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Title

Change in the relationship between drinking alcohol and risk of violence among adolescents and young adults: A nationally representative longitudinal study

Running Title

Alcohol and violence

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Keywords

Violence, alcohol, epidemiology, adolescence, gender

Short Summary

We have analysed data from a large longitudinal, nationally representative sample to investigate the longitudinal relationship between alcohol and violence.

We found that alcohol is more strongly linked to violence among adolescents than in adults, and particularly males rather than females who binge-drink.

Change in the relationship between drinking alcohol and risk of violence among adolescents and young adults: A nationally representative longitudinal study **Running Title** Alcohol and violence **Authors** Roland M Jones (corresponding author) Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAMH) and University of Toronto 1001 Queen Street West, Unit 3.4 Toronto, ON M6J 1H4 Roland.jones@camh.ca Telephone +1 416-535-8501 Ext. 33241 Prof Marianne Van Den Bree Institute of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, UK **Prof Stanley Zammit** Institute of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, UK And School of Social and Community Medicine, University of Bristol, UK Prof Pamela J Taylor Institute of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, UK **Keywords** Violence, alcohol, epidemiology, adolescence, gender

Abstract

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46 **Aims:** To quantify the relationship between alcohol and violence with increasing age.

47 **Methods:** Data were from The National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult

Health (ADD Health) of 20,386 people representative of the US population. Mean

age at the first wave of interviews was 16.2 years, with subsequent interviews mean

of 1, 6.3 and 12.9 years later. We used randomised effects models and predictive

marginal effects of the association between varying quantities of alcohol consumption

and violence while controlling for possible confounders

Results: Violence was reported by 19.1% of participants at wave I, but just 2.1% at

wave IV. The random-effects model showed that consuming 1-4 drinks on each

occasion was associated with a modest increase in risk of violence in males and

females (OR 1.36 (1.13-1.63) and 1.33 (1.03-1.72) respectively). For consumption of

5 or more drinks on each occasion the risk remained similar for females (OR 1.40

(0.99-1.97)), but increased considerably for males (OR 2.41 (1.96-2.95). Predictive

marginal effects models confirmed that violence rates decreased with age.

Conclusions: Alcohol is most strongly linked to violence among adolescents, so

programmes for primary prevention of alcohol-related violence are best targeted

towards this age group, and particularly males who engage in heavy episodic

63 drinking.

66	Short Summary
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- 71 We found that alcohol is more strongly linked to violence among adolescents than in
- 72 adults, and particularly males rather than females who engage in heavy episodic
- 73 drinking.

Introduction

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Violence is responsible for high global rates of morbidity and mortality, with 76 homicide representing the 4th leading cause of death for 15-29 year olds (World 77 78 Health Organisation, 2010). Rates of criminal injury that require hospital treatment 79 are 30-40 times higher among this age group (World Health Organisation, 2005). The 80 direct and indirect costs to the individual and society are high (Organization, 2008), 81 with the economic burden of violence estimated to be approximately 3% of GDP in 82 both the USA (World Health Organisation, 2004) and the UK (Dubourg et al., 2005) 83 annually. 84 Although the causes of violence are complex and multifactorial, one of the most common risk factors for violent behaviour is alcohol use. Violence is commonly 85 86 carried out by people who had consumed alcohol prior to the offence(CSEW, 2013), 87 and about half of victims of assault believe that their attacker was under the influence 88 of alcohol at the time of the assault (Steen and Hunskaar, 2004). 89 It is known that alcohol consumption in Western countries tends to increase markedly 90 from adolescence into adulthood. In the USA, around 4% of 12-14 year olds report 91 drinking in the last month (Health and Social Care Information Centre, 2014), while 92 20% of 12-20 year olds, and up to 56% of those aged over 20 report drinking alcohol 93 (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA), 2015b). 94 The rate of heavy episodic drinking (often defined as 5 or more drinks for men and 4 95 or more drinks for women on a single drinking occasion(Wechsler and Nelson, 2001)) 96 also rises sharply during early adulthood from 5.8% of 12-17 year olds to 97 approximately 38% of 18-34 year olds (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services 98 Administration (SAMHSA), 2015a). In contrast however, rates of violence in the 99 general population tend to peak in adolescence and decline thereafter (Flatley et al., 100 2010; Nash and Kim, 2006). Thus, although a common explanation for violence is 101 alcohol consumption, rates of alcohol consumption rises while rates of violence fall in 102 the general population in Western countries during the period from adolescence to 103 adulthood. 104 Several longitudinal studies have found evidence for a relationship between alcohol

and violence. Two studies that used data from the Longitudinal Study of Adolescent

