ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE: A COMPARISON OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS AND THEIR PARENT/GUARDIAN

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ABSTRACT

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Police-civilian relationships are crucial in fostering collaboration of the public necessary to keep communities safe. Negative attitudes toward the police impact personal outcomes, such as internalizing symptoms and recidivism, as well as community level outcomes, such as possible public alienation from the legal system (Gau & Brunson, 2010; Hartinger-Saunders et al., 2011; Hinds, 2009; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Public attitudes toward the police among specific subgroups is an especially pertinent topic, as African American men are frequently involved in police-civilian conflict and unarmed shootings, in addition to being overrepresented in the justice system (Burns Institute, 2011, 2013; Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Mapping Police Violence, 2016). Both socioeconomic status (SES) and race play a significant role in the formation and maintenance of attitudes toward the police, with African Americans and individuals in low SES communities consistently expressing less positive attitudes toward the police compared to Caucasians and higher SES groups (Chermak et al., 2006; Hurst, 2000; Lacks & Gordon, 2005; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Taylor et al., 2001; Web & Marshall, 1995; Weitzer & Tusch, 2002; Wu et al., 2015). The present study examined the attitudes toward the police and mental health symptoms of incarcerated adolescents, and how their attitudes compare to their parent/guardian. Additionally, the study analyzed differences between adolescents' attitudes on the basis of their race, SES, and criminal history. Overall, adults and youth were found to have different police attitudes, with adults having more positive attitudes. When youth were matched with their parent/guardian, youth had significantly more negative attitudes toward the police. Attitudes toward the police were not found to be related to youth mental health issues or criminal risk level. Greater youth mental health problems, specifically impacting social problems and

interpersonal relationships, were associated with increased criminal risk. Results are discussed as they contribute toward the understanding of justice involvement, police attitudes, and mental health. Directions for future studies involving incarcerated youth and their families are proposed.

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Recent media reports of police-civilian conflict, including widespread coverage of incidents of police killing unarmed Black men and women, raise the questions of how attitudes toward the police develop, what adolescents learn about the police, and how such attitudes impact adolescents' future behavior and mental health. Answers to these questions reveal processes influencing adolescents involved in the justice system. Negative police-civilian relationships can lead to detrimental personal and community outcomes including recidivism, internalizing symptoms, and community-level mistrust of and alienation from the legal system (Gau & Brunson, 2010; Hartinger-Saunders et al., 2011; Hinds, 2009; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Additionally, Cavanagh and Cauffman (2015) found that, in a sample of juveniles involved in the justice system for the first time, negative attitudes toward the legal system at first contact with the system were associated with later recidivism, suggesting negative police attitudes influence decisions to engage in future antisocial behavior. By examining how the development and maintenance of negative attitudes toward the police differ from parent (or guardian) to child, as well as across race and socioeconomic status (SES), we can gain an understanding of the ways in which both individual adolescents and their families are impacted by police-civilian interactions.

The acknowledgment and study of attitudes toward the police also has the potential to shape future policies and psychoeducational interventions. Positive law enforcement behaviors, such as treating individuals with respect and acting in an unbiased neutral manner when engaging with the public, are more likely to influence a subsequent decrease in anti-social behaviors than more punitive law enforcement strategies, highlighting the importance of positive police- civilian relationships (Cavanagh & Cauffman, 2015; Mazerolle, Antrobus, Bennett, &

Tyler, 2013; Piquero et al., 2005; Tyler, 1990; Tyler, 2006). Additionally, the study of attitudes toward the police could support the reform of police response behavior. This response behavior includes how many officers should be deployed when responding to a scene and where they should position themselves, when to use lethal force, how to document interactions with civilians, and when to call for medical assistance (Baber & McMaster, 2016; Leigh, Jackson, & Dunnett, 2016). The police force and the larger justice system benefit from research dedicated to understanding attitudes toward the police, as it informs training and other preparation for encounters with individuals who hold negative feelings or attitudes.

Public Attitudes Toward the Police

Recent media attention to incidents of police-civilian conflict is likely to be influencing public attitudes to the police, though such influence is under-examined in the psychological and criminological literature. Examples of recent highly publicized police brutality incidents include the death of Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri on August 9, 2014; the death of Eric Garner in New York City on July 17, 2014; and the deaths of Alton Sterling and Philando Castile on July 5-6, 2016. More Americans today are exposed to police-civilian conflict than in the past, with mainstream media frequently covering reports of police-civilian conflict, as well as internet coverage of police incidents being constantly available through smartphone technology. Research evidence indicates that recorded police arrests and publicized reports of police misconduct negatively influence civilians' attitudes toward the police, with a greater effect of media exposure on attitudes for people of color (Jefferis, Kaminski, Holmes, & Hanley, 1997; Weitzer, 2002). This disparate effect is not surprising as African American males come into the most contact with police, are overrepresented in arrest rates, and are most frequently involved in publicized police brutality incidents (Blumstein, Bangs, & Davis, 2015; Brunson & Weitzer,

2011; Hurst, 2000; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Weitzer & Tusch, 2002; Weitzer & Brunson 2009). Although there is not a consensus on the number of Americans affected by police-civilian conflict, it is apparent this topic is of high national interest (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Mapping Police Violence, 2016).

The attitudes an individual holds toward the police and justice system can influence their behavior, emotions, thoughts, political decisions, and future behaviors (Cavenaugh & Cauffman, 2015; Mandracchia, Shaw, & Morgan, 2013; Tatar et al., 2012). For adolescents involved in the criminal justice system, attitudes regarding the purpose of laws, law enforcement, and the legitimacy of the authority of law enforcement directly relate to their engagement in pro-social or criminal behavior (Lim, 2015; Piquero, 2005). Adolescents with positive perceptions of the police, and who report positive encounters with the police, are less likely to engage in delinquent behaviors in the future (Winfree & Griffiths, 1997; Hurst & Frank, 2000). Individuals with the perception that the police are an illegitimate authority are more likely to feel justified in breaking the law (Cavanaugh & Cauffman, 2015; Sampson & Bartusch, 1998; Tyler, 1990).

When an adolescent engages in criminal behaviors and encounter police, the interaction can shape whether or not the adolescent engages in future criminal behavior and how they respond in future police encounters. Harassment, unfair treatment, and discrimination experienced during encounters with police have numerous negative community implications. Negative attitudes toward the police lead to an avoidance of the police, a desire for less police protection in neighborhoods, and/or greater confrontational behavior when engaging with police officers, instead of more community involvement in protection efforts (Gau & Brunson, 2010; Hinds, 2009; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). This suggests that civilian attitudes regarding the police do not solely influence personal behaviors but community involvement as well.

The community where an individual resides greatly shapes the individual's relationship with the police. Defined in Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model, a microsystem is "a setting-or set of people engaged in social interaction- that includes the focal individual" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Neal & Neal, 2013). Adolescents in low SES and/or high crime areas often have consistent exposure and direct interaction with police officers, a characteristic of their neighborhood exosystem leading to police officers becoming a part of their individual microsystem of influence (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Within the context of experiences of the police, the police-youth interaction is the focal point of the microsystem, while other variables within the microsystem or other levels of the model (e.g., neighborhood qualities or the race of the individual) indirectly influence the nature of this interaction. The mesosystem is a component of this model encompassing the microsystem and is defined as the interconnection of two microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Neal & Neal, 2013). In the present study, this represents parents (or guardians) communicating to their children about their attitudes toward the police and their opinions on how to behave when encountering the police. Parents may directly instruct their children about their own beliefs and their approved actions for interacting with police. Alternatively, a parent may not intentionally attempt to alter their child's beliefs or attitudes regarding the legal system, but may model beliefs that the child then decides to adopt. In this situation, the direct experiences of parent-child and police-child interactions come together in the development of a child's attitudes toward the police. Lastly, the meso and microsystems are nested within the exosystem. The exosystem is defined as one or more individuals or settings which indirectly affect the individual's life, such as education policy if the child is enrolled in school (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Neal & Neal, 2013). In the present study, the police influence the adolescents' lives in various ways both directly and indirectly. The specific components of the

ecological model, primarily the microsystem and mesosystem, of police interaction would differ among adolescents, as the exosystem would be different between those who live in different communities and are affected by the police on a broader level besides direct contact. The microsystem and mesosystem involving police interaction would also drastically differ between parents and their children. Adults are treated differently in society and may have come into contact with police in different ways at different time periods than their children. This is especially pertinent when comparing incarcerated adolescents to their parents who are not incarcerated or have never been incarcerated.

Attitude Development

The transmission of attitudes from parent to child has been studied primarily in the domains of gender, religion, economics, parenting practices, prejudice, and political views (e.g. Copen & Silverstein, 2007; Dohman, Falk, Huffman, & Sunde, 2012; Glass et al., 1986; Grønhøj, & Thøgersen, 2009; Jennings, Stoker & Bowers, 2009). In a study of political, religious, and gender role attitudes, Glass and colleagues (1986) found a strong positive relationship between three generations of family members with a parent's attitudes predicting their child's attitudes on the three attitude domains, even as the child matured into adulthood. This transmission of attitudes was noted as being reciprocal, with the child's attitudes also influencing those of their parent as the child ages. This finding highlights the potential for attitudes to be pervasive in families and to influence more than simply the next generation. Additionally, Glass and colleagues (1986) concluded it was attitudes, and not simply social status (e.g. race, socioeconomic status) that were being transmitted.

Attitudes regarding legal authority, the legal system, and the law are often 'products of childhood experiences,' which form around age 16 (suggesting malleability prior to age 16) and

persist throughout adolescence and into the college-aged years, after which attitudes tend to remain stable (Fagan & Tyler, 2005; Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013; Gau, 2010; Piquero et al., 2005). Few studies have addressed the transmission of attitudes toward law enforcement or toward the legal system from parent to child and, to the best of my knowledge, only one study (Cavenaugh & Cauffman, 2015) examined the transmission of attitudes regarding crime or the police from mother to son among adolescents engaged in delinquent behavior. In this study, the authors found that teens' mothers' attitudes regarding the legitimacy of the justice system indirectly affected the teens' offending twelve months later, with this association being mediated by the teens' own legal attitudes. In consideration of alternative possible models, Cavanaugh and Cauffman (2015) found that it was the mothers' attitudes predicting sons' attitudes over time and not vice versa.

