DATA USE TOOLKIT FOR

TRIBAL PROGRAMS

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FOR TRIBAL PROGRAMS

1. TOPIC SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

Many tribal programs collect data they don't use effectively or fail to collect important data. What should be a critical component of program operations is poorly understood, overlooked, or ignored. It is important that tribal programs understand *why* data is important and *how* it can be used in understanding local problems and strengthening programs. This guide is designed to help tribal programs:

➻ Understand how data can be used to better define and describe the issues the program is dealing with.

➻ Describe the steps needed to collect data concerning a problem of interest.

➻ Create a database that can be used as part of a data management system.

➻ Describe different ways to represent data by using counts, percentages, and rates.

➻ Identify ways to present data to make a point.

You won't know everything after reading this guide but you will know enough to feel more confident in collecting data for your program, making your data work for you, and creating effective ways of presenting your data to others.

DATA COLLECTION

Understanding Data

Although "*data*" and "*information*" are closely related they are different concepts. Data are facts and figures that can be stored within program records. Data are names, numbers, and descriptors of people, places, and things, for example a zip code. Information is the meaningful details that are derived from data. We use data to gain information about our program, for example an address. Data are the pieces of information that you collect that describe your program. There are several important uses for data. Program data should generate useable information:

To analyze current service delivery with information:

- About clients, caseloads and case management,

- About various types of problems, crimes, where and when they occur, and

- About individual and community issues.

To inform, educate and evaluate, and that can help us:

- To make sound decisions,

- To interact with other agencies, and

- To demonstrate effective management.

To demonstrate unmet needs and means for developing specific services to:

- Enhance and redefine program services,

- Develop new services, and

- Develop grant proposals.

Program staff, administrators, evaluators, and researchers all collect data. Each person may collect different kinds of data and use it for different purposes. A program staff member may collect data about client participation in program activities. Program administrators may collect data about program funding and numbers of clients served. Evaluators and researchers may collect additional data to help programs understand how their services impact their clients.

Data collection often begins before the program begins. It may be important for the program to collect information on the issue they will address to better understand how and where to focus services and activities and to serve as baseline data for program evaluation. Data collection should be ongoing during program operations. These data provide information about clients, daily activities and services, program management, and how the program is progressing towards its goals.

Data may also be collected after the program or its funding period is over to assess and evaluate program effectiveness. Each stage of data collection should lead to information that can help programs understand and demonstrate the effectiveness of their services, troubleshoot problems, and plan for sustainability.

Different Types of Data

Primary data is data that does not exist prior to the program. These data are collected specifically to generate information for the program and comes from sources such as program records, clients, and staff. An example of primary data is the number of clients who participate in a particular activity. Collecting primary data usually involves

some type of survey or interview process or standardized data collection instrument. It can also include adding new variables to an existing data set.

Secondary data is data that already exists in some accessible form. These data can come from other programs and public data sources. Secondary data may be available from local, state and national sources. An example of secondary data is U.S. Census data or a pre-existing community survey. Collecting secondary data usually means:

1) Finding the source of the information (i.e., agency records, census bureau, tribal court, national crime data),

2) Identifying what form the data is in (i.e., hand written records, computer database, printed tables of information), and

3) Deciding how you will use the information.

There are many different kinds of data but most falls into two basic categories—*qualitative data* and *quantitative data*.

Quantitative data is usually thought of as concrete, numerical data and count program "quantities". It includes amounts or quantities, numbers, dates, and measurements. Quantitative data can come from program records, forms, and *closed questions* from program data collection tools. This type of data can help program staff and evaluators summarize the strength, importance or frequency of a phenomenon. It defines in numbers, changes in relationships between program or population characteristics. An example of quantitative data is the number of households with children under 18 years of age.

Qualitative data is often called descriptive data and describe program "qualities". It includes ideas, beliefs, attributes, feelings, characteristics, perceptions, attitudes and opinions. Some examples of qualitative data are stories, interviews, and *open-ended questions* from program data collection tools. This type of data can help program staff and evaluators understand the significance of participants' experiences and achievements. It descriptively defines ideas, attitudes, beliefs, and understanding of a phenomenon. Qualitative data can also explain contradictory or unexpected quantitative results. Qualitative data can also be used to help programs create quantitative instruments. An example of qualitative data is community members' opinions about why young people may get into trouble.

The type of data programs collect should reflect the answers to two important questions:

1) What do we want to know?

2) What do we plan to accomplish with the information we collect?

Methods for Collecting Data

Every program collects some type of data. Programs should consider what types of information they will need to know before they begin. Some basic methods for collecting program data include staff activity logs, expenditure reports, and client information forms such as intake forms, progress reports, and exit interviews. These methods rely on good record keeping and are essential to successful program implementation and monitoring.

Many programs will want to collect additional data before, during and after the program from clients or the community. These types of data collection activities may include surveys and questionnaires, focus groups, and personal interviews. Programs may also collect existing data from other programs, state or national agencies. Some of the more common methods of data collection are listed below.

Existing data—Existing data can provide information about the current status of the population, such as the number of people in each age group, average income levels, health statistics, crime rates, and so on. Tribal programs can save time and energy by using information others have collected. Most agencies collect statistics. Some places to look for information: law enforcement, court records, school records, community clinics and hospitals, IHS or BIA reports, community organizations and programs. The advantages to using existing data include low cost, convenience, and may already be computerized. The disadvantages are that the data may be limited to information collected for purposes that may not meet your program's needs; it may be difficult to determine the quality of the data; and access may be limited for legal or ethical reasons. Existing data is usually quantitative data.

