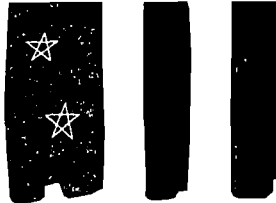


Substance Abuse



PARTNERSHIP FOR A DRUG-FREE AMERICA

The Illegal Drug Problem in America

Drug abuse continues to be one of America's major social problems. Illicit drug abuse contributes to many ills plaguing society: violent crime, the spread of AIDS, poverty, homelessness, teenage pregnancy, school dropouts, family violence and high healthcare costs.

Drug abuse is a process. Successfully reducing demand for drugs means keeping people from starting to use drugs, stopping those who are already using drugs and treating people who are addicted. Reducing demand for drugs is arguably the most cost effective approach to dealing with the terrible impact drugs have on society.

Children are at the core of the drug issue. Of current adult cocaine abusers, 9 out of 10 started using drugs as teenagers; more than 50 percent before their 16th birthday. The earlier drug use starts, the more likely serious problems - - including addiction - - are likely to occur. Every day, in every city and town across America, millions of children - - one kid at a time - - are deciding whether or not to try drugs. The Partnership believes that helping kids better understand the dangers of drugs and the benefits of living drug-free can help children make better, healthier decisions for themselves.

There are three major, nationally projectible studies on drug use in the U.S.:

- the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' (HHS) **National Household Survey on Drug Abuse**, which compiles drug-use data on persons aged 12 and over;
- the University of Michigan's **Monitoring the Future** study, which surveys 8th, 10th and 12th graders;
- and the **Partnership's Attitude Tracking Study**, which studies drug-related attitudes of parents, teens and children.

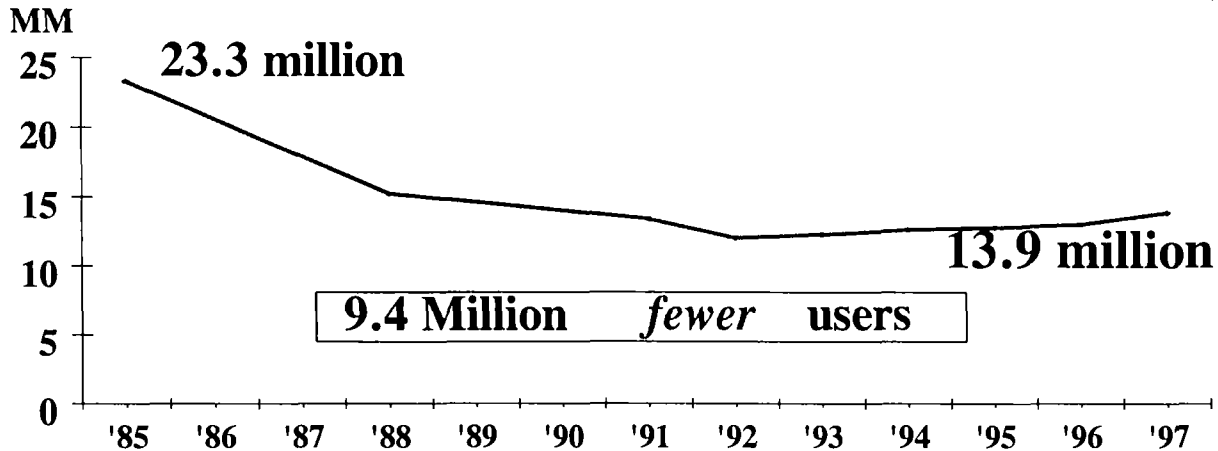
In addition, two other studies track the end-results of drug abuse:

- HHS' **Drug Abuse Warning Network (DAWN)**, which tracks drug-related emergency-room episodes;
- and the Justice Department's **Drug Use Forecasting Study (DUF)**, which surveys drug use among arrestees. Following is a look at the topline findings of these studies.

National Household Survey

(The National Household Survey on Drug Abuse is conducted by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). This annual survey provides estimates of the prevalence of use of a variety of illicit drugs, alcohol and tobacco based on a representative sample of people aged 12 and over. In 1997, 24,505 persons were interviewed for this survey.)

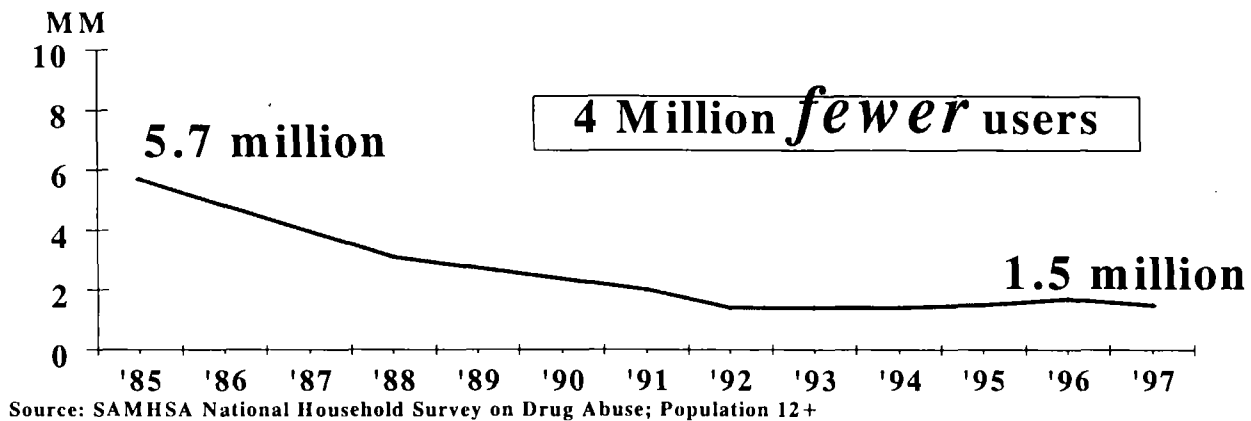
Trends in Monthly Users of Illegal Drugs



Source: SAMHSA Household Survey on Drug Abuse; Population 12+

- Overall, the number of adults using illegal drugs regularly has dropped by 9.4 million since 1985. In 1997, an estimated 13.9 million Americans (6.4 percent of the U.S. population) used illicit drugs in the past month. This number did not change between 1995-1997. The highest number of abusers was 25 million, in 1979.
- Marijuana is the most commonly used illicit drug, used by 80 percent (or 11 million) of current illicit drug users. Approximately 60 percent of current illicit drug users used marijuana only; 20 percent used marijuana and another illicit drug; the remaining 20 percent used an illicit drug other than marijuana in the past month.
- 1.5 million Americans used cocaine in the past month – down 74 percent since 1985. According to the Justice Department, this dramatic decrease in cocaine use may be a key reason for the decline in violent crime since 1992.

Trends in Monthly Users of Cocaine



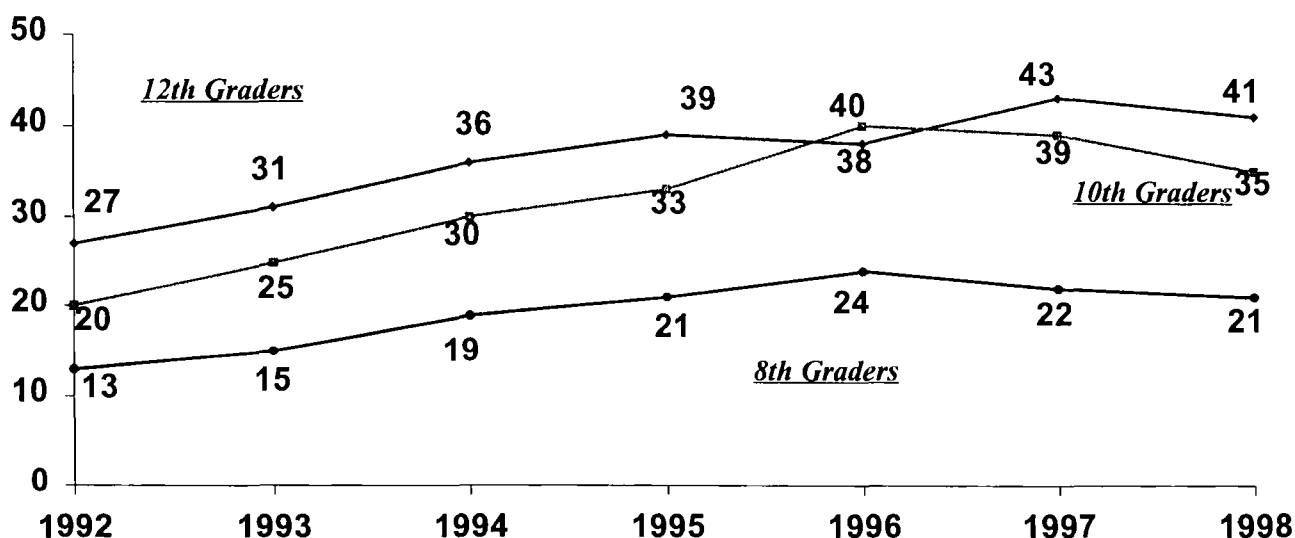
- 5.5 million Americans are current users of illicit drugs other than marijuana and hashish.
- An estimated 171,000 Americans tried heroin for the first time in 1996, and most of them were under the age of 26.
- Most current illicit drug users are white. In 1997, there were an estimated 10.3 million white (74 percent of all users), 1.8 million African-American (13 percent) and 1.3 million Hispanic (9 percent) drug users.
- Most current illicit drug users are employed -- 73 percent of all illicit drug users (8.3 million adults aged 18 and older) in 1997 were employed.
- Men have a higher rate of illicit drug use than women (8.5 percent vs. 4.5 percent, respectively).

For more information, contact <http://www.samsha.gov>

Monitoring the Future Study

(Monitoring the Future is conducted under a series of grants from the National Institute on Drug Abuse under its principal investigator, Dr. Lloyd Johnston, Ph.D., distinguished senior research scientist, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan. Self-administered questionnaires are given to 8th, 10th and 12th graders in this nationally representative sample. In 1998, approximately 50,000 students in 422 private and public secondary schools were surveyed in this nationally representative sample.)

Trends in Annual Use of Illegal Drugs for 8th, 10th, and 12th Graders

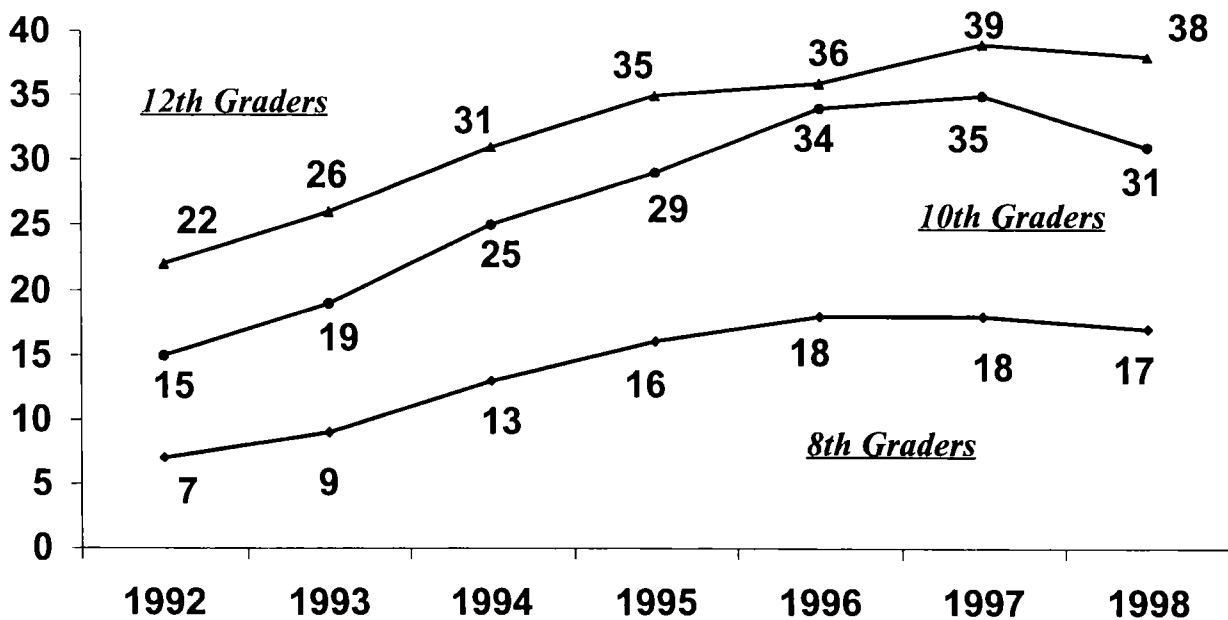


Source: Monitoring the Future Study, 1998

- As among the adult population, teenage drug use declined by about half during the 1980s. However, adolescent drug use among teenagers turned around in 1991, and rose dramatically in the first half of this decade. Particularly disturbing is the fact that current (past month) use among 8th graders - - 13 and 14 year olds - - has doubled over the past five years. Researchers at the University of Michigan have concluded that the trend of illicit drug use by American secondary students has begun to level off after six years of steady increases.
- After several years of steady increases, the reported use of **LSD** and all other **hallucinogens** showed a downward movement in 1998 in all three grades.
- The use of **inhalants**, which rose steadily in the early 1990s, has declined over the last few years. Still, 21 percent of all 8th graders have used an inhalant at least once.
- Only 12th graders were surveyed regarding a form of **methamphetamine** ("ice") use. Use remained level in 1998. (3.0 percent, or one in 33 students, said they had used ice in the past year.)
- **MDMA (Ecstasy)** was first included in the survey in 1996. No increase was reported in 1998 among 8th, 10th or 12th graders. For 1998, 1.8 percent, 3.3 percent and 3.6 percent of students, respectively, reported using Ecstasy in the past year.

- The proportion of students who reported using **cocaine** powder in the past year was 2.4 percent for grade 8; 4.0 percent for grade 10 and 4.9 percent for grade 12.
- The use of **crack cocaine** increased significantly in grade 8 (1.7 percent in 1997 to 2.1 percent in 1998) and remained stable in grades 10 (2.5 percent) and 12 (2.5 percent).
- The rates of **heroin** use in the student population are very low. Usage rates for 8th, 10th and 12th graders are 1.3, 1.4 and 1.0 percent, respectively.
- Annual usage rates of **marijuana** for 8th and 12th graders remained stable: 16.9 percent and 37.5 percent, respectively. There was a significant decrease in use among 10th graders (34.8 to 31.3 percent).

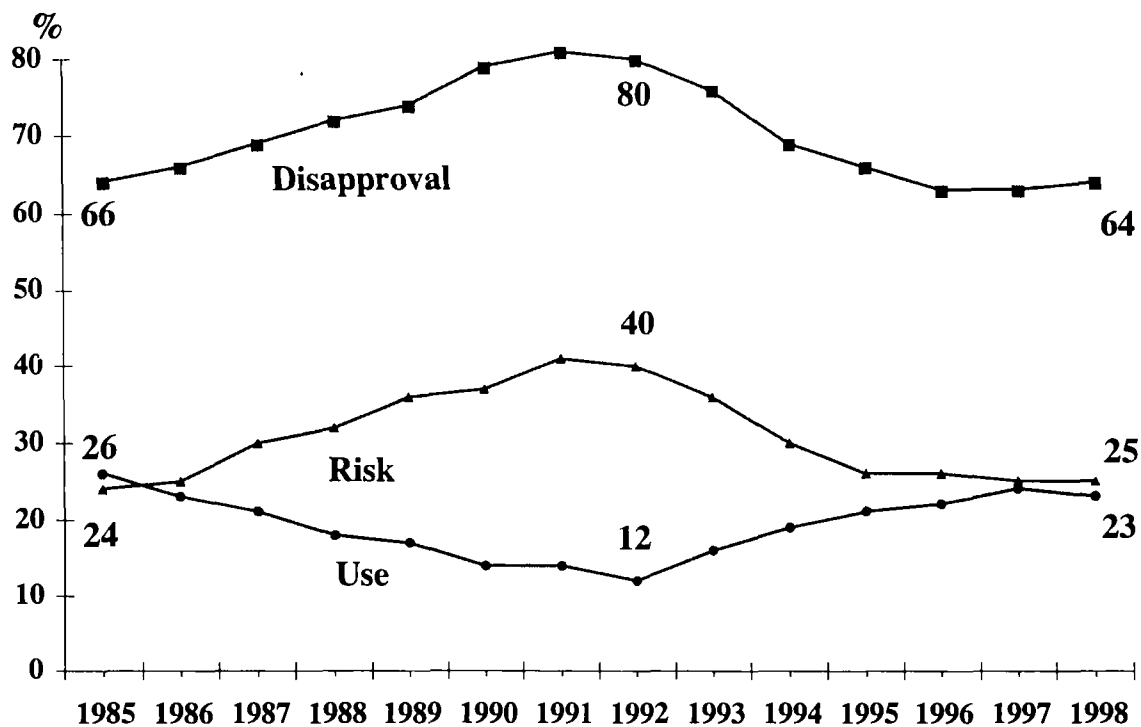
Trends in Annual Use of Marijuana for 8th, 10th and 12th Graders



Source: Monitoring The Future Study, 1998

Among the most important and consistent findings of Monitoring the Future is the strong correlation between two key anti-drug attitudes (perceived risk and social disapproval) and drug use. This indicates that to reduce the number of kids who use drugs, perceptions that drug use is harmful and socially unacceptable must increase.

Marijuana Use Vs. Risk and Disapproval



Source: 1998 Monitoring the Future Study
12th Graders use in past month

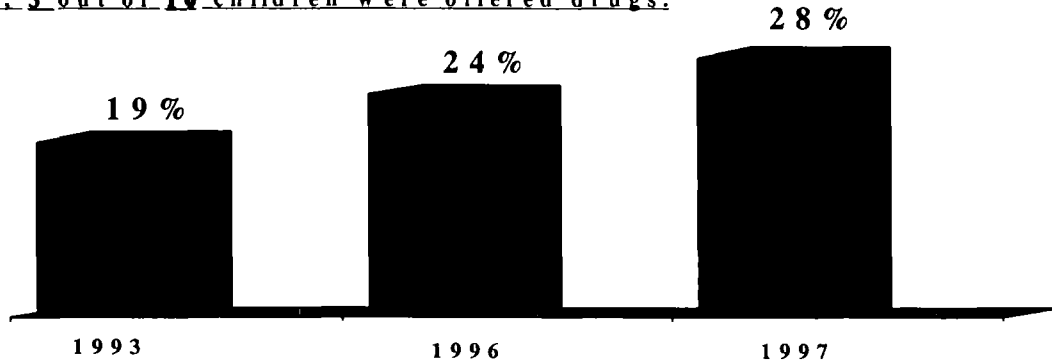
For more information, see <http://www.isr.umich.edu/src/mtf/>

Partnership Attitude Tracking Study

(The Partnership Attitude Tracking Study (PATs) monitors the drug-related behavior and attitudes of children, teens and parents. It is the largest, on-going research on drug-related attitudes on children, teens and adults, and the only ongoing drug survey to collect data on children as young as eight and nine. For the 1997 study, 1,922 children (age 9-12), 6,975 teenagers (age 13-17) and 815 parents completed self-administered, anonymous questionnaires.)

H a s a n y o n e e v e r t r i e d t o s e l l y o u d r u g s ? Y E S

In 1997, 3 out of 10 children were offered drugs.



Source: Partnership Attitude Tracking Study, 1997

The 1997 PATS documents a dramatic gap between parents' perceptions about their children and drugs, and what teenagers and children are actually experiencing. Top line findings from the research include:

- Some 43 percent of parents believe it's possible that their teenager could find marijuana easily. Yet 58 percent of teens say the drug is easy to come by.
- 33 percent of parents said they believe their teenagers view marijuana as harmful. Yet only 18 percent of teens -- fewer than one in five -- view trying pot as risky.
- Just 21 percent of parents acknowledged the possibility that their teen might have tried marijuana, significantly lower than the 44 percent of teens who say they've done so.

" N o t M y K i d "

P a r e n t s
M y t e e n h a s
t r i e d m a r i j u a n a

A single black bar representing the percentage of parents who believe their teen has tried marijuana. The percentage is 21%.

21 %

T e e n s
I h a v e t r i e d
m a r i j u a n a

A single black bar representing the percentage of teens who have tried marijuana. The percentage is 44%.

44 %

Source: Partnership Attitude Tracking Survey

- 45 percent of parents believe their son or daughter may have friends who smoke pot. Yet 71 percent of teens say they have friends who use the drug.
- 38 percent of parents said their teenagers might have been offered drugs, when, in fact, 59 percent of teenagers reported being offered an illicit substance.
- Six out of 10 teens (59 percent) were offered drugs in 1997, up significantly from 1995 (54 percent) and 1993 (46 percent). One third of all teens (33 percent) were offered drugs at school in 1997, up from 32 percent in 1996 and 23 percent in 1993.
- Almost three out of every 10 children (9- to 12-year olds, children in the 4th through 6th grades) were offered drugs in 1997 – an increase of 47 percent since 1993 (28 percent were offered drugs in 1997; 24 percent in 1996; 19 percent in 1993).
- The number of 4th through 6th graders (9- to 12-year-olds) experimenting with marijuana increased from 334,000 in 1993 to 571,000 in 1997.
- Teen drug use: Marijuana use leveled off among younger teens at high levels. Older teens showed an increase in marijuana use. Use of cocaine, crack, methamphetamine remained unchanged.

For more information, see <http://www.drugfreeamerica.org>

Drug Abuse Warning Network

(The Drug Abuse Warning Network (DAWN) is conducted by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. DAWN tracks drug-related emergency room episodes across the country. DAWN surveys hospitals in 21 Metropolitan areas: Atlanta, Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Los Angeles, Miami, Minneapolis-St. Paul, New Orleans, New York City, Newark, Philadelphia, Phoenix, St. Louis, San Diego, San Francisco, Seattle and Washington, DC.

The number of drug-related ER visits dropped from 518,500 episodes in 1994 to 487,600 in 1996. Between 1994 - 1996, drug-related episodes decreased by six percent. That decline occurred primarily among adults aged 18-34.

- There was no significant change in the total number of **cocaine**- (138,000 in 1995; 144,200 in 1996) or **heroin** (72,200 in 1995; 70,500 in 1996)-related episodes. Heroin episodes between 1990 and 1996, however, increased 108 percent (33,900 in 1990).
- **Methamphetamine**-related episodes are also on the decline: 16,200 were reported in 1995; 10,800 in 1996. There was, however, a 71 percent increase in meth-related episodes between the first half of 1996 and the second half of 1996 (from 4,000 to 6,800). Local experts believe this may have been due to a shortage of methamphetamine in many western cities at the end of 1995 and into the beginning of 1996.
- **Marijuana/hashish**-related episodes, unlike other drugs, increased by 25 percent: from 40,200 in 1994 to 50,000 in 1996. Since 1990, marijuana/hashish-related episodes have increased 219 percent.

For more information, see <http://www.samhsa.gov>

Drug Use Forecasting Study

(The Drug Use Forecasting (DUF) data is compiled by the Justice Department's National Institute of Justice. The report presents drug use detected through urinalysis for adult male and female arrestees and juvenile male arrestees/detainees (because of small sample sizes, female arrestees/detainees are not included). In 1997, DUF program sites located in 23 major metropolitan areas collected data from 19,736 adult male booked arrestees and 7,547 female booked arrestees at 21 of these sites and 3,686 juvenile male and 647 juvenile female detainees at 12 sites and 8 sites, respectively.)*

Although these data cannot resolve the question of causality regarding drugs and crime, DUF's report does find that the relationship between the two is strong and enduring. A median 61 percent of arrestees test positive for at least one drug at arrest. DUF data may actually understate recent drug use by arrestees, as urinalysis can only reliably detect drugs for approximately 48 to 72 hours after use. The data also indicate that regional and local trends can depart substantially from national trends.

Cocaine

The sharp declines in **cocaine** use that have occurred in some cities have been largely offset by substantial increases in marijuana use: Marijuana appears to have broadly replaced cocaine as the drug of choice among arrestees in some cities (Indianapolis, Atlanta, Cleveland and Birmingham). Some cities (Omaha, Miami), however, did see significant increases in cocaine use. Almost without exception, older age cohorts are testing positive for cocaine at two to 10 times the rate of the younger cohorts (15-20). This suggests, at least with respect to the arrestees population, that cocaine use is increasingly a problem of a group of long term users who developed their habits in the early stages of the epidemic.

Opiates

Opiate (heroin) use also appears geographically concentrated in the largest DUF cities (Chicago, Manhattan, Philadelphia, Portland, St. Louis and San Antonio). Growth in opiate use appears strongly in the youngest adults, while older arrestees are slowly decreasing their use, particularly with cocaine.

Marijuana

In contrast to cocaine and opiates, **marijuana** use among arrestees is disproportionately concentrated among youthful arrestees. In most sites, youthful arrestees are far more likely than older arrestees to test positive for marijuana. Compared, however, to the sharp increases in positive rates over the past several years, 1997 data show that the recent wide expansion of marijuana use among youthful arrestees is leveling off and in some cities decreasing noticeably.

Methamphetamine

Regionally, **methamphetamine** use among arrestees still appears to be confined to Western states, and, in most cases, has declined substantially. Females continue to be more frequent users of meth and cocaine than males. Methamphetamine use is evident primarily among arrestees in ADAM cities in the Western and Southwestern states. In contrast, sites outside of this area register rates of positives that are close to zero.

* DUF collected data from the following cities: Atlanta, Birmingham, Chicago, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Ft. Lauderdale, Houston, Indianapolis, Los Angeles, Manhattan, Miami, New Orleans, Omaha, Philadelphia, Phoenix, Portland, St. Louis, San Antonio, San Diego, San Jose and Washington, DC.

EMBARGOED FOR RELEASE

Monday, April 26, 1999 @ 12:01 am, EDT

For More Information:

Steve Dnistrian (212) 973-3504

Nora Roach (212) 973-3530

PDFa Web Site: www.drugfreeamerica.org

Parents Say They're Talking, But Only 27% of Teens -- Just 1 in 4 -- Are Learning A Lot At Home About The Risks of Drugs

Drug use significantly lower among teens who learn dangers of drugs at home; More African-American & Hispanic than white teens say parents talking frequently

NEW YORK, April 26th -- Although virtually all parents in America (98 percent) say they've talked with their children about drugs, only 27 percent of teens -- roughly one in four -- say they're learning a lot at home about the risks of drugs, according to a new national study released today by the Partnership for a Drug-Free America (PDFa).

"This percentage can be and should be much higher," said James E. Burke, chairman of the Partnership. "What's truly complicated about this, however, is that parents really believe they're doing their job in this area, but the data suggest otherwise."

The survey found drug use significantly lower among kids who've learned a great deal about drugs at home. In fact, teens who report getting the anti-drug message at home were 42 percent less likely to be using drugs. Released today via the Internet (at www.drugfreeamerica.org), the 1998 Partnership Attitude Tracking Study (PATS) surveyed 9,919 pre-teens, teenagers and parents.¹ The nationally-projectable study, conducted for the Partnership by Audits & Surveys Worldwide Inc., found:

- Teens who learn at home about the dangers of drugs are less likely to use drugs. (For example, among teens who learned nothing at home about the risks of drugs, 45 percent have used marijuana. Among teens who've learned a little, 33 percent have used. Among those who've learned a lot, 26 percent reported using the drug).
- While virtually all parents (98 percent) say they've talked with their teenagers about drugs at least once, fewer teens (65 percent) recall the conversation. Less than half of all parents of teenagers (48 percent) reported talking with their teen about drugs regularly² in the past year.

¹ In 1998, the Partnership Attitude Tracking Study surveyed 2,258 pre-teens (9- to 12- year olds), 6,852 teenagers and 809 parents. Margin of error for pre-teen sample: +/- 2.8 %; for teens, 1.8 %; for parents, +/-3.9 %

² "Regularly" is defined as four or more times in the past year.

- 53 percent of parents with children in grades four through six talked with their child about drugs regularly in the past year.
- Among parents of children this age who've talked with their children about drugs at least once, only half (50 percent) said they felt they discussed the subject thoroughly, a significant decline from 1997 (67 percent).
- As children pass from the 4th to the 8th grade, the percentage of kids who say they want more guidance about drugs from their parents declines from 74 to 19 percent. "Clearly, there's a huge advantage in taking action when kids are most receptive to the message," Burke said.
- As children pass from the 4th through the 8th grade, with fewer and fewer wanting their parent's advice on drugs along the way, the number of children experimenting with marijuana increases significantly, from three to 31 percent.
- African-American parents (57 percent) are more likely to say they've talked with their children about drugs regularly than other parents (Hispanic, 45 percent; white, 44 percent). African American (31 percent) and Hispanic (29 percent) teens are more likely to recall such conversations than white teens (19 percent).

Researchers believe a number of variables influence parent-child communication about drugs – the most obvious of which is a parent's willingness to broach the subject regularly, as well as parents full engagement in all aspects of a child's life. Other factors include a parent's ability to speak persuasively and credibly about drugs; a parent's capability to articulate clear expectations about drug use; and the frequency of such communication. "Some parents may be covering this issue with their children in a one-time conversation," Burke said. "But it's critical to understand that a child's perceptions about drugs and their exposure to drugs evolve dramatically from year to year, and kids need – and want – on-going guidance each step of the way."

Perhaps the greatest obstacle parents face is believing that their own children are at risk. According to the data, just 14 percent of parents say it's possible that their teenager might have used marijuana (yet 42 percent of teens tried the drug). Thirty-seven percent of parents say it's likely that their teen has been offered marijuana (yet 53 percent of teens were offered the drug.) "The problem isn't that parents don't care," Burke said. "Many simply don't believe drugs are a problem facing their family."

According to PATS, parents are struggling with the issue: 59 percent say they want help communicating persuasively about drugs. Another factor may be the behavior

of parents themselves. One recent study found that more than a third of parents set poor examples for their children with risky health habits such as smoking and heavy drinking.³

This year's survey confirmed an earlier PATS finding: Perhaps the most critical transition a child experiences with his or her exposure to drugs occurs between the 6th and 7th grade, when kids move from the relative safety of grammar school to middle school. Marijuana experimentation rates jump from 8 to 22 percent during this time.

"With parents, we can cut drug use dramatically; without them, we cannot," Burke said. "If the number of teens who learn at home about the dangers of drugs increased from 27 to 90 percent, this could help break the back of the drug problem."

PATS is the largest study on drug-related attitudes in the US, and the only long-standing drug survey that collects data on children as young as eight and nine. Margins of error: for preteens: +/- 2.8 percent; for teens, 1.8 percent; for parents, +/-3.9 percent.

Parent-related projects underway by the Partnership for a Drug-Free America

- The Partnership is participating in an unprecedented national media effort being coordinated by the Office of National Drug Control Policy. The National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign – backed by \$195 million in federal funds – is actively purchasing media exposure for anti-drug advertising. Some 40 percent of the ads target parents. (PDFA provides advertising to the effort pro bono and receives no federal funds for its role.)
- The Partnership recently completed *Growing Up Drug-Free, A Parent's Guide to Prevention* in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Education. The guide includes comprehensive tips and an easy-to-read chart illustrating a variety of drugs. (The guide is available for free by calling 1-877-4EDPUBS, or on-line at www.ed.gov/offices/OEOS/DFS/parents_guide.)
- The Partnership operates one of the largest Web sites for parents on the issue of children and drugs. See www.drugfreeamerica.org.
- The Partnership is in the initial phases of a new, parent-oriented initiative with the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA). Some of PRSA's 20,000 professional members and 120 chapters will launch local public relations campaigns designed to get parents to talk with their children about substance abuse. (For more information, see www.k-i-d-s.org.)

The Partnership Attitude Tracking Study monitors drug-related behavior and attitudes among children, teens and parents. Conducted since 1987, this is the 11th installment of PATS. For this installment, 2,258 children, 6,852 teenagers and 809 parents completed self-administered, anonymous questionnaires in 1998

*The Partnership for a Drug-Free America is a private, non-profit coalition of professionals from the communications industry. Best known for its national, anti-drug advertising campaign, the Partnership's mission is to reduce demand for illicit drugs through media communication. To date, approximately \$3 billion in media exposure and some 600 ads have been donated to the Partnership's national campaign, making this the single, largest, public service ad campaign in history. Beginning in 1998, PDFA advertising began appearing in paid media exposure as part of the National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign, coordinated by the Office of National Drug Control Policy. PDFA receives major funding from the **Robert Wood Johnson Foundation** and financial support from more than 200 private sector corporations. PDFA accepts no money from alcohol or tobacco manufacturers.*

³ Analysis of National Center for Health Statistics by Child Trends, Inc., Nicholas Zill, lead author. Released April 8, 1999.

Key Findings: Parents

Overall, most **parental attitudes** towards drugs **did not change** significantly from 1997.

- Perception of risk and social disapproval remained stable – agree to the statement *“Taking drugs scares me”* remained at 79 percent; *“Most people will try marijuana sometimes”* stayed at 68 percent
- All parents feel *“It is important to talk to their children about drugs”* (99 percent) and the great majority say that their *“Child knows exactly how they feel about drugs”* (76 percent), that *“Parents should forbid their kids to use any drugs at any time”* (80 percent) and that they would *“Be upset if their children even tried marijuana”* (77 percent).
- Most parents report that they *“Do not feel like hypocrites in telling their children not to use marijuana”* (only 11 percent reported that they would feel like a hypocrite).
- Most parents do feel that what they say will have an impact on their children (only 28 percent agree that *“What I say will have little influence on whether my child tries marijuana,”* but a majority still *“Wish they knew better what to say to their child”* (59 percent).

Parents of teens continue to **incorrectly estimate the drug environment** as it relates to their children.

- They seriously underestimate their teens’ trial of marijuana (parents estimate 14 percent, teens reported trial 42 percent).
- They overestimate their teens’ perception of great risk in trying marijuana (parents estimate 39 percent, teens report 16 percent).
- They underestimate the likelihood of their teens being offered drugs (parents estimate 37 percent, teens report 53 percent).
- Parents of teens underestimate whether their teens’ friends use of marijuana (parents estimate 54 percent, teens report 68 percent), and to a lesser degree, ease of obtaining the drug (parents estimate 40 percent, teens report 56 percent).

Parents can help accelerate the positive movement that is occurring among their children by talking more frequently with them about drugs.

- Only half of all parents (53 percent) with children in grades four through six talked with their child four or more times in the past year.
- Only 48 percent of parents of teens reported talking with their teen four or more times in the past year.
- Of parents of children in grades four through six who have discussed drugs with their children, fewer this year (50 percent) than last (67 percent) report discussing the subject thoroughly.
- African American parents of teens (57 percent) are more likely to talk with their teens about drugs four or more times in the past year than are white (44 percent) and Hispanic parents (45 percent).

This Partnership Attitude Tracking Study (PATs) monitors, on an on-going basis, the drug-related behavior and attitudes of pre-teens, teens and adults. This is the eleventh installment of PATs conducted since 1986; the last survey was completed in 1997. For the 1998 study, 6,852 teenagers, 2,258 pre-teens and 809 parents completed self-administered questionnaires, for a total sample of 9,919.

Key Findings: 9 - 12 Year-Olds

Indications are that **anti-drug attitudes among children are beginning to move in the right direction.**

- In the areas of tolerance and risks, although not significant changes, most attitudes are moving back close to the levels reported five years ago.
 - For example, agree a lot to the statement *"People on drugs act stupid"* was 68 percent in 1993, it had a significant decrease to 63 percent in 1997, and then went back up to 66 percent in 1998; agree a lot to the statement *"I am scared of taking drugs"* was 73 percent in 1993, significantly decreased to 68 percent in 1997, and then went up to 70 percent in 1998; agree to the statement *"Smoking marijuana is ok sometimes"* was 12 percent in 1993, significantly increased to 16 percent in 1997 and then decreased to 14 percent in 1998; agree to the statement *"Parties are more fun with drugs"* was 10 percent in 1993, significantly increased in 1997 to 14 percent, and went down to 11 percent in 1998; agree to the statement *"In my school, drug users are popular"* was 10 percent in 1993, significantly increased to 14 percent in 1997, and then went back to 11 percent in 1998.
 - The image of "kids who use drugs" became less positive – *"good at sports"* significantly decreased from 11 percent in 1997 to 7 percent in 1998; *"friendly"* significantly decreased from 12 percent in 1997 to 9 percent in 1998.
 - Perceived availability of marijuana significantly decreased from 1997 to 1998 – *"easy for me to get marijuana"* was 18 percent in 1997 and 13 percent in 1998.
 - Exposure to drugs also significantly decreased and is now back to the 1993 level – *"anyone ever tried to sell you drugs"* was 19 percent in 1993, significantly increased to 28 percent in 1997, and significantly decreased in 1998 to 15 percent.

Parents can help accelerate this positive movement – The majority of children in grades 4 to 6 (56 percent) *wish that their parents would talk more about how drugs are bad.*

Key Findings: 13 - 17 Year-Olds

Marijuana usage, after showing a continuous upward trend since the early 90s, has stabilized, and there are indications that it may be at the **start of a downswing**.

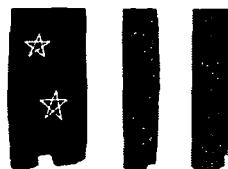
- The softening of attitudes that occurred in recent years has stopped – agree strongly to the statement “*Smoking marijuana is ok sometimes*” was 11 percent in 1993, significantly increased to 18 percent in 1997, and then significantly decreased in 1998 to 15 percent; agree strongly to “*It seems like marijuana is everywhere*” was 56 percent in 1996, significantly increased to 59 percent in 1997, and significantly decreased in 1998 to 52 percent; agree strongly to “*I’m confident I could use marijuana without letting it get out of hand*” was 25 percent in 1996, significantly increased to 28 percent in 1997, and then significantly decreased to 25 percent in 1998.
- In 1998 the perception of risk of regular use of marijuana has leveled out – in 1993 the percent of teens saying there is a great risk in using marijuana regularly was 65 percent, by 1997 it had significantly decreased to 59 percent, and then remained there (60 percent) in 1998.
- Perceived availability of marijuana significantly decreased from 1997 to 1998 – “*very easy for me to get marijuana*” was 58 percent in 1997 and significantly decreased to 56 percent in 1998.
- Exposure to marijuana through friends’ use also significantly decreased from 1997 to 1998 – “*have friends who get stoned or high on marijuana regularly*” was 62 percent in 1997 and then significantly declined in 1998 to 59 percent.
- The data suggest that trial and use of marijuana may beginning a slight downswing – lifetime trial of marijuana was 44 percent in 1997 and 42 percent in 1998; past year use was 36 percent in 1997 and 34 percent in 1998, past 30 days was 24 percent in 1997 and 23 percent in 1998.
 - These findings are consistent with University of Michigan’s *Monitoring the Future*. The 1998 national survey results conclude that illicit drug use by secondary school students is finally heading down after six years of steady increases. Marijuana, the most widely used of the illicit drugs, accounted for most of the increase in overall illicit drug use during the 90s and it now accounts for much of the observed decrease.

There are several other **positive indications**.

- Exposure to drugs significantly decreased – “*anyone ever tried to sell or give you drugs*” was 59 percent in 1997 and significantly decreased to 53 percent in 1998.
- The perception that popular culture makes drugs look inviting or glamorous significantly decreased from 1997 to 1998 – agree to the statement “*Many rock or rap stars make drug use look tempting*” was 54 percent in 1995, significantly decreased in 1997 to 51 percent, and significantly declined again in 1998 to 48 percent; agree to “*Music that kids listen to makes marijuana seem cool*” also significantly decreased – 48 percent in 1995, 37 percent in 1997, and 33 percent in 1998.
- Exposure to methamphetamine through friends’ use significantly decreased – from 30 percent in 1997 to 26 percent in 1998.
- Frequency of viewing anti-drug messages shows a positive correlation with reports of a positive impact with respect to key information and likelihood of using.
 - Teens who viewed frequently viewed PDFA ads were twice as likely as teens who did not view them frequently to agree a lot that the ads “*Made you more aware of the risks of using drugs,*” “*Made you aware that America’s drug problem is a problem for you and your family,*” “*Gave you new information or told you things you didn’t know about drugs,*” and “*Made you less likely to try or use drugs.*”

Parents can help accelerate this positive movement – While nearly two out of three teens report that their parents have spoken to them about drugs in the past year, there seems to be a fall-off in such discussions among the younger teens.

- In 1998, 65 percent of 7th- and 8th-graders reported that their parents had spoken to them about drugs. This was a significant decrease from 1997 (70 percent).
- 7th- and 8th-graders are more likely than older teens to wish that their parents would talk to them more about how bad drugs are for you. – 24 percent of 7th- and 8th-graders, 15 percent of 9th- and 10th-graders, and 11 percent of 11th- and 12th-graders.



PARTNERSHIP FOR A DRUG-FREE AMERICA

1988 Partnership Attitude Tracking Study
Conducted by Audits & Surveys Worldwide Inc. for PDFA

Drug Use is Significantly Lower Among Teens Who've Learned About Dangers of Drugs from Parents

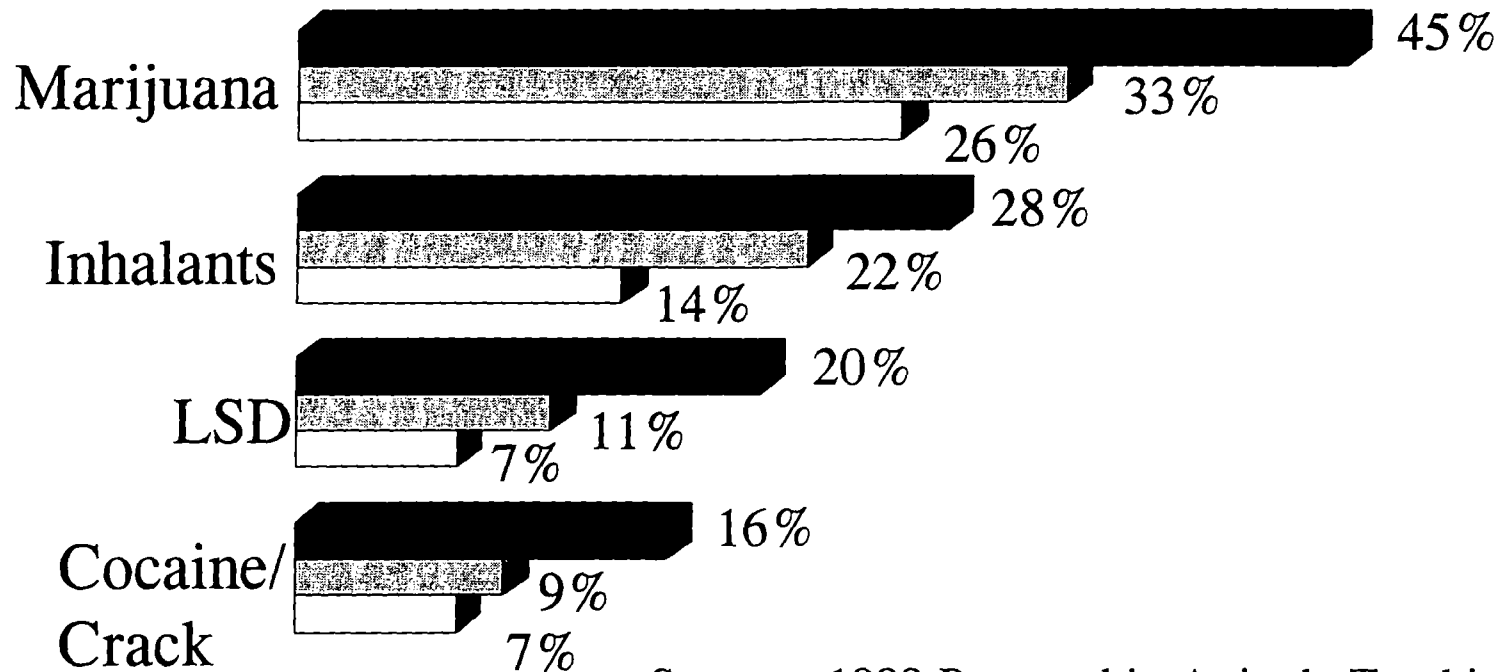
<i>"How much have your learned about the risks of drugs at home?"</i>	<i>% of Teens Who have Used</i>			
	Marijuana	Inhalants	LSD	Crack/Cocaine
Nothing	45	28	20	16
A little	33	22	11	9
A lot	26	14	7	7

Source: 1988 Partnership Attitude Tracking Study

How Much Have You Learned About the Dangers of Drugs at Home?

■ Nothing ■ A Little □ A Lot

Drug Use Among Teens:



Source: 1998 Partnership Attitude Tracking Survey

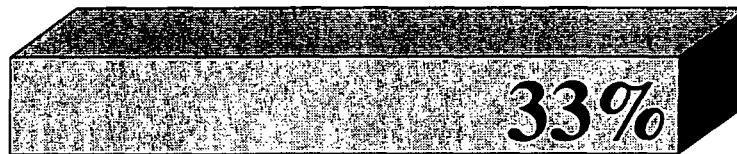
Parental Involvement is Key to Drug Prevention

Past Year Marijuana Use among Teens Who:

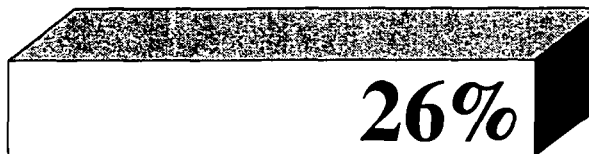
Learned nothing about
risk from parents



Learned a little about
risk from parents



Learned a lot about
risk from parents



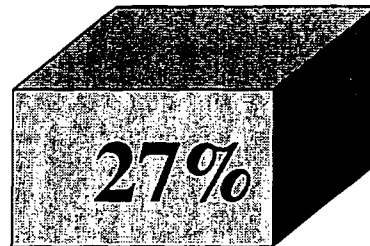
Source: 1998 Partnership Attitude Tracking Survey

“Talking the Talk”

Parents who talked to their
teens about drugs



Teens who've learned a lot
about risks of drugs at
home



Source: 1998 Partnership Attitude Tracking Survey

ORIGINAL ARTICLE



MARIJUANA USE AMONG MINORITY YOUTHS LIVING IN PUBLIC HOUSING DEVELOPMENTS

CHRISTOPHER WILLIAMS, PhD, JENNIFER A. EPSTEIN, PhD,
GILBERT J. BOTVIN, PhD, AND MICHELLE IFILL-WILLIAMS, MPH

ABSTRACT Youths residing in public housing developments appear to be at markedly heightened risk for drug use because of their constant exposure to violence, poverty, and drug-related activity. The purpose of this study was to develop and test a model of marijuana etiology with adolescents ($N = 624$) residing in public housing. African-American and Hispanic seventh graders completed questionnaires about their marijuana use, social influences to smoke marijuana, and sociodemographic and psychosocial characteristics. Results indicated that social influences, such as friends' marijuana use and perceived ease of availability of marijuana, significantly predicted both occasional and future use of marijuana. Individual characteristics such as antimarijuana attitudes and drug refusal skills also predicted marijuana use. The findings imply that effective prevention approaches that target urban youths residing in public housing developments should provide them with an awareness of social influences to use marijuana, correct misperceptions about the prevalence of marijuana smoking, and train adolescents in relevant psychosocial skills.

Drug use is a major public health concern. Ever-increasing numbers of the nation's youths are initiating precocious drug use, with marijuana being the most prevalent illicit drug. Over the past 5 years, national surveys indicate that marijuana use has increased sharply and represents a reversal of the declines of the prior decade.¹ Specifically, 1 in every 5 students in eighth grade has tried marijuana, and 1 in every 11 has used marijuana in the prior month, and these numbers are rising rapidly. Of all young people who smoke marijuana even once, an estimated 10% will progress to daily use of the drug.¹

Drs. Williams, Epstein, and Botvin, and Ms. Ifill-Williams are from the Institute for Prevention Research, Department of Public Health, Cornell University Medical College.

Correspondence and reprints: Christopher Williams, PhD, Institute for Prevention Research, Department of Public Health, Cornell University Medical College, 411 East 69th Street, KB 201, New York, NY 10021.

Adolescent drug use is associated with many negative consequences. Marijuana use affects cognition, judgment, mood, and interpersonal relationships directly,²³ as well as family harmony, school attendance, and school achievement.⁴ Smoking marijuana also has been associated with involvement in motor vehicle accidents when the drivers were under the influence of marijuana, suicide attempts, convincing a "marijuana-naïve" younger sibling to smoke the drug,⁴ as well as minor and violent delinquency.⁵

Nationwide survey data obtained from secondary school students indicate that there are higher rates of adolescent drug use in large metropolitan regions compared to rural areas.¹ Prevalence rates for crime are highest in inner-city regions,⁶ and trend data for arrest records among inner cities show increases in all major crime categories, including drug-related crimes such as trafficking and possession of illicit substances.⁷ A growing literature suggests that there is an association between residence in low-income, urban housing developments and increased risk behaviors for delinquency⁸⁻¹⁰ and drug use^{11,12} among adolescents. Residents of public housing developments appear to be at markedly different risk for drug use relative to their counterparts who do not live in housing projects, but who share similar demographic characteristics.

Public housing residents perceive greater crime problems and more risk exposure,^{8,10,13} have poorer social relationships,¹⁴ experience a higher level of psychological strain,¹⁵ and are more likely to develop problem behaviors.¹² Recent statistics from New York City reveal that residents of public housing developments are exposed to more violent and drug-related crime than residents from adjacent neighborhoods.¹⁶ In some earlier work on early-stage drug use, adults and friends, as well as individual psychosocial characteristics such as poor advertising skills and problem behavior, were important predictors of alcohol and cigarette use among adolescents in public housing.^{17,18} In another study,¹⁹ using basic means analyses, youths in public housing were similar to their peers not in public housing; however, results from multivariate tests revealed that residents of housing developments did have poorer academic performance and more alcohol consumption than did participants not in housing developments. Taken together, these studies indicate that youths living in public housing developments may be particularly vulnerable. Economically disadvantaged ethnic minority groups dwell in congested residences within public housing developments characterized by urban blight.^{13,20} Unfortunately, most marijuana etiology research has been conducted among white and/or middle-class populations.^{4,21,22} The present study focuses on understudied adolescents, at high risk for marijuana use, living in public housing developments in an inner-city region.

Ethnicity and gender are important factors associated with adolescent drug use. Many studies report racial-ethnic differences among adolescent marijuana users.^{21,22,24} Among eighth graders, Hispanics reported higher lifetime prevalence of marijuana use (26%) relative to blacks (17%).¹ Research on gender differences in marijuana use is unequivocal. Compared to girls, boys use more marijuana^{23,26} and more illicit drugs in general.¹ The differences tend to be the largest at higher frequency levels.

