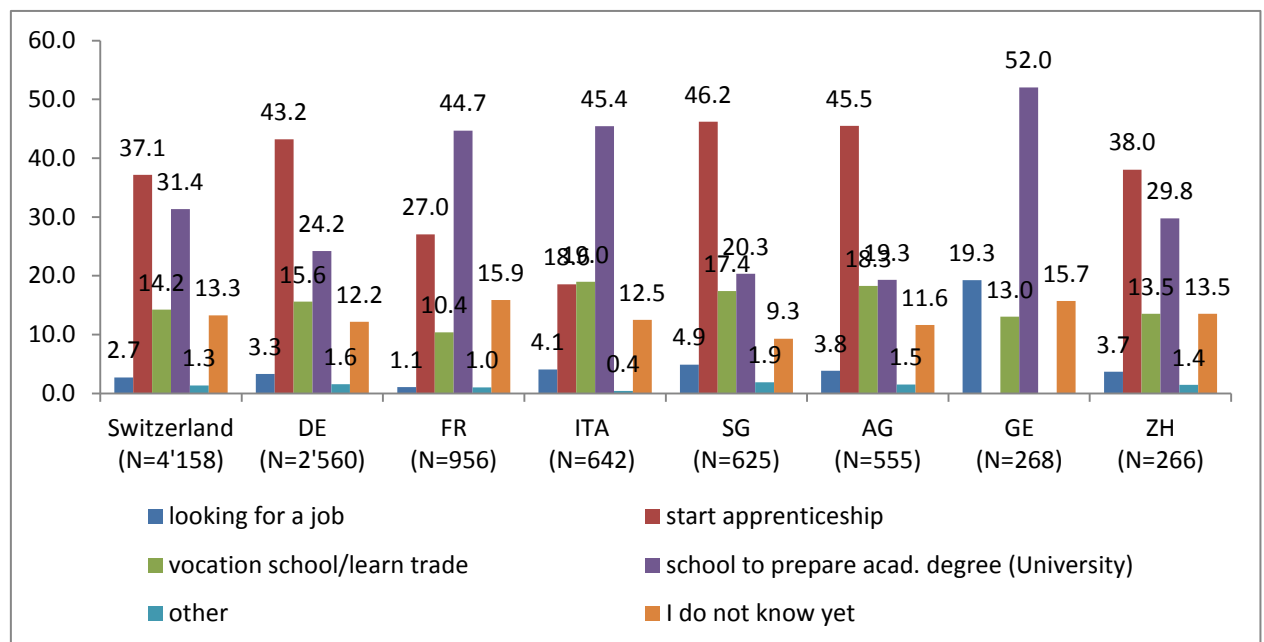
Figure 3.14 Repeating grades by main and subsamples in %.⁹⁰



The percentage of respondents who report having ever (i.e. at least once), during their career, repeated a grade is slightly higher in French speaking cantons (20.3%) and clearly lowest in Ticino (8.7%). This suggests that policies seem to be rather similar across Switzerland in this respect.

90 Weighted data

Figure 3.15 Plans for future educations, after the compulsory school by main and subsamples in %.⁹¹



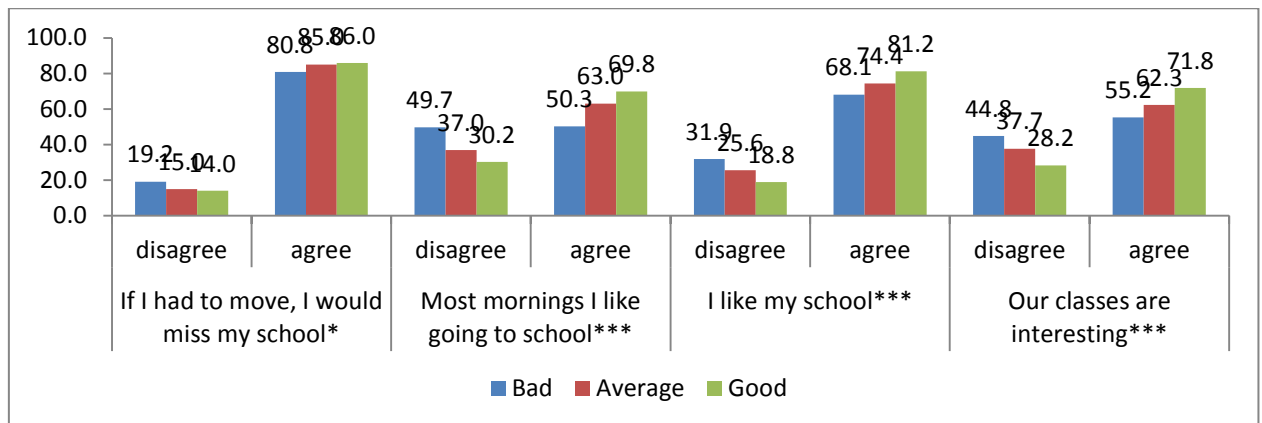
Plans for future education after having finished the current (compulsory) school differ considerably across regions and cantons. In French- and Italian-speaking cantons, higher education (leading to University studies) clearly leads over other options, whereas nearly one in two opts for an apprenticeship in German speaking cantons.

Immediately applying for a job after finishing the current school is not a popular option in the country taken as a whole. Only 2.7 per cent envisage this option, with rather small differences across regions and cantons. In Geneva, nobody has opted for this alternative, underlining the high value attributed to higher education among students in this canton.

There are some correlations between attitudes towards school and performance at school. Respondents who rate themselves as “good” students generally like their school more than others, they would miss it more, like more going to school in the morning and find classes more interesting.

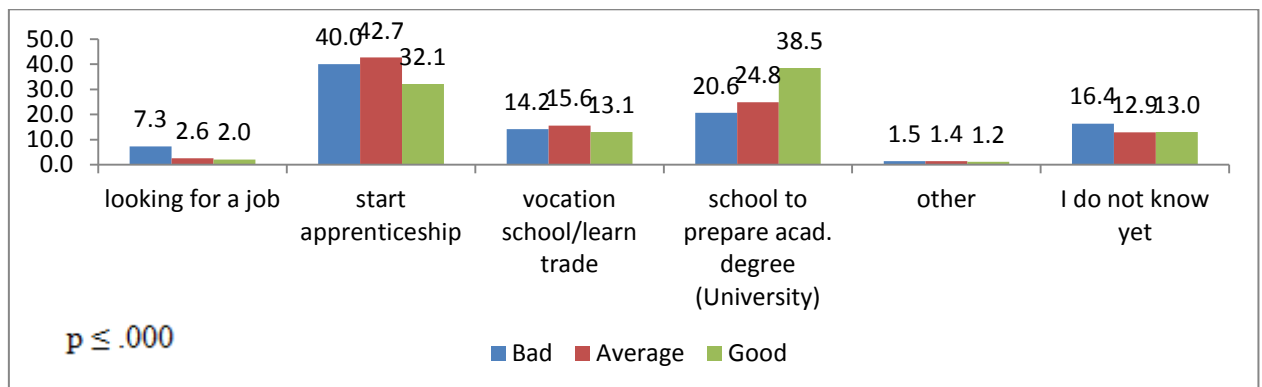
⁹¹ Weighted data

Figure 3.16 Feelings about school, by performance as a student in %, N=4137.



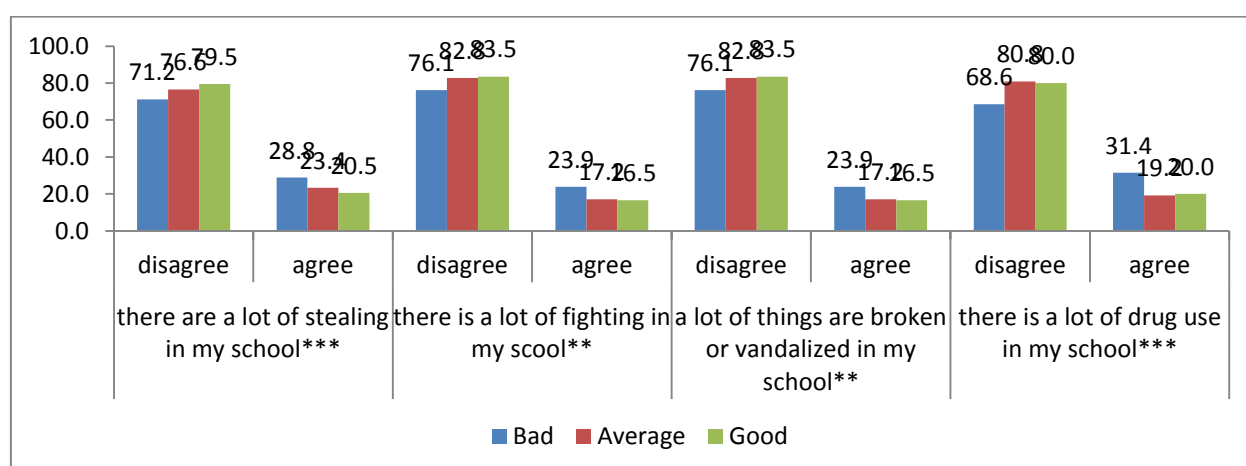
On the other hand, respondents, who see their own school less positively, usually have worse school records than their peers.

Figure 3.17 Future plans (after current school), by performance as a student in %, N=4101.⁹²



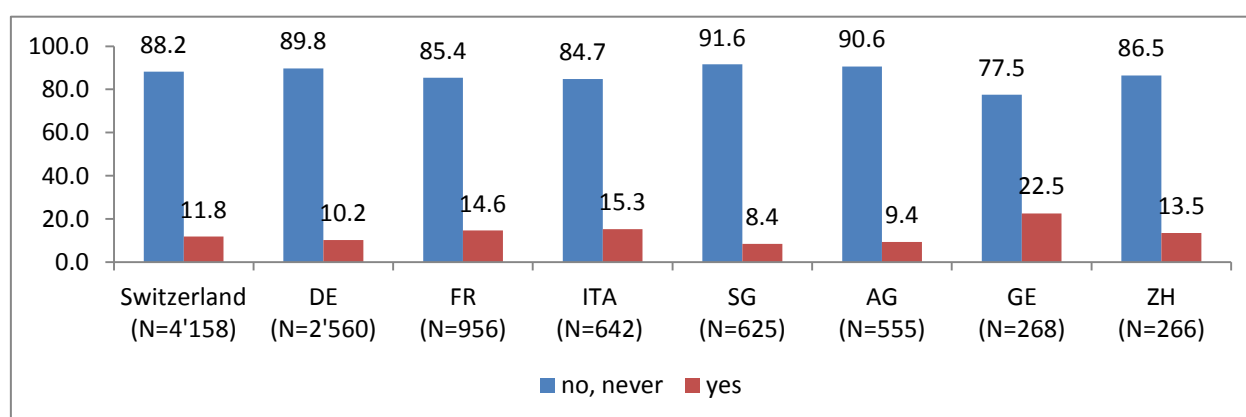
Respondents who see themselves as good students envisage more often continuing school to get higher education. On the other hand, those who see themselves as rather poor students obviously feel less well prepared for higher education and opt, as a result, predominantly for an apprenticeship. This was to be expected. More noteworthy (and, eventually, a source of worry) may be those who, although rating themselves as “bad students”, say continuing to higher education. Provided the self-assessments among these students are realistic, there may be a lot of frustration, due eventually to parental ambitions. A further source of concern must be the fact that nearly one in five among the “poor” students has no clear idea about how to pursue education after the current school.

Figure 3.18 Perception of problems at school, by performance as a student in %, N=4126-4133⁹³



Respondents, who see a lot of stealing, fighting, vandalized and broken items, as well as drug use in their schools, tend to see themselves less often as “good students”. The association, however, is not strong, particularly with respect to fighting at school, and the direction of the causation is not entirely clear. It could simply reflect the fact that “poor students” tend to concentrate in schools facing a lot of problems.

Figure 3.19 Staying away from school a whole day (truancy) during last 12 month by main and subsamples in %.⁹⁴



The prevalence of truancy varies somewhat across the country, although not that many students seem to stay away for one entire school day at least over the last 12 months. Truancy is more common in French- and Italian-speaking cantons (14.6 and 15.1 per cent, respectively) than in German-speaking regions and, once more, in St-Gall (8.4 per cent).

93 Weighted data

94 Weighted data

3.3 Association between school-related variables and delinquency

3.3.1 Attitudes towards school and delinquency

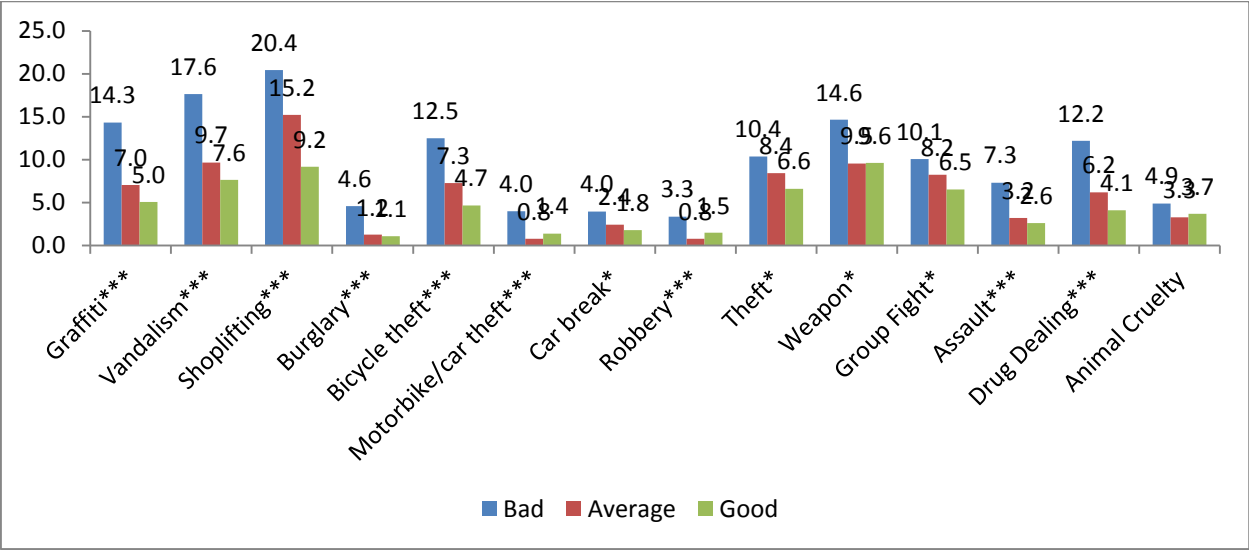
Given the many items on delinquency, we shall first summarize the delinquency scores by the several independent (school-related) variables, as discussed before. Table 3.1 gives the scores (i.e. the percentage of) respondents having admitted having committed any of the following offences at least once over the last 12 months.

Table 3.1 Delinquency scores (last year prevalence), by attitude towards school in %, N=4048-4067⁹⁵

	If I have to move, I would miss my school			Most mornings I like going to school			I like my school			Our classes are interesting		
	disagree	agree	p=	disagree	agree	p=	disagree	agree	p=	disagree	agree	p=
Graffiti	12.1	5.7	.000	10.3	4.8	.000	13.0	4.8	.000	11.5	4.2	.000
Vandalism	14.1	8.4	.000	14.2	6.6	.000	15.5	7.4	.000	15.5	6.1	.000
Shoplifting	15.4	12.2	.026	18.0	9.8	.000	19.8	10.5	.000	20.2	8.8	.000
Burglary	3.7	1.0	.000	3.0	0.6	.000	3.5	0.8	.000	2.4	0.9	.000
Bicycle theft	10.8	5.6	.000	9.9	4.6	.000	12.9	4.5	.000	9.3	4.9	.000
Motorbike/ car theft	3.0	1.1	.000	2.6	0.7	.000	3.0	0.9	.000	2.3	0.9	.000
Car break	4.3	1.8	.000	4.9	0.8	.000	5.4	1.3	.000	3.4	1.6	.000
Robbery	3.2	1.0	.000	2.3	0.8	.000	3.3	0.8	.000	2.5	0.8	.000
Theft	13.7	6.6	.000	11.7	5.6	.000	12.8	6.2	.000	13.4	4.7	.000
Weapon	18.0	8.6	.000	16.0	6.8	.000	17.4	7.8	.000	13.7	8.2	.000
Group Fight	10.5	7.0	.003	11.8	5.3	.000	13.8	5.7	.000	12.9	4.8	.000
Assault	8.1	2.4	.000	5.7	1.9	.000	6.4	2.3	.000	5.8	1.9	.000
Drug Dealing	10.9	4.6	.000	8.4	4.0	.000	10.6	4.1	.000	8.6	4.0	.000
Animal Cruelty	5.5	3.3	.008	5.5	2.6	.000	5.4	3.1	.001	4.8	3.0	.005

Respondents with less positive feeling about their schools report more offence(s). In many instances, the differences are even substantial. The following Figures will make this associations more easily visible.

Figure 3.20 Delinquency (last year), by performance at school in %, N=4048-4067⁹⁶



Delinquency (last year prevalence) as a dependent variable is significantly related to school performance. Students, who identify themselves as “bad students”, more likely admit to having committed, at least once over the last 12 months, any of the offences included on the self-reported delinquency list.

Although school performance is, to some degree, related to future plans (Fig. 3.17), the differences, in terms of offending, are not as substantial between the several educational alternatives that respondents envisage, as one might have anticipated (Table 3.2/Figure 3.21).

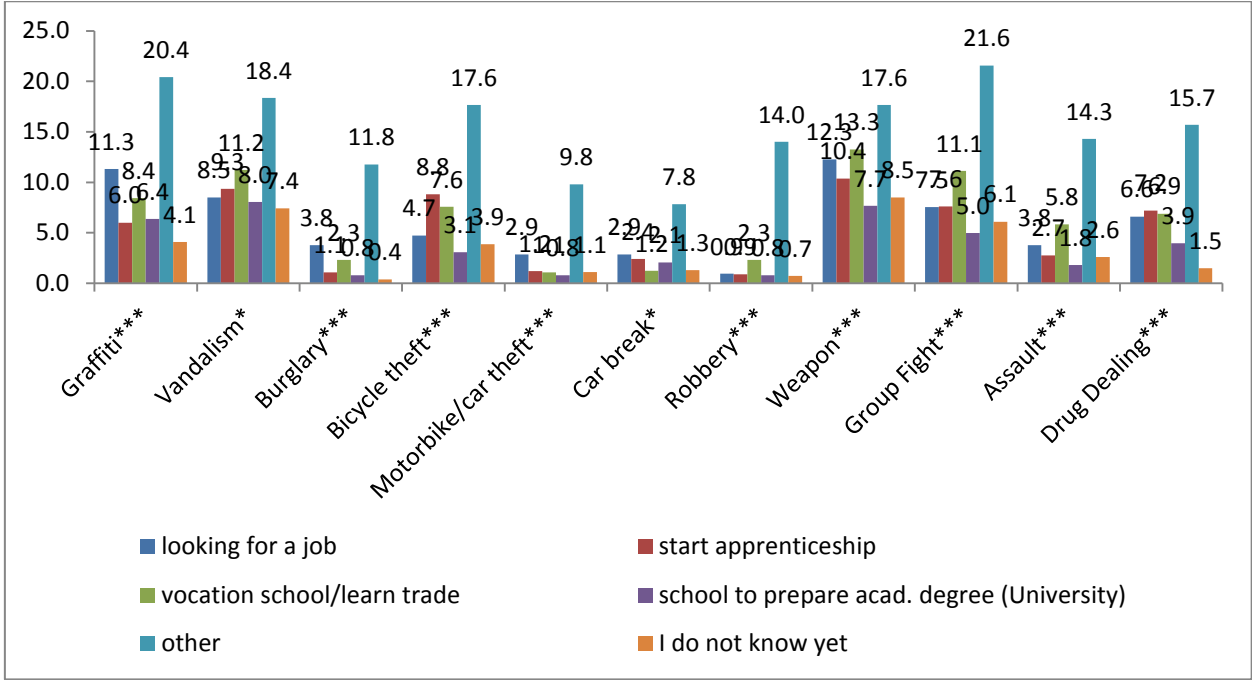
⁹⁶ Weighted data

Table 3.2 Delinquency last year prevalence by plans after compulsory school in %, N=4017-4034.⁹⁷

	Looking for or a job	Start apprenticeship	Vocational school/learned	Continue school to prepare acad. degree (University)	Other	I do not know yet	p=
Graffiti	11.3	6.0	8.4	6.4	20.4	4.1	.000
Vandalism	8.5	9.3	11.2	8.0	18.4	7.4	.036
Shoplifting	12.3	13.8	12.6	11.4	22.4	10.5	.076
Burglary	3.8	1.1	2.3	0.8	11.8	0.4	.000
Bicycle theft	4.7	8.8	7.6	3.1	17.6	3.9	.000
Motorbike/cart theft	2.9	1.2	1.1	0.8	9.8	1.1	.000
Car break	2.9	2.4	1.2	2.1	7.8	1.3	.022
Robbery	0.9	0.9	2.3	0.8	14.0	0.7	.000
Theft	6.6	7.7	8.1	6.8	9.8	7.4	.875
Weapon	12.3	10.4	13.3	7.7	17.6	8.5	.001
Group Fight	7.5	7.6	11.1	5.0	21.6	6.1	.000
Assault	3.8	2.7	5.8	1.8	14.3	2.6	.000
Drug Dealing	6.6	7.2	6.9	3.9	15.7	1.5	.000
Animal Cruelty	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.4	7.8	3.1	.583

The most delinquent group seem to be juveniles in the category of “other” plans, i.e. probably juveniles without any clear plans for the future immediately following the current school.

Figure 3.21 Delinquency (last year) by plans after compulsory school in %m N=4017-4034.⁹⁸



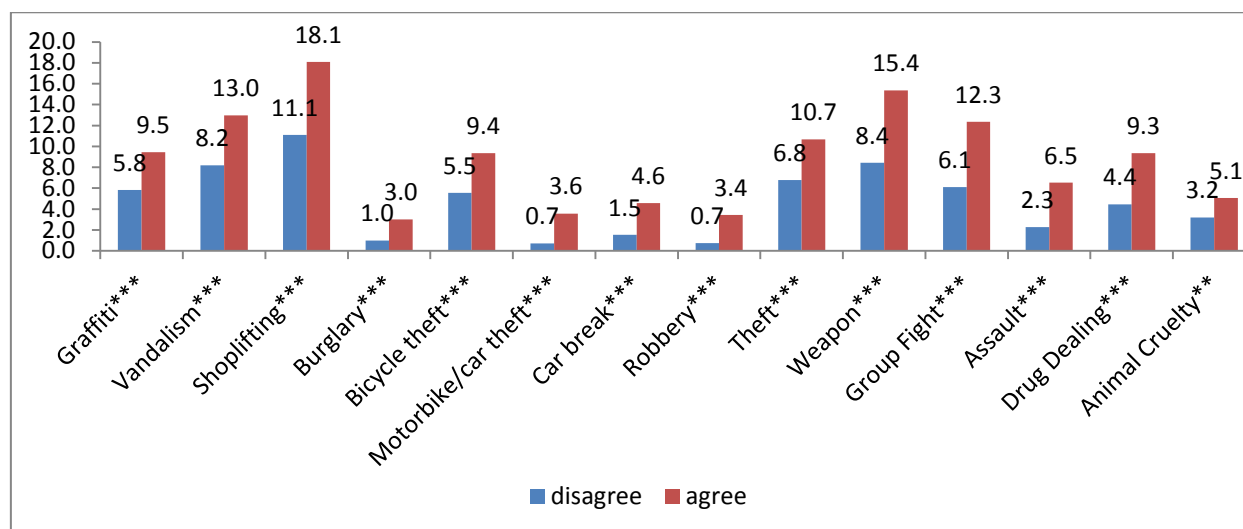
Students who plan to continue with higher education after the current school are consistently less delinquent. On the other hand, those in the category of “other” plans tend to be substantially more delinquent with respect to most offences.

98 Weighted data

3.3.2 Problems in the school environment and delinquency

More even than with school performance, rather strong associations with delinquency have been observed between the perceptions of problems in the school environment, such as frequent theft, vandalism, fighting and drug use.

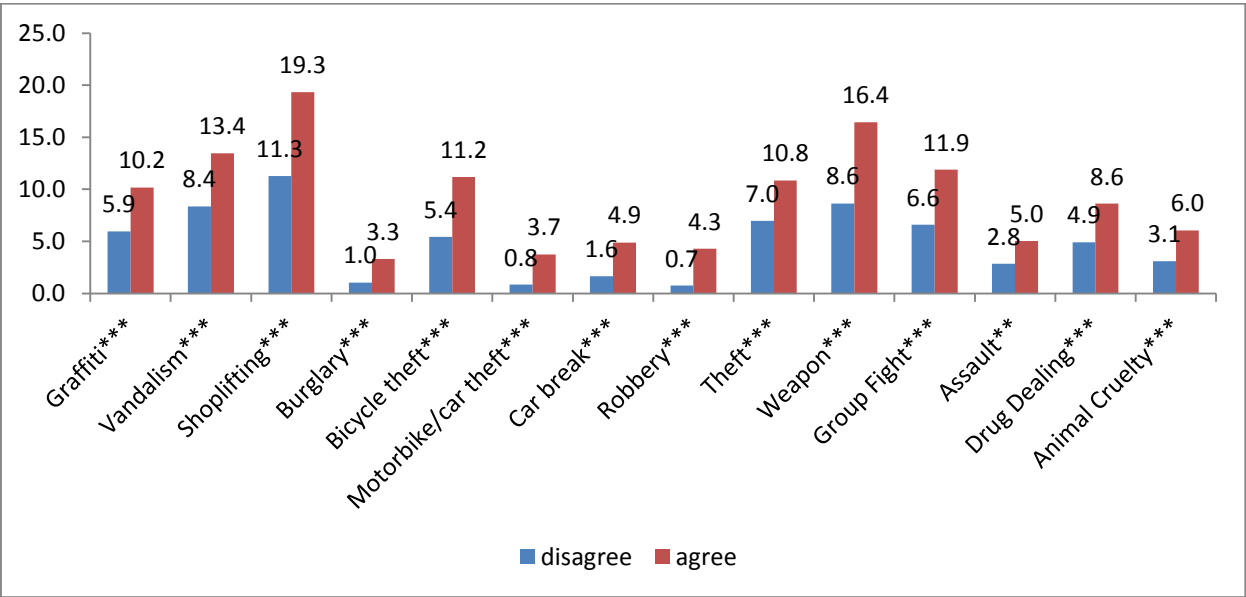
Figure 3.22 Delinquency (last year) by the perception that stealing is common at school in %, N=4042-4059.⁹⁹



Respondents, who say that “there is a lot of stealing in my school”, are more likely to admit having committed, at least once during the last year, any of the offences included on the list. This is particularly true for burglary, motorbike/ car theft, car break, and robbery. The explanation of the association is not straightforward since juveniles who admit to these offences may, on one hand, concentrate in schools with a lot of offences against property; on the other hand, the presence of many fellow-students who engaging in such offences may operate also as a facilitator of this kind of delinquency.

⁹⁹ Weighted data

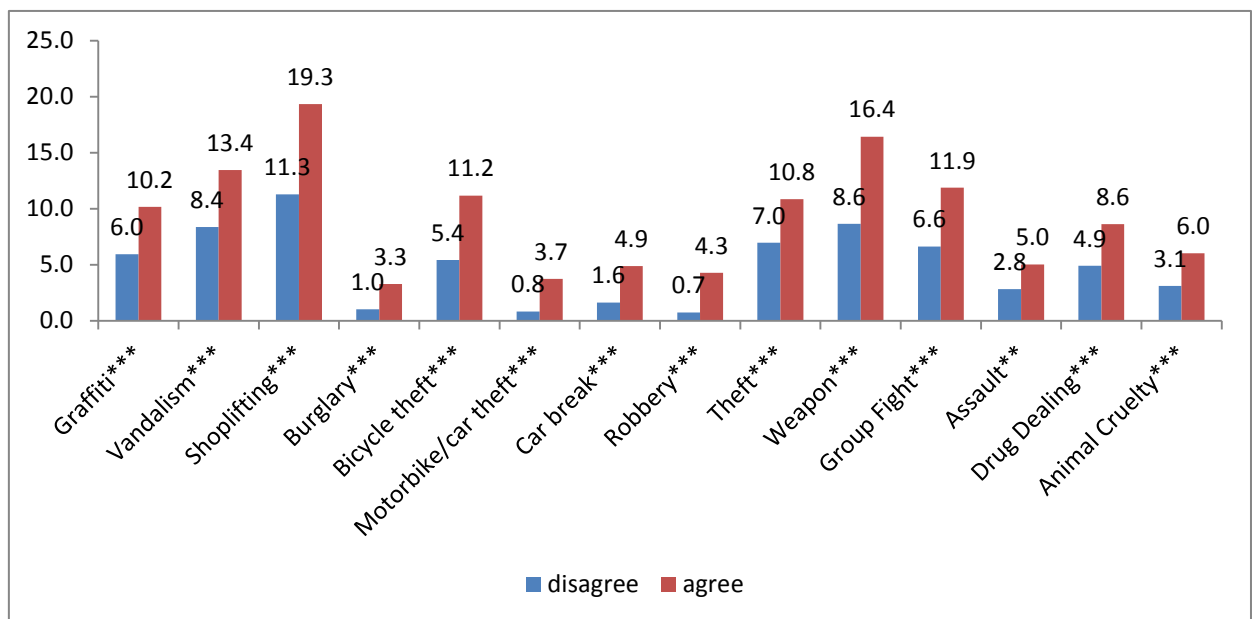
Figure 3.23 Delinquency (last year) by the perception that fighting is common at school in, N=4045-4061 %.¹⁰⁰



Again, the same picture emerges. Students, who see a lot of fighting in their school, report delinquency more often. The association is particularly strong for serious offences, such as burglary, theft of/from cars, robbery, and assault.

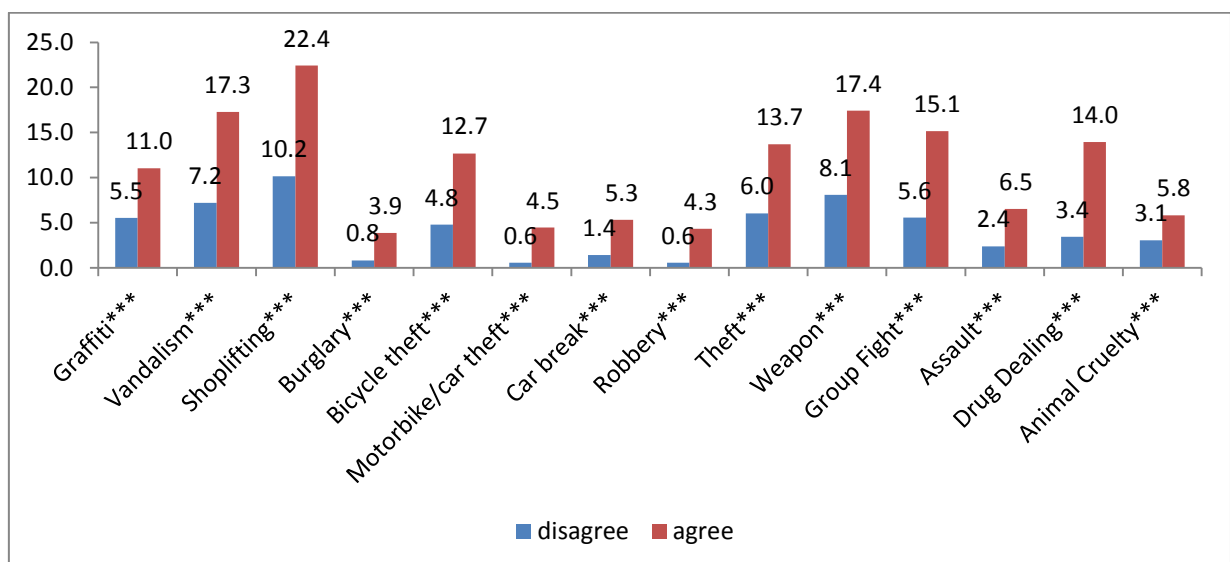
100 Weighted data

Figure 3.24 Delinquency (last year) by the perception that vandalism is common at school in, %, N=4043-4061.¹⁰¹



Respondents, who report that broken and vandalized items are common at their schools, are more likely to have committed, at least once over the last year, any offence included on our list, especially burglary, theft if/from cars, and robbery.

Figure 3.25 Delinquency (last year) by the perception that drug use is common at school in %, N=4038-4055.¹⁰²



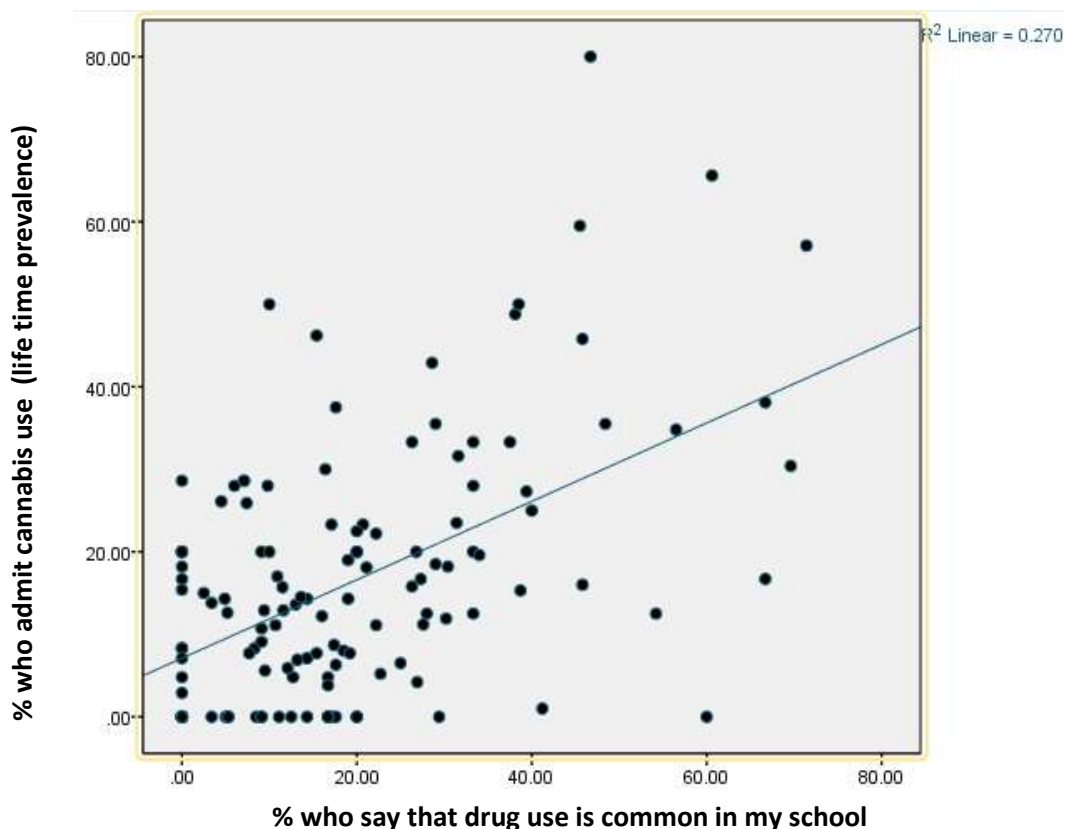
101 Weighted data

102 Weighted data

Students who report that drug use is common at their school admit more often having committed, at least once over the last year, any offence included on our list. The association is even stronger than for the perception of other social problems in the school environment, particularly for drug dealing.

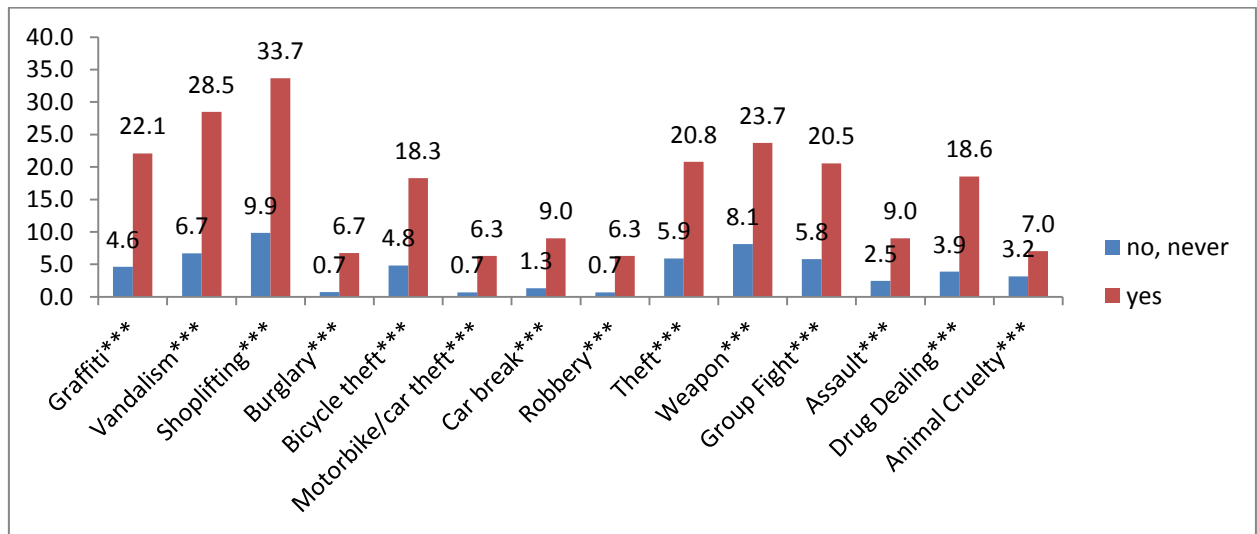
Whereas Figure 3.25 is about delinquency at the individual level, we can also see how the school environment affects behaviour among school populations. Figure 3.26 illustrates the association between the perception that cannabis use is common at school and the percentage of students in any of the 95 schools included in our survey that actually use cannabis.

Figure 3.26 Cannabis use (life time) by perception of drug use at school, at schools level (95 schools participating in the survey).



Indeed, more students admit using cannabis at schools where they say drug use being common. This supports the view that delinquency in the school environment may act as a facilitator rather than as a simple correlate.

Figure 3.27 Delinquency (last year) by staying away from school a whole day (truancy) in %, N=4045-4061.¹⁰³



Students, who stay away from school for least a whole day, are far more likely to commit an offence. The association between these two variables is even higher than for the preceding variables. This is noteworthy particularly for burglary, theft of/from cars, robbery, assault and drug dealing.

3.4 Main findings and discussion

- French-speaking respondents have generally less positive feelings about their school. This holds across the several measures of attachment to school, such as missing the school or teachers in case of moving to a different area, or interest for classes. German-speaking respondents generally see their school environment more positively, especially in the canton of St-Gall.
- Overall, however, most Swiss students have positive attitudes towards school.
- Students in Ticino are the most positively attached to their schools and teachers.
- Students in French-speaking cantons report more often that there are social problems at their school, such as widespread delinquency and drug use
- Although truancy is fairly rare in Switzerland as a whole, it is far more common in Geneva and in Zurich, and rare in St-Gall.
- Despite the fact that students in French-speaking cantons and particularly in Geneva are less attached to schools and/or teachers, and in contradiction with the fact that more students have repeated a class there, an unusually high percentage see themselves as

„good“ students, in comparison with their peers in other regions. In line with this self-assessment, more students than in any other region plan to pursue education in higher schools leading to academic studies. At the same time, less students than in any other region plan to start an apprenticeship after their current school.

- Delinquency is related to performance at school and attitudes towards school. Students who plan pursuing with higher education report less self-reported offences. The highest delinquency scores can be seen among students without clear or, eventually, unrealistic plans for the future.
- Students who report having missed school over more than one entire day during the last 12 months without legitimate excuse report having committed substantially more serious and violent offences.
- There is a significant, consistent and fairly strong association between delinquency and the perception of social problems at school. Students are more likely to admit having committed offences who report a lot of stealing, fighting and vandalized items at school. The association is particularly strong for the perception that drug use is common at school. This is especially true for more serious and violent offences.
- School-related variables (as those discussed here) are particularly relevant for designing policies of prevention. Truancy, vandalism at school as well as other social problems at schools can be dealt with, at least to some extent, by school authorities. Although our cross-sectional analyses cannot definitively determine the causal direction of the observed associations, their size suggest, in some instances at least, that improving school indicators might be a promising way to prevention.

Chapter 4

Victimization

4.1 Overview

In the ISRD-3, as well as during ISRD-2 (in 2006), respondents were asked whether they have been victims of several kinds. The questionnaire included 7 questions about victimization (over the entire life time and over last year). In case of any victimization (except parental violence and parental maltreatment) that was experienced during last 12 month, respondents were asked whether or not the incident had been reported to the police.

In this chapter, findings will be presented regarding victimization and reporting to the police. We also shall compare rates of victimization in 2013, with those observed in 2006 (ISRD-2). Further, rates of reporting to the police in 2013 and 2006 will be presented.

This chapter also includes information on demographic factors influencing the risk of victimization and the decision to report an incident to the police.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 *The prevalence of victimization across regions*

The following Table 4.1 gives the detailed rates on how many among the respondents have ever, during their life, become victims of the offences listed, both nation-wide and in the several subsamples.

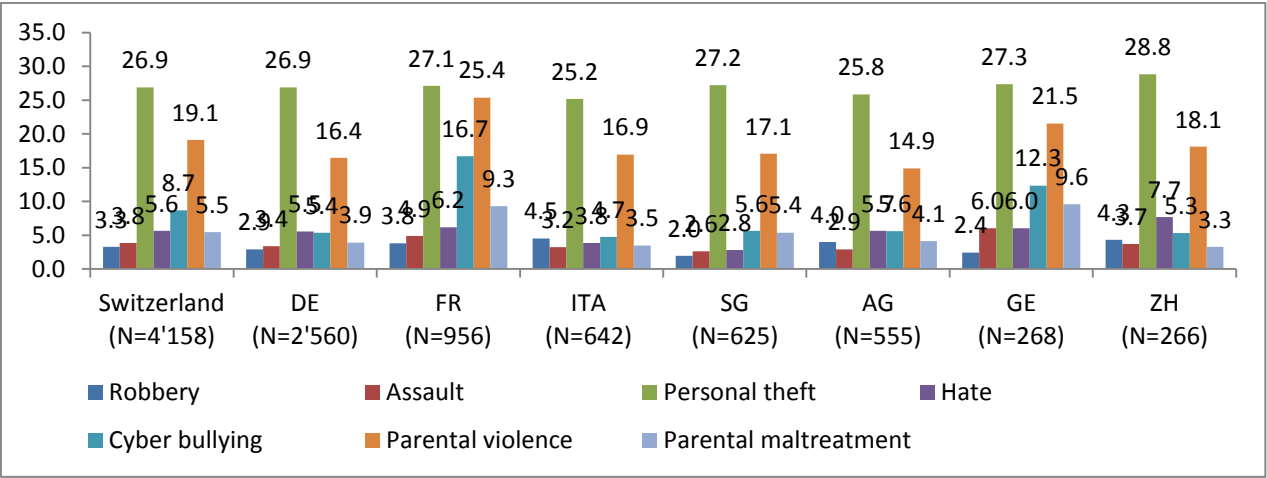
Table 4.1 Victimization (life-time prevalence) by main and subsamples in %.¹⁰⁴

	Switzerland (N=4'158)	DE (N=2'560)	FR (N=956)	ITA (N=642)	SG (N=625)	AG (N=555)	GE (N=268)	ZH (N=266)
Robbery	5.1	4.5	6.1	6.7	4.4	6.5	3.6	5.5
Assault	5.0	4.4	5.9	7.3	4.8	4.4	7.1	4.2
Personal theft	35.1	35.0	35.9	31.3	35.8	32.7	32.6	36.8
Hate	7.4	7.5	7.4	5.8	6.2	6.6	7.4	10.5
Cyberbullying	15.5	12.9	21.1	16.7	15.1	16.4	18.3	12.5
Parental violence	28.4	24.3	37.5	28.7	23.4	20.3	38.1	29.7
Parental maltreatment	7.9	6.1	12.2	5.0	7.8	5.3	10.8	5.8

¹⁰⁴ Weighted data

Figure 4.1 gives the same information in visualized form and for the three language regions as well as for the country as a whole. As it seems, victimization is relatively evenly distributed across the several regions of Switzerland.

Figure 4.1 Victimization (last year prevalence) by main and subsamples in %.¹⁰⁵



However, respondents in German-speaking cantons are slightly less often victimized regarding most offences. The difference is particularly marked for parental violence and parental maltreatment that is almost twice as frequent in French-speaking cantons and especially in Geneva (as shown in Table 4.1). The differences are similarly strong for cyber bullying.

4.2.2 More victimizations and less reporting?

Last year prevalence rates of victimization in 2013 can be compared with the data for 2006 and for Switzerland as a whole. Exceptions are hate crimes, cyber bullying, parental violence and maltreatment by parents that were not measured in 2006, as well as bullying in general that were not asked in 2013.

¹⁰⁵ Weighted data

Table 4.2 Percent victimized and reporting to the police in % for 2013 and 2006.¹⁰⁶

	ISRD-2*		ISRD-3*	
	Victimization (last yearprevalence)	Reported to the police	Victimization (last yearprevalence)	Reported to the police
Robbery	2.3	22.3	3.3	17.4
Assault	2.4	32.4	3.8	30.6
Personal theft	22.6	32.3	26.9	22.9
Hate			5.6	15.1
Cyberbullying			8.7	15.8
Bullying	12.4	7.8		
Parental violence			19.1	
Parental maltreatment			5.5	
N=	3'648		4'158	

* weighted data

The prevalence of victimization has increased from 2006 to 2013 for robbery, assault and personal theft. The increase is significant ($p \leq .000$).

Reporting to the police has been asked for the last incident (in case more than one incidence has been reported for the last 12 months). Reporting to the police is not as unusual as one might have expected. In general, reporting to the police has slightly decreased from 2006 to 2013. For the interpretation of official counts of offending (such as police statistics), this means that a lower level of reporting should be taken into account and that an eventual decrease might be overstated if lower levels of reporting are not considered.

4.3 Association between demographic variables, victimization and reporting to the police

4.3.1 Gender, victimization and reporting to the police

Gender is an important variable in criminology. Table 4.3 shows, for boys and girls, the prevalence rates of victimization (both over the last 12 months and the entire life time) as well as the proportion of offences that were reported to the police.

Table 4.3 Victimization and reporting to the police in %.¹⁰⁷

Victimization (life time prevalence) by gender (N=4121-4136)							
	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbullying	Parental violence	Parental maltreatment
male	7.6	6.2	39.4	7.7	10.4	27.3	8.0
female	2.7	3.9	31.0	7.0	20.5	29.4	7.7
Chi-square	.000	.001	.000	.380	.000	.133	.719
Victimization (last year prevalence) by gender (N=4129-4138)							
	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbullying	Parental violence	Parental maltreatment
male	5.0	4.4	29.1	6.0	5.9	18.6	5.6
female	1.6	3.3	24.6	5.3	11.3	19.5	5.3
Chi-square	.000	.051	.001	.381	.000	.426	.690
Reporting to the police by gender, last year (N=129-1096)							
	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbullying		
male	16.7	25.8	25.2	17.6	14.8		
female	18.2	36.8	20.5	12.6	16.2		
Chi-square	.842	.141	.064	.288	.738		

Boys are more often victims of robbery, assault and personal theft than girls. These differences obviously relate to different life-styles and exposure to risk. On the other hand, girls more often than boys experience cyber bullying. Hate crimes, parental assault and maltreatment (life-time and last year prevalence) are relatively independent of gender.

4.3.2 Birthplace, victimization and reporting to the police

4.3.2.1 Country of birth and victimization

Birthplace has been measured in a way that promised to work in very different countries with most diverse patterns of immigration. For this sake, respondents have been asked in which country they were born themselves, and in which country their mother and their father had been born. Table 4.4 presents how many respondents (in per cent) experienced any of the listed

¹⁰⁷ Weighted data

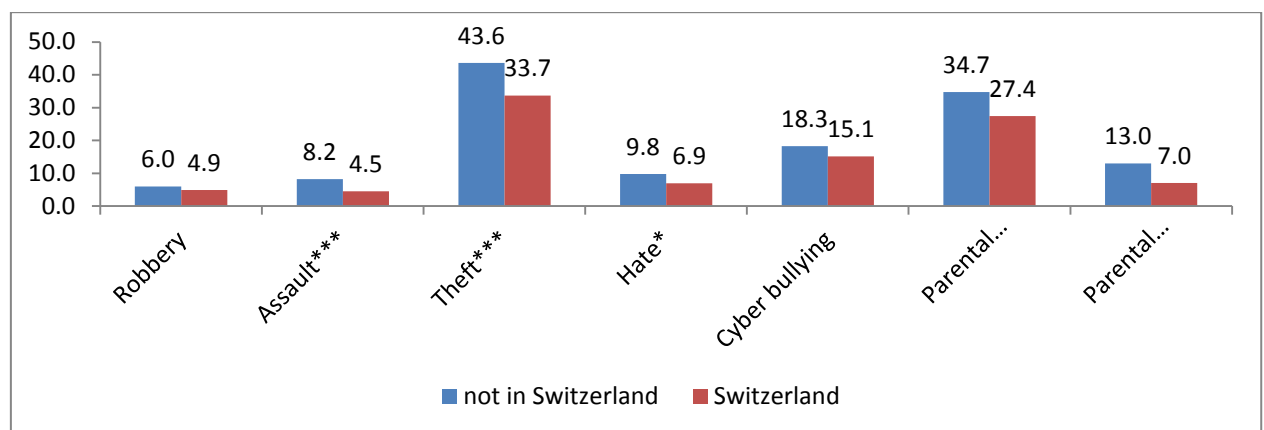
offences over the last 12 months by whether they were born in Switzerland or in any other country.

Table 4.4 Victimization (last year prevalence) by respondents' birthplace in %, N=4118-4132.¹⁰⁸

	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbull ying	Parental violence	Parental maltreatment
Born abroad	4.0	6.3	34.3	7.4	10.2	25.1	10.2
born in Switzerland	3.1	3.4	25.6	5.3	8.4	18.2	4.7
	.247	.001	.000	.049	.171	.000	.000

In Figure 4.2, the same information is presented in a visualized form, but for offences experienced over the last 12 months.

Figure 4.2 Victimization (life time prevalence) by respondents' birthplace in %, N=4118-4132.¹⁰⁹



Respondents who were born abroad experience offences of all kinds significantly more often, than those who were born in Switzerland. This is true for the last twelve months (Figure 4.2) as well as over the lifespan (Table 4.4). This difference may be related to different leisure-time activities and life-styles (see chapter 5).

Whether or not the incident was reported to the police was asked for the last incident experienced over the last 12 months.

Birthplace can also be defined in terms of parents' country of birth. We first present the results by mother's birthplace.

¹⁰⁸ Weighted data

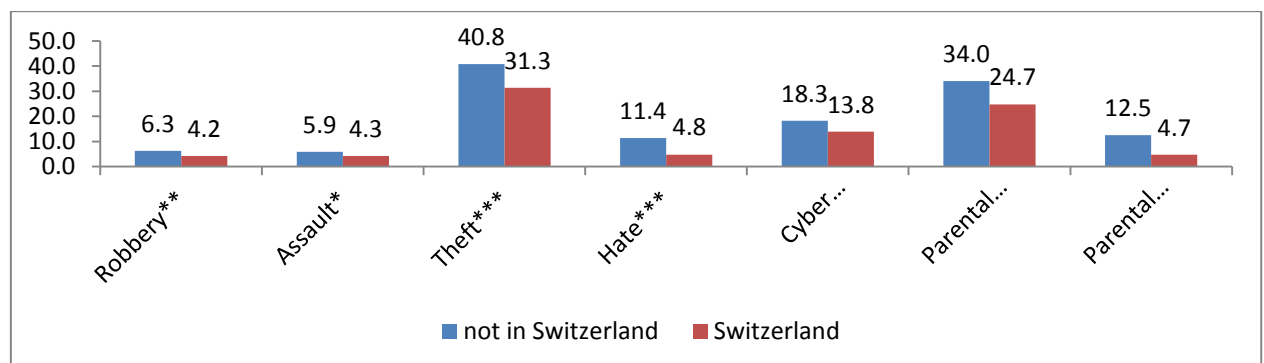
¹⁰⁹ Weighted data

Table 4.5 Victimization (last year prevalence) by mothers' birthplace in %, N=4092-4107.¹¹⁰

	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbullying	Parental violence	Parental maltreatment
Born abroad	3.9	4.1	32.0	8.4	10.8	23.5	8.7
born in Switzerland	2.8	3.5	23.5	3.8	7.3	16.3	3.3
	.070	.300	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Respondents whose mother was born in Switzerland are less often victims of all listed offences with the exception of robbery and assault (where the difference does not reach statistical significance). Interestingly, mother's country of birth seems to influence risks of victimization more than whether or not the respondent had been born abroad or in Switzerland. This is particularly true for maltreatment by parents.

The results are similar when, instead of the last 12 months, the entire life-time is considered (Figure 4.4). In this case, the differences all reach statistical significance. Proportionately, they become even more impressive, particularly with respect to parental maltreatment.

Figure 4.3 Victimization (life time prevalence) by mothers' birthplace in %, N=4093-4108.¹¹¹

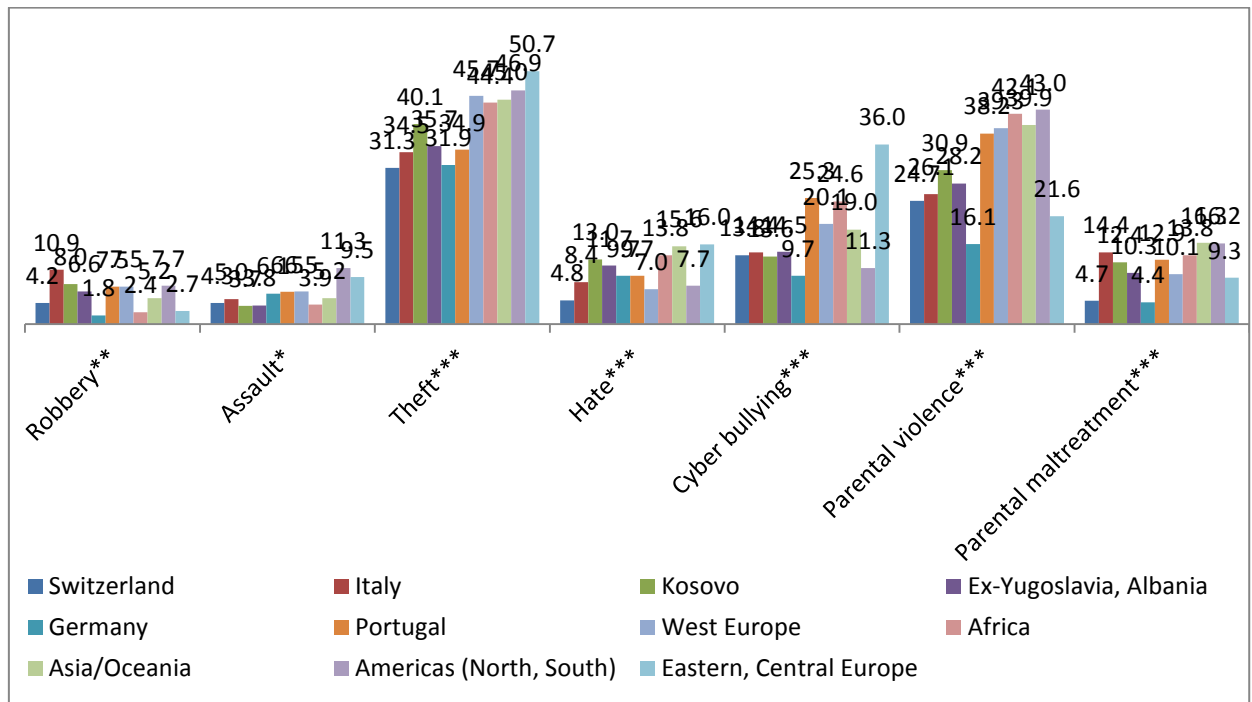
These differences can be observed, in similar proportions, in the national sample as well as in the several subsamples (not shown).

When mothers' country of birth is considered, some relevant differences emerge. Generally speaking, children of mothers born in Switzerland, in Germany or in any other country of Western or Eastern Europe have lower victimization rates than respondents whose mother was born in Southern Europe or outside of Europe. Details are presented in Figure 4.4.

110 Weighted data

111 Weighted data

Figure 4.4 Victimization (life time prevalence) by mother's birthplace in %, N=4097-4107.¹¹²



The differences are particularly pronounced for cyber bullying, parental violence and maltreatment by parents. They are visible in all linguistic regions (not shown).

Similar patterns appear when, instead of mother's origin, the father's country of birth is considered.

Table 4.6 Victimization (last year prevalence) by father's birthplace in %, N=4058-4072.¹¹³

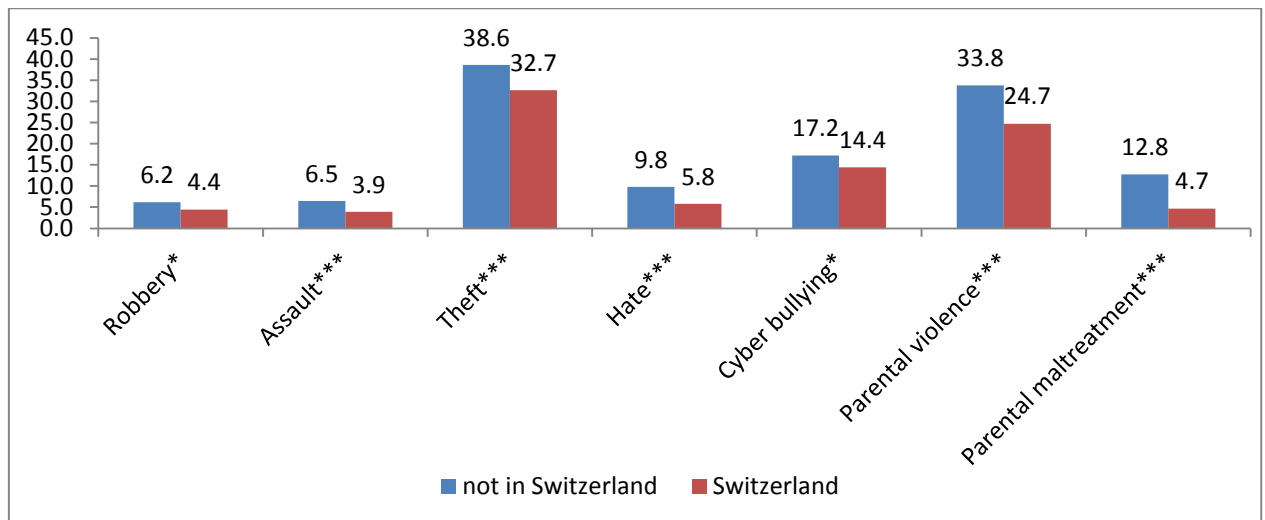
	Robbery	Assault	Theft	Hate	Cyberbull ying	Parental violence	Parental maltreatment
Born abroad	3.8	5.3	30.1	7.9	9.7	24.0	9.3
born in Switzerla nd	2.9	2.8	24.6	4.2	7.8	16.1	3.1
	.135	.000	.000	.000	.032	.000	.000

The same tendency can be observed if offences experienced over the entire lifespan are considered (Figure 4.5).

112 Weighted data

113 Weighted data

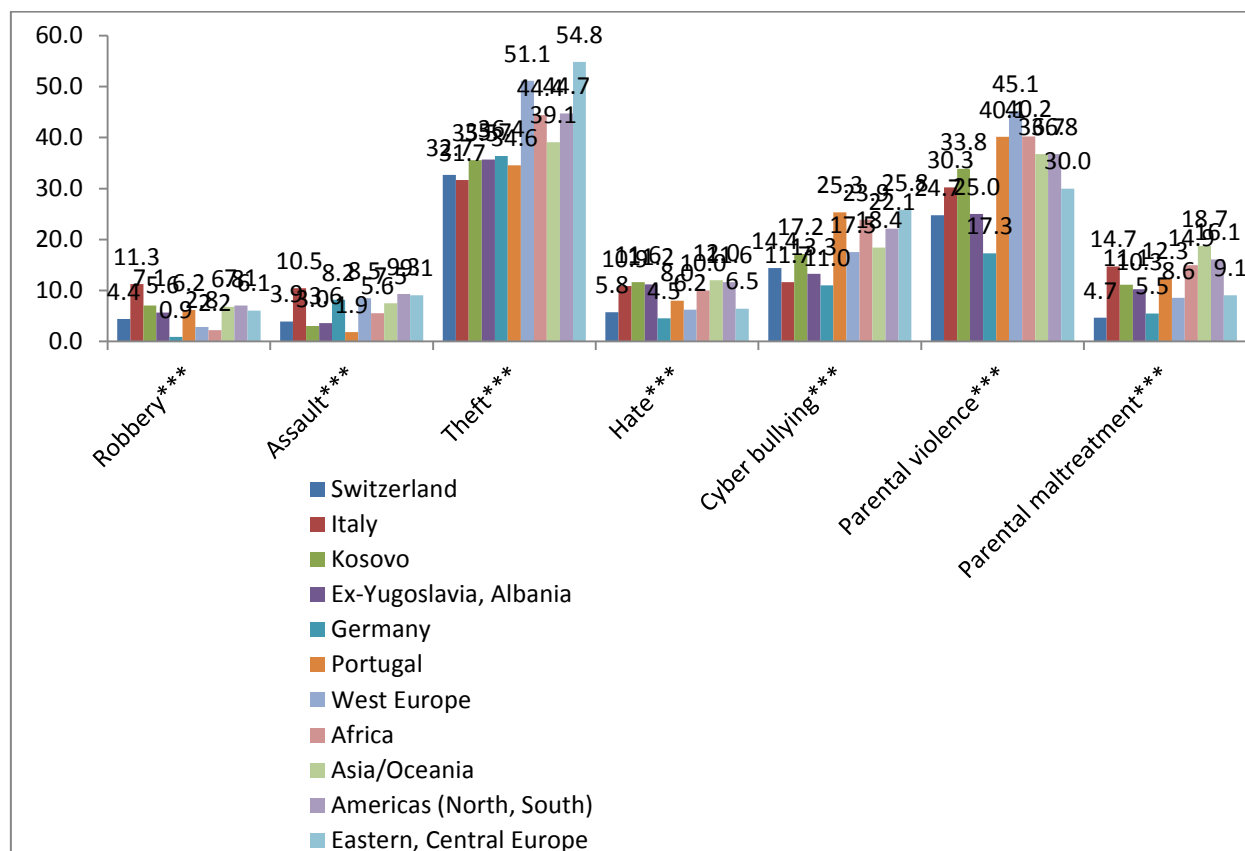
Figure 4.5 Victimization (life time prevalence) by father's birthplace in %, N=4059-4073.¹¹⁴



In this case, all differences (with the exception of theft and cyber bullying) reach statistical significance. They hold across regions and language rather consistently. Although both parents' foreign origin seems to increase risks of victimization among their offspring, mother's origin seems to be slightly more important than father's country of birth. In further analyses, we shall try to disentangle whether this is directly related to mother's origin. One possibility might be that mothers of Swiss background are more successful at protecting their offspring from domestic violence.

When we look at fathers' country of birth, some interesting patterns emerge. As with mothers (see Figure 4.4), respondents whose father was born abroad tend to be victimized more often, particularly in the domain of domestic violence (Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6 Victimization (life time prevalence) by fathers' country of birth in %, N=4058-4072¹¹⁵

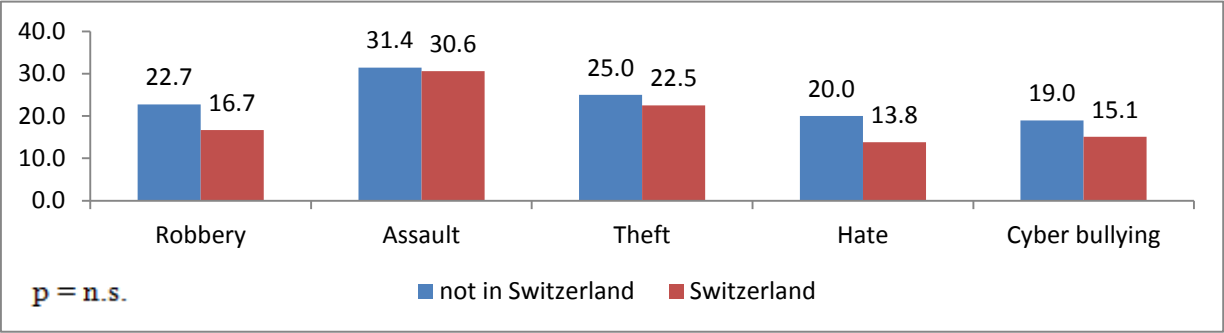


Domestic violence seems more common in families with fathers born in Asia and Oceania, Portugal and countries of North and South America. No clear pattern emerges for the other offences. The picture is similar in all regional subsamples (not shown).

4.3.2.2 Reporting to the police by country of birth

For all incidents mentioned during interviews that were experienced over the last 12 months, the respondent was asked whether or the incident had been reported to the police. In case more than one incident occurred during the last 12 months, the question was asked in relation to the last one. The replies will be analysed here by respondents' birthplace.

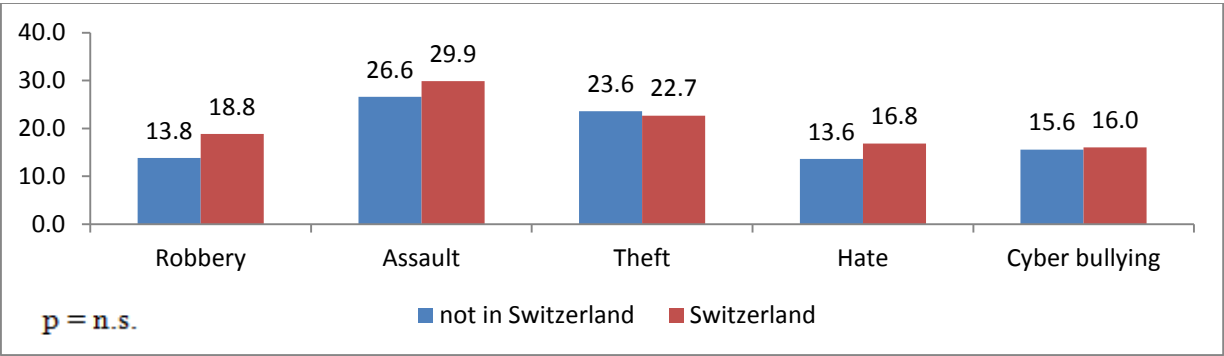
Figure 4.7 Reporting to the police by respondents' birthplace in %, N=130-1095.¹¹⁶



Reporting to the police does not differ much along birthplace. Respondents who were born abroad report offences to the police slightly more often than those born in Switzerland. The differences are not significant, however.