Aside from Cavenaugh and Cauffman (2015), studies have focused on the process of legal socialization and the education of children regarding morality and ethics (Cohn et al., 2012; Fagan & Tyler, 2005; Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013; Lavoie, Leduc, Crossman, & Talwar, 2016; Wang, Bernas, & Eberhard, 2012). Few studies have specifically focused on parents communicating their attitudes or beliefs regarding violence and/or criminal behavior (with the exception of Lindstron & Johnson, 2011) or the police (with the exceptions of Amoroso & Ware, 1986; Brunson & Waitzer, 2011; Waitzer & Brunson, 2009) to their children. Additionally, few studies address parent and child attitudes directly by asking both the parent and the child about their own beliefs; instead studies rely on individuals to report on their parents' attitudes in addition to their own (Cavanaugh & Cauffman, 2015, Copland-Linder et al., 2007).

While adolescents' attitudes are influenced by neighborhood context and peer groups, the parent-child relationship exerts the greatest influence on the development of youths' attitudes

(e.g., Mullen & Hamilton, 2016; Oudekerk, Allen, Hafen, Hessel, Szwedo, & Spilker, 2014). Studies in which parents and their children were directly asked about attitudes toward the police reveal strong positive relationships between parents' attitudes toward police and their children's attitudes (Amoroso & Ware, 1986; Wu et al., 2015). Attachment is a strong predictor of police attitudes, both parental attachment (Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013) and social attachment to the community and family (Zhang, Zhao, Zhao, & Ren, 2014). Adolescents with feelings of strong maternal attachment or a desire to be like their mother expressed higher levels of negative views toward the police, in agreement with their mothers' views (Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013; Flexon et al., 2009; Romain & Hassell, 2014). In addition, researchers have found family conflict and inconsistent discipline to be positively associated with antisocial attitudes and involvement in antisocial activities (Halgunseth, Perkins, Lippold, & Nix, 2013; Pardini, Loeber, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2005).

Trust, conduct norms, and retaliatory attitudes, all of which influence attitudes toward the police, have been found to be similar between parent and child. Copeland-Linder and colleagues (2007) found that if adolescents perceived their parents as endorsing fighting behaviors, the adolescents were more likely to endorse retaliatory attitudes, which may influence beliefs surrounding criminal behavior. Additionally, Dohmen and colleagues (2012) found children's trust attitudes, specifically willingness to trust others, to be positively related to both parents' trust attitudes, with this relationship being stronger for mothers than fathers. Although this study was not aimed at justice system attitudes, trust is a major component in feelings of police legitimacy and procedural justice (Cohen, Trinkner, Rebellon, Van Gundy, & Cole, 2012; Ferdik et al., 2014; Flexon et al., 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Specifically, Cohen and colleagues (2012) suggest the more individuals trust the police, the less likely they are to engage in or

approve of rule violating behavior. Brunson and Waitzer (2011) found substantial evidence for the intergenerational transmission of conduct norms- specifically parents instructed their children to be compliant when interacting with police either because the parent felt the police deserved to be respected or for the benefit of their child's experience with the justice system. They note that parents attempt to lessen the impact of the "code of the street", a term originally coined by Anderson (2002), on their child and instead, instruct the child on conduct norms (Brunson & Waitzer, 2011). Lastly, Acock (1984) states that when the attitudes of parents and their children seem to differ, this difference in attitudes may be intentional, as parents may purposefully socialize their children to have different attitudes from themselves when parents are preparing their children for an "emerging culture" after the parents have recognized a societal change. With various goals in mind, parents have a strong role in the attitude formation of their children, as well as legal socialization processes.

Vicarious Experience Influence on Attitude Formation

First defined in Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Neal & Neal, 2013), the exosystem encompasses broader settings in which an individual is indirectly or directly influenced through social interaction, such as in a neighborhood. The exosystem in which an individual is involved influences learning and the formation of attitudes about the police through vicarious experiences. Adolescents within different exosystems will be exposed to different information about either positive or negative interactions with the police. Vicarious experiences of police misconduct and negative interactions, more often found in low SES minority neighborhoods, predict adolescent negative attitudes of the police (Flexon et al., 2009; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Lim, 2015; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Wu et al., 2009). Vicarious negative experiences may include listening to a friend describe an encounter with the police where they

were forced into handcuffs unjustly, or witnessing your older sibling be arrested without proper cause. Such secondhand experiences not only influence, but also can be a primary factor in attitude formation regarding the police. This is especially true for African Americans, who receive more messages about possible negative police interactions as parents prepare their children for future racial discrimination, knowing they are more likely to have unwanted encounters with police (Brunson, 2007; Brunson & Waitzer, 2011; Flexon et al., 2009; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello, Hawkins, & Ring, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005).

In a qualitative study of a majority African American, low SES and high crime community, Brunson and Waitzer (2011) identified numerous themes generally relayed to children about conduct norms for police encounters. The instruction of conduct norms for interactions with police is of high importance in the community studied, with parents attempting to “armor” their children by preparing them for discrimination and racially motivated encounters, especially due to the frequency of being stopped by the police in this community. Brunson and Waitzer (2011) found parents to predominantly instruct their children in the areas of respect, compliance and avoidance. First, parents reported children should respect the police and comply with orders even when they feel the orders are unjust. They found parents view respect as essential either because they felt the police were deserving, or because it was more likely to yield the greatest positive outcomes for their child, both for legal decisions and physical safety. Secondly, parents instructed their children that although they should comply, the police may not have their best interest in mind and therefore, they should not fully trust the police and should maintain a sense of fear when dealing with the police. Lastly, children were instructed to avoid situations where they would come into contact with police such as congregating in large groups, and to try to avoid giving the police any reason to be suspicious or motivation to stop the child.

Interestingly, Brunson and Waitzer (2011) found parents to have more trust in the police compared to their children, but the parents continued to explicitly instruct their children on conduct norms, indicating an absence of total trust as well as residual fear.

Rosenbaum et al. (2005) concluded that initial attitudes of police, often developed through vicarious experiences, influenced how individuals interpreted subsequent direct experiences. They found this relationship to hold true for individuals who held initial positive attitudes and those with initial negative attitudes of the police. Initial attitudes are formed through direct communication from community members and perceived unfairness of experiences in their community. Individuals compare police in their neighborhood to police in other neighborhoods, often ones that are more advantaged, leading them to identify differences in policing strategies and encounters (Hurst & Frank, 2000). With profiling and known differences in policing strategies depending on community characteristics and racial differences, this communication strategy of relaying misconduct, police brutality, or general negative encounters may be well warranted (Bjornstrom, 2015; Fagan & Davies, 2000; Flexon et al., 2009; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Schuck & Rosenbaum, 2005; Skogan, 2006; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004).

Media Influence on Attitude Formation

Media has had a significant impact on the public's perception of the police, as the media covers a substantial amount of police-related activity and violence (Callanan & Rosenberger, 2011). For the majority of the population who has minimal contact with the police, crime-focused media, including entertainment and news sources, serve a substantial role in shaping the public's opinions of the police. Recent media outrage regarding police behavior, specifically more officer-involved shootings, re-spark the flame of outrage regarding police-civilian conflict

and injustice. Such instances force the public to reevaluate issues of police misconduct, brutality, and race-related conflicts.

Taken together, the experience of injustice and media coverage of police-civilian conflicts raise the question of what information parents are communicating to their children about the nature of the police and how to behave when encountering police. One of the first well-documented instances of media influence on perceptions of the police surrounds the coverage of the 1991 beating of Rodney King (Chermak et al., 2006; Jefferis & Kaminski, 1997; Kaminski & Jefferis, 1998; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Schuck & Rosenbaum, 2005; Weitzer & Tusch, 2005). Three months prior to this incident, Lasley (1994) began collecting survey data on attitudes toward the police--continuing to collect data through the three months following the Rodney King incident. Lasley found that following the Rodney King beating, the public's attitude toward the police significantly dropped regardless of age, race, SES, and gender. Although all groups were found to have significantly lowered attitudes, three months after the incident, Caucasian attitudes began to rebound, regaining positive attitudes, while African American attitudes continued to significantly decline. Lasley concluded this long term difference in attitudes following the incident may be explained by an "anti-police subculture" or secondarily, because many African Americans were able to identify more with Rodney King due to belonging to the same racial group (Lasley, 1994). Additional studies suggest this racial difference occurs because African Americans have a lower initial perception of the police due in part to a history of racial discrimination and unfair treatment, making their attitudes less likely to recover from negative impressions gained from media coverage (Callanan & Rosenberger, 2011; Weizer & Tusch, 2002). Contributing to racial differences in media impact, African Americans are the primary racial group involved in officer-related conflicts publicized by the media (Flexon et al., 2009).

Other studies have confirmed these racial differences in response to media coverage of police incidents. After watching a videotaped arrest, African Americans were more likely than Caucasians to assume the police utilized excessive force in the interaction (Chermak, McGarrell & Gruenewald, 2006; Kaminski & Jeffries, 1998) and have lowered perceptions of the police following the viewing (Weitzer, 2002, Chermak et al., 2006). Dowler and Zawilski (2007) found media coverage of police improved perceptions of the police among Caucasian viewers, but lowered positive perceptions or had no effect for African Americans.

Racial Differences in Attitudes Toward the Police

Adolescent minority males from low-income areas come into the most contact with police officers and have historically been involved in greater police-civilian conflict (e.g. Hurst, 2000; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009; Weitzer & Tuch, 2002). From the origin of research on race and attitudes toward the police in the mid 1960's, studies have found that African Americans view the police as "unfair, corrupt, and harsh" (Cross, 1964; Hurst, 2000). This belief is often warranted with minority males in particular being accosted unnecessarily, viewed suspiciously, and experiencing more aggressive or harsh policing than Caucasian or female counterparts (Brunson & Weitzer, 2011; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Weitzer & Brunson 2009). African American males are overrepresented in the U.S. Justice System, being 6.3 times more likely than Caucasian men to be arrested or incarcerated (Blumstein, Bangs, & Davis, 2015). They have also been killed by the police in higher numbers than Caucasian males (Kahn & Martin, 2016).

In the current study, it is important to be aware of racial differences in experience with the police and legal system. Recent state and city data confirm racial disparities in line with national findings of men of color being arrested and detained at a much higher rate than Caucasian men, making up 66% of incarcerated populations (Burns Institute, 2011, 2013). This

percentage is not representative of the U.S. population, with the 2014 U.S. Census reporting 77.4% of the U.S. population identify as Caucasian and 13.2% identify as African American. In 2011, The Burns Institute, receiving data from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, investigated racial inequalities in the state of Ohio's juvenile justice system and found African American adolescents are arrested at three times the rate of Caucasian adolescents (95 compared to 30 per 1,000) and detained over five times more often than Caucasian adolescents involved in criminal activity (50 compared to 9 per 1,000). When focusing on the specific county of interest for the current study, the Burns Institute found African American juveniles to be detained over seven times more often than Caucasian juveniles (122 compared to 17 per 1,000). Such findings highlight the consistent racial inequality of involvement in the justice system (Burns Institute, 2016). In a self-evaluation of the juvenile justice system in the county of interest, officials found that although African American adolescents represent 66% of youth involved with the county juvenile justice system, they make up 86% of those incarcerated (National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 2014).

