

**Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls  
on Probation**

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DISSERTATION

Submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements  
For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Work  
In the Graduate College of the  
University of Illinois at Chicago, 2014

Chicago, Illinois

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This dissertation is dedicated to every girl that has been arrested, detained and/or incarcerated whether by direct or indirect fault of her own. Your plight and experience has not gone by unnoticed nor without concern for redress. Your involvement in the justice system is not your identity but it is your testimony and narrative that stand without question or interrogation so that others can learn from your strength and resilience.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Many thanks to God for fortifying my mind, body and spirit to complete this journey. Throughout this time, I have received unconditional support and encouragement from a host of people that made this project possible. Starting with my grandparents, Samuel and Jessie Mason, they always encouraged me to be my best and get an education. Although they did not finish this journey with me, I know they have been by my side to the end. Their encouragement was reinforced by my mother, Jessica L. Quinn-Cameron and I would not be where I am today without her unconditional love, nurturing, support, encouragement and optimism. Her selflessness and fortitude are boundless and I appreciate her beyond measure.

I am fortunate to have had the opportunity to work with a wonderful advisor and dissertation committee. I am truly indebted to my Chair, Sonya J. Leathers, for her extraordinary expertise, patience, enthusiasm, belief in my study and vision for my future as a researcher. She willingly shared her time and energy, spending countless hours discussing concepts, and reviewing drafts of my proposals and dissertation chapters. My writing and analytical skills have improved tremendously over the last several years, and I cannot thank her enough for her dedication and support. I also owe sincere and heartfelt thanks to my esteemed committee: James Gleeson, Patricia O'Brien, Dexter Voisin and Miquel Lewis. This project would not have come to fruition without their collective effort, vision and investment.

I would also like to thank my external partners: Kevin Hickey, Cook County Juvenile Probation; Margie Groot, Administrative Office of the Illinois Court; and David Robinson and Natalie Jones, Orbis Partners, Inc. for allowing me to access the data and without whom this research would not have been possible.

My gratitude extends to the University of Illinois at Chicago Graduate College and Gender and Women's Studies for their generous support of my dissertation research project through the Provost and Alice J. Dan awards. Special thanks to Jose Perales and Demetria Ward who always cheered me on no matter what the circumstances were. I also wish to thank my colleagues, Beth-Anne Jacobs and Ian Jantz, who provided me with outstanding consultation and support. Beth-Anne, your support in my process was invaluable as I moved through some of the most challenging aspects of my program. Ian, you provided meticulous database and analytical consultation and helped me feel reassured that my project could be accomplished in a timely manner.

I must also offer special thanks to my UIC network of collegial support including Jane Addams College of Social Work (JACSW) students, faculty, staff and alumni. A heartfelt thanks to other UIC faculty who inspired me in my work and offered wise counsel: Beth Calhoun, Julie Darnell, Beth Richie, Peter Ibara, Paul Schewe, and Michele Kelley. Your commitment to scholarship and humanity has been an example I will follow throughout my career.

My appreciation is also extended to my network of support including my colleague and friend, Waldo Johnson. Also, I wish to thank Kathryn Isaacs, Catherine Cerulli, Yeates Conwell and the rest of my VMED family. VMED came along at the perfect time and I am blessed beyond measure for all that it has brought into my life both personally and professionally.

Naturally, I have to thank all my friends: Nikki, Paula, Khwanda, Hermese, Cylenthia, Phil, Henrika, Felicia, Sonia, Latreece, Emile and Alana for the emotional support you provided, which allowed me to complete my project. You have been there for me in so many ways and you should know that you are really my family. Your words of encouragement and willingness

to spend endless hours listening to me and advising me were invaluable to my process. Also, I could never forget my Accountability Circle: Denise, Kim, Rhoda, Tonya and Michelle. Our weekly conference calls became integral to my support system and I've learned so much about myself and being in a true community of scholars. Your support has been critical to my journey and I'm so thankful for each and every one of you.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AOIC	Administrative Offices of the Illinois Court
CCJPD	Cook County Juvenile Probation Department
CCJTDC	Cook County Juvenile Temporary Detention Center
CRT	Critical Race Theory
DMC	Disproportionate Minority Contact
DMR	Disproportionate Minority Representation
GSG	Girls Study Group
JJDPa	Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974
OCJ	Office of the Chief Judge
OJJDP	Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention
OPI	Orbis Partners, Inc.
YASI	Youth Assessment Screening Instrument

## **SUMMARY**

An exploratory study of gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors and the recidivism of youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois was conducted using secondary data analysis. Information was collected by probation officers and clinicians on 5,831 girls and boys ages 12 to 17 comprising demographics, risk and protective factor characteristics and unique identifiers (names, birthdates and IDs). Associations between race, gender, risk and protection, and recidivism were examined.

The study results noted that girls had higher ratings in the majority of risk factors across social domains. Many of the risk factors for girls and boys were consistent with previous research. Significantly more girls than boys had run away, had conduct disorder symptoms, mental problems and suicidal behavior, experienced abuse, victimization, parental problems (problems with alcohol and drugs and mental health, and criminal records) and ineffective parenting. Boys had more weapons offenses, had problems with substance abuse, more friends with delinquent influences, more gang involvement and learning difficulties than girls. Boys had higher ratings than girls in the majority of protective factors in the social domains. More boys held positive beliefs about education, problem solving, experienced appropriate parenting, were close to parents and family, felt connected to school and had high academic achievement. Girls compared to boys held beliefs that school provides support and were close to prosocial peers.

Unlike girls, boys had significant findings across most racial/ethnic groups and across recidivism. More White girls and boys indicated the problems with substance abuse than youth from other racial groups. African American males had the most parents with criminal backgrounds and more Hispanic males were gang involved. For protective factors, the Other

racial group of males experienced more appropriate parental discipline, were close to prosocial peers and involved in extracurricular activities. Seven percent of the sample recidivated including a higher number of boys than girls (7.5% and 3.2%, respectively). One significant risk factor for boys for recidivism was age at first offense. The significant protective factors for boys that didn't recidivate were appropriate parental discipline and closeness to prosocial peers. Separate multivariate analyses for boys and girls could not be conducted due to the small sample of girls that recidivated.

Girls and boys on probation have critical needs based on their risk factors in this study. In particular, girls have greater needs but paradoxically their recidivism rates are lower. Their risk of recidivism persists as they have more risk factors and fewer protective factors. However, both girls and boys had some protective factors indicating that they have opportunities to overcome their psychological difficulties though more support is needed. Intensive family focused mental health and substance abuse treatment would be useful to address some of the family issues that girls experience. Social workers have an important role as providers but also as advocates to lobby legislators for increased funding to support innovative treatment services.

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this exploratory study was to develop a better understanding of gender and racial differences in youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois including the risk and protective factors associated with their recidivism. Of particular interest is the role of girls' strengths related to their protective factors that has not been a prominent aspect of current delinquency research and literature. Given that girls' involvement in delinquent behavior is tied to the presence of substance abuse, their personal relationships in the form of attachment to parents and non-familial adults, and family problems, this study explored the effect of the abovementioned factors for girls on probation and their association with recidivism. Also, the study explored associations between gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors. This chapter discusses the background and rationale, the problem of adolescent female delinquency as a social welfare problem, and the purpose and significance of this dissertation study.

### **A. Background and Rationale**

Understanding the etiology of juvenile offending is important for prevention and intervention efforts to reduce their recidivism. Previous research on predominantly male samples suggests that many adolescents who engage in delinquent activity as teens will continue this behavior as adults (Colman, Kim, Mitchell-Herzfeld, & Shady, 2008). Research on female offenders has been overshadowed by research on male offenders even though girls are the fastest growing group of offenders (American Bar Association [ABA] National Bar Association [NBA], 2001). This is the case even though most adolescent female offenders are not arrested and/or detained because of violent offenses (Chesney-Lind, & Jones, 2010). Girls have been recipients

of a special and discriminatory form of justice since the inception of a separate system of justice for youth (Chesney-Lind, 1973; Schlossman & Wallach, 1987). “With some exceptions, extensive recent scholarship focusing on gender and crime has tended to concentrate on women, not on girls” (Zahn, Agnew, & Browne, 2009). There has been a growing recognition that a significant number of young women and girls engage in aggressive and antisocial behaviors including traditionally male anti-social behaviors like truancy, delinquency and substance abuse (Kann, Kinchen, Williams, Lowry, Hill, Grunbaum, Blumson, Collins, & Kolbe, 1998; Poe-Yamagata & Butts, 1996; Schaffner, 1998). Fifty-four percent of crimes to girls 12 -15 years old are committed by other girls (Smith & Thomas, 2000), so criminal propensity is not restricted to males (Williams, Ayers, Van Dorn, & Arthur, 2004). In addition,

though girls continue to close the juvenile justice gender gap, it is not clear that the characteristics or motivation toward criminal or delinquent behavior are the same for girls and boys nor what factors are associated with their success and failure” on probation (Veysey, & Hamilton, 2007, p. 345).

Despite the scant literature about girls and boys on probation, emerging research on detained youth has established some correlates of risk factors related to recidivism. The 2009 report from the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority included a list of risk and protective factors associated with juvenile delinquency and violence for girls and boys (see Figure 1). Some scholars argue that delinquent girls and boys are more similar than different; however, the gender similarities approach often results in a lack of attention to the importance of gender (Miller, 2001). Feminist researchers working in criminology, psychology, and law have amassed reliable data documenting the experiences of girls’ and women’s troubles with the law (Chesney-Lind, & Shelden, 1992; Miller, 2001; Richie, 1996) as have some social work scholars (Goodkind, Wallace, Shook, Bachman, & O’Malley, 2009; O’Brien, 2008). Many girls have

negative interpersonal relationships (Ehrensaft, 2005), and histories of abuse, mental disorders, and trauma (Teplin, Abram, McClelland, Dulcan, & Mericle, 2002). Literature also suggests that how youth are processed and released from the juvenile justice system are affected by different individual and social/environmental factors beyond purely legal factors (Biderman & Reiss, 1967; Maschi, Hatcher, Schwalbe, & Rosato, 2008). Girls' entry and involvement in the juvenile justice system has been linked to their histories of adverse childhood experiences including emotional, physical, or sexual abuse (Dong, Anda, Filetti, Dube, & Giles, 2003a; Dube, Anda, Fellitti, Edwards, & Williamson, 2002b; Larkin & Park, 2012), which are linked to their arrests. Women and gender studies scholars have long studied violence against women, noting the understanding of this social problem in the context of gender inequality (Brownmiller, 1975). Criminologists have also made significant contributions in documenting and theorizing the overlapping relationship between young women's criminal involvement and experiences with victimization (Miller, 2001, 2008; Richie, 1996). Specifically, studies have identified gender-specific pathways to crime for female offenders including exposure to community violence and various forms of trauma. Some sociologists have conducted studies with African American female offenders and identified criminal pathways that are linked to violence, violence exposure, and victimization (Miller, 2008; Richie, 1996).

Lastly, the overrepresentation of minority youth has been identified at all stages of the juvenile justice system (Farrington, Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, Van Kammen, & Schmidt, 1996; Hartney & Silva, 2007; Hindelang, 1978; Hindelang, Hirschi, & Weis, 1981; MacDonald & Chesney-Lind, 2001; Shaffner, 2006). In particular, African American girls comprise a substantial number of youth in the juvenile justice system, which is a problem that has continued to exacerbate (Office of Juvenile Justice & Delinquency Prevention [OJJDP], 2007). "Research

documents how African American women and girls are more likely to be targeted for arrest and processed more harshly than their white counterparts” (Chesney-Lind, 1998; Gilbert, 1999; Mauer & Huling, 1995; Miller, 1996; Richie, 1996). For example, “African American girls accounted for 23% of girls’ delinquency cases in 1985 and 31% of such cases by 2004 when African Americans comprised only 17% of the juvenile population” (OJJDP, 2007). In addition, research has also documented variations in the treatment and needs of system-involved girls of color (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004). Lack of appropriate attention and action to the complex role of trauma and victimization of delinquent girls and racial bias requires redress of this issue by social workers. While they are aware of the relationship between delinquency and trauma, they have yet to operationalize all the relevant implications for assessment, practice, policy, advocacy, and research with regard to recidivism of girls on probation. Considering the intersection of gender and racial disparities while exploring the factors that shape girls’ desistance from crime becomes even more critical.

## **B. Problem Formulation**

Girls in the juvenile justice system remain a pressing concern given soaring arrest rates, especially for simple assault due to mandatory arrest or pro-arrest laws for domestic violence (Durose, Harlow, Langan, Motivans, Rantala, & Smith, 2005; Goodkind et al., 2009). Yet, female delinquents, once dubbed the ‘forgotten few’ in juvenile justice (Bergsmann, 1989), have historically been viewed by scholars as less serious than male delinquents, and therefore not worthy of serious theoretical attention or empirical research (Simourd, & Andrews, 1994). Recently, scholars have begun to explore factors that shape female offenders’ involvement in crime including higher exposure to trauma and abuse that often co-occur with anxiety and mood disorders (Teplin et al, 2002). Studies also show that girls’ arrest rates for aggravated assault

increased from “10% in 1980 to 17% in 2006, a trend which is driven largely by increased arrests of girls for aggravated assault” (Synder, & Sigmund, 2006). When simple assault is examined, “girls’ arrest rates increased 395% (from 130 to 513 arrests per 100,000 for girls aged 10-17) between 1980 and 2006”. Boys’ arrest rates rose until 1996 then fell slightly (although like girls, boys’ arrest rates have risen slightly since 2004) (National Center for Juvenile Justice, 2007).

The number of girls involved in the juvenile justice system has increased over the last fifteen years. “It is estimated that there were over 640,000 arrests of females under eighteen in 2006” (Zahn et al., 2009). Generally, girls are more likely to be detained for non-violent offenses, return to detention, and stay in detention for longer periods of time, and are also more likely to be placed on formal probation than their male counterparts (ABA, NBA, 2001). Specifically, “common arrests include minor crimes like larceny-theft, simple assault, disorderly conduct, and running away though a substantial number were arrested for aggravated assault and burglary” (Johnston, O’Malley, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2010). In 2000, 68% of girls were placed on probation compared to 62% of boys across all categories of offenses (Stahl, Finnegan & Kang, 2003), and 71% of girls adjudicated delinquent were for drug offense cases in 2009 (Puzzanchera, Adams, & Hockenberry, 2012). Some researchers argue that this paradox is an artifact for net-widening policies related to the over-policing of girls’ behavior (Buzawa & Hotaling, 2006; Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Kempf-Leonard & Sample, 2000; Miller, 2008) related to challenging family, school and court dynamics.

There is not enough information about girls on probation or what protects them from recidivism in the literature. Though relevant, much of what is known about female delinquency is based on research about risk factors associated with their detainment and incarceration, which validates the incidence of their mental health disorders – depression, anxiety and conduct



(Chesney-Lind, 1989; Chesney-Lind, Morash, & Stevens, 2008; Molnar, Browne, Cerda, & Buka, 2005; Schaffner, 2006; Teplin, 2001). Research on girls and violence is limited as well despite the perception that girls' violent behaviors are increasing (Herrman, & Silverstein, 2012). In addition, there is a dearth of literature about gender differences based on race/ethnicity and recidivism of probation-involved youth given their risk and protective factors. Despite variation in expert opinions about female involvement in the juvenile justice system, it is important to understand the nature of female offending (Hubbard, & Pratt, 2002). Also, it is important that any differences in the nature of female and male recidivism are recognized, as this topic continues to be a significant issue for clinicians to understand and address. Developing a comprehensive understanding of the risk and protective factors for delinquent youth on probation is needed to create appropriate screening, assessment and treatment of them.

### **C. Purpose & Significance of the Study**

A recent annual estimate from "the U. S. Department of Justice shows that there were 2.2 million juvenile arrests in 2003" (Snyder, 2003). Girls now account for nearly a third (29%) of juvenile arrests (Puzzanchera, 2009). This is a dramatic shift from previous decades when girls accounted for only about one in five juvenile arrests (Chesney-Lind, & Shelden, 2004). Well over 100,000 girls are placed on probation every year and the factors that influence their high recidivism rate (Snyder, 1998) are gendered and influence each social domain of their lives. Many studies have focused on boys and the risk factors associated with delinquency (Loeber, & Farrington, 1998). Current studies on gender differences of adolescent offenders have explored the role and consequences of risk factors, but few studies have thoroughly explored both risk and protective factors that predict or are associated with recidivism. The purpose of this study is to increase understanding of gender differences in risk and protective factors among youth on

probation. In addition, gender differences in predictors of recidivism was explored. This may enhance policy decision-making and enforcement. Moreover, justice-involved youth have the same developmental needs that other young people have (Butts, Bazemore, & Meroe, 2010). The effective creation and delivery of services, treatment and supervision for female offenders requires the acknowledgement of gender differences, and the inclusion of a strengths-based approach to treatment and skill building (Bloom, Owen, Covington, & Raeder, 2003).

In addition, this study explores racial differences in risk and protective factors, with a focus on the experiences of African American girls. Overrepresentation of minority females is well established but not well understood (Hawkins, Herrenkohl, Farrington, Brewer, Catalano, & Harachi, 1998), and they are disproportionately African American (Chesney-Lind, & Jones, 2010; Wolf, Grazino, & Hartney, 2009; Wolf & Kempf-Leonard, 2009). “Racial, ethnic, and gender differences in rates of delinquent behavior have been observed for much of the past century” (Hawkins et al, 1998). Law enforcement strategies in poor urban communities produce a range of harm to African American residents and is related to disproportionate minority contact (DMC) (Fagan & Davies, 2000; Mastrofski, Reisig, & McCluskey, 2002; Miller, 2008; Smith & Holmes, 2003). Some believe that DMC is rooted in institutional racism (Bishop & Frazier, 1996) while others argue that social risk factors threaten or endanger the health or well being of African Americans (Hsia, Bridges, & McHale, 2004; Pope & Snyder, 2003; Snyder & Sickmund, 1999). Although the impact of policing is not a focus of this study it is important to note its related effects on girls of color.

This dissertation study builds on the existing literature in several ways. First, this study determines if variables previously identified as risk and protective factors in broader samples differ for girls and boys on probation. Second, this study explores differences in risk and

protective factors across different racial/ethnic groups within each gender. Third, this study determines the association between the risk and protective factor variables and recidivism given the gender and race of youth on probation. Lastly, the study determines if previously identified as risk and protective factors in broader samples actually predict recidivism within this sample of girls and boys on probation and compare the results of the analysis across gender to determine whether the predictors for females and males differ. The small sample size of girls required a change in this plan, so the predictive analyses were excluded. Yet, this study builds on the scant literature base that focuses on both risk and protective factors for all five social domains. Also, by including protective factors in the study, there was a deliberate focus on examining the strengths of the youth despite their current circumstances. It is an important consideration as few investigations have focused on protective factors.

## II. CONCEPTUAL & THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

The risk and resilience perspective is the guiding framework for this study. The theoretical frameworks include social control, critical race and relational theories. Social control was the primary theory used to explore the youth's conventional social bonds with their family, peers, school, and community, but it is inadequate alone; critical race and relational theories were included to explore the intersections of gender and race along with a focus on the presence of healthy relationships with non-familial adults. Where it is feasible, aspects of each theory corresponded to the study measures. No theories were tested but they informed the research questions and discussion of the study findings.

### A. Conceptual Framework

#### 1. Risk and Protective Factors

Research related to optimal youth development has begun to define critical dimensions of important social contexts. *Risk and protective factors* for juvenile delinquency are known to exist in all areas of a youth's life, as well as within the youth's biological makeup (Williams et al., 2004). Some salient risks include poverty; racism, sexism, and other forms of prejudice and discrimination; parental mental illness or substance abuse; experiencing child maltreatment or chronic family conflict; academic failure; and peer rejection (Fraser, Richman, & Galinsky, 1999; Werner, 2000). In order to determine the reasons and justifications for delinquent acts committed by youth, researchers have started analyzing known risk and protective factors. Yet, there remain limited empirical findings that confirm what specific risk and protective factors are for girls and boys on probation. To that end, emerging research on detained girls has established some correlates of risk and protective factors related to delinquency and violence. Determining

whether risk and protective factors vary across gender, race, and recidivism among youth on probation would be helpful in treating them. Furthermore, a study focused on understanding both risk and protective factors has not been conducted in a sample of youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois.

A general definition for *risk factors* includes influences that may lead to problem behaviors or conditions (Frazer, Kirby, & Smokowski, 2004). Fraser et al. (2004) suggest:

the combination of several risk factors may lead to the conclusion that a child is at ‘high’ risk for certain negative outcomes, such as alcohol abuse or mental illness (p. 4).

Also, “protection or *protective factors* have sometimes been defined simply as the absence of risk or as the low end of a risk variable” (Jessor, Van Den Bos, Vanderryn, Costa, & Turbin, 1995). Also, they are social and personal resources that encourage prosocial coping in the face of criminogenic conditions (Hartman, Turner, Daigle, Exum, & Cullen, 2009). Rutter (1987) argued most forcefully, however, that “protective factors and risk factors should be treated as conceptually distinct rather than as opposite ends of a single dimension” (Felix-Ortiz & Newcomb, 1992; Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Jessor, 1991; Luthar & Zigler, 1991; Pellegrini, 1990). With the latter perspective, “protective factors are considered independent variables that can have their own direct effects on behavior” (Jessor et al., 1995). Consequently, protective factors were included as independent variables in this study.

## **B. Theoretical Framework**

Three key theoretical frameworks undergird the study and analytic process. This study used social control theory to highlight the role of social bonds including variables that represent ties to significant others (being close to parents and family and prosocial peers); investment in convention society (high academic achievement); involvement in conventional behavior

(participation in leisure and extracurricular school activities); and belief in society's values (positive educational beliefs and beliefs that school provides support). Critical race theory was used to understand minority overrepresentation. Lastly, relational theory was included to explore the impact of girls' relationships with their family members (being close to parents and family variables), as well as nonfamilial adults (talking with teachers variable). These theories were used to inform the study findings. With a strengths-based orientation, the attention was extended beyond the challenges of fixing individuals' deficits and pathologies towards ways to support key protective processes and adaptive outcomes for girls (Leadbeater, Dodgen, & Solarz, 2005). These three theories are briefly discussed below.

### 1. **Social Control Theory**

Social control theory offers the opportunity to determine if measures of social bonds explain serious delinquency and risky behavior (Booth et al., 2008). Hirschi's (1969) theory of social control "contends that internalization of society's norms is what essentially prevents human beings from committing delinquent acts, and that the key to internalization lies in attachment to others" (Hirschi, 1972). Specifically, strong social bonds inhibit delinquency, whereas weak bonds offer little resistance to offending (Booth et al., 2008; Laundra, Kiger, & Bahr, 2002; Sampson & Laub, 1993). In addition, group norms are violated and negative behavior/delinquency occurs (Hoffman, 2002). "With the violation of group norms, low levels of parental control and family cohesion contribute to the inability of parents to effectively discipline poor behavior in early childhood and adolescence" (Church, Wharton, & Taylor, 2009). This theory shows the importance of family solidarity, parental stressors, parental discipline, and prosocial behavior in preventing negative behavior (Church, Jagers, & Taylor, 2012), which is directly related to the development of strong social bonds.

The social bond is said to have four dimensions: “attachment or ties to significant others (parents or peers), commitment or investment in conventional society (as in education), involvement in conventional behavior (such as participation in recreational activities), and belief in society’s values (respect for law and authority)” (Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Figueira-McDonough, 1987; Hirschi, 1969; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1993; McCord, 1991; Rosenbaum, 1989). “*Attachment* represents the closeness between children and their parents or other important individuals in their lives. It can include the amount of parental supervision” (Hagan et al., 1985), “the quality of communication between parents and their children, how much time parents and children spend together, parents’ knowledge of children’s friends and issues of trust” (Agnew, 1991; Hirschi, 1969). Commitment and involvement result from proper attachment and from the internalization of prosocial norms. Specifically, *commitment* indicates “that the existing values and norms are appropriate. It represents what one has to lose when breaking the law. *Involvement* indicates an individual’s level of interaction with proper socializing agents and is based on the idea that idle time is dangerous”. Youth involved in leisure activities become bonded to institutions so prosocial norms are strengthened and will decrease their involvement in delinquent behavior. Lastly, *beliefs* are theoretically linked to other social bonds by legitimizing their value (Hirschi, 1969). It is feasible that increases in positive attachment and commitment will also increase youth beliefs in moral and lower delinquency (Laundra et al., 2002).

Social control theory is important because it frames the system in which individual choices are made (Church et al., 2009). “It treats the socialization process and commitment to conventional norms and values as problematic when delinquency occurs” (Elliot, Ageton, & Canter, 1979) as it is evidence of weakened social bonds to prosocial people and institutions.

Moreover, social control theory “has been applied primarily to understanding features of adolescent delinquency but also has proved versatile in explaining a variety of other aspects of delinquency and criminal behavior” (Booth, et al, 2008) including the prediction levels of self-reported delinquency (Huebner & Betts, 2002). Developmental theorists have also argued the importance of “considering how the changing features of social bonds explain the trajectories of delinquency careers throughout the lifecourse” (Laub & Sampson, 2003) and the process of desistance from crime (Bushway, Piquero, Broidy, Cauffman, & Mazerolle, 2001; Huebner, 2005). Specifically, females who are lower in parental supervision, less tied to their homes and families, are weakly bonded to conventional others, such as parents and teachers, do poorly in school, spend little time on homework, are in peer groups in which the constraints against delinquency are lower, do not condemn crime, and are low in self control, are more likely to be delinquent. Data suggests that these types of controls affect female as well as male delinquency (Elliott, Huizinga, & Ageton, 1985; Fleming, Catalano, Oxford, & Harachi, 2002; Friedman & Rosenbaum, 1988; Heimer, 1995; Hubbard & Pratt, 2002). However, limited research including both sexes suggests “gender stratification and patriarchal power dynamics within families and communities foster both gender-specific mechanisms of and responses to social control” (Booth et al., 2008).

Feminists have been highly critical of traditional researchers’ methods and claims to objectivity and rationality (Belknap & Holsinger, 2006; Kelly, 1990; Roberts, 1981; Stanley & Wise, 1983), including traditional theories like social control. The majority of research testing social control and delinquency has focused on males so the generalizability of the findings to females is unknown (Booth et al., 2008). The exclusion of females has led “to both criticism and attempts to assess how well social control theory applies to females” (Alarid, Burton, & Cullen,



2000; Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992; Chesney-Lind, 1997; Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Dornbusch, Erickson, Laird, & Wong, 2001; Huebner & Betts, 2002; Laundra, Kiger, Bahr, 2002; Naffine, 1987). Recent research highlights some of the reasons for observed gender differences in crime. Specifically, gender differences among young, urban youth were noted in gender-related activity patterns where male lifestyles were characterized by freedom, mobility, lack of accountability, and life in the “fast lane.” It was also shown that females live under greater social constraints (Bottcher, 1995).

Though some research on gender and social control identifies differences in how young women and men experience social control, questions remain about how it explains their delinquent behavior (Erickson, Crosnoe, & Dornbusch, 2000). However, more research should be conducted to confirm the uniformity between females and males. Analysis must focus on the concept of gender itself as a form of social control (Rafter, 2000, p. 246). This includes investigating whether or not social control adequately addresses the life situations of girls on the economic and political margins. Also, the theory implies that causes of delinquency are identical across racial groups (Hirschi, 1969). However, girls of color grow up in contexts very different from those of their white counterparts. Because poverty and racism are often fellow travelers, they are forced by their color and their poverty to deal early and often with problems of violence, drugs and abuse (Campbell, 1984; Miller, 2008; Orenstein, 1994; Robinson, 1990), so it is feasible that these racial differences will influence the causes of their delinquent behavior. Another criticism is that most studies on the applicability of social control theory on gender have not fully tested elements of the theory concerning female and male delinquent acts. Although theory testing is beyond the scope of this dissertation, aspects of the theory informs my study findings based on how youth in the sample vary in terms of their attachment to their parents,

peers, commitment to school, involvement in extracurricular activities, and presence of prosocial beliefs.

## 2. **Critical Race Theory**

Critical race theory (CRT) refers to “a historical and contemporary body of scholarship that aims to interrogate the discourses, ideologies, and social structures that produce and maintain conditions of racial injustice”. CRT emerged in the wake of the civil rights movement as a component of legal scholarship (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Roithmayr, 1999). CRT is a concept used to frame various relationships between race and gender and articulate the interaction of racism and sexism. Although theorists and practitioners have diverse approaches, their scholarship and advocacy share common ground in these basic tenets: 1) endemic racism, 2) race as a social construction, 3) differential racialization, 4) interest in convergence/materialist determinism, 5) voices of color, and 6) antiessentialism/intersectionality (Abrams & Moio, 2009, p. 251). For the purpose of this study, antiessentialism/intersectionality are discussed and used to assist in interpreting the study results.

*Antiessentialism/intersectionality* acknowledges the “intersectionality of various oppressions and suggests that a primary focus on race can eclipse other forms of exclusion” (Hutchinson, 2000). Specifically:

CRT theorists contend that analysis without a multidimensional framework can replicate the very patterns of social exclusion it seeks to combat and lead to the essentializing of oppressions (Hutchinson, 2000, p. 252).

Intersectionality is important because it recognizes multiple oppressions including gender, race, and describes the “overrepresentation of women of color both within overlapping systems of subordination and at the margins of feminism and antiracism” (Crenshaw, 1991). Females of

color involved in the justice system experience the effects of race throughout their lives and society causing them to be marginalized, so they tend to fall in the nondominant group in society. CRT was used in this study as it supports an examination of marginalized people (Ortiz & Jani, 2010). For example, minority youth disproportionately live in disadvantaged communities affected by violence, so they may not engage in leisure activities in their neighborhoods or at school. This is particularly salient to African American girls who are at greater risk of victimization in their neighborhoods. Exploring the intersection between race, gender, participation in leisure activities and girls' recidivism helps elucidate aspects of their protective factors that buffer their risks related to race and gender.

### 3. **Relational Theory**

Relational theory is consonant with traditional social work perspectives as it emphasizes the importance of relationships and of the environment (Saari, 2005). "Over the past decades, there has been recognition and acknowledgement of the differences between women and men and one difference is how they develop psychologically" (Covington & Bloom, 2007). In a review of the literature, Cosse (1992) concludes that "a feminine pathway includes a strong emphasis on relationships with others, whereas a masculine pathway focuses on autonomy and development of skills". Relational theory focuses on women's fundamental need to address issues in the context of connection to others that is based on empathy, mutuality, and a dynamic relational process (Covington & Surrey, 1997). "Relationships, not 'self,' are at the core of the particular relationship theory developed at the Stone Center at Wellesley College. The major construct is that all people grow and develop in the context of connections with others (Silverman, 2001). Interpersonal relationships represent important connections for women and

can often be traced to psychological problems (disconnections) within their relationships with family members, friends, partners or spouses, or in society at large (Covington & Bloom, 2007). Research by criminologists consistently indicates that relationships with parents, especially those characterized by inadequate supervision and monitoring are heavily related to young women's delinquency (Cernovich, & Giordano, 1987). This may be critical for delinquent girls with histories of abuse and victimization as they may experience strained or broken relationships with their perpetrators or other family members.

Self-development in the context of connections with others has been highlighted by relational theories (Klein, 1948; Mitchell, 1988; Sullivan, 1993). In the absence of others with whom to interact, human beings are likely to have a poorly developed sense of both their inner and their outer worlds (Saari, 2005). In particular, "girls experience themselves as intricately linked to others. Separation and individuation from others are not as important to girls' identity development as they are to boys' development" (Belgrave, 2002). During adolescent development, a central question for girls to answer is "Who am I in relation to others?" (Miller, 1986; Surrey, 1991). Consequently, being able to establish and develop positive interpersonal relationships is an essential developmental task for adolescent girls (Belgrave, 2002).

These aspects of relational theory are important in understanding girls, especially those involved with the juvenile justice system and use of this theory in a model including a risk and protective factors perspective is needed to understand gender differences with more depth. Specifically, girls who have been abused by family members, partners, and friends experience some level of disconnection in these relationships, which could adversely affect their growth and identity development. According to Covington (2000), many of the problems girls experience can "be traced to disconnections or violations within relationships" (p. 197). These girls become

involved in criminal activity because the disconnection associated with abuse in their interpersonal relationships leads them to delinquent peers and significant others. Younger female offenders may be more likely to engage in relationships that promote and even encourage criminal activity. Moreover, “positive change for girls is dependent on developing mutually trusting and empathetic relationships that prevent them from undergoing the same experiences again” (Hubbard & Matthews, 2008). In this study, relational theory focuses on the existence of healthy relationships with non-familial adults to determine their influence on recidivism.

### **C. Study Aims**

**Aim 1:** Understand the gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors among youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois.

**Aim 2:** Understand which risk and protective factors predict recidivism of girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois.

### **D. Conceptual Definitions of Key Variables**

#### **1. Dependent Variable**

The dependent (outcome) variable for this study is recidivism of youth on probation. Recidivism is defined as a new finding of delinquency while the youth is on probation or supervision.

#### **2. Independent Variables**

The independent variables in this study include constructs (30 risk and 10 protective factors) that represent variables in the five social domains: Individual, Family, Peers, School and Community (Herrenkohl, Maguin, Hill, Hawkins, Abbott, & Catalano, 2000). The constructs and corresponding risk and protective factor variables can be found in Appendix C.

a. **Risk Factor Variables**

i. Individual

- 1) *Running Away* is defined as leaving home without permission (Gaarder, Rodriguez, & Zatz, 2004).
- 2) *Mental Health Problems* is defined as major serious mental disorders (schizophrenia, bipolar and psychoses), affective disorders, and thought/personality & other disorders (Teplin, et al., 2002) that have been found to affect both girls and boys involved in the juvenile justice system.
- 3) *Suicidality* is defined as severe thoughts about suicide and report of suicide attempts (Cash & Bridge, 2009).
- 4) *Violent Behaviors* is defined as (a) weapons offenses involving the unlawful use or possession of -a firearm, ammunition or other weapons (Bostwick, & Ashley, 2009), (b) sexual aggression – force someone to do sexual things they did not agree to do (Tzoumakis, Lussier, & Corrado, 2012), and (c) homicidal ideations - having thought of seriously harming someone else (Abrantes, Hoffmann, & Anton, 2005).
- 5) *Problematic Substance Use* is defined as the experience of adverse consequences related to the use of alcohol, and other drugs on functioning (Mason, Hitchings & Spoth, 2007).
- 6) *Court Finding of Neglect* is defined as the parent/caregiver's failure to protect a child from exposure to any kind of danger

and/or being left unsupervised resulting in the significant impairment of the child's health or development, including nonorganic failure to thrive (Falshaw, Browne, & Hollin, 1996). Examples of neglect include failing to provide food to a child when a caregiver is able, or being incapacitated at times when a child needs supervision (U. S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2008).

- 7) *History of Physical and Sexual Abuse* is defined based on the Practical Adolescent Diagnostic Interview (PADDI). Physical abuse includes incidents of kicking, punching, kicking, burning, and otherwise inflicting physical harm (Abrantes et al., 2005; Smith & Ireland, 2009). Sexual abuse includes unwanted physical contact or coercion to engage in sexual acts including behavior from fondling and touching to intercourse (Abrantes et al., 2005; Kendall-Tackett, Williams, & Finkelhor, 1993).
- 8) *Victimization* is defined as experiencing conflict or violence including physical assault by strangers (Lake, 1993; Widom, 2000).
- 9) *Conduct Disorder Symptoms* is defined as “a repetitive and persistent pattern of behavior in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated”. In addition, it is defined as “aggressive conduct that causes or

threatens physical harm to other people or animals” (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

ii. Family

- 1) *Out-of-Home Placement* is defined as the child protection system removing children from the care of their parents into a temporary placement (e. g. foster care placement, hospitalization, emergency shelters, secure detention, youth development facility, and mental health facility), permanent placement (e. g. to an adoptive home) (Alltucker, Bullis, Close, & Yonanoff, 2006; Barrett, Katiyannis, & Zhang, 2010).
- 2) *Kicked or Locked Out* is defined as girls being “thrown away” (Johansson, & Kempf-Leonard, 2009) by not being allowed to remain in or return to their homes. This may be related to violence, victimization and running away from home (Bass, 1992; McMorris, Tyler, Whitbeck, & Hoyt, 2002; Widom, 1989b; Johansson & Kempf-Leonard, 2009).
- 3) *History of Parental Problems* is defined as problems with drug and alcohol and mental health problems, as well as criminal records. Parental drug and alcohol includes substance problems that can impede parenting and the provision of a nurturing environment (Barnard, & McKeganey, 2004) for children. Parental mental health problems include a profile of disorders across their lifespan, including depression and



aggressive hostility (Repetti, Taylor, & Seeman, 2002). Parental criminal records include having a parent who has engaged in criminal behavior (Acoca, 1999).

- 4) *Harsh Parenting* is defined as parenting with high levels of conflict, aggression, and hostility that lacks in acceptance, warmth, and support (Repetti, Taylor, & Seeman, 2002).
- 5) *Poor Parental Supervision* is defined as parents' behavior that is low in discipline, monitoring, structure, cohesion and beliefs (Gorman-Smith, Tolan, & Henry, 2000).
- 6) *Family Violence* is defined as conflict or violence involving family members including children, who have witnessed and experienced multiple acts of violence in the home (Cooley-Quille, Turner, & Beidel, 1995; Schwab-Stone Ayers, Voyce, Barone, Shriver, & Weissberg, 1995).

iii. Peers

- 1) *Friends w/Delinquent Influences* is defined as friends who provide opportunities for youth to engage in problem behavior, possibly through social pressure and positive reinforcement for deviant behavior (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989).
- 2) *Gang Involvement* is defined as youth exposure to friends who are delinquent (Elliot & Menard, 1996) and/or who model deviant behaviors (Dishion, Andrews, & Crosby, 1995; Elliot, & Menard, 1996; Patterson et al., 1992; Warr, 2002).

iv. School

- 1) *Learning Difficulties* is defined as cognitive delays, which interfere with learning opportunities including language and motor skill difficulties (Prior, Smart, Sanson, & Oberklaid, 1993) resulting in poor academic performance.

v. Community

- 1) *Interest in Leisure Activities* is defined as those activities that are not part of the regular school curriculum (Mahoney, Romig, & Armstrong, 2005) because they are voluntary but may take place in the school setting (e. g., sports teams, academically-oriented activities, performing arts, school involvement clubs, etc.) (Roth, & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

b. **Protective Factor Variables**

i. Individual

- 1) *Prosocial Beliefs* is defined as beliefs that are developed via socializing agents (parents, etc.) and processes (Kosterman, Haggerty, Spoth, & Redmond, 2004) where youth tend to respect and adhere to generally accepted values like honesty, following rules, (Brown, Catalano, Flemming, Haggerty, Abbott, Cortes, & Park, 2005), as well as beliefs in education and school support.
- 2) *Problem-Solving* is defined as a social cognitive process based on strategies to develop solutions to interpersonal problems,

thinking consequentially and resolving conflict (Tate, Reppucci, Mulvey, 1995; Wasserman, Miller, & Cothorn, 2000).

ii. Family

- 1) *Appropriate Parental Discipline* is defined as the extent that the parent(s) have clearly defined rules, child monitoring and consistent discipline (Kosterman, et al., 2004) and appropriate rewards.
- 2) *Close to Parents & Family* is defined as close and warm relationships with a parent or parent figures including family members (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

iii. Peers

- 1) *Close to Prosocial Peers* is defined as individuals that socialize with those that engage in positive behaviors and activities, and show sensitivity to the opinion of others (Hartup, 1993).

iv. School

- 1) *School Connectedness* is defined as a positive perception of the school environment and positive interactions with people at school (Perkins & Jones, 2004).
- 2) *High Academic Achievement* is defined as school success (Perkins & Jones, 2004; Resnick et al., 2004) and students with high GPA (Perkins & Jones, 2004).

v. Community

- 1) *Talk with Teachers* is defined as communication with nonfamilial adults at school (Hawkins, Graham, Williams, & Zahn, 2009).
- 2) *Involved in Extracurricular Activities* is defined as participation in after-school activities (Karcher, 2005), such as “school-based after school centers, parks and recreation centers and leagues, community centers, amateur sports leagues, faith-based centers, and the myriad places and opportunities developed by community-based and national youth organizations such as YMCA, YWCA, 4-H, Boys and Girls Clubs, Girls, Inc., Beacons and the 2<sup>1st</sup> Century Learning Centers” (Eccles & Templeton, 2002).

