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Adolescent Protective Factor Attainment: An Exploratory Study of Two Select Populations

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ADOLESCENT PROTECTIVE FACTOR ATTAINMENT: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF TWO SELECT POPULATIONS

by

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ABSTRACT

Adolescent Protective Factor Attainment: An Exploratory Study of Two Select Populations

by

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Eighty-four adolescents responded to the survey administered for this study. Thirty-eight members were from the nonadjudicated community sample (e.g., from a semirural Utah community); 46 members of a juvenile court adjudicated group (e.g., juveniles from Cache County, Utah, who were currently on probation) also responded to a paper-pencil survey asking about protective/deficit factors and involvement in problematic behaviors.

Results illustrate the differences in levels of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors attained between these two convenience samples for a number of variables. The findings showed that the nonadjudicated group consistently reported higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors than did the adjudicated group.

The nonadjudicated group showed some interesting differences and similarities for each of the specific protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors when compared to the adjudicated group. Few differences in the attainment of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors were found within the samples by gender.

Parents' current marital status as intact (e.g., both natural parents were married to each other) showed a consistent relationship to an adolescent's status as either a member of the adjudicated or the nonadjudicated groups. Similarly, parents' current marital status showed a correlation to protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors exhibited in youth.

Religious affiliation also illustrated important relationships between the two samples. The findings showed that the Latter-day Saint (LDS) or Mormon nonadjudicated sample had attained statistically significantly higher amounts of protective factors and statistically significantly lower amounts of problem behaviors. Similarly, a comparison of the Mormon adjudicated and the non-Mormon adjudicated groups revealed that the Mormons in the adjudicated group had attained statistically significantly lower amounts of problem behaviors but not statistically significantly higher amounts of protective factors.

Adolescents in both samples were similar in their choices to take a problem to an older sibling, an adult friend, or a grandparent. The nonadjudicated sample was statistically significantly different than the adjudicated sample in reporting their choices to take a problem to a parent/stepparent or a religious leader/teacher.

(113 pages)

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Victor W. Harris

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem

Teen pregnancy, early sexual experience, sexually transmitted diseases, substance abuse, antisocial behavior, violence, eating disorders, depression, suicide, and school failure are some of the critical high-risk issues that are impacting today's adolescents (Benson, Galbraith, & Espeland, 1995). According to Benson (1997), a society can measure how healthy it is by monitoring how well it cares for its youngest generation. He argues that our society is not paying as much attention as it should to our youngest generation and, therefore, we are failing.

In response to the problems affecting today's adolescents, researchers are continually exploring new alternatives toward integrating theory and research into prevention and intervention programs that will benefit high risk adolescents and their families (Dumka, Roosa, Michaels, & Suh, 1995; Luster & Small, 1994; Patterson, 1986). The Search Institute, led by Dr. Peter Benson, is one such important research approach targeted at identifying and developing critical adolescent assets which can help prevent high-risk behaviors (Benson et al., 1995). Benson (1997) believes that the communities in which children live must build the infrastructures that will meet their needs and provide the positive building blocks of human development. In such communities, according to Benson (1997), young people experience

> ...daily support and care provided by one or more involved, loving parents or other caregivers; sustained relationships with several non-parent adults in the community; a neighborhood where everyone knows, protects, listens to, and gets involved with the young; opportunities to participate in developmentally responsive and enticing clubs, teams, and organizations led by principled, responsible, and trained adults; access to child-friendly public places; daily affirmation and encouragement; intergenerational relationships, in which children and teenagers bond with adults of many ages and in which teenagers bond with younger children; a stake in community life made concrete through useful roles for opportunity and involvement; boundaries, values, and high expectations consistently articulated, modeled, and reinforced across multiple socializing systems; peer groups motivated to achieve and contribute; caring schools, congregations, youth-serving organizations, and other institutions; and, opportunities for frequent acts of service to others. (pp. 1-2)

Rationale

The asset approach to understanding adolescent development can be an effective tool in assessing and understanding adolescent development (Benson, 1997). However, because it is limited in its scope and intervention possibilities, researchers must continue to improve existing tools as well as continue to search for new tools and methods that can guide young people and their parents toward positive change, more functional interactions, and healthier relationships.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws heavily upon human ecology theory. Human ecology theory was primarily developed during the nineteenth century. It was spearheaded by a German zoologist, named Ernest Haeckel, who is credited for the invention of the word "ecology" (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). Human ecology theory has been greatly

influenced by such disciplines as sociology, geography, psychology, political science, economics, and general systems theory (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993).

Major assumptions of this theory, according to Schvaneveldt (1997), are that the

> (1) social and physical environments are interdependent and influence behavior; (2) environment is a course of available resources; and (3) family members can choose, design, or modify resources and environment to improve life and well-being. (p. 2)

Specifically, from this theoretical perspective, the family is housed within an ecosystem that interacts with the human built, the social-cultural, and natural physical-biological environments (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). Additionally, human ecology theory focuses on adaptation and learning processes that both allow humans to adapt to changing environmental structures as well as to modify these structures in accordance with their needs and values.

"Values," according to Bubolz and Sontag (1993), "are human conceptions of what is good, right, and worthwhile" (p. 435). "Needs" are the requirements both individuals and families have "that must be met at some level if they are to survive and engage in adaptive behavior" (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993, p. 435). These include physiological, social, emotional, and behavioral needs, all of which are influenced by the human built, the social-cultural, and the natural physical-biological environmental ecosystems.

Coplen and MacArthur (1982) have attempted to identify at least eight of the needs that shape individuals, families, and their environments. They are the need to feel safe, to feel as though we belong, to develop a sense of personal identity, to have

close real love relationships, to receive respect, to feel worthwhile, to feel capable (competent), and to experience growth.

In sum, human ecology theory focuses on the interdependence and interaction of individuals, families, and their environments within the context of available resources, choice, adaptation, and learning. Similarly, it also focuses on the underlying values and needs which shape human behavior and motivate humans to modify both their resources and environments in order to improve life and subsequent well-being.

Conceptual Framework

The purpose of the asset approach is to empower families and individuals with some powerful ideas for positive change (Benson et al., 1995). Benson et al. found in their asset research that adolescents who exhibit positive, thriving behaviors possess what they call "developmental assets."

Recent research by the Search Institute, in an attempt to more fully understand the variables that impact adolescent development, has expanded the developmental assets from 30 to 40 (see Appendix A, Figures 1 and 2). The Search Institute retained many of the previous assets and split the others into twenty new assets. Similarly, according to the Search Institute (1995), a few of the previous assets have also been combined in order to keep the list size manageable. In addition, they have also expanded the original six general asset categories into eight categories in an attempt to recognize the community's responsibility for and impact on the healthy development of adolescents as well as to aid in the understanding of the unique needs of adolescents in urban areas.

Using the 40 assets, the Search Institute (1997) reported that, on the average, youth possess 18 of the important assets. Similarly, the Institute reported that younger youth possess a higher number of assets than older youth and that girls have a higher number of overall assets than boys (i.e., 19.5 versus 16.5 assets, respectively). In addition, the Search Institute (1997) reported that only 8% of the youth surveyed attained 31-40 assets, while 30% attained 21-30 assets, 42% attained 11-20 assets, and 20% attained 0-10 assets.

According to Benson et al. (1995), a young person who possesses a high number of these positive assets is at lower risk for deviance. Benson (1997) conceded, however, that the average adolescent possesses only about half of these assets regardless of ethnicity, town size, or region.

In contrast to these developmental assets, Benson et al. (1995) offered 10 roadblocks to success they call "developmental deficits" (Appendix A, Figure 3). They are as follows:

> (1) spending two or more hours a day alone at home without an adult; (2) putting a lot of emphasis on selfish values; (3) watching more than three hours of television a day; (4) going to parties where friends will be drinking alcohol; (5) feeling stress or pressure most of the time; (6) being physically abused as a child; (7) being sexually abused; (8) having a parent who has a problem with alcohol or drugs; (9) feeling socially isolated from people who provide care, support, and understanding; and, (10) having a lot of close friends who often get into trouble. (p. 145)

These developmental deficits have an inverse relationship with the assets (i.e., the more deficits a child develops, the less likely it is that higher amounts of assets will be attained). Therefore, these adolescents are at greater risk of making poor decisions and

destructive choices. Adolescents who possess one or more of these developmental deficits are important targets for early intervention.

There is a need to better understand what type of protective and risk factors are present in the lives of adolescents before community programs can be devised to reduce the existing problems. In addition, the amount of risk taking or problem behaviors needs to be understood. This study provides an analysis of data from two different select sample populations of adolescent youth and compares the self-reported protective and risk factors present in their lives. The youth were also queried on the number of problematic behaviors they were involved in.

Definitions

Important concepts and constructs are variously defined by researchers. Therefore, for this study, the salient concepts and constructs are defined as follows:

1. Adolescent: A person in the developmental period between approximately the sixth and twelfth grades (i.e., from the onset of puberty to age 18).

2. Protective and Deficit Factors: Resources and building blocks of social and emotional development (similar to Benson's [1997] developmental assets and deficits). The protective factors (i.e., positive resources and building blocks of social and emotional development) are found on one end of the continuum while the deficit factors (i.e., negative resources and the lack of building blocks of social and emotional development) are found on the other end of the continuum.

3. Problem Behaviors: Behaviors that violate the law or social norms.

Research Goals/Objectives/Questions

The goal of this study was to obtain baseline data from youth regarding protective/deficit factor and problem behavior attainment in their emotional development using an instrument developed by Jenson and Lee (1997). The following questions regarding protective/deficit factor and problem behavior attainment were addressed:

1. Is there a difference in the protective/deficit factors attained or problem behaviors for each sample of youth?

2. Which protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors are youth most and least likely to possess within the two samples?

3. Do any gender differences in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors exist within the samples?

4. Is the youth's status as a member of the adjudicated or the nonadjudicated group independent of the parents' current marital status?

5. Is there a relationship between parents' current marital status and youth protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors?

6. Does religious affiliation make a difference in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors?

7. To whom is an adolescent most likely to take a problem?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Changes in Adolescent Risk Behaviors

In 1988, the Fullerton, California, police department, in conjunction with the California Department of Education, released the results of an insightful study. This study revealed that in 1940 the most common delinquencies among teenagers were talking out of turn, chewing gum in school, making noise in class, running in the halls, and getting out of line. By 1988, the delinquent behaviors had escalated to drug abuse, alcohol abuse, teen pregnancy, teen suicide, and rape (Latham, 1994).

Similarly, according to William J. Bennett (1993), the former U.S. secretary of education, violent crime has increased 560% since 1960. Popenoe's (1996) research found that the past three decades have witnessed a sharp increase in the percentage of teenagers who are sexually active. He reported that in the 1950s, approximately 27% of the girls had been sexually active by the age of 18 (no information was available for the boys) while in 1988, 56% of the girls and 72% of the boys were sexually active. Popenoe (1996) also reported that the largest increase in sexual activity from 1970 (4.6%) to 1988 (25.6%) occurred among the 15-year-old girls.

Luster and Small's (1994) research has identified some of the more salient factors associated with sexually active adolescents as sexual risk takers. For females, low GPA, frequent alcohol consumption, low levels of parental monitoring, and a lack of communication about birth control with mothers were significant factors in sexual risk

taking. For males, low GPA, frequent alcohol consumption, suicidal ideations, low levels of parental support, and a history of sexual abuse were important factors in sexual risk taking.

Each of these findings evidences some significant changes in adolescent high-risk behaviors within the past few decades. Changing family structures (Gunnell, 1995) and roles, as well as the exploration of family resiliency may provide some plausible possibilities for such changes.

Changing Family Structures and Roles

The structure of the family has changed dramatically within the past 30 years. For example, Blankenhorn (1995) reported that in 1960, 80.6% of the U.S. children were living in a home with both father and mother, while in 1990, only 57.7% of the U.S. children were living within a two-parent household. Moreover, in 1960, 7.7% of the children in the U.S. lived with a single mother, while in 1990, 21.6% of the U.S. children lived within a single-mother household. With regard to these mother-only arrangements, in 1960, 3.9% were never married, 24.7% were divorced, 46.8% were separated, and 24.7% were widowed. In 1990, 31.5% of these mother-only child-parent arrangements were due to the mother never being married, while 36.9% were due to divorce, 24.6% were due to separation, and only 7% were due to widowhood.

Blankenhorn (1995) further reported that the number of U.S. children living only with a father increased from 1% in 1960 to 3.1% in 1990. Father and stepmother household percentages from 1960 to 1990 remained relatively stable (i.e., .8 and .9%,

respectively), while mother and stepfather percentages rose from 5.9% in 1960 to 10.4% in 1990. Children living with neither parent showed a moderate increase from 3.9% in 1960 to 4.3% in 1990.

The gravitation toward single-parent households is not without its consequences, however. In comparison with children who are raised in an intact family, children of single parents are much more likely to live in poverty, experience emotional and behavioral problems, terminate their education, become pregnant, use drugs, and become juvenile delinquents (Bennett, 1993; Whitehead, 1993).

Current National Trends

According to Ahlburg and DeVita (1992), married couples currently occupy about 55% of the households in the United States; this trend is expected to continue through the year 2000. With regard to families residing in the United States, 36.2% are married couples with children, 10% are mother-only heads of the household with children, 2.2% are father-only household heads with children, and 9.9% are other types of families (Ahlburg & DeVita, 1992). Specifically, Ahlburg and DeVita (1992) reported that approximately one in five White children, one in three Hispanic children, and half of African American children lived in homes with only their mother.