Resource Inventory—A resource inventory is a survey to gather information about resources in your community that address the problem including programs, people, equipment and funding. It will help you find out what services, programs and facilities exist and what their roles are. It will help you find out where the gaps are and where new services and programs are needed. It will help you coordinate your resources and efforts with those of other people and organizations. The advantages are that this method is fairly simple, low cost, and can provide an overview of community needs and resources. It can also be a way to strengthen communication and coordination among organizations and agencies. The disadvantages are that the process may fail to identify some needs and resources, it may be hard to control who responds and who doesn't, and the inventory may not reflect the quality of the resources or whether they are appropriate to the problem and the needs of the community. Resource inventories can be used to collect quantitative data.

Key informant interview—This is a very focused data collection strategy designed to gather data from a select group of key individuals who have knowledge, opinions and practices that can help you understand your program or the phenomenon of interest. Key informants can be community leaders, program administrators, service providers and practitioners, elders, religious leaders, teachers or anyone else who know the community or the problem well. Key informant interviews usually collect qualitative data. The advantages are low cost, and it may help the program establish connections with

community leaders and others that can support program efforts. The disadvantages are that the individual opinions of the key informants may not accurately reflect the practice or issue of interest.

Focus Groups—A focus group usually includes between five and fifteen carefully recruited people who engage in a carefully planned and focused discussion led by a skilled facilitator. The process offers an opportunity to observe participant dynamics as well as hear comments and ideas. Focus groups appear to work best when the group is comprised of individuals with similar backgrounds or experiences, for example teens, service providers, or mothers of children at-risk. It is usual to provide refreshments during the process and compensate participants with a small gift or a reasonable cash payment to cover time and expenses. The advantages of a focus group are: relatively low cost; they provide a unique opportunity for community members to participate; and they can help guide the program using the community's perspective. The disadvantages of a focus group are that the opinions of the group may differ from the community at large and the process requires a trained facilitator. Focus groups can be used to gather qualitative data.

Community/client surveys—This method can gather data on individual and community beliefs, knowledge, attitudes and behaviors. Community members are a very important source of information. A community survey finds out the opinions, ideas, concerns, and behaviors of a sample of people in the community. Client surveys can provide the program with detailed information about the client and their experience in the program. Surveys can be fairly simple or very complex. It all depends what your program needs to know. Developing good questions, determining who and how many people you will survey, collecting data and analyzing data can quickly become complicated even for a fairly simple survey. It is best to get help if you are unfamiliar with the process. The advantages of conducting surveys are that they provide a well rounded view of the community or the client, includes the community or the client in the process, identifies what people know, what they think, how they behave and what they want. The disadvantages are that surveys can be expensive and time consuming and they require specific skills for development, implementation and analysis. Surveys can be used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data.

DATA MANAGEMENT

Data management is the process of storing, organizing and manipulating data in preparation for some future use. Even before information is collected, programs should begin developing a means for data storage and management. For most tribal programs, a computerized system makes data management easier, time efficient, and cost effective. Database development and data management also requires unique skills and software. There are many low cost, **user-friendly** data management software packages available. There are usually people with computer data management skills at a local community college or in various agencies and service programs near or in tribal communities. Data

management is a specialized skill but an important one because your results will be directly related to your ability to manage and analyze your data. A good software program and a little training should allow any tribal program get started in managing their data.

There are four basic goals for effective data management. One goal is to collect the data in an easily retrievable and useable format. A second is to record the data from various sites and formats in a uniform and consistent manner. A third goal is to organize the information by standard characteristics so the data can be compared and analyzed. And fourth is to organize your data in a way that will facilitate reporting. The best way to accomplish these goals is by creating and using a computerized database.

A database is made of individual **fields** or **variables** that represent individual units of data. The smaller the unit, the more versatile data is. For example, one of your variables is probably "NAME" which will contain the name of one of your clients. The field can be used to hold first and last name. However, if you make the data into two variables such as "FIRSTNAME" AND "LASTNAME" you will have more options for searching, sorting, and **queries**. Once you have defined all your variables, it is a good idea to create a **data dictionary**. This is a document that describes each variable and it's data management procedures. It may include the variable's location (form/source), name, label, type, format, range of values, and additional edits. This should be created before any data are entered. An example would be:

Variable	Label	Source	Type	Range of Values
Client's Sex	"Gender"	Client Intake Form	Text	M = Male F = Female
Client's Age	"Age"	Client Intake Form	Numeric	Enter actual age in years.

Once you begin the data entry process you should periodically check the data for mistakes and consistency. Data editing includes checking to make sure that required variables are not missing, that they are within the permitted range, are consistent with other variables and follow the requirements of your data dictionary. For example if the variable is "State" the data may be entered as "Arizona", misspelled as "Azirona" or entered as "AZ". It is important that responses are in a consistent format or you will have difficulty when you try to analyze your data or generate accurate reports. Another step in data editing is to examine extreme values using the program to display the lowest and highest value, or the frequency of each response. The goals of data entry are to enter the data efficiently and accurately into the database. Data entry should be done soon after data collection. It is also important to make a copy of your data at regular intervals. This helps guard against loss.