#### E. **Research Questions & Hypotheses**

This study focuses on how females on probation differ from males on probation in terms of their risk and protective factors. This study extracted and analyzed data from Cook County Juvenile Probation Department (CCJPD) data sources to address the study aims and to address the research questions. The majority of empirical studies of delinquent youth that informed the conceptualization of the research questions were conducted with detained and incarcerated youth. This was necessary due to the dearth of studies conducted on probation-involved youth. Due to the lack of research with this specific population, research questions one, two and three are exploratory. Initially, hypotheses were created to test research question four that were also informed by the empirical findings about serious juvenile offenders. The first hypothesis focused on the effect of weak attachment to parents due to harsh parenting on recidivism

between girls and boys (Chamberlain & Reid, 1994). The second hypothesis focused on the effect of healthy relationships with non-familial adults on recidivism between African American girls versus boys and other racial/ethnic groups of girls (Benson, 1990; Burton & Marshall, 2005; Dishion & Kavanagh, 2003; Hawley and DeHaan, 1996; Romer, 2003; Werner and Smith, 1982, 1992; Stevens, 2002). The third hypothesis focused on the effect of problematic substance abuse on recidivism between girls and boys (Teplin et al, 2002). The last hypothesis focused on the effects of family violence and history of parental problems (drugs and alcohol, mental health problems and criminal record) on recidivism between girls and boys. However, they could not be tested due to the limitations in the data. The research questions are as follows:

**Research Question 1:** Are there gender differences in the characteristics (risk factors, protective factors, and race) of youth on probation?

**Research Question 2:** Are there racial differences in the risk and protective factors of youth on probation?

**Research Question 3:** What risk and protective factors are associated with recidivism?

**Research Question 4:** Are there gender differences in the risk and protective factors associated with recidivism?

### III. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review is not an exhaustive examination of literature regarding risk and protective factors of delinquent behavior of girls and boys. By design, it reviews only the most relevant material to support this dissertation study. Key concepts are included to explain the variables measured in the study. It begins with an overview of the juvenile justice system, including background, key terms and definitions, stages of involvement (arrest, probation, offenses/offending, and recidivism/reoffending), Disproportionate Minority Contact (DMC) and current policy impact. The next section includes empirical studies on gender differences, including an overview of recidivism behavior and risk and protective factors organized by five social domains: individual, family, peer, school, and community. The final section includes a summary of the major gaps in the literature.

#### A. Juvenile Justice System

The first juvenile court was established in Cook County, Illinois in 1899 (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The end of the nineteenth century marked a desired change by many in how juveniles who committed crimes were perceived and treated. This was based on a new theoretical foundation of the court that became known as *parens patriae*, “the principle that the state must care for those who cannot take care of themselves” (Campbell, 1991, p. 769). Children had not reached the age of full legal capacity and the philosophy of *parens patriae* allowed the state to act in a parental role (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Consequently, juveniles were seen in juvenile court for criminal acts and status offenses – acts thought to be harmful to a youth’s development (Gardner, 1997).

The establishment of juvenile courts became an international movement and by 1945 they were evident in every United States federal and state jurisdiction, as well as most European nations (Gardner, 1997). The language in juvenile court demonstrates the juvenile court's conceptualization from civil not criminal proceedings, the result of tremendous effort at not attaching the adult stigma of the criminal justice system to the juvenile court (Gardner, 1997). Over time, the application of the language in the juvenile court has changed. During the 1950s and 1960s, the court became more formal and similar to the adult criminal courts. The Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Control Act of 1968 recommended that status offenses be processed outside of the juvenile court (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). In 1974, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDPA) of 1974 passed. It required the deinstitutionalization of all non-serious offenders and the discharge of all juveniles detained in jails and adult lockdown facilities (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The formality of the court system equates juveniles to adults, but diversion and community-based treatment programs imply to the public that the court is too lenient on juveniles. Also, the extent that public policy has stressed rehabilitation over punishment has changed sporadically over the past thirty years (Flexnor & Baldwin, 1914; Young, 1937).

According to Schwalbe and Maschi (2009) as cited in Guarino-Ghezzi & Loughran, (2004), Howell (2003), and Maloney, Romig, & Armstrong (1988):

In the face of public outcry for a more punitive response to juvenile delinquency is related to pressure from victim rights advocates for a stronger voice in the criminal justice system at large, and advocacy by proponents of the rehabilitative ideal. Consequently, three mandates were implemented for the juvenile justice system, and for probation interventions in what has become known as a Balanced Approach: to protect public safety, to hold youth accountable for their offenses, and to promote

rehabilitation (p. 358).

Also, the *parens patriae* philosophy changed towards the end of the twentieth century and into the twenty-first century (Elikann, 1999; Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The present-day realities of the juvenile justice system that began to emerge at the turn of the century stand in sharp contrast to the system's original premise that individualized attention to children could link youngsters to rehabilitative services that would enable them to grow into healthy adults (ABA, 1993). In addition, because of an overreliance on incarceration in the last decades of the twentieth century, the circumstances for girls in the U.S. juvenile justice system have declined (Schaffner, 2006).

The fairly recent trend of harsh, no-nonsense treatment toward youthful offenders represents a change in the way America has traditionally treated justice-involved youth. Consequently, a significant proportion of this country's youth are currently involved in the juvenile justice system (Teplin et al., 2002). The shift in public policies has an underlying assumption that youth in the juvenile justice system have something "wrong" with them (Butts, 2008) that is irreparable despite their inherent strengths or the empirical evidence about their personal, familial, and social issues. In that sense, probation has become a reservoir of the juvenile justice system and has not been a viable response to delinquency to curb recidivism given the increasing and more dangerous caseloads (Quinn & Van Dyke, 2004; Torbert, 1997) of offenders. Consequently, current policies need to be revisited to ensure appropriate application and to address the increase in the severity of problems that youth face whether they are detained, incarcerated or receive probation as a final disposition.

## **1. Overview, Background, Definitions, and Stages of Involvement**

This section includes a detailed overview of the juvenile justice system, including key terms and definitions, to explain this complex system of processes and steps. For the purposes of



this section, the term ‘youth’ is used instead of ‘girls’ and ‘boys’ as the legal definitions do not recognize gender specific terms.

The U. S. criminal justice system comprises a general:

sequence of police, court, and correctional functions. The further people are drawn into this sequence—from initial police contact, to arrest, to booking, to charging, to conviction, to sentencing (adjudication), and ultimately to placement in a secure facility—the greater the potential for stigma, social exclusion, and disruption in life course transition processes (Uggen & Wakefield, 2005, p. 115).

The structure of juvenile justice systems depends on the size of the population in a given jurisdiction. It may be formally divided into district branches: a detention facility with its own administrative system, a court legal system with attendant support staff, and a juvenile probation system that oversees children who have been court-ordered to serve a probationary sentence (Schaffner, 2006). Appendix D includes a diagram of all the entities in the juvenile justice system.

The juvenile justice system comprises four major stages of involvement: *prevention, police, judicial process and corrections*. *Prevention* is defined as a philosophy of corrections that believes the aim of punishment should be to prevent crime (Champion, 2005). This is the initial stage of involvement in the system, as not all youth that become involved do so as a result of being *arrested*, which is defined as “the act of taking into custody and restraining an individual until he or she can be brought before the court to answer the charges against him or her” (Champion, 2005, p. 16). Formal involvement with the juvenile justice system is initiated by an arrest by the police. This occurs because the individual commits a criminal *offense*, which includes felonies, misdemeanors, or delinquent acts. Youth offenders have been convicted of

one or more crimes (Champion, 2005). So although formal involvement with the system begins with arrest, a more technically accurate definition of involvement may include activities that are elements of prevention.

The second stage of involvement includes police and includes a police officer investigation, phases of counseling and referral(s), intake screening, and detention or release. *Police* is defined as persons whose duty it is to enforce the criminal laws and ensure public safety (Champion, 2005). Many youth interact with police directly or indirectly. This could occur in the form of a stationhouse adjustment where police officers deal informally with an arrestee, often at a police station; it involves warnings but not an arrest (Champion, 2005, p. 241). Also, some youth may come in contact with the police as a result of their behavior in public spaces or staging areas (street corners), where drug dealers and corner boys hang out (Anderson, 2000, p. 130). Youth may also be involved with the police because their parents or school officials call them to intervene as a result of their behavior.

The *judicial process* is the third stage of involvement, and is defined as the sequence of procedures designed to resolve disputes or conclude a criminal case. This stage includes seven different phases from intake screening to dispositions (Champion, 2005). The last stage of involvement is *corrections*, and it is defined as the collective of programs, services, facilities, and organizations accountable for the management of people who have been accused or convicted of criminal offenses. A key concept here is the *disposition* of cases or the process of cases being *disposed*:

where an action by a criminal or juvenile justice court or agency suggesting that a portion of the justice process is completed and jurisdiction is relinquished or reassigned to another agency, or suggesting that a decision has been reached on one aspect of a case and a different aspect comes under consideration, involving

a different kind of decision (Champion, 2005, p. 81).

A judge makes these decisions in a disposition hearing to sentence the youth to probation, aftercare, residential placement or incarceration. The judges' decisions are based on an order, resulting in adjudication (*adjudicate*), which is the actual judgment; to decide a case; or conclude a matter (Champion, 2005). In 2009, judges imposed probation sentences as the most serious disposition in one-third of all delinquency cases (Livsey, 2012).

Once an individual's case has been disposed, the person enters one of three phases: nominal, conditional or custodial. The *nominal* phase includes a warning or reprimand. The *conditional* phase includes restitution, a fine, community service, community supervision or suspended disposition. The conditional phase is the phase where a juvenile can be placed on *probation*, which is defined as a sentence of supervised, conditional release for a specified period, usually under supervision of a juvenile probation officer, i.e., professionals who supervise probationers (Champion, 2005). The *probation officer* is at the core of the juvenile justice system; "they assess, refer, coordinate, counsel, cajole, and coerce delinquent youth to reduce their risk of recidivism, to be accountable for their behavior, to promote their health and well-being, and to expand their life chances" (Griffin & Torbert, 2002). The *custodial* phase requires the youth to remain in some form of custody, including both nonsecure and secure facilities (American Correctional Association, 1995; Champion, 2005), such as residential facilities, day treatment, alternative treatment, group home, counseling, and foster care (Asplin, Marsh, & Beighly, 2011).

*Probation* is the most customary form of criminal sentencing in the United States (Petersilia, 1997). It was introduced in the United States in 1841, but it was over 30 years later before probation was formally adopted. These efforts were spearheaded by John Augustus, the

Father of Probation, and his volunteer probation work in the 1840's. He helped people avoid rearrest by addressing their substance abuse problems and assisted them in locating employment, so they would not steal or relapse (Petersilia, 1997). His efforts persisted, and the court gradually accepted that not all offenders needed to be incarcerated despite resistance from law enforcement officials who favored punishment over helping offenders (Petersilia, 1997). These efforts expanded after the juvenile court was organized in 1899 and probation officers became the chief means that the juvenile court served delinquent youth (Flexnor & Baldwin, 1914). Many years later, by 1927, all states except for Wyoming had established juvenile probation laws; by 1956, all states adopted adult and juvenile probation laws (Petersilia, 1997).

Between the 1950's and 1970's, U. S. probation evolved into relative obscurity. National attention increased in 1974 due to criticisms of service inadequacy and system failure. The "Supreme Court interventions of the 1960s and 1970s along with public policy discussions in the 1980s and 1990s led to a gradual reorientation of the juvenile justice system" (Feld, 2005). From 1987 to 1996, the total number of delinquency cases receiving formal or informal probation increased 46% from 435,200 to 634,100 (Snyder & Sickmund, 1999). In more recent years, probation agencies have struggled with meager resources to upgrade services (electronic monitoring) and the addition of intensive supervision with varied success in recidivism. The probation system continues to face challenges like operating above capacity and sporadic efforts to develop an empirical evidence base for effective probation practice (Schwalbe & Maschi, 2009).

The American juvenile justice system has tried to uphold a balance between rehabilitating and penalizing young offenders, and probation straddles the same historic tension (Petersilia,

1997; Steiner, Prukiss, Kifer, Roberts, & Hemmens, 2004). According to Schwalbe and Maschi (2009) as cited in Flexnor & Baldwin (1914) and Young (1937):

For much of the juvenile justice history advocates of more “sophisticated” approaches viewed punishment, which relies on close monitoring and rule enforcement, as an outgrowth of inadequately trained and overworked probation officers. Yet, rehabilitation rested on a sympathetic relationship between individual probation officers and youth represented a significant advance toward humanizing the justice system for delinquent youth (p. 358).

Currently, criminal sentences allow individuals to stay in the community under court supervision for a designated time period. Specifically, Uggen and Wakefield (2005) as cited in U. S. Department of Justice, 2003a:

the probationer breaks the law or fails to abide by the terms of the probation agreement (which may involve conditions such as drug testing, work requirements, and travel restrictions) for the duration of the sentence, probation may be cancelled or revoked and a more severe sentence imposed (p. 116).

When youth break the law while under the supervision of the court, they can be arrested again and at that point are considered to be reoffenders. Reoffending behavior drives recidivism, which can occur while youth are in custody, on probation or on parole. *Recidivism* occurs when youth return to criminality, including rearrest, reconviction, and reincarceration of previously convicted felons (Champion, 2005, p. 214).

First-time and non-violent offenders often receive probation as a final disposition and “about 50% of all probationers have been convicted of felonies, or crimes that are punishable by one year or more in prison” (Uggen & Wakefield, 2005). Youth on probation are under correctional authority and living in the community with several legal statuses (Altschuler, 2005, p. 99) including some form of aftercare or parole. Young offenders in the community comprise a

dramatically increasing population, and have been swamping the capacity of probation and parole (Altschuler, 2005, p. 99), and 60% are through community supervision, including the management of clients, prisoners, or patients by authorized personnel such as probation officers who oversee their behaviors (Champion, 2005 p. 246; Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

From 1987 to 1996, probation has and continues to be the overwhelming sanction of choice for the nation's juvenile courts. Fifty-six percent of all cases adjudicated for a delinquency offense received probation, and 28% were placed in some form of residential facility, while 12% received some other disposition (e. g., restitution) (Altschuler, 2005, p. 99). Juvenile probation agencies have managed the best they can with extremely limited resources. Currently, the state of probation agencies has not totally taxed the organizational abilities of juvenile probation administrators and managers, yet reforms to improve effectiveness are needed. As young offenders have become more advanced, serious, and violent; and as the public has increased expectations regarding official responses to youth crime, probation agencies must make substantial changes to properly address the needs of young offenders (Thomas, 1997).

## **2. Disproportionate Minority Contact (DMC)**

The presence of DMC (also known as Disproportionate Minority Representation-DMR) indicates that the percentage of children of color in the various stages of the juvenile legal system is disproportionate to their representation in the general population (Schaffner, 2006, p. 182). The issue of DMC was initially addressed in 1988 when the National Coalition of State Juvenile Justice Advisory Groups made their annual report to Congress. In that same year, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) commissioned a report examining the issue and there was substantial evidence that race directly and indirectly impacted the outcome of many juvenile court decisions (Roscoe & Morton, 1994). As a result, Congress made a series of

amendments to JJDPa including requirements for each state to address DMC that occurs when the amount of confined minorities in secure detention facilities surpasses the amount of minorities that are in the general population (Children's Defense Fund, 2000). The first amendment of the JJDPa, in 1988, required that any state participating in the Part B Formula Grants program determines if the number of confined juvenile minorities exceeds the number of juvenile minorities in the general population (Public Law 93-415, 42 USC 5601 et seq.) and deals with DMC in their secure facilities (Devine, Coolbaugh & Jenkins, 1998). Those states had to determine the extent of DMC and then create and implement reduction strategies to address it (Devine et al., 1998).

DMC was also addressed as Congressional mandates required states to demonstrate their efforts to reduce minority overrepresentation (Federal Register, 1991; Hsia, 1999; Pope et al., 2002). In 1997, "OJJDP reported that minority youth represented 34% of the juvenile population in the United States, but 62% of the nation's detained youth" (Hsia, Bridges, & McHale, 2004). The issue continues today as zero tolerance discipline in school policies and domestic violence laws have expanded, as well as the re-categorization of status offenses that have resulted in increases in arrests of African American girls (Stevens, et al., 2011), making DMC problematic in many states. According to the 2009 report of the Cook County Juvenile Court-Juvenile Justice Division, race data has not historically been gathered through the Clerk of the Circuit Court regarding petitions filed in juvenile court. However, while African American youth represented 32% of youth ages 10 to 16 in Cook County, they represented 74% of youth arrested and 77% of youth sentenced and 83% of youth detained in the Juvenile Temporary Detention Center. The Cook County Juvenile Court is committed to addressing this disparity.

When girls of color are compared to White girls in the juvenile justice system, the former fare much worse. Even when girls in the general population are compared, the proportions of girls of color are higher at arrest, at detention and court hearings, and in residential placements (Schaffner, 2006, p. 182). The growing effect of race is demonstrated in several studies that examine racial bias in early processing decisions (i. e., detention and petition) and influence later court decisions (i. e., disposition). Findings from empirical studies note that “race influenced the decision to detain a youth pre-adjudication. Minority youth who were pre-detained were more likely to receive a harsh disposition” (Bishop & Frazier, 1996; Bortner & Reed, 1985; Feld, 1993). Overall, racial bias results in a “compound risk” of harsher outcomes for minority youth.

McCord et al. (2002) suggested that:

at almost every stage in the juvenile justice process, racial bias may be present but may not be extreme, but because the system operates cumulatively, the risk is compounded and the end result is that Black juveniles are three times as likely as White juveniles to be in residential placement (p. 257).

This is one example of the consequences of a harshly punitive juvenile and criminal justice policies that target poor girls of color and their families (Chesney-Lind, & Jones, 2010).

### **3. Current Policy Impact**

The Juvenile Justice & Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDPA) of 1974 was the first legislation to outline the matter of state policy on the juvenile court system and was enacted in response to persistent disapproval of the juvenile justice court system. The criticism peaked with three Supreme Court decisions in the late 1960’s and 1970’s when JJDPA required states to “comply with requirements for responding to status offenders by not holding them in secure detention, retaining them in families and communities rather than juvenile institutions, and separating them from delinquent and adult offenders to receive federal funding” (Schmid, 2005;



Schwartz, 1989 as cited in Feld, 2009). Despite these legislative efforts, other policy changes had contributed to increases in arrests and detainment of girls, especially African American girls. The specific policies are discussed to explain the nature and impact of these changes.

*Domestic Violence Laws and Practices.* Recent changes and the expansion of Domestic Violence laws have had an impact on the increase in arrest rates of adolescent girls involved in the juvenile justice system. Previously, the police response did not always result in arrests of the involved parties. According to Sherman and Berk (1984) in Sherman et al. (1992):

police responded to domestic violence with mediation or separation versus arrest prior to the mid-1980's. Among other things, study findings from the Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment influenced a US Attorney General's 1984 endorsement of arrest as the preferred police response (p. 270).

By 2003, all states permitted warrantless arrest with probable cause for misdemeanor family violence, including disputes between parents and children, siblings, and other household residents (Buzawa & Hotaling, 2006; Miller, 2004). Reports from the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) noted that 16% of the population with one-third of the family violence victims were parents, siblings, or other family members of which "youth made up 50.6% of offenders acting against a parent and 31.8% of those acting against siblings". More than half (72.7%) of these arrests for family violence included simple assaults, while the remaining arrests included aggravated assaults (12.5%), and intimidation (9.3%) suggesting that pro-arrest policies for the expanded definition of domestic violence resulted in increased arrests of youth for simple assaults against family members (Durose et al., 2005). It was also found that some youth assaulted a parent in response to being assaulted by that parent with fairly low chances of parental arrest. Females that were perceived as acting violently had a greater chance of being arrested than males for each type of victim-offender relationship including "parent-

child, intimate partner, or sibling”. Consequently, it has been speculated that police may be less tolerant of girls’ than boys’ violence (Buzawa & Hotaling, 2006).

*Zero tolerance discipline in school policies.* Schools have changed their response to violent behavior with “increased expulsions and suspensions as part of zero tolerance discipline policies in 1989” (Browne, 2003; Skiba & Peterson, 1999; Verdugo, 2002). They were connected to some forms of federal funding designed to halt drug or gang-related activity resulting in the expansion of existing school policies covering a larger range of violations. “The rationale for the expansion was that severe punishment of less serious violations would prevent serious delinquency” (Reynolds, Conoley, Garcia-Vazquez, Graham, Sheras, & Skiba, 2006). As a result, the internal management of student misbehavior was shifted to security guards or station police at school because school staff began to routinely call the police (Stevens, Morash, & Chesney-Lind, 2011). These practices also became evident with minority and disadvantaged youth (Browne, 2003), especially African American girls (Reynolds et al., 2006; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008).

*Up-criming.* Considerable evidence has been noted where many juvenile courts circumvented recent JJDPa legislation to reduce the number of status offenders and minorities in detention and jails. States have done this by relabeling status offenses as delinquent acts, like girls’ disputes with parents from status offenses to assault (Chesney-Lind, 2010). Up-criming or the criminalizing of minor offenses has been described as having a significant effect on girls’ enduring involvement in the juvenile justice system (Chesney-Lind & Belknap, 2004; Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2004). In addition, a form of “bootstrapping” can occur where probation departments cause girls to be locked up for violating conditions of probation, even if the original offense was minor (Schaffner, 2006). It has been especially distinct for African American girls.

In fact, bootstrapping may counter decades of efforts to deinstitutionalize status offenders by supporting detention and residential placement for girls, as well as undermining the end of DMC (Chesney-Lind, 2010). Consequently, from 1996 to 2005, African American girls' court referrals and commitments to juvenile institutions increased. Specifically, there was a 48.6% increase in girls' detention commitment compared to a 7.3% increase for boys, and an 18.6% increase in girls' commitments to placement for assault, suggesting that these dispositions are related to harsher responses to girls' violence (Sickmund, Sladky, & Kang, 2008) that is consistent with outcomes related to the expansion of domestic violence policies. Up-criming is an important example of how the juvenile justice system continues to move toward punishment and away from rehabilitation for girls (Chesney-Lind & Belknap, 2004; Garland, 2001). Unraveling these details related to the increase in girls' arrests highlights the role of racial and gender bias. These issues coupled with the presence of risk factors all contribute to an increase in documented delinquency.

## **B. Gender Differences**

Gender differences of delinquent youth have been explored in current research, and gender has been identified as one of the strongest correlates of crime and delinquency (Hagan, Gillis, & Simpson, 1985; Harris, 1977). Yet, empirical research findings have been mixed. Past research exists related to several elements of offending like onset (Farrington & Painter, 2004; Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001; Silverthorn & Frick, 1999), seriousness (Lanctot & LeBlanc, 2002), and escalation (Elliott, 1994). Feminist criminologists have become increasingly interested in investigating how race and class inequalities, in conjunction with urban space, shape women's and girl's experiences of gender-based violence (Miller, 2008, p. 3). Social work scholars identified that "substance abuse by women and domestic violence toward

women has a reciprocal relationship; either problem increases the risk for the other” (Bennett, & O’Brien, 2007). Similarly, gender entrapment has been identified as a pathway to crime for battered African American women (Richie, 1996). Also, gendered violence has been identified as a pathway for African American girls who also experience trauma and victimization due to community violence (Miller, 2008). Moreover, girls who live in distressed urban neighborhoods face a gendered dilemma: they must learn how to successfully manage potential risks of interpersonal violence (Jones, 2009, p. 9). According to these findings, female involvement in certain offense dimensions include unique psychological, physiological, and sociological pathways as compared to males (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Hartman, Listwan, & Schaffer, 2007; Howell, 2003; Hubbard & Matthews, 2008) implying that risk factors have a different effect on females than on males.

Many of the gender differences of delinquent youth have been observed in terms of risk factors, which include abuse and mental disorders (Chesney-Lind, 1989; Chesney-Lind, Morash, & Stevens, 2008; Molnar, Browne, Cerda, & Buka, 2005; Schaffner, 2006; Teplin, 2001). Identified gender differences for peer and community-level factors include delinquent peer associates (Thornberry, 2006) and weak attachment to nonfamilial adults (Huebner & Betts, 2002). Gender differences are also evident in types of offenses (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Kempf-Leonard & Sample, 2000), and have been most consistently noted in cases involving status offenses (Gaarder, Rodriguez, & Zatz, 2004; Siegel & Senna, 2000). “African American female first-time offenders have been more likely to be referred for more serious offenses and White females have been more likely to be referred for status offenses” (Barrett, Katiyannis, & Zhang, 2010). Also, “self-report data show that girls and boys commit status offenses in roughly the same numbers.” Yet, most of the girls were arrested for running away, violating probation,

curfews, or disorderly conduct (Zahn, Brumbaugh, Steffensmeier, Feld, Morash, Chesney-Lind, Miller, Payne, Gottfredson, & Kruttschnitt, 2008) or shoplifting and referred to juvenile court for status offenses is higher (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Kempf-Leonard & Sample, 2000). Given the varying effects of risk factors on girls' and boys' delinquent behavior, it is important to understand the nature of risk to address their long-term involvement in the juvenile justice system.

Research has established a set of pathways for boys' involvement in delinquent behavior at the exclusion of girls, and gender comparisons. Abuse and trauma have been identified in girls and boys involved in the juvenile justice system, and have been described as a primary link to violence and delinquency for girls (Chesney-Lind, & Rodriguez, 1983; Daly, 1992; Rivera, & Widom, 1990; Widom, 1989b), especially African American girls (Miller, 2008). Moreover, females are more seriously impaired as a result of childhood histories of physical and sexual abuse (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004; Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Lewis, Yeager, Cobham-Portorreal, Klein, Showalter, & Anthony, 1991; Miller, 2008). They suffer substantial psychological distress, such as suicidality and PTSD (Wood, Foy, Goguen, Pynoos, & James, 2002); and conduct disorders (Myers, Burket, Lyles, Stone, & Kempf, 1990). Some of the most serious female offenders join gangs for protection that also leads them to delinquent and violent behavior (Miller, 2008; Thornberry, 1998) resulting in multiple episodes of detainment and incarceration. However, some girls never engage in any type of delinquent behavior, which raises questions about the protective factors associated with this phenomenon. Although this study did not investigate differences in pathways between delinquent girls and boys, it is important to note the distinction between them.

According to Veysey et al., (2007) as cited in Acoca & Dedel, 1998, the profile of a justice-involved girl is:

similar to and different from her male counterparts. Like her male counterpart, she is likely to be a member of a minority group, to be economically disadvantaged and to reside in a high-crime neighborhood, to abuse drugs and/or alcohol, to be easily influenced by peers, to come from families characterized by fragmentation and dysfunction, and to have academic difficulties (p. 344).

In a meta-analysis including 5981 individual cases, Simourd and Andrews (1994) summarized the literature on female delinquency over the last thirty years and noted that many of the strongest correlates of delinquency were consistent for males and females. These factors include a history of antisocial behavior, antisocial peers, antisocial attitudes, and antisocial personality. However, Simourd and Andrews acknowledge methodological challenges, such as collapsing antisocial peers and antisocial attitudes into one categorical variable and excluding important variables like history of physical and sexual abuse, self-esteem, and anxiety from the analysis (Hubbard & Pratt, 2008). Unlike previous research studies, it was found that family and school relationships were important in predicting female delinquency as well (Simourd & Andrews, 1994). Farrington and Painter (2004) came to slightly different conclusions. They conducted a longitudinal study with 397 families looking at boys and their siblings (sisters and brothers). They found that the important risk factors for boys were incarcerated mothers and fathers, delinquent sibling, poor parental supervision, parental conflict, and low income, which all predicted convictions. Similarly, the risk factors for brothers in the sample included parental conflict and an incarcerated father. However, the risk factors for convictions of sisters varied and included a delinquent sibling and low family income.

Also, in contrast to male justice-involved youth, females are more likely to get involved in delinquency at an earlier age (Bergsmann, 1994). Additionally, they are more likely to have run away from home (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1998) or have attempted suicide or other forms of self-injury (Miller, 1994), a factor that is likely related to their histories of trauma and abuse.

However, there are many ways that the profile of a justice-involved girl differs from her male counterpart. Several scholars have provided accounts of these differences but one qualitative study (Miller, 2008) of 75 African American youth (35 young women and 40 young men) reported findings that highlighted gender differences and links between gendered violence and delinquency of African American girls. These study findings indicated that girls' delinquent behavior was distinguished by violence, abuse and victimization in many social domains of their lives. These effects lead to behavior changes that could later increase the risk of victimization, depression, substance use and risky behavior. Their problems are aggravated by family problems such as witnessing or experiencing physical violence among adults, parental addiction and criminal backgrounds, which are also related to sexual victimization of girls. Their interaction with delinquent/deviant peers further exposes girls to the potential perpetrators of sexual victimization and subsequent delinquent behavior. School becomes another stage where these girls experience the threat of violence and harassment with little protection by adult authority figures. Their neighborhoods also represent points of threat as they may be disadvantaged and have heightened levels of violence. Specifically, young men in their communities who enact a hypermasculinity do so by controlling the public space, which reinforces gender inequality. Consequently, girls try to escape threats of violence by travelling in groups or staying home to avoid public spaces altogether to remain safe. Girls that choose to interact in public spaces do so because they enlist male protection, yet they are fully aware of

their vulnerability and potential for being targeted for violence. The threat of harm in all these social domains limits girls' ability to fully participate in public life. Also, the situational violence that some girls' experience provides a possible explanation for increases in their violent behavior. Some girls confront the violence they experience directly, become involved in dating violence or retaliate against men in their homes or communities that abused them causing them to be ostracized and dislocated from any systems of support. Running away becomes a method of escape that also increases their risk of victimization and delinquent behavior, which is reinforced by their degraded positions in society and inability to become productive individuals. Delinquent behavior then becomes a symptom of the "primary traumas related to violence, physical and sexual abuse and secondary traumas, which the environment responds to with blame or disbelief" (Bowers, 1990). Their delinquent behavior becomes a default given the multiple problems girls face.

Fewer studies have investigated whether females and males rely on different (or similar) protective factors while continuing their noninvolvement in delinquency and other problem behaviors (Hart et al., 2007; Hartman, Turner, Daigle, Exum, & Cullen, 2009; McKnight & Loper, 2002). For example, authoritative parenting may protect juveniles from starting delinquent behavior, (Baumrind, 1968; Mounts & Steinberg, 1995) but we don't know the extent that it protects youth on probation from recidivism. Similarly, "studies conducted on violent behavior and academic abilities have found that juveniles with high grades were less likely to be involved in violent behavior" (Blum, Ireland, & Blum, 2003), but the role of school achievement and involvement in desistance is unknown. This study explores the relationship between high academic achievement and recidivism to gain a better understanding of this. Lastly, "mentors provide juveniles with either the support that their parents do not provide or added support above



and beyond that of parents and peers” (Beam, Gil-Rivas, Chen, & Greenberger, 2002; Hunter & Kilstrom, 1979). Additional research in these areas focusing on the differences (and similarities) between girls and boys aids in understanding the protective factors that foster and sustain their desistance from delinquent behavior.

### 1. **Recidivism**

Youth crimes comprise about 15% of 14 million arrests per year (Zahn et al., 2008). “Research has consistently documented that between 50% and 80% of youth are rearrested within 1 to 3 years of release” (Howell, 2003; Minor, Wells, & Angel, 2008; Trulson, Marquart, Mullings, & Caeti, 2005). Consequently, a small percentage of individuals, “chronic offenders,” account for about half of all the crime that is committed (Petersilia, 1980; Piper, 1985; Piquero, 2000a; Snyder & Sickmund, 2006; Tracy, Wolfgang, & Figlio, 1990). Scholars have also explored gender in delinquency and reoffending and noted differences (Smith, 2004), while some scholars suggest that the primary causes of reoffending for girls and boys are similar (Cauffman, 2008). Official statistics reveal that most of these offenders “arrested are male (68%), between the ages of 16 and 17 (68%), and are disproportionately African American (27%)” (Snyder, & Sickmund, 2006). Other scholars note that minority status, being male and younger offenders also recidivate more (Benedict, Huff-Corzine, & Corzine, 1997; Gainey, Payne, & O’Toole, 2000; Spohn & Holleran, 2002; Ulmer, 2001). Yet, girls’ arrests represent approximately 30% of the juvenile arrests, demonstrating a marked increase since 1980 (Zahn et al., 2008). In addition, girls’ arrests have decreased in recent years, although crime data shows that girls’ arrests for violent offenses have increased relative to boys’ arrests (Goodkind et al., 2009; Steffensmeier, & Schwartz, 2009).

In Cook County, Illinois half of male youth and almost three quarters of female youth coming to the attention of the court do not return even though the court and state's attorney's office have been diverting less serious offenders. The percentage of youth who are arrested and also have a pending case in the juvenile court or are charged with a new offense in the juvenile court within two years after completing the court process on a different case, has decreased in recent years with male recidivism decreasing even more than their female counterparts. In 2006, 17.0% of 83 female offenders had one subsequent case while 9.0% of 44 female offenders had more than one subsequent case. Also, in 2006, 19.7% of 549 male offenders had one subsequent case while 22.8% of 636 had more than one subsequent case (Cook County Juvenile Court. Juvenile Justice Division, 2009).

However, arrest rates only partially drive the changes in gender composition of juvenile court caseloads including a sharp decline in boys' arrests from 1999 to 2008, contributing to girls comprising a larger portion of the youth arrested (Puzzanchera, 2009). So the increase in girls' arrest and legal statistics are not necessarily due to girls becoming like boys in assaultive behaviors (Stevens et al., 2011). In terms of exit from juvenile justice involvement, mentors and mentoring programs have mixed findings in terms of youth desistance. Criminology and social work scholars have said for decades (Biderman, & Reiss, 1967; Maschi et al., 2008) that not just illegal behavior but also mechanisms of social control influence official statistics (Stevens et al., 2011). Legal scholars also note that racialized social control functions in a manner similar to Jim Crow for minorities (Alexander, 2012). Consequently, other scholars have investigated these factors to determine if the gender gap is really related to youth arrests and court involvement.

Criminologists and child development researchers have produced voluminous documentation on the risk factors for conduct disorders, aggression, delinquency and criminal

behavior (Savage, 2009). Studies such as the Seattle Social Development Project (Hawkins et al., 1992), the Montreal Longitudinal-Experimental Study (Haapasalo & Tremblay, 1994), the National Youth Survey (Elliot, 1994), the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development (Farrington, 1995), the Dunedin Longitudinal Study (Henry, Caspi, Moffitt, & Silva, 1996), the Oregon Youth Study (Capaldi & Patterson, 1996), the Pittsburgh Youth Study (Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, Farrington, Lahey, Keenan, & White, 2002), and the Danish Longitudinal Study (Kjvsgaard, 2002) among others have generated an enormous amount of empirical data that has revealed dozens of developmental correlates of criminal offending. Male pathways to delinquency have been characterized by maternal age and marital status, parenting styles, school achievement, attachment and attainment, harsh discipline and child abuse, and association with delinquent peers (Altschuler, 2005; Savage, 2009). Other factors that have been found to predict reoffending behavior include combating family dysfunction, school disciplinary problems and substance abuse (Altschuler, 2005). Consequently, a perspective remains that gender-specific findings are not particularly relevant since comparisons with chronic and serious female and male offenders show similarities in some of their developmental correlates (Katsiyannis & Archwamety, 1999; Barrett et al., 2006; Chamberlain & Moore, 2003; Lederman, Dakof, Larrea, & Li, 2004; McCabe, Lansing, Garland, & Hough, 2002). However, one important way that they differ is that females have unique and greater needs and at higher risk for future problems (Barrett, Katiyannis, & Zhang, 2006; Chamberlain, 1996; Irwin & Chesney-Lind, 2008).

Many factors influence the recidivism rate for juvenile offenders. According to Colman, Kim, Mitchell-Herzfeld, and Shady (2008):

Although studies vary considerably in sample selection, including the length of follow-up, and choice of recidivism measures, previous research on predominately male samples suggests that a sizeable

proportion of adolescents who engage in delinquent activity as teens will continue to engage in criminal activity as adults (p. 356).

The findings from longitudinal studies have shaped the claim for early intervention with children by showing the difficulty in changing a child's trajectory once initiated. Small changes early on could promote substantial changes in their later developmental path toward delinquency (Karoly, Greenwood, Everinham, Hoube, Kilburn, Rydell, Sanders, & Chiesa, 1998; Yoshikawa, 1994).

"Existing longitudinal research has not been useful in providing clear guidance about what should be done with youth already in the juvenile justice system" (Mulvey, Steinberg, Fagan, Cauffman, Piquero, Chassin, Knight, Brame, Schubert, Hecker, & Losoya, 2004) to curb future involvement in the criminal justice system as adults.

A review of factors influencing probation outcomes for adults indicated that in a majority of the cases, probation failure was measured by reconviction, revocation or absconding. Some of the factors most associated with failure included employment status, prior criminal record, low income, age, sex, and marital status. Specifically, young, unemployed (or underemployed) males with a low income and prior criminal record are more likely to fail while probationers who are married with children, adequately employed, and have lived in an area for more than two years, are often successful under supervision (Morgan, 1993). One study of recidivism found that the age of youth at first referral offense was a consistent predictor (Barrett, Katsiyannis, & Zhang, 2010), and youth referred before age 14 were more likely to be referred for second or third offenses (Barrett, Katsiyannis, & Zhang, 2010).

A small number of studies have been conducted with youth on probation. As probation is the focal point of juvenile court interventions, the lack of scholarship in this area is startling (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). A review of research on probation outcomes included factors that

contribute to success and failure, but also notes methodological concerns, lack of uniformity in how failure was defined and none of the studies included a control group for comparison (Morgan, 1993). Other studies that have included samples of probation-involved youth indicated that girls with conduct disorder have higher rates of anxiety and affective disorders than boys with conduct disorder (Wasserman, et al., 2005). However, court histories predicted detention placement for both White and minority youth, but mental health and substance abuse did not (Mallett, Quinn, & Stoddard-Dare, 2012).

Three studies included girls in their samples to examine how gender and racial stereotypical beliefs and class influence how probation officers viewed them, as well as the evaluation of a gender-specific program. Miller's (1996) work on delinquent girls, which relied on a "content analysis of investigation reports of girls on probation, found that juvenile court officials use middle class-based guidelines to make disposition recommendations". Another study indicated that stereotypes affect probation officers views of delinquent girls in a negative way causing them to express distaste in working with them (Gaarder et al., 2004). Wolf and colleagues (2009) conducted an evaluation of Reaffirming Young Sister's Excellence (RYSE) program and noted that African American program participants' outcomes in the juvenile justice system worsened despite their participation (Wolf, Graziano, & Hartney, 2009). These findings show the need for continued exploration into understanding the issues that probation-involved youth experience, especially girls. Also, there is a need to consider differences in gender and race/ethnicity, as well as appropriate study designs and methodology to establish correlates and predictors that lead to recidivism.

a. **Risk Factors**

The concept of "risk" dominates the delinquency literature. According to "what works"

literature [which focuses on assessment, treatment models, and treatment setting (Matthews & Hubbard, 2007)], a youth's level of risk indicates his or her likelihood of recidivism (Andrews, Bonta, & Hoge, 1990; Lowenkamp & Latessa, 2004; Van Voorhis, 2004). Some studies that investigated gender differences in terms of risk factors and delinquency (Griffin, Botvin, Scheier, Diaz, & Miller, 2000; Hart, et al., 2007; Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Hipwell & Loeber, 2006; Loeber & Keenan, 1994; McCabe et al., 2002; Resnick, Ireland, & Borowsky, 2004; Teplin et al., 2002) have mixed findings. Some studies noted sex-specific correlates of risk factors (Bloom, Owens, Deschenes, & Rosenbaum, 2002; Griffin, Botvin, Scheier, Diaz, & Miller, 2000; Hamerlynck, 2008; Hipwell & Loeber, 2006; Loeber & Keenan, 1994; McCabe et al., 2002; Rhodes and Fischer, 1993; Vermeiren, Jaspers, & Moffitt, 2006; Zahn, 2009) suggesting unique developmental pathways across gender. For example, Rhodes and Fischer (1993) found that some of the risk factors that are more salient for boys include communication (negative) with parents and gang involvement. Despite a lower prevalence of antisocial behavior among girls, research has shown that girls with antisocial behavior display more severe mental health problems than boys, such as depressive disorders, substance abuse, trauma, and comorbid disorders (Abram, Washburn, Teplin, Emanuel, Romero, & McClelland, 2007; Teplin, 2001, 2002). A study conducted by Broidy and colleagues (2003) of over 700 adolescents from six sites within three countries found:

a strong relationship between early aggressive behaviors and continuous delinquency among boys but found no similar relationship among girls. The reason for this was the lack of variation among girls and early aggressive behaviors, but also a notable lack of consistency between early aggressive behaviors and later delinquency among girls (p. 17).