Reporting of experiences of victimization to the police is not significantly more frequent among respondents whose mother was born abroad. This was true for the national sample as well as for the several subsamples.

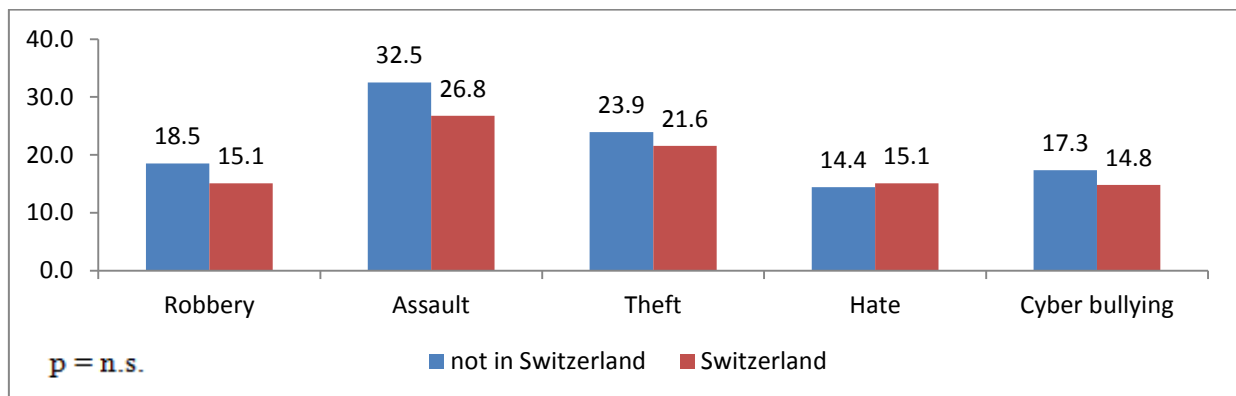
Figure 4.8 Reporting to the police by mother' birthplace in %, N=127-1088.¹¹⁷



The following Figure 4.9 shows the proportion of offences reported to the police for subjects whose father was born abroad vs. those whose father was born in Switzerland.

116 Weighted data
117 Weighted data

Figure 4.9 Reporting police by fathers' birthplace in %, N=127-1073.¹¹⁸

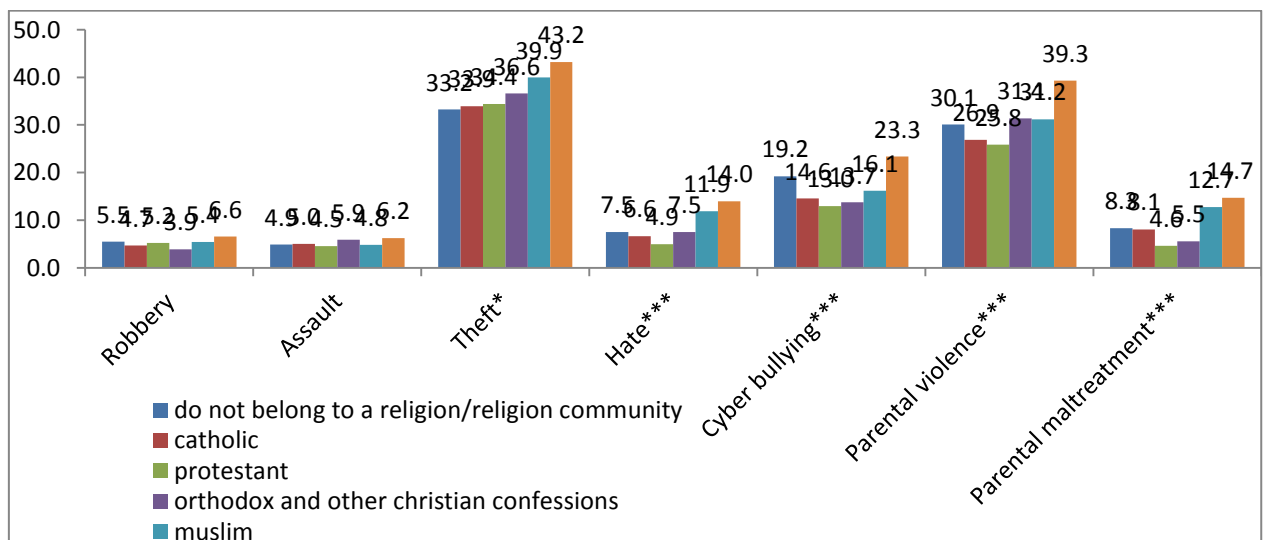


For most offences, reporting is slightly more likely to occur if the respondent's father was born abroad. The difference is not significant, however.

4.3.3 Religion and victimization

The questionnaire contained, in a form that worked in many different nations, detailed information about respondents' religious affiliation. This variable turned out to be associated with risks of victimization, both nation-wide and in the three linguistic regions of Switzerland. Given the small size of some religious groups, we consider life-time experiences only in this section.

Figure 4.10 Victimization (life time prevalence) by religious affiliation in %, N=4096-4105.¹¹⁹



118 Weighted data

119 Weighted data

Whereas religion is not significantly associated with robbery and assault, theft of personal items, cyber bullying and hate crimes are inconsistently related to religion. However, respondents of Christian (i.e. protestant, catholic or orthodox/other) background experience all listed offences slightly less often than Muslims and those without religious affiliation. The difference is, as far as protestant respondents are concerned, particularly strong with respect to parental violence and maltreatment.

In German-speaking cantons, the results match by and large the national pattern. In the French and Italian-speaking regions, the differences are mostly non-significant, presumably because of the smaller sample sizes and the small percentage of respondents belonging to certain religious affiliations.

4.4 Main findings and discussion

The findings in this chapter can be summarized as follows:

- Victimization is fairly wide-spread. When we consider incidents experienced over the life span, rates far above what one finds in national victimization surveys of the general population can be observed. Obviously, juveniles are far more exposed to risks of theft, assault and even robbery than the general population.
- Juveniles report a lot of cyber bullying which seems to have replaced classical bullying to a large extent.
- Violence experienced at home, i.e. probably corporal punishment is relatively wide-spread. Roughly close to 20 per cent of respondents has experienced this. More disturbing is the fact that 5.5 per cent report different forms of domestic assault that can be considered as parental maltreatment.
- Although one would not expect much variation within a small country like Switzerland, it is noteworthy that such differences exist. Juveniles in the French-speaking part report violence somewhat more often than those in the other regions. Particularly domestic violence and parental maltreatment are more frequent in the French-speaking part. This coincides with higher rates of domestic violence (between parents) reported by respondents from that region (see chapter 2, Figure 2.11_1).
- Offences that are typically experienced in the streets, such as assault, robbery and theft of personal items have increased between 2006 and 2013.
- Reporting to the police decreased. This should be kept in mind when police and other official counts of offending are to be interpreted.
- Girls experience street-level offences less often than boys, presumably due to their different life-style (and, perhaps, the fact that, while going out, they are more often in the company of boys). However, girls experience cyber bullying more often. Violence experienced at home and theft of personal items are more evenly distributed across gender.

- Girls tend to report offences somewhat less often, although differences are not large.
- Birthplace was measured, in the ISRD-3, in a way that promised to work during the fieldwork in countries as diverse as Western European nations, the Americas and Asian countries. It was decided to ask about the country of birth of the respondent and both of his/her parents, rather than about his official nationality. In Switzerland, a very substantial proportion of respondents had been born abroad, or have parents who were born outside of Switzerland (see chapter 1).
- In connection with victimization, the country of birth (of the respondent, his/her mother or father) is somewhat associated with victimization. Generally, respondents born abroad, or whose mother or father was born abroad, experience all offences somewhat more often. For street crime, this may be due to different life-styles and in parts be related to offending that is also more frequent among youths with origins in other countries (see chapter 7).
- The differences are particularly strong with respect to hate crimes. This is not unexpected in the sense that the question was obviously shaped to identify incidents experienced by respondents who were more exposed to such forms of harassment due to their origin. On the other hand, it is interesting to observe that respondents from Swiss background report also such incidents, although in lower proportions.
- Parental (domestic) violence and, particularly, parental maltreatment are substantially more frequent among youths from abroad. This matches findings (presented in chapter 2) concerning the association between origin and domestic violence (between parents) that is, again, more frequently reported by respondents whose parents were born abroad. Interestingly, the mother's origin seems somewhat more important in this respect than the father's, or the respondent's own country of birth. Since these findings do not imply who of the parents actually was responsible for the maltreatment, it could be that mothers born in Switzerland are better in a situation to protect their child from domestic violence.
- Reporting assault and hate crime to the police is somewhat more common among respondents born abroad. This may reflect higher levels of seriousness of the attack. For other offences, the differences are not large. Assault is also more often reported to the police if parents are born abroad.
- For the police, the "good news" about these findings is that reporting does not differ much along ethnic lines. On attitudes towards the police see chapter 8.
- Religion is weakly associated with victimization overall, especially with street-crime. However, respondents of any Christian denomination and especially Protestants are less often victims of all listed offences than those without any religious affiliation and Muslims. The difference is largest in connection with parental maltreatment.

Chapter 5

Leisure time, life style, peers, happiness and delinquency

5.1 Overview

In this Chapter findings will be presented on leisure-time and other unsupervised activities, time spent with friends (delinquents and/or non-delinquents), time spent within the family; level of happiness, consumption of alcohol and other substances, and the relationship of all these variables with several measures of delinquency. In the first part (section 5.2), we shall show the frequencies of these variables in the national as well as across the regional subsamples.

Since consumption of substances in general and particularly of cannabis can be considered as deviant behaviour, given the respondents' age, we shall treat use of alcohol and cannabis as a dependant as well as an independent variable. It should be noted that the sale of alcoholic beverages to minors of 16 is illegal. For spirits, the age-limit is 18 years. In section 5.3, we shall look at associations between alcohol/cannabis use in relation to leisure-time activities.

In section 5.4, we shall look at changes between 2006 (ISRD-2) and 2013 (ISRD-3) with respect to several leisure-time activities.

As a truly innovative concept, the ISRD-3 instrument included questions concerning happiness. This concept, developed by the Swiss economist Bruno Frey, has turned out to be particularly helpful in the analysis of experiences of victimization (Staubli, Killias & Frey 2013). Happiness can be considered as an outcome as well as a causal variable. We shall look both at how it is associated with leisure-time activities, use of substances and delinquency (section 5.5).

In the final part (section 5.6), we shall analyse how all these leisure-time variables and happiness are associated with the several forms of delinquency that were included in ISRD-3.

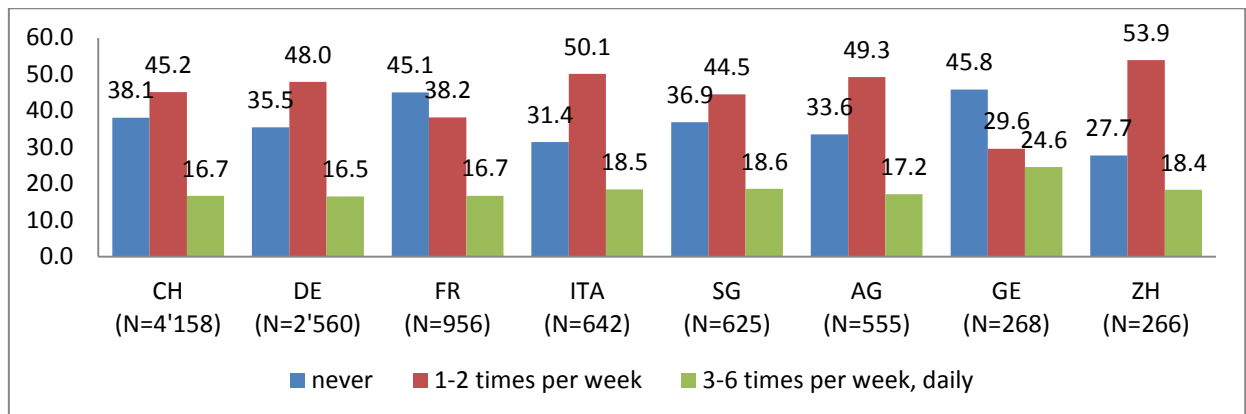
A summary and short discussion (section 5.7) will conclude this chapter.

5.2 Frequencies in the national and the regional samples

Leisure-time activities

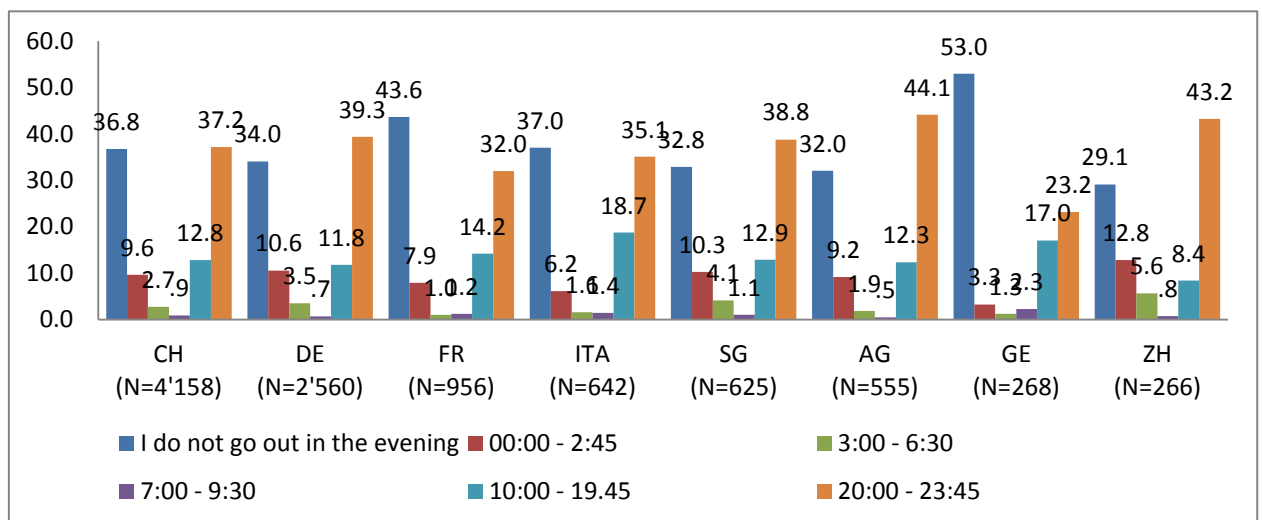
Several questions addressed the use of leisure-time, i.e. whether respondents go out during the week and on weekends, when they return and whom and how otherwise they spend time with.

Figure 5.1 “How often do you go out a week?” by main and subsamples in%.¹²⁰



More than half of respondents go out during the week up to 2 times, whereas more than one third never goes out. Going out varies somewhat across region. In the French speaking part, two students in five never go out in the evening. Geneva is the region with the most active evening and night life. Presumably, these differences also reflect opportunities since Geneva obviously has the most extensive offer of night-time activities.

Figure 5.2 Time of coming back after going out on weekend evenings by main and subsamples in %.¹²¹

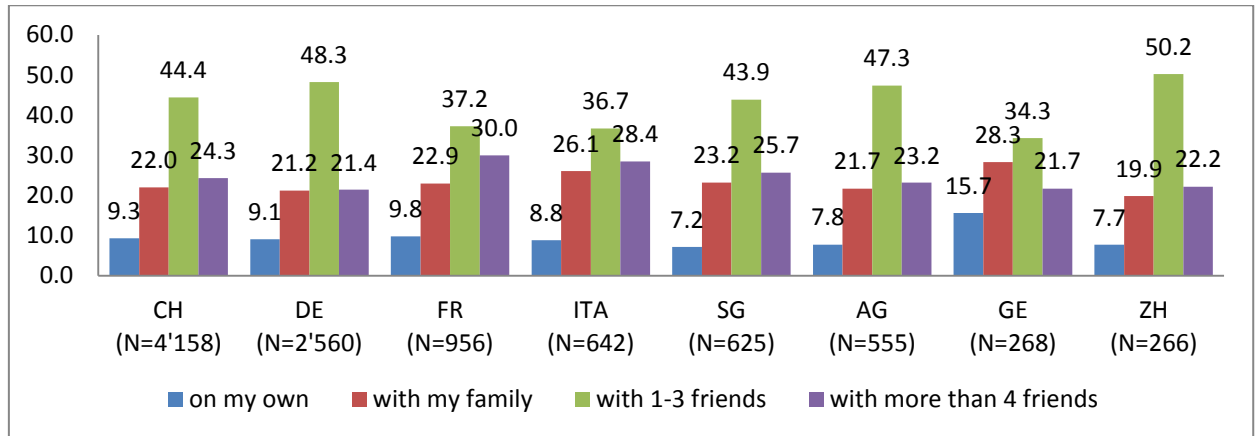


Most students either do not go out in the evening or come back home before midnight even on weekends. Nearly one respondent in five say returning way after midnight, i.e. during early morning hours or the following day. It can be assumed that these students are the least controlled by parents. In the canton of Zürich, about 30% regularly return back home after midnight or the following day.

120 Weighted data

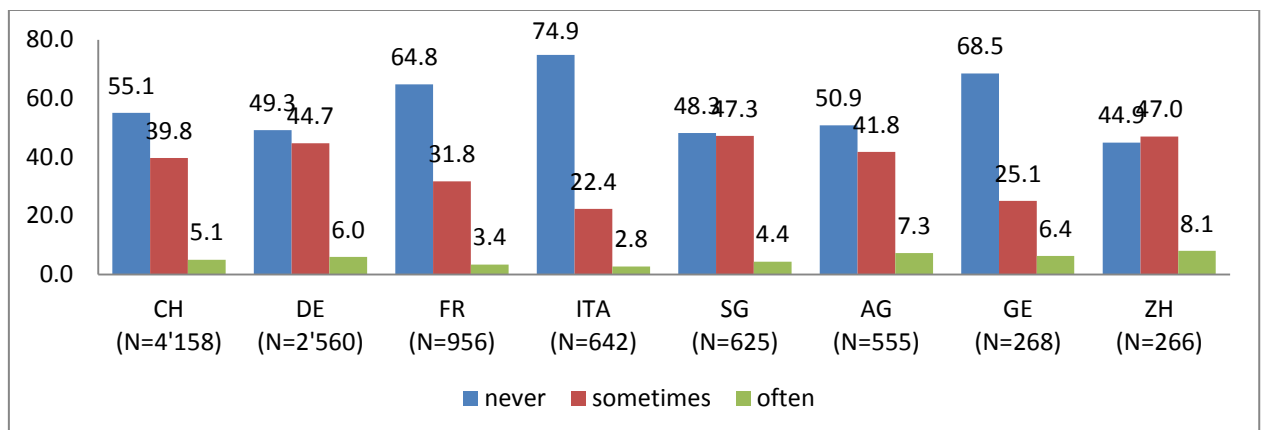
121 Weighted data

Figure 5.3 Spending time with family and friends by main and subsamples in %.¹²²



Nearly half of respondents spend time mostly with 1-3 friends; and nearly one in four with other family members and about an equal proportion with a larger group. There is not much variation across regions

Figure 5.4 Leisure time: going to coffee bars or pop concerts by main and subsamples in %.¹²³

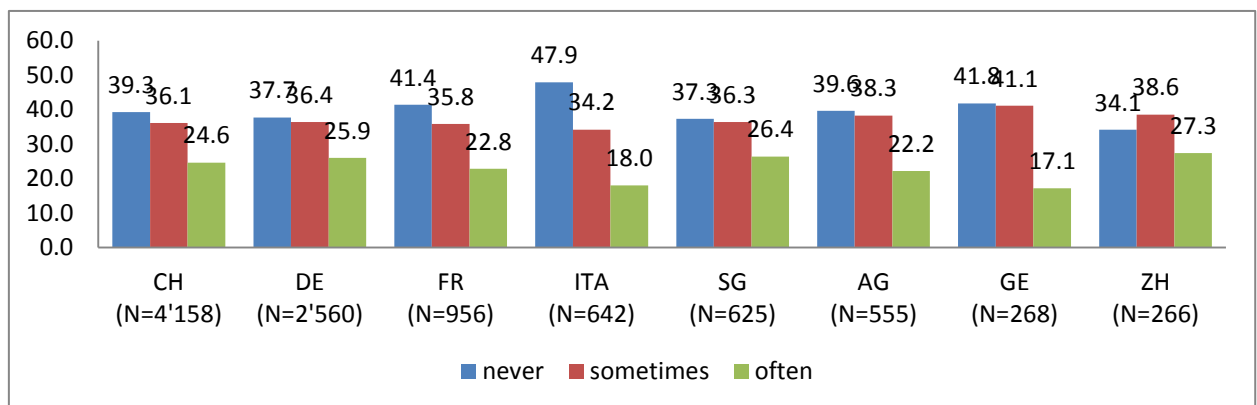


More than half of respondents never go to coffee bars or pop concerts. There is not that much variation across regions, with the exception of Zurich where more people go often to coffee bars or pop concerts.

¹²² Weighted data

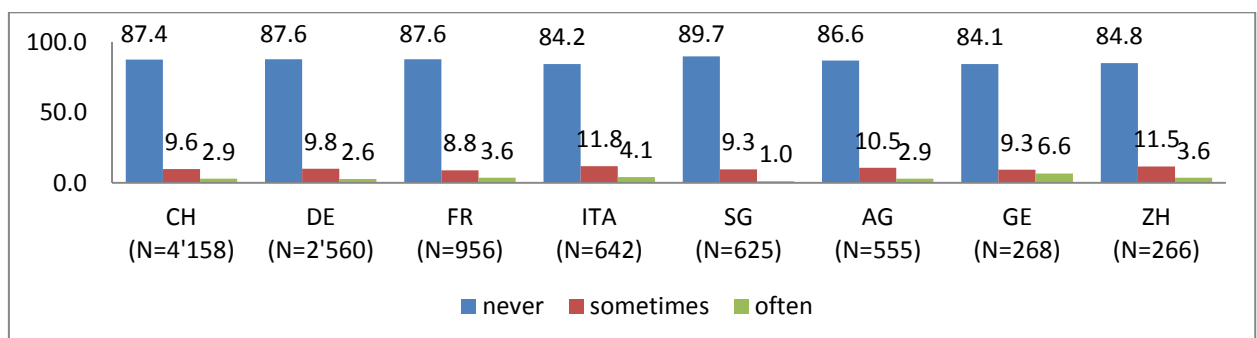
¹²³ Weighted data

Figure 5.5 Leisure time: doing something creative (theater, music, drawing, writing, reading books) by main and subsamples in %.¹²⁴



In the whole Switzerland 39% of respondents said never doing anything creative, such as playing theatre or music, drawing, writing and reading books. This percentage is the highest in Italian speaking cantons. Otherwise, there is not much variation across regions in this respect.

Figure 5.6 Leisure time: engaging in fights with others by main and subsamples in %.¹²⁵

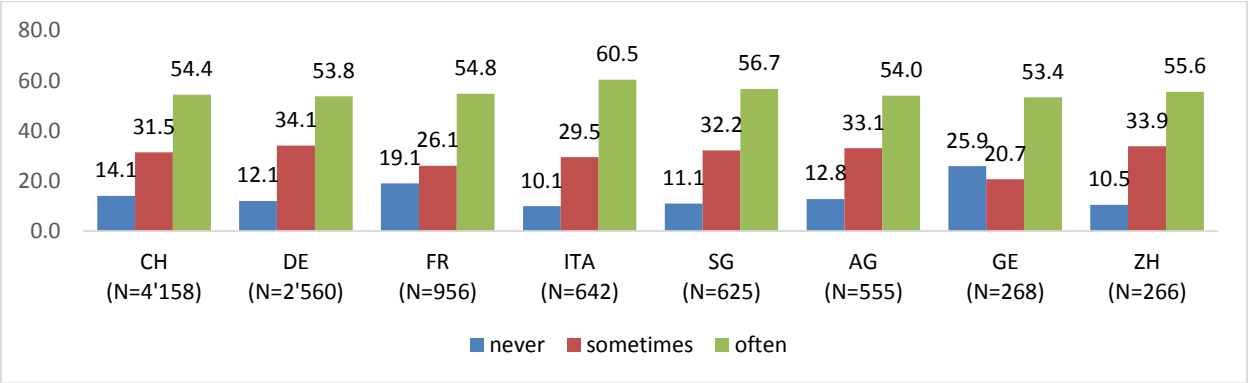


Only a minority of respondents admit engaging, during leisure-time, often or sometimes in fights with others. There is obviously only limited variation across regions.

124 Weighted data

125 Weighted data

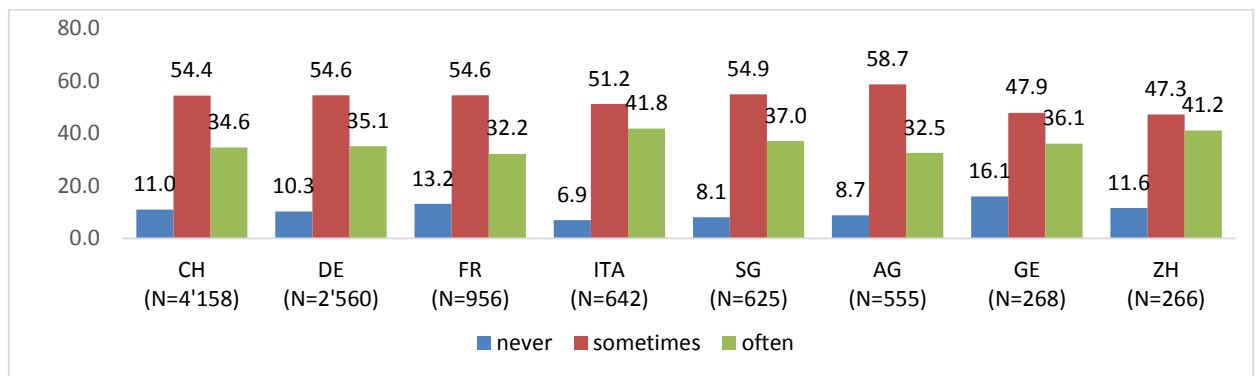
Figure 5.7 Leisure time: doing sportsby main and subsamples in %.¹²⁶



Again, very little variation across regions can be observed. However, at closer inspection, it turns out that respondents more often say never practicing any sports in Geneva and in French-speaking regions.

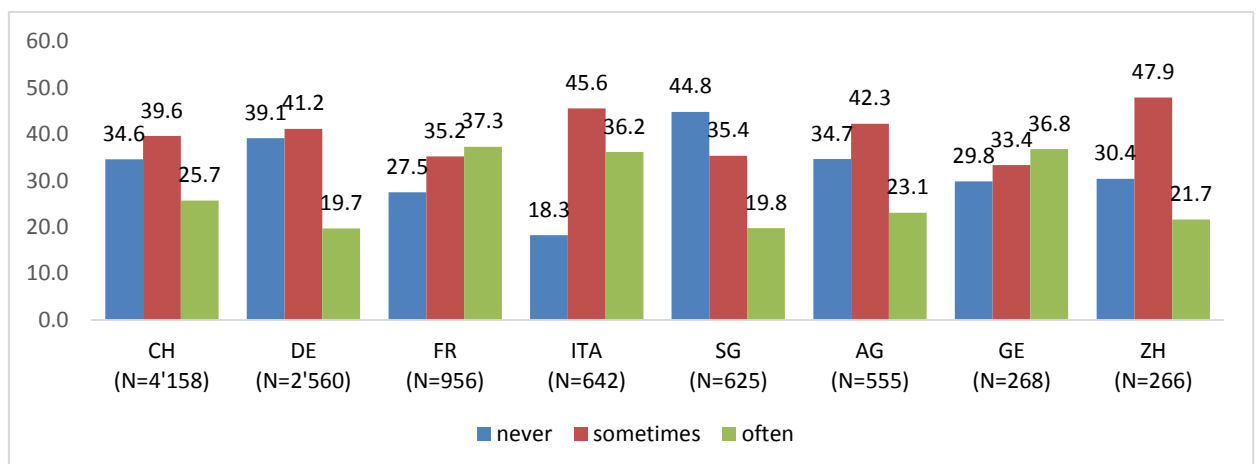
126 Weighted data

Figure 5.8 Leisure time: school-related studies or homework, by main and subsamples in %.¹²⁷



The highest proportion of respondents who say never studying or doing homework during leisure-time can be found in Geneva and other cantons in the Romandie, as well as in the canton of Zurich. Ticino and St. Gallen have the most disciplined students, apparently.

Figure 5.9 Leisure time: hanging out in shopping centers, parks, streets etc. for fun, by main and subsamples in %.¹²⁸

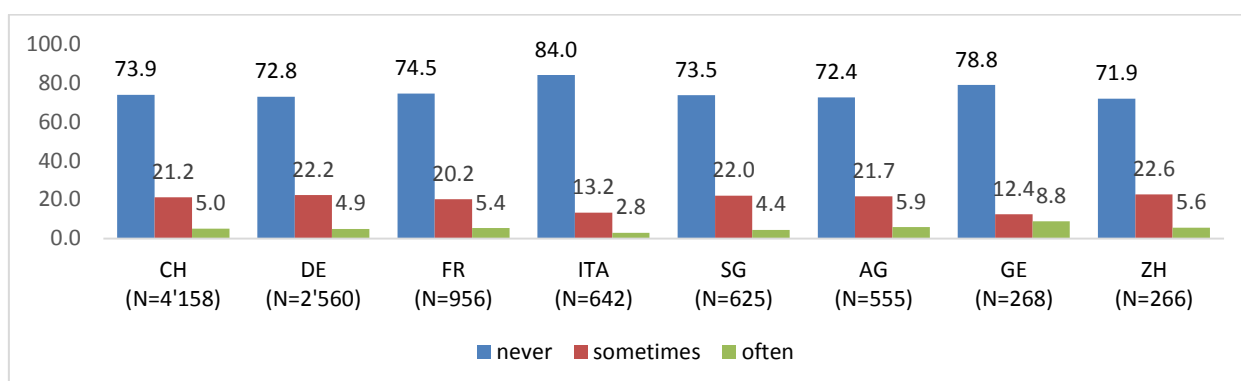


Hanging out in shopping centres, parks, streets etc. for fun is the least popular among respondents in German speaking cantons and particularly in St. Gallen. On the other hand, such unstructured leisure-time activities are fairly wide-spread in Ticino Geneva and other French-speaking cantons in general.

¹²⁷ Weighted data

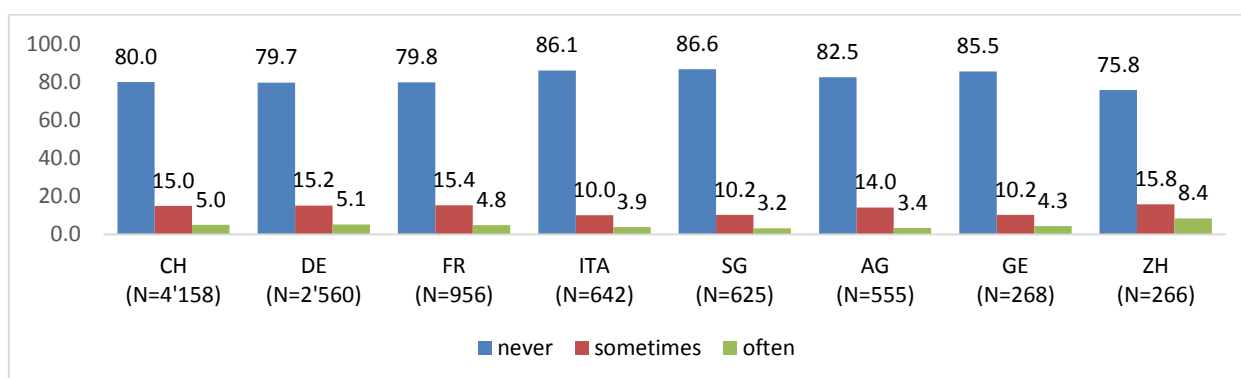
¹²⁸ Weighted data

Figure 5.10 Leisure time: doing something illegal to have fun, by main and subsamples in %.¹²⁹



Variation is less pronounced than one might have expected, although doing illegal things for fun is more popular among respondents in Zurich and Geneva.

Figure 5.11 Leisure time: drinking alcohol or take drugs, by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁰

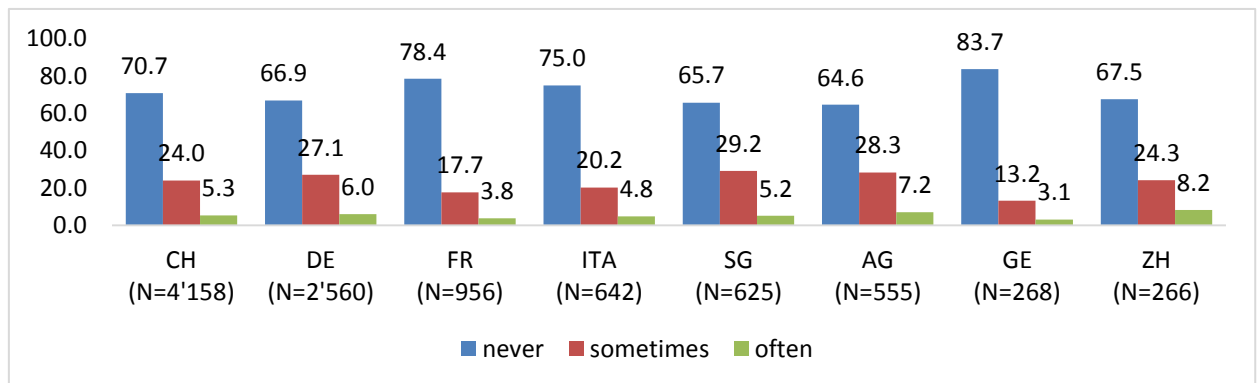


Drinking alcohol or taking drugs during leisure-time “often” is more common in French speaking cantons and particularly in Geneva and in Zurich, and relatively rare in the cantons of St. Gallen and Aargau. Presumably, opportunities – i.e. the availability of substances and places to consume – may play an important role in this respect.

129 Weighted data

130 Weighted data

Figure 5.12 Leisure time: frightening and annoying people just for fun, by main and subsamples in %.¹³¹



It seems that in the Swiss context this question, designed for a multitude of cultures included in this project, measured “teasing”, being noisy or making jokes (“Streiche”) rather than activities that might be proxies of delinquency. Anyhow, these sorts of activities are the most common in fairly rural areas, such as St. Gallen and Aargau, and least common in Geneva and in the Romandie in general.

5.2.1 Peers and friends

The questionnaire included several questions regarding friends and peers. Table 5.1 gives an overview on how many respondents say belonging to a group of friends (peers). Further, this section of the instrument included questions regarding deviant behaviour among peers, such as using illicit substances, shoplifting and several other offences

Table 5.1 “Some people have a friend or a group of friends to spend time with, doing things together or just hanging out: do you belong to such a group?” by main and subsamples in %.¹³²

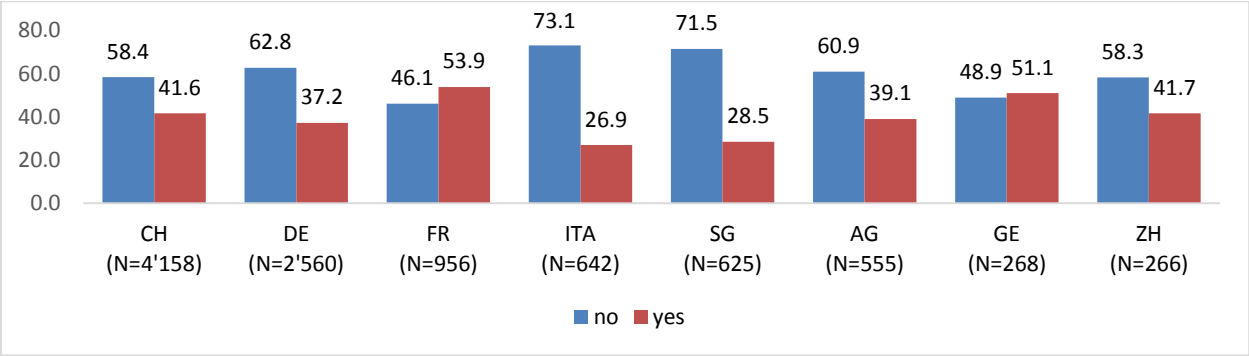
	CH (N=4'158)	DE (N=2'560)	FR (N=956)	ITA (N=642)	SG (N=625)	AG (N=555)	GE (N=268)	ZH (N=266)
no	21.8	22.5	20.3	21.2	22.6	21.4	27.3	21.5
yes	78.2	77.5	79.7	78.8	77.4	78.6	72.7	78.5

Most of students have a friend or group of friends to spent time with, doing things together or just hanging out. However, about one student in five seems to be somewhat socially isolated. There is almost no difference across regions.

¹³¹ Weighted data

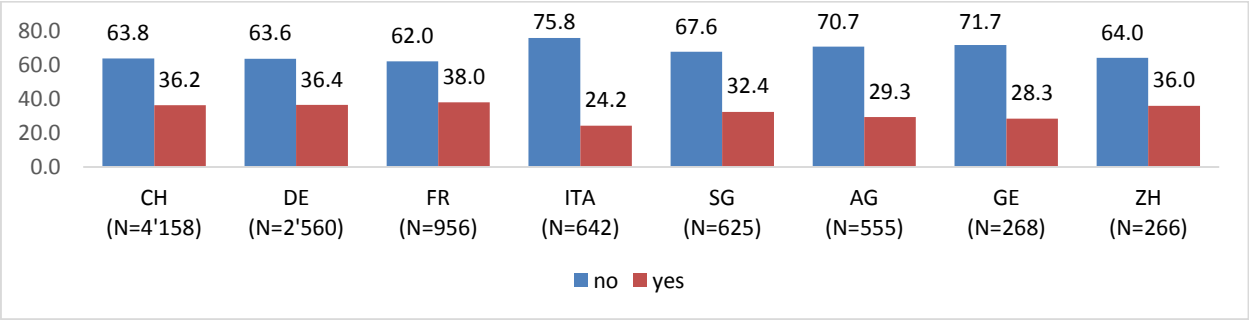
¹³² Weighted data

Figure 5.13 Having friends who use drugs by main and subsamples in %.¹³³



In the whole Switzerland 41.6% of respondents know at least one friend who uses drugs. This level is the highest in French speaking cantons and in Geneva where a majority of respondents know such a friend. The lowest proportion can be found in the cantons of Ticino and St. Gallen.

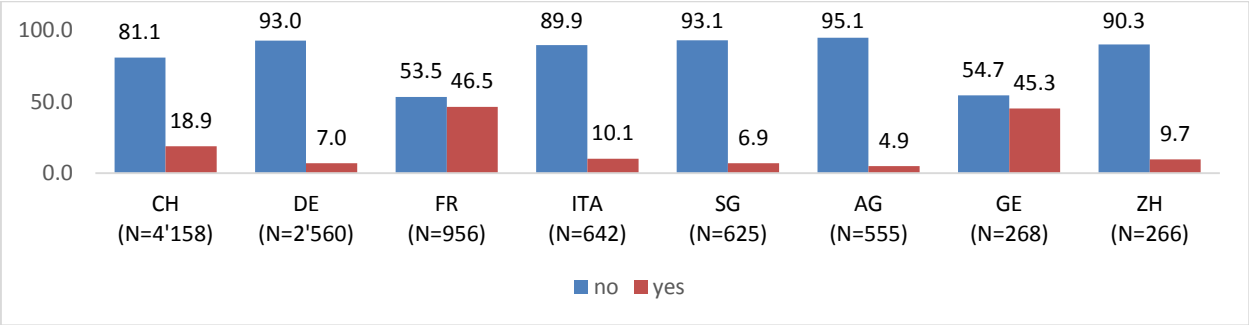
Figure 5.14 Having friends who committed shoplifting, by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁴



The highest proportions of respondents who say knowing at least one among their friends/peers who had committed shoplifting can be found in Zurich and St. Gallen. Otherwise, knowing of somebody who has committed such an offence is fairly widespread and evenly distributed across region.

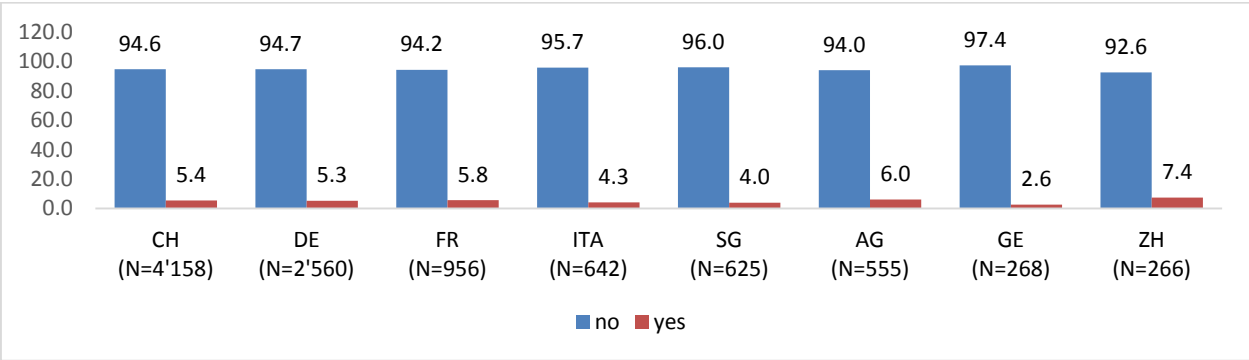
133 Weighted data
134 Weighted data

Figure 5.15 Having friends who committed burglary, by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁵



Interestingly, there is far more variation with respect to knowing at least one friend among one's peers who had committed burglary. This is fairly common in Geneva and other French-speaking cantons, but exceptional in other regions.

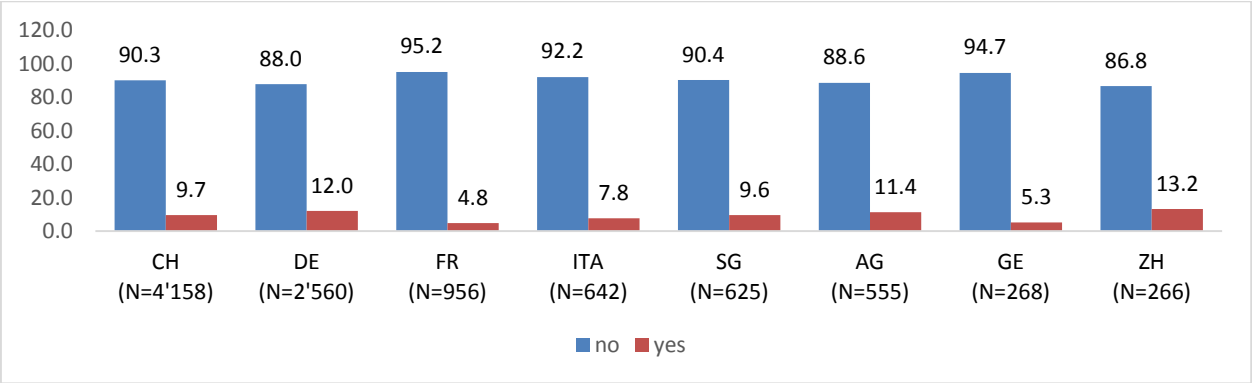
Figure 5.16 Having friends who committed robbery by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁶



Knowing somebody who had committed robbery is very uncommon in all subsamples. This obviously reflects the fact that this offence is not frequently committed (see Chapter 7) and perhaps even less often admitted, even among friends.

135 Weighted data
136 Weighted data

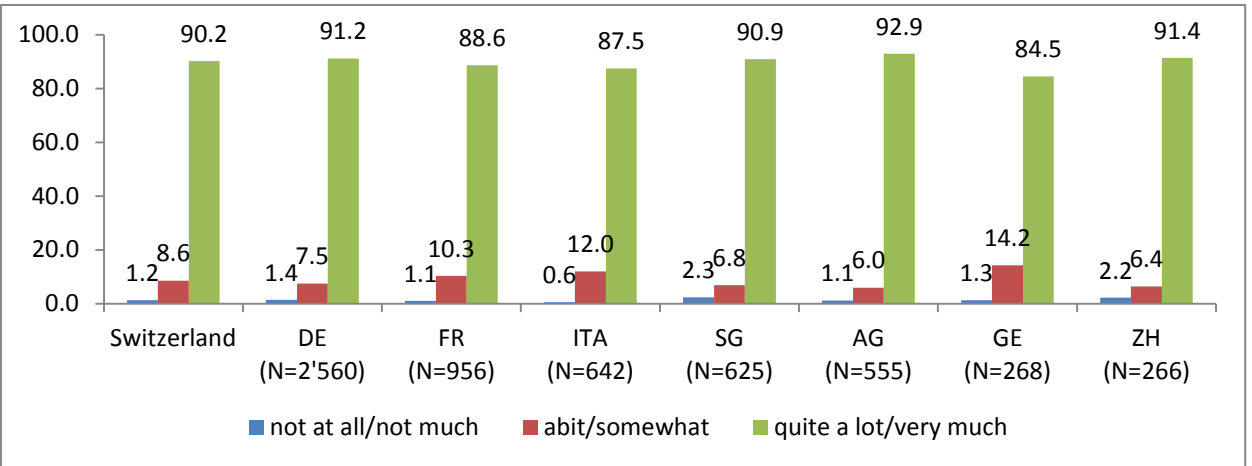
Figure 5.17 Having friends who committed assault by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁷



The same holds, although to a lesser extent, for assault. Again, little variation across regions can be observed, with the exception of Zurich.

Having deviant (or law-abiding) friends obviously is one thing, and another is how intense such bonds may be in a series of hypothetical situations, such as moving to another city.

Figure 5.18 “If I had to move to another city, I would miss my friends”, by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁸

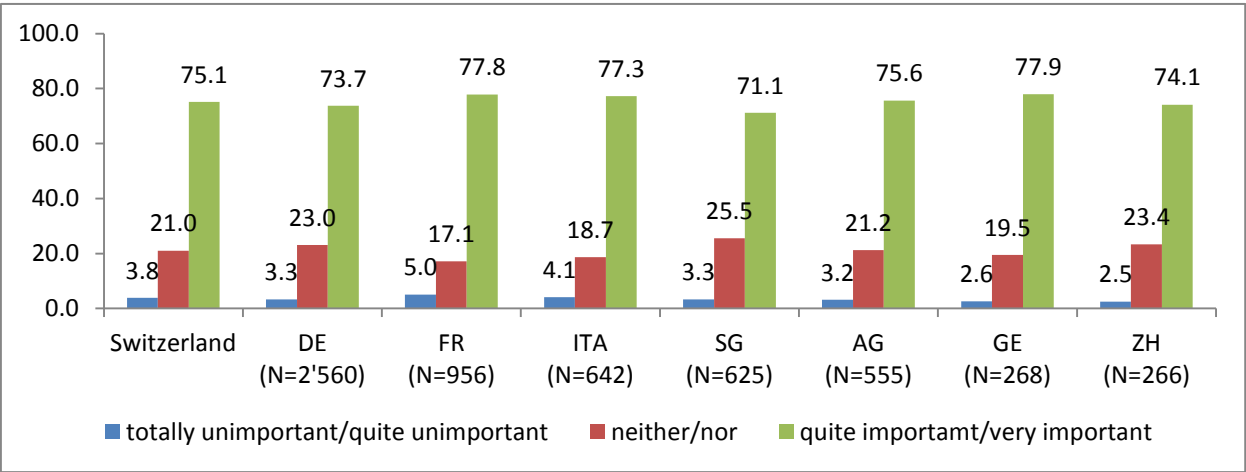


Most of students reported that they would miss their friends “quite a lot or very much” if they had to move to another city. There is virtually no difference across regions and cantons.

137 Weighted data

138 Weighted data

Figure 5.19 “It is important what friend/group of friends thinks”, by main and subsamples in %.¹³⁹



For most respondents in all regions, it is quite important or very important what their friends think about them. The highest percentage is in French-speaking cantons.

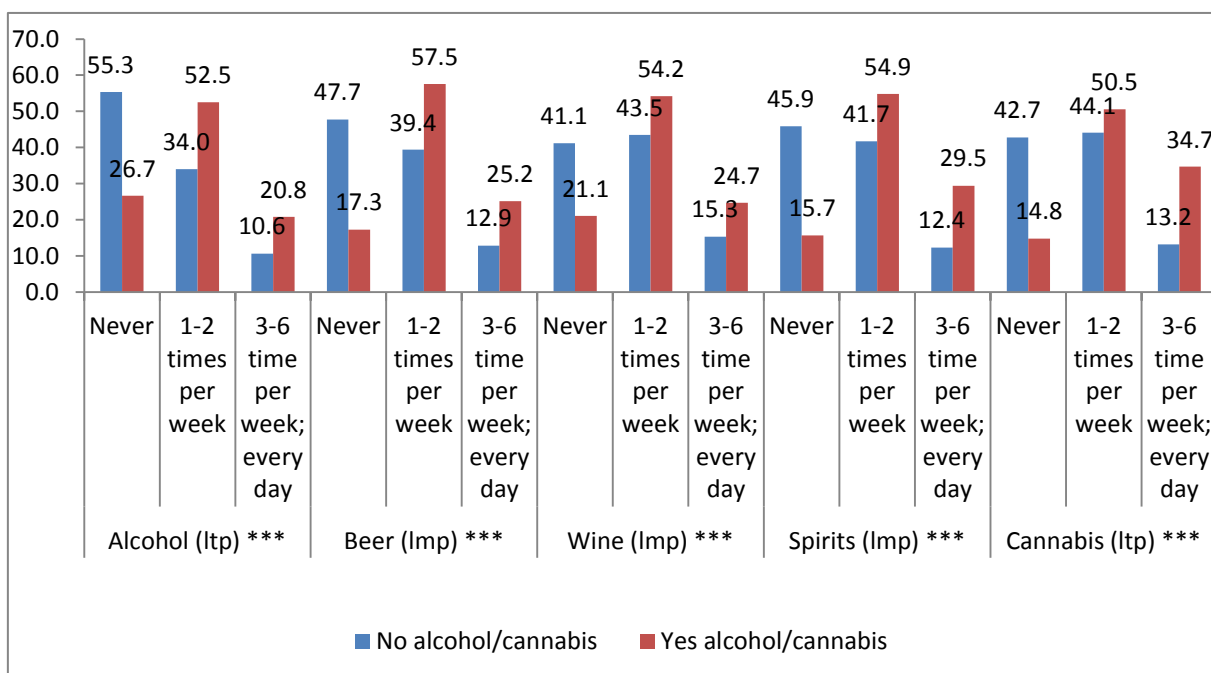
5.3 Consumption of alcohol and cannabis

5.3.1 Leisure-time and use of substances

The instrument allowed to measure with some precision the use of several substances. The question was, in a first round, whether or not respondents ever consumed alcohol in general (beer, wine or spirits) and cannabis (and other drugs). Whereas only a small minority indicated using any other illegal substances, the use of cannabis and alcohol has been admitted in sufficient proportions to warrant detailed analyses. Beyond life-time prevalence, the actual use (i.e. over the last 30 days) has also been measured.

¹³⁹ Weighted data

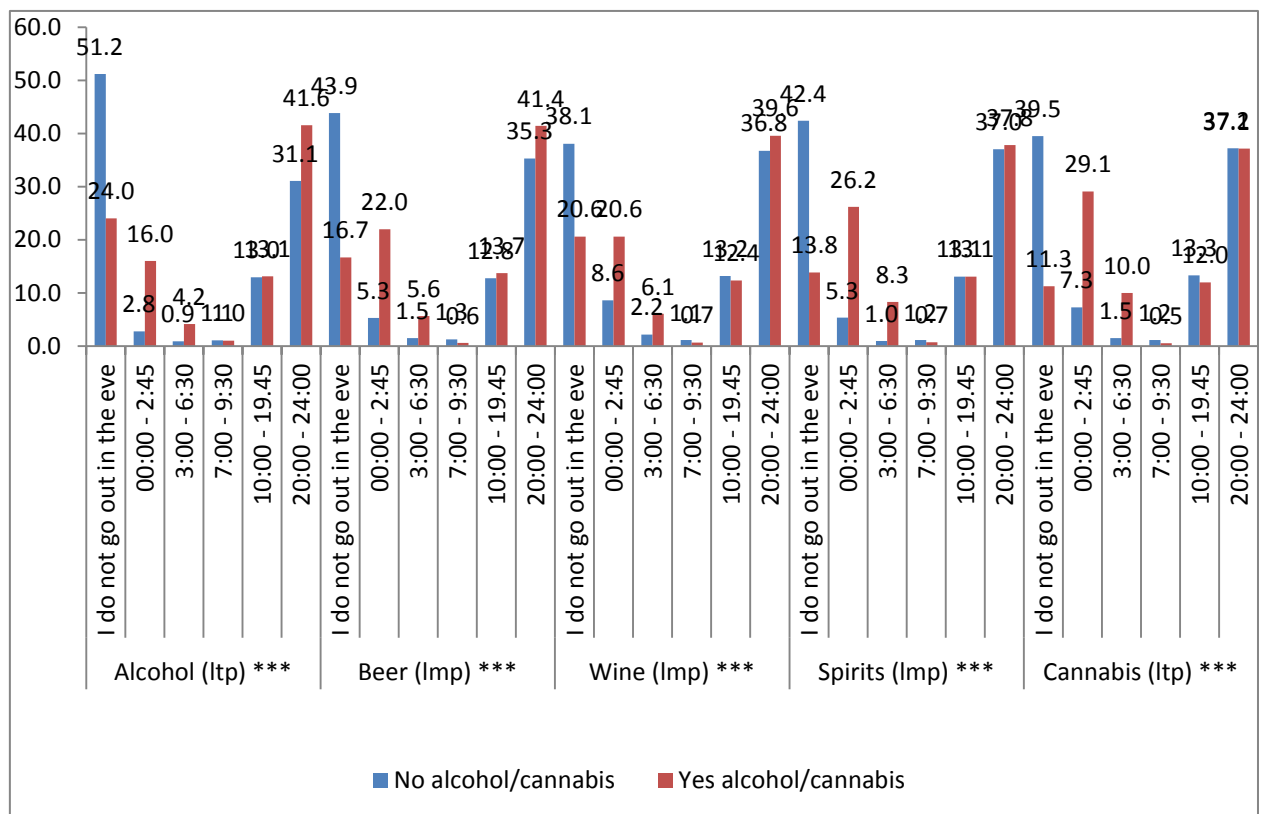
Figure 5.20 Going out in the evening by substance use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4026-4028.¹⁴⁰



Consumption of substances (alcohol in general, beer, wine, spirits and cannabis) is associated with going out in the evening. The association is particularly strong with respect to cannabis.

The use of legal as well as illegal substances goes along with extreme forms of going out. It is much more common among respondents who go out more than three times a week (Figure 5.20) and those who, on weekends, return home after midnight (Figure 5.21) or in the early morning hours only.

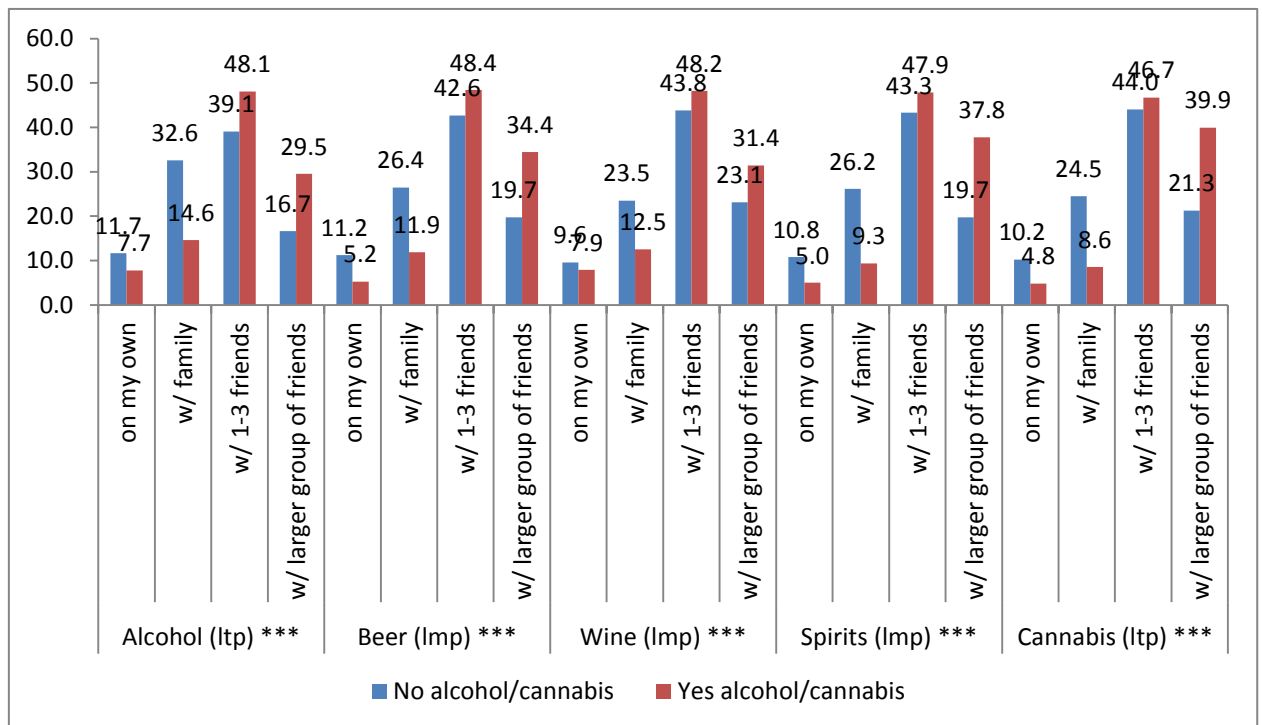
Figure 5.21 Time of coming back home after going out in the evening by alcohol/cannabis, life time(ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=3783-3785.¹⁴¹



Indeed, alcohol and cannabis use is relatively infrequent among those who never go out or who return home before midnight, but clearly most frequent among those who return later or even after 3 AM. Again, the difference is stronger for hard liquor and cannabis than for beer and wine.

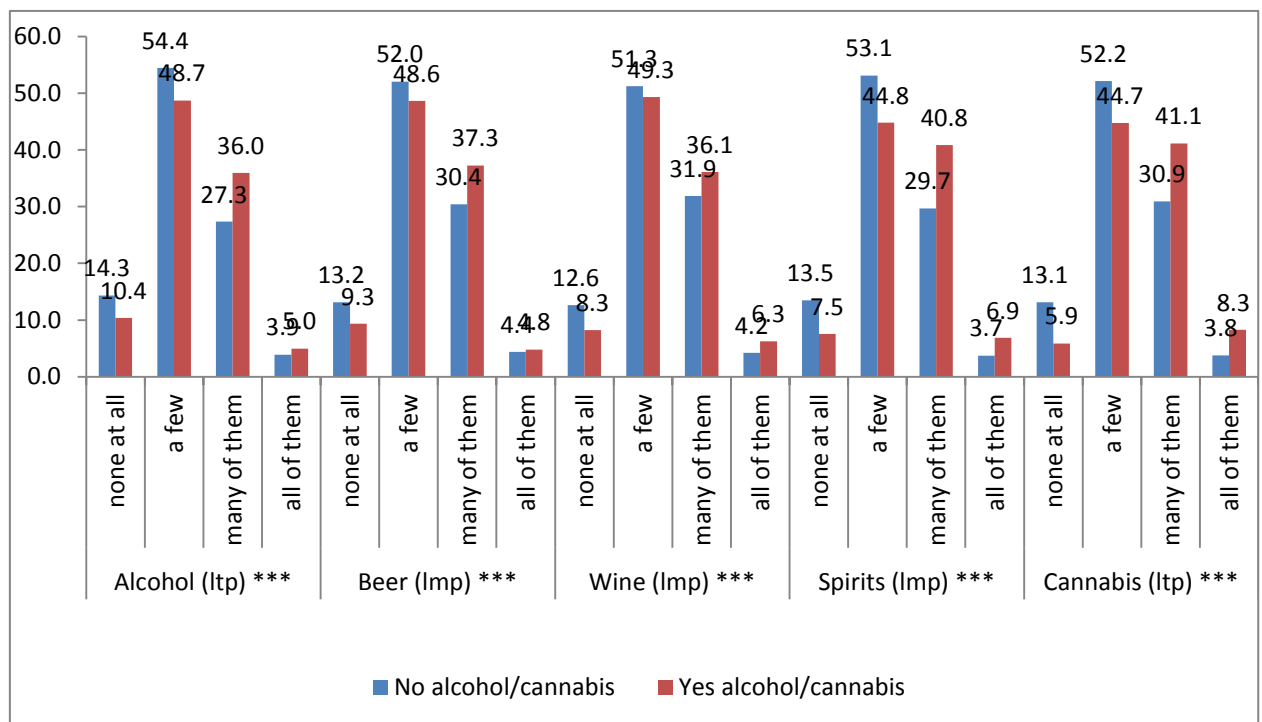
141 Weighted data

Figure 5.22 Spending time with friends and family by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4055-4058.¹⁴²



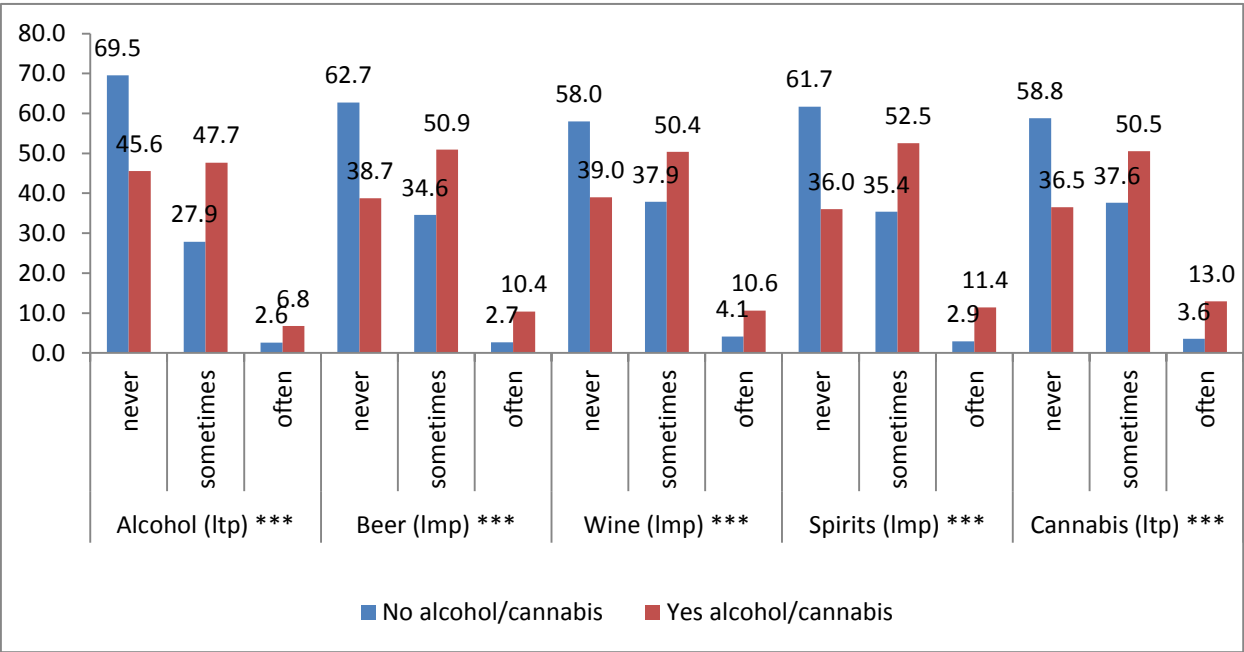
Spending one's leisure-time alone or with other family members goes along with less use of alcohol and/or cannabis. Particularly those who spend time mostly with groups of four friends or more tend to use substantially more hard liquor and cannabis.

Figure 5.23 Friends with parents of foreign origin by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4041-4043.¹⁴³



Interestingly, there is a moderate association between having mostly or exclusively friends of immigrant background on one hand and consumption of substances, especially of cannabis. We suspect this to be related to a life-style that implies going out frequently and during late hours.

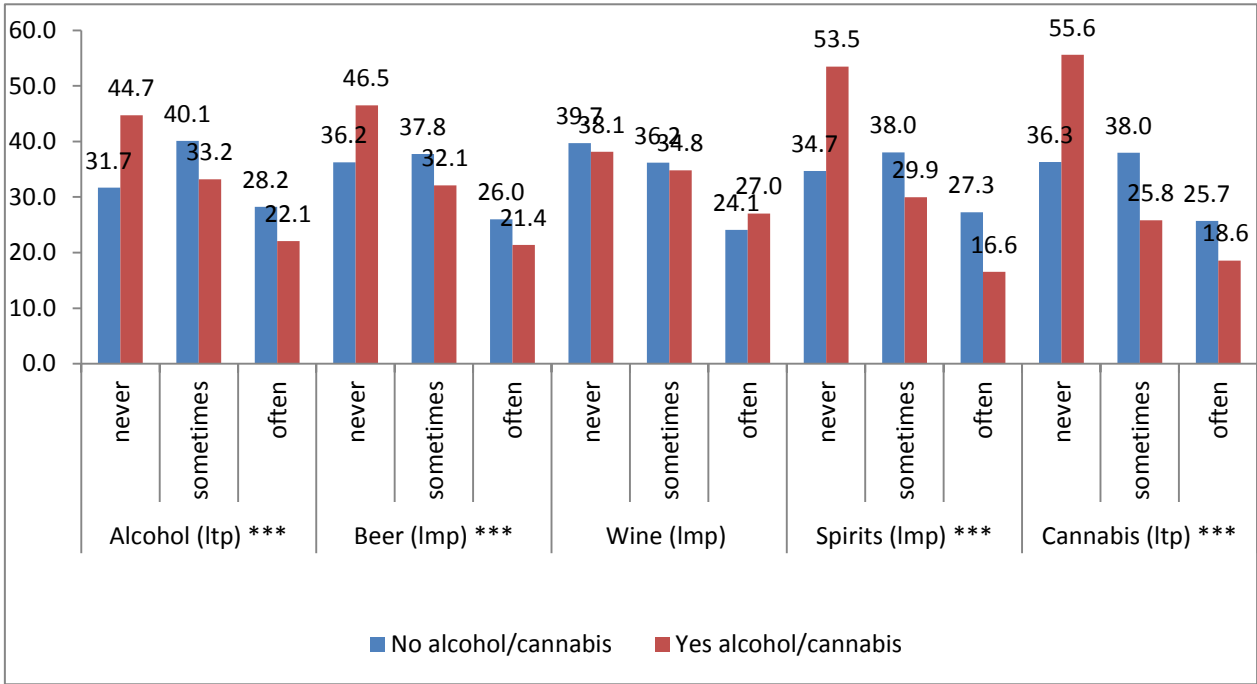
Figure 5.24 Leisure time: going to coffee bars or pop concerts by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4031-4036.¹⁴⁴



There also seems to be a fairly strong association between going to coffee bars or pop concerts and the use of substances.