In addition to the disparities in personal experiences with the police, African Americans have greater informal knowledge from friends, parents, and community experiences/stories of police behavior, specifically discrimination, than Caucasians (see Weitzer & Brunson, 2009; Flexon et al., 2009; Brunson, 2007). This informal knowledge, especially of negative police behavior, can impact attitudes of all individuals, even those who have not had direct police contact. Leiber and colleagues (1998) found race to be the single most powerful predictor of attitudes toward the police in a juvenile sample. As expected, Caucasians tend to have a more positive view of the police when compared to African Americans and other racial minority groups (Brick, Taylor, & Esbensen, 2009; Hurst, 2000; Jeffries et al., 1997; Kaminski & Jeffries,

1998; Lacks & Gordon, 2005; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Taylor et al., 2001; Weitzer & Tusch, 2002; Wu et al., 2015). The less-positive views of the police by African Americans in particular have been characterized by the experience of being hassled by police officers unnecessarily (Bjornstrom, 2015; Hurst, 2000; Skogan, 2005; Weitzer & Tusch, 2002). Conversely, Wu and colleagues (2015) suggest Caucasians generally view the police favorably because they are an institution protective of generally Caucasian interests.

Information relayed about police encounters differs by culture and neighborhood context. Brunson and Waitzer (2011) found that over 90% of adults questioned about relaying police information to their children admitted to doing so frequently, adding that this behavior was mostly found among African Americans and can be considered specific to racial variables. Informing others, particularly one's child, about the police as negative or untrustworthy is not a malicious act committed by the parents. Brunson and Waitzer (2011) suggested that African American adults who communicate negative feelings/attitudes toward the police to their children do so in an effort to warn or protect their children from racially motivated encounters. This transmission of negative attitudes is viewed as essential to keeping their children safe among those living in high crime and/or low SES communities, with a substantial difference in police-civilian relationships compared to more affluent communities.

Socioeconomic Differences in Attitude Toward the Police

In addition to race, living in low SES and/or high crime areas is associated with negative attitudes toward police, with these areas often having more turbulent encounters between civilians and police (Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Individuals who live in lower SES areas come into more negative contact with police officers and are more often arrested than those in higher SES areas (Tapia, 2011; Wu, Sun, & Triplett, 2009). Generally, more contact with the police, especially police-initiated contact, is associated with more negative attitudes (Ren, Cao, Lovrich,

& Gaffney, 2005; Schuck et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2015). In addition to the amount of contact, the use of aggressive police tactics occurs more often in lower SES, disadvantaged, primarily non-Caucasian communities (Callanan & Rosenberger, 2011; Roberts, 2008). Police harassment and discriminatory behavior is not the sole explanation for the relationship between SES and negative attitudes. Other possible reasons for more negative attitudes towards the police among individuals from low-SES communities include: a lack of police engagement in the community, specifically police being absent and not available when called, a "code of the street" for conduct norms (Anderson, 2002), more retaliatory attitudes (Copeland-Linder et al., 2007), neighborhood disorder (Sampson & Bartusch, 1998; Schuck et al., 2008) and acting in an aggressive manner to secure status and take control when community members feel the police have failed them (Brunson et al., 2007; Brunson & Waitzer, 2011; Copeland-Linder et al., 2007).

SES is a moderator of the relationship between race and attitudes toward the police, with African Americans and Caucasians in lower SES neighborhoods holding generally similar negative attitudes, and racial differences in attitudes emerging as SES increases (Chermak et al., 2006; Web & Marshall, 1995). While African Americans tend to have more negative views of the police compared to Caucasians, when comparing African Americans in a low SES community to African Americans in a higher SES community, the higher SES community members tend to have more positive views of the police. One explanation is that African Americans who live in higher SES neighborhoods have lower violence in their communities, which positively affects their attitude toward the police (Chermak et al., 2006; Weitzer & Tusch, 2005).

Influence of Previous Involvement- Incarcerated Sample

Those who have previously been in contact with the police hold more negative attitudes of police, with this relationship moderated by the nature of the police-civilian encounter (Brown & Benedict, 2002; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Schuck et al., 2008; Skogan, 2005); less favorable outcomes from the encounter are associated with more negative attitudes (Tyler, 2006). Skogan (2005) noted those who experienced higher mistreatment by police and report being disrespected hold more negative attitudes than those who do not report such dissatisfaction with their encounter. Additional factors contributing to this relationship may be neighborhood characteristics, as those in low SES and/or high crime areas tend to experience more mistreatment and generally have more negative attitudes, and/or individual factors such as retaliatory attitudes and antisocial behavior. Individuals with antisocial behavior may engage in more criminal behavior and therefore have more negative encounters with the police. The relationship between unfair/harsh treatment and negative attitudes described by Skogan (2005) is supported by Procedural Justice Theory, specifically "the manner in which law enforcement interacts with and responds to citizens greatly shapes public response to society's laws generally and police more particularly" (Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013; Tyler, 1997). This indicates that characteristics of the civilian are not fully responsible for the interplay of police-civilian encounters and the subsequent impact on attitudes, but that police behavior is equally responsible.

Additionally, prior offending has been found to be significantly associated with youth's perceptions of the justice system, negative attitudes of the police, and re-offending 12 months later (Cavanaugh & Cauffman, 2015; Wu et al., 2015). In a study of incarcerated adolescents' attitudes of the police, those who had prior incarcerations had significantly higher levels of

negative attitudes when compared to those incarcerated for the first time, and these negative attitudes persisted over the 18-month period of incarceration (Piquero, 2005).

Mental Health of Adolescents in the Justice System

Untreated psychological distress leads to greater recidivism. Hartinger-Saunders and colleagues (2011) concluded psychological distress has a cumulative impact on offending behaviors, with psychological distress being significantly positively related to offending behaviors two years after initial testing. Attention to mental health concerns while incarcerated decreases the propensity to re-offend, with adolescents tried in courts sensitive to mental health concerns having a significantly lower rate of recidivism (Ramirez, Andretta, Barnes, & Woodland, 2015). Juveniles involved in the justice system experience elevated levels of psychological distress when compared to the general population, with the majority qualifying for at least one diagnosis (Andretta, Thompson, Ramirez, Kelly, Barnes, & Woodland, 2014; Beijersbergen, Dirkzwager, Eichelsheim, Van Der Laan, & Nieuwbeerta, 2014; Fazel & Seewald, 2012; Gretton & Clift, 2011; McCoy, Vaughn, Maynard, Salas-Wright, 2014; Teplin, Abram, McClelland, Mericle, Dulcan, & Washburn, 2006). Aside from conduct disorder and oppositional defiant disorder, the most common psychological disorders among youth involved in the juvenile justice system include depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Baglivio, Wolff, Piquero & Epps, 2015; Hartinger-Saunders, Rittner, Wieczorek, Nochajski, Rine, & Welte, 2011; Moore et al., 2015; Nieland, McCluskie, & Tait, 2001; Teplin et al., 2006). Additionally, personality characteristics such as aggression, anger, callous-unemotional traits, and impulsivity are common among those engaged in offending behavior (e.g., Baglivio et al., 2015; Kiehl, 2014; McCoy et al., 2014; Nieland et al., 2001).

Attitudes toward police and the greater justice system have the potential to impact mental health status. In a study of incarcerated females, Tatar and colleagues (2012) found greater perceived injustice to be associated with negative mental health outcomes, specifically depression and anger, and a higher recidivism rate when compared to those who perceived the justice system more fairly (Tatar et al, 2012). In agreement with Tatar and colleagues (2012), Beijersbergen and colleagues (2014) found higher opinions of procedural justice, particularly fairness and respect, predicted lower mental health concerns after three months incarcerated. While acknowledging the relationship between procedural justice, legitimacy, and mental health status, Penner (2012) suggests mental state may be a predictor of legal system views instead of an outcome variable, concluding those with higher psychopathy, substance abuse, and trauma report lower views of legitimacy of the law. It is critical to address the mental health of youth involved in the justice system, specifically the presence of depressive, anxiety, or aggressive symptoms, in an effort to not only reduce recidivism, but to improve overall wellbeing.

Importance of Studying Juvenile Attitudes Toward the Police

While adolescents disproportionally come into contact with the police (Romain & Hassell, 2014; Taylor et al., 2001; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009), few studies have focused on the development of attitudes toward the police in adolescents (Carr, Napolitano & Keating, 2007; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Taylor et al., 2001; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Even fewer studies have addressed attitudes toward the police of juveniles who have offended, with only three studies addressing similar constructs: Piquero (2005) focused on attitudes toward legal authorities, Cavanaugh and Cauffman (2015) focused on attitudes of juveniles offending for the first time, and Tatar et al. (2012) focused on the closely related concept of procedural justice among adolescents. It is important to focus more research on justice-involved adolescents, as their

attitudes may influence their decision to engage or not engage in future criminal behavior. At the same time, research on adult attitudes towards police may not be representative of adolescent attitudes (Cavanaugh & Cauffman, 2015).

Prior studies focusing on attitudes toward the police with adult populations found mixed results, and those finding adults to have generally positive views toward the police note the findings disappear when additional sociodemographic variables are included (Hurst & Frank, 2000, Lacks & Gordon, 2005; Pastore & Maguire, 2007; Schuck et al., 2008). Studies focusing on adolescent populations report generally negative attitudes. Hurst and Frank (2000) found juveniles do not support the police with less than 40% of respondents indicating any level of support, and Carr et al., (2007) corroborated this finding with a qualitative study of teens in Philadelphia neighborhoods. The negative attitudes held by juveniles add to tensions already existing between police officers and youth (Flexon et al., 2009). Interactions between police and juveniles require additional skills on the part of the police officer, compared to when interacting with an adult. Hinds (2009) reports that most interactions between youth and police take place with no other adults present, and police have the ability to use a large amount of discretion in their encounters with youth.

Further research on juvenile attitudes toward the police informs both policing procedures and a greater understanding of teen delinquent behavior. By understanding teen perceptions, the police are able to distinguish between age groups where both maturity level and circumstances for interaction with police may be very different. Additionally, police may gain an understanding of adolescents' worldviews, motivations, and backgrounds from a cultural standpoint. For the majority of juveniles, the police are the only legal authority with whom they will come in contact; therefore, the police are representative of the entire justice system (Flexon et al., 2009;

Hurst & Frank, 2000; Tyler, 2006). This places an even larger importance on positive interactions between the two groups. Additionally, understanding the views teens hold toward police is informative regarding their acknowledgement or rejection of police as a legitimate authority, which is influenced by personal trust and confidence. The perception of police as a legitimate authority may influence decisions to engage in criminal activity, compliance while incarcerated, and how the teen will react in future police encounters (Cavanagh & Cauffman, 2015; Romain & Hassel, 2014; Taylor 2001).