106 Health (Add Health) found evidence of a significant relationship between alcohol and 107 violence. Using data from waves I and II among a subgroup of adolescents who 108 reported drinking alcohol, the initiation of violence was associated with high volume 109 or frequent alcohol use (Swahn and Donovan, 2004, 2005). Similarly, an analysis 110 of data from the Christchurch birth cohort found a significant relationship between 111 alcohol and violence in 15-21 year olds after adjusting for a wide range of covariates 112 (Boden et al., 2012; Fergusson and Horwood, 2000). Other longitudinal studies have 113 similarly found a positive relationship between alcohol and violence (Blitstein et al., 114 2005; Duncan et al., 1997; Ellickson et al., 2003; Xue et al., 2009). 115 Several longitudinal studies however have found a positive relationship between 116 alcohol and violence at some time points and not others. A latent class analysis of the 117 Christchurch data (Wells et al., 2004) identified 4 latent classes, representing 118 increasing levels of severity of alcohol problems. The severity of alcohol problems 119 predicted violence at age 16-21, but not at age 21-25. Two papers arising from the 120 Pittsburgh Youth Study reached differing conclusions. Data from 506 boys aged 13 121 who were interviewed annually until age age18 showed significant association 122 between alcohol at age 13, and violence at any time between age 14 and 18(White et 123 al., 1999). However in a subsequent analysis, the relationship between alcohol use at 124 each age and violence the following year was significant only among those drinking 125 at age 13(Wei et al., 2004). In a study from Australia, (Scholes-Balog et al., 2013), 126 alcohol consumption at age 13 was found to be associated with violence at age 15, 127 however alcohol consumption at age 15 was not associated with violence at age 17. 128 Another study which involved structural equation analysis of over 808 students over 4 129 waves found only weak evidence of a relationship between alcohol and aggression in 130 one out of the three paths tested (Huang et al., 2001). 131 There are several reasons why some studies and not others have found a significant 132 relationship between alcohol and violence. First, the age of the participants both at 133 inception and at follow up varies between the studies. Some studies recruited 134 children aged 10 or younger, while others recruited older children and young adults. 135 The age at which violence was measured as the outcome variable also varied 136 considerably between studies, while some investigated overall trajectories of violence 137 It is possible therefore that the relationship between alcohol and violence is not

constant, and may vary with age. Second, many studies have not controlled for the breadth of potentially relevant confounders, or have studied highly selected groups such as from schools in high crime areas. Third, many studies have been relatively small (less than 500 participants) and few have included a comprehensive set of variables that have been identified as being associated with both violence and alcohol use. Finally, few studies have incorporated changes in level of alcohol use during the course of the study, and have relied on baseline alcohol use and subsequent violence.

Our aim was therefore to examine whether the risk of violence associated with alcohol use varies by age, in a large nationally representative cohort of adolescents, over a 13 year period, while adjusting for potential confounders. Our null hypothesis was that there was no change in the relationship between alcohol and violence with increasing age.

151 Methods

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Design and setting

154 We used data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add 155 Health (Harris et al., 2009), a study of nationally representative adolescents in the United States of America (USA), which commenced in 1994-95. Interviews took 156 157 place in four waves which were carried out in 1994/5, 1995/6, 2001/2 and 2007/8. At baseline (wave I), the participants were between age 11 and 21 (mean age 16). 158 159 Participants were selected from 80 high schools and 52 middle schools in numbers 160 proportional to the size of each school. The design also ensured that the sample was 161 representative of US school attenders with respect to country of origin, school size,

school type, urbanicity, and ethnicity(Harris, 1995).

Participants were interviewed in their homes using audio-computer assisted self interview (ACASI). A parent of each participant also completed an interviewer-assisted questionnaire at wave I. Nationally collected social, demographic, and criminological data from the US Census Bureau at the level of census block group (consisting on average of 452 housing units or 1,100 people (1990) were linked to participants in the study for use as covariates in the analyses. Participants were interviewed on three further occasions, (wave II in 1996, wave III in 2001/2002, and wave IV in 2008).