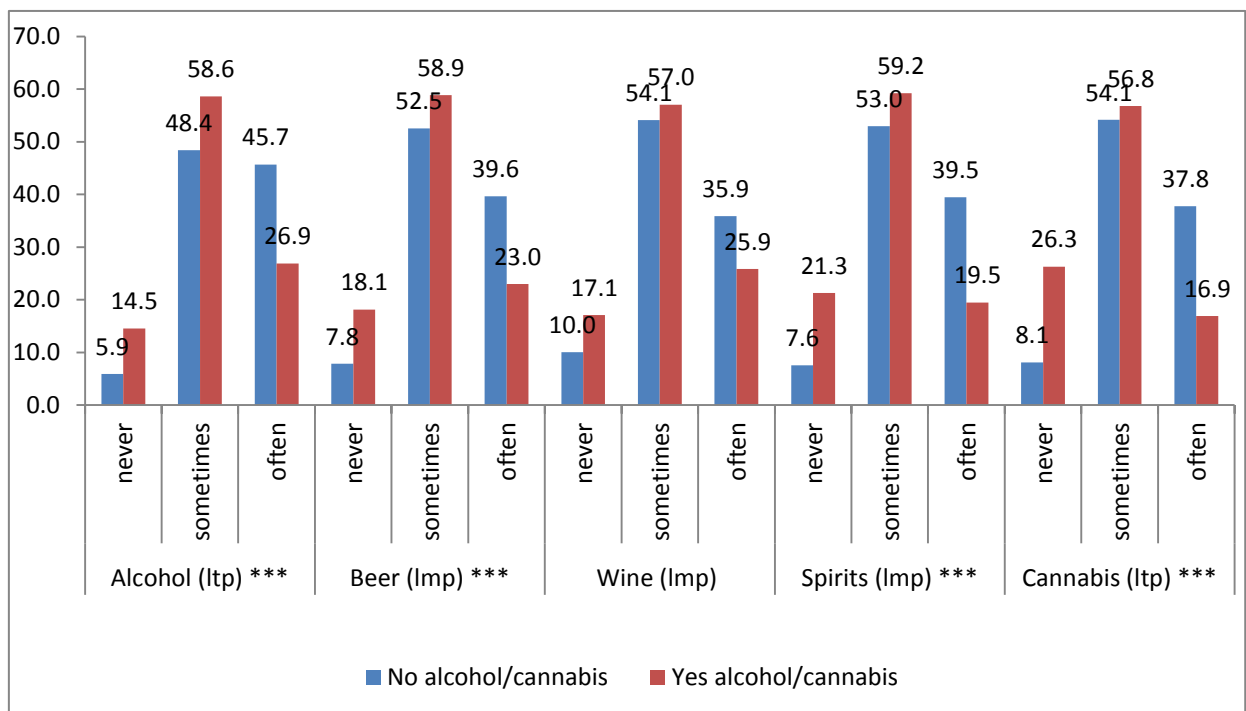
144 Weighted data

Figure 5.25 Leisure time: doing something creative (theater, music, draw, write, reading books) by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4030-4034.¹⁴⁵



145 Weighted data

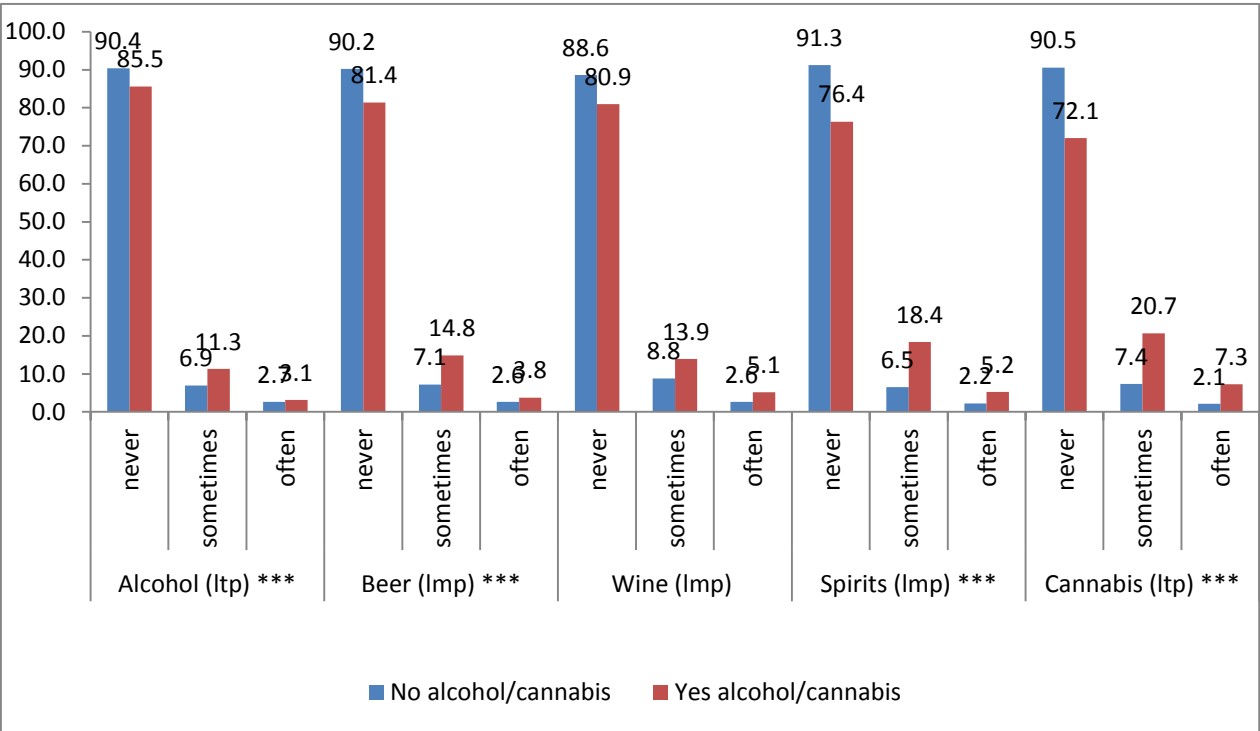
Figure 5.26 Leisure time: studying at school, doing homework by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4032-4036.¹⁴⁶



Respondents, who do not drink alcohol and who do not smoke cannabis, are more likely doing homework and studying at school in their free time.

On the other hand, socially well accepted leisure-time activities, such as arts, reading and the like are going along with less drinking beer and spirits as well as with less smoking cannabis. Wine stands out as an exception, probably because drinking wine is often related to conformist activities.

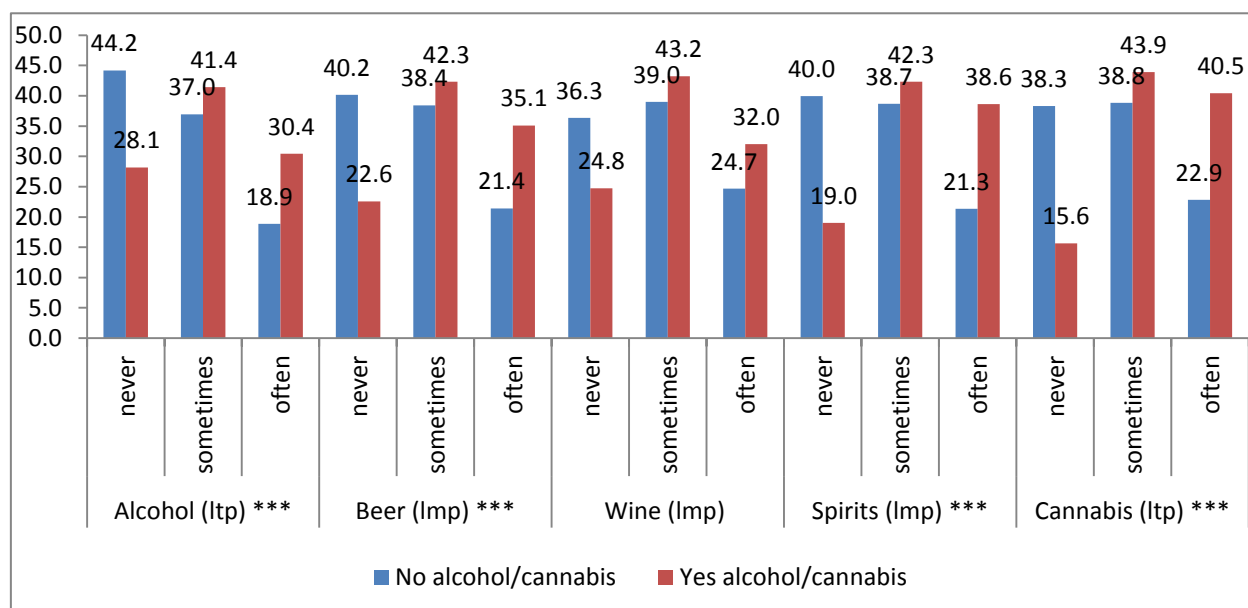
Figure 5.27 Leisure time: engaging in fights with others by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4030-4032.¹⁴⁷



Aggressive behaviour is associated with drinking. Surprisingly but in line with earlier work in connection with ISRD-2, the association is even stronger among cannabis users.

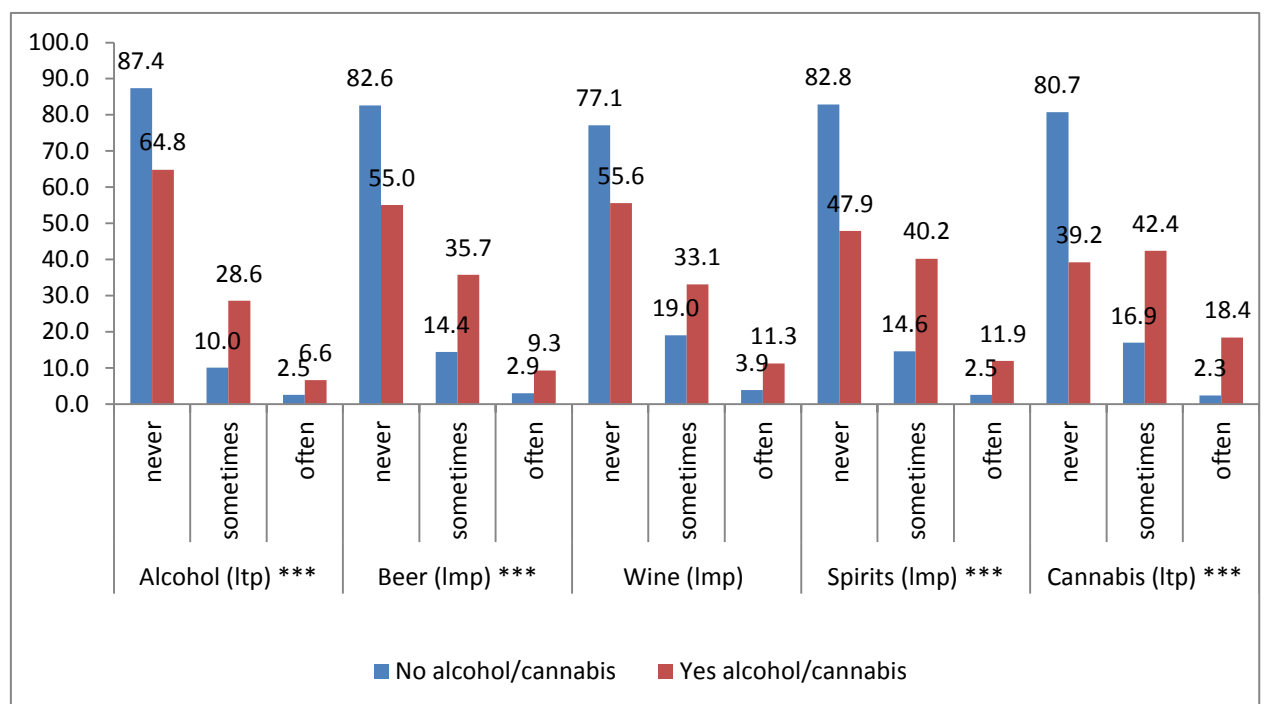
147 Weighted data

Figure 5.28 Leisure time: hanging out in shopping centers, parks, streets etc. for fun by alcohol/cannabis use. life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4034-4039.¹⁴⁸



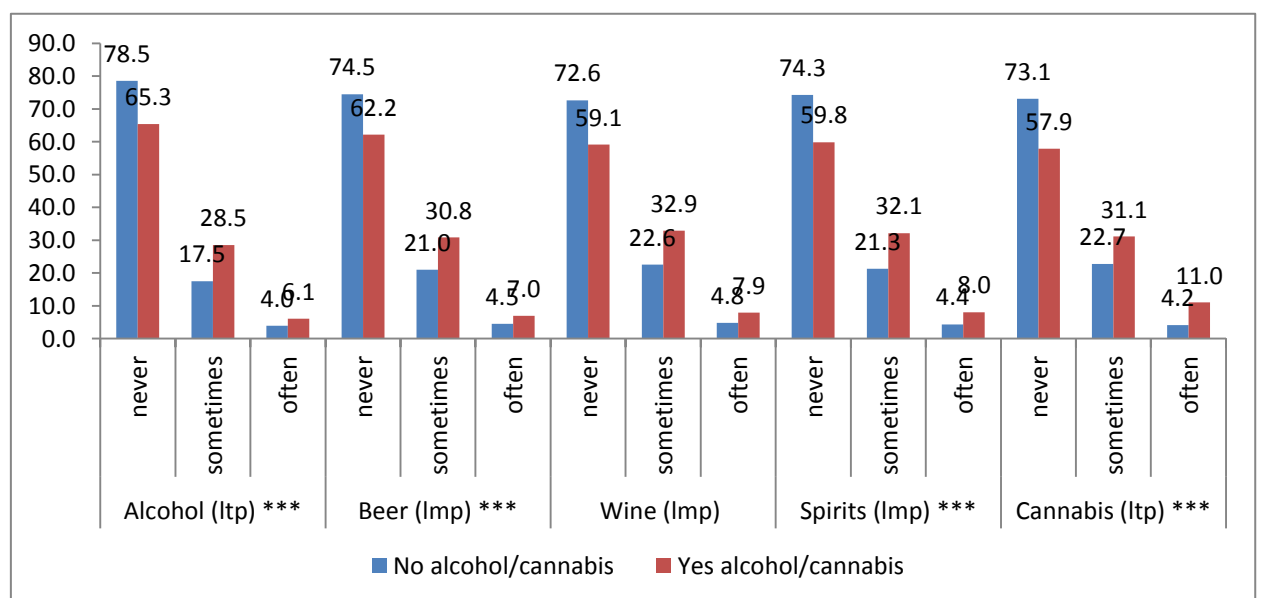
Hanging out in shopping centres, parks, streets and similar locations (just for having fun) goes along with more frequent use of substances. The difference is more substantial for spirits and cannabis.

Figure 5.29 Leisure time: doing something illegal to have fun by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4028-4033.¹⁴⁹



Doing something illegal just for fun is far more common among users of spirits and cannabis.

Figure 5.30 Leisure time: frightening and annoying people just for fun by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4028-4033.¹⁵⁰



149 Weighted data

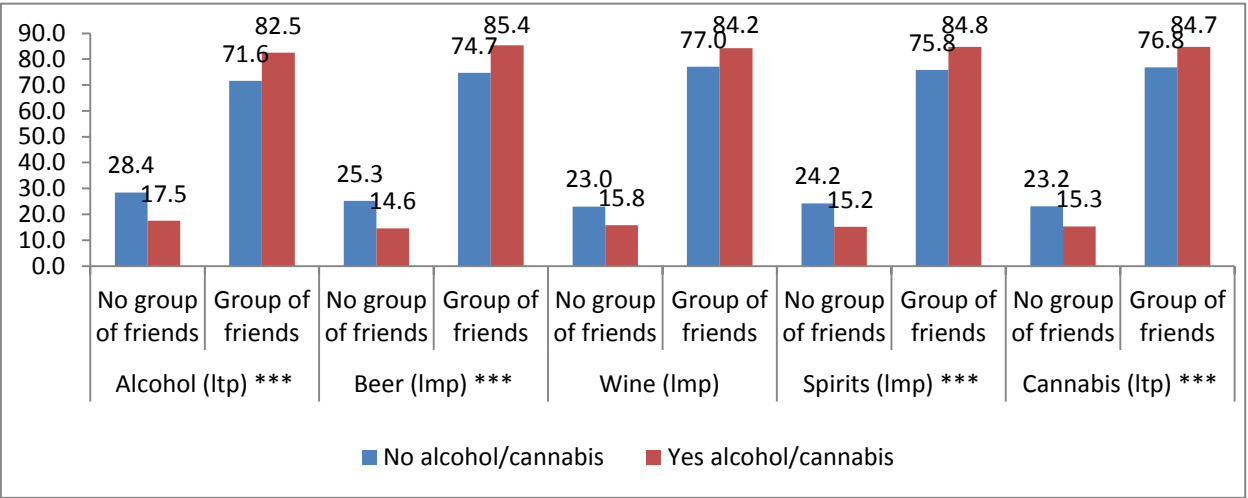
150 Weighted data

Frightening and annoying people just for fun is, once more, associated with use of substances and, in particular, with consuming spirits and cannabis.

5.3.2 Peers, friends and the use of substances

Contrary to leisure-time behaviour, having ties to friends is only weakly associated with the use of alcohol or cannabis. This holds true for missing one’s friends in case of moving to a different city, or having a group of friends to spend time with (Figure 5.31). This means that using alcohol or cannabis does not necessarily help to make friends.

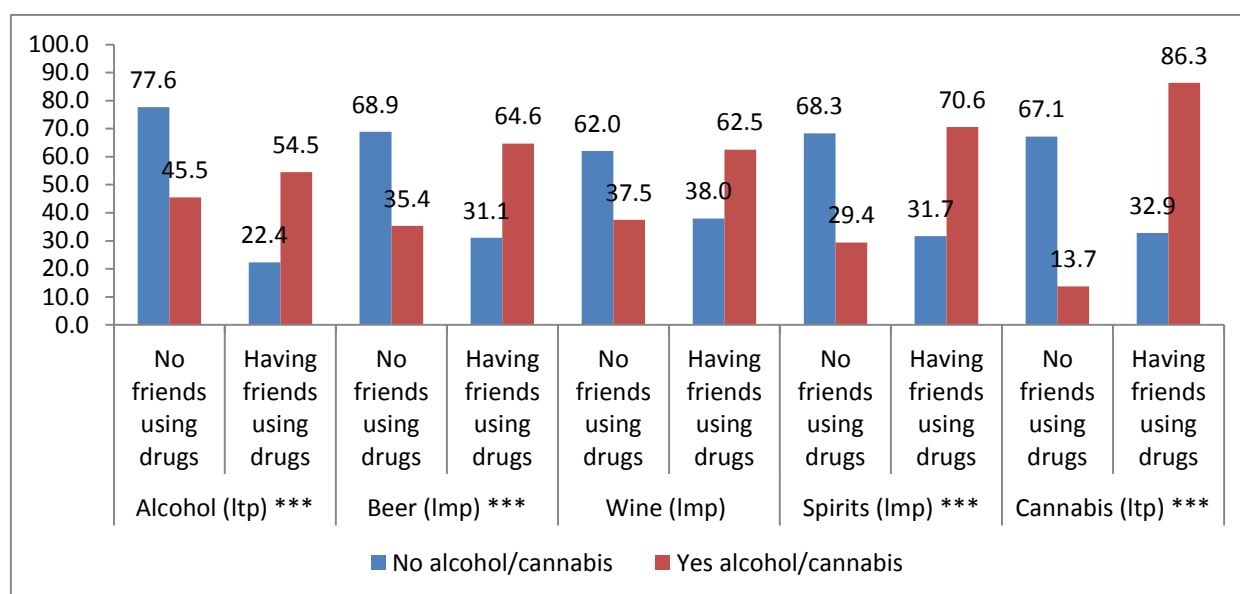
Figure 5.31 Having a group of friends to spend time with, by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4037-4043.¹⁵¹



On the other hand, knowing friends who use drugs is strongly associated with use of all substances, but particularly of cannabis.

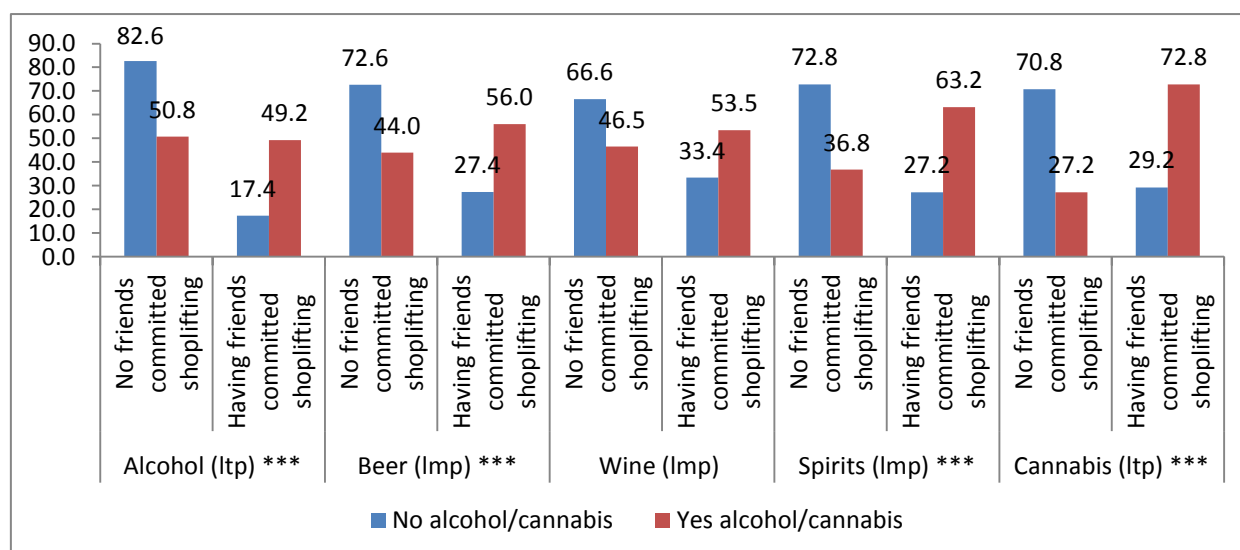
151 Weighted data

Figure 5.32 Having friends who use drugs by alcohol/cannabis, life time (ltp) and lastmonth prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4056-4058.¹⁵²



Students, who drink alcohol and consume marihuana, are more likely to know friends who use drugs. This association is especially strong with cannabis use (life time prevalence).

Figure 5.33 Having friends who committed shoplifting by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %m N=4056-4058.¹⁵³



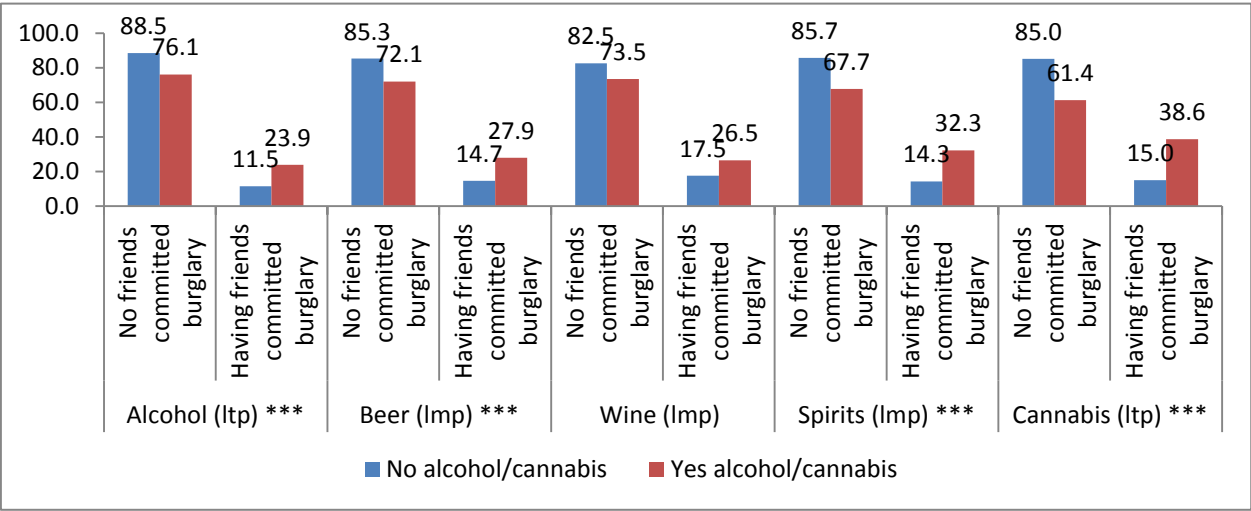
The role of qualitative aspects of leisure-time activities and peer networks is further underlined by Figure 5.33 and the following figures. Indeed, respondents who know friends who have committed offences such as shoplifting, burglary, robbery and assault, are all more likely to have

¹⁵² Weighted data

¹⁵³ Weighted data

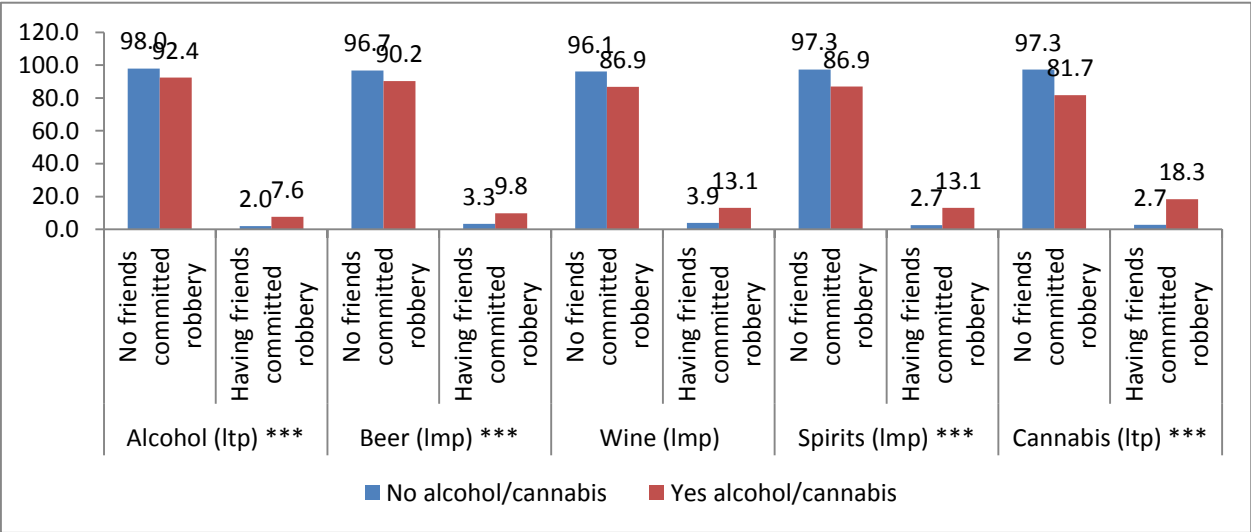
used also substances. The associations are particularly strong for spirits and cannabis (see the following Figures 5.34-5.36).

Figure 5.34 Having friends who committed burglary by alcohol/cannabis use, life time(ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4056-4058.¹⁵⁴



Students, who have already tried alcohol/cannabis or drank alcohol last 30 days, are more likely to know friends, who committed burglary.

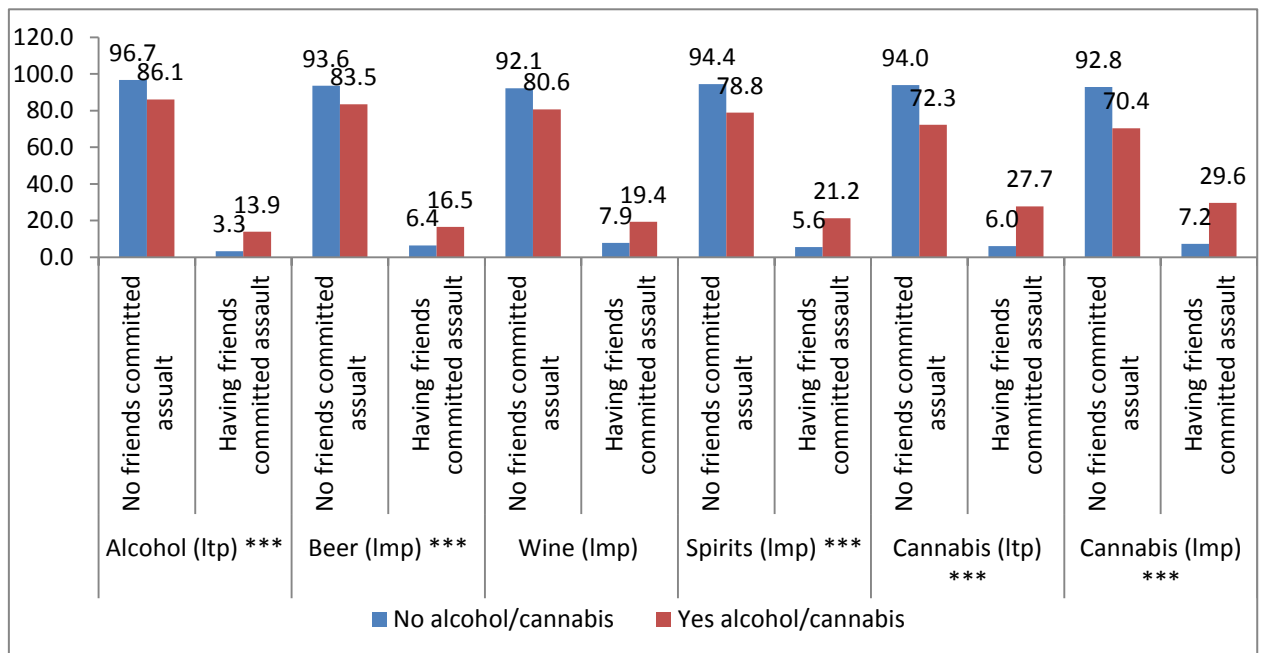
Figure 5.35 Having friends who committed robbery by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4056-4058.¹⁵⁵



154 Weighted data

155 Weighted data

Figure 5.36 Having friends who committed assault by alcohol/cannabis use, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4056-4058.



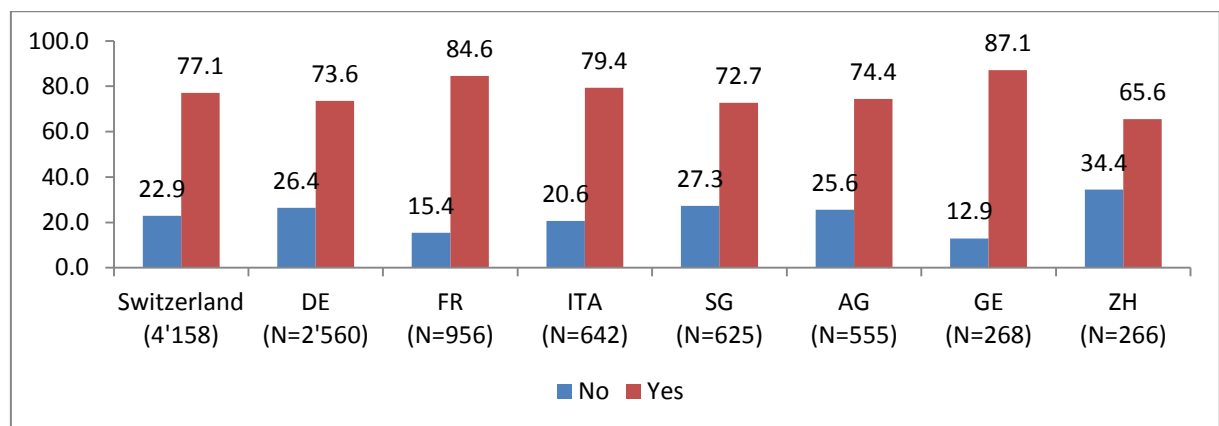
As one can see, the association with hard liquor and cannabis use is particularly strong for robbery which is, presumably, considered the most “criminal” offence.

5.4 Computer games as other types of leisure-time activities

This part of Chapter 5 includes some results of the module (13) that was about computer games and its impact on delinquency. It includes a lot of variables and 7 types of computer games. We discuss only 3 of them:

- Ego-shooter (a computer video game genre centered on gun and projectile weapon-based combat through a first player; the player experiences the action through the eyes of the protagonist, and in some cases, the antagonist);
- Fighting/violence (in which the player either (a) controls an on-screen character and engages in close combat with an opponent, or (b) is involved in controversial video games, some of them have been banned or censored because of rudeness, violence, etc.)
- Strategy (emphasizes skillful thinking and planning with strategic, tactical, and sometimes logistical challenges).

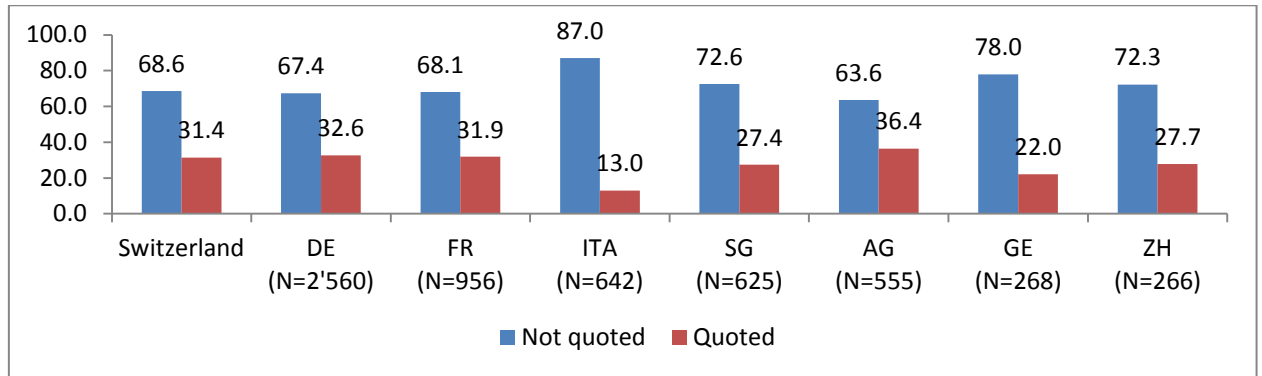
Figure 5.36_1 “Do you play computer games?” In %¹⁵⁶.



The highest percentage of those, who play computer games, is among Swiss-German respondents, particularly in the canton of Zurich.

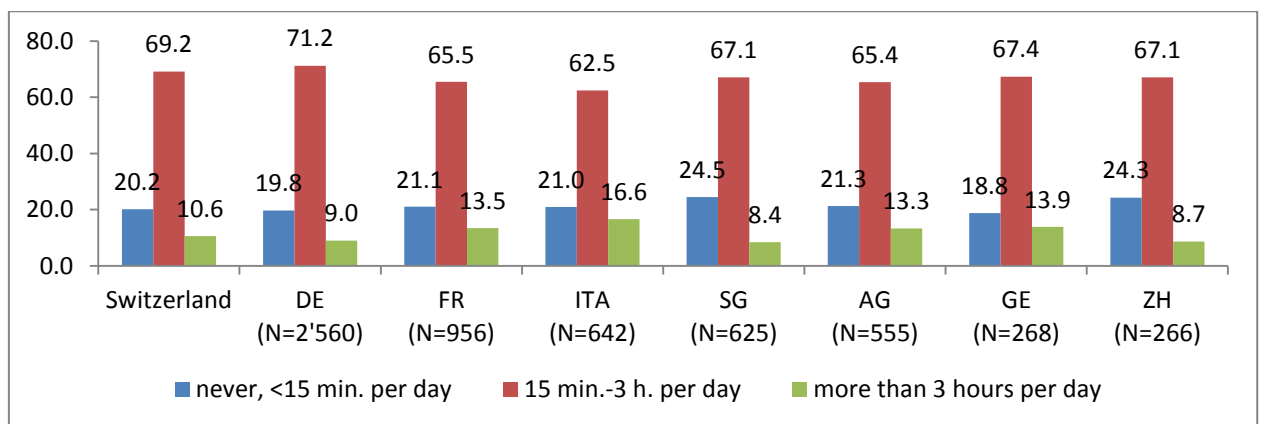
¹⁵⁶ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 1.0% -13.9%.

Figure 5.36_2 Ego-shooter as a favorite genre of computer games in %¹⁵⁷.



Genre of Ego-shooter computer video games is evenly popular in most regions of Switzerland, except Ticino.

Figure 5.36_3 “How long do you play ego-shooter per day?” In %¹⁵⁸.

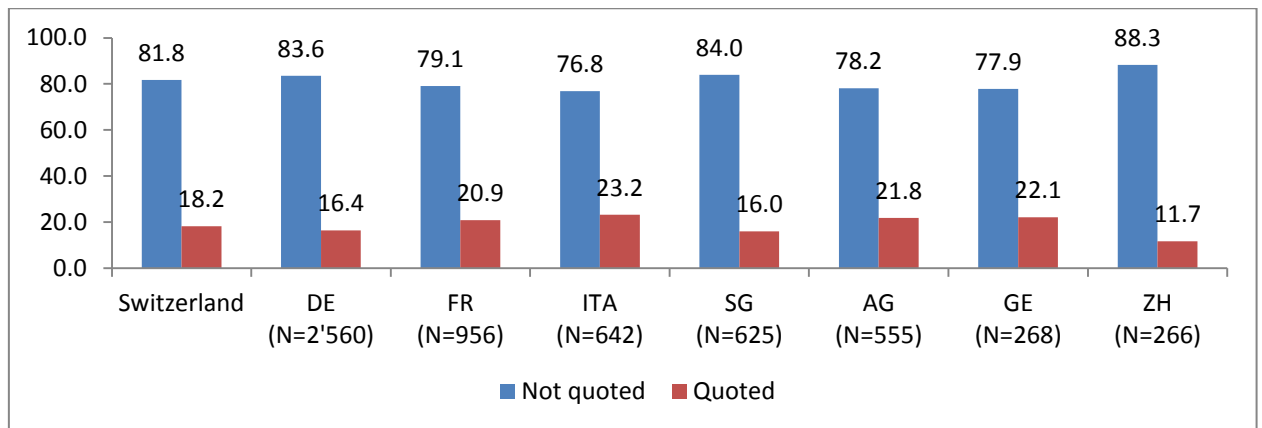


Again with the exception of Ticino, time invested in ego-shooter games is about equal across the country.

¹⁵⁷ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 19.5% -35.7%.

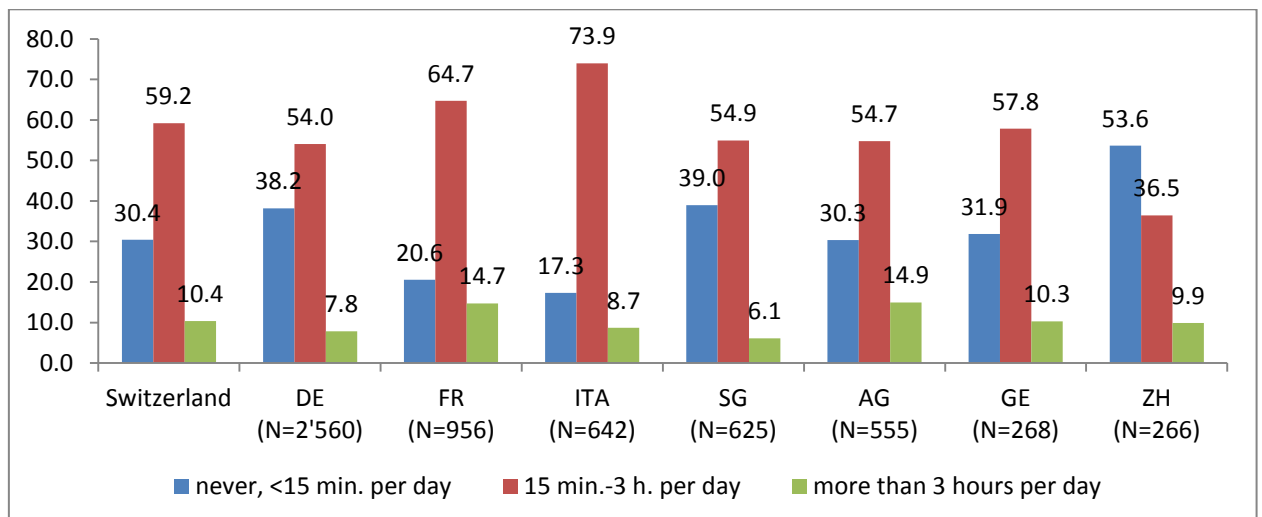
¹⁵⁸ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 74.9% -92.0%.

Figure 5.36_4 Fighting/violence as a favorite genre of computer game genre in %¹⁵⁹.



This type of games is slightly more popular in French and Italian speaking regions, as well as in the cantons of Aargau and Geneva.

Figure 5.36_5 “How long do you play fighting/violence per day?” In %¹⁶⁰.

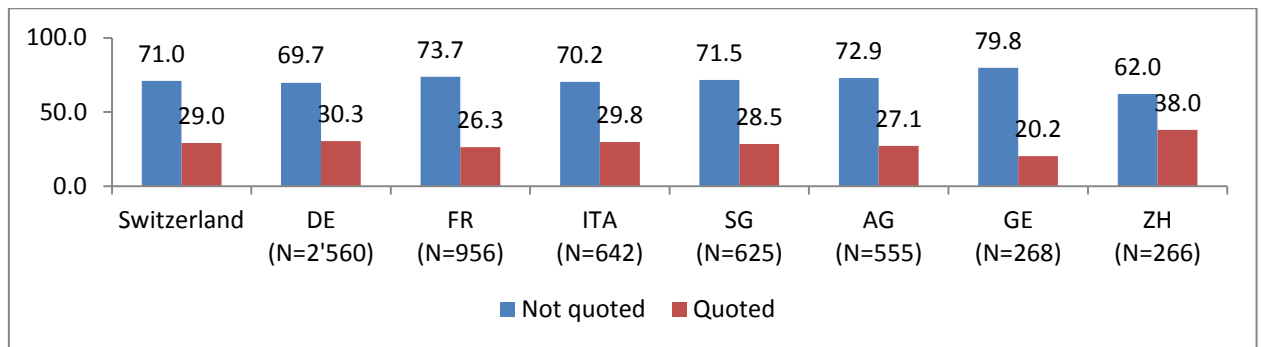


Intensive players of fighting/violence games are in German speaking cantons. It is specially visible in the canton of Zurich.

¹⁵⁹ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 19.5% -35.7%.

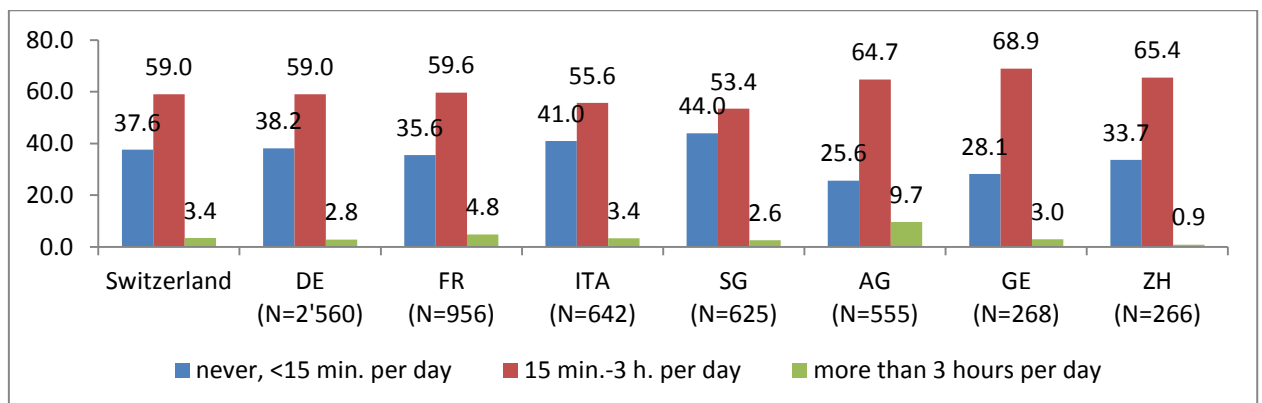
¹⁶⁰ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 83.0% -92.4%.

Figure 5.36_6 Strategy/puzzle as favorite genre of computer game in %¹⁶¹.



Strategy/puzzle is the second popular genre of computer video games among those selected here. It is slightly more popular in the canton of Zürich.

Figure 5.36_7 “How long do you play strategy/puzzle per day?” In %¹⁶².



Strategy/puzzle genre of computer video games is not only the least harmful, but it also takes less time than the two previously mentioned computer games.

More information about influence of these computer games on juvenile delinquency, see 5.7.5 “*Delinquency by computer games*”.

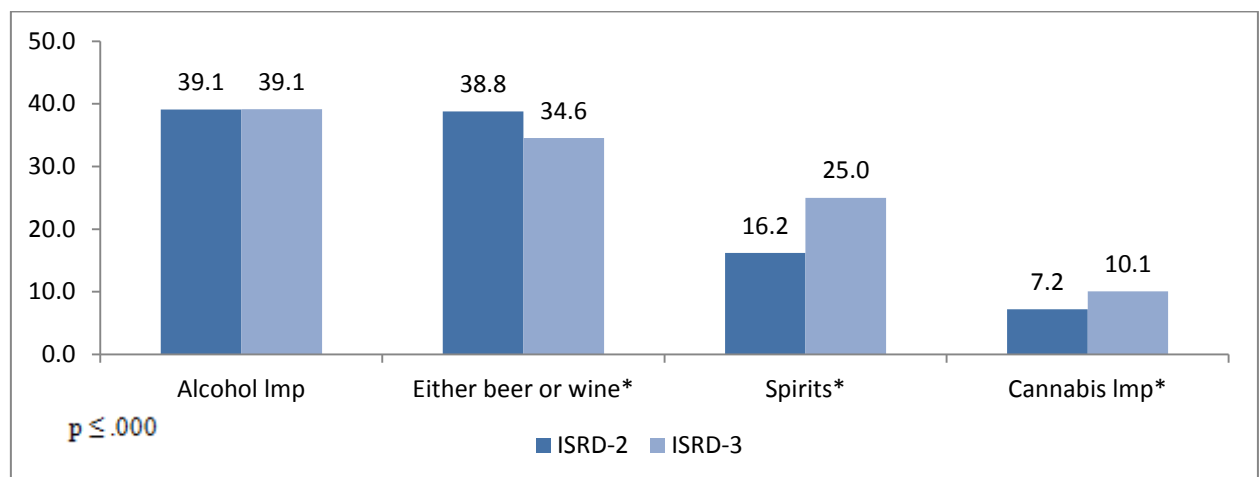
¹⁶¹ Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 19.5% -35.7%.

¹⁶² Results are on the base of the available cases. The level of missing cases is between 77.0% -86.6%.

5.5 Changes in leisure-time activities between 2006 and 2013

It has been observed in Chapter 7 that offending seems to have increased since ISRD-2 conducted in 2006. Therefore, the question remains whether this increase can be attributed to changes in leisure-time activities such as going out in the evenings, substance use and other possibly explanatory factors. The following Figures present the main findings regarding several aspects of leisure-time activities.

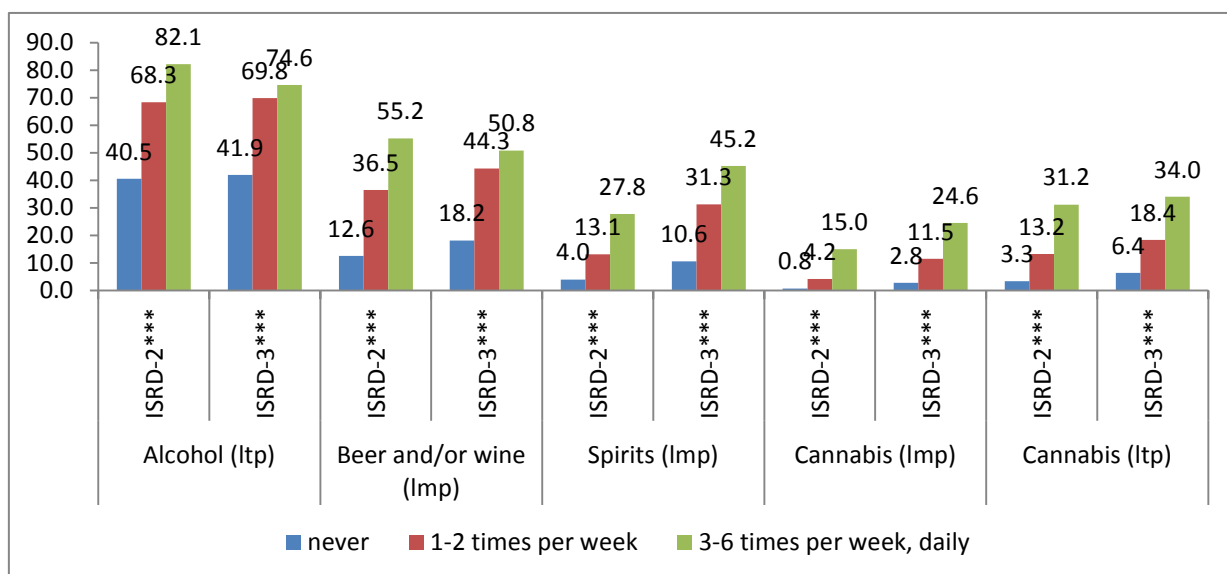
Figure 5.37_1 Substance use in % for 2006 and 2013, last month prevalence.¹⁶³



Cannabis and alcohol did not increase over the life-time. However, recent consumption of spirits and cannabis (last month prevalence) increased in 2013 in comparison with 2006. These substances are very popular during night-time activities. The following figure illustrates this further and explains rising percentage of those, who go out 3-6 times per week and consume more alcohol in general and more spirits.

163 Weighted data

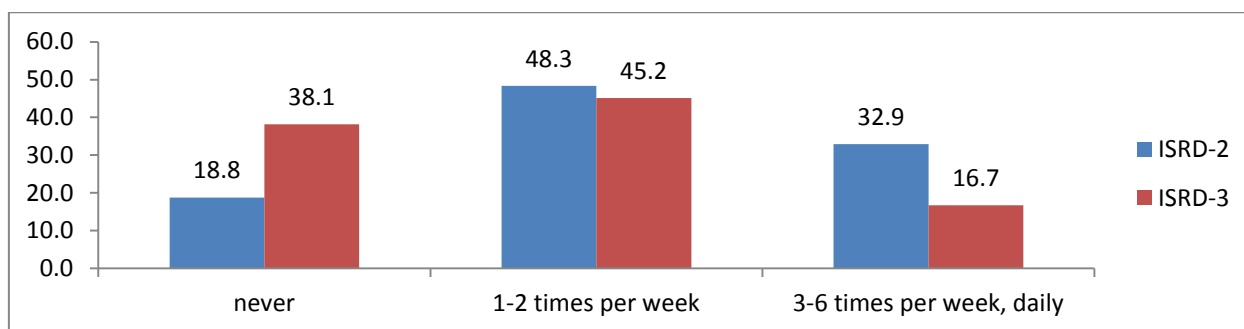
Figure 5.37_2 Going out in the evening (IV) and substance use (DV) in 2006 and 2013, life time (ltp) and last month prevalence (lmp) in %, N=4039-4042.¹⁶⁴



Use of all substances is associated with going out at night. Those who go out more frequently also use alcohol and cannabis more often. However and as Figure 3.57a illustrates, the association has remained stable, from 2006 to 2013, between going out and using substances, but the level of recent use of spirits and cannabis has increased substantially.

164 ISRD-2 – not weighted data, ISRD-3 - weighted data

Figure 5.38_1 Going out in the evening in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁶⁵

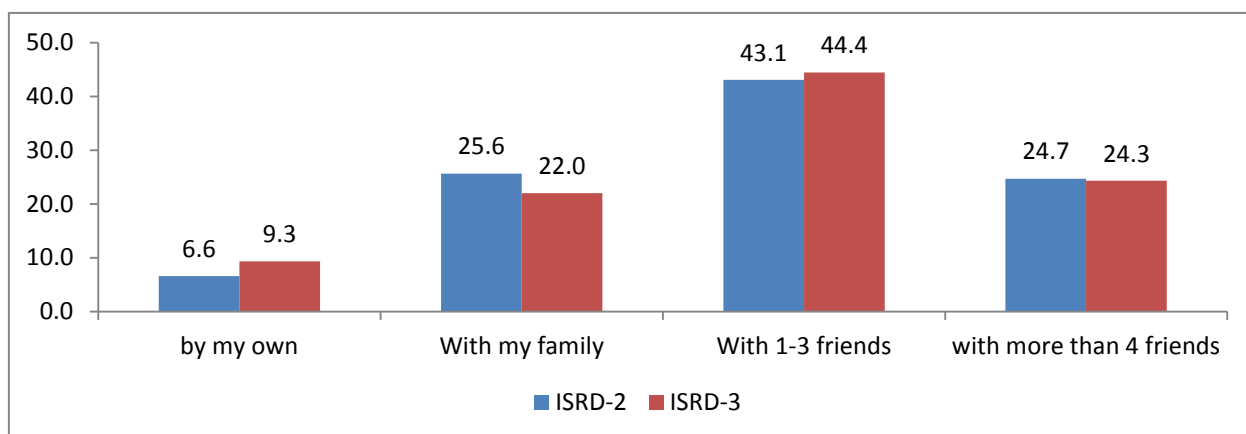


Contrary to what one might have expected, the frequency of going out has decreased rather than increased. Particularly the group of students who never go out in the evening has substantially increased. Several reasons may help to explain this surprising observation. It could be, as several other surveys suggest, that more juveniles spend time nowadays on the Internet rather than in the company with others. Unfortunately, there was no such measure in the instrument of ISR2. Second, the question did not specify, in 2006, at what hour students returned home most of the time. Given the very strong association between returning at late-hours and consumption of substances (see above, Figure 5.21) as well as with delinquency (see below, Figure 5.69), a shift to staying out longer may have occurred that cannot be identified with the two instruments. Third, the questionnaires of neither of the two surveys asked more precisely what kind of activity was the reason for going out in the evening. Given the increasing popularity of Internet and the difficulties of many organizers of traditional leisure-time activities, such as sports, to recruit and keep new members, the lower frequency of going out may have gone at the expense of more traditional activities rather than late-hour outdoor and other high-risk activities. Given the absence of data to corroborate these possibilities, we present these ideas only under the form of speculative hypotheses.

¹⁶⁵ ISR2 – not weighted data, ISR3 - weighted data

Figure 5.38_2

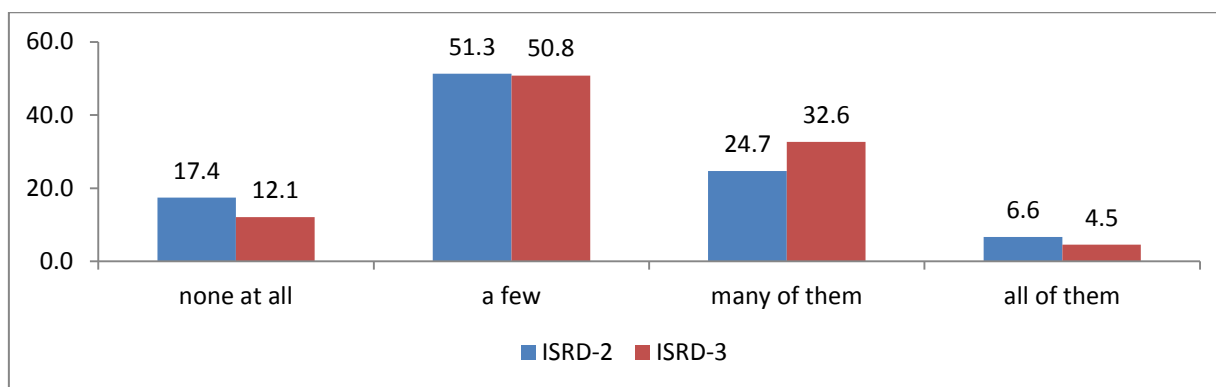
“With whom do you spend most of your free time?” in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁶⁶



In 2013, more respondents spend time by their own, compared to 2006. On the other hand, spending time with the family has become slightly less popular.

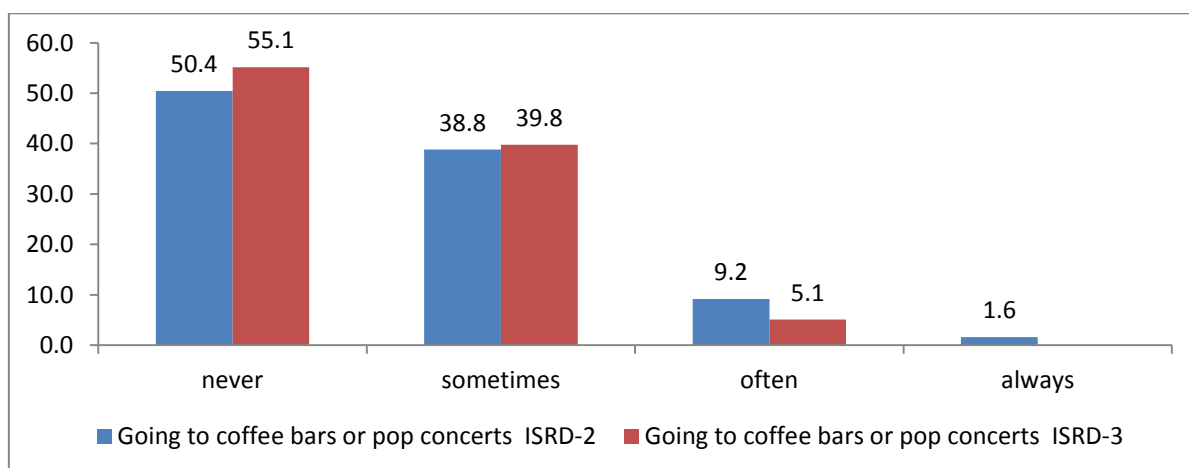
166 Weighted data (ISR3-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2-2, N=3643).

Figure 5.39 “Do you have friends with parents of foreign origin?” in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁶⁷



The proportion of students who do not socialize with peers of foreign origin has decreased, and more respondents say having many friends with origins abroad. This certainly reflects the increasing proportion of the immigrant population in Switzerland and particularly at schools. At the other extreme, there are less respondents indicating that they have only friends from abroad – a sign that “segregation” may have decreased.

Figure 5.40 Leisure time: going to coffee bars or pop concerts in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁶⁸

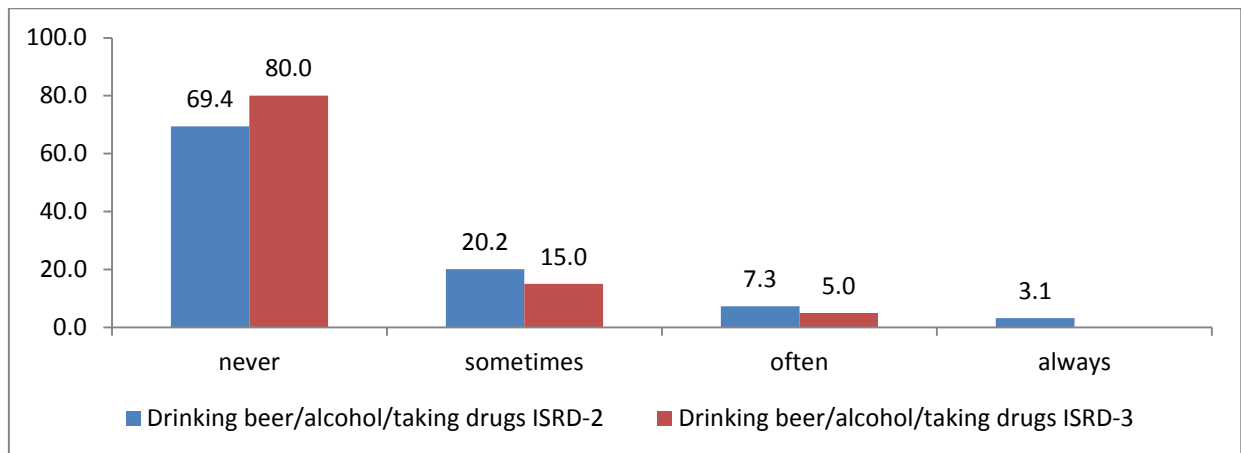


In 2013, fewer respondents say going to discos or pop concerts in 2013, in comparison with 2006.

¹⁶⁷ Weighted data (ISR2-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2-2, N=3643).

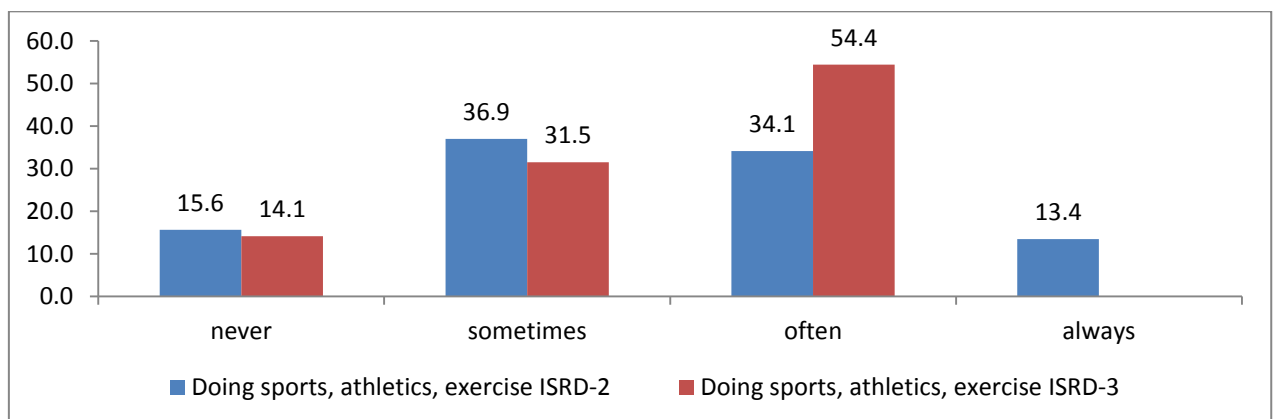
¹⁶⁸ Weighted data (ISR2-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2-2, N=3643).

Figure 5.41 Leisure time: drinking alcohol and taking drugs in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁶⁹



Consuming substances (alcohol and/or drugs) seems to have decreased during leisure-time spent outdoors. (A slight change in the wording of the relevant items in the instruments, from ISRD-2 to ISRD-3, should be noted.) Since, according to the direct questions regarding use of alcohol and cannabis, the recent use (over the last 30 days) of spirits and cannabis seems to have increased, the apparent contradiction with the findings presented here might point to a possible shift in the use of substances to indoor settings.

Figure 5.42 Leisure time: doing sports in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷⁰

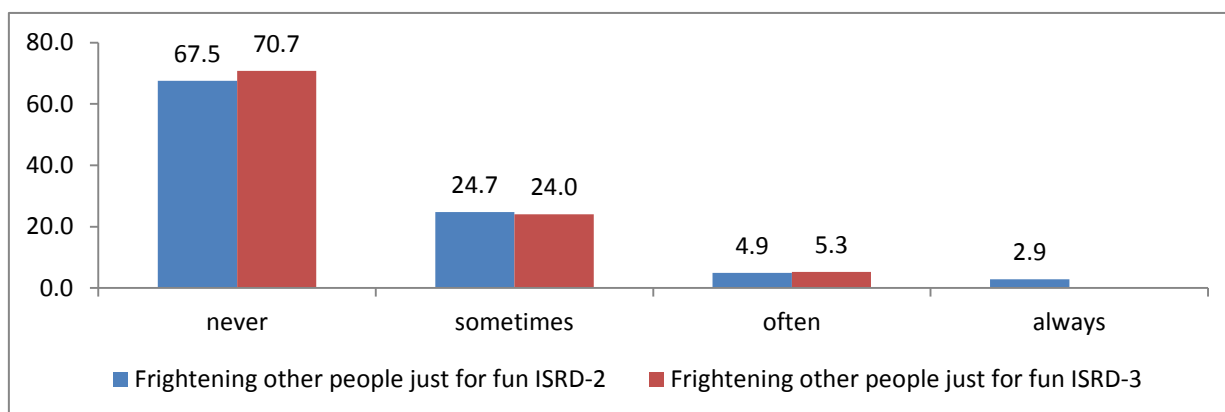


Further evidence that conformist activities may have increased comes from Figure 5.42 suggesting that sports may have gained in popularity over the past years.

169 Weighted data (ISRD-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISRD-2, N=3643).

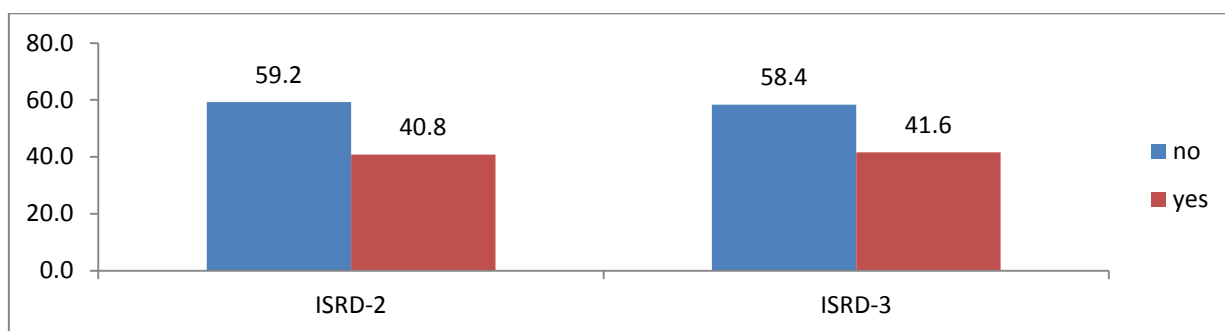
170 Weighted data (ISRD-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISRD-2, N=3643).

Figure 5.43 Leisure time: frightening and annoying people just for fun in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷¹



Harassing people (presumably in the streets) seems also to have decreased.