Other current and relevant trends from the Population Bulletin (Ahlburg & DeVita, 1992) include the facts that individuals are postponing marriage until older ages (approx. 26.3 years of age for men and 24.1 years of age for women) and more individuals are foregoing marriage altogether (although in 1990, 95% of women and

94% of men ages 45 to 54 had been married at least once in their lifetime). Similarly, about 2% of marriages in 1991 were interracial (up from less than 1% in 1970), dissolving a marriage by divorce is more common (i.e., the divorce rate has risen from 2.4 per 1000 population throughout the 1950s and 1960s to 4.7 per 1,000 population currently), and about twice as many marriages as divorces occur each year (e.g., 2.4 million marriages occurred in 1990 while 1.2 million marriages ended in divorce).

In addition, according to Ahlburg and DeVita (1992), about one third of all marriages in 1988 were remarriages; age, income, education, and presence of children all affect remarriage rates (e.g., women divorced after age 40 have a low probability of remarriage); and teenage parenting is on the rise (e.g., more than half a million births occurred to teenage mothers in 1989--13% of all of the births for that year). Also, in 1989, 27% of all births were to unmarried mothers compared to 5% in 1960, and cohabiting couples have increased six-fold since 1970 (i.e., 3 million households in 1991 consisted of cohabiting couples).

Due to these changing structural trends, the traditional structural-functional theoretical approach toward families and familial roles is being challenged. The subsequent consequences are greatly impacting the roles that parents, grandparents, children, and adolescents play.

Changing Roles

Increasingly, along with the changes in family structure, men and women are also experiencing changing roles. Women are participating in more of the traditionally

masculine roles (e.g., breadwinner, career, etc.) while men are being asked to assume more of the traditionally feminine roles (e.g., housework and child-care, etc.). Indeed, the dominant family model in the 1990s is the dual-income model (Ahlburg & DeVita, 1992).

Such changes, especially in light of the increased single-parent household trend, have likely caused individuals and couples to experience dissonance in such areas as role clarity, role conflict, role incompatibility, role allocation, role viability, and role differentiation (Ahlburg & Devita, 1992; Schvaneveldt, 1994). Moreover, these role changes have led to increased dissonance and conflict in such important areas as self-conception, socialization, goal salience, and goal attainment.

Voydanoff (1993), speaking of the increase of women in the work force, reported that the percentage of married employed women with children who are under 6 years of age has soared from 30% in the 1970s to 57% in 1988. This increase has created new demands for child-care. This has, therefore, forced many grandparents to experience increasingly diversified roles (e.g., approximately 16% of all grandparents participate in active everyday care-giving of their grandchildren; Ahlburg & DeVita, 1992). In fact, Ahlburg and DeVita reported that in 1988, over 13.3 million children in the United States 5 years old and younger were in nonmaternal child-care situations. In addition, 83% of these children had mothers who were employed outside the home. Their report also found that over half of African American and Hispanic children are in child-care.

This is an alarming trend with regard to this study and the vital need for parental involvement in helping children develop positive protective factors. The dual-earner

role model has resulted in new roles for children and adolescents in areas such as housework, child-caring, child-rearing, and self-sufficiency.

Dual earner, single-parent, and divorced households are not the only areas in which teenage roles have been impacted. In fact, adolescents too, are increasingly being challenged to play new roles within the context of the workforce. Ahlburg and DeVita (1992) report that in 1992, 39% of teenagers ages 16 to 17 were working part-time in addition to their school responsibilities.

These changing roles of men, women, grandparents, children, and adolescents have led to increased issues associated with role conflict, role strain, role incompatibility, role allocation, role differentiation, role socialization, and role clarity. These changing roles as well as changing values and needs are related to the dramatic increase in adolescent high-risk behaviors. It is the family's ability to be resilient through such dramatic changes which may be an important key to the reduction of these high-risk behaviors.

Family Resiliency

According to McCubbin, McCubbin, and Thompson (1993), the family's ability to appraise and frame a major catastrophe is the central component toward functional family resiliency. This appraisal component they have termed the family schema. According to McCubbin et al. (1994), this family schema appraisal component includes such important constructs as shared values and goals, a sense of family collectivity, identity, and mutual expectations. Other important family resiliency constructs include

vulnerability, pile up of stressors, family type, instituted patterns of functioning, resources and supports, and problem-solving skills. Each of these constructs and the dynamic interplay between them uniquely impacts the family's adaptive or maladaptive resiliency abilities and efforts. According to McCubbin et al. (1993),

> Out of this family effort emerges the underlying family process of rendering legitimacy and congruency between the family's schema and its newly instituted patterns of functioning, as well as the coping strategies and behaviors it may employ to manage a stressor or crisis situation. (p. 158)

Lee and Goddard's (1989) work supports the growing research that adolescent risky behaviors evidence poor coping strategies and behaviors learned within the context of the social environment, particularly within the family. Further, they add that personality factors, genetic factors, and environmental influences all impact the likelihood as to whether or not an adolescent will use these poor coping strategies and behaviors. In addition, Lee and Goddard (1994) summarized the family risk factors associated with substance abuse as a lack of emotional closeness, a lack of parent involvement in children's activities, inconsistent or inadequate discipline, poor communication, and parental modeling and/or a history of substance abuse.

Lee and Goddard (1994) also propose seven common areas from the family strengths models which can have an important impact on family functioning, adaptation, and resiliency. These are time and involvement, decision-making and rules, loyalty and unity, values and religious orientation, emotional closeness and support, communication, and coping and problem-solving skills. Each of these important strength and resiliency areas can easily be linked with some of the internal and external

developmental asset or protective/deficit factor variables used in this study. These include family support, positive family communication, planning and decision making, religious community, interpersonal competence, and peaceful conflict resolution among others. Therefore, it is these selected assets that must be effectively explored.

Selected Assets

Scales and Gibbons' (1996) studied two protective factors related to two specific external assets (i.e., other adult resources and other adult communication) and the impact that caring, unrelated adults and extended family members can have on adolescent development. Their results indicated that although parents and peers are the most important relationships in a young person's life, extended family members and unrelated adults (i.e., teachers, clergy, neighbors, youth-workers, etc.) can have an important impact on adolescent development.

In fact, as they grow and develop, other adult relationships become increasingly crucial for certain adolescents' healthy development. This is particularly true for adolescents of color and those who are poor. In addition, Scales and Gibbons (1996) reported that at the very time when the adolescents in question need to rely on these other adults for help and support, the availability of these other adults decreases. Similarly, Scales and Gibbons (1996) reported that girls communicate more with other important adults even though these other adults are equally available to both sexes.

Concerning the assets of family support, positive peer influence, parental discipline, parental monitoring, and those assets involving the family environment,

Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, and Eye's (1994) longitudinal study of perceived family adjustment and its implications for emotional adjustment with regard to early adolescents offers some interesting insights into the lives of young people. Their research indicates that adolescents who live in maladaptive family environments are less likely to become depressed if they have a strong friend support network and are less likely to suffer from maladjustment if they possess higher levels of self-worth and positive coping strategies.

Similarly, Kurdek, Fine, and Sinclair's (1994) study found that "parenting transitions and parenting practices exerted independent effects on adolescents' adjustments," and that "...the link between parenting transitions and child/adolescent adjustment might themselves vary qualitatively with the developmental period during which the transition is experienced" (p. 429). Kurdek et al. (1994) also found that authoritative parenting was positively correlated with adolescent adjustment.

Parenting style and values also have an important impact on adolescent sexual activity. Parents who are permissive toward adolescent sexual activity are more likely to rear children who are more sexually active in adolescence (Small & Luster, 1994).

Bomar and Sabatelli's (1996) study also centered on parenting and the adolescent. They found that "adolescents who perceived high levels of differentiation (i.e., tolerance for individuality, intimacy, and interpersonal differences) within the parent/adolescent and marital relationships" reported "higher levels of psychosocial maturity (i.e., autonomy, initiative, self-reliance, social responsibility)" (p. 421) than

did adolescents who did not perceive high levels of differentiation within their family relationships.

Similarly, Delaney's (1996) study focused on adolescent individuation (i.e., perceptions of closeness and autonomy) with their parents in regard to adolescent well being. Delaney (1996) reported that adolescents who perceived having an individuated relationship with a parent were less anxious, less depressed, and had higher self-esteem.

Concerning the assets of parental involvement in school, achievement motivation, and school performance, Paulson (1994) found that high parental involvement was related to adolescent achievement outcome. Paulson (1994) also found that higher grades in school were significantly related to adolescent perceptions that parents were interested in their schoolwork and school functions and had high achievement values and expectations.

According to Benson (1997), however, in their research for both the 30 and 40 asset models, many of our nation's youth could benefit from increased parental involvement in schooling, homework, a caring school climate, relationships with other important adults, clear and consistent boundaries, caring about others, and involvement with music or other creative endeavors. Similarly, Benson (1997) also postulated that more youth need to benefit from the assets of neighborhood caring, neighborhood boundaries, communities valuing youth, youth as resources, service to others, reading for pleasure, resistance skills, adult role models, and high expectations.

Race, Ethnicity, Gender, and Grade

Asset Differences

Benson's (1997) study of the 30 assets, according to race (e.g., skin color, blood type) and ethnicity (e.g., culture, habits, language), revealed the following average assets among all of the groups: African American (16.51), American Indian (15.27), Asian American (16.10), Hispanic American (15.25), White American (16.55). However, the surveys obtained by the Search Institute were conducted among public school students and, therefore, the school dropouts who were overlooked in the study may have provided a different picture of the differences in race and ethnicity.

A comparison of the assets attained by gender (Benson, 1997) reveals that with only the asset of self-esteem do boys (53%) score significantly higher than girls (43%). According to Benson (1997), the difference in the level of self-esteem between boys and girls widens the most between middle school and high school. This is particularly true for White girls and Asian American girls while African American, American Indian, and Hispanic American girls each reported lower levels of self-esteem loss during these periods (Benson, 1997).

Boys in all five racial groups, on the other hand, reported higher levels of self-esteem than did all five racial groups of girls. However, the girls reported higher asset levels in every other category besides self-esteem than did the boys. Benson (1997) specifically pointed out some of these significantly different asset categories between

girls and boys such as boundaries and expectations, constructive use of time, commitment to learning, and positive values.

Concerning the average number of assets attained by grade, Benson (1997) recorded that males in the sixth grade possess 17.0 assets while females possess 18.6 assets. Similarly, males in the twelfth grade possess 14.9 assets while females possess 17.3 assets. What accounts for this decline? Benson (1997) proposed a cross-cultural explanation over time that intimates that girls are generally protected more by the societies in which they live and that boys are generally given more freedom to explore, to experiment, and to be on their own.

The Most Important Assets

Identity Formation

There is a large body of research which points to adolescent identity formation as the key factor behind healthy and successful youth development (Adams & Montemayor, 1983; Archer, 1989; Benson, 1997; Bukowski & Newcomb, 1983). Concerning the importance of identity, Spenner and Rosenfeld (1990) reported:

> Identities provide continuity in people's lives, both in an actual form of reflecting the demands, constraints, and sanctions of the world around them and in a social psychological form, capturing and organizing hopes, expectations, self-images, and the self's repertoire of "where one is" and "where one wants or ought to be." (p. 295)

This definition of identity correlates highly with Benson's (1997) internal asset category of positive identity with its four subcategories of personal power, self-esteem, sense of purpose, and a positive view of a personal future. However, Benson's research

is likely rooted in Erikson's (1963) theory of psychosocial development, which appears to offer some plausible underlying explanations to the increases in adolescent risky behaviors over the past several decades. According to Erikson (1963, 1968), adolescence is characterized by the need to resolve the psychosocial crisis between the developmental processes of identity formation and role confusion. Prior to the resolving of this crisis are the crises associated with four previous stages of development (i.e., trust versus mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, initiative versus guilt, and industry versus inferiority). Unresolved issues from each of these prior stages may adversely impact the adolescent seeking to resolve the identity crisis.

Some of the more salient characteristics associated with the identity versus role confusion stage of development are positive ego identity and development; adolescent egocentrism; great physical, social, and emotional growth; differentiated expectations and identifications with the self, others, and the social world, as well as psychological moratorium; and identity foreclosure (Crain, 1992). Each of these characteristics has an important impact on whether or not an adolescent will successfully move through this stage of development.

The research of Marcia (1966) studied four "identity statuses"–achievement, moratorium, diffusion, and foreclosure. Underlying each of these identity statuses are the processes of commitment and exploration (Marcia, 1989). Adams and Jones (1983) have defined each of these identity statuses as follows:

> An individual who has achieved an identity has made a self-defined commitment following a period of questioning and searching (crisis). An individual who is currently engaged in this questioning and searching

> process is defined as being in a state of moratorium. Foreclosed persons have accepted parental values and advice without question or examination of alternatives. Individuals who are diffused show no sign of commitment nor do they express a need or desire to begin the searching process. (p. 249)

Each of these identity statuses, as well as their underlying processes of commitment and exploration, is relevant to the asset approach to adolescent development. For example, according to Jones and Hartmann (1988), in a study of 12,988 adolescents, teenagers who were identified within the diffused identity status were "twice as likely to have tried cigarettes and alcohol, three times as likely to have tried marijuana, four times as likely to have tried inhalants, and five times as likely to have used cocaine than their foreclosed peers" (p. 347), who evidenced the lowest use of controlled substances. The achieved and moratorium respondent groups fell within these two domains. Jones, Hartmann, Grochowski, and Gilder (1989) have also found strong connections between substance abuse and identity status.