171 Exposure Data

172 At each of the four waves, participants were asked the same two questions about their 173 alcohol exposure: "Think of all the times you have had a drink during the past 12 174 months. How many did you usually have each time? - A 'drink' is a glass of wine, a can of beer, wine cooler, a shot glass of liquor, or a mixed drink." Responses were 175 176 categorised as 0, 1-4 and 5 or more. Participants were also asked, "Over the past 12 months on how many days did you drink 5 or more drinks in a row?" Responses were: 177 178 "1 or 2 days", "Once a month", "2 or 3 days month", "1 or 2 days a week", "3 to 5 179 days a week" or "Every/almost every day".

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Outcome variables

182 Violence

Violence was ascertained at each of the 4 waves by asking, "In the past 12 months, 183 184 how often did you hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or care from a doctor or nurse?" Participants responded either "Never", "1 or 2 times", "3 or 4 185 times", or "5 or more times", and responses were converted to a binary variable for 186 this study to indicate whether or not they reported engaging in violence. Two 187 188 secondary outcome measures were also examined –the frequency of physical fighting 189 "physical fighting" (asked at wave I, II and IV), and whether the respondent had been 190 involved with fighting in a group against another group, "group fighting" (asked at all 191 4 waves).

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Co-variates

Individual-level time-variant covariates which were gathered by self-reported questionnaires at every wave were cigarette smoking (which we categorised as 0, 1-60 and 60 or more cigarettes per month), cannabis use (used versus not used cannabis in the past 12 months), and age. Covariates analysed as time-invariant were gathered at wave I, which were ethnicity (categorised as White, Black, Asian or other), gender (male or female), IQ (measured using The Adolescent Health Picture Vocabulary Test adapted from the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Revised (Dunn and Dunn, 1981)), temper (parent report as to whether the child has a bad temper ("Yes/No")), depression (measured on a 19-item scale at wave I adapted from the Center for Epidemiologic Studies of Depression Scale (CES-D) (Radloff, 1977)), parental conflict (parent report as to how much they "fight or argue" with their spouse, on a scale 0-3, those without a spouse were coded as 0), peer substance abuse (of their three closest friends, how many who drink alcohol, smoke cigarettes or use marijuana at least once a month, total score 0-9), and delinquency (sum of 11 questions regarding frequency of behaviours including stealing, damage to property, entering buildings without permission, running away and selling drugs).

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We used two neighbourhood measures, assumed to be time-invariant, measured at wave I, which were neighbourhood disadvantage, and neighbourhood violent crime rate. Neighbourhood disadvantage is a composite variable derived from US Census Bureau statistics comprised of: (a) proportion of single parent families, (b) proportion

215 of households with income less than \$15,000; (c) proportion of people with high 216 school diploma; and (d) unemployment in the neighbourhood in which each 217 participant was located, defined as a US Census Bureau census block group which 218 had, on average, 452 housing units or 1100 people. We used principal component 219 factor analysis to obtain the composite neighbourhood disadvantage variable. The 220 variables loaded strongly onto a single factor, with loadings of 0.76, 0.88, 0.81 and 221 0.83 for the proportion of single parent families, proportion of households with 222 income less than \$15,000, proportion of people with high school diploma; and 223 unemployment respectively.

Statistical analysis

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- 225 We first fitted random effects models using the entire cohort to investigate the effect 226 of levels of exposure to alcohol on violence over the 4 waves. We estimated the 227 marginal effect using the delta method (the difference in probability of the outcome 228 when the exposure is present versus not present) for ages between 12 and 30 years by 229 gender. We then repeated the analysis on an incident violence cohort, in which all 230 those who reported violence at wave I were excluded in order to further investigate 231
- 232 For calculations of proportions of those violent we present in tables, we used inverse

causality. Stata 12 was used for all analyses (StataCorp, 2012).