Figure 5.44 Having friends who use drugs in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷²

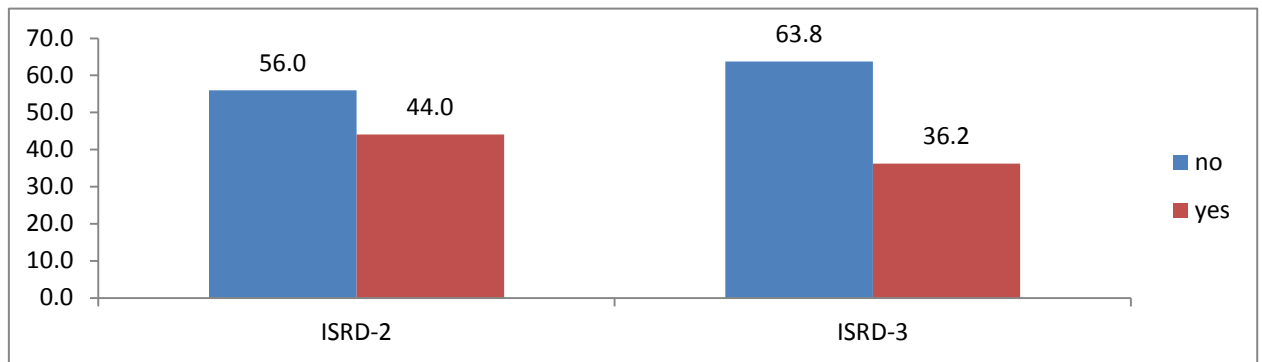


The same proportion of respondents reported in 2013 (compared to 2006) knowing friends who use drugs. This is not in line with the trend of self-reported (actual) drug use (see Figure 5.37_1).

171 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

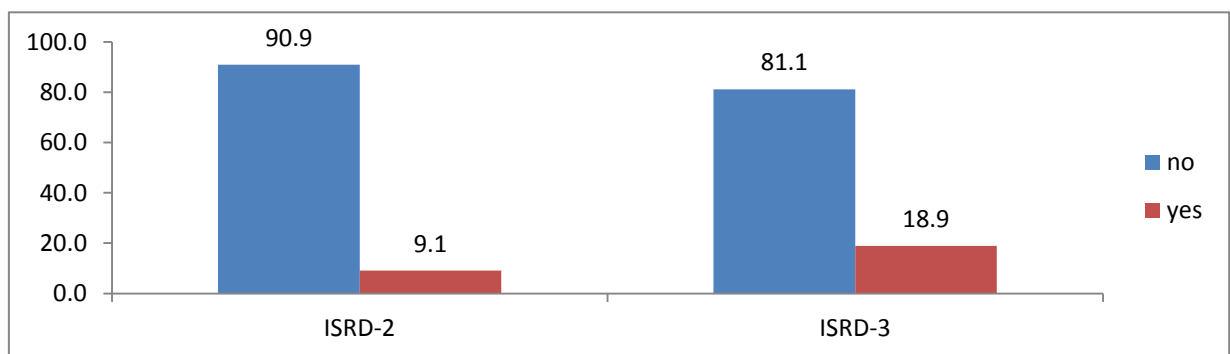
172 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

Figure 5.45 Having friends who committed shoplifting in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷³



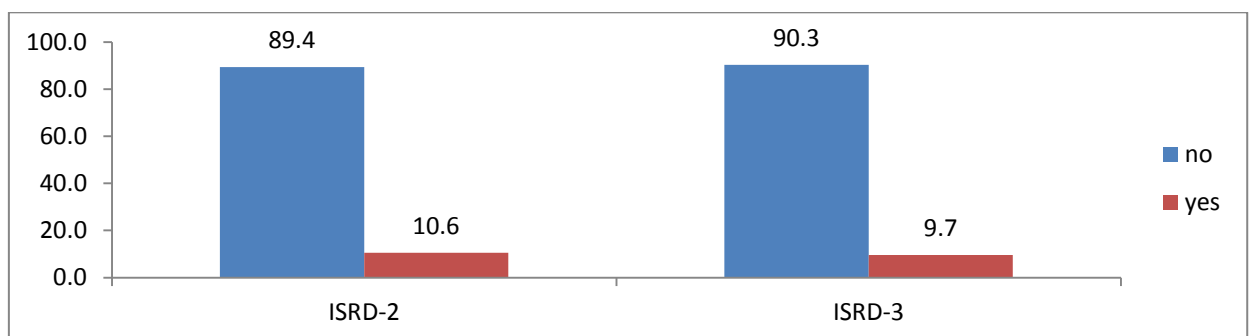
Fewer students report knowing friends who have committed shoplifting. Since shoplifting has increased between 2006 and 2013 (see Chapter 7), this finding is not entirely plausible. It could be, however, that shoplifting has become a more individual and less a group offence over time.

Figure 5.46 Having friends who committed burglary in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷⁴



Again in line with self-report measures of burglary (that suggest that this offence has increased since 2006, see Table 7.2), more students report knowing peers who had committed this.

Figure 5.47 Having friends who committed assault in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷⁵

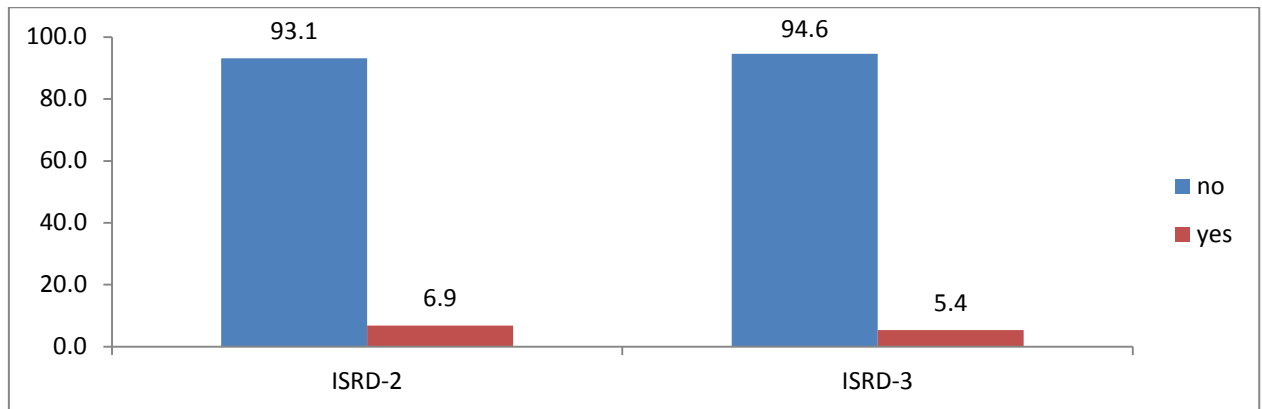


173 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

174 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).data

175 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

Figure 5.48 Having friends who committed robbery in % for 2006 and 2013.¹⁷⁶



Although self-reported measures of robbery and assault suggest that these offences may have increased between 2006 and 2013, the proportion of respondents who say knowing peers who have committed these offences is perfectly stable. Given the relative rarity of these offences, fewer people among peers may come to know about it. Further, burglary requires often some cooperation from others, including fences, which increases the probability that more people will learn about it.

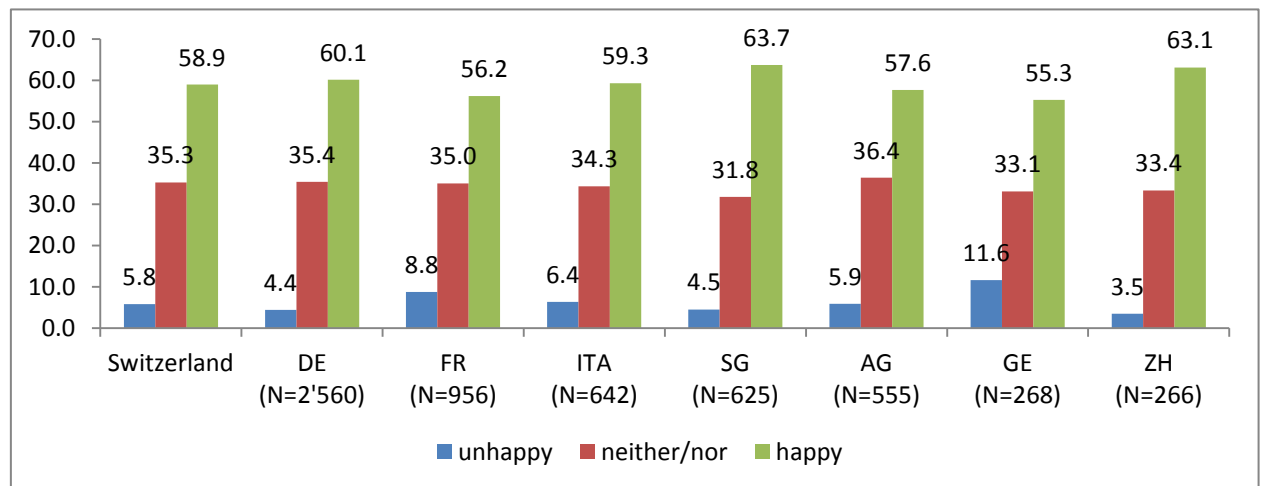
Overall, the results about changes in leisure-time activities do not offer plausible explanations for increasing trends of self-reported offending (see Table 7.2). This is not to say that the self-report measures are not “true”, but that the causes of the observed trends must be looked for in other areas that are not reflected in the questionnaires of ISR2 and ISR3. On the other hand, the results on peers are more mixed, some being in line with trends in self-reported delinquency.

¹⁷⁶ Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

5.6 Happiness, leisure-time, peers and substance use

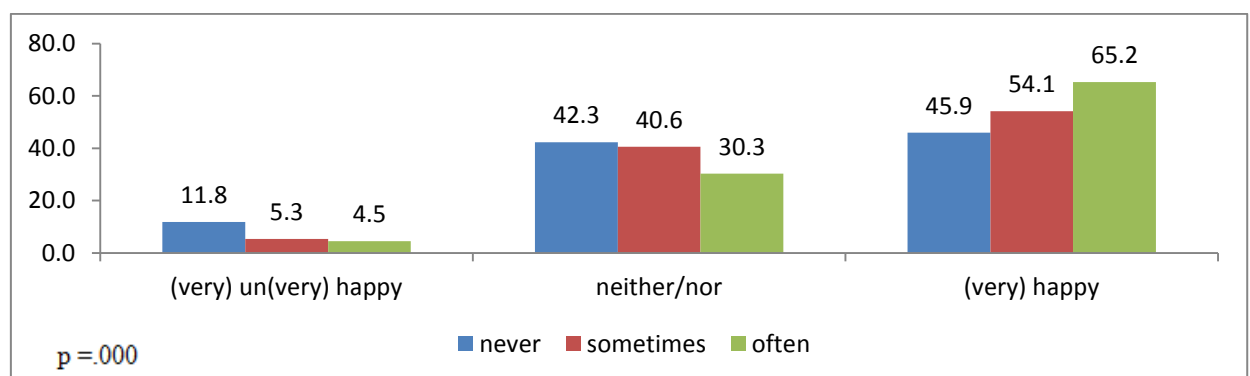
We begin the presentation of the findings on happiness with the basic frequencies in the national and the several regional samples.

Figure 5.49 “Would you say that most of the time you have been happy during last 6 months? by main and subsamples in %.”¹⁷⁷



The level of happiness is approximately the same in different regions. The highest percentage of (very) unhappy students can be found in French speaking cantons, the lowest in the cantons of Zurich and St. Gallen.

Figure 5.50 Happiness by doing sports in leisure time in %, N=4096.¹⁷⁸

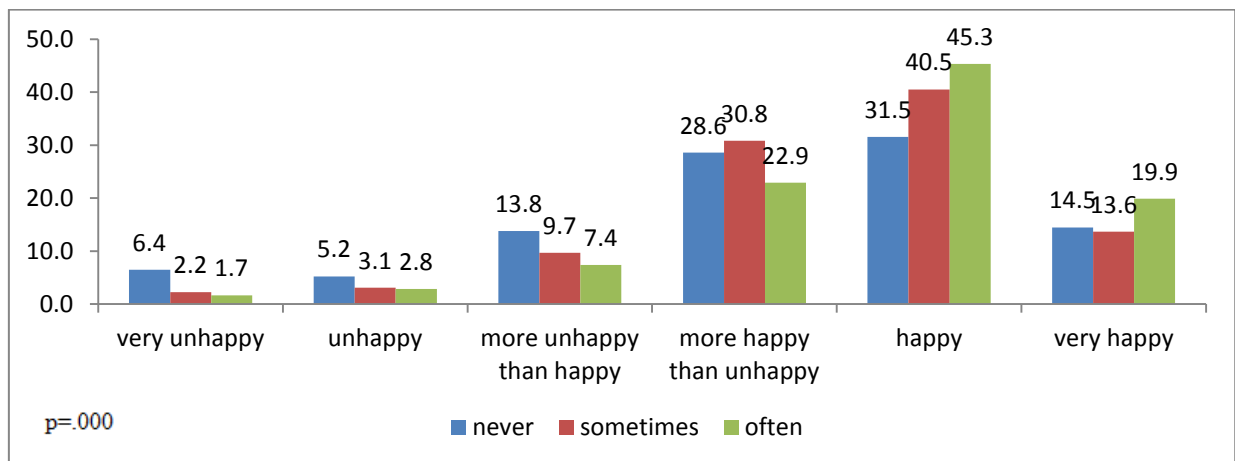


Respondents who often practice sports during leisure time are more often happy than their peers. This may be due to a better body-feeling and (perceived) higher attractiveness.

¹⁷⁷ Weighted data

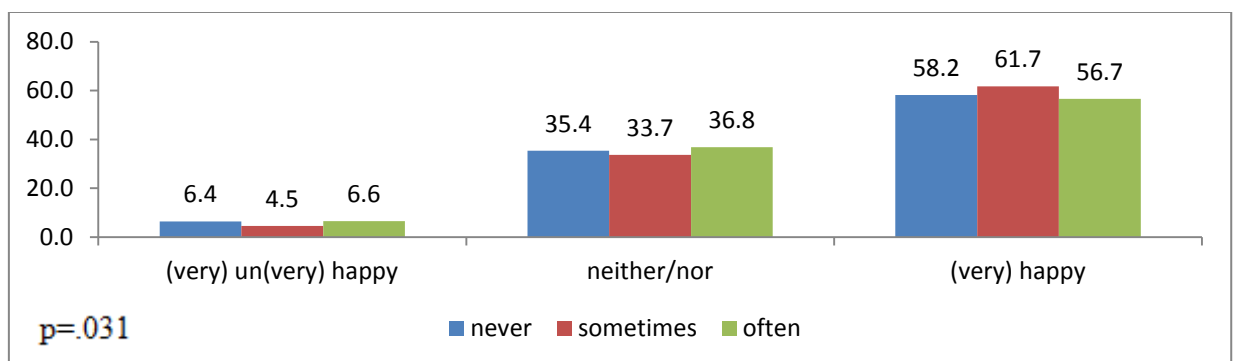
¹⁷⁸ Weighted data

Figure 5.51 Happiness by studying at school and doing homework in leisure time in %, N=4096.¹⁷⁹



Investing leisure-time for school-related homework and studies is only weakly associated with happiness. Students devoting much of their leisure-time to such activities are slightly happier, probably because they resent more satisfaction at school and in their environment.

Figure 5.52 Happiness by doing something creative in %, N=4084.¹⁸⁰

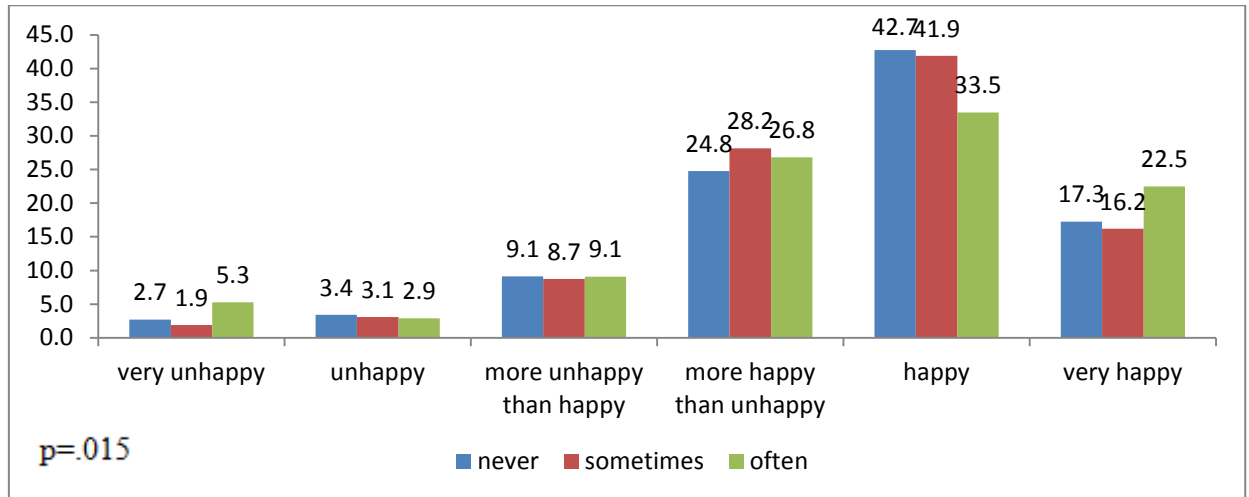


Students who, during leisure-time, are often doing something creative (such as playing theatre or music, or reading) are more often unhappy. Although the difference is not large, this result is rather unexpected and, at first sight at least, hard to explain. Could social isolation be the factor behind this association?

179 Weighted data

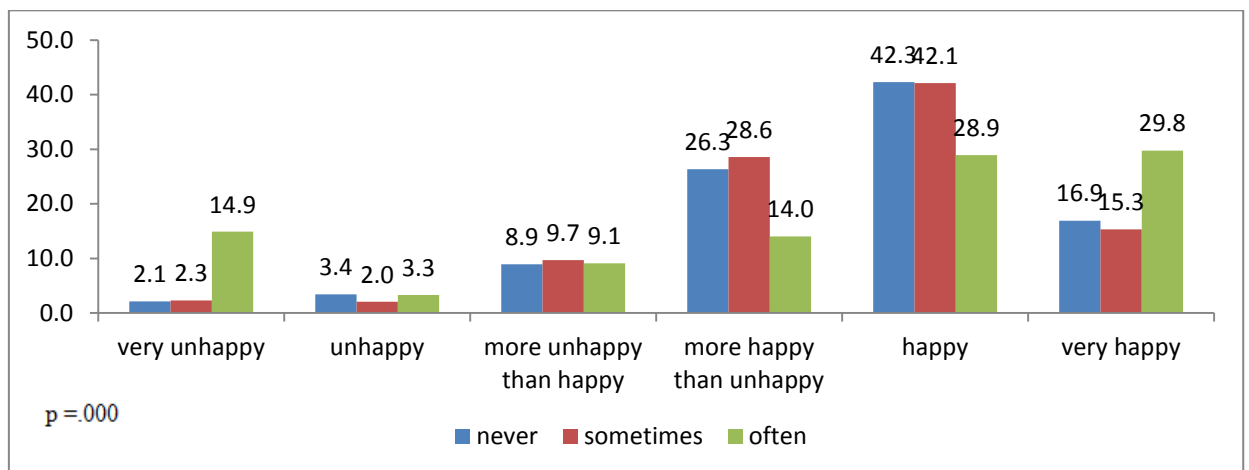
180 Weighted data

Figure 5.53 Happiness by going to coffee bars or pop concerts in %, N=4085.¹⁸¹



On the other hand, no clear pattern emerges with respect to going to coffee bars and pop concerts during leisure-time. Respondents who often go to such places are somewhat more often “very unhappy”, but they are also more often “very happy”.

Figure 5.54 Happiness by engaging in fights with others in leisure time in %, N=4082.¹⁸²

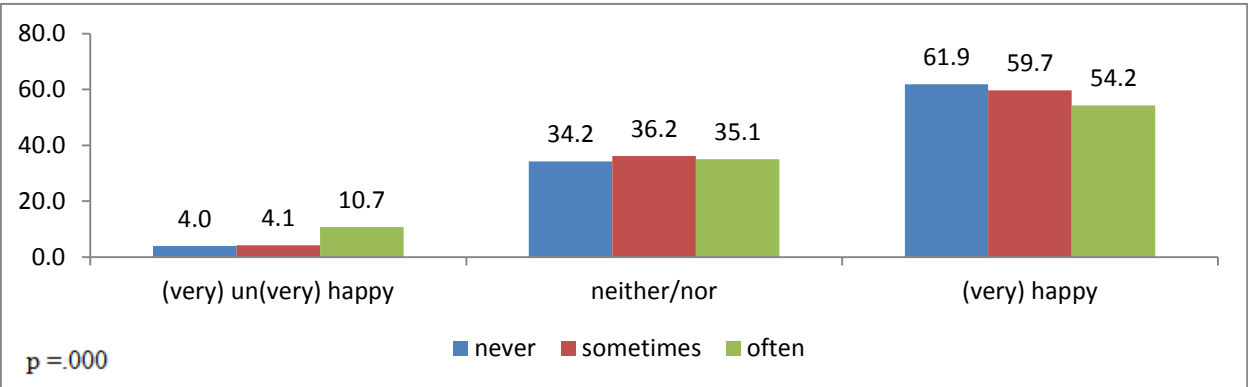


Respondents who said often engaging in fighting with others during leisure-time can be both very happy and very unhappy. Overall, however, students who say never engaging in fights with others are more often happy.

181 Weighted data

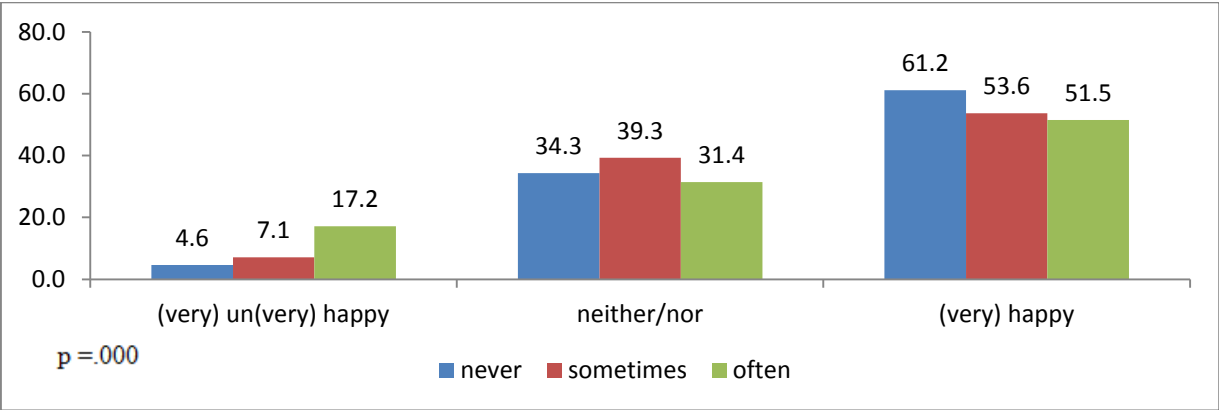
182 Weighted data

Figure 5.55 Happiness and hanging out in shopping centers, parks and streets for fun in leisure time in %, N=4089.¹⁸³



Students, who are hanging out in shopping centres, parks and streets for fun are more likely to be (very) unhappy than their peers.

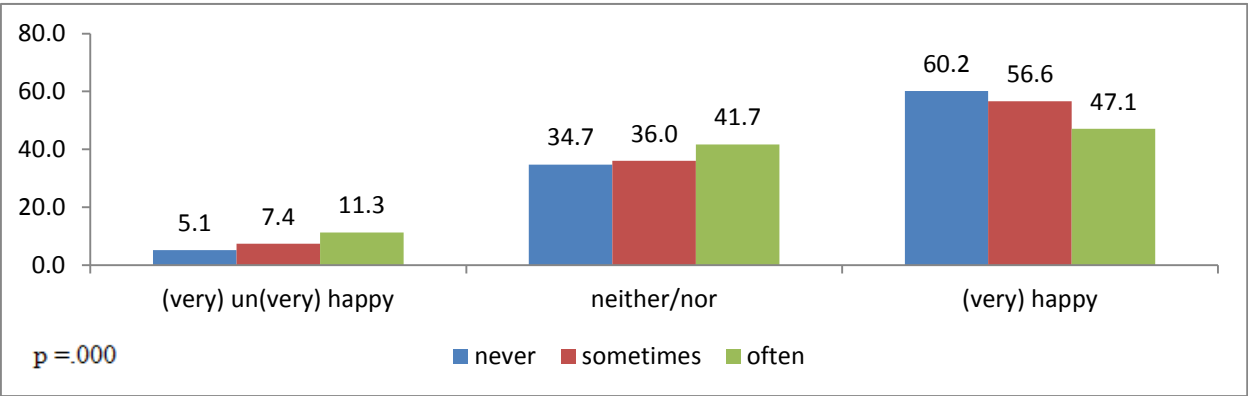
Figure 5.56 Happiness by doing something illegal for fun in leisure time in %, N=4081.¹⁸⁴



Respondents who report doing something illegal for fun are 3 times more likely to be (very) unhappy than their peers.

183 Weighted data
184 Weighted data

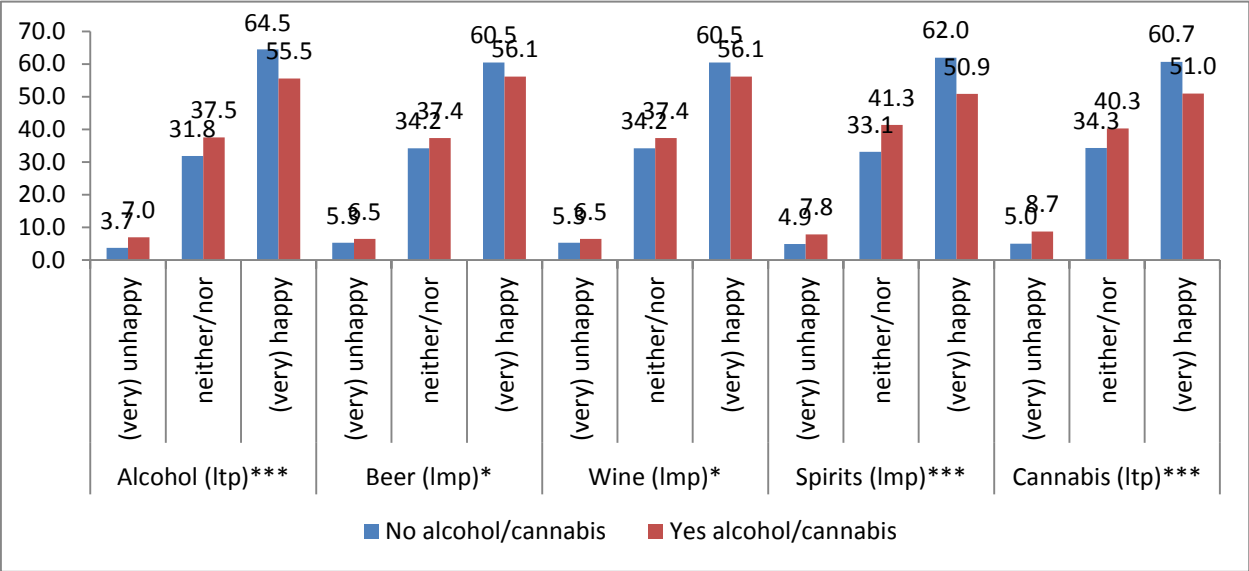
Figure 5.57 Happiness by drinking beer/alcohol and taking drugs in leisure time in %, N=4076.¹⁸⁵



Students who consume alcohol and drugs during their free time, are 3 times more likely to be (very) unhappy than their peers.

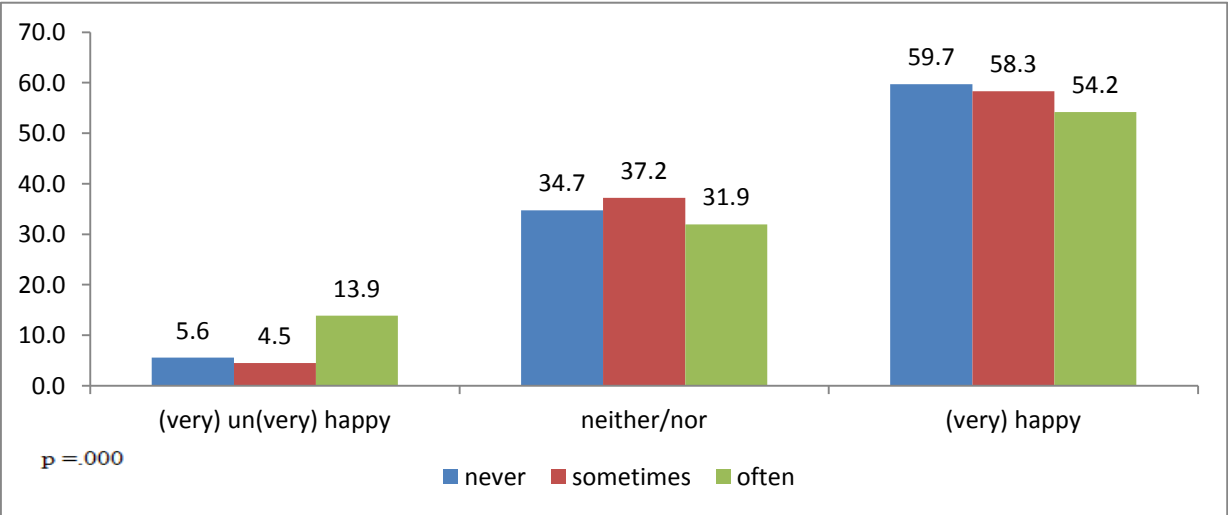
185 Weighted data

Figure 5.58 Happiness by alcohol/cannabis (life time prevalence) in %, N=4050-4051.¹⁸⁶



When the several substances are considered individually, it turns out that there is almost no difference, in terms of happiness, among those who admit drinking beer or wine and those who do not. However, the differences are larger among those who use spirits and cannabis.

Figure 5.59 Happiness by frightening and annoying people in leisure time in % N=4082.¹⁸⁷

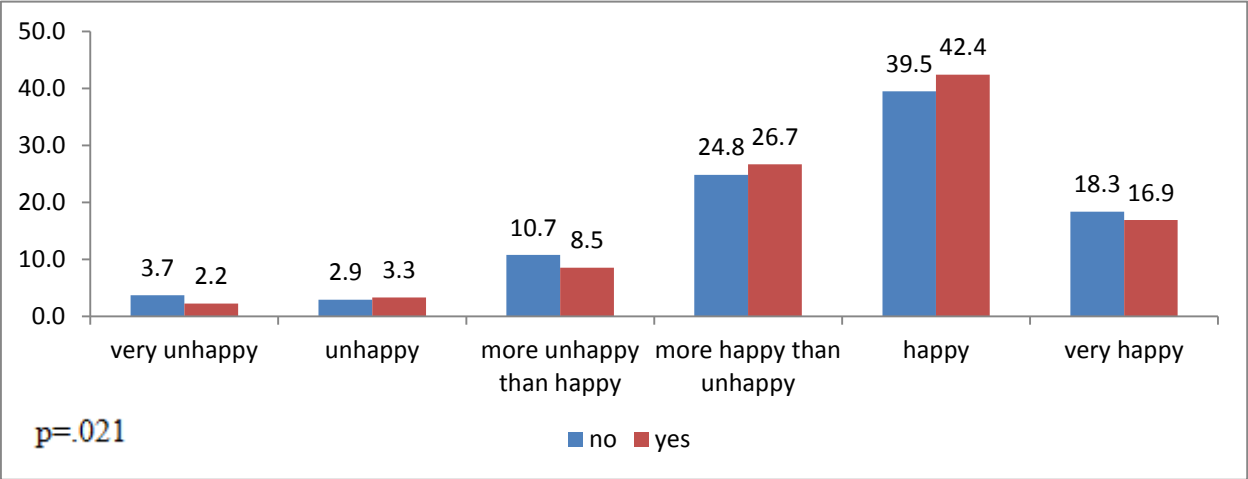


Those who admit often frightening and annoying people during their free time are almost 3 times more (very) unhappy than those who say never or only occasionally doing this.

186 Weighted data

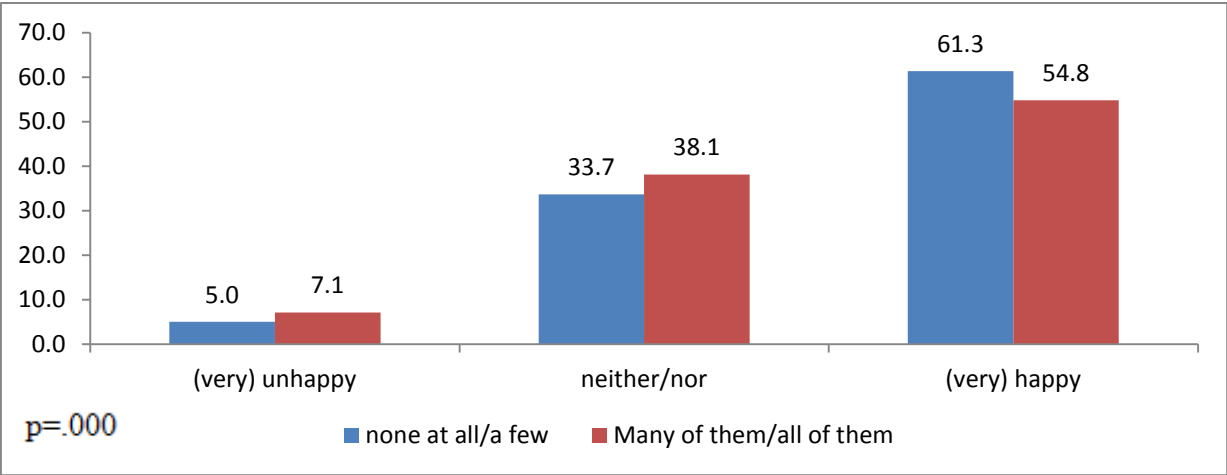
187 Weighted data

Figure 5.60 Happiness by group of friends to spend time with in %, N=4093.¹⁸⁸



There is only a very weak association between having friends to spend time with and happiness. Those who say having such friends are slightly happier than those who do not. This suggests that those who prefer spending time on their own may make a deliberate choice, or at least not feel unhappy because of their relative social isolation.

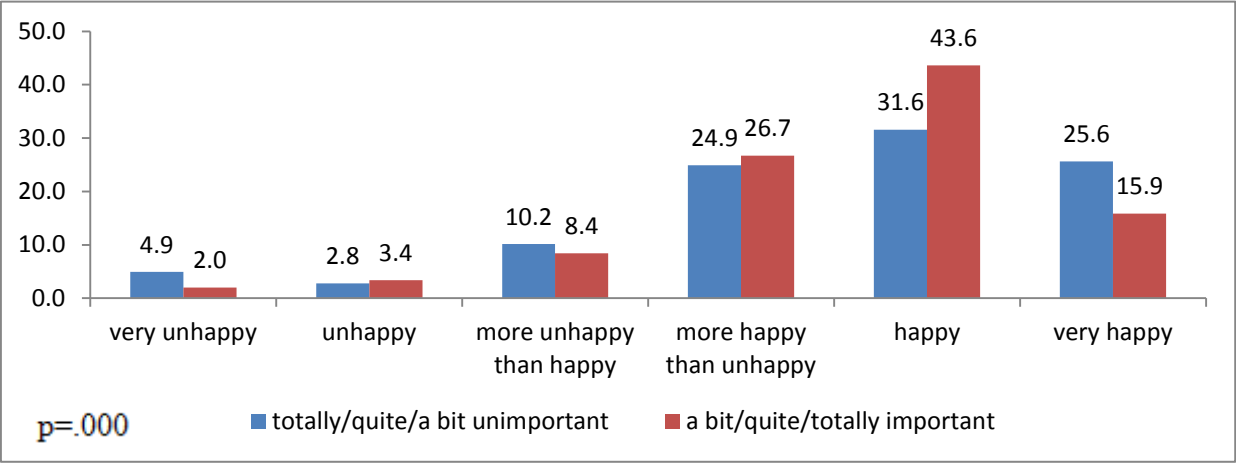
Figure 5.61 Happiness by having friends with parent(s) of foreign origin in %, N=4112.¹⁸⁹



Although having friends to spend time with does not seem to increase happiness, having friends of foreign origin apparently does add to feelings of well-being. Having friends across ethnic lines might be related to popularity among peers, but it must be admitted that this explanation remains, for the time being and in the absence of more complete data, rather speculative.

188 Weighted data
189 Weighted data

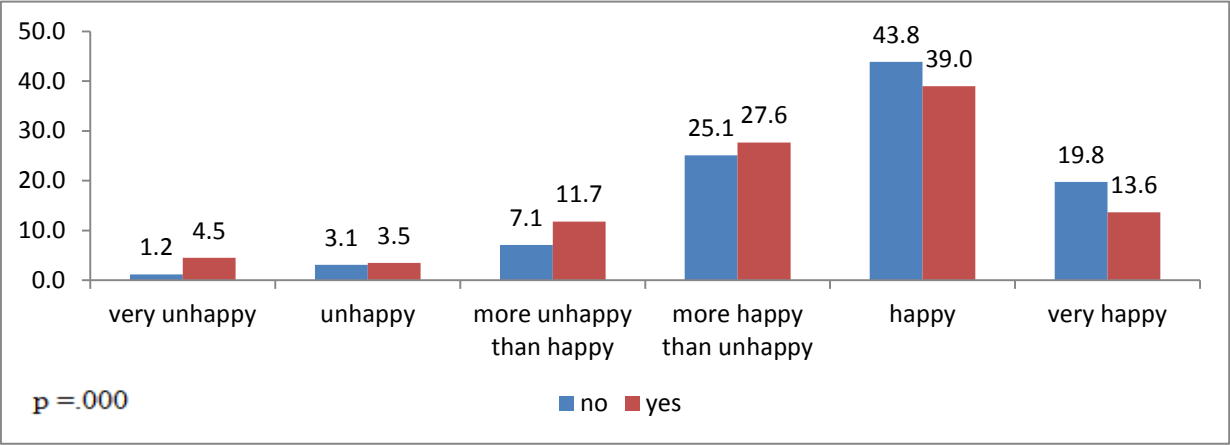
Figure 5.62 Happiness by "it is important, what my friend thinks about me" in %, N=3217.¹⁹⁰



Respondents who attribute much importance to what their friends think about them are somewhat more often (very) unhappy than those who do not care that much. Although the difference is, overall, not large, stress related to the self-imposed need to meet peers' expectations may be the driving force behind this finding.

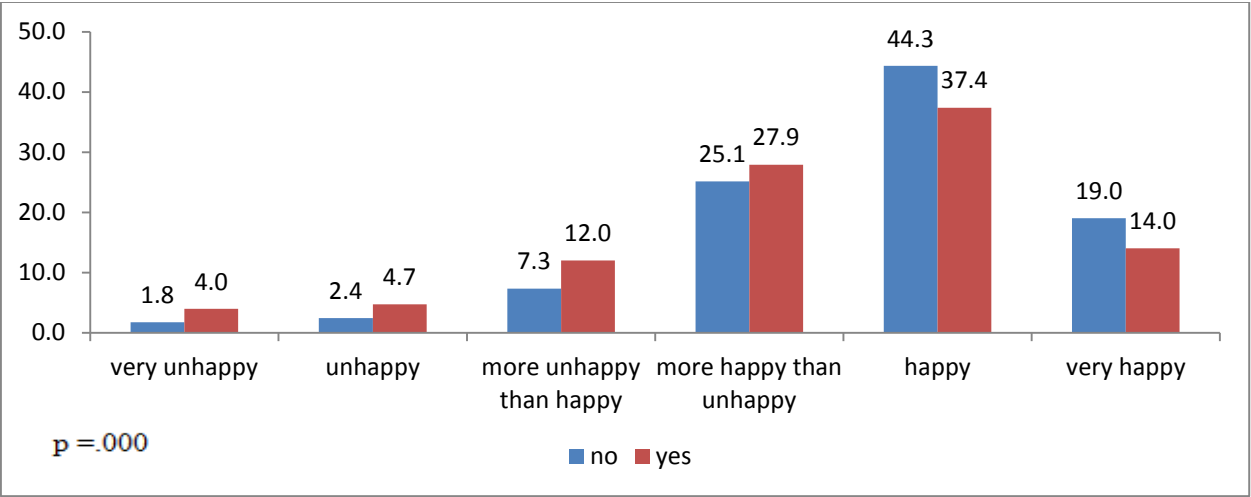
190 Weighted data

Figure 5.63 Happiness by having friends, who use drugs in %, N=4111.¹⁹¹



Respondents who have friends using drugs are less happy than those, who have so such friends.

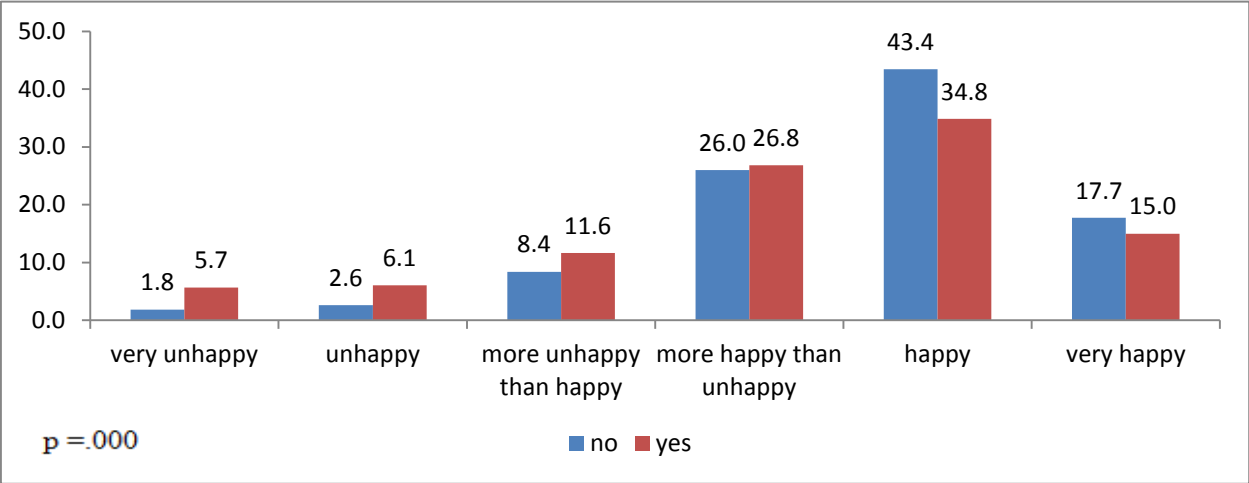
Figure 5.64 Happiness by having friends, who committed shoplifting in %, N=4111.¹⁹²



Respondents whose peers have committed shoplifting are less happy than those who have so such friends.

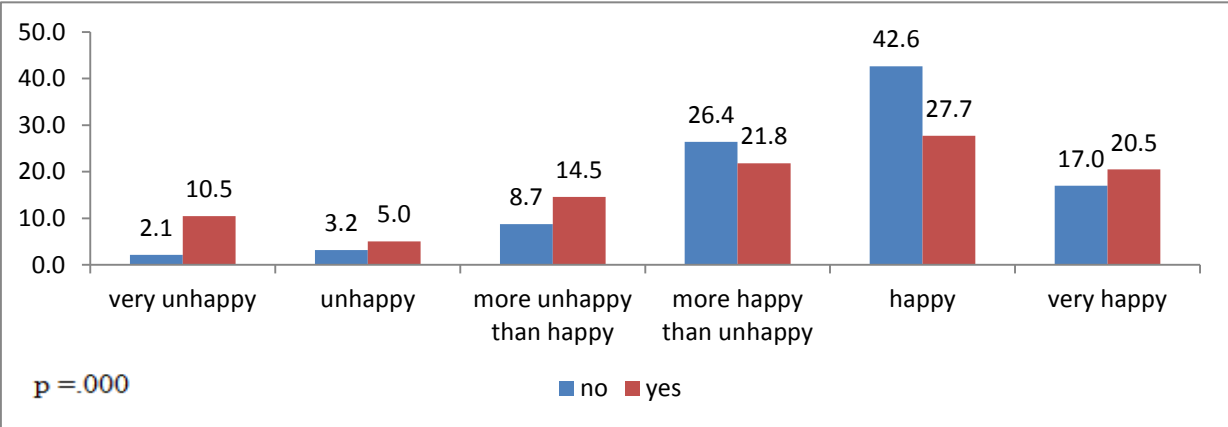
191 Weighted data
192 Weighted data

Figure 5.65 Happiness by having friends, who committed burglary in %, N=4110.¹⁹³



Respondents whose friends have committed burglary are less happy than those who have so such peers.

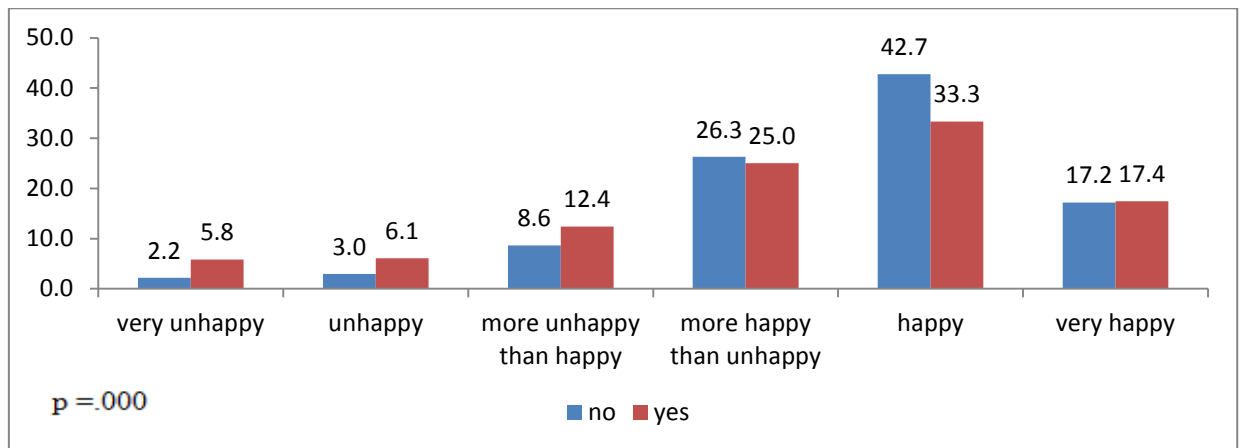
Figure 5.66 Happiness by having friends, who committed robbery in %, N=4111.¹⁹⁴



Respondents whose friends have committed robbery are less happy than those who have so such peers.

193 Weighted data
194 Weighted data

Figure 5.67 Happiness by knowing friends, who committed assault in %, N=4110.



Respondents with friends who committed assault are less happy than those who have so such peers.

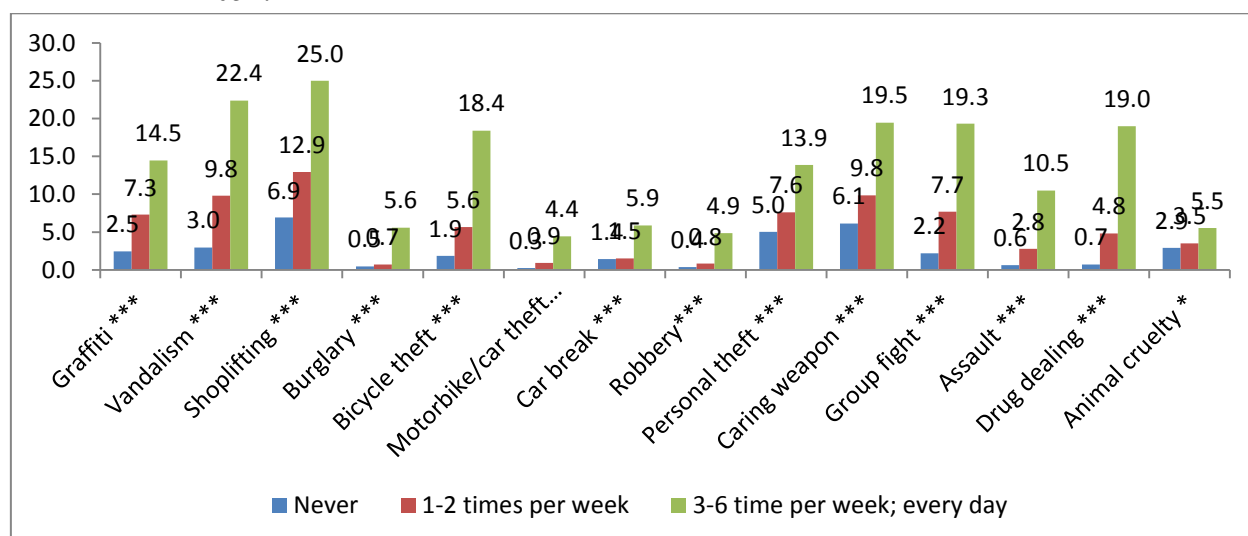
Overall, it seems that happiness is not much related to conventional activities. However, it definitively is to deviant activities, or to being integrated in deviant networks.

5.7 Leisure-time, life style, peers, happiness and delinquency

5.7.1 Leisure-time and delinquency

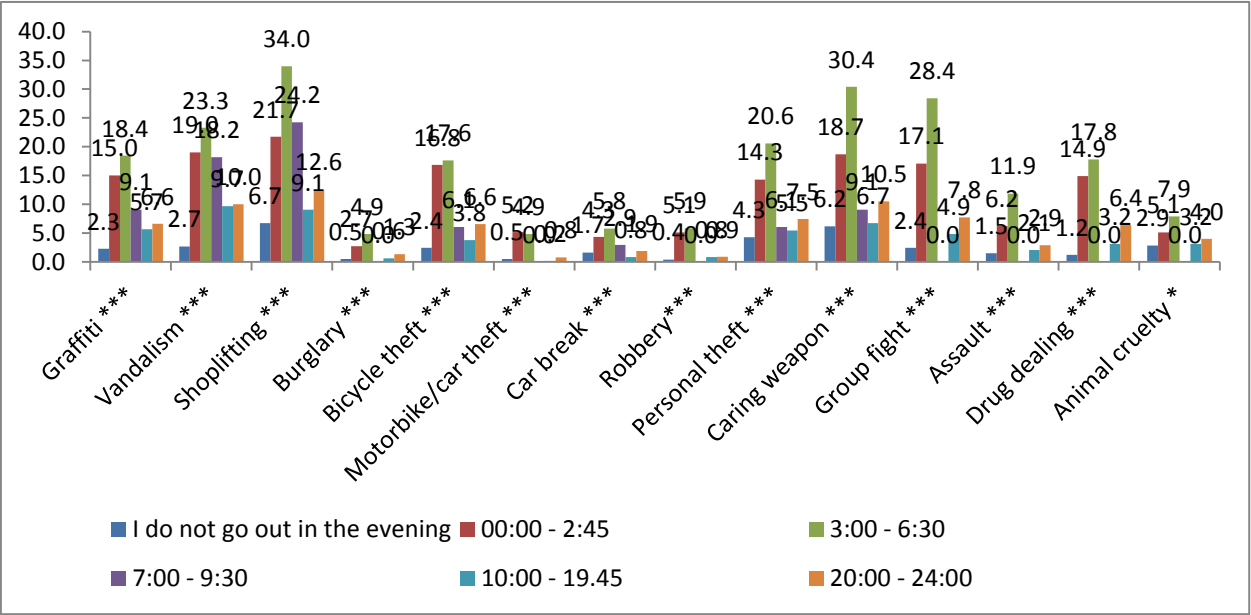
Life-style and leisure-time activities have been identified as key variables in the explanation of offending many years ago (Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo 1978; Felson and Boba 2010). Changes in the organisation of leisure-time and particularly of night-time activities have also been suggested as key-factors in the explanation of changes in crime rates (Killias et al. 2012). In the present section, we shall begin, therefore, with presenting some findings on the association between several forms of self-reported delinquency and leisure-time activities.

Figure 5.68 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by going out in the evening in %, N=4044-4052.¹⁹⁵



There seems to be a fairly linear association between the frequency of going out in the evening and all self-reported offences listed in the instrument. However, respondents who say going out five times and more a week have far higher rates of offending. This underlines that extreme leisure-time activities may be more important than just going out as such.

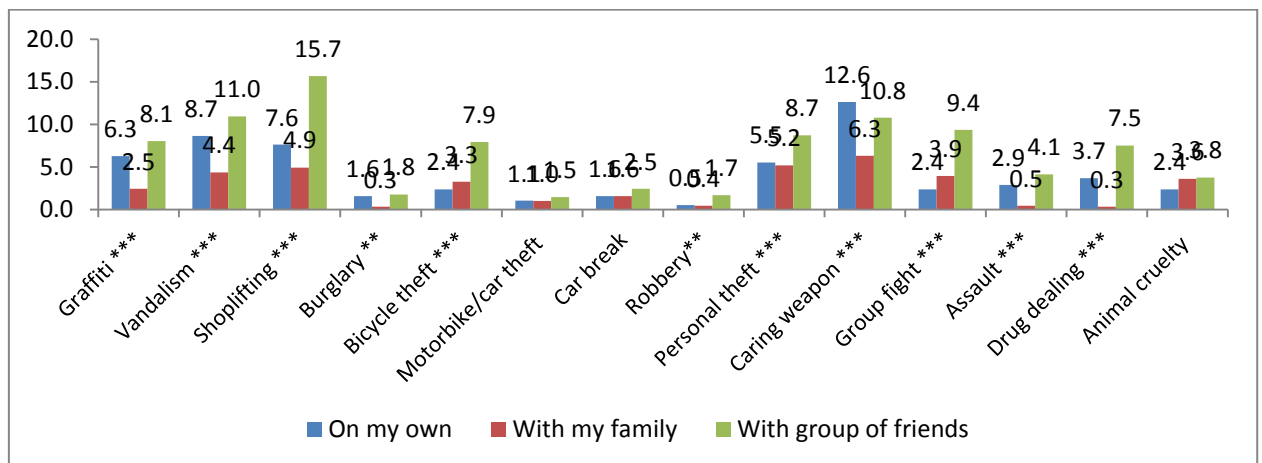
Figure 5.69 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by time of coming back home after going out at night in %, N=3785-3793.¹⁹⁶



This is further illustrated by Figure 5.69. Those who return after midnight, and particularly after 3 AM, have far higher rates of offending in every respect than those who never go out or who return before midnight. This variable largely explains also risks of victimization (see Chapter 4, e.g. Table 4.1).

196 Weighted data

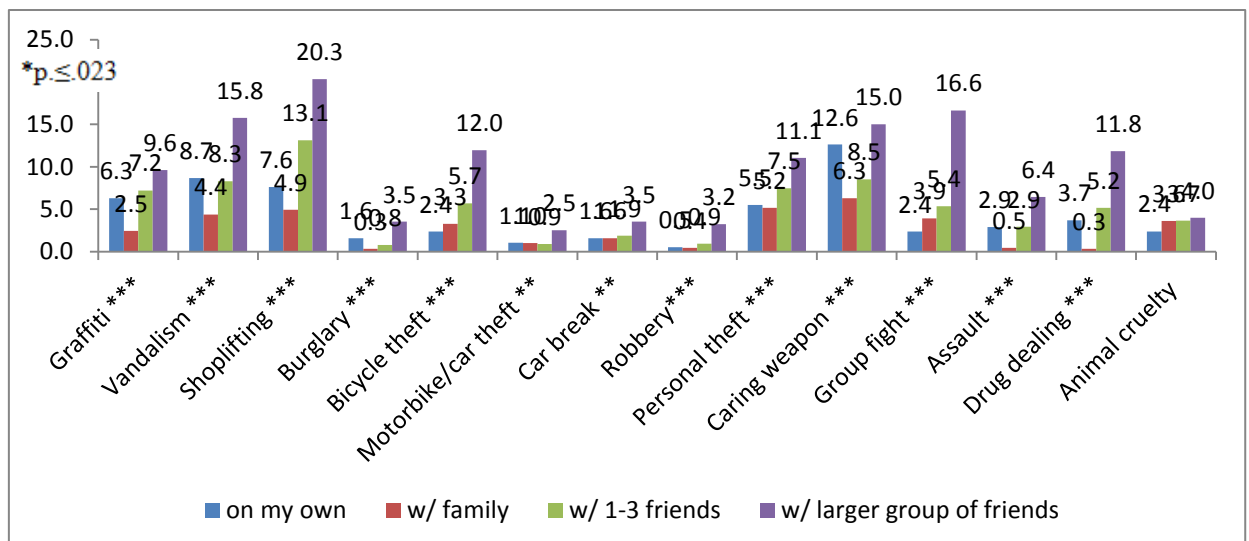
Figure 5.70 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by spending time with family and friends in %, N=4047-4065.¹⁹⁷



Students who spend most of their leisure-time with friends have the highest rates of delinquency. The second delinquent group includes respondents who spend leisure-time primarily by their own. Finally, the least delinquent are those who spend a lot of time with their families.

As Figure 5.71 illustrates, it is not just spending time with friends, but rather being with larger groups (of four or more people) that is important. Larger groups are not only larger, but often they may be qualitatively different and entail, therefore, different kinds including more risky kinds of activities.

Figure 5.71 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by spending time with family and groups of friends of different sizes, in %, N=4037-4065.¹⁹⁸

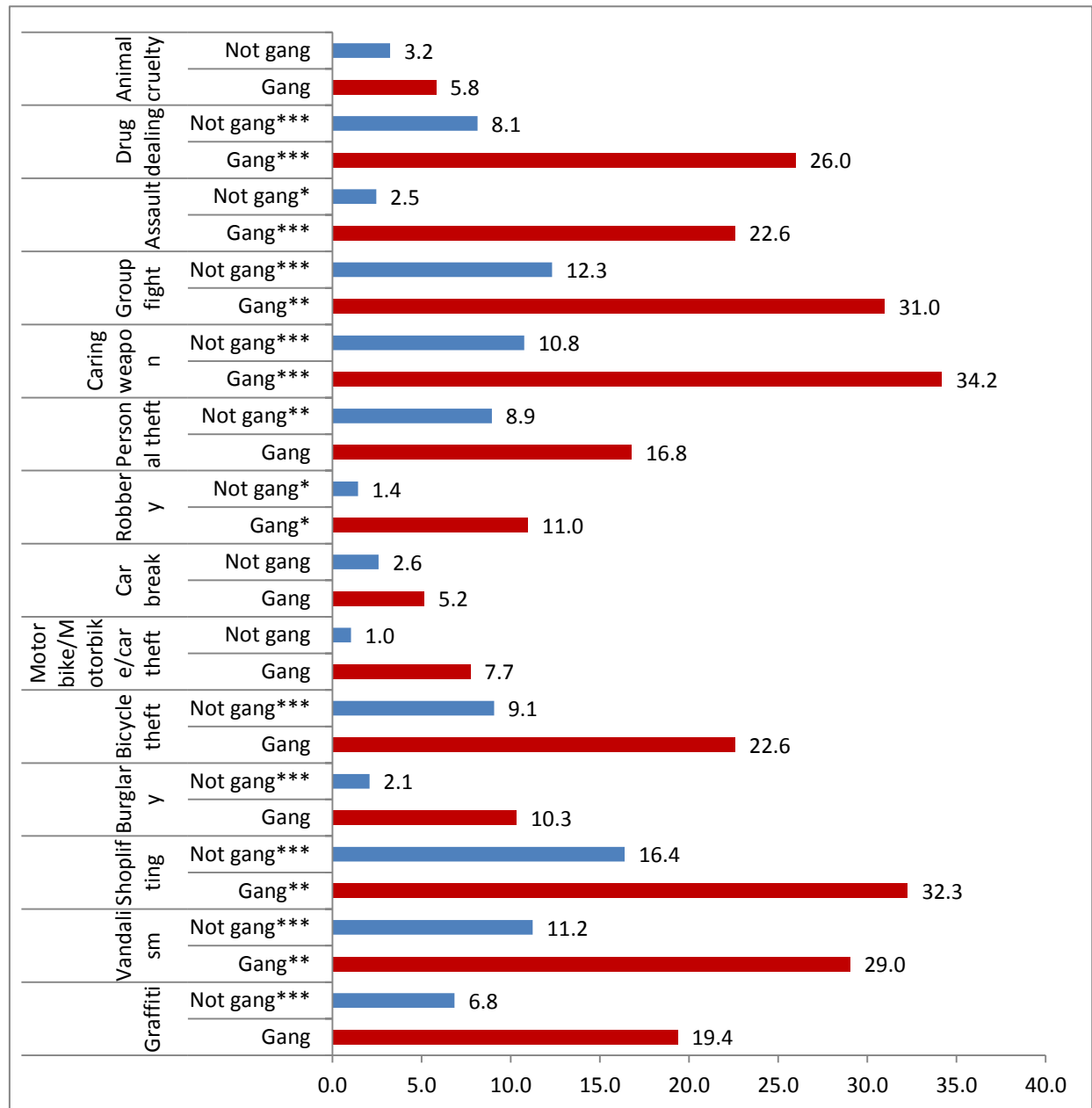


197 Weighted data

198 Weighted data

As one would have expected, students who spend their leisure-time mostly on their own are rarely involved in group fights. Similarly, drug dealing is next to never reported by respondents who spend a lot of time with their families.

Figure 5.72 Delinquency (last year prevalence) among respondents who spend leisure-time with a larger group (of 4 or more friends) by whether or not it is considered a gang in %, N=361-364.¹⁹⁹



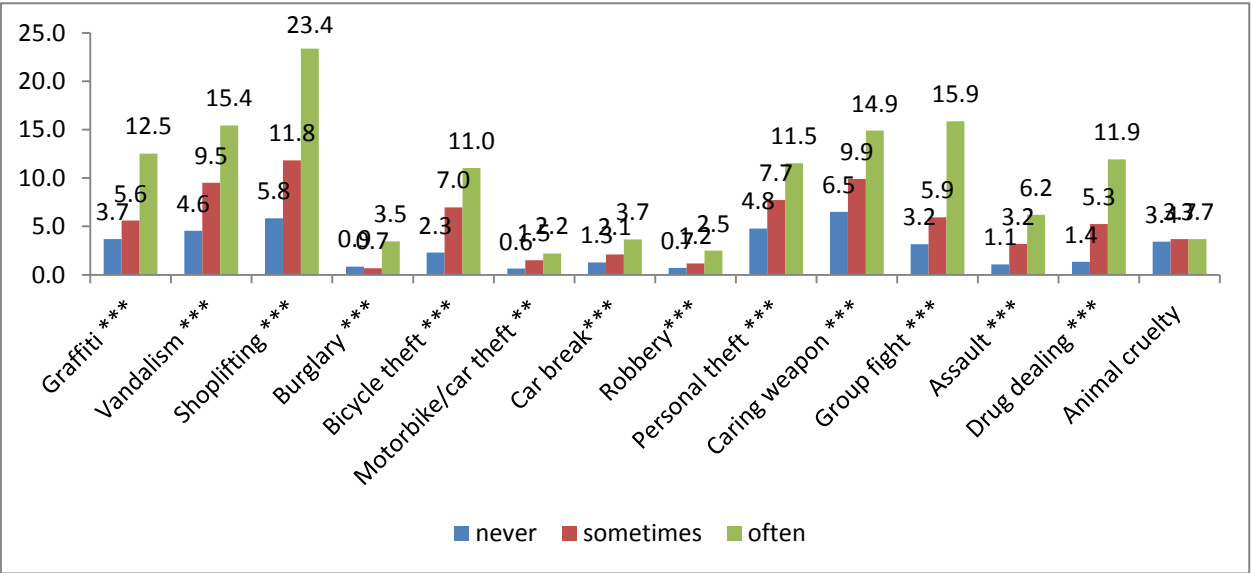
As one would have expected, respondents who are spending time with a group that is considered as a gang admit at far higher rates committing offences across almost the entire list, than those

¹⁹⁹ Weighted data

who say their group is not considered a gang. This suggests that the high rates of delinquency among those spending their leisure-time with a group of four or more people are largely attributable to the fact that, among these larger groups, quite a few can be considered as gangs. Gang members have indeed, in Switzerland and abroad (HaymozPantillon, Maxson, Killias 2014), far higher delinquency rates than similar juveniles who happen not to belong to such a group.

The issue of gangs has been studies in this survey in some detail (questionnaire 11.1-11.8). The findings usually confirm earlier work done on this theme (HaymozPantillon 2010). In the following Figures, we shall see more in detail what impact may have the kind of leisure-time activities.

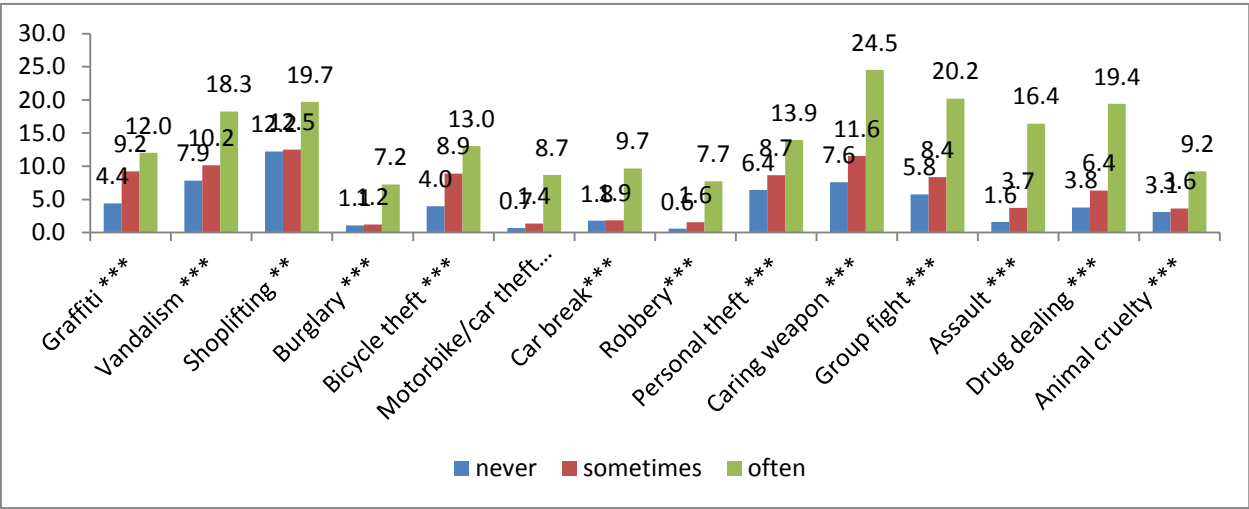
Figure 5.73 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by hanging out in shopping centers, parks, streets etc. for fun in %, N=4028-4045.²⁰⁰



Respondents who often hang out in public places are at higher risk of committing offences of all sorts. The following Figures illustrate this further.