A synthesis of the identity formation statuses and the asset approach to adolescent development may reveal that the assets might also be grounded in the underlying processes of commitment and exploration. Marcia (1989) himself proposed that three important prerequisites are necessary to occur in early adolescence if an achieved identity in later adolescence is to be achieved. These important prerequisites are confidence in parental support, a sense of industry, and a self-reflective approach to one's future. The asset groupings of support, constructive use of time, commitment to learning, boundaries and expectations, empowerment, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity, can easily be connected with Marcia's important

prerequisites and, therefore, with the achieved, foreclosed, moratorium, and diffused identity statuses. This would then clearly connect the adolescent with the highest number of assets (protective factors) to the achieved identity status, while the diffused identity status adolescent would likely possess the least number of assets and possibly the highest number of deficits. The foreclosed and moratorium identity statuses would likely fall somewhere within these two domains.

Identity Acquisition by Gender

Bukowski and Newcomb (1983) found that the acquisition of identity for boys and girls may differ. According to their finding, boys' identity is more particularly acquired through group experiences and activities while girls' identity is acquired through specific relationships. According to Scheidel and Marcia (1985), for girls the acquisition of intimacy and identity is intricately connected while for boys, the acquisition of identity tends to occur first and then they proceed toward the acquisition of intimacy.

With regard to female adolescent ego development, Adams and Jones (1981) found that "female ego development is facilitated when subjects perceive (1) maternal allowance of freedom and independence, (2) paternal approval and praise, and (3) minimal paternal control and regulation" (p. 423). This research suggests both an internal (i.e., adolescent perceptions) and an external (i.e., parental allowances, approvals, and controls) influence on identity formation.

Enright, Ganiere, Buss, Lapsley, and Olson (1983) similarly pose that the family, as well as friends, the peer group, and society are the major stimuli to identity formation. Noppe (1983) added that friendships, peer pressures, and gender role expectations each have an important impact on identity formation. Thus, for these researchers, it is the social environment which exhibits the most dramatic impact on identity formation for both genders. Benson's (1997) research also focuses on the external (i.e., environmental) assets (e.g., peer influences, expectations, family support/ communication, family/school/neighborhood boundaries, etc.), which influence the internal positive identity assets of personal power, self-esteem, sense of purpose, and a positive view of a personal future. It must be noted, however, that the identity statuses proposed by Marcia, the aspects of identity proposed by other researchers in this section, and those aspects of positive identity promoted by the Benson Institute are in ways both similar and yet very different in their breadth and scope.

Other Important Assets

In recent years, self-esteem has been the popular asset of choice for formulating intervention programs. However, Benson (1997), in answer to the question concerning which assets are the most important, has conceded that there is no overall answer. He further related that the most important assets are specific to the behavior being examined. Benson (1997) then identified parental standards, behavioral restraint, youth programs, achievement motivation, religious community, educational aspirations,

family support, positive peer influence, positive school climate, and time at home as the 10 most important assets which shield and protect youth from antisocial behaviors.

Concerning which assets are the most important for protecting youth against certain behaviors, Benson (1997) stated that self-esteem is most highly correlated with the prevention of suicide and depression; behavioral restraint is highly correlated with adolescent sexual behavior, substance abuse, and violence; parental standards are more important than family support for preventing substance abuse while family support is more important than parental standards for preventing depression and suicide; school grades strongly correlated with such internal assets as achievement motivation and many of the social assets (i.e., planning skills, decision-making skills, self-esteem, and a positive view of one's future), as well as with the structured-time-use and positive-peer-influence assets; and, finally, helping other people is most strongly related to the value assets as well as the structured-time-use assets.

Clearly, there is no single answer concerning which assets are the most important protective factors against adolescent high-risk behaviors. While identity formation is a crucial component, each of the assets mentioned, if attained, may provide important protection to the adolescent. Longitudinal studies are needed to validate these findings as well as to research which assets may be the most crucial.

Synthesizing Theory and Research

Bretherton's (1993) research states that Bronfenbrenner borrowed his four concepts of the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem from Brim

(1975) and that these concepts are housed within ecological theory. Within this ecological framework, Bretherton (1993) has suggested that "contexts are always defined from the viewpoint of the developing person" (p. 286). She then explained, quoting Bronfenbrenner (1989), that the microsystem is "a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person (p. 286)" which are influenced by the other systems but which, according to Bronfenbrenner (1989), distinctively include the systems of personality, temperament, and personal belief.

Similarly, citing Bronfenbrenner (1989), Bretherton (1993) stated:

> The child's mesosystem is the interlinked group of microsystems in which he or she directly participates...The child's exosystem consists of two or more settings, one of which does not include the child directly (such as the parent's work world) but which exert their effects on the developing child indirectly through parental behavior. Finally, the macrosystem comprises the belief systems, resources, hazards, life-styles, opportunity structures, life course options, and patterns of social interchange that may be considered a specific society's blueprint for living. (p. 286)

Bronfenbrenner's unique contribution to theory, according to Bretherton (1993), is the focus on the interrelationships between the subsystems and the impact that each subsystem has on the others. These systems can be enhanced when the individual, the family, the community, and the society at large share mutual goals, trust, positive orientation, and consensus (Bretherton, 1993).

The asset/protective factor approach to adolescent change and development is also housed within the ecological theoretical framework, specifically, as explored and developed by Bronfenbrenner. Internal assets (i.e.,commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity) focus on the immediate individual

(microsystem) and the strong interrelationships between the family and the other subsytems that socialize and impact the individual. External assets also seek to understand these subsystem influences on the individual by exploring such constructs as support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and use of time.

Because, as Bretherton (1993) suggested, "contexts are always defined from the viewpoint of the developing person," a self-report survey is an appropriate instrument to explore the contexts of both the internal and external protective/deficit factors associated with developing adolescents. Indeed, it is only within this contextual framework that a specific plan, pattern, and process for change can be developed for the individual adolescent.

Based on this contextual framework and the research presented in this chapter, the present cross-sectional study explored two select samples of adolescents (i.e., one that was adjudicated and one that was not adjudicated) and their self-reported protective/ deficit factors and problem behaviors. This study also explored the relationship among the variables of gender, parents' marital status, religious affiliation, and these protective/ deficit factor and problem behavior variables. Similarly, to whom the sample adolescents were most likely to take a problem was also studied.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and accompanying hypotheses were used to guide this study:

Research Question #1: Is there a difference in the protective/deficit factors attained or problem behaviors for each sample of youth?

H1. There will be no significant differences in the protective/deficit factors attained or problem behaviors for each sample of youth.

Research Question #2: Which protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors are youth most and least likely to possess within the two samples?

H2. There will be no significant differences in the protective/deficit factors or problem behaviors youth are most and least likely to possess within the two samples.

Research Question #3: Do any gender differences in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors exist within the samples?

H3. There will be no significant gender differences in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors within the two samples.

Research question #4: Is the youth's status as a member of the adjudicated or nonadjudicated group independent of the parents' current marital status?

H4. There will be no significant differences within the two samples with regard to parent's current marital status.

Research Question #5: What impact does parents' current marital status have on youth protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors?

H5. Adolescents whose natural parents' marriages have remained intact will not exhibit a higher average number of protective/deficit factors or a lower amount of problem behaviors than those adolescents whose parents' marriages are not intact or whose parents have never married.

Research Question #6: Does religious affiliation make a difference in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors?

H6. There will be no significant difference in protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors relating to religious affiliation.

Research Question #7: To whom is an adolescent most likely to take a problem?

H7. There will be no significant difference between the two samples with regard to whom an adolescent is most likely to take a problem.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Design

The design used in exploring the nature of adolescent protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors is examined in this chapter. The seven research questions and hypotheses listed in Chapter II guided the comparisons of the two samples.

Subjects

The sample consisted of two separate populations. The first was 38 nonadjudicated adolescents ($\underline{n}$ = 26 males and $\underline{n}$ = 12 females) from two semirural towns in Utah. The second consisted of 46 adolescents ($\underline{n}$ = 33 males and $\underline{n}$ = 10 females with $\underline{n}$ = 3 cases missing) involved in the Cache County, Utah, detention center who are currently on probation as juvenile offenders.

The rural Utah sample was a convenience sample of youth in two communities and was obtained from a city directory that lists the names of the families and the names of the adolescents who reside within their homes. Further information was obtained from a former member of the city council who knows all of the families in each town.

The sample of juvenile offenders was also a convenience sample and was obtained from the Cache County, Utah, juvenile probation officers. Approximately half of the surveys were obtained from incoming first-time juvenile offenders while the other half were obtained from juvenile offenders who were on prolonged probation.

Data Collection

Population Identification and Selection

The nonadjudicated sample was identified from the town telephone directory and a former member of the city council. All families who were rearing adolescents (ages 11-18) had their family names added to a master list by the researcher. The number of adolescents (ages 11-18) who currently reside in these homes was also added next to each family name. After these family names and numbers of adolescents were identified, every even numbered family on the master list was selected. This selection process yielded an overall potential number of adolescents residing in these homes (n = 84). A corresponding number of surveys was then placed in these families' newspaper boxes (n = 80) or on or by the front door (n = 4) with a note asking the parents' permission for their youth to participate in this study (see Appendix B). In addition, the family was invited to have these youth fill out the survey and the researcher would pick up the completed survey from the front door or the newspaper box.

This initial effort yielded 12 surveys. Five families known by the researcher, who initially did not respond in the allotted time, were then contacted by phone and they promptly responded, adding another 10 surveys to the study. Two surveys were returned via the U.S. mail system. In order to obtain additional responses, a note was delivered in all 84 of the newspaper boxes (or posted to the front door) approximately 3 weeks after the initial issue of the survey (see Appendix B). This yielded the final 14

surveys (n = 38), which were handed to the researcher directly in the enclosed envelopes, placed in the researcher's newspaper box, or mailed to the researcher.

For the adjudicated juvenile group, the adolescents were given the survey instructions by their detention officer but only after their parents signed an informed parental consent permission slip (see Appendix D). The juveniles were then sent to a separate room by the parole officer with a pencil, the survey, and an envelope and told to seal the survey within the envelope upon completion of the survey and to return it to the parole officer. These unopened envelopes were then placed in containers and were given to an officer of the court. These completed surveys were subsequently collected by the researcher, yielding a total of 46 surveys.

Protection of Privacy

Clearance for this study was obtained from the USU Internal Review Board (see Appendix E). The survey was given to the parent or legal guardian of each adolescent respondent by the researcher or detention officer to preview and an information and consent form (see Appendix D) was signed before any surveys were administered. The nonadjudicated group received their surveys either on their front porch or in their newspaper box and the adjudicated group was given their surveys in person. Each member of both samples was instructed verbally or in written form to read the following introduction and instructions:

> We appreciate your willingness in taking a few minutes to fill out this survey. The following questions are designed to gather valuable information about teens needs and concerns in Cache County. The purpose of this information is to assist community agencies across the county in their efforts

> to better address your concerns. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Start answering questions beginning with question one. Please answer all questions. Put all your answers on this sheet.

In addition, the respondents were each given an unmarked white envelope and were instructed to seal their survey in the envelope immediately upon completion. They were also informed that only the researcher would view the individual surveys and that when the study was completed the surveys would be destroyed. In this way each respondent's privacy and anonymity was maintained.

Measurement

The measurement used for this study was formulated by Jenson and Lee (1997) from Utah State University. Their survey instrument was created to measure protective/ deficit factors and problem behaviors in youth as well as to identify to whom youth are most likely to take a problem. The full survey is included in Appendix C. A Cronbach's alpha measure of consistency was used to determine the consistency of the survey index. An overall Cronbach's alpha reliability test for the survey questions revealed an alpha score of .84. Individually, the alpha score was .75 for survey questions 39-45 (i.e., the questions identifying to whom an adolescent is most likely to take a problem); the alpha score was .89 for problem behavior questions 48-61; and the alpha score for the protective/deficit factor questions 6-38, 46-47, 48-61, 62-64, 66-67, 69, 71-74, 76-82 was .91.

Ethical Considerations

Threats to Human Subjects

There were few, if any, possible perceived threats to the human subjects involved in this research study. However, the measurement in question, does ask a few questions about respondent sexuality and possible criminal and deviant behavior. Informed parental consent was first obtained before any respondents were surveyed. Once obtained, the protective and deficit factor measure was administered with respect for the subject, beneficence, and justice. The survey measures attained were stored in a locked filing cabinet.

Confidentiality

The researcher is bound by the confidentiality requirements of Utah State University and all other federal, local, and state laws applicable to this study. Any personalized or individual data were secured and protected solely by the researcher. No names or otherwise subject-identifiable variables were released in the summary results or will be released in any further research generated by this study.