Creating A Database

The most common and easy approach to creating a simple database is to use a **spreadsheet** program. An example is Microsoft Excel™. Spreadsheets arrange data in

rows and columns called a table or flat file. Data entry and editing is easy by using your keyboard to enter values directly into the appropriate cell (row and column). Spreadsheets however generally do not provide good tools for performing automatic or interactive data editing and may be cumbersome for conducting basic descriptive analysis. Spreadsheet programs can produce simple reports and calculate basic statistics. An advantage to some spreadsheets is the ability to automatically create graphs and charts.

Another option is a **relational database** program designed specifically for entering, storing and manipulating data. Examples are FileMaker Pro™ and Microsoft Access™. While they may look like a spreadsheet and have many of the same functions as a spreadsheet, a database has more options and more flexibility. The data entry layout can be formatted to resemble your data entry form, include layouts for form letters, labels, tables and charts. Database programs can produce a variety of reports and a range of basic statistics including more advanced calculation functions than a spreadsheet. The additional value of a database program is the ability to link two or more data sets.

NOTE: If you plan to analyze your data beyond basic **descriptive statistics** (next section) it is best to transfer your data from your spreadsheet or database program to a statistical analysis software program such as SPSS, SAS, Statview or JMP. This is beyond the scope of this guide and probably beyond the needs of most programs. Your spreadsheet or database program should allow you to calculate the type of statistics you will use most often.

DATA ANALYSIS AND REPORTING

Data analysis can be relatively easy such as tabulating the number of responses to a particular question, *i.e.,* 47 people answered "yes" and 12 people said "no". This is often called descriptive analysis. Data analysis can also be very complicated *i.e.,* analyzing the relationship between two or more variables. Most tribal programs will probably not require very complicated analyses. Even basic descriptive statistics such as the sum of responses, mean, median and mode may be able to tell you what you need to know. The ultimate purpose of data analysis is to be able to understand what your data means and what it can tell you about your program. Many people are intimidated by terms such as statistics, rates, counts, percentages, and ratios. However, data analysis does not have to be complicated to be effective. And, since many data management software packages are able to generate some basic descriptive statistics and reports, you should be able to generate useful information fairly easily.

Basic Statistical Measures

A statistic is a number that summarizes some aspect of your data. The easiest is to count your data. Counts total up the number of each value representing the variable of interest. For example for the variable "GENDER" a count might tell us that there are 75 males in our program and 35 females in our program. An advantage to presenting data as

counts is that the information is easily understood, and the numbers are easier to compute than percentages and other rates. A disadvantage is that counts provide limited information and it is difficult to use counts to compare data (*e.g.,* comparing different communities or comparing data over time).

There are three basic measures that can summarize trends in your data. These are called measures of central tendency. They can summarize your data in one number.

Mean—This is the average of all the values of a particular variable. The mean is calculated by adding all the values and dividing the number of values. For example if your program has five clients and their ages are 12, 13, 14, 15, 15, 15 and 16. The average age or the mean age is 14.3 years.

Median—This is simply the middle value when all the values are in rank order. For example for our client ages – 12, 13, 14, 15, 15, 15 and 16 – the middle or median value is 15 years of age.

Mode—This is the value that occurs most often. In our example of client ages – 12, 13, 14, 15, 15, 15 and 16 – the value that occurs most often is 15. Thus, the most common value or the mode is 15 years old.

You can use these measures to compare data from your program with other programs or between different program years. For example the average age of your client is just over 14 years old. Another program may have clients that are an average of 17 years old. This information may help you design services for a younger age group. You can also compare these averages across time. For example in 2000 the mode for your client age group was 17, in 2001 it was 16, and in 2002 it was 15. This tells you that your clients are getting younger so your program may want to modify services to address the needs of younger clients.

There are three basic statistics that summarize the scope of a variable in your dataset. These are called measures of variability. By calculating and comparing all three of these statistics you can understand the range of variability of a given variable.

Minimum—This is the lowest value for your variable of interest. Using the client age example, the minimum value is 12. This tells your program the youngest client is 12 years old.

Maximum—This is the highest value for your variable of interest. Using the client age example, the maximum value is 16. This tells your program the oldest client is 16 years old.

Range—This is the difference between the minimum and the maximum value. It is calculated by subtracting the minimum from the maximum. Using the client age example, the range is 4. This tells your program that there is a four-year age difference between your oldest and youngest clients.

These statistics can also allow you to compare data with other programs or across time. This information can help you decide how broad or narrow your scope of services needs to be. For example if your clients range in age from 12 to 16 your program may have to work with both middle (junior high) schools <u>and</u> high schools.

Although these two types of measures can tell you a lot about your program there are two more statistics that are important to learn and understand – rates and ratios. These are numbers that are calculated by dividing a count of your variable of interest by a number that is meaningful with respect to the issue or variable you are investigating. For example, a rate can tell you more information about the age of your client population:

$$\frac{\text{Number of clients} < 15}{\text{Number of total clients}} \quad = \quad \frac{10}{100} \quad = .10 \quad \text{or} \quad 10\%$$

This number tells us that only 10% of your clients are under 15 years of age. This gives us more information than the mean or the range.

Another use of rates is to compare different groups of people, or to compare trends in data over time. An important tool in using data effectively is comparing groups.

Rate—A rate is a calculation of a count of interest divided by the population of interest. For example

$$\frac{\text{Number of clients with drug arrests} = 80}{\text{Number of all clients} = 100} \quad = 80\%$$

This tells you that 80% of your program clients have been arrested for drug use. This could be helpful in planning program activities or the need to develop a relationship between the tribal court, probation and drug treatment programs.