- 233 probability weighting (IPW) to take into account the sampling design and non-
- 234 response at preceding waves.
- 235 Sensitivity analyses
- 236 We carried out 2 sensitivity analyses. First, it could be considered that delinquency is
- 237 on the causal pathway between alcohol and violence, and therefore adjusting for it
- 238 may have introduced bias, and reduced the estimate of the effect size. We therefore
- 239 repeated the analyses excluding delinquency as a co-variate. Secondly, we used
- 240 alternative measures of violence as the outcome measure (serious fighting, and
- 241 fighting in a group).
- 242 Results
- There were 20,542 individual at wave I, 49.4% were males. The mean age was 16.2 243
- 244 (sd=1.71, range 11.4-21.4). There were 14,712 individual at wave II (48.7% males,

- 245 mean age 16.7, sd=1.61), 14,948 at wave III (47.1% males, mean age 22.5, sd=1.75),
- 246 and 15,699 at wave IV (46.8% males, mean age 30.0, sd=1.75).
- 247 Alcohol use
- Table 1 shows the characteristics of the participants by alcohol use at wave 1), with
- 249 frequencies and weighted proportions of those endorsing each response used in
- 250 calculating associations between alcohol use and violence.
- Table 1 about here
- 252 Violence
- 253 The weighted proportion of people reporting violence at wave I was 19.1%. At wave
- II, the weighted proportion was just over 8%, and was 6.4% at waves III and 2.1% at
- wave IV.
- 256 Relationships between alcohol consumption and violence
- 257 The random-effects model of the effect of change in alcohol exposure on violence,
- 258 while adjusting simultaneously for time-variant and time-invariant confounders
- showed that, overall, drinking 1-4 drinks on each occasion was associated with an
- increase in risk of violence in males and females (OR 1.36 and 1.33 respectively) (see
- table 2). Heavier drinking, (more than 5 drinks on each occasion) was associated with
- a further increase in the odds of violence among males (OR 2.41, 95% CI 1.96-2.95,
- 263 p<0.001) compared with non-drinkers, whilst the elevation remained similar for
- 264 females (OR 1.40, 95% CI 0.99-1.97, p=0.055).

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Table 2 about here

- 268 Figure 1 shows the predictive marginal effect of alcohol (plotted by categories of no
- alcohol, 1-4 drinks and 5 or more) on the probability of violence from age 12-30 for
- 270 males and females separately. The probability of violence is greater in males than in
- 271 females, however the pattern is similar in both sexes; drinking 5 or more drinks each

- occasion is associated with a higher probability of violence from age 12, continuing
- into mid 20s and beyond, whereas consuming 1-4 drinks is not associated with a
- significantly higher probability of violence compared with non-drinkers.
- 275 Drinking 1-4 drinks or 5 or more drinks on each occasion is associated with a
- significantly higher probability of violence between age 12 and approximately age 18.
- 277 Thereafter, there is no additional risk of violence among those who drank 1-4 drinks
- each occasion compared with those who drank no alcohol in either gender. Those who
- 279 reported usually having 5 or more drinks on a single occasion had a significantly
- 280 higher probability of violence than non- drinkers throughout the period of observation,
- but the trajectories tended to converge with increasing age, and more so for females
- than males.
 - Figure 1 about here
- 284

- 285 Sensitivity analyses
- We carried out a repeat of the analyses without without adjustment for delinquency as
- 287 it is possible that adjusting for delinquency may have reduced the estimate of the
- 288 effect size if it is on the causal pathway between alcohol and violence. The
- association between heavy drinking (drinking 5 or more drinks) and violence
- remained almost the same in these analyses both for males (OR 2.24, 1.93-2.61,
- 291 p<0.001), and females (OR 1.64, 1.30-2.07, p<0.001). However, the model with no
- adjustment for delinquency did show evidence for association between drinking 1-4
- 293 drinks and violence in males (OR 1.32, 1.14-1.51, p<0.001) and females (OR 1.41,
- 294 1.17-1.69, p<0.001).
- We also investigated other categories of violence, namely physical fighting and
- 296 fighting in a group. Similar findings were found for at least one reported episode of
- 297 physical fighting. Among men, drinking between 1-4 drinks was associated with such
- 298 violence (OR 1.28,1.09-1.51, p=0.003), as was consuming 5 or more drinks (OR 1.91,
- 299 1.57-2.33, p<0.003). Among females, 5 or more drinks was associated with violence
- 300 (OR 1.36, 1.03-1.79, p=0.028) but consuming 1-4 drinks was not (OR 1.15, 0.94-1.41,
- p=0.163). Rates of self-reported fighting in a group were also higher at any level of

reported drinking in both sexes. Males who consumed 1-4 drinks had increased rates of violence (OR= 1.89 (1.59-2.25, p<0.001), as did males who consumed 5 or more drinks had OR= 3.0 (2.46-3.65, p<0.001). Females who consumed 1-4 drinks also had increased rates of violence (OR 1.5, 1.24-1.89, p<0.001), as did females who consumed 5 or more drinks (OR 1.81, 1.38-2.39, p<0.001).