Data Analysis

The hypotheses in this study were analyzed with frequency descriptive statistics, t tests, chi-squares, and ANOVAs to determine the results offered by the respondent's survey scores. The specific research questions, hypotheses, and statistical tests are recorded in Chapter IV of this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of the Sample

In this study, 84 adolescents responded to the paper-pencil survey instrument. Of these respondents, 38 (or 45%) were from the nonadjudicated group (i.e., adolescents living in semi-rural Utah) and 46 (55%) were members from the adjudicated group (i.e., juveniles who were currently on probation). The ages of the respondents ranged from 11 to 18 with the average age of 14.7 years old. There were 59 males and 22 females and three who did not specify their gender. Among the adolescents surveyed, 64% ($\underline{n}$ = 54) of the respondents' natural mothers were currently married to their natural fathers and 63% ($\underline{n}$ = 53) of the natural fathers were currently married to their natural mothers (i.e., one respondent failed to identify the natural father's marital status). Additionally, 74% ($\underline{n}$ = 62) adolescents reported that they were members of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, commonly known as Mormons, 4% ($\underline{n}$ = 3) reported that they were Baptists, and 19% ($\underline{n}$ = 16) reported no religious affiliation. The average school grade reported by the sample was a B-. The average time members of the sample reported doing homework each school day was 1.1 hours.

Research Questions and Hypothesis Testing

The results of the statistical tests conducted on the seven research questions and the hypotheses suggested in Chapter II are reported. The hypotheses being tested

follow each of the research questions. A brief description of the statistical findings follows each hypothesis. The protective/deficit factor results for research questions 1, 2, and 3 and hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 (i.e., question/hypothesis 3 focus on gender) were obtained from survey question numbers 6-38, 46-47, 62-64, 66-67, 69, 71-74, 76-82. The problem behavior results for questions 1, 2, and 3 and hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were obtained from survey question numbers 48-61. Questions 4 and 5 and hypotheses 4 and 5, focusing on parents' marital status, come from survey question numbers 3-4, 6-38, 46-47, 48-61, 62-64, 66-67, 69, 71-74, 76-82. Research question 6 and Hypothesis 6, focusing on religious affiliation, come from survey question numbers 5, 6-38, 46-47, 48-61, 62-64, 66-67, 69, 71-74, 76-82. Research question 7 and Hypothesis 7, focusing on to whom an adolescent is most likely to take a problem, come from survey question numbers 39-45. The individual survey questions can be found in Appendix C.

Research Question #1

Is there a difference in protective/deficit factors attained or problem behaviors for each sample of youth?

Ho1: There will be no significant differences in the protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors attained by each sample of youth.

To ascertain the significance between the mean number of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors among the nonadjudicated (NA) and adjudicated (A) samples, t tests were used. A higher protective factor mean score was congruent with an adolescent possessing more protective factors and less deficits. A lower problem

behavior score was congruent with an adolescent possessing less problem behaviors. A statistically significant difference ($p < .01$) in overall protective factor means was found between the nonadjudicated (NA) group ($n = 38$, $M = 175.29$) and the adjudicated (A) group ($n = 46$, $M = 158.04$; see Table 1).

Similarly, a statistically significant difference ($p < .01$) was also found in overall problem behaviors between the NA group ($n = 38$, $M = 16.26$) and the A group ($n = 46$, $M = 29.28$). These results strongly suggest that the NA group possessed a statistically significant amount more of the protective factors than the A group. Although there were large protective/deficit factor standard deviations for both groups, these results were still statistically significant due to the fact that the standard deviations were factored into the statistical computations. In fact, the statistical significance is strengthened due to the factoring in of the large standard deviation scores.

Table 1

Mean Occurrence of Protective/Deficit Factors and Problem Behaviors

	Sample					
	Nonadjudicated ($n = 38$)		Adjudicated ($n = 46$)			
Factor	M	SD	M	SD	t	ES
Protective/deficit	175.29	18.93	158.04	18.81	4.17**	-.89
Problem behaviors	16.26	3.20	29.28	8.92	-.92**	-4.06

** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

The results also show that the NA group possesses a statistically significant amount less of the problem behaviors than the A group. The large problem behavior effect size (calculated by dividing the difference between the means of the two groups by the standard deviation of the A group) indicates a strong association between the status of the adolescent as nonadjudicated or adjudicated and the amount of problem behaviors attained. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research Question #2

Which protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors are youth most and least likely to possess within the two samples?

Ho2: There will be no significant differences in the protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors youth are most and least likely to possess within the two samples.

Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the respondent frequency scores for each protective/deficit factor and problem behavior questions on the survey. Each score was calculated for the adolescent's status as a member of the nonadjudicated (NA) or the adjudicated (A) sample with the percentages for each response reported. Some of these scores were collapsed by the researcher to determine protective/deficit factor and problem behavior amount differences between the two samples. However, due to low cell frequencies, chi-square tests for significance between the samples could not be performed. According to Siegel and Castellan (1988), no more than 20% of the chi-square cells should have an expected value of less than 5 with no cells less than 1.

Protective/deficit factor and problem behavior amount differences were reported between the NA and the A samples for a number of variables (see Table 2). Restraint to wait to get involved sexually with someone until marriage and to restrain from using alcohol and drugs revealed large response differences between the NA and the A groups.

Both groups were somewhat similar with regard to the protective/deficit factors of caring, equality and social justice, honesty, responsibility, achievement motivation, peaceful conflict resolution, and service to others. The protective factor of responsibility (i.e., to take responsibility and accept the consequences of your actions) is noteworthy because it is one of the few protective factors in which the A group outscored the NA group in the "very important" category.

Bonding to the school was similar between the NA and the A groups in the "strongly agree" and "agree" categories. However, 33% of the A group and only 17% of the NA group responded that they were neither involved in nor did they care about their school. The NA and the A samples responded somewhat similarly for the protective/deficit factors of cultural competence, personal power, school boundaries, adult role models, resistance skills, safety, a caring school climate, community values youth, youth (involvement in the community), and high expectations. However, it should be noted that for each of these protective/deficit factors some small but relatively consistent differences were reported between the two groups for the "disagree" and "strongly disagree" responses. For example, the A group reported feeling slightly less safe in their towns than did the A group.

Table 2

Sample Percentages of Protective/Deficit Factors

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Caring		
Very important	68.4	45.7
Somewhat important	28.9	45.7
Not really important	0	8.7
Unimportant	2.6	0
Equality and social justice		
Very important	68.4	60.9
Somewhat important	26.3	28.3
Not really important	2.6	4.3
Unimportant	2.6	6.5
Honesty		
Very important	57.9	52.2
Somewhat important	31.6	28.3
Not really important	10.5	15.2
Unimportant	0	4.3
Responsibility		
Very important	60.5	73.9
Somewhat important	31.5	17.4
Not really important	7.9	4.3
Unimportant	0	4.3
Restraint (sex)		
Very important	94.7	34.8
Somewhat important	0	26.1
Not really important	0	17.4
Unimportant	5.3	21.7
Restraint (drugs)		
Very important	92.1	45.7
Somewhat important	2.6	17.4
Not really important	0	19.6
Unimportant	5.3	17.4

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Achievement motivation		
Very important	71.1	69.6
Somewhat important	18.4	23.9
Not really important	7.9	4.3
Unimportant	2.6	2.2
Peaceful conflict resolution		
Very important	44.7	54.3
Somewhat important	44.7	28.3
Not really important	5.3	15.2
Unimportant	5.3	2.2
Service to others		
Very important	60.5	32.6
Somewhat important	31.6	56.5
Not really important	7.9	6.5
Unimportant	0	4.3
Cultural competence		
Strongly agree	50.0	67.4
Agree	39.5	30.4
Disagree	7.9	0
Strongly disagree	2.6	2.2
Personal Power		
Strongly agree	26.3	50.0
Agree	68.4	39.1
Disagree	2.6	8.7
Strongly disagree	2.6	2.2
School boundaries		
Strongly agree	48.6	58.7
Agree	43.2	34.8
Disagree	8.1	4.3
Strongly disagree	0	2.2

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Adult role models		
Strongly agree	65.8	44.4
Agree	28.9	44.4
Disagree	5.3	8.9
Strongly disagree	0	2.2
Resistance skills		
Strongly agree	48.6	37.0
Agree	45.9	56.5
Disagree	2.7	4.3
Strongly disagree	2.7	2.2
Safety (town)		
Strongly agree	84.4	56.5
Agree	13.2	32.6
Disagree	2.6	8.7
Strongly disagree	0	2.2
Safety (home)		
Strongly agree	89.5	65.2
Agree	7.9	32.6
Disagree	0	2.2
Strongly disagree	2.6	0
Safety (school)		
Strongly agree	50.0	47.7
Agree	42.1	43.2
Disagree	7.9	6.8
Strongly disagree	0	2.3
Caring school climate		
Strongly agree	31.6	44.4
Agree	47.4	31.1
Disagree	15.8	5.3
Strongly disagree	5.3	4.4

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Community values youth		
Strongly agree	34.2	21.7
Agree	36.8	30.4
Disagree	26.3	32.6
Strongly disagree	2.6	15.2
Youth		
Strongly agree	47..4	35.6
Agree	34.2	35.6
Disagree	15.8	22.2
Strongly disagree	2.6	6.7
High expectations (parents)		
Strongly agree	64.9	56.5
Agree	27.0	32.6
Disagree	5.4	10.9
Strongly disagree	2.7	0
High expectations (teachers)		
Strongly agree	36.8	34.8
Agree	47.4	52.2
Disagree	10.5	10.9
Strongly disagree	5.3	2.2
Bonding to school		
Strongly agree	34.2	33.3
Agree	50.0	33.3
Disagree	10.5	22.2
Strongly disagree	5.3	11.1
Decision making		
Very often	21.1	21.7
Often	76.3	43.5
Not very often	2.6	28.3
Hardly ever	0	4.3
Never	0	2.2

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Planning		
Very often	28.9	10.9
Often	44.7	30.4
Not very often	23.7	34.8
Hardly ever	2.6	15.2
Never	0	8.7
Other adult relationships		
Very often	21.1	26.1
Often	31.6	28.3
Not very often	36.8	23.9
Hardly ever	7.9	17.4
Never	2.6	4.3
Parent involvement in schooling		
Very often	63.2	37.0
Often	23.7	28.3
Not very often	2.6	17.4
Hardly ever	5.3	8.7
Never	5.3	8.7
Positive family communication		
Very often	34.2	35.6
Often	39.5	26.7
Not very often	18.4	22.2
Hardly ever	5.3	11.1
Never	2.6	4.4
Family boundaries (consequences)		
Very often	52.6	34.8
Often	36.8	47.8
Not very often	7.9	15.2
Hardly ever	0	0
Never	2.6	2.2
Family boundaries (monitoring)		
Very often	65.8	63.0
Often	21.1	21.7
Not very often	7.9	8.7
Hardly ever	0	6.4
Never	5.3	0

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Self-esteem		
Very often	59.5	40.0
Often	37.8	37.8
Not very often	2.7	20.0
Hardly ever	0	2.2
Never	0	0
Integrity		
Very often	60.5	54.3
Often	31.6	41.3
Not very often	7.9	2.2
Hardly ever	0	2.2
Never	0	0
Caring neighborhood		
A lot	39.5	6.5
Enough	36.8	30.4
Not as much as I'd like	13.2	10.9
Hardly any	10.5	52.2
Family support		
A lot	65.8	43.5
Enough	26.3	37.0
Not as much as I'd like	2.6	10.9
Hardly any	5.3	26.1
Caring school climate (teacher cares)		
A lot	15.8	26.1
Enough	63.2	37.0
Not as much as I'd like	13.2	10.9
Hardly any	7.9	26.1
Sense of purpose		
Almost always	52.6	34.8
Most of the time	39.5	43.5
Once in a while	5.3	10.9
Not very often	2.6	10.9

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Neighborhood boundaries		
Almost always	47.4	41.3
Most of the time	23.7	32.6
Once in a while	15.8	8.7
Not very often	13.2	17.4
Caring		
Almost always	57.9	41.3
Most of the time	39.5	41.3
Once in a while	2.6	13.0
Not very often	0	4.3
School engagement		
Almost always	39.5	28.3
Most of the time	52.6	47.8
Once in a while	5.3	13.0
Not very often	2.6	10.9
Homework		
Almost always	34.2	39.5
Most of the time	39.5	37.0
Once in a while	21.1	13.0
Not very often	5.3	19.6
Homework		
None	18.4	39.1
1 hour	39.5	34.8
2 hours	31.6	17.4
3+ hours	10.5	8.7
Youth programs (after school)		
None	34.2	54.3
1-2 hours	18.4	19.6
3-4 hours	15.8	10.9
5-6 hours	0	10.9
7+ hours	31.6	4.3

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Youth programs (community)		
None	21.1	52.2
Less than 1 hour	18.4	13.0
2 hours	28.9	10.9
3 hours	13.2	8.7
4+ hours	18.4	15.2
Creative activities		
None	47.4	73.9
1-2 hours	10.5	8.7
3 hours	5.3	4.3
3+ hours	36.8	13.0
Achievement motivation (grades)		
A	34.2	15.2
B	42.1	28.3
C	21.1	28.3
D	2.6	8.7
F	0.0	19.6
Parent involvement in schooling		
Very interested	71.1	52.2
Interested	21.1	28.8
Somewhat interested	5.3	17.4
Not interested	2.6	2.2
Time (not) at home		
None	7.9	10.9
1 night	34.2	8.7
2 nights	15.8	13.0
3 nights	21.1	15.2
4+ nights	21.1	52.2
Religious community		
Hardly ever	2.6	56.5
Once in a while	2.6	17.4
1 hour a week	0	2.2
2 hours a week	5.3	4.3
3+ hours a week	89.5	19.6

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Positive peer influence		
True	78.9	17.4
False	2.6	54.3
Not sure	18..4	28.3
Positive view of personal future		
Very good	73.7	50.0
Somewhat good	21.1	43.5
Not so good	5.3	4.3
Bad	0	2.2
Reading for pleasure		
None	36.8	30.4
1-2 hours	28.9	41.3
3 hours	13.2	6.5
3+ hours	21.1	21.7

The NA and the A groups were similar in their perceptions that both their parents and their teachers had high expectations for them. The NA group also reported higher bonding to their school than did the A group.