In another study of 7,829 10th-grade adolescents, Fagan and colleagues (2007) found that “boys experience higher exposure to multiple risks associated with later delinquency than females. Specifically, boys’ experience higher levels of peer delinquency, rebelliousness, and academic failure while girls experience greater family conflict and lower levels of attachment to fathers.” The study findings showed variation in the development of delinquent trajectories related to delinquency including numerous types of risks for boys and through interpersonal relationships for girls (Whitney, Renner, & Herrenkohl, 2010). Girls experience multiple risk factors as a result of their adverse childhood experiences and strained social relationships that lead to their delinquent behavior and unfavorable outcomes.

These multiple risk factors for delinquency and the indication of differences in the risk factors that girls’ experience (abuse, trauma and victimization) warrant further investigation. “Additional gender-focused research examining a broad range of risk factors among larger samples of delinquent youth is necessary before firm conclusions can be drawn” (McCabe et. al., 2002). Many of these risk factors affect girls’ delinquency including family, peers, school and the community (Thornberry, Huizigna, & Loeber, 1995). Therefore, differences may exist in how aspects of social control may be used by families, communities, and schools are different for young women and young men (Booth, et al., 2008).

Girls’ adverse experiences have been assessed in the Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACES) Study:

a ‘case example’ of the convergence between epidemiologic and neurobiological evidence of the effects of childhood trauma. The ACES study included 17,337 adult HMO members and assessed 8 adverse childhood experiences including abuse, witnessing domestic violence, and serious household dysfunction (Anda, Felitti, Bremner, Walker, Whitfield, Perry, Dube, & Giles, 2006, p.1).

Recent study findings have shown a “strong, gradual relationship between the numbers of adverse childhood experiences and multiple risk factors for leading causes of death in the United States” (Felitti, Anda, Nordenberg, Williamson, Spitz, Edwards, Koss, & Marks, 1998). In particular, studies have investigated the relationship between ACES, young adults’ mental health outcomes and adolescents’ violence perpetration. In a study of urban high school seniors (n=1093) from socio-economically disadvantaged communities in Boston, Massachusetts, participants’ ACES were strongly correlated with their mental health outcomes-depressive symptoms, drug abuse and antisocial behaviors (Schilling, Aseltine, & Gore, 2007).

Similarly, Duke and colleagues (2010) conducted a study of 136,549 6<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> graders who responded to the 2007 Minnesota Student Survey. They found that girls’ and boys’ risk of “violence perpetration (delinquency, bullying, physical fighting, dating violence, weapon-carrying on school property) and self-directed violence (self-mutilatory behavior, suicidal ideation and suicidal attempt)” was increased by any ACES regardless of the type of event “(physical abuse, sexual abuse by a family member and/or other persons, witnessing abuse, and household dysfunction caused by family alcohol and/or drug use)”. These study findings show the impact of childhood adversity and their cumulative effect on youth outcomes, including high rates of mental disorders, substance abuse, antisocial behavior, violence (toward self and others) and death. In addition, the significant variation in gender that warrants further investigation of these events when examining adolescent delinquency.

i. **Individual Factors**

Research on males comprises the majority of what is currently “known” about the predictors of *individual factors* of delinquency (Chesney-Lind, & Shelden, 2004; Daly, & Chesney-Lind, 1988; Hubbard, & Pratt, 2008; Miller, 2008; Schaffner, 2006). These studies



document that those who have committed serious crimes also have prior offenses, drug problems, little education, and those with higher rates of supervision during probation or parole are more likely to recidivate when other factors are controlled (Altschuler, 2005, p. 100; Benedict & Huff-Corzine, 1997; Listwan et al., 2003; Ulmer, 2001). Girls' recidivism appears to be characterized by community violence exposure (CVE), abuse and trauma (ACES), which could manifest as both internalizing and externalizing disorders. This idea suggests that their pathways to delinquency may be less linear and direct than that of boys.

Youth involvement in the juvenile justice system has been known to increase based on their race/ethnicity, gender, and psychosocial histories of mental health, trauma (abuse and victimization) and delinquent behavior (Dembo, 1996; Grisso, 1999; Wasserman, Ko, Larkin, & McReynolds, 2004). Research on risk factors has identified individual level factors for childhood delinquency, including early antisocial behavior, emotional behaviors, poor cognitive development, low intelligence and hyperactivity. Early antisocial behavior may be the best predictor of later delinquency. These behaviors usually involve assorted forms of oppositional and aggressive behavior, such as theft, physical fighting, and vandalism (Loeber & Farrington, 2001). The following individual risk factors represented indicators that were explored in this study.

*Age at First Offense.* "Youth arrested before age 14 are 2 to 3 times more likely to become chronic adult offenders compared to youth arrested after age 14" (Loeber & Farrington, 2000). Research has shown that the age of the first contact for the youth's delinquent or criminal offense significantly discriminates between recidivists and non-recidivist (Benda, Corwyn, & Toombs, 2001; Archwamety, & Katsiyannis, 1998; Katsiyannis & Archwamety, 1997; Loeber & Farrington, 2000; Widom, 1989b; Wiersen & Forehand, 1995).

*Running Away.* Running away is one of the most prevalent risk factors for girls involved in the juvenile justice system and could likely lead to their detainment and/or incarceration (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1992). Many adolescent girls that run away do so to escape from violence and abuse in the home (Chesney-Lind, 1989; Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1998; Chesney-Lind, 1997). Lake's (1993) study of female victim/offenders "discovered that in order to escape abuse, many of these females left home ending up on the streets and engaged in prostitution, theft, and fraud in order to survive" (Chesney-Lind, 1998). In a prospective study of 206 women that were treated in a hospital emergency room, 5.3% were arrested for running away (Siegel & Williams, 2003). In another prospective study, the interrelationship among childhood victims of abuse and neglect examined running away and delinquency. They compared cases of childhood abuse and neglect to matched controls including follow up between 1989 and 1995. They found that 49.9% of abused and neglected children,  $n = 676$  ran away before age 18 (Kaufman & Widom, 1999).

*Mental Health Problems.* People with mental illness, especially those left untreated, often become involved in the criminal (juvenile) justice system due to conduct that is inappropriate or dangerous to the public that is related to the restricted accessibility of mental health services (Lamb, Weinberger, & Gross, 2004). This has been described as the criminalization hypothesis by mental health professionals who surmise that the jails have become a repository for the severely mentally ill (Teplin, 1983). Also, mental health problems are highly associated with substance abuse (Abram et al., 2007; Bloom et al., 2003). Studies have been conducted to explore gender differences in mental health disorders of delinquent youth. One of the largest and best designed studies of detained youth examined mental health disorders was conducted by the Northwestern Juvenile Project (NJP) (Teplin, 2001). Beginning in 1995, the NJP researchers

examined 1830 delinquent youth with mental disorders (1172 males and 658 females) held in the Cook County Juvenile Temporary Detention Center (CCJTDC). A baseline study was conducted to assess mental disorders and determine the extent to which detainees in need of mental health “services received them while they were in custody of the juvenile justice system, and the degree to which the youth were referred for services at their case dispositions”. Several studies have been conducted to gather epidemiological and longitudinal data on their mental disorders, service use and risky behaviors (violence, etc.). Their findings have consistently showed that females had far greater mental health needs and greater risk factors than males (Teplin, 2001; Teplin et al., 2002; Teplin et al., 2003). This includes findings that more females (56.5%) than males (45.9%) met the diagnostic criteria for two or more psychiatric disorders (Teplin et al., 2003). In addition, prevalence rates indicate that many disorders are highest among non-Hispanic Whites who may on average have greater psychiatric morbidity than minority youth (Teplin et al., 2002). More recently, Teplin and colleagues (2012) conducted a study to investigate changes in the incidence and persistence of psychiatric disorders over a five-year period following post-detention. The prospective study focused on gender and racial/ethnic differences and found that although rates of most psychiatric disorders declined with youth age, a large portion of delinquent youth continued to have disorders, and females had higher rates of major depression over time. Another study found a link between depression and violence indicating that institutionalized female adolescents were at significantly higher risk of depressive symptoms as adults than their male counterparts (Leadbeater, Kuperminc, Blatt, & Hertzog, 1999).

*Suicidality.* “Suicide is the third leading cause of death in young people aged 15 to 24 years, affecting 9.5 per 100,000 adolescents in 2003” (Hoyert, Kung, & Smith, 2005; Spirito & Overholser, 2003). Suicidal behavior includes ideations (severe thoughts about suicide),

attempts and completions (Cash & Bridge, 2009). Depression is the best known risk factor for suicide (Brent, Perper, Morwitz, Allman, Friend, Roth, Schweers, Balach & Baugher, 1993), as evidenced by empirical studies (Thompson, Ho, & Kingree, 2007), and is a common mood disorder among justice-involved girls. Suicidal behavior is a major problem in detained juvenile delinquents (Vermeiren, 2003) and incarcerated youth.

Prevalence rates of current suicidal ideation vary among juvenile justice involved youth from 14.2% to 51% (Cauffman, 2004; Esposito & Clum, 1999). “Racial and ethnic differences in suicidal ideation also vary across studies indicating higher ideation rates in non-Hispanic Whites” (Cauffman, 2004) while others reported no racial/ethnic differences (Esposito & Clum, 1999). A descriptive study of 141 Hispanic girls sentenced to probation was conducted to describe the rates of substance use and violent behavior. Findings indicate that suicide attempts represent a major problem for Hispanic girls receiving a delinquent adjudication (Cuella & Curry, 2007).

Gender differences in suicidal behavior appear to exist with delinquent and incarcerated youth (Ang & Ooi, 2004; Lewinsohn, Rohde, Seeley, & Baldwin, 2001). Several studies reported higher prevalence rates of suicidal ideation in females than males (Abram, Choe, Washburn, Teplin, King, & Dulcan, 2008; Cauffman, 2004) although others reported no gender differences (Sanislow, Grilo, Fehon, Axelrod, McGlashan, 2003; Esposito & Clum, 1999). A study of 1829 juveniles at CCJTDC “examined suicidal ideation, suicide attempts, lethality of suicide attempts, and the relationship between psychiatric disorder and recent attempts in newly detained juveniles.” Study findings indicate that risk varied by gender and race, with Hispanic females the most likely to have suicidal ideation. Specifically, “more African American and Hispanic males had thoughts of death in the past 6 months than non-Hispanic Whites” (Abram et

al., 2008). Suicidal behavior is a frequent problem with youth in the juvenile justice system, especially girls suffering from depressive and anxiety disorders, so identification and treatment is important to address this issue.

*Violent Behaviors.* Girls' arrests for violent offending has risen as they have been "more likely to be arrested for violent crimes, more likely to be detained or committed to residential facilities, and serve more time than girls in years past" (Chesney-Lind & Irwin, 2008). The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) includes:

four crimes in its crime index violent crime category: murder and non-negligent homicide, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. In 2005, girls comprised 18.4% of juvenile arrests for index violent crimes. Girls' involvement in violent crime was highest in aggravated assault. Almost one of four juvenile arrests for aggravated assault was female (23%). Girls comprised approximately 10% of those arrested for murder and robbery, and far less than 1% of those arrested for forcible rape (FBI, 2006).

However, most girls tend to engage in simple assault against people they know when they commit violent offenses (BJS, 2006). A study with data from the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) from 2000 included all assault and intimidation cases. Specifically, there were 208,280 domestic and acquaintance cases that were reviewed in 2819 jurisdictions in 19 states for individuals 13 and over. Most of the incidents were for simple assaults (63.5%) including those committed with a weapon (59.6%). In addition, 12.1% of juvenile females had committed aggravated assault compared to 16.7% of juvenile males (Buzawa & Hirschel, 2010). In Illinois, few girls have been arrested, detained, or incarcerated for weapons or sex offenses (Bostwick, & Ashley, 2009).

The context of violent behaviors varies significantly by gender as more girls were arrested who also had histories of physical child abuse than boys with similar histories (Herrera

& McCloskey, 2001). Data on girls' arrests from 1996-2005 showed that they continue to account for fewer arrests for violent offenses than boys; arrests for violent offenses decreased for girls and boys during this period; arrest patterns diverged for girls and boys (FBI, 2006; Zahn et al., 2008); violent crime index decreased for girls and boys but the decrease was greater for boys in murder, robbery, and aggravated assault; and arrests for simple assault that is a non-index violent crime increased by 24% for girls and decreased by 4.1% for boys (Heide, & Solomon, 2009; Zahn et al., 2008).

Recent analysis of crime statistics also indicates that girls are “making arrest gains on boys for aggravated and simple assault, but not for homicide, rape and robbery” (Steffensmeier & Schwartz, 2009). The FBI data for girls' arrests for rape contrasts with that of boys and notes an increase mostly because their involvement in this crime is limited. Specifically, the number of girls' arrests for rape increased from 49 in 1996 to 60 in 2005 (FBI, 2006).

*Problematic Substance Abuse.* Substance abuse is associated with delinquency and is a serious health concern for adolescents (Abrams, Teplin, McClelland, & Dulcan, 2003; Bostwick & Ashley, 2009; Stevens, et al., 2004; Teplin, et al., 2002; Teplin et al., 2003), especially youth involved in the juvenile justice system. However, much less is known about problematic substance use and not all youth that use substances develop problematic patterns of use (Baumrind, 1991; Windle, 1996). Yet, youth that use substances at high levels are at increased risk for different adverse outcomes including delinquency (Shrier, Harris, Kurland, & Knight, 2003; Teplin et al., 2001). Some empirical studies have found gender differences where females experience greater severity in substance use (Stevens et al., 2004) while others note that males had much greater odds of substance use disorders when compared to females at baseline and five years post baseline (Teplin et al., 2012). They also noted that substance use conditions were

more common among non-Hispanic Whites and Hispanics than African Americans (Telpin et al., 2012). Consistent with these findings are differences that exist where African American girls are less likely to initiate alcohol use (Williams, Van Dorn, Ayers, Bright, Abbott, & Hawkins, 2007). Some inconsistencies have been identified, noting it as a strong predictor for delinquent behavior in some instances (Girls Incorporated, 1996; Roy, 1995; Van der Put, Dekovic, Hoeve, Stams, Van der Laan, & Langewouters, 2011; White, Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, & Farrington, 1999) but not others (Wiersma & Forehand, 1995). Other studies find it predictive of delinquent behavior only for a specific substance, such as cocaine (Dembo, Williams, Schmeidler, Getreu, Gemung, Wish, & Christensen, 1991). Teplin and colleagues (2012) found that non-Hispanic Whites and Hispanics had higher rates of substance use when they evaluated psychiatric disorders in youth after release from detention.

The Monitoring the Future survey reported students' responses of drug and alcohol use and showed few differences between girls and boys in the 8<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grades. According to the survey, girls and boys reported similar use of ecstasy, cocaine, crack, heroin, Ritalin, Rohypnol, and GHB. However, there were reported increases in use of alcohol, inhalants, amphetamines, Ritalin, methamphetamine, and tranquilizers indicating that girls' use of illegal drugs other than marijuana is higher (Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2010).

Stevens and colleagues (2004) conducted a study with 1207 adolescents with juvenile involvement (941 males and 266 females); substance abuse and criminal justice were examined before and after treatment. Comparisons were made between girls and boys at treatment entry and three, six, twelve and thirty months later. Study findings revealed that "females had significantly greater severity in substance use, problems associated with use, and mental health related variables at intake while males had significantly more days on probation/parole." Both

genders experienced positive rates of change while in treatment, but the dramatic difference in severity at intake highlights the need for greater screening and assessment at the initial point of treatment engagement with females.

Another study conducted to understand race, gender, delinquent acts, alcohol and marijuana use included social development constructs to investigate differences in the initiation of risky behaviors. The longitudinal study included a sample of 808 fifth grade students and their parents in 18 Seattle elementary schools. They examined the effects of parental supervision, clarity of family rules, and association with delinquent peers. The results indicate no gender differences in the initiation of alcohol and marijuana use during adolescence were found though there was a negative and significant effect for African Americans and the initiation of alcohol use. Low income was consistently noted as a predictor for all outcomes except major delinquent acts. “Subsequent analyses found that African American female youth were less likely than White female youths to initiate both minor delinquency and alcohol use” (Williams et al., 2007) though it should be noted that the sample had relatively few African American females.

*Court Finding of Neglect.* “Neglect is by far the most common type of maltreatment experienced by children, with nearly two-thirds of maltreatment cases being neglect” (U. S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2008). Neglect is the failure of a parent or other adult (caregiver) to protect a child from exposure to any kind of danger (cold, starvation, extreme failure to carry out important aspects of care) and/or being left unsupervised (deprived of food and clean/adequate clothing, and attended school dirty/unpresentable without basic necessities) resulting in the considerable injury of the child’s health or development, including nonorganic failure to thrive (Falshaw, et al., 1996). Examples of neglect include “failing to provide food to a



child when a caregiver is able, or being incapacitated at times when a child needs supervision.” Data from agencies reporting maltreatment note that nearly 900,000 children experience maltreatment each year and the majority of these children experience it in the form of neglect (U. S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2007). It also refers to “acts of omission of care including failure of parents (or others) to meet basic needs, including medical attention, and clothing, or adequate protection and supervision (severe enough to lead to harm).” Neglect is an equal and sometimes a stronger risk factor for ensuing delinquency and antisocial behavior during adolescence and into early adulthood (Smith, Ireland, & Thornberry, 2005; Thornberry, Ireland, & Smith, 2001).

A court finding of neglect is based on youth with a court record of child neglect. Current research has found that adolescents with a current case of neglect were significantly more likely to continue offending when compared to youth with no official history of neglect (Ryan, Williams, & Courtney, 2013). Some scholars found that detained girls and African American youth had court records of abuse or neglect based on their self-reported incidences of maltreatment than Whites. In addition, “even fewer children who had the highest level of maltreatment (22%) or who reported any maltreatment (17%) had court records of abuse or neglect” (Swahn, Whitaker, Phippen, Leeb, Teplin, Abram, & McClelland, 2006).

*History of Physical or Sexual Abuse.* *Physical abuse* refers to instances of hitting, punching, kicking, burning, and otherwise inflicting physical harm (Smith & Ireland, 2009). Harsh parenting techniques, such as scapegoating, verbal attacks, threats of physical punishment as well as actual physical punishment are defined by some as physical abuse (Brezina, 1998). People with histories of maltreatment during childhood are more likely to be arrested as a juvenile or an adult than people who do not have histories of maltreatment. Being abused or

neglected as a child increased the likelihood of arrest as a juvenile by 59% and as an adult by 28%, and for a violent crime by 30%. The number of young women in the juvenile justice system who have experienced some degree of physical or sexual abuse is between 80 to 90% (Schaffner, 2006).

Childhood *sexual abuse* comprises the range of behavior from fondling and touching to intercourse (Kendall-Tackett, Williams, & Finkelhor, 1993). It is an etiological factor in several mental health disorders such as dissociative disorders, anxiety disorders, obsessive-compulsive disorders, and eating disorders (Knutson, 1995; Ratican, 1992). Unlike other forms of child maltreatment, sexual abuse disproportionately affects females (Chesney-Lind, 1998). It has been shown to result in several adverse emotional and psychological difficulties that can last a lifetime (Desai, Arias, Thompson, & Basile, 2002), and the most common symptom experienced is depression (Finkelhor, 1990; Koverola, Pound, Heger, & Lytle, 1993). Cernkovich and colleagues (2008) conducted a longitudinal study of formerly institutionalized female and male offenders in Ohio to determine the causes and correlates of female and male delinquency and the long-term consequences of antisocial behavior. They found that physical and sexual abuse during childhood and adolescence were powerful predictors of adult criminality, but not adolescent delinquency. These findings represent a departure from many other studies that note the high percentage of girls who experienced trauma and its relationship to delinquency. They also validate previous studies that “any comprehensive explanation of adolescent females’ involvement in deviant behavior must take into account past and present victimization” (Lanctot & LeBlanc, 2002, p. 175). Despite mixed findings in these studies, it is clear that abuse during childhood and adolescence has a long-term impact on girls’ antisocial behavior.

*Victimization.* Large numbers of justice-involved girls have experienced trauma and victimization (Ambrose & Stewart, 2001; Bergsmann, 1989; Chamberlain & Moore, 2003; McCabe, Lansing, Garland, & Hough, 2002; Reebye, Moretti, Wiebe, & Lessard, 2000; Wood, et al., 2002). Victimization is prevalent among youth and 66% report at least one traumatic event by age 16 (Copeland, Keeler, Angold, & Costello, 2007), and two-thirds in psychiatric or juvenile justice samples (Abram, et al., 2004) have been seriously victimized. Depending on the measures of victimization used in the particular study, victimization may include physical and sexual abuse occurring within the youth's family or it may focus on victimization within the community.

Victimization related to violence exposure has been identified as an important problem affecting youth, and in particular urban youth, with clearly established adverse consequences (Margolin & Gordis, 2000) including involvement in serious delinquency. In 2002, "the Department of Justice reported that the violent crime rate for adolescents ages 16 to 19 was over twice the rate for people ages 25 to 34 and three times the rate for adults 35 to 49" (Finkelhor & Dziuaba-Leatherman, 1994). Youthful offenders who have been exposed to trauma (victimization and violence) have been the focus of a large number of adolescent and general population studies in the last decade. In a study of "over 4000 adolescents' ages 12 to 17 found that 13.4 % of girls and 21.3 % of boys reported experiencing lifetime physical assault, and 3.5 % of girls and 4.6 % of boys reported having witnessed violence" (Kilpatrick et al, 2003b). The proximity of "motivated offenders, and participation in risky behavior all place girls at risk for repeated victimization by strangers, intimates (partners), and acquaintances" (Lake, 1993; Widom, 2000).

*Conduct Disorder (CD) Symptoms and Other Mental Health Disorders.* Studies examining psychiatric disorders of aggressive girls suggest that they experience numerous

mental health problems, especially those from high-risk samples (Odgers, & Moretti, 2002; Zoccolillo, 1991, 1993). Studies focused on conduct disorder are particularly relevant to the study of delinquency as many conduct disorder symptoms are delinquent acts. Loeber and Keenan (1994) reviewed studies examining comorbidity with conduct disorder and found effects related to both age and gender. In general population studies, high-risk and clinical samples findings indicated that “odds ratios showed that girls with CD were more likely to suffer from comorbid conditions of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), anxiety disorder, depression and substance abuse”. Similarly, in a sample of probation-involved youth, girls with a conduct disorder had higher rates of anxiety and affective disorders than boys with a conduct disorder (Wasserman, et al., 2005). In addition, past studies found higher rates of conduct disorder and psychiatric disorders in adult female than males (Teplin, Abram, & McClelland, 1996). Consequently, girls with CD may be at greater risk of continued involvement in law-breaking behavior as adolescents and as adults.

## ii. **Family Factors**

Studies of *family factors* find that girls involved in the juvenile justice system have a distinct profile of familial risk factors while others have found family and parental factors to be less predictive of female delinquency (Farrington, 2005; Kingery, Biafora, & Zimmerman, 1996; Miller, et al., 1995; Silverthorn & Frick, 1999) and more salient to male delinquency. Past studies have identified family variables that are consistent covariates for delinquent behavior. Despite mixed findings, studies have identified a reliable list of risky behaviors for delinquent girls, including a history of sexual abuse or physical abuse (Girls Incorporated, 1996; White et al, 1999) and witnessing violence and marital conflict could lead to behavior problems (Kracke,

2001; Reppucci, Fried, Schmidt, 2002). The following family risk factors represent the indicators that were explored in this study.

*Out-of-Home Placement.* Out-of-home placement has also been identified as a family risk factor for girls' delinquency. Youth with foster care experience are four times more likely to engage in delinquent behavior than those with no foster care experience (Alltucker et al., 2006). In addition, youth that experience changes in placement may experience risks to their well-being. These changes in placements may require the youth to move to a new community causing disruptions in their social and educational experiences (Leathers, 2006).

*Times Kicked or Locked Out.* Often girls are locked out of their homes in retaliation for running away or because of family dynamics related to family and domestic violence, so they end up vulnerable, overly exposed to risks, and lacking adequate support and adult supervision (Bass, 1992; McMorris, Tyler, Whitbeck, & Hoyt, 2002; Widom, 1989b). This absence of support networks is known as structural dislocation, or the removal, by choice, force, or some combination of circumstances, from a social institution – with little chance of re-association due to the nature of the rift between the individual and the institution (family, school and future employment) resulting from girls' abuse and victimization (Arnold, 1990). Ever more challenging are the problems girls face living on the street, such as violence, substance abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, teenage pregnancy, and dropping out of school (Hagan & McCarthy, 1997; Whitbeck, Hoyt, Yoder, Cauce, & Paradise, 2001).

*History of Parental Problems.* Parental problems such as drug and alcohol use, mental health problems, and criminality are important factors that impact youth delinquency. The presence of parental problems has doubled the risk of youth experiencing juvenile conviction in the future (Farrington, 2005). A meta-analytic review of 161 published and unpublished papers

on parenting and delinquency noted that very few studies focused on parenting styles and of those studies, no gender differences were found (Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, Van der Laan, Smeenk, & Gerris, 2009). One study measured both family and individual problems among delinquent youth being served by a community agency. Statistically significant risk factors identified in boys were communication with parents, marital problems, and other family problems. For girls, a larger number of family problems were statistically significant; including parent substance abuse, parent marital conflict, and other family problems like domestic and family violence (Rhodes and Fischer, 1993). These study results support previous findings of differences between females and males in predictors of delinquency.

Parental drug and alcohol use can hinder parenting and the provision of a nurturing environment for children. Specifically, the impact of parental problem drug use affects the home environment and child-care, parent-child relationships, and child behavior (Barnard, & McKeganey, 2004) including delinquency. Moreover, familial alcohol problems have been found to be related to adolescent risky behavior, including their increased risk of problems with alcohol and hard drugs (Kilpatrick, Acierno, Saunders, Resnick, Best, & Schnurr, 2000).

The mental health status of parents also has a direct effect on parenting and is a risk factor for juvenile delinquency (Derzon & Lipsey, 1999; Phillips, Burns, Wagner, Kramer, & Robbins, 2002). Mentally ill parents may not possess the stability required to provide a secure environment or home life, causing the child to take on some of these responsibilities (Burkett, 1991). Some parents with histories of mental illness also experience behavior problems, causing them to be incapacitated or experience poor judgment (Kelleher, Chaffin, Hollenberg, & Fischer, 1994). This could lead to impaired parenting practices including poor supervision and child

maltreatment (Bifulco, Moran, Ball, Jacobs, Baines, Bunn, & Cavagin, 2002). These practices provide the circumstances leading to delinquent behavior of youth.

Children who grow up in homes where one or both parents are incarcerated experience multiple issues that may hinder their development into well-functioning adults (Johnson, 1995). These effects can be both direct and indirect causing the child to be socialized in ways that do promote adaptation of healthy adult roles (Dannerback, 2005).

*Harsh Parenting.* Poor parenting practices are a common risk factor for problem behavior and can promote impulsive, antisocial and delinquent behavior (Moffitt & Caspi, 2001; Patterson et al, 1992). Poor parenting is a multidimensional construct consisting of poor communication, problem solving, monitoring skills, and hostile affect (Fraser et al., 2004). Also, harsh or punitive discipline (involving physical punishment) is an important predictor (Haapasalo & Pokela, 1999) of delinquent behavior. Similar study findings were found in the Cambridge Study. “Harsh or erratic parental discipline, cruel, passive or neglectful parental attitudes and poor parental supervision, all measured at age 8, all predicted later juvenile convictions and self-reported delinquency” (West & Farrington, 1973). Also, low levels of parental support and involvement show an increase in the likelihood of delinquent behavior (McCord, 1992). Another study of delinquent boys in grades 1, 4, and 7 from inner city public schools in Pittsburgh revealed that even with demographic characteristics and delinquency being controlled, neglectful parenting was common in groups of youth that both continued and stopped their delinquent behavior. This suggests that neglectful parenting styles have a varied and significant impact on delinquent behavior of males (Hoeve, Blokland, Dubas, Loeber, Gerris, & Van der Laan, 2008). These parenting practices can lead a child to and reinforce current involvement in delinquent behavior.

*Parental Supervision.* The degree of structure or control provided by the parent has been found to predict delinquent behavior in youth (Farrington, 2005; Maccoby, 1992). Of all family factors, poor parental supervision is the strongest and most replicable predictor of delinquency (Smith & Stern, 1997). In high-risk communities, parental supervision and monitoring appear to be crucial factors in protecting children from harm and in promoting resilient outcomes (Jarrett, 1995). McCord's (1979) classic longitudinal studies in Boston and by Robins (1979) in St. Louis show that among other factors, poor parental supervision all predicts delinquency. "Early forms of disruptive behaviors in children often leading to delinquency are associated with poor parenting skills" (Bernazzani, Cote, & Tremblay, 2001). Some of the major early risk factors for antisocial behavior include poor parental supervision, child physical abuse, punitive or erratic parental discipline, cold parental attitude, parental conflict, antisocial parents, large family size and low family income (Farrington, 2005).

*Family Violence.* Family violence whether marital or child (Herrera & McCloskey, 2001) is viewed as "a major risk factor for delinquency and especially for violent crime" (Farrington, 1991; Smith & Thornberry, 1995). It involves parents and family members whether witnessed or directly experienced as a victim or perpetrator, (Cooley-Quille, Turner, & Beidel, 1995; Schwab-Stone, Ayers, Kaspro, Voyce, Barone, Shriver, & Weissberg, 1995) including "distinct methods of family behavior that have important commonalities in their contexts and precursors, and especially, in their damaging impact on children" (Gelles, 1997; Heyman & Slep, 2002; Tomison, 2000). Studies focused on family level risk factors suggest that marital problems are significant for girls and boys. Other researchers have defined familial risk factors as comprising specific characteristics: parental disengagement and inattention to their daughters, parental abuse, emotional conflicts in families, intergenerational patterns of arrest and



incarceration and family fragmentation, poverty, family structure, and head of household education (as cited by Mullis, 2004).

Litrownik and colleagues (2003) conducted a study to examine aggression, anxiety and depression in young at-risk children given the influence of family violence exposure (victim versus witness and physical versus psychological) using the Child Behavior Checklist. They found that subsequent exposure to family violence predicted reported problem behaviors at age 6. Yet no statistically significant gender differences were found (Litrownik, Newton, Hunter, English, & Everson, 2003). In a prospective study of gender differences in the risk of delinquency among youth exposed to family violence, (Herrera & McCloskey, 2001) the authors examined whether an arrest was ever made and if so, whether it was ever for a violent crime. The authors controlled for the nature of the crimes to examine the association between family violence and delinquency. There were no significant gender differences in overall referrals to juvenile court as girls and boys were just as likely to be referred for status offenses like running away and petty theft. However, girls had higher court referrals for domestic violence charges (girls 24.2% and boys 23.8%) involving a parent. Moreover, among the girls ever arrested for a violent offense, 89% were arrested solely for domestic violence. This finding notes the variation in the context of violence for girls and boys and also reflects the current changes in enforcement of the expanded domestic violence law.

### iii. **Peer Factors**

*Friends w/Delinquent Influences.* Deviant peers provide chances to engage in problem behavior, provide considerable social pressure and positive reinforcement for deviant behavior, and supply the adolescent with attitudes, motivations, and rationalizations to support their antisocial behavior (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989). Some authors have noted

longitudinal relationships where peer relations measured at ages 6 to 12 were found to be related to subsequent offenses committed through a 10-year follow up study (Altschuler, 2005, p. 100). Another study found a highly significant positive correlation between friends' approval and modeling of problem behavior and later, an index of multiple problem behaviors in young adulthood (Jessor, 1991).

*Gang Involvement.* Youth that are exposed to friends who exhibit deviant behaviors (i.e., involvement with a deviant peer group) has been noted as a strong predictor of delinquent behavior (Dishion, Andrews, & Crosby, 1995; Elliot & Menard, 1996; Patterson et al., 1992; Warr, 2002). Specifically, adolescents who join juvenile street gangs are more often involved in serious and violent delinquency than adolescents who are not gang members are responsible for the vast majority of delinquent acts even though they represent a minority of the population. For example, in the Rochester Youth Development Study, about 30% of the sample was gang members, but they accounted for 70% to 80% of serious and violent delinquencies (Thornberry, 1998). Fagan and colleagues (2007) conducted a study of 7829 10th-grade students delinquent behavior found that boys experience higher exposure to multiple risks associated with later delinquency.

#### iv. **School Factors**

*School factors* may be especially important given that youth spend the majority of their time in school (Hart, et al., 2007). The longitudinal effects of school factors on later delinquency of children examined from elementary to high school found that academic failure predates delinquency (Tremblay & LeMarquand, 2001). For justice-involved youth, lack of motivation, boredom with classroom structure, and peer pressure have all been cited as reasons for truancy from school (Barth, 1984; Guttmacher, Weitzman, Kapadia, & Weinberg, 2002; Hallfors, Vevea,

Iritani, Cho, Khatapoush, & Saxe, 2002; Zhang, Katsiyannis, Barrett, & Wilson, 2007). Mullis and colleagues (2005) noted that more than half of chronic juvenile offenders in their sample were in special education programs at school for emotional problems, remedial education, or learning disabilities (Uggen & Wakefield, 2005).

*Learning Difficulties.* Low intelligence and low school performance are important predictors of juvenile violence (Farrington & Loeber, 2000). Research has suggested that factors like school failure, (Zingraff, Leiter, Johnsen, & Meyers, 1994) and learning difficulties (Blum et al., 2003; Morrison & Cosden, 1997) can be linked to crime. “Studies conducted on learning difficulties and violent behaviors have found that violence increased as learning difficulties increased” (Blum et al., 2003; Morrison & Cosden, 1997). Consequently, they may be treated differently because they also lack the skills needed to desist from crime (Morrison & Cosden, 1997). Other studies suggest that school attachment, attainment, and achievement (including drop-out) are all associated with delinquency (Seydlitz & Jenkins, 1998).

#### v. **Community Factors**

One important aspect of the *community* for justice-involved girls includes the role of community violence exposure and how it impacts their involvement in extracurricular activities. Studies of neighborhoods and communities indicate that inner city neighborhoods tend to have the highest crime rates and they endure the most serious forms of crime to a much greater degree than their suburban and rural counterparts (Savage, 2009). Moreover, girls that experience life stressors such as poverty, fractured families and poor housing may experience an even greater level of exposure to disadvantage such as community violence (Gorman-Smith, & Tolan, 2003) are less likely to participate in extracurricular activities due to fear of harm.

*Interests in Leisure Activities.* Sociologists have outlined the difficulties girls' experience in urban communities with high levels of community violence and crime (Jones, 2009; Miller, 2008). Specifically, the inability to socialize freely and participate in activities that will enhance their overall development is based on school-based activities or those in the community where the youth live. "School-based extracurricular activities provide adolescents with highly structured leisure environment, so they can exert control and express their identity through a choice of activity and actions within the setting" (Darling-Hammond, 2004). The absence of school-based activities, as well as those in the girls' neighborhoods could contribute to their declined interest so they may seek adverse or anti-social activities in lieu of prosocial ones.

b. **Protective Factors**

Protective factors help to explain a fact that is part of common awareness; so many youth do not succumb to risk behavior (Burton, & Marshall, 2005; Crosnoe, Erickson, & Dornbusch, 2002; Hartman et al., 2009; Jessor, 1991; Jessor, Van Den Bos, Vanderryn, Costa, & Turbin, 1995) and for those that do, many do not become lifetime criminals. When multiple protective factors are in place, even high-risk youth can successfully avoid involvement in serious delinquency (Thornberry, et al., 1995). Some high-risk youth are resilient and manage to avoid these negative outcomes (Thornberry, et al., 1995). However, differences in protective factors are not as pronounced as risk factors though they remain of great interest in understanding delinquent girls and boys. Consequently, protective factors are presumed to reinforce prosocial norms and activities, thus preventing delinquency or counterbalancing the deleterious effects of risk factors (Howell, 2003; Williams et al., 2004).

A limited number of studies address resiliency and justice-involved youth (Mowder, Cummings, & McKinney, 2010). Although protective factors have been less well-studied than

those that increase risk (Kazdin, 1993b), during the last two decades research has investigated the role of protective factors and serious delinquency (Fagan et al., 2007), race (Li, Nussbaum, & Richards, 2007), and internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Dekovic, 1999) of adolescents. Fagan and colleagues (2007) found higher levels of promotive factors including more prosocial opportunities and better social skills among girls as compared to boys but a similar number of promotive factors. These findings may indicate that increased promotive factors could further reduce the developmental trajectory for delinquent behavior for girls. Further research examining protective factors exhibited by justice-involved youth will help identify trajectories for offending, as well as worthwhile areas for prevention and intervention (Mowder et al., 2010).

i. **Individual Factors**

*Prosocial Beliefs.* Adolescents with high levels of prosocial beliefs tend to respect and adhere to rules and laws. In addition, youth with prosocial beliefs about education and school support may be less likely to engage in delinquent behavior. However, adolescents with low levels of pro-social beliefs tend to participate in rule-breaking and law-breaking behaviors (Brown, Catalano, Flemming, Haggerty, Abbott, Cortes, & Park, 2005). Therefore, developing prosocial beliefs are important in reducing the delinquent behavior of youth. Prosocial beliefs are developed via socializing agents (parents, etc.) and processes, that are positive and affirming (Kosterman, Haggerty, Spoth, & Redmond, 2004).

*Problem Solving.* This attitude permits the adolescent to strategize effective ways to address problems in a constructive manner (Baldwin, Baldwin, Kasser, Zax, Sameroff, & Seifer, 1989). Also, attitudes (and beliefs) that youth possess can serve as protective factors (Hart et al., 2007) making them less susceptible to risk. Significant factors that buffer risk were evident in Fagan and colleagues' (2007) study that examined the role of protective factors on self-reported

serious delinquency. The sample in this study included 10<sup>th</sup> grade high school students that completed the Communities that Care Survey in 2002 (Arthur, Hawkins, Pollard, Catalano, & Baglioni, 2002). The final sample included 3986 girls and 3843 boys, and for girls and boys, both of the protective factors (moral and social beliefs) were associated with decreased involvement in serious offending. Females in the sample experienced greater protection from these beliefs than did males.

## ii. **Family Factors**

Research on *family factors* and “delinquency confirms that attachment and emotional bonds to parents have a stronger protective impact on young women than on young men” (Austin, 1978; Datesman & Scarpitti, 1975; Heimer & DeCoster, 1999; Huebner & Betts, 2002). Also, research has shown that externalizing behaviors in youth decreased when their parents and family members were supportive (Myers & Taylor, 1998). The following family protective factors represent indicators that were explored in this study.

*Appropriate Parental Discipline.* Effective parents provide youth with clear and supportive instruction, limit setting, and involvement that appear to influence important developmental outcomes (Denham, Workman, Cole, Weissbrod, Kendziora, & Zahn-Waxler, 2000). Recent studies indicate that these qualities suppress conduct problems, promote academic achievement, and contribute to positive social relationships (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Masten et al., 1999). Furstenberg and colleagues (1999) found specific “preventive parenting practices” enhanced adolescent success in disadvantaged teens. Some of the strategies included pointing out how neighborhood dangers have destroyed others’ lives, knowing who the child was with, and keeping the child at home as much as possible. The combination of these preventive

strategies and encouraging messages about the child's ability to overcome adversity, appear to be crucial elements of effective parenting in high-risk environments (Smokowski et al., 1999).

Positive family expectations seem to be a significant moderator for girls' behavior. In a study with Add Health data of 20, 704 youth, it was found that affective dimensions of families (family caring/connectedness, and parental expectations) were more important for girls than boys (Blum et al., 2003). Another aspect of effective parenting includes appropriate discipline based on the use of providing rewards and consequences for youth behavior. The appreciation for positive behavior is the response of people, especially parents in the social environment to desired behaviors of youth. Behavior is strengthened through the use of rewards or positive reinforcements (Akers et al., 1979; Bandura, 1973). In addition, the combination of antecedents and/or consequences also influences the rate of youth's compliant behavior.

*Close to Parents & Family.* A good relationship with at least one parent has been shown to diminish the effects of interparental conflict that has a significant impact on adolescent girls' delinquent behavior (O'Keefe, 1994). In a classic study by Rutter (1979) on troubled families, over half of children who had a poor relationship with one parent displayed conduct problems. Positive parent-child relationships help children feel secure, and they correspond to more consistent supervision and discipline. In addition, these relationships help enhance their cognitive and social development both through direct instructional activities like helping with homework, and through the indirect processes associated with mentoring, caring, and nurturing (Masten et al., 1999; Neighbors et al., 1993). The presence of other caring adults, such as family members also offer social support and connectedness has been identified as a protective factor for children across numerous risk conditions (Rutter, 2000a). Positive relationships with parents and other family members serve as protective factors for children and model prosocial skills and

behaviors, help them build self-esteem, provide information and access to knowledge, provide assistance, and offer a source of protection against environmental stressors (Masten, 1994).