Discussion

We carried out a longitudinal study of nationally representative adolescents and young adults to investigate the dynamic association between alcohol and violence while controlling for a comprehensive set of individual and social-contextual confounders. We found that those who consumed, 1-4 drinks each occasion had a 36% higher risk of violence, and those who consumed 5 or more drinks had 214% higher risk compared with those who did not drink alcohol. Moreover, we found that both violence rates and the effect of alcohol on violence apparently diminished with increasing age in both males and females. Those who drank 1-4 drinks had an elevated risk of violence only during adolescence (not adulthood) compared with those who did not drink. Furthermore, for those who drank 5 or more drinks each occasion, the risk was apparently highest amongst adolescents, but the relative risk gradually reduced and seemed to converge by the 4th decade. Similar patterns were found for both males and females. This finding was confirmed when other measures of violence (serious physical fighting and fighting in a group) were examined, however, there were differences in the association between alcohol and fighting in a group. The effect of heavy drinking on fighting in a group was greater than for nongroup fighting, and this effect, continued to be evident until the 4th decade.

Overall, the prevalence of alcohol use and misuse in this study is similar to that found in other national surveys in the USA (Chen et al., 2013). Our findings are also consistent with the studies suggesting that the association between alcohol and violence is present only in younger cohorts(Wells et al., 2004) (Scholes-Balog et al., 2013).

333 Confounding

The association between alcohol use and violence was adjusted for several factors that were, a priori, known to be associated with alcohol misuse and violence. An extensive set of factors including individual, family, and neighbourhood characteristics were adjusted for. An additional strength was the ability to control for official rates of violent crime in the local community, as well as official indicators of deprivation. Two variables were responsible for large confounding effects; they were peer drug use, and delinquency which both reduced the apparent association by over 70% in preliminary univariate analyses. It is possible that violence and substance misuse are part of a problem behaviour syndrome, and that each of these behaviours may be expressions of a common underlying phenotype, however, there is some prior evidence that a single common factor cannot adequately explain both substance use and delinquency (LeBlanc and Loeber, 1998; Osgood et al., 1988; Paradise and Cauce, 2003; Tremblay et al., 2004; White and Labouvie, 1994). That there remained a significant association between alcohol and violence even after controlling for other substances as well as non-violent delinquency indicates that an underlying propensity for risk-taking, addictive or general problem behaviours does not adequately explain the observed association between alcohol and violence in this study.

Association with drug using peers also explained a large proportion of the apparent relationship, indicating that young people who drank and who were violent were significantly more likely to associate with substance using peers. It is possible that some of the violence occurred because violent provocation may be more likely to occur among peer groups whose members become intoxicated, disinhibited or are in states of withdrawal, or who use violence in the acquisition of substances or the means to acquire them. The association remained significant between alcohol and violence even after controlling for peer substance use in our study. Adjustment for gender, ethnicity, IQ, depression, temper, neighbourhood violent crime and neighbourhood disadvantage resulted in small changes in the crude relationship. Although a fairly comprehensive set of potential confounders were selected, the list was not exhaustive and there are other potential confounders that were not used in this analysis.

364 Causality

Although we have found a relationship between alcohol and violence, we are unable to ascertain whether this is a causal relationship. We consider causality with respect to the Bradford-Hill criteria (Bradford-Hill, 1965).