Ratio—A ratio is a comparison of two groups (a/b). For example if 100 boys and 50 girls participate in a program activity, the ratio of boys to girls would be:

$$\frac{100 \text{ boys}}{50 \text{ girls}} \quad = 2:1$$

This means there are two boys to every girl who participates. This might tell you that your program that your outreach strategies are not as effective for girls as for boys.

Before you begin to calculate rates, ratios and percentages it is important to understand the definition of the top number—the **numerator**, and the bottom number—the **denominator**. The denominator is some estimate or total count of whatever population base you wish to examine. The numerator is a subset of the denominator. It is always important to consider the denominator when calculating rates. The denominator you choose will effect what your data is representing. For example:

Numerator	= <u>Number of DWI (99 DWI Arrests)</u>	= 0.198 or 19.8%
Denominator	= Number of Arrests (500 Total Arrests)	

OR

Numerator	= <u>Number of Juvenile DWI (13 JV DWI)</u>	= 0.131 or 13.1%
Denominator	= Number of Total DWI (99 Total DWI)	

Each would tell us something very different about arrests. The second statistic focuses data from a larger statistic to derive more specific information, which differentiates total DWI arrests and compares that with juvenile arrests.

Displaying Your Data

Once you have collected your data, you may wish to present your findings to other individuals or groups. It is important to be clear, organized, and succinct. One way to approach this is to prepare an outline of points you wish to make. This will help you to arrange your ideas in an order that makes sense to you, and will make sense to your audience. One way to present a lot of information in a small space and easily understood form is to prepare tables and graphs of your data. Both tables and graphs are excellent ways to compare data from different groups. Remember the saying "one picture is worth a thousand words".

A few pointers will help you to create tables and graphs that are informative and easily understood. The most important considerations when presenting data are: Who is the audience? What is your primary goal? What type of data are you presenting? These questions should guide the content, style, and length of your spoken or written material. Graphics, such as pie charts, bar charts, and line charts, often help to keep the audience interested. Most data management software programs can easily construct a variety of charts and graphs.

Tables – A table displays your data in an organized format that makes it easy to see and compare the numbers of interest. The example below compares the types of violations by client gender.

Gender	Truancy	Alcohol	Drugs	Curfew
Boys	11	15	4	22
Girls	19	15	2	17

Below is an actual table example and explanation from an Indian crime victimization study.[1]

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[1] 2003 , Melton, A.P., M. Chino, H.A. Lewis, and J. Personius,   *Indian Criminal Victimization: A New Mexico Pueblo Experience Final Report, submitted to the US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics*

"Respondents ranged in age from 13 to 97 and were categorized into four age groups: 13 to 17 years of age, 18 to 29 years of age, 30 to 59 years of age and 60+ years of age. These categories reflect the organization of the original Tribal census data, but also served to facilitate comparative analyses. Individual ages were also collected as a continuous variable. Table 1 indicates the number of persons in the total population in each age group, the targeted number, and the number of completed surveys."

Example Table 1 - Respondent Population			
Age Group	Population	Target #	# Respondents
13 – 17 years	1003	75	91
18 – 30 years	1779	133	258
31-60 years	3314	249	260
61+ years	760	57	82

This Table was useful for describing the potential respondent population in each age group, the number of respondents for each age category, and the number that actually responded. From this table we can further demonstrate that our goal was to interview 7% to 8% of possible respondents in each age category. This table shows that we surpassed our intended goal at various levels for each age group.

Line graphs – A line graph is useful for comparing changes over time or by other continuous measures such as income or age.
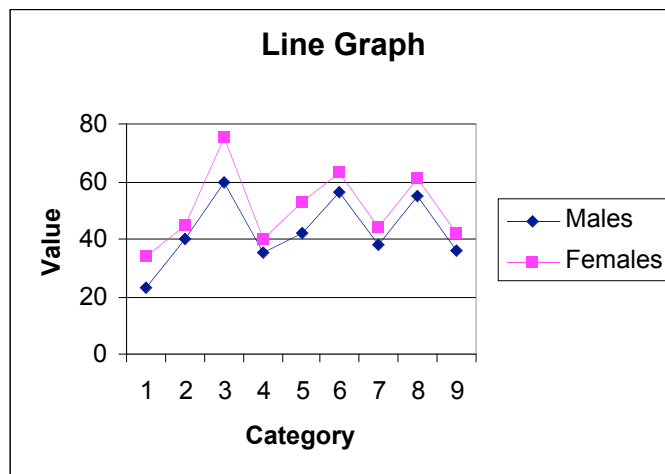
Data Use Toolkit for Tribal Programs

Below is an actual example and explanation from a needs assessment.[2] Bar graphs are discussed later, however, the table below combines a line and bar graph for illustration.
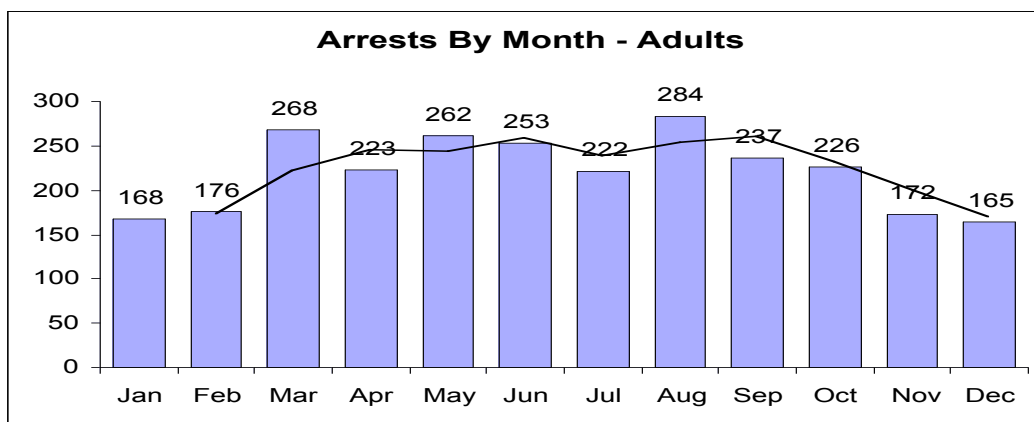
Number of Arrests