The Current Study

The current study examined the attitudes toward the police held by youth engaged in delinquent activity compared to those held by their primary guardian. Analyses focused on similarities and differences between child and guardian attitudes and the relationship between these attitudes, sociodemographic variables, and mental health. Prior studies have focused primarily on adults, with a more recent focus on juveniles. However, these juveniles have mainly been high school students, not incarcerated youth (Hurst & Frank, 2000; Romain & Hassell, 2014; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Additionally, prior studies have had conflicting results as to whether or not juvenile attitudes align with those of adults. The current study explored the alignment/misalignment of parental attitudes and adolescents' attitudes toward police, using a sample of parents and teens participating in a larger program evaluation. The mental health of youth was assessed to add nuance to the description of youth attitudes towards the police. Finally, the current media focus on negative police involvement with adolescents, primarily African Americans, highlights the importance of studies of race, parenting, and police perceptions. Lastly, many previous studies regarding attitudes toward police focus on the behavior of the police officers (e.g., Callanan & Rosenberger, 2011; Chermak et al., 2006;

Flexon et al., 2009; Gau, 2010; Weitzer & Brunson, 2009) whereas the current study focused on the attitudes and characteristics of teens who have interacted with police.

Hypotheses

The following were the primary hypotheses for this project:

Hypothesis 1. The police attitudes of juveniles involved in the criminal justice system will be positively associated with their primary guardian's police attitudes, with dyads reporting a more positive parent-child relationship having a stronger positive association in attitudes.

Hypothesis 2. African American adolescents and their parents will have more negative attitudes toward the police when compared to Caucasians.

Hypothesis 3. Lower neighborhood SES will be associated with more negative attitudes toward the police.

Hypothesis 4. Negative police attitudes will positively correlate with general criminogenic attitudes.

Hypothesis 5. Adolescents' mental health symptoms (i.e. depression, anxiety, aggression) will be associated with attitudes toward the police; teens with more negative attitudes towards the police will report more mental health symptoms.

CHAPTER II. METHOD

Participants

The current study used secondary data collected from an evaluation of programs for youth re-entering the community from juvenile detention in an urban metropolitan county in the Midwest. The final sample consisted of 70 adolescents aged 14-19 years old, racially representative of the general U.S. incarcerated juvenile population (W. Haywood Burns Institute, 2013). Fifty-two parents/guardians were also interviewed, which resulted in 51 dyads for certain analyses and 39 dyads for others. Differences in available dyads for analysis are due to some interview data having been collected before the addition of the Attitudes Toward the Police Scale to the interview protocol. Thirty-nine parents/guardians and 53 youth completed the Attitudes Toward Police Scale. Fifty-two parents/guardians and 67 youth completed the relationship satisfaction measure. There were 19 youth whose parent/guardian was not interviewed, due to parents/guardians not being reachable or not agreeing to participate.

Participants were recruited from a detention facility, probation department, community treatment center, and a domestic violence program. All youth participants spent some time in a juvenile detention facility. The majority of participants (youth n=63) were recruited and surveyed through a re-entry services grant evaluation. An additional seven participants were recruited through court staff (therapists, probation officers, program directors) in an attempt to increase the size of the study sample. On an assessment for risk of re-offending (OYAS, see below), the majority of adolescents in the present study score in the overall Moderate to High risk range, as a condition for their receipt of the re-entry services under evaluation. A total of nine youth scored in the Low range on the OYAS. Eight youth included in the present study were not administered the OYAS.

Measures

Measures reported in the current study include the Youth Outcome Questionnaire (YOQ; Wells, Burlingame, Lambert, Hoag, & Hope, 1996), Youth Outcome Questionnaire- Self Report (YOQ-SR; Ridge, Warren, Burlingame, Wells, & Tumblin, 2009), Attitude Toward Police (ATP) Scale (Hardin, 2004), Ohio Youth Assessment System (OYAS; Lovins & Latessa, 2013), and US Census data.

Demographics. The adolescent's age, race, and home address were retrieved from court records accessed through the JIS justice information systems located at the juvenile court office.

Variable construction. Neighborhood socioeconomic status was measured using two separate variables: percent of people in a certain zip code living below the poverty level for the past 12 months, and median household income. This information was acquired from the 2015 American Community Survey, part of the United States Census tracking. Neighborhood socioeconomic data are available for 68 adolescents.

Youth Outcome Questionnaire (YOQ). The YOQ is completed by the parent or guardian to assess child and adolescent (age 4-17) mental health. YOQ data are available for 25 parent/guardians, which resulted in 25 dyads. The questionnaire includes 64 questions across six subscales, with 18 items for Interpersonal Distress (ID), 8 for Somatic (S), 10 for Interpersonal Relations (IP), 8 for Social Problems (SP), 11 for Behavioral Dysfunction (BD), and 9 for Critical Items (CI). Participants respond to each item using Likert-type responses with 1= *Never* and 5= *Almost Always or Always*, with a higher score indicating a higher level of overall distress. Subscales are calculated by taking the sum of items within each scale. In previous studies the subscales' Cronbach's alphas range from .74 to .93, with a total alpha level of .96, indicating high internal consistency (Wells, Burlingame, Lambert, Hoag, & Hope, 1996). Because item-

level data are not available for this sample, Cronbach's alpha could not be calculated[1]. Subscales were summed to form the "total score," which was used in addition to the individual subscales in the present study (see Cannon, Warren, Nelson, & Burligame, 2010; Tucker, Zelov, & Young, 2017). See Appendix A for additional information and a complete list of items.

Youth Outcome Questionnaire- Self Report (YOQ-SR). The YOQ-SR is completed by the adolescent and includes the same six subscales from the YOQ, with previous studies indicating Cronbach's alpha ranging from .71 to .91 on the subscales and a total alpha level of .95, indicating high internal consistency (Ridge, Warren, Burlingame, Wells, & Tumblin, 2009). YOQ-SR data are available for 28 adolescents and 25 dyads. The scale includes Likert type responses 1= *Never* and 5= *Almost Always or Always*, with a higher score indicating a higher level of overall distress. Because item level-data are not available for this sample, Cronbach's alpha was not able to be calculated[2]. Subscales were summed to form the "total score," which was used in addition to the individual subscales in the present study. See Appendix B for additional information and a complete list of items.

Attitude Toward Police. The Attitude Toward Police Scale includes seven items, with the mean score capturing overall attitude toward police (ATP). A higher score indicates attitudes that are more favorable. Attitudes Toward Police data are available for 53 adolescents and 39 parent/guardians, which resulted in 37 dyads. Examples of items include "I feel the police are honest" and "I feel that the police are prejudiced against minorities" (reverse-scored). Responses are Likert type with 1= *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*, with a higher overall score

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[1 & 2] Subscale and total score data were obtained from the court, with a separate research entity having ownership of item level data.

denoting a more positive attitude toward police. Previous studies have found the scale's Cronbach's alpha score is .85 and is appropriate for use with adolescents and adults. The measure has been used in highly cited studies of attitude toward the police with the current study using the shortened version (Taylor et al., 2001); the original version was developed by Dunham and Alpert (1988). In the current sample, the internal consistency for the parent/guardian-report (α=.70) and the youth report (α= .87) was moderate to high, consistent with previous research. See Appendix C for additional information and a complete list of items.

Ohio Youth Assessment System (OYAS). The OYAS includes five versions of a semi-structured interview, or "tools", used to assess risk for reoffending and to match the youth with services based on their level of risk (Lovins & Latessa, 2013). OYAS data are available for 62 adolescents. The five tools are designed for use at different stages of juvenile justice involvement, such as the Disposition OYAS or the Re-entry OYAS, to determine individual service needs including how long an individual should stay in a residential facility, and when it is appropriate for the adolescent to be released. Risk categories include low, moderate, and high, and for each tool, risks are assessed for a number of domains such as "Peers and Social Support" or "Education and Employment". Subscales on these separate domains are used both for research purposes and to assist in funding and administrative decisions. Youth involved in the current study were interviewed by court staff using either the Re-Entry or Disposition tool, in addition to self-report, depending on their charge and court involvement. Youth who were released from a residential facility were administered the Re-Entry version of the OYAS to facilitate their re-entry into the community. Youth who did not spend time in a residential facility were assessed using the Dispositional version of the OYAS. This tool is used for case planning following adjudication. For youth for which multiple OYAS versions were available, the most recent

OYAS assessment was used. See Table 1 for descriptive statistics regarding the OYAS assessment tools. See Appendix D for a complete list of domains and items for both the Re-Entry and Disposition subscales. Because item-level data are not available for this sample, Cronbach's alpha could not be calculated[3]. The following are descriptions of the two OYAS risk assessments used in the present study:

1. Ohio Youth Assessment System- Re-Entry (OYAS-RET). The OYAS-RET is administered by intake staff at the residential treatment facility upon entry and subsequently every six months while the youth remains in the facility. The tool includes seven domains and 33 items. The seven domains include Juvenile Justice History; Family and Living Arrangements; Peers and Social Support Network; Education and Employment; Pro-Social Skills; Substance Abuse, Mental Health, and Personality; Values, Beliefs, and Attitudes (Lovins & Latessa, 2013). The current study used the Values, Beliefs and Attitudes scale as a measure of criminogenic beliefs, calculated as a sum of 6 items (sample items: "Demonstrates empathy toward others", "Attitudes towards gangs"). The item range is 0-1, except for the item "Demonstrates remorse for offence," in which the options are 0= full remorse, 1= some remorse, 2= no remorse. For the majority of items, a score of "1" indicated attitudes supporting criminal activity, substance use, and gang involvement. The Juvenile Justice History scale was used to measure severity of criminal behavior, calculated as a sum of 7 items, with an item range of 0-1. An item score of "1" indicated that the youth has engaged in the specific prior criminal activity or had contact with the juvenile justice system prior to age 13-years old (sample item: "Weapon used during a

[3] Subscale and total score data were obtained from the court, with a separate research entity having ownership of item level data.

crime"). The Family and Living Arrangements scale was used to measure the youth's relationship with their parents and parents' criminal history, calculated as a sum of 4 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Family member has been arrested", "Positive relationship with person at planned residence." The Substance Abuse, Mental Health and Personality scale was used to measure the youth's history of drug use, severity of a substance abuse problem, and risk taking behavior calculated as a sum of 4 items, with an item range 0-1 (sample items: "Others complained about drug/alcohol use", "Used substances while in residential facility"). The Peers and Social Support Network scale measures the youth's quality of relationships and social support network, calculated as the sum of 9 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Adults in the community are supportive", "Acquaintances use drugs"). The Pro-Social Skills scale measured the youth's ability to problem solve in a constructive way calculated as the sum of 4 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Weighs pro/cons of a situation", "Pro-social decision making"). Latessa, Lovins, and Lux (2011) found the inter-rater reliability for the OYAS-RET to be high, with a kappa score of .81.