Planning and decision making scores also evidenced some interesting differences between groups (i.e., the NA group consistently felt better about their decision making and planning abilities when compared with the A group). Both the NA and A groups also reported some interesting parent involvement in schooling differences. For example, 87% of the NA group reported that their parents were "very often" or "often" involved in their schooling while 65% of the A group reported similar parental involvement.

Both groups were somewhat similar with regard to the protective/deficit factors of other adult relationships and positive family communication. However, it should be noted that the A group felt slightly less positive about their family communication than did the NA group.

Self-esteem was another protective/deficit factor in which some interesting differences between samples were reported. For example, 97% of the NA group reported that they "very often" or "often" feel good about themselves while 78% of the A group reported feeling good about themselves "very often" or "often." However, 22% of the A group reported that "not very often" or "hardly ever" do they feel good about themselves while only 3% of the NA group responded accordingly.

The NA and the A groups were somewhat similar with regard to the protective/ deficit factors of positive family boundaries (i.e., consequences and monitoring), and integrity. Both groups also reported differences in their perceptions of whether or not their neighborhood was a caring neighborhood. For example, 76% of the NA group felt like their neighborhood cared about them either "a lot" or "enough" while only 37% of the A group felt this way. Similarly, 52% of the A group compared to only 11% of the NA group reported that "hardly any" people in their neighborhood cared about them. Both groups were similar in reporting about a caring school climate as it pertains to the school environment. However, some interesting differences between groups were reported concerning school climate and the perception as to whether or not their teachers cared about them. Of the NA group, 79% reported their perceptions that their teachers cared "a lot" or "enough" while 63% of the A group responded similarly. Also

worthy of note is the fact that the two groups were somewhat similar in their perceptions of family support with the NA group reporting slightly higher perceptions of family support than the A group.

Sense of purpose is another protective factor in which some interesting differences between groups exist. For example, 92% of the NA group reported that their life has purpose "almost always" or "most of the time," while 78% of the A group responded accordingly. However, 22% of the A group responded that their life has purpose "once in a while" or "not very often," while only 7.9% of the NA group responded accordingly. Both groups were somewhat similar with regard to neighborhood boundaries, perceptions of themselves as caring people, school engagement (e.g., paying attention to the teacher), and coming to school with their homework done. However, it should again be noted that the NA group reported slightly higher scores in each of these protective/deficit factors.

Religious community services (i.e., attendance at religious activities during the week or on Sundays) revealed some other interesting differences between the groups. For example, 74% of the A group reported "hardly ever" or "once in a while" participating in weekly religious services while only 5% of the NA group reported the same. Similarly, 90% of the NA group reported participating in 3-plus hours of religious service weekly while only 20% of the A group responded accordingly.

Positive peer influences also evidenced some interesting differences between the groups. For example, 79% of the NA group reported that their peer group did not break

the law or do things that were not good, while only 17% of the A group reported the same.

Homework as a protective/deficit factor also evidenced some interesting differences between groups. As earlier mentioned, there were relatively minor differences between groups as it pertained to coming to school with their homework done. However, concerning the number of hours spent each school day doing homework, only 18% of the NA group reported that they usually do no homework after school while 39% of the A group responded accordingly. Similarly, 32% of the NA group reported doing 2 hours of homework each school day while only 17% of the A group responded accordingly. This difference in hours spent doing homework each day may also have a relationship to achievement motivation (i.e., grades) between the two samples. For example, only 43% of the A group reported achieving As and Bs compared with 76% for the NA group. Similarly, 57% of the A group reported receiving Cs, Ds, and Fs compared with 24% of the NA group who reported receiving similar grades.

Youth programs (e.g., programs after school such as student government, drama, sports, debate, etc.) also revealed some interesting differences between groups. For example, 54% of the A group reported participating in no after school youth programs compared to 34% reported by the NA group. Interestingly, 32% of the NA group reported spending 7+ hours a week in after school youth programs while only 4.3% of the A group reported doing so.

Participation in weekly community activities (e.g., 4-H, Girl/Boy Scouts, city/ county sports leagues, community recreation centers, youth community councils, etc.) also showed some interesting differences between the samples. For example, 52% of the A group reported no involvement with community youth programs compared to 21% reported by the NA group.

Concerning being involved in creative activities (e.g., band, orchestra, choir, drama, practicing a musical instrument, etc.), only 47% of the NA group reported no involvement in creative activities while 74% of the A group responded accordingly. One of the largest differences between the groups of respondents who participated in some sort of weekly creative activity, was in the "3+" hour group. Time at home also evidenced interesting differences between the groups with 52% of the A group who reported spending 4-plus nights a week out with friends.

Both samples were somewhat similar in response percentages with regard to the protective/deficit factors of reading for pleasure, and experiencing a positive view of a their personal future.

Due to the two different samples, obvious problem behavior differences were expected between the NA and the A groups (see Table 3). Differences between samples were reported for the problem behaviors of skipping school, drinking alcohol, smoking marijuana, smoking cigarettes/use of tobacco, being in trouble with the police, shoplifting from stores, and having sexual intercourse. Other interesting differences between the NA and A groups were in the problem behavior categories of purposely damaging and/or destroying property, the use of cocaine, and stealing from someone.

Table 3

Problem Behavior Percentages

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Skipped school		
Never	71.1	19.6
Less than monthly	21.1	23.9
1-3 times a month	5.3	15.2
1-2 times a week	0	13.0
Every day	2.6	28.3
Parent conference with principal		
Never	86.8	41.3
Less than monthly	10.5	26.1
1-3 times a month	2.6	17.4
1-2 times a week	0	10.9
Every day	0	4.3
Drink alcohol		
Never	97.4	32.6
Less than monthly	2.6	32.6
1-3 times a month	0	15.2
1-2 times a week	0	15.2
Every day	0	4.3
Smoked Marijuana		
Never	100	48.9
Less than monthly	0	24.4
1-3 times a month	0	8.9
1-2 times a week	0	6.7
Every day	0	11.1
Used cocaine		
Never	100	81.8
Less than monthly	0	13.6
1-3 times a month	0	2.3
1-2 times a week	0	0
Every day	0	2.3

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Smoked cigarettes/used tobacco		
Never	94.7	24.4
Less than monthly	5.3	20.0
1-3 times a month	0	6.7
1-2 times a week	0	6.7
Every day	0	42.2
In trouble with the police		
Never	92.1	11.1
Less than monthly	7.9	48.9
1-3 times a month	0	24.4
1-2 times a week	0	8.9
Every day	0	6.7
Hit/beat someone up		
Never	68.4	41.3
Less than monthly	18.4	39.1
1-3 times a month	5.3	8.7
1-2 times a week	5.2	8.7
Every day	2.6	2.2
Used force to take something		
Never	71.1	50.0
Less than monthly	13.2	34.8
1-3 times a month	7.9	13.0
1-2 times a week	7.9	0
Every day	0	2.2
Brought weapon to school		
Never	94.7	82.6
Less than monthly	5.3	8.7
1-3 times a month	0	2.2
1-2 times a week	0	2.2
Every day	0	4.3

(table continues)

Protective/deficit factors	Sample responses	
	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Had sexual intercourse		
Never	100.0	43.5
Less than monthly	0	19.6
1-3 times a month	0	10.9
1-2 times a week	0	10.9
Every day	0	15.2
Shoplifted (store)		
Never	94.7	34.7
Less than monthly	5.3	37.0
1-3 times a month	0	19.6
1-2 times a week	0	6.5
Every day	0	2.2
Stolen (someone)		
Never	73.7	43.5
Less than monthly	26.3	41.3
1-3 times a month	0	10.9
1-2 times a week	0	4.3
Every day	0	0
Purposely damaged/destroyed property		
Never	86.8	50.0
Less than monthly	13.2	26.1
1-3 times a month	0	13.0
1-2 times a week	0	8.7
Every day	0	2.2

The two groups were somewhat similar in the problem behavior categories of hitting/beating someone up, using force to take what is wanted, and bringing a weapon to school.

The protective/deficit factor and problem behavior differences found between the groups suggest that there may be some statistically significant differences between the

NA and the A samples. However, since chi-square tests for significance could not be performed for both the protective/deficit factor and problem behavior variables without violating the assumptions of the tests (Siegel & Castellan, 1988), the null hypothesis was retained, but notable differences are obvious.

Research Question #3

Do any gender differences in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors exist within the samples?

Ho3: There will be no significant gender differences in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors within the two samples.

In order to determine if any gender differences in protective/deficit factor or problem behavior attainment existed within the two samples, a two-way analysis of variance was performed (Table 4). Assumptions for the test include independence, equal variance, and a normal distribution of the groups' dependent variables. An ANOVA was performed for both gender (i.e., male or female) and status (i.e., the nonadjudicated [NA] or adjudicated [A] group) and for protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors. Within the NA group, 26 of the respondents were male and 12 were female. Similarly, 33 of the A group's respondents were male and 10 were female. The results of the two-way analysis of variance revealed that while status was significant, neither gender nor the interaction of gender and status was significant for the attainment of protective/deficit factors or problem behaviors. However, the probability value ($p = .075$) for the interaction of gender and status for protective/deficit

Table 4

Analysis of Variance for Protective/Deficit Factors and Problem Behaviors: Gender

		F	
Source	df	Protective/deficit	Problem behaviors
Gender (G)	1	.08	1.59
Status (S)	1	21.05**	51.40**
G x S	1	3.01	.007
S within-group error	77	(357.31)	(49.92)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

**$p < .01$

factor attainment suggests a relationship between the variables. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis was retained.

Research Question #4

Is the youth's status as a member of the adjudicated or nonadjudicated group independent of the parents' current marital status?

Ho4. There will be no significant differences within the two samples with regard to parent's current marital status.

Frequency cross tabulations were performed to determine the number of nonadjudicated (NA) and adjudicated (A) groups' natural fathers and natural mothers who were currently married to each other. Within the NA group, 8% ($n = 3$) of the respondents' biological fathers were not currently married to their biological mothers due to remarriage, divorce/ separation, death, or other circumstances, while 92% ($n =$

35) of the respondents' biological fathers were currently married to their biological mothers. Within the A group, 61% (n = 28) of the respondents' biological fathers were not currently married to their biological mothers due to remarriage, divorce/separation, death, or other circumstances, while 39% (n = 18) of the respondents' biological fathers were currently married to their biological mothers.

Similarly, within the NA group, 8% (n = 3) of the respondents' biological mothers were not currently married to their biological fathers due to remarriage, divorce/ separation, death, or other circumstances, while 92% (n = 35) of the NA groups' biological mothers were currently married to their biological fathers.

However, within the A group, 59% (n = 27) of the respondents' biological mothers were not currently married to their biological fathers, while 41% (n = 19) of the biological mothers were reported as being currently married to the respondents' biological fathers.

Pearson chi-square tests of independence were performed to test the independence of the A and the NA samples with regard to parent's current marital status. The results for this study revealed that only three of the NA adolescents were not living with their natural mother compared with an expected count of 14. Similarly, 28 of the A adolescents were not living with their natural mother. The expected count for this group was 17. The chi-square results, $\chi^2(1, n = 84) = 25.08$, $p = .000$, revealed a significant difference between the A and the NA samples with regard to the father's current marital status.

Similarly, the results for this study revealed that only 3 of the NA adolescents were not living with their natural father compared with an expected count of 14. Additionally, 27 of the A adolescents were not living with their natural father. The expected count for this group was 16. The chi-square results, $\chi^2(1, \underline{n} = 84) = 23.39$, $\underline{p} = .000$, also revealed a significant difference between the A and NA samples with regard to the mother's current marital status. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis was rejected. However, it must be noted that the results must be interpreted with caution (see Siegel & Castellan, 1988), due to the small number of responses from the non-intact family (i.e., only three of the NA adolescents were not living with their natural father and only three NA adolescents were not living with their natural mother).

Research Question #5

Is there a relationship between parents' current marital status and youth protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors?

Ho5: Adolescents whose natural parents' marriages have remained intact will not exhibit a higher average number of protective/deficit factors or a lower amount of problem behaviors than those adolescents whose parents' marriages are not intact or whose parents have never married.

Because only three in the nonadjudicated group reported that their natural father/mother were not currently married to each other, the two samples were collapsed and one-way analysis of variance tests were performed for parents' marital status and protective/deficit factors and for parents' marital status and problem behaviors. An

analysis of variance (see Table 5) revealed a significant difference in the amount of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors attained by adolescents who were currently living with both natural parents (BNP) when compared with adolescents who were living with the natural mother only (NMO) but not with the natural father. The mean amount of protective/deficit factors for an adolescent living with the natural mother only was 153.67 and the standard deviation was 21.20 while the mean for an adolescent currently living with both parents was 172.61 and the standard deviation was 17.05. The difference in the amounts of protective factor attainment for the adolescents is significant at the .01 level of significance.