### iii. **Peer Factors**

*Close to Prosocial Peers.* Healthy peer relations are of great importance for the social and personality development of adolescents. “Peers offer support, emotional reassurance, a safe setting for experimenting with different roles, for intimate sharing, and for self-disclosure” (Berndt, & Perry, 1990; Hartup, 1993). Peers are a possible source of resilience that relatively little attention has been paid in the literature. “Peers often play important roles in whether youth resist involvement in delinquent behavior (Guo, Hill, & Hawkins, Catalano, & Abbott, 2002; Hoge, Andrews, & Lescheid, 1996). Two studies examined the role of peers as protective factors to understand adolescent behavior problems (internalizing/externalizing problems and violent and delinquent behavior). The study findings are mixed as Hart and colleagues (2007) noted that pro-social peers did not prevent delinquency and violent behavior of youth and gender differences were not indicated. Conversely, in a study of neighborhood resources on aggressive and delinquent behaviors of urban youth researchers found that prosocial peers/supportive friends were associated with lower odds of delinquent behaviors, 0.07% of 1110 girls’ and - 0.02% of 1116 boys’ in the study (Molnar, Cerda, Roberts, & Buka, 2008). Also, Dekovic found that peers played an important protective role regarding the development of a protective effect for the development of problem behavior (1999). “While the presence of prosocial peers is likely to have an independent effect on the development of delinquent attitudes, research shows that peer groups are not completely delinquent or completely prosocial” (Berndt, 1979; Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 1989; Elliott & Menard, 1996; Haynie, 2002; McGloin, 2009; Warr,



1993a). Haynie (2002) found that the greater the proportion of prosocial youth in a peer group, the less delinquent involvement, regardless of the number of delinquent peers.

iv. **School Factors**

*School Connectedness.* Attachment (Anderson, Holmes, & Ostresh, 1999; Daigle, Cullen, & Wright, 2007) and commitment (Krohn & Massey, 1980) to school are important aspects to reduce female delinquency. “A review concludes that school bonding is a stronger protective factor for females than males” (Payne, Gottfredson, Kruttschnitt, 2005). One more recent study of self-reported serious delinquency also indicated a gender difference given school as a protective factor. Specifically, girls and boys responses about prosocial opportunities and rewards for behavior at school were related to serious delinquency and girls’ responses were significant (Fagan et al., 2007). However, not all studies found gender differences in the effect of schools on delinquency.

*High Academic Achievement.* School is a form of informal social control and academic performance has also been identified as a protective factor” (Hartman et al., 2009). Beyond being a mechanism of informal social control, academic performance is also relevant for juvenile offending. High school achievement was the most important factor as it explained a significant amount of variance in adolescent problem behavior, including the offending behavior for both females and males (Agnew & Brezina, 1997; Dekovic, 1999). Specifically, GPA was one factor that significantly distinguished groups of youth identified as nondelinquent, nonviolent delinquent and violent delinquent (Hart et al., 2007). “One important finding in this study was for females having a caring adult at school and males’ GPA, having learning difficulties, and using alcohol and drugs at an early age were important predictors for each of the aforementioned

groups” (Hart et al., 2007). This finding is consistent with previous research on high GPA being a protective factor for delinquent behavior (Beam et al., 2002; Mounts & Sternberg, 1995).

#### v. **Community Factors**

Neighborhood or *community* characteristics can provide an understanding about the positive and negative influences youth experience, such as personal resources and stress (Wandersman & Nation, 1998). The United States’ policy reflects the public assumption that adolescence is a time of storm and stress so youth are in need of protection and control from their communities. An extensive body of research indicates that positive youth engagement reduces the likelihood of interpersonal violence and delinquency (Zeldin, 2004).

*Talks w/Teachers.* Even though youth and adults may share community settings, such as during sports events, service activities, and celebrations they may not necessarily interact with each other. “They most often engage in ways that are parallel to or independent of, but not integrated with, those of adults” (Camino, 2000; Coleman, 1978). Consequently, only about half of all adolescents can identify two or more non-familial adults that they can talk to about life (Benson, 1997). Many young offenders lack positive role models for how to be healthy, law-abiding citizens, and frequently lack positive familial support (Spjeldnes, & Goodkind, 2009). Mentors and/or caring adults that are involved in the lives of youth has been shown to be a protective factor for delinquent girls (Garmezy, 1985; Hawkins, Graham, Williams, & Zahn, 2009; Jessor, 1993; Rutter, 1987; Werner & Smith, 1992). Consequently, having access to prosocial non-familial adults’ plays a vital role in youths’ development. This could be true for girls, as relationships may be more salient to their overall growth and development.

Prosocial non-familial adults are an important personal resource that can greatly benefit youth on probation. The Girls Study Group conducted a secondary analysis of girls in a national

school-based sample of youth and found that delinquent girls with at least one caring adult in their lives experienced greater protection from delinquent behavior (Hawkins et al., 2009). The presence of caring adults at school and in the community could be useful in providing information about ways that community factors impact delinquent girls.

*Involved in Extracurricular Activities.* The large amount of time spent by adolescents engaging in leisure activities, coupled with high rates of participation in organized extracurricular activities, means that these activities should be viewed as an important developmental context for adolescents, much like the family, peer, and school have been viewed as developmental contexts (Brofenbrenner, 1979; Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005). Regular involvement in activities, doing chores, church, hobbies, volunteering, studying, or having a job was found to be protective for both females and males (Huebner, & Betts, 2002) with delinquent backgrounds.

### C. **Gaps in the Literature**

Several gaps exist related to the empirical studies in this literature review, including a dearth of studies that explore recidivism and also include protective factors in all social domains for youth on probation, as well as the lack of studies focusing on gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors. Lastly, there is the lack of theory supporting studies focusing on gender and race.

The first gap relates to a dearth of studies of youth on probation. Only a limited number of studies include girls and boys on probation and their recidivism even though more than half of all juvenile offenders are on probation. The majority of what is known about delinquent youth, their recidivism, and risk and protective factors have been conducted on males, serious offenders, and those in detention or incarcerated. Additionally, studies that focus on youth on probation

have not been conducted to explore risk and protective factors or gender and racial differences extensively. Gaining an understanding of probation-involved youth in Cook County provides important information that can guide future service enhancements in the juvenile probation department.

The second gap is related to the absence of studies that both explored gender and racial differences in terms of risk and protective factors. Several studies have examined gender differences and risk factors for violence, aggression and delinquency with a limited focus on race and protective factors. In particular, too few studies included protective factors in all social domains, as well as a focus on multiple risk and protective factors. This is necessary information to create or modify interventions that can effectively meet the needs of delinquent girls.

Research on certain risk factors like internalizing and externalizing disorders (depression and aggression) is well established, but less is known about the factors that protect children and youth from the development of antisocial, delinquent, and adult criminal behavior. This is important because it reflects the need to focus on protective factors as an approach to better understand delinquent girls and boys.

The third gap includes the number of studies that investigate delinquent girls in the absence of theories appropriate to explore their unique attributes. For example, given the rate of minority overrepresentation and adverse childhood experiences with delinquent girls, few studies incorporated Critical Race Theory, which is appropriate to understand how gender, race and crime intersect. Also, many studies have documented the fact that girls involved in the juvenile justice system are affected by their relationships, including those that are broken or strained. However, few studies include theories to address girls' relationships using Relational Theory.

The absence of these theories in empirical studies represents missed opportunities to review study findings in unique ways to address delinquent girls, especially girls of color.

These gaps provide a significant opportunity for this study to expand empirical knowledge about delinquent girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois. This study was conducted by exploring known and understudied risk and protective factors, including the specific ways that they are affected by risk for problem behaviors and violence. The focus on protective factors identified ways that probation officers and social workers can enhance their work with these youth, which has been understudied. In addition, this study adds a social work perspective to those already present in the literature from criminology and psychology. The focus on differences between girls and boys lends itself to a perspective that informs gender-specific needs of delinquent girls. This is important to understand as some scholars argue that girls and boys are more similar than different, despite the severity of circumstances and related needs that girls experience.

## **IV. METHODS**

This descriptive quantitative study linked youth-level administrative data sources to create a unique dataset for secondary analysis. The two data sources included YASI assessment data and recidivism records. The merged data file was used to assess the risk and protective factor variables that predict recidivism in a sample of probation-involved youth. Probation officers collected YASI assessment data from youth and their parents/caregivers during semi-structured interviews. Studies that use administrative data from the Youth Assessment Screening Instrument (YASI) Full Assessment have not been conducted, despite the fact that data from this instrument have been collected in the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department (CCJPD) since 2001 (K. Hickey, personal communication, December 15, 2011). The YASI data is housed at Orbis Partners, Inc. (OPI) based on a contractual agreement with the Administrative Office of the Illinois Court (AOIC). The recidivism records are collected by CCJPD and maintained/extracted by the Office of the Chief Judge (OCJ). The Principal Investigator (PI) received data files securely from OPI and the OCJ to conduct the study. The aims of the study include understanding gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors, and understanding which risk and protective factors predict recidivism of girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois. The design, data collection methods, a description of the sample, instrumentation, and the variables used in the study are discussed.

### **A. Design and Method of Investigation**

The research design was descriptive and exploratory. Three different types of associations were tested between gender and race and risk and protective factors. The third was the predictive part between recidivism and risk and protective factors. The dependent variable in

the study was recidivism. The independent variables include constructs (30 risk and 10 protective factors) within five social domains: Individual, Family, Peer, School and Community.

## 1. **Participants**

This study examined associations between risk and protective factors and gender and race in the YASI data. The study sample is comprised of youth on probation. Once youth are arrested, the States Attorney's Office files a petition that initiates a JEMS ID. If and when a judge finds the youth delinquent, they will be placed on probation or supervision. If the youth is arrested while on probation for the current petition, the States Attorney's Office will file a new petition. Then the judge will find the youth delinquent on the second petition (M. Fournier, personal communication, November 25, 2013). The subjects for this study included 5,831 youth on probation ages 12 to 17 with one completed baseline YASI Full Assessment from 2001 to August 30, 2013. A subset of the sample ( $n=409$ ) were youth that had recidivated. The data were limited to 1/1/2009 - 8/30/2013 due to the timing of CCJPDs initiation of recidivism data collection.

## 2. **Method of Data Collection**

The primary data used for this study was from the YASI Full Assessment collected by probation officers for non-research purposes. Probation officers scored the assessments after one or more semi-structured interviews with youth, parents/guardians, and collateral reports within 30 days of sentencing. Probation officers update the YASI every four months (Orbis Partners, 2007a) to determine changes with the youth including a final assessment at termination (K. Hickey, personal communication, December 15, 2011). This study included YASI data from the youth in the study with an initial assessment within a specified timeframe: 1/01/09 to 8/1/2013.

Programmers in the Office of the Chief Judge (OCJ) also collected recidivism information that is included in two separate linked data files (“recidivism data file”). OCJ staff started collecting data on youth recidivism in this separate data file in 2010.

### 3. **Location**

**Cook County Juvenile Probation Department (CCJPD).** There were 3804 youth with probation status in CCJPD in 2012 (CCJPD Summary report, 2013). The areas served include the City of Chicago, Skokie, Maywood, Rolling Meadows, Bridgeview and Markham (Cook County, n. d.). CCJPD uses a restorative justice model, “a philosophy based on a set of principles that serve to guide the response to conflict or harm. Restorative justice principles can guide responses to conflicts in many settings, not just those caused by a violation of law” (Illinois Criminal Justice Authority, n. d.). CCJPD was directly involved in the development of this study as Dr. Miquel Lewis, Probation Administrator served on the committee overseeing this dissertation study. The data for this study were provided based on a signed data use agreement with CCJPD and the youth included in this study sample were adjudicated to probation (supervision). Following a formal request from CCJPD, the Office of the Chief Judge extracted and sent the PI the recidivism data file.

**Administrative Office of the Illinois Court (AOIC).** AOIC is primarily responsible for:

the election process for appointment and reappointment of Associate judges but also provides support services to the Court’s Committees and the Judicial Conference, develops the judicial branch budget, provides legislative support services to the Court, and collects and publishes statistical information on court caseloads and case flow (AOIC, n. d.).



All of these functions fall under the purview of the Administrative Director of AOIC who serves as secretary to the Illinois Courts Commission. Also, the Administrative Director approved this dissertation study and signed the data use agreement to disseminate the information from the Youth Assessment Screening Instrument (YASI) that was the primary data for this dissertation study. Probation officers (appointed by the Chief Judge Timothy Evans) collect the information during interviews with youth, parents and/or caregivers when they complete the YASI but it could only be accessed securely via Orbis Partners, Inc. (private subcontractor).

#### 4. **Original Data Sources**

**Youth Assessment and Screening Instrument (YASI).** The YASI is available in both Pre-Screen and Full Assessment form, and information collected by the latter was used in this dissertation study. For each case, the YASI was scored after completion of multiple semi-structured interviews, with input frequently offered by parents or an alternative legal guardian. Interview-based data were supplemented with a systematic review of collateral sources including police files, probation records, as well as school and mental health reports (Orbis Partners, Inc., 2007a). The information collected with this instrument constituted the basis for the dataset used in this study. The YASI assesses risk, need, and protective factors for youth on probation. Use of the YASI results in a score that is used for risk classification (M. Lewis, personal communication, October 10, 2012). These scores help probation officers develop case plans for youth. The single YASI score is not used in this study, but all of the individual measures of risk and protective factors are used in the calculation of this score. The YASI “can be used in juvenile probation, detention, day reporting, youth services, schools, police diversion and other settings with a requirement to assess risk of negative outcomes and identify service needs” (K. Hickey, personal communication, December 15, 2011; Orbis Partners, Inc., 2007a).

CCJPD implemented the YASI Full Assessment in 2001. Prior to that time, the Massachusetts Youth Screening Instrument-Version 2 (MAYSI-2), a self-administered tool was used to assess risk in youth (M. Lewis, personal communication, December 15, 2011; Vincent, Grisso, Terry, & Banks, 2008). The MAYSI-2 is a mental health screener used as a self-report tool to screen for emotional and mental disturbance (Grisso & Quinlan, 2005). CCJPD started using the YASI because it assesses both risk and protective factors (M. Lewis, personal communication, December 15, 2011). The YASI was modified in Illinois based on the Washington State instrument. It has 10 domains with 72 questions.

The information in the YASI is useful for providers working with youth involved in the justice system for case planning purposes. Probation officers do not and should not complete the YASI with youth present (D. Robinson, personal communication, January 19, 2012; K. Hickey, personal communication, January 11, 2012). Prior to completing the YASI, probation officers may interview the youth and their parent or guardian several times to build a therapeutic alliance and gather information. This is usually done prior to sentencing once they gather enough information from the interviews and collateral reports to complete the initial YASI and it is updated every four months to indicate any changes (K. Hickey, personal communication, January 11, 2012).

When probation officers complete the YASI Full Assessment, they must indicate the youth's stage of involvement in the juvenile justice system: 1) probation (most restrictive), 2) CUS (Case Under Supervision), 3) Referred to Court (outcome pending), 4) Informal Supervision, and 5) Diversion Without Informal supervision (the least restrictive because the screening officer makes the referral for drug court services if the youth's case is diverted). Only youth on probation were included in the study.

**Recidivism Dataset.** Recidivism data was derived from a CCJPD management information system called JEMS. Data from 2011 to 2013 were used in this study. This file includes entries for all court orders that occur after an initial court finding leading to probation. In addition to this file, a demographic file was obtained from the OCJ that included age, ethnicity, and additional unique identifiers needed to conduct the file merge: JEMS ID, name and birthdate. These two files were merged prior to the merge with the YASI data to allow for a merge of cases in which the JEMS ID was not included in the YASI file.

## 5. The Study Dataset

The unique dataset constructed for this study was created by merging the YASI records and the recidivism dataset. Probation officers enter YASI information into the Caseworks database while the YASI files are maintained by Orbis Partners, Inc. based on a contractual agreement with the Administrative Office of the Illinois Court. Probation officers also enter the probation and recidivism information into the JEMS system and the files are managed by the Office of the Chief Judge and CCJPD. The merge proceeded in a series of steps to link youth in the YASI and recidivism files using the JEMS ID, petition ID, last name, first name, and DOB. First, the files were linked using JEMS ID, a unique identifier assigned to each youth. The JEMS ID is generated by the state's attorney's office for each youth. While the JEMS ID was ideal, it was not available for each youth's record in the YASI file. Therefore, a merge strategy was employed to create a recidivism file using JEMS ID. For those records that did not find a match using the JEMS ID, a second merge matched records using a petition ID. The petition ID is assigned by the County Clerk's Office for any case the youth has. A minor may have several petitions ID numbers but only one JEMS ID. A final merge matched records on first name, last name, and date of birth. Some of the records from the recidivism file did not merge with the

YASI file either because (1) the youth didn't recidivate or (2) the youth recidivated but the merge failed, 3) records were in the YASI file and not in the recidivism file, and 4) records in the recidivism file and couldn't find a match in the YASI files. Several checks were conducted to identify the files that did not successfully merge with the YASI file and 15 records were found and manually entered. The inability to merge all of the records resulted in an error rate of 23%. After the records were successfully merged, a new database was created and it was deidentified by stripping the youth names, birthdates, and ID numbers from the dataset.

## **B. Instrumentation and Measures**

### **The Washington Model of the YASI:**

was created after extensive consultations with delinquency researchers, experts on juvenile assessment, and leaders in family and youth services. Input from expert sources and close attention to existing research helped shape an assessment model that responded to a number of practical needs that had not yet been met in youth assessment. Based on a variety of information sources, YASI incorporated better links to case planning, inclusion of protective factors and a sharper focus on dynamic reassessment. These developments received greater attention due to the Washington State juvenile assessment model in the late 90's. Based on the Washington model, YASI benefited from enhancements introduced by Orbis Partners, Inc. in New York and Illinois (Orbis Partners, 2007a).

The Illinois YASI is a modified version of the Washington State protocol based on juveniles and designed by Orbis Partners, Inc. The Full Assessment has been completed in Illinois since 2001 though the YASI Pre-Screen was implemented in 2009 and disseminated by diversion screeners (Hickey, personal communication, 2011). Probation officers and clinicians complete YASI Full Assessments for all youth identified as low, moderate or high risk. This version is more

comprehensive and gauges protective factors and additional dynamic risk factors (Orbis Partners, 2007a).

Although the YASI Full Assessment is based on a number of studies that have presented convincing evidence that high-risk youth possessing protective factors (like closeness to parents and family members, attachment to school, optimism about the future) have appreciably better outcomes (Orbis Partners, 2007a), few studies have been conducted using data from this instrument. Therefore, no information is available to confirm the reliability of the instrument or the data collected with it. Some studies have been completed:

focusing on the validity of the Washington, New York and Illinois versions of the YASI. Based on very large samples in Washington state, the pre-screen tool predicted new offenses including misdemeanors, felonies, and violent recidivism in a juvenile probation population, and positive results were also obtained for the full assessment scores. Using juvenile delinquent samples in probation settings in Illinois, New York, Vermont and Alberta, Canada, YASI predicted new referrals of delinquency. In addition, YASI has predicted outcomes for status offenders (e. g., negative outcome at service closure, new legal involvement, and arrests) (Orbis Partners, 2007a).

Unpublished validation reports have been completed in Illinois for both the Pre-Screen and Full Assessment versions of the YASI, however; they were not available because they are proprietary documents.

The YASI Full Assessment contains 10 domains:

Legal History, Family, School, Community and Peers, Alcohol and Drugs, Mental Health, Aggression, Attitudes, Skills, and Employment and Free Time. The YASI domains resemble the content of other youth assessment tools that include risk and needs factors as research has converged on a number of areas that reliably predict outcomes in youth services (e. g., juvenile delinquency, recidivism, etc.) (Orbis Partners, 2007a).

Unlike other screening assessments or instruments, the YASI incorporates protective factors, which is one of its most attractive features. Also, these characteristics or resources are likely to help reduce the negative impact of risk factors, and the likelihood of recidivism.

### C. **Data Cleaning**

Data for this study were entered into a secure computer file using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. Data cleaning and transformation was necessary to determine whether statistical test assumptions were met, as violation of these assumptions increases the possibility of error in prediction (Howell, 2014).

### D. **Variables**

#### 1. **Dependent Variable**

##### a. **Recidivism**

The dependent (outcome) variable for this study was recidivism in youth. Recidivism was defined as a new finding of delinquency (guilt from a trial or youth self-admission) while the youth is on probation or supervision (A., Salazar, Personal Communication, 2013). This information came from the CCJPD management information system called JEMS from 2011 to 2013. Data was pulled in August of 2013 to include youth on probation (supervision), and youth with a subsequent finding of delinquency while on probation. This was a dichotomous outcome variable of recidivated or did not recidivate, where did not recidivate was used as the reference group. Because there is no data collected on the actual incidence of recidivism, the validity of this measure is unknown. However, historical incidence of recidivism and percentage of youth on probation in the recidivism file suggests a possible undercount of recidivism that will be discussed in the results section.

## 2. **Independent Variables**

All independent variables were coded using YASI data. The data were re-coded to meet the objectives of the study. Because these data were collected for case planning purposes, the validity and reliability of these measures is unknown. However, for some variables the frequencies suggested there might be problems with validity of some of the measures and this will be noted in the results and limitations sections.

### a. **Race/Ethnicity**

For racial and ethnic identity, some variables were collapsed, with White as the reference group, and African-American, Hispanic and Other were the comparison groups. Due to insufficient responses in each racial and ethnic identity to consider all groups, Other was created based upon a set of collapsed variables, with Alaskan/American Native, Asian/Pacific Islander, Other and Unknown. Then race/ethnicity was coded as a nominal four-level variable of White, African American, Hispanic, Mixed and Other.

### b. **Gender**

Gender was coded as a dichotomous variable of male (0) and female (1), and male was used as the reference group.

### c. **Age**

Age was recoded as a count variable from 12 years old to 17 years old.

### d. **Age at First Offense**

A single item asked respondents for the age the youth first had police contact for a delinquent offense. This included any police contacts for delinquent/criminal “offenses that resulted in adjudication/conviction, diversion/station adjustment, deferred

adjudication, or deferred disposition (regardless of whether successfully completed)”. It was coded as a count variable.

e. **Risk Factors**

i. Individual

a. Running Away

A single item asked respondents to indicate the number of times the youth did not voluntarily return home within 24 hours by entering 0 if none and an integer for the exact number of times. It was coded as a count variable.

b. Violent Behaviors (Externalizing Behaviors)

*Weapons Offenses.* A single item asked respondents to indicate the number of weapons offenses they had by entering 0 if none and an integer for the exact number of times. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no charges (0) and 1 or more charges (1). No charge was the reference group.

*Homicidal Ideation.* A single item asked respondents to indicate if they ever had homicidal ideations. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no ideation (0) and ideation (1). No ideations was the reference group.

*Sexual Aggression.* A single item asked respondents to indicate experiences of sexual aggression (youth perpetrating unwanted sexual acts on others). It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no indicators (0) and indicators (1). No indicators was the reference group.

c. Problematic Substance Abuse

Items based on responses to three questions: attempts to cut back, disrupts function and contributes to behavior were averaged to determine an index for 10 drugs:



alcohol, marijuana, cocaine/crack, ecstasy or other club drugs, heroin, hallucinogens (LSD, Acid), inhalants/huffing, amphetamines (speed), prescription drug misuse, and other.

d. Mental Health Problems

These items include three different categories of mental health problems: Serious Mental Health Disorders (Psychoses, Bipolar and Schizophrenia), Other mood/affective Disorders, and Thought/Personality and Other Disorders. Serious Mental Health Disorders (SMDO) was a dichotomous variable with no SMDO (0) and a SMDO (1). No SMDO was the reference group. Other Mood/Affective Disorders was a dichotomous variable with no Other Mood/Affective disorders (0) and a Other Mood/Affective Disorders (1). No Other Mood/Affective disorder was the reference group. Thought/Personality and Other Disorders was a dichotomous variable with no Thought/Personality and Other Disorders (0) and a Thought/Personality and Other Disorder (1). No Thought/Personality and Other Disorders was a reference group.

e. Suicidality

A single item asked respondents to indicate suicidal thoughts or attempts. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no indications (0) and suicidal thoughts or attempts (1). No indications was the reference group.

f. Court Finding of Neglect

A single item asked respondents to indicate whether there was a court finding of neglect. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no neglect finding (0) and one finding of neglect (1). No neglect finding was the reference group.

g. Victimization

A single item asked respondents to indicate if they were a victim of a physical assault. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no trauma or victimization (0) and one report (1). No trauma or victimization was the reference group.

#### h. Conduct Disorder Symptoms

One question asked respondents to indicate if they committed acts of violence. Five of these items were included to represent conduct disorder symptoms: 1) use of a weapon (illegally), 2) bullying/threatening people, 3) assaultive behavior, 4) deliberate fire starting, and 5) animal cruelty. It was coded as a count variable by summing the items endorsed by the respondent.

#### i. History of Physical or Sexual Abuse

Four items asked respondents to indicate if there was a history of physical abuse by the parent, sibling, other family or outside family. It was recoded as a dichotomous variable with no incidents of physical abuse reported (0) and one or more incidents reported (1). No incidents of physical abuse reported was the reference group. For sexual abuse, four items asked respondents to indicate if there was a history of sexual abuse by the parent, sibling, other family or outside family. It was recoded as a dichotomous variable with no incidents of sexual abuse reported (0) and one or more incidents reported (1). No incidents of sexual abuse reported was the reference group.

#### ii. Family

##### a. Out-of-Home Placement

*Foster Placement.* A single item was selected by respondents to indicate whether or not youth lived in a foster care placement. It was coded as a dichotomous

variable with no foster placement reported (0) and foster placement reported (1). No foster placement reported was the reference group.

*No Permanent Address.* A single item was selected by respondents to indicate whether or not youth had a permanent address. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no permanent address reported (0) and permanent address (1). No permanent address was the reference group.

*Other Living Arrangement.* A single item was selected by respondents to indicate whether or not youth had another living arrangement. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no other living arrangement reported (0) and other living arrangement (1). No other living arrangement was the reference group.

b. Times Kicked Out/Locked Out

A single item asked respondents to indicate how many times youth were kicked or locked out of their homes. It was coded as a count variable.

c. Parental Family Problems

Twelve items asked respondents to indicate if there problems with alcohol and drugs, mental health, and criminal record by the Mother, Father and Stepparent. Parent alcohol and drug was a dichotomous variable with no (0) and yes (1). No parent alcohol and drug was the reference group. Parent mental health was a dichotomous variable with no (0) and yes (1). No parent mental health problem was the reference group. Parent criminal behavior including violent criminal record was a dichotomous variable with no (0) and yes (1). No criminal record was the reference group.

d. Poor Parental Supervision

A single item asked respondents to indicate poor parental supervision. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with supervision (0) and poor supervision (1). Supervision was the reference group.

e. Family Violence

One question included nine items that asked respondents to indicate violence among family members: 1) no conflict, 2) some conflict that is well managed, 3) some conflict that is distressing, 4) verbal intimidation, yelling, heated arguments, 5) threats of physical violence, 6) physical violence between parents, 7) physical violence between parent, children, 8) physical violence between siblings, and 9) not applicable. It was coded as a count variable.

f. Harsh Parenting

A single item asked respondents to indicate harsh parenting. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with loving, caring and supportive parenting (0), and uncaring, uninterested and hostile toward youth (1). Loving, caring and supportive parenting was the reference group.

iii. Peers

a. Friends w/Delinquent Influences

A single item asked respondents to indicate whether delinquent friends have an influence. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no delinquent influences (0) and delinquent influences (10). No delinquent influences was the reference group.

b. Gang Involvement

A single item asked respondents to indicate gang involvement. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no gang involvement (0) and in a gang (1). No gang involvement was the reference group.

iv. School

a. Learning Difficulties

A single item asked the presence of learning difficulties. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no difficulties (0) and one or more difficulties (1). No difficulties was the reference group.

v. Community

a. No Leisure Activities

A single item asked respondents to indicate interest in leisure activities. It was coded as an ordinal variable with recent interest in leisure activities (0) and no leisure activities (1). Interest in leisure activities was the reference group.

f. **Protective Factors**

i. Individual

a. Prosocial Beliefs

Two items asked about prosocial beliefs. One item asked respondents to indicate beliefs in education. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with does not believe (0) and somewhat believes (1). Does not believe was the reference group. The second item asked respondents to indicate beliefs about school being supportive. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with does not believe (0) and Believes (1). Believes was the reference group.

b. Problem-Solving

A single item asked about problem-solving skills. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with cannot identify when problems occur (0) and can sometimes identify problems (1). Cannot identify when problems occur was the reference group.

ii. Family

a. Appropriate Parental Discipline

Two separate items: appropriate consequences and appropriate rewards were combined to create this dichotomous variable. It was coded as inappropriate discipline (0) and appropriate discipline (1). Inappropriate discipline was the reference group.

b. Close to Parents & Family

A single item asked respondents to indicate those parents and family members close to the youth. It was coded as an ordinal variable with no one (0) and one or more people (1), and no one was the reference group.

iii. Peers

a. Close to Prosocial Peers

A single item asked respondents to indicate those peers close to the youth. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with none (0) and one or more (1). None was the reference group.

iv. School

a. School Connectedness

A single item asked respondents to indicate school connectedness. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no interest or involvement in school activities (0) and interest and involvement in one or more school activities (1). Interest and involvement in school activities was the reference group.

b. High Academic Achievement

A single item asked respondents to indicate high grades. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with B+/C+ or higher (1), C- or lower failing some or most (0) B+/C+ or higher was the reference group.

v. Community

a. Talks w/Teachers

A single item asked respondents to indicate school staff that the youth is comfortable talking to. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with no teachers/staff/coaches (0) and 1 or more teacher/staff/coach (1). No teachers/staff/coaches was the reference group.

b. Involved in Extracurricular Activities

A single item asked respondents to indicate involvement in extracurricular activities. It was coded as a dichotomous variable with not involved (0) and involved in 1 or more activities (1). Not involved was the reference group.

E. **Data Analysis Plan**

All (descriptive, bivariate and multivariate) analyses were performed in SPSS (Version 20) to determine differences between girls and boys and across racial groups. First, univariate and bivariate analyses were conducted to determine differences or similarities between girls and boys. Multivariate analysis was not conducted due to the small percentage of girls who recidivated.

1. **Univariate**

Frequencies and percentages were used to describe demographic variables (gender and race/ethnicity). Pearson correlations were used to describe dichotomous and continuous variables including age at first offense, running away, mental health diagnosis, suicidal ideation, violent behaviors, problematic substance use, neglect, history of physical and sexual abuse, parental/family addictions, times kicked/locked out, out-of-home placement, delinquent peers, gang involvement, close bond with caring adults at school, and being involved in extracurricular activities. The mean and standard deviation were reported for all continuous variables.

## **2. Bivariate**

Differences between girls' and boys' frequency or level of risk and protective factors were assessed using chi-square and ANOVA. Differences in risk and protective factors across racial groups were also tested using chi-square and ANOVA analyses.

## **3. Missing Data**

There was missing data in the final dataset likely because of issues with data collection. All missing data were dummy coded as missing except for the recidivism data. After the merge of the data files, records that were not identified as either recidivated or not recidivated were recoded as did not recidivate to distinguish them from those that did recidivate.

## **4. Reducing Type I Error**

The Bonferroni correction was done to reduce the chance of type I error, which is equal to the p-value selected as significant (usually  $p < .05$ ). The .05 means that one in twenty times a significant result is just due to chance. Due to the high number of statistical tests only results with p-values at .001 or less are considered significant in this study.

## **F. Human Subjects Protection**



The risks to subjects in this study were minimal as this study only involved secondary analysis of administrative data. Also, the data were collected while the youth were on probation. The information collected for this study was completed in conjunction with existing protocols of the CCJPD and the AOIC. The greatest risk in the study involved the potential for a breach of privacy and confidentiality of the youth by sending the data files with identifiers used to merge them to the Principal Investigator (PI). The PI devised data security procedures since Orbis Partners, Inc. and CCJPD did not have them for third parties prior to this dissertation study. The PI consulted with the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC) Jane Addams College of Social Work (JACSW) Information Technology (IT) Department and the UIC Academic Computing and Communications Center (ACCC) and determined the security measures required to ensure privacy and confidentiality of the identifiers. Specifically, the PI's dissertation chair identified a computer in one of her project offices at JACSW that underwent software upgrades by the JACSW IT staff including the installation of firewall and antivirus software for regular system updates. Next, secureFX and PGP encryption software were installed, so that all data manipulation took place on the encrypted computer. All data transfers to/from the remote sites were encrypted using secureFX. Representatives from the Office of the Chief Judge [OCJ (per the direction of the CCJPD)] and AOIC were assigned a net ID and password from UIC ACCC (registered to the PI's dissertation chair for site access) to transfer the datasets to the secure site. In addition, secureFX was installed on Dr. Leathers' computer so the representatives from OCJ and AOIC could send the PI the data files. After the PI received the data files and successfully merged them, the identifiers were deleted resulting in a merged deidentified dataset. With these procedures, the risk of a confidentiality and privacy breach was addressed to the greatest extent possible.

Since the data had not been used for any research or empirical studies to date, a two step approval process was completed including IRB approval from Cook County Department of Research Affairs and the University of Illinois at Chicago Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS), including executed data use agreements between UIC and CCJPD and UIC and AOIC. A waiver of documentation of informed consent was obtained from the Cook County Bureau of Health Services Department of Research Affairs and the University of Illinois at Chicago's Institutional Review Board.

## **V. RESULTS**

This study explored risk and protective factors related to recidivism of juveniles on probation in Cook County, Illinois. Of specific interest, the study included female juvenile offenders given the increases in their arrests for simple assault given the changes in zero tolerance for violence school policies and pro-arrest domestic violence laws. This chapter describes the key results of the study, outlined below.

### **A. Data Collection**

Data collection for the study included three administrative data files collected by CCJPD probation officers and entered in two different management information systems. The primary data file, YASI, came from the YASI Full Assessment and includes information on the youth's risk and protective factors that is maintained in the Caseworks system. The other two data files: Probation and Recidivism came from the JEMS system. The YASI file includes information collected from youth and their parents/caregivers from 2001 to August 2013 while the Probation and Recidivism files includes information from January 2011 to August 2013. The YASI file for the study included 12, 348 youth on probation, ages 12 to 17 with at least one completed full assessment. The Recidivism file included 9351 youth on probation that had a subsequent finding of delinquency. The files were merged and the final data file for the study included a total of 5,831, including 5,422 youth that did not recidivate and 409 that recidivated. The final dataset was deidentified, so the youth names, birthdates and IDs were stripped per the data use agreements with CCJPD and AOIC.

### **B. Characteristics of the Sample**

A series of univariate analyses were completed to gain an understanding of the

characteristics of the sample. The total sample for the study included 5,831 youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois. All the youth were between 12 and 17 years old with an average age of 15.2. A majority of the sample ( $N = 5,178$ , 88.8%) were male and African-American ( $N = 4402$ , 75.5%). The sample includes 653 girls (11.2%) and 409 boys and girls (7.0%) who recidivated. The mean age for youth first offense was 14.1. Table I includes the racial and ethnic identities, gender identities and average age and age at first offense of the sample.

**TABLE I**  
**DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ( $N = 5831$ )**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Gender</b>				
Female	653	11.2		
Male	5178	88.8		
<b>Race/Ethnicity</b>				
White	321	5.5		
African-American	4402	75.5		
Hispanic	738	12.7		
Mixed	239	4.1		
Other	131	2.2		
<b>Recidivated</b>	409	7.0		
<b>Age</b>			15.2	3.84
<b>Age @ 1st Offense</b>			14.1	2.04

1. **Research Question 1: Comparison of gender differences in characteristics of youth on probation**

a. **Risk Factors**

Participants reported the highest responses for family violence (97.0%), no leisure activities (63.1%), and friends with delinquent influences (58.5%), conduct disorder symptoms (50.0%), problematic substance abuse (41.2%), gang involvement (36.2%), history of parents

with criminal records (27.5%), and history of parents' drugs and alcohol problems (26.3%). Girls and boys reported the same responses for thought/personality and other disorder (6.9%). Boys reported higher levels than girls for weapons offenses (21.5%), no permanent address/shelter (0.2%), family violence (97.2%), friends with delinquent influences (59.7%), gang involvement (38.4%), learning difficulties (28.9%) and no interest in activities (63.2%). However, girls reported higher responses for the majority of risk factors. These risk factors were tested and discussed later in this chapter. All of the risk factors for the sample are in Table II.

**TABLE II**  
**RISK FACTORS FOR THE SAMPLE**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N (%)</i> (N = 5831)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Girls (%)</i> (N = 653)	<i>Boys (%)</i> (N= 5178)
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>					
Running Away		0.19	0.39		
Mental Health Problems					
<i>Serious Mental D/O (Psychoses, Bipolar &amp; Schizophrenia)</i>	302 (5.2)			61 (9.3)	241 (4.7)
<i>Affective D/O</i>	544 (9.3)			102 (15.6)	442 (8.5)
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other D/O</i>	402 (6.9)			45 (6.9)	357 (6.9)
Suicidality	307 (5.3)			96 (14.7)	211 (4.1)
Violent Behaviors					
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	1219 (20.9)			105 (16.1)	1114 (21.5)
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	171 (2.9)			33 (5.1)	138 (2.7)
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	135 (2.3)			18 (2.8)	117 (2.3)
Problematic Substance Abuse		0.7	0.97		
Conduct Disorder Symptoms		0.71	0.84		
Neglect	693 (11.9)			100 (15.3)	593 (11.5)
HX of physical & sexual abuse					
<i>Physical &amp; Sexual Abuse</i>	433 (7.4)			121 (18.5)	312 (6.0)
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	317 (5.4)			57 (8.7)	260 (5.0)
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	159 (2.7)			84 (12.9)	75 (1.4)
Victimization	573 (9.8)			89 (13.6)	484 (9.3)
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>					
Out-of-Home Placement					
<i>Foster placement</i>	100 (1.7)			26 (4.0)	74 (1.4)

<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	300 (5.1)		63 (9.6)	237 (4.6)
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	11 (.2)		<0.00%	11 (.2)
Kicked or Locked Out		0.08	0.27	
HX of Parental Problems				
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	3253 (26.3)		201 (30.8)	1133 (21.9)
<i>Mental Health</i>	717 (5.8)		63 (9.6)	219 (4.2)
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	3397 (27.5)		202 (30.9)	1492 (28.9)
Harsh Parenting	83 (1.4)		15 (2.3)	68 (1.3)
Poor Parental Supervision	208 (3.6)		39 (6.0)	169 (3.3)
Family Violence		1.01	0.47	
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	3409 (58.5)		319 (48.9)	3090 (59.7)
Gang Involvement	2111 (36.2)		124 (19.0)	1987 (38.4)
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
Learning Difficulties	1610 (27.6)		318 (20.1)	1495 (28.9)
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
No Interest in Activities	3678 (63.1)		407 (62.3)	3271 (63.2)

b. **Protective Factors**

Participants reported the highest responses in close to parents and family (91.0%), close to prosocial peers (59.0%), appropriate parental discipline (36.4%), and high academic achievement (30.9%). Girls reported higher responses than boys for close to parents and family (87.1%), close to prosocial peers (64.2%), and high academic achievement (39.7%). However, boys reported higher responses than girls for the majority of protective factors including close to prosocial peers (58.3%), close to parents and family (48.2%), and appropriate parental discipline (36.6%). All of the protective factors for the sample are in Table III.