200 Weighted data

Figure 5.74 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by going to coffee bars or pop concerts in %
N=4024-4041.²⁰¹

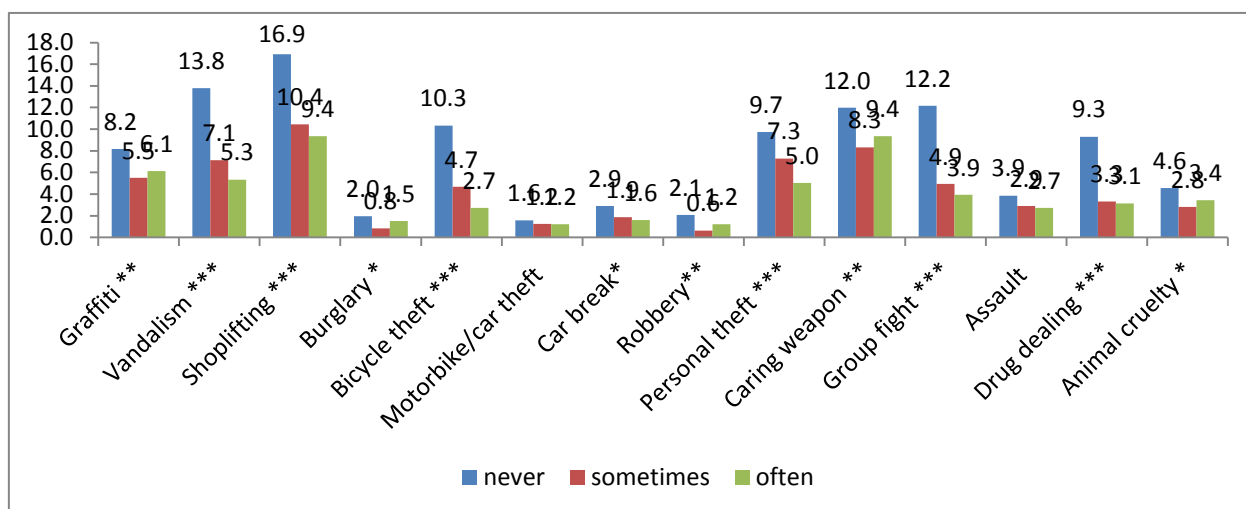


Students who attend coffee bars and pop concerts often rather than never or only occasionally are more likely to commit offences of all kinds. The association is strongest with robbery, stealing cars/motorbikes or breaking into cars, burglary, assault and drug dealing.

These offences are typically street-crimes. They can be efficiently prevented by removing young people from the streets, or by reducing leisure-time that is being spent in the streets. The following Figures offer further illustration to that effect.

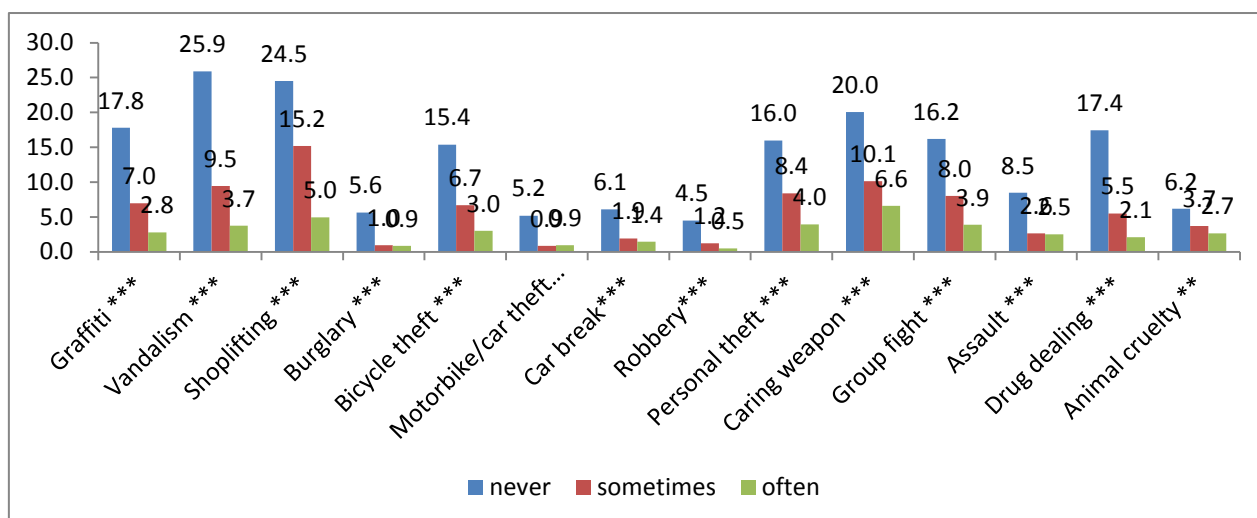
201 Weighted data

Figure 5.75 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by doing something creative in %, N=4023-4041.²⁰²



Students who never engage in creative leisure-time activities (such as playing theater or music, drawing, writing, reading books etc.), are more likely to commit an offence.

Figure 5.76 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by spending leisure-time on school-related studies or homework in %, N=4026-4041.²⁰³



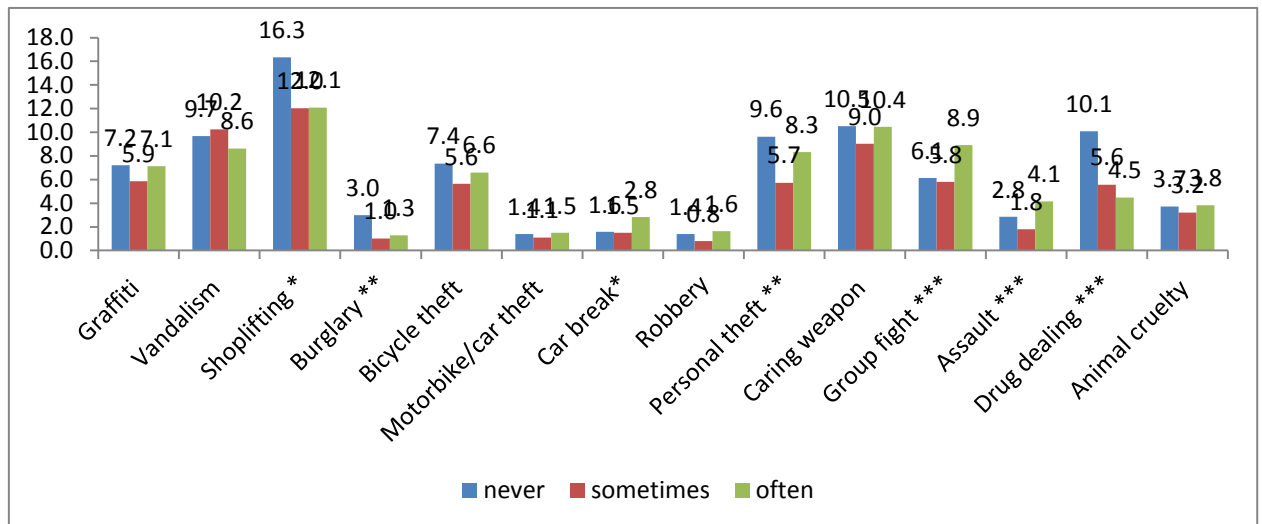
Respondents who invest often leisure-time for school-related studies or homework are far less involved in delinquent activities. The difference is again strongest for offences that are typically committed in the streets.

202 Weighted data

203 Weighted data

A similar effect can be might be expected with respect to sports. Although not really an indoor activity, it offers juveniles an opportunity to spend leisure-time in a structured way. The following Figure illustrates, however, that with sports the findings are more complex and do not allow a straightforward interpretation.

Figure 5.77 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by doing sports in %, N=4033-4049.²⁰⁴

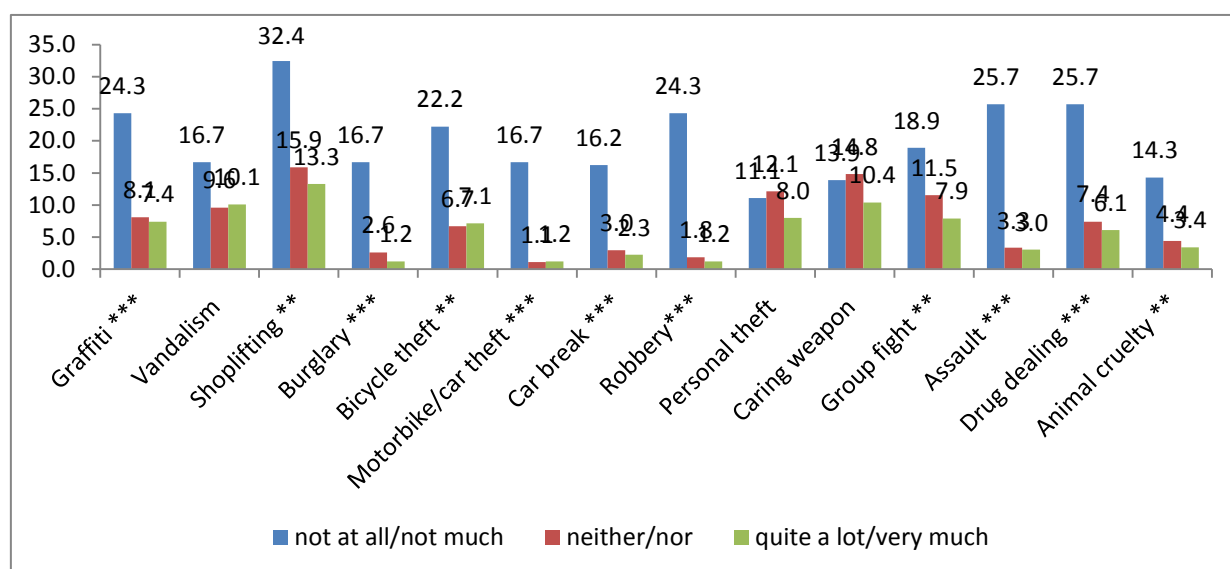


Although students who say practicing sports “often” rather than occasionally or never commit over all less offences, the differences are not as strong as in the preceding Figures and not always significant. Group fights are even slightly more frequent among those practicing sports “often”. This matches observations made by Walser (2013) in a similar survey in the canton of St. Gallen where the effect of several kinds of sports has been studied in detail. As it turned out, some sports go along with reduced delinquency, whereas other have an opposite effect, leading for sport activities overall to an effect that is, as here, closed to zero or inconsistent at least.

5.7.2 Peer-networks and delinquency

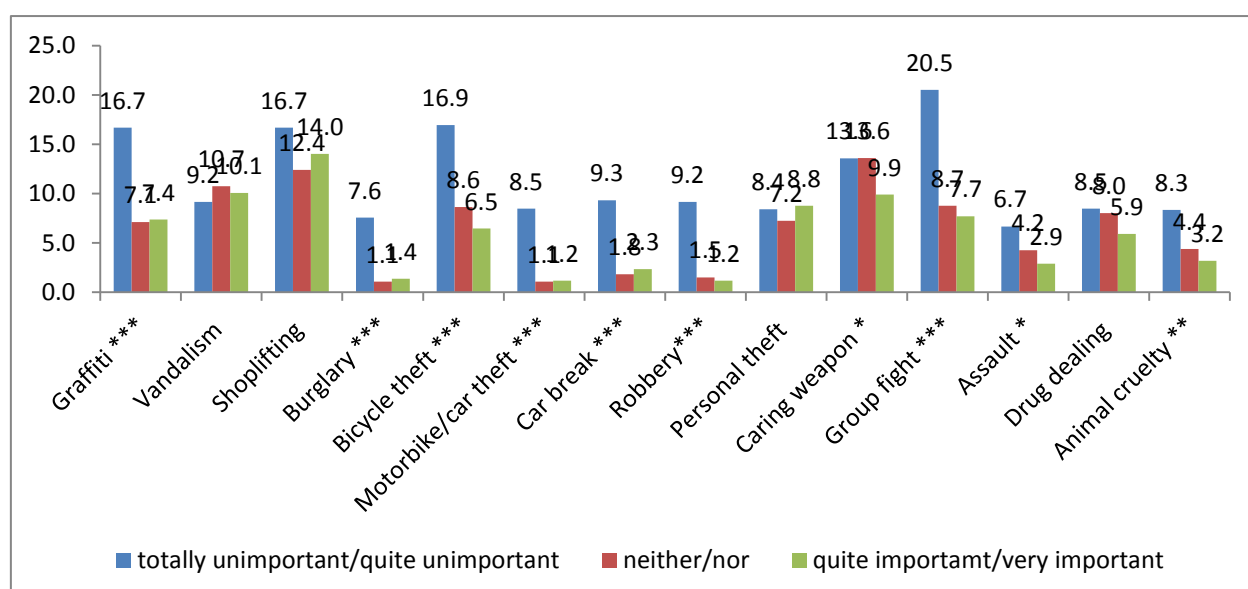
Before we look into the effects of deviant peer activities, we begin with a look on the importance of peer-networks as such.

Figure 5.78 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "I would miss my friends if I move to another city" in %, N=3170-3182.²⁰⁵



Respondents who do not have strong ties with their friends and who would not miss them if they had to move to another city are more likely to commit offences of all sorts. This association is strongest for burglary and robbery. In other words, delinquents are less integrated in peer-networks than more pro-social youths. It means that social networks should not be seen as a source of problem behavior – the effects are the other way around.

Figure 5.79 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by "It is important for me, what my friend(s) think(s)" in %, N=3169-3179.²⁰⁶

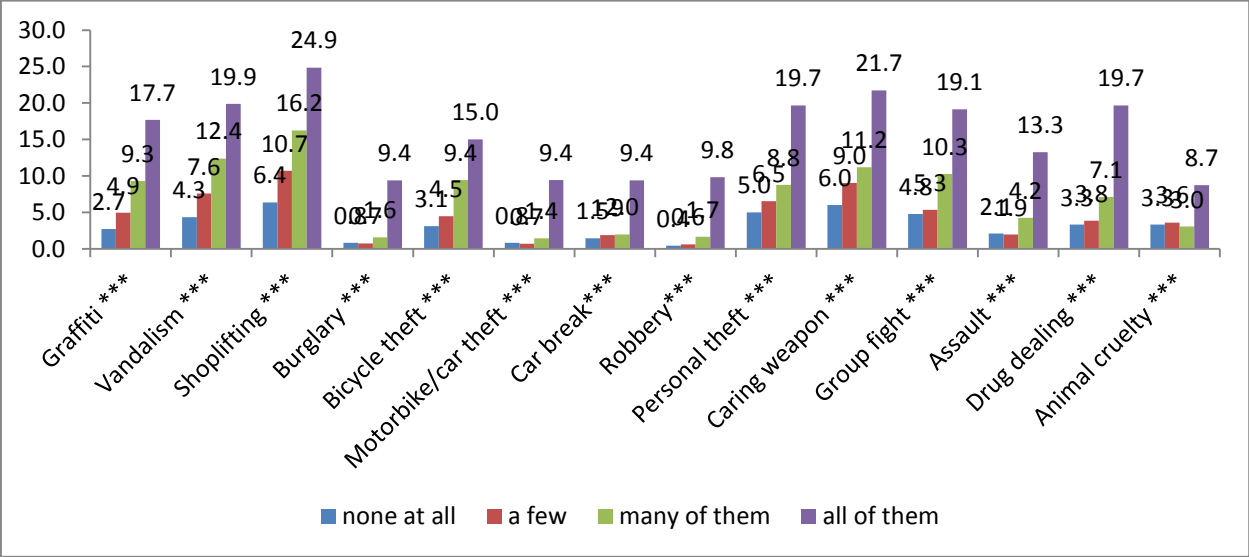


205 Weighted data

206 Weighted data

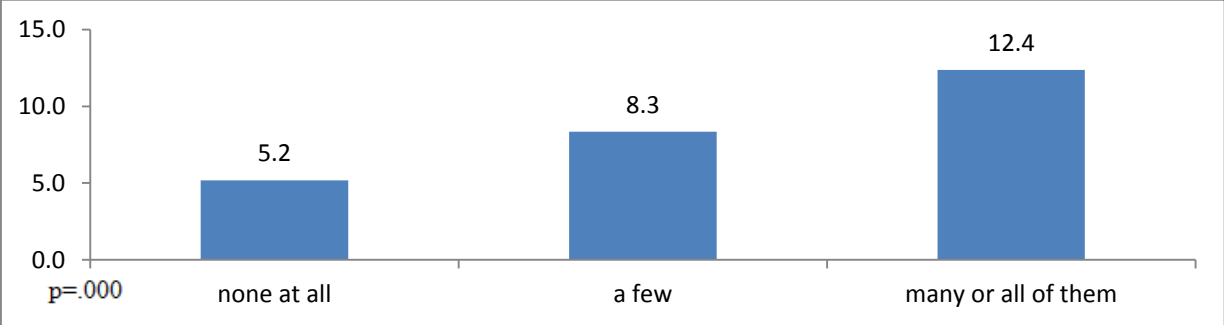
Figure 5.79 confirms this impression. Students who do not care what their peers think about them tend to commit more offences and particularly more street crimes.

Figure 5.80 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by friends with parents of foreign origin in %, N=4038-4056²⁰⁷



With respect to the ethnic composition of peer-networks, two interesting observations can be made. First, respondents with exclusively Swiss networks, or with only few immigrants among their friends, commit clearly less offences than those whose network consists predominantly or exclusively of immigrant youths. This reflects probably the higher delinquent involvement among immigrant youths in general that has been observed in Chapter 7. Second, it is interesting to note that respondents with ethnically mixed networks report clearly fewer offences than those from ethnically homogeneous groups. Integrating juveniles from immigrant backgrounds seems, therefore, to go along with reduced delinquent involvement.

Figure 5.81 “Do you consider your group of friends to be a gang?” by ethnic composition of the group (i.e. having or not friends with parents of foreign origin in one’s group), in %.²⁰⁸



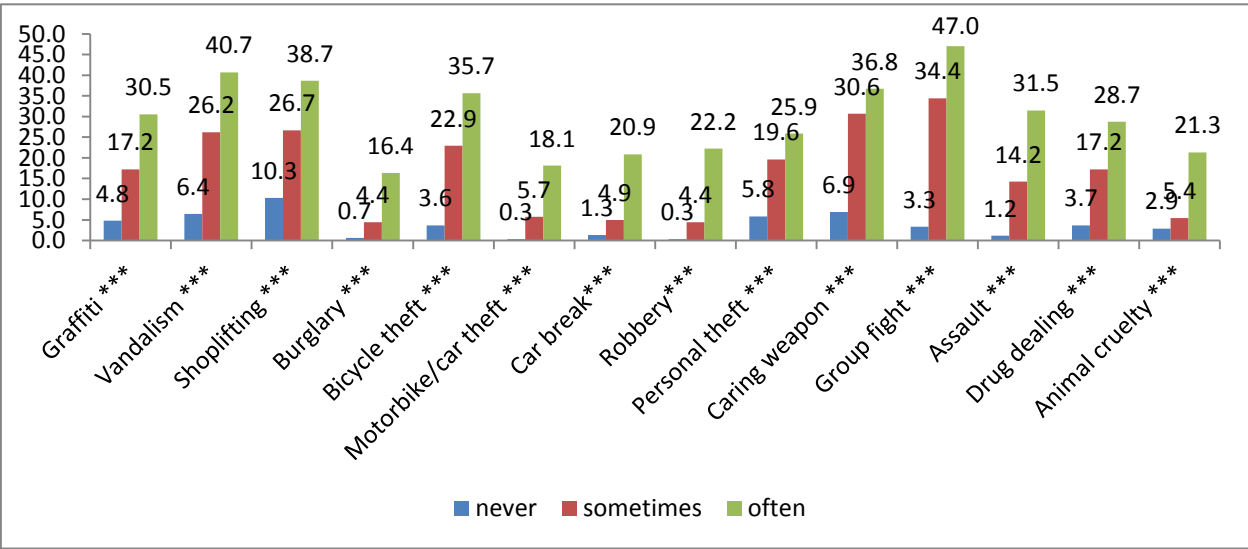
207 Weighted data, N= 4158
 208 Weighted data, N=4158

Essentially the same can be observed in Figure 5.81. Less than 5 per cent of respondents with ethnically homogeneous (Swiss-based) networks say their group can be considered a “gang”. Among those with homogeneous (immigrant-based) networks, only 12 percent say their group is a “gang”. In other words, belonging to a gang is clearly a minority phenomenon and, apparently, only moderately related to ethnic background.

5.7.3 Problem behaviour and delinquency

In the following Figures, we look at the association between several kinds of problematic behaviour among juveniles and delinquency.

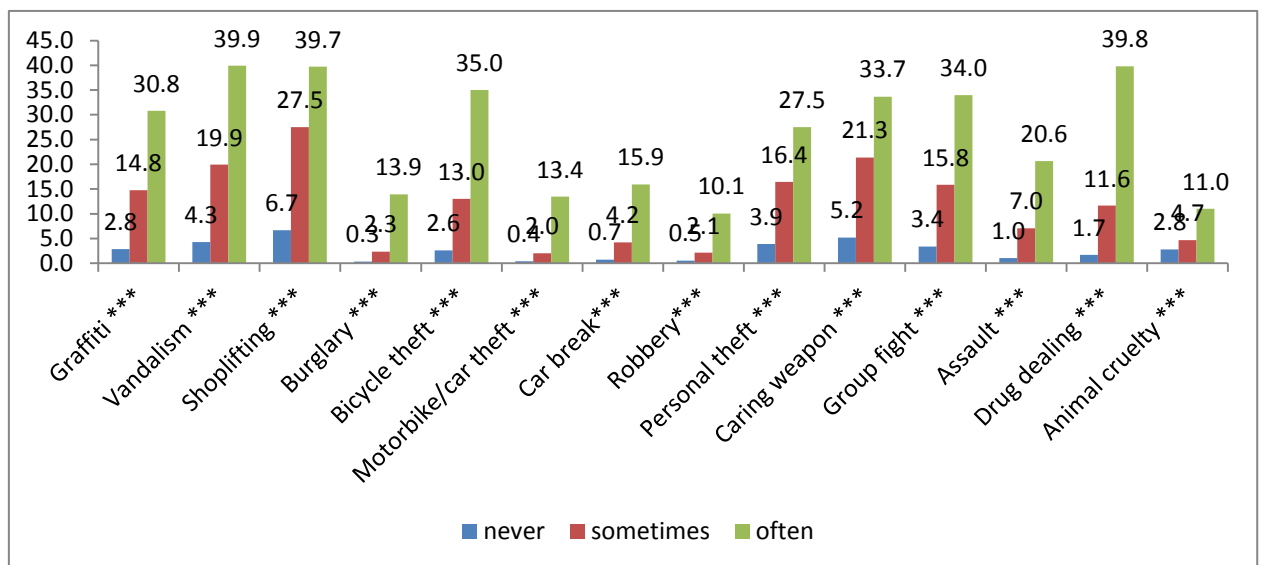
Figure 5.82 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by engaging in fights with others in %, N=4035-4040.²⁰⁹



Respondents who often engage in fights with other people are more likely to commit all types of offences. As one might have expected, the association is particularly strong for assault and group fights, but by no means limited to these offences. This observation points to the possibility that frequent involvement in physical confrontations is a symptom of a broader personality disorder.

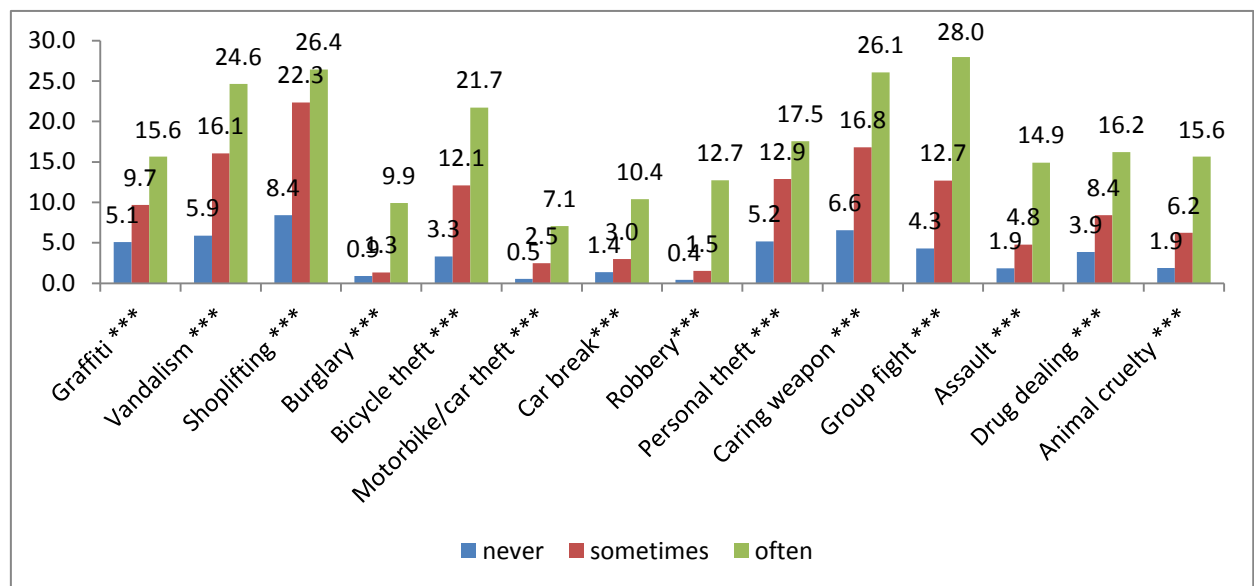
²⁰⁹ Weighted data

Figure 5.83 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by doing something illegal to have fun in %, N=4023-4039.²¹⁰



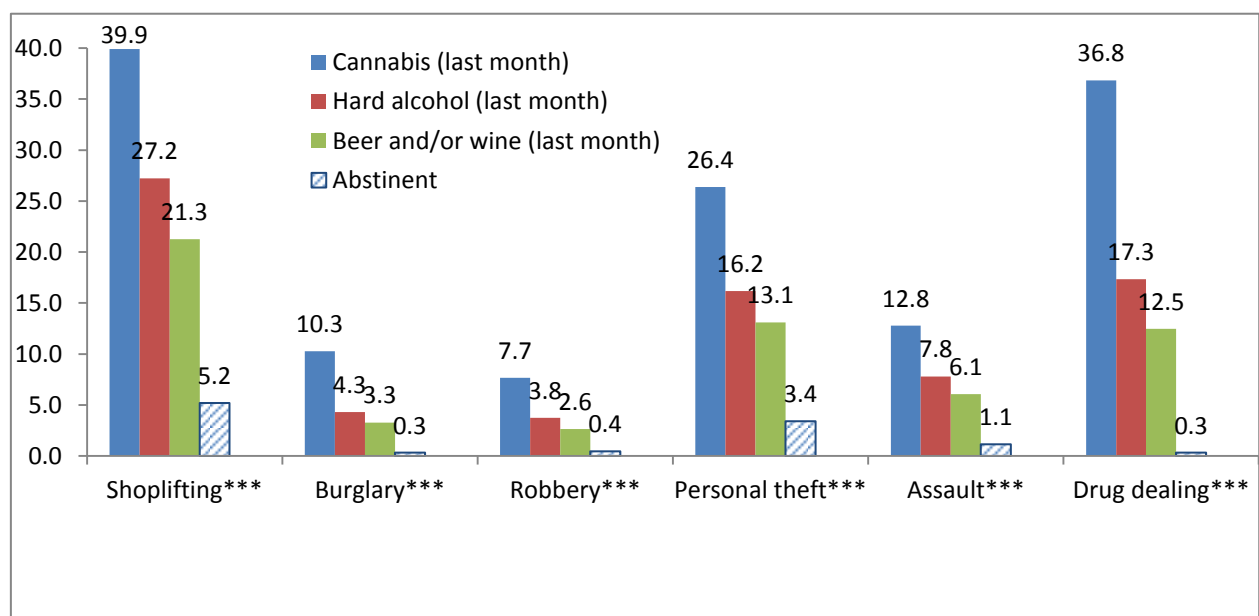
Students who admit doing often something illegal “for fun” report more offences than their peers. Again the difference is large for all offences. It is slightly more modest for shoplifting, vandalism, graffiti, caring weapons and personal theft, pointing to the possibility that these offences are somewhat more “normal”, committed by more “normal” people.

Figure 5.84 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by frightening and annoying other people just for fun in %, N=4022-4039.²¹¹



Those who often frighten or annoy other people for fun more often report having committed all sorts of offences. The difference is particularly strong with respect to street offences like robbery. The findings presented in Figures 5.83 and 5.84 underline the great importance of need of excitement (looking for the “kick”) in the explanation of offending.

Figure 5.85 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by substance use (last month prevalence) in %, N=4040-4048.²¹²



211 Weighted data

212 Weighted data

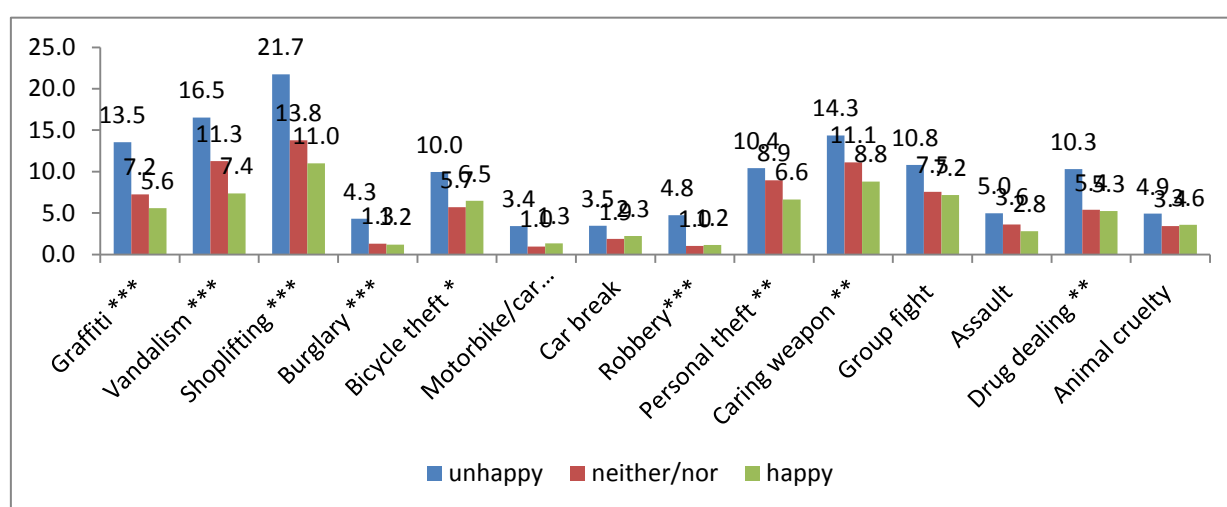
Respondents, who said having consumed alcoholic beverages or cannabis over the last 30 days, report far more often committing offences of all sorts. Particularly impressive are the low delinquency rates among abstinent youths. This underlines the preventive potential of policies designed to reduce substance abuse among junior high-school populations.

5.7.4 *Are delinquents happy?*

Former research has shown that victims of offences tend, overall, to be less happy than people who never have gone through this kind of experience (Staubli, Killias, Frey 2014).

The question now is whether offenders are happier than non-offenders. The following Figure gives an answer.

Figure 5.86 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by happiness in %, N=4044-4064.²¹³

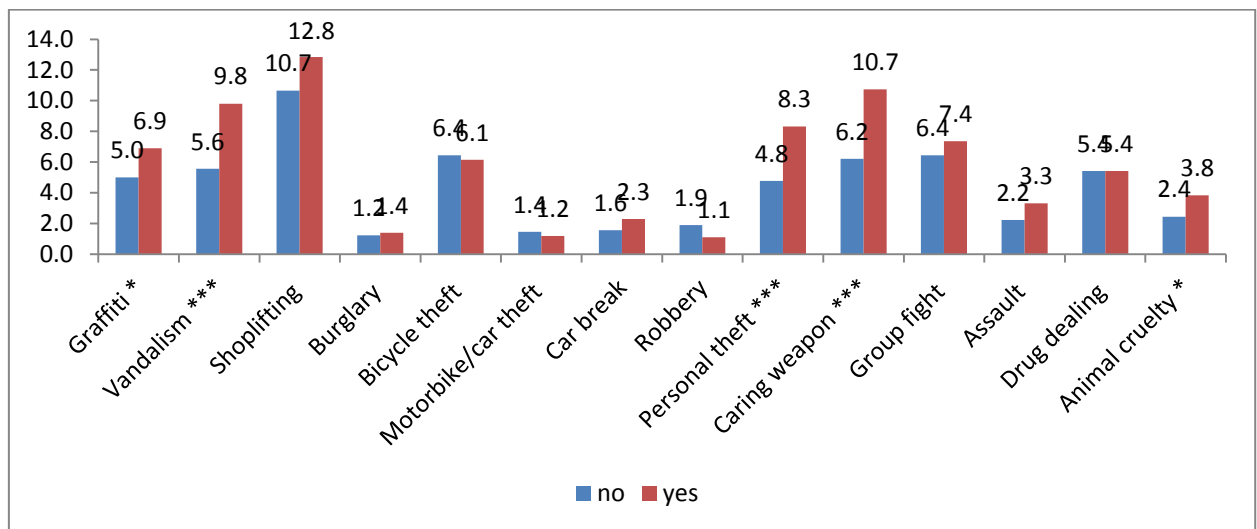


As one can see, unhappy people commit far more often offences of all sorts. The association holds throughout the list of offences, but it is strongest for street crime and other more serious offences, and smallest for relatively “normal” offences. Given the cross-sectional nature of our research design, the question of the causal order cannot be determined based on our data. It might be that unhappy people are more prone to commit offences, and that offending is for them a search for goods that might provide happiness. On the other hand, offending may make people unhappy, among other things perhaps because delinquents live less stable social relationships and may even be more isolated, as some findings presented above (Figures 5.78, 5.79) suggest.

²¹³ Weighted data

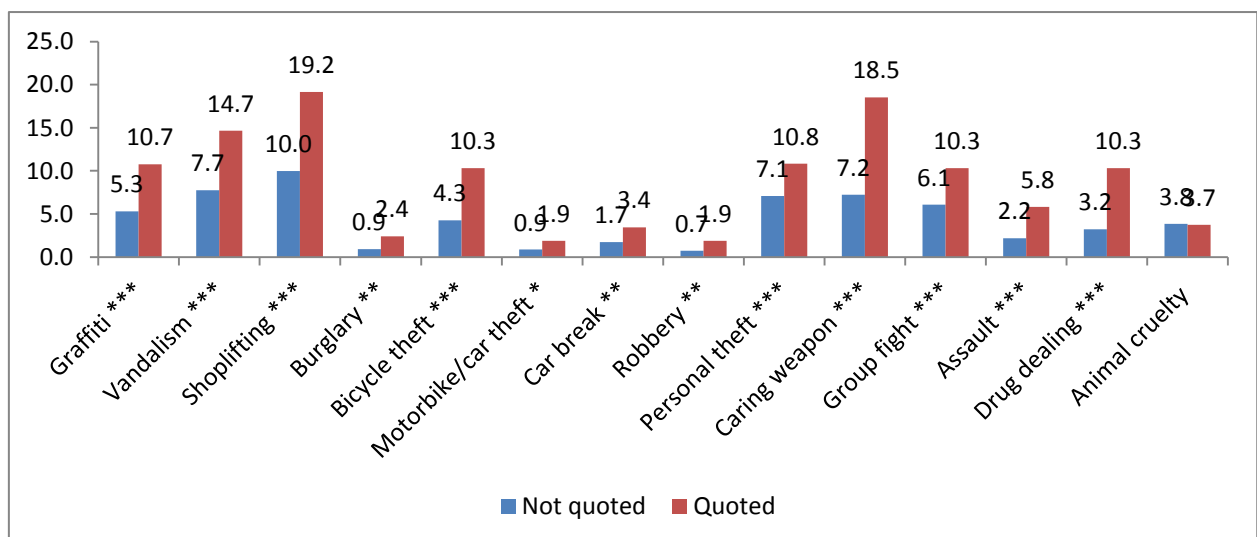
5.7.5 Delinquency by computer games

Figure 5.86_1 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by playing computer games in %, N=3924-3930 ²¹⁴



Respondents, who play computer games regardless its genre, are significantly more likely to commit vandalism, personal theft and caring weapon. For the other offences, the difference is not significant and obviously moderate at best.

Figure 5.86_2 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by playing “ego-shooter” as a favorite genre of computer game in %, N=4053-4072 ²¹⁵

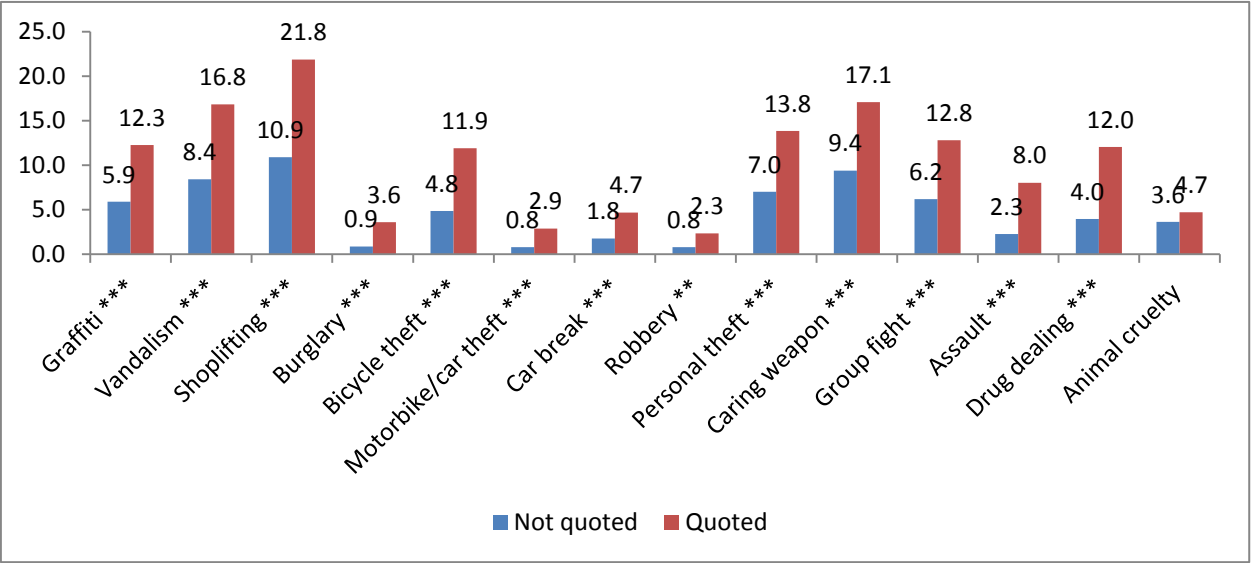


Respondents, who play ego-shooter games are more likely to commit almost all types of offences.

214 Weighted data

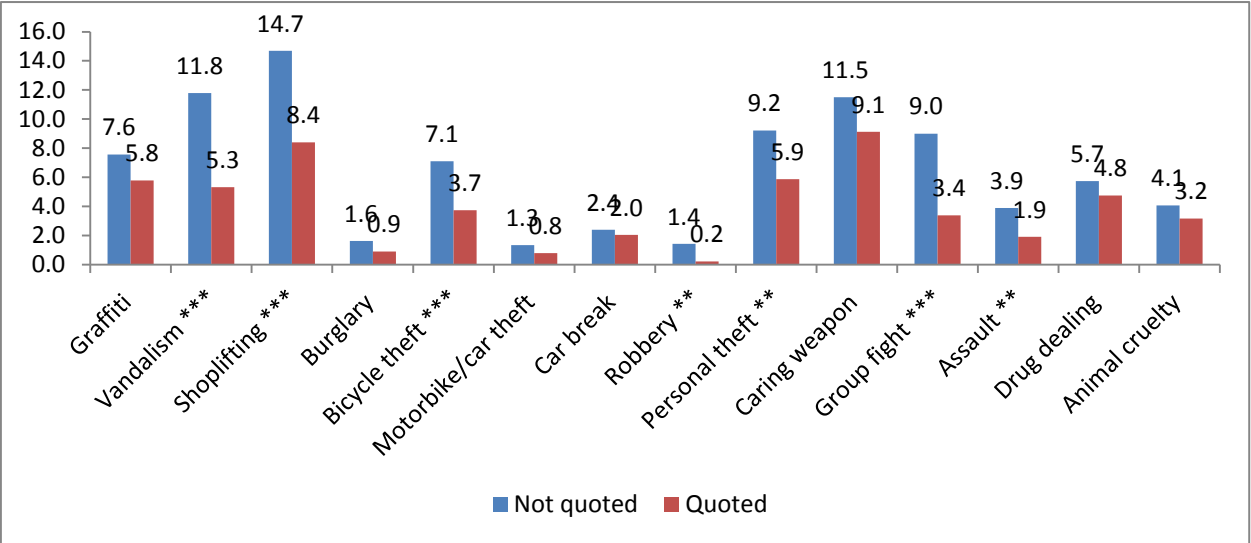
215 Weighted data

Figure 5.86_3 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by playing “fighting/violence” as a favourite genre of computer game in %, N=4053-4071.²¹⁶



Students, who reported playing computer video games from the fighting/violence genre, are more likely to have committed offences of all types than their peers.

Figure 5.86_4 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by playing “strategy/puzzle” as a favourite genre of computer game in %, N=4054-4070.²¹⁷

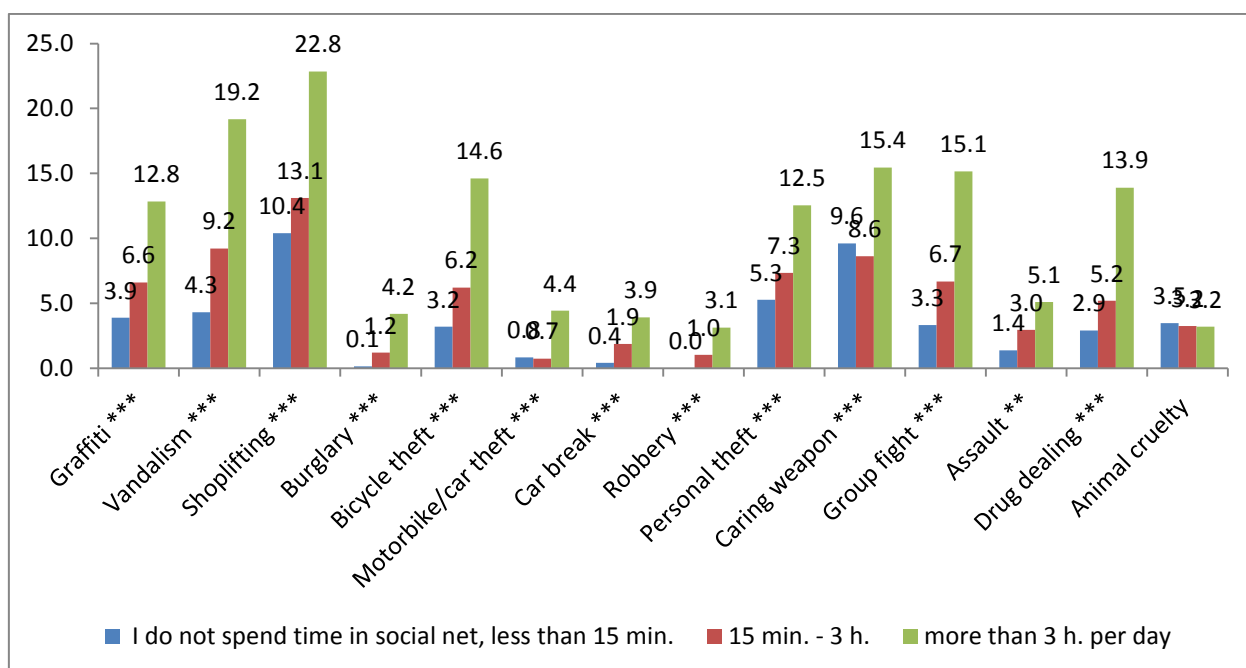


In comparison with the previous results, playing strategy/puzzle games is only moderately associated with delinquent behaviour.

216 Weighted data
217 Weighted data

Students, who are playing computer games 3 to 5 hours per day are more delinquent than those who play less or never, regardless the genre of game.

Figure 5.86_5 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by spending time in social nets, N=2880-2890²¹⁸



Students, who spend more time in social networks, are more likely to commit offences of all types.

5.8 Summary and discussion

- Leisure-time activities do not differ much across regions within Switzerland, although some noteworthy exceptions appeared. In general, respondents in French-speaking cantons tend to spend time more often in shopping centers, in the streets or parks. Usually, respondents in larger urban areas, such as Geneva and Zurich, share this pattern. In Zurich especially, going out in the evenings and returning home at very later hours is particularly common.
- On the other hand, students in French- and Italian-speaking cantons share more of their leisure-time with their families. This does not necessarily point to contradictions in the answers to our questionnaire, but could reflect the fact that whenever deviance is more common in certain areas, a certain proportion of students in such environments stick to a more traditional pattern of leisure-time activities.

- Students in French-speaking cantons are more often doing illegal things just for fun, while at the same time they pursue less often sports and other conventional leisure-time activities.
- Drinking and using cannabis is also more wide-spread in French-speaking cantons and particularly in Geneva and in Zurich. In these cantons and regions, more respondents know friends who use drugs or commit several offences. There is a clear association (at the level of schools) between having friends who use drugs and consumption of cannabis (see Figure 3.26).
- In practically all these respects, respondents in the canton of St. Gallen tend to have the most conventional life-styles.
- Going out at night, going to coffee bars, pop concerts, as well as using alcohol have become less popular between 2006 and 2013, whereas more students practice sports when going out. On the other hand, respondents in 2013 spend less time with their families, and more among them have peers who use drugs or who committed offences such as burglary. Further, recent use of hard liquors and cannabis has increased (see Chapter 9). This somewhat contradictory picture could mask important, but unmeasured shifts in the organization of leisure-time, namely increasing use of Internet (and time spent behind computers), on one hand, and a night-life that is extending more into early morning-hours.
- Peer-networks do not differ much across the country. Particularly in French-speaking cantons, respondents care a lot about what their peers think about them. Ethnically homogeneous peer networks seem to be less common nowadays (compared to 2006), and more students have friends of different backgrounds. Students who have friends of different origins among their peers express more feelings of satisfaction with life (happiness) than others.
- The level of happiness is approximately the same in different regions. Respondents with problem behaviour (such as doing illegal things, having problematic use of substances) or who know friends with problem behaviour are substantially less happy than others. On the other hand, students who practice sports are somewhat happier. Although leisure-time activities do not seem to influence a lot life satisfaction, the association is strong with delinquent behaviour. Respondents who report having committed offenses of all sorts are substantially less happy than those with more conventional behaviour. As for victimization where the impact on happiness is well documented, this variable seems to be a strong associate of delinquency.
- Delinquency is strongly associated with leisure-time. Respondents who stay out beyond mid-night, who hang out in streets and shopping malls or with problem behaviour admit far more often having committed delinquent acts listed on our self-report instrument. On the other hand, students with conventional leisure-time activities, such as school-related work, creative activities (hobbies) and spending time with their families, have far higher rates of offending. The same is true for juveniles who abstain from using substances. In

line with these findings and as shown in Chapter 3, students who missed school (truancy) have far higher offending rates.

- Playing computer games is not always associated with delinquency. There are noteworthy differences by type of games, the violent games going along with stronger associations.
- All these findings point to one basic conclusion: preventive efforts should focus on juveniles' leisure-time activities. "Time" is the crucial factor in prevention.
- Interestingly, delinquent respondents are less attached to their peers and socially more isolated. This is encouraging in the sense that delinquent behaviour is not "normal", but clearly problem behaviour that is concentrated among youths with problematic leisure-time activities.

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Chapter 6.

Perception of right and wrong

6.1 Overview

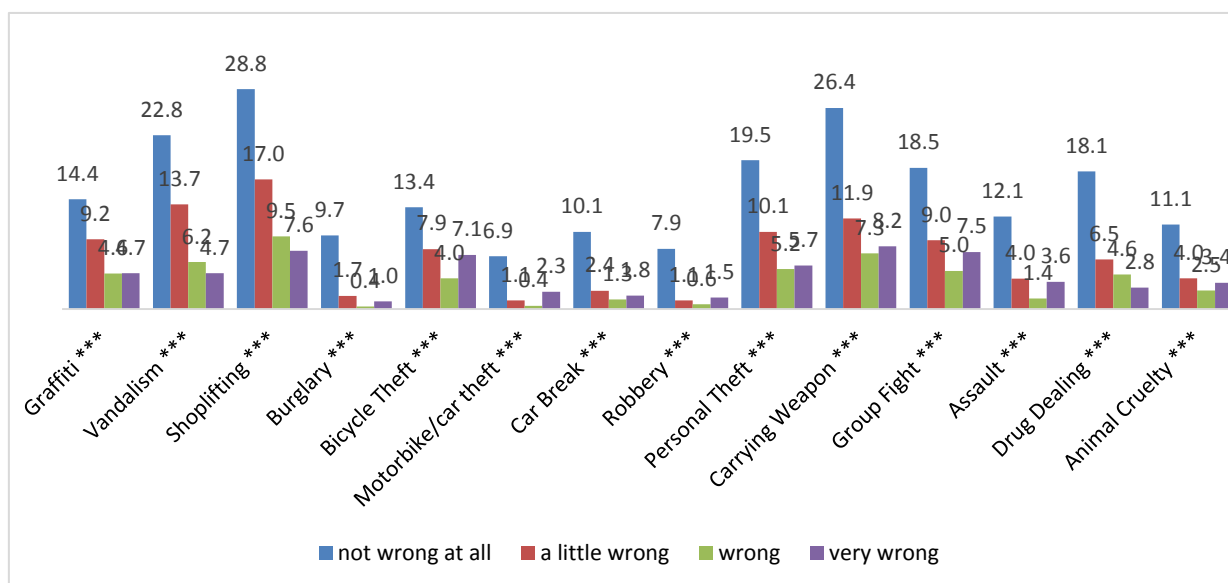
The questionnaire contained many questions regarding moral judgements, perceptions of one's own reactions, egocentrism vs. altruism, hedonistic attitudes vs. risk control and neighbourhood characteristics (particularly regarding symptoms of decay and social cohesion). In general, moral condemnation and shame regarding offences is broad. The same is true for almost all items in this part of the questionnaire. In this chapter, we shall focus on variables where there was no universal consensus across regions and little variation across time (in comparison to the results obtained in 2006).

6.2 Moral judgements across regions

6.2.1 Perception of right and wrong

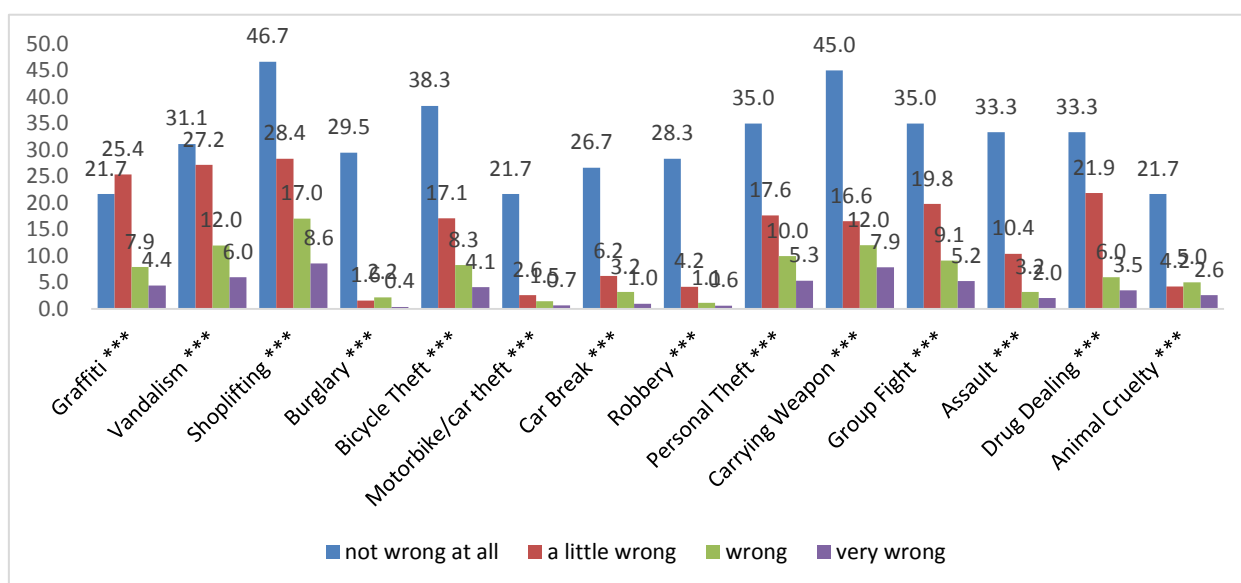
Moral condemnation is almost universal. Few students feel that serious offending (violence, robbery, racist attacks or burglary) is morally acceptable. With minor offences, such as shoplifting, vandalism and “illegal” downloading (which, according to Swiss law, is “legal” indeed) moral condemnation is clearly weaker, but still a majority of respondents consider this as very or somewhat wrong. Even lying to a teacher is not approved by the majority. Although these judgements are universal, they have some impact on delinquency, as the following Figures show.

Figure 6.1 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by lying, disobeying or talking back to adults, such as parents and teachers in %, N=4036-4055.²¹⁹



Respondents who challenge adults' authority tend to admit more often having committed all sorts of offences.

Figure 6.2 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by purposely damaging or destroying property that does not belong to you in %, N=4031-4046.²²⁰

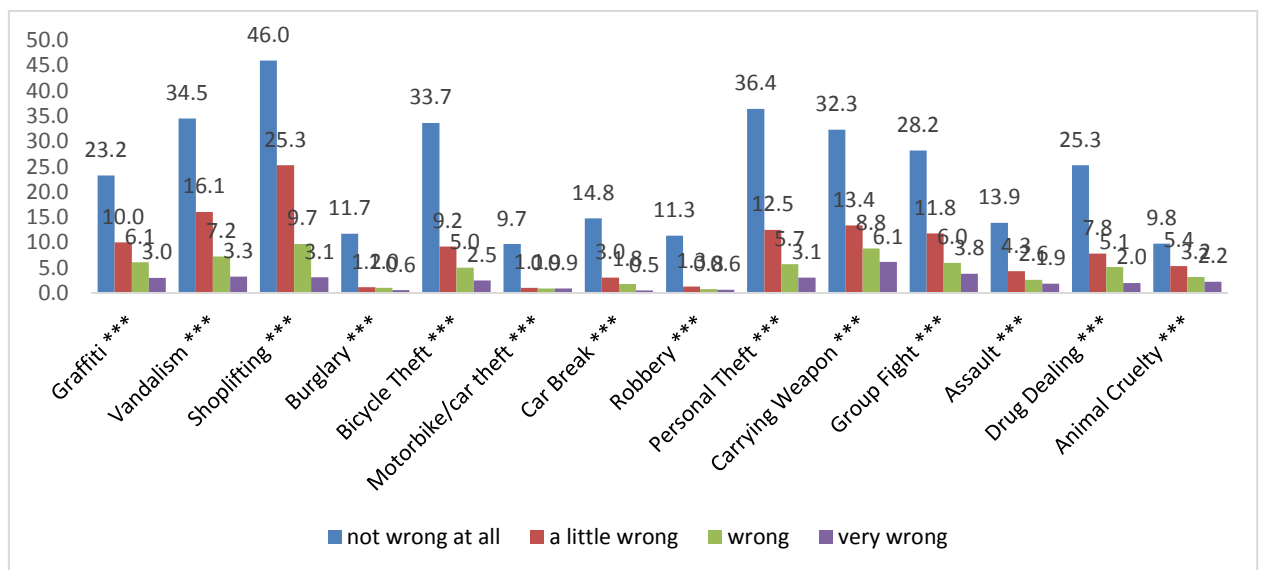


Respondents, who think that purposely damaging or destroying somebody's property is not wrong at all, are more likely to commit an offence regardless its type.

219 Weighted data

220 Weighted data

Figure 6.3 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by stealing something small, such as a chocolate bar from a shop in %, N=4035-4048.²²¹



Respondents, who think that shoplifting is not wrong at all, are more likely to commit an offence regardless its type. Together, the findings shown in Figures 6.1-6.3 illustrate the importance of moral standards in shaping human behaviour. Of course, given the cross-sectional design of our study, we cannot rule that that, actually, moral judgements are being shaped by (preceding) deviant behaviour, rather than the other way around.

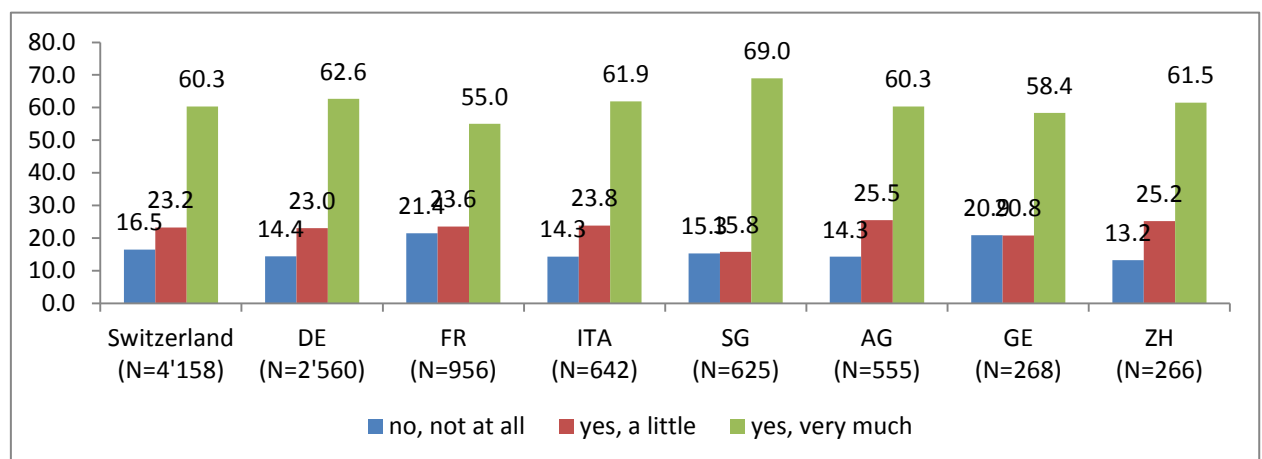
221 Weighted data

6.2.2 Feelings of shame

Beyond one's own moral judgement, the fear of moral condemnation by others, i.e. shame, is another powerful factor in shaping human behaviour. In our questionnaire, several questions were included on this issue. For a number of offences, respondents were asked how much they would feel ashamed if their best friend, their teacher or their parents came to know about a (hypothetical) offence committed by them. In general, feelings of shame are anticipated for all these hypothetical situations. However, shame of parents and teachers is more evenly distributed across regions than the fear of one's best friend reaction. As we shall see later, fear of parents is also less clearly associated with offending than the fear of friends' reaction. In other words, parents may be feared and shame may go along with their knowledge about one's offences, but they count clearly less than best friends.

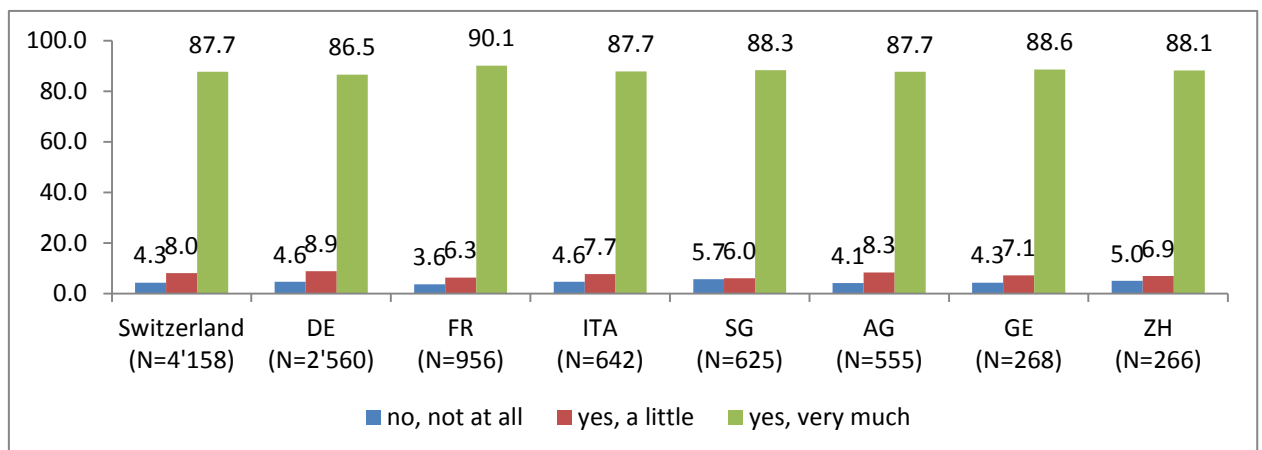
As the following Figures show, the anticipation of feeling ashamed of friends is not evenly distributed across the country.

Figure 6.4 “Imagine you were arrested by the police for committing a crime, would you feel ashamed if your best friend found out about it” by main and subsamples in%.²²²



Apparently, friendship networks operate differently across the country. Fear of shame in the hypothetical situation of being arrested by the police for a crime is stronger in German speaking regions and particularly in the canton of St-Gall. At the other end of the distribution is Geneva.

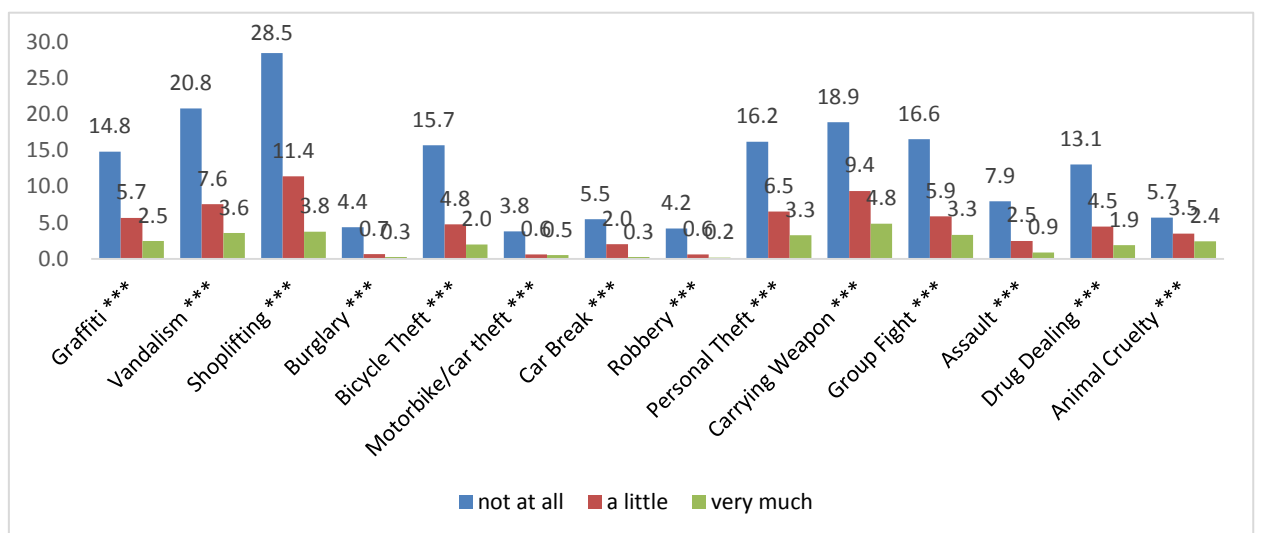
Figure 6.5 “Imagine you were arrested by the police for committing a crime, would you feel ashamed if your parents found out about it” by main and subsamples in%.²²³



As Figure 6.5 illustrates, parents' reaction is well anticipated and feared, but little variation appears across regions.

In the following figures 6.6-6.9, we shall see how the fear of shame about friends' vs. parents' reaction goes along with behavior, namely a more trivial offence like shoplifting and a more serious event (being arrested by the police for a crime).

Figure 6.6 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Imagine you were caught shoplifting, would you feel ashamed if your best friend found out about it” in %, N=4040-4060.²²⁴

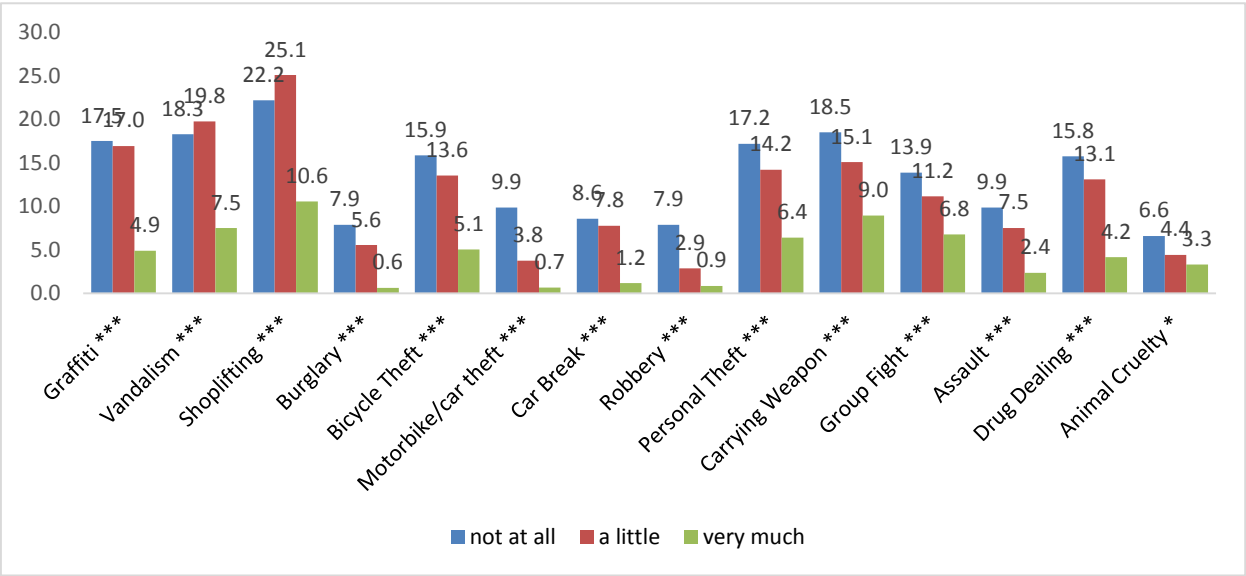


223 Weighted data

224 Weighted data

Respondents, who would not feel ashamed at all if caught shoplifting and even if their friends find out about it, are more likely to commit an offence regardless its type. As the following Figure 6.7 illustrates, the effect of shame is far weaker if the parents find out about.