An analysis of variance (see Table 6) revealed a statistically significant difference in the amount of protective/deficit factors attained by adolescents who were currently

Table 5

Analysis of Variance for Protective/Deficit Factors and Problem Behaviors: Mother's Marital Status

		F	
Source	df	Protective/deficit	Problem behaviors
Mother's marital status (M)	1	17.24**	6.93**
S within-group error	82	(275.30)	(45.57)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

S = subjects.

**$p < .01$.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance for Protective/Deficit Factors and Problem Behaviors: Father's Marital Status

		F	
Source	df	Protective/deficit	Problem behaviors
Father's marital status (F)	1	22.11**	5.85**
S within-group error	82	(272.39)	(45.99)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

S = subjects.

**$p < .01$.

living with both natural parents (BNP) when compared with adolescents who were living with the natural father only (NFO) but not with the natural mother. The mean amount of protective/ deficit factors for an adolescent living with the natural father only was 154.39 and the standard deviation was 21.23 while the mean for an adolescent currently living with both parents was 172.55 with a standard deviation of 17.21. This difference in the levels of protective/deficit factor attainment for the BNP adolescents is statistically significant at the .01 level of statistical significance. Because statistical significance was achieved, the large standard deviation scores add strength to the findings.

Tables 5 and 6 also reveal statistically significant differences in the amount of problem behaviors exhibited when the data is separated by parents' marital status.

Adolescents not currently residing with their natural mother, reported problem behavior mean amounts of 29.32 with a standard deviation of 8.78. Adolescents currently residing with both natural parents reported 19.92 mean amounts of problem behaviors with a standard deviation of 8.14. The difference in the amount of problem behaviors demonstrated in each of these groups was statistically significant at the .01 level.

Adolescents not currently residing with their natural father reported 29.67 mean amounts of problem behaviors with a standard deviation of 8.71 while those currently residing with both parents reported 19.91 amounts of problem behaviors with a standard deviation of 8.07. The difference in the amount of problem behaviors demonstrated in each of these groups was significant at the .01 level of significance. These findings reveal that the null hypothesis must be rejected for both protective/ deficit factors and for problem behaviors since there is a relationship between the levels of protective/deficit factors, problem behaviors, and parents' marital status.

Research Question #6

Does religious affiliation make a difference in protective or deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors?

Ho6: There will be no significant differences in protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors related to religious affiliation.

Within the nonadjudicated (NA) group, 100% ($n = 37$) reported that they were religiously affiliated with the Mormon religion while 55% ($n = 23$) in the adjudicated (A) group reported that they are affiliated with the Mormon religion. Therefore, 45%

(n = 19) of the A group reported that they are not affiliated with the Mormon religion (i.e., they are either affiliated with another religion or no religion at all). Because none of the respondents in the NA group were affiliated with any other religion, t-test statistical measures were performed (see Table 7) comparing the means for the Mormons within both the NA (n = 37) and the A (n = 23) groups separately in an attempt to determine whether or not any differences in protective/deficit factor and problem behavior attainment existed.

The results for Mormons in the NA sample in comparison with Mormons in the A sample revealed that Mormons in the NA sample have attained a statistically significant higher amount of protective factors and a significantly lower amount of problem behaviors than the Mormons who are in the A sample. This comparison of the Mormons in both samples offers further statistical significance for Research Questions 1 and 2.

Table 7

Comparison of Mormon Nonadjudicated and Mormon Adjudicated Groups

	Nonadjudicated			Adjudicated			
Variable	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	t
Problem behaviors	16.27	3.25	37	25.96	6.68	23	-7.53**
Protective factors	175.29	18.93	37	162.96	16.01	23	2.75**

** $p < .01$

A t-test statistical measure was also performed for the non-Mormons (n = 19) in the A group and the Mormons (n = 23) in the A group to determine if any differences in protective/deficit factor and problem behavior attainment existed (see Table 8). The results of these tests revealed that the Mormon A sample had statistically significantly fewer amounts of problem behaviors but not statistically significantly higher amounts of protective factors when compared with the non-Mormon A sample. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis was rejected for problem behaviors related to religious affiliation but not for protective/deficit factors.

Research Question #7

To whom is an adolescent most likely to take a problem?

Ho7: There will be no significant difference between the two samples with regard to whom an adolescent is most likely to take a problem.

Cross-tabulations and chi-square statistical measures were performed to determine to whom an adolescent is most likely to take a problem (see Table 9). The results

Table 8

Comparison of Non-Mormon Adjudicated and Mormon Adjudicated Groups

	Adjudicated Mormons			Adjudicated non-Mormons			
Variable	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	t
Problem behaviors	25.96	6.68	23	32.11	10.65	19	2.28*
Protective factors	162.61	16.28	23	152.26	20.95	19	-1.80

** p < .01

Table 9

Summary of Responses: To Whom Adolescents Are Most Likely to Take a Problem

	Sample responses	
Source	Nonadjudicated (%)	Adjudicated (%)
Parent/stepparent[a]	84.2	56.8
Religious leader/teacher[b]	68.4	39.1
Older sibling	65.8	64.4
Other adult friend	62.2	65.2
Grandparent/relative	50.0	45.7
Teacher/coach	39.5	26.7
School counselor	36.8	30.4

[a] $\chi^2(1, n = 82) = 7.22, p = .007$

[b] $\chi^2(1, n = 84) = 7.16, p = .007$

revealed that the nonadjudicated (NA) and the adjudicated (A) groups were not statistically significantly different with regard to whether or not they would take a problem to a teacher/coach, an older sibling, a grandparent/other relative, a school counselor, or another adult friend. However, the NA group adolescents were statistically significantly different than the A group adolescents in reporting their choices to take a personal problem to a parent/stepparent or a religious leader or teacher. Due to these findings, the null hypothesis was rejected. It is interesting to note that both the NA and the A groups were similar in the likelihood of their choices to take a problem to an older sibling, an adult friend, a grandparent/relative, and a school counselor. The similar percentages reported by both groups to take a problem to an

older sibling and an adult friend offer some interesting findings with regard to who might have an important impact on adolescents who have problems.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Results from this study have shown that adolescents in the nonadjudicated sample generally attained higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors than did the adolescents in the adjudicated sample. Additionally, adolescents whose natural father and mother were currently still married to each other reported higher levels of protective factor attainment and lower levels of problem behaviors than did adolescents whose natural parents were not currently married to each other.

Religious affiliation was also related to higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors. The groups also showed some differences but also some important similarities with regard to whom they would most likely take a problem. For example, the nonadjudicated group reported that they were more likely to take a problem to a parent/stepparent or a religious leader/teacher than the adjudicated group. Both groups were similar in their responses to take a problem to an older sibling or to an adult friend. Because the samples studied were not representative, the results obtained from this study probably cannot be generalized to a larger population beyond these samples.

Summary of Findings

Research Question #1

Is there a difference in the protective/deficit factors attained or problem behaviors

for each sample of youth?

The findings in this study revealed that the nonadjudicated sample had attained higher amounts of the protective factors and fewer amounts of the problem behaviors than the adjudicated sample. These findings are consistent with Benson's (1997) research, which concluded that adolescents with higher levels of protective factors exhibit lower levels of high-risk behaviors. These results are important as a foundation for understanding question #2 wherein specific protective/deficit factor and problem behavior similarities and differences are discussed in detail.

Research Question #2

Which protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors are youth most and least likely to possess within the two samples?

Protective/deficit factors. Due to possible violations of the assumptions of the tests, chi-square measures could not be performed to determine any statistical differences between both samples (see Siegel & Castellan, 1988). However, the nonadjudicated sample reported higher protective factor levels than the adjudicated sample and showed interesting response percentage differences in the protective/deficit factors of behavioral restraint (both sexual restraint and substance abuse), perceptions of living in a caring neighborhood, religious activity, positive peer influences, and time spent at home. These differences between samples support Benson's (1997) research, which identifies behavioral restraint, religious activity, positive peer influences, and

time spent at home, as 4 of the 10 assets that most shield youth against antisocial behavior.

The nonadjudicated sample also reported higher levels than the adjudicated sample in the protective/deficit categories of bonding to their schools, cultural competence, perceived personal power, school boundaries (i.e., perceived rules and regulations), perceptions of safety, a caring school climate (i.e., their perception that their teachers cared), and that their community values youth. These samples also showed differences in the protective factors of high expectations, youth involvement in their community, perceived planning and decision-making abilities, and self-esteem. Differences in sense of purpose, the number of hours spent doing homework, involvement in youth and community programs, achievement motivation (i.e., as evidenced by grades received), and participation in creative activities were also reported.

These differences showed that the nonadjudicated group attained higher levels of protective factors in each of these protective factor categories. The fact that the nonadjudicated youth reported higher levels than the adjudicated youth in each of these protective/deficit factor categories supports Benson's (1997) research indicating that the more assets an adolescent has attained, the less likely he/she is to be involved in high-risk behaviors.

Both samples were somewhat similar in response percentages with regard to the protective/deficit factors of caring, equality and social justice, perceived honesty, responsibility, and peaceful conflict resolution. Service to others, cultural competence,

personal power, school boundaries, adult role models, perceived resistance skills, high expectations, positive family boundaries, integrity, reading for pleasure, and a positive view of a personal future also evidenced some similar response rates between the samples. It is interesting to note that while both samples reported similar perceptions for the protective/deficit factors of honesty and resistance skills, the adjudicated sample's actual honesty and resistance behaviors showed much higher problem behaviors (i.e., shoplifting from stores, stealing from someone, and sexual intercourse) than did the nonadjudicated sample.

Problem behaviors. Due to possible violations of the assumptions of the tests, chi-square measures could not be performed to determine any statistical differences or similarities between both samples (see Siegel & Castellan, 1988). However, some obvious differences and similarities existed.

For example, the adjudicated group reported higher problem behavior levels for skipping school, drinking alcohol, smoking marijuana, smoking cigarettes/use of tobacco, being in trouble with the police, shoplifting from stores, and having sexual intercourse. These differences would support Luster and Small's (1994) research, which correlated sexually active adolescents and alcohol consumption. Similarly, Benson's (1997) research correlates the asset of behavioral restraint with the problem behaviors of adolescent sexual behavior, substance abuse, and violence.

Interesting differences between the NA and A groups were in the problem behavior categories of purposely damaging and/or destroying property, the use of cocaine, and stealing from someone. These findings would again support Benson's

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Interesting differences between the NA and A groups were in the problem behavior categories of purposely damaging and/or destroying property, the use of cocaine, and stealing from someone. These findings would again support Benson's

found that the difference in the levels of self-esteem between boys and girls widens the most between middle school and high school. This is an interesting finding in light of the fact that the number of overall assets attained by girls compared to boys widens the most from middle school to high school (Benson, 1997). Further research is needed to identify whether or not overall higher asset levels (i.e., like the girls possess) or higher self-esteem with slightly lower levels of assets (i.e., like the boys possess) will most shield youth against high-risk behaviors. It is also entirely possible that the right combination of these selected assets may be the key to inoculating adolescents from problem behaviors. For example, Ohannenessian and others' (1994) research indicated that strong friend support networks (e.g., positive peer influence), self-esteem, and positive coping strategies are some of the important ingredients in shielding youth who live in maladaptive family environments from maladjustment.

Research Question #4

Is the youth's status as a member of the adjudicated or the nonadjudicated group independent of the parents' current marital status?

The findings revealed a statistically significant difference between the adjudicated and the nonadjudicated samples with regard to both the father's and the mother's current marital status. The results indicate that parents' intact current marital status (i.e., with both natural parents married to each other) is related with whether or not an adolescent is a member of the adjudicated or the nonadjudicated group. This would support Benson's (1997) research that indicates that family composition is correlated with

adolescent asset attainment and high-risk behaviors. However, these results must be interpreted with caution due to the small number of responses from youth in non-intact families.

Research Question #5

Is there a relationship between parents' current marital status and youth protective/deficit factor attainment and problem behaviors?

Due to the fact that only three in the nonadjudicated group reported that their natural father/mother were not currently married to each other, the two samples were collapsed. The findings revealed that parents' marital status as intact (i.e., both natural parents were currently married to each other) had a statistically significant impact on higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors attained by adolescents. This would support Benson's (1997) research concerning youth whose parents are both living in the home (i.e., two-parent homes) who have consistently attained higher levels of assets and lower levels of high-risk behaviors than youth who live in single-parent homes or other situations.

These findings are somewhat alarming in light of Blankenhorn's (1995) report that in 1990 only 57.7% of U.S. children were living within a two-parent household. Accordingly, the family structural changes within the last 30 years would appear to indicate that the two-parent household percentages will continue to decrease (Ahlburg & DeVita, 1992; Blankenhorn, 1995). However, Benson (1997) also stated that in family situations other than two-parent homes, supportive-quality schools, friends who

are a positive influence, and involvement in extracurricular activities and religious institutions can help increase adolescent assets and reduce adolescent problem behaviors. Further research must continue to explore the needs of this growing group of adolescents who live in other than two-parent households in order to determine which protective/deficit factors have the largest correlation to shielding these youth against problem behaviors.

Research Question #6

Does religious affiliation make a difference in protective/deficit factor attainment or problem behaviors?