**TABLE III**  
**PROTECTIVE FACTORS FOR THE SAMPLE**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N (%)</i> (N = 5831)	<i>Girls (%)</i> (N = 653)	<i>Boys (%)</i> (N = 5178)
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>			
Prosocial Beliefs			
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	4116 (70.6)	480 (73.5)	3636 (70.2)
<i>School Support</i>	495 (8.5)	66 (10.1)	429 (8.3)
Problem-Solving	1288 (22.1)	140 (21.4)	1148 (22.2)
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>			
Appropriate Parental Discipline	2121 (36.4)	224 (34.3)	1897 (36.6)
Close To Parents & Family	5307 (91.0)	569 (87.1)	5185 (48.2)
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>			
Close to Prosocial Peers	3438 (59.0)	419 (64.2)	3019 (58.3)
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>			
School Connectedness	309 (5.3)	31 (4.7)	278 (5.4)
High Academic Achievement	1799 (30.9)	259 (39.7)	1540 (29.7)
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>			
Talks with Teachers	1621 (27.8)	163 (25.0)	1458 (28.2)
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	1482 (25.4)	341 (21.6)	1347 (26.0)

C. **Bivariate Analysis**



1. **Research Question 1: Gender comparisons (risk factors, protective factors, and race) of youth on probation**

A series of ANOVA and chi square analyses were conducted to explore gender differences and risk and protective factors. Also, a Bonferroni correction was done because of the high number of statistical tests so only p-values at .001 or less would be considered as significant.

a. **ANOVA Analyses**

ANOVA analyses were conducted to compare gender to age and age at first offense as shown in Tables IV and X.

**TABLE IV  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO AGE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	6.0	1	6.0	.410	.522
Within Groups	85852.0	5829	14.7		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the relationship between gender and age. There was no association between gender and age.

**TABLE V  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO AGE AT FIRST OFFENSE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	24.7	1	24.7	6.0	.015
Within Groups	24196.4	5829	4.2		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the relationship between gender and age at first offense. There was no association between gender and age at first offense.

**TABLE VI**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO RUNNING AWAY**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	12.9	1	12.9	86.7	.000
Within Groups	861.8	5785	.149		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the relationship between gender and running away. There was an association between gender and running away. Testing with ANOVA resulted in significance for running away,  $F(1, 5785) = 86.7, p < .001$ . Comparison of descriptive statistics indicate that girls ( $M = .31, 95\% \text{ CI } [.28, .35]$ ) had significantly higher incidence of running away than boys ( $M = .17, 95\% \text{ CI } [.16, .18]$ ),  $p < .001$ .

**TABLE VII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO FAMILY VIOLENCE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.006	1	.006	.027	.871
Within Groups	1291.9	5829	.222		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between gender and family violence. There was no significant relationship between gender and family violence.

**TABLE VIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO TIMES LOCKED/KICKED OUT**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.000	1	.000	.000	.985
Within Groups	414.2	5785	.07		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between gender and times locked/kicked out. There was no significant association between gender and times locked/kicked out.

**TABLE IX**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO PROBLEMATIC SUBSTANCE ABUSE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	14.5	1	14.5	15.4	.000
Within Groups	5743.1	5829	.939		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between gender and problematic substance abuse. There was a significant association between gender and problematic substance abuse at the  $p < .000$ . Testing with ANOVA resulted in a significant association for problematic substance abuse for gender,  $F(1, 5829) = 15.4, p < .000$ . Comparison of descriptive statistics indicate that boys ( $M = .71$ , 95% CI [.68, .74]) had significantly higher incidences of problematic substance abuse than girls ( $M = .55$ , 95% CI [.48, .62],  $p < .000$ ).

**TABLE X**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GENDER TO CONDUCT DISORDER SYMPTOMS**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	40.4	1	40.4	57.3	.000
Within Groups	4108.7	5829	.71		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of gender on conduct disorder symptoms. There was a significant effect for conduct disorder symptoms for gender,  $F(1, 5829) = 57.3, p < .000$ . Comparison of descriptive statistics indicate that girls ( $M = .94$ , 95% CI [.87,

1.01]) had significantly higher incidences of conduct disorder symptoms compared to Boys ( $M = .68$ , 95% CI [.66, .70]),  $p < .000$ .

## **2. Research Question 1: Categorical Comparisons of Gender and Risk & Protective Factors**

### **a. Chi Square Analyses**

A series of bivariate analyses were conducted using chi square to determine differences in risk and protective factors between girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois. These analyses were also conducted to determine the risk and protective factors that predict recidivism. The results of chi square analyses are shown in Tables XI to XX. Nine of the twelve individual risk factors were significant when comparing gender. The significant risk factors included serious mental disorder, affective disorder, suicidality, weapons offense, homicidal ideations, history of physical and sexual abuse, physical abuse, sexual abuse, and victimization. Girls and boys on probation did not report extremely high mental health problems. Girls reported ten percent of serious mental disorders (psychoses, bipolar and schizophrenia) and sixteen percent of affective disorder. Fifteen percent of girls reported suicidality and sixteen percent of boys reported higher rates of weapons offenses. However, girls reported higher levels of homicidal ideations and sexual aggression though both of these levels were  $< 10\%$  as shown in Table XI.

**TABLE XI**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL RISK FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Risk Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Risk Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Mental Health Problems				
<i>Serious Mental D/O</i> <i>(Psychoses, Bipolar &amp;</i> <i>Schizophrenia)</i>	61 (9.3%)	241 (4.7%)	302	<.000
<i>Affective D/O</i>	102 (15.6%)	442 (8.5%)	544	<.000
<i>Thought/Personality &amp;</i> <i>Other D/O</i>	45 (6.9%)	357 (6.9%)	402	NS
Suicidality	96 (14.7%)	211 (4.1%)	307	<.000
Violent Behaviors				
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	105 (16.1%)	1114 (21.5%)	1219	<.001
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	33 (5.1%)	138 (2.7%)	171	<.001
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	18 (2.8%)	117 (2.3%)	135	NS
Neglect	100 (15.5%)	593 (11.5%)	693	NS
HX of Physical & Sexual Abuse	121 (18.5%)	312 (6.0%)	433	<.000
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	57 (8.7%)	260 (5.0%)	317	<.000
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	84 (12.9%)	75 (1.4%)	159	<.000
Victimization	89 (13.6%)	484 (9.3%)	573	<.001

\*Chi-square.

Six of the eight family risk factors were significant when comparing genders. Specifically, girls reported higher levels than boys for foster placement (4.0%) and other living arrangement (10%). Boys reported higher levels for no permanent address (0.2%). Girls reported higher levels of history of parental problems than boys for drug and alcohol problems (31%) and mental health problems (10%) as shown in Table XII.

**TABLE XII**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL FAMILY RISK FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Risk Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Risk Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Out-of-Home Placement				
<i>Foster Placement</i>	26 (4.0%)	74 (1.4%)	100	<.000
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	63 (9.6%)	237 (4.6%)	300	<.000
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	<0.00%	11 (0.2%)	11	NS
HX of Parental Problems				
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	201 (30.8%)	1133 (21.9%)	1334	<.000
<i>Mental Health</i>	63 (9.6%)	219 (4.2%)	282	<.000
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	202 (30.9%)	1494 (28.9%)	1696	NS
Harsh Parenting	15 (2.5%)	68 (1.4%)	83	NS
Poor Parental Supervision	39 (6.5%)	169 (3.4%)	208	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Friends with delinquent influences and gang involvement were both significant peer risk factors when comparing gender. Boys reported higher levels of both peer risk factors and more than half had friends with delinquent influences. Also, thirty eight percent reported gang involvement as shown in Table XIII.

**TABLE XIII**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL PEER RISK FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Risk Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Risk Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b>Peer Factors</b>				
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	319 (48.9%)	3090 (59.7%)	3409	<.000
Gang Involvement	124 (19.0%)	1987 (38.4%)	2111	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Learning difficulties was a significant school risk factors when comparing genders. Boys (29%) reported higher levels of learning difficulties than girls as shown in Table XIV.

**TABLE XIV**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL SCHOOL RISK FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Risk Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Risk Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
Learning Difficulties	115 (17.6%)	1495 (28.9%)	1610	<.000

\*Chi-square.

No interest in leisure activities was not a significant community risk factor when comparing gender as shown in Table XV.

**TABLE XV**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Risk Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Risk Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
No Interest in Activities	407 (65.5%)	3271 (64.5%)	3678	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the individual protective factors were significant when comparing gender. Girls (2.2%) and boys (2.5%) had comparable levels of positive educational beliefs, school support and problem-solving, as shown in Table XVI.

**TABLE XVI**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY GENDER**

	n (%)			
	Girls with Protective Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Protective Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Prosocial Beliefs				
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	480 (11.7%)	3636 (88.3%)	4116	<.001
<i>School Support</i>	66 (11.6%)	429 (9.3%)	495	NS
Problem-Solving	140 (27.2%)	1148 (26.1%)	1288	NS

\*Chi-square.

Close to parents and family was a significant family protective factor when comparing genders. Boys reported higher levels of close to parents and family (92%). Girls and boys had comparable levels of appropriate parental discipline though it was not a significant family protective factor as shown in Table XVII.

**TABLE XVII**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY GENDER**

	n (%)			
	Girls with Protective Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Protective Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Appropriate Parental Discipline	224 (37.4%)	1897 (38.7%)	2121	NS
Close to Parents & Family	569 (87.1%)	4738 (91.5%)	5307	<.001

\*Chi-square.

Both girls and boys reported a high level of close to prosocial peers, which was not significantly different across gender, as shown in Table XVIII.



**TABLE XVIII**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL PEER PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls with Protective Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Protective Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Close to Prosocial Peers	419 (64.2%)	3019 (58.3%)	3438	NS

\*Chi-square.

Girls and boys reported high levels of high academic achievement with a significantly greater number of girls reported to have high achievement (66%). It was the only significant school protective factor when comparing genders. School connectedness was not significant as shown in Table XIX.

**TABLE XIX**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL SCHOOL PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY GENDER**

	n (%)			
	Girls with Protective Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Protective Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
School Connectedness	31 (7.6%)	278 (8.4%)	309	NS
High Academic Achievement	259 (66.1%)	1540 (51.0%)	1799	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Talks with teachers and involved in extracurricular activities were not significant community protective factors. Girls and boys had fairly comparable levels when comparing gender as shown in Table XX.

**TABLE XX**  
**COMPARISON OF CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY GENDER**

	n (%)			
	Girls with Protective Factor (n = 653)	Boys with Protective Factor (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
Talks w/Teachers	163 (27.2%)	1458 (29.6%)	1621	NS
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	135 (21.7%)	1347 (26.6%)	1482	NS

\*Chi-square.

### 3. Research Question 2: Racial Comparisons in the Risk and Protective Factors

#### a. Risk Factors

The majority of girls in the sample were African American females, n = 456. They also had the highest responses for neglect (18.2%) and history of parental JD/Criminal Justice (32.9%). White girls had the highest responses for history of parental drug and alcohol problems (37.9%), friends with delinquent influences (62.1%) and no interest in leisure activities (67.2%). Hispanic girls had the highest responses for gang involvement (31.5%) and history of physical and sexual abuse (27.0%). Mixed girls had the highest responses for gang involvement (31.5%) and learning difficulties (32.6%). Other girls were not included because the number was so small, n = 6. All of the risk factors for girls by race/ethnicity are in Table XXI.

**TABLE XXI**  
**GIRLS' RISK FACTORS BY RACE**

Girls (N = 647)				
	White (n=58)	African- American (n=456)	Hispanic (n=89)	Mixed (n=44)
<b>Individual Factors</b>				
Mental Health Problems				
<i>Serious Mental D/O (Psychoses, Bipolar &amp; Schizophrenia)</i>	11 (19.0)	43 (9.4)	3 (3.4)	3 (6.8)
<i>Affective D/O</i>	18 (31.0)	67 (14.7)	10 (11.2)	7 (15.9)
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other D/O</i>	3 (5.2)	31 (6.8)	8 (9.0)	3 (6.8)
Suicidality	10 (17.2)	63 (13.8)	15 (16.9)	8 (18.2)
Violent Behaviors				
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	4 (6.9)	77 (16.9)	16 (18.0)	7 (15.9)
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	2 (3.4)	27 (5.9)	3 (3.4)	1 (2.3)
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	3 (5.2)	14 (3.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.3)
Neglect	6 (10.3)	83 (18.2)	6 (6.7)	5 (11.4)
HX of physical & sexual abuse				
<i>Physical &amp; Sexual Abuse</i>	10 (17.2)	75 (16.4)	24 (27.0)	11 (25.0)
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	5 (8.6)	39 (8.6)	6 (6.7)	6 (13.6)
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	5 (8.6)	52 (11.4)	21 (23.6)	6 (13.6)
Victimization	4 (6.9)	67 (14.7)	13 (14.6)	5 (11.4)
<b>Family Factors</b>				
Out-of-Home Placement				
<i>Foster placement</i>	2 (3.4)	22 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.5)
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	4 (6.9)	42 (9.2)	10 (11.2)	7 (15.9)
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
HX of Parental Problems				
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	22 (37.9)	134 (29.4)	30 (33.7)	13 (29.5)
<i>Mental Health</i>	7 (11.1)	46 (10.1)	8 (9.0)	2 (4.5)
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	15 (25.9)	150 (32.9)	21 (23.6)	13 (29.5)
Harsh Parenting	5 (8.6)	13 (2.9)	1 (1.1)	1 (2.3)
Poor Parental Supervision	1 (1.7)	34 (7.5)	2 (2.2)	2 (4.5)
<b>Peer Factors</b>				
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	36 (62.1)	219 (48.0)	40 (44.9)	20 (45.5)
Gang Involvement	13 (22.4)	70 (15.4)	28 (31.5)	11 (25.0)
<b>School Factors</b>				
Learning Difficulties	12 (20.7)	81 (17.8)	29 (32.6)	14 (31.8)
<b>Community Factors</b>				

No Leisure Activities	39 (67.2)	291 (63.8)	51 (57.3)	22 (50.0)
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White males had the highest responses in problematic substance abuse (49.7%). African American males had the highest responses in history of parents JD/Criminal Justice (32.1%). Hispanic males had the highest responses in no interest in leisure activities (68.9%). Mixed males had the highest responses in family violence (98.4%). Other males had highest responses in neglect (14.4%). Some of the lowest responses included no permanent address/shelter, sexual abuse, and harsh parenting. All of the risk factors for boys by race/ethnicity are in Table XXII.

**TABLE XXII**  
**BOYS' RISK FACTORS BY RACE**

	(N = 5178)				
	White (n=263)	African- American (n=3846)	Hispanic (n=649)	Mixed (n=195)	Other (n=125)
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>					
Running Away	46 (17.5)	638 (16.2)	134 (20.6)	29 (14.9)	21 (16.8)
Mental Health Problems					
<i>Serious Mental D/O</i>					
<i>(Psychoses, Bipolar &amp;</i>					
<i>Schizophrenia)</i>	35 (13.3)	166 (4.2)	26 (4.0)	10 (5.1)	4 (3.2)
<i>Affective D/O</i>	57 (21.7)	304 (7.7)	49 (7.6)	21 (10.8)	11 (8.8)
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other</i>					
<i>D/O</i>	45 (17.1)	253 (6.4)	37 (5.7)	14 (7.2)	8 (6.4)
Suicidality	26 (9.9)	134 (3.4)	38 (5.9)	7 (3.6)	6 (4.8)
Violent Behaviors					
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	31 (11.8)	768 (19.5)	229 (35.3)	60 (30.8)	26 (20.8)
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	8 (3.0)	91 (2.3)	30 (4.6)	8 (4.1)	1 (.8)
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	12 (4.6)	84 (2.1)	20 (3.1)	1 (.5)	0 (0.0)
Problematic Substance Abuse	131 (49.7)	1645 (41.7)	296 (45.6)	84 (43.1)	28 (22.4)
Conduct Disorder Symptoms	135 (51.4)	1830 (46.4)	346 (53.4)	114 (58.5)	48 (38.4)
Neglect	9 (3.4)	527 (13.4)	25 (3.9)	14 (7.2)	18 (14.4)
HX of physical & sexual abuse					
<i>Physical &amp; Sexual Abuse</i>	26 (9.9)	207 (5.2)	52 (8.0)	20 (10.3)	7 (5.6)
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	24 (9.1)	171 (4.3)	44 (6.8)	14 (7.2)	7 (5.6)
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	5 (1.9)	51 (1.3)	11 (1.7)	7 (3.6)	1 (.8)
Victimization	20 (7.6)	342 (8.7)	84 (12.9)	30 (15.4)	8 (6.4)

***Family Factors***

## Out-of-Home Placement

<i>Foster placement</i>	0 (0.0)	67 (1.7)	4 (.6)	1 (.5)	2 (1.6)
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	15 (5.7)	167 (4.2)	24 (3.7)	0 (0.0)	18 (14.4)
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	0 (0.0)	11 (.3)	0 (0.0)	13 (6.7)	0 (0.0)

Kicked or Locked Out	13 (4.9)	333 (8.4)	29 (4.5)	21 (10.8)	3 (2.4)
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## HX of Parental Problems

<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	74 (28.1)	853 (21.6)	133 (20.5)	52 (26.7)	21 (16.8)
<i>Mental Health</i>	27 (10.3)	131 (3.3)	39 (6.0)	14 (7.2)	8 (6.4)
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	40 (15.2)	1267 (32.1)	117 (18.0)	44 (22.6)	26 (20.8)
Harsh Parenting	3 (1.1)	59 (1.5)	3 (.5)	3 (1.5)	3 (2.4)
Poor Parental Supervision	6 (2.3)	128 (3.2)	20 (3.1)	13 (6.7)	2 (1.6)
Family Violence	245 (93.2)	3648 (92.5)	628 (96.8)	192 (98.4)	122 (97.6)

***Peer Factors***

## Friends w/Delinquent

Influences	143 (54.4)	2375 (60.2)	395 (60.9)	120 (61.5)	57 (45.6)
Gang Involvement	50 (19.0)	1415 (35.9)	108 (16.6)	111 (56.9)	30 (24.0)

***School Factors***

Learning Difficulties	100 (38.0)	1144 (29.0)	167 (25.7)	56 (28.7)	28 (22.4)
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***Community Factors***

No Interest in Activities	179 (68.1)	2435 (61.7)	447 (68.9)	127 (65.1)	83 (66.4)
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b. **Protective Factors**

Hispanic girls had the highest responses for high academic achievement (70.5%). African American girls had the highest responses for close to parents and family (87.9%) and high academic achievement (65.1%). Mixed girls had the highest responses for close to parents and family (95.5%) and close to prosocial peers (70.5%). All of the protective factors for the sample are in Table XXIII.

**TABLE XXIII**  
**GIRLS' PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE**

	Girls (N = 647)			
	White (n=58)	African- American (n=456)	Hispanic (n=89)	Mixed (n=44)
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Prosocial Beliefs				
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	36 (62.1)	350 (76.8)	59 (66.3)	30 (68.2)
<i>School Support</i>	8 (13.8)	45 (9.9)	8 (9.0)	4 (9.1)
Problem-Solving	15 (25.9)	103 (22.6)	11 (12.4)	10 (22.7)
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Appropriate Parental Discipline	11 (19.0)	170 (37.3)	29 (32.6)	14 (31.8)
Close To Parents & Family	49 (84.5)	401 (87.9)	73 (82.0)	42 (95.5)
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Close to Prosocial Peers	96 (64.0)	290 (63.6)	60 (67.4)	31 (70.5)
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
School Connectedness	2 (3.4)	22 (4.8)	3 (3.4)	4 (9.1)
High Academic Achievement	23 (67.6)	181 (65.1)	37 (74.0)	16 (59.3)
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
Talks with Teachers	12 (20.7)	119 (26.1)	20 (22.5)	10 (22.7)
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	10 (17.2)	97 (21.3)	18 (20.2)	16 (19.0)

White male had the highest responses in close to parents and family (85.6%). African American males had the highest responses for close to parents and family (89.2%) close to prosocial peers (56.4%). Mixed males also had the highest responses for close to parents and

family (92.4%) close to prosocial peers (58.7%). Other males had highest responses in close to parents and family (84.0%). Hispanics males had the lowest responses of all racial groups except for close to parents and family (51.8%) and close to prosocial peers (56.4%). All of the protective factors for the sample are in Table XXIV.

**TABLE XXIV**  
**BOYS' PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE**

	<b>Boys (N = 5178)</b>				
	White (n=263)	African- American (n=3946)	Hispanic (n=649)	Mixed (n=195)	Other (n=125)
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>					
Prosocial Beliefs					
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	162 (4.5)	2904 (79.9)	376 (10.3)	114 (3.1)	80 (2.2)
<i>School Support</i>	22 (8.4)	327 (8.3)	43 (6.6)	28 (14.4)	9 (7.2)
Problem-Solving	58 (22.1)	912 (23.1)	114 (17.6)	43 (22.1)	21 (16.8)
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>					
Appropriate Parental Discipline	73 (27.8)	1507 (38.2)	206 (31.7)	55 (28.2)	56 (44.8)
Close To Parents & Family	225 (85.6)	3648 (92.4)	586 (90.3)	174 (89.2)	105 (84.0)
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>					
Close to Prosocial Peers	173 (65.8)	2315 (58.7)	336 (51.8)	110 (56.4)	85 (68.0)
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>					
School Connectedness	22 (8.4)	224 (5.7)	17 (2.6)	7 (3.6)	8 (6.4)
High Academic Achievement	141 (72.3)	1141 (48.2)	171 (55.2)	48 (52.7)	39 (65.0)
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>					
Talks with Teachers	69 (26.2)	1213 (30.7)	116 (17.9)	7 (3.6)	27 (21.6)
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	57 (21.7)	1095 (27.7)	118 (18.2)	34 (17.4)	43 (34.4)

4. **Research Question 2: Comparisons of Risk and Protective Factors and Race for Girls and Boys**



A series of ANOVA analyses were conducted to compare the association between girls' and boys' race/ethnicity and risk factors. The girls' ANOVA results are shown in Tables XXV through XXXI.

a. **ANOVA Analyses for Girls**

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and age, and there was no significant association.

<b>TABLE XXV ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO AGE</b>					
	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	5.4	3	1.8	.098	.961
Within Groups	11779.9	643	18.3		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and age at first offense. There was no significant association between girls' race/ethnicity and age at first offense.

<b>TABLE XXVI ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO AGE AT FIRST OFFENSE</b>					
	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	22.8	3	7.6	1.5	.223
Within Groups	3335.6	643	5.2		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and age, and there was no significant association.

**TABLE XXVII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO RUNNING AWAY**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.0	3	.320	1.5	.221
Within Groups	138.5	637	.217		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and family violence, and there was no significant association with family violence as shown in Table XXVIII.

**TABLE XXVIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO FAMILY VIOLENCE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.2	3	.410	1.1	.352
Within Groups	241.6	643	.376		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and the numbers of times locked/kicked out. There was no significant association between girls' race/ethnicity and the number of times locked/kicked out as shown in Table XXIX.

**TABLE XXIX**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO TIMES**  
**LOCKED/KICKED OUT**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.223	3	.074	1.03	.378
Within Groups	45.8	637	.072		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and problematic substance abuse. There was a significant association between girls' problematic substance abuse and recidivism,  $F(3, 643) = 5.6, p < .000$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that Whites, ( $M = .93$ , 95% CI [.62, 1.2]), and Hispanics, ( $M = .77$ , 95% CI [.57, .98]) were both significant. African Americans, ( $M = .46$ , 95% CI [.38, .53]), and Mixed, ( $M = .55$ , 95% CI [.26, .83]) were not significant as shown in Table XXX.

**TABLE XXX**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO PROBLEMATIC**  
**SUBSTANCE ABUSE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	16.8	3	5.6	7.1	.000
Within Groups	507.3	643	.789		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' race/ethnicity and conduct disorder symptoms, and there was no significant association as shown in Table XXXI.

**TABLE XXXI**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO CONDUCT**  
**DISORDER SYMPTOMS**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.3	3	.443	.621	.602
Within Groups	459.3	643	. 714		

**b. ANOVA Analyses for Boys**

A series of ANOVA analyses were conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and risk factors and the results are shown in Tables XXXII through XXXVIII.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and age and there was no significant association.

**TABLE XXXII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO AGE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	112.6	4	28.1	2.0	.094
Within Groups	73427.6	5173	14.2		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and age at first offense. There was no significant association between boys' age at first offense and race/ethnicity.

**TABLE XXXIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO AGE AT FIRST OFFENSE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	53.7	4	13.4	3.3	.010
Within Groups	20759.9	5173	4.0		

There was not a significant association between boys' race/ethnicity and running away as shown in Table XXXIV.

**TABLE XXXIV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO RUNNING AWAY**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Groups	1.2	4	.302	2.2	.071
Within Groups	720.2	5136	.140		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and family violence, and there was no significant association for family violence as shown in Table XXXV.

**TABLE XXXV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO FAMILY VIOLENCE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.401	4	.100	.496	.739
Within Groups	1046.6	5173	.202		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and the numbers of times locked/kicked out. There was a significant association between boys' race/ethnicity and the number of times locked/kicked out,  $F(4, 5136) = 5.7, p < .001$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that African Americans, ( $M = .09$ , 95% CI [.08, .09]), and Hispanics, ( $M = .05$ , 95% CI [.03, .06]) were significant. Comparisons of descriptive statistics indicate that Whites, ( $M = .05$ , 95% CI [.02, .08]), Mixed, ( $M = .1$ , 95% CI [.06, .15]), and Other, ( $M = .02$ , 95% CI [-.00, .05]) were not significant as shown in Table XXXVI.

**TABLE XXXVI**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO TIMES**  
**LOCKED/KICKED OUT**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.6	4	.409	5.7	.000
Within Groups	366.4	5136	.071		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and problematic substance abuse. There was a significant association between boys' race/ethnicity and problematic substance abuse,  $F(4, 5173) = 13.1, p < .001$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that Whites, ( $M = 1.02$ , 95% CI [.88, 1.2]), African Americans, ( $M = .68$ , 95% CI [.65, .71]), Hispanics, ( $M = .81$ , 95% CI [.73, .89]), and Other, ( $M = .39$ , 95% CI [.24, .54]) were all significant. Mixed, ( $M = .77$ , 95% CI [.63, .92]) was not significant as shown in Table XXXVII.

**TABLE XXXVII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO PROBLEMATIC**  
**SUBSTANCE ABUSE**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	49.6	4	12.4	13.1	.000
Within Groups	4892.0	5173	.946		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' race/ethnicity and conduct disorder symptoms. There was a significant association between boys' race/ethnicity and conduct disorder symptoms,  $F(4, 5173) = 6.9, p < .001$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that Mixed, ( $M = .88, 95\% \text{ CI } [.75, 1.0]$ ), and Other, ( $M = .49, 95\% \text{ CI } [.37, .61]$ ) were both significant. Whites, ( $M = .71, 95\% \text{ CI } [.61, .81]$ ), African Americans, ( $M = .66, 95\% \text{ CI } [.63, .69]$ ), and Hispanics, ( $M = .77, 95\% \text{ CI } [.70, .83]$ ) were not significant as shown in Table XXXVIII.

**TABLE XXXVIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RACE/ETHNICITY TO CONDUCT**  
**DISORDER SYMPTOMS**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	19.3	4	4.8	6.9	.000
Within Groups	3624.5	5173	.701		

5. **Research Question 2: Categorical Comparisons of Risk and Protective Factors with Race/Ethnicity for Girls and Boys**
  - a. **Chi Square Analyses for Girls**

A series of chi square analyses were conducted to compare risk and protective factors with race/ethnicity of girls and boys. The results for girls' risk and protective factors and race/ethnicity are shown in Tables XXXIX through XLVIII.

None of the individual risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XXXIX.

**TABLE XXXIX**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL RISK FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>						
Mental Health Problems						
<i>Serious Mental D/O</i> <i>(Psychoses, Bipolar &amp; Schizophrenia)</i>	11 (19.0%)	43 (9.4%)	3 (3.4%)	3 (6.8%)	60	NS
<i>Affective D/O</i>	18 (31.0%)	67 (14.7%)	10 (11.2%)	7 (15.9%)	102	NS
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other D/O</i>	3 (5.2%)	31 (6.8%)	8 (9.0%)	3 (6.8%)	45	NS
Suicidality	10 (17.2%)	63 (13.8%)	15 (16.9%)	8 (18.2%)	96	NS
Violent Behaviors						
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	4 (6.9%)	77 (16.9%)	16 (18.0%)	7 (15.9%)	104	NS
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	2 (3.4%)	27 (5.9%)	3 (3.4%)	1 (2.3%)	33	NS
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	3 (5.2%)	14 (3.1%)	<0.00%	1 (2.3%)	18	NS
Neglect	6 (10.3%)	83 (18.4%)	6 (6.8%)	5 (11.4%)	100	NS
HX of Physical & Sexual Abuse	10 (17.2%)	75 (16.4%)	24 (27.0%)	11 (25.0%)	120	NS
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	5 (8.6%)	39 (8.6%)	6 (6.7%)	6 (13.6%)	56	NS
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	5 (8.6%)	52 (11.4%)	21 (23.6%)	6 (13.6%)	84	NS
Victimization	4 (6.9%)	67 (14.7%)	13 (14.6%)	5 (11.4%)	89	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the family risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XL.



**TABLE XL**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>						
Out-of-Home Placement						
<i>Foster Placement</i>	2 (3.4%)	22 (4.8%)	<0.00%	2 (4.5%)	26	NS
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	4 (6.9%)	42 (9.2%)	10 (11.2%)	7 (15.9%)	63	NS
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	<00.0%	<0.00%	<0.00%	<0.00%	<0.00%	NS
HX of Parental Problems						
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	22 (37.9%)	134 (29.4%)	30 (33.7%)	13 (29.5%)	199	NS
<i>Mental Health</i>	7 (12.1%)	46 (10.1%)	8 (9.0%)	2 (4.5%)	63	NS
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	15 (25.9%)	150 (32.9%)	21 (23.6%)	13 (29.5%)	199	NS
Harsh Parenting	--	13 (3.1%)	1 (2.1%)	1 (2.4%)	15	NS
Poor Parental Supervision	1 (1.9%)	34 (8.0%)	2 (2.5%)	2 (4.9%)	39	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the peer risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLI.

**TABLE XLI**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL PEER RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>						
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	36 (62.1%)	219 (48.0%)	40 (44.9%)	20 (45.5%)	315	NS
Gang Involvement	13 (22.4%)	70 (15.4%)	28 (31.5%)	11 (25.0%)	122	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the school risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLII.

**TABLE XLII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL RISK FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>						
Learning Difficulties	12 (20.7%)	81 (17.8%)	10 (11.2%)	11 (25.0%)	114	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the community risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLIII.

**TABLE XLIII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>						
No Interest in Activities	39 (70.9%)	291 (66.9%)	51 (61.4%)	22 (51.2%)	403	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the individual protective factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLIV.

**TABLE XLIV**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS**  
**TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>						
Prosocial Beliefs						
<i>Positive</i>	36 (7.5%)	350	59	30 (6.2%)	475	NS
<i>Educational</i>		(72.9%)	(12.3%)			
<i>Beliefs</i>						
<i>School Support</i>	8 (16.0%)	45 (11.2%)	8 (10.7%)	4 (10.0%)	65	NS
	15 (32.6%)	103	11	10 (27.3%)	139	NS
Problem-Solving		(28.5%)	(17.2%)			

\*Chi-square.

None of the family protective factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLV.

**TABLE XLV**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>						
Appropriate	11 (20.8%)	170 (40.3%)	29 (36.7%)	14 (33.3%)	224	NS
Parental Discipline						
Close to Parents & Family	49 (84.5%)	401 (87.9%)	73 (82.0%)	42 (95.5%)	565	NS

\*Chi-square.

The peer protective factor was not significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLVI.

**TABLE XLVI**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL PEER PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>						
Close to Prosocial Peers	35 (60.3%)	290 (63.6%)	60 (67.4%)	31 (70.5%)	416	NS

\*Chi-square.

**TABLE XLVII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>						
School Connectedness	2 (5.4%)	22 (7.8%)	3 (5.3%)	4 (13.8%)	31	NS
High Academic Achievement	23 (67.6%)	181 (65.1%)	37 (74.0%)	16 (59.3%)	257	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the community protective factors were significant when compared across racial groups for girls as shown in Table XLVIII.

**TABLE XLVIII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>						
Talks w/Teachers	12 (23.1%)	119 (28.2%)	20 (25.0%)	10 (24.4%)	161	NS
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	10 (18.2%)	97 (22.3%)	18 (21.7%)	9 (20.9%)	134	NS

\*Chi-square.

### b. Chi Square Analyses for Boys

A series of chi square analyses were conducted to compare risk and protective factors with race/ethnicity of boys.

Several of the individual risk factors were significant when compared across racial groups for boys. They included serious mental disorder (Whites highest), affective disorder (Whites highest), thought/personality disorders (Whites highest), suicidality (Whites highest), neglect (Mixed highest), history of physical and sexual abuse (Mixed highest), physical abuse (Whites highest), and victimization (Mixed highest) as shown in Table XLIX.

**TABLE XLIX**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL RISK FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)					Total	p*
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other		
<b>Individual Factors</b>							
<b>Mental Health Problems</b>							
<i>Serious Mental D/O (Psychoses, Bipolar &amp; Schizophrenia)</i>	35 (13.3%)	166 (4.2%)	26 (4.0%)	10 (5.1%)	4 (3.2%)	241	<.000
<i>Affective D/O</i>	57 (21.7%)	304 (7.7%)	49 (7.6%)	21 (10.8%)	11 (8.8%)	442	<.000
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other D/O</i>	45 (17.1%)	253 (6.4%)	37 (5.7%)	14 (7.2%)	8 (6.4%)	357	<.000
<b>Suicidality</b>	26 (9.9%)	134 (3.4%)	38 (5.9%)	7 (3.6%)	6 (4.8%)	211	<.000
<b>Violent Behaviors</b>							
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	31 (11.8%)	768 (19.5%)	229 (35.3%)	60 (30.8%)	26 (20.8%)	1114	NS
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	8 (3.0%)	91 (2.3%)	30 (4.6%)	8 (4.1%)	1 (0.8%)	138	NS
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	12 (4.6%)	84 (2.1%)	20 (3.1%)	1 (0.5%)	<0.00%	117	NS
<b>Neglect</b>	9 (3.5%)	527 (13.5%)	25 (3.9%)	14 (7.2%)	18 (14.4%)	593	<.000
<b>HX of Physical &amp; Sexual Abuse</b>	26 (9.9%)	207 (5.2%)	52 (8.0%)	20 (10.3%)	7 (5.6%)	312	<.000
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	24 (9.1%)	171 (4.3%)	44 (6.8%)	14 (7.2%)	7 (5.6%)	260	<.001
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	5 (1.9%)	51 (1.3%)	11 (1.7%)	7 (3.6%)	1 (0.8%)	75	NS
<b>Victimization</b>	20 (7.6%)	342 (8.7%)	84 (12.9%)	30 (15.4%)	8 (6.4%)	484	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Three of the family risk factors for boys were significant when compared across racial groups. They included other living arrangements (Other highest), history of parents mental health problems (Whites highest), and history of parents' JD/Criminal Justice (African American highest) as shown in Table L.

**TABLE L**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**  
n (%)

	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>							
Out-of-Home Placement							
<i>Foster Placement</i>	<0.00%	67 (1.7%)	4 (0.6%)	1 (0.5%)	2 (1.6%)	74	NS
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	15 (5.7%)	167 (4.2%)	24 (3.7%)	13 (6.7%)	18 (14.4%)	237	<.000
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter HX of Parental Problems</i>	<0.00%	11 (0.3%)	<0.00%	<0.00%	<0.00%	11	NS
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	74 (28.1%)	853 (21.6%)	133 (20.5%)	52 (26.7%)	21 (16.8%)	1133	NS
<i>Mental Health</i>	27 (10.3%)	131 (3.3%)	39 (6.0%)	14 (7.2%)	8 (6.4%)	219	<.000
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	40 (15.2%)	1267 (32.1%)	117 (18.0%)	44 (22.6%)	26 (20.8%)	1494	<.000
Harsh Parenting	3 (1.2%)	59 (1.5%)	3 (0.5%)	3 (1.6%)	--	68	NS
Poor Parental Supervision	6 (2.4%)	128 (3.4%)	20 (3.2%)	13 (6.8%)	2 (1.6%)	169	NS

\*Chi-square.

Gang involvement was the only significant peer risk factor for boys across racial groups. Hispanic males had the highest number of responses as shown in Table LI.

**TABLE LI**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL PEER RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>							
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	143 (54.4%)	2375 (60.2%)	395 (60.9%)	120 (61.5%)	57 (45.6%)	3090	NS
Gang Involvement	50 (19.0%)	1415 (35.9%)	381 (58.7%)	111 (56.9%)	30 (24.0%)	1987	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Learning difficulties was not a significant school risk factor for boys across racial groups as shown in Table LII.

**TABLE LII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>							
Learning Difficulties	100 (38.0%)	1144 (29.0%)	167 (25.7%)	56 (28.7%)	28 (22.4%)	1495	NS

\*Chi-square.

No interest in leisure activities was significant for community risk factors across racial groups and Whites have the highest responses as shown in Table LIII.

**TABLE LIII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>							
No Leisure Activities	179 (72.2%)	2435 (62.7%)	447 (70.8%)	127 (66.1%)	83 (68.0%)	3271	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Positive educational beliefs were the only significant individual protective factor across racial groups and Mixed males had the highest number of responses as shown in Table LIV.

**TABLE LIV**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>							
Prosocial Beliefs							
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	162 (4.5%)	2904 (79.9%)	376 (10.3%)	114 (3.1%)	80 (2.2%)	3636	<.000
<i>School Support</i>	22 (9.8%)	327 (9.1%)	43 (8.2%)	28 (15.7%)	9 (8.8%)	429	NS
Problem-Solving	58 (25.8%)	912 (27.3%)	114 (20.5%)	43 (25.3%)	21 (20.2%)	1148	NS

\*Chi-square.

Appropriate parental discipline and close to parents and family were both significant family protective factors for boys across racial groups. Other males had the highest responses for appropriate parental discipline and African American males had the highest responses for being close to their parents and family as shown in Table LV.



**TABLE LV**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i>
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>							
Appropriate Parental Discipline	73 (29.8%)	1507 (40.3%)	206 (33.8%)	55 (29.3%)	56 (45.9%)	1897	<.000
Close to Parents & Family	225 (85.6%)	3648 (92.4%)	586 (90.3%)	174 (89.2%)	105 (84.0%)	4738	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Close to prosocial peers was significant for peer protective factor across racial groups and Other males had the highest number of responses as shown in Table LVI.

**TABLE LVI**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL PEER PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>							
Close to Prosocial Peers	173 (65.8%)	2315 (58.7%)	336 (51.8%)	110 (56.4%)	85 (68.0%)	3019	<.000

\*Chi-square.

High academic achievement was the only significant school protective factor across racial groups and White males had the highest number of responses as shown in Table LVII.

**TABLE LVII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>							
School Connectedness	22 (14.4%)	224 (8.6%)	17 (4.7%)	7 (5.4%)	8 (10.8%)	278	NS
High Academic Achievement	141 (72.3%)	1141 (48.2%)	171 (55.2%)	48 (52.7%)	39 (65.0%)	1540	<.000

\*Chi-square.

Talks with teachers (African American highest) and involved in extracurricular activities (Other highest) were both significant community protective factor across racial groups as shown in Table LVIII.

**TABLE LVIII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY PROTECTIVE FACTORS BY RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)						
	White	African American	Hispanic	Mixed	Other	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>							
Talks w/Teachers	69 (29.2%)	1213 (31.9%)	116 (19.8%)	33 (17.4%)	27 (23.5%)	1458	<.000
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	57 (23.0%)	1095 (28.3%)	118 (18.7%)	34 (17.7%)	43 (35.2%)	1347	<.000

\*Chi-square.

## 6. Research Question 3: Categorical Comparisons of Risk and Protective

### Factors that Predict Recidivism

#### a. Chi Square Analyses

Twenty-one girls, 3.2% of the girls' sample recidivated while 632, 96.8% of the girls' sample did not recidivate. There were 388 boys, 7.5% of the boys' sample that recidivated and 4790, 92.5% that did not recidivate and the test was significant as noted in Table LIX.

**TABLE LIX**  
**COMPARISON OF RECIDIVATED BY GENDER**  
n (%)

	Girls (n = 653)	Boys (n = 5178)	Total (n = 5831)	<i>p</i> *
Recidivated	21 (3.2%)	388 (7.5%)	409	<.000
Did Not Recidivate	632 (96.8%)	4790 (92.5%)	5422	

\*Chi-square.

b. **Chi Square Analyses for Girls' Recidivism**

African American females were also over-represented in the number that recidivated, n = 18, but this was not a significant result as shown in Table LX.

**TABLE LX**  
**COMPARISON OF AFRICAN AMERICAN GIRLS' RECIDIVISM TO OTHER RACE/ETHNICITIES**  
n (%)

	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
African American	18 (85.7%)	438 (69.3%)	456	NS
Other	3 (14.3%)	194 (30.7%)	197	

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between the individual risk factors and recidivism. Also, the number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXI.