Temporality. In this study, the measurement of alcohol use preceded the observation of violence by virtue of the prospective longitudinal design and the use of statistical methods appropriate to the design. Given that questions relating to the exposure and outcome were ascertained repeatedly over 4 waves, there are multiple opportunities to assess the temporal relationship within individuals, however there remains a difficulty in ascertaining the temporal sequence of alcohol and violence when both arise between waves of data collection as would have happened with some individuals in this study. Dose-response relationship and strength of association. Analysis of the entire cohort showed that those who regularly consumed 1-4 alcoholic drinks had and an increased odds of violence of 1.36 and those who regularly drank 5 or more drinks on each occasion the odds of violence was 2.4 Using the method described by Chen (Chen et al., 2010) odds ratios of 1.7, 3.5 and 6.7 are estimated to be equivalent to Cohen's d effect sizes of small, medium and large respectively. We observed some evidence of a dose-response effect, however the observed association between alcohol consumption and later violence in our study is overall small.

Consistency A causal interpretation is strengthened when the association is consistently found after multiple replications. In our study, we found the association held across several different measures of violence, including measures of violence, fighting, and group violence. *Biological Plausibility* There is evidence from previous research that alcohol has differential effects on the adolescent compared with the adult brain; for example adolescents have more memory impairment during acute intoxication than adults(Acheson et al., 1998). It is possible therefore that younger people are more susceptible to the detrimental effects of alcohol. Adolescence is a time of major development of the human brain, and particularly of the prefrontal cortex that is important for impulse control, and this be a factor contributing towards adolescents' propensity for risk-taking, sensation seeking and impulsivity (Alfonso-Loeches and Guerri, 2011). Alcohol may therefore have a disproportionately greater

impact on the adolescent brain in contributing to disinhibition and aggression as important self-regulatory functions are still in the process of development and maturation.

Strengths and limitation

There are a number of limitations with our study. It was not possible to correct for all time-dynamic confounders and it is therefore possible that changes in the strength of the relationship over time can be explained by changes in confounders that varied over time, such as exposure to stress or trauma. Also, attrition in this study could have resulted in an over-estimation of the association between alcohol and violence if drinkers who became violent were less likely to drop out than drinkers who did not become violent, or if those who were non-drinkers who did not become violent were more likely to drop out. It is more likely however that those who were violent, and drinking alcohol were more likely to engage in other problematic or chaotic behaviours, and thus less likely to be traced or to participate in follow-up. It is possible therefore that, if anything, the extent of the relationships may be underestimated. In addition, all individuals who participated in two or more, not necessarily consecutive, waves of data collection were included in the study to maximise the information available, thus mitigating against non-participation in one or two waves.

We noted the sharp decline in reported violence between wave I and II which might be due to misclassification of violence at wave I (over reporting). However, similar findings were observed in the other measures of violence, fighting and fighting in a group, and neither were other forms of antisocial behaviour such as drug or alcohol use elevated among the first wave respondents as might be expected if there was a general tendency to over report deviant behaviours. It is unlikely therefore that there was substantial misclassification of violence at wave I. It is possible however that that the perception of violence changed as participants got older, such that there was an under-reporting of violence as participants got older. Although the questions used to enquire about violence were identical at each wave, the perception of, or reporting of violence at different ages may have varied. For example the perpetration of violence as an adolescent categorised as "hurting someone badly enough to need bandages or

care from a doctor or nurse" may be more readily endorsed if both perpetrator and victim are young, for example if the victim receives medical attention from a school nurse, but at a later age, victims may not readily seek medical attention, such as in intimate partner violence. It is possible therefore that the relationship between alcohol and violence does not change with age, but the type of violence or perception of violence from the perspective of either perpetrator or victim changes. In addition, our focus was explicitly on physical violence, and our findings may not generalise to other forms of aggression such as sexual violence or aggression towards property. Nevertheless, our findings are in keeping with other longitudinal studies that indicate that the relationship between alcohol and violence holds for younger but not older age groups.

The main strengths of the study are the large size of the sample, which was representative of the US general population, the variation in age within the cohort, the variation in time between data collection points which allowed the application of appropriate statistical models to examine change, the long follow up period, good study retention rate, and the use of comparable measure at each time point.

An additional strength was the ability to control for a comprehensive set of potential confounders, including official rates of violent crime in the local community, and social indicators of the local area.

Conclusions

Our study provides evidence to support the hypothesis that the effect of alcohol on violence varies with quantity consumed on each occasion, and the effect of alcohol and violence appears to reduce with age. These findings suggest that efforts towards primary prevention of alcohol related violence reduction should be targeted on reducing the amount individuals consume on each occasion, and would best be focussed on adolescents.