"The data includes information on individual arrests for a five-year period between 1998 and 2002. The total number of arrests decreased from 1998 to 1999, but then increased every year thereafter. Overall, arrests increased 29% between 1998 and 2002. Figure 1 indicates the total number of arrests per year from 1998 to 2002."

Figure 1. Number of Arrests By Year

Year	Number of Arrests
1998	516
1999	492
2000	560
2001	673
2002	726
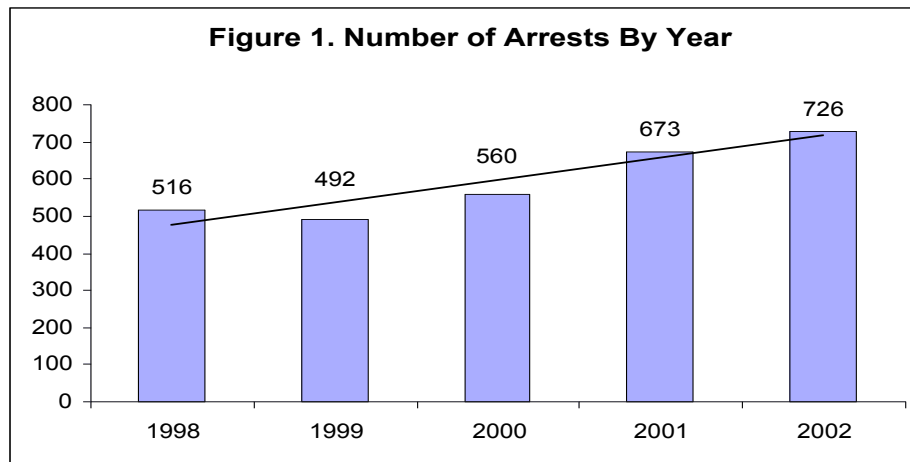
Date of Arrest

"When the number of arrests was examined for adult offenders, the trend was the same as for the combined data set. The highest number of arrests was in August with a sharp decline in the number of arrests during the winter months. See Figure 4."

**Arrests By Month - Adults**

Month	Arrests
Jan	168
Feb	176
Mar	268
Apr	223
May	262
Jun	253
Jul	222
Aug	284
Sep	237
Oct	226
Nov	172
Dec	165

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[2] 2004, Melton, A.P. *Needs Assessment and Facility Plan to Address Indian Rehabilitation and Detention,* submitted to the Five Sandoval Indian Pueblos, Inc.

Bar graphs – These graphs are useful for many types of comparisons with multiple groups
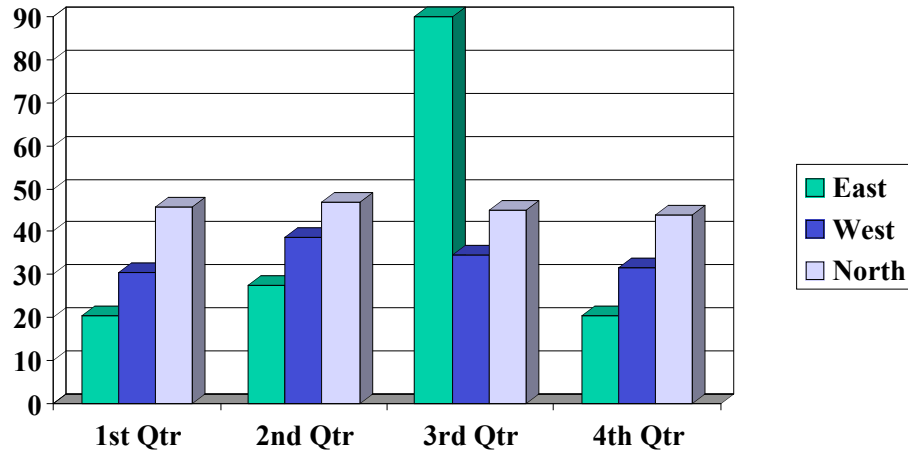
Below is an actual bar graph example and explanation from the Indian crime victimization study cited above.