Social influences for the individual to smoke marijuana are prevalent, particularly from relatives, peers, and friends. According to social learning theory,²⁷ adolescents learn through reinforcement and modeling. Thus, misperceptions that drug use is a standard and widespread practice among relatives and age-mates can promote marijuana smoking. Family members can serve as role models for drug use. Many studies have found parental drug use to be a strong predictor of adolescent marijuana use.^{11,23,24,28} Past research conducted with predominantly white samples indicates that peers and friends are prominent in influencing adolescents to use marijuana.^{4,29} Moreover, in more recent research with a predominantly ethnic-minority inner-city sample, friends' marijuana use predicted adolescent marijuana use.³⁰

Individual psychosocial characteristics may serve as risk or protective factors for adolescent marijuana use according to Jessor's problem behavior theory.³¹ The theory suggests that some adolescents find deviant behaviors (such as drug use and drinking) functional because the acts help them achieve status and personal goals. Other adolescents who are efficacious in using life skills (social, communication, and assertive skills) may be protected from drug use. Assertiveness and decision-making skills could have important predictive value. Psychosocial characteristics such as drug refusal and advertising resistance skills are not included in Jessor's model and have not been examined in drug etiology; they may weigh heavily in predicting abstinence. Adolescents who currently use drugs and who have poor resistance skills are likely to increase drug use.³² Positive attitudes toward drugs and lack of knowledge about drugs possibly might increase risk for use; therefore, we hypothesize that individual characteristics such as marijuana knowledge and antimarijuana attitudes may also be salient in the prediction of marijuana use. Problem behaviors, such as trouble at home and school, are likely to predict drug use. In recent work, Epstein and colleagues³³ found that lack of knowledge about the prevalence and negative social consequences of marijuana use, positive attitudes toward marijuana use, and inadequate social, communication, and refusal skills increased the likelihood of using marijuana.

The purpose of this study was to examine several dimensions of risk, including background factors (e.g., number of parents living at home, church attendance, academic performance), social influences (e.g., adult norms, friends' marijuana use), and individual psychosocial factors (e.g., antimarijuana attitudes, drug refusal skills, advertising resistance skills) in adolescents living in public housing. The dimensions of risk included in this study were organized into conceptually and theoretically meaningful clusters of risk factors based in part on the most prominent theories of adolescent drug use.¹³ To date, no research has concentrated on examining the determinants of marijuana use of youths in public housing. This investigation is important because identification of the determinants of marijuana use in this population can guide the development of prevention approaches for youths who generally are regarded to be at high risk, but for whom there is a paucity of research.

METHOD

SAMPLE

Data for the current study were obtained as part of a prospective investigation of the etiology and prevention of drug abuse. Using a top-down approach, a project coordinator solicited participation in the study from district superintendents, drug prevention specialists, principals, and then teachers. An affirmative response was required at every level. The majority of those invited to participate accepted and enrolled their schools to begin the study in spring 1994.

At the completion of data collection, using a complete list of housing developments provided by the Housing Authority of New York City, research assistants designated participants' home addresses as either a public housing development or not. Based on federal guidelines (determined by resident's income status), this sample ($N = 624$ seventh graders) included federally funded middle low-income ($n = 268$) and low-income housing residents ($n = 356$). Comparison of these two groups revealed few significant differences in any of the major demographic, psychological, and behavioral measures; therefore, they were collapsed into one group for subsequent analyses. For purposes of this study, only baseline data were used.

The mean age of the sample was 12.87 years (standard deviation [SD] = .53). The sample was 42% male, 27% Hispanic, and 73% black. The majority of these youths lived in single-parent, female-headed households (54%) and received free or partially subsidized lunches while at school (64%). This sample was comprised largely of adolescents from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. The major-

ity of students were enrolled in schools that are recipients of a federal subsidy known as the Title I Program. Only schools in which 66% of its students are eligible for free lunch and Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) are eligible to receive funds from the Title I Program. The median gross income of a family of 2.5 members living in public housing developments was \$12,619. Furthermore, 1 in 3 of all public housing residents have been found to be recipients of public assistance.³⁴ Proportional analyses indicated no differential composition based on gender for black or Hispanic youth. Passive parental consent procedures were used, and less than 1% of the entire baseline pretest sample refused participation.

PROCEDURE

All students in the study completed a questionnaire in class during a regular 40-minute period. A team of three to five data collectors, who were members of the same minority groups as the students participating in the study, administered the questionnaire according to a standardized protocol. Classroom teachers were not involved in data collection. The data collectors read instructions aloud, which stated in part: "The questionnaire is not a test; there are no right or wrong answers. Just give the best answer you can. Also, there are a lot of questions, and you may not finish all of them. That's okay. Do as many as you can, working quickly but carefully." Seventh grade students in focus groups indicated that they were able to understand the questions. The questionnaire language is rated at a sixth grade English reading level based on Thorndike-Lorge criteria. The data collectors stressed confidentiality (a Certificate of Confidentiality was obtained from the US Department of Health and Human Services), reassuring students that their teachers, principals, and parents would not be allowed to see their responses. The students also provided a breath sample for carbon monoxide (CO) testing. Although correlations between CO levels and self-reports of smoking behavior among students in this age group are typically too low to use as an independent validity check, collecting CO samples in conjunction with self-report data has been found to increase the veracity of self-reported smoking data.³⁵ Furthermore, data from the Monitoring the Future Study indicate a high degree of reliability in a three-wave panel design for self-report measures of smoking in adolescents.¹

MEASURES

The questionnaire included self-report measures of marijuana use, background information, social environmental variables, and psychosocial characteristics rele-

vant to drug use. Reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) are indicated below in parentheses. All of the scales were found to have good reliabilities. Moreover, these scales have been used extensively in previous research with minority youth.^{30,36,37}

Marijuana use. Frequency of marijuana use was assessed by the question: "About how often (if ever) do you smoke marijuana (grass, pot) or hashish (hash)?" Responses ranged from "never" (1) to "more than once a day" (9). Another item assessed intentions to use marijuana in the future: "Do you think you will use marijuana or hashish (pot, reefer, weed, blunts) within the next year?" Responses ranged from "definitely not" (1) to "definitely will" (5).

Background variables. Several items assessed sociodemographic characteristics and other background variables, including age, gender, nuclear family status (intact versus other), and ethnic (racial) self-identification. A single item asked students about their means of obtaining lunch (e.g., subsidized or free lunch) and was used to assess socioeconomic status (SES). Academic achievement was assessed by asking students to indicate the grades they usually received, with responses ranging from "mostly A's" (5) to "D's or lower" (1). Attendance at church or religious services was rated on an 8-point scale, with responses ranging from "More than once a week" (8) to "Never" (1). Students also rated how frequently they were absent from school in the last year, with responses ranging from "None" (1) to "16 or more days" (5).

Social environmental variables. Perceived social influences, including friends' marijuana use ("How many of your friends do you think smoke marijuana?"), peer norms ("How many people your age do you think smoke marijuana?"), and adult norms ("How many adults do you think smoke marijuana?") were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from "none" (1) to "all or almost all" (5).

Antimarijuana attitudes. Respondents' attitudes about marijuana, the characteristics of users, and the perceived social benefits of smoking marijuana were assessed.³⁸ Five items were used to assess attitudes about marijuana (Cronbach's alpha = .79). Responses were indicated on five-point Likert scales and ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Items for this measure were reversed to indicate antimarijuana smoking attitudes.

Marijuana knowledge. Using a true/false format, a four-item scale was used to assess knowledge about the immediate/short-term consequences, prevalence, and social acceptability of marijuana use.³⁸

Marijuana refusal. Students indicated whether they would say "no" when someone tries to get them to use marijuana. The measure used was a five-point single item with responses that ranged from "definitely would" to "definitely would not." The marijuana refusal item was derived from prior research.^{39,40}

Drug refusal skills. With response categories identical to those for marijuana refusal, a five-item (Cronbach's alpha = .86) measure presented respondents with ways of saying "no" to offers to smoke, drink, or use other drugs.⁴¹ Respondents rated the probability that they would use a particular method (e.g., change the subject, make up an excuse, and leave).

Assertiveness. General assertiveness was assessed using 10 items derived from Gambrill and Richey's Assertion Inventory⁴² (Cronbach's alpha = .81). The responses were rated on five-point Likert scales and ranged from "definitely would" to "definitely would not." Examples of assertive behavior include returning defective merchandise and speaking up when someone steps ahead in line.

Decision-making skills. Five items measured decision making (Cronbach's alpha = .89), with responses on five-point scales ranging from "never" to "almost always."⁴³ The decision-making measure assessed sound decision-making skills (e.g., "When I have a problem, I get information that is needed to deal with the problem").

Advertising resistance skills. A five-item scale assessed students' skepticism about promotional advertising in general and specifically to alcohol and tobacco (Cronbach's alpha = .81). A sample item was: "When I see or hear an advertisement, I think about whether what the ad says is true." Response categories ranged from "never" (1) to "always" (5).⁴⁴

Trouble index. A three-item measure was used to assess the frequency of problem behavior in the past month.^{39,40} Respondents rated how often they got into trouble in each of three domains (school, home, and with police); 5-point scales were used, with responses ranging from "never" (1) to "more than four times" (5).

DATA ANALYSIS PLAN

Correlations were computed to examine the relationship between each of the marijuana use measures and the background variables, social environmental variables, and individual psychosocial characteristics. Then, a series of logistic regression analyses was conducted to determine which of the variables were the most salient predictors of marijuana use. Logistic regressions were conducted

because the distributions were skewed due to the low levels of marijuana use at this age.

The two dependent (as well as the independent) measures were recoded for the logistic regression analyses. The marijuana use item was recoded "0" for never having smoked marijuana or "1" for having smoked marijuana to compare students who never tried marijuana to students who had tried marijuana. The item assessing future marijuana use was recoded "0" for no plans to smoke it in the future or "1" for some plans to smoke marijuana in the future. For the psychosocial characteristics, items were dichotomized using median splits.

The logistic regression analyses were conducted as follows. For each dependent variable (experimental marijuana use and future marijuana smoking), three preliminary logistic regressions were run that corresponded to each domain (background variables, social environmental variables, and psychosocial variables). In the final logistic regression for each dependent variable, on a single step, only significant predictors from each domain were entered. Individuals for whom any of the variables in the equation were missing were omitted from the analysis.

RESULTS

Table I includes the results of preliminary analyses that include mean values and standard deviations for marijuana use and the predictor variables. The number of participants included in each analysis is also listed in this table.

CORRELATES OF MARIJUANA USE

Correlations between marijuana use and background variables, social environmental factors, and individual characteristics are presented in Table II. Frequency of marijuana use was related significantly to age and related marginally to family structure (two-parent vs. single-parent households). Intention to use marijuana in the future was related significantly to family structure.

Several of the social environmental variables were related significantly to marijuana use. These include peer norms, perceived availability of marijuana, and friends' marijuana use. All of the social environmental variables were related significantly to intentions to smoke marijuana in the future.

Significant correlations were found between marijuana use and several individual psychosocial characteristics. Less-frequent marijuana use was correlated marginally with more general assertiveness and advertising resistance skills and significantly correlated with antimarijuana attitudes and more drug refusal skills. Intention to use marijuana in the future was correlated significantly with antimari-

TABLE I Mean Values for Marijuana Use and Predictor Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Marijuana use			
Experimental marijuana smoking	624	1.11	.65
Intentions to smoke in the future	613	1.14	.53
Predictor variables			
Absenteeism	624	2.85	1.06
Church attendance	624	4.91	2.53
Academic performance	624	3.49	.92
Adult norms	615	3.77	1.17
Peer norms	617	2.87	1.30
Perceived availability of marijuana	597	2.31	1.19
Friends' marijuana use	616	2.11	1.22
Antimarijuana attitudes	591	85.97	15.82
Marijuana knowledge	590	31.69	19.70
Marijuana refusal	475	2.56	1.69
Drug refusal skills	514	75.55	28.52
Assertiveness	475	79.94	16.89
Decision-making skills	428	74.10	24.45
Advertising resistance skills	395	67.14	26.99
Trouble in the past month	580	30.53	21.94

SD, standard deviation.

juana attitudes, higher drug refusal skills, more resistance to promotional advertising, and less involvement in trouble.

CONCURRENT PREDICTORS OF MARIJUANA USE

Table III presents the predictors of marijuana use (ever use) in the final logistic regression model. According to this model, significant predictors of marijuana use included school absenteeism, perceived availability of marijuana, and friends' marijuana use. Examination of the odds ratios associated with the logistic regression indicated that the odds of using marijuana were more than four times greater for adolescents who reported being absent from school for 16 or more days compared to those who missed 15 or fewer days from school. The odds of ever having tried marijuana were nearly 10 times greater for students who perceived that obtaining marijuana was easy. Students who reported that at least half of their friends used marijuana were more than 12 times likely to be marijuana users themselves.

CONCURRENT PREDICTORS OF INTENTION TO USE MARIJUANA IN THE FUTURE

Table IV presents predictors for the final logistic regression model for intention to smoke marijuana in the future. According to this model, significant predictors

TABLE II Relationship Between Marijuana Use and Predictor Variables

Variable	Frequency of Marijuana Smoking	Intentions to Smoke in Future
Background variables		
Age	.10*	.07†
Socioeconomic status (free lunch)‡	.05	.01
Two-parent household	.07†	.09*
Gender§	.00	.02
Ethnicity	.02	.00
Absenteeism	.01	.05
Church attendance	-.01	-.01
Academic performance	-.04	-.05
Social environmental variables		
Adult norms	.05	.10*
Peer norms	.14¶	.24¶
Perceived availability of marijuana	.13¶	.20¶
Friends marijuana use	.30¶	.45¶
Individual psychosocial characteristic variables		
Antimarijuana attitudes	-.21¶	-.38¶
Marijuana knowledge	-.07	-.03
Marijuana refusal	.02	.06
Drug refusal skills	-.15¶	-.21¶
Assertiveness	-.09†	-.03
Decision-making skills	-.07	-.08†
Advertising resistance skills	-.09†	-.11
Trouble in past month	.04	.17¶

* $P < .05$.† $P < .10$.

‡Positive indicates receipt of free or reduced lunch; negative indicates paid or brought lunch.

§Positive indicates that boys scored higher; negative indicates girls scored higher.

||Positive indicates Hispanics scored higher; negative indicates African-Americans scored higher.

¶ $P < .001$.

of intention to use marijuana in the future were perceived availability of marijuana, friends' marijuana use, antimarijuana attitudes, and drug refusal skills. The odds of having intentions to smoke marijuana in the future were over 4.5 times greater for students who perceived that obtaining marijuana was easy. Students who reported that at least half of their friends used marijuana were 28 times more likely to indicate that they intended to use marijuana in the future. Positive attitudes toward marijuana were associated with having intentions to smoke marijuana in the future. Students with low antimarijuana attitudes were

TABLE III Predictors of Experimental Smoking (Ever Use):
Final Logistic Regression Model

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval
Absenteeism (low*)		
High	4.14	1.29-13.29
Perceived availability of marijuana (low*)		
High	9.84	1.29-75.26
Friends' marijuana use (none*)		
<50% to all or almost all	12.45	3.60-43.12
Marijuana knowledge (high*)		
Low	2.40	.98-5.87

*Reference group.

2.5 times more likely to have intentions to use marijuana within the next year. Finally, individuals who reported low drug refusal skills were over 4.5 times more likely to indicate that they intended to use marijuana in the future.

DISCUSSION

Factors that influence marijuana use among youths are of considerable importance as prevalence rates increase and initiation starts at younger ages.^{1,23,30,44} Even though there is substantial evidence indicating that environmental factors such as poverty and crime may increase drug use risk, few empirical studies examine adolescent marijuana use etiology in such contexts. This study explored the psychosocial determinants of adolescent marijuana use within a high-risk environment (low-income public housing developments). Major strengths of this investigation are that it concentrated on young adolescents just at the point of

TABLE IV Predictors of Intentions to Smoke Marijuana in Future:
Final Logistic Regression Model

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval
Perceived availability of marijuana (low*)		
High	4.74	1.35-16.67
Friends' marijuana use (none*)		
<50% to all or almost all	28.51	6.63-122.61
Anti-marijuana attitudes (high*)		
Low	2.49	1.03-6.06
Drug refusal skills (high*)		
Low	4.62	1.66-12.84

*Reference group.

initiation; included a sample of adolescents exposed to the most concentrated poverty, violence, and drug use; and examined two measures of marijuana use (use and intention to use in the future). The results of this study indicate which factors were related to marijuana use for these youth. Social influences from friends, as well as perceived availability of drugs, predicted initiation and plans to use marijuana in the future. Furthermore, individual characteristics such as antimarijuana attitudes and drug refusal skills were associated with a lower likelihood of using marijuana.

Public housing developments typically are characterized by high rates of unemployment and crime.^{7-12,13} Considerable research has shown that continued stressors associated with these conditions may have negative effects on adolescent development, including poor competence, increased school dropout rates, violence, and inadequate social skills.¹⁵ All of these are known precursors of illicit drug use. It is essential, then, to learn if the adaptational skills of these youths are influenced adversely by their exposure to a deleterious environment and whether prevention efforts can focus specifically on building resilience that can retard acquisition of early-stage drug use.

In the present study, age, SES, family structure, gender, and ethnicity did not reach significance among the background variables. Since this sample only included students in one grade level, there was too little variation in age to detect the effects of being older. SES also was restricted. That gender did not predict marijuana use may be attributed to the fact that gender differences have been narrowing in recent times, and gender differentials are more pronounced for more serious levels of drug use.¹ Alternatively, gender differences may not have developed yet, as shown in prior research with inner-city minority seventh graders.³⁰ It is unclear why there were no ethnic differences. Although the students may differ in their cultural backgrounds, they share family and environmental characteristics. Of the background variables, absenteeism proved to be the sole predictor of marijuana use, adding support to Jessor's³¹ work, which suggests that, for adolescents, truancy may function as a way to achieve status and personal goals.

Within the social environmental domain, use by friends predicted marijuana use and intention to use marijuana in the future. Students who perceived that marijuana use was prevalent among their friends were more likely to have tried marijuana and to intend to use marijuana in the future relative to students who reported that few of their friends use marijuana. Youths' perception that deviant behaviors are standard practice among their peers may promote deviance through

establishment of negative normative beliefs.²⁷ These findings replicate those found in prior studies with predominantly white samples^{4,28} and minority samples.^{3,29,30} Friends' marijuana use may be a particularly potent social influence among youths living in public housing developments who are at heightened risk for drug use. The present findings provided further theoretical support for Bandura's²⁷ social learning theory, which posits that adolescence is characteristically an impressionable point in development, and that children learn largely through reinforcement and modeling. Interestingly, the perception that marijuana is easily available was a significant predictor of use, as well as intention to use, of marijuana in the future, lending support to the interpretation that drug-entrenched environments may heighten the risk of becoming involved with marijuana and other drugs. The perception by housing adolescents that they can procure marijuana easily is a serious risk factor and can be placed among a set of problem behaviors that Jessor's³¹ postulates are functional for troubled adolescents who will become engaged in such behaviors to achieve social admiration, high esteem, and status among their age-mates.

Individual characteristics proved to have value in predicting marijuana use among this urban minority sample. Students who had poor drug refusal skills were more likely to report intentions to smoke marijuana in the future. Similarly, individuals who had antimarijuana attitudes were less likely to have future intentions to use marijuana. Students with poor drug refusal skills also were more likely to have used marijuana in their lifetimes. These findings suggest that students who are efficacious in using well-developed refusal skills (using firm and varied rejections to offers to use drugs) were at decreased risk for using marijuana.

This study has limitations that should be considered. As this study focused on a school-based sample, findings cannot be generalized to adolescents not in school. However, this study was comprised of students in seventh grade, for whom dropout rates remain low. Absentee data were minimized by pursuing absentees on at least one return data collection. Second, the cross-sectional nature of these data prevent us from exploring developmental trends that might accentuate drug abuse. For instance, if housing developments are associated with heightened risk, it may be as the youths in them get older, they are forced to choose between remaining in school or dropping out to peddle drugs and participate in delinquent activities for economic gain. National educational statistics reveal that between 15 and 18 years of age dropout rates increase dramatically.⁶ Subjects in our sample were 13 and 14 years old, which may have prevented us from

exploring some of the developmental processes that culminate in delinquent behavior. Future studies are warranted that follow these youths over time to track the development of conditions that promote marijuana use.

Preadolescent and adolescent youths in public housing are at particularly high risk for using drugs. In the social milieu of public housing developments, several forces culminate to make the transition into young adulthood especially pernicious for these impressionable youths. While adolescence can be challenging for youths from even the most protected backgrounds, for adolescents in public housing, the risks of precocious drug use are heightened. Children living in poverty must contend with and negotiate multiple problems. The probability of a child developing problems increases rapidly as the number of family problems or risk factors increases.⁵⁰ When children are afflicted persistently by family and environmental problems, their probability of using marijuana increases exponentially.^{51,52}

The domains and variables that emerged from this study indicate that some of the same models and conceptualizations based on research with predominantly white, suburban samples⁴⁶ can be employed meaningfully in developing prevention models among ethnic minority youths living in low-income public housing developments. The results of this study have several implications for developing effective drug prevention programs for economically disadvantaged minority youths living in high-risk environments such as urban public housing developments. Such programs should provide these adolescents with an awareness of the various social influences to smoke marijuana. For residents of public housing developments, it is imperative to correct misperceptions about the prevalence of smoking among friends, peers, and adults and other high-risk centers. Furthermore, adolescents living in housing developments need to be provided with positive non-drug-using role models and an awareness that negative influences can come from their most immediate surroundings. Having the competency, agency, and skills to refuse offers to use marijuana will prove to be most valuable components of any prevention efforts. Teaching adolescents to reject media influences to smoke marijuana and to become more skeptical toward popular images of influence ranks chief among sound prevention efforts. Finally, as with all adolescents, in the prevention of drug use, it is critical to target other problem behaviors (e.g., absenteeism and getting in trouble).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Preparation of this article was supported by a research grant to Gilbert J. Botvin (P50DA-7656) from the National Institute on Drug Abuse.

REFERENCES

1. Johnston LD, O'Malley PM, Bachman JG. *National Survey Results on Drug Use from Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1996. Vol. 1. Secondary School Students*. Rockville, Md: National Institute on Drug Abuse; 1996.
2. Miller NS, Gold MS, Mahler JC. Violent behaviors associated with cocaine use: possible pharmacological mechanisms. *Int J Addict*. 1991;26:1077-1088.
3. Pickworth WB, Brown BS, Hickey JE. Effect of self-reported drug use and antisocial behavior on evoked potentials in adolescents. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 1990;25:105-110.
4. Schwartz RH, Hoffman NG, Jones R. Behavioral, psychological, and academic correlates of marijuana usage in adolescence. *Clin Pediatr*. 1987;26:264-270.
5. Watts WD, Wright LS. The relationship of alcohol, tobacco, marijuana, and other illegal drug use to delinquency among Mexican, black and white adolescent males. *Adolescence*. 1990;97:171-181.
6. *Statistical Abstracts of the United States: The National Data Book*. Washington, DC: US Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, Bureau of the Census; 1995.
7. Li X, Stanton B, Feigelman S, Black MM, Romer D. Drug trafficking and drug use among urban African-American early adolescents. *J Early Adolesc*. 1994;14:491-508.
8. Dubrow N, Garbarino J. Living in the war zone: mothers and young children in public housing developments. *Child Welfare*. 1989;68:3-20.
9. Newman O. Reactions to the "defensible space" study and some further findings. *Int J Mental Health*. 1975;4:48-70.
10. Normoyle J, Foley J. The defensible space model of fear and elderly public housing residents. *Environ Behav*. 1988;20:50-74.
11. Feigelman S, Li X, Stanton B. Perceived risks and benefits of alcohol, cigarette, and drug use among urban low-income African-American early adolescents. *Bull NY Acad Med*. 1995;72:57-75.
12. Li X, Stanton B, Black MM, Romer D, Ricardo I, Kaljee L. Risk behavior and perception among youths residing in urban public housing developments. *Bull NY Acad Med*. 1994;71:252-266.
13. Durant RH, Pendergrast RA, Camdenhead C. Exposure to violence and victimization and fighting behavior by urban black adolescents. *J Adolesc Health*. 1994;15:31-38.
14. Korte C, Huismans S. Sources of assistance among residents of a Dutch high-rise development. *Am J Community Psychol*. 1983;11:751-755.
15. Gill AR. High-rise housing and psychological strain. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1977;8:418-431.
16. New York City Housing Authority. *Housing Police Statistics-Incident Report*. New York: New York City Housing Authority; 1994.
17. Williams C, Epstein JA, Botvin GJ, Schinke SP, Diaz T. Psychosocial determinants of alcohol use among minority youth living in public housing developments. *J Dev Behav Pediatr*. 1998;19:145-154.
18. Epstein JA, Williams C, Botvin GJ, Diaz T, Ifill-Williams M. Psychosocial predictors of adolescents living in public housing developments. *Tobacco Control*. In press.
19. Williams C, Scheler LM, Botvin GJ, Baker E, Miller N. Risk factors of alcohol use among inner-city minority youth: a comparative analysis of youth living in public and conventional housing. *J Child Adolesc Subst Abuse*. 1997;6:69-89.
20. Coulton CJ, Pandey S. Geographic concentration of poverty and risk to children in urban neighborhoods. *Am Behav Scientist*. 1992;35:238-257.
21. Bachman JG, Wallace JM Jr, O'Malley PM, Johnston LD, Kurth CL, Neighbors HW. Racial/ethnic differences in smoking, drinking, and illicit drug use among American high school seniors, 1976-89. *Am J Public Health*. 1991;81:372-377.
22. Hawkins JD, Catalano RF, Miller JY. Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: implications for substance abuse prevention. *Psychol Bull*. 1992;112:64-105.

23. Millstein SG, Irwin CE, Adler LD, Cohn SM, Kegeles M, Dolcini MM. Health-risk behaviors and health concerns among young adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 1992;89:422-428.
24. Vega WA, Zimmerman RS, Warheit GJ, Apospori E, Gil AC. Risk factors for early adolescent drug use in four ethnic and racial groups. *Am J Public Health*. 1993;83:185-189.
25. Bush PJ, Iannotti RJ. Alcohol, cigarette, and marijuana use among fourth-grade urban schoolchildren in 1988/89 and 1990/91. *Am J Public Health*. 1993;83:111-114.
26. Walter HJ, Vaughan RD, Cohall AT. Comparison of three theoretical models of substance use among urban minority high school students. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 1993;32:975-981.
27. Bandura A. *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall; 1977.
28. Glynn TJ. From family to peer: a review of transitions of influence among drug-using youth. *J Youth Adolesc*. 1981;10:363-383.
29. US Department of Health and Human Services. *Seventh Special Report to the US Congress on Alcohol and Health*. Rockville, Md: US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Alcohol, Drug Abuse and Mental Health Administration, NIAAA; 1990.
30. Epstein JA, Botvin GJ, Diaz T, Toth V, Schinke SP. Social and personal factors in marijuana use and intentions to use drugs among inner city minority youth. *Dev Behav Pediatr*. 1995;16:14-20.
31. Jessor R. Risk behavior in adolescence: a psychosocial framework for understanding and action. *J Adolesc Health*. 1991;12:597-605.
32. Ellickson PL, Hays RD. Beliefs about resistance, self efficacy and drug prevalence: do they really affect drug use? *Int J Addict*. 1992;25:1353-1373.
33. Petraitis J, Flay BR, Miller TQ. Reviewing theories of adolescent substance use: organizing pieces in the puzzle. *Psychol Bull*. 1995;117:67-86.
34. New York City Housing Authority. *Research and Policy Development*. New York: New York City Housing Authority; 1997.
35. Evans HI, Hansen WB, Mittlemark MB. Increasing the validity of self-reports of smoking behavior in children. *J Appl Psychol*. 1977;62:521-523.
36. Botvin GJ, Schinke SP, Epstein JA, Diaz T. Effectiveness of culturally focused and generic skills training approaches to alcohol and drug abuse prevention among minority youths. *Psychol Addict Behav*. 1994;8:116-127.
37. Botvin GJ, Schinke S, Epstein JA, Diaz T, Botvin E. Effectiveness of culturally focused and generic skills training approaches to alcohol and drug abuse prevention among minority adolescents: two-year follow-up results. *Psychol Addict Behav*. 1995;9:183-194.
38. Botvin GJ, Baker E, Renick NL, Filazzola AD, Botvin EM. A cognitive-behavioral approach to substance abuse prevention. *J Addict Behav*. 1984;9:137-147.
39. Botvin GJ, Epstein JA, Baker E, Diaz T, Ifill-Williams M. School-based drug abuse prevention with inner-city minority youth. *J Child Adolesc Subst Abuse*. 1997;6:5-19.
40. Scheier LM, Botvin GJ, Diaz T, Ifill-Williams M. Ethnic identity as a moderator of psychosocial risk and adolescent alcohol and marijuana use: concurrent and longitudinal analyses. *J Child Adolesc Subst Abuse*. 1997;6:21-47.
41. Epstein JA, Botvin GJ, Diaz T, Baker E, Botvin EM. Reliability of social and personal competence measures for adolescents. *Psychol Rep*. 1997;81:449-450.
42. Gambrill ED, Richey CA. An assertion inventory for use in assessment and research. *Behav Ther*. 1975;6:550-561.
43. Dupre D, Miller N, Gold M, Rospenda K. Initiation and progression of alcohol, marijuana, and cocaine use among adolescent abusers. *Am J Addict*. 1995;4:43-48.
44. Kandel DB, Logan JA. Patterns of drug use from adolescence to young adulthood: I. Periods of risk for initiation, continued use, and discontinuation. *Am J Public Health*. 1984;74:660-666.
45. Angrist S. Dimensions of well-being in public housing families. *Environ Behav*. 1974; 6:495-515.

46. Botvin GJ, Botvin EM. Adolescent tobacco, alcohol, and drug abuse: prevention strategies, empirical findings, and assessment issues. *J Dev Behav Pediatr.* 1992;13:2990-3301.
47. Dembo R, Farrow D, Schmeidler J, Burgos W. Testing a causal model of environmental influences on early drug involvement of inner city junior high school youths. *Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse.* 1979;6:313-336.
48. Kandel DB. Process of peer influence in adolescence. In: Silberstein RK, Eyferth K, Rudinger G, eds. *Development as Action in Context: Problem Behavior and Normal Youth Development.* New York: Springer-Verlag; 1986:203-227.
49. Kandel DB, Andrews K. Processes of adolescent socialization by parents and peers. *Int J Addict.* 1987;22:319-342.
50. Rutter M. Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. *Am J Orthopsychiatry.* 1990;57:316-331.
51. Newcomb MD, Bentler PM. Substance use and ethnicity: differential impact of peer and adult models. *J Psychol.* 1986;120:83-95.
52. Newcomb MD, Maddahian E, Bentler PM. Risk factors for drug use among adolescents: concurrent and longitudinal analyses. *Am J Public Health.* 1986;76:525-531.

[Home](#)

[Online Resources](#)

[Table of Contents](#)

Journal of Urban Health: Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine, Volume 76, Issue 1, pp. 85-101: Abstract.

Marijuana use among minority youths living in public housing developments

C Williams*, JA Epstein, GJ Botin and M Ifill-Williams

Institute for Prevention Research, Department of Public Health, Cornell University Medical College, 411 East 69th Street, KB 201, New York, NY 10021, USA,

*Corresponding author

Youths residing in public housing developments appear to be at markedly heightened risk for drug use because of their constant exposure to violence, poverty, and drug-related activity. The purpose of this study was to develop and test a model of marijuana etiology with adolescents (N=624) residing in public housing. African-American and Hispanic seventh graders completed questionnaires about their marijuana use, social influences to smoke marijuana, and sociodemographic and psychosocial characteristics. Results indicated that social influences, such as friends' marijuana use and perceived ease of availability of marijuana, significantly predicted both occasional and future use of marijuana. Individual characteristics such as antimarijuana attitudes and drug refusal skills also predicted marijuana use. The findings imply that effective prevention approaches that target urban youths residing in public housing developments should provide them with an awareness of social influences to use marijuana, correct misperceptions about the prevalence of marijuana smoking, and train adolescents in relevant psychosocial skills.

[Oxford University Press] [Oxford Journals] [Comments & Feedback] Copyright© Oxford University Press, 1999.

HHS NEWS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

FOR IMMEDIATE RELEASE
Wednesday, April 14, 1999

Contact: Beverly Jackson
Sheryl Massaro
(301) 443-6245

STUDY SHOWS THREE CIGARETTE BRANDS DOMINATE YOUTH SMOKING

The Department of Health and Human Services today released findings indicating that *Marlboro* (Philip Morris), *Newport* (Lorillard), and *Camel* (RJR/Nabisco) are by far the cigarette brands used most by teens who are current smokers.

Some 88 percent of 12th graders, 86 percent of 10th graders, and 82 percent of 8th graders who currently smoke cigarettes use these three brands, which have been among the most heavily advertised and promoted brands.

The clearly dominant brand of the three is *Marlboro*. By the time they finish high school, nearly two thirds (65.2 percent) of current smokers use Marlboro. And, despite the strong male orientation of its advertising themes, *Marlboro* is as popular among girls as among boys. An additional 13 percent of current smokers in 12th grade regularly use *Newport* and nearly 10 percent of 12th graders use *Camel*.

Vice President Al Gore along with HHS Secretary Donna E. Shalala announced the survey findings at separate events in conjunction with the fourth annual Kick Butts Day, a nationwide initiative designed to curb tobacco use among children and adolescents.

"Each day, nearly 3,000 children become regular smokers, and almost 1,000 of them will die prematurely as a result of their cigarette smoking," said Secretary Shalala, who participated in a Kick Butts Day event in Washington, D.C. "For the past five years, the Clinton Administration has been working hard to crack down on tobacco advertising aimed at children, and to protect our young people from the dangers of tobacco. Now we need Congress to help us finish the job, by increasing the price of tobacco products, and by devoting new resources to anti-smoking programs across the country."

The cigarette brand findings are from the *Monitoring the Future* (MTF) study, an annual survey of illicit drug, alcohol, and cigarette use among 8th, 10th, and 12th graders, which is conducted by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research and funded by the National Institute on Drug Abuse of the National Institutes of Health.

The data on brand preferences are from the 1998 MTF survey, and are based on respondents who smoked one or more cigarettes in the prior month. Some 50,000 students in over 400 public and private secondary schools nationwide participated in the survey last spring, and more than 7,000 students were asked about their brand usage.

The 1998 MTF survey also found notable preferences among African-American youth for *Newport*, and among white students for *Marlboro*.

- More -

- 2 -

More than 80 percent of African-American 12th graders who were current smokers in 1998 used *Newport*, and more than 70 percent of them in both the 8th and 10th grades used *Newport*. *Newport* is a mentholated cigarette heavily marketed to the African-American community.

Some 70 percent of white 12th graders who were current smokers in 1998 used *Marlboro*, and more than 60 percent of white students in both the 8th and 10th grades used this brand. In all three grades, *Newport* and *Marlboro* were just as popular among girls as among boys.

The number of current smokers answering the brand preference question at each grade level was 2,050 at the 8th grade, 7,710 at the 10th grade, and 2,330 at the 12th grade. The brand preference question asks, "What brand of cigarettes do you usually smoke?" Beginning in 1999, the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration will include questions about usual brand use for cigarettes, cigars and smokeless tobacco products in their annual National Household Survey on Drug Abuse.

The MTF study also found that students who smoked more frequently during the past month are more likely to have a usual brand of choice. Additionally, after the three most popular brands, each of the other 20 cigarette brands listed on the survey is smoked by less than 2 percent of students, and most of these, by much less.

Kick Butts Day is organized annually by the Campaign for Tobacco-Free Kids, a nonprofit organization, and involves young people nationwide staging a variety of anti-tobacco activities, such as testifying before state legislatures, exposing tobacco sales to minors, and dumping merchandise containing tobacco brand-name logos into garbage dumpsters.

The full Monitoring the Future report, including the survey on youth cigarette brand use, is available on the Internet at <http://www.nida.nih.gov>.

###

Note: HHS press releases are available on the World Wide Web at <http://www.dhhs.gov>.

CIGARETTE BRAND PREFERENCES AMONG ADOLESCENTS

Monitoring the Future Occasional Paper 45

Lloyd D. Johnston
Patrick M. O'Malley
Jerald G. Bachman
John E. Schulenberg

Institute for Social Research
The University of Michigan
1999

TABLE OF CONTENTS

BACKGROUND

MAIN FINDINGS

Levels of Cigarette Smoking
Brand Preferences
Level of Smoking
Purchasing Their Own Cigarettes
Age of Smoking Initiation

DIFFERENCES AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC SUBGROUPS

Gender Differences
Racial/Ethnic Differences
Region
Population Density
College Plans
Parental Education

SUMMARY

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

APPENDIX A: TEXT OF QUESTIONS

APPENDIX B: CONFIDENCE INTERVALS AND SELECTED SIGNIFICANCE TESTS FOR THREE CIGARETTE BRANDS

BACKGROUND

Monitoring the Future is an ongoing study of American young people, based in part on annual surveys of nationally representative samples of eighth, tenth, and twelfth-grade students attending public or private secondary schools in the coterminous 48 states. Since its inception in 1975, it has been funded through a series of investigator-initiated research grants from the National Institute on Drug Abuse to a team of social scientists at the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research. The epidemiological results of these surveys are published in an annual series of monographs (see Johnston, O'Malley, & Bachman, 1998). The most recent survey, conducted in the spring of 1998, involved nearly 50,000 respondents in 422 schools.

The 1998 survey contained a new question about the brand preferences of those respondents who indicated smoking one or more cigarettes in the prior 30 days - that is, "current smokers." The question read, "What brand of cigarettes do you usually smoke? (Brands are in alphabetical order. Mark only one.)" This question was followed by a list of 23 of the largest-selling brands. The options of "Other" brand and "No usual brand" were also provided to respondents. (See Appendix A for the question and full answer set.)

Between two- and three-thousand current smokers answered the brand preference question at each grade level (2,048 eighth graders, 2,708 tenth graders, and 2,335 twelfth graders). Not all participants in the study were asked this question because it was contained on only three of the four questionnaire forms used in eighth and tenth grade, and on three of the six questionnaire forms used in twelfth grade.

A number of interesting findings have emerged from the initial analyses of this question-particularly those having to do with the degree of market concentration found, and the extent of differences among subgroups. These findings are presented below. It should be noted that it is illegal in virtually all states for young people below the age of 18 to purchase, or to be sold, cigarettes. While approximately half of the twelfth graders had reached their 18th birthday by the time the survey was conducted, virtually none of the eighth- or tenth graders had done so.

MAIN FINDINGS

Data are presented here for the total samples of current smokers at each of the three grade levels, as well as for selected subgroups at each of the three grade levels. Some of the tables contain a column of data labeled "all grades" which is a simple unweighted mean of the percentages observed at each of the three grade levels. This is to provide at a glance a summary of relationships, but should not be interpreted as representing all smokers in grades 8 through 12.

The numbers of cases in the analyses sometimes are small, particularly for certain subgroups, so the reader is cautioned to attend to the sample sizes which are presented in each table and figure. Confidence intervals (95% level) around point estimates are given for each of the three grades in Appendix B, separately for each of the three major brands smoked by young people.

Levels of Cigarette Smoking

In 1998 the proportion of students reporting smoking any cigarettes in the prior 30 days was 19.1% of the eighth graders, 27.6% of the tenth graders, and 35.1% of the twelfth graders. These comprise the current smokers who answered the questions regarding brand preference. Other statistics on levels and trends in smoking at the three grade levels are presented in Table 1.

Brand Preferences

By the time they finish high school, nearly two-thirds (65.2%) of American young people who are current smokers say they usually smoke Marlboro. Two other brands account for most of the remainder-Newport (13.3%) and Camel (9.6%). These three brands account for 88.1% of the current smokers in twelfth grade (another 4.1% say they have "no usual brand"). Each of the other brands is smoked by less than 2% of current smokers in twelfth grade, usually by much less. (Table 2 and Figure 3).

Among younger smokers (Figures 1 and 2) these three brands also predominated: They are the usual brand for 81.6% of the current smokers in eighth grade (another 9.7% have no usual brand), and 86.1% of current smokers in tenth grade (where 6.4% say they have no usual brand). Note that the proportion saying they have no usual brand declines with age.

While Marlboro is the predominant brand at all three grade levels, it accounts for an increasing proportion of smokers at each higher grade level: 53.7% of the eighth graders; 61.1% of the tenth graders, and 65.2% of the twelfth graders. In part, this may be due to the increasing proportion of students who have a brand preference at older ages.

The second most widely-used brand of cigarettes at all three grade levels is Newport. It accounts for 22.5% of the eighth-grade smokers, but its market share declines to 17.7% among tenth-grade smokers, and 13.3% among twelfth-grade smokers.

The third-ranked brand in all three grades is Camel. Like Marlboro, Camel's share of the youth market appears to increase with grade level: 5.4% of the current smokers in grade 8 say they usually smoke Camel cigarettes, 7.3% in grade 10, and 9.6% in grade 12.

Level of Smoking

Among current smokers at all grade levels, those who have an established smoking habit are more likely to have a brand that they usually smoke (Table 3). For example, among eighth graders, 15% of the current smokers who do not yet smoke daily said they have no usual brand that they smoke, vs. only 2.5% of those who smoke one-half pack per day. Similar differences are found at grades 10 and 12. In fact, by twelfth grade practically none of the daily (but less than half-pack a day) smokers (1.3%) and half-pack-a-day smokers (0.7%) are without a usual brand of cigarettes. Thus, it appears that brand loyalty begins to be established very early. This striking fact helps to show why tobacco companies might have a strong motivation to induce young people to establish a preference for their brands at an early age.

Purchasing Their Own Cigarettes

Whether a student purchases his or her own cigarettes was determined by answers to questions about the source of the cigarettes they smoke. Those who indicated that they made any purchase in the past 30 days from any of the following sources were coded as having purchased their own cigarettes: from a vending machine, through the mail, picked them up at a store, or was handed them in a store by a clerk. (See Appendix A for the exact question wording.)

As would be expected, the proportion of adolescents who purchase their own cigarettes rises with age; only 35% of the eighth graders who are current smokers report purchasing cigarettes in the prior 30 days, whereas 75% of twelfth graders do. (See the numerical distributions at the bottom of Table 4.)

Students who purchase their own cigarettes are a bit more likely to report having a usual brand (Table 4). For example, among eighth graders, only 6% of those who purchase their own cigarettes say they do not have a usual brand, vs. 12% of those who do not purchase their own. A similar difference exists at the higher grades, as well (2% vs. 10% in tenth grade, respectively, and 2% vs. 13% in twelfth grade).

Age of Smoking Initiation

We examined the grade of initiation of smoking a first cigarette among current smokers in grades 10 and 12 to determine whether those who initiated smoking earlier were more or less likely to develop a particular brand preference. There is no indication that the grade level at which a current smoker first began smoking cigarettes affects his or her current brand preferences (see Table 5).

DIFFERENCES AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC SUBGROUPS

Differences among subgroups were examined across a number of demographic characteristics including gender, race/ethnicity, region, population density, college plans, and level of parents' education. Tables 6 through 11 provide the brand preference data for the various subgroups defined on these dimensions, and Appendix B present the confidence intervals around these estimates for the three predominant brands (Marlboro, Newport, and Camel) along with significance tests for the differences observed among the groups. Some very important differences were found, as well as some surprising similarities.

Gender Differences

One of the more surprising findings is that Marlboro appears to be at least as popular among girls as among boys at all three grade levels, despite the virtually exclusively male depictions in Marlboro advertising. Among current smokers at eighth grade, 55.4% of girls vs. 51.7% of boys say they smoke Marlboro cigarettes; at tenth grade, 64.1% vs. 58.0%; and at twelfth grade, 66.2% of girls vs. 64.6% of boys (Table 6). (None of these gender differences is statistically significant: See Appendix B.)

Gender differences with respect to Camel cigarettes are more in line with conventional wisdom. In eighth grade, 7.3% of boys who are current smokers vs. 4.2% of such girls say their usual brand is Camel; in tenth grade, 9.9% vs. 5.0%; and in twelfth grade, 11.2% for boys vs. 8.3% for girls. Still, considering the strong emphasis on male themes in the Camel ads, a significant proportion of girls say that Camel is the brand they usually smoke. (The gender difference is statistically significant at tenth grade only, but the consistency of the findings across all three grades increases our confidence in their validity.)

Newport shows rather little gender difference. At all grades slightly more females than males report this as their preferred brand, although none of these grade-specific differences reaches statistical significance.

Racial/Ethnic Differences

The sample sizes for the two largest minority groups-African Americans and Hispanics-are quite small at each grade level. The numbers of African American respondents reporting brand preference are only 166 at grade eight, 178 at grade ten, and 106 at grade twelve, for a total of 450 respondents. The numbers of Hispanic respondents on the brand preference question are 257 in grade eight, 245 in grade ten, and 156 in grade twelve, for a total of 658. (The numbers of African American respondents are lower, because African American teens have much lower smoking rates than either whites or Hispanics.)

The ethnic differences in brand preference are dramatic (see Table 7). While the great majority (from 61%-70%) of white adolescents at all three grade levels say they smoke Marlboro-as do a smaller, but still substantial, majority of Hispanics (from 57%-65%)-fewer than 10% of the African American

adolescents at any grade level smoke Marlboro. Instead, their predominant brand is Newport (from 71%-82%). Virtually none of the African American adolescents smoke Camels (1.7% at eighth grade and 0.0% at tenth and twelfth grade).

Hispanic students at all grade levels appear to be a bit more likely to smoke Newport than white student respondents, but their preference rates for Newport are not nearly as high as among African Americans. They also appear to be a bit less likely than white students to smoke Marlboro or Camel, although Marlboro is still the choice of the majority of Hispanic students.

Among white respondents, fully 70.2% smoke Marlboro by twelfth grade. The proportion increases from 61.1% in eighth grade to 66.1% in tenth grade. This means that the overall increase by grades noted earlier for the popularity of Marlboros is highly unlikely to be explained by differential dropout rates among ethnic groups.

Of the three ethnic groups, whites are the most likely to smoke Camel cigarettes.

Region

Because of the limited numbers of cases, the regional differences presented here are not always definitive. To the extent that a finding replicates across the three grades-the samples for which are drawn independently of one another-it is considerably more credible.

Marlboro is the leading brand in all four regions, although at all grade levels it tends to account for a lower percent of the brand choices in the Northeast than in the other three regions (see Table 8). (An analysis of variance shows a significant difference among the regions at tenth and twelfth grades in Marlboro use.)

At all grade levels the West shows the lowest proportion of students who report smoking Newport and the Northeast shows the highest proportion. (The differences among regions in Newport use are significant in tenth and twelfth grades and very close to significant in eighth.) Additionally, from 3% to 7% of the students in the Northeast report smoking Parliament-far higher than any of the other three regions (where less than 1% at any grade level smoke that brand).

Marlboro accounts for the majority of smokers in all grades for all regions, except the Northeast, where it accounts for 40% of the eighth-grade current smokers, 47% in tenth grade, and 54% in twelfth grade.

Population Density

Marlboro is the most popular brand at all three population density levels, but it is most dominant in the non-metropolitan areas (see Table 9). (The differences in Marlboro use are significant for grades 8 and 10.) Newport is more prevalent among the metropolitan areas at eighth and tenth grades, whereas differences by urbanicity are rather small by twelfth grade. (These differences are significant at grade 10 and just short of significant at grade 8.)

There are not large or consistent differences in the use of Camel cigarettes associated with population density.

College Plans

Among current smokers of the major brands, there is very little difference in brand preference at any of the three grade levels as a function of whether respondents expect to complete four years of college or not (Table 10).

Parental Education

Parental education is used as an indicator of socioeconomic status. An index based on the level of education attained by both parents is used, or the level of education of the single parent if only one is present. (For a full description of the question and procedures see Johnston et al., 1998.)

Table 11 provides an overview of these findings based on a three-level index of parental education. The analyses discussed below are based on the full five-level index of parental education and are presented in Appendix B. Table B-3 shows that the use of Marlboro cigarettes tends to be negatively associated with social class among twelfth graders (an analysis of variance is significant at the .05 level) with the only exception being the relatively small lowest stratum where race composition is likely having an effect. The rates array ordinally from 54% in the highest stratum to 71% in the next-to-lowest. (The lowest is at 63%.) There is much less of a differential at earlier grades, although Marlboro use appears to be lowest in the top stratum even at earlier grades.

Newport shows high preference rates in the bottom two strata at twelfth grade-21% in the lowest stratum and 15% in the next to lowest, vs. 9% to 11% in the other strata (Table B-6). (The analysis of variance is significant. Again, racial composition is likely to account for much of this difference.) However, there is much less variability at grades 8 and 10 except that the top stratum still has rates lower than the others.

Camel use also varies with social class, as represented by parental education level. In general, it is a positive association, with the top one or two strata having the highest preference for Camel cigarettes at all three grade levels. (The analysis of variance shows significant differences among the strata at all grade levels, though they are not specifically testing for ordinality or linearity in the relationship.) Again, the differences are most striking at twelfth grade, where 22% of the top stratum reports Camel use vs. about 4% or 5% of the bottom two strata (Table B-9).

SUMMARY

In sum, the very high rates of cigarette smoking found among American teenagers in the late 1990s are associated with the popularity of just three brands: Marlboro (a Philip Morris product), Newport (a Lorillard product), and Camel (an RJR/Nabisco product). Perhaps not coincidentally, these have been among the most heavily advertised and promoted cigarette brands, in particular Marlboro; and also perhaps not coincidentally, two of them (Newport and Camel) have aggressively pursued youth-oriented themes in their advertising-the "Alive with pleasure" theme and the Joe Camel theme, respectively.

The clearly dominant brand, however, is Marlboro, which has successfully identified itself with the American icon of the Western cowboy, as well as with certain competitive sports, like Formula One racing. By twelfth grade, nearly two-thirds of students who are current smokers (65%) smoke Marlboro. Despite the strongly male orientation of the Marlboro advertising themes, however, Marlboro is at least as popular among girls in their teens as among boys.

Just as there are dramatic racial/ethnic differences in rates of smoking among adolescents (with African American teenagers having by far the lowest rates), there also are dramatic racial/ethnic differences in brand preferences among those who do smoke. Newport, a mentholated cigarette, predominates among African American teenage smokers to an even greater extent than Marlboro predominates among white teenage smokers.

Finally, the fact that so few of the current smokers in their teen years do not already have a brand that they usually smoke (10% of eighth graders, 6% of tenth graders, and 4% of twelfth-grade current smokers) helps to illustrate why tobacco companies might have a compelling interest in having their advertising and promotion reach underage children.