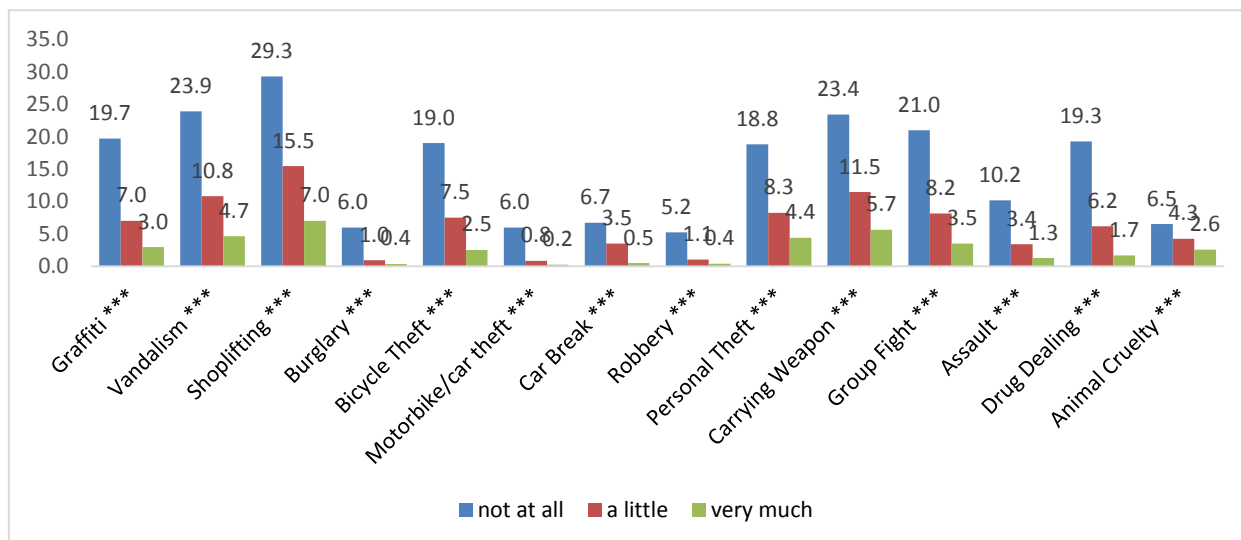
Figure 6.7 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Imagine you were caught shoplifting, would you feel ashamed if your parents found out about it” in %, N=4037-4057.²²⁵



When we turn to a more serious event, such as being arrested by the police for a crime, the same difference appears (Figures 6.8 and 6.9).

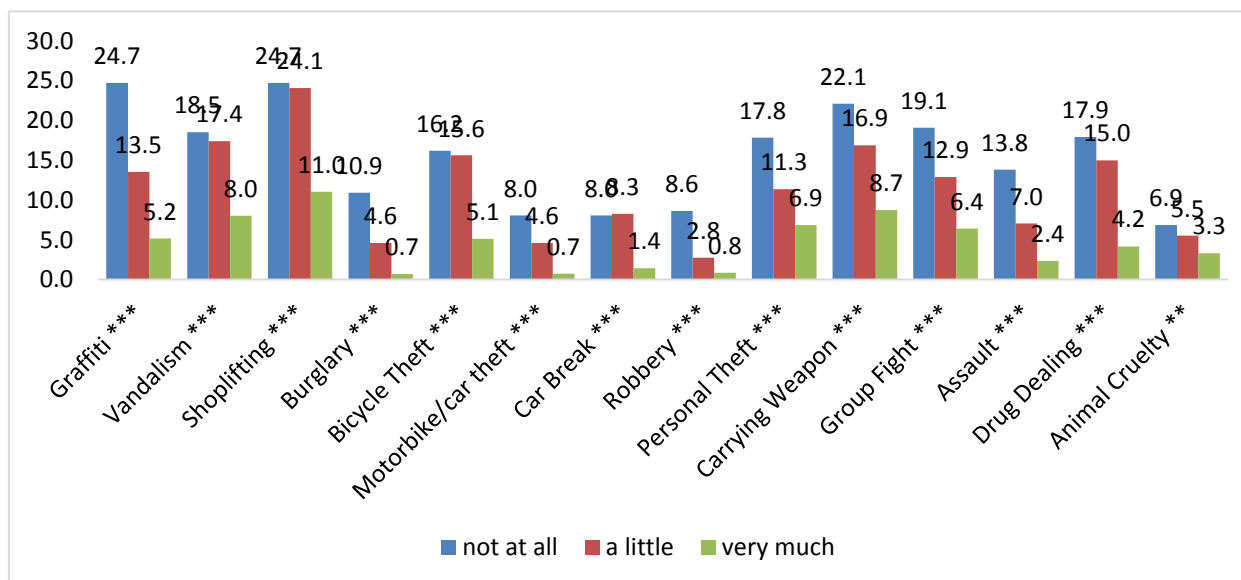
225 Weighted data

Figure 6.8 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Imagine you were arrested by the police for committing a crime, would you feel ashamed if your best friend found out about it” in %, N=4040-4060.²²⁶



Respondents, who would feel much ashamed if they were arrested by the police for committing a crime and their friends find out, are less likely to commit an offence regardless its type.

Figure 6.9 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Imagine you were arrested by the police for committing a crime, would you feel ashamed if your parents found out about it” in %, N=4037-4057.²²⁷



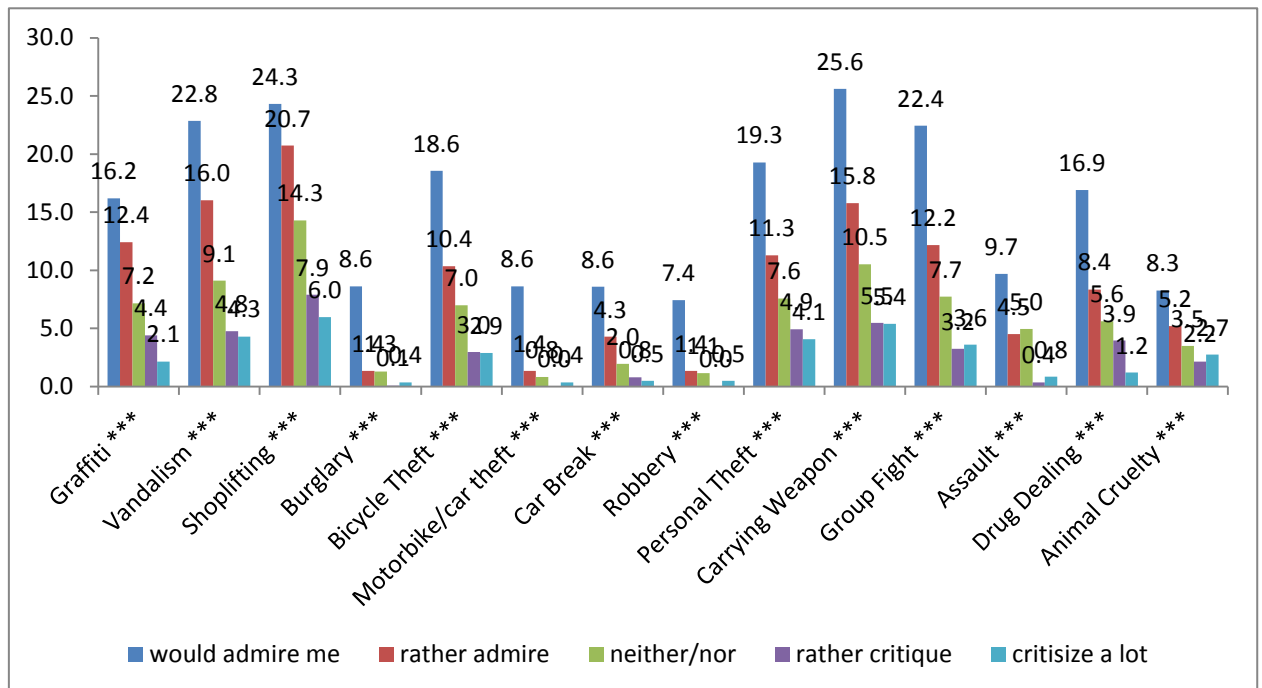
226 Weighted data

227 Weighted data

Compared to Figure 6.8, those who would feel much ashamed in case their parents find out about their being arrested by the police (Figure 6.9) are, apparently, less retained from committing offences of any kind. This means that, although students anticipate being ashamed, they are less influenced by their parents compared to their best friends' reaction.

Figure 6.9_1

Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “what would the best friend feel if he/she finds out that respondent sold an old cell phone to classmate as a new one” in %, N=3978-3984.²²⁸



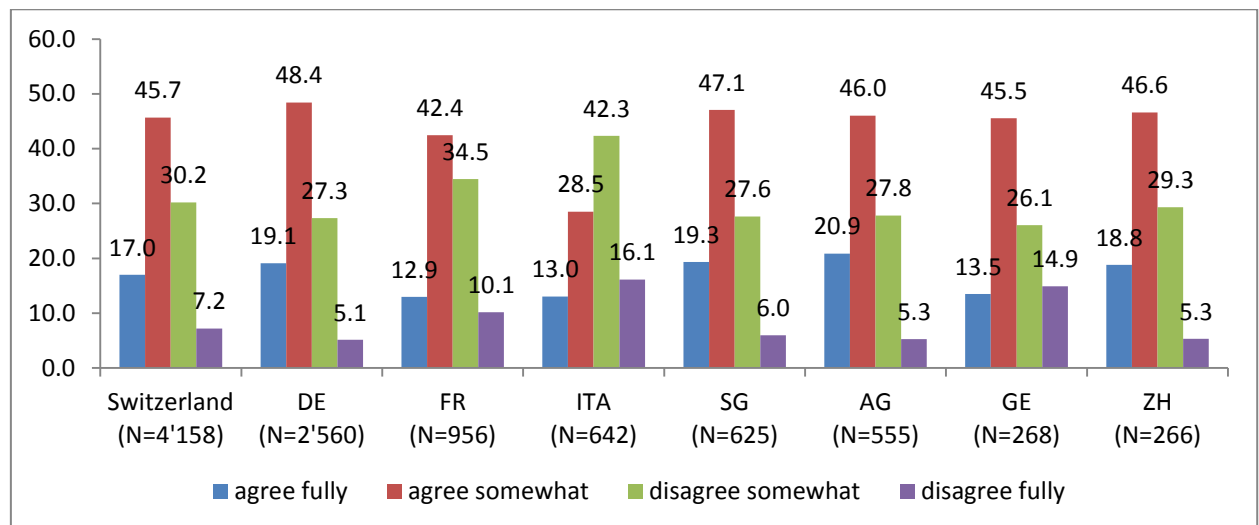
As in the previous Figure (6.9), students, who in case of unfair behavior anticipate criticism by their favorite mate, are less likely to commit offences of all types than those who would expect being admired by them.

6.3 Self-control, risky behaviour and altruistic vs. egocentric attitudes

6.3.1 Risk taking and accidents

Derived from the well-established concept of self-control, the questionnaire contained a series of items regarding one's anticipated reaction while making decisions. Most variables turned out to vary only moderately across time and space. We shall focus here on a few that turned out to be particularly relevant in connection with delinquency.

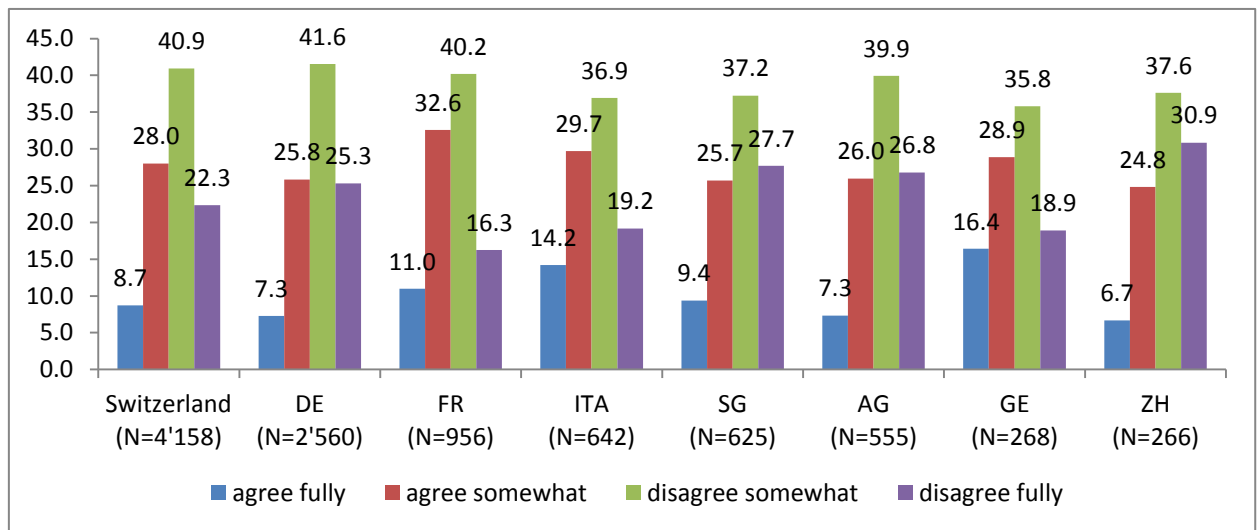
Figure 6.10 “I act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think” by main and subsamples in %.²²⁹



In German-speaking cantons, roughly two students in five disagree fully or somewhat to “act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think”. In French-speaking cantons, in Geneva and in Ticino, the distribution is more normal-shaped, as if the population there were more divided. There is surprisingly little variation across regions within linguistic regions.

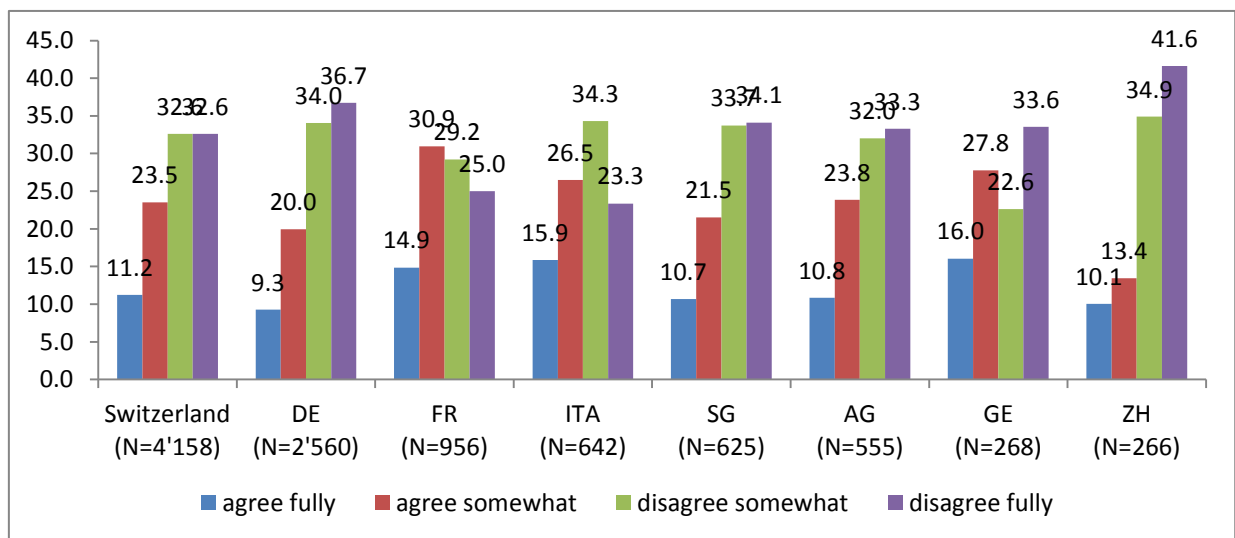
²²⁹ Weighted data

Figure 6.11 “I am more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run” by main and subsamples in %.²³⁰



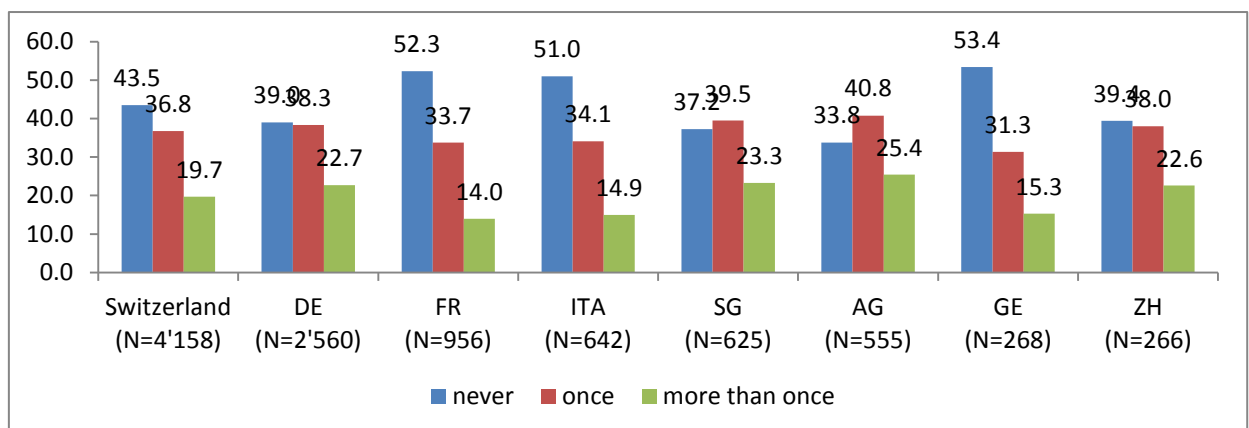
Regarding considering the short vs. the longterm perspective, some differences across regions become visible. Generally, German-Swiss respondents, even in urban areas like Zurich, are more long-term oriented than French- and Italian-speaking respondents.

Figure 6.12 “I like to test myself every now and then by doing something a little risky” by main and subsamples in %.²³¹



In line with the finding presented in Figure 6.11, German-Swiss juveniles (even in Zurich) are less inclined to take risks than respondents in other areas.

Figure 6.13 Having an accident that was so serious that it was necessary to see a doctor by main and subsamples in %.²³²

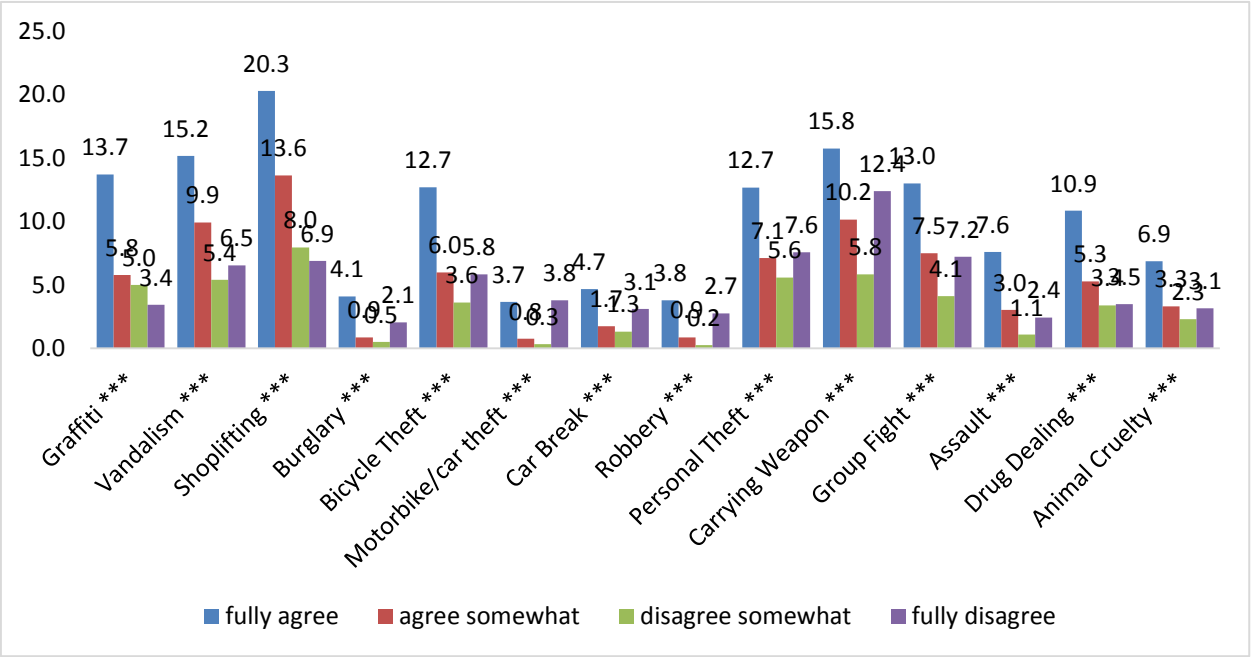


Surprisingly, having experienced accidents of some seriousness (necessitating medical assistance) are rather more common in German-speaking cantons than in Ticino and in the Romandie. A possible explanation might be the lower prevalence of sports as a major leisure-time activity in Latin cantons (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.7).

²³¹ Weighted data

²³² Weighted data

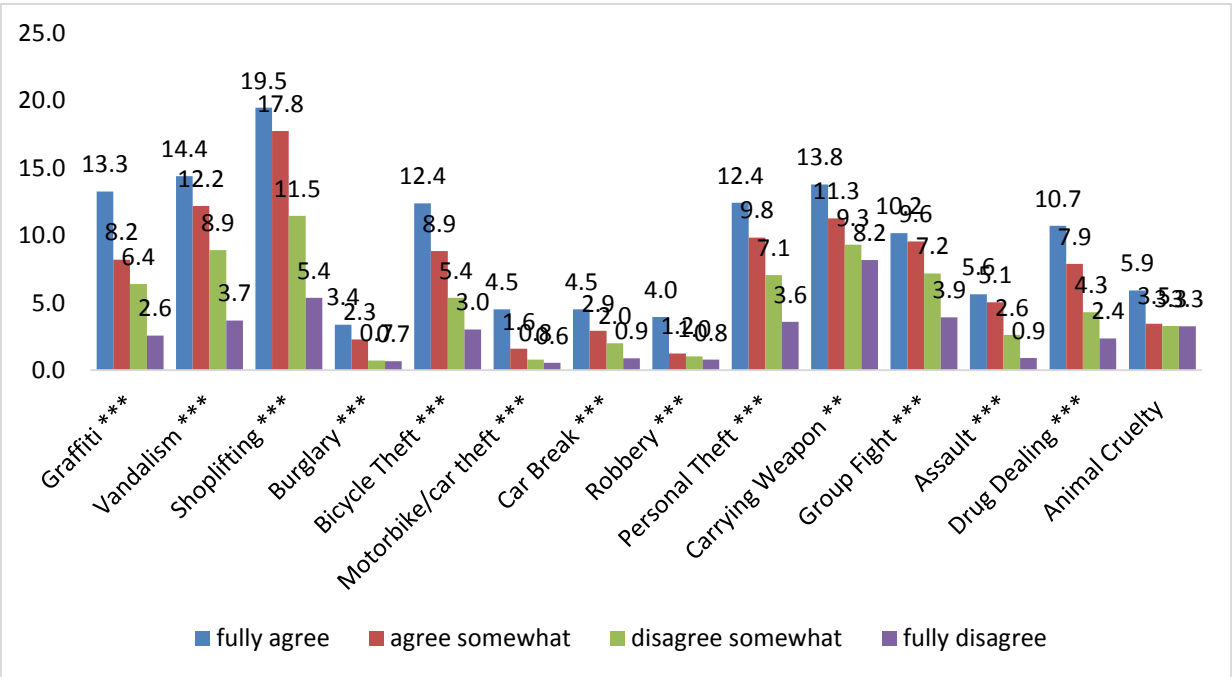
Figure 6.14 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “I act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think” in %, N=4027-4050.²³³



Respondents, who act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think, are more likely to commit an offence regardless its type.

233 Weighted data

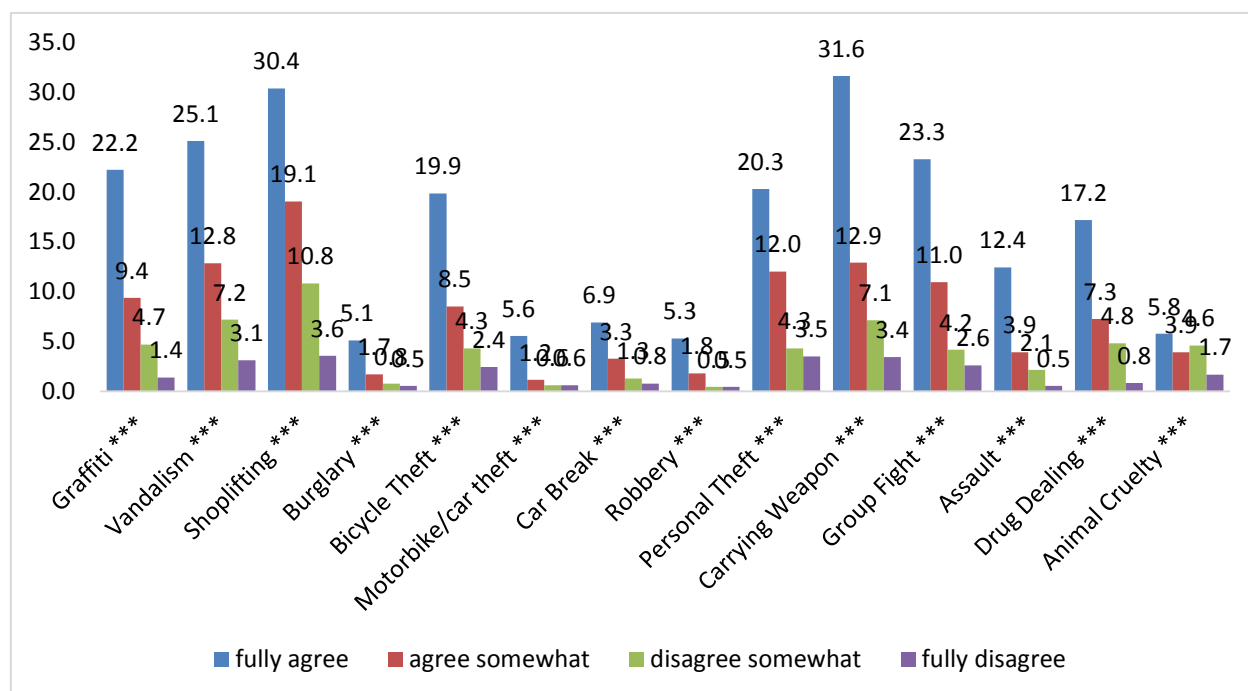
Figure 6.15 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “I am more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run” in %, N=4011-4036.²³⁴



Students, who are more concentrated on the short than on the long run, are more likely to commit any type of offence.

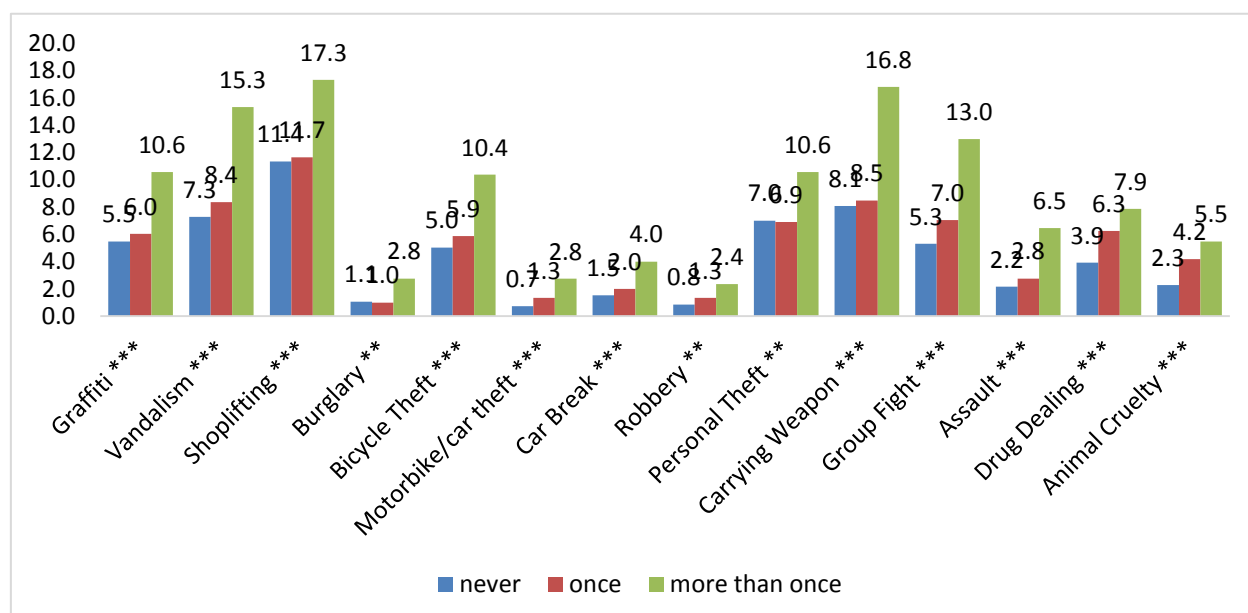
234 Weighted data

Figure 6.16 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “I like to test myself every now and then by doing something a little risky” in %, N=4022-4044.²³⁵



Students, who like doing something a little risky, are more likely to commit any type of offence.

Figure 6.17 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “having an accident that was so serious you had to see a doctor, such as during sports or a traffic accident” in %, N=4045-4066.²³⁶



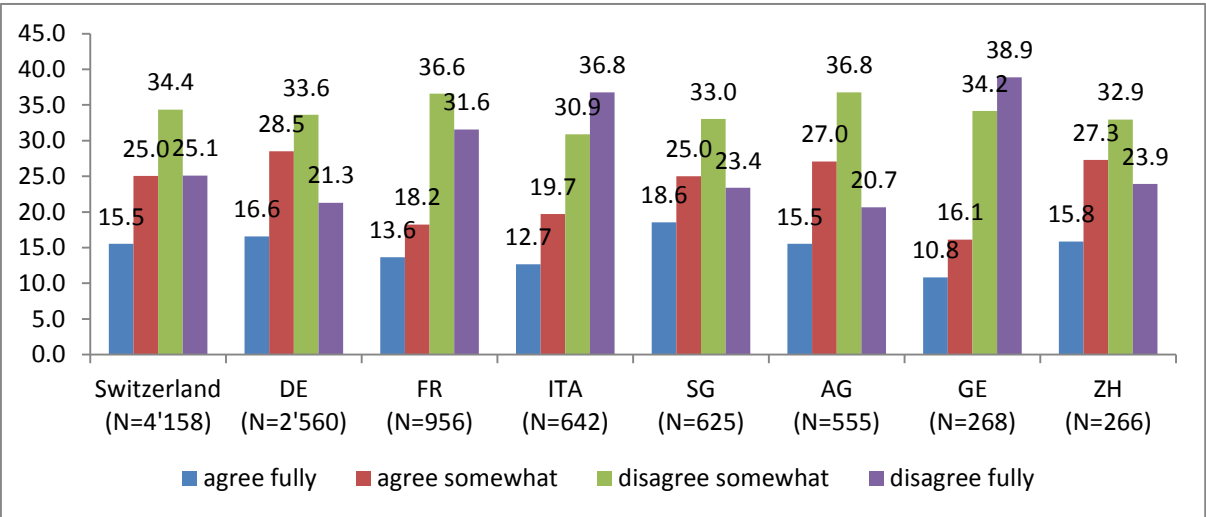
²³⁵ Weighted data

²³⁶ Weighted data

Students, who had a serious accident with the necessity to see a doctor, are more likely to commit any type of offence. The association between having experienced accidents and offending has been observed in several studies over the last years (Killias/Kuhn/Aebi 2011, 248).

6.3.2 Egocentrism

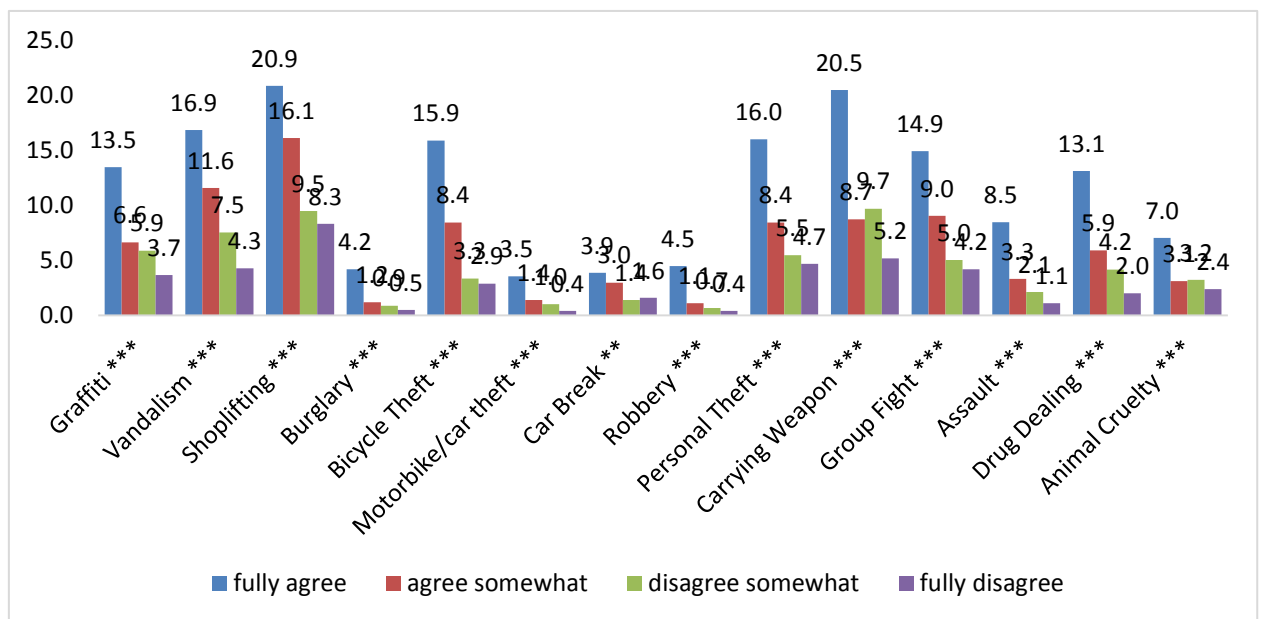
Figure 6.18 “If things I do upset people, it is their problem, not mine”by main and subsamples in %.²³⁷



Most respondents do not accept this statement. Egocentric acting is the most clearly rejected in Italian and French speaking regions. Interestingly, the two urbanized cantons of Geneva and Zurich are particularly different in this respect. There may be a cultural underpinning at work that is hard to understand without further data.

²³⁷ Weighted data

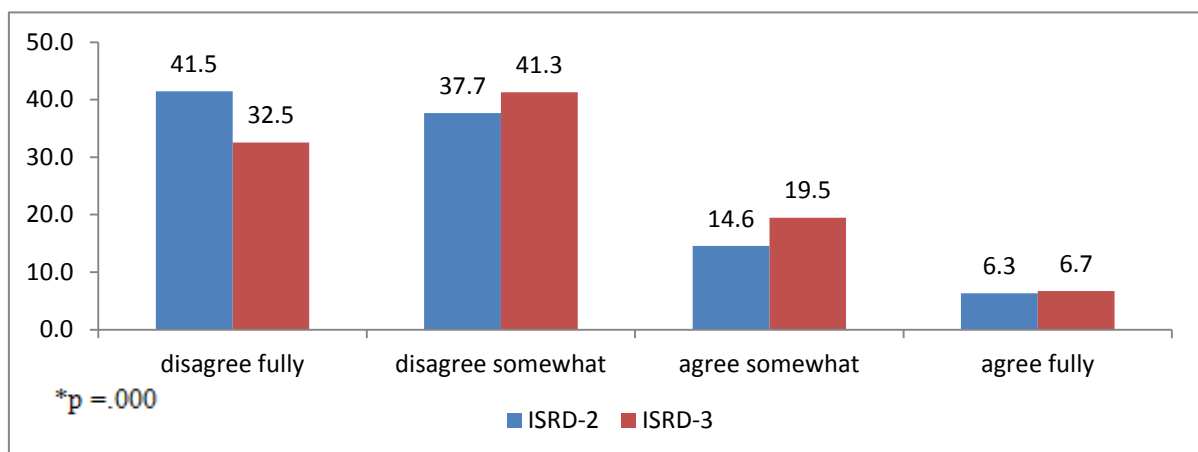
Figure 6.19 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “If things I do upset people, it is their problem, not mine” in %, N=3998-4021.²³⁸



Students, who do not care if they make upset other people by their own behaviour, are more likely to commit any type of offence.

These and a few more questions have been asked also during the preceding ISRD-2 conducted in 2006. As figures 6.20 and 6.21 show, attitudes have remained fairly stable over time, but students may have become slightly more egocentric.

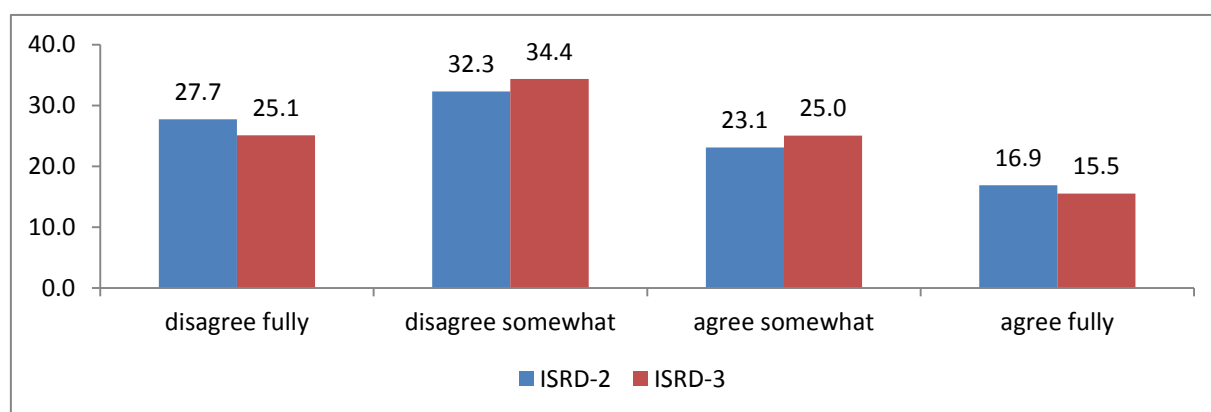
Figure 6.20 “I try to look out for myself first, even if it means making things difficult for other people” in % for 2006 and 2013, N=3987-4011.²³⁹



²³⁸ Weighted data

²³⁹ ISRD-2 – not weighted data, ISRD-3 - weighted data

Figure 6.21 “If things I do upset people, it is their problem, not mine” in % for 2006 and 2013.²⁴⁰



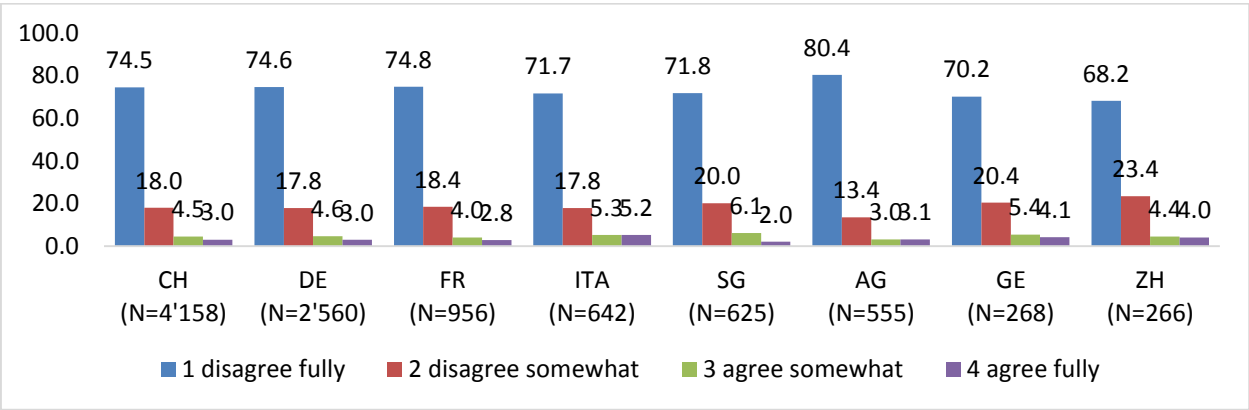
These changes seem insufficient, however, to explain the substantial increases in offending between 2006 and 2013 (see Chapter 7, Figure 7.2). The other attitudes seem to have changed even less.

6.4 Good and bad neighbourhoods

Several questions in our instrument referred to the neighbourhood. In this connection, it should be kept in mind that the same questionnaire was to be applied in some 30 countries. The several items related to neighbourhood characteristics had, therefore, to work in very different social and economic backgrounds.

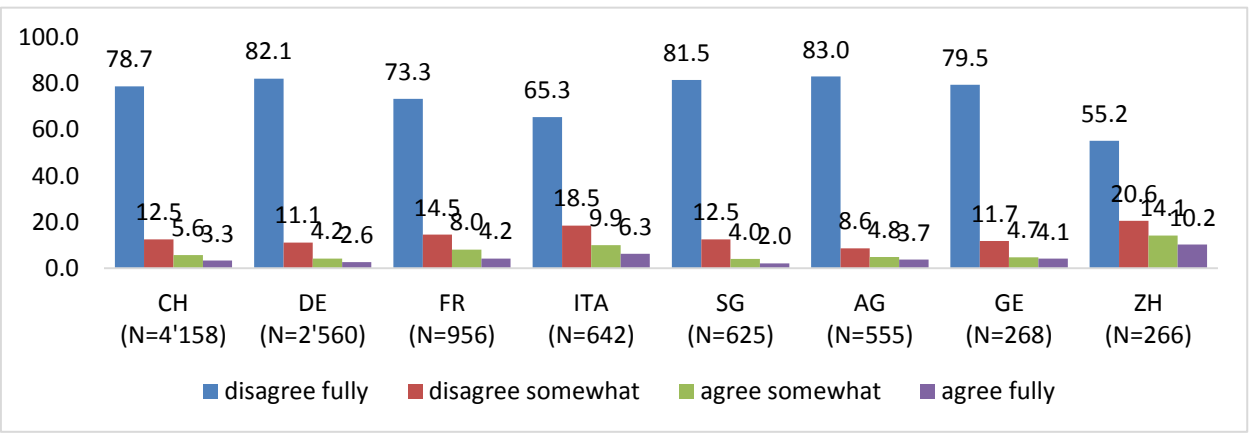
240 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

Figure 6.22 “There is a lot of crime in my neighbourhood” by main and subsamples by main and subsamples in %.²⁴¹



Only few respondents live in neighbourhoods where crime is fairly common. More respondents in Geneva and Zurich report higher crime rates in their neighbourhood. This corresponds to the observations during several crime surveys that crime is relatively evenly distributed across Switzerland (Killias et al. 2011).

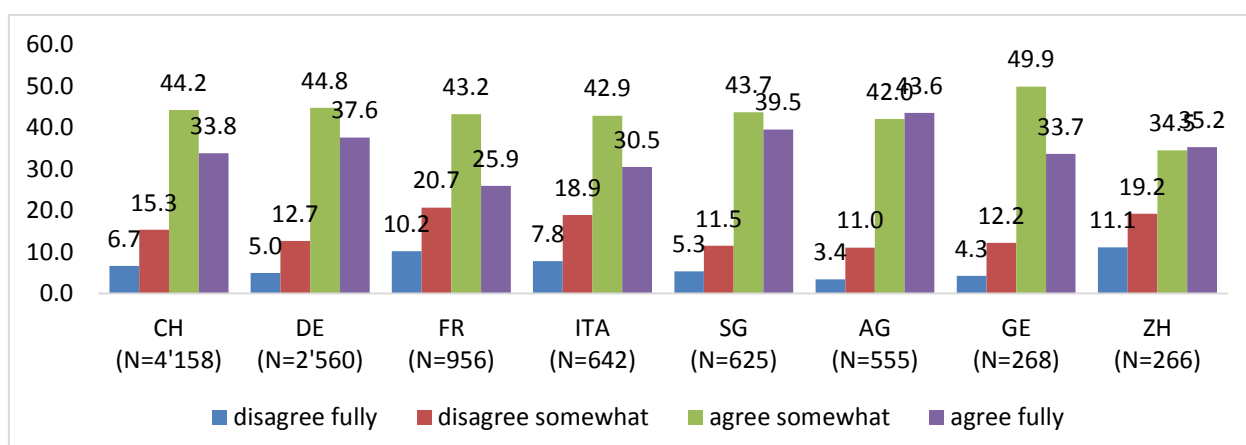
Figure 6.23 “There is a lot of graffiti in my neighbourhood” by main and subsamples in %.²⁴²



Most of neighbourhoods do not have a lot of graffiti. The highest percentage of those, who have it is in the canton of Geneva.

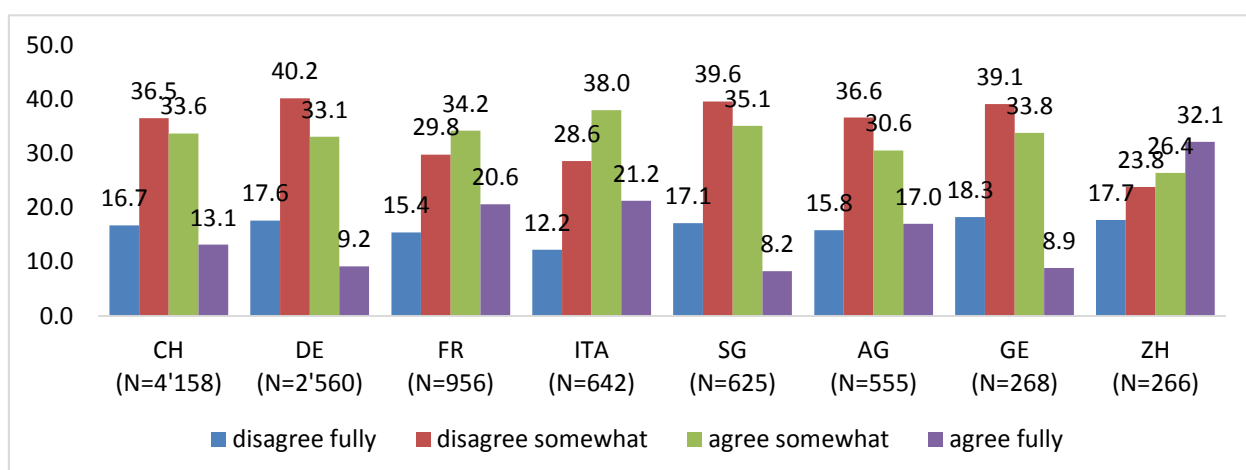
241 Weighted data
242 Weighted data

Figure 6.24 “People around here are willing to help their neighbours” by main and subsamples in %.²⁴³



Respondents in French-speaking cantons perceive less solidarity between people living in their neighbourhood than in German-speaking regions.

Figure 6.25 “There is a close-knit neighbourhood” by main and subsamples in %.²⁴⁴

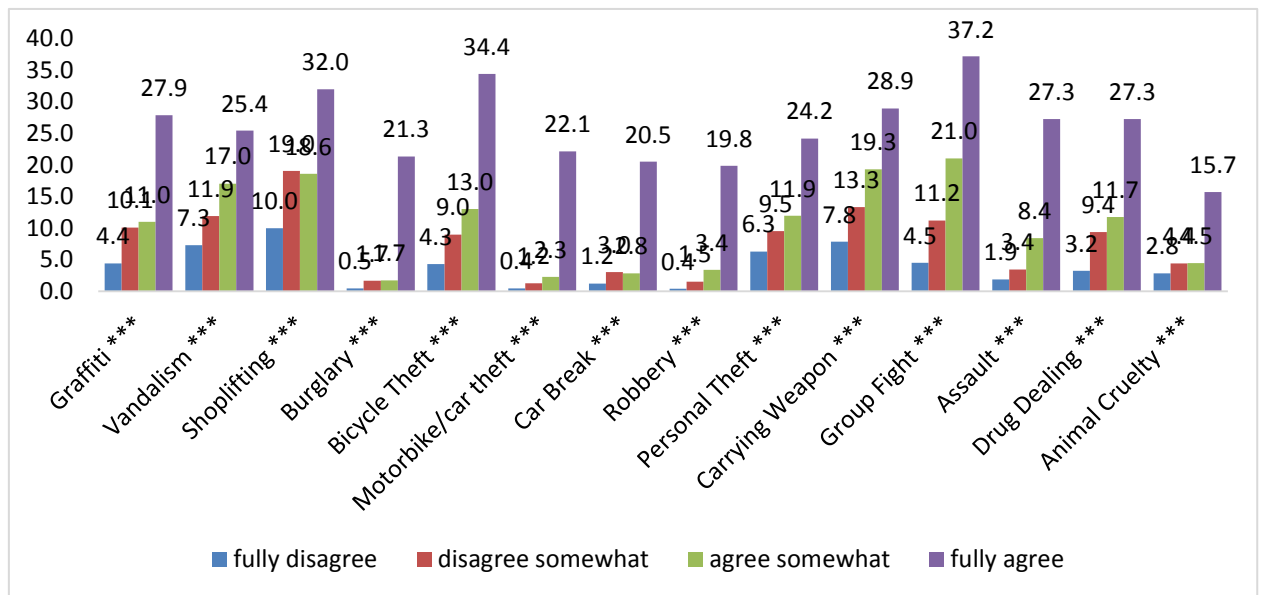


On the other hand, replies to the question about helping each other out is only moderately associated with another aspect of solidarity, namely whether or not one's neighbourhood is seen as “close-knit”. In this respect, German Swiss respondents see their neighbourhood more positively than those in French-speaking cantons.

²⁴³ Weighted data

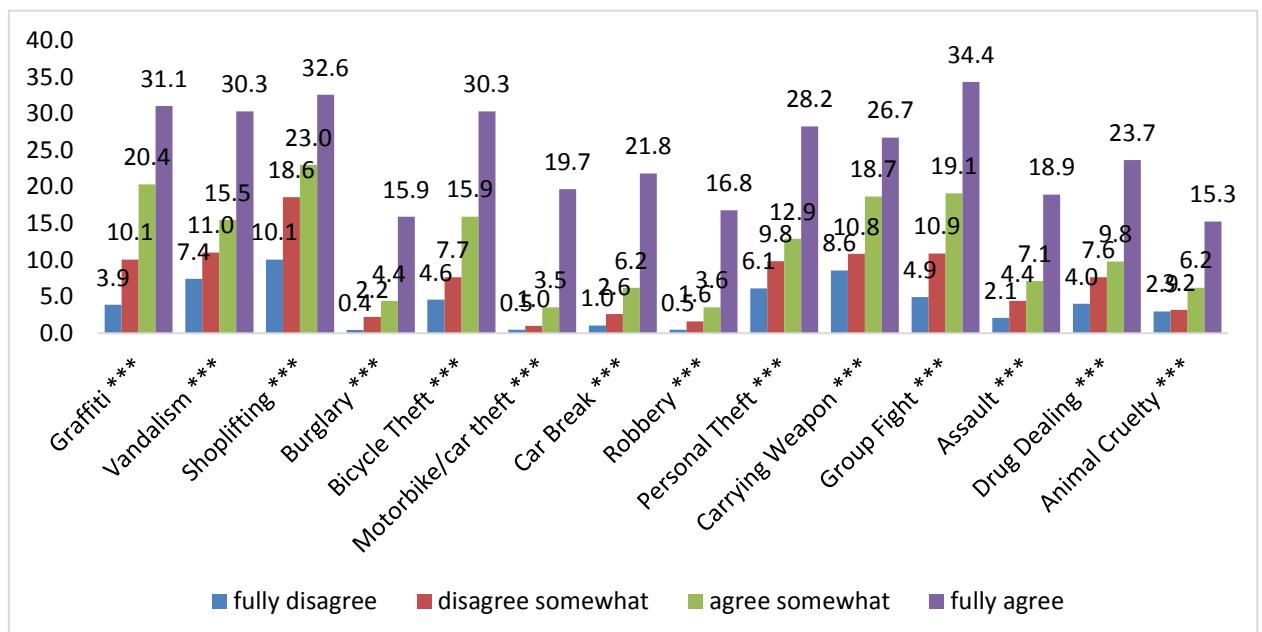
²⁴⁴ Weighted data

Figure 6.26 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “There is a lot of crime in my neighbourhood” in %, N=4014-4037.²⁴⁵



Students, who perceive a lot of crime in their neighbourhood, are more likely to commit an offence.

Figure 6.27 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “There is a lot of graffiti in my neighbourhood” in %, N=4010-4034.²⁴⁶

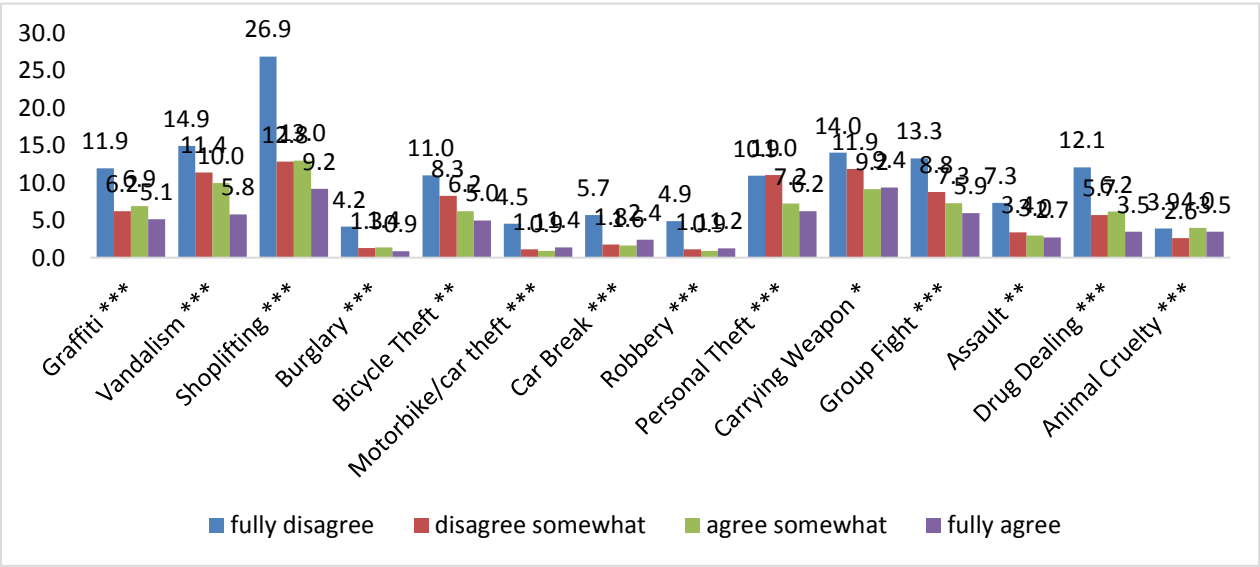


245 Weighted data

246 Weighted data

Respondents, who see a lot of graffiti in their neighbourhood, are more likely to commit an offence.

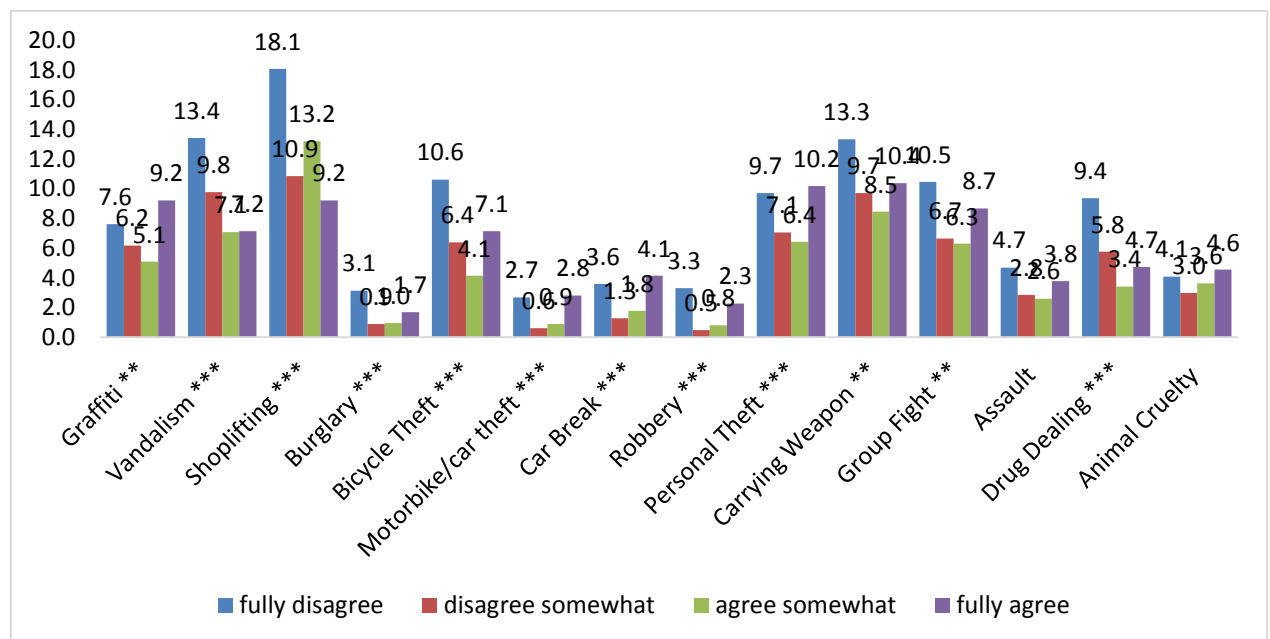
Figure 6.28 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “People around here are willing to help their neighbours” in %, N=4015-4037.²⁴⁷



Respondents, who live in neighbourhood where people are not willing to help each other, are more likely to commit an offence.

247 Weighted data

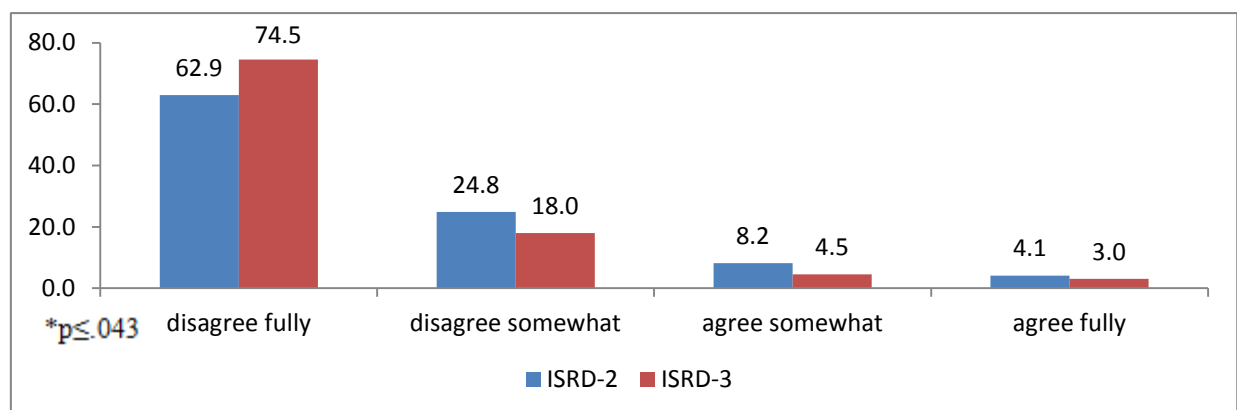
Figure 6.29 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “This is a close-knit neighbourhood” in %, N=4006-4028.²⁴⁸



Students, who live in a close-knit neighbourhood, commit fewer offences. In the first situation it can be explained by committing offence in a group, in the second one – is because of absence of bonding with own neighbourhood. Among exceptions are vandalism and shoplifting.

Some of the variables here have also been measured in the 2006 survey. The following Figures show how neighbourhood perception has developed over the last years.

Figure 6.30 “There is a lot of crime in my neighbourhood” in % for 2006 and 2013.²⁴⁹

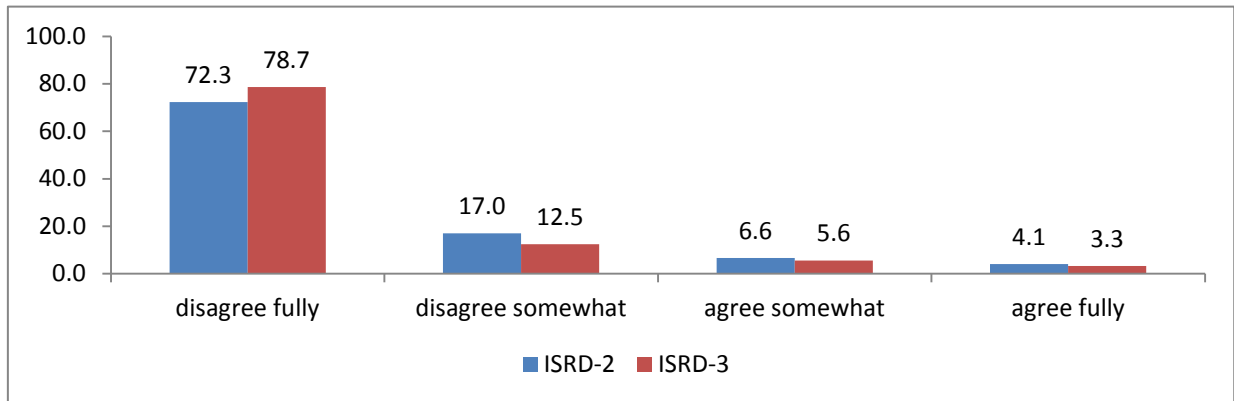


Percentage of respondents, who declined a lot of crimes in their neighbourhoods, decreased.

²⁴⁸ Weighted data

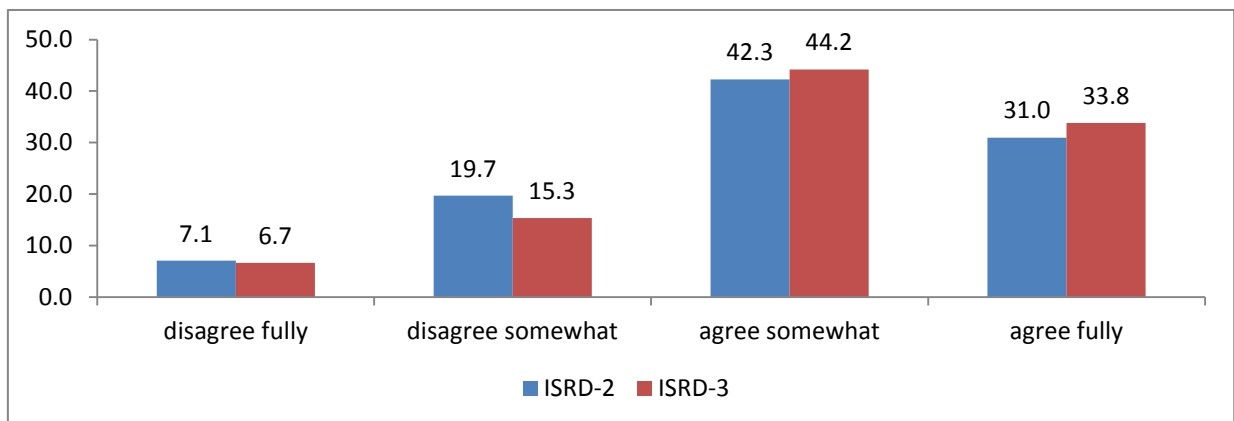
²⁴⁹ Weighted data (ISR2-3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2-2, N=3643).

Figure 6.31 “There is a lot of graffiti in my neighbourhood” in % for 2006 and 2013.²⁵⁰



Percentage of respondents, who live in neighbourhood without graffiti, slightly increased

Figure 6.32 “People around here are willing to help their neighbours” in % for 2006 and 2013.²⁵¹

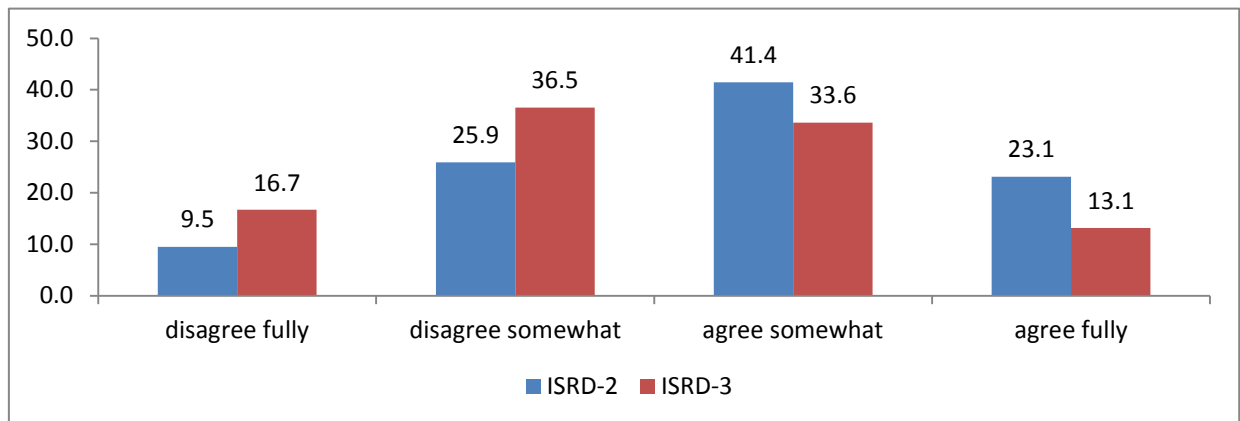


Percentages of respondents, who want or do not want helping their neighbours, remained stable.

250 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

251 Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).data

Figure 6.33 “This is a close-knit neighbourhood” in % for 2006 and 2013.²⁵²



The results are somewhat difficult to interpret. On one hand, fewer respondents say there is “a lot of crime” (or a lot of graffiti) in their neighbourhood. At the same time, judgements about solidarity among neighbours (Figures 32 and 33) are less optimistic than in 2006. Overall, the safest way of interpreting changes over time would be to say that they are not contributing much to understand changes in crime rates, as observed in Chapter 7 (Figure 7.2). However, differences in the prevalence of social problems in the neighbourhood were among the strongest variables explaining different levels of crime rates in an international perspective, i.e. across countries (Junger-Tas, Steketee, Jonkman 2012, 266).

References:

Killias M., Kuhn A., Aebi M. Grundriss der Kriminologie. Eine Europäische Perspektive. Zweite Auflage. Bern: Stämpfli Verlag AG, 2011. 568 p.

Junger-Tas J.J.T., Steketee M., Jonkman H. The neighbourhood context. Chapter 10. The many faces of Youth crime. Contrasting theoretical perspectives on juvenile delinquency across countries and cultures. New York: Springer, 2012, 367 p. P. 257-284.

Killias M., Staubli S., Biberstein L., Bänziger M., Iadanza S. International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) 2010/2011.

<http://krc.ch/de/index.php?a=Research&b=Forschung&c=Abgeschlossene-Forschungsprojekte>

²⁵² Weighted data (ISR3, N=4158), not weighted data (ISR2, N=3643).

Chapter 7

Delinquency over space and time in various degrees of seriousness

7.1 Overview

In this Chapter, we shall first present the prevalence rates over the last year and over the entire lifespan for the entire country as well as for the several regional subsamples. In the second part, we shall look at trends in offending since ISRD-1 (in 1992) and ISRD-2 (in 2006). In the final section, we shall look at the so-called “versatility”, i.e. the extent to which respondents admitting having committed one particular offence have been involved also in other forms of delinquency.