**TABLE LXI**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Mental Health Problems				
<i>Serious Mental D/O</i> <i>(Psychoses, Bipolar &amp;</i> <i>Schizophrenia)</i>	2 (9.5%)	59 (9.3%)	61	NS
<i>Affective D/O</i>	2 (9.5%)	100 (15.8%)	102	NS
<i>Thought/Personality &amp;</i> <i>Other D/O</i>	<0.00%	45 (7.1%)	45	NS
Suicidality	2 (9.5%)	94 (14.9%)	96	NS
Violent Behaviors				
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	4 (19.0%)	101 (16.0%)	105	NS
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	2 (9.5%)	31 (4.9%)	33	NS
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	2 (9.5%)	16 (2.5%)	18	NS
Neglect	5 (23.8%)	95 (15.2%)	100	NS
HX of Physical & Sexual Abuse	3 (14.3%)	118 (18.7%)	121	NS
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	2 (9.5%)	55 (8.7%)	57	NS
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	2 (9.5%)	82 (13.0%)	84	NS
Victimization	2 (9.5%)	87 (13.8%)	89	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between family risk factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXII.

**TABLE LXII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Out-of-Home Placement				
<i>Foster Placement</i>	2 (9.5%)	24 (3.8%)	26	NS
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	<0.00%	63 (10.0%)	63	NS
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	<0.00%	632 (96.8%)	632	NS
HX of Parental Problems				
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	7 (33.3%)	194 (30.7%)	201	NS
<i>Mental Health</i>	2 (9.5%)	61 (9.7%)	63	NS
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	6 (28.6%)	196 (31.0%)	202	NS
Harsh Parenting	2 (10.0%)	13 (2.2%)	15	NS
Poor Parental Supervision	2 (9.5%)	37 (6.4%)	39	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between peer risk factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXIII.

**TABLE LXIII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL PEER RISK FACTORS TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	12 (57.1%)	307 (48.6%)	319	NS
Gang Involvement	5 (23.8%)	119 (18.8%)	124	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between learning difficulties and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXIV.

**TABLE LXIV**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
Learning Difficulties	5 (23.8%)	110 (17.4%)	115	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between no leisure activities and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXV.

**TABLE LXV**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
No Interest in Activities	15 (71.4%)	392 (65.3%)	407	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between individual protective factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXVI.

**TABLE LXVI**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Prosocial Beliefs				
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	6 (5.5%)	465 (96.9%)	480	NS
<i>School Support</i>	4 (19.0%)	62 (11.3%)	66	NS
Problem-Solving	5 (25.0%)	135 (27.3%)	140	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between family protective factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXVII.

**TABLE LXVII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 21)	Total (n = 21)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Appropriate Parental Discipline	4 (19.0%)	220 (38.1%)	224	NS
Close to Parents & Family	20 (95.2%)	549 (86.9%)	569	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between close to prosocial peers and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXVIII.

**TABLE LXVIII**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL PEER PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	p*
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Close to Prosocial Peers	10 (47.6%)	409 (64.7%)	419	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between school protective factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXIX.

**TABLE LXIX**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	p*
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
School Connectedness	<0.00%	31 (7.9%)	31	NS
High Academic Achievement	5 (45.5%)	254 (66.7%)	259	NS

\*Chi-square.

There was no association between community protective factors and recidivism. The number of girls who recidivated was too small to reliably estimate the percentage with risk factors across the two groups as shown in Table LXX.



**TABLE LXX**  
**COMPARISON OF GIRLS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY PROTECTIVE FACTORS**  
**TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 21)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 632)	Total (n = 653)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
Talks w/Teachers	6 (28.6%)	157 (27.1%)	163	NS
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	5 (23.8%)	130 (21.7%)	135	NS

\*Chi-square.

c. **Chi Square Analysis for Boys' Recidivism**

African American males were over-represented in the number that recidivated, n = 326 as shown in Table LXXI.

**TABLE LXXI**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' RECIDIVISM TO RACE/ETHNICITY**

	n (%)		
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	<i>p</i> *
White	15 (3.9%)	248 (5.2%)	NS
African American	326 (84.0%)	3620 (75.6%)	
Hispanic	28 (7.2%)	621 (13.0%)	
Mixed	13 (3.4%)	182 (3.8%)	
Other	6 (1.5%)	119 (2.5%)	

\*Chi-square.

None of the individual risk factors for boys were significant when comparing the two groups of boys as shown in Table LXXII.

**TABLE LXXII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	p*
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Mental Health Problems				
<i>Serious Mental D/O (Psychoses,         Bipolar &amp; Schizophrenia)</i>	21 (5.4%)	220 (4.6%)	241	NS
<i>Affective D/O</i>	40 (10.3%)	402 (8.4%)	442	NS
<i>Thought/Personality &amp; Other         D/O</i>	33 (8.5%)	324 (6.8%)	357	NS
Suicidality	15 (3.9%)	196 (4.1%)	211	NS
Violent Behaviors				
<i>Weapons Offense</i>	59 (15.2%)	1055 (22.0%)	1114	NS
<i>Homicidal Ideations</i>	7 (1.8%)	131 (2.7%)	138	NS
<i>Sexual Aggression</i>	5 (1.3%)	112 (2.3%)	117	NS
Neglect	46 (11.9%)	547 (11.5%)	593	NS
HX of Physical & Sexual Abuse	24 (6.2%)	288 (6.0%)	312	NS
<i>Physical Abuse</i>	21 (5.4%)	239 (5.0%)	260	NS
<i>Sexual Abuse</i>	5 (1.3%)	70 (1.5%)	75	NS
Victimization	32 (8.2%)	452 (9.4%)	484	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the family risk factors were significant when comparing the two groups of boys as shown in Table LXXIII.

**TABLE LXXIII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RECIDIVISM**  
n (%)

	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Out-of-Home Placement				
<i>Foster Placement</i>	3 (0.8%)	71 (1.5%)	74	NS
<i>Other Living Arrangement</i>	12 (3.1%)	225 (4.7%)	237	NS
<i>No Permanent Address/Shelter</i>	1 (0.3%)	10 (0.2%)	11	NS
HX of Parental Problems				
<i>Drugs &amp; Alcohol</i>	86 (22.2%)	1047 (21.9%)	1133	NS
<i>Mental Health</i>	20 (5.2%)	199 (4.2%)	219	NS
<i>JD/Criminal Justice</i>	132 (34.0%)	1362 (28.4%)	1494	NS
Harsh Parenting	3 (0.8%)	65 (1.4%)	68	NS
Poor Parental Supervision	19 (5.1%)	150 (3.3%)	169	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the family risk factors were significant when comparing the two groups of boys as shown in Table LXXIV.

**TABLE LXXIV**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL PEER FACTORS BY RECIDIVISM**  
n (%)

	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Friends w/Delinquent Influences	251 (64.7%)	2839 (59.3%)	3090	NS
Gang Involvement	166 (42.8%)	1821 (38.0%)	1987	NS

\*Chi-square.

Learning difficulties was not significant for boys' school risk factor across these two groups as shown in Table LXXV.

**TABLE LXXV**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
Learning Difficulties	132 (34.0%)	1363 (28.5%)	1495	NS

\*Chi-square.

No leisure activities were not significant for boys' community risk factor as shown in Table LXXVI.

**TABLE LXXVI**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY RISK FACTORS BY**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
No Interest in Activities	226 (59.0%)	3045 (64.9%)	3271	NS

\*Chi-square.

None of the individual protective factors were significant for boys across the two groups as shown in Table LXXVII.

**TABLE LXXVII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL INDIVIDUAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Individual Factors</i></b>				
Prosocial Beliefs				
<i>Positive Educational Beliefs</i>	275 (7.6%)	3361 (92.1%)	3636	NS
<i>School Support</i>	34 (9.9%)	395 (9.3%)	429	NS
Problem-Solving	116 (33.0%)	1032 (25.5%)	1148	NS

\*Chi-square.

Appropriate parental discipline,  $p < .001$  was significant for boys' family protective factors. Close to parents and family was not significant as shown in Table LXXVIII.

**TABLE LXXVIII**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated	Did Not Recidivate	Total	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Family Factors</i></b>				
Appropriate Parental Discipline	102 (28.5%)	1795 (39.5%)	1897	$< .001$
Close to Parents & Family	350 (90.2%)	4388 (91.6%)	4738	NS

\*Chi-square.

Close to prosocial peers,  $p < .001$  was significant for boys' peer protective factor as shown in Table LXXIX.

**TABLE LXXIX**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL PEER PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (N = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Peer Factors</i></b>				
Close to Prosocial Peers	193 (49.7%)	2826 (59.0%)	3019	<.001

\*Chi-square.

Neither of the variables was significant for school protective factors across the two groups of boys as shown in Table LXXX.

**TABLE LXXX**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL SCHOOL PROTECTIVE FACTORS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>School Factors</i></b>				
School Connectedness	15 (5.6%)	263 (8.6%)	278	NS
High Academic Achievement	97 (44.1%)	1443 (51.5%)	1540	NS

\*Chi-square.

Neither talks with teachers or involvement in extracurricular activities were significant community protective factors as shown in Table LXXXI.

**TABLE LXXXI**  
**COMPARISON OF BOYS' CATEGORICAL COMMUNITY PROTECTIVE FACTORS**  
**TO RECIDIVISM**

	n (%)			
	Recidivated (n = 388)	Did Not Recidivate (n = 4790)	Total (n = 5178)	<i>p</i> *
<b><i>Community Factors</i></b>				
Talks w/Teachers	110 (29.7%)	1348 (29.6%)	1458	NS
Involved in Extracurricular Activities	108 (28.2%)	1239 (26.5%)	1347	NS

\*Chi-square.

## 7. Research Question 3: Comparisons of Risk and Protective Factors

### Predicting Recidivism for Girls and Boys

A series of ANOVA analyses were conducted for girls and boys to determine the risk factors that predicted recidivism. The results for girls' recidivism are shown in Table LXXXII through LXXXVIX.

#### a. ANOVA Analyses of Girls' Recidivism

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' age and recidivism. There was no significant association between age and recidivism as shown in Table LXXXII.

**TABLE LXXXII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' AGE TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.7	1	1.6	.087	.768
Within Groups	12310.2	651	19.0		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of girls' age at first offense on recidivism. There was no significant association between age at first offense and recidivism as shown in Table LXXXIII.

**TABLE LXXXIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' AGE AT FIRST OFFENSE TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.570	1	.570	.110	.741
Within Groups	3382.2	651	5.2		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' running away and recidivism, and there was no significant effect as shown in Table LXXXIV.

**TABLE LXXXIV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' RUNNING AWAY TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.084	1	.084	.384	.536
Within Groups	140.2	644	.218		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between family violence and girls' recidivism, and there was no significant association with family violence as shown in Table LXXXV.

**TABLE LXXXV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FAMILY VIOLENCE TO GIRLS' RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.002	1	.002	.007	.935
Within Groups	245.0	651	.376		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between the numbers of times locked/kicked out and girls' recidivism. There was no significant association between the number of times locked/kicked out and girls' recidivism as shown in Table LXXXVI.

**TABLE LXXXVI**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TIMES LOCKED/KICKED OUT TO GIRLS' RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.007	1	.007	.096	.756
Within Groups	46.1	644	.072		



A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' problematic substance abuse and recidivism. There was no significant association between girls' problematic substance abuse and recidivism as shown in Table LXXXVII.

**TABLE LXXXVII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' PROBLEMATIC SUBSTANCE ABUSE TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.327	1	.327	.401	.527
Within Groups	531.2	651	.816		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between girls' conduct disorder symptoms on recidivism, and there was no significant association as shown in Table LXXXVIII.

**TABLE LXXXVIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR GIRLS' CONDUCT DISORDER SYMPTOMS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.3	1	1.3	1.7	.173
Within Groups	463.6	651	.712		

b. **ANOVA Analyses of Boys' Recidivism**

A series of ANOVA analyses were conducted for boys to determine the risk factors that predicted recidivism. The results are shown in Table LXXIX through XCV.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between boys' age and recidivism. There was no significant association between age and recidivism as shown in Table LXXIX.

**TABLE LXXIX**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' AGE TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	6.0	1	6.0	.420	.517
Within Groups	73534.2	5176	14.2		

There was a significant association between boys' age at first offense and recidivism ( $p < .001$ ). Testing with ANOVA resulted in significance for age at first offense,  $F(1, 5176) = 27.2, p < .001$ . Comparison of descriptive statistics indicate that boys that did not recidivate ( $M = 14.10, 95\% \text{ CI } [14.03, 14.15]$ ) had older age at first offense than boys that recidivated ( $M = 13.54, 95\% \text{ CI } [13.39, 13.69], p < .001$  as shown in Table XC.

**TABLE XC**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' AGE AT FIRST OFFENSE TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	108.9	1	108.9	27.2	.000
Within Groups	20704.7	5176	4		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between running away and boys' recidivism. There was no significant association between running away and boys' recidivism as shown in Table XCI.

**TABLE XCI**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' RUNNING AWAY TO RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.137	1	.137	.979	.322
Within Groups	721.3	5139	.140		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between family violence and boys' recidivism, and there was no significant association for family violence as shown in Table XCII.

**TABLE XCII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FAMILY VIOLENCE TO BOYS' RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.036	1	.036	.179	.672
Within Groups	1047.0	5176	.202		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between the numbers of times locked/kicked out and boys' recidivism. There was no significant association between the number of times locked/kicked out and boys' recidivism as shown in Table XCIII.

**TABLE XCIII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TIMES LOCKED/KICKED OUT TO BOYS' RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.002	1	.030	.030	.862
Within Groups	368.0	5139	.072		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between problematic substance abuse and boys' recidivism. There was no significant association between boys' problematic substance abuse and recidivism as shown in Table XCIV.

**TABLE XCIV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' PROBLEMATIC SUBSTANCE ABUSE TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.608	1	.608	.637	.425
Within Groups	4941.0	5176	.955		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the association between conduct disorder symptoms and boys' recidivism. There was no significant association between boys' conduct disorder symptoms and recidivism as shown in Table XCV.

**TABLE XCV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR BOYS' CONDUCT DISORDER SYMPTOMS TO**  
**RECIDIVISM**

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	.005	1	.005	.008	.930
Within Groups	3643.8	5176	.704		

#### **D. Summary of Significant Findings**

The chi square and ANOVA tests to explore gender differences of youth on probation indicated some significant findings. The chi square results noted significant findings in four of the five social domains: individual, family, peer and school for risk factors and two of the five domains for protective factors. Girls had higher ratings than boys for risk factors except for weapons offenses, friends with delinquent behaviors, gang involvement and learning difficulties, and boys had higher ratings for recidivism as shown in the Table XCVI.

**TABLE XCVI**  
**GENDER AND RISK FACTORS**

Outcome Variable	
Recidivated	Boys higher than Girls
Risk Factors	
Individual	
Running Away	Girls higher than Boys
Serious Mental Disorders	Girls higher than Boys
Affective Disorder	Girls higher than Boys
Suicidality	Girls higher than Boys
Weapons offense	Boys higher than Girls
Homicidal ideations	Girls higher than Boys
Problematic Substance Abuse	Boys higher than Girls
Conduct Disorder Symptoms	Girls higher than Boys
HX of physical and sexual abuse	Girls higher than Boys
Physical abuse	Girls higher than Boys
Sexual abuse	Girls higher than Boys
Victimization	Girls higher than Boys
Family	
Foster placement	Girls higher than Boys
Other living arrangement	Girls higher than Boys
HX of parents' drug & alcohol	Girls higher than Boys
HX of parents' mental health problems	Girls higher than Boys
Poor parental supervision	Girls higher than Boys
Peer	
Friends with delinquent influences	Boys higher than Girls
Gang involvement	Boys higher than Girls
School	
Learning difficulties	Boys higher than Girls

Significant results were noted in the family and school domains of protective factors.

Girls had higher ratings in high academic achievement. Boys had higher ratings in closeness to parents and family and involvement in extracurricular activities as shown in the Table XCVII.

**TABLE XCVII**  
**GENDER AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS**

Protective Factors	
Individual	
Positive educational beliefs	Boys higher than Girls
Family	
Close to parents and family	Boys higher than Girls
School	
High academic achievement	Girls higher than Boys
Community	
Extracurricular Activities	Boys higher than Girls

The significant ANOVA results were noted for three individual risk factors. Girls had higher ratings in running away, problematic substance abuse and conduct disorder symptoms as shown in the Table XCVIII.

**TABLE XCVIII**  
**COUNT VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH GENDER**

Individual Risk Factors	
Running Away	Girls higher than Boys
Problematic Substance Abuse	Boys higher than Girls
Conduct Disorder Symptoms	Girls higher than Boys

There was no significant association between gender and race/ethnicity for girls. However, there were significant results for risk and protective factors for boys when race/ethnicity was included as shown in Table XCIX.

**TABLE XCIX**  
**BOYS' SIGNIFICANT RISK FACTORS WITH RACE/ETHNICITY**

<b>Individual</b>		
	Serious Mental Health Disorder	Whites Highest
	Affective Disorder	Whites Highest
	Thought/Personality Disorder	Whites Highest
	Suicidality	Whites Highest
	Neglect	Other Highest
	History of Physical & Sexual Abuse	Mixed Highest
	Physical Abuse	Whites Highest
	Victimization	Mixed Highest
<b>Family</b>		
	Other Living Arrangement	Other Highest
	HX of parents' Mental Health	Whites Highest
	HX of parents' JD/Criminal Justice	African Americans Highest
<b>Peer</b>		
	Gang involvement	Hispanics Highest
<b>Community</b>		
	No leisure activities	Whites Highest

There were significant protective factors in all the social domains for boys when race was included as shown in Table C.

**TABLE C**  
**BOYS' SIGNIFICANT PROTECTIVE FACTORS WITH RACE/ETHNICITY**

<b>Individual</b>		
	Educational Beliefs	African American Highest
<b>Family</b>		
	Appropriate Parental Discipline	Other Highest
	Close to Parents & Family	African Americans Highest
<b>Peer</b>		
	Close to Prosocial Peers	Other Highest
<b>School</b>		
	High Academic Achievement	Whites Highest
<b>Community</b>		
	Talks w/Teachers	African Americans Highest
	Involved in Extracurricular Activities	Other Highest

The significant ANOVA result for girls was problematic substance abuse when race/ethnicity were included, and White girls had the highest rating. However, boys had significant ANOVA results for three variables as shown in Table CI.

**TABLE CI**  
**BOYS' COUNT VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH RACE/ETHNICITY**

Individual Risk Factors	
Times Locked/Kicked Out	Mixed Highest
Problematic Substance Abuse	Whites Highest
Conduct Disorder Symptoms	Mixed Highest

None of the risk and protective factors used to predict recidivism for girls were significant. Also, none of the risk factors to predict recidivism for boys were significant. However, there were significant results for protective factors that predicted recidivism for boys in two of the five social domain and shown in Table CII.

**TABLE CII**  
**BOYS' SIGNIFICANT PROTECTIVE FACTORS WITH RECIDIVISM**

Family	
	Appropriate Parental Discipline
Peer	
	Close to Prosocial Peers

The significant ANOVA result was noted for one individual risk factor. Specifically, boys had higher ratings in age at first offense.



## **VI. DISCUSSION**

The purpose of the current study was to gain a more complete understanding of the gender and racial differences in risk and protective factors associated with recidivism of youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois. Results indicate that girls had greater risk across social domains than boys while boys had greater protection in several social domains. The findings for many of the risk factors were consistent with previous research about detained youth in Cook County, Illinois (Teplin et al., 2002; Teplin et al., 2003; Abram et al., 2004; Teplin et al., 2005; Teplin et al., 2005; Teplin et al., 2012). Unlike girls, boys had significant findings across most racial/ethnic groups and across recidivism. Therefore, opportunities exist to explore this further in a different sample of girls to better understand these issues given policy changes and modifications related to the expansion of the domestic violence laws, zero tolerance discipline in school and up-criming (Browne, 2003; Buzawa & Hotaling, 2006; Chesney-Lind & Belknap, 2004; Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2004).

This dissertation study contributes to the scarce, but growing body of literature on risk and protective factors, and recidivism of girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois. It adds to previous research that has primarily explored risk factors associated with delinquency, including mental health disorders and the early death of detained youth in Cook County Juvenile Temporary Detention Center (Teplin et al., 2002; Teplin et al., 2003; Abram et al., 2004; Teplin et al., 2005; Teplin et al., 2005; Teplin et al., 2012). It also adds to the increasing body of literature on protective factors that has been understudied with this population. Results from this dissertation provide a description of risk and protective factors for the youth on probation from 2009 to 2013. These results provide a context for understanding various aspects of the

relationship between correlates of risk and protective factors, gender, race and recidivism for this vulnerable population.

Through the use of secondary analysis, this dissertation study sought to explore gender and racial differences and recidivism in a moderate to high-risk sample of girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois. There are currently no studies that explore risk and protective factors related to recidivism with this sample of youth. Therefore, this study sought to address this gap. The secondary aim of the study was to understand if the risk and protective factors predicted recidivism of girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois; however, this question could not be addressed.

Specifically, four research questions guided this investigation. Research questions one, two and three were exploratory and descriptive while research question four was analytical and predictive. Research questions one, two and three provide data on the risk and protective factors in five social domains (individual, family, peer, school and community) across gender, race and recidivism. Research question four intended to use separate multivariate models for girls and boys to predict recidivism given the significant risk and protective factors (at the bivariate level). Due to the small number of girls who recidivated and the lack of bivariate findings, these analyses were not completed.

#### A. **Major Findings of the Study**

This section discusses the major findings of this dissertation study. The results of this study provide information and insight about considerations when assessing, treating and working with girls and boys on probation. In particular, it is important to consider these issues regarding girls on probation and the approaches needed to curtail their delinquent behavior because of the rising rates of girls entering detention and being placed on probation.

As noted in chapter 2, analyzing known risk and protective factors provides information about the context and possible influences on delinquent acts committed by youth. Similarly, this study analyzed risk factors, as well as protective factors. Major findings include a) estimates of gender differences in risk and protective factors of youth on probation, b) estimates of racial differences in risk and protective factors for youth on probation, c) estimates of gender differences in risk and protective factors associated with recidivism, and d) implications of findings for theoretical frameworks.

1. **Estimates of gender differences in risk and protective factors of youth on probation**

The descriptive results indicated that girls had higher ratings for the majority of risk factors in the individual, family, peer, school and community social domains. Specific findings are discussed in the following section.

a. **Individual Risk Factors**

*Mental Health Problems.* Girls and boys on probation in Cook County, Illinois reported high mental health problems. Nine percent of girls reported serious mental health (psychoses, bipolar and schizophrenia) disorders and 16% reported affective disorders. Five percent of boys reported serious mental health disorders (psychoses, bipolar and schizophrenia) and 9% affective disorders. When girls and boys are compared to the detained population in Cook County, one percent of girls and boys had psychotic disorders while twenty-four percent of girls and nineteen percent of boys had affective disorders (Teplin et al., 2002). These univariate findings indicate that mental health problems persist while youth are on probation, highlighting their needs for community mental health treatment.

*Suicidality.* Girls reported high levels of suicidal behavior. Fifteen percent of girls and four percent of boys reported suicidal behavior. However, when compared to prevalence rates of other juvenile justice involved youth their reported range was from 14.2% to 51% (Cauffman, 2004; Esposito & Clum, 1999). Girls on probation reported suicidal behavior within this reported range, which is consistent with other research on justice-involved girls that are more likely to have attempted suicide (Miller, 1994). In addition, 1.1% of detained youth in Cook County, Illinois died by suicide. Mortality rates among delinquent youth was >4 times higher than that in the general population of Cook County (Teplin et al., 2005). This provides an important perspective regarding youth on probation given their mental health needs and suicidal behavior. Specifically, their suicidal behavior could escalate without the appropriate assessment and treatment.

*Problematic Substance Abuse.* Boys reported higher ratings than girls for problematic substance abuse, which is consistent with a current study conducted by Teplin and colleagues (2012). They found that males had more than 2.5 times the odds of substance use disorders compared to females when tested five years following their baseline results .

*Conduct Disorder Symptoms.* Girls reported higher levels of conduct disorder symptoms than males while Teplin and colleagues (2002) found that both detained females and males met diagnostic criteria for disruptive behavior disorders including oppositional defiant disorder and conduct disorders. These univariate findings are consistent with past studies of adult female detainees and females with a conduct disorder that find females have higher rates of psychiatric disorders than males (Teplin et al., 1996).

*Violent Behaviors.* Boys and girls reported fairly high levels of weapons offenses. Twenty-two percent of boys and 16% of girls reported weapons offenses. In comparing youth in

Illinois, few girls have been arrested, detained or incarcerated for weapons offenses (Bostwick & Ashley, 2009). Given that African American girls are overrepresented in this sample it is plausible that their weapons offense could be attributed to their experiences with community and gendered violence (Jones, 2009; Miller, 2008), so they carry weapons to protect themselves.

*History of Physical and Sexual Abuse.* Girls did not report unusually high levels of physical and sexual abuse. Nineteen percent were reported to have both physical and sexual abuse, 13% were reported to have sexual abuse, and 9% were reported to have physical abuse. In comparison to boys, 6% were reported to have physical and sexual abuse, 1% were reported to have sexual abuse and 5% were reported to have physical abuse. However, this is one factor that researchers consistently report at significantly higher levels for girls (Chesney-Lind, & Shelden, 2004; Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Lewis et al., 1991; Miller, 2008; Schaffner, 2006). One scholar noted that girls in the juvenile justice system in Los Angeles County reported eighty to 90% of some degree of physical or sexual abuse (Schaffner, 2006). These univariate findings seem to suggest that girls on probation may (or their parents/caregivers) have under-reported these experiences and the same could be true for boys on probation whose levels were significantly lower than the girls. In addition, these rates could be lower for youth on probation.

*Victimization.* Fourteen percent of girls and 9% of boys experienced victimization and reported that they were physically assaulted by a stranger. This report is slightly higher when compared to 13.4% of girls between the ages of 12 and 17 that experienced lifetime assault by the National Survey of Adolescents (Kilpatrick et al., 2003b). However, when compared to detained youth, the gap in the prevalence widens. Thirty-one percent of girls and 35% of boys reported that they had ever being attacked physically or badly beaten (this question is comparable because a similar question was asked about being attacked by someone they knew or

were close to) (Abram et al., 2004). These univariate findings may indicate that girls and boys underreport trauma. The youth in the Teplin study were interviewed with a trauma instrument (DISC-IV) while the measure in this study consisted of one question so there could be an issue with its validity.

b. **Family Risk Factors**

*Out-of-Home Placement.* Ten percent of girls and 5% of boys reported other living arrangements. Four percent of girls and 1% of boys reported foster placements. Lastly, less than one percent of boys and no girls reported that they had no permanent address/shelter. Youth with foster care experience are four times more likely to engage in delinquent behavior than those with no foster care experience (Alltucker et al., 2006).

*History of Parental Problems.* Over a quarter of girls or their parents/caregivers reported having parents with histories of drug and alcohol problems. These girls may also experience increases in risky behavior, including problems with alcohol and drugs (Kilpatrick et al., 2000). Ten percent of girls or their parents/caregivers also reported having parents with mental health problems. They may also experience poor or inadequate supervision and child maltreatment (Bifulco et al., 2002). Over a quarter of girls or their parents/caregivers reported that their parents had a criminal background. These girls could be subject to the direct and indirect effects causing them to adapt unhealthy adult roles including delinquency (Dannerback, 2005). Miller (2008) also noted that girls' problems with gendered violence and delinquency are exacerbated by parental addiction and their criminal backgrounds. Conversely, boys reported lower ratings for parents with alcohol and drug problems and mental health problems while their ratings for parents with a criminal background were more comparable to girls. Specifically, boys or their parents/caregivers reported having parents with drug and alcohol problems (22%), mental health

problems (4%) and criminal backgrounds (29%), while girls or their parents/caregivers reported having parents with drug and alcohol problems (31%), mental health problems (10%) and criminal backgrounds (31%). These univariate findings indicate that girls and boys on probation experience significant family dysfunction, which can be especially detrimental for girls as they are more likely to run away from home (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1998) and experience strained or broken familial ties (Arnold, 1990; Schaffner, 2006).

*Harsh Parenting.* Girls or their parents/caregiver reported slightly higher ratings than boys or their parents/caregivers. Two percent of girls and 1% of boys experienced harsh parenting. Poor parenting practices are a common risk factor for problem behavior and can promote impulsive, antisocial and delinquent behavior (Jaffe et al., 2001; Moffitt & Caspi, 2001; Patterson et al., 1992).

*Poor Parental Supervision.* Girls or their parents/caregivers reported higher ratings than boys or their parents/caregivers. Six percent of girls and 3% of boys reported poor parental supervision. Of all family factors, poor parental supervision is the strongest and most replicable predictor of delinquency (Smith & Stern, 1997). Also, some of the major early risk factors for antisocial behavior include poor parental supervision, punitive or erratic parental discipline, cold parental attitude (Farrington, 2005).

Also, when considering the univariate findings for parental problems, harsh parenting and poor parental supervision it is evident that youth on probation experienced significant difficulties throughout their lives based on their parents' struggles. Consequently, girls and boys on probation experience significant difficulties that could lead them to delinquent behavior and youth.

*Peer, School & Community Risk Factors.* Boys reported higher ratings than girls in all of these social domains including friends with delinquent influences, gang involvement, learning difficulties and no leisure activities. For peer risk factors, sixty percent of boys had friends with delinquent influences. Some authors have noted longitudinal relationships where peer relations measured at ages 6 to 12 were found to be related to subsequent offenses committed over a ten-year follow up study (Altschuler, 2005; Hetchman et al., 1984). Thirty-nine percent of boys were gang involved, compared to 30% of those that reported gang membership in the Rochester Youth Development Study (Thornberry, 1998). These findings seem to indicate that these males may be more frequently involved in serious and violent delinquency than those that are not gang involved. For the school risk factor, thirty percent of boys had learning difficulties. This is consistent with research studies conducted on youth with both learning difficulties and violent behavior: violence increased as learning difficulties increased (Blum et al, 2003; Morrison & Cosden, 1997).

When comparing girls' peer risk factors, 49% of girls reported having friends with delinquent influences and 19% reported gang involvement. Scholars argue that some of the most serious female offenders join gangs for protection that also leads them to delinquent and violent behavior (Jones, 2009; Miller, 2008; Thornberry, 1998). For the school risk factor 20% of girls reported learning difficulties. This is also consistent with research showing that girls in urban schools experience the threat of violence and harassment with little protection from adults in authority (Miller, 2008). These circumstances could impact girls' ability to perform academically.



Lastly, for the community risk factor, no leisure activities, both girls and boys had comparable ratings. Sixty-two percent of girls and 63% of boys reported this risk factor. This finding suggests that the lack of school-based activities and the role of community violence could contribute to girls' and boys' lack of interest in activities.

Gender differences were also reported in protective factors for youth on probation. Boys had higher ratings for the majority of the protective factors in this study.

c. **Individual Protective Factors**

*Positive educational beliefs.* Girls (73.5%) and boys (70.2%) both had high ratings. "Adolescents with low levels of prosocial beliefs tend to engage in rule-breaking and law-breaking behaviors" (Brown et al., 2005). These univariate findings indicate that youth with high prosocial beliefs about education may be less likely to engage in delinquent behavior.

*School Support.* Ten percent of girls and 8% of boys reported prosocial beliefs about school providing support. Research studies about prosocial beliefs indicate that developing them is important in reducing the delinquent behavior of youth (Kosterman et al., 2004).

*Problem-solving.* Boys reported moderate beliefs about their ability to problem-solve. Twenty-two percent of boys believe in their ability to solve problems. Similarly, 21% of girls believe in their ability to solve problems. This attitude permits the adolescent to strategize effective ways to address problems in a constructive manner (Baldwin et al., 1989). These univariate findings suggest that girls and boys on probation do not act in accordance with their reported beliefs to solve problems, especially girls who reported higher ratings of the majority of risk factors.

d. **Family Protective Factors**

*Appropriate Parental Discipline.* Boys or their parents/caregivers on probation reported moderate levels of appropriate parental discipline. Thirty-seven percent of boys and 34% of girls or their parents/caregivers reported this family protective factor. Research notes that effective parents provide youth with clear and supportive instruction, limit setting, and involvement that appear to influence developmental outcomes (Denham et al., 2000). These univariate findings indicate that a perception of appropriate discipline exists despite the findings about parental problems, harsh parenting and poor parental supervision. Consequently, there could be over reporting of this variable.

*Close to Parents and Family.* Girls on probation reported unusually high levels of being close to parents and family members. Eighty-seven percent of girls reported this family protective factor. However, 48% of the boys reported this family protective factor. According to Masten (1994), positive relationships with parents and family members serve as protective factors for children and model prosocial skills and behaviors. These univariate findings indicate that these findings could also be over reported given the higher ratings of individual and family risk factors for girls in this study.

e. **Peer Protective Factors**

*Close to Prosocial Peers.* Girls on probation reported high levels of being close to prosocial peers. Sixty-four percent of girls and 58% of boys reported this peer protective factor. Successful peer relations are of great importance for social and personality development (Berndt & Perry, 1990; Hartup, 1993). This finding seems to suggest girls' relationships with their peers may be a strength that could avert delinquent involvement. Molnar and colleagues (2008) noted that 78 (0.07%) girls in an urban community sample experienced lower delinquent behaviors due to prosocial/supportive friends. Generally, "young women tend to place a higher value on

relationships and consequently may be more affected by the nature of these relationships than are young men” (Belgrave, 2002; Cernkovich, & Giordano, 1987).

f. **School and Community Protective Factors**

*High Academic Achievement.* Boys on probation had moderate levels of high academic achievement. Twenty-nine percent of boys and 39% of girls reported this school protective factor. Researchers note that high academic achievement was the most important factor as it explained a significant amount of variance in adolescent offending for both females and males (Agnew & Brezina, 1997; Dekovic, 1999). Twenty-eight percent of boys reported talks with teachers while 25% of girls reported this community protective factor. The importance of caring adults has been documented as a protective for female offenders (Hawkins et al., 2009). Boys also had moderate levels of involvement in extracurricular activities and 26% endorsed this community protective factor. Twenty-two percent of girls reported involvement in extracurricular activities. Regular involvement in activities, church, hobbies, volunteering or having a job was found to be protective for both females and males (Huebner & Betts, 2002).

2. **Estimates of racial differences in risk and protective factors of youth on probation**

Racial differences were found in terms of descriptive and bivariate results for risk factors. White girls and boys had higher ratings for the majority of risk factors in the individual, family, peer, school and community social domains. Specific findings were consistent with those found in previous research about delinquent youth Teplin et al., 2001; Teplin et al., 2002; Teplin et al., 2005; Teplin et al., 2012).

Mixed girls reported the highest ratings for protective factors, while both African American and Other males reported the highest ratings for protective factors. A statistically

significant finding was identified for White girls as they had the highest mean,  $M = .93$  for problematic substance abuse, which is consistent with previous research (Williams et al., 2007) but inconsistent with more recent research (Teplin et al., 2012).

The majority of significant findings for individual risk factors were for White boys. Specifically, these risk factors included serious mental disorder (13.3%), affective disorder (21.7%), suicidality (9.9%) and physical abuse (9.1%). Teplin and colleagues (2002) found that Hispanic males reported the highest levels of affective disorders (21.5%), so some variation was noted. In addition, 18.6% of African American males, and 13.8% of non-Hispanic Whites reported affective disorders. Three percent of non-Hispanic White males, 1.0% of African American males, and 0.7% of Hispanic males reported psychotic disorders (Teplin et al., 2002). The significant findings for Mixed males included history of physical and sexual abuse (10.3%) and victimization (15.4%). Other males' significant finding was for neglect (14.4%).

African American males had the most significant findings for family risk factors at the bivariate level. This finding included history of parents with a JD/Criminal Justice background (32.1%). Also, they had a statistically significant finding with the highest mean score for family violence,  $M = .09$ , which seems quite low and is possibly due validity issues. White males had a significant finding for history of parents with mental health problems (10.3%). They also had the highest mean score for problematic substance abuse,  $M = 1.02$ . Mixed males had a significant finding for out-of-home placement for other living arrangement (6.7%). They also had the highest mean score for conduct disorder symptoms,  $M = .88$ .

One significant finding was found at the bivariate level in the peer domain. All males had high ratings of gang involvement, but Hispanic males had the highest rating (58.7%). Also, 19% of White males, 36% of African American males, 57% of Mixed males, and 24% of Other

males reported gang involvement. There was no significant finding at the bivariate level in the school domain. One significant finding was found at the bivariate level in the community domain for no leisure activities and all males reported moderate levels. Seventy-two percent of White males, 63% of African American males, 71% of Hispanic males, 66% of Mixed males and 68% of Other males had no leisure activities. "School based extracurricular activities provide adolescents with a highly structured leisure environment that they can exert control and express their identity through a choice of activity and actions within the setting" (Darling, 2004). These findings suggest that males on probation could benefit from structured school-based activities if they are enrolled in school. If not, they could benefit from structured neighborhood activities if they are held in a safe area.

Racial differences for males were also found in the protective factors. One significant result was found in the individual domain for positive educational beliefs for African American males (79.9%). Both variables in the family domain were significant across race. Other males had the highest rating for appropriate parental discipline (45.9%). Thirty percent of White males, 40% of African American males, 34% of Hispanic males, and 29% of Mixed males endorsed experiences of appropriate parental discipline. All males reported high ratings for close to parents and family. Specifically, African American males had the highest rating of 92%. Eighty-six percent of White males, 90% of Hispanic males, 89% of Mixed males, and 84% of Other males reported that they were close to their parents and family. Similarly, all males had fairly high ratings in the peer domain, close to prosocial peers that was significant at the bivariate level. Other males had the highest rating of 68%. Sixty-six percent of White males, 59% of African American males, 52% of Hispanic males, and 56% of Mixed males reported that they were close to prosocial peers.

High academic achievement was the only significant school factor at the bivariate level. All males reported moderate to high ratings for high academic achievement. White males reported the highest rating of 72%. Forty-eight percent of African American males, 55% of Hispanic males, 53% of Mixed males and 65% of Other males reported high academic achievement, as well. Lastly, both community protective factors were significant at the bivariate level. African American males had the highest rating for talking to teachers with 32%. Twenty-nine percent of White males, 20% of Hispanic males, 17% of Mixed males and 24% of Other males reported that they talk to teachers. Other males had the highest rating for involvement in extracurricular activities with 35%. Twenty-three percent of White males, 28% of African American males, 19% of Hispanic males, and 18% of Mixed males reported being involved in extracurricular activities.

These findings for boys' protective factors could indicate the complexity of the relationship between risk and protective factors. Even though males had higher responses in the majority of protective factors they still reported a good number of risk factors. This may suggest uncertainty about how protective factors buffer risk factors related to delinquent behavior. In addition, these responses could be due to underreporting of the respondents as well.

### **3. Estimates of risk and protective factors that predict recidivism of youth on probation**

Only one of the risk factors and one of the protective factors were significant at the bivariate level for boys, even though the sample size for boys that recidivated was much larger,  $n = 388$ . Age at first offense was significant for boys that did not recidivate; they had the highest mean score,  $M = 14.10$ . Boys that recidivated had the lower mean score,  $M = 13.54$ . The significant family protective factor finding for boys was appropriate parental discipline. Boys

that did not recidivate had a higher rating for this family protective factor with 39.5%. The other significant protective factor was in the peer domain for boys that did not recidivate and were close to prosocial peers (59.0%).

Although there were no significant findings related to recidivism for girls, it is important to note that the 21 girls were similar to detained girls. They were all females of color (18 African American and 3 Hispanic). Their average age was 15 and their subsequent charges included aggravated battery, battery, theft, robbery, burglary and possession. The age at first offense for African American girls was 10 and 15 for Hispanics. Nearly a quarter of the girls are gang involved, have learning difficulties, problems with substance abuse and have weapons offense charges. Over a third of the girls ran away, reported two more symptoms of conduct disorder, experienced neglect, and don't participate in leisure activities. More than half of the girls have friends with delinquent influences. The majority do not have prosocial beliefs about school, have teachers they can talk to, aren't involved in extracurricular activities and their parents don't use appropriate discipline. However, nearly a third had high academic achievement, so some girls perform academically despite all these challenges.