REFERENCES

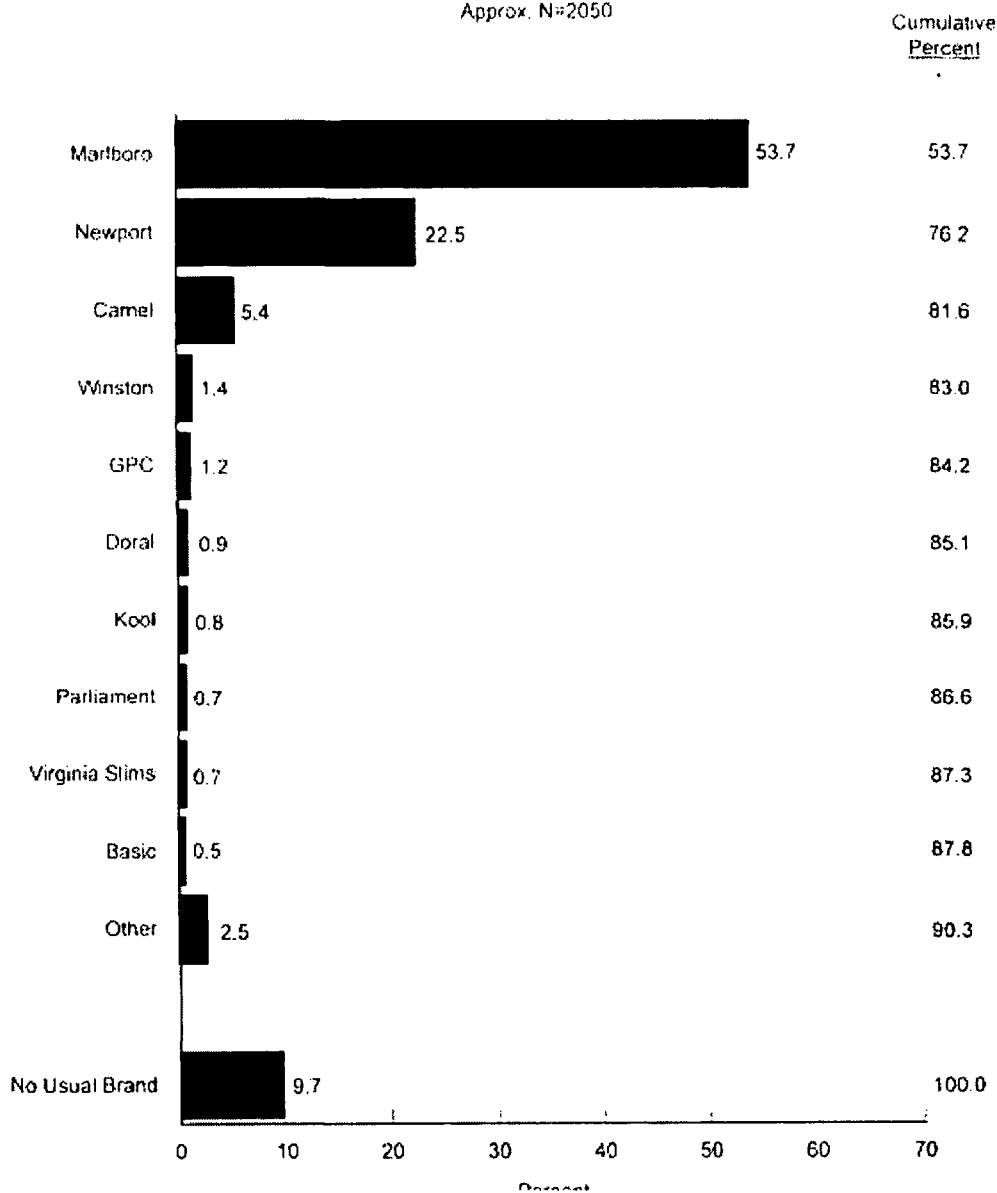
Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., & Bachman, J.G. (1998). National survey results on drug use from the Monitoring the Future study, 1975-1997. Volume I: Secondary school students. (NIH Publication No. 98-4345) and Volume II: College students and young adults. (NIH Publication No. 98-4346). Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse.

FIGURES

Figure 1

Grade 8: Brands Usually Smoked by Current Smokers, 1998

(entries are percentages)
Approx. N=2050



Percent

Figure 2

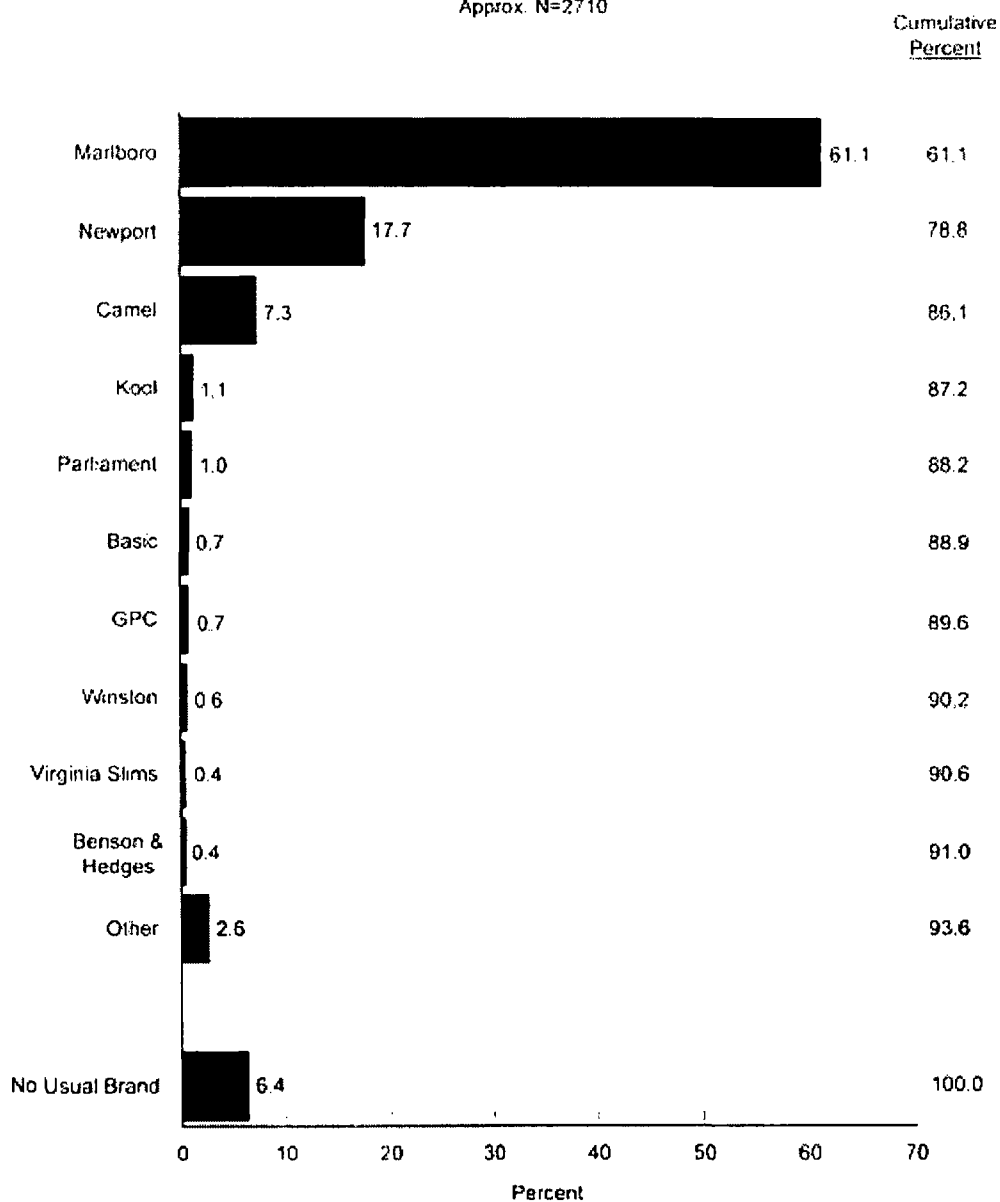
**Grade 10: Brands Usually Smoked
by Current Smokers, 1998**(entries are percentages)
Approx. N=2710

Figure 3

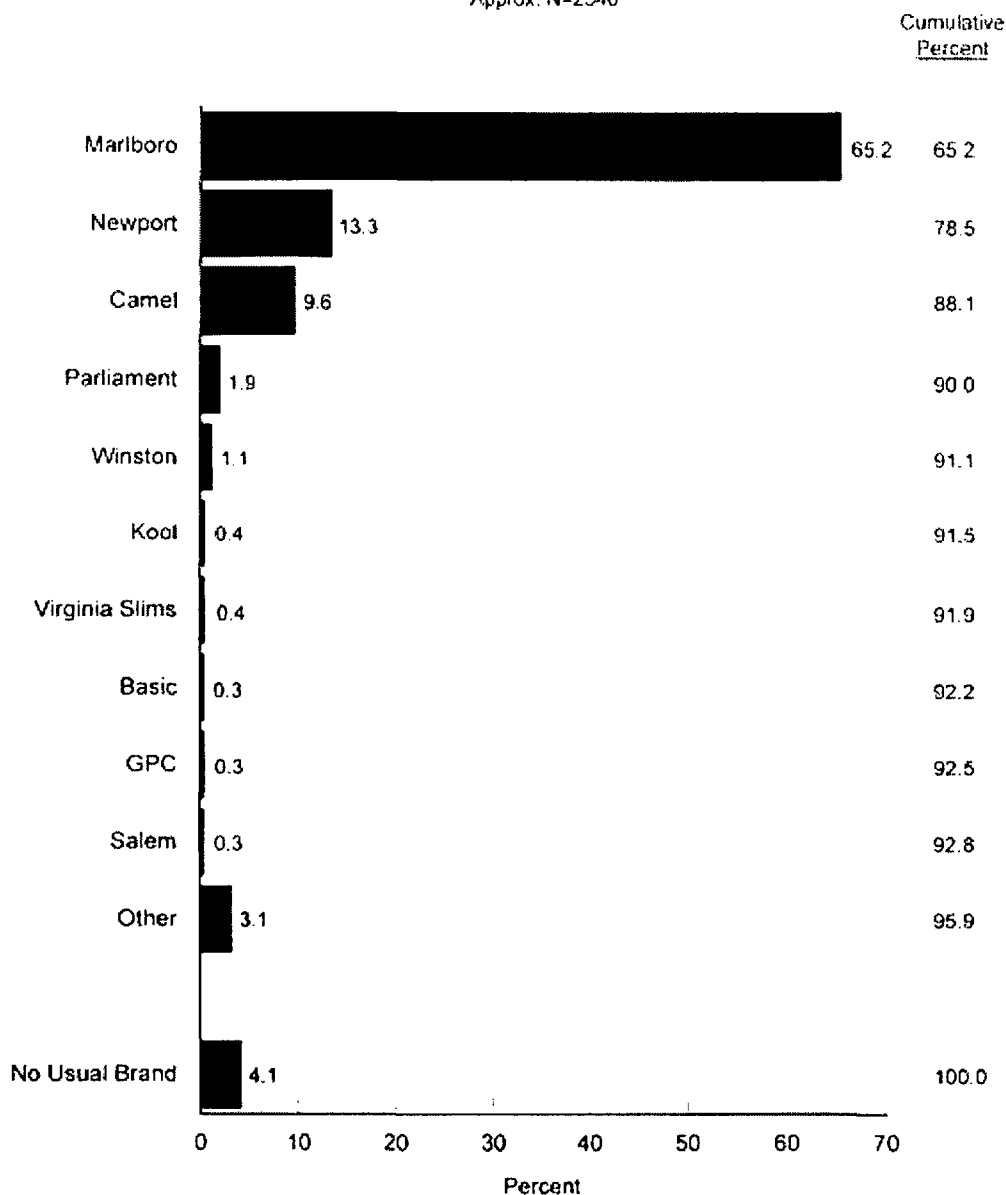
**Grade 12: Brands Usually Smoked
by Current Smokers, 1998**(entries are percentages)
Approx. N=2340**TABLES**Table 1: Long Term Trends in Prevalence of Cigarettes for Eighth, Tenth, and Twelfth GradersTable 2: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 3: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Smoking Frequency for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 4: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Self-Purchase for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 5: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Grade of Smoking First Cigarette for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 6: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Gender for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 7: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Race/Ethnicity for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 8: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Region for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 9: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Population Density for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 10: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Four-Year College Plans for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

Table 11: 1998 Cigarette Brand Preference by Parental Education for Past Thirty-Day Smokers

APPENDIX A: TEXT OF QUESTIONS

Appendix A (in PDF format)

APPENDIX B: CONFIDENCE INTERVALS AND SELECTED SIGNIFICANCE TESTS FOR THREE CIGARETTE BRANDS

B-1: Marlboro use at 8th Grade, 1998

B-2: Marlboro use at 10th Grade, 1998

B-3: Marlboro use at 12th Grade, 1998

B-4: Newport use at 8th Grade, 1998

B-5: Newport use at 10th Grade, 1998

B-6: Newport use at 12th Grade, 1998

B-7: Camel use at 8th Grade, 1998

B-8: Camel use at 10th Grade, 1998

B-9: Camel use at 12th Grade, 1998

[Click Here](#)[CNN in Danish](#)

MAIN PAGE
WORLD
U.S.
LOCAL
POLITICS
WEATHER
BUSINESS
SPORTS
SCI-TECH
NATURE
ENTERTAINMENT
BOOKS
TRAVEL
FOOD
HEALTH
STYLE
IN-DEPTH

custom news
Headline News brief
daily almanac
CNN networks
CNN programs
on-air transcripts
news quiz
CNN WEB SITES

PATHFINDER SITES
MORE SERVICES:
video on demand
video archive
audio on demand
news email services
free email accounts
desktop headlines
podcast
pager
DISCUSSION:
message boards
chat

Teens favor heavily advertised cigarettes

April 14, 1999

Web posted at: 1:14 PM EDT (1714 GMT)

WASHINGTON (AP) -- Three heavily advertised cigarette brands -- Marlboro, Newport and Camel -- are the most popular choice among teen-agers who smoked last year, according to a study released Wednesday.

The study, commissioned by the Department of Health and Human Services, found that 88 percent of 12th-grade smokers puffed on those three brands in 1998. Among 10th- and eighth-graders, the figures were 86 percent and 82 percent, respectively. It is illegal for anyone under 18 to buy tobacco products.

Vice President Al Gore was unveiling the study Wednesday at a "Kick Butts Day" anti-smoking rally at Roswell Kent Middle School in Akron, Ohio. He said the figures underscore the need to require tobacco companies to bear the cost of teaching young people not to develop a smoking habit.

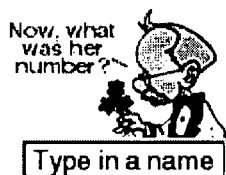
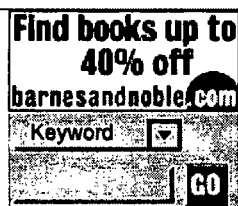
"Our children are targets of a massive media campaign to hook them on cigarettes," Gore said. "This study shows why Congress should stand with our kids and stand up to the tobacco companies. Let's act now to make sure tobacco settlement funds are used to reduce teen smoking."

Tobacco industry spokesman Scott Williams said tobacco companies have not targeted young people, for doing so would violate the settlement they reached with the states in 1997, which requires the industry to devote \$1.45 billion over five years to tobacco education. He said young people are attracted to popular cigarettes just as they are drawn to any other popular product.

"You look at the most heavily advertised car, the most heavily advertised sneaker, the most heavily advertised gum, and they would lead the list," Williams said. "The industry's position is that kids should not smoke, and they're doing what they can. These kinds of attacks don't address the problem."

Among the teen smokers surveyed, Marlboro was the most popular of the three favorite brands. It was the cigarette of choice among 60 percent of smokers at all three grade levels.

Seventy percent of white 12th-grade smokers said they preferred Marlboro, while about 80 percent of black 12th-grade smokers chose Newport, a brand heavily marketed to black Americans.

**APPLY TODAY****Instant Credit****3.9% APR Visa**

The study was conducted among 2,048 eighth-graders, 2,708 10th-graders and 2,335 12th-graders. A date for the study and margin of error were not provided.

Gore also highlighted a study by the Campaign for Tobacco Free Kids that showed 75 percent of children and 31 percent of adults indicated they had seen tobacco advertising in the previous two weeks. Of those, 69 percent of children said they recalled seeing ads for Marlboro cigarettes.

The campaign's study was conducted April 7-11 with 514 teen-agers and 1,008 adults, with margins of error of 4.4 percentage points and 3.1 percentage points, respectively.

Copyright 1999 The Associated Press. All rights reserved. This material may not be published, broadcast, rewritten, or redistributed.

RELATED STORIES:

For more HEALTH news, Custom News will bring you news from the areas and subjects you select.

RELATED SITES:

See related sites about HEALTH

Note: Pages will open in a new browser window
External sites are not endorsed by CNN Interactive.

LATEST HEADLINES:**WORLD:**

Serbs accuse NATO of bombing Albanians fleeing Kosovo
Anwar supporters protest his conviction
6 of 7 Algerian presidential candidates withdraw

US:

More U.S. warplanes head to Europe
Congress urged to pressure Olympic leaders
Quayle formally kicks off 2000 bid

SCI TECH:

Senators chide government on Y2K
MindSpring wants cable access

ENTERTAINMENT:

Bruce, E Streeters together again this month

SPORTS:

Meet the Top Dawg
Brand leaves Duke for NBA
Hornets' Coleman arrested outside nightclub

BUSINESS:

Dow soars, broad market sags
Burger King revamps
Time Warner posts 1Q profit

 Launch CNN's **Desktop Ticker** and get the latest news, delivered right on your desktop!

Today on CNN

NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

Statistics in Brief

June 1997

Student Reports of Availability, Peer Approval, and Use of Alcohol, Marijuana, and Other Drugs at School: 1993

Contact:
Kathryn Chandler
(202) 219-1767

Authors:
Mary Jo Nolin
Nancy Vaden-Kieman
Mary L. Feibus
Westat, Inc.

Kathryn Chandler
NCES

Alcohol, marijuana, and other drug use among children and adolescents is a major public concern. Recent research on middle and senior high school students showed a reversal of previous declines in smoking marijuana and using drugs other than marijuana, a decline in students' personal disapproval of marijuana, and a high prevalence of alcohol use (Johnston, O'Malley, and Bachman 1996; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 1996). Concern over this trend surfaced in the popular press, resulting in calls for measures to prevent teen drug use (*Christian Science Monitor* 1996; Friend 1996; Johnson 1996).

The use of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs has long been linked with several negative outcomes for youth, including poor academic achievement and school dropout (Jessor and Jessor 1977; Kolbe et al. 1986; Dryfoos 1990; Mensch and Kandel 1981). Peer approval of the use of alcohol and other drugs and the availability and use of these substances by other students at school are prominent influences on students to use drugs (Dusek and Girdano 1987; Gelfand, Jenson, and Drew 1982; Gottfredson 1988).

In this Brief, student reports of peer approval, availability, and use at school of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs are examined in connection with school and student characteristics including participation in school alcohol/drug education programs. Although student reports reflect perceptions rather than objective measures of substance availability, use, and peer approval, they provide valuable information about the perceived presence of substances at school and the norms of fellow students. These findings based on the school environment lend confirmation to the other recent findings about drugs and adolescents. They also point to the potential value of the message perceived by students in school alcohol/drug education as a preventative measure. The data in this Brief are from the 1993 National Household Education Survey conducted by Westat for the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). Data were collected in telephone interviews with 6,504 students in grades 6 through 12.

Availability of Alcohol, Marijuana, and Other Drugs at School

The availability of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs at school is a major contributing factor to the school learning environment and to students' opportunities to use these substances. Students were asked how difficult it would

be for them to get alcohol,¹ marijuana, or other drugs at school if they wanted to obtain these substances. Their responses indicated whether drugs were very easy, fairly easy, hard, or nearly impossible to obtain. Table 1 shows the percentages reporting that various substances were very easy or fairly easy to obtain at school. About 30 percent of U.S. students in grades 6 through 12 reported that alcohol and marijuana were easily available at school, while fewer students, about 20 percent, reported that other drugs were easily available at school.

Differences in Student Reports of Alcohol, Marijuana, and Other Drug Availability at School by School and Student Characteristics

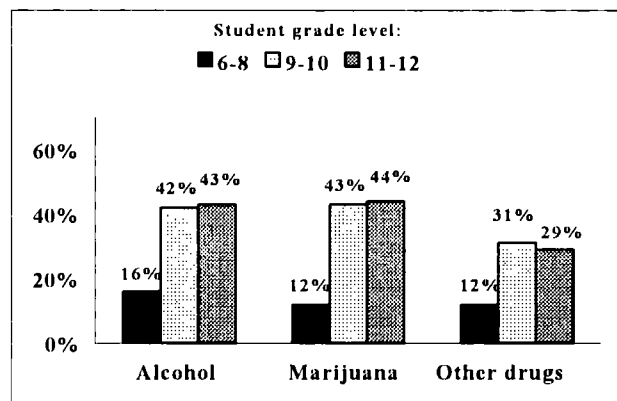
Student reports of the availability at school of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs increased between middle school/junior high school and high school. Students in the 6th through 8th grades were less likely than students in grades 9 and 10 or 11 and 12 to report that alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs were available at school. Reports of easy availability from students in the upper grades were two to three times those of students in the 6th through 8th grades (table 1 and figure 1). For example, less than 20 percent of the 6th through 8th graders reported easy availability of alcohol or drugs at school, while about 40 percent of the students in the upper grades reported easy access to alcohol

and marijuana and 30 percent reported easy access to other drugs.

Students in public schools were twice as likely to report easy access to marijuana and other drugs when compared to their contemporaries in private schools; these differences occurred regardless of whether the public school was one to which the student was assigned or one that had been chosen by the family (table 1). For instance, about 15 percent of students in private schools reported easy availability of marijuana compared to 30 percent of students in assigned public schools and 34 percent in public schools of choice. Although the differences between private school students and public school students' reports are not quite as striking, they also occur when access to alcohol is considered.

School size also was a factor in student reports of easy availability of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs. Students attending larger schools were more likely to report easy availability than students in smaller schools (table 1). The most striking difference in reports of easy availability was for marijuana. Fifteen percent of students at schools with fewer than 300 students said this substance was easily available at school versus 24 percent of students at schools enrolling 300 to 599 students, 29 percent at schools with 600 to 999 students, and 40 percent at schools of 1,000 or more.

Figure 1.—Percent of students who reported very easy or fairly easy availability of substances at school, by student's grade level: 1993



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Household Education Survey, Youth interviews, spring 1993.

Peer Approval of Alcohol, Marijuana, or Other Drug Use

The availability of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs at school is likely linked to the acceptance of those substances by the students at the school. In order to assess peer approval, students were asked whether their friends at school thought it was all right to drink alcoholic beverages like beer, wine coolers, or liquor, to smoke marijuana, or to use drugs other than marijuana. Percentages of students who answered "yes" to these questions are shown in table 1.

Peer approval varied by type of substance, with more students saying their friends approved of alcohol than marijuana and more reporting approval of both substances than of other drugs. Forty-four percent of U.S. students in grades 6 through 12 said that their friends at school accept drinking alcohol, about one in five students (20 percent) indicated peer acceptance of marijuana, and approximately one in seven students (14 percent) reported peer acceptance of drugs other than alcohol and marijuana (table 1).

Differences in Student Reports of Peer Approval by School and Student Characteristics

As students advance through middle school and high school, they are more likely to report peer approval of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs. Reports of peer approval of alcohol use in the 9th and 10th grades were over twice those in the 6th through 8th grades for alcohol (57 percent versus 21 percent). While overall peer approval was lower for marijuana and for other drugs than for alcohol, the relative differences in approval level between grades 6 through 8 versus grades 9 and 10 are greater. In addition, the reported peer approval level of 11th and 12th grade students was over three times greater than that of 6th through 8th grade students for alcohol, about five times greater for marijuana, and about four times greater for other drugs (table 1). Smaller differences, but differences nevertheless, were evident between 9th and 10th graders and 11th

and 12th graders in reports of peer approval of alcohol and marijuana use.

The percentage of students who reported peer approval of substance use also varied by the type of school the students attended. Students attending private schools were less likely than their contemporaries in assigned or chosen public schools to report peer approval of marijuana use. Similarly, private school students reported less peer approval of the use of other drugs when compared to students in assigned public schools. Apparent differences in peer approval of alcohol were not significant (table 1).

Students in the largest schools (1,000 or more students) reported the highest levels of peer approval of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs. In these large schools, about 50 percent of the students said their friends at school approved of alcohol use, approximately 30 percent reported peer approval of marijuana use, and about 20 percent said that their friends approve of the use of other drugs (table 1).

Alcohol and Drug Use at School

Exposure to the use of alcohol or drugs other than alcohol at school could affect both the learning environment and students' opportunities to use drugs and also may be related to students' approval of alcohol and other drug use. Students were asked whether or not they had seen any students drunk or showing the effects of alcohol or any students high on other drugs at school this year. In this instance, "other drugs" includes marijuana. Youths were not expected to be able to discriminate among the effects of different drugs that other students might have taken. Approximately one-third of students (33 percent) reported seeing other students at their schools showing the effects of alcohol, while about one-quarter (27 percent) reported that other students were at school while high on drugs other than alcohol. It should be noted that use of alcohol or other drugs by a small minority may be observed by many other students. Results are presented in table 1.

Differences in Student Reports of Alcohol and Drug Use at School by School and Student Characteristics

Students in the 6th through 8th grades were least likely to report seeing other students under the influence of alcohol (16 percent) or drugs other than alcohol (11 percent). In comparison, reports by students in the 9th and 10th grades were approximately three times greater than those by students in the 6th through 8th grades for alcohol (46 percent) and for other drugs (38 percent), and reports of students in the 11th and 12th grades were about three times those of 6th through 8th grade students for alcohol (51 percent) and about four times those of 6th through 8th grade students for other drugs (44 percent). Eleventh and 12th graders were also more likely than 9th and 10th graders to report seeing students under the influence of alcohol (table 1).

Differences between private and public schools are also evident in students' reports of substance use at school. Students attending private schools were about half as likely to say that they had witnessed other students under the influence of alcohol or drugs other than alcohol than were students in assigned public schools or chosen public schools. For instance, 17 percent of private school students versus 35 percent in assigned public schools and 33 percent in public schools of choice said they have seen students under the influence of alcohol at their schools (table 1).

In general, the percentages of students who reported seeing other students under the influence of alcohol or drugs at school increased with school size, with the reported incidence nearly twice as high in schools with enrollments of 1,000 or more in comparison with schools with fewer than 300 students (alcohol, 43 percent versus 23 percent, and other drugs, 37 percent versus 16 percent).

School Alcohol/Drug Education

Schools are aware of the many influences on students to use alcohol and other drugs, and alcohol/drug education curricula have been developed to teach students about the dangers of substance use and to help them develop strategies

to resist using alcohol and other drugs. In the NHES:93, in addition to asking about peer approval of alcohol and other drugs and their availability and use at school, students were asked if they had received any alcohol/drug education during the current school year. Approximately 80 percent of the students reported that they participated in some type of alcohol/drug education in the current school year. However, despite efforts by schools to provide alcohol/drug education, about 30 percent of the students participating in these programs reported easy access to alcohol or marijuana at school, and about 20 percent reported easy access to other drugs. Reported easy access to alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs is not appreciably different among students who reported no alcohol/drug education in the current school year. The same pattern, no real differences between students reporting current alcohol/drug education and those who did not, also emerged for students who reported witnessing other students under the influence of alcohol or other drugs at school.

Reported peer approval of alcohol and other drugs, which might be expected to be the most closely associated with alcohol/drug education, showed a similar pattern. Only small differences between students who reported alcohol/drug education in school during the current year and students who did not report such education were found. Included under alcohol/drug education were various types of programs ranging from education integrated into the curriculum to one-time brief presentations. Also, students may participate in more extensive programs at some grade levels and not at others. Therefore, these findings, based on education of any type in the current year only, should not be construed as indicating that alcohol/drug education does not have any beneficial impact on students.

The Main Message About Alcohol in School Alcohol/Drug Education Programs

The absence of a clear and important impact by education programs on alcohol and drugs at school may be due to many factors. (See Silvia and Thorne 1997 for similar findings and a discussion of some of those factors.) Students who did not report receipt of alcohol/drug education in the current school year may have

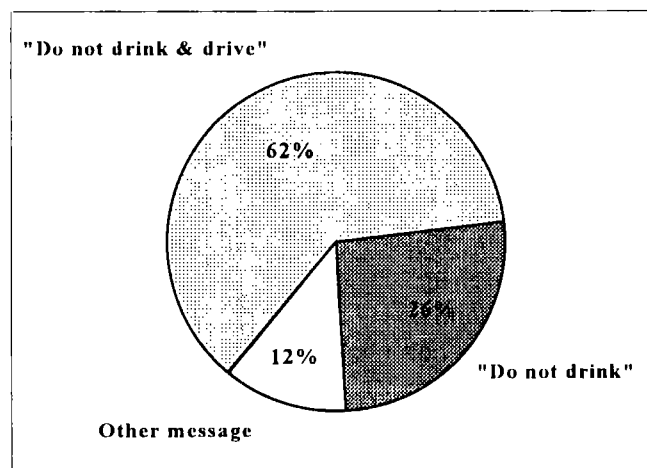
participated in such an educational program in recent past years. There may be differences in the ways schools present alcohol/drug education, and the length and intensity of programs may have differing effects on students. Another important difference may be the main message that students perceive in their education programs.

In an effort to better understand the possible impact of educational efforts, all students, regardless of whether they reported receiving alcohol/drug education in the current school year, were asked to identify the main message about alcohol they remember from school alcohol/drug education programs. In a telephone survey, the measure of the main message perceived from an educational program is, of necessity, a simple one and cannot capture important aspects of the message such as the context in which it is conveyed (e.g., a physiological context). The Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act mandates a "wrong and harmful" message in alcohol/drug prevention programs, but schools

may include more than one message, and students may hear most or all of them. Also, it should be noted that the measure is of students' perceptions of the main message. This study does not capture schools' practices with regard to the main message they are trying to convey.

Because drugs other than alcohol are illegal, it was presumed that a strict "no use" message for these substances would be imparted by educators and heard clearly by students. However, alcohol use, while illegal for minors, is not illegal for adults, and the messages about alcohol perceived by students may vary. Twenty-six percent of 6th through 12 grade students chose the message "do not drink" as the main message they heard in school alcohol/drug education programs, while 62 percent reported the main message was "do not drink and drive," and 12 percent said they received another main message, including "do not drink until you are legally old enough," "do not drink too much," or an unspecified message (figure 2).

Figure 2.—Percent of students who reported various main messages in school alcohol/drug education programs: 1993



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Household Education Survey, Youth interviews, spring 1993.

When the main message remembered from alcohol/drug education is considered, some potentially interesting relationships with availability and use of alcohol and other drugs at school emerge. Students who reported receiving the main message "do not drink" were less likely to report easy availability of alcohol, marijuana, or other drugs than those who reported the "do not drink and drive" (table 1). Also, a smaller percentage of students who said they received the "do not drink" message reported seeing students under the influence of alcohol or of drugs other than alcohol than did other students.

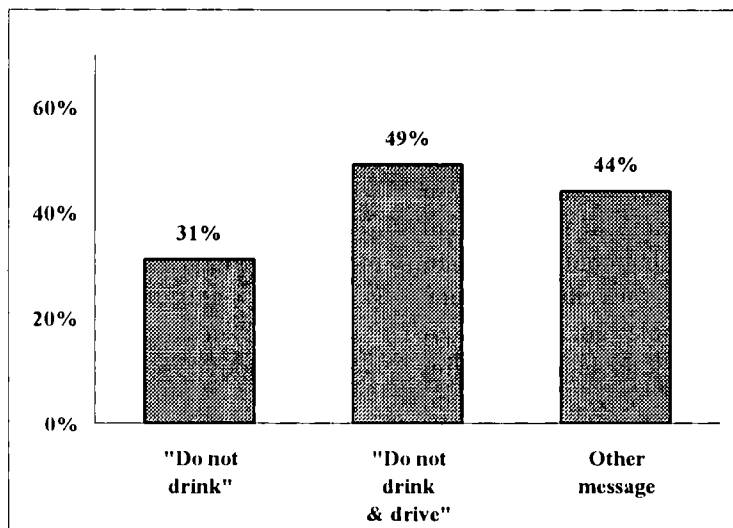
Because students choose friends who likely hold opinions similar to theirs, the relationship between the message received in school alcohol/drug education and peer approval of substances is particularly interesting. The students who recalled a "do not drink" main message were less likely than those reporting a

"do not drink and drive" message to say their friends at school approved of alcohol, marijuana, or other drugs and less likely than those reporting some other message to say their friends approve of alcohol or marijuana (figure 3).

Summary

In this Brief, items from the NHES:93 School Safety and Discipline interview were used to examine the reports of 6th through 12th grade students about the availability and use of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs at school, as well as peer approval of substance use. Results varied by type of substance; students were more likely to report peer approval of alcohol than of marijuana or of other drugs. Close to one-third of students reported easy availability of alcohol and marijuana at school, and about one-third reported seeing students at school under the influence of alcohol. The availability of drugs other than alcohol and their reported use at school were less common.

Figure 3.— Percent of students who reported peer approval of alcohol use, by main message about alcohol perceived in school alcohol/drug education programs: 1993



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Household Education Survey, Youth interviews, spring 1993.

Students in lower grade levels (6-8), in private schools, and in schools with fewer than 1,000 students were less likely to report peer approval of substance use and easy availability at school than students in higher grade levels (9-10 and 11-12), in public schools, and in schools with 1,000 or more students. Although fewer students in private schools reported easy availability of alcohol or seeing students under the influence of alcohol at school than students in public schools, relatively high percentages of students in private and public schools alike reported peer approval of alcohol use.

The wide acceptance of alcohol in our society is reflected in the peer approval of alcohol use by 44 percent of 6th through 12th grade students. However, the relationship between students perceiving a "do not drink" message in alcohol/drug education programs and lower peer approval of alcohol use, as well as of marijuana or other drug use, that emerges in these data suggests the utility of further research to explore the implications of this finding. Schools that emphasize an explicit "no use" message in their alcohol and drug education programs may be quite different from schools that do not, and further research is needed to explore this issue also. Finally, differences in the perceived main message and its effects may lie with students themselves. For instance, whether or not they already use alcohol may affect the message they hear. This is another area of potentially fruitful research.

In sum, results from the NHES:93 highlight the problems of substance availability, peer approval of substances, and seeing alcohol and drug use at school and are suggestive in terms of improvement. In particular, this study suggests the potential importance of including a "do not drink" message about alcohol in alcohol/drug education programs and transmitting that message clearly to students.

Survey Methodology and Data Reliability

The 1993 National Household Education Survey is a telephone survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Data collection took place from January through April of 1993. The sample was selected using random-digit-dialing (RDD) methods and is nationally representative of all civilian, noninstitutionalized persons in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Data were collected using computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) technology.

The School Safety and Discipline (SS&D) component of the NHES:93, which is the basis of this report, included a sample of students in grades 3 through 12. Two instruments were used to collect data on the school experiences of these students. A screening interview (Screener), administered to an adult member of the household, was used to determine whether any youth of the appropriate ages lived in the household, to collect information on each household member, and to identify the appropriate parent/guardian respondent. If one or two eligible youth resided in the household, interviews were conducted about each youth. If more than two eligible youth resided in the household, two youth were randomly sampled as interview subjects. For households with youth who were sampled for the survey, SS&D interviews were conducted with the parent/guardian most knowledgeable about the care and education of each youth. If an eligible youth resided in a household in which no adult was acting in a caretaking capacity for him or her, then that "emancipated" youth responded to the interview. A sample of youth in grades 6 through 12 was also interviewed following the completion of the parent interview about the youth. This report was based on the responses of students in grades 6 through 12.

Response Rates

For the NHES:93 survey, Screeners were completed with 63,844 households, of which 12,829 contained at least one child sampled for the SS&D component. The response rate for the Screener was 82 percent. The completion rate for the SS&D interview with parents of 6th through 12th grade students, or the percentage of interviews conducted with parents for sampled youth in that grade range, was 90 percent, and the completion rate for the youth in 6th through 12th grade who were sampled was 83 percent. Thus, the overall response rate for the SS&D interview with parents of students in grades 6 through 12 was 74 percent (the product of the Screener response rate and the SS&D completion rate). For youth, the overall response rate was 68 percent. For the NHES:93, item nonresponse (the failure to complete some items in an otherwise completed interview) was very low. The item nonresponse rates for variables in this report are generally less than 2 percent. Through a procedure known as "hot-deck" imputation (Kalton and Kasprzyk 1986), responses were imputed for missing values (i.e., "don't know," "refused," or "not ascertained"). As a result, no missing values remain.

Data Reliability

Estimates produced using data from the NHES:93 are subject to two types of error, sampling and nonsampling errors. Nonsampling errors are errors made in the collection and processing of data. Sampling errors occur because the data are collected from a sample rather than a census of the population.

Nonsampling Errors

Nonsampling error is the term used to describe variations in the estimates that may be caused by population coverage limitations and data collection, processing, and reporting procedures. The sources of nonsampling errors are typically problems like unit and item nonresponse, the differences in respondents' interpretations of the meaning of the questions, response differences related to the particular time the survey was conducted, and mistakes in data preparation.

In general, it is difficult to identify and estimate either the amount of nonsampling error or the bias caused by this error. In the NHES survey, efforts were made to prevent such errors from occurring and to compensate for them where possible. For instance, during the survey design phase, focus groups and cognitive laboratory interviews were conducted for the purpose of assessing respondent knowledge of the topics, comprehension of questions and terms, and the sensitivity of items. The design phase also entailed over 500 staff hours of CATI instrument testing and a pretest in which over 275 interviews were conducted.

An important nonsampling error for a telephone survey is the failure to include persons who do not live in households with telephones. About 92 percent of all students in grades 3 through 12 live in households with telephones. Estimation procedures were used to help reduce the bias in the estimates associated with youth who do not live in households with telephones.

Sampling Errors

The sample of households with telephones selected for the NHES:93 is just one of many possible samples that could have been selected. Therefore, estimates produced from the NHES:93 sample may differ from estimates that would have been produced from other samples. This type of variability is called sampling error because it arises from using a sample of household with telephones, rather than all households with telephones.²

The standard error is a measure of the variability due to sampling when estimating a statistic; standard errors for estimates presented in this report were computed using a replication method known as "jackknife" replication (Wolter 1985). Standard errors can be used as a measure of the precision expected from a particular sample. The probability that a complete census count would differ from the sample estimate by less than 1 standard error is about 68 percent. The chance that the difference would be less than 1.65 standard errors is about 90 percent; and that the difference would be less than 1.96 standard errors, about 95 percent.

Standard errors for all of the estimates are presented in the table. These standard errors can be used to produce confidence intervals. For example, an estimated 43.8 percent of students reported peer approval of drinking alcohol (rounded to 44 percent for this report). This figure has an estimated standard error of 0.8. Therefore, the estimated 95 percent confidence interval for this statistic is approximately 42.2 to 45.4 percent.

The tests of significance used in this analysis are based on Student's *t* statistics. As the number of comparisons at the same significance level increases, it becomes more likely that at least one of the estimated differences will be significant merely by chance, that is, it will be erroneously identified as different from zero. Even when there is no statistical difference between the means or percentages being compared, there is a 5 percent chance of getting a significant *t* value of 1.96 from sampling error alone. As the number of comparisons increases, the chance of making this type of error also increases.

A Bonferroni adjustment was used to correct significance tests for multiple comparisons. This method adjusts the significance level for the total number of comparisons made with a particular classification variable. All the differences cited in this report are significant at the .05 level of significance after a Bonferroni adjustment.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank the following staff members of the National Center for Education Statistics for their thoughtful review of earlier drafts of the report: Marilyn McMillen, Michael Cohen, Daniel Kasprzyk, Carol Sue Fromboluti, and John Ralph. The report was reviewed by Joan McCord of Temple University and Denise Gottfredson of the University of Maryland, who also provided valuable comments. The report reflects many suggestions from these reviewers, and their assistance is greatly appreciated.

Endnotes

1. Students' answers to questions about beer or wine and about liquor were combined into a new variable describing the availability of alcohol. If either beer or wine and/or liquor were reported to be very easy or fairly easy to obtain at school, alcohol was coded as easily available. Otherwise, it was coded as not easily available.

2. For additional information on telephone coverage issues and estimation procedures to correct for coverage biases, see J. M. Brick and J. Burke, *Telephone Coverage Bias of 14- to 21-year-olds and 3- to 5-year-olds*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, report number NCES 92-101.

References

- Christian Science Monitor*. 1996. "Kids and Drugs." Editorial, August 29.
- Dryfoos, J. 1990. *Adolescents at Risk: Prevalence and Prevention*. New York: Oxford University.
- Dusek, D.E., and Girdano, D.A. 1987. *Drugs: A Factual Account*. New York: Random House.
- Friend, T. 1996. "Teens and Drugs." *USA Today*, August 21.
- Gelfand, D.M., Jenson, W.R., and Drew, C.J. 1982. *Understanding Child Behavior Disorders*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Gottfredson, G.D. 1988. *Explorations of Adolescent Drug Involvement*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Jessor, R., and Jessor, S. 1977. *Problem Behavior and Psychosocial Development: A Longitudinal Study*. New York: Academic Press.

- Johnson, K. 1996. "Political Rhetoric Escalates Over Teen Drug Use." *USA Today*, September 5.
- Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., and Bachman, J.G. 1996. *National Survey Results on Drug Use from the Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1995*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute on Drug Abuse.
- Kalton, G., and Kasprzyk, D. 1986. "The Treatment of Missing Data." *Survey Methodology*, 12, 1-16.
- Kolbe, L.J., Green, L., Foreyt, J., Darnell, L., Goodrick, K., Williams, H., Ward, D., Korton, A.S., Karacan, I., Widemeyer, R., and Stanbrook, G. 1986. "Appropriate Functions of Health Education in Schools: Improving Health and Cognitive Performance." In N.A. Kreasnegor, J.D. Arasteh, and M.F. Cataldo (eds.). *Child Health Behavior: A Behavioral Pediatrics Perspective*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Mensch, B.S., and Kandel, D.B. 1981. "Dropping Out of High School and Drug Involvement." *Sociology of Education*, 61, 95-113.
- Silvia, E.S., and Thorne, J. 1997. *School-Based Drug Prevention Programs: A Longitudinal Study in Selected School Districts*. Executive Summary, Final Report to the U.S. Department of Education. Research Triangle Park, NC: Research Triangle Institute.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service. 1996. *National Household Survey on Drug Abuse: Population Estimates 1995*. Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Office of Applied Studies.
- Wolter, K.M. 1985. *Introduction to Variance Estimation*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Table 1.—Percent of students who reported easy availability, peer approval of use, and evidence of use of substances at school, by student and school characteristics: 1993

Characteristic	Number of students in grades 6 through 12 (thousands)	Easy availability ¹ at school of						Peer approval of use of						Seeing students under the influence of			
		Alcohol ²		Marijuana		Other drugs		Alcohol		Marijuana		Other drugs		Alcohol		Other drugs (including marijuana)	
		Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.	Percent	s.e.
Total	24,060	31	0.6	29	0.7	22	0.9	44	0.8	20	0.9	14	0.7	33	1.0	27	0.7
Student grade level																	
6 - 8	11,017	16	1.1	12	1.1	12	0.9	21	1.5	7	0.6	6	0.5	16	1.3	11	1.1
9 - 10	6,832	42	1.6	43	1.6	31	1.3	57	1.5	27	1.5	18	1.2	46	1.3	38	2.5
11 - 12	6,211	43	1.3	44	1.7	29	1.8	68	1.9	34	1.8	22	1.5	51	1.5	44	2.2
School type																	
Public, assigned	19,507	32	0.6	30	0.7	22	0.9	44	0.8	20	0.8	14	0.7	35	0.9	28	0.7
Public, chosen	2,683	32	4.5	34	4.1	25	3.5	45	4.7	24	3.2	14	2.0	33	4.1	29	3.7
Private	1,870	18	1.8	15	1.6	10	1.4	39	2.5	14	1.5	8	1.3	17	1.8	11	1.3
School size																	
Under 300	2,632	21	3.1	15	1.8	14	2.3	35	2.3	12	2.2	10	2.1	23	2.0	16	1.7
300 - 599	7,820	26	1.2	24	1.2	18	1.4	39	1.4	15	1.1	11	0.9	28	1.4	21	1.0
600 - 999	6,176	31	1.4	29	1.4	21	1.1	43	1.5	20	1.2	14	1.0	34	1.7	27	1.2
1,000 or more	7,433	38	1.1	40	1.4	29	1.1	52	1.2	28	1.3	18	1.1	43	1.2	37	1.3
Alcohol/drug education in the current school year ³																	
Yes	19,399	30	0.9	28	0.8	21	0.9	43	1.2	19	0.9	13	0.7	33	0.9	26	0.8
No	4,661	33	2.3	33	2.0	24	1.9	48	2.5	24	1.3	17	1.3	34	1.9	30	1.8
Main message about alcohol in school programs ⁴																	
Do not drink	6,297	21	1.2	18	1.6	15	1.4	31	2.1	12	1.4	9	1.2	24	1.5	17	1.6
Do not drink and drive	14,839	35	0.8	34	0.9	24	1.0	49	1.0	23	1.0	15	0.8	37	1.2	31	0.9
Other message	2,924	31	2.1	29	1.9	24	1.8	44	2.6	19	2.2	15	2.2	34	1.9	27	2.1

¹"Easy availability" means that youth reported the substance is very easy or fairly easy to obtain at school.

²Alcohol refers to beer, wine, and/or liquor.

³From September until survey. Data were collected from January through April.

⁴Asked of all students; not limited to current alcohol/drug education programs. Included in the "other message" category were the other two messages offered, "do not drink until you are legally old enough" and "do not drink too much," and other messages.

NOTE: s.e. is standard error. Numbers may not add to total due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Household Education Survey, Youth interviews, spring 1993.

MMWR™

MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY WEEKLY REPORT

229 Tobacco Use Among High School
Students — United States, 1997

Tobacco Use Among High School Students — United States, 1997

Tobacco use is the single leading preventable cause of death in the United States (1). Approximately 80% of tobacco use occurs for the first time among youth aged <18 years (2), and the prevalence of cigarette smoking among adolescents increased during the early 1990s (3). To determine prevalence rates of cigarette, smokeless tobacco (chewing tobacco or snuff), and cigar use for U.S. high school students, CDC analyzed data from the 1997 Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS). This report summarizes the results of the analysis, which indicate that the prevalence of current cigarette smoking among U.S. high school students increased from 27.5% in 1991 to 36.4% in 1997 and that, in 1997, 42.7% of students used cigarettes, smokeless tobacco, or cigars during the 30 days preceding the survey.

YRBS, a component of CDC's Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (4), biennially measures the prevalence of priority health-risk behaviors among youth through representative national, state, and local surveys. The 1997 national YRBS used a three-stage cluster sample design to obtain a representative sample of 16,262 students in grades 9–12 in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The school response rate was 79.1%, the student response rate was 87.2%, and the overall response rate was 69.0%. Data were weighted to provide national estimates, and SUDAAN® (Software for the Statistical Analysis of Correlated Data) was used to calculate standard errors for determining 95% confidence intervals.*

Students completed a self-administered questionnaire that included questions about cigarette, smokeless tobacco, and cigar use. Lifetime cigarette smokers were defined as students who had ever smoked cigarettes, even one or two puffs. Current cigarette, smokeless tobacco, and cigar users were defined as students who reported product use on ≥ 1 of the 30 days preceding the survey. Frequent cigarette use was defined as smoking cigarettes on ≥ 20 of the 30 days preceding the survey. Any current tobacco use was defined as use of cigarettes, smokeless tobacco, or cigars on ≥ 1 of the 30 days preceding the survey. Data are presented only for non-Hispanic black, non-Hispanic white, and Hispanic students because the numbers of students from other racial/ethnic groups were too small for meaningful analysis.

*Differences between prevalence estimates were considered statistically significant if the 95% confidence intervals did not overlap. Use of trade names and commercial sources is for identification only and does not imply endorsement by CDC and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

*Tobacco Use Among High School Students — Continued***Prevalence of Cigarette Use**

The overall prevalences of lifetime, current, and frequent cigarette use were 70.2%, 36.4%, and 16.7%, respectively (Table 1). The prevalence of lifetime cigarette smoking was higher among Hispanic male students (76.9%) than among white male students (70.4%). The prevalence of current cigarette smoking was higher among white students (39.7%) than Hispanic (34.0%) and black (22.7%) students, and Hispanic students (34.0%) were more likely to report current cigarette smoking than black students (22.7%). Among males, the prevalence of current cigarette smoking was higher among white students (39.6%) than black students (28.2%). Among females, the prevalence of current cigarette smoking was higher among white students (39.9%) than Hispanic (32.3%) and black (17.4%) students, and Hispanic female students (32.3%) were more likely to report current cigarette smoking than black female students (17.4%). Among black students, males (28.2%) were more likely than females (17.4%) to report current cigarette smoking.

The prevalence of frequent cigarette smoking was higher among white students (19.9%) than among Hispanic (10.9%) and black (7.2%) students. Among males, the prevalence of frequent cigarette smoking was higher among white students (19.8%) than black students (10.1%). Among females, the prevalence of frequent cigarette smoking was higher among white students (20.1%) than Hispanic (8.1%) and black (4.3%) students. Among black students, males (10.1%) were more likely than females (4.3%) to report frequent cigarette smoking.

Trend analyses of current cigarette smoking found significantly increasing trends overall and among all racial/ethnic subgroups ($p < 0.001$). The overall prevalence of current cigarette smoking increased from 27.5% in 1991 to 36.4% in 1997. Among white students, current cigarette smoking increased from 30.9% in 1991 to 39.7% in 1997. Among black students, current cigarette smoking increased from 12.6% in 1991 to 22.7% in 1997. Among Hispanic students, current cigarette smoking increased from 25.3% in 1991 to 34.0% in 1997.

Prevalence of Smokeless Tobacco Use

The overall prevalence of current smokeless tobacco use was 9.3% (Table 1). The prevalence of current smokeless tobacco use was higher among male students (15.8%) than female students (1.5%) and among white students (12.2%) than black (2.2%) and Hispanic (5.1%) students. White male students (20.6%) were more likely than any other subgroup to report current smokeless tobacco use; Hispanic male students (8.4%) were more likely than black male students (3.2%) to report this behavior. Among Hispanic students, males (8.4%) were more likely than females (1.2%) to report current smokeless tobacco use.

Prevalence of Cigar Use

The overall prevalence of current cigar use was 22.0% (Table 1). Male students (31.2%) were more likely to use cigars than female students (10.8%). This difference held within each racial/ethnic subgroup. Ninth-grade students (17.3%) were less likely than 11th-grade students (24.2%) to use cigars.

Prevalence of Any Current Tobacco Use

The overall prevalence of any current tobacco use was 42.7% (Table 1). Male students (48.2%) were more likely to report any current tobacco use than female students

TABLE 1. Percentage of high school students* who used cigarettes, smokeless tobacco, or cigars, by sex, race/ethnicity, and grade — United States, Youth Risk Behavior Survey, 1997

Category	Lifetime [†]		Cigarette use		Frequent [‡]		Current smokeless tobacco use**		Current cigar use ^{††}		Any current tobacco use ^{§§}	
	%	(95% CI ^{¶¶})	%	(95% CI)	%	(95% CI)	%	(95% CI)	%	(95% CI)	%	(95% CI)
Sex												
Male	70.9	(±1.9)	37.7	(±2.7)	17.6	(±2.7)	15.8	(±3.7)	31.2	(±2.3)	48.2	(±2.8)
Female	69.3	(±2.6)	34.7	(±2.8)	15.7	(±2.1)	1.5	(±0.7)	10.8	(±2.4)	36.0	(±2.8)
Race/Ethnicity***												
White, non-Hispanic	70.4	(±2.3)	39.7	(±2.4)	19.9	(±2.2)	12.2	(±2.5)	22.5	(±2.6)	46.8	(±1.9)
Male	70.4	(±2.4)	39.6	(±3.8)	19.8	(±3.3)	20.6	(±4.0)	32.5	(±2.1)	51.5	(±2.4)
Female	70.3	(±3.3)	39.9	(±3.2)	20.1	(±3.2)	1.6	(±0.9)	9.6	(±2.6)	40.8	(±3.1)
Black, non-Hispanic	68.4	(±4.4)	22.7	(±3.8)	7.2	(±1.8)	2.2	(±1.1)	19.4	(±3.2)	29.4	(±3.0)
Male	70.1	(±4.7)	28.2	(±5.5)	10.1	(±3.1)	3.2	(±1.7)	28.1	(±5.3)	37.6	(±4.7)
Female	66.8	(±5.2)	17.4	(±3.9)	4.3	(±1.8)	1.3	(±1.2)	11.0	(±2.9)	21.5	(±4.2)
Hispanic	75.0	(±2.7)	34.0	(±2.7)	10.9	(±2.6)	5.1	(±2.3)	20.3	(±4.4)	36.8	(±3.4)
Male	76.9	(±3.6)	35.5	(±3.6)	13.2	(±3.7)	8.4	(±3.3)	26.3	(±7.0)	41.3	(±5.0)
Female	72.7	(±3.9)	32.3	(±3.7)	8.1	(±2.7)	1.2	(±1.0)	13.0	(±2.8)	31.4	(±3.8)
Grade												
9	67.7	(±5.1)	33.4	(±5.1)	13.1	(±3.8)	9.7	(±2.7)	17.3	(±2.9)	38.0	(±5.3)
10	70.0	(±3.9)	35.3	(±4.1)	15.0	(±1.9)	6.8	(±1.7)	22.3	(±3.4)	40.9	(±4.1)
11	68.8	(±3.1)	36.6	(±3.6)	18.9	(±2.8)	10.0	(±2.5)	24.2	(±2.9)	44.2	(±3.1)
12	73.7	(±4.1)	39.6	(±4.9)	19.4	(±3.1)	10.5	(±3.6)	23.8	(±4.2)	47.0	(±6.1)
Total	70.2	(±1.9)	36.4	(±2.3)	16.7	(±1.9)	9.3	(±2.2)	22.0	(±2.1)	42.7	(±2.3)

* N=16,262.