"The results include responses from 440 female and 251 male respondents. There is a higher proportion of female respondents (64%), which may be due to females being more likely to be at home when the surveys were conducted and the higher proportion of females to males among elders in the community. The sex ratio of the general population is about 1:1. Figure 1 indicates the number of male and female respondents in each age category."
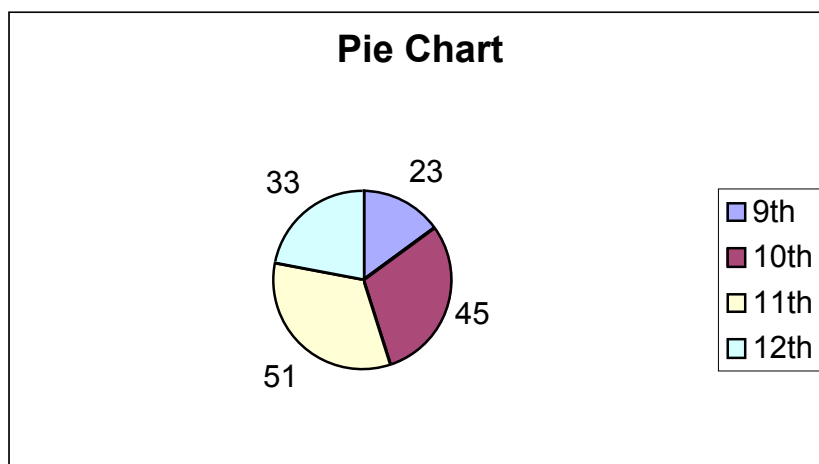
## Figure 1. Number of Respondents by Sex and Age Group
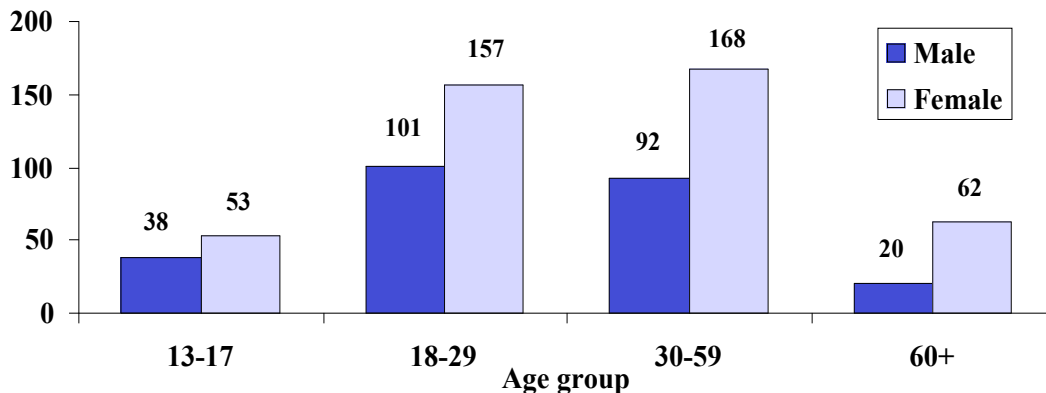
Pie Charts – These graphs are most useful when comparing parts of a whole such as different values of one variable.

Below are actual pie chart examples from a training needs assessment.[3]

Example 1: Intergovernmental Collaboration

"Figure 11 shows the breakdown in areas most desired for cross jurisdictional training, which link to the types of issue and problem areas respondents most wanted to obtain assistance in addressing. Tribal respondents in particular were interested in increasing their access and/or participation in county and state training and several indicated the need to create more opportunities for tribal-state training to be put on by both governments."

Figure 11. Intergovernmental Collaboration

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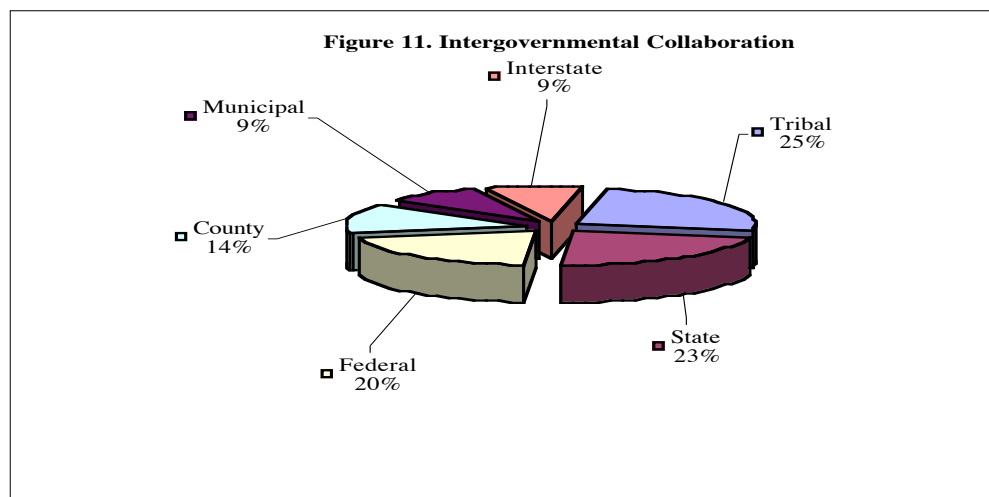
[3] 2004 , Melton, A.P. , *New Mexico Assessment of Child Abuse and Neglect and Sexual Abuse Training Needs,* submitted to the New Mexico Children's Justice Act Advisory Group.
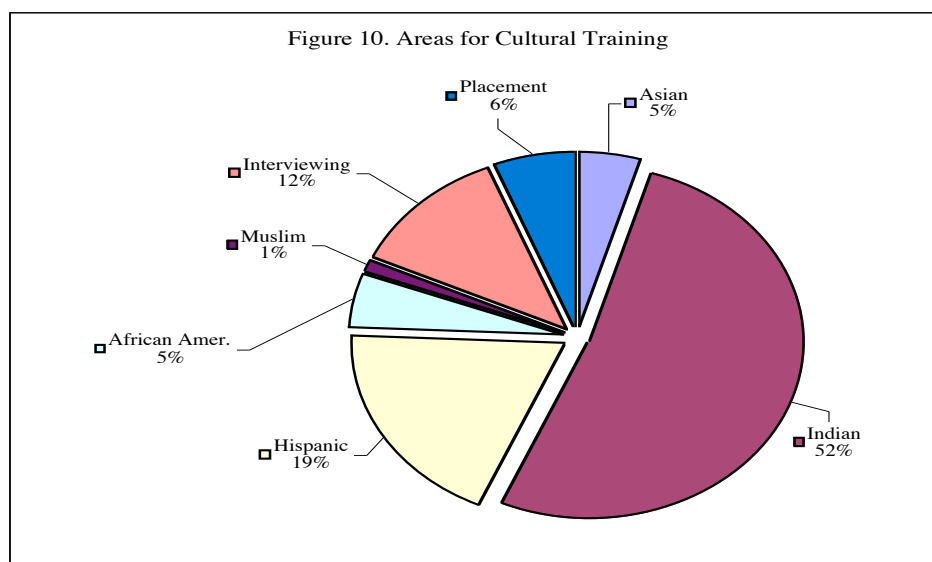
Example 2: Cultural Training