#### **4. Implications of Findings for Theoretical Frameworks**

Consistent with previous research, girls and boys on probation experience significant risk factors as do detained and incarcerated youth. Girls in this sample had the majority of risk factors in each social domain, which supports the previous findings related to gendered and community violence (Jones, 2009; Miller, 2008; Schaffner, 2006). When considering social control theory, it is important to note whether bonds of attachment, involvement, commitment and conventional beliefs explain the delinquent behavior of youth on probation. These findings suggest that girls had weaker ties to parents, family members and prosocial peers, than boys and

all youth had low involvement in leisure and extracurricular school activities. However, boys held positive educational beliefs. Girls had high ratings for physical and sexual abuse, parental problems and poor parental supervision. Girls had moderate ratings of friends with delinquent influences and gang involvement, and no leisure activities. These findings may reflect the dynamic nature of girls' relationships. Having strong ties to parents, family members and prosocial peers could reduce the likelihood of girls' recidivating or committing delinquent acts. In addition, girls' self-development could flourish and grow in the presence of prosocial peers (Klein, 1948; Mitchell, 1988; Sullivan, 1993), which is consistent with relational theory. In addition, a study examining social control theory of upper middle class youth found that parental attachment had no relationship on girls' serious delinquency though it was reduced for boys. Also, they noted that only when girls participated in nontraditional female activities (sports) and boys were involved "in non-traditional male activities (church, community, and school) such involvement provides significant protection from delinquency" (Booth et al., 2008). Given the unusually high numbers of girls and boys reported no leisure activities and about a quarter of girls and boys reported involvement in extracurricular activities, there is room to further explore this because these measures do not specify the types of activities. It could be feasible that youth on probation may be more receptive to nontraditional activities to reduce their delinquent behavior.

Based on the descriptive and some of the bivariate results both girls and boys possess some protective factors. First, boys seemed to have fewer risk factors and more protective factors than girls. However, girls' descriptive results indicate that they had high academic achievement. This is consistent with social control theory as it shows that girls have belief in society's values regarding education. Having high academic achievement is indicative of the



girls' commitment in conventional society in terms of education (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1993; McCord, 1991).

Girls had the majority of risk factors in each of the social domains, so they may have more needs even though a small number of them recidivated in the sample. Putting the sample size aside, it could be noted that these girls on probation may benefit from the strengths associated with their protective factors and that averts their delinquent behavior. Despite this, the high number of risk factors girls reported indicates that they have greater needs that warrant community services to assist them. Many of the risk factors they endorsed were related to their families, indicating severe disruption in their personal relationships. When considering relational theory, it is expected that girls on probation have a need to address their issues in the context of connection to others based on empathy, mutuality and a dynamic relational process (Covington & Surrey, 1997). However, they actually experienced significant relational disruption based on varied forms of abuse, so their growth and identity development may be adversely affected. Positive change and development for girls on probation requires the presence of at least one mutually empathic relationship in their lives.

In terms of race, bivariate results note that White males had the majority of risk factors, including mental health problems, parental mental health problems, history of physical abuse and no leisure activities. These findings indicate that they experience a greater prevalence and severity of risk factors. When considering critical race theory, it seems that these youth and their needs may be less visible than other racial groups as they tend to be underrepresented in the juvenile justice system. Consequently, their problems may not be identified at home or in the community. Also, they have the highest ratings for high academic achievement, so school

officials would be less inclined to recognize their mental health symptoms or refer them for services to address them.

Hispanic males also had the highest ratings for gang involvement, so they may be disadvantaged in many ways. They may not have strong familial or social supports as most youth that join gangs do so because they have strained or broken relationships with their families. Also, they may live in disadvantaged communities with high police surveillance. In terms of critical race theory, they could also experience multiple oppressions related to being disadvantaged, including immigration status and being overrepresented in the juvenile justice system (Harrison & Karberg, 2004).

Mixed girls reported the highest levels of the protective factors in the study. Little to no previous research has focused specifically on this diverse racial/ethnic group. Consequently, there may be cultural factors that buffer and protect them in ways that the other racial/ethnic groups may not. In addition, critical race theory and in particular, intersectionality recognizes the multiple oppressions including race, gender and “describes the overrepresentation of females of color both within overlapping systems of subordination and at the margins of feminism and antiracism” (Crenshaw, 1991). However, it is unclear whether Mixed girls experience multiple oppressions the same way as African American females who are overrepresented in the juvenile justice system. The extent to which critical race theory could inform these findings is limited since intersections between race, gender and specific risk and protective factors could not be explored to better understand girls’ strengths. The lack of knowledge about Mixed girls may highlight the need to know more about them. Without this information their findings could vary depending on their racial/ethnic backgrounds.

Generally speaking, when comparing recidivism across gender at the bivariate level, none of the results were significant. Similarly, none of the protective factors and only one of the risk factors for race was significant. White girls and boys had significant findings for problematic substance abuse, which is consistent with previous research studies (Teplin et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2007). As previously stated, White youth experience greater a prevalence and severity of problematic substance abuse given they are underrepresented in the juvenile justice system. Critical race theory discusses intersectionality in terms of multiple oppressions like gender and race related to the overrepresentation of youth of color in the juvenile justice system. However, White youth are experiencing multiple oppressions related to their race as they are less visible to receive treatment services for their psychological issues. Moreover, previous studies of youth on probation indicated that middle class standards are used to sentence youth (Mallett et al., 2012), so this could influence the likelihood of identifying and addressing the needs of White youth. Conversely, African Americans and Mixed girls had the lowest mean scores respectively for problematic substance abuse, which is consistent with prior research studies (Williams et al., 2007). Also, their low levels of alcohol use could be another example of their strengths.

In terms of relational theory, findings about girls' interactions with teachers show that they lack relationships with them as well. Given the beliefs about relational needs, these girls are further disadvantaged by not having strong interpersonal relationships. Establishing healthy relationships with teachers and other nonfamilial adults, as well as parents and friends is an essential developmental task for girls. Boys in this study are more likely to have the benefit of strong relationships to others, which could be further enhanced to assist their future desistance from crime. Yet, girls face a cluster of circumstances including the absence of positive relationships or those that are strained due to abuse by family members. Consequently, they

could pursue relationships that promote and even encourage delinquent behavior. Fostering positive changes for girls depends on their ability to develop mutually trusting and healthy relationships to create positive new experiences for them (Hubbard & Matthews, 2008).

#### **B. Limitations of the Study**

This study is not without limitations. Though the data was secured and used for this dissertation study it was not collected for research but for administrative purposes. Therefore, methodological limitations should be considered when interpreting the results. Although the sample size for the study is substantial, the subsample for the prediction model was smaller due to the limited amount of time that recidivism data was collected in Cook County, Illinois. Eighty-seven percent of the records in the merged file found a match based on the timeframe for one completed YASI assessment and the limited timeframe for the collection of recidivism data. The subsample of girls and boys that recidivated was only 7%, which is much lower than expected. In the 2009 Report of the Cook County Juvenile Court, female offenders with one subsequent case were 17.0% while male offenders with one subsequent case were 19.7% in 2006. Additionally, the formal collection of recidivism data did not start until 2010, so the number of girls and boys that were included in the sample was significantly reduced. In addition, none of the risk and protective factors were significantly associated with girls' recidivism. This could be related to the small sample size of girls that recidivated,  $n = 21$ , which potentially reduced the power of the sample to detect differences. Also, this could have been due to the timeframe that recidivism data was collected and available for analysis, as well as possible data entry issues. However, recidivism of the youth in this sample increased each year starting with 5.1% in 2009 to 7.5% in 2010 to 8.4% in 2011 to 8.7% in 2012 until it dropped in 2013 to 4.0% (only included 7 months of data in 2013 due to data collection timeframe). Consequently,

the low number of girls who recidivated may not provide an accurate reflection of the youth on probation in Cook County, Illinois, so it was a significant limitation in the study.

The use of measures from a secondary data set with the original data collection involving unstandardized measures is problematic. Specifically, this study did not include variables for criminal history, dating relationships (including dating violence), teenage parenting or neighborhood characteristics as the instrument does not include questions about them. Criminal history has been researched extensively as a variable to measure social control with delinquent youth, but the instrument does not include details about criminal history other than a binary question about previous contact with the police. There is a domain about employment and free time in the instrument, but it was not included as a measure in this study. This information could help explain some of the high ratings of no leisure activities and moderate involvement in extracurricular activities. The lack of validity of the YASI warranted caution in creating measures of these variables. Lastly, there is variation in how the measure is completed based on the level of training for each probation officer. Future research efforts will provide the opportunity to address these limitations.

Related to the sample size is the issue of the data analysis plan. Initially, the plan included univariate, bivariate and multivariate analyses. Multivariate models were not tested to compare significant findings between girls and boys at the bivariate due to the limited sample size of girls. Consequently, no analysis was conducted to predict recidivism in this sample of youth on probation.

This is a cross-sectional study, so there is no way to determine developmental changes of the youth over time. “Establishing proper temporal sequencing is challenging for studies looking at causality when data are cross-sectional and collected at one point in time.” The need to

explore delinquent behavior longitudinally and explore, identify and/or confirm girls' pathways to delinquency and recidivism are topics to consider for future research studies. There are also limitations related to measurement as the YASI Full Assessment is an instrument with unknown reliability and validity.

Besides the lack of girls that recidivated in the sample, generalizability may be seen as a limitation in this study. As with other local study samples, generalizability is limited because the data for the study was restricted to a particular time period. Also, since the study sample is limited to Cook County, Illinois, it may not represent juveniles outside of this locale. Therefore, findings need to be generalized with caution.

Despite these limitations, the findings from this study offer practical significance and important implications for social work and juvenile justice practice and policy that will benefit the youth and those that work with them.

### C. **Implications of the Study**

#### 1. **Implications for Practice**

This research has implications for social work, as well as criminal justice practice and policy. Findings from this dissertation confirm that the youth on probation, and especially girls have many risk factors that could impact their recidivism. Specifically, many girls have limited and deficient interpersonal relationships with parents, family members, and teachers while they also have strong relationships with youth that are delinquent and/or gang involved. Conversely, this sample of boys may be more likely to have strong relationships with parents, peers, and teachers. Social work and juvenile justice staff have an opportunity to co-create positive relationships with girls and boys on probation.

Unlike other studies focusing on risk and protective factors, this study also identified some protective factors that social workers and probation officers could develop and enhance to reduce their delinquent behavior. Findings from this dissertation confirm that youth on probation, and especially girls, have many risk factors that could impact their life chances and potentially their recidivism. Unlike other studies focusing on risk and protective factors, this study also identified some protective factors that social workers and probation officers could develop and enhance to reduce their delinquent behavior. For example, some girls and boys were reported to have high academic achievement so some youth thrive academically despite their involvement in the juvenile justice system. This is important to note for school social workers in their work with students who perform higher academically. Often high grades may serve as a proxy for performance in other areas of their lives where they may actually struggle.

The identification of specific factors may also promote the targeting of appropriate services and the future prevention of delinquent behavior of girls. Consequently, having a greater understanding of the legal system including its policies and procedures and decision making can prepare social workers and others to assist delinquent girls so they can successfully complete their probation sentences. This knowledge is especially prudent when considering girls who may also be involved with the child welfare system and boys whose parents have histories of criminal involvement. Both circumstances indicate areas where parents struggle and need services. Specifically, social workers that are versed in family focused interventions will be better able to address the complex needs of youth on probation and their families. Lastly, the findings from this study reveal a profile of girls that includes strengths-oriented characteristics, such as abstinence from drugs and alcohol for girls of color and high academic achievement.

This information is useful for those that work with girls on probation, so they are better able to understand and address their behavior.

## **2. Implications for Research**

Results from this study reflect the need for improvement of the YASI instrument. Probation officers, academics and risk assessment experts criticize the YASI for its lack of application to users and overall effectiveness. Also, many probation officers rely more on their own practice wisdom versus the information derived from the YASI (M. Lewis, personal communication, February 20, 2014). This study revealed that there could be limits to its validity, so efforts to improve the instrument could be useful.

The next step with this data is to conduct a multivariate analysis of the entire sample of youth that recidivated ( $n = 409$ ). Previously, the primary focus of the study was on girls on probation, so including a regression analysis of girls and boys that recidivated would provide information about the risk and protective factors predicting their recidivism.

There is a need for more specificity in research on recidivism with a larger sample of girls involved in the juvenile justice system. First, there is a need for time-series research designs that identify causal links. Cross-sectional research designs do not provide opportunities to investigate causal relationships. For example, the current dissertation identified some relationships between risk and protective factors for boys; however, the cross-sectional design and small sample size did not allow the investigator to establish whether these relationships were causal or confounding. Future research should re-examine these relationships for girls and boys to ascertain whether or not they predict recidivism in separate analytical models.

Second, future research on protective factors should also include the relationship between gender, race and the employment/free time domain. Past research has noted that unemployed or



underemployed young males with low income and prior criminal records are more likely to fail (recidivate) while on probation (Morgan, 1993). Another study indicated that having a job protects youth/young adults from future involvement in delinquent behavior (Huebner & Betts, 2002). Also, attaining successful employment has been noted as one of the “turning points” that could increase a youth’s desistance from crime over the course of their lives (Rutter, 1987). Employment is an important factor to examine as many girls and boys on probation indicated no involvement in leisure activities and a smaller number also indicated involvement in any extracurricular activities. Being able to determine if any of their time is being spent working would be useful in developing a better understanding about how they are spending their time.

Third, future research should examine the relationship between gender and race and the actual scores associated with the endorsed responses on the YASI. There are ten domains that are scored that could inform probation officers and social workers about the progress of youth on probation. For example, if youth scores vary in specific ways (by age, race or gender) this information will be important to share with individuals that work with them to improve service delivery. Future research should tease out gender and racial difference related to YASI scoring.

Fourth, the profile of the 21 girls that recidivated is haunting because there is so much that is not known about them. Therefore, I would like to pursue an ethnographic study that follows a sample of girls on probation in their communities, which could better describe their everyday experiences and contexts that influences choices leading to recidivism.

Lastly, the extensive approval process to secure the data for this dissertation study indicates a two-fold opportunity for future research with youth involved in the juvenile justice system. There needs to be greater collaboration between Cook County Juvenile Probation Department (CCJPD), the Administrative Office of the Illinois Courts (AOIC), the Office of the

Chief Judge (OCJ), the Cook County Bureau of Health Systems (CCBHS), and universities in the area. The existing collaboration between CCJPD and UIC JACSW was instrumental in making this dissertation study a reality. Building further on these types of collaboration is critical for the faculty and doctoral students interested in conducting research about youth involved in the juvenile justice system.

### 3. **Implications for Policy**

The dramatic shifts in public policy and modifications of laws have had a significant impact on girls in the juvenile justice system. Also, the changes in laws and policies gravely impact girls on probation causing serious considerations for how social workers and probation officers work with them. In particular, social workers need to understand how these policies and laws are applied and often result in girls being ensnared in the juvenile justice system. This knowledge aids in their ability to advocate for them and their families. Also, it provides a platform for large scale advocacy with legislators who can appropriate funds to improve services for them.

Social workers and the social work profession need to remain involved with the juvenile justice system. Social workers had a significant role in the creation of the juvenile court and the juvenile justice system with its focus on rehabilitation. The recent move to a more punitive approach is indicative of need for social workers to take a more proactive role in shaping the discourse that promotes a needed change in policy development and implementation. This becomes a critical move as more and more youth become involved in the juvenile justice system, especially minority youth. Scholars have noted that “the juvenile justice system has become the main youth development institution for a large number of [vulnerable] youth” (Zimring, 1998). As noted from this study, many of these youth have histories of abuse, victimization, and family

dysfunction. However, some also have supportive friends and families and high academic achievement. Consequently, they need services that will reduce their difficulties and enhance their strengths. Policymakers have the power to fund these initiatives but social workers have the opportunity to advocate on behalf of these youth and shape a different narrative about them and their lives.

#### **D. Conclusion**

“There has been a growing and critical need for social work services for juvenile and adult offenders as well as their victims” (Brownell, & Roberts, 2002). Research that illuminates the needs of youth on probation is critical to effective social work practice with them as it provides insight to better understand a more moderate risk group and their needs that could greatly influence existing policies that govern the juvenile justice system. This study attempted to reveal and confirm “a greater understanding of how female delinquents differ from male delinquents and how risk and protective factors may affect females differently” (Hartman et al, 2009). The findings show that youth on probation also mirror youth that are detained in terms of minority over-representation and many risk factors. However, girls differed significantly from boys where girls experienced more risk and less protection. Although predictions could not be made related to recidivism, social workers need to understand this idea because it diverges from past perceptions of girls being resilient in the face of their adversity. Yet, they are consistent with research conducted by Chamberlain and others that noted the greater severity of girls’ needs given the constellation of problems they experience in their lives. Specifically, they noted that delinquent girls are difficult to treat, and that they are at high risk for future problems in areas such as parenting (1994). Moreover, focusing on gender differences was prudent because it highlighted the severity of girls’ needs and the importance of addressing them.

The primary benefit of this study was to examine youth on probation so the findings could provide social workers and probation officers with a profile of girls' strengths-oriented characteristics, so they are better able to understand and address their behavior. Realizing that youth on probation are similar to detained youth shows the impact of risk in their lives that causes them to recidivate. However, though many risks are present, it is necessary for social workers to recognize that some girls do possess protective factors so they can build on these strengths. The findings from this study provide researchers and clinicians with valuable information for the treatment and continued research of girls and boys on probation. This includes future outcome studies that seek to investigate the change in recidivism given specific risk and protective factors of these youth, as well as intervention studies to build upon effective mental health treatment of youth and their families. This information could better inform professional social workers and other juvenile justice personnel who are needed for counseling, advocacy, and linking youth to substance abuse, health and mental health systems. Also, the findings from this study address these deficits in knowledge and provide useful insight for scholars and practitioners in this field. With more insight, clinicians can work with girls to help them further ameliorate the effects of risk exposure and boost the positive effects of protective factors in their lives, and scholars will be assisted in their development of theory and treatment related to girls and delinquency.

## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A  
APPROVAL FROM INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARDS

**Cook County Health & Hospitals System**

1900 W. Polk Street, Room 123  
Chicago, Illinois 60612

627 South Wood Street, Rm. 218 Chicago, Illinois 60612  
312-864-0716



Cook County Health & Hospitals System

Terry A. Mason, MD  
Chief Medical Officer

Lynda Brodsky  
Director, Research Affairs

January 30, 2013

Miquel Lewis PsyD  
Probation Circuit Court  
2245 W Ogden Ave  
Chicago IL 60612

**RE: Our Study #13-011**

**Meeting Date: February 5, 2013**

Dear Dr. Lewis:

**Protocol Title:**

Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation.

This is to inform you that the above referenced Study was approved by Expedited Review and will be presented to the Board at the meeting indicated above. Unless you have a waiver of consent you must obtain a stamped consent form before you can begin. Always use a consent form with the current expiration date.

**Approved:** By Expedited review. This protocol was reviewed and approved by our prisoner representative.

**Expiration Date: January 29, 2014**

Please note the expiration date. If you plan to continue your study beyond this date, please submit a progress report six weeks prior to the expiration. Submission of a progress report is your responsibility. Your protocol will be suspended and ultimately closed, if it is not renewed in a timely manner.

Your study may be audited by Ms. Funeka Sihlali, RN, MJ our Quality Assurance Officer. These random visits are to assure compliance and address questions that may arise.

If you change your protocol in any way or if you add participants, provider or recruitment materials to the protocol, you must submit these for review and approval before initiation. The expiration date will **not** change regardless of any subsequent approvals of modifications to your Protocol. If you have any questions, please call Funeka Sihlali at 312 864-4821.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Lynda Brodsky'.

Lynda Brodsky  
Director, Research Affairs



State of Illinois  
Circuit Court of Cook County  
Juvenile Justice Division

Michael P. Tuomin  
Presiding Judge

2245 West Ogden Avenue  
Chicago, Illinois 60612  
(312) 433-4757  
Fax: (312) 433-6590

Camille R. Quinn, AM, LCSW  
Ph.D. Candidate  
UIC Jane Adams College of Social Work  
1040 West Harrison Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60607

April 5, 2013

Dear Ms. Quinn,

I have reviewed your request to use data from the Cook County Juvenile Probation and Court Services Department for your dissertation study entitled "Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation". I understand that this study will be comprised of an analysis of data from both the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department and the Administrative Office of Illinois Courts.

I am pleased to approve your request to use data from the Juvenile Probation Department for your study. However, please be informed you that you and the University of Illinois at Chicago must adhere to all Court requirements governing the use of this data. Further, any written reports resulting from this study shall be provided to the Court prior to any publication or other dissemination. Additionally, no identifying information on youth or Court staff may be included in any written reports that you generate from the use of this data.

Should you have any questions, please contact my office. Good Luck with your study and I look forward to receiving your results.

Sincerely,

Michael P. Tuomin  
Presiding Judge  
Juvenile Justice Division

C: Juvenile Probation Department

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS  
AT CHICAGO

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS)  
Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research (MC 672)  
203 Administrative Office Building  
1737 West Polk Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60612-7227

**Approval Notice  
Initial Review (Response To Modifications)**

March 1, 2013

Camille R. Quinn, MA  
Jane Addams School of Social Work  
1040 W. Harrison  
M/C 747  
Chicago, IL 60607  
Phone: (312) 203-0969 / Fax: (773) 947-9791

RE: **Protocol # 2012-0822**  
**“Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation”**

Dear Ms. Quinn:

Your Initial Review application (Response To Modifications) was reviewed and approved by the Expedited review process on February 21, 2013. You may now begin your research.

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

*Please note that a prisoner representative reviewed this protocol and was present for the discussion, deliberations, and vote. Also note that the Board has determined that this research does not involve prisoners as subjects and is eligible for expedited review.*

**Please remember to submit a completed data use agreement with the Administrative Office of the Illinois Court if it will be required to obtain the data for this research.** A copy of the completed agreement must be accompanied by an Amendment form when submitted to the UIC IRB.

**Protocol Approval Period:** February 21, 2013 - February 21, 2014  
**Approved Subject Enrollment #:** 4,000 cases  
**Additional Determinations for Research Involving Minors:** The Board determined that this research satisfies 45CFR46.404, research not involving greater than minimal risk.  
**Performance Sites:** UIC, Cook County Juvenile Probation Department,  
Cook County Health & Hospitals System  
**Sponsor:** None



**Research Protocol:**

- a) Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation; Version 2

**Recruitment Material:**

- a) No recruitment materials will be used - secondary analysis of data transferred by agreement with the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department

**Informed Consent:**

- a) A waiver of informed consent/assent/permission has been granted for this secondary analysis of data under 45 CFR 46.116(d) (minimal risk; data transferred via data transfer agreement from the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department)

Your research meets the criteria for expedited review as defined in 45 CFR 46.110(b)(1) under the following specific category:

(5) Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for non-research purposes (such as medical treatment or diagnosis).

**Please note the Review History of this submission:**

Receipt Date	Submission Type	Review Process	Review Date	Review Action
10/01/2012	Initial Review	Convened	10/18/2012	Modifications Required
02/18/2013	Response To Modifications	Expedited	02/21/2013	Approved

Please remember to:

→ Use your **research protocol number** (2012-0822) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with all requirements on the enclosure,  
**"UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects"**  
(<http://tiger.uic.edu/depts/ovcr/research/protocolreview/irb/policies/0924.pdf>)

**Please note that the UIC IRB has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.**

**Please be aware that if the scope of work in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.**

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact OPRS at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 996-2014. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS at 203 AOB, M/C 672.

Sincerely,

Sandra Costello  
Assistant Director, IRB # 2  
Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Enclosure: **UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects**

cc: Creasie Finney Hairston, Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309  
Sonya Leathers (faculty advisor), Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS  
AT CHICAGO

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS)  
Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research (MC 672)  
203 Administrative Office Building  
1737 West Polk Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60612-7227

**Approval Notice**  
**Amendment to Research Protocol – Expedited Review**  
**UIC Amendment # 1**

June 7, 2013

Camille R. Quinn, MA  
Jane Addams School of Social Work  
1040 W. Harrison  
EPSAW, JACSW, M/C 309  
Chicago, IL 60608  
Phone: (312) 203-0960 / Fax: (773) 947-9793

RE: **Protocol # 2012-0822**  
**“Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation”**

Dear Ms. Quinn:

Members of Institutional Review Board (IRB) #2 have reviewed this amendment to your research under expedited procedures for minor changes to previously approved research allowed by Federal regulations [45 CFR 46.110(b)(2)]. The amendment to your research was determined to be acceptable and may now be implemented.

Please note the following information about your approved amendment:

**Amendment Approval Date:** June 3, 2013

**Amendment:**

Summary: UIC Amendment #1, dated 10 May 2013 and received 30 May 2013, is an investigator-initiated amendment submitting a completed data use agreement with the Administrative Office of the Illinois Court (signed 6/3/2013) and supporting revised documents (Dissertation Proposal, version 3; Initial Review application, p 12; Appendix B): also, please note a change in the Principal Investigator's business address.

**Approved Subject Enrollment #:** 4,000

**Performance Sites:** UIC, Cook County Juvenile Probation Department,  
Cook County Health & Hospitals System, Administrative Office of the Illinois Court

**Sponsor:** None

**Research Protocol:**

- a) Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation;  
Version 3

**Please note the Review History of this submission:**

Receipt Date	Submission Type	Review Process	Review Date	Review Action
05/30/2013	Amendment	Expedited	06/03/2013	Approved

Please be sure to:

→ Use your research protocol number ( 2012-0822) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with all requirements on the OPRS website under:

**"UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects"** (<http://tiger.uic.edu/depts/ovcr/research/protocolreview/irb/policies/0924.pdf>)

**Please note that the UIC IRB #2 has the right to ask further questions, seek additional information, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.**

**Please be aware that if the scope of work in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.**

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the OPRS at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 996-2014. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS at 203 AOB, M/C 672.

Sincerely,

Sandra Costello  
Assistant Director, IRB # 2  
Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

cc: Sonya Leathers (faculty advisor), Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309  
Creasie Hairston, Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS  
AT CHICAGO

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS)  
Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research (MC 672)  
203 Administrative Office Building  
1737 West Polk Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60612-7227

**Approval Notice  
Continuing Review**

February 10, 2014

Camille R. Quinn, MA  
Jane Addams School of Social Work  
1040 W. Harrison  
EPSAW, JACSW, M/C 309  
Chicago, IL 60608  
Phone: (312) 203-0960 / Fax: (773) 947-9793

RE: **Protocol # 2012-0822**  
**“Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation”**

Dear Ms. Quinn:

Your Continuing Review was reviewed and approved by the Expedited review process on February 6, 2014. You may now continue your research.

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

**Please note that the approved subject enrollment number was exceeded (4,000 approved, 5,831 subjects) and this is considered an issue of compliance. An Amendment needs to be provided as soon as possible to increase the enrollment number.**

**Protocol Approval Period:** February 21, 2014 - February 21, 2015  
**Approved Subject Enrollment #:** 4000 (5831 subjects enrolled)  
**Additional Determinations for Research Involving Minors:** The Board determined that this research satisfies 45CFR46.404, research not involving greater than minimal risk.  
**Performance Sites:** UIC, Cook County Juvenile Probation Department,  
Cook County Health & Hospitals System, Administrative Office of the Illinois Court  
**Sponsor:** None  
**Research Protocol:**  
b) Exploring Gender Differences in Juvenile Offenders: Understanding Girls on Probation; Version 3  
  
**Recruitment Material:**  
b) No recruitment materials will be used - secondary analysis of data transferred by agreement with

the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department

**Informed Consent:**

- b) A waiver of informed consent/assent/permission has been granted for this secondary analysis of data under 45 CFR 46.116(d) (minimal risk; data transferred via data transfer agreement from the Cook County Juvenile Probation Department)

Your research meets the criteria for expedited review as defined in 45 CFR 46.110(b)(1) under the following specific category:

(5) Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes (such as medical treatment or diagnosis).

**Please note the Review History of this submission:**

Receipt Date	Submission Type	Review Process	Review Date	Review Action
02/03/2014	Continuing Review	Expedited	02/06/2014	Approved

Please remember to:

→ Use your **research protocol number** (2012-0822) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with all requirements on the enclosure,  
**"UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects"**  
(<http://tiger.uic.edu/depts/ovcr/research/protocolreview/irb/policies/0924.pdf>)

**Please note that the UIC IRB has the right to seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.**

**Please be aware that if the scope of work in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.**

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact OPRS at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 355-2764. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS at 203 AOB, M/C 672.

Sincerely,

Betty Mayberry, B.S.  
IRB Coordinator, IRB # 2  
Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Enclosure: None

cc: Creasie Hairston, Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309  
Sonya Leathers, Faculty Sponsor, Jane Addams School of Social Work, M/C 309

APPENDIX B  
COPYRIGHT APPROVAL



November 25, 2013

Dear Ms. Zline:

I am writing to request permission to use the following material from your publication (The American Dictionary of Criminal Justice: Key Terms and Major Court Cases, Third Edition, 2005) in my dissertation. This material includes the figure of the Juvenile Justice System on page 143 and will appear as originally published. Unless you request otherwise, I will use the conventional style of the Graduate College of the University of Illinois at Chicago as acknowledgment.

A copy of this letter is included for your records. Thank you for your kind consideration of this Request and I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Camille R. Quinn, AM, LCSW  
Doctoral Candidate

**Jane Addams College of Social Work**

1642 East 56th Street, Unit 517

**Chicago, IL 60637**

---

The above request is approved.

Approved by:

*Patricia Zline*  
*The Brown & Littlefield*  
*Publishing Group*  
*Permissions*

Date: */Jfh" r7* *C:ol3*



# APPENDIX C

## RISK AND PROTECTIVE FACTOR CONSTRUCTS AND VARIABLES

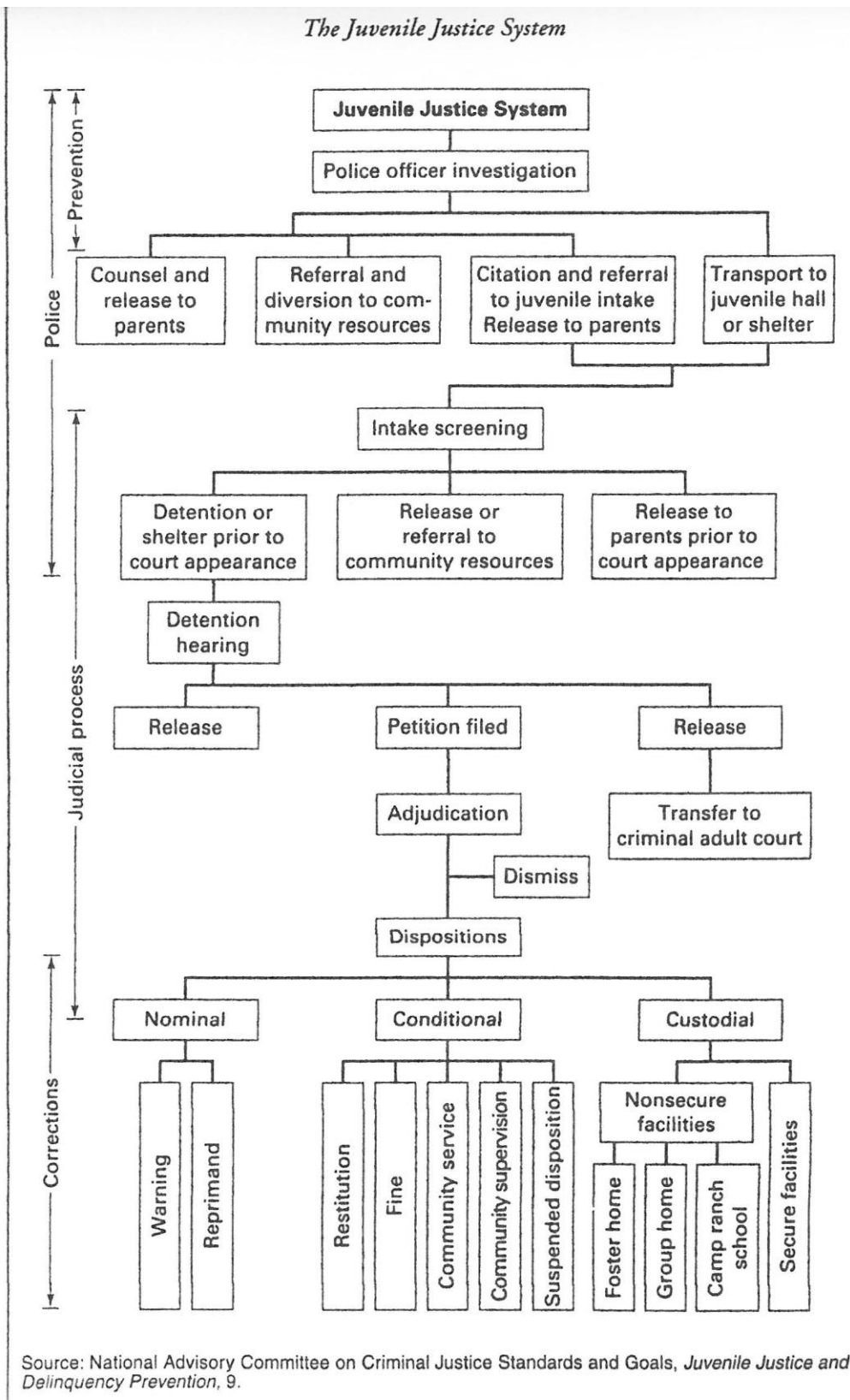
<b><u>Construct</u></b>	<b><u>Variable</u></b>	<b>Factor Type (Herrenkohl, et al., 2000)</b>	<b>YASI Domain</b>	<b>Type of Variable</b>	<b>Number of Questions</b>
<b><u>Risk Factors</u></b>					
Age at First Offense	Age at First Offense	Individual	Legal History	Continuous	1
NV Externalizing Behaviors	Running Away	Individual	Family	Continuous	1
Internalizing Behaviors	Mental Health Problems (Serious Mental Disorder-SMDO; Other Mood/Affective Disorder; Thought & Personality Disorder and Other Disorders)	Individual	Mental Health	Dichotomous	1
Internalizing Behaviors	Suicidality	Individual	Mental Health	Dichotomous	1
Externalizing Behaviors – assault against others	Violent Behaviors (weapons offenses, homicidal ideations; sexual aggression)	Individual	Aggression	Violent Behaviors – Dichotomous	4
Externalizing Behaviors – substance use	Problematic Substance Abuse	Individual	Alcohol and Drugs	Index	1
Externalizing Behaviors – conduct disorders	Conduct Disorder Symptoms	Individual		Continuous	1
Abuse	Neglect	Individual	Family	Dichotomous	1
Abuse	History of physical and/or sexual abuse, Physical abuse & Sexual abuse	Individual	Mental Health	Dichotomous	1
Abuse	Victimization	Individual <sup>206</sup>	Mental Health	Dichotomous	1
Parental/Family Problems	Out-of-Home Placement (Foster placement, No	Family	Family	Dichotomous	1

	permanent address & Other living arrangement)				
Parental/Family Problems	Times kicked or locked out	Family	Family	Dichotomous	1
Parental/Family Problems	Alcohol & Drug, Mental Health & JD/Criminal Justice	Family	Family	Dichotomous	2
Parental/Family Problems	Harsh Parenting	Family	Family	Dichotomous	1
Parental/Family Problems	Poor Parental Supervision	Family	Family	Ordinal	1
Parental/Family Problems	Family Violence	Family	Family	Ordinal	1
Delinquent Peer Associates	Friends w/Delinquent Influences	Peer	Community and Peers	Continuous	2
Delinquent Peer Associates	Gang Involvement	Peer	Community and Peers	Dichotomous	1
Academics	Learning Difficulties	School	School	Dichotomous	1
Decline in interest in positive leisure pursuits	No leisure activities	Community	Employment and Free Time	Dichotomous	1
<b><u>Protective Factors</u></b>					
Attitudes	Prosocial Beliefs (Education & School Support)	Individual	School	Dichotomous	2
Skills	Problem-solving	Individual	Skills	Dichotomous	1
Positive Parental Involvement	Appropriate Parental Discipline	Family	Family	Dichotomous	1
Positive Parental Involvement	Close to Parents & Family	Family	Family	Dichotomous	1
Prosocial Peers	Close to Prosocial Peers	Peer	Community and Peers	Dichotomous	1
School Connectedness	School Connectedness	School	School	Dichotomous	1
Academics	High Academic	School	School	Dichotomous	2

	Achievement				
Caring Adult	Talks w/Teachers	Community	School	Dichotomous	1
Community Involvement	Involved in Extracurricular Activities	Community	Community and Peers	Dichotomous	1

# APPENDIX D

## DIAGRAM OF THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM



Source: The American Dictionary of Criminal Justice:  
Key Terms and Major Court Cases, Third Edition



## Section 2 Family

Check if family items do not apply to this client : ☐

1. Runaways or times kicked out of home: Include times the youth did not voluntarily return within 24 hours. Include incidents not reported by or to law enforcement. Enter 0 if none, up to a maximum of 5.

	Times kicked out/locked out
	Number of runaways

2. Has there ever been a family court finding of any child neglect (relating to a custodial parent): ☐ No ☐ Yes

3. Compliance with parental rules:

- ☐ Youth usually obeys and follows rules  
☐ Youth sometimes obeys or obeys some rules  
☐ Youth often disobeys rules  
☐ Youth consistently disobeys, and/or is hostile  
☐ No pro-social rules in place  
☐ Not Applicable

4. Circumstances of family members who are living in the household:  
 • Check all that apply.

	Mother	Father	Step-Parent	Sibling	Other
Non-applicable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
No problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alcohol/Drug Problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mental Health Problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
JD/Criminal Record	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
JD/Violent Criminal Record	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Historic problems of family members who lived in the environment in which the youth was primarily raised:  
 • Check all that apply.

	Mother	Father	Step-Parent	Sibling	Other
Non-applicable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
No problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alcohol/Drug Problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mental Health Problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
JD/Criminal Record	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
JD/Violent Criminal Record	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Youth's current living arrangements: • Check all that apply.

- |  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mother (biological or adoptive) | <input type="checkbox"/> Siblings        | <input type="checkbox"/> Foster/group home            |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Father (biological or adoptive) | <input type="checkbox"/> Other relatives | <input type="checkbox"/> Independent                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stepparent                      | <input type="checkbox"/> Other adult     | <input type="checkbox"/> No permanent address/shelter |
|  |  | <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____                  |

7. Parental/custodial supervision: Parents know whom youth is with, when youth will return, where youth is going, and what youth is doing.

- ☐ Good supervision  
☐ Some good supervision  
☐ Some inadequate supervision  
☐ Consistently inadequate supervision  
☐ Not Applicable

8. Appropriate consequences for bad behavior: Appropriate means clear communication, timely response, and response proportionate to conduct.

- ☐ Consistently appropriate consequences  
☐ Sometimes appropriate consequences  
☐ Usually not appropriate consequences  
☐ Never appropriate or no consequences  
☐ Not Applicable

9. Appropriate rewards for good behavior. Rewards include affection, praise, or other tangible means.
- ☐ Consistently appropriate rewards
  - ☐ Sometimes appropriate rewards
  - ☐ Usually not appropriate rewards
  - ☐ Never appropriate or no rewards
  - ☐ Not Applicable
10. Parental attitude toward youth's maladaptive behavior:
- ☐ Disapproves of youth's maladaptive behavior
  - ☐ Minimizes, denies, justifies, excuses maladaptive behavior, blames others/circumstances
  - ☐ Accepts youth's maladaptive behavior as okay
  - ☐ Proud of youth's maladaptive behavior
  - ☐ Not Applicable
11. Support network for family; extended family and friends who can provide additional support:
- ☐ Strong family support network
  - ☐ Some family support network
  - ☐ No family support network
  - ☐ Not Applicable
12. Family member(s) youth feels close to or has good relationship with:  
• Check all that apply.
- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mother/female caretaker | <input type="checkbox"/> Male sibling    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Father/male caretaker   | <input type="checkbox"/> Extended family |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Female sibling          | <input type="checkbox"/> No one          |
13. Family provides opportunities for youth to participate in family activities and decisions affecting the youth:
- ☐ Ongoing opportunities for involvement provided
  - ☐ Some opportunities for involvement provided
  - ☐ No opportunities for involvement provided
  - ☐ Not Applicable
14. Family provides opportunity for youth to learn, grow and succeed:
- ☐ Ongoing opportunities for growth provided
  - ☐ Some opportunities for growth provided
  - ☐ No opportunities for growth provided
  - ☐ Not Applicable
15. Parental love, caring, and support of youth:
- ☐ Consistent love, caring, and support
  - ☐ Inconsistent love, caring, and support
  - ☐ Indifferent, uncaring, uninterested, unwilling to help
  - ☐ Hostile toward youth, berated and belittled
  - ☐ Not Applicable
16. Level of conflict between parents, between youth and parents, and among siblings:  
• Check all that apply.
- ☐ No Conflict
  - ☐ Some conflict that is well managed
  - ☐ Some conflict that is distressing
  - ☐ Verbal intimidation, yelling, heated arguments
  - ☐ Threats of physical violence
  - ☐ Physical violence between parents
  - ☐ Physical violence between parents and children
  - ☐ Physical violence between siblings
  - ☐ Not Applicable

### Section 3 School

Check if School items do not apply to this client : ☐

▶ Complete this section based on information from the interview, school records, contacts with the school.