[†] Ever tried cigarette smoking, even one or two puffs.[§] Smoked cigarettes on ≥1 of the 30 days preceding the survey.[‡] Smoked cigarettes on ≥20 of the 30 days preceding the survey.^{**} Used smokeless tobacco on ≥1 of the 30 days preceding the survey.^{††} Smoked cigars on ≥1 of the 30 days preceding the survey.^{§§} Smoked cigarettes, used smokeless tobacco, or smoked cigars on ≥1 of the 30 days preceding the survey.^{¶¶} Confidence interval.^{***} Numbers for other racial/ethnic groups were too small for meaningful analysis.

Tobacco Use Among High School Students — Continued

(36.0%), and this difference held within each racial/ethnic subgroup. The prevalence of any current tobacco use was higher among white students (46.8%) than Hispanic (36.8%) and black (29.4%) students. These differences held for both male and female students. The prevalence of any current tobacco use was higher among Hispanic students (36.8%) than black students (29.4%) overall and among female students (31.4% of Hispanic females and 21.5% of black females).

Reported by: Office on Smoking and Health, and Div of Adolescent and School Health, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, CDC.

Editorial Note: This report is the first to include cigarette, smokeless tobacco, and cigar use in a measure of current tobacco use and the first to report on past-month cigar use among a nationally representative sample of high school students. The increasing prevalence of cigarette smoking since 1991, the high rate of smokeless tobacco and cigar use, and the high rate of any tobacco use suggest that a major proportion of U.S. youth already have or are at risk for nicotine addiction (5,6) and the subsequent health problems caused by tobacco use (2,6).

In 1997, the prevalence of current cigarette smoking was 32% higher than in 1991; current cigarette smoking increased 80% among black students, 34% among Hispanic students, and 28% among white students. The reasons for the large differences in overall prevalence of current cigarette smoking and the increases in cigarette smoking among students in all the racial/ethnic groups are unclear and require further investigation. CDC is conducting research to help explain these differences and the reasons for continued increases in tobacco use among all youth.

The findings in this report are subject to at least two limitations. First, these data apply only to youth who attend high school and, therefore, are not representative of all persons in this age group. In 1996, only 6% of persons aged 16–17 years were not enrolled in a high school program and had not completed high school (7). Second, the measure of any current tobacco use described in this report might be an underestimate, because it does not include measures of pipe and "roll-your-own" tobacco smoking.

In 1994, CDC recommended that school-based tobacco-use prevention programs begin in elementary school and continue through 12th grade, with intensive instruction for students in grades six through eight (i.e., up to 10 smoking-focused sessions each year) (8). Data from the 1994 School Health Policies and Programs Study indicated that only 55% of middle/junior high and 47% of senior high school health education teachers taught tobacco-use prevention as a major topic (9). Of these teachers, 43% of middle/junior high and 42% of senior high school teachers taught only one or two classes on the topic. Additional research findings indicate that school-based tobacco-use prevention programs are most effective when supported by community-wide programs that involve parents, peers, mass media, and community organizations (2).

Tobacco-use prevention activities should be designed to prevent the use of all tobacco products. Such activities should include increasing tobacco prices, reducing access (e.g., by implementing and adequately enforcing minors' access restrictions), reducing the appeal of tobacco products (e.g., by restricting advertising and promotion), and conducting youth-oriented mass media campaigns and school-based tobacco-use prevention programs (2,10). Establishing health-oriented social norms (e.g., by increasing provision of smoke-free indoor air and decreasing modeling of

Table 66 (page 1 of 2). Use of selected substances in the past month by persons 12 years of age and over, according to age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin: United States, selected years 1979–95

[Data are based on household interviews of a sample of the population 12 years of age and over]

<i>Substance, age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin</i>	<i>1979</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1988</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>1991</i>	<i>1992</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1995</i>
Cigarettes										
Percent of population										
12–17 years	---	---	29	23	22	21	18	19	19	20
12–13 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	9	11
14–15 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	20	21
16–17 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	29	30
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	31	24	24	23	18	18	20	21
Female	---	---	28	22	21	19	18	19	18	20
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	33	27	26	24	22	21	22	23
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	17	10	*	8	6	8	12	12
Hispanic	---	---	21	15	21	17	14	16	14	16
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	37	38
Female	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	32	32
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	39	39
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	25	24
Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	28	28
Alcohol										
12 years and over	63	57	60	55	53	52	49	51	54	52
12–17 years	50	35	41	33	33	27	21	24	22	21
12–13 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	9	8
14–15 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	22	21
16–17 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	36	34
18–25 years	75	67	70	65	63	63	59	59	63	61
26–34 years	72	72	71	65	64	63	62	64	65	63
35 years and over	60	53	58	63	50	50	47	50	54	53
12–17 years:										
Male	52	36	44	36	34	30	22	24	22	22
Female	47	34	38	31	31	24	19	23	21	20
White, non-Hispanic	53	39	46	36	37	27	22	26	24	23
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	30	22	21	28	18	18	18	15
Hispanic	---	---	27	32	24	28	20	22	18	19
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	71	68
Female	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	55	55
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	68	67
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	52	48
Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	54	49
Binge alcohol¹										
12 years and over	---	---	20	15	14	16	15	15	17	16
12–17 years	---	---	22	15	15	13	10	11	8	8
12–13 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2	2
14–15 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	8	8
16–17 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	16	15
18–25 years	---	---	34	28	30	31	30	29	34	30
26–34 years	---	---	28	20	21	22	23	22	24	24
35 years and over	---	---	13	10	8	10	9	10	12	12
12–17 years:										
Male	---	---	29	19	19	17	13	15	10	9
Female	---	---	14	11	12	9	7	7	7	6
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	26	18	18	16	11	13	10	9
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	6	3	*	6	6	3	4	3
Hispanic	---	---	15	13	11	11	9	12	5	7
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	47	41
Female	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	21	19
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	40	34
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	17	16
Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	26	23

See footnotes at end of table.

Click here to view source document at
<http://www.cdc.gov/nchswww/data/us96-97.pdf>

Table 66 (page 2 of 2). Use of selected substances in the past month by persons 12 years of age and over, according to age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin: United States, selected years 1979–95

[Data are based on household interviews of a sample of the population 12 years of age and over]

<i>Substance, age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin</i>	<i>1979</i>	<i>1982</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1988</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>1991</i>	<i>1992</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1995</i>
Percent of population										
Marijuana										
12 years and over	13	12	10	6	5	5	5	5	5	5
12–17 years	14	10	10	5	4	4	3	4	6	8
12–13 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2	2
14–15 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	5	10
16–17 years	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	12	13
18–25 years	36	27	22	15	13	13	11	11	12	12
26–34 years	20	19	19	12	10	8	9	8	7	7
35 years and over	3	4	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
12–17 years:										
Male	16	11	11	5	5	4	4	4	7	9
Female	12	9	9	6	4	3	3	4	5	7
White, non-Hispanic	16	11	12	6	5	4	4	4	6	8
Black, non-Hispanic	10	7	6	3	2	3	2	3	6	8
Hispanic	8	*	6	3	3	3	3	4	6	8
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	16	15
Female	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	9	9
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	13	13
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	12	12
Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	8	7
Cocaine										
12 years and over	2.6	2.4	3.0	1.6	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
12–17 years	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.2	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.8
18–25 years	9.9	7.0	8.1	4.8	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.6	1.2	1.3
26–34 years	3.0	3.5	6.3	2.8	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.2
35 years and over	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4
12–17 years:										
Male	2.2	2.4	1.9	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.8
Female	0.8	1.5	1.1	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.7
White, non-Hispanic	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.9
Black, non-Hispanic	*	*	1.3	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Hispanic	2.1	*	2.6	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.3	1.1	0.8	0.8
18–25 years:										
Male	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	0.9	1.7
Female	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	0.6	0.9
White, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1.2	1.5
Black, non-Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	0.7	0.7
Hispanic	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2.2	1.1

--- Data not available.

* Estimates with relative standard error greater than 17.5 percent of the log transformation of the proportion are not shown.

† Five or more drinks on the same occasion at least once in the past month.

NOTES: In 1994 the survey underwent major changes. Estimates for 1993 and earlier years are adjusted to be comparable with data from the redesigned survey. See Appendix I, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Estimates of the use of substances from the National Household Survey on Drug Abuse and the Monitoring the Future Study differ because of different methodologies, sampling frames, and tabulation categories.

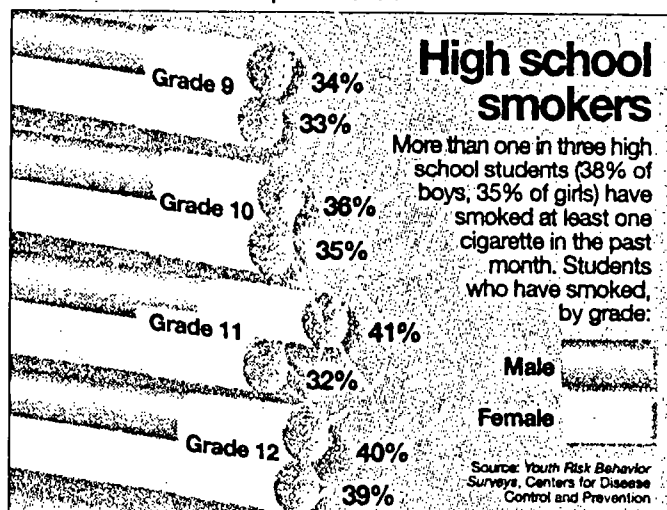
SOURCES: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Office of Applied Studies: Preliminary Estimates from the 1995 National Household Survey on Drug Abuse: Advance Report 18 and Preliminary Tables from the 1995 National Household Survey on Drug Abuse.

Click here to view source document at
http://www.cdc.gov/nchswww/data/hus96_97.pdf

F

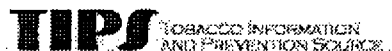
USA SNAPSHOTS®

A look at statistics that shape the nation

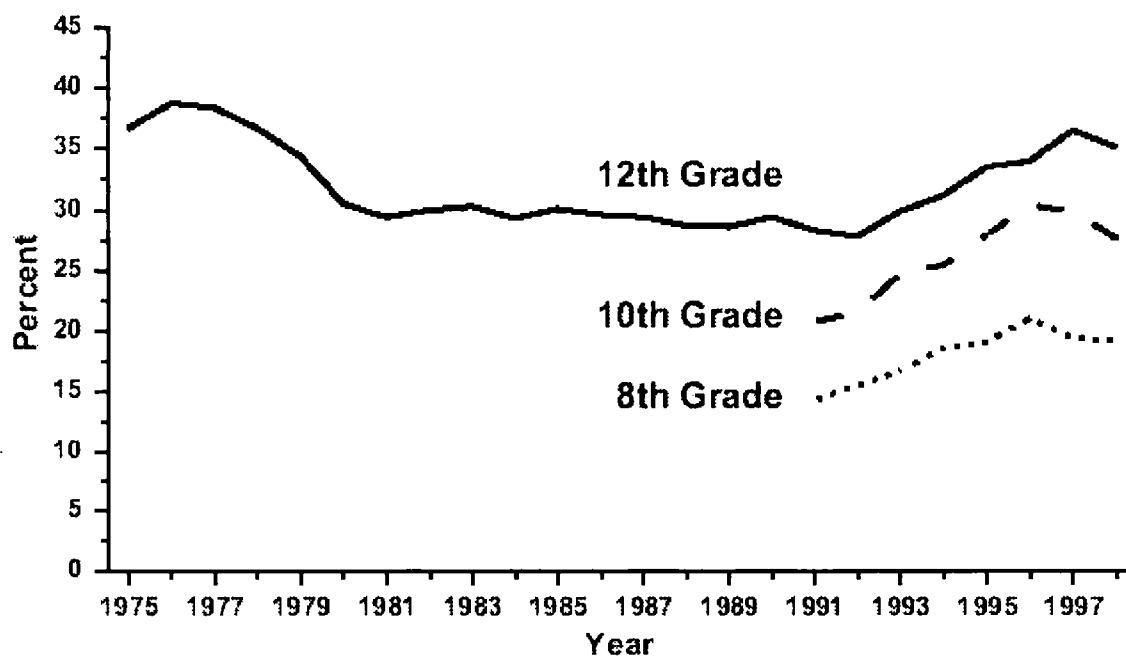


By Cindy Hall and Quin Tian, USA TODAY

TUESDAY, MARCH 16, 1999 · USA TODAY



Trends in Current* Cigarette Smoking by Grade in School---United States, 1975-1998

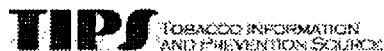


Source: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Monitoring the Future Project.

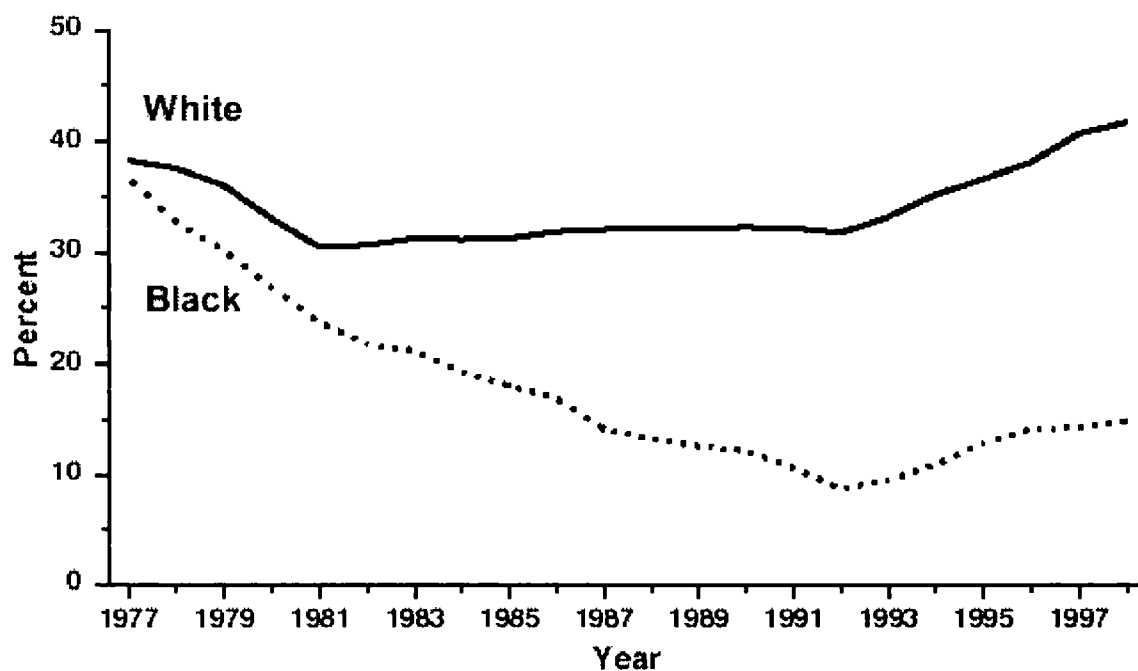
*Smoking 1 or more cigarettes during the previous 30 days.

◀ [Tobacco Use in the United States- Overview](#)

◀ [Research, Data, Reports- Youth](#)



Trends in Current* Cigarette Smoking Among High School Seniors, by Race---United States, 1977-1998

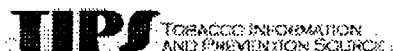


Source: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Monitoring the Future Project

*Smoking 1 or more cigarettes during the previous 30 days



Research, Data, Reports- Youth



Smoking status of high school seniors---United States, Monitoring the Future Project, 1976-1998

Percentage who smoked during the previous 30 days.

Year	Total	Sex		Race/Ethnicity*		
		Males	Females	Whites	Blacks	Hispanics
1976	38.8	37.7	39.1	--	--	--
1977	38.4	36.6	39.6	38.3	36.7	35.7
1978	36.7	34.5	38.1	37.6	32.7	32.8
1979	34.4	31.2	37.1	36.0	30.2	26.8
1980	30.5	26.8	33.4	33.0	26.8	22.6
1981	29.4	26.5	31.6	30.5	23.7	23.2
1982	30.0	26.8	32.6	30.7	21.8	24.7
1983	30.3	28.0	31.6	31.3	21.2	24.7
1984	29.3	25.9	31.9	31.2	19.3	25.3
1985	30.1	28.2	31.4	31.3	18.1	25.5
1986	29.6	27.9	30.6	31.9	16.9	23.7
1987	29.4	27.0	31.4	32.1	14.2	22.7
1988	28.7	28.0	28.9	32.2	13.3	21.9
1989	28.6	27.7	29.0	32.2	12.6	20.6
1990	29.4	29.1	29.2	32.3	12.2	21.7
1991	28.3	29.0	27.5	32.2	10.6	24.0
1992	27.8	29.2	26.1	31.8	8.7	25.0
1993	29.9	30.7	28.7	33.2	9.5	24.2
1994	31.2	32.9	29.2	35.2	10.9	23.6
1995	33.5	34.5	32.0	36.6	12.9	25.1
1996	34.0	34.9	32.4	38.1	14.2	25.4
1997	36.5	37.3	35.2	40.7	14.3	25.9
1998	35.1	36.3	33.3	41.7	14.9	26.6

Percentage point difference

1976-1998	-3.7	-1.4	-5.8	+3.4	-21.8	-9.1
1976-1984	-9.5	-11.8	-7.2	-7.1	-17.4	-10.4
1984-1991	-1.0	+3.1	-4.4	+1.0	-8.7	-1.3
1991-1998	+6.8	+7.3	+5.8	+9.5	+4.3	+2.6

Percentage change

1976-1998	-9.5	-3.7	-14.8	+8.9	-59.4	-25.5
1976-1984	-24.5	-31.3	-18.4	-18.5	-47.4	-29.1
1984-1991	-3.4	+12.0	-13.8	+3.2	-45.1	-5.1
1991-1998	+24.0	+25.2	+21.1	+29.5	+40.6	+10.8

*To derive percentages for each racial/ethnic subgroup, data for the specified year and the previous year have been combined to increase subgroup sample sizes and thus provide more stable estimates. Thus, data are available for race/ethnicity since 1977.

Source: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan,
Monitoring the Future Project.



In the News



Research, Data, Reports- Youth

PRIDE NEWS RELEASE

Contact: Doug Hall, 770-458-9900

April 6-10: 513-784-6010

Embargoed for

Mobile 404-229-4596

11 a.m., April 7, 1999

Study shows nine-year-olds already involved in drugs and alcohol;

Transition from fifth to sixth grade seen as vulnerable time

CINCINNATI, April 7 – By the time they reach nine years of age a small but significant percentage of American students experiment with cigarettes, alcohol, deadly inhalants, marijuana, and other drugs, the National Parents' Resource Institute for Drug Education (PRIDE) reported today.

As students reach the sixth grade (ages 11 and 12), their involvement in alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use as much as quadruples from the fourth grade, perhaps as a result of perceived peer use.

In the first national survey of drug use and violence among America's youngest and most vulnerable students – in grades 4 to 6 – PRIDE found that hundreds of thousands of fourth graders, mostly ages nine and 10, have used cigarettes (4.1 percent), beer (7.7 percent), and inhalants (6.3 percent). The survey represents the responses of 26,086 students in 22 states nationwide.

One in four fourth graders (27 percent) reports being hurt by a student at school. With more than 3.8 million fourth graders in public and private schools, that percentage represents more than a million students.

Many fourth graders drink beer (2.1 percent) and wine coolers (2.2 percent), and "huff" inhalants (2.2 percent) on a monthly basis, the survey revealed. Monthly frequency of drug use is considered current drug use. Even one-time use of some inhalants can produce brain damage or death.

Fourth graders are aware that drugs are prevalent in society. A quarter of them say cigarettes (24 percent) and beer (25 percent) are "easy to get," and 11 percent say marijuana is just as accessible. Nearly one in five (19 percent) say they have already started smoking cigarettes or might someday. Yet only 2 percent agree it is "OK for kids my age to smoke cigarettes."

Today's study of students, mostly ages 9-12, dramatically demonstrates the increase in drug use that occurs when children move from elementary to middle school. Previous research supported by the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) indicates a vulnerability to drug use when students rise from elementary to middle school and then from middle to high school (Sloboda & David, 1997).

The percentage of students reporting annual use of marijuana escalated from 0.8 percent among fourth graders to 3.7 percent among sixth graders. (Annual reported use means the drug was consumed at least once during the past year.)

The annual incidence of marijuana use triples (from 1.2 to 3.7 percent) after students leave the fifth grade and go to the sixth grade, the study found. Cigarette smoking and beer drinking roughly doubled between the fifth and sixth grades (cigarettes from 7 to 15 percent, and beer from 8 to 15 percent).

"It is clear from these numbers that, for 11- and 12-year-olds, the transition from the fifth to the sixth grade is a critical moment as a child makes the decision whether to use drugs and engage in other bad behaviors," said Thomas J. Gleaton, Ed.D., president of PRIDE.

Gleaton noted that social factors such as associating with new friends might explain the escalation in drug use between the two grades. Sharp increases were seen in the number of students who said their friends use drugs, known as perceived use.

Among fifth graders, 27 percent said "a few" or "a lot" of their friends smoke cigarettes compared to 43 percent among sixth graders. For beer, 19 percent of fifth graders said friends drink, versus 31 percent for sixth graders. For marijuana, 6 percent versus 14 percent, respectively.

Students in all three grades were divided into two groups: those who said none of their friends use drugs, and those who reported "a few" or "a lot" of their friends used drugs.

Among the group that believes none of their friends use drugs, beer use was 2 percent and cigarette use was 0.9 percent. Among those who think some of their friends use drugs, beer use increased to 20 percent and cigarette use rose to 17 percent.

Other NIDA research (Hansen, 1997) placed drug use by peers as one of the strongest correlations in predicting adolescent drug use – ahead of deviance (aggression, truancy, vandalism, dishonesty, etc.), drug use by siblings, and drug use by parents.

However, students in all three grades greatly overestimated how many of their friends use drugs when compared with actual personal reported use. While 27 percent of the fifth graders said "a few" or "a lot" of their friends smoke cigarettes, only 7 percent actually self-reported any cigarette smoking. In the sixth grade 14 percent believe their friends smoke marijuana, while only 4 percent of students reported any marijuana use.

"This misperception alone – that everyone is doing it – can be a powerful motivator behind much of the drug use we see," Gleaton said. "Youth need an accurate portrayal of drug use that begins with correcting the misperception that everyone is doing it."

Attitudinal changes regarding drugs and violence were also detected in the transition from fifth to sixth grade. The percentage of students reporting it is "OK for kids my age" to use drugs generally doubled between the fifth and sixth grades--cigarettes (2.9 to 6.6 percent), beer (3.9 to 7.2 percent) and marijuana (1.2 to 3.2 percent).

The percentage of students responding it is "OK for kids my age to carry a gun for protection" jumped from 6 percent to 9 percent between the two grade levels. Similarly, 18 percent of fifth graders said it is "OK for kids my age to beat up another student if it is a fair fight" compared to 27 percent in the sixth grade.

Violence and the threat of violence is a real concern for students as young as nine years old. One third of fourth graders (33 percent) said they have been threatened by another student at school, and more than a quarter (27 percent) report they have been hurt by a student one or more times.

###

Frequency of use of drugs by US students in grades 4-6

	Frequency	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Total
Cigarettes	Annual %	4.1	7.0	14.8	7.6
	Monthly %	1.6	2.8	7.0	3.3
Beer	Annual	7.7	8.2	15.0	9.4
	Monthly	2.1	2.2	4.7	2.7
Liquor	Annual	2.4	3.7	8.9	4.3
	Monthly	0.7	0.8	3.0	1.2
Marijuana	Annual	0.8	1.2	3.7	1.6
	Monthly	0.4	0.6	1.7	0.8
Inhalants (Glue, Gas, etc)	Annual	6.3	6.0	7.3	6.4
	Monthly	2.2	2.3	2.7	2.4

Source: PRIDE Survey, 800-279-6361

More details: www.prideusa.org

1ST STORY of Level 2 printed in FULL format.

Copyright 1999 The New York Times Company
The New York Times

April 8, 1999, Thursday, Late Edition - Final

SECTION: Section A; Page 24; Column 1; National Desk

LENGTH: 813 words

HEADLINE: Drug Survey of Children Finds That End of Grade School Is a Crucial Time

BYLINE: By CHRISTOPHER S. WREN

BODY:

The first national drug-abuse survey to include elementary-school children among the respondents suggests that youngsters become more vulnerable to the lure of drugs once they leave the familiar environment of primary school and strive to fit into middle school.

The new survey, by Pride, an organization based in Atlanta that counsels schools and parents on ways to inhibit drug use among the young, also confirms again what many researchers have long known: that cigarettes, alcohol (primarily beer) and inhalants are used far more by children than are marijuana or harder drugs.

Pride -- the name is an acronym for the National Parents' Resource Institute for Drug Education -- issued its findings yesterday at its national conference in Cincinnati. Until now, drug-abuse surveys among children did not focus on those below the eighth grade. But Pride's survey questioned pupils from Grade 4 through Grade 6, and among the findings were these:

The proportion of respondents who said they had smoked cigarettes in the last month jumped to 7 percent of sixth graders from 1.6 percent of fourth graders. Similarly 2.1 percent of fourth graders said they drank beer at least once a month, fewer than half the 4.7 percent of sixth graders who reported doing so. Monthly sniffing of glue and other inhalants also rose between the grades, although less so: to 2.7 percent of sixth graders from 2.2 percent of fourth graders. As for marijuana, only 0.4 percent of fourth-grade pupils acknowledged having smoked it in the last month, as against 1.7 percent of sixth graders.

In discussing their findings, officials of Pride also cited previous research, for the National Institute on Drug Abuse, indicating that children's risk of engaging in drug use rises when they move from elementary school to middle -- which, depending on the district, begins in Grade 5, 6 or 7 -- and later from middle school to high school. Peer pressure and association with new friends appear to be leading causes.

Although marijuana use among the survey's respondents was far less common than their beer drinking or cigarette smoking, the director of the White House Office of National Drug Control Policy noted a sharp jump in monthly marijuana smoking from fifth graders (0.6 percent) to sixth (1.7 percent).

The New York Times, April 8, 1999

"The reported dramatic increase of marijuana use between the fifth and sixth grades," said the director, Gen. Barry R. McCaffrey, retired, "is a real wake-up call to parents. We have got to get the word out that the pre-teen years are the key transition period where parents can play a critical role."

The findings were based on responses from 26,086 pupils at public and private schools in 22 states during the 1997-98 school year. Pride sent a questionnaire to the participating schools with instructions for administering it, and all answers were anonymous. Doug Hall, a Pride spokesman, said the researchers had used a test-retest method in which the pupils were asked the same questions twice within a two-week period to catch any statistical inconsistencies. But the schools had all volunteered to participate in the survey, making them somewhat less representative than a broader nationwide sample would have been.

The researchers found that the children interviewed, who ranged in age from 9 to 12, seemed to overestimate the number of friends and classmates who smoked cigarettes, drank beer or experimented with marijuana. For example, 14 percent of sixth graders said they believed that their friends had smoked marijuana, but fewer than 4 percent admitted having tried it themselves at some point.

"This misperception alone -- that everybody's doing it -- can be a powerful motivator behind much of the drug use we see," said Thomas J. Gleaton, the president of Pride. "Youth need an accurate portrayal of drug use that begins with correcting the misperception that everyone is doing it."

The nation's foremost annual survey of drug use by the young, Monitoring the Future, at the University of Michigan, questions eighth graders and up. It asks when they first began using drugs, and their answers indicate the same leap in experimentation between elementary school and middle school.

In 1997, the latest year measured, just 0.9 percent of eighth graders said they had first tried marijuana in the fourth grade, 4.2 percent in the sixth grade. Similarly 8.3 percent said they had begun drinking alcohol in the fourth grade, and 12 percent in the sixth grade. And 7.8 percent said they had started smoking cigarettes in the fourth grade, and 12.4 percent in the sixth grade.

In December, the Michigan survey reported that in 1997 marijuana use, after rising for six years, began to decline slightly among 10th and 12th graders and failed to increase among 8th graders. This raised hopes that prevention messages were finally paying off.

LANGUAGE: ENGLISH

LOAD-DATE: April 8, 1999



NIDA Media Advisory

FOR RELEASE, Friday, December 18, 1998, 2 p.m.

Contact: Beverly Jackson or Sheryl Massaro
301-443-6245

Drug Use Eases Among Teens for Second Consecutive Year Secretary Shalala Also Announces NIDA Goes to School Initiative

Illicit drug use among teenagers remained stable for the second year in a row, and in some cases even decreased, according to the 24th annual Monitoring the Future Survey released today by the Department of Health and Human Services.

The 1998 survey of drug use among adolescents found general stability among the proportion of 12th graders using most illicit drugs in the past year or past month, including the most frequently used drug, marijuana. There were also important decreases this year in 10th graders' use of marijuana, alcohol and cigarettes, and among 8th graders, the survey indicates evidence of a gradual decline in drug use over the past two years.

"These new findings are encouraging, since they seem to indicate a leveling off in teens' use of illicit drugs, particularly marijuana, after years of dramatic increases," Secretary Shalala said. "It's not easy to convince our young people that drug use is illegal, dangerous and wrong, but it is absolutely critical to their future. We now have an opportunity to drive home this important message."

Secretary Shalala also announced today that the NIDA Goes to School initiative will distribute science-based education materials to 18,000 public and private middle schools in the country and at U.S. military bases overseas. As part of HHS' ongoing outreach efforts, NIDA Goes to School includes the latest information on how drugs damage children's minds and bodies.

"This progress is the second straight year without any significant increases in youth drug use," said Director of the Office of National Drug Control Policy Barry R. McCaffrey. "This consistent progress not only gives reason for optimism that we have turned the tide, but also demonstrates that our balanced approach - focusing on preventing children from turning to drugs, treating drug addicts, and breaking trafficking organizations - works."

The decline in some measures from 1997 to 1998 appears to continue the leveling off in illicit drug use noted cautiously in last year's Monitoring the Future survey. While other surveys showed a slight increase from 1996 to 1997 in use of some drugs, a series of government reports have confirmed that the nation is experiencing the first real slowdown in illicit drug use after years of dramatic increases. In particular, use of marijuana, the drug most widely used by teens, appears to be leveling off, with declines reported in this survey for the second year in a row. This year's study also reports an increase in perceived risk of harm in using marijuana, which generally is predictive of a decline in marijuana use. This report is the first to find an increase in the perceived risk of

marijuana use among 8th graders since 1991.

Daily cigarette smoking among 12th graders in 1998 is at 22.4 percent. Although down slightly from the recent high of 24.6 percent in 1997, the 1998 rate is still above the low point of 17.2 percent in 1992. Since 1979, daily smoking decreased to 21.3 percent in 1980, remained level for many years and increased between the early and mid-1990s.

"Increases in disapproval and perceived harm rates generally play out as less drug use," said NIDA Director Dr. Alan I. Leshner. "And the more that scientific research helps us understand what addiction is and how illicit drugs change the brain and behavior, the better able students and others will be to make informed decisions. The findings from this year's report suggest that many of our educational efforts are beginning to pay off."

One disquieting increase in this year's survey noted that "crack" cocaine use among 8th graders rose from 2.7 percent in 1997 for lifetime use to 3.2 percent in 1998.

The following are highlights from the 1998 Monitoring the Future survey. Unless otherwise noted, all changes are statistically significant.

ANY ILLICIT DRUG USE - Past year use among 10th graders decreased from 38.5 percent in 1997 to 35.0 percent in 1998. Past year use among 8th graders decreased from 23.6 percent in 1996 to 21.0 percent in 1998.

MARIJUANA - Lifetime, past year, and past month use dropped among 10th graders: from 42.3 percent in 1997 to 39.6 percent in 1998 for lifetime use; from 34.8 percent in 1997 to 31.1 percent in 1998 for past year use; and from 20.5 percent in 1997 to 18.7 percent in 1998 for past month use. Rates of marijuana use among 8th and 12th graders remained stable.

CRACK/COCAINE - Crack and cocaine use remained stable across the board for 10th and 12th graders. Among 8th graders, however, increases were noted in lifetime use of crack (from 2.7 percent in 1997 to 3.2 percent in 1998) and in past year use (from 1.7 percent to 2.1 percent of 8th graders).

HEROIN - Heroin use remained stable across the board for each grade.

INHALANTS - Past month inhalant use decreased among 8th graders, from 5.6 percent in 1997 to 4.8 percent in 1998. While inhalant use among 8th graders remains generally higher than for the other grades, use has been declining gradually in all three grades since 1995.

LSD - Past month use of LSD decreased among 8th graders, from 1.5 percent in 1997 to 1.1 percent in 1998.

ALCOHOL - For a few years, alcohol use has remained stable among 8th and 10th graders. Alcohol use among 12th graders had increased between 1996 and 1997, but remained stable from 1997 to 1998. In addition, some decreases were seen among 10th graders: lifetime use decreased from 72.0 percent in 1997 to 69.8 percent in 1998; past year use decreased from 65.2 percent in 1997 to 62.7 percent in 1998.

CIGARETTES - Among 12th graders in 1997, daily use of cigarettes in the past month was at its highest level since 1979 (24.6 percent in 1997 vs. 25.4 percent in 1979). In 1998, the number of 12th graders' smoking daily decreased to 22.4 percent, and those smoking a half-pack or more of

cigarettes per day decreased from 14.3 percent in 1997 to 12.6 percent in 1998. African American students continue to have the lowest rates of smoking, with 14.9 percent of African American 12th graders reporting past month smoking, compared to 41.7 percent of white and 26.6 percent of Hispanic 12th graders.

ATTITUDES & PERCEPTIONS OF DRUG ABUSE - For the Monitoring the Future Study, students are asked about their perceived harm/risk of using an illicit drug; personal disapproval of those who use drugs; and their perceived availability of drugs.

The following data are encouraging:

The percentage of 8th graders reporting "great risk" in trying marijuana once or twice increased from 25.3 percent in 1997 to 28.1 percent in 1998, and the percentage of those who perceived great risk in occasional use increased from 43.1 percent in 1997 to 45.0 percent in 1998.

The percentage of 12th graders seeing great risk in trying amphetamines once or twice increased from 31.0 percent in 1997 to 35.3 percent in 1998.

And, for alcohol, the perceived harm in trying one or two drinks increased among 8th graders, from 10.4 percent in 1997 to 12.1 percent in 1998, and 10th graders, from 9.0 percent in 1997 to 10.1 percent in 1998.

Among 8th and 10th graders, the perceived availability of several drugs decreased, including marijuana, LSD, heroin and other opiates, amphetamines, barbiturates, tranquilizers, alcohol, and cigarettes.

A few trends, however, appear to be moving in the wrong direction and may require particular attention:

The only statistically significant change in personal disapproval of people who use drugs occurred among 8th graders, fewer of whom reported disapproval of people taking LSD once or twice or regularly. Also, fewer 8th graders saw great risk in regular use of LSD; this percentage decreased from 64.1 percent in 1997 to 59.6 percent in 1998.

The perceived harm in taking cocaine powder occasionally decreased among 10th graders, declining from 73.9 percent in 1997 to 71.8 percent in 1998.

Among 12th graders, perceived availability of opiates other than heroin increased from 1997 to 1998.

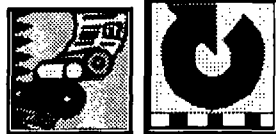
LONG-TERM TRENDS, 1975-1998 - Monitoring the Future has surveyed 12th graders continuously since 1975, and notes some long-term trends for this group only.

From a peak in drug use that occurred in 1979, use of marijuana by 12th graders declined from 1980 to 1992, rose between 1993 and 1995, stabilized for a year, increased between 1996 and 1997, and remained unchanged in 1998. In 1979, past year marijuana use for 12th graders peaked at 50.8 percent; in 1998, 37.5 percent of 12th graders have used marijuana at least once in the past year.

The **Monitoring the Future Study**, conducted by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research and funded by the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA), National Institutes of

Health, has tracked 12th graders' illicit drug use and also attitudes towards drugs since 1975. In 1991, 8th and 10th graders were added to the study. For the 1998 study, 49,866 students were surveyed from a representative sample of 422 public and private schools nationwide.

NOTE: respondent's lifetime. "Past year" refers to an individual's drug use at least once during the year preceding their response to the survey. "Past month" refers to an individual's drug use at least once during the month preceding their response to the survey.



[News Room](#) [Homepage](#)

Juvenile Crime + Justice



Shay Bilchik, Administrator

December 1998

JUVENILE JUSTICE BULLETIN

Juvenile Arrests 1997

Howard N. Snyder

In 1997, law enforcement agencies in the United States made an estimated 2.8 million arrests of persons under age 18.* According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), juveniles accounted for 19% of all arrests and 17% of all violent crime arrests in 1997. The substantial growth in juvenile violent crime arrests that began in the late 1980's peaked in 1994. In 1997, for the third year in a row, the total number of juvenile arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses—murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault—declined. Even with these declines (3% in 1995, 6% in 1996, and 4% in 1997), the number of juvenile Violent Crime Index arrests in 1997 was 49% above the 1988 level. In comparison, the number of adult arrests for a Violent Crime Index offense in 1997 was 19% greater than in 1988.

These findings are derived from data reported annually by local law enforcement agencies across the country to the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program. Based on these data, the FBI prepares its annual *Crime in the United States* report, which summarizes crimes known to the police and arrests made during the reporting calendar year. This information is used to characterize the extent and nature of juvenile crime that comes to the attention of the justice system. Other recent findings from the UCR Program are:

- ◆ Of the 2,100 juveniles murdered in 1997, 56% were killed with a firearm.

- ◆ Juveniles were involved in 14% of all murder and aggravated assault arrests, 37% of burglary arrests, 30% of robbery arrests, and 24% of weapons arrests in 1997.
- ◆ Juvenile murder arrests increased substantially between 1988 and 1993. In the peak year of 1993, there were about 3,800 juvenile arrests for murder. Between 1993 and 1997, juvenile arrests for murder declined 39%, with the number of arrests in 1997 (2,500) 11% above the 1988 level.
- ◆ Between 1993 and 1997, juvenile arrests for burglary declined 9% and juvenile arrests for motor vehicle theft declined 30%.
- ◆ Juveniles were involved in 14% of all drug abuse violation arrests in 1997. Between 1993 and 1997, juvenile arrests for drug abuse violations increased 82%.
- ◆ Juvenile arrests for curfew and loitering violations increased 87% between 1993 and 1997. In 1997, 28% of curfew arrests involved juveniles under age 15 and 31% involved females.
- ◆ In 1997, 58% of arrests for running away from home involved females and 41% involved juveniles under age 15.
- ◆ Arrests of juveniles accounted for 12% of all violent crimes cleared by arrest in 1997—specifically, 8% of murders, 11% of forcible rapes, 17% of robberies, and 12% of aggravated assaults.

From the Administrator

Public concern about juvenile violence is bearing fruit. Juvenile arrests for violent crime are far below their peaks in the early 1990's. The number of juvenile arrests for murder decreased 39% from 1993 to 1997. The number of juvenile arrests for violent crimes and the percentage of violent crimes cleared by juvenile arrests also have declined—and these decreases are occurring despite continuing growth in the juvenile population.

Such good news, however, should not foster complacency nor lead us to weaken our efforts to combat violent juvenile crime, which despite decreases is still too prevalent. Rather, we need to build on these accomplishments with the implementation of additional effective prevention programs and a stronger juvenile justice system. It is this type of response that will further reduce the levels of juvenile violence that endanger our communities and of other problem behaviors that prevent youth from achieving their potential.

Juvenile Arrests 1997 provides a summary and a preliminary analysis of national and State juvenile arrest data reported in the FBI's November 1998 report, *Crime in the United States 1997*. Everyone who is concerned about juvenile crime should consider the information this Bulletin offers and incorporate it into their understanding of juvenile delinquency. With sound information and solid commitment, we can all make a difference.

Shay Bilchik
Administrator

* Throughout this Bulletin, persons under age 18 are referred to as juveniles. See Notes on page 12.

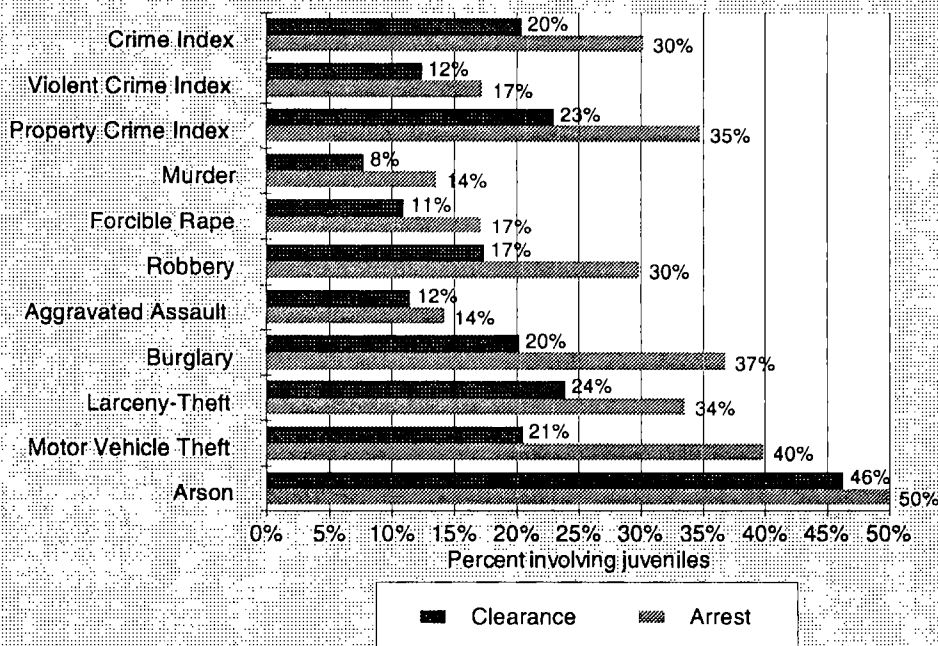
What do arrest statistics count?

To interpret the material in this Bulletin properly, the reader must have a clear understanding of what these statistics count. The arrest statistics report the number of arrests made by law enforcement agencies in a particular year—not the number of individuals arrested, nor the number of crimes committed. The number of arrests is not equivalent to the number of people arrested because an unknown number of individuals are arrested more than once in the year. Nor do arrest statistics represent counts of crimes committed by arrested individuals, because a series of crimes committed by one individual may culminate in a single arrest or a single crime may result in the arrest of more than one person. This latter situation, many arrests resulting from one crime, is relatively common in juvenile law-violating behavior, because juveniles are more likely than adults to commit crimes in groups. This is the primary reason why

arrest statistics should not be used to indicate the relative proportion of crime committed by juveniles and adults. Arrest statistics are most appropriately a measure of flow into the criminal and juvenile justice systems.

Arrest statistics also have limitations in measuring the volume of arrests for a particular offense. Under the UCR Program, the FBI requires law enforcement agencies to classify an arrest by the most serious offense charged in that arrest. For example, the arrest of a youth charged with aggravated assault and possession of a controlled substance would be reported to the FBI as an arrest for aggravated assault. Therefore, when arrest statistics show that law enforcement agencies made an estimated 220,700 arrests of young people for drug abuse violations in 1997, it means that a drug abuse violation was the most serious charge in these 220,700 arrests. An unknown number of additional arrests in 1997 included a drug charge as a lesser offense.

The juvenile proportion of arrests exceeded the juvenile proportion of crimes cleared by arrest in each offense category, reflecting the fact that juveniles are more likely to commit crimes in groups and are more likely to be arrested than are adults



Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), tables 28 and 38.

What do clearance statistics count?

Clearance statistics measure the proportion of reported crimes that were resolved by an arrest or other, exceptional means (e.g., death of the offender, unwillingness of the victim to cooperate). A single arrest may result in many clearances. For example, one arrest could clear 40 burglaries if the person was charged with committing all 40 of these crimes. Or multiple arrests may result in a single clearance if the crime was committed by a group of offenders. For those interested in juvenile justice issues, the FBI also reports information on the proportion of clearances that were cleared by the arrest of persons under age 18. This statistic is a better indicator of the proportion of crime committed by this age group than is the arrest proportion, although there are some concerns that even the clearance statistic overestimates the juvenile proportion of crimes.

For example, the FBI reports that persons under age 18 accounted for 30% of all robbery arrests but only 17% of all robberies that were cleared in 1997. If it can be assumed that offender characteristics of cleared robberies are similar to those of robberies that were not cleared, then it would be appropriate to conclude that persons under age 18 were responsible for 17% of all robberies in 1997. However, the offender characteristics of cleared and noncleared robberies may differ for a number of reasons. If, for example, juvenile robbers were more easily apprehended than adult robbers, the proportion of robberies cleared by the arrest of persons under age 18 would overestimate the juvenile responsibility for all robberies. To add to the difficulty in interpreting clearance statistics, the FBI's reporting guidelines require the clearance to be tied to the oldest offender in the group if more than one person is arrested for a crime.

In summary, while the interpretation of reported clearance proportions is not straightforward, these data are the closest measure generally available of the proportion of crime known to law enforcement that is attributed to persons under age 18. These data should provide a barometer of the changing contribution of persons under age 18 to the Nation's crime problems.

I 1997, the U.S. murder rate was the lowest in 30 years

The primary focus of each *Crime in the United States* report is the estimated number of crimes reported to law enforcement agencies. While only a portion of all crimes that occur are reported to law enforcement, those that are provide an assessment of the workloads of the criminal and juvenile justice systems.

The FBI estimates that in 1997, 7,726,000 larceny-thefts, 2,461,000 burglaries, 1,354,000 motor vehicle thefts, 1,022,000 aggravated assaults, 498,000 robberies, 96,000 forcible rapes, and 18,200 murders were reported to law enforcement agencies. One would have to go back to 1971 to find a lower annual number of murder victims in the United States and to 1967 to find a lower murder rate (i.e., murders per 100,000 persons in the population).

With one exception, the traditional UCR program collects no information on the victims of these crimes. The exception is murder.

Eighty-eight percent of murder victims (16,100) were 18 years of age or older. Fewer adults were murdered in the United States in 1997 than in any year within the last 20 years.

In 1997, about 2,100 murder victims were below the age of 18. This level was 27% below that of the peak year of 1993, when 2,900 juveniles were murdered. However, this decline only returned the level to that of 1989. The number of juveniles murdered in the United States in 1997 was still over 300 more than in a typical year in the 1980's.

In 1997, 900 persons under age 13 were murdered. This figure has held relatively constant for the last 20 years. The last year in which fewer young juveniles were murdered was 1987.

In 1997, 68% of all murder victims were killed with a firearm. Adults were more likely to be killed with a firearm (70%) than were juveniles (56%). However, the involvement of a firearm depended greatly on the age of the juvenile victim. While 18% of murdered juveniles under age 13 were killed with a firearm in 1997, 84% of murdered juveniles age 13

older were killed with a firearm. No other age group in 1997 had a higher proportion of firearm homicides.

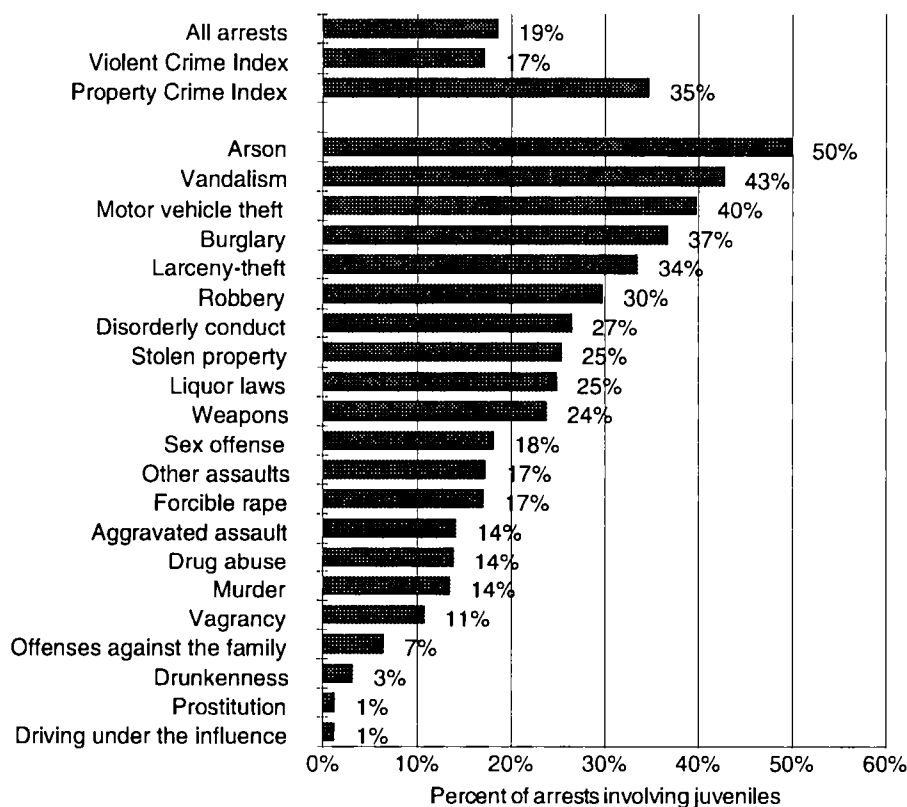
While the number of juvenile arrests in 1997—2.8 million—was only slightly below the 1996 level, juvenile arrests for murder dropped 16%

Most Serious Offense	1997 Estimated Number of Juvenile Arrests	Percent of Total Juvenile Arrests		Percent Change		
		Female	Under Age 15	1988-97	1993-97	1996-97
Total	2,838,300	26%	32%	35%	14%	-1%
Crime Index total	824,900	26	38	6	-4	-6
Violent Crime Index	123,400	16	30	49	-6	-4
Murder and nonnegligent manslaughter	2,500	6	11	11	-39	-16
Forcible rape	5,500	2	38	6	-16	-2
Robbery	39,500	9	26	56	-2	-8
Aggravated assault	75,900	21	33	51	-5	-2
Property Crime Index	701,500	28	40	1	-3	-6
Burglary	131,000	10	38	-15	-9	-6
Larceny-theft	493,900	34	42	9	4	-4
Motor vehicle theft	66,600	16	26	-17	-30	-14
Arson	10,000	11	67	22	-2	-4
Nonindex						
Other assaults	241,800	29	41	84	17	0
Forgery and counterfeiting	8,500	39	12	2	3	-2
Fraud	11,300	35	16	58	3	-6
Embezzlement	1,400	45	5	6	74	0
Stolen property (buying, receiving, possessing)	39,500	13	27	-8	-15	-10
Vandalism	136,500	12	45	20	-12	-6
Weapons (carrying, possessing, etc.)	52,200	9	31	44	-23	-4
Prostitution and commercialized vice	1,400	56	15	-28	11	-8
Sex offense (except forcible rape and prostitution)	18,500	9	51	11	-13	4
Drug abuse violations	220,700	13	16	125	82	2
Gambling	2,600	3	13	166	-7	-6
Offenses against the family and children	10,200	37	35	150	73	8
Driving under the influence	19,600	17	2	-21	35	4
Liquor law violations	158,500	30	11	1	33	1
Drunkenness	24,100	17	13	-9	31	-5
Disorderly conduct	215,100	26	34	86	31	0
Vagrancy	3,100	15	24	-7	2	1
All other offenses (except traffic)	468,000	24	28	55	29	4
Suspicion	1,600	23	22	-38	-9	-26
Curfew and loitering	182,700	31	28	190	87	3
Runaways	196,100	58	41	19	-2	-4

- ◆ Between 1993 and 1997, juvenile arrests for murder declined 39%; during the same period, juvenile arrests for a weapons law violation dropped 23%.
- ◆ In about 15% of all juvenile arrests in 1997, the most serious charge was a drug abuse violation, a liquor law violation, drunkenness, or driving under the influence.
- ◆ The proportion of juvenile arrests involving younger juveniles (under age 15) was highest for the offense of arson (67%), followed by sex offenses (51%), vandalism (45%), larceny-theft (42%), other (simple) assaults (41%), and runaways (41%).
- ◆ 12% of juveniles arrested for vandalism were female and 45% were age 14 or younger.

Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), tables 29, 32, 34, 36, and 38. Arrest estimates were developed by the National Center for Juvenile Justice.

Juveniles were involved in about 1 in 5 arrests made by law enforcement agencies in 1997, 1 in 6 arrests for a violent crime, and 1 in 3 arrests for a property offense



Note: Running away from home and curfew and loitering violations are not presented in this figure because, by definition, only juveniles can be arrested for these offenses.

Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), table 38.

The juvenile share of the crime problem decreased in 1997

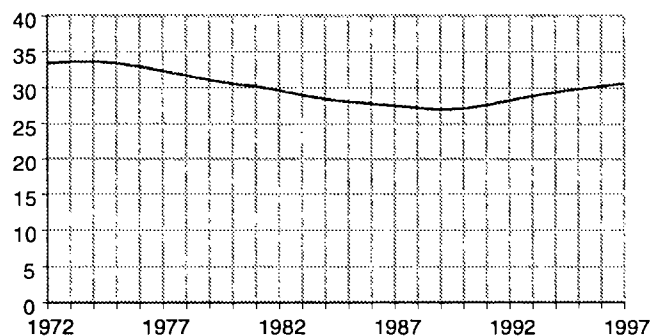
The relative responsibility of juveniles for the U.S. crime problem is hard to determine. Studying the proportion of crimes that are cleared by the arrest of juveniles gives one estimate of the juvenile responsibility for crime.

The clearance data in the *Crime in the United States* series show that the proportion of violent crimes attributed to juveniles has declined in recent years. Juvenile involvement in violent crime grew from 9% or 10% in the early-to-mid-1980's to 14% in 1994. Since 1994, the proportion of violent crimes cleared by juvenile arrest has declined, reaching 12% in 1997.

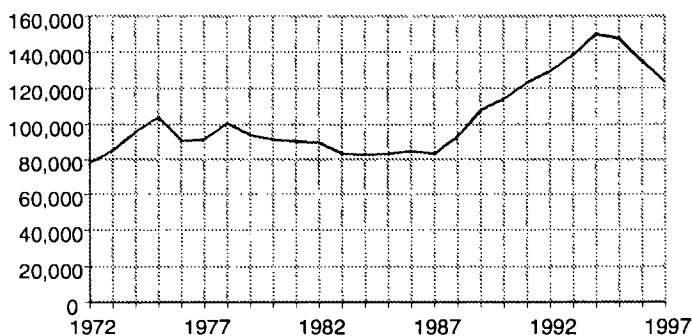
The proportion of murders cleared by juvenile arrests in 1997 (8%) was at its lowest level since 1991, but still above the 5% level of the mid-1980's. The juvenile proportion of cleared forcible rapes peaked in 1995 (15%) and then fell, with the 1997 rate (12%) the lowest in the decade. The juvenile proportion of robbery clearances in 1997 (17%) was below its peak in 1995 (20%), but still far above the levels of the early 1980's (12%). Similarly, the juvenile proportion of aggravated assault clearances in 1997 (12%) was below its peak in 1994 (13%), but still above the levels of the early 1980's (9%). The proportion of Property Crime Index offenses cleared by juvenile arrest in 1997 (23%) was equal to the average level between 1980 and 1996.

Over the last 25 years, changes in the number of juvenile arrests for violent crime have been unrelated to changes in the size of the juvenile population

Population (in millions) of juveniles ages 10-17



Juvenile Violent Crime Index arrests



◆ From 1987 to 1994, while the juvenile population increased 7%, juvenile arrests for violent crime increased 79%. Since 1994, juvenile arrests have dropped 18%, while the juvenile population has increased 4%.

Data source: Arrest estimates were developed by the National Center for Juvenile Justice based on arrest data from the FBI; population data is from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

The Violent Crime Index monitors violence trends

The FBI assesses trends in the volume of violent crimes by monitoring four offenses that are consistently reported by law enforcement agencies nationwide and are pervasive in all geographical areas of the country. These four crimes are murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Other crimes may be considered violent by their nature or effect (e.g., kidnapping, weapons possession, extortion, drug selling), but the four crimes that together form the Violent Crime Index have traditionally been used as the Nation's barometer of violent crime.

The juvenile violent crime arrest rate declined 23% from 1994 to 1997

The juvenile violent crime arrest rate in 1988 was nearly identical to the rate in 1980; in fact, this rate had changed little since the early 1970's. However, between 1988 and 1994, the rate increased more than 60%. This steady increase after years of stability focused national attention on the juvenile violent crime problem.

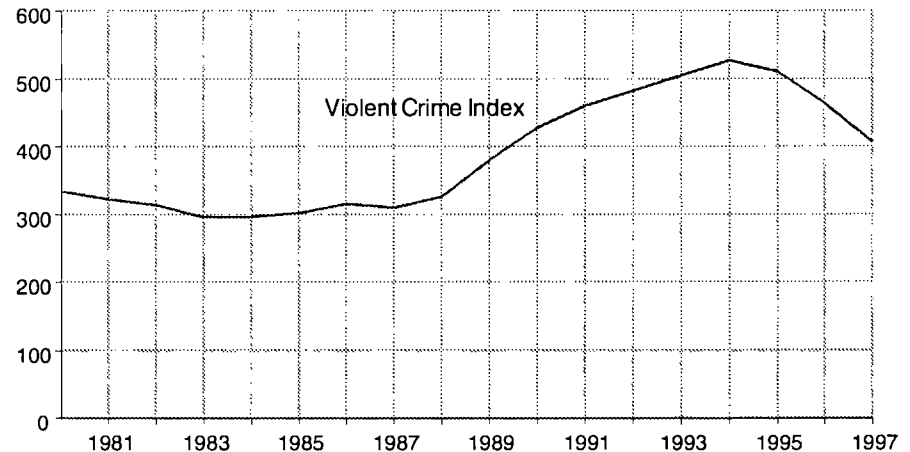
After peaking in 1994, the juvenile violent crime arrest rate began to decline. The declines in 1995, 1996, and again in 1997 resulted in a 1997 juvenile violent crime arrest rate 23% below the peak year of 1994, but still 25% above the 1988 level. Therefore, by 1997, the juvenile violent crime arrest rate decreased by half of the increase it experienced between 1988 and 1994.

Few juveniles are arrested for violent crime

The juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rate tells us that in 1997, there were 407 arrests for these violent crimes for every 100,000 youth in the United States between 10 and 17 years of age. If each of these arrests involved a different juvenile (i.e., if each juvenile arrested in 1997 for a Violent Crime Index offense were arrested only once that year—which is unlikely), then 1 in about every 250 persons ages 10 through 17 in the United States was arrested for a Violent Crime Index offense in 1997.

After more than a decade of consistency, the juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rate increased from 1989 to 1994 and then fell, so that by 1997, it had nearly returned to the 1989 level

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17

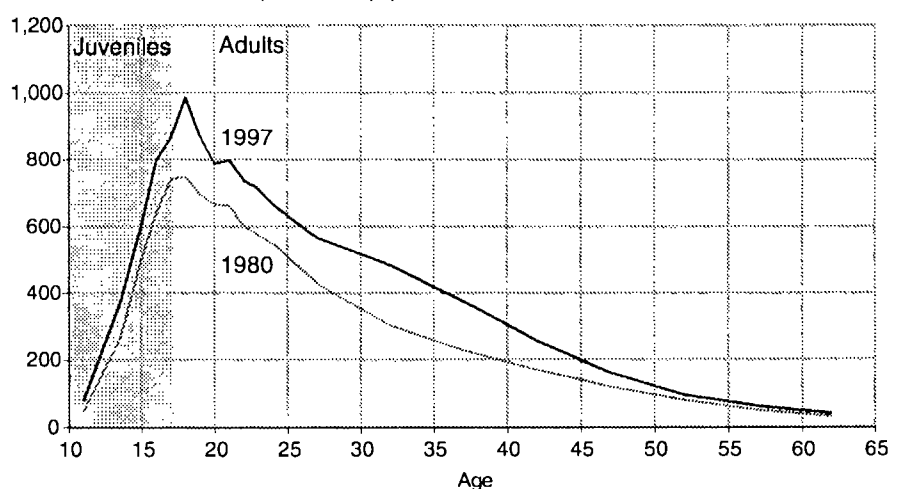


- ◆ Between 1994 and 1997, the juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rate dropped 23%. Even with this decline, the 1997 rate was still about 30% greater than the average rate of the years between 1980 and 1988.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

Between 1980 and 1997, Violent Crime Index arrest rates increased substantially for all ages—more for adults than juveniles

Violent Crime Index arrests per 100,000 population

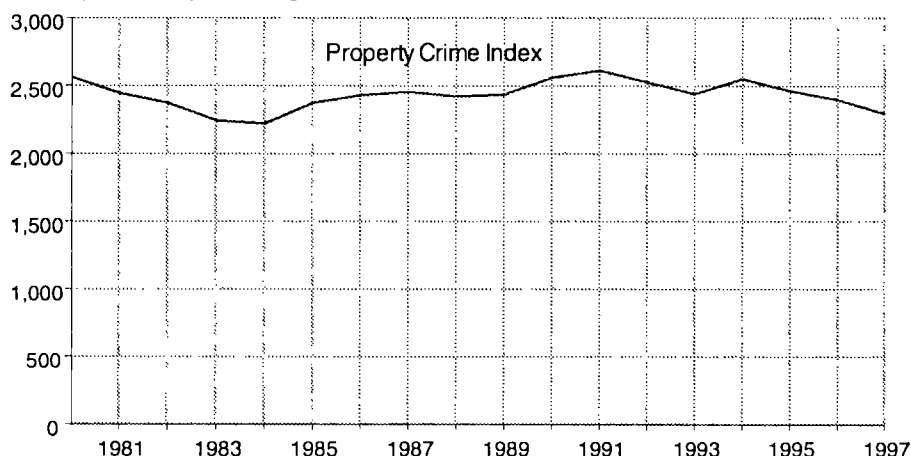


- ◆ Over the last several years, public attention has focused on increases in juvenile violent crime arrests. However, with the recent declines in this rate, the increase in the arrest rate for juveniles between 1980 and 1997 (22%) is now less than the increases found in most other age groups: 18- to 24-year-olds (23%), 25- to 29-year-olds (32%), 30- to 34-year-olds (60%), 35- to 39-year-olds (66%), 40- to 44-year-olds (50%), and 45- to 49-year-olds (35%).

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 2 on page 12 for detail.]

In stark contrast to violent crimes, the juvenile arrest rate for property crimes remained relatively constant between 1980 and 1997

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17

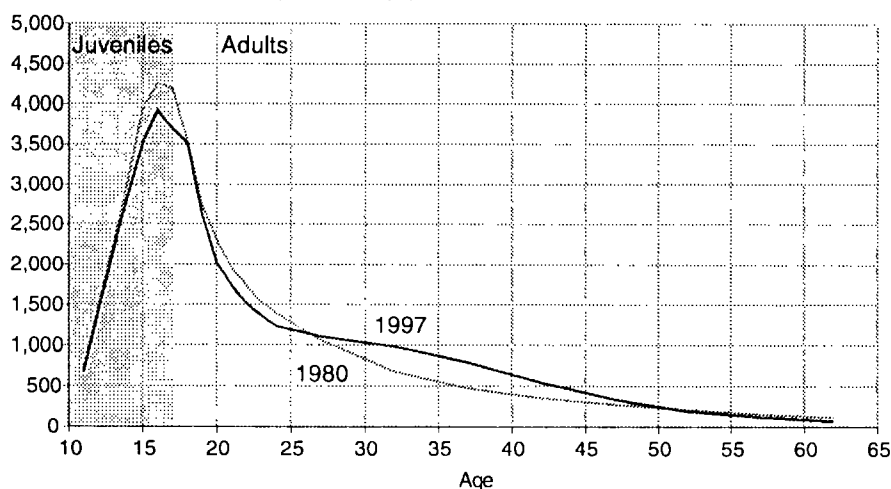


- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for Property Crime Index offenses in 1997 was lower than at any point in the previous 13 years.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

In contrast to violent crimes, the property crime arrest rate for juveniles and young adults in 1997 was actually at or below the corresponding rate in 1980

Property Crime Index arrests per 100,000 population



- ◆ Between 1980 and 1997, while property crime arrest rates for juveniles and persons in their early twenties declined about 10%, the rates increased substantially for persons ages 30–34 (44%), ages 35–39 (67%), ages 40–44 (52%), and ages 45–49 (21%).

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 2 on page 12 for detail.]

Juvenile arrests for property crimes remain stable

As with violent crime, the FBI assesses trends in the volume of property crimes by monitoring four offenses that are consistently reported by law enforcement agencies nationwide and are pervasive in all geographical areas of the country. These four crimes, which form the Property Crime Index, are burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

For the period from 1988 through 1997, during which juvenile violent crime arrests rose precipitously, juvenile property crime arrest rates (as measured by the Property Crime Index) remained relatively constant. In fact, the 1997 rate of approximately 2,300 arrests for every 100,000 youth in the United States between 10 and 17 years of age is the lowest since 1984.

Most arrested juveniles are referred to court

In most States, some persons below the age of 18 are, due to their age, or by statutory exclusion of certain offenses from juvenile court jurisdiction, under the jurisdiction of the criminal justice system. For those persons under age 18 and under the original jurisdiction of their State's juvenile justice system, the FBI's UCR Program monitors what happens as a result of the arrest. This is the only instance in the UCR Program in which the statistics on arrests coincide with State variations in the legal definition of a juvenile.

In 1997, 25% of arrests involving youth that were eligible in their State for processing in the juvenile justice system were handled within the law enforcement agency, and then the youth was released. The FBI reports that 67% of juvenile arrests were referred to juvenile court, and 7% were referred directly to criminal court. The others were referred to a welfare agency or to another police agency. The proportion of arrests sent to juvenile court has gradually increased from 1980 to 1997. In 1997, the proportion of juvenile arrests sent to juvenile courts was similar in cities and suburban areas (66%) and somewhat greater in rural counties (70%). The proportion of juvenile arrests sent directly to criminal court in 1997 (7%) was the highest in the last two decades.

1 1997, 26% of juvenile arrests were arrests of females

Law enforcement agencies made 748,000 arrests of females below the age of 18 in 1997. Between 1993 and 1997, arrests of juvenile females increased more (or decreased less) than male arrests in most offense categories.

Most Serious Offense	Percent Change in Juvenile Arrests 1993-1997	
	Female	Male
Violent Crime Index	12%	-9%
Murder	-36	-39
Robbery	-3	7
Aggravated assault	15	-10
Property Crime Index	10	-8
Burglary	-3	-10
Larceny-theft	14	-1
Motor vehicle theft	-19	-31
Simple assault	30	12
Weapons	-8	-24
Drug abuse violations	117	78
Liquor laws	41	30
Disorderly conduct	52	25
Curfew and loitering	102	81
Runaways	0	-4

Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997*, table 35.

Juvenile arrests disproportionately involved minorities

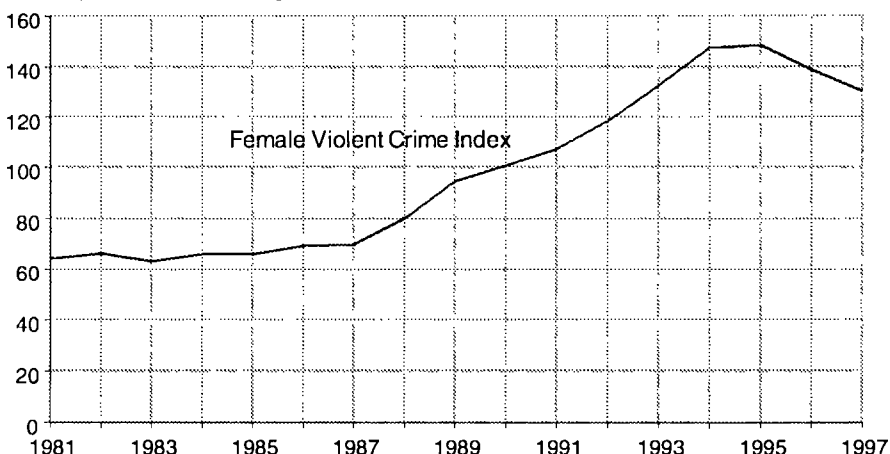
The racial composition of the juvenile population in 1997 was approximately 80% white, 15% black, and 5% other races, with juveniles of Hispanic ethnicity being classified as white. In 1997, in contrast to the proportions in the general population, 53% of juvenile arrests for violent crimes involved white youth and 44% involved black youth.

Most Serious Offense	White Proportion of Juvenile Arrests in 1997
Murder	40%
Forcible rape	56
Robbery	42
Aggravated assault	60
Burglary	73
Larceny-theft	70
Motor vehicle theft	59
Weapons	64
Drug abuse violations	64
Curfew and loitering	75
Runaways	77

Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997*, table 43.

The juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rate for females more than doubled between 1987 and 1995, then fell in each of the next 2 years

Arrests per 100,000 females ages 10-17

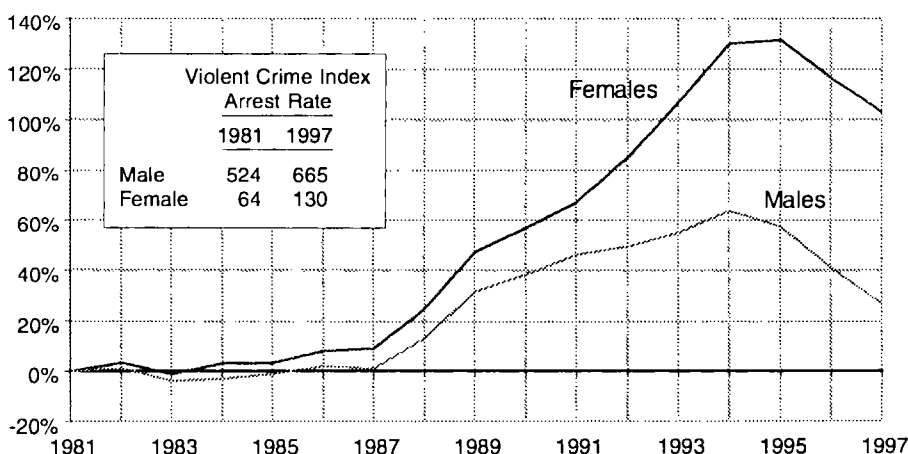


- ◆ In addition to overall violent crimes, female arrest rates in 1997 were substantially above their 1987 levels in many offense categories: robbery (52% increase), aggravated assault (101% increase), other assaults (142% increase), larceny-theft (22% increase), motor vehicle theft (36% increase), vandalism (42% increase), weapons law violations (100% increase), and drug abuse violations (131% increase).

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

The growth in juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rates between 1987 and 1994 was far greater for females than for males, while the decline in rates after 1994 was less for females than males

Percent change from 1981

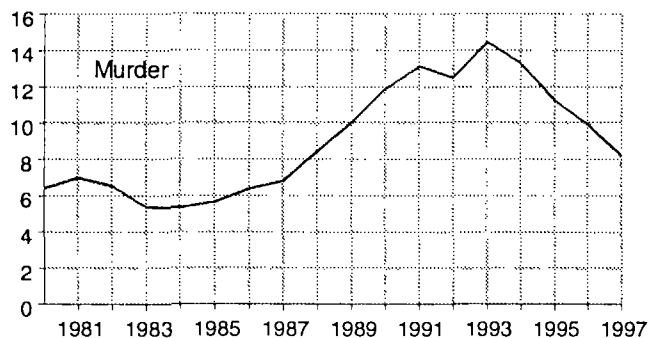


- ◆ Between 1981 and 1994, the female violent crime arrest rate increased twice as much as the male rate (130% vs. 64%). Even with the recent declines, the female violent crime arrest rate in 1997 was 103% above the 1981 rate, while the male arrest rate was 27% above its 1981 level.
- ◆ Even with the large increase in female rates, the 1997 Violent Crime Index arrest rate for juvenile males was five times the female arrest rate.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

Of all Violent Crime Index offenses, the juvenile arrest rate for murder showed both the greatest increase and the greatest decline in the period between 1988 and 1997

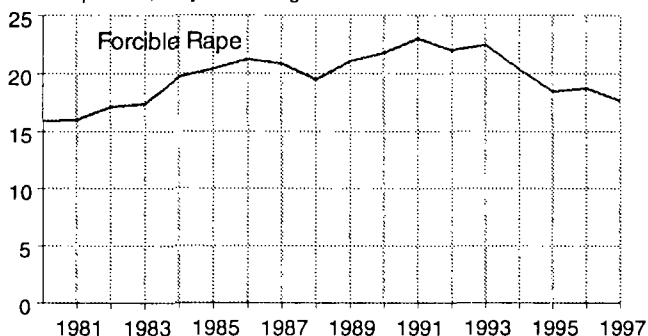
Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17



Murder

- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for murder more than doubled between 1987 and 1993.
- ◆ The decline in the juvenile murder arrest rate between 1993 and 1997 has nearly erased all of the increase experienced in the previous 7 years. The drop of more than 40% in the juvenile murder arrest rate between 1993 and 1997 has brought the 1997 rate to a point 20% above the 1987 rate.

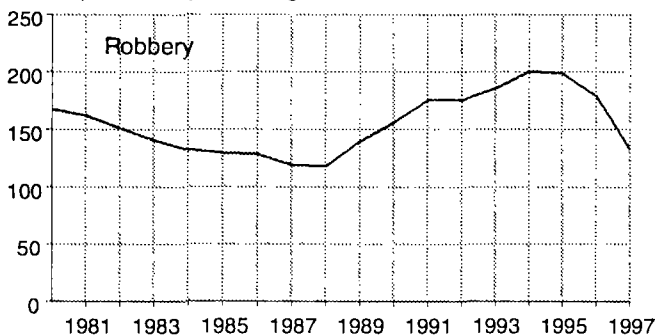
Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17



Forcible Rape

- ◆ More than any other Violent Crime Index offense, the juvenile arrest rate for forcible rape has been confined to a relatively limited range from the early 1980's through 1997.
- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for forcible rape in 1997 was lower than in any year since 1983 and 23% below the peak year of 1991.

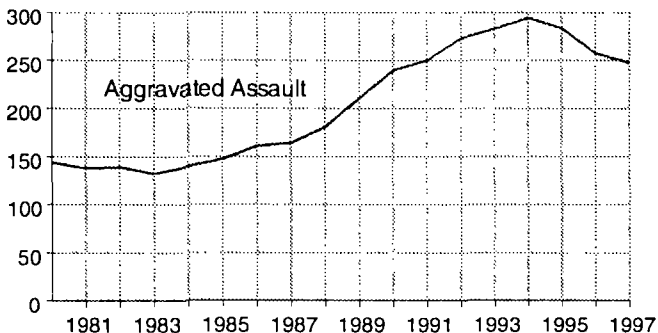
Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17



Robbery

- ◆ Juvenile arrests for robbery declined 30% between 1980 and 1988.
- ◆ Between 1988 and 1994, the rate at which juveniles were arrested for robbery increased 70%, to a level 19% above the 1980 rate.
- ◆ Between 1995 and 1997, the juvenile robbery arrest rate fell substantially—down 33% in this short period. As a result, the 1997 rate was lower than at any point in the 1990's and just 13% above its lowest level of the last two decades.

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17



Aggravated Assault

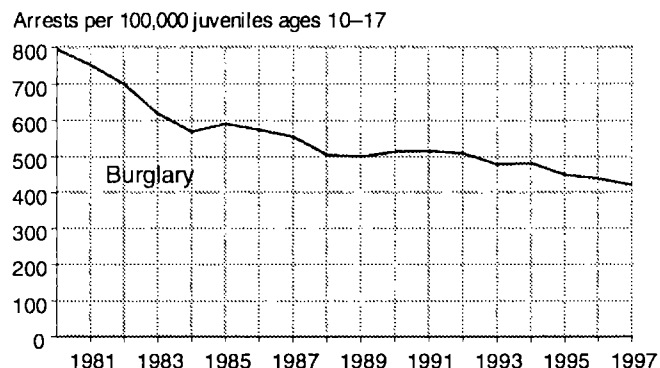
- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for aggravated assault increased steadily between 1983 and 1994—up more than 120%. Similar increases (135%) were found in juvenile arrests for other (i.e., simple) assaults over the same period.
- ◆ The arrest rate for aggravated assault declined 16% from 1994 through 1997, returning the rate to the 1991 level. In contrast, the juvenile arrest rate for other assaults continued to increase, up 9% between 1994 and 1997.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

The juvenile arrest trends in the four components of the Property Crime Index showed substantial differences over the last two decades

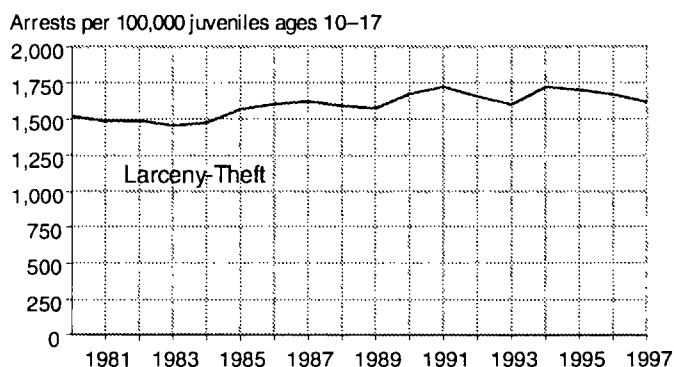
Burglary

- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for burglary declined consistently between 1980 and 1997, with the 1997 rate 47% below that of 1980.
- ◆ In the period from 1980 to 1997, the greatest decline occurred between 1980 and 1988.
- ◆ The number of burglaries reported to law enforcement in 1997 was lower than in any year since 1972.



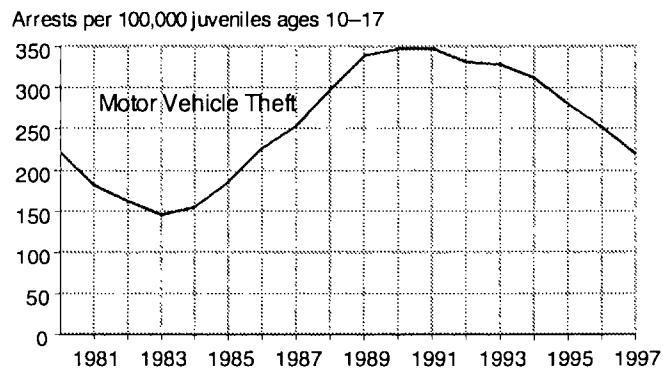
Larceny-Theft

- ◆ The juvenile arrest rate for larceny-theft remained essentially constant between 1980 and 1997, with the 1997 rate 7% above the 1980 rate.
- ◆ In 1997, larceny-theft arrests accounted for 70% of the FBI's Property Crime Index arrests. Consequently, larceny-theft arrest trends control trends in the Index.



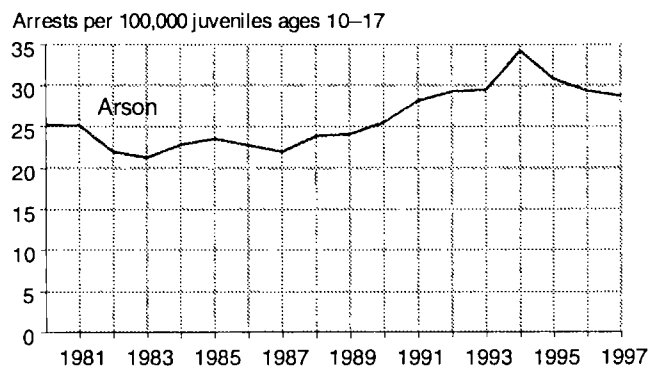
Motor Vehicle Theft

- ◆ Juvenile arrests for motor vehicle theft soared between 1983 and 1989, with the rate up more than 130% over this period.
- ◆ After holding constant in 1990 and 1991, the juvenile arrest rate began to decline. The 37% drop between 1991 and 1997 resulted in the 1997 rate returning to the 1986 level.
- ◆ Consistent with the decline in the juvenile arrest rate for motor vehicle theft, the number of motor vehicle thefts reported to law enforcement in 1997 was the lowest in 10 years.



Arson

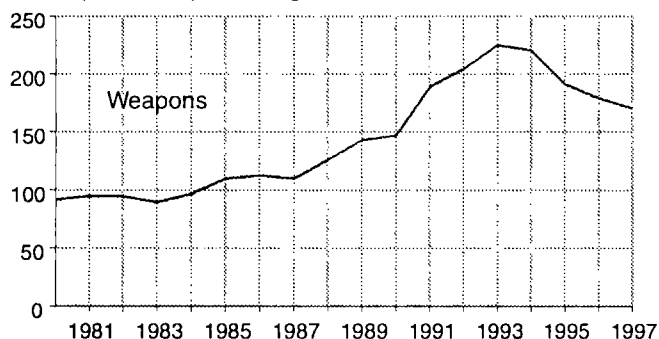
- ◆ Compared with other property crimes, the rate of juvenile arrests for arson is very small.
- ◆ During the 1980's, the rate of juvenile arrests for arson remained constant. The rate increased between 1990 and 1994 and then declined, with the 1997 rate near the 1991 rate.



Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

Juvenile arrest rates for weapons law violations followed a pattern similar to murder arrests, doubling between 1987 and 1993

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17

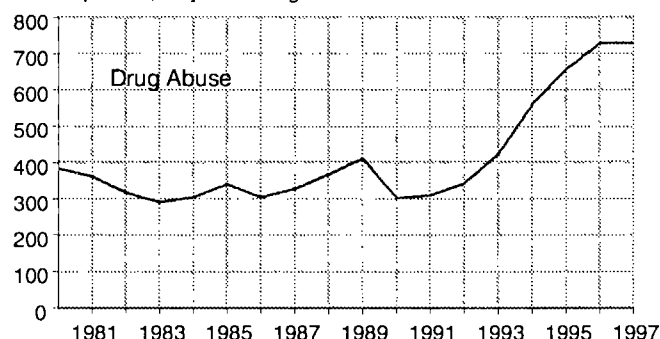


- ◆ Arrest rate trends for murder and weapons law violations differed, however, between 1993 and 1997. While both declined, the drop was greater for murder arrest rates (43%) than for weapons law violation arrest rates (24%).

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

After more than a decade of stability, the juvenile arrest rate for drug abuse violations increased more than 70% between 1993 and 1997

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17

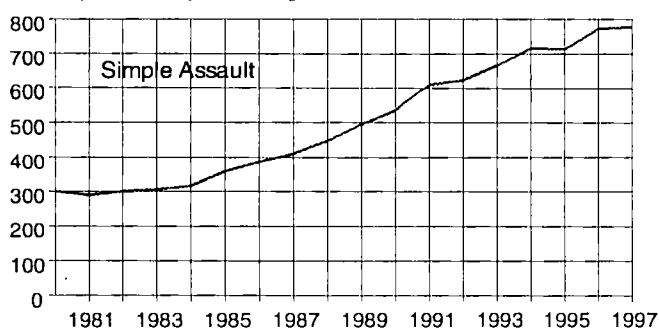


- ◆ Between 1993 and 1997, the increase in juvenile drug abuse arrest rates was greater for females (117%) than for males (78%).
- ◆ Of juveniles arrested for drug abuse violations, 64% were white, 16% were age 14 or younger, and 13% were female.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

The juvenile arrest rate for simple assault increased consistently between the early 1980's and 1997

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17

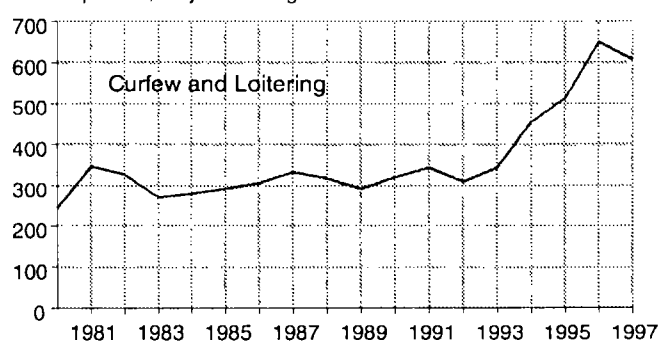


- ◆ Like juvenile arrest rate trends for aggravated assault, the simple assault rates increased consistently between 1980 and 1994.
- ◆ Unlike aggravated assault, however, the simple assault arrest rate continued to increase between 1994 and 1997.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

After years of stability, the juvenile arrest rate for curfew and loitering violations nearly doubled between 1993 and 1996, before falling in 1997

Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10–17



- ◆ Between 1993 and 1997, the increase in the juvenile arrest rate for curfew and loitering violations was greater for females (103%) than for males (81%).
- ◆ Of juveniles arrested for curfew and loitering violations, 75% were white, 31% were female, and 28% were age 14 or younger.

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See data source note 1 on page 12 for detail.]

Some States have relatively high juvenile drug abuse arrest rates and relatively low alcohol arrest rates, and for others the reverse is true

State	Reporting Coverage	1997 Arrest Rate*				State	Reporting Coverage	1997 Arrest Rate*			
		Violent Crime Index	Property Crime Index	Drug Abuse	Alcohol Violation†			Violent Crime Index	Property Crime Index	Drug Abuse	Alcohol Violation†
Total U.S.	68%	412	2,338	732	654	Missouri	60%	406	2,813	748	400
Alabama	94	218	1,385	329	310	Montana	39	105	1,608	466	1,844
Alaska	44	456	2,771	529	1,452	Nebraska	94	132	3,084	589	1,378
Arizona	85	438	3,274	1,099	1,221	Nevada	46	418	3,415	1,091	975
Arkansas	89	288	2,039	412	442	New Hampshire	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
California	99	575	2,096	731	341	New Jersey	96	576	1,943	1,227	501
Colorado	70	258	2,838	728	1,056	New Mexico	68	301	2,970	856	1,332
Connecticut	85	505	2,492	1,139	267	New York	46	332	1,935	624	189
Delaware	41	953	4,730	871	972	North Carolina	99	430	1,875	578	306
Dist. of Columbia	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	North Dakota	90	64	2,803	256	2,227
Florida	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	Ohio	55	367	1,838	600	662
Georgia	33	517	2,390	942	354	Oklahoma	100	289	2,667	465	550
Hawaii	97	347	3,161	592	275	Oregon	87	269	3,491	637	1,563
Idaho	98	226	3,504	540	1,304	Pennsylvania	47	301	1,632	334	886
Illinois	23	1,015	2,964	3,259	318	Rhode Island	100	411	2,071	671	291
Indiana	57	491	2,283	491	833	South Carolina	99	432	2,094	747	377
Iowa	82	256	2,282	361	1,098	South Dakota	45	227	4,377	668	3,888
Kansas	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	Tennessee	42	378	2,589	729	461
Kentucky	19	752	3,139	991	518	Texas	97	296	2,211	670	559
Louisiana	79	525	2,649	706	188	Utah	75	292	3,879	714	1,367
Maine	94	133	3,241	497	618	Vermont	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
Maryland	100	739	2,792	1,674	362	Virginia	98	233	1,896	501	564
Massachusetts	83	542	963	521	411	Washington	61	416	4,259	656	1,171
Michigan	81	309	1,586	391	616	West Virginia	96	79	1,138	233	390
Minnesota	100	207	2,501	625	1,781	Wisconsin	76	404	4,429	791	2,147
Mississippi	37	283	2,445	676	457	Wyoming	98	131	2,675	621	2,691

* Throughout this Bulletin, juvenile arrest rates are calculated by dividing the number of arrests of persons ages 10–17 by the number of 10- through 17-year-olds in the population. In this table only, arrest rate is defined as the number of arrests of persons under age 18 for every 100,000 persons ages 10–17. Juvenile arrests (arrests of youth under age 18) reported at the State level in *Crime in the United States* cannot be disaggregated into more detailed age categories so that the arrest of persons under age 10 can be excluded in the rate calculation. Therefore, there is a slight inconsistency in this table between the age range for the arrests (birth through age 17) and the age range for the population (ages 10–17) that are the basis of a State's juvenile arrest rate. This inconsistency is slight because just 2% of all juvenile arrests involved youth under age 10. However, this inconsistency is preferred to the distortion of arrest rates that would be introduced were the population base for the arrest rate to incorporate the large volume of children in a State's birth to 9-year-old population.

† Alcohol violations include liquor law violations, drunkenness, and driving under the influence.

NA = *Crime in the United States 1997* reported no arrest counts for this State.

Interpretation cautions: Arrest rates are calculated by dividing the number of youth arrests made in the year by the number of youth living in reporting jurisdictions. While juvenile arrest rates in part reflect juvenile behavior, many other factors can affect the size of these rates. For example, jurisdictions that arrest a relatively large number of nonresident juveniles would have a higher arrest rate than a jurisdiction whose resident youth behave in an identical manner. Therefore, jurisdictions that are vacation destinations or regional centers for economic activity may have arrest rates that reflect more than the behavior of their resident youth. Other factors that influence the magnitude of arrest rates in a given area include the attitudes of its citizens toward crime, the policies of the jurisdiction's law enforcement agencies, and the policies of other components of the justice system. **Consequently, comparisons of juvenile arrest rates across States, while informative, should be made with caution.** In most States, not all law enforcement agencies report their arrest data to the FBI. Rates for these States are then necessarily based on partial information. If the reporting law enforcement agencies in these States are not representative of the entire State, then the rates will be biased. **Therefore, reported arrest rates for States with less than complete reporting coverage may not be accurate.**

Data source: Analysis of arrest data from the FBI's *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), tables 5 and 69, and population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census' *Population of the U.S. and States by Single Year of Age and Sex: 1997* [machine-readable data file released in August 1998].



Notes

In this Bulletin "juvenile" refers to persons below age 18. This definition is at odds with the legal definition of juveniles in 1997 in 13 States—10 States where all 17-year-olds and 3 States where all 16- and 17-year-olds are defined as adults.

These FBI arrest data are counts of arrests within age of arrestee and offense categories from all law enforcement agencies that reported complete data for the calendar year. The proportion of the U.S. population covered by these reporting agencies ranged from 68% to 86% between 1980 and 1997.

Estimates of the number of persons in each age group in the reporting agencies' resident population assume that their population age profiles are like the Nation's. Reporting agencies' total populations were multiplied by the U.S. Bureau of

the Census' most current estimate of the proportion of the U.S. population for each age group.

Data source notes

1. Analysis of arrest data from unpublished FBI reports for 1972 through 1994 and from *Crime in the United States* reports for 1995, 1996, and 1997 (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996, 1997, and 1998, respectively); population data from the Bureau of the Census for 1972 through 1979 from *Current Population Reports*, P25-917 (Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1982), for 1980 through 1989 from *Current Population Reports*, P25-1095 (Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1993), and for 1990 through 1997 from *Population of the U.S. and States by Single Year of Age and Sex* [machine-readable data files released August 1998].

2. Analysis of arrest data from an unpublished FBI report for 1980 and from *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998); population data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census for 1980 from *Current Population Reports*, P25-1095, (Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1993), and for 1997 from *Population of the U.S. and States by Single Year of Age and Sex: 1997* [machine-readable data file released August 1998].

This Bulletin was prepared under cooperative agreement number 95-JN-FX-K008 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice.

Points of view or opinions expressed in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of OJJDP or the U.S. Department of Justice.

Acknowledgments

This Bulletin was written by Howard N. Snyder, Director of Systems Research at the National Center for Juvenile Justice, with funds provided by OJJDP to support the Juvenile Justice Statistics and Systems Development Program. Barbara Allen-Hagen is the OJJDP Program Manager for this work. The author gratefully acknowledges the assistance provided by the FBI's Criminal Justice Information Services Division, specifically, Yoshio Akiyama, Ben Brewer, Tom Edwards, Victoria Major, James Nolan, and Maryvictoria Pyne.

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention is a component of the Office of Justice Programs, which also includes the Bureau of Justice Assistance, the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the National Institute of Justice, and the Office for Victims of Crime.



OJDP

Shay Bilchik, Administrator

December 1997

JUVENILE JUSTICE BULLETIN

Offenders in Juvenile Court, 1995

Melissa Sickmund, Ph.D.

Juvenile courts in the United States processed more than 1.7 million delinquency cases in 1995. This number represented a 7% increase over the 1994 caseload and a 45% increase over the number of cases handled in 1986. More than half (55%) of the delinquency cases processed by U.S. courts with juvenile jurisdiction in 1995 were handled formally (that is, a petition was filed charging the youth with delinquency). Of the cases that were formally petitioned and scheduled for an adjudicatory or waiver hearing in juvenile court, 56% were adjudicated delinquent and 1% were judicially waived to criminal (adult) court. Waivers to criminal court were more common in cases involving person offenses (2.1%) and drug offenses (1.3%). Of all delinquency cases adjudicated in juvenile court in 1995, 28% resulted in residential placement and 53% were placed on the probation caseload.

These statistics are among the findings to be published in *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995*, the latest in a series of annual reports on cases handled by U.S. courts with juvenile jurisdiction. Although courts with juvenile jurisdiction handle a variety of cases, including abuse, neglect, adoption, and traffic violations, the *Juvenile Court Statistics* series focuses on the disposition of delinquency cases and formally processed status offense cases. Each report includes national estimates of the number of cases handled by juvenile courts with

an appendix that lists caseload statistics for individual States and jurisdictions within each State.

Findings from *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995* include:

- ◆ The number of criminal homicide cases processed dropped 6% between 1994 and 1995.
- ◆ In 22% of delinquency cases processed in 1995, the most serious charge was a person offense. Person offenses accounted for 16% of all cases in 1986.
- ◆ The number of cases involving drug offenses in 1995 was 145% greater than the number of cases in 1991.
- ◆ Although property offense cases still accounted for the greatest proportion of delinquency cases in 1995 (51%), the proportion was smaller than in 1986 (60%).
- ◆ The number of delinquency cases involving female juveniles increased 68% between 1986 and 1995, while cases involving males increased 40%.
- ◆ Juveniles were held in secure detention facilities at some point between referral and disposition in 19% of all delinquency cases disposed in 1995, compared with 21% in 1986.
- ◆ Delinquency cases were more likely to be processed formally with the filing of a petition in 1995 than in 1986—55% compared with 47%.

From the Administrator

From 1986 to 1995, the number of delinquency cases handled by America's juvenile courts rose 45 percent, with juvenile courts processing more than 1.7 million delinquency cases in 1995 alone. The 1995 delinquency caseload involved the largest number of person offense cases seen by U.S. juvenile courts in the past decade (more than 377,000).

Offenders in Juvenile Court, 1995 presents these and other findings from *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995*, the latest in a series of reports providing data from the National Juvenile Court Data Archive. Archive data are maintained and analyzed by the National Center for Juvenile Justice in Pittsburgh, PA. The National Juvenile Court Data Archive is the only comprehensive source of data about youth referred to juvenile courts for delinquent and status offenses.

The *Juvenile Court Statistics* series focuses on delinquency cases and formally processed status offense cases. *Offenders in Juvenile Court, 1995* and the larger report on which it is based present important information about the youth seen by the Nation's juvenile courts. These publications serve as useful guideposts for the public, elected officials, and juvenile justice professionals in law enforcement, the courts, and corrections.

Shay Bilchik
Administrator

In 1995, there were 33% more delinquency cases judicially waived to criminal court than in 1986, but 10% fewer than in 1994.

These national estimates of juvenile court cases are based on data from nearly 1,800 courts that had jurisdiction over 67% of the U.S. juvenile population in 1995.¹ The unit of count in each *Juvenile Court Statistics* report is a case disposed during the calendar year by a court with juvenile jurisdiction. It is possible for an individual youth to have been involved in more than one case during the calendar year. Each case represents a youth processed by a juvenile court on a new referral, regardless of the number of individual offenses contained in that referral. Cases involving multiple offenses are categorized according to the most serious offense. For example, a case involving both a charge of vandalism and a charge of robbery would be characterized as a robbery case. Similarly, cases involving multiple dispositions are categorized according to the most restrictive disposition. A case that resulted in both probation and placement in a residential facility would be coded as residential placement.

Delinquency Cases

Delinquency offenses are acts committed by a juvenile that, if committed by an adult, could result in criminal prosecution. Juvenile courts handled an estimated 1,714,300 delinquency cases in 1995 (table 1). The most serious charge was a property offense (such as burglary, larceny, motor vehicle theft, or vandalism) in 51% of these cases, a person offense (such as aggravated or simple assault, robbery, violent sex offenses, or homicide) in 22%, a public order offense (such as disorderly conduct, weapons offenses, or obstruction of justice) in 18%, and a drug offense (including trafficking or possession of controlled substances or paraphernalia) in 9%.

Number of Cases

Between 1986 and 1995, the total number of delinquency cases handled by juvenile courts in the United States increased 45%. There was a greater percent change over 1986 numbers for person and drug offense cases than for property and public order offense cases. The growth in person offense cases was relatively steady over the time period. In comparison, the growth in the number of drug offense cases occurred after 1991 (figure 1).

Table 1: Delinquency Cases by Most Serious Offense, 1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases	Percent Change		
		1986-95	1991-95	1994-95
Total	1,714,300	45%	21%	7%
Person offense	377,300	98%	36%	8%
Criminal homicide	2,800	84	20	-6
Forcible rape	6,800	47	19	4
Robbery	39,600	53	27	6
Aggravated assault	93,200	137	33	6
Simple assault	205,500	103	47	12
Other violent sex offense	9,300	50	9	-3
Other person offense	20,100	72	-2	-4
Property offense	871,700	23%	3%	3%
Burglary	139,900	-2	-9	-2
Larceny-theft	418,800	28	10	10
Motor vehicle theft	53,400	23	-26	-13
Arson	10,400	78	42	10
Vandalism	121,700	40	9	-2
Trespassing	64,400	18	9	1
Stolen property offense	33,100	10	9	2
Other property offense	29,900	46	-5	6
Drug law violation	159,100	120%	145%	28%
Public order offense	306,300	48%	37%	6%
Obstruction of justice	110,100	53	45	8
Disorderly conduct	85,100	82	46	9
Weapons offense	47,000	132	38	-9
Liquor law violation	12,200	-39	-1	2
Nonviolent sex offense	10,500	-21	-8	-4
Other public order	41,300	19	31	17
Violent Crime Index*	142,400	99%	30%	5%
Property Crime Index**	622,500	20%	1%	5%

* Includes criminal homicide, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

** Includes burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Figure 1: Delinquency Cases Processed in Juvenile Court, 1986-1995

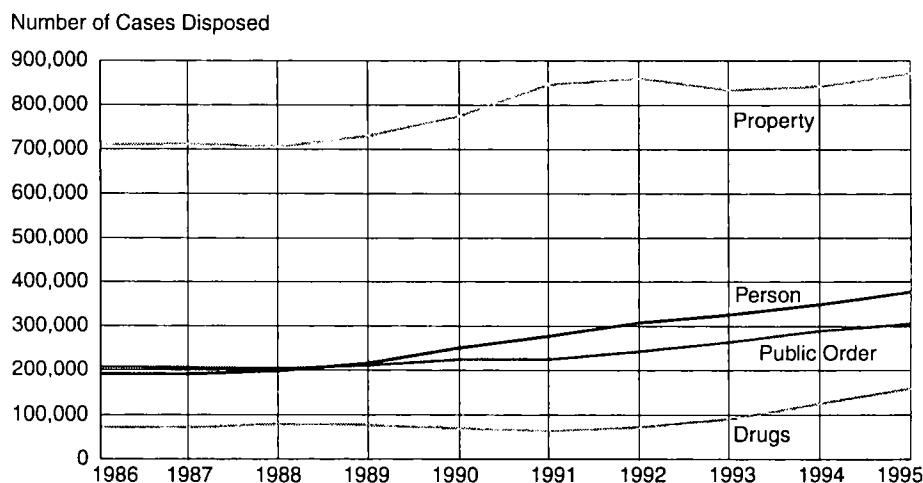


Table 4: Percent Change in Delinquency Cases and Case Rates by Sex, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995	Percent Change	
				1986-95	1991-95
Number of cases					
Male	955,900	1,146,900	1,338,600	40%	17%
Person	152,900	221,700	285,400	87	29
Property	580,100	686,900	676,300	17	-2
Drugs	60,000	57,200	137,000	128	140
Public order	163,000	181,100	239,900	47	32
Female	224,100	266,300	375,800	68%	41%
Person	37,400	55,900	91,900	146	64
Property	129,900	159,800	195,400	50	22
Drugs	12,400	7,900	22,200	80	180
Public order	44,400	42,700	66,300	49	55
Cases per 1,000 youth at risk					
Male	71.9	85.8	92.4	28%	8%
Person	11.5	16.6	19.7	71	19
Property	43.6	51.4	46.7	7	-9
Drugs	4.5	4.3	9.5	109	121
Public order	12.3	13.5	16.6	35	22
Female	17.7	21.0	27.3	54%	30%
Person	3.0	4.4	6.7	126	52
Property	10.3	12.6	14.2	38	13
Drugs	1.0	0.6	1.6	65	159
Public order	3.5	3.4	4.8	37	43

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

The delinquency case rate for black youth was nearly 2.5 times the rate for white youth in 1995 (123.7 compared with 50.0 per 1,000). The person offense case rate for black youth was more than 3.5 times greater than the corresponding rate for white youth. Similarly, the drug offense and public order case rates for black youth were nearly three times the rates for whites. The property offense case rate for blacks was nearly double the rate for whites. In all offense categories, the case rate for juveniles of other races was lower than the corresponding rates for either black or white juveniles.