2. Ohio Youth Assessment System- Disposition (OYAS-DIS). This measure is administered by juvenile court staff following disposition to determine subsequent interventions for the youth. This tool includes 32 items over the same seven domains assessed in the OYAS-RET, though the items are not identical to those in the OYAS-RET. McCafferty (2013) found the Cronbach's alpha to be .82 for the overall OYAS-DIS score. Additionally, Lovins, Latessa, and Lux (2011) found the inter-rater reliability of the OYAS-DIS to be high, with a kappa score of .80. The current study used the Values, Beliefs and Attitudes scale as a measure of criminogenic beliefs, calculated as a sum of 5 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Attitudes towards gang", "Pro-criminal sentiments"). The Juvenile Justice History scale was used to

measure severity of criminal behavior, calculated as a sum of 2 items ("Previous adjudications" and "Documented contact with the juvenile justice system"). For the first item, the item range was 0-1 with 0=14 years or older, 1= 13 years or younger. For the second item, the item range was 0-2, with 0=no prior adjudications, 1=1 prior adjudication, and 2= 2 or more prior adjudications. The Family and Living Arrangements was used to measure the youth's relationship with their parents and parents' criminal history, calculated as a sum of 6 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Relationship with adults", "Consistently applies consequences"). The Substance Abuse, Mental Health, and Personality scale was used to measure the youth's history of drug use, mental health issues, and self-esteem calculated as a sum of 6 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Used drugs recently", "Inflated self-esteem"). The Peer and Social Support Network scale was used to determine the youth's friend's engagement in criminal or deviant behavior calculated as a sum of 6 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample items: "Friends arrested", "Friends are important"). The Pro-Social Skills scale measured the youth's ability to problem solve in a constructive way calculated as a sum of 3 items, with an item range of 0-1 (sample item: "Can identify triggers/high risk situations").

Parent- Child Relationship. The Parent- Child Relationship Questionnaire includes eight questions addressing the parent and child's view of their relationship (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Parent-Child Relationship data are available for 67 adolescents and 52 parent/guardians, which resulted in 51 dyads. Higher scores indicate a more positive relationship. Two example questions include, "How often are you proud of your parent [child]?" and "How often do you feel angry or irritated by your parent [child]?" (reversed scored). Responses are Likert type, with 0= Almost Never and 5= Almost Always. Cronbach's alpha in previous studies was .89 (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Within this sample, the internal consistency for the parent/guardian-report (α .79)

and youth report (α = .86) was high, consistent with previous research (α=.92). See Appendix E for a complete list of items.

Procedure

Youth and their parent/guardian were recruited for the study following discharge from the treatment facility and prior to (or early in the process) of Functional Family Therapy (FFT) or related programming. Additional adolescents and their parents/guardians were recruited through the Juvenile Probation Department and Juvenile Detention Center. A member of the research team or a director of court programming administered consent forms to a parent or primary guardian to consent both for clinical psychology graduate students to talk with their child and consent for their own participation in the study. This consent form also gives permission for the research team to obtain the adolescent's arrest data, OYAS scores, and demographic information from the court. Adolescents with parent consent were approached by a BGSU graduate student and asked to assent to their participation in the study. See Appendix F for the consent and assent documents. Parent and child were then interviewed in separate semi- private rooms/areas, where they could not be heard by each other or by any court officials. The graduate student began the survey by reading the instructions and the first question of each measure. Additional items were read aloud if there is a concern about the participant's reading ability. The survey included questions about parental monitoring, bonding, and satisfaction with mental health services; however, the current study focuses on beliefs about police and mental health status. At the completion of the survey, the participants were thanked for their participation and parents were given a $10 gift card for a fast food restaurant. The last seven adolescents recruited were also given a $10 gift card for their participation in addition to their parent/guardian, in an effort to increase study participation. The majority of adolescents were not given a gift card for their participation in the study, as they were incarcerated during the time of participation.

Data provided by the court. During the intake process, OYAS data are collected by the detention facility staff, with this differing by the child's charge and who they first come in contact with in the system- such as domestic violence services versus the Youth Treatment Center (YTC). Youth assessed at YTC are administered the OYAS Re-Entry and youth assessed in short-term detention or while residing in the community on probation are administered the OYAS Disposition. Court staff provide OYAS data directly to researchers at the University of Cincinnati, who score the measure and provide reports to the court at the domain-level (not item-level). The research team receives OYAS domain data from the court research analyst.

Data provided by mental health providers. YOQ data are collected at the beginning of FFT by the FFT therapist. The adolescent and their guardian complete HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996) consent through the FFT therapist. This allows the research team to obtain YOQ data from the mental health agency. This information was only available for youth participating in the present study who were also engaged in FFT services (n= 28).

CHAPTER III. RESULTS

Overview of Analyses

Preliminary analyses. Descriptive statistics were computed to describe the demographics of the sample for adolescents as well as demographics for the parent/guardians in the sample. Data were checked for outliers and skewness. Next, correlations were computed between all study variables of interest (mental health data, OYAS criminal risk, police attitudes, race, age, and relationship satisfaction).

Major analyses. An independent samples t-test was used to determine significant overall differences between adolescent and adults' attitudes toward the police. Paired t-tests were then used to determine significant differences between parent/guardian and adolescent reported attitudes toward the police, relationship satisfaction and adolescent mental health problems. Moderation analyses were conducted, using the PROCESS Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2012), to determine the impact of parent/guardian and adolescent relationship on the association between parent/guardian and adolescent attitudes toward the police. Two moderation models were tested: 1) parent/guardian attitudes toward the police as the independent variable, adolescent attitudes toward the police as the dependent variable, and parent reported relationship satisfaction as the moderator; 2) parent/guardian attitudes toward the police as the independent variable, adolescent attitudes toward the police as the dependent variable, and adolescent reported relationship satisfaction as the moderator. The PROCESS Macro calculates unstandardized beta weights for all paths in the model, as well as bootstrapped upper- and lower-bound confidence intervals to determine the significance of the indirect effects of the predictors on the outcome through each proposed moderator variable; if the confidence interval does not include zero, the indirect effect is significant.

Results of the Preliminary Analyses

Missing and skewed data. As data for the present study were collected and obtained from multiple sources, there were many cases of missing data. There were youth in the study who completed the initial pre-test before the Attitudes Toward Police measure was added (*n* =17), youth who did not enroll in mental health services (*n* =42), and youth who did not complete an OYAS (*n* =8). Thus, there were subgroups for which a small amount of data were available. Additionally, many parents/guardians for youth in the study were not interviewed (*n* =31 youth without a matching parent/guardian interview). This is why there are significantly more youth participants than there are dyads. Because all data was missing at the participant- or measure- level rather than at the item-level within a measure, missing data was not imputed and was treated as missing. Median household income had a positive skew and youth- reported relationship satisfaction with their parent/guardian had a negative skew. As the criterion variable (attitude toward police) was not skewed, transformations were not used.

Descriptive statistics. Sample demographics are presented in Table 1. In this sample, the racial/ethnic demographics are consistent with the over-representation of African American adolescents in the court system compared to Caucasian adolescents, a ratio of 5:1 provided by the Burns Institute (2013). In the present study, there were substantially more males than females. The national ratio is 3:1 male to female among arrested adolescents (OJJDP, 2017). However, in the present study, there were approximately 7 times more males than females recruited; this is likely due to the higher-risk sample being recruited. Seven of the parent/guardians in this sample were male (13.5%) and 45 were female (86.5%).

Neighborhood socioeconomic status (SES). Adolescent participants in the sample were from 19 different zip codes in an urban metropolitan county in the Midwestern United States.

Many participants lived in neighborhoods with a substantial amount of residents living below the poverty level, with 64.3% (*n* =45) of participants living in neighborhoods where more than 30% of residents live below the poverty level for the past 12 months. Additionally, 24.3% (*n* =17) participants lived in neighborhoods with 40% or more of residents living below the poverty level for the last 12 months—neighborhoods that can be considered areas of "concentrated poverty" (Wilson, 1996). The mean neighborhood median income was $32,047 (*SD* = $11,992), and the mean percent of neighborhood residents living in poverty was 32% (*SD* = 12%). Median household income had a positive skew, more than twice its standard error, indicating the sample is largely comprised of participants living in disadvantaged neighborhoods. See Table 2 for additional neighborhood income demographics.

Neighborhood SES characteristics were found to be associated with both parent and peer relationship factors. The percent of neighborhood residents living below the poverty level was correlated with parent report of the relationship with their child, such that parents residing in neighborhoods with higher poverty reported higher-quality relationships with the child (*n* =50, *r*=.40, *p*<.001). Neighborhood poverty was also significantly associated with higher peer risk on the Peer OYAS (*n* =58, *r*=.27, *p*=.04). Higher median neighborhood household income was associated with both the lower parent reported relationship total (*n* =50, *r*=-.31, *p*=.03) and lower OYAS Peer risk (*n* =58, *r*=-.29, *p*=.03).

Youth mental health. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the youth mental health measures are reported in Table 3. Higher adolescent mental health scores were associated with their perception of more positive relationship quality with their parents. Higher adolescent-reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationship score, a score capturing aggressive behavior and defiance with peers and/or family members, was associated with more positive parent/guardian-

reported relationship quality. Higher youth-reported YOQ Behavioral Dysfunction was associated with the parent/guardian's report of the child having greater overall mental health problems and higher youth's OYAS total score was associated with higher youth-reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationships score and a higher YOQ Social Problems score. Higher OYAS Pro Social Skills risk score was associated with a higher youth self-reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationships score, higher youth- reported YOQ Social Problems, and higher parent- reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationships score.

Relationship satisfaction between youth and parent/guardian. Youth- reported relationship satisfaction with their parent was negatively correlated with their OYAS peer score (n =57, r=-.30, p=.02), suggesting youth who reported positive relationships with their parents were less associated with youth who were engaged in delinquent behavior, used drugs, and were gang affiliated. Youth- reported relationship with their parent had a negative skew (more than twice its standard error) suggesting that the majority of adolescents reported parent/guardian positive relationship quality.