7.2. Delinquency across Switzerland's several regions

Table 7.1 gives an overview of how many respondents (in per cent) admitted having committed any of the listed offence types at least once over the last 12 months.

Tabelle 7.1 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by main and different subsamples²⁵³

	Switzerland ²⁵⁴ (N=4'158)	DE (N=2'560)	FR (N=956)	ITA (N=642)	SG (N=625)	AG (N=555)	GE (N=268)	ZH (N=266)
Graffiti	6.7	5.1	9.3	12.0	4.6	5.3	11.9	3.8
Vandalism	9.3	7.8	12.8	7.8	6.9	8.1	15.0	7.1
Shoplifting	12.6	10.1	18.9	9.2	9.7	9.0	14.4	8.9
Burglary	1.4	1.4	1.4	2.1	1.2	1.6	1.4	1.2
Bicycle theft	6.4	7.1	5.1	4.5	7.0	6.9	3.0	5.3
Car theft	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.5	0.6	2.1	2.6	1.8
Car break	2.2	1.7	3.1	3.0	0.8	2.0	2.8	2.2
Robbery	1.3	1.4	0.9	2.1	0.5	1.4	1.4	1.8
Personal theft	7.7	5.1	13.3	7.9	5.5	5.1	13.1	3.3
Weapon	10.0	9.8	10.6	7.6	8.4	11.4	9.9	10.0
Group fight	7.5	5.8	11.2	8.1	5.5	7.4	11.0	4.5
Assault	3.2	3.4	3.1	2.1	3.3	2.1	5.9	4.1
Drug dealing	5.6	5.9	5.0	5.0	3.7	4.0	4.4	6.2
Animal cruelty	3.6	3.9	2.7	5.3	3.5	3.4	3.6	1.4

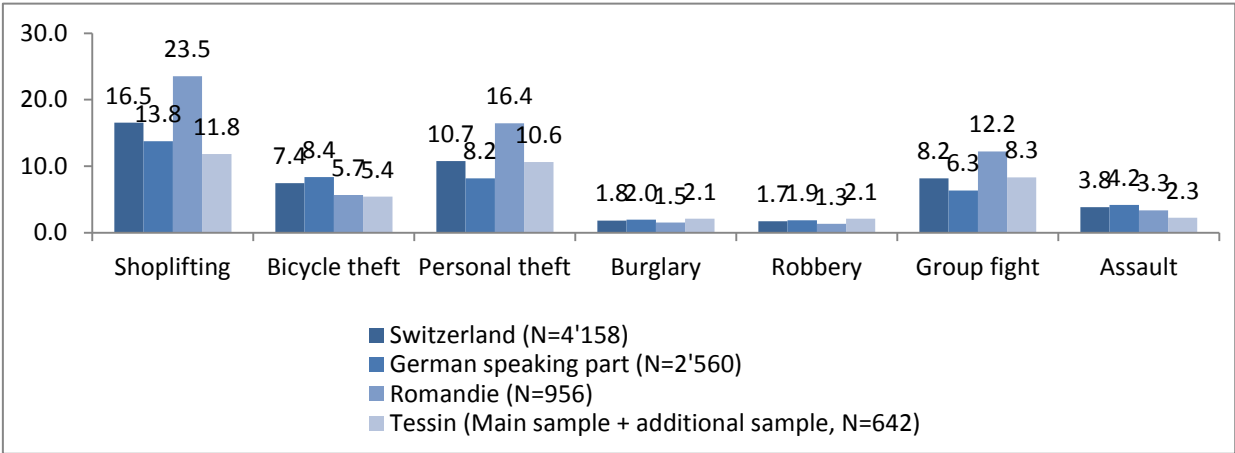
Among the most frequent offences are vandalism, shoplifting, personal theft, carrying weapons and group fights. The highest prevalence rates can be observed in French speaking cantons including Geneva as well as in Zurich. Shoplifting and theft of personal items are particularly frequent in

²⁵³ Weighted data
²⁵⁴ N=4054-4071

the French-speaking cantons, whereas for other offences, the differences are less pronounced and less consistent. The canton of St-Gall stands out as the region with the lowest delinquency rates.

The same picture emerges if offending over the entire lifespan (rather than offending over the last 12 months) is considered (Figure 7.1). With the exception of bicycle theft, stealing is more common in the French-speaking regions, whereas German-speaking cantons tend to have higher rates of violence including group fights.

Figure 7.1 Delinquency (life time prevalence) by language regions in %.²⁵⁵



Thus, the geographic distribution does not change if, instead of 12-months rates, lifespan prevalence rates are considered.

7.3.Trends in delinquency over time

The question whether offending in general and among juveniles in particular has increased over the last 20 years has often been a matter of debate. Before the recent drop after 2011 (whose reasons are not entirely clear), offending in general and especially violent offences have considerably increased in police statistics since 1990. Victimization surveys (Killias et al. 2011) and health statistics (Killias&Lanfranconi 2012) have shown similar trends. One self-report survey conducted in the canton of Zurich in 1998 and in 2007 has shown, however, that offending and victimization have essentially remained stable over these years (Ribeaud& Eisner 2009). Since the International Self-reported delinquency survey has been conducted in Switzerland in 1992, 2006 and 2013, some longitudinal comparisons are possible. It should be taken into account, however, that not all offences were included among the list of self-reported offences in all three sweeps of this survey. The details can be seen from Table 7.2.

²⁵⁵ Weighted data

Table 7.2 Delinquency (life time and last year prevalence) in % for 1992, 2006 and 2013.²⁵⁶

	ISRD-1 * (N=529)	ISRD-2 * (N=3'648)		ISRD-3* (N=4'158)	
	Last year	Life time	Last year	Life time	Last year
Graffiti				8.8	6.6
Vandalism		13.4	7.8	11.3	9.1
Shoplifting	15.3	23.6	9.1	16.2	12.4
Burglary	0.6	2.0	0.9	1.8	1.4
Bicycle/moped/scooter theft (ISRD2)		6.6	3.7		
BicycleTheft (ISRD3)				7.3	6.3
Motobike/cartheft		0.8	0.4	1.6	1.3
Car break	1.0	2.7	1.0	2.7	2.2
Robbery	0.0	1.4	0.9	1.7	1.3
Personal theft (ISRD3)				10.5	7.5
Caringweapon	9.5	11.1	7.8	10.8	9.7
Group fight	10.0	15.5	8.4	8.0	7.3
Assault	0.5	2.9	1.2	3.7	3.1
Drug Dealing (ISRD2)	1.5	3.7	2.8		
Drug dealing (ISRD3)				5.6	5.4
AnimalCruelty		12.2		4.2	3.5

* Weighted data

To the extent that the several offences were measured in a comparable way over time in all waves of ISRD, an increasing trend emerges for most offences. The exceptions are shoplifting, where preventive measures (i.e. the increased use of modern technology) in shops may have reversed the trend, and group fights. For all the other offences shown in Table 2, the increase is substantial, especially for bicycle theft, assault and drug (i.e. mostly cannabis) dealing. Further (and once more with the exception of shoplifting), the trend is consistent from 1992 to 2006 and from 2006 to 2013.

Figure 7.2 Delinquency (last year prevalence), the whole Switzerland in % for 1992, 2006, 2013.²⁵⁷

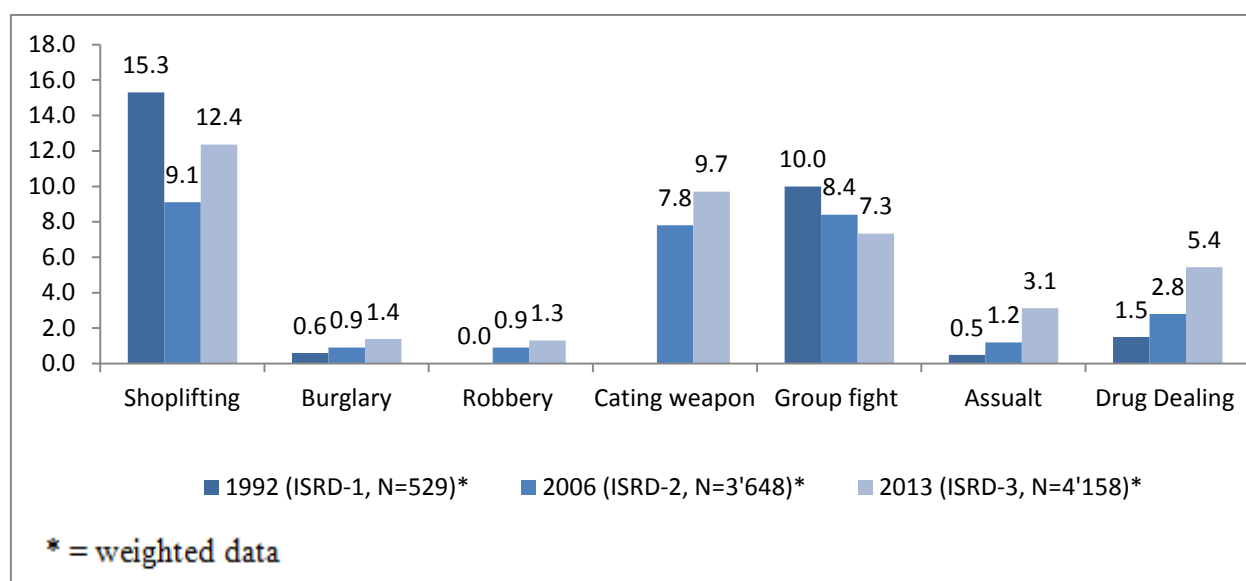


Table 7.3 Significance of the comparison of ISRD-1, ISRD-2 and ISRD-3

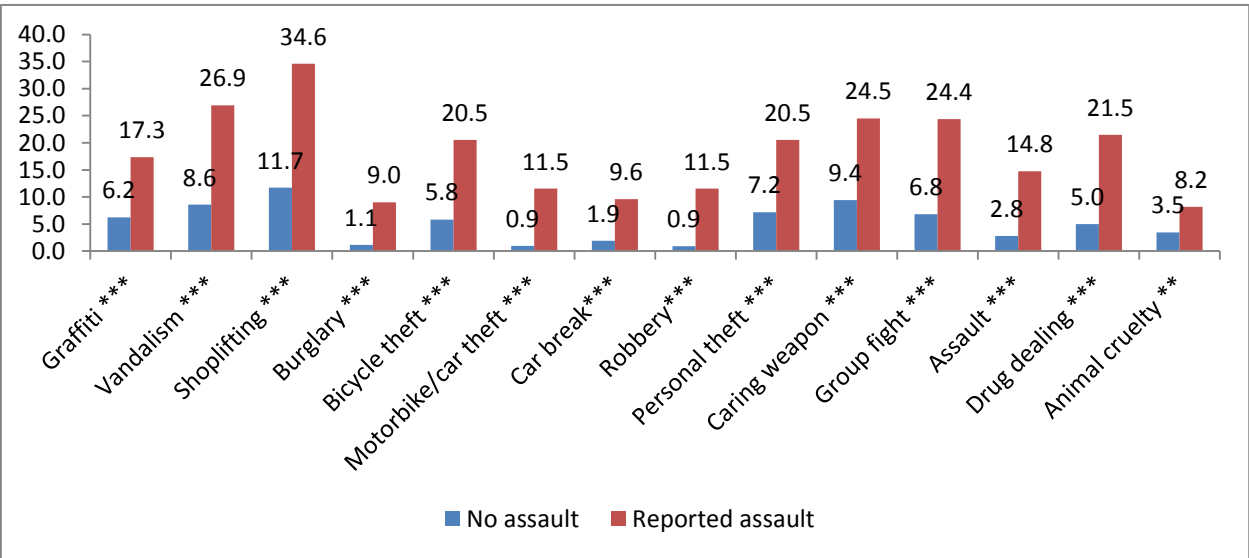
ISRD-1 and ISRD-2		ISRD-2 and ISRD-3	
	<i>p-value</i>		<i>p-value</i>
Shoplifting	.000	Shoplifting	.000
Burglary	.025	Burglary	.002
Car break	.742	Car break	.000
		Robbery	.009
Caringweapon	.000	Caringweapon	.000
Group fight	.007	Group fight	.163
Assault	.000	Assault	.000
Drug dealing	.000	Drug dealing	.000

The reason of the controversy may be that some surveys (such as the one conducted in Zurich by Ribeaud& Eisner 2009), inspired by the model of the Kriminologisches Institut Niedersachsen (KFN) at Hannover, are using very broad concepts of violence. For example, roughly 20 per cent of their respondents reported having committed bodily injury at least once over the last 12 months, whereas the ISRD measure includes only cases where the victim needed to see a doctor. As a result, only about 3 per cent of our respondents admitted having committed this narrowly defined offence of “assault” in 2013. Under these circumstances, variation over time is far more likely. The same holds for victimization where our rates are also far lower than those observed by Ribeaud& Eisner (2009). In line with what has been observed in Figure 7.2, the rates of

victimization (particularly for assault and robbery) have also increased substantially between 2006 and 2013 (see Figure 4.1). The Zurich study, however, did not find any increase with its far broader definitions of victimization.

In sum, the trends shown here are consistent with increasing rates of victimization observed in chapter 4 (Figure 4.1). That victimization and offending show similar trends over time, is consistent with the fact that the two phenomena tend to co-vary at the individual level (see the following Figure 7.2_1). It is, therefore, plausible that they co-vary also over space and time.

Figure 7.2_1 Delinquency by victimization (assault) in %, N=40521-4068²⁵⁸



As one can see from the Figure 7.2_1, victims of assault tend to commit far more offences than those who never experienced intentional physical injury. The same association between offending and victimization can also be observed for other offences. Although this connection is well-established, it does not mean that the same factors are at work for delinquency and victimization. In Chapter 1, we have seen several examples where variables that were strongly correlated with delinquency are not or moderately at best with victimization (see 1.5)

7.4.Versatility: Are offenders specialists or generalists²⁵⁹?

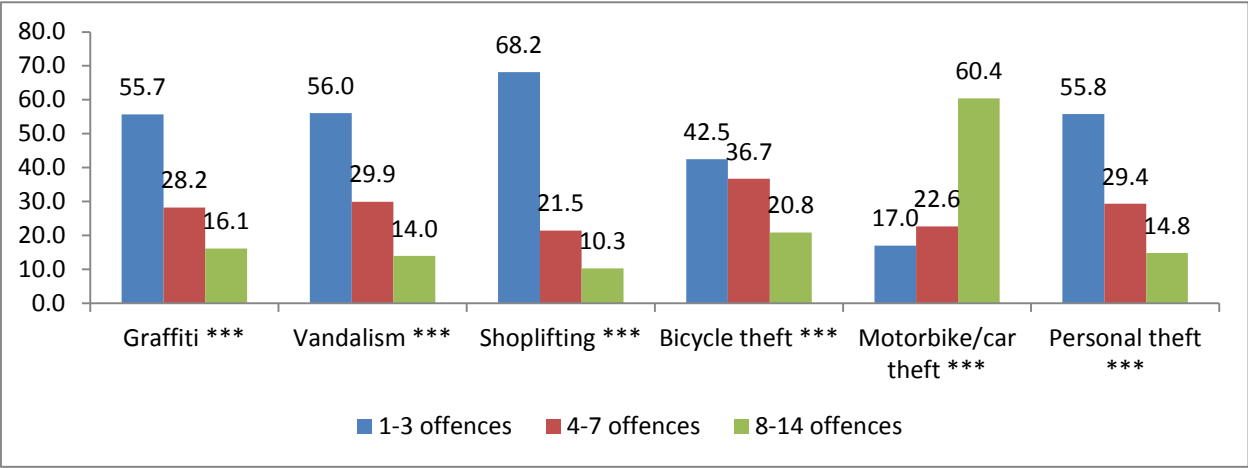
A highly relevant question is whether offending is limited to a unique type of offence or the symptom of a broader problem. By versatility we mean that a person committing offense X has, over the same reference period (of, say, 12 months) committed further offences (and, eventually, how many different offences). We can express this idea either by looking at how many

²⁵⁸ Weighted data

²⁵⁹ The variable measuring the delinquency in general is made up of 14 different types of offences. The versatility score has been calculated considering only those cases who gave a valid answer to each of these 14 variables (offences, last year prevalence). Respondents who provided a missing value to at least one of these 14 variables are not included into the calculation of the versatility score.

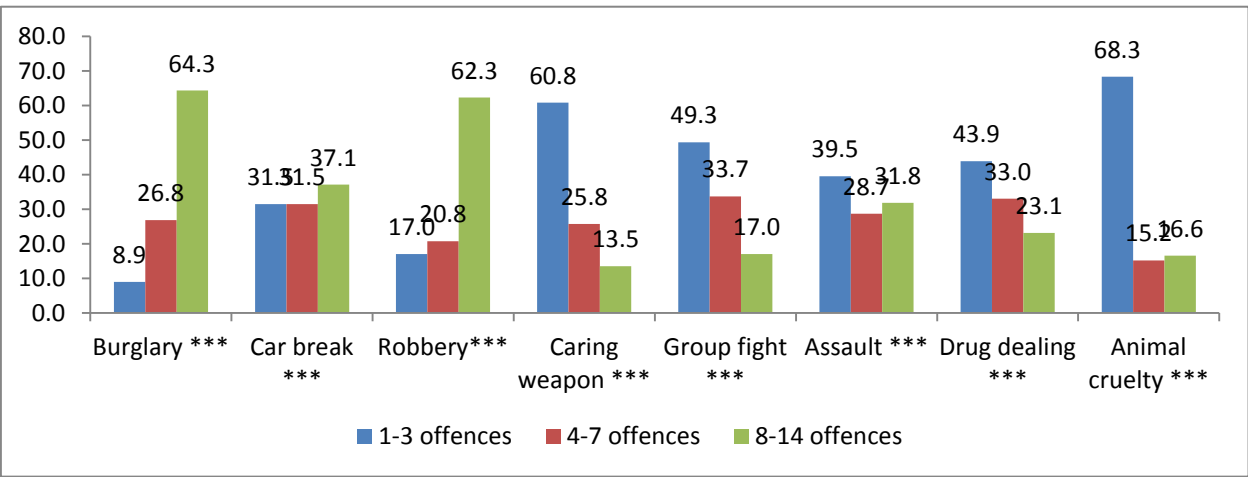
respondents who admit having committed a certain offence have committed also other types of offences. This is illustrated by Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3 How versatile are juveniles who admit having committed (at least once over the last year) each single minor property offence on our list? in %, N=4025-4026.²⁶⁰



Respondents reporting more trivial property offences, such as graffiti, vandalism, personal theft and shoplifting, are mostly one-type offenders, i.e. less versatile or more “normal” juveniles.

Figure 7.4 How versatile are juveniles who admit having committed (at least once over the last year) each single violent or serious offence on our list, in %, N=4025-4026.²⁶¹



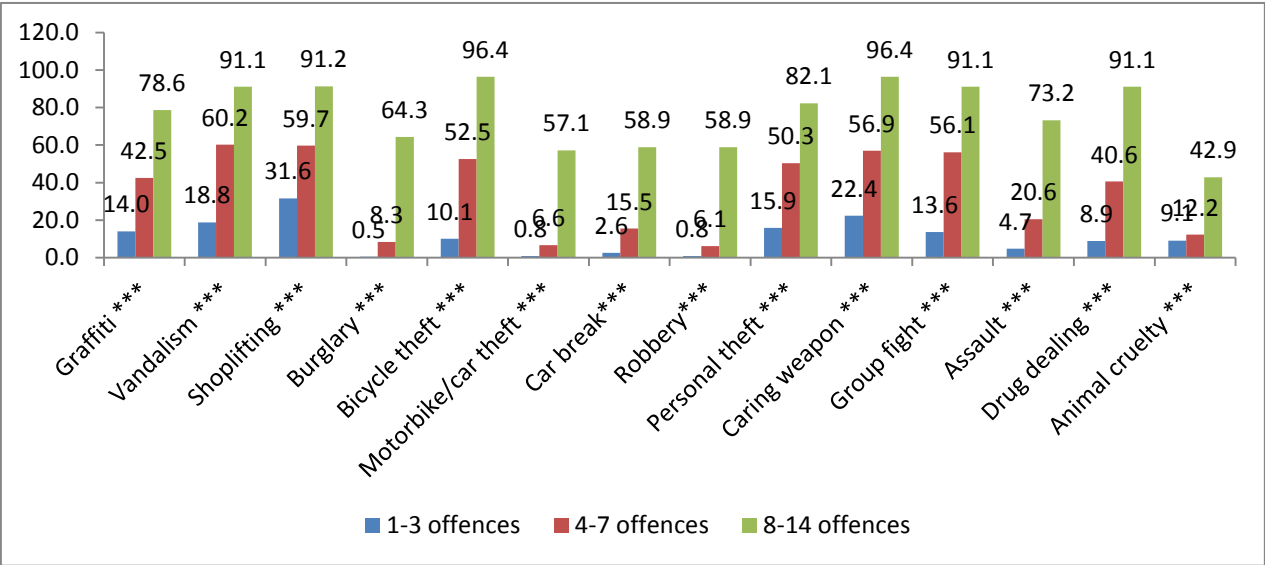
Respondents reporting serious property offences, such as burglary, motorbike/car theft or robbery, are more versatile. For example, two in three who admit having committed at least one

²⁶⁰ Weighted data
²⁶¹ Weighted data

robbery have committed at least 8 further types of offences. On the other hand, carrying a weapon, group fight and animal cruelty are often committed by less versatile (or more “normal”) offenders.

We can look at versatility also from the opposite angle, namely how many low, medium or high versatility offenders have committed at least one of the offences on our list.

Figure 7.5 How many among low/medium/high versatility offenders have committed at least one of the following offences (over the last 12 months)? in %, N=4025-4026.²⁶²



Most offences highly versatile offenders have committed most types of offences on our list. The exception is animal cruelty that is committed only by half of the highly versatile offenders. However, there are some nuances across offences. For example, robbery, burglary and theft of cars/motorbikes is not committed systematically by highly versatile offenders, whereas shoplifting, vandalism, drug dealing, bicycle theft, group fight and carrying weapons is committed by over 90 percent of them.

7.4 Conclusions

Serious juvenile delinquency in Switzerland has a increased since 1992. The Romandie region has higher rates of delinquency, along with urban areas like Zurich and Geneva. St-Gall is the canton with the lowest rates.

Students, who report smaller number of offences, commit usually less serious offences. Overall, offenders are generalists rather than specialists, in the sense that they commit different types of offences. Those who commit different types of offences are consistently committing also more serious offences. In this sense, versatility is a good proxy for seriousness of offending.

²⁶² Weighted data

References:

Killias M., Staubli S., Biberstein L., Bänziger M., Iadanza S. International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) 2010/2011.

<http://krc.ch/de/index.php?a=Research&b=Forschung&c=Abgeschlossene-Forschungsprojekte>

Lanfranconi B., Killias M. “The Crime Drop Discourse – or the Illusion of Uniform Continental Trends: Switzerland as a Contrasting Case”, in J. van Dijk, A. Tseloni & G. Farrell (Eds.), The International Crime Drop. New Directions in Research, Basingstoke (Hampshire, UK): Palgrave-Macmillan 2012, 268-278.

Ribeaud D. & Eisner M. Entwicklung von Gewalterfahrungen Jugendlicher im Kanton Zürich. Oberentfelden: Sauerländer. 2009.

Chapter 8

Contact with the police and perception of the image of the police

8.1 Overview

In the ISRD-3 respondents were asked about experience of contact with police because of doing something illegal; as well as about students' attitude to the police, their assessment of police's work and image of the police. The questionnaire includes 8 questions and 10 variables (modules 7 and 10 and about the police). Only 9th grade students were asked to answer these question.

This chapter includes analyses of demographic factors influencing attitudes to the police and information on how different attitudes to police are associated with delinquency.

8.2 Experience with and attitudes to the police

8.2.1 Attitudes across regions

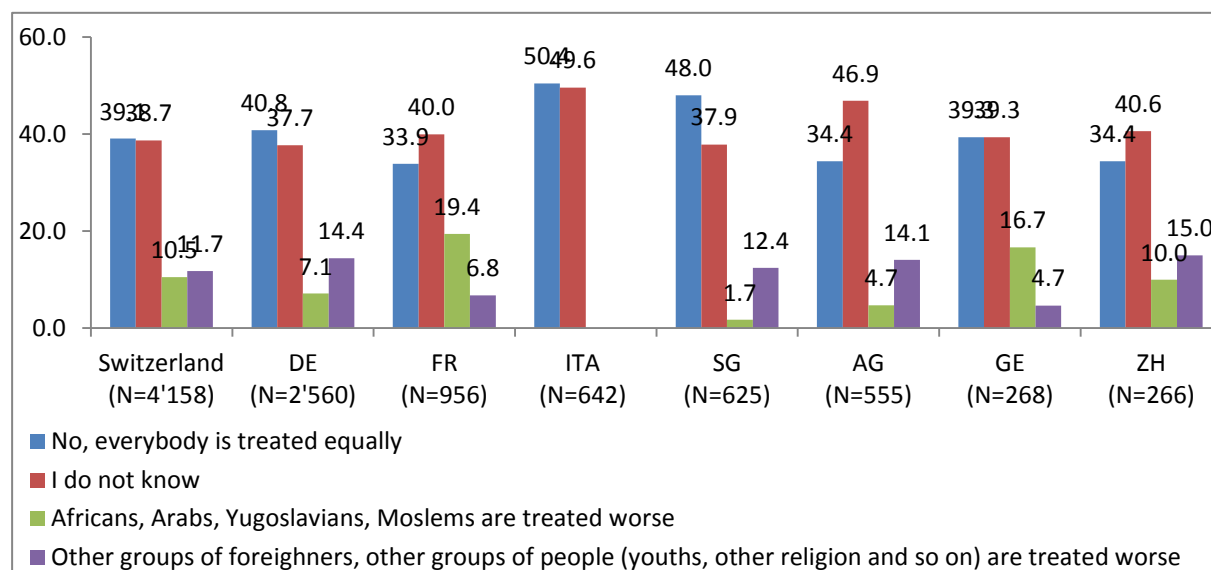
8.2.1.1 The prevalence of contact with police because of illegal behaviour

Most respondents had some police contact at least once during their life-time, but few (roughly 8 per cent) had so over the last year. There is fairly little difference across regions.

8.2.1.2 Opinion of young people about the police

Several questions were asked regarding views about the police and police work, including illegal or unfaithful behaviour on the side of police officers. The findings certainly do not necessarily reflect real experiences, but give an idea about what young people of 15-16 years think about the police.

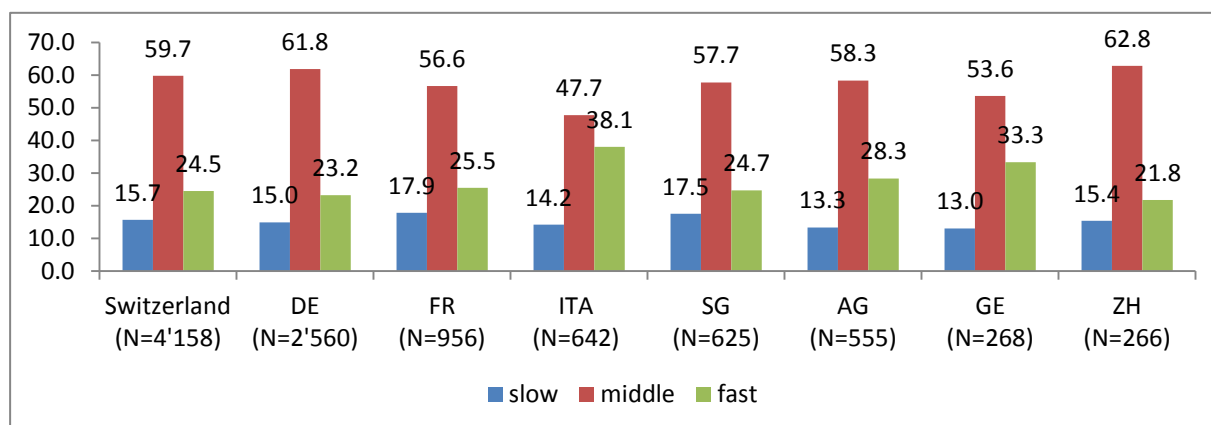
Figure 8.1 When victims report an offence to the police, police treat all groups equally, by main and subsamples, in %.²⁶³



Overall, about two in five students think the police treat everybody the same way if a victim comes to report a crime. However, there is some variation across the country. Ticino youths are almost unanimous at considering police behaviour as egalitarian, whereas in French-speaking cantons, as well as in Aargau and Zurich, many students claim not being able to say. If discriminatory behaviour is anticipated, it is so mostly against Africans, Arabs, citizens of former Yugoslavia, or Muslims in general.

A further question concerned presumed responsiveness in case of an emergency call. As an example, burglary was presented.

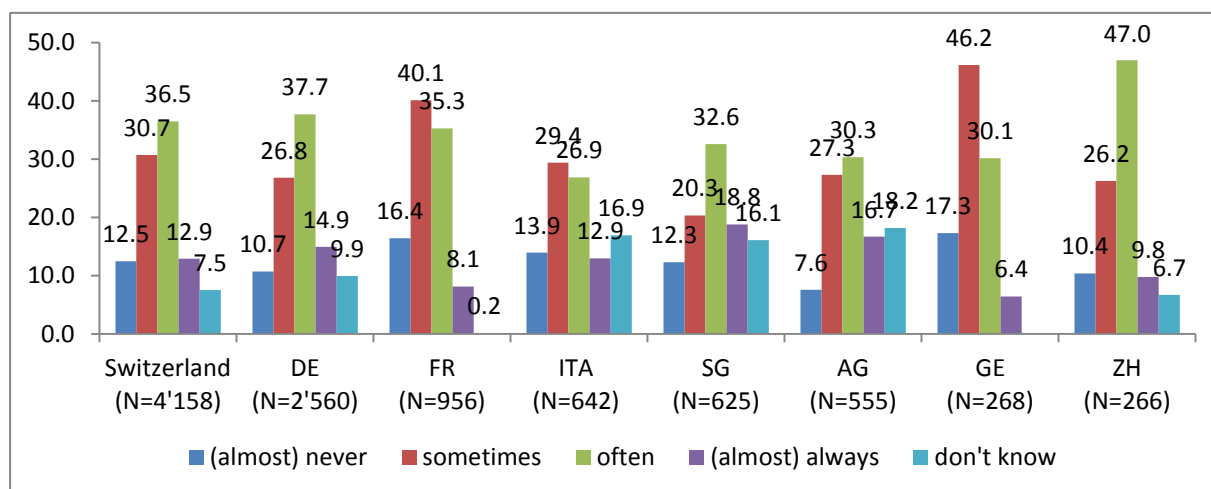
Figure 8.2 “If burglary was committed, how quickly police would arrive?” by main and different subsamples by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁴



Most students assessed speed, with which police would arrive at the scene of burglary, as “middle” in almost in all regions.

The next questions were about police attitudes towards young people in general.

Figure 8.3 “Would you say that police generally treat young people with respect?” by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁵

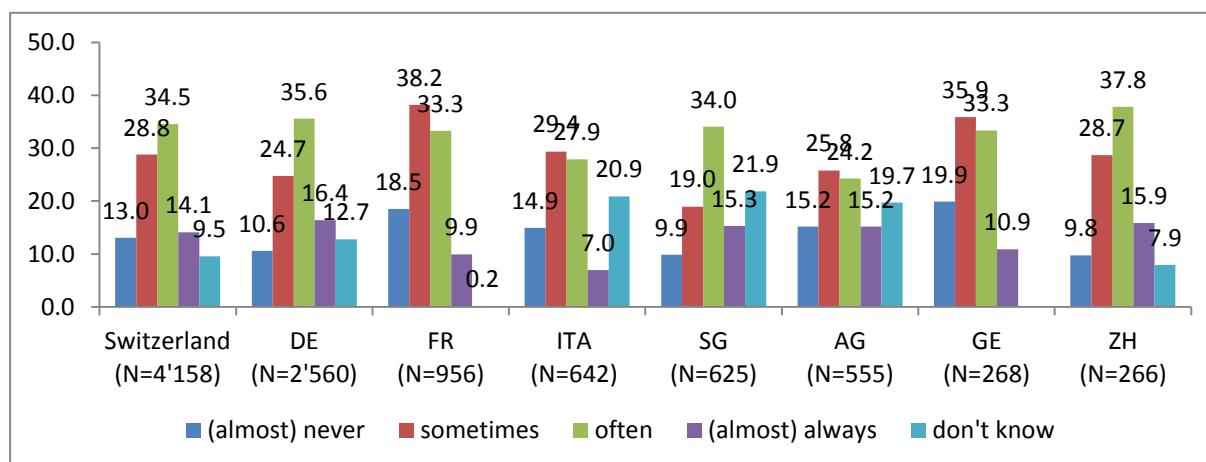


Overall, nearly half of respondents reported that police treat young people “often” or “always” with respect. More than 10 per cent say that respect for young people can (almost) never be expected. There is some variation across the country, critical attitudes being the most frequently expressed by students from Latin cantons including Geneva.

²⁶⁴ Weighted data

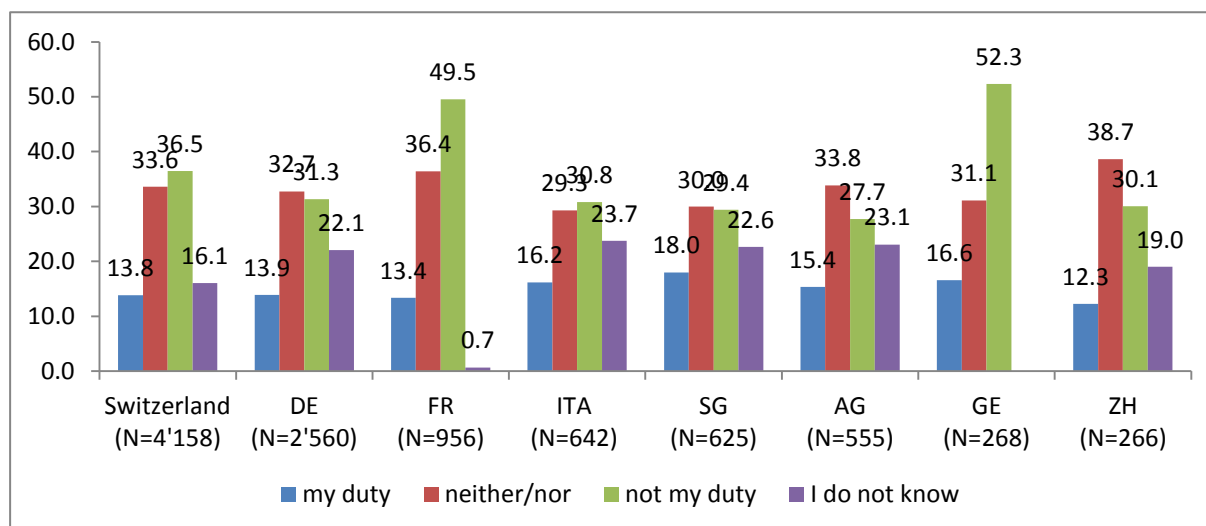
²⁶⁵ Weighted data

Figure 8.4 How often police explains their decisions and actions to young people by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁶



According to about half of our respondents, police explain their decisions and actions often or always. Again, attitudes are more critical in this respect in Latin cantons and in Geneva. Given the urban background of Zurich, it is remarkable that the Zurich police is rated relatively favourably across these different dimensions.

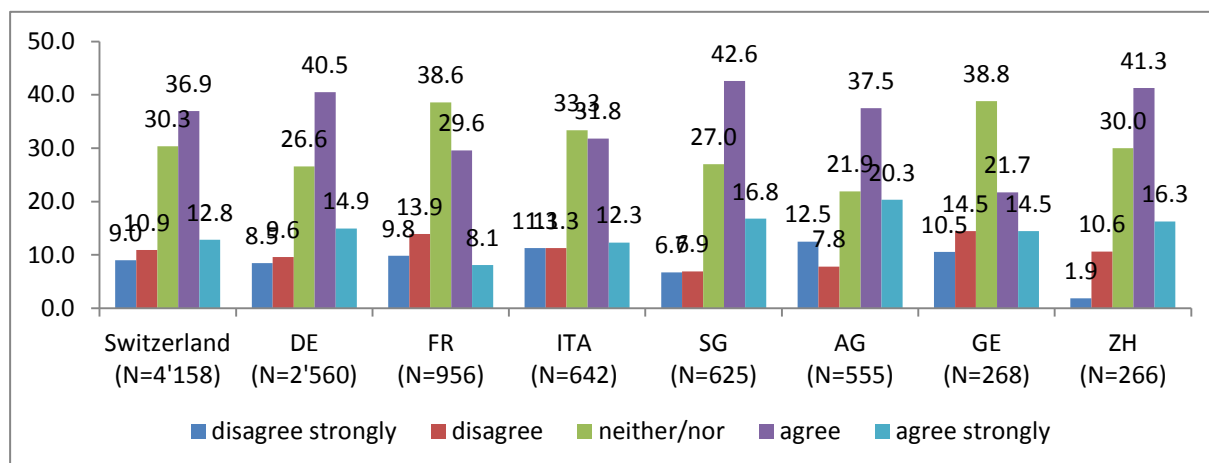
Figure 8.5 “How you think about your duty towards the police: To what extent is it your duty to do what the police tell you, even if you don’t understand or agree with the reasons?” by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁷



266 Weighted data
267 Weighted data

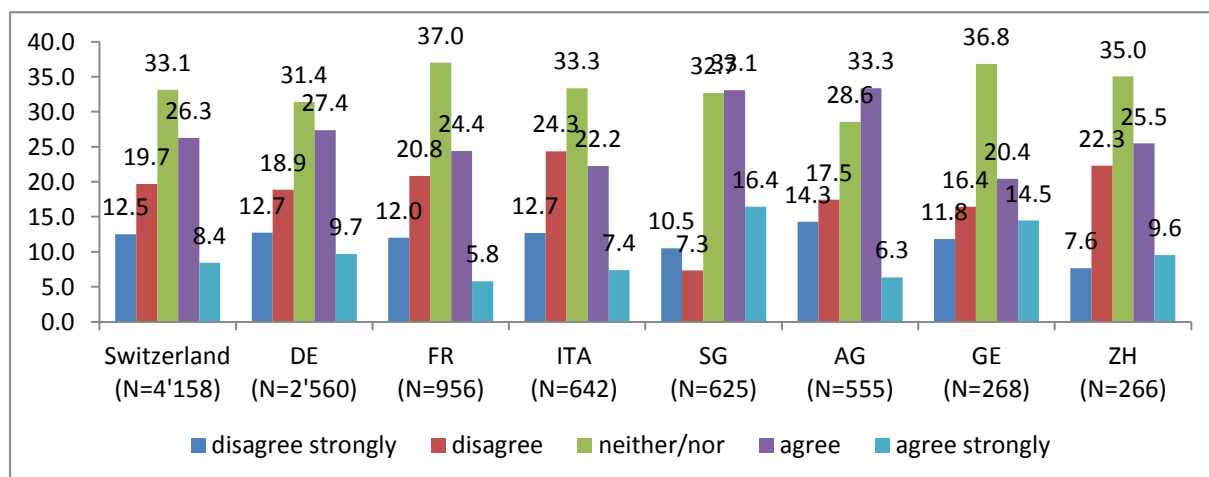
Roughly two in five respondents accept as their duty to do what the police tell them to do. Interestingly, given the more critical attitudes, in Latin cantons, this proportion is highest in French-speaking cantons including Geneva.

Figure 8.6 “Police has the same sense of right/wrong as I do” (Agree/disagree) by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁸



Overall, about half of respondents feel that the police share the same sense of right and wrong as they do. Agreement is lower among students in French-speaking cantons and in Geneva. Again, the contrast between Geneva and Zurich/St. Gallen is remarkable.

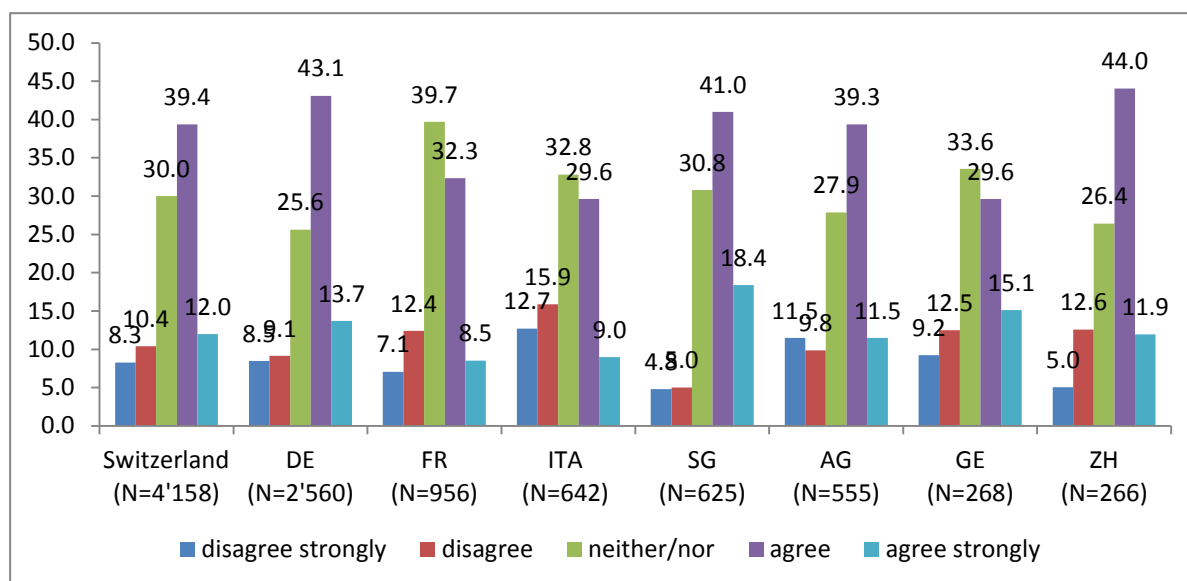
Figure 8.7 “Police are appreciative of how young people think” (agree/disagree) by main and subsamples in %.²⁶⁹



²⁶⁸ Weighted data
²⁶⁹ Weighted data

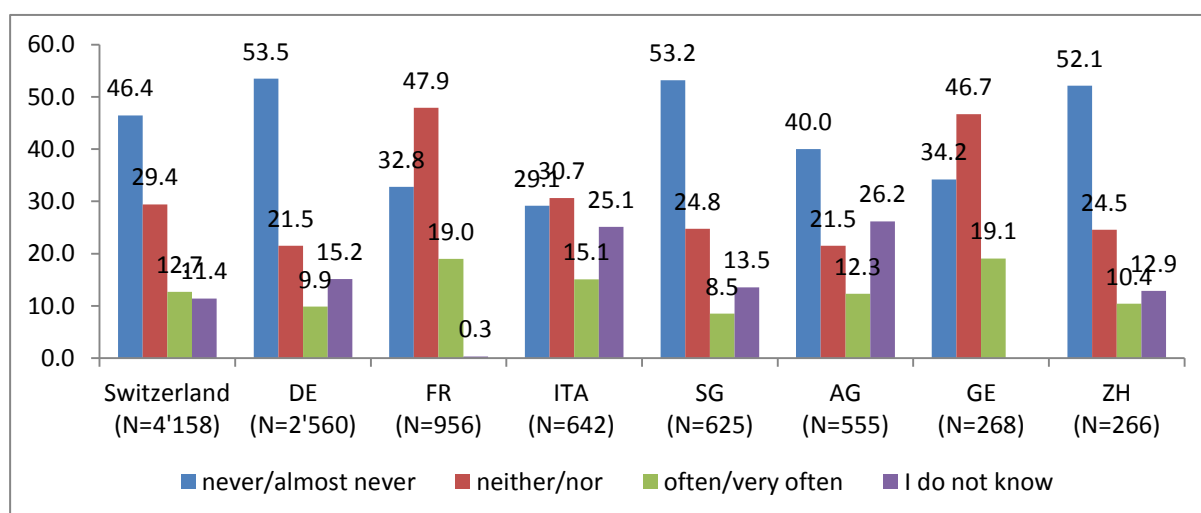
Opinions on whether or not the police are appreciative of how young people think do not differ much across regions.

Figure 8.8 “I support how police act” (agree/disagree) by main and subsamples in %.²⁷⁰



Overall, about half of respondents support how the police act. Support is lower in Latin cantons and in Geneva, but explicit disagreement does not vary much across regions.

Figure 8.9 How often police takes bribes by main and subsamples in %.²⁷¹



270 Weighted data

271 Weighted data

Nearly half of students say the police never take bribes. There is, however, considerable variation across the country, with more respondents suspecting the police to take bribes in Latin cantons.

8.2.2 Opinion of young people about the police by gender

Boys and girls do not differ much regarding perceived egalitarian vs. racist attitudes, as the following Table 8.1 illustrates. None of the differences is significant.

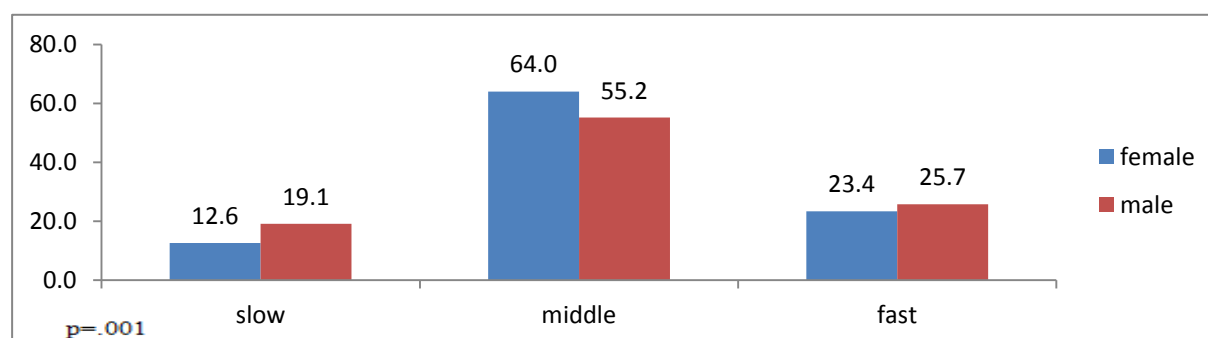
Table 8.1 “When victim reports to police, police treats all groups equally” by gender in %, N=1296.²⁷²

	No, everybody is treated equally*	I do not know*	No, police is biased against africans, arabs, yugoslavians, moslems*	Other groups of people: foreigners, youths, people from other religions and so on*
Male	39.0	35.6	12.5	12.9
Female	39.1	41.6	8.7	10.6
Chi-Square	.029			

*These groups were obtained by recoding of the opened answer of the question 10.1 “When victims report crimes to the police, do you think the police treat people of different races, different ethnic groups, or of foreign origin equally?”

However, as the following Figures illustrate, boys tend to be far more critical about the police than girls.

Figure 8.10 “If burglary was committed, how quickly police would arrive?” by gender in %, N=1233.²⁷³



272 Weighted data
273 Weighted data

Figure 8.11 “Would you say the police generally treat young people with respect?” by gender in %, N=1357.²⁷⁴

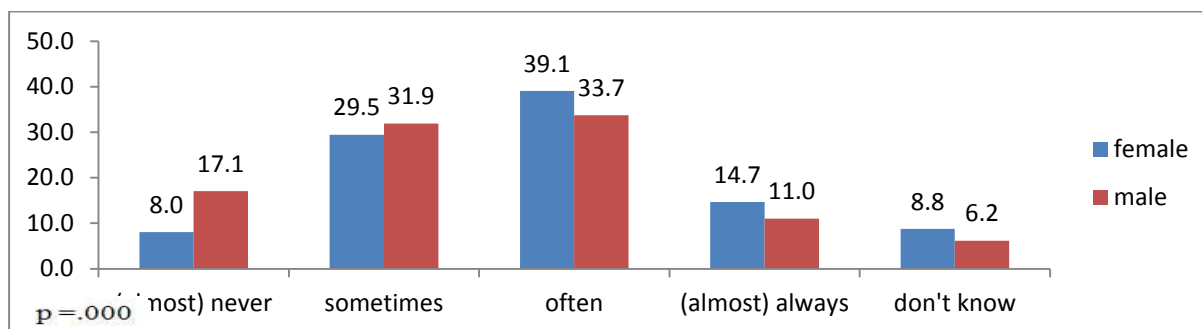
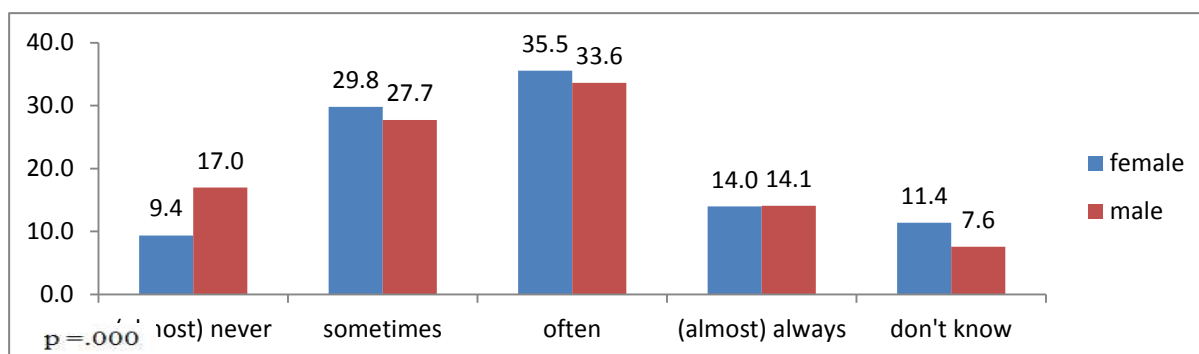
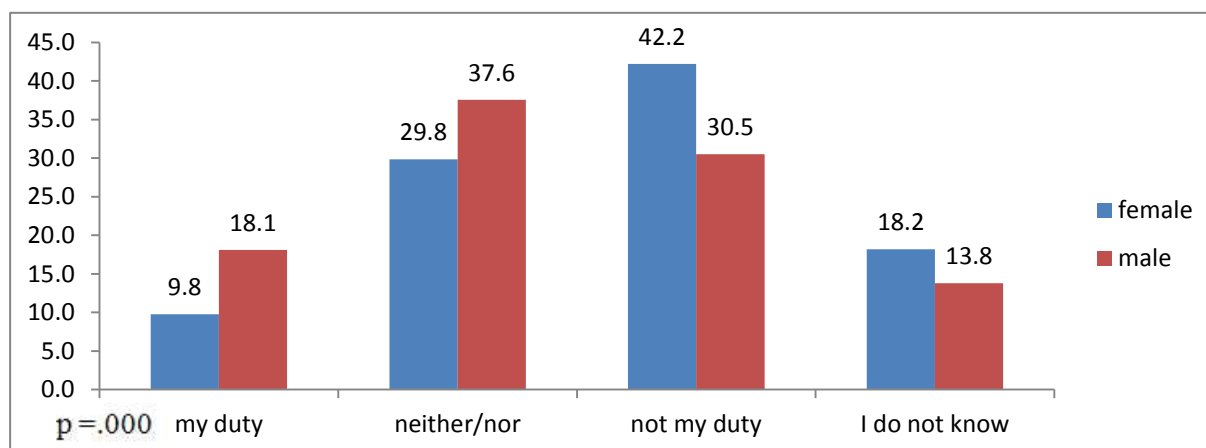


Figure 8.12 “How often the police explain their decisions and actions to young people?” by gender in %, N=1355.²⁷⁵



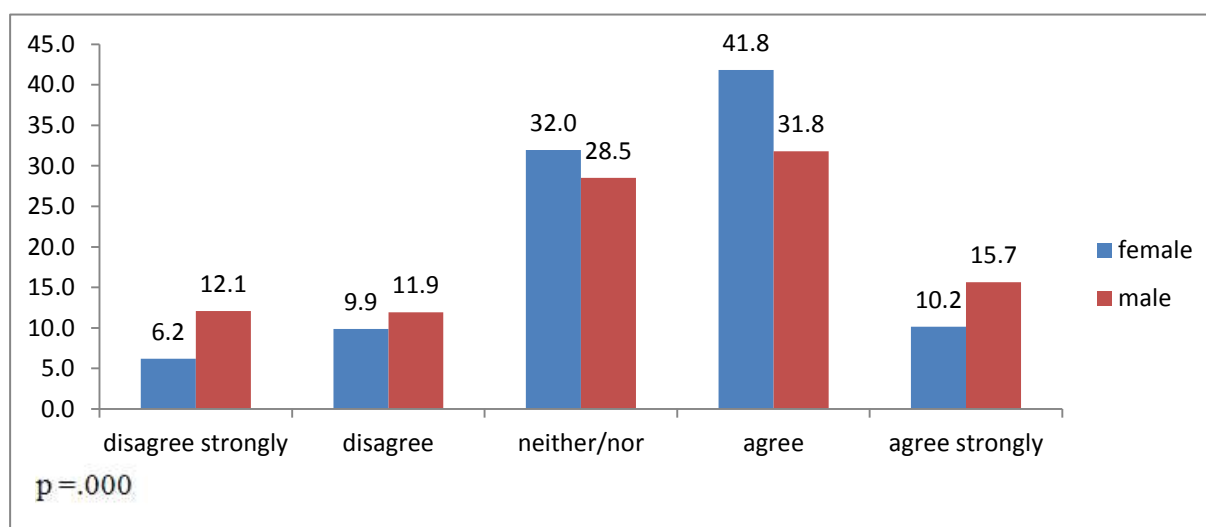
274 Weighted data
275 Weighted data

Figure 8.13 “How you think about your duty towards the police?” by gender in %, N=1339.²⁷⁶



Males do twice as often not consider it to be their duty to do what the police tell them to do than females.

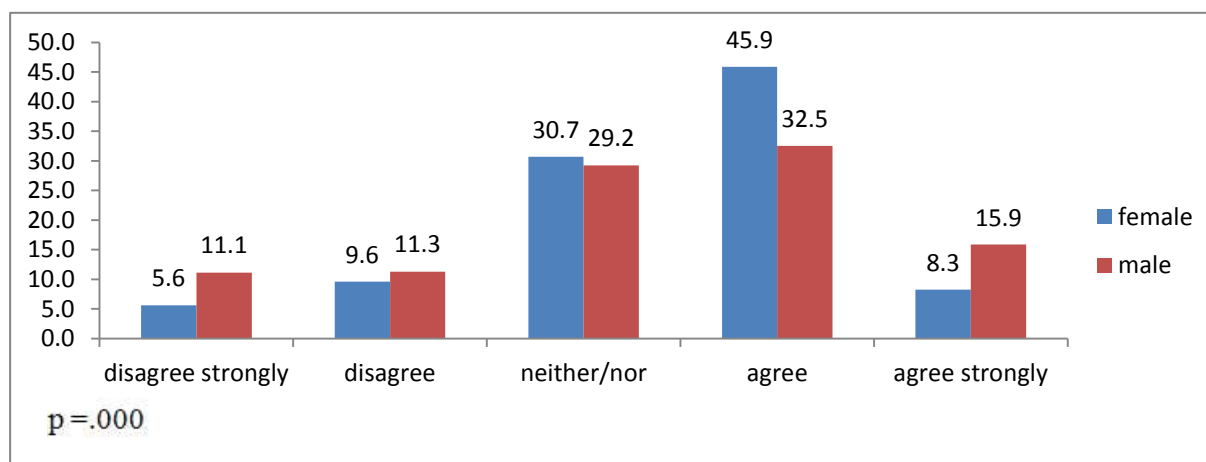
Figure 8.14 “The police has the same sense of right/wrong as I do (agree/disagree)” by gender in %, N=1324.²⁷⁷



Boys and girls do not differ much in their perception of police values, but boys tend to express more extreme judgments (in either way).

276 Weighted data
277 Weighted data

Figure 8.15 “I generally support how the police usually act (agree/disagree)” by gender in %, N=1315.²⁷⁸



Boys and girls, once more, do not differ much overall, but boys' judgments are more extreme.

The questions on police corruption did not significantly differentiate between girls and boys.

8.2.2 *Opinion of young people about the police by respondents' birthplace*

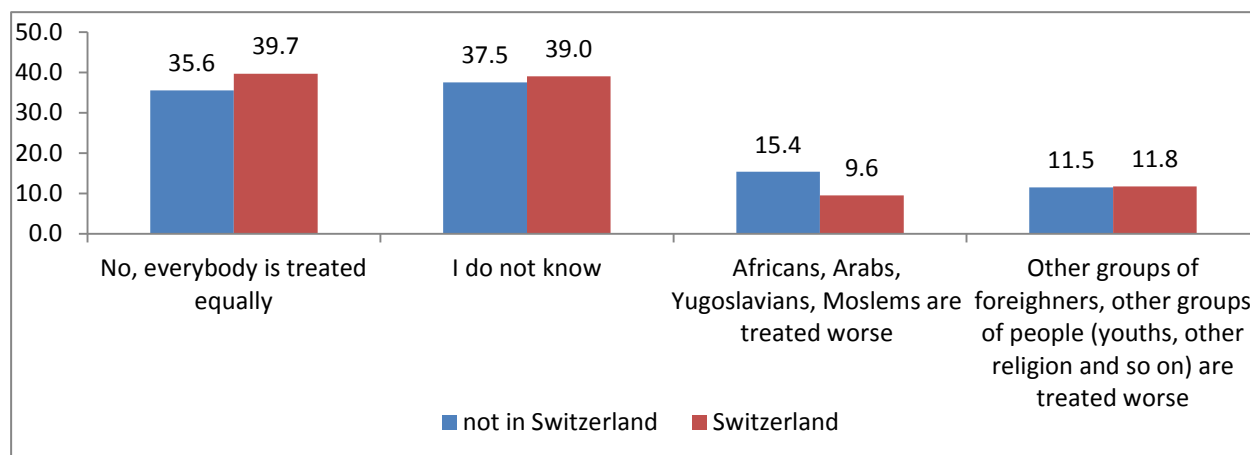
Attitudes towards the police are often a source of worry when it comes to ethnicity. In many countries, immigrant youths are said having particularly bad views about the police. In Switzerland, this did not hold true for the general (adult) population, as several Swiss Crime surveys have allowed to discover (Killias, Haymoz&Lamon 2007, 92). It has not been studied in detail, however, to what extent this holds true also for juveniles.

In the present study, ethnicity has been measured by questions concerning birthplace (country of origin) of respondents and their fathers/mothers, rather than by asking about nationality. This was the only way the ISRD Steering Committee could think of that might work in some 30 countries around the globe. In connection with attitudes towards the police, respondents' birthplace turned out to be more important than the country of origin of their parents. We shall, therefore, focus on respondent's birthplace in this section.

Overall, respondents born abroad tend to be more critical about the police. This might to some extent be due to higher involvement in delinquency, as shown in Chapter 7. It will be most interesting to see, when the results from other countries become available, whether attitudes among immigrant youths in Switzerland differ from those expressed by juveniles in other countries.

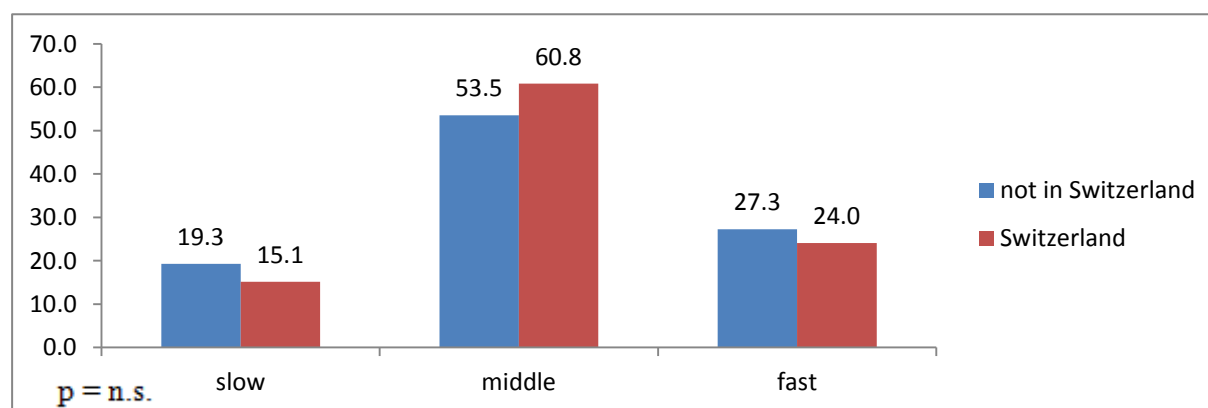
²⁷⁸ Weighted data

Figure 8.16 “When victims report crimes to the police, do you think the police treat people of different races, different ethnic groups, or of foreign origin equally?” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N=1296.²⁷⁹



Students born in Switzerland are more likely to report that police treats all people equally. However, the differences are not that large – Swiss respondents more often indicate “not to know”, due probably to lack of relevant experience.

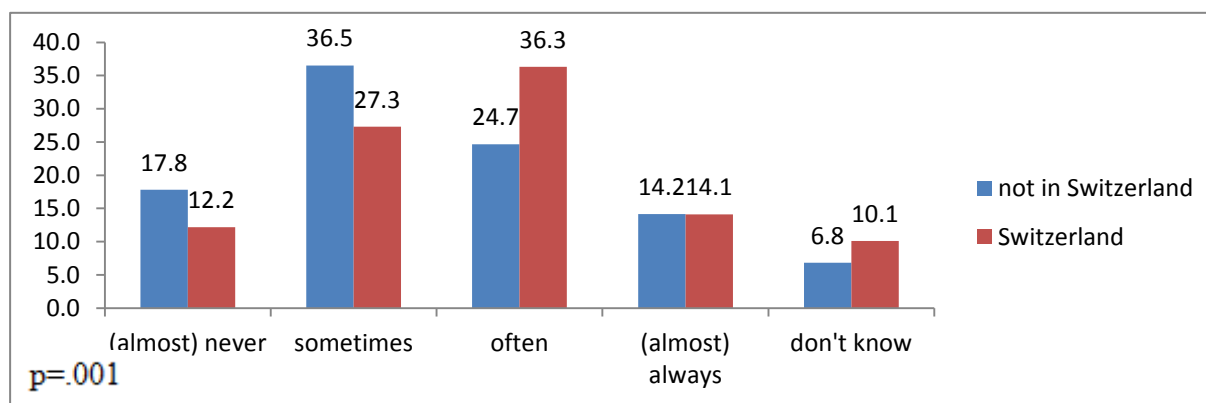
Figure 8.17 “If a violent crime or a burglary happened near where you live and the police were called, how quickly do you think they will arrive at the scene?” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N=1231.²⁸⁰



Respondents born abroad more often say the police would come slowly if a violent crime or a burglary happened.

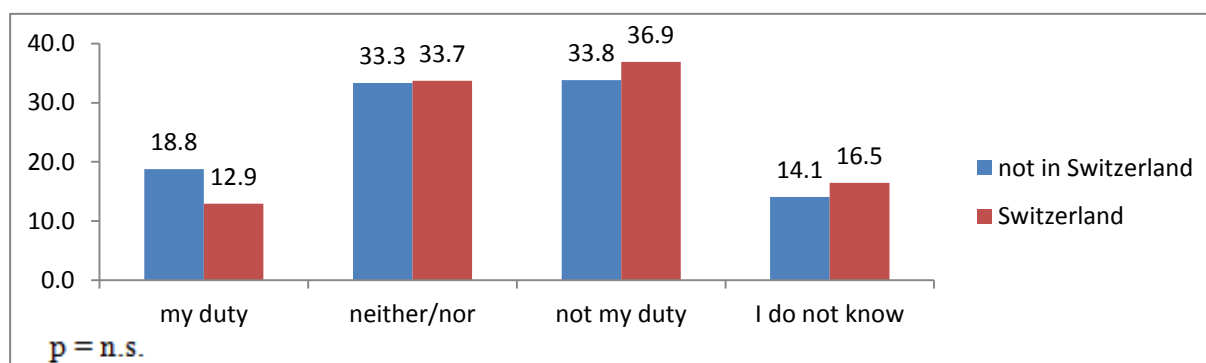
279 Weighted data
280 Weighted data

Figure 8.18 “How often would you say the police explain their decisions and actions to young people?” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N=1354.²⁸¹



Respondents born in Switzerland are more likely to report that police often and very often explain their decisions and actions to young people.

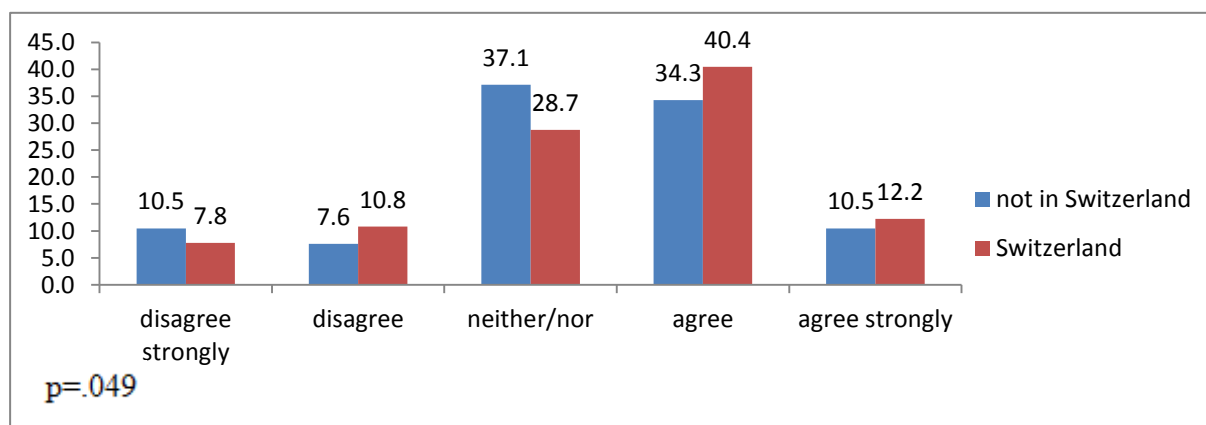
Figure 8.19 “How you think about your duty towards the police?” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N= 1337.²⁸²



Respondents born abroad are less likely to consider having the duty to do what the police tell them to do.

281 Weighted data
282 Weighted data

Figure 8.20 “I generally support how the police usually act” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N=1313.²⁸³



Students born abroad are less likely to support how the police usually act.