Benson's (1997) research indicates that the amount of religious involvement (which is different than religious affiliation) is correlated with levels of asset attainment and high-risk behaviors. A comparison of both the Mormon adjudicated and the Mormon nonadjudicated groups found that the nonadjudicated Mormons possessed a statistically significantly higher level of protective factors and a statistically significantly lower level of problem behaviors. These findings add further statistical significance to Research Questions 1 and 2. Similarly, a comparison of the Mormon adjudicated group and the non-Mormon adjudicated group showed that the Mormons in the adjudicated group possessed statistically significantly lower levels of problem behaviors but not statistically significantly higher levels of protective factors. These findings are interesting in that they indicate that for these two samples, affiliation with the Mormon religion correlates with lower levels of problem behaviors. Further

research must address specific religious behaviors and which of these behaviors are most highly correlated with protective/deficit factor and problem behavior levels. For example, among the Mormon nonadjudicated and the Mormon adjudicated youth, it could be that higher levels of religious involvement are correlated with higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors

Research Question #7

To whom is an adolescent most likely to take a problem?

The findings showed that the nonadjudicated sample was significantly different than the adjudicated sample in their choices to take their problems to a parent/ stepparent or a religious leader/teacher. Both of these choices may partially be explained by the differences reported between both groups concerning natural parents' marital status and religious affiliation and behavior.

The similarities between both groups are also noteworthy. Both the nonadjudicated (65.8%) and the adjudicated (64.4%) groups reported that they would be quite likely to take a problem to an older sibling. This suggests an important resource parents can use to positively influence family members. Similarly, the nonadjudicated (62.2%) and the adjudicated (65.2%) groups reported that they would also be quite likely to take a problem to an adult friend. These findings support Scales and Gibbons' (1996) research indicating that although parents and peers are the most important relationships in a young person's life, extended family members and unrelated adults (i.e., teachers, clergy, neighbors, etc.) can have an important influence on

adolescent development. Benson (1997) indicated that more youth need to benefit from such adult relationships than currently do.

This study did not offer the respondents an opportunity to indicate how likely they would be to take a problem to a peer. However, it did indicate that youth in the adjudicated sample were more likely to take a problem to an adult friend than to any other source, including to parents or to an older sibling. Scales and Gibbons (1996) reported that at the very time when these adolescents need to rely on these adult friends for help and support, the availability of these adults decreases. Similarly, because, as Scales and Gibbons (1996) reported, girls tend to communicate with adults more frequently, it may be more important to help boys gain and maintain these other adult relationships.

As expected, in this study the nonadjudicated sample reported benefitting more from adult relationships such as parents/stepparents, religious leaders/teachers, grandparents/relatives, teacher/coaches, and school counselors than the adjudicated sample. Benefitting from these relationships, in light of Scales and Gibbons (1996) and Benson's (1997) research, may be one important reason the nonadjudicated sample consistently reported higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors. Further research must identify who some of these influential adult friends may be, and programs must be fostered which connect these adult friends to the adolescents who desperately need them.

Limitations and Recommendations

Threats to Reliability and Validity

An overall reliability score for the survey measurement was .84. Due to the self-report nature of the survey, this study offers a caution, however, and acknowledges the respondent bias due to the varied perceptions of each respondent.

One possible threat to the internal validity that must be considered in this research design is spurious causation. Spurious causation or spuriousness is the phenomenon whereby two variables are associated due to the causation of a third variable (Dooley, 1990). In other words, relevant to the present research study, it may be that the results reported by respondents may not have any association to gender, parent's marital status, or religious affiliation, but may, in actuality, be due to some other intervening variable(s). Possible intervening variables may include respondent personality characteristics, temperament, culture, illness, fear of the person who administered the survey, and fear that the parent might find out about the responses. Mortality was not a consideration for the present study.

Demographic, Family, Religious, and Personal Characteristics

Some of the general limitations associated with the protective/deficit factor and problem behavior approach to adolescent development are as follows:

1. Some of the protective/deficit factors are difficult to define (e.g., integrity).

2. Some of the protective factors may be more important and different for a specific individual adolescent to obtain than for others.

3. The configuration of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors may make more of a difference concerning at-risk adolescent behaviors than the actual amounts of protective/deficit factors and/or problem behaviors that are possessed by an adolescent.

4. The individuals volunteering for this study were not a representative sample due to at least the following characteristics:

   a. The respondents were predominantly Caucasian;

   b. The respondents were predominantly affiliated with the Mormon religion;

   c. The nonadjudicated respondents' families were predominantly intact (i.e., the natural parents' marriages were still intact);

   d. Nothing is known about the nonvolunteers for this study;

   e. Sampling techniques for the adjudicated sample did not have the latitude that the nonadjudicated sample did in whether or not to participate in the study.

5. The small number of participants in the survey.

Limitations Within the Results

Some of the limitations within the results of this study associated with the protective/deficit factor and the problem behavior approach to adolescent development are as follows:

1. The disproportionate amount of females (n = 22) to males (n = 59) who responded to the survey.

2. The low percentage of nonadjudicated (8%) adolescents who reported that their natural father/mother was not currently married to their natural mother/father.

3. The fact that 100% of the nonadjudicated sample reported that they were affiliated with the Mormon religion, which creates religious bias.

4. The fact that the small N did not allow for some statistical tests to be run without violating the test's assumptions (e.g., a chi-square test for significant differences among the samples could not be performed for protective/deficit factor and problem behavior attainment).

Future research must address each of these problems if the protective/deficit factor approach is to have a continued and broadened effect on young people's development. Similarly, although this approach focuses on positive protective factors a young person can and should possess, little attention has been given to the configuration of protective factors as a possible means to help and identify at-risk adolescents. Future research must also address more specific definitions for each of the protective factors and, more importantly, it must generate new and effective strategies for intervention in each of the 40 domains.

Implications for Intervention

Benson (1997) has provided his vision of the change process and how change might occur with the asset movement. His vision is to focus on all children and

adolescents everywhere and to mobilize and socialize community leaders and citizens with research, education, planning, training, and evaluation. His view is that before effective intervention can occur, recognition of the major assets/deficits affecting adolescents must first occur. Once these major assets/deficits were discovered, his goal was to disseminate this information in a global effort. This effort continues.

However, for this effort to be effective, specific protective factor attainment and intervention strategies for each individual asset/protective factor must be identified. For example, what specific skills and values can be acquired that will help a child attain integrity, personal power, or caring. These and other protective factors must have attainment and intervention strategies designed for them if this movement is to become a powerful movement into the future and not simply another well-intentioned program. This, then, becomes a call to all families everywhere to educate themselves and to develop the skills necessary to lead their families to greater health and functionality. It is also a call for families to join researchers, psychiatrists, psychologists, therapists, counselors, and politicians in this movement in order to identify at-risk children as early as possible (e.g., a coordinated effort is needed to place more school counselors in the elementary and secondary school settings and to educate social service and juvenile court workers concerning the correlations between higher levels of protective factors and lower levels of problem behaviors).

Conclusion

As stated at the outset, teen pregnancy, early sexual experience, sexually transmitted diseases, substance abuse, antisocial behavior, violence, eating disorders, depression, suicide, and school failure are some of the critical high-risk issues that are impacting today's adolescents (Benson et al., 1995). While the protective/deficit factor and problem behavior approach to adolescent development is a valuable and an important tool toward understanding these volatile issues, researchers must continue to improve existing tools as well as continue to search for new tools and methods which can guide adolescents and their parents toward positive change, more functional interactions, and adaptive relationships.

This study supports Benson's (1997) research indicating that an adolescent who possesses a higher number of protective factors is less likely to exhibit high-risk behaviors. Similarly, an adolescent who possesses lower amounts of problem behaviors is less likely to engage in high-risk activities. According to this study, both the variables of parents' marital status and religious affiliation and behavior are correlated with adolescent attainment of protective/deficit factors and problem behaviors for the samples studied. Because they were not representative samples, the results cannot be generalized beyond these samples.

In conclusion, according to Benson (1997), a society can only measure how healthy it is by monitoring how well it cares for its youngest generation. He believes that our society is not paying attention to its next generation and, therefore, we have

failed in the battle. It is this researcher's opinion that we may have failed a battle or even several or many battles, but it is never too late to win the war.

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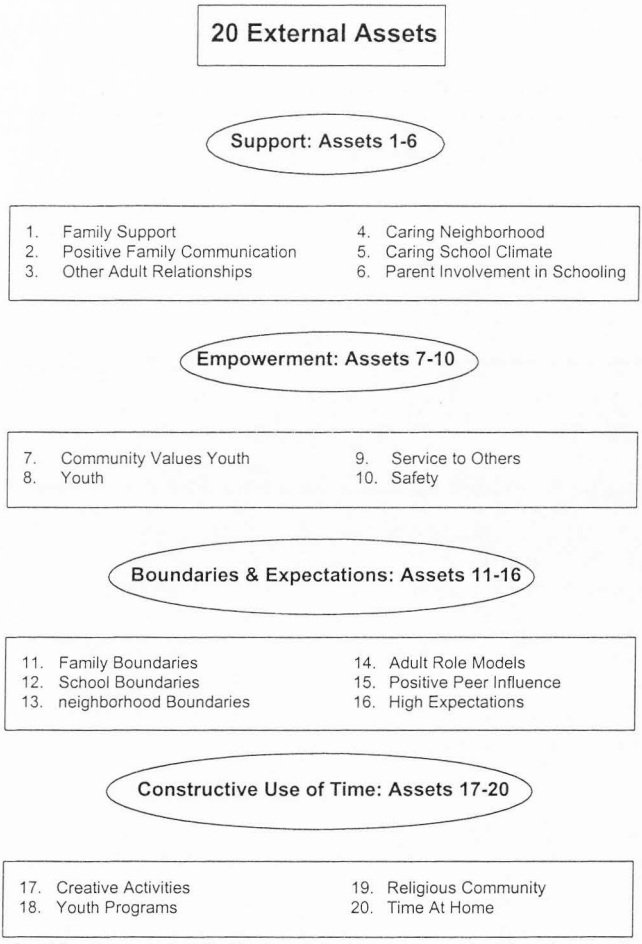
APPENDICES

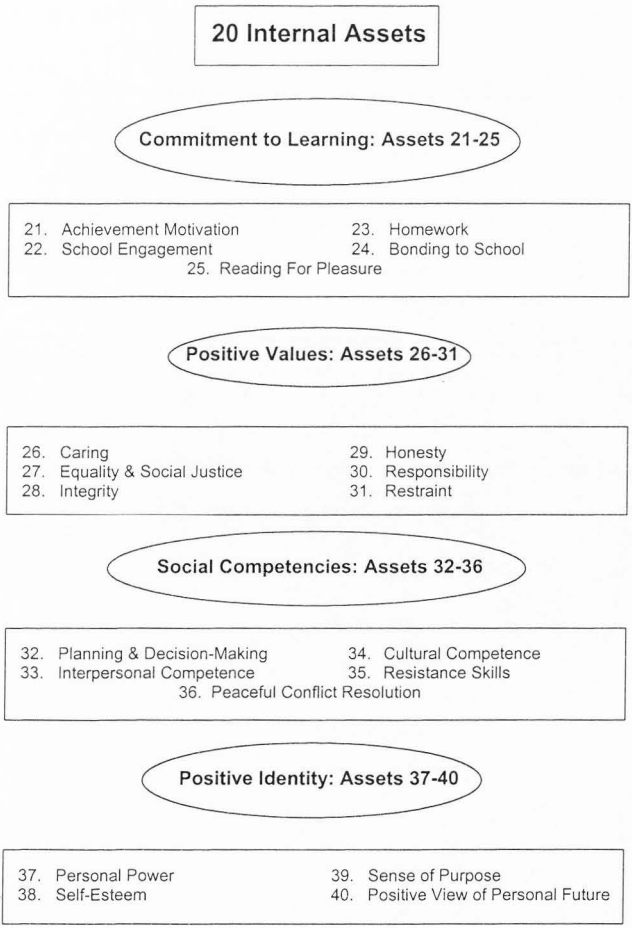
Appendix A

List of Assets and Deficits



Adapted from Benson, P. L., Balbraith, M. A., & Espeland, P. (1995). What kids need to succeed. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

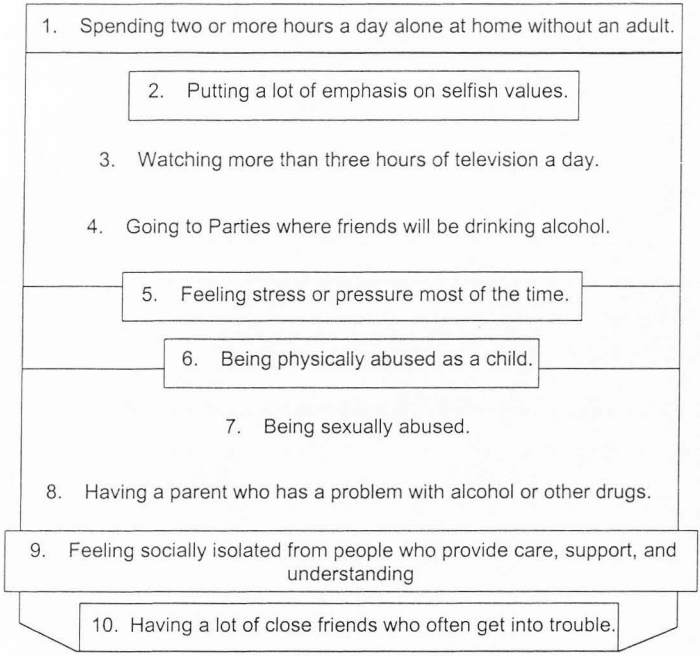
Figure 1. The external asset approach.