Results of Major Analyses

Hypothesis 1: Parent/Guardian and Adolescent Attitudes Toward the Police. An independent samples t-test comparing the adult and adolescent samples revealed that adults and adolescents had significantly different attitudes toward the police with adults having significantly more positive attitudes, as indicted by a higher score, (M= 3.18, SD=.88) compared to adolescents (M=2.42, SD= .69; t(90)=-4.62, p<.001). Adults' overall attitudes were closer to the "Neither Agree nor Disagree" option on the measure compared to adolescents. Adolescents' scores were closer to the "Disagree" choice when asked their level of agreement/disagreement with positively phrased statements regarding the police. When adolescents were paired with their

parent/guardian using paired samples t-tests, parents reported more favorable attitudes toward the police (*M*=3.13, *SD*=.85) compared to their children (*M*=2.44, *SD*=.74; *t*(36) = -4.90, *p*< .001). Adolescent age was negatively correlated with both parent/guardian reported police attitudes (*n* =39, *r*=-.45, *p*<.001), and adolescent reported police attitudes (*n* =53, *r*=-.27, *p*=.05), with older youth and their parents/guardians reporting more negative attitudes toward the police.

Adolescents reported more positive relationships with their parents (*M*=2.99, *SD*=.75), compared to parent report (*M*=2.33, *SD*= .66; *t*(50)=5.12, *p*<.001).

Hypothesis 1, Model 1. Adolescent and parent/guardian attitudes toward the police with parent/guardian reported relationship satisfaction. Parent-reported relationship satisfaction did not moderate the association between parent/guardian and adolescent police attitudes, *b*=-.13, *SE*= .30, 95% CI [-.74, .49], R^2= .190, *t*=-.42, *p*=.67.

Hypothesis 1, Model 2. Adolescent and parent/guardian attitudes toward the police with adolescent reported relationship satisfaction. Youth-reported relationship satisfaction significantly moderated the association between parent/guardian and adolescent police attitudes, *b* = -.45, *SE* = .18, 95% CI [-.82, -.08], R^2 = .291, *t* = -2.45, *p* = .02. When youth report their relationship with their parent/guardian to be more negative, operationalized as lower total scores (1 SD below the mean) on the Parent- Child Relationship Questionnaire, there is a significant positive relationship between the parent and child attitudes toward the police, *b*=.78, *SE* = .13, 95% CI [.51, 1.05], *t*=5.95, *p*<.001. At the mean value of youth- reported relationship quality with their parent/guardian, there is a significant positive relationship between parent and child attitude toward the police, *b*=.40, *se*=.12 95% CI [.16, .64], *t*=3.42, *p*<.01. When youth report their relationship with their parent/guardian to be more positive (1 SD above the mean), there is a

non-significant positive relationship between the parent and child attitudes toward the police, *b*=.02, *se*= .24, 95% CI [-.47,.51], *t*=.08, *p*=.51.

Hypothesis 2: Race and attitudes toward the police. It was hypothesized that African American adolescents and their parents would have more negative attitudes toward the police when compared to Caucasians. However, as 77% (54 out of 70) of youth in the total sample, 77% (40 of 52) adolescents who answered police attitudes questions, and 76% (29 of 38) parents/guardians who answered police questions are African American, there is not enough racial diversity in the sample to be confident in comparisons across racial/ethnic group. Independent samples t-tests comparing attitudes toward the police of Caucasian (*M*= 2.52, *SD*= .75) and African American (*M*=2.44, *SD*= .70) adolescents revealed the difference in attitudes to be non-significant CI [-.63, .48] *t*(46)= -.27, *p*=.79. A comparison of guardians of Caucasian youth (*M*= 2.93, *SD*= 1.05), and African American (*M*= 3.15, *SD*= .16) youth's guardians, did not reveal a significant difference in attitudes toward the police CI [-.59, 1.02], *t*(33)= .55, *p*=.59.

Hypothesis 3: Neighborhood SES and Attitudes Toward the Police. It was hypothesized that individuals living in neighborhoods with lower SES would be have more negative attitudes toward the police. Lower neighborhood median household income and the percent of people living below the poverty line in the youth's home zip code were not significantly associated with attitudes toward the police for youth and for parents/guardians (Table 2).

Hypothesis 4: Adolescent Attitudes Toward the Police and Criminal Risk Level. It was hypothesized that adolescent negative police attitudes would be associated with a higher criminal risk. The OYAS total risk score, along with the subdomains were not significantly related to youth attitudes toward police (Table 3).

Hypothesis 5: Adolescent Attitudes Toward the Police and Mental Health. It was hypothesized that youth with more mental health symptoms would have more negative attitudes toward the police. Paired samples t-tests revealed that adolescents (*M*= 61.76, *SD*= 33.62) and their parent/guardian (*M*= 68.76, *SD*= 31.40) were generally in agreement on the youth's mental health issues CI [-22.94, 8.94], *t*(25)= -.91, *p*=.38. The mental health (YOQ) scores of adolescents, both youth and parent/guardian report, were not significantly correlated with adolescent attitudes toward the police (see Table 3). However, there was a negative borderline trend toward significance for youth-reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationship issues and attitudes toward the police (*n* =17, *r*=-.48, *p*=.05). Additionally, a negative trend was found for parent-reported youth's YOQ Interpersonal Relationship problems and youth attitude toward the police (*n* =15, *r*=-.47, *p*=.08). Lastly, there was a negative trend for youth- reported YOQ Interpersonal Distress and youth attitudes toward the police (*n* =17, *r*=-.43, *p*=.09). These trends, while non-significant, suggest that youth with greater relationship problems tend to have more negative attitudes towards the police.

CHAPTER IV. DISCUSSION

Criminal justice and psychology scholars have studied attitudes toward the police for decades (Brunson et al., 2007; Hurst and Frank, 2000; Wu et al., 2015). However, few studies focus on the attitudes of parents and their children, and even fewer focus on youth involved in the juvenile justice system. Understanding attitudes toward the police of youth involved in the justice system, and how these attitudes developed, may aid the creation of interventions for improving police-civilian relationships, especially among youth at risk for increased contact with the police. The present study suggests that mental health, legal involvement and attitudes toward the police are interrelated and thus should be considered as components of future intervention programming.

Attitudes Toward the Police

In the present study, adults had more favorable attitudes toward the police compared to adolescents. When attitudes were analyzed specifically between youth matched with their parent/guardian, the difference was significant, with parent/guardians having more favorable views. The hypothesis that parents/guardians and adolescents would have similar views was not supported. Adults overall tended to rate their attitudes in statements about the police with neutral responses, while adolescents overall tended to give responses in between “neither agree nor disagree” and “disagree”. Although many studies have mixed findings regarding differences between adults and children in their attitudes toward the police, those that indicate a difference suggest that adults have more positive views, consistent with current findings (Hurst & Frank, 2000, Lacks & Gordon, 2005; Pastore & Maguire, 2007; Schuck et al., 2008). Adults may have more positive views of the police than their children because their children are presently involved in the justice system and the parents/guardians may never have had personal legal

system involvement. Additionally, Brunson and Waitzer (2011) note a generational difference between parents today and the previous generation. They suggest that parents today appear to be more concerned with their child's safety and in the past, the youth's grandparents' instructed the youth's parent on respect and deference to the officer, no matter what the situation was.

Although parents generally had more positive attitudes towards the police, there was a significant positive correlation between a parent's attitudes and that of their child. As the parent/guardians and adolescents were surveyed at the same point in time, it was not possible to determine how parents or youth might influence each other's attitudes over time. However, substantial prior literature suggests that legal system attitudes (Cavenaugh & Cauffman; Ferdik, Wolfe, & Blasco, 2013; Piquero et al., 2005) and attitudes toward the police specifically (Brunson & Waitzer, 2011) are transmitted from parent to child. The results of the current cross-sectional study reinforce the existing findings that children tend to have attitudes that are significantly more similar to those of their parents than those of other adults.

Associations between adolescent age and attitudes toward the police also suggest some developmental patterns. Adolescents who are older were found to have more negative attitudes toward the police. As adults had slightly more favorable opinions toward the police, as adolescents age, their attitudes toward the police move farther away from those of the adults. It is likely that older adolescents in the sample had more personal experience with police and the criminal justice system, influencing more negative attitudes. Older adolescents are also in a developmental period where they are asserting independence from their parents/guardians. As youth develop, they may transition from attitudes that are positive toward the police, to attitudes that are more negative, followed by attitudes that are more positive, as they age out of criminal behavior and become adults. This is consistent with Moffitt's (1993) research on adolescent-

limited offenders. Moffitt asserts that the majority of people who engage in antisocial behavior "age-out" of crime in early- to mid-adulthood. Further, Moffitt concludes that late adolescence is the age range in which most people are likely to engage in adolescent behavior. It is expected that those who are heavily engaged in deviant behavior would be the same individuals who have the most negative attitudes toward the police.

Relationship Satisfaction

Youth who have positive relationship quality and closeness with their parent have been found to have attitudes that are more consistent with their parent's attitudes and values (Min, Silverstein, & Lendon, 2012; Weinstein & Thornton, 1989). In addition to closeness and relationship quality, secure attachment early in life has been found to contribute to socialization and attitude development (Degner & Delege, 2013). Communication, parental support, and desire to be like their parent are possible pathways for the transmission of attitudes between parents and children with high-quality relationships (Grusec, 2011; Miklikowska, 2015). This is consistent with Stattin and Kerr's research (2000) suggesting that parent-child relationship quality accounts for more "parental monitoring", than parenting behaviors and direct supervision of the youth's activities. They argue that youth will engage in many behaviors outside of the parents' direct supervision, and it is the relationship quality that will lead to the youth communicating and disclosing information about their behavior to the parent/guardian.

As parents have a significant role in their adolescent's attitude development, adolescents and their parent/guardian were surveyed about their relationship satisfaction with one another. Adolescents were found to have significantly more positive views of their relationship with their parent/guardian. This may be because parents/guardians are frustrated with their child's behavior, as they are involved in the criminal justice system. An interesting finding was the

negative association between youth- reported relationship satisfaction with their parent/guardian and criminal peer risk. This suggests that youth who are less satisfied with their relationship with their parent/guardian are the same children at risk for socializing with youth involved in criminal activity. This is consistent with Patterson and colleagues' (1989) developmental research suggesting rejection by normal peer groups and a commitment to a deviant peer group mediates the association between parenting behaviors and youth delinquency (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989).

Among curious or unexpected findings, moderation analyses revealed that when youth report lower relationship satisfaction with their parent/guardian, there is a significantly greater positive association between parent/guardian and youth attitudes toward the police. Prior literature suggests that the direction of this moderation effect would be in the opposite direction, with more positive relationships having a greater influence on attitude similarity (Ferdik & Wolfe, 2013; Flexon et al., 2009; Romain & Hassell, 2014). Additionally, parent- reported higher relationship satisfaction with their child was associated with higher levels of adolescent-reported interpersonal issues on the mental health measure. This is unexpected, as greater interpersonal issues (both with family and peers) would negatively influence the parent/guardian-child relationship. Although these two measures appear similar, they may be measuring different constructs. On the Interpersonal Distress subscale of the YOQ, it is possible that youth are reporting mostly conflicts with peers rather than their parent/guardian. Studies with larger sample sizes may expect to find different results with this association.