Property offense cases accounted for 54% of all 1995 delinquency cases involving white youth, 43% of those involving black youth, and 59% of those involving youth of other races. The black caseload involved a higher proportion of person offense cases (28%) than either the white (19%) or other race caseloads (20%). Drug law violations accounted for a somewhat larger proportion of delinquency cases involving black youth (10%) and white youth (9%) than cases involving youth of other races (6%).

Source of Referral

A number of sources—law enforcement agencies, social services, schools, parents, probation officers, and victims—referred delinquency cases to juvenile courts. Although there were variations across offense categories, 86% of all 1995 delinquency case referrals made to juvenile courts were by a law enforcement agency (table 6). Law enforcement agencies referred 87% of person offense cases, 91% of property offense cases, 94% of drug law violation cases, and 70% of public order offense cases.

Use of Detention

In some cases, juveniles are held in secure detention facilities before adjudication and disposition. This serves to protect the community and the juvenile, ensure his or her appearance at scheduled hearings, and allow for evaluation if needed. In the 1,714,300 delinquency cases disposed by U.S. juvenile courts in 1995, 19% of the juvenile offenders were detained. Because of their large volume, property offense cases accounted for 41% of cases in which the juvenile was detained, despite

the fact that the likelihood of detention was lower for property offense cases (15%) than for other types of cases (21% to 24%).

The number of delinquency cases involving detention increased 31% between 1986 and 1995 (table 7). During the same 10-year period, the number of drug offense cases involving detention increased 110%, the number of person offense cases involving detention increased 75%, and the number of public order cases involving detention increased 22%. The number of juveniles detained in property offense cases in 1995 was 7% greater than in 1986, although property offense cases involving detention fell 9% between 1991 and 1995.

The probability of detention for delinquency cases changed little between 1986 and 1995 (table 8). Overall, the use of detention gradually rose and fell between 1986 and 1995, ranging from 19% to 23% of delinquency cases, with the peak year being 1990. The same pattern was seen in each of the four major offense categories. For drug offense cases, however, the probability of detention was greater and the range in the use of detention was broader (from 24% to 38%). In general, the use of detention was greater for males than for females (20% versus 14%) in 1995. This was true for all offenses.

In 1995, the likelihood of detention in delinquency cases involving white juveniles was 15%, while it was 27% for those involving black juveniles and 20% for juveniles of other races (table 9). Compared with 1986, the use of detention in 1995 was slightly lower for all racial categories and all offense categories within racial groups.

Case Processing

When a delinquency case is referred to juvenile court, an intake officer or prosecutor determines whether to handle the case formally or informally. Formal handling involves the filing of a petition requesting that the court hold an adjudicatory or waiver hearing. Informal case handling is conducted entirely at the juvenile court intake level, without a petition and without an adjudicatory or waiver hearing.

In 1995, more than half of all delinquency cases were handled formally (figure 3). Formal processing for delinquency referrals increased from 47% to 55% between 1986 and 1995. The increased number of cases referred to juvenile court intake and the greater likelihood of formal handling of these cases resulted in a 69%

increase in the number of petitioned delinquency cases disposed by U.S. juvenile courts between 1986 and 1995 (table 10). The largest percentage increase was in the number of petitioned drug offense cases, which increased 176% from 1986 to 1995. The number of petitioned person offense cases increased 110%, petitioned property offense cases increased 38%, and petitioned public order offense cases grew 91%.

Waiver to criminal court. One of the first actions taken during the juvenile court intake process is determining whether a case should be processed in the criminal justice system rather than in juvenile court. Most States have more than one mechanism for transferring cases to criminal court. In an increasing number of States, cases that meet certain age and offense criteria are excluded by statute from juvenile court jurisdiction and are thus filed directly in criminal court. In some States, statutes give prosecutors discretion to file certain juvenile cases directly in criminal court. In most States, cases referred to juvenile court that meet certain criteria may be transferred to criminal court upon the authorization of the juvenile court judge. In such cases, the judge may waive the juvenile court's jurisdiction over the case, thus referring it to criminal court for prosecution. This Bulletin analyzes only those cases transferred from juvenile court to criminal court by judicial waiver.

The number of delinquency cases judicially waived to criminal court grew 60% between 1986 and 1994 and then declined 17% in 1995. Compared with 1986, there were substantially more person and drug offense cases waived to criminal court in 1995 (table 11). In comparison, there were fewer property cases waived in 1995 than in 1986, and there was only a slight increase in public order cases.

Table 6: Percentage of Delinquency Cases Referred by Law Enforcement, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	84%	84%	86%
Person	81	81	87
Property	90	89	91
Drugs	91	88	94
Public order	67	69	70

Table 5: Percent Change in Delinquency Cases and Case Rates by Race, 1986-1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995	Percent Change	
				1986-95	1991-95
Number of cases					
White	844,300	927,900	1,127,800	34%	22%
Person	109,900	156,700	219,600	100	40
Property	524,400	594,600	609,500	16	3
Drugs	53,700	32,100	102,100	90	218
Public order	156,300	144,600	196,600	26	36
Black	304,700	439,300	522,900	72%	19%
Person	76,000	112,400	145,000	91	29
Property	165,700	223,100	224,900	36	1
Drugs	17,100	31,600	53,500	214	69
Public order	46,000	72,300	99,600	116	38
Other races	31,000	46,000	63,600	105%	38%
Person	4,400	8,500	12,700	187	50
Property	19,900	29,100	37,300	87	28
Drugs	1,600	1,400	3,500	120	155
Public order	5,100	7,000	10,100	98	44
Cases per 1,000 youth at risk					
White	40.0	44.4	50.0	25%	13%
Person	5.2	7.5	9.7	87	30
Property	24.9	28.4	27.0	9	-5
Drugs	2.5	1.5	4.5	78	195
Public order	7.4	6.9	8.7	18	26
Black	79.3	112.0	123.7	56%	10%
Person	19.8	28.7	34.3	73	20
Property	43.2	56.9	53.2	23	-6
Drugs	4.4	8.1	12.7	185	57
Public order	12.0	18.4	23.6	97	28
Other races	30.7	37.2	44.0	43%	18%
Person	4.4	6.9	8.8	100	28
Property	19.7	23.6	25.8	31	9
Drugs	1.6	1.1	2.4	54	118
Public order	5.0	5.7	7.0	39	23

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Table 7: Percent Change in Detained Delinquency Cases, 1986-1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases			Percent Change	
	1986	1991	1995	1986-95	1991-95
Delinquency	244,000	293,900	320,800	31%	9%
Person	48,400	69,800	84,900	75	22
Property	123,800	145,400	132,300	7	-9
Drugs	18,400	23,900	38,600	110	61
Public order	53,300	54,800	64,900	22	18

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Table 8: Percentage of Delinquency Cases Detained by Sex, 1986, 1991, and 1995

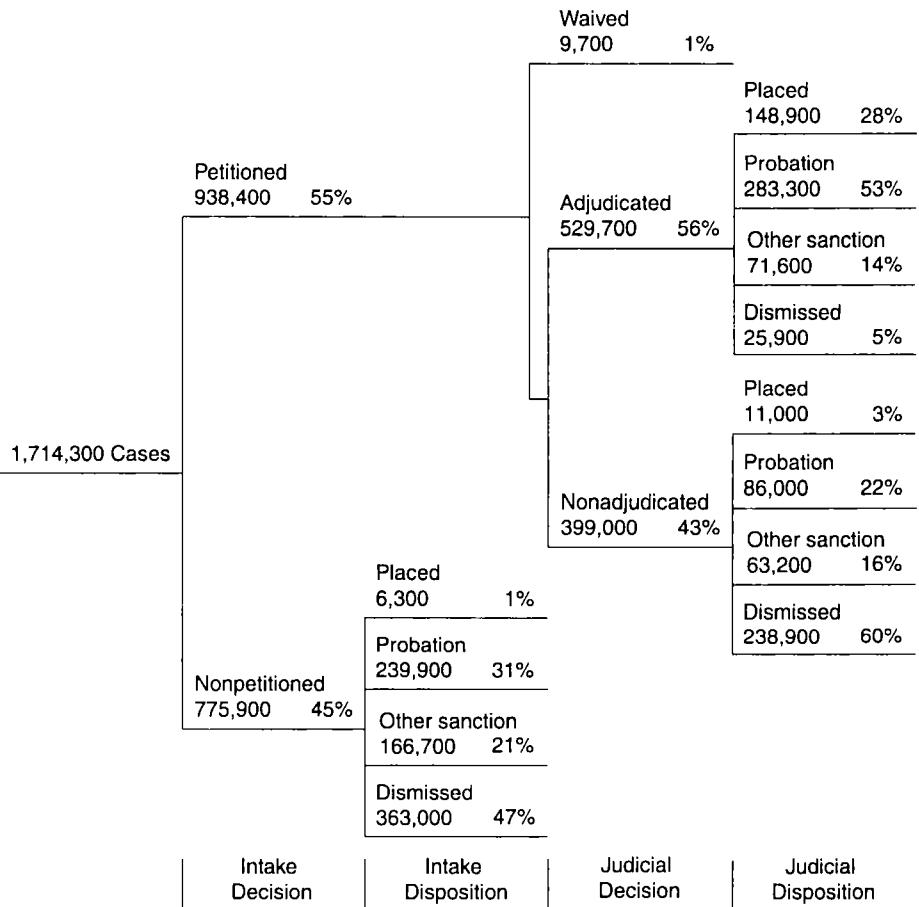
Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	21%	21%	19%
Person	25	25	23
Property	17	17	15
Drugs	25	37	24
Public order	26	24	21
Male	22%	22%	20%
Person	27	27	24
Property	18	18	17
Drugs	26	38	25
Public order	25	25	22
Female	17%	15%	14%
Person	19	18	17
Property	13	12	10
Drugs	21	27	18
Public order	27	22	18

Table 9: Percentage of Delinquency Cases Detained by Race, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
White	18%	18%	15%
Person	21	22	19
Property	15	15	12
Drugs	20	25	15
Public order	24	23	17
Black	28%	27%	27%
Person	31	30	28
Property	24	22	23
Drugs	43	49	42
Public order	32	27	29
Other races	25%	24%	20%
Person	34	29	26
Property	21	21	17
Drugs	20	34	17
Public order	32	27	21

Cases waived to criminal court in 1995 represented 1.0% of all petitioned delinquency cases (table 12). In 1986, the proportion was 1.3%, and it reached 1.5% in 1991 before dropping to the 1995 level. Generally, the cases most likely to be waived were those involving person offenses. However, from 1989 through 1992, drug offense cases were most likely to be waived. In fact, the proportion of petitioned drug offense cases waived reached 4.1% in 1991.

Figure 3: Juvenile Court Processing of Delinquency Cases, 1995



Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Table 10: Percent Change in Petitioned Delinquency Cases, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases			Percent Change	
	1986	1991	1995	1986–95	1991–95
Delinquency	554,000	702,700	938,400	69%	34%
Person	104,300	152,000	219,100	110	44
Property	320,500	396,200	443,000	38	12
Drugs	35,300	43,800	97,400	176	122
Public order	93,800	110,800	178,800	91	61

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

The offense profile of cases waived to criminal court changed considerably between 1986 and 1995 (figure 4). Prior to 1992, property offense cases made up the largest share of waived cases. For example, in 1987, property offense cases made up 55% of waived cases and person offense cases made up the next largest share (28%).

In 1992, the tide began to turn, with person and property cases waived in nearly equal numbers. Since 1992, person offense cases have been the largest group of cases waived. In 1995, person offenses accounted for nearly half of all delinquency cases waived to criminal court (47%) and property offense cases dropped to their lowest proportion ever (34%).

Table 11: Percent Change in Petitioned Delinquency Cases Waived to Criminal Court, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases			Percent Change	
	1986	1991	1995	1986–95	1991–95
Delinquency	7,300	10,800	9,700	33%	–10%
Person	2,300	3,600	4,600	100	27
Property	4,000	4,600	3,300	–18	–29
Drugs	400	1,800	1,200	180	–32
Public order	600	800	700	8	–13

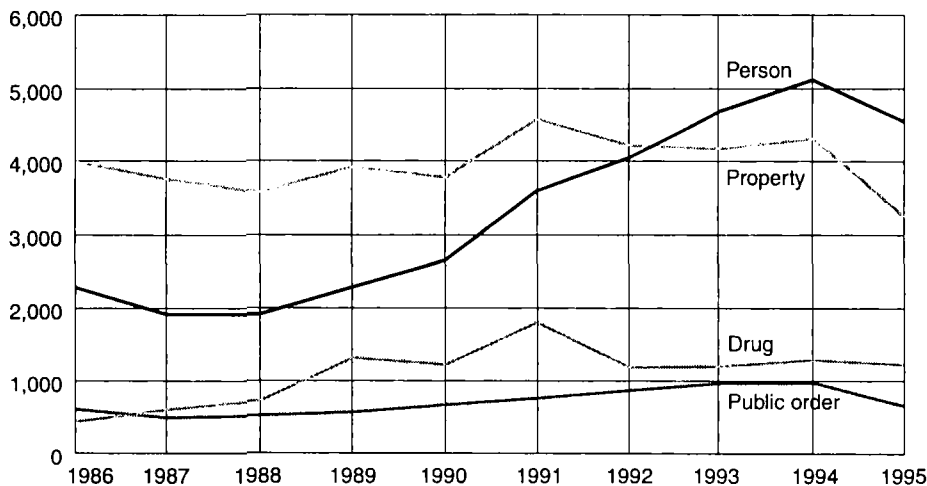
Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Table 12: Percentage of Petitioned Delinquency Cases Waived to Criminal Court, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	1.3%	1.5%	1.0%
Person	2.2	2.4	2.1
Property	1.2	1.2	0.7
Drugs	1.2	4.1	1.3
Public order	0.7	0.7	0.4

Figure 4: Delinquency Cases Waived to Criminal Court, 1986–1995

Number of Cases Judicially Waived to Criminal Court



Adjudication and disposition. Generally, an adjudicatory hearing is held in all formally petitioned delinquency cases not judicially waived to criminal court.⁵ During the hearing, the court determines whether a youth will be adjudicated as a delinquent. If so, the court then makes a dispositional decision that may include a fine, restitution, probation, commitment to a residential facility, referral to a treatment program, and/or community service.

In 1995, 56% of all formally processed delinquency cases resulted in adjudication (table 13). In 28% of these cases, the youth was placed out of the home in a residential facility (table 14). More than half (53%) of all formally adjudicated delinquency cases resulted in the juvenile being placed on formal probation (table 15). In 14% of formally adjudicated delinquency cases, the court ordered some

other sanction, such as requiring the juvenile to pay restitution or a fine, participate in some form of community service, or enter a treatment or counseling program. In a small number of cases (5%), the juvenile was adjudicated, but the case was then dismissed or the youth was otherwise released.

In 43% of the formally handled delinquency cases in 1995, the juvenile was not subsequently adjudicated delinquent. Most (60%) of these cases were dismissed by the court, but in 22% of the cases, the juvenile agreed to some form of probation. Approximately 3% of all nonadjudicated delinquency cases resulted in voluntary out-of-home placement. In 16% of nonadjudicated cases, the juvenile agreed to another informal disposition such as restitution, community service, or referral to an agency for services.

Table 13: Percentage of Petitioned Delinquency Cases Adjudicated, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	64%	59%	56%
Person	58	54	53
Property	66	60	58
Drugs	68	58	57
Public order	66	60	57

Table 14: Percentage of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Placed Out of Home, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	30%	30%	28%
Person	33	34	31
Property	28	27	26
Drugs	30	36	25
Public order	37	36	33

Table 15: Percentage of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Placed on Formal Probation, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Delinquency	55%	56%	53%
Person	55	53	53
Property	57	59	56
Drugs	58	51	53
Public order	49	52	48

Petitioned Status Offense Cases

Status offenses are acts that are law violations only for individuals of juvenile status. The four major status offense categories analyzed here are running away, truancy, ungovernability (sometimes known as incorrigibility or being beyond the control of one's parents), and liquor law violations (minor in possession of alcohol, underage drinking).

Number of Cases

In 1995, U.S. juvenile courts petitioned and formally disposed an estimated 146,400 status offense cases (table 16).⁶ In 37,400 of these cases, the most serious charge was truancy. A liquor law violation was the most serious charge in another 37,400 cases, running away in 23,900 cases, and ungovernability in 18,300 cases. Other miscellaneous status offenses (such as curfew violations, tobacco offenses, violations of court orders in status offense cases, and any status offenses coded as "other" in a jurisdiction's original data) accounted for the remaining 29,300 cases.⁷

Between 1986 and 1995, the number of petitioned status offense cases seen in U.S. juvenile courts increased 77%. Status cases involving truancy climbed 80%, liquor law violation cases increased 54%, and the number of cases involving charges of running away grew 59%. The largest proportionate increase in formally processed status offense cases during that 10-year period was in the miscellaneous category, probably reflecting an increase in referrals for curfew violations, but possibly indicating growth in the other status violations as well.

Case Rates

The Nation's juvenile courts processed 5.2 petitioned status offense cases for every 1,000 youth at risk of referral in 1995 (table 16). The total status offense case rate was 63% higher in 1995 than in 1986. Between 1986 and 1995, the truancy case rate increased 65%, the rate for cases of running away increased 46%, and the rate of status liquor law violation cases increased 41%. The case rate for cases involving ungovernability was virtually the same in 1986 and 1995.

Age of Youth

Juveniles younger than 16 accounted for a somewhat smaller proportion of status offense cases in 1995 than in 1986. In 1995, 56% of the petitioned status offense

Table 16: Percent Change in Petitioned Status Offense Cases and Case Rates, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995	Percent Change	
				1986-95	1991-95
Number of cases					
Status offense	82,600	89,700	146,400	77%	63%
Running away	15,000	15,500	23,900	59	54
Truancy	20,800	25,700	37,400	80	46
Ungovernability	16,000	11,500	18,300	14	59
Liquor law violation	24,300	28,200	37,400	54	33
Miscellaneous	6,400	8,800	29,300	355	233
Cases per 1,000 youth at risk					
Status offense	3.2	3.4	5.2	63%	51%
Running away	0.6	0.6	0.8	46	43
Truancy	0.8	1.0	1.3	65	34
Ungovernability	0.6	0.4	0.6	5	47
Liquor law violation	0.9	1.1	1.3	41	23
Miscellaneous	0.2	0.3	1.0	318	207

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

cases disposed by juvenile courts involved a youth under age 16, compared with 59% of the 1986 caseload. For truancy cases, the proportion of juveniles younger than 16 dropped from 87% to 77%, and among cases of running away, the proportion dropped from 67% to 64%. However, among petitioned status liquor offense cases, juveniles younger than 16 made up a larger proportion of cases in 1995 (25%) than in 1986 (23%); among ungovernability cases, the proportion of younger juveniles remained approximately 70%.

In 1995, the most common status offense for youth younger than 16 was truancy (35%). Among older youth, the most common status offense was a liquor law violation, which accounted for 44% of all cases involving a youth age 16 or older (table 17).

Sex of Youth

Male juveniles were involved in 59% of the petitioned status offense cases handled by juvenile courts during 1995. Nearly 7 in 10 liquor law violation cases involved males. On the other hand, 6 in 10 cases of running away involved females. Males and females were more equally represented in truancy and ungovernability cases. In 1995, 54% of truancy cases and 55% of ungovernability cases involved male juveniles. These patterns in status offense cases did not change much between 1986 and 1995.

Table 17: Offense Profile of Petitioned Status Offense Cases by Age at Referral, 1995

Most Serious Offense	Age 15 or Younger	Age 16 or Older
Running away	18%	14%
Truancy	35	14
Ungovernability	16	9
Liquor law violation	11	44
Miscellaneous	20	21
Total	100	100

Note: Detail may not total 100% because of rounding.

Race of Youth

White youth were involved in 78% of the petitioned status offense cases disposed by juvenile courts during 1995. White youth were involved in 90% of status liquor law violation cases, 76% of cases of running away, 76% of ungovernability cases, and 74% of truancy cases. Truancy was the most common status offense for black youth (32%), while a liquor law violation was the most common status offense for white youth (29%) and youth of other races (38%).

Source of Referral

Law enforcement agencies referred 43% of the petitioned status offense cases handled by juvenile courts in 1995. However, the source of referral varied according to the offense involved. Law enforcement agencies referred 93% of status liquor law violation cases, 28% of cases of running away, 11% of ungovernability cases, and 5% of truancy cases.

Use of Detention

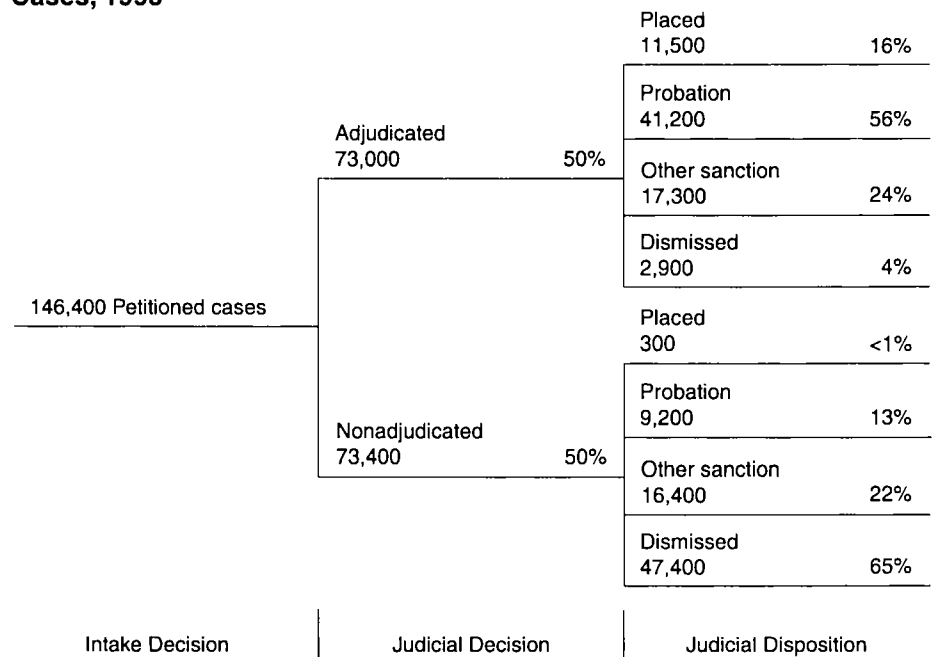
Detention was used in 9,900 petitioned status offense cases in 1995 (table 18). There were 22% fewer status offense cases involving detention in 1995 than in 1986, but 37% more than in 1991. Similar drops in the number of cases involving detention were seen in cases of running away, truancy, and ungovernability. The number of cases involving detention was greater in 1995 than in 1986 for cases involving liquor and miscellaneous status offenses.

Cases of running away were the most likely status offense matters to involve detention in 1995. Detention was used in 12% of these cases, 7% of ungovernability cases, 6% of status liquor law violations, and 2% of truancy cases. Of the estimated 9,900 petitioned status offense cases that involved detention in 1995, 29% were cases of running away, 25% involved liquor law violations, 13% involved ungovernability charges, 7% were truancy cases, and the remaining 26% involved miscellaneous status offenses.

Case Processing

During 1995, half of petitioned status offense cases resulted in adjudication (figure 5). Adjudication was more likely in cases involving ungovernability (54%),

Figure 5: Juvenile Court Processing of Petitioned Status Offense Cases, 1995



Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

truancy (53%), and liquor law violations (53%) than in cases of running away (42%). Probation was the most common disposition for adjudicated status offenders. Among adjudicated status offense cases, 56% resulted in probation; 16% resulted in out-of-home placement; 24% resulted in other sanctions, such as restitution or community service; and 4% were dismissed.

Endnotes

1. For information on the estimation procedure, see the methods section of this

Bulletin or in *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995*. The national estimates for 1986 through 1994 described in this Bulletin include revisions made after publication of previous *Juvenile Court Statistics* reports.

2. The population at risk of referral to juvenile court is controlled for State variations in the upper age of original juvenile court jurisdiction. Juveniles at risk are defined as youth ages 10 or older who were at, or under, the upper age of original jurisdiction of the juvenile court according to the laws of their State. In most States, the upper age of original jurisdiction is 17, but the age ranged from 15 to 17 in 1995. (See *youth population at risk* and *upper age of original jurisdiction* in the glossary.)

3. Care should be exercised when interpreting age, sex, or racial differences in the handling of juvenile delinquency cases; reported statistics do not control for the seriousness of the behavior leading to each charge or the extent of a youth's court history.

4. Nearly all youth of Hispanic ethnicity are included in the white racial category.

5. In a small number of cases, the petition is withdrawn before an adjudicatory hearing is held.

Table 18: Percent Change in Detained Petitioned Status Offense Cases, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases			Percent Change	
	1986	1991	1995	1986–95	1991–95
Status offense	12,700	7,200	9,900	-22%	37%
Running away	5,600	2,400	2,900	-48	21
Truancy	1,400	700	700	-51	0
Ungovernability	3,200	900	1,300	-60	45
Liquor law violation	1,700	1,500	2,400	47	63
Miscellaneous	900	1,800	2,600	196	49

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Acknowledgments

This Bulletin was written by Melissa Sickmund of the National Center for Juvenile Justice (NCJJ). It summarizes *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995* (Sickmund, M., Stahl, A.L., Finnegan, T.A., Snyder, H.N., Poole, R.S., and Butts, J.A., forthcoming). The work was supported by funds provided to the National Juvenile Court Data Archive by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP). Joseph Moore served as OJJDP Program Manager for the Archive project. Both OJJDP and NCJJ gratefully acknowledge the efforts of the many State and local agencies that contribute data to the Archive. Their cooperation with requests for data and documentation makes this work possible.

Related Readings

The Youngest Delinquents: Offenders Under Age 15, September 1997, NCJ 165256. Also available electronically.

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 1997 Update on Violence, August 1997, NCJ 165703. Also available electronically.

The National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Collecting Data Since 1927, August 1995, FS9766. Also available electronically.

Female Offenders in the Juvenile Justice System, June 1996, NCJ 160941. Also available electronically.

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: A National Report, August 1995, NCJ 153569.

To obtain *Juvenile Court Statistics*, other publications using Archive data, or OJJDP publications that focus on juvenile justice statistics, visit OJJDP's Web site, www.ncjrs.org/ojjhome.htm, or contact the Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse by telephone at 800-638-8736; by mail at P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20849-6000; or by e-mail at askncjrs@ncjrs.org.

6. In many communities, social service agencies, rather than the juvenile courts, have assumed responsibility for screening and diverting alleged status offenders. Because of great differences in intake and screening procedures for informally handled status offense cases, national estimates are not calculated. The national estimates presented here and in *Juvenile Court Statistics* focus on formally handled, or petitioned, status offense cases.

7. Due to the homogeneity of offenses contained in the miscellaneous category, these cases are not always discussed independently. All totals in the tables and figures, however, include miscellaneous status offenses.

This Bulletin was prepared under grant number 95-JN-FX-0008 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice.

Points of view or opinions expressed in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of OJJDP or the U.S. Department of Justice.

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention is a component of the Office of Justice Programs, which also includes the Bureau of Justice Assistance, the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the National Institute of Justice, and the Office for Victims of Crime.

About the National Juvenile Court Data Archive

This Bulletin presents information from the latest report in OJJDP's *Juvenile Court Statistics* series. The *Juvenile Court Statistics* report series started in 1929 and continues to be the Nation's primary source of information on the activities of juvenile courts. The data for the reports are collected, analyzed, and stored by the National Juvenile Court Data Archive, which is operated by the National Center for Juvenile Justice (NCJJ) in Pittsburgh, PA. The Archive collects demographic, legal, and dispositional data on more than 800,000 delinquency and status offense cases annually. In addition to producing *Juvenile Court Statistics* and other topical publications, the Archive can provide data files and special analyses for research and policy purposes.

The Archive's national delinquency estimates are available to researchers in an easy-to-use software package, *Easy Access to Juvenile Court Statistics, 1986-1995*. With the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, NCJJ distributes the software to facilitate independent analysis of Archive data while eliminating the need for statistical analysis software. All necessary data files, as well as the NCJJ software, can be downloaded from OJJDP's Web site, www.ncjrs.org/ojjhome.htm, or a complimentary copy of *Easy Access to Juvenile Court Statistics, 1986-1995* on diskette can be ordered from NCJJ.

For further information about the National Juvenile Court Data Archive, contact:

National Center for Juvenile Justice
710 Fifth Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15219-3000
412-227-6950

Glossary

Adjudication: Judicial determination (judgment) that a youth is a delinquent or status offender.

Age: Juvenile's age at the time the case was referred to juvenile court.

Case rate: Number of cases disposed per 1,000 youth at risk. The population base used to calculate the case rate varies. For example, the population base for the male case rate is the total number of male youth ages 10 or older who are under the jurisdiction of the juvenile courts. (See *youth population at risk*.)

Delinquent act: An act committed by a juvenile for which an adult could be prosecuted in a criminal court, but which, when committed by a juvenile, is within the jurisdiction of the juvenile court.

Delinquent acts include crimes against persons, crimes against property, drug offenses, and crimes against public order when such acts are committed by juveniles.

Detention: The placement of a youth in a restrictive facility at some point between the time of referral to court intake and disposition.

Disposition: Action taken or treatment plan decided upon or initiated in a particular case. Case dispositions are coded into the following categories:

- ◆ **Waiver to criminal court:** Cases that were sent to a criminal court as the result of a waiver or transfer hearing in the juvenile court.
- ◆ **Placement:** Cases in which youth were placed out of the home in a residential facility for delinquents or status offenders, or cases in which youth were removed from their homes and placed elsewhere.
- ◆ **Probation:** Cases in which youth were placed on informal/voluntary or formal/court-ordered probation or supervision.
- ◆ **Dismissed:** Cases dismissed, including those warned, counseled, and released with no further disposition anticipated. Among cases handled informally, some may be dismissed by the juvenile court because the matter is being handled in criminal court. (See *manner of handling*.)

◆ **Other sanction:** Miscellaneous dispositions not included above which may include fines, restitution, community service, referrals outside the court for services with minimal or no further court involvement anticipated, and dispositions coded as "other" in a jurisdiction's original data.

Juvenile: Youth at or below the upper age of original juvenile court jurisdiction. (See *upper age of jurisdiction* and *youth population at risk*.)

Juvenile court: Any court that has jurisdiction over matters involving juveniles.

Manner of handling: A general classification of case processing within the court system.

◆ **Petitioned:** Formally handled cases that appear on the official court calendar in response to the filing of a petition or other legal instrument requesting the court to adjudicate the youth a delinquent, status offender, or dependent child, or to transfer the youth to criminal court for processing as an adult.

◆ **Nonpetitioned:** Informally handled cases in which duly authorized court personnel screen the case prior to the filing of a formal petition. Such personnel include judges, referees, probation officers, other officers of the court, and/or staff of an agency statutorily designated to conduct petition screening for the juvenile court.

Petition: A document filed in juvenile court alleging that a juvenile is a delinquent or a status offender and asking that the court assume jurisdiction over the juvenile or asking that an alleged delinquent be transferred to criminal court for prosecution as an adult.

Race: The race of the youth referred, as determined by the youth or by court personnel.

◆ **White:** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, North Africa, or the Middle East. (In both the population and court data, nearly all youth of Hispanic ethnicity were included in the white racial category.)

◆ **Black:** A person having origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa.

◆ **Other:** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North America, the Far East, Southeast Asia, the Indian subcontinent, or the Pacific Islands.

Unit of count: The unit of count is a case disposed by a court with juvenile jurisdiction during the calendar year. Each case represents a youth referred to the juvenile court for a new referral for one or more offenses. The term "disposed" means that during the year, some action was taken or some treatment plan was decided upon or initiated. Within this definition, it is possible for a youth to be involved in more than one case during a calendar year.

Upper age of original jurisdiction: The oldest age at which a juvenile court has original jurisdiction over an individual for law-violating behavior. For the time period covered by *Juvenile Court Statistics 1995*, the upper age of jurisdiction was 15 in three States (Connecticut, New York, and North Carolina) and 16 in eight States (Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, South Carolina, and Texas). In the remaining 39 States and the District of Columbia, the upper age of juvenile court jurisdiction was 17. It must be noted that within most States, there are exceptions in which youth at or below the State's upper age of jurisdiction can be placed under the original jurisdiction of the adult criminal court. For example, in most States, if a youth of a certain age is charged with an offense from a defined list of "excluded offenses," the case must originate in the adult criminal court. In addition, in a number of States, the district attorney is given the discretion of filing certain cases either in the juvenile or in the criminal court. Therefore, while the upper age of jurisdiction is commonly recognized in all States, there are numerous exceptions to this age criterion.

Youth population at risk: For delinquency and status offense matters, this term refers to the number of children from age 10 through the upper age of jurisdiction. In all States, the upper age of jurisdiction is defined by statute. Because most States consider individuals to be adults on their 18th birthday, the delinquency and status offense youth population at risk in these States equals the number of children ages 10 through 17 living within the geographical area serviced by the court. (See *upper age of original jurisdiction*.)

Methods

Data are provided to the National Juvenile Court Data Archive by State and local agencies responsible for the collection and/or dissemination of juvenile justice data. The information contributed by these agencies is not derived from a probability sampling procedure, nor is it the result of a uniform data collection effort. The national estimates described in this Bulletin and in *Juvenile Court Statistics* are developed using information from all courts able to provide compatible data to the Archive. While juvenile courts with jurisdiction over 96% of the U.S. juvenile population contributed at least some 1995 data to the Archive, not all information could be used to generate the national estimates because of incompatibilities in the structure or content of the data files.

Data are provided to the Archive in two forms—automated *case-level* data and

court-level aggregate data. Automated case-level data for 1995, which describe each case's demographic and processing characteristics, were provided by 1,323 jurisdictions in 28 States (Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and West Virginia). Together, these courts had jurisdiction over 53% of the Nation's juvenile population in 1995 (i.e., youth ages 10 through the upper age of original juvenile court jurisdiction in each State). Compatible court-level aggregate data for 1995, which usually indicate the number of delinquency cases disposed in a calendar year, were provided by 511 jurisdictions in seven States (California, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Montana, Texas, and Vermont) and the

District of Columbia. In all, compatible 1995 data were provided to the Archive by 1,775 jurisdictions, containing 67% of the Nation's juvenile population.

The national estimates of juvenile court cases reported in this Bulletin and in *Juvenile Court Statistics* were developed using the Archive's case-level and court-level data files combined with county-level juvenile population estimates (controlling for the upper age of original juvenile court jurisdiction in each State). The basic assumption underlying the estimation procedure is that the volume and characteristics of juvenile court cases are shaped by the same set of factors in reporting and nonreporting jurisdictions of similar size. For interested readers, a complete description of the estimation procedure appears in the methods section of each *Juvenile Court Statistics* report.

NCJ 167885

Office of Justice Programs
Bulletin

BULK RATE
U.S. POSTAGE PAID
DOJ/OJJDP
Permit No. G-91

U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Justice Programs
Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
Washington, DC 20531

Official Business
Penalty for Private Use \$300

Table 2: Percent Change in Delinquency Case Rates, 1986–1995

Most Serious Offense	Cases per 1,000 Youth at Risk			Percent Change	
	1986	1991	1995	1986–95	1991–95
Delinquency	45.5	54.2	60.7	33%	12%
Person	7.3	10.6	13.4	82	26
Property	27.4	32.5	30.9	13	-5
Drugs	2.8	2.5	5.6	102	126
Public order	8.0	8.6	10.8	36	26

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Case Rates

To examine changes in juvenile court caseloads while controlling for changes in the size of the juvenile population, researchers calculate a case rate that represents the number of delinquency cases processed by juvenile courts for every 1,000 youth at risk of referral to a juvenile court.² Between 1986 and 1995, the total delinquency case rate increased 33%, from 45.5 to 60.7 cases disposed per 1,000 youth at risk (table 2). During the same time period, the case rate for juveniles charged with person offenses increased 82%, as property offenses grew 13%, drug offenses increased 102%, and public order offenses increased 36%.

Age of Youth

Of all delinquency cases processed by the Nation's juvenile courts in 1995, 60% involved a juvenile younger than the age of 16. These younger juveniles were involved in 64% of person offense cases, 64% of property offense cases, 42% of drug law violations, and 54% of public order offense cases. Compared with older juveniles (16 and older), the caseloads of younger juveniles involved a smaller proportion of drug law violations and public order offenses, but somewhat larger proportions of person offenses and property offenses (table 3).³

Delinquency case rates generally increase with age (figure 2). For example, the delinquency case rate for 15-year-olds in 1995 was 29% higher than the rate for 14-year-olds. Similarly, the case rate for 16-year-olds was 20% greater than that for 15-year-olds. The case rate for 17-year-olds was an exception to this pattern, as it was 3% lower than the rate for 16-year-olds.

Sex of Youth

In 1995, juvenile courts disposed 1,338,600 delinquency cases involving males, compared with 375,800 cases

involving females (table 4). The number of delinquency cases involving females increased 68% between 1986 and 1995, while cases involving males increased 40%. The relatively greater increase in cases involving females was due to changes in person offense cases (up 146% for females versus 87% for males) and property offense cases (up 50% among females compared with 17% among males). Drug violation cases increased more among males than among females between 1986 and 1995, although between 1991 and 1995, the growth in cases involving females outpaced males.

Between 1986 and 1995, the delinquency case rate for males increased 28%, to 92.4 cases per 1,000 male youth. Among female juveniles, the delinquency case rate grew 54% to 27.3 cases per 1,000 female youth. The person offense case rate for females

Table 3: Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases by Age at Referral, 1995

Most Serious Offense	Age 15 or Younger	Age 16 or Older
Person	23%	20%
Property	54	46
Drugs	7	13
Public order	16	21
Total	100	100

Note: Detail may not total 100% because of rounding.

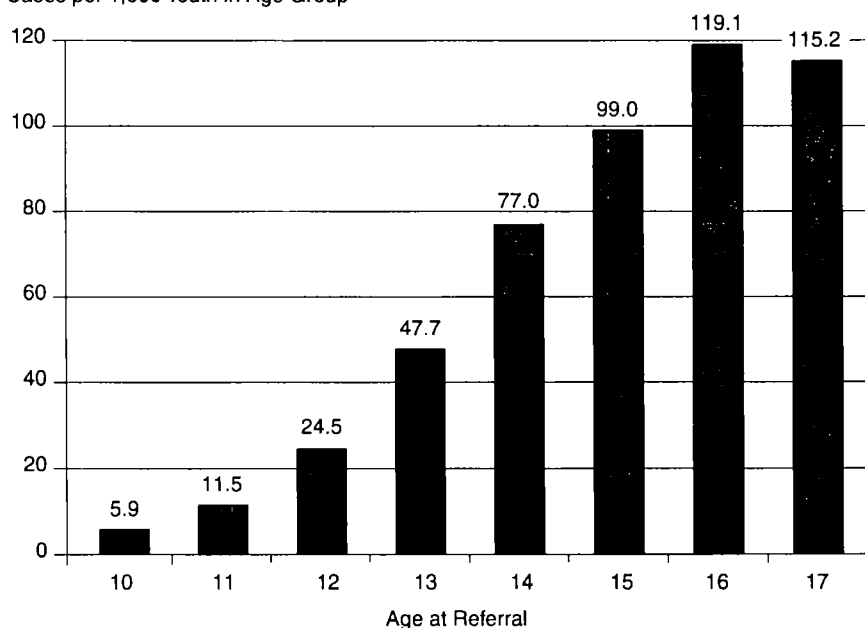
was 126% higher in 1995 than in 1986, while the person offense case rate for males grew 71%. Still, the 1995 person offense case rate was nearly three times greater for males than for females (19.7 versus 6.7 cases per 1,000).

Race of Youth

Between 1986 and 1995, the number of delinquency cases involving white youth increased 34%, the number of cases involving black youth increased 72%, and the number involving youth of other races increased 105% (table 5).⁴ In 1995, the number of delinquency cases involving white youth exceeded the number involving black youth by a margin of 2.2 to 1, compared with a ratio of 2.8 to 1 in 1986.

Figure 2: Delinquency Case Rates by Age at Referral, 1995

Cases per 1,000 Youth in Age Group





National Mental Health Association

News Release Index

Go!

NMHA News Release

February 24, 1999

Contact: Media Affairs
(703) 684-7722

Justice System Fails Youth with Mental Health/Substance Abuse Needs

New Study Finds Lack of Detection, Poor Coordination of Service Systems, Need for Legislation

Alexandria, Va. (February 24, 1999) A majority of youth in selected state and local juvenile justice systems have mental health and substance abuse problems, and most do not receive treatment, shows a new survey, *Justice for Juveniles: How Communities Respond to Mental Health and Substance Abuse Needs of Youth in the Juvenile Justice System*.

The survey, conducted jointly by the National Mental Health Association (NMHA) and the National GAINS Center for People with Co-Occurring Disorders in the Justice System, found that mental health problems typically are not identified until after children are involved in the juvenile justice system, if at all. Then, most of the children get little, if any, treatment.

Over the last eight months, NMHA and The GAINS Center conducted a multi-state case study to identify the treatment needs of youth in the juvenile justice system. NMHA affiliates collected information in 11 states. Some sites reported that between one-third and three-fourths of youth in their juvenile justice systems had mental health and substance abuse problems; many other sites had a poor sense of the number of youth that had such problems.

"This survey provides one more compelling piece of evidence that we are failing kids with mental and emotional problems, particularly poor, minority youth," said Michael M. Faenza, President and CEO of the National Mental Health Association. "Not only do we fail to provide services in schools and communities that can help prevent children from entering the justice system, but we delay identifying and treating mental health problems once youth are in the system." The survey found:

- An absence of programs in communities to proactively identify problems;
- A general absence of information on the prevalence of mental health and/or substance abuse disorders among youth in the juvenile justice system;
- A lack of routine standardized screenings and assessments;
- Fragmented services in the juvenile justice system for youth with treatment needs; and
- Poor communication between the mental health and juvenile justice systems.

Past studies, including those conducted by the U.S. Department of Justice, have documented physical abuse and neglect of children's health care needs in the juvenile justice system. Ninety-four percent of kids in the system are involved for non-violent offenses. Over half of all incarcerated juveniles have either a mental illness or a substance abuse disorder; many have both.

"Communities need to formalize screening and assessment for mental health and substance

abuse disorders for youth at all points of contact with the juvenile justice system," said Faenza. "We also need to improve staff training and community education on these children's needs."

The NMHA/GAINS study found that while some community services are available, they usually do not target the special needs of juveniles in the justice system. The report also cites a serious lack of follow-up services. If youth in the juvenile justice system are found to have mental illness or substance abuse problems, they are rarely linked to services in the community when they are released.

The report supports the need for legislation offered by Senator Paul Wellstone (D-MN) to improve mental health and substance abuse services for children in communities and in juvenile facilities. Other research has shown that community programs that coordinate individualized services for at-risk children can reduce youth contact with the juvenile justice system by almost half.

"In too many communities, disadvantaged, at-risk kids are much more likely to receive punitive treatment than substance abuse or mental health treatment," Faenza said. "Because communities lack specific policies for screening and identifying youth for mental health and substance abuse disorders, their problems typically go undetected until after they are incarcerated. Then, if treatments are provided, most often they are inadequate."

This survey was supported through funding from: the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (and its Center for Substance Abuse Treatment and Center for Mental Health Services), the National Institute of Corrections, and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Established in 1909, the National Mental Health Association is America's leading mental health advocacy organization with over 340 affiliates working to improve treatment, services, and understanding for the millions of children and adults with mental and emotional disorders.



National Mental Health Association

Juvenile Justice

Go!

Children With Emotional Disorders In The Juvenile Justice System

Each year over one million children come into contact in some way with the juvenile justice system. Over 100,000 of these youth are detained in a correctional facility.

Studies have consistently found the rate of mental disorders to be higher among the juvenile justice population than among youths in the general population. In fact, federal studies suggest that as many as 60 percent of incarcerated youth have a mental health disorder and 20 percent have a severe disorder. As many as half have substance abuse problems.¹

What disorders are most common?

Along with substance abuse, the most common disorders among youth in the justice system are conduct disorder, depression, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, learning disabilities, post traumatic stress disorder, and developmental disabilities.² Many youth in the justice system have co-existing disorders, which compounds the challenges in diagnosing and treating these youth.

Why are children with emotional disorders in the justice system?

While some of these children have committed serious crimes, many of them got in trouble because local communities failed to provide services to address their emotional and behavioral problems. These children are disproportionately poor and children of color. Along with their underlying mental disorder, many have histories of other problems that have not been addressed, including: physical and/or sexual abuse; parental drug or alcohol use; poor school performance or truancy; family discord, and learning disabilities.

What can be done to help children with emotional disorders in the justice system?

Mental health services can both prevent children from committing delinquent offenses and from re-offending. These services include prevention, early identification and intervention, assessment, outpatient treatment, home-based services, wrap-around services, family support groups, day treatment, residential treatment, crisis services and inpatient hospitalization. These services are most effective when integrated at the local level with other services provided by schools, child welfare agencies, and community organizations. In addition, intensive work with families at the early stages of their child's problems can strengthen the families' ability to care for their children at home.

Children whose offenses are minor or non-violent should, whenever possible, be diverted away from incarceration and towards treatment, services and supervision in their local community. Because it is not possible to divert all children with emotional disorders, the juvenile justice system and the mental health system should work together to develop programs and services within juvenile systems for these children. These services should be treatment-oriented, appropriate for the child's age, gender and culture, individualized, and family-focused.

¹ Coccozza, J.J. (ed.) *Responding to Youth With Mental Disorders in the Juvenile Justice System*. Seattle, WA, The National Coalition for the Mentally Ill in the Criminal Justice System, 1992.

² Garfinkel, Lili F., *Unique Challenges, Hopeful Responses: A Handbook for Professionals Working with Youth With Disabilities in the Juvenile Justice System*, PACER Center, 1997.

Youth With Disabilities in the Juvenile Justice System, PACER Center, 1997.

Executive Summary

JUSTICE FOR JUVENILES: HOW COMMUNITIES RESPOND TO MENTAL HEALTH AND SUBSTANCE ABUSE NEEDS OF YOUTH IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

Sponsored by the National GAINS Center and the National Mental Health Association

There is growing recognition of the high numbers of youth involved with the juvenile justice system with co-occurring mental health and substance abuse problems. More than two million youth under the age of 18 are arrested each year, and more than 100,000 of these youth will be placed in juvenile detention and correction facilities on any day. Available research indicates that approximately twenty percent of all youths who enter the juvenile justice system experience serious mental disorders, with a much higher percentage experiencing some level of mental health problems. Studies have consistently found the rate of mental disorders to be higher among juvenile justice population than among youths in the general population. There is also a growing recognition that many of these youths nearly 50 to 75 percent, have serious substance abuse problems. The growing awareness of the unmet needs of these youth had led to a joint effort by the National Mental Health Association and the GAINS Center, known as the Justice for Juveniles Initiative.

The GAINS Center, which is federally supported by the Center for Mental Health Services, the Center for Substance Abuse Treatment, and the National Institute of Corrections, provides information and practical assistance to communities, to promote systemic change and improve service delivery for individuals with both substance abuse and mental disorders in contact with the justice system. The National Mental Health Association, with its 340 affiliates nationwide, is dedicated to improving care and treatment for children and adults with mental health problems. NMHA's mission includes advocacy, public education, research and community aid for people with mental illnesses and their families.

The goal of the JFJ initiative is to highlight, at both the local and national levels, the issues and service needs of youth with co-occurring mental health and substance abuse disorders in contact with the juvenile justice system. The JFJ represents an important first step to identify these youth, their needs, the services available in communities around the country, and ways to improve how systems respond to treatment needs of youth.

Information for the JFJ assessment was collected in communities through a series of interviews with key stakeholders at both the state and local level, including: directors of mental health, substance abuse, and juvenile justice agencies; family members; police; key service providers; judges; and advocacy groups. These interviews were conducted by self-selected Mental Health Association and Federation of Families affiliates who volunteered to collect data in their community. The community assessment asked respondents about the policies and

programs in place to address the treatment needs of youth in the juvenile justice system in their respective communities, and their perspective on how well services are provided to youth. The final sample of communities included 15 counties and 9 states. A list of communities that participated in the JFJ initiative is attached.

The report represents a summary of the cross-site findings from the community assessments. Due to issues surrounding the collection of data, and the nature of the information collected, there are a number of limitations to the information in this report. The limitations include:

- while we had hoped to have both state and local data for all communities participating in the initiative, information for both levels was not collected in all sites;
- while we had hoped to have consistency in the types of individuals interviewed across the sites, the respondents in communities are not consistent;
- there are differences in the depth and quality of responses between sites;
- the information gathered is based on respondents' perceptions.

The discrepancies between sites and limitations of the data make it difficult to make comparisons between sites regarding the systems and types of services. Therefore, the report does not make any conclusions or generalizations about individual sites; comparisons or generalizations by state or county; or comparisons by the type of respondent. The report is a general cross-site summary of all 111 interviews completed by the 24 sites participating in the initiative. While this report cannot give a complete picture of the how communities respond to the mental health and substance abuse needs of youth involved in the juvenile justice system, it does provide a critical first step in an area where little or no information exists.

Some of the main findings concerning the mental health and substance abuse services provided to youth involved in the juvenile justice system include:

- **There is a general absence of information on the prevalence of youth with mental health and/or substance abuse problems involved in the juvenile justice system.**

Few communities are aware of the number of youth with mental health and/or substance abuse problems involved in their juvenile justice system. Less than half of the sites collect some data on youth, only a third of the sites can estimate the number of youth, and in only four sites is there a formal analysis of juvenile justice data. The little to no information provided by sites indicates that few communities actually identify youth with mental health and/or substance abuse problems.

- **Across sites there is a failure to provide routine standardized screening and assessments.**

For the majority of communities participating in the initiative, there are no routine screening or assessments for youth involved in the justice system. Respondents indicated that identification is provided in a hit or miss fashion and youth are not generally identified until the problems result in a crisis and can no longer be ignored.

- **There are inadequate and fragmented services for youth with mental health and substance abuse problems involved with the juvenile justice system.**

There are few specific services or programs in place for youth with mental health and/or substance abuse problems involved with the juvenile justice system. Further, in communities where services for youth are available, these are often provided in a piecemeal fashion. In some communities there are programs that target youth in the juvenile justice system, however these programs generally address only a piece of the system. Additionally, there are few programs specifically targeting the needs of juvenile justice youth, and even fewer communities have programming for co-occurring mental health and substance abuse disorders.

- **There is a general lack of communication and coordination across the involved systems.**

Across the sites, it is clear that there is a lack of communication and coordination between the involved systems. In a few sites there are joint endeavors in the form of collaboratively funded programs and interagency committees, however, for most communities this is clearly lacking. The absence of good communication means restricted access to services and programs, duplication of services, missed identification of youth, and philosophical barriers.

The community assessments illustrate that there are many steps that need to be taken by communities to better meet the treatment needs of youth involved in the juvenile justice system. The strategies to improve services that were most frequently identified in the community assessments, include:

- **Communities need to formalize screening and assessment for mental health and substance abuse disorders for youth at all points of contact of the juvenile justice system.**

A critical piece in any community that seeks to respond to the mental health and substance abuse needs of youth in the juvenile justice system is a routine, formalized screen and assessment. Sites identified this as a critical gap in serving youth and recognized the necessity of this piece in any system that hopes to respond to the treatment needs of youth.