"The survey included questions related to cultural training to gain an understanding of training needs that would enhance competence in working with children, youth and families from diverse populations. Respondents indicated that multi-cultural training would help them to make better and more informed placement decisions when removal from the home is necessary or when transfer from one placement such as shelter care to foster care or to another placement occurs. Respondents indicated a need for training with interviewing children, youth and families from diverse cultures."

Figure 10. Areas for Cultural Training

- Placement 6%
- Asian 5%
- Interviewing 12%
- Muslim 1%
- African Amer. 5%
- Hispanic 19%
- Indian 52%

SUMMARY

It is important for tribal programs to continue collecting data and to move towards storing it using modern day technologies. There different uses for data by line staff, administrators policy makers, and citizens; therefore, tribal programs should work to make use of the tremendous amounts of data currently collected through manual and computerized forms. If programs are going to collect information, it should turn it into data that works for the program in multiple ways that help the program to grow or sustain itself.

The most important things to remember, is to understand your data and use it in ways that your general or special audiences will understand and appreciate what the information means, how it affects them and how they can learn or use the data for their own purposes.

2. ARTICLES

Title: Safety in Numbers: Collecting and Using Crime, Violence, and Discipline Incident Data to Make a Difference in Schools

Corporate Author: US Dept of Education, Office of Education Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics, United States

Publication Date: 07/2002   **Pages:** 113

Annotation: This handbook is designed to improve the effectiveness of data collection and use for school, district, and State staff.

Abstract: Collecting and using incident data are essential steps for creating safe schools. It is possible to develop effective prevention and intervention plans with good data. The benefits of data collection are improving overall school safety, addressing specific safety or discipline issues, conserving resources including staff time, and obtaining additional resources for school safety. Many schools have seen academic benefits from the use of strong data collection systems as part of violence prevention and school improvement efforts. Discipline data are necessary to ensure that ineffective discipline practices are modified or discontinued, effective programs are enhanced, and specialized behavior supports are arranged for students that display chronic problem behaviors. The goal of safe school planning is to create and maintain a positive and welcoming school climate, free of drugs, violence, intimidation, and fear. The challenges to data collection are accuracy, how interpretation affects the school image, how results are reported by the media, and costs of collecting data. Training is a critical element of data collection. All school staff should be trained on what kinds of behavior are to be reported to administrators. The components that ensure that reporting is reliable and valid are clear definitions, alignment of data, checks for completeness and accuracy, comparison with and contrast to other data sources, and detailed reports. In reporting incident data, it is important to report unfavorable results fully and openly along with an action plan to address the issues these data identify. It is also important to be alert to privacy issues when sharing data. The important elements for inclusion in an incident database are information about the incident itself, perpetrator data, victim data, and information about the disciplinary action taken. Communicating with the community about prevention needs is especially important. 7 figures, 2 appendixes, 46 references

Title: Collecting Information To Help Develop More Effective Interventions To Protect Children: Criminal Justice System Response to Child Abuse and Neglect, A Feasibility Study

Corporate Author: Lewis Consulting LTD. Canada

Publication Date: 04/1999   **Pages:** 45

Annotation: This study assesses the feasibility of conducting a pilot project in British Columbia (Canada) that would collect data pertinent to the prevention of child abuse and neglect; this is considered the first step toward creating a national information system on the prevention of child abuse and neglect.

Abstract: The pilot project would ascertain the types of information relevant to criminal offenses related to child abuse and neglect currently recorded and reported and not recorded and reported; investigate the linkage of relevant data sources that could provide a more comprehensive view of the criminal justice system's response to child

abuse and neglect for the purpose of developing empirically based crime prevention initiatives; and ascertain whether similar information could be provided in other Canadian jurisdictions. The scope of this feasibility study is limited to the database systems used to collect and aggregate information from the five major components that compose the criminal justice system in British Columbia. After assessing current data-collection tools, the feasibility study recommends that the pilot project develop a new data-collection tool that specifically targets information relevant to the processing of child abuse and neglect cases by the criminal justice system. Such a tool could be designed with national requirements in mind but tested within the context of a provincial pilot project. Appended British Columbia child abuse and neglect criminal code offenses and information needs