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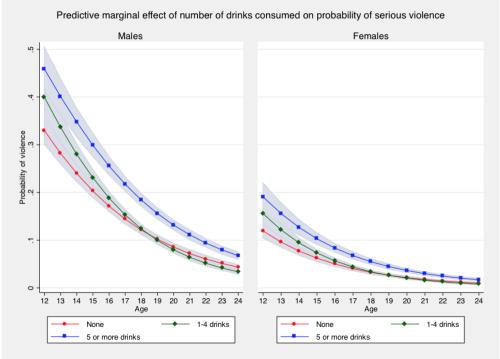
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Change in the relationship between drinking alcohol and risk of violence with increasing age: A nationally representative longitudinal study

Figure 1. Predictive marginal effects (with 95% CIs) of violence for number of drinks usually consumed each occasion, age 12-24, by gender



Change in the relationship between drinking alcohol and risk of violence among adolescents and young adults: A nationally representative longitudinal study

Table 1. Participant characteristics at wave 1 by number of alcoholic drinks usually consumed

Frequency by number of drinks usually consumed on each occasion at baseline n=20,542 (Weighted %) ¹							
	0 Drinks	1-4 Drinks	5 or more Drinks				
Violence							
No	9,345 (86.2)	4,725 (81.5)	2,488 (69.0)				
Yes	1,599 (13.8)	1,099 (18.5)	1,130 (31.0)				
Cigarettes							
No	9,844 (89.9)	3,677 (60.4)	1,498 (39.9)				
Yes	1,037 (10.1)	2,124 (39.6)	2,100 (60.1)				
Cannabis							
No	10,459 (96.9)	4,655 (80.7)	2,154 (60.9)				
Yes	388 (3.1)	1,116 (19.3)	1,388 (39.1)				
Ethnicity	•						
White	6,130 (69.4)	3,752 (75.5)	2,797 (74.0)				
Black	3,071 (19.8)	1,235 (15.6)	373 (16.4)				
Asian / Pacific Island	891 (4.3)	371 (2.0)	162 (3.6)				
Other	844 (6.5)	464 (0.5)	286 (6.0)				
Delinquency							
Lower tertile	4,040 (39.9)	891 (16.6)	362 (10.4)				
Middle tertile	3,942 (35.1)	1,776 (31.3)	758 (22.3)				
Upper tertile	2,992 (25.0)	3,130 (52.2)	2,477 (67.4)				
IQ	=,>>= (==++)	e,=== (===)	=, (****)				
Lower tertile	3,835 (33.5)	1,596 (25.2)	868 (22.0)				
Middle tertile	3,343 (33.8)	1,938 (35.7)	1,321 (38.4)				
Upper tertile	3,184 (32.7)	2,026 (30.0)	1,281 (39.7)				
Temper	2,101 (2217)	2,020 (20.0)	1,201 (8)11)				
No	6,771 (71.9)	3,221 (66.9)	1,813 (68.6)				
Yes	2,578 (28.1)	1,609 (33.1)	1,199 (31.4)				
Depression	2,570 (20.1)	1,007 (33.1)	1,177 (31.1)				
Lower tertile	3,679 (36.6)	1,420 (26.4)	828 (31.4)				
Middle tertile	3,730 (34.0)	1,986 (34.7)	1,129 (33.8)				
Upper tertile	3,535 (29.4)	2,418 (38.9)	1,661 (43.8)				
Parent conflict	2,000 (27.1)	2,.10 (50.7)	1,001 (10.0)				
No	7,222 (77.3)	3,663 (75.9)	2,253 (76.6)				
Yes	2,023 (22.7)	1,190 (24.1)	725 (23.4)				
Peer substance use	-, · - · · (1,1/0 (21.1)	. 20 (20.1)				
No	5,658 (54.3)	896 (15.4)	177 (4.6)				
Yes	4,925 (45.7)	4,844 (84.7)	3,384 (95.4)				
Neighbourhood Viole		1,011 (07.7)	3,301 (73.7)				
Crime							
Lower tertile	3,178 (33.3)	1,746 (33.4)	1,367 (39.5)				
Middle tertile	3,383 (39.2)	1,920 (41.7)	1,157 (40.0)				
Upper tertile	4,118 (27.6)	2,002 (25.0)	2,002 (20.5)				
Neighbourhood disadvantag		2,002 (23.0)	2,002 (20.3)				
Lower tertile	C						
Middle tertile	3,361 (34.5)	1,932 (36.2)	1,248 (35.4)				
	3,301 (34.3)	1,932 (30.2)	1,314 (30.7)				
Upper tertile	3,301 (28.7)	1,943 (32.0)	1,514 (50.7)				