- **Communities need to provide the full range of services to youth.**

**Justice for Juveniles Initiative
Participating Communities**

County/ State
Jefferson County, Colorado
Colorado State
Metro Atlanta, Georgia
Georgia State
Marion County, Indiana
Jefferson County, Kentucky
Kentucky State
Jefferson Parish, Louisiana
New Orleans Parish, Louisiana
Louisiana State
Maryland State
Orange County, New York
Albany County, New York
Niagara County, New York
New York State
Charleston, South Carolina
Lexington, South Carolina
Oconee, South Carolina
South Carolina State
Houston/Harris County, Texas
Tarrant County, Texas
Texas State
Central Virginia
Washington State

Justice for Juveniles: How Communities Respond to the Mental Health and Substance Abuse Needs of Youth in the Juvenile Justice System

QUOTES FROM THE FIELD SURVEYS

"If services had been available in the community, many youth wouldn't have progressed to their delinquent behavior to the point that they needed to be incarcerated." (director of juvenile justice agency)

"The juvenile court prefers the Department of Corrections to treatment." "The court would rather place in overcrowded state boys' school than provide treatment or supervision." (substance abuse provider)

"Most are placed in programs based on racial status and financial status, not need." (substance abuse provider)

"Unfortunately, it takes an arrest for many families to gain access to services that either they didn't know they needed or had been avoiding all along." (state office of mental health)

"Children are not being identified early enough in the process." (state department of probation)

"Unfortunately, there are many youth who have a high level of mental health need, and not enough professional staff to provide those services." (state office of children's services)

"The system denies substance abuse is a treatable illness." (substance abuse provider)

"Turf and control issues continue to prohibit many of our key institutions and community stakeholders from being able to cooperate and work together in an orchestrated fashion." (office of family and children)

"Within the juvenile justice system on the whole, there doesn't appear to be a very strong commitment that mental health and substance abuse interventions are important or could contribute anything to youth involved in the system. The decision to involve mental health and substance abuse providers in the care of youth seems to rely solely on the whims and recommendations of individual staff. There seems to be no consistent systemic policy or vision." (office of family and children)

"There are insufficient resources for children suffering from mental illness or from problems with substance abuse." (county public defender)

"Treatment centers are available and judges do use them, however they are not adequate to meet all the needs or comprehensive enough." (county sheriff)

"Additional front end services may prevent some juveniles with significant problems from penetrating deep into the system." (director of youth services)

"My son was arrested because he was accused of sexual harassment and stealing drugs [Ritalin]. No one evaluated him for any mental health issues, even though he was diagnosed with ADHD and was taking medication for it." (parent)

In order to meet the treatment needs of youth involved in the juvenile justice system, targeted mental health and substance services must be available at all phases of involvement with the juvenile justice system. Respondents indicated that communities cannot continue to provide services to youth in the piece meal, stop gap approach that currently exists. Sites felt that communities need to develop and implement new services that target this population of youth, from early intervention and prevention programs, diversion programs, services in detention, to aftercare treatment.

- **Communities need to establish a coordinating body or task force that focuses on this population of youth.**

It is clear from the community assessments that agencies need to collaborate and integrate services in order to better meet the needs of these multi-system youth. Respondents identified the development of a task force or coordinating body as a strategy to involve all relevant systems and agencies, and jointly address the needs of youth with mental health and substance abuse problems involved in the juvenile justice system.

ADDITIONAL SURVEY FINDINGS

Additional findings of the survey included:

- **Services generally do not become available to youth until they are detained or placed in a residential setting. Only then are formal assessments of children done.**
- **The largest gap in services is at the front end of the juvenile justice system, when a youth first becomes involved--at arrest or prior to formal arrest.**
- **Many sites lack services at the back end of the juvenile justice system when youth are released from custody. Formalized policies for linking released youth to services were available in only a few sites.**
- **Communities lack resources and funds to serve these youth. Many sites cited problems with insurance and managed care companies.**
- **In general there is an absence of early identification and early intervention programs.**
- **Some sites said that ideology and a "punishment mentality" toward youth in the juvenile justice system has made providing services difficult.**
- **Differences in treatment philosophy between agencies, restricted access to services, confidentiality issues, and categorical funding were also cited as barriers to serving these youth in communities.**

Survey respondents suggested additional priorities for action, including:

- **providing services to children before they become involved with the law;**
- **allocating new funding or re-prioritizing current funds for this population;**
- **eliminating categorical funding and promoting interagency pooling of funds;**
- **training and educating key stakeholders, including judges;**
- **crosstraining for all players in communities; and**
- **establishing programs that address both mental health and substance abuse problems together.**

For more information on *Justice for Juveniles: How Communities Respond to the Mental Health and Substance Abuse Needs of Youth in the Juvenile Justice System*, contact Chris Siegfried at NMHA (817) 572-2033 or (703) 838-7510.

Female Offenders in the Juvenile Justice System

Statistics Summary

Eileen Poe-Yamagata, M.S.

Jeffrey A. Butts, Ph.D.

**Shay Bilchik, Administrator
Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention**

June 1996

This report was prepared by the National Center for Juvenile Justice, the research division of the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges, and was supported by cooperative agreement number 95-JN-FX-0008 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), U.S. Department of Justice.

Points of view or opinions expressed in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of OJJDP or the U.S. Department of Justice.

Copyright 1996. National Center for Juvenile Justice, 710 Fifth Avenue, Pittsburgh, PA 15219-3000, 412-227-6950.

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention is a component of the Office of Justice Programs, which also includes the Bureau of Justice Assistance, the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the National Institute of Justice, and the Office for Victims of Crime.



Foreword

The appropriate treatment of female offenders by the juvenile justice system is a matter of increasing interest to policymakers, practitioners, and the public. The issue merits our attention and our concern.

Female Offenders in the Juvenile Justice System analyzes patterns in the arrest, judicial management, and correctional placement of female offenders. Citing data from diverse sources, the study notes that females are entering the juvenile justice system more frequently and at younger ages.

Although male juvenile offenders still account for most delinquent acts, the relative growth in juvenile arrests involving females was more than double the growth for males between 1989 and 1993. While juvenile arrests for violent crimes increased 33 percent for males during that period, they increased 55 percent for females. In fact, the ratio of male juvenile arrests to female juvenile arrests declined from eight to one in 1989 to six to one in 1993.

As the involvement of female offenders in delinquent behavior rises, we must enhance our efforts to meet this challenge. Consideration of the changing profile of female delinquency portrayed in this study is an excellent starting point.



Shay Bilchik

Administrator

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention

Acknowledgments

This Statistics Summary was written by Eileen Poe-Yamagata and Jeffrey A. Butts of the National Center for Juvenile Justice (NCJJ). Other individuals at NCJJ assisted with preparation and review of the study, including Nancy Tierney, Melissa Sickmund, and Howard Snyder.

The analysis was supported by funds provided to the National Juvenile Court Data Archive by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP).

Joseph Moone served as OJJDP Program Manager for the project. Both OJJDP and NCJJ gratefully acknowledge the efforts of the many State and local agencies that contributed data to the archive. Their cooperation in fulfilling requests for data and documentation made this work possible.

Table of Contents

Foreword	iii
Acknowledgments	v
Introduction	1
Arrests of Female Juvenile Offenders	2
Arrest Trends	2
Juvenile Versus Adult Arrests	4
Arrest Rates	5
Arrest Rates by Age	8
Female Offenders in the Juvenile Court	8
Delinquency Case Trends	9
Court Processing	10
Offense Characteristics	12
Probation Caseloads	12
Criminal Court Transfers	13
Female Juvenile Offenders in Custody	14
Short-Term Custody (Detention)	14
Long-Term Custody (Commitment)	16
State Variations	18
Conclusion	18
Related Reading	20
Methods	21
Juvenile Arrests	21
Juvenile Delinquency Cases	21
Juvenile Correctional Populations	22

Tables, Figures, and Data Tables

Tables

Table 1: Arrests of Persons Under 18 Years of Age, 1993	3
Table 2: Female Proportion of Juvenile and Adult Arrests, 1983, 1988, and 1993	4
Table 3: Delinquency Cases by Most Serious Offense and Sex, 1993	10
Table 4: Juvenile Court Processing of Delinquency Cases by Sex, 1993	11
Table 5: Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases at Various Stages of Court Processing by Sex, 1989 and 1993	12

Table 6:	Percent of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Formal Probation by Sex, 1989 and 1993	13
Table 7:	Percent Change in Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Formal Probation by Sex, 1989 and 1993	13
Table 8:	Percent of Delinquency Cases Detained by Sex, 1989 and 1993	14
Table 9:	Percent Change in Delinquency Cases Involving Secure Detention by Sex, 1989 and 1993	15
Table 10:	Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases Involving Secure Detention and Juveniles Detained in Public Facilities by Sex, 1989 and 1993	15
Table 11:	Percent of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement by Sex, 1989 and 1993	16
Table 12:	Percent Change in Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement by Sex, 1989 and 1993	17
Table 13:	Offense Profile of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement and Juveniles Committed to Public and Private Facilities by Sex, 1989 and 1993	17
Table 14:	Juvenile Detention and Commitment Admissions to Public Facilities by State, 1988–1992	19

Figures

Figure 1:	Juvenile Proportion of Arrests by Sex, 1993	5
Figure 2:	Percent Change in Juvenile Arrest Rates by Sex, 1983–1992	6
Figure 3:	Arrest Rates by Sex and Age, 1983 and 1992	9
Figure 4:	Juvenile Court Processing of Delinquency Cases by Sex, 1993	11

Data Tables

Data Table 1:	Juvenile Arrest Rates by Sex, 1973–1992	23
Data Table 2:	Arrest Rates by Sex and Age, 1983 and 1992	25

Introduction

One of the few indisputable facts in the study of juvenile crime is that young females are far less likely than males to violate the law and become involved in the juvenile justice system. In recent years, however, many people have come to believe that the problem of female delinquency is growing faster than the problem of male delinquency. This belief in the disproportionate growth of female juvenile crime is often embraced by the public, the news media, elected officials, and juvenile justice practitioners. Has there, in fact, been a disparate increase in crime among juvenile females?

In response to these concerns, this study explores several questions: How many females are arrested and processed by the juvenile justice system each year? How does this number compare with that for males? Has the rate and severity of female delinquency changed in recent years? What happens to female juvenile offenders once they are referred to the juvenile court? Are young females handled differently than males, and has the population of females in out-of-home placement changed? These questions are answered using data from the Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI's) Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program; the National Juvenile Court Data Archive; and the biannual Census of Public Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities, more commonly known as the Children in Custody (CIC) census.

Data from the study indicate the following:

- In 1993, U.S. law enforcement agencies made an estimated 570,100 arrests involving females under the age of 18.
- Between 1989 and 1993, the number of arrests involving female juveniles increased by 23% compared with an 11% increase in arrests of male juveniles.
- The female proportion of all juvenile arrests grew from 21% to 24% between 1983 and 1993.
- Females were responsible for 17% of the growth in juvenile arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses between 1989 and 1993.
- Juvenile courts in the United States handled an estimated 1,489,700 delinquency cases in 1993, 20% of which involved females.
- Between 1989 and 1993, the number of juvenile court cases involving females charged with delinquency offenses increased by 31%, while the number of cases involving males increased by 21%.
- Delinquency cases involving females were less likely than those involving males to be processed formally, more likely to receive probation as the most restrictive disposition, and less likely to result in detention or out-of-home placement.
- Between 1989 and 1993, juveniles charged with person offenses increased as a proportion of the female custody population, growing from 16% to 29% of detained females and from 23% to 31% of committed female offenders.

In 1993, U.S. law enforcement agencies made an estimated 570,100 arrests involving females under the age of 18.

Juvenile arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses increased by 55% for females.

Arrests of Female Juvenile Offenders

United States law enforcement agencies made an estimated 2.4 million arrests of persons under the age of 18 in 1993 (table 1). Nearly one-fourth (24%) of those arrests involved females. The relative involvement of females varied by offense. Among Violent Crime Index offenses, females were responsible for 6% of juvenile arrests for murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, 2% for forcible rape, 9% for robbery, and 18% for aggravated assault.¹ Among Property Crime Index offenses, females were involved in 10% of arrests for burglary, 31% for larceny-theft, 14% for motor vehicle theft, and 12% for arson. The female proportion of juvenile arrests for non-Index offenses varied substantially. Females accounted for 4% of juvenile arrests for gambling, 8% for weapons offenses, and 9% for sex offenses but were responsible for 57% of youth arrests for running away from home and 55% for prostitution. Other offenses with high proportions of female arrests included forgery and counterfeiting (35%), embezzlement (41%), and offenses against family and children (36%).

Arrest Trends

Between 1989 and 1993, the relative growth in juvenile arrests involving females was more than double the growth for males (23% versus 11%). Juvenile arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses increased by 55% for females versus 33% for males. As a result, the ratio of male arrests to female arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses declined from 8:1 in 1989 to 6:1 in 1993. Overall, females were responsible for 17% of the growth in the number of juvenile arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses between 1989 and 1993.

Because relatively few juveniles are arrested for murder and rape, changes in arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses are controlled by changes in the number of arrests for aggravated assault and robbery. More specifically, the disparate growth in female arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses is the result of the large increase in the number of aggravated assault arrests for females. Growth in female arrests for aggravated assault was almost double the growth for males, while the growth in robbery arrests for females was only slightly greater than the growth for males.

Arrests for Property Crime Index offenses involving females increased substantially between 1989 and 1993, while the number of male arrests for Property Crime Index offenses declined. Overall, female arrests for Property Crime Index offenses increased by 22% between 1989 and 1993, although male arrests declined by 3%.

For juveniles, female arrests increased more than male arrests in most of the non-Index offense categories. For example, arrests for simple assault and weapons violations increased substantially more among females than males between 1989 and 1993. Similar patterns were found in arrests for disorderly conduct and vagrancy. However, increases in the number of male arrests outpaced the

1. Although this section uses the term "juvenile" to mean all persons under the age of 18, States vary in their legal definitions of juvenile status.

growth in female arrests in cases of fraud, gambling, drug abuse violations, and offenses against family and children.

Table 1: Arrests of Persons Under 18 Years of Age, 1993

Most Serious Offense	Estimated Juvenile Arrests ^a			Percent Change 1989-1993	
	Total	Female	Percent Female	Female	Male
Total	2,388,800	570,100	24%	23%	11%
Crime Index Total^b	836,100	189,300	23	24	3
Violent Crime Index	138,600	18,800	14	55	33
Murder/nonnegligent manslaughter	3,800	200	6	35	45
Forcible rape	6,300	100	2	-10	10
Robbery	49,000	4,400	9	43	37
Aggravated assault	79,500	14,100	18	62	33
Property Crime Index	697,600	170,500	24	22	-3
Burglary	138,100	13,300	10	16	-6
Larceny-theft	462,400	144,200	31	21	-1
Motor vehicle theft	87,400	11,800	14	28	-8
Arson	9,600	1,200	12	53	21
Non-Index Offense	1,552,700	380,800	25	22	16
Simple assault	185,300	48,100	26	64	38
Forgery and counterfeiting	7,800	2,700	35	14	-1
Fraud	19,800	5,300	27	34	51
Embezzlement	700	300	41	-37	-38
Stolen property offense	42,700	4,700	11	22	-3
Vandalism	142,700	13,700	10	33	23
Weapons offense; possession, etc.	61,200	4,900	8	100	64
Prostitution/commercialized vice	1,100	600	55	-33	-12
Sex offense (excluding rape, prostitution)	19,500	1,700	9	51	20
Drug abuse violation	108,500	12,000	11	-2	3
Gambling	1,300	100	4	47	70
Offense against family/children	4,800	1,700	36	62	75
Driving under the influence	13,300	1,900	14	-31	-33
Liquor laws	113,500	32,300	28	-18	-21
Drunkenness	16,700	2,700	16	-25	-22
Disorderly conduct	145,100	33,200	23	41	23
Vagrancy	3,700	600	17	59	37
All other offenses (except traffic)	384,300	82,700	22	23	21
Curfew and loitering law violation	100,200	28,200	28	48	29
Runaway	180,500	103,300	57	16	10

^a The FBI does not calculate national estimates for arrests involving persons under the age of 18. The estimates presented in this table were developed by applying the proportion of arrests for persons under the age of 18 within each offense category in the Uniform Crime Reporting sample to the Uniform Crime Reporting's national estimates of total arrests in each offense category. This method was demonstrated in "Arrests of Youth 1990" by Howard Snyder, *OJJDP Update on Statistics*.

^b Includes Violent Crime Index and Property Crime Index offenses.

Data Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation. *Crime in the United States 1993*

Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Percentages are calculated on unrounded numbers.

Juveniles were responsible for 19% of female arrests for violent crimes.

Juvenile Versus Adult Arrests

Although females were responsible for a greater proportion of juvenile (24%) than adult (19%) arrests in 1993, the female proportion of arrests for most Index offenses was comparable between juveniles and adults (table 2). However, there were variations across offense categories. The female proportion of juvenile arrests was larger than the female proportion of adult arrests for aggravated assault and motor vehicle theft. By contrast, females were responsible for a smaller proportion of juvenile than adult arrests for murder and arson.

Nonetheless, the female proportion of arrests among both juveniles and adults increased between 1983 and 1993. Although slight variations existed among offenses, changes in the female proportions of juvenile and adult arrests were similar for Violent Crime Index and Property Crime Index offenses.

Variations also occurred across offense categories in the overall proportion of female and male arrests that involved juveniles. In 1993, 21% of all female arrests involved youth under the age of 18 compared with 16% of male arrests (figure 1). Juveniles were responsible for 19% of female arrests and 18% of male arrests for Violent Crime Index offenses in 1993. The youth proportion of female arrests for Property Crime Index offenses was slightly lower than the corresponding proportion for males (31% versus 34%).

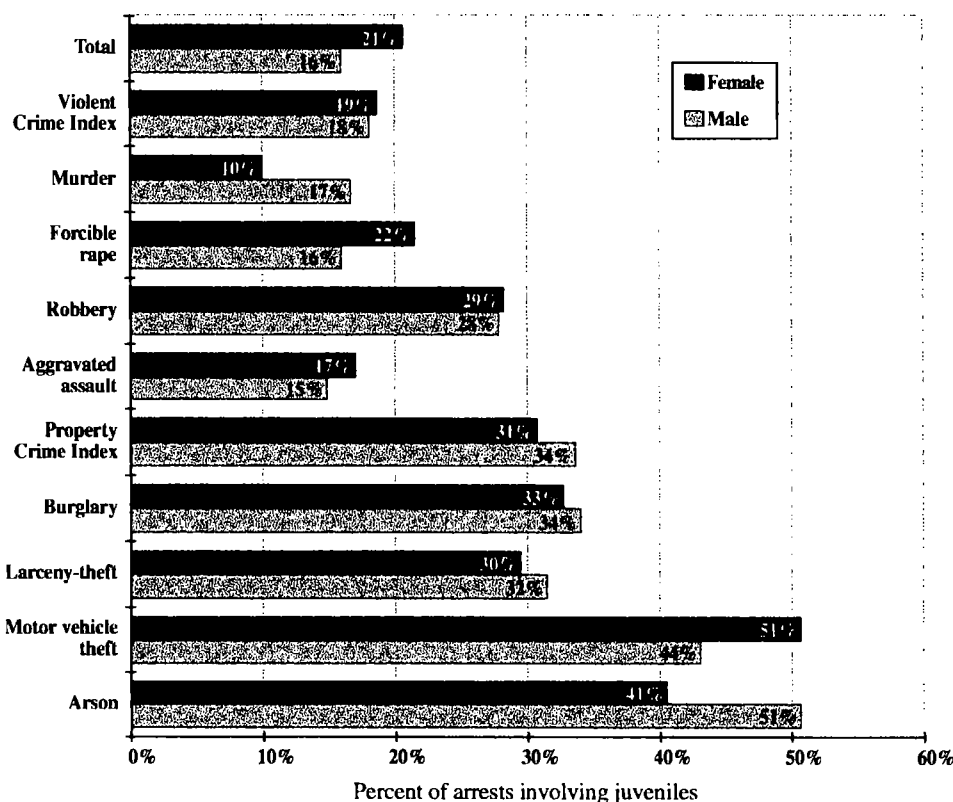
Table 2: Female Proportion of Juvenile and Adult Arrests, 1983, 1988, and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female Proportion of Arrests of Persons Under Age 18			Female Proportion of Arrests of Persons Age 18 or Older		
	1983	1988	1993	1983	1988	1993
All Arrests*	21%	22%	24%	16%	17%	19%
Violent Crime Index	11	11	13	11	11	13
Murder/nonnegligent manslaughter	11	7	6	14	13	10
Forcible rape	1	2	2	0	1	1
Robbery	7	7	9	8	9	9
Aggravated assault	16	15	18	13	13	15
Property Crime Index	20	20	24	24	26	27
Burglary	7	7	10	7	9	10
Larceny-theft	27	26	31	31	32	33
Motor vehicle theft	11	10	14	8	10	10
Arson	10	10	12	14	16	17
Weapons offense	6	7	8	8	8	8
Drug abuse offense	16	12	11	14	16	17

* Includes offenses not detailed below.

Data Sources: Federal Bureau of Investigation. *Crime in the United States 1983*, *Crime in the United States 1988*, and *Crime in the United States 1993*.

Figure 1: Juvenile Proportion of Arrests by Sex, 1993



Data Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation. *Crime in the United States 1993*.

Arrest Rates

The juvenile population of the United States has changed substantially in recent decades. Analyzing per capita arrest rates removes the effect of this changing population and simplifies comparisons of arrest trends over time. During the 10-year period from 1983 through 1992, the Violent Crime Index arrest rate generally increased for juveniles (figure 2).² However, this rate increased more than 80% for females versus slightly less than 50% for males. Nonetheless, female arrest rates for Violent Crime Index offenses remained far lower than male rates. For every 100,000 females age 10–17 in 1992, there were 121 female arrests for a Violent Crime Index offense. The male arrest rate was six times higher (786 per 100,000).

Between 1983 and 1992 the Property Crime Index arrest rate increased 21% for females while remaining relatively stable for males (2%). Still, the magnitude of the female Property Crime Index arrest rate was less than one-third the rate for males during the entire 10-year period.

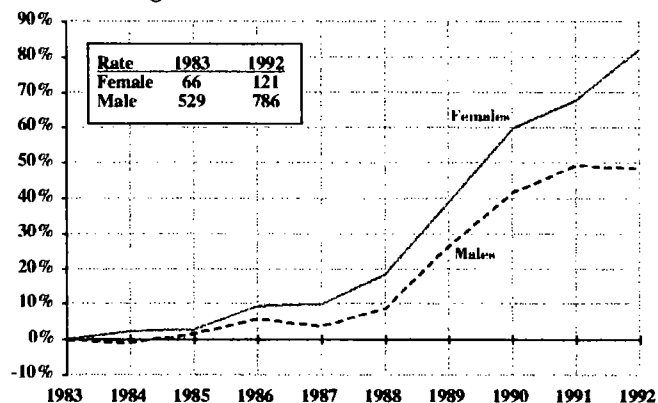
2. At the time this analysis was prepared, the FBI had not released 1993 arrest rate statistics.

For every 100,000 females age 10–17 in 1992, there were 121 female arrests for a Violent Crime Index offense.

Figure 2: Percent Change in Juvenile Arrest Rates by Sex, 1983–1992

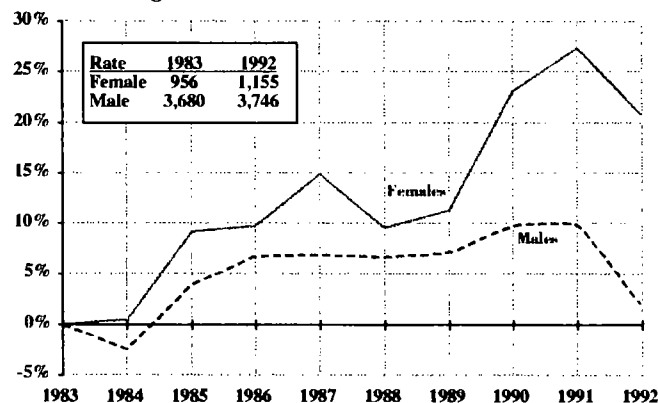
Violent Crime Index

Percent change from 1983



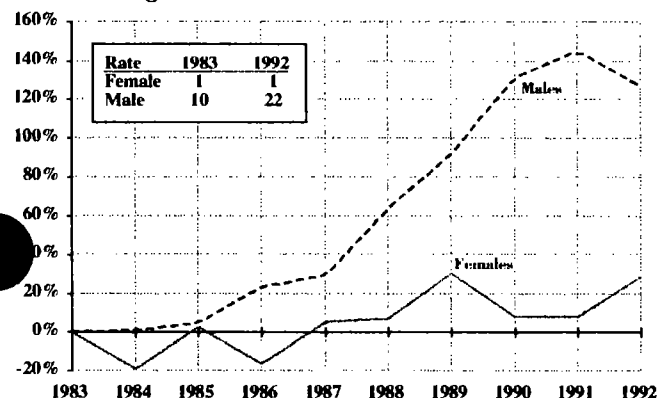
Property Crime Index

Percent change from 1983



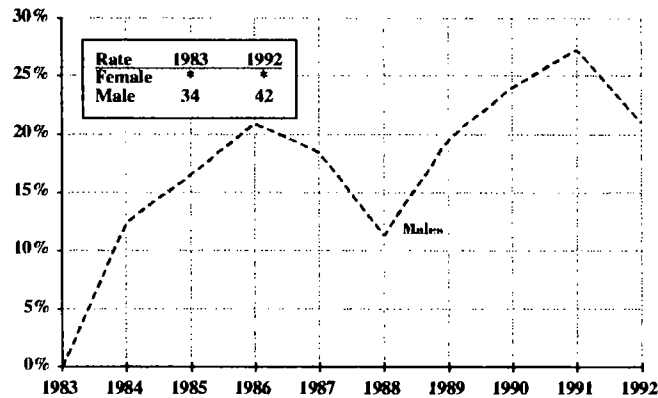
Murder

Percent change from 1983



Forcible Rape

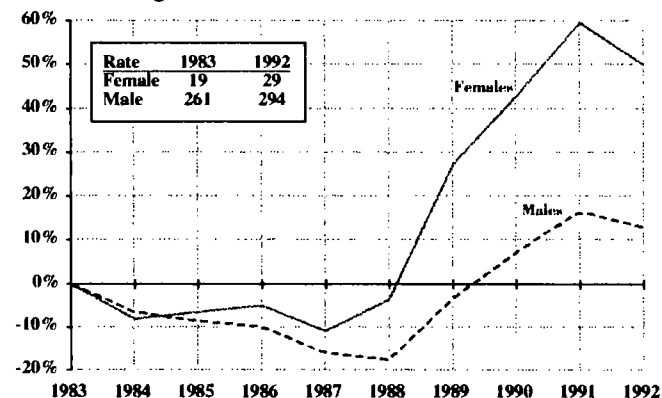
Percent change from 1983



* Female numbers are too small to produce reliable trends.

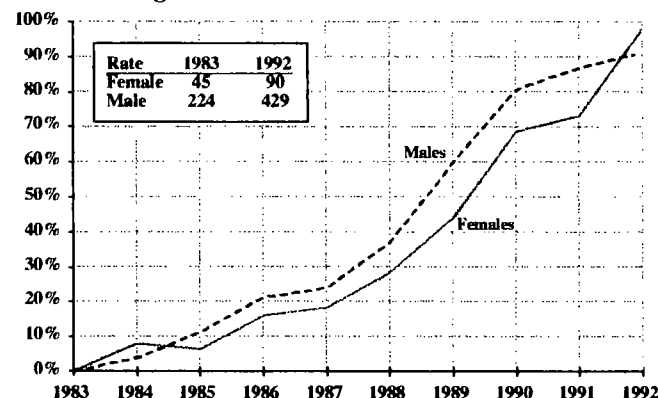
Robbery

Percent change from 1983



Aggravated Assault

Percent change from 1983

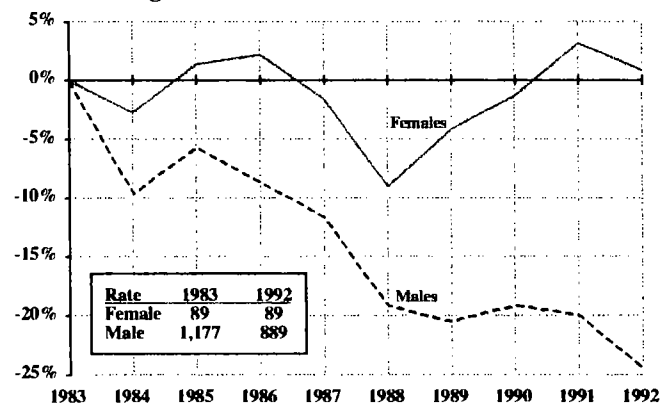


Note: Arrest rates are arrests per 100,000 males or females ages 10–17, based on data published by the FBI. FBI arrest rates, which use a base population of youth under age 18, have been recalculated with a base of youth ages 10–17. See Howard Snyder in "Arrests of Youth 1990," *OJJDP Update on Statistics*.

Figure 2: continued

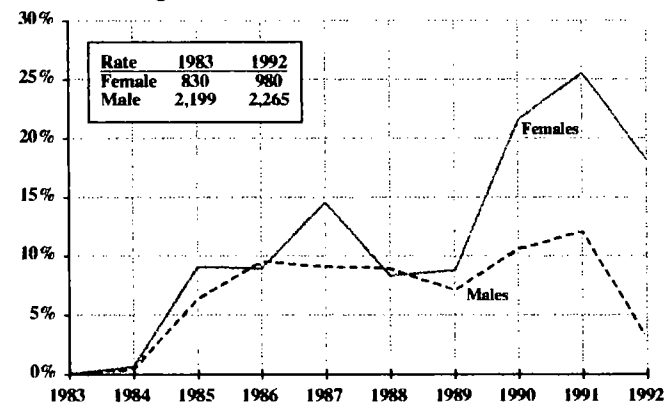
Burglary

Percent change from 1983



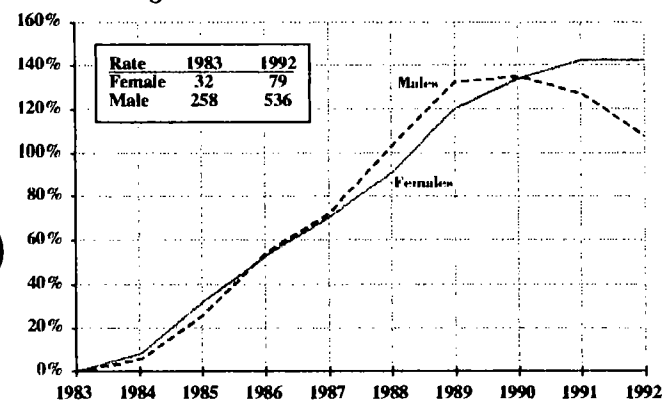
Larceny-Theft

Percent change from 1983



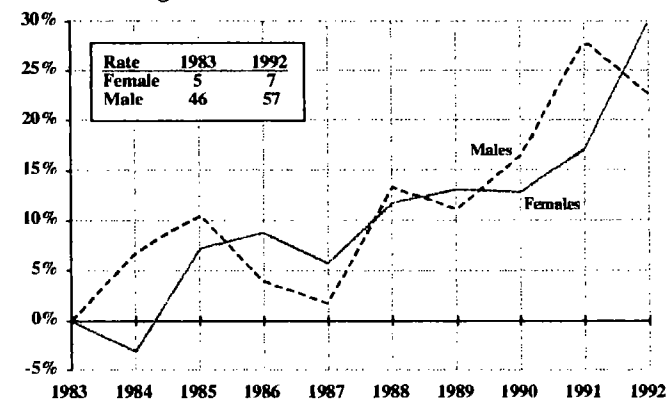
Motor Vehicle Theft

Percent change from 1983



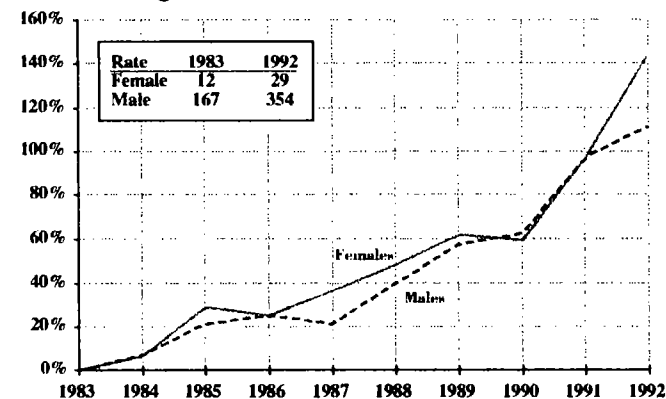
Arson

Percent change from 1983



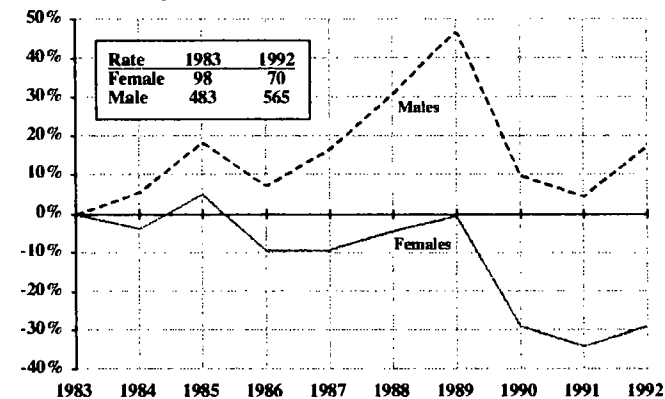
Weapons Law Violation

Percent change from 1983



Drug Abuse Violation

Percent change from 1983



Data Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation. Age-Specific and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses 1965-1992.

Female juveniles were responsible for 22% of all person offense cases in 1993.

In some offense categories, changes in female and male arrest rates were similar. For example, aggravated assault arrest rates for both females and males nearly doubled between 1983 and 1992. Robbery arrest rates for both females and males generally declined between 1983 and 1987, before increasing sharply between 1988 and 1991 and then declining slightly in 1992.

For other offenses, the female arrest rate remained relatively flat while the male arrest rate grew. For example, the arrest rate for murder more than doubled among male juveniles between 1983 and 1992, while the female rate fluctuated within a limited range during the entire 10-year period. Between 1983 and 1992 the drug arrest rate for females generally declined, while the rate for males increased sharply between 1983 and 1989 and then declined to a level comparable to that of the early 1980s.

For some offenses, changes in arrest rates were parallel for females and males during much of the past 10 years and diverged only recently. For example, burglary arrest rates generally declined from 1983 to 1988 for both females and males. Since 1988, however, the male arrest rate for burglary continued to drop while the arrest rate for females returned to the levels of the early 1980s. Arrest rates for motor vehicle theft jumped sharply between 1983 and 1989 for both females and males. Between 1989 and 1992, however, the male arrest rate began to decline but the female rate did not. Between 1983 and 1990 the increase in arrest rates for weapons offenses was comparable for females and males (59% and 63%). However, between 1990 and 1992 the weapons arrest rate increased more sharply among females than males.

Arrest Rates by Age

Between 1983 and 1992, the Violent Crime Index arrest rate increased substantially among individuals in nearly every age category (figure 3). In relative terms, the increase in the Violent Crime Index arrest rate was almost always greater among females than among males. While very few changes occurred in the Property Crime Index arrest rate between 1983 and 1992 for males under the age of 30, the arrest rate for females increased more markedly.

Female Offenders in the Juvenile Court

Juvenile courts in the United States handled an estimated 1,489,700 delinquency cases in 1993 (table 3). Females were involved in 20% of these cases, which nearly equaled the female proportion of juvenile arrests that year (24%). Female juveniles were responsible for 22% of all person offense cases, 20% of property offense cases, 12% of drug law violation cases, and 20% of public order offense cases (e.g., disorderly conduct, weapons offenses, liquor law violations). Females were most involved in cases of simple assault (28%) and larceny-theft (29%).

The female proportions of delinquency cases involving Violent and Property Crime Index offenses were almost equal to the female proportions of arrests for those offenses. In 1993, females were involved in 16% of juvenile court cases involving Violent Crime Index offenses compared with 14% of juvenile arrests

for those charges. Females accounted for 22% of juvenile court cases involving Property Crime Index offenses versus 24% of juvenile arrests for those offenses.

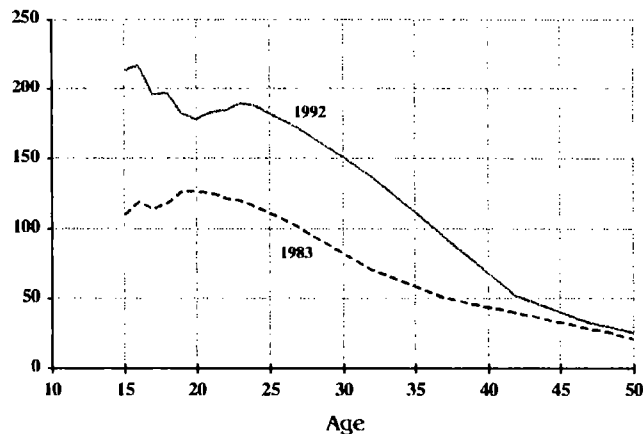
Delinquency Case Trends

As found in the preceding analysis of arrest trends, the number of juvenile court cases involving females increased more in relative terms between 1989 and 1993 than did the number of cases involving males. The total number of delinquency cases involving females increased by 31% between 1989 and 1993, while cases involving males increased by 21%. Growth in the delinquency caseload was greater among females than among males in cases involving person offenses and property offenses. By contrast, the number of cases involving drug law violations and public order offenses increased more among males than among females. In general, the relative growth in female and male delinquency cases paralleled the juvenile arrest trends shown above.

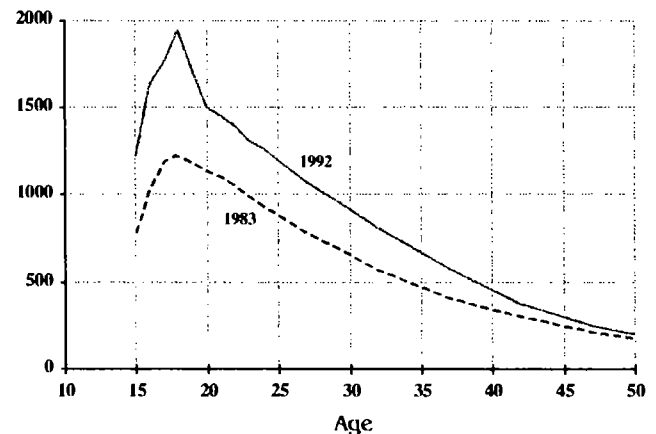
The total number of delinquency cases involving females increased by 31% between 1989 and 1993.

Figure 3: Arrest Rates by Sex and Age, 1983 and 1992

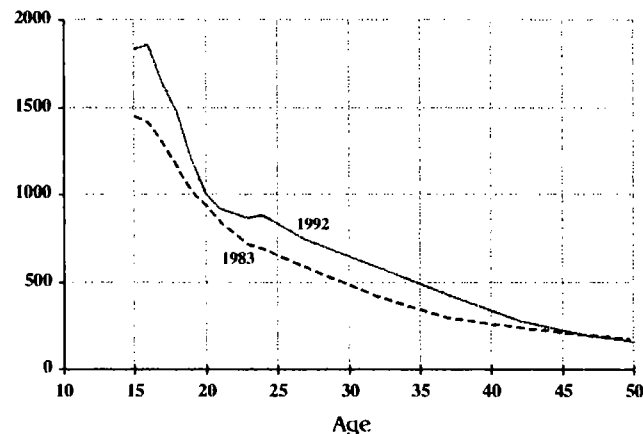
Female Violent Crime Index
Arrests per 100,000 females



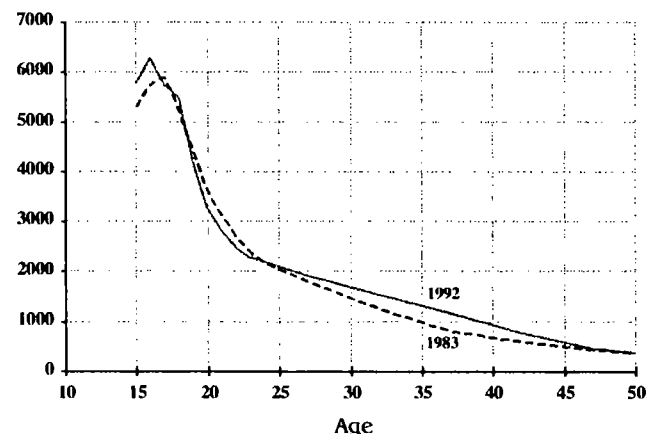
Male Violent Crime Index
Arrests per 100,000 males



Female Property Crime Index
Arrests per 100,000 females



Male Property Crime Index
Arrests per 100,000 males



Note: Arrest rates are arrests per 100,000 population in each age group.

Data Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation. *Age-Specific and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses 1965-1992*.

Court Processing

At all stages of juvenile court processing, delinquency cases involving female youth received less severe outcomes than cases involving males. For example, females referred to juvenile court were less likely than males to be formally processed with the filing of a delinquency petition (figure 4). Females were most likely to be petitioned for cases involving public order offenses, while cases involving males were petitioned most often for drug law violations (table 4). Between 1989 and 1993, the likelihood of formal handling increased slightly for both females (from 41% to 43%) and males (from 53% to 56%).

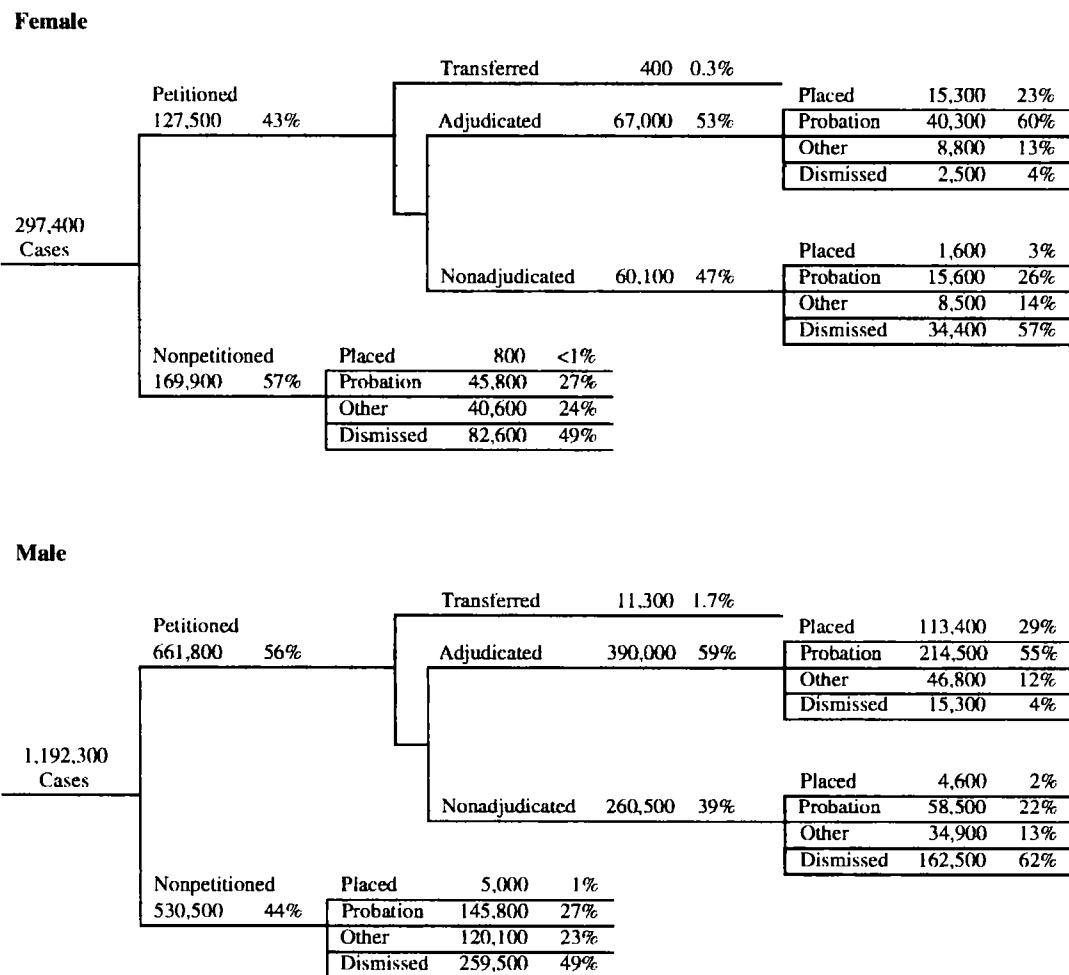
Table 3: Delinquency Cases by Most Serious Offense and Sex, 1993

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases		Percent Female	Percent Change 1989-1993	
	Total	Female		Female	Male
Total Cases	1,489,700	297,400	20%	31 %	21 %
Person Offense	318,800	70,400	22	68	49
Criminal homicide	2,800	200	8	6	49
Forcible rape	6,100	200	3	92	47
Robbery	35,600	3,200	9	62	55
Aggravated assault	77,500	16,200	21	84	53
Simple assault	166,400	46,300	28	66	46
Other violent sex offense	10,900	500	5	70	63
Other person offense	19,300	3,800	20	42	33
Property Offense	808,900	161,000	20	25	12
Burglary	149,700	13,300	9	20	13
Larceny-theft	353,700	102,800	29	24	7
Motor vehicle theft	61,100	10,200	17	10	-13
Arson	8,200	1,000	12	27	20
Vandalism	117,100	12,200	10	43	41
Trespassing	60,500	10,000	16	23	22
Stolen property offense	27,400	3,000	11	22	15
Other property offense	31,300	8,500	27	52	23
Drug Law Violation	89,100	11,000	12	1	16
Public Order Offense	272,800	54,900	20	19	25
Obstruction of justice	96,000	22,100	23	12	19
Disorderly conduct	71,200	17,200	24	67	44
Weapons offense	47,200	4,300	9	120	85
Liquor law violation	13,200	3,500	27	-17	-16
Nonviolent sex offense	10,900	1,000	10	-21	-10
Other public order	34,400	6,800	20	-19	-3
Violent Crime Index	122,000	19,800	16	79	53
Property Crime Index	572,600	127,300	22	22	6

Note: National estimates of juvenile delinquency cases are generated annually for the *Juvenile Court Statistics* series. For information on the procedures used to generate the estimates, see the methods section in this *Update* or in *Juvenile Court Statistics 1993*. Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Percentages are calculated on unrounded numbers.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Figure 4: Juvenile Court Processing of Delinquency Cases by Sex, 1993



Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1993* [machine-readable data file].

Table 4: Juvenile Court Processing of Delinquency Cases by Sex, 1993

Most Serious Offense	Percent of Cases Petitioned		Percent of Petitioned Cases Adjudicated	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total Cases	43%	56%	53%	59%
Person	47	60	49	55
Property	38	53	51	60
Drugs	49	63	53	60
Public order	51	56	60	62

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1993* [machine-readable data file].

Adjudicated females were more likely than males to be placed on formal probation.

When handled formally, delinquency cases involving female juveniles were also less likely to result in juvenile court adjudication. In 1993, 53% of petitioned cases involving female juveniles were adjudicated compared with 59% of cases involving males. For both females and males, the probability of adjudication was greatest in cases involving public order offenses. The probability of adjudication decreased slightly between 1989 and 1993 for formally handled cases involving females as well as for those involving males.

Offense Characteristics

Person offenses accounted for 24% of all female delinquency cases in 1993 compared with 21% of cases involving males (table 5). Both the female and male caseloads included a higher proportion of person offenses in 1993 than in 1989. Among all adjudicated cases between 1989 and 1993, person offense cases grew from 18% to 24% of the female caseload and from 17% to 21% of the male caseload.

Probation Caseloads

Adjudicated females were more likely than males to be placed on formal probation. Probation was the most restrictive disposition ordered by juvenile courts in 60% of adjudicated delinquency cases involving females in 1993 compared with 55% of cases involving males (table 6). This pattern occurred in all offense categories. The likelihood of probation was virtually unchanged between 1989 and 1993 for both females and males.

Table 5: Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases at Various Stages of Court Processing by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Total Cases				
Person	18%	24%	17%	21%
Property	57	54	59	54
Drugs	5	4	7	7
Public order	20	18	18	18
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Petitioned				
Person	20%	26%	19%	23%
Property	51	48	56	52
Drugs	6	4	8	8
Public order	23	22	17	18
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Adjudicated				
Person	18%	24%	17%	21%
Property	50	46	57	52
Drugs	6	4	9	8
Public order	26	25	17	19
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

In recent years, the female probation caseload increased more than that of male probationers. Between 1989 and 1993, the number of adjudicated delinquency cases in which probation was the most restrictive disposition increased by 26% for females and 16% for males (table 7). Increases in the number of cases resulting in probation occurred in three of the four general offense categories for females, with person offense cases showing the greatest increase.

Criminal Court Transfers

Delinquency cases involving females were far less likely to be transferred to the criminal (adult) courts than were cases involving males. In 1993, 0.3% of formally processed cases involving females were judicially transferred to criminal court compared with 1.7% of formal cases involving males. Between 1989 and 1993, relatively little change occurred in the likelihood of criminal court transfer for either males or females.

Delinquency cases involving females were far less likely to be transferred to the criminal (adult) courts than were cases involving males.

Table 6: Percent of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Formal Probation by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Total Cases	60%	60%	56%	55%
Person	63	61	55	54
Property	62	62	58	58
Drugs	61	60	55	53
Public order	53	55	50	50

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Table 7: Percent Change in Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Formal Probation by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases		Percent Change
	1989	1993	
Female	31,900	40,300	26%
Person	6,200	10,000	62
Property	16,600	19,400	17
Drugs	1,900	1,700	-11
Public order	7,200	9,300	29
Male	185,100	214,500	16%
Person	31,000	43,900	42
Property	109,700	117,300	7
Drugs	15,700	15,800	1
Public order	28,700	37,500	30

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Secure detention was used between referral and disposition in 16% of delinquency cases involving females.

Female Juvenile Offenders in Custody

Females were less likely than males to be removed from their homes and taken into custody either before or after juvenile court adjudication. In other words, females were less likely than males to experience either short-term custody (detention) or long-term custody (commitment and out-of-home placement).

Short-Term Custody (Detention)

In 1993, secure detention was used at some point between referral and disposition in 16% of delinquency cases involving females compared with 22% of cases involving males (table 8). The likelihood of detention changed very little between 1989 and 1993 for either sex. The largest relative change was in the proportion of drug cases involving detention, which fell from 27% to 23% for females and from 38% to 32% for males. Females and males were least likely to be detained in cases involving property offenses. Males were most likely to be detained in drug offense cases (32%), while the greatest use of detention for females occurred in both drug offense and public order offense cases (23%).

Despite the lower likelihood of detention for female juvenile offenders, the number of juvenile court cases involving detained females increased more in relative terms than the number of detention cases involving males. The number of female detention cases increased by 23% between 1989 and 1993, while the corresponding increase for males was 18% (table 9). Growth in female property offense cases involving detention was more than double the growth among male cases. However, the number of drug offense cases involving detention declined more among females than among males.