Adapted from Benson, P. L., Balbraith, M. A., & Espeland, P. (1995). What kids need to succeed. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

Figure 2. The internal asset approach.

Key Deficits



Adapted from Benson, P. L., Balbraith, M. A., & Espeland, P. (1995). What kids need to succeed. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

Figure 3. Developmental deficits.

Appendix B

Survey Notes to Parents

June 24, 1998

Victor W. Harris
Glen Jenson
Utah State University
Family and Human Development
Logan, Utah, 84321

Dear Parents,

Your son(s) or daughter(s) have been selected to participate in a very important study by Utah State University. The ideas within this study have been approved and promoted by many religious, civic, and parental leaders across the country. To aid in the pursuit of knowledge concerning teenage issues, will you please sign the parental consent form on the last page of the survey and have each of your teenage son(s) or daughter(s) [ages 12-18] fill out a separate survey and seal it in an envelope which has been provided. Then, if you will return it to your Herald Journal paper slot or by your front door, I will pick them up on Friday, August, 7th, around 12 noon. Let me remind you that all of the information will be kept both anonymous and confidential. I have included a small token of my appreciation to you for your help and support in this important endeavor.

Thanks again,

Victor W. Harris

July 8, 1998

Victor W. Harris
Glen Jenson
Utah State University
Family and Human Development
Logan, Utah, 84321

Dear Parents,

Your son(s) or Daughter(s) have been selected to participate in a very important study by Utah State University. The ideas within this study have been approved and promoted by many religious, civic, and parental leaders across the country. To aid in this pursuit of knowledge concerning teenage issues, will you please sign the parental consent form on the last page of the survey and have each of your teenage son(s) or daughter(s) [ages 12-18] fill it out, seal it in an envelope and mail it to the address provided. If you have already received a survey and have submitted it, thank you for your participation in this important project. If you have received a survey and have not yet submitted it, I appreciate your willingness to participate and hope that your timely response is forthcoming. Let me remind you that all the information received will be kept both confidential and anonymous.

Thanks again,

Victor W. Harris

Appendix C

The Protective/Deficit Survey

CACHE COUNTY
YOUTH

INTRODUCTION

We appreciate your willingness in taking a few minutes to fill out this survey. The following questions are designed to gather valuable information about teens needs and concerns in Cache County. The purpose of this information is to assist community agencies across the county in their efforts to better address your concerns.

Instructions

Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Start answering the questions beginning with question one. **Please answer all questions. Circle your response or fill in the blank. Put all your answers on this sheet.**

ABOUT YOURSELF

1. What sex are you?
   - A. Male
   - B. Female

2. How old are you? _____

3. My natural mother is:
   - A. Married to my natural father
   - B. Remarried
   - C. Divorced/Separated
   - D. Deceased
   - E. Other

4. My natural father is:
   - A. Married to my natural mother
   - B. Remarried
   - C. Divorced/Separated
   - D. Deceased
   - E. Other

5. My religious affiliation is:
   - A. Mormon
   - B. Catholic
   - C. Baptist
   - D. Other (e.g., Episcopalian, Jehovah's Witness, Lutheran, etc.)
   - E. None

**How important is each of the following in your life?

		Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not really Important	Unimportant
6.	...to help other people?	A	B	C	D
7.	...to treat people equally (who might be different than you)?	A	B	C	D
8.	...to tell the truth even when there is pressure to not tell the truth?	A	B	C	D
9.	...to take responsibility and accept the consequences of your actions?	A	B	C	D
10.	...to wait until you are married before getting involved sexually with someone?	A	B	C	D
11.	...to not drink alcohol or use drugs?	A	B	C	D
12.	...to learn about other cultures & races?	A	B	C	D
13.	...to earn good grades in school?	A	B	C	D
14.	...to settle problems without fighting?	A	B	C	D
15.	...to help other people besides your immediate family and relatives? (like tending children, cleaning, shoveling snow, running errands for others)	A	B	C	D

**How much do you agree or disagree with the following?

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16.	I feel comfortable around other cultures and races.	A	B	C	D
17.	I am in control of things that happen to me.	A	B	C	D
18.	My school has clear rules and consequences if they are broken.	A	B	C	D
19.	Adults who I look up to spend time helping other people.	A	B	C	D
20.	I am able to do what I know is right even if I am being pressured to do otherwise	A	B	C	D
21.	I feel safe in my town or city.	A	B	C	D
22.	I feel safe in my home.	A	B	C	D
23.	I feel safe at school.	A	B	C	D
24.	My school is a friendly place to attend.	A	B	C	D
25.	My community values kids my age.	A	B	C	D
26.	I am involved in participating in and/or helping my community	A	B	C	D
27.	My parents push me to do well.	A	B	C	D
28.	I am involved in and care about my school.	A	B	C	D
29.	My teachers push me to do well.	A	B	C	D

**How often do the following happen to you?

		Very Often	Often	Not Very Often	Hardly Ever	Never
30	...my decisions turn out to be good decisions?	A	B	C	D	E
31.	...do I plan ahead before doing something?	A	B	C	D	E
32.	...do I have long conversations with adults besides my parents?	A	B	C	D	E
33.	...do my parents help with homework & school projects when I need it?	A	B	C	D	E
34.	...do I have meaningful conversations with my parents?	A	B	C	D	E
35.	...do my parents enforce consequences when I have broken a rule?	A	B	C	D	E
36.	...do my parents ask where I am going, who I will be with, and how long I will be gone, etc.?	A	B	C	D	E
37.	...do I feel good about myself?	A	B	C	D	E
38.	...do I stick up for myself and for what I think when I am around other people?	A	B	C	D	E

**If you were having a personal problem and needed someone to talk to, how likely would you be to talk to each of the following people?

		Not at All	A Little	Somewhat	Quite Likely	Very Likely
39.	Teacher or coach	A	B	C	D	E
40.	Older brother or sister	A	B	C	D	E
41.	Parent or stepparent	A	B	C	D	E
42.	Grandparent/other relative	A	B	C	D	E
43.	School counselor	A	B	C	D	E
44.	Adult friend	A	B	C	D	E
45.	Religious leader/teacher	A	B	C	D	E

46. I feel like people in my neighborhood care about me.
    A. A lot
    B. Enough
    C. Not as much as I'd like
    D. Hardly any

47. On the average, about how much time each school day do you spend doing homework?
    A. Usually none
    B. 1 hour
    C. 2 hours
    D. 3 or more hours

**Please let us know how much you have been involved in the following activities during the past year. Please be honest.

		Never	Less than Monthly	1-3 Times a Month	1-2 Times a Week	Every day
48.	Skipped school without permission?	A	B	C	D	E
49.	Parents been called for a conference with the principal of vice principal?	A	B	C	D	E
50.	Had a drink? (A "drink" is a class of wine, a bottle or can of beer, a shot glass of liquor, or a mixed drink)	A	B	C	D	E
51.	Smoked marijuana (grass, pot)?	A	B	C	D	E
52.	Used cocaine (crack, coke, snow, rock)?	A	B	C	D	E
53.	Smoked cigarettes or used tobacco?	A	B	C	D	E
54.	Gotten into trouble with the police?	A	B	C	D	E
55.	Shoplifted from a store?	A	B	C	D	E
56.	Stolen something from someone?	A	B	C	D	E
57.	Purposely damaged or destroyed property?	A	B	C	D	E
58.	Hit or beat someone up?	A	B	C	D	E
59.	Used force to take something you wanted?	A	B	C	D	E
60.	Brought a weapon to school?	A	B	C	D	E
61.	Had sexual intercourse?	A	B	C	D	E

62. During the school year, about how many hours do you spend a WEEK participating in activities after school, like clubs (e.g., student government, drama, sports, debate, or other clubs)?

A. None
B. 1-2 hours
C. 3-4 hours
D. 5-6 hours
E. 7 or more hours

63. How much time each week do you spend playing in a band or orchestra, singing in a choir or practicing a musical instrument, at home or at school, or being involved in community choirs or theater groups?

A. None
B. Between one and two hours per week
C. Three hours per week
D. More than three hours per week

64. The teachers at school care about what happens to me.

A. A lot
B. Enough
C. Not as much as I'd like
D. Hardly any

65. What kind of grades to you usually get?

A. Mostly A's
B. Mostly B's
C. Mostly C's
D. Mostly D's
E. Mostly F's

66. How interested are your parents in helping you do well in school?

A. Very interested
B. Interested
C. Somewhat interested
D. Not interested

67. How much love and support do you feel you get from your family?
    A. A lot
    B. Enough
    C. Not as much as I'd like
    D. Hardly any

68. How available do you feel your parents are, when you need advice and support?
    A. Always
    B. Available if needed
    C. Sometimes
    D. Never

69. How many nights per week do you do things outside your home with friends for fun and recreation?
    A. None
    B. 1 night
    C. 2 nights
    D. 3 nights
    E. 4 or more nights

70. Have your parents made it clear to you what they consider correct behavior for a person your age?
    A. Very clear
    B. Somewhat clear
    C. Not very clear
    D. Not clear at all

71. How often do you attend religious services or activities during the week including Sundays?
    A. Hardly ever
    B. Once in a while
    C. About one hour a week
    D. Two hours a week
    E. Three or more hours a week

72. I feel like my life has purpose.
    A. almost always
    B. Most of the time
    C. Once in a while
    D. Not very often

73. How easy is it for you to make friends?
    A. Very easy
    B. Somewhat easy
    C. Not very easy
    D. Very hard

74. If my neighbor noticed that I was in trouble, or did something wrong, they would tell my parents.
    A. Almost always
    B. Most of the time
    C. Once in a while
    D. Not very often

75. Our world is facing some difficult problems like hunger, poor people, pollution and lack of education. How willing are you to help solve these types of problems?
    A. Very willing
    B. Somewhat willing
    C. Not very willing
    D. Not willing

76. I care about other people's feelings.
    A. Almost always
    B. Most of the time
    C. Some of the time
    D. Not very often

77. Approximately how many hours do you spend per WEEK participating in community organizations or activities like 4-H, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Boys and Girls Clubs, city or county sports leagues, community youth/recreation center, Youth City Councils and/or community service clubs or other projects?
    A. None
    B. 1 hour or less
    C. 2 hours
    D. 3 hours
    E. 4 or more hours

78. My friends do not break the law or do things that are not good.
    A. True
    B. False
    C. Not sure

79. What do you think your future will be like?
    A. Very good
    B. Somewhat good
    C. Not so good
    D. Bad

80. I come to school with my homework done.
    A. Almost always
    B. Most of the time
    C. Some of the time
    D. Not very often

81. In class I usually pay attention to the teacher.
    A. Almost always
    B. Most of the time
    C. Some of the time
    D. Not very often

82. During the average week, how much time do you spend reading books (not required for school)?
    A. None
    B. Between one and two hours per week
    C. Three h ours per week
    D. More than three hours per week

Thank you for completing the survey!

Appendix D

Informed Parental Consent Form

Utah Youth Survey
Project Information and Consent Form

Utah State University and the Department of Family and Human Development are involved in collecting base line data regarding the social, emotional, family and educational assets of youth using the attached survey instrument. Two different populations of youth will be used to determine any difference in how youth perceive the ways they are succeeding and areas in which they are having some difficulty. Each youth will be asked questions about the frequency of their involvement in a variety of thriving and problematic behaviors. The data collected from the youth will be anonymous in that no names will be placed on the survey instruments and no attempt will be made to look at any individual youth's response to any question. After the youth have filled out the survey the response will be placed in a sealed blank envelope. The data will be analyzed as group data and reported as such.

Informed Consent

We (I) voluntarily agree to allow my child/youth to fill out the attached survey. **Please sign both copies of this form**; return one copy to the data collector and retain the other copy for your files.

Parent (s) Consent:
I have read the above and agree that my child who is under age 18 may participate.

Name_____ **Signature**_____ **Date** _____

Name_____ **Signature**_____ **Date** _____

Youth's Assent:
I agree to be a part of this research project. I know that even though my parent(s) gave permission for me to fill out this survey, I do not have to do it if I choose not to. If I have any questions about this, I can ask my parent.

Name_____ **Signature**_____ **Date** _____

Witness of Data Collector:

Name_____ **Signature**_____ **Date** _____

Any questions or concerns should be directed to Dr. Glen O. Jenson (435) 797-1542 or Victor W. Harris (435) 752-5808.

Appendix E

IRB Clearance

Utah State
UNIVERSITY

VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH OFFICE
Logan, Utah 84322-1450
Telephone: (801) 797-1180
FAX: (801) 797-1367
INTERNET: [pgerity@champ.usu.edu]

July 31, 1998

MEMORANDUM

TO: Glen Jenson
Victor Harris

FROM: True Rubal, Secretary to the IRB

SUBJECT: Adolescent Protective Factor Attainment: An Exploratory Study of Two Select Populations

Your above referenced was been reviewed and approved by the IRB. You may consider this letter to be your approval for your study.

Any deviation from this protocol will need to be resubmitted to the IRB. This includes any changes in the methodology or procedures of this protocol. A status report (stating the continuation or conclusion of this proposal) will be due in one year from the date of this letter.

Please keep the committee advised of any changes, adverse reactions or termination of this study. I can be reached at x71180.