¹ Inverse probability weighting (IPW) to account for sampling design and non-response at preceding waves

Change in the relationship between drinking alcohol and risk of violence among adolescents and young adults: A nationally representative longitudinal study

Table 2. Random-effects models of effects of quantity of alcohol, cigarette smoking and cannabis use (time variant) on violence, adjusted for time-invariant covariates including interaction terms by gender

	Males			Females		
Violence	OR	95% CI	p	OR	95%CI	p
Number of drinks						
usually consumed 0						
1-4	1.34	1.11-1.60	0.002	1.33	1.03-1.72	0.030
5 or more	2.32	1.90-2.83	< 0.001	1.40	0.99-1.97	0.055
Number of times						
smoked cigarettes in last						
month None	1					
1-60	1.03	0.83-1.28	0.806	0.97	0.70-1.35	0.870
61 or more	1.51	1.22-1.87	< 0.001	1.61	1.13-2.29	0.008
Number of times used						
cannabis in last 30 days						
None	1					
1-10	1.45	1.19-1.76	< 0.001	1.35	0.98-1.86	0.067
11 or more	1.63	1.28-2.09	< 0.001	1.90	1.23-2.93	0.004
Age (centered at 16)	0.82	0.80-0.84	< 0.001	0.74	0.68-0.75	< 0.001
Age squared	1.00	1.00-1.00	0.137	1.01	1.01-1.01	< 0.001
Number of drinks X age						
1-4	0.06	0.02.0.00	-0.001	0.04	0.00.000	0.001
5 or more	0.96	0.92-0.99	< 0.001	0.94	0.89-0.99	0.021
Tel. 1.1.	0.99	0.96-1.02	0.394	1.03	0.97-1.09	0.311
Ethnicity White	1					
Black	1.42	1.22-1.66	< 0.001	2.21	1.78-2.74	< 0.001
Asian	0.77	0.60-1.00	0.001	0.59	0.36-0.95	0.001
Other	1.07	0.87-1.32	0.514	1.58	1.18-2.11	0.002
Delinquency	1.16	1.14-1.18	< 0.001	1.18	1.14-1.22	< 0.001
IQ	0.99	0.99-0.99	< 0.001	0.98	0.98-0.99	< 0.001
Temper	1.45	1.30-1.63	< 0.001	1.64	1.39-1.93	< 0.001
Depression	1.01	1.01-1.02	0.001	1.01	1.00-1.02	0.010
Parents conflict	0.91	0.85-0.97	0.006	0.94	0.86-1.04	0.238
Peer substance use	1.08	1.05-1.10	< 0.001	1.12	0.92-1.11	< 0.001
Neighbourhood violent	1.02	1.01-1.03	< 0.001	1.01	1.00-1.03	0.058
crime rate						
Neighbourhood	1.07	1.01-1.14	0.030	1.14	1.05-1.23	0.001
disadvantage						
Alcohol X delinquency						
0	1					
1-4	0.97	0.94-0.99	0.013	0.99	0.95-1.03	0.488
5 or more	0.96	0.94-0.99	0.003	0.99	0.95-1.03	0.646
Alcohol X age 0	1					
1-4	0.95	0.92-0.98	0.004	0.99	0.95-1.03	0.488
5 or more	0.98	0.94-0.99	0.373	0.99	0.95-1.03	0.653
Cigarettes X						
delinquency						
None	1					
1-60	1.01	0.98-1.04	0.411	1.02	0.98-1.07	0.292
61 or more	0.97	0.95-1.00	0.042	0.96	0.92-1.00	0.068
Cannabis X delinquency	1					
No V	1	0.05.0.00	0.015	1.00	0.06.1.02	0.001
Yes	0.97	0.95-0.99	0.015	1.00	0.96-1.03	0.081