Title: OJJDP Juvenile Justice Mentoring Program Evaluation Workbook
Corporate Author: Caliber Associates
United States
Publication Date: 1996   **Pages:** 56
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Abstract: JUMP was established in 1992 to provide grants to public/private nonprofit organizations to provide adult mentors to high-risk youth to reduce juvenile delinquency and gang participation, improve academic performance, and reduce school dropout rates. The evaluation of the JUMP project involves both process and outcome components. The evaluation will be accomplished through a partnership effort between the grantees, OJJDP, and OJJDP's evaluation contractor. The evaluator will prepare both quarterly and annual reports using data and information collected and provided by grantees. The manual begins with an overview of the JUMP initiative and the national evaluation, the data collection instruments, and procedures and schedules for using the instruments. Charts, instructions, forms, and instruments

Title: OJJDP Juvenile Justice Mentoring Program Evaluation Workbook
Corporate Author: Caliber Associates, United States
 Publication Date: 1996   **Pages:** 56
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Title: Data Collection: A Methodological Response (From Alcohol and Drugs Research and Policy, P 26-32, 1990, Martin Plant, Cees Goos, et. al., eds. -- See NCJ-160822)
Author: J Duffy
Publication Date: 1990   **Pages:** 7
Annotation: This chapter provides an overview and analysis of various researchers' concepts of methodology for collecting data on alcohol, tobacco, and drug use.
Abstract: The author notes that survey methods could not be expected to capture completely the potential variability in the within- individual pattern of drinking, and for most purposes such temporal variation is ignored. Further, there is little evidence that relates population distributions of alcohol consumption over long periods to sample distributions typically based on much shorter time periods. There are two dimensions to the sampling exercise: the individual and the temporal. The discussion of alcohol-consumption data collection also considers the use of diaries in alcohol research on general populations, the use of high preset categories of quantity in the summarial approach, quota sampling, and probability sampling. In general remarks on data collection for alcohol, tobacco, and drug use, the author discusses the randomized response technique, differences in the methodology for the measurement of alcohol and tobacco use, and the need for more research on methods of collecting data on illicit drug use. 16 references

Title: How To Collect and Analyze Data: A Manual for Sheriffs and Jail Administrators
Author: G Elias
Publication Date: 1982   **Pages:** 271
Annotation: This manual provides information to correctional policy makers, namely sheriffs and jail administrators, on effective methods of collecting and analyzing in-house data at local jails.
Abstract: Sheriffs and jail administrators have relied on three traditional resources when collecting and analyzing data, including statistics coursework, information systems coursework or computer programming, and research methods. This manual explains why data should be collected, how to identify the necessary information, how to organize a data collection, how to locate and capture that information, how to put that data together, how to analyze the information, how to interpret results, and how to share those results most effectively. Some additional resources described here include a list of common data elements that jails should collect, a description of the skills needed to collect those data, a list of common places where data elements are found in local jails, a model manual information system, a sample data collection sheet, a short introduction to descriptive statistics, a series of programmed learning exercises, and sample charts and graphs. 49 tables, 30 figures, and 15 appendixes

Data Use Toolkit for Tribal Programs

Title: Fundamentals of Criminal Justice Research
Author: S. E. Brown; J. H. Curtis
Publication Date: 1987   **Pages:** 136
Annotation: This book guides the student through five stages in designing and completing a basic research project in criminal justice: conceptualizing the problem, developing a theory, designing a data collection instrument, collecting and analyzing data, and reporting the project's findings.

Abstract: After emphasizing that techniques outlined in the guide require only a minimal understanding of statistics, the author explains the scientific method and discusses quantitative versus qualitative research methods. The preparatory steps of a literature review, literature critique, and proposal are discussed. Four major forms of data collection are described and illustrated with samples: the questionnaire, interview schedule, use of secondary data, and test instruments. The guide reviews basic statistical concepts, including the normal curve, probability theory, the law of large numbers, casual of measurement, descriptive statistics, parametric and nonparametric statistics, and inferential statistics. A chapter on using a computer to analyze data focuses on setting up an SPSS-X job and interpreting the output. Illustrations from a student research paper demonstrate proper formatting and organization methods. Guidelines for preparing an oral presentation are included. Examples, references, and an index are included.

Title: Tracking Juvenile Recidivists - Three Options for Creating Statewide, Longitudinal Records of Juvenile Offenders
Author: T L Rooney
Publication Date: 1985   **Pages:** 191
Annotation: Based on interviews with California juvenile justice personnel and a statewide telephone survey of 100 California police officials, the State Justice Department outlines 3 systems for collecting data on the subsequent criminal activity of juveniles exposed to treatment programs after having been found delinquent by a juvenile court.

Abstract: The first option uses juvenile court reports currently submitted to the Justice Department to document a juvenile's official involvement with the juvenile justice system. Probation departments could be required to report placement data. Juvenile recidivism would be measured as sustained court petitions. Juvenile court reports would be linked to subsequent adult records by name matching. The second option would also use current juvenile court information along with placement data not currently reported and would measure recidivism as sustained court petitions. It would differ from the first option by requiring fingerprint identification for juvenile offenders, thus ensuring more reliable follow-up of subsequent juvenile and adult offenses. The third option would mandate juvenile fingerprinting and arrest reporting and the maintenance of juvenile records, including placement history, in the criminal history system. Recidivism would be measured as re-arrest or any action subsequent to arrest. The report estimates the costs of the options, summarizes legislation required to implement them, and assesses the options' impact on access to minors' fingerprints. Appendixes summarize interviews and present relevant statutes and regulations as well as Justice Department sample forms. 30 references.