Offense Profiles. The offense profile of the juvenile detention population changed slightly between 1989 and 1993. Person offenses increased both as a proportion of delinquency cases involving detention and as a proportion of juveniles held in public detention facilities. In 1993, person offenses accounted for 25% of female delinquency cases involving detention, up from 21% in 1989 (table 10). Person offenses were also more common in the male detention caseload, accounting for 25% of delinquency cases involving detention in 1993 versus 20% of detention cases in 1989.

Table 8: Percent of Delinquency Cases Detained by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Total Cases	17%	16%	22%	22%
Person	19	17	27	25
Property	12	12	18	18
Drugs	27	23	38	32
Public order	25	23	26	25

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Table 9: Percent Change in Delinquency Cases Involving Secure Detention by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Cases		Percent Change
	1989	1993	
Female	38,400	47,100	23%
Person	8,100	11,900	47
Property	15,900	20,000	26
Drugs	3,000	2,600	-13
Public order	11,400	12,700	11
Male	217,900	256,600	18%
Person	44,600	63,200	42
Property	102,400	114,300	12
Drugs	25,200	24,800	-2
Public order	45,700	54,300	19

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Table 10: Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases Involving Secure Detention and Juveniles Detained in Public Facilities by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Delinquency Cases Involving Detention				
Person	21%	25%	20%	25%
Property	41	43	47	45
Drugs	8	5	12	10
Public order*	30	27	21	21
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Juveniles Detained in Public Facilities				
Person	16%	29%	25%	37%
Property	33	28	39	30
Drugs	9	6	14	9
Public order	15	14	10	11
Probation/parole violation	26	24	13	12
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

* Includes probation/parole violations.

Note: Offense profiles of detained juveniles are based on 1-day counts of juveniles charged with delinquent offenses, excluding juveniles with "unknown" offenses. Unknown offenses accounted for 4% of juveniles detained in public facilities in 1989 and 15% in 1993. Percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding.

Data Sources: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files]. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. *Census of Private and Public Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Female offenders were less likely than males to be ordered to an out-of-home placement.

The same pattern was found in 1-day counts of youth detained in public correctional facilities. Between 1989 and 1993, juveniles charged with person offenses increased from 16% to 29% of females held under detention status in public facilities. Person offenses also increased as a proportion of the detained male population. On the other hand, juveniles charged with property offenses declined as a proportion of detained females as well as males. One of the most striking gender differences in the offense profiles of detained juveniles was the percentage of cases in which the most serious alleged charge was a violation of probation or parole (aftercare). In 1993, 24% of females detained were charged with probation and parole violations compared with 12% of male juveniles.

Long-Term Custody (Commitment)

Female offenders were less likely than males to be ordered to an out-of-home placement following juvenile court adjudication and disposition. Placement was the most restrictive disposition in 23% of adjudicated delinquency cases involving females in 1993 compared with 29% of cases involving males (table 11). Placement was less common for females regardless of the seriousness of the offense charged against the youth. The likelihood of placement declined slightly between 1989 and 1993 for adjudicated females and males and across most offense categories.

In 1993, the number of male delinquency cases that resulted in out-of-home placement greatly outnumbered placement cases involving females. Although the number of placement cases increased by 11% for both females and males between 1989 and 1993, increases varied across offense categories (table 12). The increase in the number of female person offense cases involving placement was nearly double the increase among males. However, the decline in the number of drug offense cases involving placement was substantially greater for females than males.

Offense Profiles. The offense profiles of committed juveniles were similar to those of the detained population discussed above. Among youth involved in juvenile court placement cases, an increasing proportion was charged with

Table 11: Percent of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Total Cases	26%	23%	31%	29%
Person	25	24	35	32
Property	20	18	26	26
Drugs	30	23	36	30
Public order	37	31	39	35

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

person offenses. Between 1989 and 1993, juveniles charged with person offenses increased from 17% to 25% of all females involved in placement cases and from 19% to 23% of males (table 13).

Table 12: Percent Change in Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Cases		Percent Change
	1989	1993	
Female	13,700	15,300	11%
Person	2,400	3,800	60
Property	5,400	5,600	5
Drugs	1,000	700	-32
Public order	5,000	5,200	4
Male	101,900	113,400	11%
Person	19,600	26,200	34
Property	49,700	52,300	5
Drugs	10,400	9,000	-14
Public order	22,300	26,100	17

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Data Source: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Table 13: Offense Profile of Adjudicated Delinquency Cases Resulting in Out-of-Home Placement and Juveniles Committed to Public and Private Facilities by Sex, 1989 and 1993

Most Serious Offense	Female		Male	
	1989	1993	1989	1993
Delinquency Cases Involving Placement				
Person	17%	25%	19%	23%
Property	39	37	49	46
Drugs	7	4	10	8
Public order*	36	34	22	23
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Juveniles Committed to Public and Private Facilities				
Person	23%	31%	28%	40%
Property	46	45	50	39
Drugs	8	8	11	11
Public order	11	9	6	6
Probation/parole violation	11	7	6	5
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

* Includes probation/parole violations.

Note: Offense profiles of committed juveniles are based on 1-day counts of juveniles charged with delinquent offenses, excluding juveniles with "unknown" offenses. Unknown offenses accounted for 3% of committed juveniles in 1989 and 7% in 1993. Percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding.

Data Sources: National Center for Juvenile Justice. *National Juvenile Court Data Archive: Juvenile Court Case Records 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files]. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. *Census of Private and Public Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Juvenile crime is still predominantly a male problem.

As reflected by 1-day counts of youth held in public and private facilities in 1989 and 1993, juveniles charged with person offenses also increased as a proportion of all committed youth. Person offenses grew from 23% to 31% of the committed female population and from 28% to 40% of committed males. Juveniles charged with property offenses declined as a proportion of committed juvenile offenders, both for females and males.

State Variations

In 1992, females represented 20% or more of juvenile detention admissions to public facilities in 27 States and the District of Columbia (table 14).³ Overall, the number of detention admissions involving female juvenile offenders increased by 3% between 1988 and 1992. The largest relative increases in female detention admissions were seen in Louisiana, Massachusetts, Montana, and New York.⁴ Substantial decreases (greater than 50%) were reported by several other jurisdictions, including Delaware, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Rhode Island, and Wyoming.

Females were less prevalent among juvenile commitment admissions to public facilities, accounting for 20% or more of the admissions in only nine jurisdictions.⁵ Three States—Delaware, Massachusetts, and Vermont—reported no female commitment admissions to public facilities in 1992. The highest proportions of females among commitment admissions to public facilities were reported by the District of Columbia (39%), Oklahoma (33%), Wyoming (33%), and South Dakota (26%). The largest relative increases in female commitment admissions were seen in the District of Columbia, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, and Idaho, while the largest relative decreases occurred in Colorado, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and South Dakota.

Conclusion

The findings of this study support the popular contention that female delinquency has increased relatively more than male delinquency in recent years. Of course, juvenile crime is still predominantly a male problem. More than three-quarters of juvenile arrests and juvenile court delinquency cases involve males. If recent trends continue, however, female delinquents will occupy even more of the time and attention of policymakers, service providers, court officials, law enforcement agencies, and communities.

3. Information collected in the CIC census reflects the total number of admissions for the preceding year. Thus, data from the 1989 census are for 1988 admissions, and the 1993 census reflects 1992 admissions.

4. Very large percentage increases in female admissions reported by smaller States are often the result of the number of admissions being very low in 1989.

5. Admissions data reflect publicly operated facilities only. Because some jurisdictions employ private providers for residential placement of juvenile offenders, these data may represent neither the entire juvenile correctional population of a given State nor its overall placement practices. See the methods section of this *Summary* for further information.

Table 14: Juvenile Detention and Commitment Admissions to Public Facilities by State, 1988-1992

State (Number of Facilities)	Detention Admissions					Commitment Admissions				
	Total	Female	Percent Female	Percent Change: 1988-1992		Total	Female	Percent Female	Percent Change: 1988-1992	
				Female	Male				Female	Male
Total U.S. (1,025)	532,683	99,571	19%	3%	8%	138,661	14,998	11%	3%	19%
Alabama (16)	7,986	1,462	18	-19	28	2,303	261	11	-29	1
Alaska (5)	1,350	355	26	7	-18	97	12	12	-48	-4
Arizona (14)	15,312	3,004	20	63	15	2,115	292	14	50	-41
Arkansas (10)	4,253	783	18	58	115	1,107	75	7	-35	-8
California (103)	128,974	17,698	14	0	7	47,690	2,964	6	10	39
Colorado (9)	12,759	2,269	18	34	52	641	6	1	-73	180
Connecticut (4)	3,021	668	22	39	10	472	97	21	21	31
Delaware (3)	711	92	13	-53	-18	327	0	0	—	57
District of Columbia (4)	365	150	41	-84	-97	370	143	39	500+	-59
Florida (49)	33,498	4,857	14	-14	-12	3,397	372	11	-38	-14
Georgia (28)	19,723	4,539	23	10	22	1,430	250	17	-37	-50
Hawaii (2)	1,304	477	37	-62	-54	222	31	14	15	-6
Idaho (3)	686	114	17	-35	-16	536	117	22	244	79
Illinois (19)	11,786	1,447	12	-32	-21	7,275	341	5	-17	38
Indiana (31)	13,599	3,465	25	9	9	3,230	642	20	-34	0
Iowa (13)	2,431	762	31	-31	-35	1,086	243	22	51	55
Kansas (13)	5,703	1,502	26	39	78	778	88	11	-54	14
Kentucky (27)	4,361	926	21	-24	57	2,299	381	17	127	157
Louisiana (15)	7,425	1,305	18	102	134	1,195	75	6	-29	-16
Maine (1)	299	56	19	-3	-5	255	35	14	40	-11
Maryland (13)	5,364	723	13	-32	-12	1,118	61	5	-59	-21
Massachusetts (10)	1,857	321	17	120	-20	609	0	0	-100	-63
Michigan (43)	15,936	3,189	20	10	8	1,995	279	14	-19	-2
Minnesota (18)	7,722	1,765	23	22	7	2,400	290	12	100	14
Mississippi (9)	3,045	1,047	34	-19	-42	1,587	156	10	81	75
Missouri (45)	8,962	2,221	25	-19	-7	1,878	266	14	8	54
Montana (6)	414	140	34	500+	500+	481	113	23	-16	7
Nebraska (4)	2,632	450	17	-32	24	456	71	16	-8	-15
Nevada (9)	8,201	2,593	32	45	10	1,043	141	14	38	30
New Hampshire (2)	429	85	20	12	80	174	28	16	-15	-24
New Jersey (46)	12,224	1,874	15	-10	-14	2,362	78	3	-66	-15
New Mexico (14)	6,532	1,159	18	16	14	1,646	241	15	59	21
New York (65)	6,566	1,845	28	107	-22	4,499	534	12	-4	30
North Carolina (24)	5,668	1,844	33	-3	6	982	163	17	-46	-43
North Dakota (3)	419	139	33	-8	23	390	57	15	8	152
Ohio (62)	35,956	9,075	25	-7	11	10,134	1,920	19	23	25
Oklahoma (16)	3,774	880	23	-25	3	1,889	622	33	368	456
Oregon (13)	7,992	1,380	17	-13	39	1,999	174	9	1	-10
Pennsylvania (34)	14,794	1,370	9	2	17	1,171	108	9	-1	-21
Rhode Island (1)	324	82	25	-59	-56	644	89	14	256	296
South Carolina (9)	2,776	489	18	-27	10	1,306	254	19	27	33
South Dakota (6)	2,327	723	31	29	37	347	91	26	-61	-8
Tennessee (23)	17,349	4,214	24	-2	15	1,605	200	12	-30	-27
Texas (55)	34,316	5,421	16	13	39	5,865	414	7	0	23
Utah (16)	8,405	1,877	22	45	51	1,630	296	18	164	146
Vermont (1)	285	50	18	25	40	4	0	0	—	-71
Virginia (58)	16,277	3,197	20	17	31	2,911	464	16	-41	31
Washington (30)	15,153	2,794	18	44	-4	8,508	1,230	14	50	16
West Virginia (6)	801	131	16	-42	-19	563	53	9	18	8
Wisconsin (13)	10,631	2,556	24	91	84	1,406	102	7	-45	81
Wyoming (2)	6	6	100	-63	-100	234	78	33	-43	-31

Note: Figures in parentheses are the number of public facilities reporting 1992 data in each jurisdiction in 1993.

Data Source: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. *Census of Private and Public Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities 1989 and 1993* [machine-readable data files].

Related Reading

For more information about the National Center for Juvenile Justice, write to 710 Fifth Avenue, Pittsburgh, PA 15219-3000, or call 412-227-6950. To obtain *Juvenile Court Statistics*, other publications using data from the National Juvenile Court Data Archive, or any reports that focus on juvenile justice statistics, contact the Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse (related readings appear below).

For more information about juvenile justice issues, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention offers many **free** (up to five) and fee titles that can be ordered by juvenile justice professionals. Write the Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse, P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20849-6000, call 800-638-8736, or e-mail askncjrs@ncjrs.org.

Delinquency Prevention Works (Program Summary), November 1995, NCJ 155006.

How Juveniles Get to Criminal Court (Update on Statistics), October 1994, NCJ 150039.

Juvenile Court Statistics 1992 (Statistics Report), June 1996, NCJ 154168.

Juvenile Court's Response to Violent Offenders: 1985-1989 (Update on Statistics), April 1993, NCJ 139558.

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: A National Report, August 1995, NCJ 153569.

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 1996 Update on Violence (Statistics Summary), February 1996, NCJ 159107.

Juveniles Taken Into Custody: Fiscal Year 1993 (Statistics Report), September 1995, NCJ 154022.

Matrix of Community-Based Initiatives (Program Summary), Updated September 1995, NCJ 154816.

Offenders in Juvenile Court, 1993 (Update on Statistics), June 1996, NCJ 160945.

What Works: Promising Interventions in Juvenile Justice (Program Report), October 1994, NCJ 150858. \$19.00 (U.S.), \$23.00 (Canada), \$30.00 (other countries).

A topical literature search of the NCJRS data base on female juvenile offenders is also available (TS 021529) for \$5.00 (U.S./Canada) or \$7.50 (other countries).

Methods

Juvenile Arrests

The FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program collects information on arrests made by local law enforcement agencies throughout the United States. The data can be separated into arrests involving persons under and over the age of 18 and arrests involving males versus those involving females. The arrest statistics generated by the UCR Program are based on the experience of a large number of law enforcement agencies. However, not all agencies are able to participate in the UCR. Furthermore, some agencies are unable to report data in enough detail to support analyses of arrests by age and sex. In 1993, arrest data by age and sex were reported by police agencies with jurisdiction over 83% of the U.S. population.

This study presents national estimates of the number of arrests involving persons under the age of 18. The FBI does not calculate national estimates for arrests involving persons under the age of 18, but its annual publication *Crime in the United States* provides national estimates for the total number of arrests for various offenses. The arrest estimates for persons under the age of 18 presented in this study were developed by deriving the proportion of youth arrests in each offense category from data reported by UCR-participating jurisdictions and applying that proportion to the UCR national estimate of total arrests for that offense.

Similarly, the FBI publishes arrest rates (see *Age-Specific Arrest Rates and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses 1965-1992*) that are calculated as the number of juvenile arrests per 100,000 persons under the age of 18. The arrest rates used in this study are based on rates published by the FBI but are recalculated using a population base of persons ages 10-17. These rates are preferred because very few arrests involve persons under the age of 10.

Juvenile Delinquency Cases

National estimates of juvenile delinquency cases are generated by the National Juvenile Court Data Archive and published annually in a series of reports titled *Juvenile Court Statistics*.⁶ Sponsored by OJJDP, the National Juvenile Court Data Archive collects data about juvenile court cases from State and local agencies throughout the Nation. Data are collected in two forms—detailed case-level data and aggregate court-level data. In 1993, case-level data describing each case's demographic and processing characteristics were obtained from 1,375 jurisdictions in 26 States. Combined, these jurisdictions contained 49% of the Nation's juvenile population (i.e., youth age 10 through the upper age of juvenile court jurisdiction) and handled 689,505 delinquency cases in 1993. Aggregate court-level data (e.g., number of cases handled per year) were collected

6. The latest report in the series is: Jeffrey A. Butts, Howard N. Snyder, Terrence A. Finnegan, Anne L. Aughenbaugh, and Rowen S. Poole. *Juvenile Court Statistics 1993*. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. 1996.

from an additional 443 jurisdictions in 6 States. In all, the 1993 national estimates of delinquency cases were based on data from 1,818 jurisdictions containing 67% of the Nation's juvenile population.

National estimates of juvenile court cases are developed by weighting the archive's case-level and court-level data with weights that incorporate key characteristics known to affect juvenile court caseloads—the upper age of the juvenile court's jurisdiction in each State and the age and race composition of the juvenile population in each U.S. county. The basic assumption underlying the estimation procedure is that the volume and characteristics of juvenile court caseloads are shaped by the same set of factors in reporting and nonreporting jurisdictions of similar size and demographic profile. A more complete description of the estimation procedure appears in each *Juvenile Court Statistics* report.

Juvenile Correctional Populations

Sponsored by OJJDP, the Census of Public and Private Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities is conducted biannually by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. More commonly known as Children in Custody (or CIC), the census is designed to provide facility-based admissions and 1-day counts of youth held in public and private residential centers, such as detention centers, reception and/or diagnostic facilities, shelters, training schools, camps, ranches, and group homes. Detention centers operated as part of adult jails, drug abuse treatment centers, and foster homes are not included in the census. Data are provided through questionnaires completed by facility administrators or other personnel. The data analyzed in this study represent 1988 and 1992 juvenile admissions to short-term and long-term public facilities and 1-day counts of all youth held in either public or private facilities on the 1989 and 1993 census reference dates (February 15 and 16, respectively). Only juveniles charged with delinquency offenses were included in the analyses. Status offenders and nonoffenders were excluded.

Data Table 1: Juvenile Arrest Rates by Sex, 1973-1992

Violent Crime Index

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	57.9	68.4	68.1	65.9	64.1	67.8	68.0	71.1	69.9	69.3
Male	509.7	568.6	547.6	527.6	530.7	600.6	582.0	593.3	574.4	561.2

Murder

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.1
Male	12.1	12.1	10.0	10.7	11.1	11.0	11.3	11.6	12.6	11.9

Rape

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	—	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6
Male	31.5	32.7	27.3	28.9	29.9	30.6	33.4	30.8	31.2	33.7

Robbery

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	21.1	24.8	25.1	21.9	21.6	23.1	22.1	23.9	23.4	20.9
Male	276.6	310.5	293.0	263.9	264.9	316.7	288.4	307.1	296.2	279.7

Aggravated Assault

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	35.4	41.8	41.4	42.2	40.9	42.9	44.3	45.5	44.8	46.9
Male	189.3	213.3	217.3	223.9	224.5	242.5	248.8	243.7	234.2	235.8

Weapons

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	8.8	10.5	9.6	10.3	10.5	10.0	11.1	10.6	11.3	13.0
Male	152.5	170.3	146.4	150.5	147.6	153.9	170.5	171.4	177.1	174.6

Note: Arrest rates are arrests per 100,000 males or females ages 10-17, based on data published by the FBI. FBI arrest rates, which use a base population of youth under age 18, have been recalculated with a base of youth ages 10-17. See Howard Snyder in *Arrests of Youth 1990*. O J J D P U p d a t e o n S t a t i s t i c s .

Data Table 1: continued

Property Crime Index

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Female	891.6	1143.5	1089.9	1034.9	1075.3	1082.7	1068.3	1005.3	976.9	978.0	955.8	960.7	1043.8	1049.5	1097.9	1047.2	1064.8	1177.4	1217.4	1154.7
Male	3768.1	4670.0	4463.1	4263.0	4284.0	4403.0	4367.8	4234.2	4031.4	3908.7	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8	3688.8

Burglary

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	75.4	94.8	99.4	93.9	104.4	108.8	113.8	107.5	101.3	98.1
Male	1354.1	1648.5	1683.1	1552.4	1560.7	1623.7	1540.8	1498.5	1420.8	1326.3

Larceny—Theft

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	775.7	1003.7	946.7	896.2	916.2	916.1	893.3	845.5	830.4	836.8
Male	1848.3	2443.4	2277.4	2216.1	2201.4	2248.2	2308.3	2291.0	2236.3	2250.2

Motor Vehicle Theft

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	35.6	39.1	38.2	39.4	49.3	51.8	54.8	46.0	39.6	36.7
Male	516.5	523.8	450.4	441.0	470.0	476.3	460.6	391.8	320.0	286.5

Arson

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	4.9	5.9	5.6	5.4	5.5	5.9	6.4	6.2	5.7	6.4
Male	49.3	54.3	52.2	53.5	51.8	54.7	58.1	52.8	54.2	45.6

Drugs

Year	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Female	197.7	216.3	166.1	162.2	160.6	167.8	140.0	130.4	119.1	106.0
Male	865.2	1001.6	805.2	800.9	785.9	808.2	682.2	627.0	596.8	524.9

Note: Arrest rates are arrests per 100,000 males or females ages 10-17, based on data published by the FBI, recalculated with a base of youth arrests of 1990. Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of the Census, *Arrests of Youth 1990*, SOE 2 JED PwUap d Stanyone Statistics.

Data Table 2: Arrest Rates by Sex and Age, 1983 and 1992

Ages	Violent Crimes Index				Property Crimes Index			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	1983	1992	1983	1992	1983	1992	1983	1992
13-14	65.5	144.8	400.2	681.3	1071.5	1443.2	3560.2	4008.9
15	110.5	214.1	783.1	1210.3	1456.0	1829.3	5298.7	5780.8
16	119.5	217.4	1037.1	1620.6	1413.5	1858.2	5813.5	6272.7
17	114.8	195.3	1196.1	1757.2	1293.4	1639.6	5905.4	5741.5
18	119.3	196.6	1231.3	1943.9	1145.2	1471.1	5214.7	5491.7
19	127.5	182.5	1183.7	1697.7	1019.6	1200.7	4347.9	4130.2
20	127.5	178.0	1138.4	1499.7	939.6	1005.9	3569.5	3241.1
21	126.5	183.8	1102.8	1441.1	841.4	919.9	3104.3	2793.9
22	121.8	185.0	1045.2	1384.8	772.3	885.1	2678.6	2465.5
23	120.9	189.1	987.0	1304.7	718.2	863.2	2406.5	2280.1
24	115.9	188.2	929.8	1263.0	689.8	882.1	2183.7	2193.6
25-29	101.5	171.8	785.0	1071.6	585.7	740.7	1794.4	1905.2
30-34	71.1	137.7	567.6	810.8	419.0	588.5	1265.9	1541.6
35-39	51.0	94.8	407.1	575.0	295.7	426.4	816.3	1154.5
40-44	39.6	51.5	302.5	374.8	243.6	275.3	596.1	757.9
45-49	29.2	32.8	214.8	247.3	196.7	190.5	441.0	451.8
50-54	16.9	21.1	148.7	172.5	164.0	144.5	336.9	300.7
55-59	10.4	12.1	97.1	112.7	123.7	107.0	242.0	200.0
60-64	6.2	6.1	66.0	71.8	93.9	82.6	173.8	140.6

Note: Arrest rates are arrests per 100,000 population in each group.

Data Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation. *Age-Specific and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses 1965-1992*.

Publications From OJJDP

Delinquency Prevention

Combating Violence and Delinquency: The National Juvenile Justice Action Plan. 1996, NCJ 157105 (36 pp.).

Combating Violence and Delinquency: The National Juvenile Justice Action Plan (Full Report). 1996, NCJ 157106 (200 pp.).

Delinquency Prevention Works. 1995, NCJ 155006 (74 pp.).

Family Life, Delinquency, and Crime: A Policymaker's Guide. 1994, NCJ 140517 (65 pp.).

Family Strengthening in Preventing Delinquency—A Literature Review. 1994, NCJ 150222 (76 pp.), \$13.00.

Matrix of Community-Based Initiatives. 1995, NCJ 154816 (51 pp.).

Strengthening America's Families: Promising Parenting Strategies for Delinquency Prevention. 1993, NCJ 140781 (105 pp.), \$9.15.

What Works: Promising Interventions in Juvenile Justice. 1994, NCJ 150858 (248 pp.), \$19.00.

Missing and Exploited Children

Addressing Confidentiality of Records in Searches for Missing Children (Full Report). 1995, NCJ 155183 (284 pp.), \$15.00.

The Compendium of the North American Symposium on International Child Abduction: How To Handle International Child Abduction Cases. 1993, NCJ 148137 (928 pp.), \$17.50.

Missing, Abducted, Runaway, and Thrownaway Children in America, First Report: Numbers and Characteristics, National Incidence Studies (Full Report). 1990, NCJ 123668 (251 pp.), \$14.40.

Obstacles to the Recovery and Return of Parentally Abducted Children. 1994, NCJ 143458 (21 pp.).

Obstacles to the Recovery and Return of Parentally Abducted Children (Full Report). 1993, NCJ 144535 (877 pp.), \$22.80.

Parental Abductors: Four Interviews (Video). 1993, NCJ 147866 (43 min.), \$12.50.

Using Agency Records to Find Missing Children: A Guide for Law Enforcement. 1995, NCJ 154633 (20 pp.).

Status Offenders

Curfew: An Answer to Juvenile Delinquency and Victimization? 1996, NCJ 159533 (11 pp.).

Unlocking the Doors for Status Offenders: The State of the States. 1995, NCJ 160803 (85 pp.), \$16.50.

Law Enforcement

Law Enforcement Custody of Juveniles (Video). 1992, NCJ 137387 (31 min.), \$13.50.

Law Enforcement Policies and Practices Regarding Missing Children and Homeless Youth. 1993, NCJ 145644 (25 pp.).

Law Enforcement Policies and Practices Regarding Missing Children and Homeless Youth (Full Report). 1993, NCJ 143397 (217 pp.), \$13.00.

Courts

The Child Victim as a Witness, Research Report. 1994, NCJ 149172 (143 pp.).

Helping Victims and Witnesses in the Juvenile Justice System: A Program Handbook. 1991, NCJ 139731 (282 pp.), \$15.00.

How Juveniles Get to Criminal Court. 1994, NCJ 150309 (5 pp.).

Juvenile Court Statistics 1993. 1996, NCJ 159535 (98 pp.).

Offenders in Juvenile Court. 1993, 1996, NCJ 160945 (12 pp.).

Gangs

Gang Suppression and Intervention: An Assessment (Full Report). 1994, NCJ 146494 (197 pp.), \$15.00.

Gang Suppression and Intervention: Community Models. 1994, NCJ 148202 (26 pp.).

Gang Suppression and Intervention: Problem and Response. 1994, NCJ 149629 (21 pp.).

Rising Above Gangs and Drugs: How To Start a Community Reclamation Project. 1995, NCJ 133522 (264 pp.).

Corrections

American Probation and Parole Association's Drug Testing Guidelines and Practices for Juvenile Probation and Parole Agencies. 1992, NCJ 136450 (163 pp.).

Conditions of Confinement: Juvenile Detention and Corrections Facilities. 1994, NCJ 141873 (16 pp.).

Desktop Guide to Good Juvenile Probation Practice. 1991, NCJ 128218 (141 pp.).

Effective Practices in Juvenile Correctional Education: A Study of the Literature and Research 1980-1992. 1994, NCJ 150066 (194 pp.), \$15.00.

Improving Literacy Skills of Juvenile Detainees. 1994, NCJ 150707 (5 pp.).

Intensive Aftercare for High-Risk Juveniles: An Assessment (Full Report). 1994, NCJ 144018 (195 pp.), \$15.00.

Intensive Aftercare for High-Risk Juveniles: A Community Care Model. 1994, NCJ 147575 (20 pp.).

Intensive Aftercare for High-Risk Juveniles: Policies and Procedures. 1994, NCJ 147712 (28 pp.).

Juvenile Correctional Education: A Time for Change. 1994, NCJ 150309 (3 pp.).

Juvenile Detention Training Needs Assessment. 1996, NCJ 156833 (60 pp.).

Juvenile Intensive Supervision: An Assessment (Full Report). 1994, NCJ 150064 (89 pp.), \$13.00.

Juvenile Intensive Supervision: Planning Guide. 1994, NCJ 150065 (80 pp.).

Juvenile Probation: The Workhorse of the Juvenile Justice System. 1996, NCJ 158534 (5 pp.).

Juveniles Taken Into Custody: Fiscal Year 1993 Report. 1995, NCJ 154022 (195 pp.).

National Survey of Reading Programs for Incarcerated Juvenile Offenders. 1993, NCJ 144017 (51 pp.), \$6.75.

OJJDP: Conditions of Confinement Teleconference (Video). 1993, NCJ 147531 (90 min.), \$14.00.

A Resource Manual for Juvenile Detention and Corrections: Effective and Innovative Programs. 1995, NCJ 155285 (164 pp.), \$15.00.

General Juvenile Justice

Balanced and Restorative Justice. 1994, NCJ 149727 (16 pp.).

Breaking the Code (Video). 1993, NCJ 146604 (83 min.), \$20.65.

Bridging the Child Welfare and Juvenile Justice Systems. 1995, NCJ 152155 (4 pp.).

Guide for Implementing the Comprehensive Strategy for Serious, Violent, and Chronic Juvenile Offenders. 1995, NCJ 153571 (6 pp.).

Innovative Community Partnerships: Working Together for Change. 1994, NCJ 146483 (32 pp.).

Juvenile Justice, Volume II, Number 2. 1995, NCJ 152979 (30 pp.).

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 1996 Update on Violence. 1996, NCJ 159107 (32 pp.).

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: A National Report (Full Report). 1995, NCJ 153569 (188 pp.).

Law-Related Education for Juvenile Justice Settings. 1993, NCJ 147063 (173 pp.), \$13.20.

Minorities and the Juvenile Justice System. 1993, NCJ 145849 (18 pp.).

Minorities and the Juvenile Justice System (Full Report). 1993, NCJ 139556 (176 pp.), \$11.50.

Reducing Youth Gun Violence: An Overview of Programs and Initiatives. 1996, NCJ 154303 (74 pp.).

Study of Tribal and Alaska Native Juvenile Justice Systems. 1992, NCJ 148217 (208 pp.), \$17.20.

Title V Incentive Grants for Local Delinquency Prevention Programs. 1996, NCJ 160942 (100 pp.).

Urban Delinquency and Substance Abuse: Initial Findings. 1994, NCJ 143454 (27 pp.).

Urban Delinquency and Substance Abuse: Technical Report and Appendices. 1993, NCJ 146416 (400 pp.), \$25.60.

Through OJJDP's Clearinghouse, information, publications, and resources are as close as your phone, fax, computer, or mail box.

Phone:

800-638-8736
(Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m.-7:00 p.m. ET)

Fax:

301-251-5212

Fax-on-Demand:

800-638-8736, select option 1 for automated ordering services, select option 2 for Fax-on-Demand instructions

Online:

Bulletin Board:

301-738-8895

(modem set at 9600 baud and 8-N-1)

NCJRS World Wide Web:

<http://www.ncjrs.org>

OJJDP Home Page:

<http://www.ncjrs.org/ojjhome.html>

File Transfer Protocol (FTP):

<ftp://ncjrs.org.pub/ncjrs>

E-mail:

askncjrs@ncjrs.org

JUVJUST Mailing List:

e-mail%20listproc@ncjrs.org, type subscribe juvjust (your name)

JUSTINFO Newsletter:

e-mail%20listproc@ncjrs.org, type subscribe justinfo (your name)

Mail:

Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse/NCJRS, P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20849-6000

Visit:

Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse/NCJRS, 1600 Research Boulevard, Rockville, MD 20850

National Estimates of Delinquency Cases

Counts and Trends

In 1995, courts with juvenile jurisdiction handled an estimated 1,714,300 delinquency cases, representing a 7% increase over the 1994 caseload (table 1). Delinquency offenses are acts committed by juveniles that could result in criminal prosecution when committed by an adult. Between 1986 and 1995, the number of delinquency cases processed by U.S. juvenile courts increased 45%.

The number of person offense cases increased 98% between 1986 and 1995, property offense cases increased 23%, drug law violation cases increased 120%, and public order offense cases grew 48%. Compared with 1986, juvenile courts in 1995 handled 84% more criminal homicide cases, 47% more rape cases, 53% more robbery cases, 137% more aggravated assault cases, and 103% more simple assault cases. During the same time period, juvenile courts saw their weapons offense caseloads climb 132% and cases involving motor vehicle theft increase 23%. Several offense categories had drops in caseloads between 1994 and 1995; criminal homicide cases dropped 6%, weapons offense cases dropped 9%, and motor vehicle theft cases dropped 13%.

Table 1: Delinquency Cases, by Most Serious Offense, 1995

Most Serious Offense	Number of Cases	Percent Change		
		1986-95	1991-95	1994-95
Total	1,714,300	45%	21%	7%
Person Offense	377,300	98	36	8
Criminal Homicide	2,800	84	20	-6
Forcible Rape	6,800	47	19	4
Robbery	39,600	53	27	6
Aggravated Assault	93,200	137	33	6
Simple Assault	205,500	103	47	12
Other Violent Sex Offense	9,300	50	9	-3
Other Person Offense	20,100	72	-2	-4
Property Offense	871,700	23	3	3
Burglary	139,900	-2	-9	-2
Larceny-Theft	418,800	28	10	10
Motor Vehicle Theft	53,400	23	-26	-13
Arson	10,400	78	42	10
Vandalism	121,700	40	9	-2
Trespassing	64,400	18	9	1
Stolen Property Offense	33,100	10	9	2
Other Property Offense	29,900	46	-5	6
Drug Law Violation	159,100	120	145	28
Public Order Offense	306,300	48	37	6
Obstruction of Justice	110,100	53	45	8
Disorderly Conduct	85,100	82	46	9
Weapons Offense	47,000	132	38	-9
Liquor Law Violation	12,200	-39	-1	2
Nonviolent Sex Offense	10,500	-21	-8	-4
Other Public Order	41,300	19	31	17
Violent Crime Index*	142,400	99	30	5
Property Crime Index**	622,500	20	1	5

* Violent Crime Index includes criminal homicide, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

** Property Crime Index includes burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

Examination of the caseloads of juvenile courts using the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) crime indexes indicates that juvenile courts handled substantially more Violent Crime Index offense cases in 1995 than in 1986 (99%), while cases involving Property Crime Index offenses increased 20%.¹ The increases in juvenile court cases parallel the increases in arrests of persons under the age of 18, as reported by the FBI. Between 1986 and 1995, the number of arrests involving persons under the age of 18 charged with Violent Crime Index offenses increased 67%, while arrests of youth for Property Crime Index offenses increased 8%. (See *Crime in the United States 1995*.) According to the FBI, the number of juvenile arrests for homicide increased 90% between 1986 and 1995 but decreased 14% between 1994 and 1995, changes that closely correspond to the trends in juvenile court cases involving homicide charges.

The offense profile of juvenile court caseloads changed somewhat between 1986 and 1995 (table 2). The relative proportion of person offenses increased, while property offenses declined. A person offense, such as robbery or assault, was the most serious charge in 22% of delinquency cases in 1995 compared with 16% in 1986. A property offense, such as shoplifting, burglary, or vandalism, was the most serious charge in 51% of the delinquency cases handled by juvenile courts in 1995 versus 60% in 1986. The proportion of drug law violations, such as possession or sale of controlled substances, rose from 6% in 1986 to 9% in 1995. Public order offenses remained relatively unchanged between 1986 and 1995.

Table 2: Offense Profile of Delinquency Cases, 1986, 1991, and 1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995
Person	16%	20%	22%
Property	60	60	51
Drugs	6	5	9
Public Order	18	16	18
Total	100%	100%	100%

Note: Detail may not total 100% because of rounding.

In 1995, juvenile courts processed 60.7 delinquency cases for every 1,000 juveniles who resided in the United States and were at risk of referral -- those age 10 or older who were under the jurisdiction of a juvenile court (table 3).² Analysis of this case rate permits comparisons of juvenile court activity over time while controlling for differences in the population at risk of referral to the juvenile court.

The total delinquency case rate rose 33% from 1986 to 1995.³ During the same time period, case rates increased in all offense categories. The case rate for person offenses climbed 82%, the property case rate increased 13%, the rate of drug cases grew 102%, and the rate of public order offense cases increased 36%. Over the more recent 5-year period, however, the property case rate declined 5%.

Table 3: Percent Change in Delinquency Cases and Case Rates, 1986-1995

Most Serious Offense	1986	1991	1995	Percent Change	
				1986-95	1991-95
Number of Cases					
Delinquency	1,180,000	1,413,300	1,714,300	45%	21%
Person	190,300	277,500	377,300	98	36
Property	710,000	846,800	871,700	23	3
Drugs	72,400	65,100	159,100	120	145
Public Order	207,300	223,900	306,300	48	37
Case Rates					
Delinquency	45.5	54.2	60.7	33%	12%
Person	7.3	10.6	13.4	82	26
Property	27.4	32.5	30.9	13	-5
Drugs	2.8	2.5	5.6	102	126
Public Order	8.0	8.6	10.8	36	26

Case Rate = Cases per 1,000 youth at risk.

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding. Percent change calculations are based on unrounded numbers.

¹ The annual series of reports from the FBI, *Crime in the United States*, provides information on arrests in offense categories that have become part of the common vocabulary of criminal justice statistics. The *Crime in the United States* series tracks changes in the general nature of arrests through the use of two indexes, the Violent Crime Index and the Property Crime Index. While not containing all violent or all property offenses, the indexes serve as a barometer of criminal activity in the United States.

² The upper age of juvenile court jurisdiction is defined by statute in each State. See the Glossary of Terms section for a more detailed discussion on upper age of juvenile court jurisdiction. The case rates presented in this report control for State variations in youth population at risk of referral to juvenile court.

³ The percent change in the number of cases disposed may not be equal to the percent change in case rates due to the changing size of the juvenile population.

[Previous](#)

[Contents](#)

[Next](#)

Juvenile Court Statistics 1995, May 1998

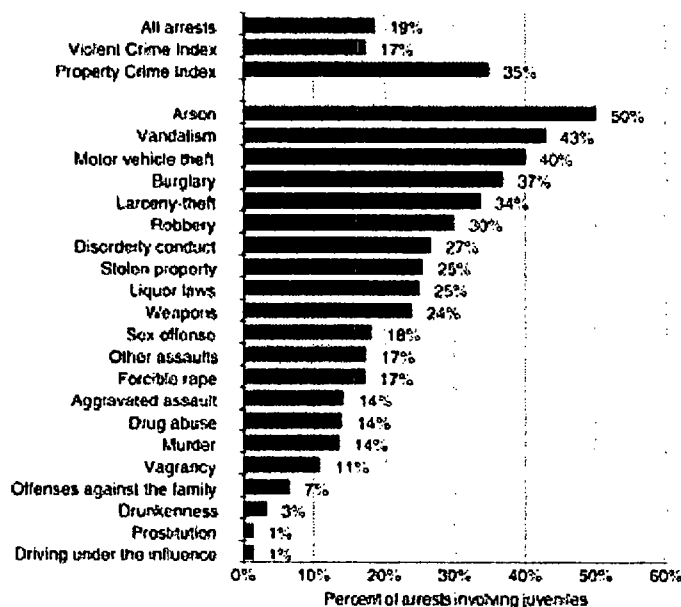
The juvenile share of the crime problem decreased in 1997

The relative responsibility of juveniles for the U.S. crime problem is hard to determine. Studying the proportion of crimes that are cleared by the arrest of juveniles gives one estimate of the juvenile responsibility for crime.

The clearance data in the *Crime in the United States* series show that the proportion of violent crimes attributed to juveniles has declined in recent years. Juvenile involvement in violent crime grew from 9% or 10% in the early-to-mid-1980's to 14% in 1994. Since 1994, the proportion of violent crimes cleared by juvenile arrest has declined, reaching 12% in 1997.

The proportion of murders cleared by juvenile arrests in 1997 (8%) was at its lowest level since 1991, but still above the 5% level of the mid-1980's. The juvenile proportion of cleared forcible rapes peaked in 1995 (15%) and then fell, with the 1997 rate (12%) the lowest in the decade. The juvenile proportion of robbery clearances in 1997 (17%) was below its peak in 1995 (20%), but still far above the levels of the early 1980's (12%). Similarly, the juvenile proportion of aggravated assault clearances in 1997 (12%) was below its peak in 1994 (13%), but still above the levels of the early 1980's (9%). The proportion of Property Crime Index offenses cleared by juvenile arrest in 1997 (23%) was equal to the average level between 1980 and 1996.

Juveniles were involved in about 1 in 5 arrests made by law enforcement agencies in 1997, 1 in 6 arrests for a violent crime, and 1 in 3 arrests for a property offense

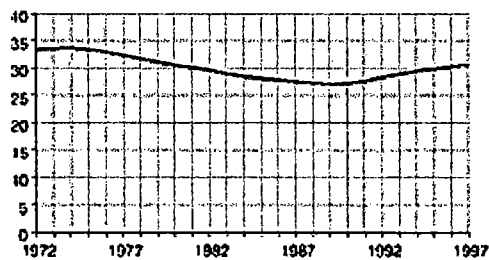


Note: Running away from home and curfew and loitering violations are not presented in this figure because, by definition, only juveniles can be arrested for these offenses.

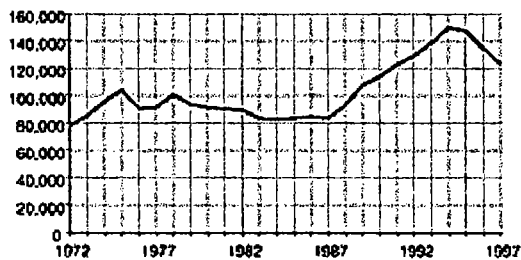
Data source: *Crime in the United States 1997* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), table 38.

Over the last 25 years, changes in the number of juvenile arrests for violent crime have been unrelated to changes in the size of the juvenile population

Population (in millions) of juveniles ages 10-17



Juvenile Violent Crime Index arrests



- ◆ From 1987 to 1994, while the juvenile population increased 7%, juvenile arrests for violent crime increased 79%. Since 1994, juvenile arrests have dropped 18%, while the juvenile population has increased 4%.

Data source: Arrest estimates were developed by the National Center for Juvenile Justice based on arrest data from the FBI; population data is from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. [See [data source note 1](#) for detail.]

[Previous](#)

[Contents](#)

[Next](#)

Study finds a pervasive trend to "crack down on juvenile crime" among State legislatures

Statutes analysis and phone survey used to assess changes in response to juvenile crime

Researchers at the National Center for Juvenile Justice conducted an analysis of State laws enacted from 1992 through 1995 that addressed serious or violent juvenile offenders. The legislative analysis was supplemented with information gleaned from a telephone survey of juvenile justice specialists, juvenile prosecutors, and State juvenile corrections officials in each State. In addition, research and State task force reports were reviewed.

Five areas of change emerged as States passed laws designed to crack down on juvenile crime

The study identified a clear pattern of change in the following five areas:

- Jurisdictional authority -- Laws removed an increasing number of serious and violent juvenile offenders from the system in favor of criminal court prosecution (41 States).
- Sentencing authority -- Laws gave criminal and juvenile courts new sentencing options (25 States).
- Confidentiality -- Laws modified or removed traditional juvenile court confidentiality provisions to make records and proceedings more open (40 States).
- Victims' rights -- Laws increased the role of victims of juvenile crime in the juvenile justice process (22 States).
- Correctional programming -- Adult and juvenile correctional administrators felt pressure to develop programs as a result of new transfer and sentencing laws.

The authors comment that the "dramatic shifts in [these] areas . . ." have resulted from a

From 1992 through 1995, legislatures in 47 States and the District of Columbia enacted laws that toughened their juvenile justice system

State	Changes in law or court rule*			State	Changes in law or court rule*		
Alabama	J			Missouri	J	S	C
Alaska	J		C	Montana		S	C
Arizona		S	C	Nebraska			
Arkansas	J	S	C	Nevada	J		C
California	J		C	New Hampshire	J	S	C
Colorado	J	S	C	New Jersey		S	C
Connecticut	J	S	C	New Mexico	J	S	
Delaware	J	S	C	New York			
D. of Columbia	J	S		North Carolina	J		C
Florida	J	S	C	North Dakota	J		C
Georgia	J	S	C	Ohio	J	S	C
Hawaii			C	Oklahoma	J		C
Idaho	J	S	C	Oregon	J		C
Illinois	J	S	C	Pennsylvania	J		C
Indiana	J	S	C	Rhode Island	J	S	
Iowa	J		C	South Carolina	J		C
Kansas	J		C	South Dakota	J		
Kentucky	J			Tennessee	J		C
Louisiana	J	S	C	Texas	J	S	C
Maine			C	Utah	J		C
Maryland	J		C	Vermont			
Massachusetts		S		Virginia	J	S	C
Michigan		S	C	Washington	J		C
Minnesota	J	S	C	West Virginia	J		
Mississippi	J		C	Wisconsin	J	S	C
				Wyoming	J		C

* J = Jurisdiction, S = Sentencing, C = Confidentiality

■ These laws involve increased eligibility for criminal court processing and adult correctional sanctioning and decreased confidentiality for a subset of juvenile offenders.

Source: Authors' adaptation of P. Torbet's *State responses to serious and violent juvenile crime*.

"trend toward redefining the purpose of the juvenile justice system [that] represents a fundamental philosophical departure . . . " The rationale for the changes is "to punish, hold accountable, and incarcerate for longer periods of time those juveniles who, by history or instant offense, passed a threshold of tolerated juvenile law violating behavior."

[Previous](#)

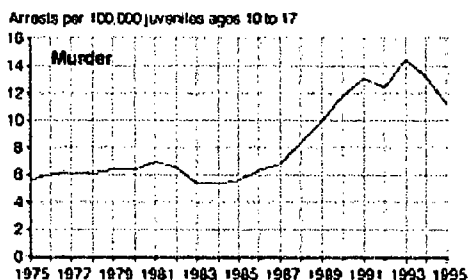
[Contents](#)

[Next](#)

Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 1997 Update on Violence

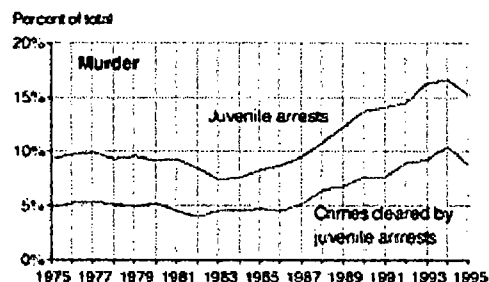
Arrest and clearance trends differed across violent offenses

The juvenile arrest rate for murder peaked in 1993 and declined nearly 25% between 1993 and 1995



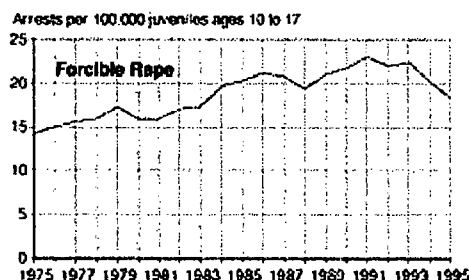
■ Even with the decline, the 1995 juvenile murder arrest rate was still double the 1985 rate.

The juvenile proportion of murder arrests in 1995 was double the proportion of murders attributed to juveniles



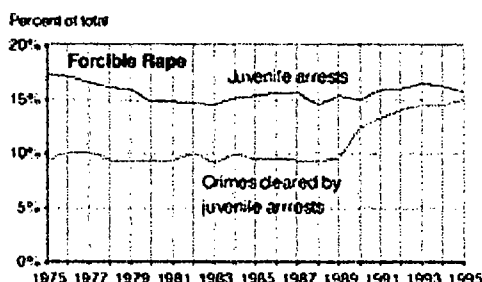
■ The large discrepancy between juvenile arrest and clearance proportions reflects the fact that juveniles are more likely than adults to commit crimes in groups.

The juvenile arrest rate for forcible rape peaked in 1993 and declined nearly 20% between 1993 and 1995



■ Not since 1983 has the juvenile arrest rate for forcible rape been as low as it was in 1995.

In 1995 juveniles were involved in 15% of all forcible rapes cleared by arrest, the highest level in the past 20 years

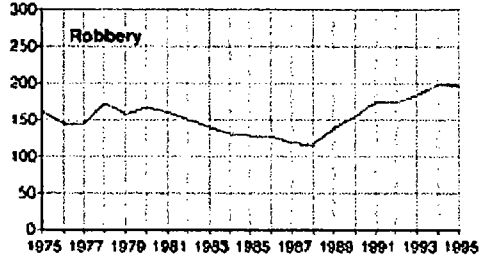


■ In stark contrast to the juvenile proportion of forcible rape clearances, the juvenile proportion of forcible rape arrests has changed little in the last 15 years.

Source: Authors' calculation of arrest rates using unpublished 1975-1995 arrest counts and reporting population data from the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting Program and the U.S. Bureau of the Census estimates of the 1975-1995 resident population of the U.S. in single years of age (machine-readable data files). Juvenile arrest proportions were derived from the unpublished 1975-1995 arrest counts. The juvenile clearance proportions were taken from the FBI's Crime in the United States series.

The juvenile arrest rate for robbery increased nearly 70% between 1988 and 1994, before leveling off in 1995

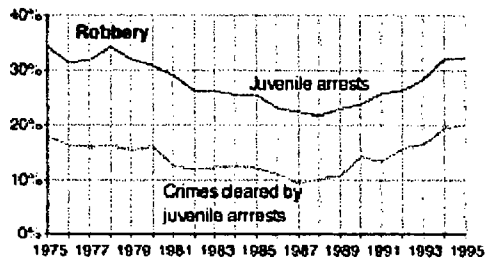
Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10 to 17



- The juvenile arrest rate for robbery in 1995 was 22% higher than the rate in 1975.

The juvenile proportion of robbery arrests in 1995 has returned to the levels of the late 1970's

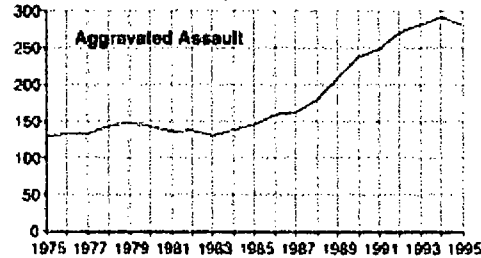
Percent of total



- The juvenile proportion of robbery clearances in 1995 was at its highest level in 20 years.

The juvenile arrest rate for aggravated assault declined in 1995 after increasing each year between 1983 and 1994

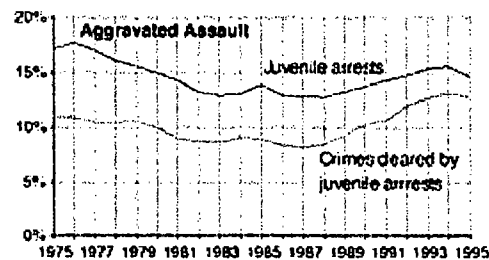
Arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10 to 17



- The juvenile aggravated assault arrest rate in 1995 was more than double the rate in 1983

The juvenile proportion of aggravated assault arrests in 1995 was near the average of the last 20 years

Percent of total



- Over the past 20 years, the juvenile proportion of aggravated assault arrests was highest in 1976.

[Previous](#)

[Contents](#)

[Next](#)