Adolescent Mental Health

The mental health of youth involved in the criminal justice system has consistently been associated with legal system involvement and future criminal behavior (Hartinger-Saunders,

Rine, Nochajski, & Wieczorek, 2012; Yoder, Whitaker, & Quinn, 2017). Parents/guardians and youth were both asked to report on the teen's emotional and behavioral concerns. There was not a significant difference between parent/guardian-reported and child self-reported overall mental health symptoms. The subset of youth for whom mental health data were available was small (*n* = 28), possibly explaining the lack of significant findings. Parents/guardians reporting their child to have more overall mental health issues, measured by the YOQ, was associated with the child's report of behavioral dysfunction, a subscale on the self-report YOQ. These findings suggest that parent/guardians and their children were mostly in agreement with regard to the child's emotional and behavioral difficulties. Mental health issues were not found to be related to criminal risk level on the OYAS. Adolescent attitude toward police was approaching significance for a negative association with parent/guardian reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationship difficulties, youth- reported YOQ Interpersonal Relationship difficulties, and youth-reported YOQ Interpersonal Distress (See Table 3). These trending associations suggest that some youth may have more generalized negative attitudes towards adults and peers, including negative attitude toward police, parents/guardians, and other interpersonal contacts. Lastly, it is likely that a third variable, such as living in an impoverished community or exposure to community violence may account for some association between police attitudes and interpersonal issues. Chronic stress associated with living in a high-risk neighborhood can negatively affect emotion regulation and coping abilities. Additionally, children living in these neighborhoods have parents/guardians and peers who are also facing chronic stress, contributing to additional distress in interpersonal relationships (Eamon, 2001; Evans & Kim, 2013).

Race and Socioeconomic Status

No support was found for the hypotheses that African American adolescents and their parents would have more negative attitudes toward the police when compared to Caucasians, nor that lower neighborhood SES would be associated with more negative attitudes toward the police. Due to the imbalance in an already small sample, with the majority of participants being African American males living in disadvantaged communities, the present study lacked statistical power to detect race or neighborhood differences. Although this sample is not representative of the racial demographics of the overall United States, it is representative of those involved in the justice system in the Midwestern U.S. (Burns Institute, 2013). While the sample does represent the greater population of incarcerated youth, it also highlights the racial inequalities present in the justice system. The findings of the overall attitudes toward the police being generally negative or ambivalent are expected as African Americans and those living in disadvantaged communities consistently report more negative attitudes toward the police (Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Additionally, there were hypotheses that were unable to be fully examined due to the small sample size. This includes comparisons across socioeconomic classes, racial groups, and gender.

Strengths and Limitations

Among the strengths of the study were the use of both parent/guardian and adolescent data, as prior studies often ask children and adolescents to report on both their own and their parents' attitudes (Cavanaugh & Cauffman, 2015, Copland-Linder et al., 2007). In addition to attitudes toward the police, the study included both child and parent report of the child's mental health, the relationship quality of the dyad, and the child's criminal risk level. The addition of

these factors facilitates a further understanding of differences between adults and youth, especially in the justice system.

The primary limitation of the current study was the small sample size, further limited by some measures being available for only part of the sample. The small sample size resulted in low power for statistical procedures, reducing the likelihood of finding statistical significance and limiting the generalizability of findings. As some findings were approaching significance, a larger sample may have resulted in more definitive findings overall. Additionally, further comparisons between groups (e.g., race, gender) would have been possible with a larger sample. Another limitation was the small number of dyads for which data were collected in the study. It was easier to meet with the adolescents, as they were often detained during the time of the interview. The study included the use of data that were collected by different agencies for multiple purposes, making it impossible to obtain all of the scores for each participant across all domains of interest. In particular, not every participant recruited for the study was asked to complete mental health and criminal risk assessments. The recruitment of youth from multiple justice system departments also reflects that youth had differing experiences with the juvenile justice system and were involved in different court programming. Their enrollment in court programming (both individual and/or family focused), if and how long they had been detained, and the number of times they encountered police, could all influence attitudes toward the police as well as their relationship with their parent/guardian. If similar future studies could recruit a larger overall sample, this diversity in justice-related experiences could facilitate a more nuanced understanding of the attitudes of court-involved youth, and improve generalizability across youth with diverse experiences. An additional limitation could be potential reluctance of participants to reveal negative opinions. Participants were informed that their opinions would not influence their

standing with the court in any way; however, it is possible that participants felt they could not be fully honest with their opinions of the police, as a result of general mistrust of the justice system, thus their attitudes may be more negative than what they portrayed in the interview.

Conclusions and Future Directions

Overall, the present study represents progress in our understanding of the associations between mental health, attitudes toward police, criminal behavior, and parent-child relationships. The lack of racial and socioeconomic diversity in the sample, which limited some of the analyses that could be tested, highlights the stark racial and SES differences between incarcerated youth and the public. Future studies should focus on the experience of incarcerated adolescents and their families, as this specific population has more interaction with the police than the general public. These studies should examine how parent/guardian's personal experiences with the criminal justice system might be associated with their attitudes towards the police, as well their children's attitudes. It is expected that adults who have had personal experience with the police and incarceration would educate their children differently regarding attitudes toward the police. With the present study using a 7-item questionnaire, future studies may choose to ask more detailed questions about attitudes toward police including reasoning for answering positive/negative, what parents and adolescents believe to be contributing to their own attitude development, and asking for feedback on how to improve police-civilian relationships. A future measure of attitudes toward the police may also choose to not include the "neither agree nor disagree" option. Discussing attitudes toward the police may seem to be a controversial or sensitive topic to participants, thus participants may choose the middle option in an effort to not disclose their true attitudes. It is also necessary to further study the communication of attitudes from parent to child regarding the role of the police, laws, and how to interact with police. In

order to fully understand the role of attitudes and mental health on recidivism, it would be necessary to conduct longitudinal studies tracking the progression of attitudes, criminal behavior, and mental health symptoms over time. This would include asking youth and their parents about their attitudes toward the police multiple times over the course of childhood, adolescence, and adulthood and pairing their answers with those of their parent/guardian. As the present study concluded that adults, younger adolescents, and older adolescents have differing attitudes toward the police, this further substantiates the need for a longitudinal study in this area. Lastly, future studies may ask youth and their parent/guardian about their attitudes toward the police at multiple time points throughout the youth's involvement in the criminal justice system to understand how attitudes and mental health symptoms may change throughout justice system involvement.

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APPENDIX A. TABLES

Table 1

Adolescent Race, Gender, and Criminal Risk Level Demographics

Variable	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Race		
African American	54	77.1
Caucasian	10	14.3
Hispanic/Latino	2	2.9
Multiracial	3	4.3
Missing	1	
Gender		
Male	61	87.1
Female	9	12.9
OYAS Risk		
Low	9	14.5
Moderate	34	54.8
High	19	30.6
OYAS Type		
Re-Entry	35	56.5
Dispositional	27	43.5

Table 2

Bivariate Correlations: ATP, Youth Age, & SES

	1	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
1. Youth Age (14-19)	1 (70)					16.64	1.37
2. % Living Below Poverty Line (3.3-61.4)	.06 (68)	1				32.46	11.8
3. Median Household Income (11,334-74,759)	-.05 (68)	-.93 (68)	1			$32,047	$11,992
4. Youth ATP (1-4.43)	-.27* (53)	-.17 (51)	.18 (51)	1		2.42	.690
5. P/G ATP (1.14-5)	-.45** (39)	-.18 (37)	.21 (37)	.42* (37)	1	3.18	.88

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3 *Bivariate Correlations*

	r (*N* included in bivariate analysis)																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	*M*	*SD*
1. OYAS Total (5-32)	1															19.47	6
2. OYAS Peer Risk (1-8)	.74*** 59	1														5.15	1.52
3. OYAS ProSocial (0-4)	.74*** 59	.54** 59	1													2.64	1.17
4. Youth ATP[a] (1-4.43)	-.20 46	-.23 44	-.16 44	1												2.42	.690
5. P/G[b] ATP (1.14-5)	.06 34	-.18 32	.34 32	.42* 37	1											3.18	.88
6. Youth Rel. Quality (.5-4)	-.18 60	-.30* 57	-.23 57	.01 53	-.09 39	1										2.99	.762
7. P/G Rel. Quality (1-4)	.01 47	.07 44	.08 44	-.13 37	.02 39	.15 51	1									2.32	.66
8. YOQ Total SR[c] (4-134)	.30 28	.09 26	.34 26	-.36 17	-.19 13	-.21 27	.16 24	1								59.39	33.71
9. YOQ Total P/G (8-128)	.11 25	-.03 23	.25 21	-.23 15	-.26 12	-.04 24	-.26 21	.30 25	1							68.76	31.40
10. YOQ SR BD (2-29)	.23 28	.03 26	.29 26	-.27 17	-.27 13	-.07 27	-.11 23	.81** 28	.43* 25	1						13.55	7.15
11. YOQ SR IR (-6-26)	.43* 28	.06 26	.42* 26	-.48 17	.08 13	-.13 27	.42* 23	.82** 28	.24 25	.71** 28	1					8.25	7.09
12. YOQ SR ID (1-38)	.28 28	.14 26	.29 26	-.43 17	-.14 13	-.27 27	.16 23	.95** 28	.14 25	.70** 28	.71** 28	1				14.32	10.09
13. YOQ BD (-2-27)	.02 25	-.09 23	.20 23	-.20 15	-.14 12	-.00 24	-.13 21	.22 25	.43 25	.40* 25	.21 25	.24 25	1			14.56	7.31
14. YOQ IR (0-28)	.16 25	.12 23	.51* 23	-.47 15	-.14 12	-.27 24	-.29 21	.35 25	.24 25	.46* 25	.26 25	.06 25	.77** 25	1		10.24	6.44
15. YOQ SP (3-18)	.13 25	-.00 23	.15 23	.06 15	-.52 12	-.01 24	-.29 21	.26 25	.82* 25	.29 25	.15 25	.13 25	.75** 25	.55** 25	1	10.96	4.83

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. [a]ATP= Attitude Toward Police, [b]P/G= Parent/Guardian, [c]SR= Self-Report