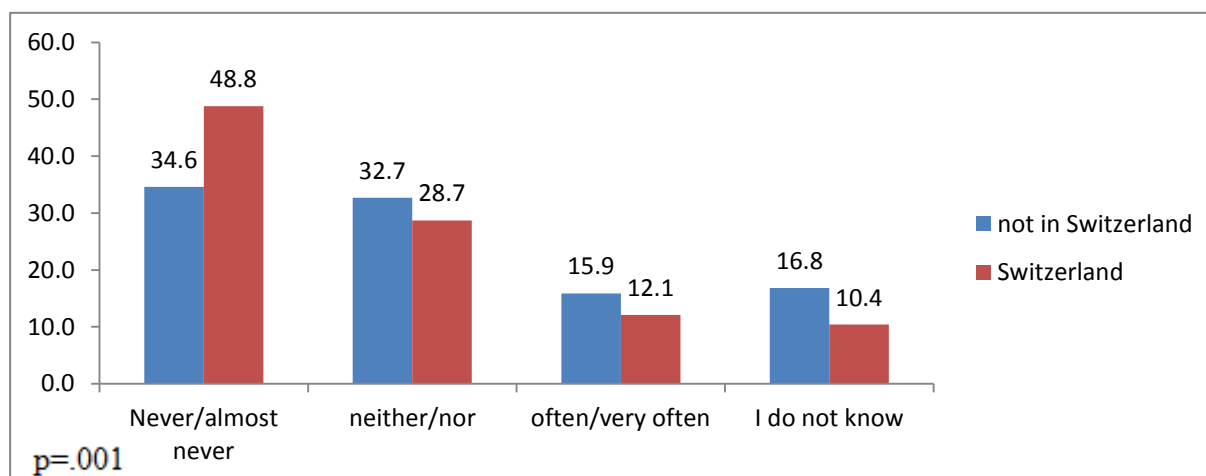
In many of these comparisons, the differences are, although significant, not that strong. It is, therefore, noteworthy that several attitude questions did not produce significant differences. This has been the case for the following items:

- “Police generally have the same sense of right and wrong as I do” (p=.540)
- “The police are appreciative of how young people think” (p=.509)
- “Would you say the police generally treat young people with respect?” (p=.377)

Regarding police corruption, it is somewhat disturbing that quite a few respondents, both from immigrant and Swiss background, think the police were taking bribes. Given Switzerland’s scores in all international comparisons, this comes as a surprise and presumably shows that preconceptions in this field may be more important than concrete experience. Unfortunately and for reasons related to the sensitive aspect of this theme in many countries, no question as to concrete experiences with paying bribes, or being requested to do so, could be included in the questionnaire.

²⁸³ Weighted data

Figure 8.21 “Do you think the police take bribes, and if yes, often?” by respondents’ birthplace in %, N=1339.²⁸⁴



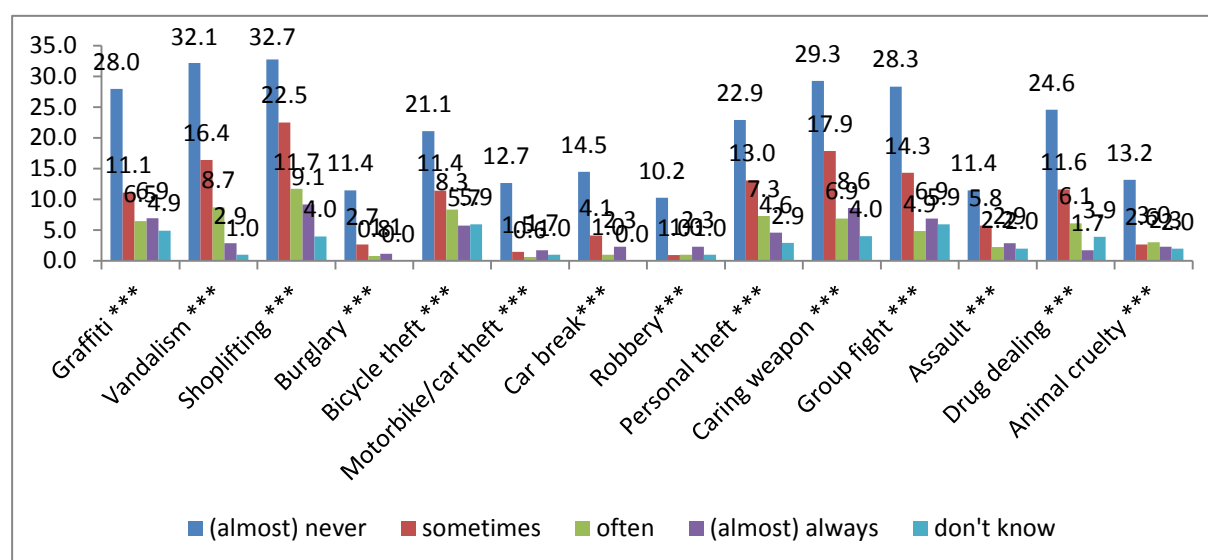
Respondents born in Switzerland are more likely to think that police never or almost never take bribes. Students born abroad have more neutral position or answer that police take bribes often or very often. That immigrant youths are more often inclined to suspect the police to be corrupt may, to some extent, eventually be related to their own experience in their respective countries of origin. As Crime Surveys conducted in Switzerland allowed to discover, corruption is, for the Swiss general (adult) population, mostly an experience lived abroad (Killias, Haymoz&Lamon 2007, 57).

284 Weighted data

8.2.3 Opinion of young people about the police by delinquency (last year prevalence)

Attitudes towards the police are associated with delinquency. Given the cross-sectional design of ISRD, we cannot say, however, whether negative feelings about the police favor delinquency, or whether, the other way around, delinquents have less positive attitudes towards police officers. Both explanations are, at first glance, equally plausible.

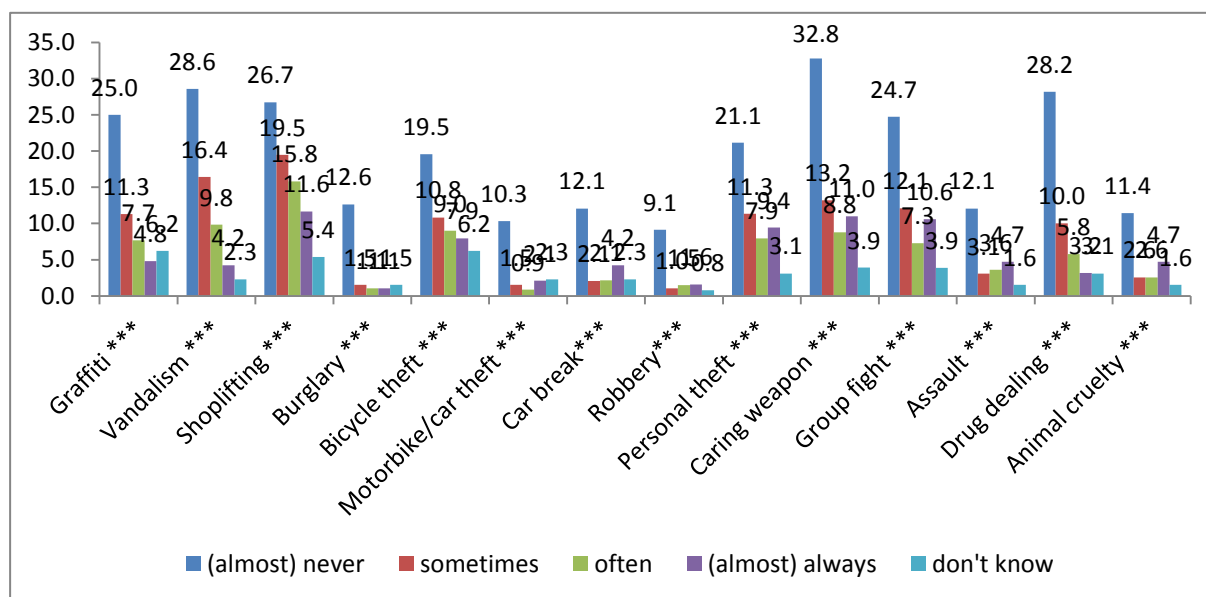
Figure 8.22 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Would you say the police generally treat young people with respect?” in %, N=1347-1355.²⁸⁵



Respondents, who report that police never or almost never treat young people with respect, are more likely to commit an offence.

²⁸⁵ Weighted data

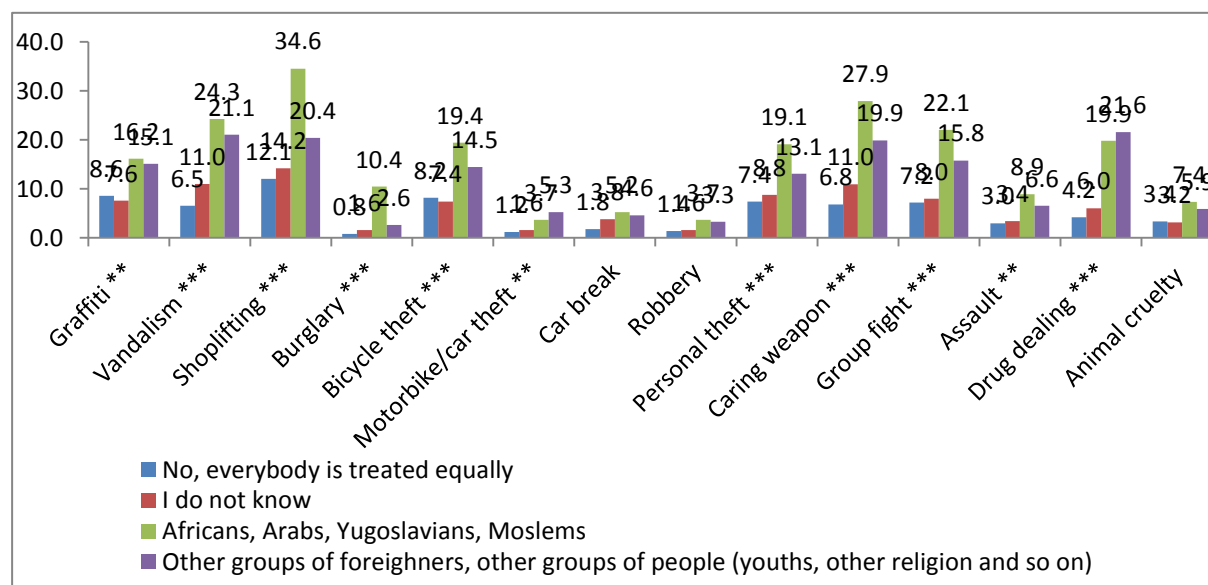
Figure 8.23 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by how often police explains their decisions and actions to young people in %, N=1347-1353.²⁸⁶



Students, who say that police never or almost never explain their decisions and actions to young people, are more likely to commit any type of offence. The same pattern is visible throughout the following Figures.

²⁸⁶ Weighted data

Figure 8.24 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “When victim reports to police, police treats all groups equally” in %, N=1286-1292 ²⁸⁷

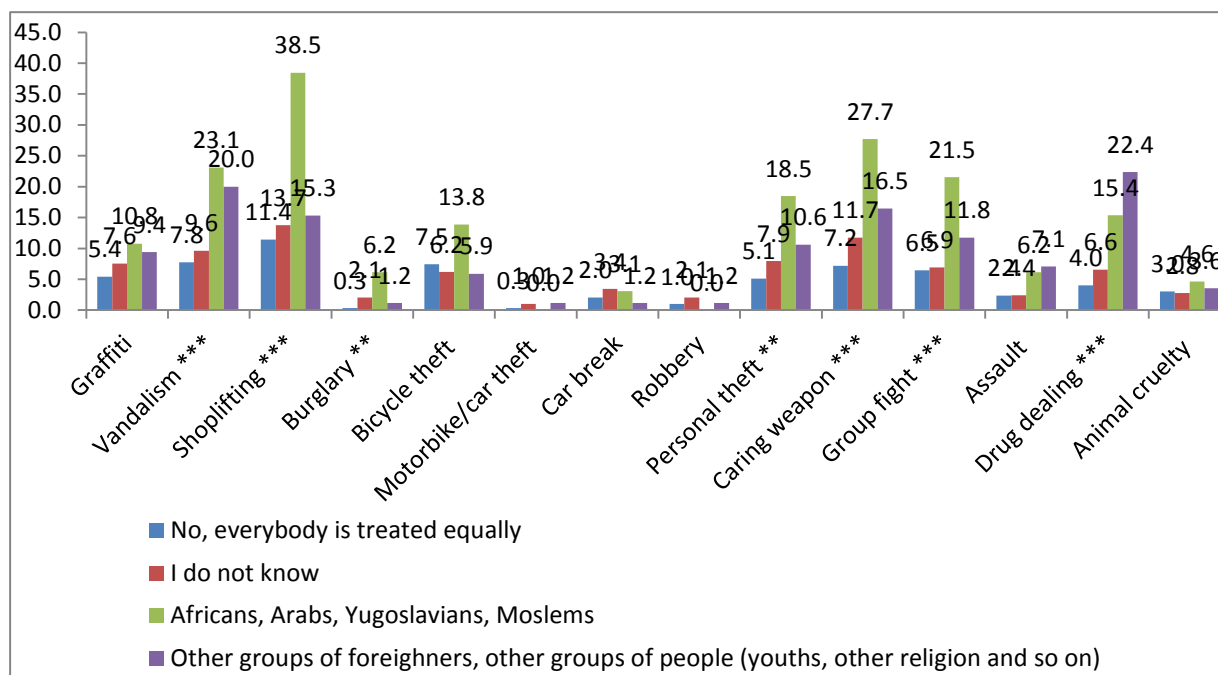


Students, who report that police treat Africans, Arabs, citizens of former Yugoslavia and Muslims less favourably, commit more offences. For all offences, those who perceive no discriminatory attitude on the side of the police have the lowest offending rates.

The interesting question is whether this effect is different for Swiss and for immigrant respondents. Given that only 9th-grade students answered to these questions and that the national sample is smaller in this chapter, we use in the following two Figures mother's background as a proxy for nationality. Indeed, more mothers (344) were born abroad than fathers (325) and respondents (134).

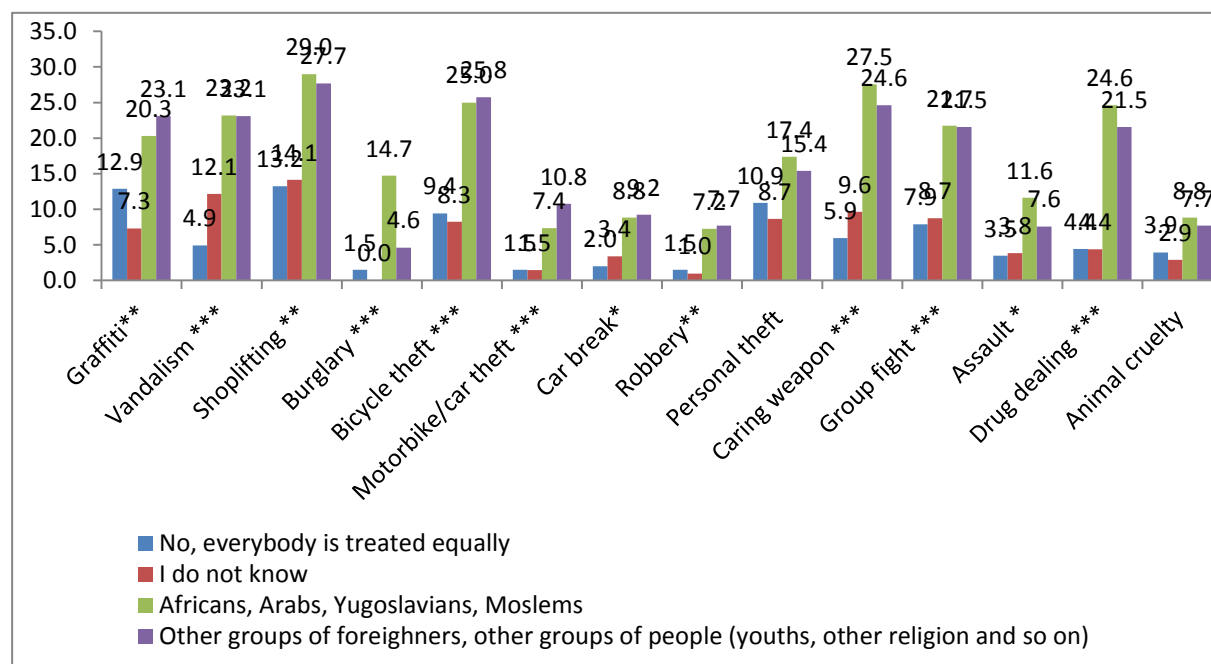
²⁸⁷ Weighted data

Figure 8.25 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “When victim reports to police, police treat all groups equally” if mothers were born in Switzerland in %, N=732-737.²⁸⁸



²⁸⁸ Weighted data

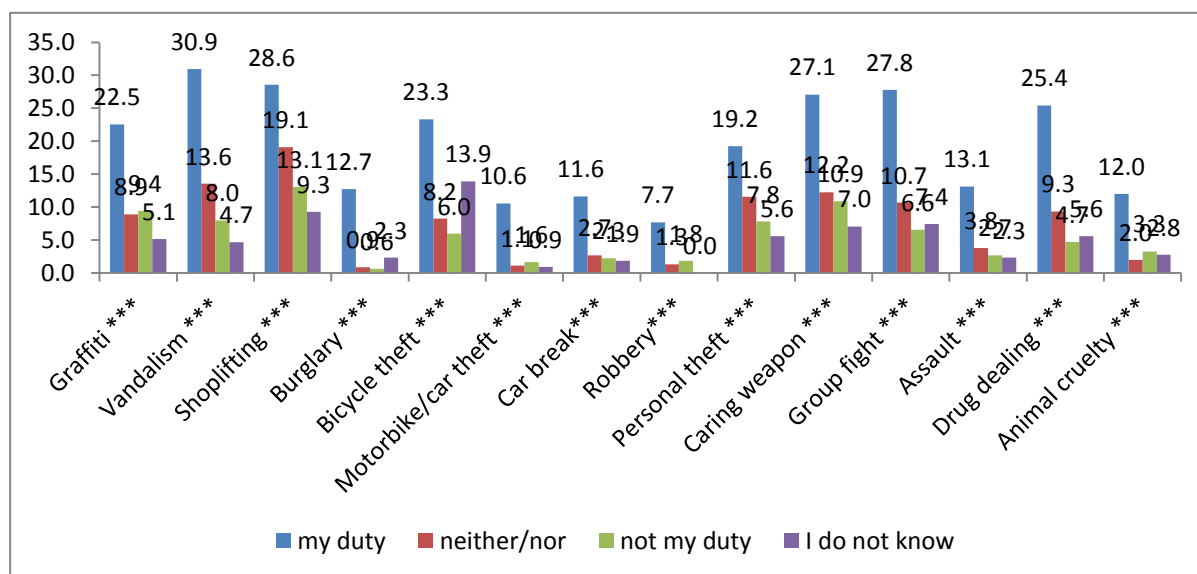
Figure 8.26 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “When victim reports to police, police treats all groups equally” if mothers were born abroad in %, N=540-544.²⁸⁹



The pattern is basically the same for respondents born in Switzerland and born abroad. However, seeing the police as biased against immigrants is less clearly associated with delinquency among respondents with a foreign-born mother. It could be that seeing the police as biased against certain ethnic groups is more related to an immigrant background as such rather than to delinquency, as it typically is among Swiss respondents.

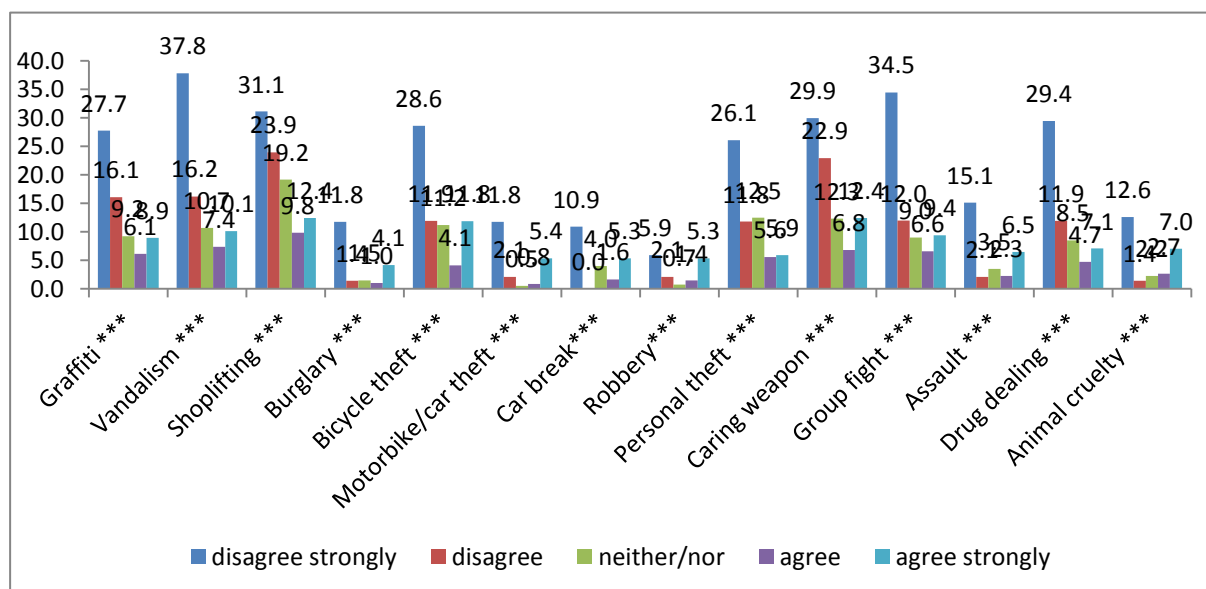
²⁸⁹ Weighted data

Figure 8.27 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Duty to do what police tells you to do even if you do not understand or agree” in %, N=1331-1337.²⁹⁰



A more critical attitude towards the police goes along, once more, with higher rates of delinquency. The same is true for the following Figures.

Figure 8.28 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Police has the same sense of right/wrong as I do (agree/disagree)” in %, N=1315-1323.²⁹¹



290 Weighted data

291 Weighted data

Figure 8.29 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “Police are appreciative of how young people think (agree/disagree)” in %, N=1305-1312.²⁹²

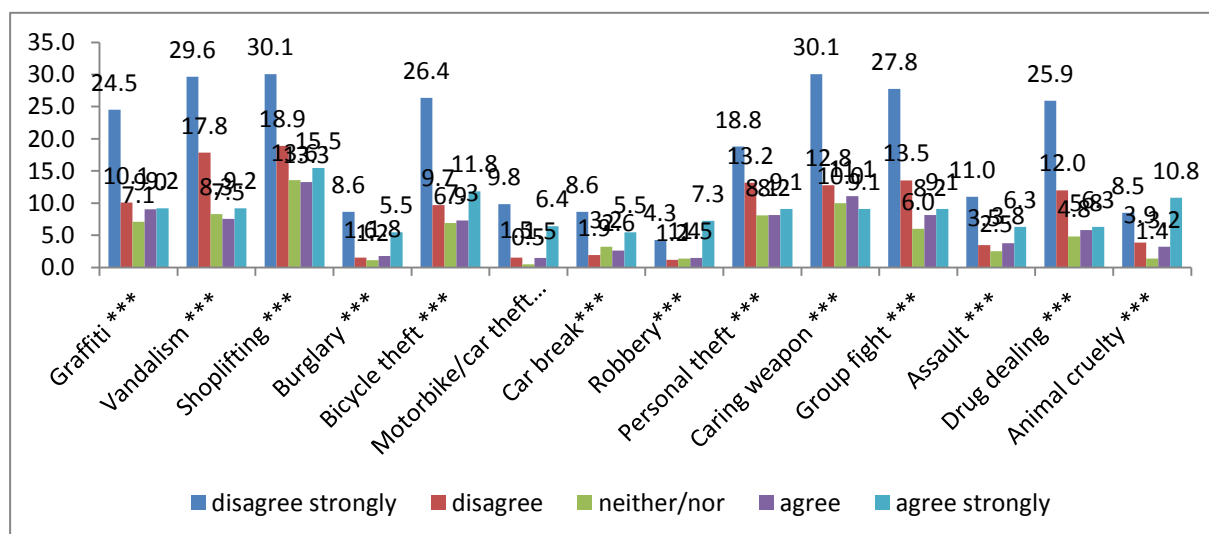
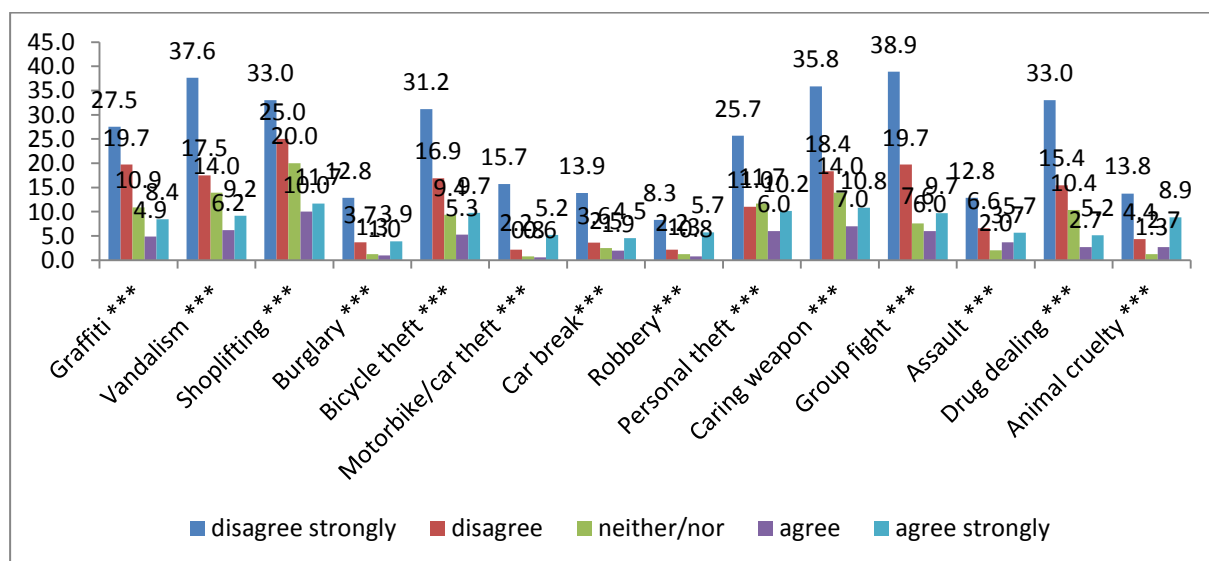


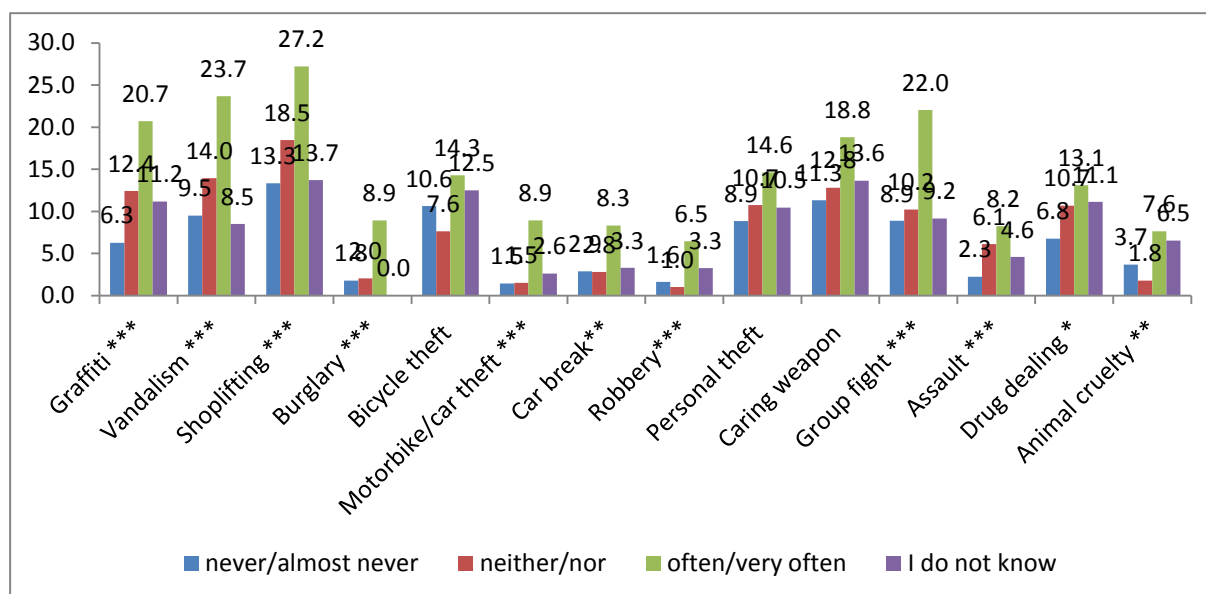
Figure 8.30 Delinquency (last year) by “I support how police act (agree/disagree)” in %, N=1306-1314.²⁹³



Delinquency rates are also higher among respondents who see the police as corrupt. Indeed, perceived delinquency among those who are in charge of maintaining public order certainly is directly threatening the legitimacy of such an institution.

292 Weighted data
293 Weighted data

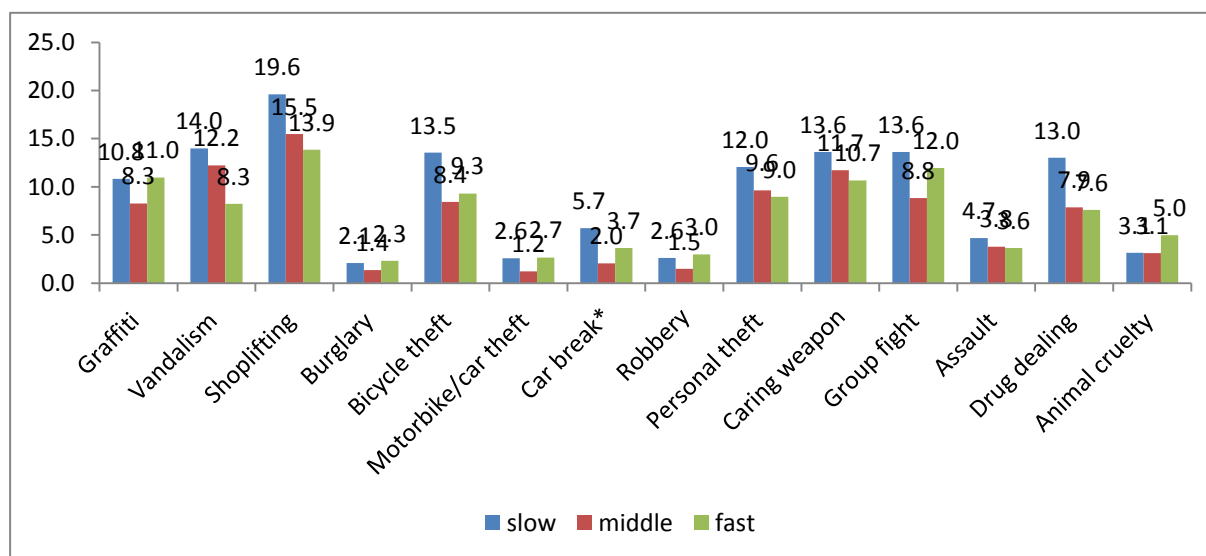
Figure 8.31 Delinquency by perceived police corruption (“Do you think the police take bribes, and if yes, how often?”) in %, 1332-1339.²⁹⁴



Contrary to misbehavior among police officers, the feeling that their efficiency as an organization is less than perfect is less clearly associated with delinquency, as the following Figure illustrates.

²⁹⁴Weighted data

Figure 8.32 Delinquency (last year prevalence) by “If burglary was committed, how quickly police would arrive?” in %, N=1225-1234.²⁹⁵



Students, who say that police would arrive slowly to a crime scene are more likely to commit offences of all sorts. However, the differences are somewhat less pronounced than in the preceding Figures. This could be related to the fact that lack of efficacy is less considered as a kind of a “moral” defect.

8.3 Conclusion

Attitudes towards the police are relatively positive overall. However, there are a few remarkable regional differences. In the Romandie cantons and especially in Geneva, attitudes are more critical towards the police than in German-speaking Switzerland. This may, to some extent, be due to the higher proportion of immigrants in French-speaking cantons where more than 50 per cent of parents of respondents were actually born abroad (see Chapter 1).

Noteworthy is the consistently positive view of the police in Zurich, given the highly urbanized environment. Girls see the police more favorably than boys.

Students born in Switzerland have more positive views about the police.

Positive attitude towards the police goes along with lower rates of delinquency. It is not clear whether delinquency is an outcome of negative feelings about the police, or whether delinquent involvement and, therefore, probably more contacts with the police as a suspect produce negative feelings.

References:

Killias M., Haymoz S., Lamon P. *Swiss Crime Survey*. Die Kriminalität in der Schweiz im Lichte der Opferbefragung von 1984 bis 2005. Bern: Stämpfli Verlag AG, 2007. 179p.

Chapter 9

Technical Report

9.1 Background

The first juvenile self-reported delinquency survey conducted in Switzerland with a national sample took place in 1992, when the country participated in the first International Self-Reported juvenile Delinquency project (ISRD-1). The second juvenile self-reported delinquency survey took place in 2006, where more than 3'500 male and female juveniles attending the 7th – 9th grades in 20 cantons participated. Since then no national surveys were conducted, but some cantonal or city surveys were carried out (e.g. in the cantons of Zürich, Vaud and St. Gallen). In recent years most of the official measures of crime (police and court statistics) suggest that juvenile delinquency has a tendency of decreasing that contradicts with our results (comparison of the prevalence of the selected offending in 2006 (ISRD-2) and 2013 (ISRD-3). Thus, the current survey is extremely important in order to assess trends in juvenile delinquency at a national level.

9.2 Sample design

The Swiss ISRD-3 involves a national random sample of 2'854 male and female juveniles attending the 7th – 9th grades, which in the Swiss context corresponds to pupils aged mostly 12-16. This sampling procedure was preferred over the city-sampling procedure – used in most of the participating countries – because Switzerland is a small country with approximately 8 million inhabitants²⁹⁶ and does not have any large city but only medium ones (the largest city, Zürich, has a population of 400'000 inhabitants²⁹⁷). The sampling was drawn out of a list given by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office containing all school facilities from the 7th to the 9th grades existing in each Swiss canton. This list also gave information about the number of students per grade, but did not include information about number of classes per grade and type of school²⁹⁸. It did not allow us to make a sample of classes at the very beginning, although the sample unit was class.

The sampling occurred in four steps described below in the following sections.

²⁹⁶ Bevölkerungsstand und struktur.

Schweiz, <http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/themen/01/02/blank/key/alter/gesamt.html>

²⁹⁷ Statistik Stadt Zürich <https://www.stadt-zuerich.ch/prd/de/index/statistik/bevoelkerung/bevoelkerungsstand.html>

²⁹⁸ The types of schools in accordance with: (1) pattern of property (Private/government); (2) pupils' capacities and career-intentions (vary in different cantons).

9.2.1 Step 1: Selection of schools

For the national sample, 3'000 interviews were envisaged. Based on observations made during ISRD-2 in 2006, we presumed that the number of students would be about 19 on average per class. Therefore, it was planned to interview about 160 classes ($3'000 / 19 \sim 160$). Anticipating that about 70 percent of schools would cooperate, we decided to draw a sample of 219 classes.

The Swiss Federal Office of Statistics provided us with a list of schools that was used for the national PISA tests. Out of these, 219 schools were randomly selected. Both private and government schools were taken. Schools for children with special needs and small schools that included only few students per grade were excluded because we could not guarantee the confidentiality of responses in such settings.

9.2.2. Step 2: Collecting information about number of classes in the selected schools

All cantonal Departments of Education were contacted to obtain a complete list of classes per selected school. Information was also obtained from School Internet sites and some school principals. Thus, we gained a list of 2'458 classes nationwide²⁹⁹.

9.2.3. Step 3: Random selection of classes

Out of this list of 2'485 classes, 219 classes were randomly selected. In larger schools, two or more classes were included due to this procedure. These 219 classes belonged to 127 schools. At this stage, four small cantons (UR, NW, SH, JU) dropped out because none of their classes was included in the national sample. The list of classes is given in Attachment 3.

9.2.4. Step 4: Additional sample

In the three cantons that wished to receive in-depth analysis, additional classes were randomly selected to receive final (cantonal) samples of 550 students at least. The oversamples are as follows:

- in the canton of Aargau, 17 classes from 11 schools,
- in the canton of St. Gallen, 26 classes from 12 schools,
- in the canton of Ticino, 22 classes from 14 schools.

9.3 The fieldwork

The fieldwork started by the end of February and ended by the end of November 2013. It was carried out by our research group initially located at the University of Zurich (till June 2013) and later at the University of St. Gallen (from June 2013 till now).

²⁹⁹ decision was made 20.09.2012.

9.3.1. *Contacting schools*

We contacted the Departments of Education in all cantons (see Attachment 9) with the support of the Conference of Cantonal Directors of Education (Konferenz der Kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren EDK), see Attachment 8.

In some cantons we also contacted the schools directly by sending official letters with (1) copies of the letters from the Department of Education supporting the project; (2) letter from the Institute of Criminology of Zürich University asking for their participation with 3 attachments (Instructions for teachers of survey making, Research plan, Informational letter for parents) (see Attachment 5). Our research group made the necessary support by telephone and email, communicated with school principals and single teachers.

9.3.2. *Data collection*

The cooperation of schools in the main sample was about as expected. In the end, 170 out of 219 classes have participated, which leaves a class-based response rate of 77.6% percent. The number of schools that participated is 98 out of 127 (response rate is 77.2%). The response rate at the level of schools and classes is lower in 2013 compared to 2006 when it was 94.5%. The higher drop-out rate can be explained by increasing reservations among school principals about the involvement of schools in research projects.

In case of declining participation schools were replaced (the table is below) if time constraints allowed to do so. The list of replacements is given in Table 9.1. Schools could not be replaced if we were informed about their refusal after May 2013.

Table 9.1 List of substituted schools

<i>Date</i>	<i>Originally sampled school</i>	<i>Substituted school</i>	<i>Canton</i>
26.02.2013	Schule Liestal BL	Rudolf Steiner Schule Birseck	BL
26.02.2013	Real, Sekundar, Berufswahlschule, Kleinklasse der Orientierungsschule, Neuendorf	Schulanlage, Boswil	AG
26.02.2013	Kollegium Spiritus, Brig-Gris, VS	Orientierungsschule, Gampel	VS
28.02.2013	Bern Munzinger	Ecolesecondaire, Courtelary	BE
28.02.2013	Grenchen Schulhaus III	Oberstufenhaus, Niedergösgen	SO
09.04.2013	Oberstufenschule Aeschi-Krattigen,	Täuffelen, Oberstufenzentrum	BE

No school refused in the cantons of AI, LU, SG, GL, OW, BL, GR, NE, TI, AR; 100% of the selected classes were surveyed. In the cantons of AG, FR, VD, BE, TG, SO, ZH and GE, more than ½ of sampled classes finally participated. The lowest response rate was in VS, ZG und SZ, where less than one third from the estimated classes participated. The most prominent reasons of declining participation were mostly (1) a packed schedule at schools, or (2) participation in other “similar” surveys. In case of declining participation schools were replaced (the table is below) if time constraints allowed to do so. The canton of Basel-Stadt declined categorically taking part in the study.

In order to calculate the response rate at the level of students, the Teachers’ Feedback Form has been used. We have received this form from 80.0% percent of the classes included in the national sample (i.e. leaving out cantons with oversamples), with a total of 2’386 enrolled students, compared with 2’854 completed interviews. In all classes with this additional information, 2’230 students were present during data collection, 160 were absent for reasons unrelated to the survey, and 21 were present but did not respond. This leaves 2’209 completed interviews, or a student response rate of 92.1 percent (i.e. 2’209 / 2’386).

For the national sample (i.e. without the oversamples in the cantons of SG, AG and TI), 2’854 interviews have been completed, of which 1’702 are in German (59.6%), 956 in French (33.5%) and 196 in Italian (6.9%, not weighted data).

Including the oversamples in three cantons, 4’158 interviews have been completed.

9.3.3. Interviews and teachers

The survey took place in the computer rooms of the schools. To open the questionnaire each respondent had to follow the link of the survey and enter the password as indicated in the instructions that were sent to teachers. There were 10 links for students, on the Internet page³⁰⁰:

- For German speaking schools for the 7th-8th grades;
- For German speaking schools for the 9th grade;
- For French speaking schools for the 7th-8th grades;
- For French speaking schools for the 9th grade;
- For Italian speaking schools for the 7th-8th grades (this link was deleted after completing the study in TI to avoid confusions with the additional sample);
- For Italian speaking schools for the 9th grade (this link was deleted after completing the study in TI to avoid confusions with the additional sample);
- *For the additional sample.* For German speaking schools for the 7th-8th grades;
- *For the additional sample.* For German speaking schools for the 9th grade;
- *For the additional sample.* For Italian speaking schools for the 7th-8th grades;
- *For the additional sample.* For Italian speaking schools for the 9th grade.

Pupils had to use their computer mouse and keyboards to fill in the questionnaire. Although most of questionnaires were filled in completely, some students did not finish for technical, organizational or personal reasons. Nevertheless all responses reached the server automatically.

There were also links for Teachers' Feedback Forms with the password, as indicated in the instructions. Information from these Feedbacks allowed observing the process of the survey and seeing the possible technical and organizational problems.

9.4. Questionnaire content and development

Instead of the paper-pencil questionnaire used in many countries participating in the ISRD3, Switzerland used a computer-based online method through the Internet. In accordance with experience of ISRD-2 in Switzerland (2006), there are no significant differences (Lucia, Herrmann, Killias, 2007³⁰¹) and the computer version reduces the risk of typing errors while entering the data collected with a paper-pencil questionnaire.

In contrast to ISRD-2, the survey took place without external supervisors or research assistants: the study at schools was controlled by school teachers. The comparative test showed that using

³⁰⁰ <http://www.rwi.uzh.ch/lehreforschung/alphabetisch/killias.html>

³⁰¹ Lucia, S., Herrmann, L. & Killias, M. (2007). How important are interview methods and questionnaire designs in research on self-reported juvenile delinquency? An experimental comparison of Internet vs paper-and-pencil questionnaires and different definitions of the reference period. *J. Exp. Criminol.* (3), 39-64.

online questionnaire with teachers as supervisors may not affect validity while making surveys less expensive and intrusive (Walser, Killias, 2012³⁰²).

Teachers filled out the online questionnaire-feedbacks, affording information about the course of the survey: data and duration of the survey, number of present and absent students in class, problems during the survey and so on. The full text of the Teachers' Feedback is in Attachment 6.

The translations of the standardised English questionnaire into French, German and Italian were made by our research group (text of the questionnaires in German, French and Italian are in the Attachments 7.1-7.3).

The questionnaire in Switzerland includes 13 modules: 11 are from the core questionnaire and 2 are additional modules ("Dating control module" and "Computer games module"). The core questionnaire is identical to the standardized one used by the rest of the countries, except the country specific questions, needed to reflect the national situation. Among them are: Qs.1.3-1.5 to detect the birthplace of respondent and his/her parents; Q.1.8 to see the distribution of religions appropriate for Switzerland; Q.1.10 to identify the minority group membership; Q. 1.13 to determine the source of family income; Q.5.5 to gain information on the composition of the groups of friends with respect to migration status. To identify the class, grade, school, school type, town and the canton of the respondent, the special questions were added with the title "Before the beginning".

Students of the 9th grade were asked all questions of the questionnaire. Students of the 7th-8th grade did not answer the questions in module 10 regarding attitudes to the police.

9.5. Computer and Internet

During the survey, minor difficulties had to be faced due to the use of the computer questionnaire: mostly they were related to connection problems but could be settled. One class in TI could not complete the questionnaire; they were asked to try again, but they could not finish the survey again. These 19 answers were deleted during the data cleaning, because they did not include essential information. In one class, according to a teacher's report, some students expressed concern that our research group might inform their parents about the results of the survey. However, they continued answering questions when teachers explained the principle of anonymity.

³⁰² Walser, S., Killias, M. (2012) Who should supervise students during self-report interviews? A controlled experiment on response behavior in online questionnaires. *J. Exp. Criminol.* (8/1), 17-28.

9.6. Data processing and output

To collect the data, the online program Unipark was used. The time needed to fill out the questionnaire did usually not exceed one lesson. Data from completed questionnaires were entered automatically into the database, which could be then exported to SPSS Version 21.0 for the analyses.

9.7. Data weighting

To take the size of cantons and the school grades into account, the data was weighted at the national level for canton and school grade. Within the oversampled cantons the data was weighted by the school grades only. Distribution of respondents by grade in the final unweighted dataset (N=4'158) is as follows: 7th grade: 30.0%, 8th grade: 35.1%, and 9th grade: 34.9%. After the data weighting such distribution is: 7th grade: 34.7%, 8th grade: 31.7%, and 9th grade: 33.6%. The slight imbalance in the general population is due to demographic changes within the age-brackets included in this study³⁰³.

No weighting for age, gender and other demographic characteristics turned out to be necessary, given the satisfactory match between the distributions in the sample and in the general juvenile population.

All analyses were conducted with weighted data. The following table includes the sample size per canton before and after weighting. In each Table, the N (absolute number) of respondents on which the (valid) percentages are based is indicated. For practical reasons, the range of the absolute numbers (in the national sample) is indicated, rather than the N for each category shown in the Figure separately.

³⁰³<http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/themen/01/02/blank/key/alter/gesamt.html>

Table 9.2 Obtained data before and after weighting by canton and grade.

	General number of students participated in the survey	Distribution of the obtained data by main and additional samples		Weighted data on the national level	Percentage of the weighted data on the national level
		Main sample	Additional sample		
Aargau *	555	219	336	444	10.7
Appenzell Innerrhoden	54	54	0	7	0.2
Appenzell Ausserrhoden	15	15	0	10	0.2
Bern	233	233	0	482	11.6
Basel-Landschaft	99	99	0	182	4.4
Fribourg	309	309	0	180	4.3
Geneva	268	268	0	231	5.6
Glarus	79	79	0	21	0.5
Graubünden	62	62	0	66	1.6
Lucerne	183	183	0	225	5.4
Neuchâtel	101	101	0	95	2.3
Obwalden	61	61	0	7	0.2
St. Gallen *	625	103	522	268	6.4
Solothurn	120	120	0	130	3.1
Schwyz	15	15	0	27	0.6
Thurgau	93	93	0	143	3.4
Ticino *	642	196	446	219	5.3
Vaud	297	297	0	634	15.3
Valais	68	68	0	119	2.9
Zug	13	13	0	19	0.5
Zurich	266	266	0	647	15.6
<i>Total</i>	4158	2854	1304	4158	100.0

* the cantons that were oversampled

1. Attachement 1 ³⁰⁴.

Population in Switzerland

	General population per canton (in %)	Population of secondary school students per canton (in %, 2010/2011 academic year)
Aargau	7.8	8.1
Appenzell A.	0.7	0.8
Appenzell I.	0.2	0.3
Basel-Land	3.5	3.3
Basel-Stadt	2.4	1.9
Bern	12.4	11.7
Fribourg	3.5	4.1
Geneva	5.8	6.2
Glarus	0.5	0.5
Graubünden	2.4	2.3
Jura	0.9	1.0
Lucerne	4.8	5.3
Neuchâtel	2.2	2.3
Nidwalden	0.5	0.5
Obwalden	0.5	0.5
Schaffhausen	1.0	1.0
Schwyz	1.9	2.0
Solothurn	3.2	3.2
St. Gallen	6.1	6.6
Thurgau	3.2	3.8
Ticino	4.2	3.4
Uri	0.4	0.5
Valais	4.0	9.4
Vaud	9.1	4.0
Zug	1.4	1.4
Zurich	17.4	15.9

³⁰⁴ Obligatorische Schule.

Schweiz, http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/themen/15/03/key/blank/obligatorische_r/schuelerinnen_und.html

2. Attachment 2

List of cantons that participate in the survey

	Frequency (number of classes)	%
AG	16	7.4
AI	3	1.4
AR	1	0.5
BE	23	10.6
BL	6	2.8
BS	5	0.9
FR	18	8.3
GE	25	11.6
GL	5	2.3
GR	4	1.9
LU	10	4.6
NE	5	2.3
OW	2	0.9
SG	6	2.8
SO	12	5.6
SZ	3	1.4
TG	9	4.2
TI	10	4.6
VD	22	10.2
VS	14	6.5
ZG	4	1.9
ZH	16	7.4
Total	219	100

Cantons that do not participate in the survey: JU, NW, SH, UR

3. Attachment 3

Schools and classes. National sample

N	Kanton	Town (Gemeindename)	School name (Bildungsinstitution)	Grade	Class	Number of classes in the concrete school
1	AG	Aarau	Oberstufenschulhaus Schachen, Aarau	7	A	1
2	AG	Aarburg	Oberstufe Paradiesli, Aarburg	9	A	1
3	AG	Baden	Bezirksschule Burghalde, Baden	7	G	1
4	AG	Dottikon	Oberstufenschulhaus Risi, Dottikon	8	B	1
5	AG	Fahrwangen	Schulanlage, Fahrwangen	7	B	1
6	AG	Möhlin	Oberstufe, Möhlin	8	D	2
7				8	C	
8	AG	Neuenhof	Real, Sekundar, Berufswahlschule, Kleinklasse der Orientierungsschule, Neuenhof	8	F	2
9				9	F	
10	AG	Oberentfelden	Oberstufenschulhaus, Oberentfelden	7	B	2
11				8	B	
12	AG	Othmarsingen	Schulanlage, Othmarsingen	9	B	1
13	AG	Wohlen (AG)	Oberstufe Bünzmatt 2, Wohlen (AG)	7	A	4
14				8	D	
15				9	B	
16				9	E	
17	AI	Appenzell	Sekundarschulhaus Hofwies 1 + 2, Appenzell	8	B	3
18				8	E	
19				9	C	
20	AR	Speicher	Schulhaus Zentral, Speicher	7	A	1
21	BE	Aarberg	Real-/Sekundarschule Aarberg	9	A	1
22	BE	Aarwangen	Volksschule Aarwangen	7	A	5
23				8	G	
24				8	C	
25				9	G	
26				9	B	
27	BE	Aeschi bei Spiez	Oberstufenschule Aeschi bei Spiez	8	B	1
28	BE	Belp	Volksschule Belp Oberstufe	8	E	1

29	BE	Bern	Neue Mittelschule, Bern	7	A	2
30	BE			9	A	
31	BE	Bern	Bern Munzinger	7	C	1
32	BE	Biel/Bienne	Ecole secondaire Châtelet, Biel/Bienne	7	B	2
33				9	C	
34	BE	Biglen	Sekundar- und Realschule Biglen	8	B	1
35	BE	Köniz	Schule Niederwangen	9	B	1
36	BE	Halse bei Burgdorf, Rüegsau	Sekundarstufe I Rüegsau. Gemeindeverband Sekundarschule - Hasle-Rüegsau, Hasle bei Burgdorf	7	A	1
37	BE	Sumiswald	Schulen Sumiswald-Wasen	8	A	4
38				8	C	
39				8	E	
40				9	C	
41	BE	Tavannes	Ecolesecondaire, Tavannes	8	A	2
42				9	B	
43		Wattenwil	OSZ Wattenwil	7	A	1
44	BL	Liestal	Sekundarschulhaus Burg, Liestal	7	B	1
45	BL	Münchenstein	Sekundarschulhaus Lärchen, Münchenstein	7	C	3
46				8	F	
47				9	E	
48	BL	Pratteln	Sekundarschulhaus Erlimatt 1 + 2, Pratteln	8	C	1
49	BL	Zwingen	Sekundarschulhaus, Zwingen	9	D	1
50	BS	Basel	Orientierungsschule Isaak Iselin, Basel	8	B	1
51	BS	Basel	Weiterbildungsschule Holbein, Basel	8	A	1
52	BS	Basel	Gymnasium am Münsterplatz, Basel	7	B	1
53	BS	Basel	Orientierungsschule Gundeldingen, Basel	8	B	1
54	BS	Basel	Gymnasium Kirschgarten, Basel	7	F	1
55	FR	Avry	Ecole du CO de Sarine Ouest, Avry	7	A	2
56				8	A	
57	FR	Bulle	Ecole du cycle d'orientation de la Gruyère, Bulle	7	F	3

58				8	J	
59				9	J	
60	FR	Estavayer-le-Lac	Cycle d'orientation de la Broye - Route de la Chapelle 31, Estavayer-le-Lac	7	E	3
61				7	F	
62				9	D	
63	FR	Freiburg	Cycle d'orientation du Belluard - Derrière-les-Remparts 9, Fribourg	7	K	3
64				8	D	
65				8	K	
66	FR	Freiburg	Cycle d'orientation de Pérolles - Pérolles 68, Fribourg	7	C	2
67				9	A	
68	FR	Kerzers	Orientierungsschule - Schulhausstrasse 11, Kerzers	9	D	1
69	FR	Murten	Centrescolaire/Schulzentrum Prehl, Murten	8	D	4
70				9	A	
71				9	C	
72				9	D	
73	GE	Carouge (GE)	Cycle d'orientation, Carouge (GE)	7	H	3
74				8	F	
75				9	E	
76	GE	Chêne- Bougeries	Cycle d'orientation, Chêne- Bougeries	7	B	1
77	GE	Chêne-Bourg	Cycle d'orientation, Chêne- Bourg	8	D	3
78				9	A	
79				9	D	
80	GE	Collonge- Bellerive	Cycle d'orientation, Collonge- Bellerive	7	I	2
81				9	E	
82	GE	Confignon	Cycle d'orientation, Confignon	8	I	3
83				9	D	
84				9	E	
85	GE	Lancy	Institut Florimont, Lancy	7	B	2
86				9	E	
87	GE	Lancy	Cycle d'orientation, Lancy	7	I	5
88				8	E	
89				8	D	
90				9	I	

91				9	J	
92	GE	Onex	Cycle d'orientation, Onex	8	C	3
93				9	C	
94				9	D	
95	GE	Thônex	Privésecondaireinférieur, Thônex	7	A	1
96	GE	Vernier	Privésecondaireinférieur, Vernier	7	A	1
97	GE	Versoix	Collège du Léman, Versoix	7	G	1
98	GL	Glarus	Oberstufenschulkreis Glarner Mittelland - Schulhaus Buchholz, Glarus	7	D	5
99				7	B	
100				8	D	
101				9	C	
102				9	D	
103	GR	Chur	Schulhaus Quader, Chur	7	A	1
104	GR	Paspels	Oberstufe - Kreisschulen Domleschg, Paspels	8	B	2
105				9	A	
106	GR	Vaz/Obervaz	Schulhaus Lenzerheide/Lai, Vaz/Obervaz	7	A	1
107	LU	Entlebuch	Oberstufenschulhaus Entlebuch	7	A	2
108				9	A	
109	LU	Hochdorf	Kantonsschule Seetal, Hochdorf	7	B	2
110				8	A	
111	LU	Luzern	SH Staffeln Littau	7	C	1
112	LU	Malters	SH Muoshof 3	9	F	1
113	LU	Nebikon	Oberstufenschulhaus Nebikon	7	B	2
114				8	A	
115	LU	Sursee	Kantonsschule, Sursee	8	C	2
116				9	D	
117	NE	Colombier (NE)	CESCOLE, Colombier (NE)	8	F	1
118	NE	La Chaux-de- Fonds	ESCF Les Forges, La Chaux- de-Fonds	7	B	2
119				9	D	
120	NE	La Chaux-de- Fonds	ESCF Les Crêtets-Bellevue, La Chaux-de-Fonds	8	D	1
121	NE	Le Landeron	ESRN C2T, Le Landeron	8	B	1
122	OW	Engelberg	Stiftsschule (Sekundar), Engelberg	7	A	2
123				9	B	

124	SG	Altstätten	Oberstufenschulhaus Feld II, Altstätten	8	A	1
125	SG	Buchs	Oberstufenzentrum Grof, Buchs	9	B	1
126	SG	Neckertal	Oberstufenschulhaus Necker- Mogelsberg, Neckertal	7	B	1
127	SG	Quarten	Oberstufenschulhaus Unterterzen, Quarten	9	A	1
128	SG	Rapperswil- Jona	Oberstufenschulhaus Weiden- Jona, Rapperswil-Jona	8	A	1
129	SG	Rorschacherber- g	Schulhaus Steig, Rorschacherberg	9	B	1
130	SO	Derendingen	Kreisschule Wasseramt Ost - Oberstufenschulzentrum Derendingen/Luterbach , Derendingen	8	B	6
131				8	E	
132				8	A	
133				9	G	
134				9	E	
135				9	B	
136	SO	Egerkingen	Kreisschule Gäu - Sekundarschule Mühlematt, Egerkingen	9	A	1
137	SO	Grenchen	Schulhaus an der Halde, Grenchen	8	C	1
138	SO	Grenchen	Bezirksschule - Schulhaus III, Grenchen	7	A	3
139				8	F	
140				8	C	
141	SO	Matzendorf	Kreisschule Thal - Bezirk- und Sekundarschule, Matzendorf	8	B	1
142	SZ	Einsiedeln	Schuleinheit Team 7 - 9, Einsiedeln	7	B	1
143	SZ	Schwyz	Schulhaus Rubiswil - Ibach, Schwyz	8	A	2
144				9	A	
145	TG	Affeltrangen	Affeltrangen SSG	7	A	2
146				8	B	
147	TG	Frauenfeld SSG	Reutenen	9	A	1
148	TG	Kemmental VSG	OSA	7	D	2
149				8	B	
150	TG	Sulgen SSG	Oberstufenzentrum Befang, Sulgen	8	B	1

151	TG	Wängi	Oberstufenshaus Imbach II, Wängi	8	A	1
152	TG	Weitenzelg	Romanshorn-Salmsach SSG	7	A	2
153				8	A	
154	TI	Ascona 6613	Collegio Papio	8	B	1
155	TI	Bironico CP 36 - 6804	Scuolamedia di Camignolo	8	E	2
156				9	B	
157	TI	Castione 6532	Scuolamedia di Castione	8	B	1
158	TI	Gordola 6536	Scuolamedia di Gordola	8	C	1
159	TI	Pregassona (Lugano) 6963 Via Terzerina	Scuola media di Pregassona. Preganossa (Lugano)	7	C	3
160				7	B	
161				9	C	
162	TI	Riva S. Vitale 6834	Scuola media di Riva S. Vitale	8	B	1
163	TI	Via alla Roggia – 6924 Sorengo	Scuolamedia Parsifal	9	B	1
164	VD	Aigle	Collège des Dents du Midi, Aigle	7	B	2
165				9	G	
166	VD	Aubonne	Collège du Chêne, Aubonne	8	A	2
167				9	E	
168	VD	Avenches	Collège du Château, Avenches	7	A	2
169				7	B	
170	VD	Bussigny-près-Lausanne	Tombay II, Bussigny-près-Lausanne	7	C	1
171	VD	Lausanne	Ecole Nouvelle de la Suisse romande, Lausanne	8	A	1
172	VD	Lausanne	La Garanderie, Lausanne	8	A	1
173	VD	Le Chenit	Chez-le-Maître-Le Sentier, Le Chenit	9	B	1
174	VD	Lutry	Collège des Pâles 2, Lutry	9	A	1
175	VD	Morges	Collège de Chanel, Morges	7	A	2
176				8	D	
177	VD	Orbe	Montchoisi, Orbe	7	C	2
178				9	E	
179	VD	Oron-la-Ville	Collège, Oron-la-Ville	7	C	3
180				8	E	
181				9	C	
182	VD	Pully	Collège des Alpes, Pully	7	C	3

183				8	B	
184				9	C	
185	VD	Vevey	Collège Bleu, Vevey	8	C	1
186	VS	Brig-Glis	Kollegium Spiritus Sanctus, Brig-Glis	7	A	3
187				8	J	
188				9	I	
189	VS	Monthey	Cycle d'orientation CO - Reposieux, Monthey	7	C	3
190				8	F	
191				9	D	
192	VS	Münster-Geschinen	Orientierungsschule OS, Münster-Geschinen	9	A	1
193	VS	Nendaz	Cycle d'orientation CO - Basse-Nendaz, Nendaz	7	C	1
194	VS	Sierre	Cycle d'orientation CO - Goubing, Sierre	9	E	1
195	VS	Sion	Les Creusets, Sion	7	J	5
196				8	J	
197				8	B	
198				9	I	
199				9	D	
200	ZG	Menzingen	Ochsenmatt II, Menzingen	8	B	1
201	ZG	Zug	Kantonsschule, Zug	7	J	3
202				8	J	
203				9	I	
204	ZH	Affoltern am Albis	Schulhaus Ennetgraben	7	B	1
205	ZH	Dübendorf	Kantonsschule Glattal	7	B	2
206				9	D	
207	ZH	Meilen	Schulhaus Sekundar Allmend	9	B	1
208	ZH	Nürensdorf	Schulhaus Hatzenbühl	8	A	2
209				9	B	
210	ZH	Richterswil	Schulhaus Boden	8	B	1
211	ZH	Seuzach	Schulhaus Halden	7	B	1
212	ZH	Wald ZH	Schulhaus Burg	9	A	1
213	ZH	Wetzikon	Schulhaus Sekundarschule Walenbach	7	A	1
214	ZH	Zürich	Schulhaus Aemtler B	7	A	1
215	ZH	Zürich	Schulhaus Hirschengraben	8	B	1
216	ZH	Zürich	Schulhaus Leutschenbach	9	A	1
217	ZH	Zürich	Kantonsschule Stadelhofen	9	A	1
218	ZH	Zürich	Kantonsschule Enge	9	E	2
219				9	J	

Classes and Schools

Number of classes per school		Frequency of schools	Percent	Valid percent	Cummulated Percent
Valid	1.00	73	33.3	57.5	57.5
	2.00	30	13.7	23.6	81.1
	3.00	16	7.3	12.6	93.7
	4.00	3	1.4	2.4	96.1
	5.00	4	1.8	3.1	99.2
	6.00	1	.5	.8	100.0
	Total	127	58.0	100.0	

4. Attachment 4.

Additional samples in Aargau (AG), St. Gallen (SG) and Ticino (TI)

AG

11 Schulen

17 Klassen

<i>N</i>	<i>ort</i>	<i>Schule</i>	<i>Klasse</i>
1	Aarau	Bezirksschule Zelgli, Aarau	8f
2	Berikon	Kreisschule Mutschellen - KSM 3, Berikon	8a
3			8b
4	Döttingen	Oberstufe, Döttingen	9a
5	Frick	Oberstufenzentrum, Frick	Sekudarschule 8d
6			Realschule 9b
7	Muri (AG)	Bezirksschule, Muri (AG)	7b
8			7c
9			8b
10	Niederlenz	Schulanlage, Niederlenz	9b
11	Schinznach-Dorf	Bezirksschule, Schinznach Dorf	7b
12			9b
13	Spreitenbach	Bezirksschule, Spreitenbach	8c
14	Villmergen	Schulhaus Hof, Villmergen	7b
15			8d
16	Wohlen (AG)	Primarschule und Oberstufe - Bünzmatt 3, Wohlen (AG)	9b
17	Würenlingen	Schulhaus Dorf 1968, Würenlingen	8b

SG

12 Schulen

26 Klassen

<i>N</i>	<i>Ort</i>	<i>Schule</i>	<i>Klasse</i>
1	Amden	Realschule Amden-Weesen, Amden	7a
2	Bronschhofen	Oberstufenschulhaus, Bronsschhofen	7c
3			8a
4	Diepoldsau	Oberstufenzentrum Kleewies, Diepoldsau	7b
5	Ebnat-Kappel	Oberstufenschulhaus Wier, Ebnat-Kappel	8a
6	Flawil	Oberstufenzentrum Feld, Flawil	7d
7			8c
8			9c
9	Goldach	Oberstufenschulhaus, Goldach	3fReal
10	Jonschwil	Oberstufenzentrum Degenau, Jonschwil	8b
11	Mels	Oberstufenschulhaus Feldacker, Mels	7a
12			7f

13			8a
14			8c
15	St. Gallen	Kantonsschule Am Burggraben, St. Gallen	7a
16			9b
17			7b
18	Weesen	Sekundarschule Weesen-Amden, Weesen	Sekundarschule, 3 Kl (9Oberstufe)
19	Widnau	Oberstufenschulhaus Gässeli, Widnau	7a
20			7e
21			8a
22			8b
23			8c
24			8d
25			9d
26	Wil (SG)	Privatschule Dominik Savio, Wil (SG)	8a

TI
14 Schulen
22 Klassen

<i>N</i>	<i>Ort</i>	<i>Schule</i>	<i>Klasse</i>
1	Agno	Agno	7b
2			8c
3	Bedigliora	Bedigliora	8c
4	Bellinzona	Scuolaelementis&media, Bellinzona	8b
5			9f
6	Cadenazzo	Cadenazzo	9a
7	Capriasca	Tesserete	7d
8	Giornico	Giornico	8b
9			9a
10	Giubiasco	Scuolaelementis&media, Giubiasco	7a
11			9g
12	Gravesano	Gravesano	7a
13	Locarno	Scuolaelementis&media, Locarno	7c
14			7j
15			8d
16			9d
17	Losone	Losone	8b
18	Mendrisio	Scuolaelementis&media, Mendrisio	8a
19	Minusio	Scuolaelementis&media, Minusio	8d
20			9c
21	Origgio	Origgio	7a
22	Quinto	Quinto	9a

5. Attachment 5.

- Example of the letter to school principal (File "Letter_School_Principal_Example". Folder "Attachment 5")
- Attachment to the letter N1 "Beilage 1 Zusammenfassung Studie" (File „Beilage 1 Zusammenfassung Studie“. Folder „Attachment 5“)
- Attachment to the letter N2 "Instruktionen für die Durchführung der Befragung im Klassenverband" (File „Beilage_2_Instruktion“. Folder „Attachment 5“)
- Attachment to the letter N3 „An die Eltern der Schülerinnen und Schüler der ausgewählten Schulklassen“ (File "Beilage_3_Orientierungsschreiben". Folder „Attachment 5“)

6. Attachment 6.

- Questionnaire for teachers (File „Feedback-Fragebogen für Lehrer“. Folder "Attachment 6")

7. Attachments 7.1-7.3.

- The questionnaire in German, French and Italian (files "Questionnaire German", "Questionnaire French", "Questionnaire Italian". Folder "Attachment 7.1-7.3")

8. Attachment 8.

- Email „Schweizerische Konferenz der kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren“ (File „ISRD3.Brief.Information.EDK“. Folder „Attachment 8“).

9. Attachment 9.

- Example of the letter to cantons (File "Bildungsdirektion_Brief_Beispiel". Folder "Attachment 9")
- "Research plan". Attachment to the letter in German, French and Italian (Files "ISRD3.Research.Plan_DE", "ISRD3.Research.Plan_DE", "ISRD3.Research.Plan_DE". Folder "Attachment 9")