1. Youth's current school enrollment status, regardless of attendance: If the youth is in home school as a result of being expelled or dropping out, check the expelled or dropped out box, otherwise check enrolled if in home school.
 

<input type="radio"/> Graduated, GED	<input type="radio"/> Dropped out
<input type="radio"/> Enrolled full-time	<input type="radio"/> Suspended
<input type="radio"/> Enrolled part-time	<input type="radio"/> Expelled
	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
2. Youth's attendance in the last 3 months of school: Full-day absence means missing majority of classes. Partial-day absence means attending the majority of classes and missing the minority.
 

<input type="radio"/> Attends regularly (at least 90% of time)
<input type="radio"/> Some partial-day unexcused absences
<input type="radio"/> Some full-day unexcused absences
<input type="radio"/> Five or more full-day unexcused absences per quarter
<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
3. Youth's conduct in the last 3 months of school.
 

<input type="radio"/> Positive behavioral adjustment	<input type="radio"/> Intervention by school administration (calls to parents, principal or superintendent involvement, hearing)
<input type="radio"/> No problems reported	<input type="radio"/> Police reports filed by school
<input type="radio"/> Infractions reported	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
4. Youth's academic performance in the last 3 months of school:
 

<input type="radio"/> B+ or above	<input type="radio"/> Failing some classes
<input type="radio"/> C or better	<input type="radio"/> Failing most classes
<input type="radio"/> C- or lower	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
5. Youth's current school conduct:
 

<input type="radio"/> Consistent, stable	<input type="radio"/> Worsening
<input type="radio"/> Improving	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
6. Youth's current academic performance:
 

<input type="radio"/> Consistent, stable	<input type="radio"/> Worsening
<input type="radio"/> Improving	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
7. IF youth is a special education student or has been found to have a learning, behavioral, or other disability; or has a formal IEP: • Check all that apply
 

<input type="checkbox"/> No Special Education Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Mental Retardation
<input type="checkbox"/> Learning	<input type="checkbox"/> (ADHD / ADD)
<input type="checkbox"/> Behavioral	<input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____
8. Youth believes receiving an education is beneficial to him or her:
 

<input type="radio"/> Believes	<input type="radio"/> Does not believe
<input type="radio"/> Somewhat believes	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
9. Youth believes school provides a supportive and encouraging environment for him or her:
 

<input type="radio"/> Believes	<input type="radio"/> Does not believe
<input type="radio"/> Somewhat believes	<input type="radio"/> Not Applicable
10. Total number of out of school suspensions in the last 2 years: Enter the number up to 10, if none enter 0.
 

	Number of out-of-school suspensions
Total number of in-school suspensions in the last 2 years: Enter the number up to 10, if none enter 0.	Number of in-school suspensions
Total number of expulsions since the first grade: Enter the number up to 10; if none enter 0	Number of expulsions
11. Age at first expulsion: Enter 0 if never expelled.
 

	Age at first expulsion
--	------------------------



12. Youth's involvement in school activities during most recent school year: School leadership; social service clubs; music, dance; drama, art; athletics; other extracurricular activities.
13. Teachers/staff/coaches youth likes or feels comfortable talking with: Enter the number of adults; if none enter 0.

- ☐ Involved in two or more activities  
☐ Involved in one activity  
☐ Interested but not involved in any activities  
☐ No interest in school activities  
☐ Not Applicable

Names: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Number of teachers/staff/coaches

## Section 4 Community and Peers

1. Associates the youth spends his/her time with:  
 • Check all that apply.
2. Attachment to positively influencing peer(s):  
 • Check all that apply.
3. Admiration/emulation of high risk delinquent peers:  
 • Check all that apply.
4. Number of months youth has been associating with negatively influencing/delinquent friends/gang: Enter 0 if no delinquent friends/gangs.
5. Amount of free time youth spends with negatively influencing/delinquent peers:
6. Strength of negatively influencing/delinquent peer influence:  
 • Check all that apply.
7. Number of existing positive adult relationships in the community: Adults who provide support and model pro-social behavior, such as a religious leader, club member, community person, mentor, previous employer or any other non-family adult(s). Enter number of adults up to 5, if none enter 0. Exclude school-based relationships.
8. Pro-social community ties: Youth is involved in community organizations that provide explicit opportunities for learning pro-social behavior and attitudes (e.g., church, community service clubs, volunteer activities).

- ☐ Friends who have a positive pro-social influence  
☐ No friends or companions, no consistent friends  
☐ Friends who have a negative delinquent influence  
☐ Associates or has been seen with gang members  
☐ Family gang members  
☐ Youth is a gang member  
☐ None of the above
- ☐ Youth maintains contact with peers who are responsible and goal-focused  
☐ Youth admires or emulates older adolescents in school and/or work  
☐ Youth has a best friend who is supportive and a positive influence  
☐ None of the above
- ☐ Youth does not admire, emulate delinquent peers  
☐ Youth minimally admires, emulates peers  
☐ Youth admires, emulates peers  
☐ Youth is a delinquent leader who is admired or emulated by others

\_\_\_\_\_ Months has associated with delinquent friends  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Months has associated with gang

- ☐ No delinquent peers  
☐ Spends one or two hours of free time per week  
☐ Spends three to seven hours of free time per week  
☐ Spends eight to 14 hours of free time per week  
☐ Spends all or nearly all of free time

- ☐ No delinquent peers  
☐ Does not go along with delinquent peers  
☐ Sometimes goes along with delinquent peers  
☐ Usually goes along with delinquent peers  
☐ Leads delinquent peers

\_\_\_\_\_ Number of existing adult relationship(s) in the community

- ☐ Highly Involved  
☐ Involved  
☐ Not Involved

## Section 5 Alcohol and Drugs



*"Disrupts function" involves problems in any one of these four life areas: education, family conflict, peer relationships, or health (Disrupted functioning usually indicates that treatment is warranted – refer for further assessment by a qualified professional). Alcohol/Drugs contributes to behavior means that use typically precipitates the commission of crime or other reasons youth's delinquent/criminal activity is related to alcohol and/or drug use).*

1. Alcohol and Drug Use	Ever Used	Times used last 3 months	Disrupts function	Contributes to behavior	Age at 1 <sup>st</sup> use	Attempts to cut back
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes Alcohol/Drug Use						
<input type="checkbox"/> No Alcohol/Drug Use						
Alcohol	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Marijuana	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cocaine/crack	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ecstasy or other club drugs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Heroin	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hallucinogens (LSD, Acid)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Inhalants /huffing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Amphetamines (Speed)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prescription drug misuse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other: _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Youth is receptive to participation in alcohol/drug treatment:      ☐ N/A No problem      ☐ Receptive      ☐ Not Receptive

3. Previous alcohol/drug treatment:      ☐ N/A No problem      ☐ Yes      ☐ No

## Section 6 Mental Health



Any indications of the following 7 items indicate the need for further assessment by a qualified health professional. Indicators in item 1 should be confirmed by a health care professional.

### 1. Mental Health Problems:

- ☐ Mental Health Problems  
☐ No Mental Health Problems

	Diagnosed	Current Treatment	Past Treatment	Current Medication	Past Medication
Psychoses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bi-Polar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other Mood/Affective/Depression Disorders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Schizophrenia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Thought/Personality and Adjustment Disorders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other: _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(Exclude substance abuse and special education since those are considered elsewhere. Exclude oppositional defiant and conduct disorders).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. **Homicidal Ideation:** Attempts or has thoughts to seriously harm others.  
☐ No indications  
☐ Indications
3. **Suicidal Ideation:** Attempts or has thoughts to harm self.  
☐ No indications  
☐ Suicidal thoughts  
☐ Suicide attempt
4. **Sexual aggression:** Indications of aggressive sex, sex for power, sex with younger children, voyeurism, exposure, etc.  
☐ No indications  
☐ Indications



For abuse, include any history that is suspected, whether or not substantiated but exclude reports of abuse proven false.

5. **History of physical or sexual abuse:** Parents include biological parents, stepparents, adopted parents, and legal guardians.  
 • Check all that apply.

Abused By:	Parent	Sibling	Other Family	Outside Family
None	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical Abuse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual Abuse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. **Victimization:** Indications that the youth has been victimized by a peer or older person.  
 • Check all that apply.
- ☐ No indications  
☐ Sexual vulnerability/exploitation  
☐ Victim of bullying  
☐ Victim of physical assault  
☐ Victim of property theft/vandalization

## Section 7 Aggression

1. **Violence:** Indications of any of the following:  
• Check all that apply.
  - ☐ No reports of violence
  - ☐ Displaying a weapon
  - ☐ Use of a weapon (i.e., illegally)
  - ☐ Bullying/threatening people
  - ☐ Violent destruction of property
  - ☐ Assaultive behavior
  - ☐ Assault causing serious injury (requiring medical attention)
  - ☐ Deliberate fire starting
  - ☐ Animal cruelty
2. **Hostile interpretation of actions and intentions of others in a common non-confrontational setting:**
  - ☐ Can easily tolerate criticism or hostility directed by others
  - ☐ Shows constraint in dealing with conflict from others
  - ☐ Recognizes that most people do not have mal intentions
  - ☐ Frequently attributes hostile intentions to non-confrontational behavior
  - ☐ Attributes almost all neutral actions of people as hostile and antagonistic
3. **Tolerance for frustration:**
  - ☐ Never gets upset over small things or has tantrums
  - ☐ Rarely gets upset over small things or has tantrums
  - ☐ Sometimes gets upset over small things
  - ☐ Frequently gets upset over small things or has tantrums
  - ☐ Highly volatile with reputation for fits of anger and rage
4. **Belief in use of physical aggression to resolve a disagreement or conflict:** (e.g., fighting and physical intimidation)
  - ☐ Believes violence is rarely appropriate or necessary
  - ☐ Believes violence is sometimes appropriate or necessary
  - ☐ Believes violence is often appropriate or necessary
5. **Belief in use of verbal aggression to resolve a disagreement or conflict:** (e.g., yelling and verbal intimidation)
  - ☐ Believes verbal aggression is rarely appropriate or necessary
  - ☐ Believes verbal aggression is sometimes appropriate or necessary
  - ☐ Believes verbal aggression is often appropriate or necessary

## Section 8 Attitudes

1. **Accepts responsibility for delinquent/criminal behavior:**
  - ☐ Voluntarily accepts full responsibility for behavior
  - ☐ Recognizes that he or she must accept responsibility
  - ☐ Indicates some awareness of the need to accept responsibility
  - ☐ Minimizes, denies, justifies, excuses or blames others
  - ☐ Openly accepts or is proud of behavior as OK
2. **Understands the impact of his or her behavior on others:**
  - ☐ Fully understands the nature of harm caused to others
  - ☐ Indicates awareness that harm has been caused
  - ☐ Does not understand or fully appreciate effects on others
  - ☐ Minimizes or denies harm caused
  - ☐ Total lack of empathy for harm caused to others (e.g., callous)
3. **Willingness to make amends:**
  - ☐ Eagerly indicates plans for making amends
  - ☐ Indicates a desire to make amends
  - ☐ Willing to cooperate with making amends
  - ☐ Non-committal toward making amends
  - ☐ Unwilling to make amends
4. **Optimism:**
  - ☐ Is very confident that the future will be bright
  - ☐ Looks forward to the future with anticipation
  - ☐ Believes some things matter and he or she has a future
  - ☐ Believes little matters because he or she has no future
  - ☐ Believes nothing matters; fatalistic

5. Attitude when engaged in delinquent/criminal act(s):
  - ☐ Nervous, afraid, or worried
  - ☐ Uncertain, or indecisive
  - ☐ Unconcerned or indifferent
  - ☐ Hyper, excited, or stimulated
  - ☐ Confident, or brags
6. Law-abiding attitudes:
  - ☐ Clearly positive commitment toward law-abiding behavior
  - ☐ Expresses a desire to live in a law-abiding manner
  - ☐ Expresses neutral attitude toward law-abiding behavior
  - ☐ Feels law-abiding behavior does not apply to him or her
  - ☐ Openly admits unwillingness to demonstrate law-abiding behavior
7. Respect for authority figures:
  - ☐ Indicates respect for the role of authorities
  - ☐ Appreciates the role of authorities
  - ☐ Expresses neutral attitude toward authorities
  - ☐ Expresses resentment toward authorities
  - ☐ Views all authorities with contempt
8. Readiness for change: Is the youth willing to address issues that contribute to problem behavior?
  - ☐ Actively committed to working on change
  - ☐ Shows co-operation in taking steps toward positive behavioral change
  - ☐ Believes there may be a need to change
  - ☐ Exhibits only passive or no support for change
  - ☐ Hostile or unwilling to make positive behavioral change

## Section 9 Skills

1. Consequential thinking skills:
  - ☐ Acts to obtain good and avoid bad consequences
  - ☐ Can identify specific consequences of his/her actions
  - ☐ Understands there are good and bad consequences of actions
  - ☐ Sometimes confused about consequences of action
  - ☐ Does not understand there are consequences of actions
2. Social perspective-taking skills:
  - ☐ Can accept other points of view without necessarily agreeing
  - ☐ Tries to understand other points of view
  - ☐ Can reason there are two sides to a situation
  - ☐ Difficulty understanding there are other points of view
  - ☐ Unwilling to recognize there can be other points of view
3. Problem-solving skills:
  - ☐ Can apply appropriate solutions to problems
  - ☐ Can generate different solutions to problems
  - ☐ Can identify or describe problem behaviors or situations
  - ☐ Can sometimes identify problem behaviors or situations
  - ☐ Cannot identify when problem behaviors or situations occur
4. Impulse-control skills to avoid getting in trouble: Self-control techniques include reframing, replacing delinquent/criminal thoughts with pro-social thoughts, diversion, relaxation, problem solving, negotiation, relapse prevention.
  - ☐ Uses self-control techniques to avoid trouble
  - ☐ Knows some self-control techniques to respond to triggers
  - ☐ Can identify triggers (e.g., persons, events, situations, thoughts, emotions, physical cues)
  - ☐ Usually fails to identify triggers
  - ☐ Cannot identify triggers that cause problem behaviors
5. Loss of control over delinquent/criminal behavior:
  - ☐ Recognizes problem behavior is controllable and accepts full responsibility
  - ☐ Strives for some control over own behavior
  - ☐ Recognizes that some problem behavior is controllable
  - ☐ Believes that most problem behavior cannot be controlled
  - ☐ Believes problem behavior is completely out of his or her control



6. **Interpersonal skills:**
- ☐ Demonstrates social appeal through positive interpersonal skills
  - ☐ Can appropriately express needs and feelings in an assertive, non-confrontational way
  - ☐ Recognizes the need to nurture positive interpersonal relations with others
  - ☐ Has some difficulty in expressing needs and feelings effectively
  - ☐ Cannot express needs to others without an element of inter-personal conflict or lack of clarity
7. **Goal-setting skills:**
- ☐ Carefully sets out realistic goals and plans and takes active steps to achieve them
  - ☐ Demonstrates skills in developing realistic goals and plans
  - ☐ Recognizes the need to plan, but may set unrealistic plans
  - ☐ Lacks skills and motivation for developing realistic goals and plans
  - ☐ Exhibits no interest or desire to set goals and make plans for the future

## Section 10 Employment and Free Time

1. **History of employment:** (Exclude odd jobs or babysitting unless a regular paid job)
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Currently employed          | <input type="checkbox"/> Was fired or quit because of poor performance                                      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Never employed              | <input type="checkbox"/> Was fired or quit because he or she could not get along with employer or coworkers |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Prior successful employment |   |
- Check all that apply.



Complete following section only if the youth has ever been employed. Enter 0 for items 2-4 if the items are non-applicable.

2. **Total number of times youth has been employed:**  Number of times
3. **Number of weeks of longest period of employment:**  Number of weeks
4. **Positive personal relationship(s) with current employer(s) or adult coworker(s):**  Number of adults
5. **Structured recreational activities:** Youth participates in structured and supervised pro-social community activities such as religious group/church, community group, cultural group, club, athletics, or other community activity (Exclude activities already counted in the School section).
- ☐ Involved in two or more activities
  - ☐ Involved in one activity
  - ☐ Interested but not involved
  - ☐ Not interested in any activities
6. **Unstructured recreational activities:** Youth engages in positively influencing activities – may include reading, artwork, music, computers, hobbies, etc.
- ☐ Involved in two or more activities
  - ☐ Involved in one activity
  - ☐ Interested but not involved
  - ☐ Not interested in any activities
7. **Challenging/exciting hobbies/activities:** Youth identifies a hobby or activity that is or could be especially challenging, intense, or exciting.
- ☐ Identifies hobby(s) or activity (s) that are currently challenging/exciting
  - ☐ Can identify hobby(s) or activity (s) that would be challenging/exciting
  - ☐ Cannot identify hobby(s) or activity (s) that would be challenging/exciting
8. **Decline in interest in positive leisure pursuits:** Decline in interest during the past year due to involvement in negatively influencing activities (e.g., substance abuse, gang involvement, delinquent peer groups, illegal activity):
- ☐ No change, or never experienced positive leisure pursuits
  - ☐ Decline in interest in positive leisure pursuits
  - ☐ Recent increase in interest in positive leisure pursuits

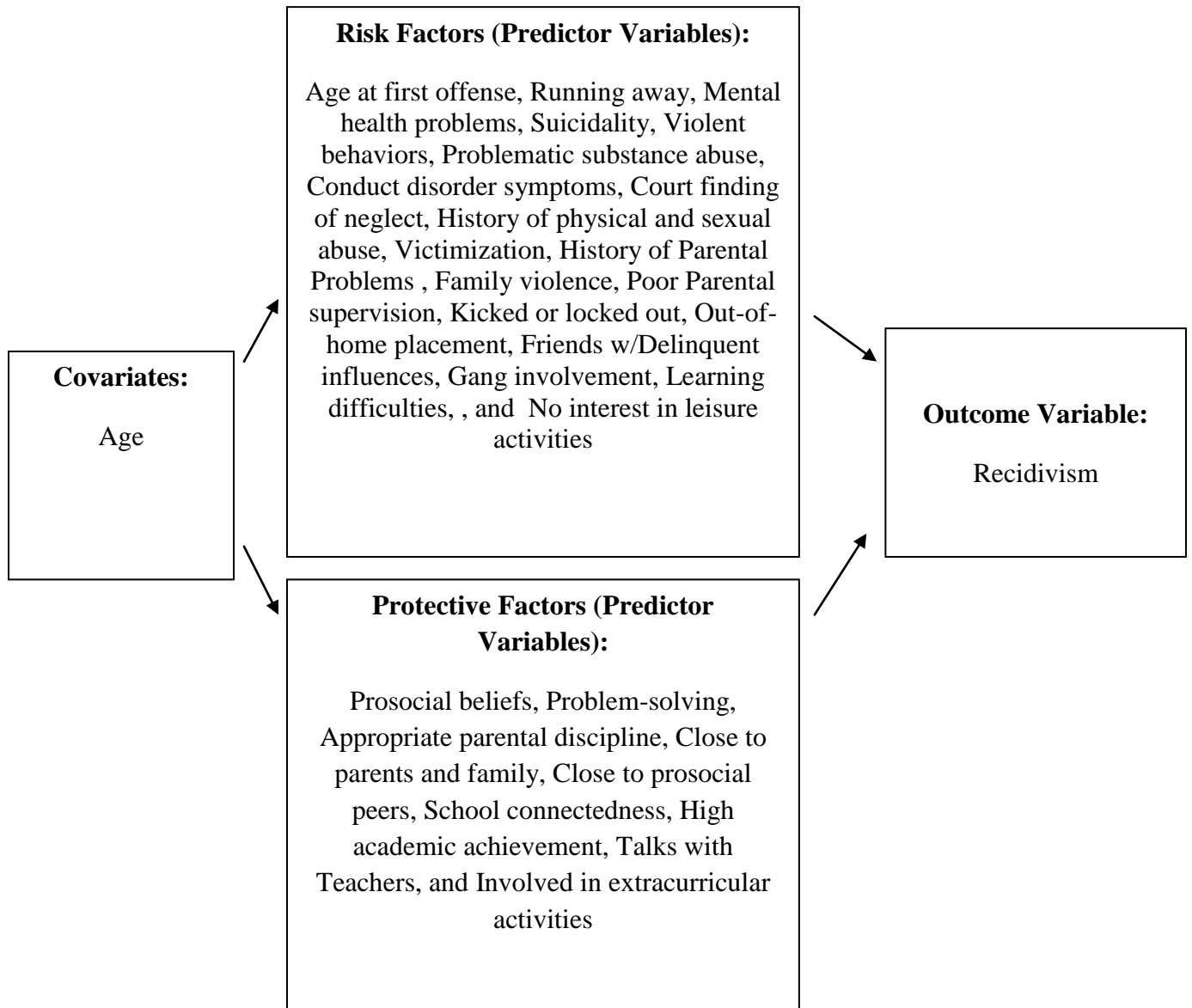
## FIGURES

Figure I – Risk and Protective Factors for Delinquency or Violence

Risk Factors	Protective Factors
<i>Individual</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Antisocial behavior and alienation</li> <li>• Gun possession/ illegal gun ownership/ carrying</li> <li>• Teen parenthood</li> <li>• Favorable attitudes toward drug use/ early onset</li> <li>• Early onset of aggression/ violence</li> <li>• Cognitive and neurological deficits/ low intelligence quotient/ hyperactive</li> <li>• Victimization and exposure to violence</li> <li>• Lack of guilt and empathy</li> <li>• Poor refusal skills</li> <li>• Chronic medical/ physical condition</li> <li>• Life stressors</li> <li>• Early sexual involvement</li> <li>• Mental disorder/ mental health problem/ conduct disorder</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Positive/resilient temperament</li> <li>• Religiosity/valuing involvement in organized religious activities</li> <li>• Social competencies and problem-solving skills</li> <li>• Perception of social support from adults and peers</li> <li>• Self-efficacy</li> <li>• Positive exceptions/ optimism for the future</li> <li>• High expectations</li> </ul>
<i>Family</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Family history of the problem behavior</li> <li>• Family management problems/ poor parental supervision and/or mentoring</li> <li>• Poor family attachment/ bonding</li> <li>• Child victimization and maltreatment</li> <li>• Pattern of high family conflict</li> <li>• Family violence</li> <li>• Having a young mother</li> <li>• Broken home</li> <li>• Sibling antisocial behavior</li> <li>• Family transitions</li> <li>• Parental use of physical punishment</li> <li>• Harsh and/or erratic discipline practices</li> <li>• Low parent education level literacy</li> <li>• Maternal depression</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Good relationships with parents/bonding or attachment to family</li> <li>• Effective parenting</li> <li>• Opportunities for pro-social family involvement</li> <li>• Rewards for pro-social family involvement</li> <li>• Having a stable family</li> <li>• High expectations</li> </ul>
<i>School</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low academic achievement</li> <li>• Negative attitude toward school/low binding/ low school attachment/ commitment to school</li> <li>• Truancies/ frequent absences</li> <li>• Suspension</li> <li>• Dropping out of school</li> <li>• Inadequate school climate/ poorly organized and functioning schools/ negative labeling by teachers</li> <li>• Identified as learning disabled</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong school motivation/ positive attitude toward school</li> <li>• Student bonding (attachment to teachers, belief, commitment)</li> <li>• Above average academic achievement/ reading ability and mathematics skills</li> <li>• Opportunities for prosocial school involvement</li> <li>• Rewards for prosocial school involvement</li> <li>• High quality schools/ clear standards and rules</li> <li>• High expectations of students</li> <li>• Presence and involvement of caring, supportive adults</li> </ul>
<i>Peer</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gang involvement/ gang membership</li> <li>• Peer alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use</li> <li>• Association with delinquent/ aggressive peers</li> <li>• Peer rejection</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Involvement with positive peer group activities and norms</li> <li>• Good relationships with peers</li> <li>• Parental approval of friends</li> </ul>
<i>Community</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Availability/ use of alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs in neighborhood</li> <li>• Availability of firearms</li> <li>• High crime neighborhood</li> <li>• Community instability</li> <li>• Low community attachment</li> <li>• Economic deprivation/ poverty/ residence in disadvantaged neighborhood</li> <li>• Feeling unsafe in neighborhood</li> <li>• Social and physical disorder/ disorganized neighborhood</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Non-disadvantaged neighborhood</li> <li>• Safe environment/low neighborhood crime</li> <li>• Rewards for pro-social community involvement</li> <li>• Clear social norms/ policies with sanctions for violations and rewards for compliance</li> <li>• Pro-social opportunities/ opportunities for participation/ availability of neighborhood resources</li> <li>• High expectations</li> <li>• Presence and involvement of caring, supportive adults</li> </ul>



Figure II – Risk and Protective Factors and Recidivism



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- Wolf, A. M. & Kempf-Leonard, K. (2009). Gender issues in juvenile justice and criminal justice. *Crime & Delinquency*, 55(2), 167-170.
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- Zahn, M. (2009). *The Delinquent Girl*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.
- Zahn, M., Agnew, R., Boone, A. (2009). "Introduction." pp. 1-6 in *The Delinquent Girl* edited by Margaret A. Zahn. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

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- Zhang, A. Katsiyannis, A., Barrett, D. E., & Wilson, V. (2007). Truancy offenders in the juvenile justice system: Examinations of first and second referrals. *Remedial and Special Education*, 28(4), 244-256.
- Zimring, Franklin (1998). *American youth violence*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Zingraff, M. T., Leiter, J., Johnsen, M. C., & Myers, K. A. (1994). The mediating effect of good school performance on the maltreatment-delinquency relationship. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 31(1), 62-91.
- Zoccolillo, M. (1993). Gender and the development of conduct disorder. *Development and Psychopathology* 5, 65-97
- Zoccolillo, M., & Rogers, K. (1991). Characteristics and outcome of hospitalized adolescent girls with conduct disorder. *Journal of American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 30, 973-981.

## VITA

**Camille Renee' Quinn, AM, LCSW**

**EDUCATION**

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- 2014     **PhD in Social Work**, Jane Addams College of Social Work  
University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL  
Dissertation Title: *Exploring Gender Differences Juvenile Offenders:  
Understanding Girls on Probation.*  
Dissertation Committee: Sonya J. Leathers, PhD (Chair); James Gleeson, PhD;  
Patricia O'Brien, PhD; Dexter Voisin, PhD; Miquel Lewis, PsyD
- 1998     **Master of Arts in Social Service Administration & Certificate in Health  
Administration & Policy**, School of Social Service Administration  
University of Chicago, Chicago, IL  
Specialization: Administration; Concentration: Policy Analysis & Program  
Evaluation  
Thesis Title: *Erie Family Health Center: An Evaluative Look*
- 1992     **Bachelor of Science**, School of Social and Behavioral Sciences  
University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL  
Majors: Psychology & Interdisciplinary Studies  
Minors: Political Science

**AREAS OF SPECIALIZATION**

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Suicide Prevention and Intervention; Well-being of Adolescent Females; Juvenile Delinquency;  
Public Health Disparities Intervention Research; Community-based Mental Health (violence and  
trauma prevention); Social Justice; Intersections of Race, Gender and Class; Leadership  
Development and Management in Non-profit Organizations

**TEACHING INTERESTS**

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Mental Health with Children and Adolescents; Suicide Prevention; Health Policy; Social Work  
Practice; Juvenile Delinquency; Social Justice and Human Diversity; Race, Class, Gender &  
Crime; Organizational Management

**ACADEMIC POSITIONS**

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- 2014     **Coder**. Institute for Health Research and Policy, We Choose Evaluation,  
University of Illinois at Chicago.
- 2013     **Adjunct Professor**. Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois  
at Chicago. *Practice III – Practice with Children and Families. Faculty Liaison &  
Supervisor-Dr. Sally Mason*
- 2010-2013     **Coordinator**. Department of Psychiatry, Institute for Juvenile Research, College  
of Medicine, University of Illinois at Chicago.
- 2010     **Field Work Liaison**. Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois  
at Chicago.

- 2009      **Adjunct Professor.** Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago. *Practice II: Generalist Practice with Task Groups, Organizations & Communities. Faculty Liaison & Supervisor-Dr. Patricia O'Brien*
- 2007, 2008-09 **Research Assistant** for James Gleeson, PhD, Co-Parenting Feasibility Study, funded by the Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago.
- 2006      **Research Assistant** for Susan D. Phillips, PhD, funded by the Jane Addams College of Social Work at the University of Illinois at Chicago.
- 2003      **Adjunct Professor.** Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago. *Practice I: Generalist Practice with Individuals, Families and Groups. Faculty Liaison & Supervisor-Dr. Jerry Cates*
- 2000      **Adjunct Professor.** Public Administration Department, California State University at Dominguez Hills. *Health Policy*

#### **RESEARCH EXPERIENCE**

---

- 2010      **Researcher** for Deborah Gorman-Smith, PhD, Families and Community Research Group, Chapin Hall at the University of Chicago.
- 2009      **Field Researcher** for Patrick Tolan, PhD, The Children, Schools, Families and Education (SAFE Children) study at the Institute for Juvenile Research, University of Illinois at Chicago, funded by the National Institute on Drug Abuse.
- 2004-2005      **Research Consultant** for Elizabeth Calhoun, PhD, Patient navigation in a faith-based setting: Using focus groups to assess program success funded by the Centers for Disease Control & Prevention at the University of Illinois at Chicago & Northwestern University.
- 1997-1998      **Research Assistant** for Greg Wozniak, PhD, Health Policy Division of the American Medical Association.
- 1995-1996      **Research Assistant** for Kristi Raube, PhD, Chicago Healthy Start Initiative (CHSI) Evaluation Study funded by the Illinois Department of Public Health at the Center for Health Administration Studies at the University of Chicago.

#### **GRANTS & FELLOWSHIPS (SELECTED)**

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- 2013      Robert Wood Johnson Foundation New Connections Seventh Annual Symposium Participant, \$600  
Competitive application to attend summer symposium (6/12-14/13)  
Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, *Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey*

- 2013 Justice Involved Women Conference Participant (6/20-21/13)  
Susan B. Anthony Center for Women's Leadership Travel Grant for the first Annual Meeting, *University of Rochester, Rochester, NY*
- 2013 Injury Control Research Center for Suicide (ICRC-S) Prevention Research Training Institute (RTI) Researcher  
Competitive application to attend week-long summer institute (5/20-24/13)  
Centers for Disease Control, *University of Rochester, Rochester, NY*
- 2013 New England Science Symposium Peer Reviewed Poster Presenter, \$275  
University of Illinois at Chicago Graduate Student Council Travel Grant for the Annual Meeting, *Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA*
- 2010 Youth Violence Prevention Summer Research Institute Fellow  
Competitive fellowship to attend week-long summer institute (8/1-6/10)  
Centers for Disease Control, *University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley, CA*
- 2009-2013 Diversifying Faculty in Illinois Fellowship  
4 years, full funding, competitive, merit based fellowship, \$49,800  
Graduate College, *University of Illinois at Chicago & Illinois Board of Higher Education*
- 2010 UIC Student Research Forum, 2<sup>nd</sup> Place Award, \$250  
Adolescent Well Being and Perceptions of Father Involvement, *University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL*
- 2009 Minority Fellowship Program (Honorable Mention), *Council on Social Work Education, Alexandria, VA*
- 2008 Council on Social Work Education Peer Reviewed Presenter, \$600  
Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago Travel Grant for the Annual Program Meeting, *Philadelphia, PA*
- 2007 & 2008 Albert Schweitzer Fellowship Peer Reviewed Presenter  
Fellows for Life Travel Grant for the Fellows for Life Second Annual Conference, National Program Office, *Boston, MA*
- 2006 Jane Addams Substance Abuse Research Collaboration Minority Fellowship  
1 year competitive, merit based fellowship, \$8000  
Jane Addams College of Social Work, *University of Illinois at Chicago*

## PEER REVIEWER

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- 2010-2013 **Grant Reviewer**, Justice and Mental Health Collaboration Program, Bureau of Justice Assistance, Office of Justice Programs Planning & Implementation Program

## **PUBLICATIONS**

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**Quinn, C. R.** (2007). Review of the book. Children in Change: A Group Curriculum for Kids Ages 8-14 Who Are Experiencing Family Change. *Perspectives on Social Work*. 6(1), pp. 30-32.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2005). The Media and the Future of Young Black Girls: A Call to Action for Black America. Trinity United Church of Christ Trumpet Magazine.

### ***Technical Reports***

Raube, K., Manley, T., Merrell, K. & **Quinn, C. R.** (1995). Evaluation of the Chicago Healthy Start Initiative: Quarterly Report for the Illinois Department of Public Health. Center for Health Administration Studies, The University of Chicago.

### ***Manuscripts Under Review***

**Quinn, C. R.** & Grumbach, G. (revise and resubmit). Critical Race Theory and the Limits of Relational Theory in Social Work with Women. Submitted to the Journal of Ethnic & Cultural Diversity in Social Work.

Alleyne-Green, B., Grinnel-Davis, C., **Quinn, C. R.**, & Cryer, Q. (under review). Father Involvement, Dating Violence, and Sexual Risk Behaviors among a National Sample of Adolescent Females. Submitted to the *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*.

### ***In Preparation***

**Quinn, C. R.** (To be submitted April 2014). General Considerations for Research with Vulnerable Populations: Survival Tips for the Approval Process. Submitted to the *Journal of Social Work Education*.

**Quinn, C. R.**, & Cerulli, C. (To be submitted June 2014). Social Control, Racial Differences & Similarities in Factors Related to Girls' Arrests and Suicidal Behavior.

McCoy, H., & **Quinn, C. R.** (To be submitted August 2014). The Impact of College Education on African American Racial Identity.

## **AWARDS/HONORS (SELECTED)**

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2013      Alice J. Dan Dissertation Research Award  
Competitive, merit based award, \$500  
Center for Research on Women and Gender, *University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL*

2012-Present      Provost Award for Graduate Research  
1 year dissertation funding, competitive, merit based award, \$1000  
Recognition for Outstanding Graduate Researchers, *University of Illinois at*

*Chicago, Chicago, IL*

- 2012-Present Virtual Mentoring Network to Enhance Diversity (VMED) of the Mental Health Research Workforce Scholar  
National Institute of Mental Health Grant No.1U24MH094284-01, *University of Rochester, Rochester, NY*
- 2009 Honorable Mention, Minority Fellowship Program, *Council on Social Work Education*
- 2007-2008 Illinois General Assembly Scholarship, \$10,000  
*Illinois State Representative Kenneth Dunkin*
- 2000 National Finalist, White House Fellowship, *United States of America*

**CONFERENCES**

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McClain-Davison, D., Hardy, K., Smith, R., & **Quinn, C. R.** "For Colored Girls' Who Want to Be Scholars: An Accountability Circle." Presented at the Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education. Dallas, TX, November 3, 2013.

**Quinn, C. R.**, Miller, J. W., Garcia-Williams, A., Polanco-Frontera, Y., & Stone, D. "The state of juvenile suicide in detention: Understanding the needs of a vulnerable population". Panel presentation at the American Association of Suicidology annual meeting. Austin, TX, April 27, 2013.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2013). Predicting Adolescent Substance Use: The Role of Involvement in Criminal Activity. Poster presented at the 12<sup>th</sup> Annual New England Science Symposium at Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA.

**Quinn, C. R.** "Social Control, Racial Differences & Similarities in Factors Related to Girls' Arrests". Paper presented at the American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting, Chicago, IL, November 16, 2012.

Abdul-Adil, J., Greene, M., Ingram, D., Farmer, D., Crain, H., Skerrett, K., & **Quinn, C. R.** (2012). Behavior Problems, Police Contacts...But Promising Outcomes: Disruptive Behavior Clinic. Poster presented at the 84<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.

**Quinn, C. R.** & Cryer, Q. "Exploring Adolescent Well-Being and Father Involvement. Fathering Urban". Paper presented at the Fathering Urban Youth: The Role of Fathers in Adolescent Well-Being sponsored by the Center for the Study of Race, Politics and Culture and the Family Planning and Contraceptive Research at the University of Chicago. Chicago, IL, May 6, 2010.

**Quinn, C. R.** "Understanding Female Adolescent Delinquency." Presented at the American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting, Philadelphia, PA, November 13, 2009.



**Quinn, C. R. & Baldwin, M.** Gender Specific Treatment of Institutionalized Girls and Responsible Social Work Practice.” Presented at the Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education. Philadelphia, PA, October 11, 2008.

**Quinn, C. R. & Kennedy, S.** “Educational Attainment of Institutionalized Girls: Incorporating Gender Specific Treatment.” Presented at the First Annual Albert Schweitzer Fellowship Fellows for Life Conference, Boston, MA, October 4, 2008.

### **SPEAKING ENGAGEMENTS (SELECTED)**

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**Quinn, C. R.** (2013, October). Jane Addams College of Social Work Doctoral Brown Bag Session. Networking 101.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2011, April). Schweitzer Annual event. Health & Medicine Policy Research Group. Selected to Introduce the 2011 keynote speaker  
Interim Chief Executive Officer at Cook County Health and Hospital System & Chief Medical Officer at Cook County Health and Hospital System, Terry Mason, M.D.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2006-08, July). Careers in Nonprofit Management. James S. Kemper Foundation, Kemper Scholars Program, Chicago, IL.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2005, January). Realizing the Dream by Promoting Social Justice. School of Social Service Administration Annual Martin Luther King Day Program, The University of Chicago, Chicago, IL.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2004, November). Preparing for a Lifetime of Service: The Schweitzer Experience. Chicago Area Schweitzer Fellowship Program Annual Meeting, Health and Medicine Policy Research Group, Chicago, IL.

**Quinn, C. R.** (2003, September). Life after SSA. Career Day Program, School of Social Service Administration Alumni Panel, The University of Chicago, Chicago, IL.

McCoy, H. & **Quinn, C. R.** (2002, August). All Day Institute: Children & Families Traumatized by Violence. Catholic Charities USA Children, Youth & Family Services Section, Chicago, IL

**Quinn, C. R.** (2000, September). Careers in Healthcare. Career Day Program, Kaiser Permanente, Pasadena, CA

### **PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE (SELECTED)**

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2008-2009     **SASS (Screening Assessment, and Support Services) Crisis Worker.** Ada S. McKinley Family Services, Chicago, IL

2006-2008     **Senior Program Director.** Pilsen Workforce Development Center, National Able Network, Chicago, IL

- 2005-2006     **Senior Project Director.** Service Connector Program, National Able Network, Chicago, IL
- 2005           **Senior Director.** Service Connector Program, Jane Addams Hull House Association, Chicago, IL
- 2002-2004     **Director.** First Aid Care Team Program, Jane Addams Hull House Association, Chicago, IL
- 2002           **Clinical Supervisor.** Eden Program, Shields for Families Project, Inc., Los Angeles, CA
- 2001-2002     **Clinical Supervisor/Therapist.** Eden Program, Shields for Families Project, Inc., Los Angeles, CA
- 2001           **Project Manager II.** Claims Administration, Kaiser Permanente, California Division, Pasadena, CA
- 2000           **Project Manager/Documents Management Systems Administrator.** Kaiser Permanente, California Division, Bellflower, CA
- 1998-2000     **Administrative Fellow.** Kaiser Permanente, California Division

#### **OTHER RELATED EXPERIENCE (SELECTED)**

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- 2010           **Parent Group Facilitator.** *Chicago Youth Centers, Chicago, IL*
- 2005-2009     **Tutor/Mentor/Therapist.** *Couples Mentoring Youth & Family Services, LLC, Olympia Fields, IL*
- 2008           **Consultant/Audit Specialist.** *Goodwill Industries, Inc., Chicago, IL*
- 2004-2005     **Independent Therapist.** *Synergy Counseling Center at Trinity United Community Health Corporation, Chicago, IL*
- 1996-1997     **Policy Intern.** *Health & Medicine Policy Research Group, Chicago, IL*

#### **PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS**

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**Member**, National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity, 2011 – Present  
**Ad-Hoc Member**, Suicide Research Study Group, Emerging Scholars Interdisciplinary Network, 2010-Present; **Member**, Emerging Scholars Interdisciplinary Network, 2009 – Present  
**Member**, Society of Social Work Research, 2008 – 2009, 2012 – 2013

#### **LICENSE AND CREDENTIAL**

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Licensed Clinical Social Worker, Illinois, 149013596