APPENDIX B. FIGURES

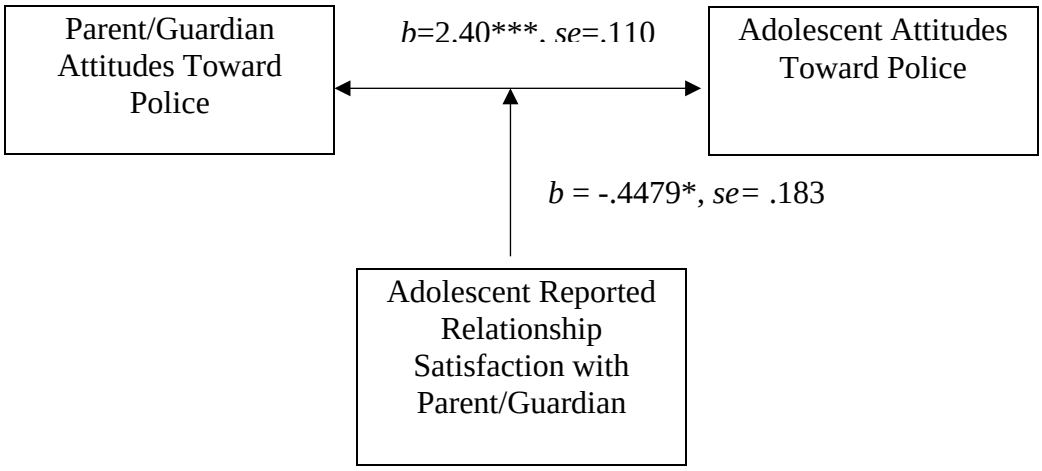

Figure 1. Adolescent and parent/guardian attitudes toward the police with adolescent reported relationship satisfaction. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

APPENDIX C. MEASURES

Youth Outcomes Questionnaire (YOQ)

Directions:
-Read each statement carefully.
-Decide how true this statement is for your child during the past 7 days.
-Check the box that most accurately describes your child during the past week.
-Check only one answer for each statement and erase unwanted marks clearly.

My Child:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always or Always
1. Wants to be alone more than other children of the same age	0	1	2	3	4
2. Complains of dizziness or headaches	0	1	2	3	4
3. Doesn't participate in activities that were previously enjoyable	0	1	2	3	4
4. Argues or is verbally disrespectful	0	1	2	3	4
5. Is more fearful than other children of the same age	0	1	2	3	4
6. Cuts school or is truant	0	1	2	3	4
7. Cooperates with rules and expectations	2	1	0	-1	-2
8. Has difficulty completing assignments, or completes them carelessly	0	1	2	3	4
9. Complains or whines about things being unfair	0	1	2	3	4
10. Experiences trouble with her/his bowels, such as constipation or diarrhea	0	1	2	3	4
11. Gets into physical fights with peers or family members	0	1	2	3	4
12. Worries and can't get certain ideas off his/her mind	0	1	2	3	4
13. Steals or lies	0	1	2	3	4
14. Is fidgety, restless, or hyperactive	0	1	2	3	4
15. Seems anxious or nervous	0	1	2	3	4

16. Communicates in a pleasant and appropriate manner	2	1	0	-1	-2
17. Seems tense, easily startled	0	1	2	3	4
18. Soils or wets self	0	1	2	3	4
19. Is aggressive toward adults	0	1	2	3	4
20. Sees, hears, or believes things that are not real	0	1	2	3	4
21. Has participated in self-harm (e.g. cutting or scratching self, attempting suicide)	0	1	2	3	4
22. Uses alcohol or drugs	0	1	2	3	4
23. Seems unable to get organized	0	1	2	3	4
24. Enjoys relationships with family and friends	2	1	0	-1	-2
25. Appears sad or unhappy	0	1	2	3	4
26. Experiences pain or weakness in muscles or joints	0	1	2	3	4
27. Has a negative, distrustful attitude toward friends, family members, or other adults	0	1	2	3	4
28. Believes that others are trying to hurt him/her even when they are not	0	1	2	3	4
29. Threatens to, or has run away from home	0	1	2	3	4
30. Experiences rapidly changing and strong emotions	0	1	2	3	4
31. Deliberately breaks rules, laws, or expectations	0	1	2	3	4
32. Appears happy with her/himself	2	1	0	-1	-2
33. Sulks, pouts, or cries more than other children of the same age	0	1	2	3	4
34. Pulls away from family or friends	0	1	2	3	4
35. Complains of stomach pain or feeling sick more than other children of the same age	0	1	2	3	4
36. Doesn’t have or keep friends	0	1	2	3	4
37. Has friends of whom I don’t approve	0	1	2	3	4

38. Believes that others can hear her/his thoughts, or that s/he can hear the thoughts of others	0	1	2	3	4
39. Engages in inappropriate sexual behavior (e.g. sexually active, exhibits self, sexual abuse towards family members or others)	0	1	2	3	4
40. Has difficulty waiting his/her turn in activities or conversations	0	1	2	3	4
41. Thinks about suicide, says s/he would be better off if s/he were dead	0	1	2	3	4
42. Complains of nightmares, difficulty getting to sleep, oversleeping, or waking up from sleep too early	0	1	2	3	4
43. Complains about or challenges rules, expectations, or responsibilities	0	1	2	3	4
44. Has times of unusual happiness or excessive energy	0	1	2	3	4
45. Handles frustration or boredom appropriately	2	1	0	-1	-2
46. Has fears of going crazy	0	1	2	3	4
47. Feels appropriate guilt for wrongdoing	2	1	0	-1	-2
48. Is unusually demanding	0	1	2	3	4
49. Is irritable	0	1	2	3	4
50. Vomits or is nauseous more than other children of the same age	0	1	2	3	4
51. Becomes angry enough to be threatening to others	0	1	2	3	4
52. Seems to stir up trouble when bored	0	1	2	3	4
53. Is appropriately hopeful or optimistic	2	1	0	-1	-2
54. Experiences twitching muscles or jerking movement in face, arms, or body	0	1	2	3	4
55. Has deliberately destroyed property	0	1	2	3	4

56. Has difficulty concentrating, thinking clearly, or attending to tasks	0	1	2	3	4
57. Talks negatively, as though bad things are all his/her fault	0	1	2	3	4
58. Has lost significant amounts of weight without medical reason	0	1	2	3	4
59. Acts impulsively, without thinking of the consequences	0	1	2	3	4
60. Is usually calm	2	1	0	-1	-2
61. Will not forgive her/himself for past mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
62. Lacks energy	0	1	2	3	4
63. Feels that he/she doesn't have any friends, or that no one likes him/her	0	1	2	3	4
64. Gets frustrated and gives up, or gets upset easily	0	1	2	3	4

Subscales	Items
Interpersonal Distress	1, 3, 5, 9, 15, 17, 25, 32, 33, 34, 41, 49, 53, 57, 61, 62, 63, 64
Somatic	2, 10, 18, 26, 35, 42, 50, 54
Interpersonal Relations	4, 7, 11, 16, 19, 24, 27, 36, 37, 43
Social Problems	6, 13, 22, 29, 31, 39, 47, 55
Behavioral Dysfunction	8, 14, 23, 30, 40, 45, 48, 52, 56, 59, 60
Critical Items	12, 38, 44, 46, 51, 58

Youth Outcomes Questionnaire- Self Report (YOQ-SR)

Directions:
-Read each statement carefully.
-Decide how true this statement is during the past 7 days.
-Check the box that most accurately describes the past week.
-Check only one answer for each statement and erase unwanted marks clearly.

	Never	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Almost Always or Always**
1. I want to be alone more than other children my same age	0	1	2	3	4
2. I have headaches or feel dizzy	0	1	2	3	4
3. I don't participate in activities that used to be fun	0	1	2	3	4
4. I argue or speak rudely to others	0	1	2	3	4
5. I have more fears than others my same age	0	1	2	3	4
6. I cut classes or skip school altogether	0	1	2	3	4
7. I cooperates with rules and expectations of adults	2	1	0	-1	-2
8. I have a hard time finishing my assignments or I do them carelessly	0	1	2	3	4
9. I complain about things that are unfair	0	1	2	3	4
10. I have trouble with constipation or diarrhea	0	1	2	3	4
11. I have physical fights (hitting, kicking, biting, or scratching) with my family or others my age	0	1	2	3	4
12. I worry and can't get thoughts out of my mind	0	1	2	3	4
13. I steal or lie	0	1	2	3	4

14. I have a hard time sitting still (or I have too much energy)	0	1	2	3	4
15. I feel anxious or nervous	0	1	2	3	4
16. I talk with others in a friendly way	2	1	0	-1	-2
17. I am tense and easily startled (jumpy)	0	1	2	3	4
18. I have trouble with wetting or messing my pants or bed	0	1	2	3	4
19. I physically fight with adults	0	1	2	3	4
20. I see, hear, or believe things that are not real	0	1	2	3	4
21. I have hurt myself on purpose (for example, cut, scratched, or attempted suicide)	0	1	2	3	4
22. I use alcohol or drugs	0	1	2	3	4
23. I am disorganized (or I can't seem to get organized)	0	1	2	3	4
24. I enjoy my relationships with family and friends	2	1	0	-1	-2
25. I am sad or unhappy	0	1	2	3	4
26. I have pain or weakness in muscles or joints	0	1	2	3	4
27. I have a hard time trusting friends, family members, or other adults	0	1	2	3	4
28. I think that others are trying to hurt me even when they are not	0	1	2	3	4
29. I have threatened to, or have run away from home	0	1	2	3	4
30. My emotions are strong and change quickly	0	1	2	3	4
31. I break rules, laws, or don't meet others'	0	1	2	3	4

expectations on purpose					
32. I am happy with myself	2	1	0	-1	-2
33. I pout, cry, or feel sorry for myself more than others my age	0	1	2	3	4
34. I withdraw from my family and friends	0	1	2	3	4
35. My stomach hurts or I feel sick more than others my same age	0	1	2	3	4
36. I don't have friends or I don't keep friends very long	0	1	2	3	4
37. My parents or guardians don't approve of my friends	0	1	2	3	4
38. I think I can hear other people's thoughts or that they can hear mine	0	1	2	3	4
39. I am involved in sexual behavior that my friends or family would not approve of	0	1	2	3	4
40. I have a hard time waiting for my turn in activities or conversations	0	1	2	3	4
41. I think about suicide or feel I would be better off dead	0	1	2	3	4
42. I have nightmares, trouble getting to sleep, oversleeping, or waking up too early	0	1	2	3	4
43. I complain about or question rules, expectations, or responsibilities	0	1	2	3	4
44. I have times of unusual happiness or excessive energy	0	1	2	3	4
45. I'm generally okay with frustration and boredom	2	1	0	-1	-2

46. I am afraid I am going crazy	0	1	2	3	4
47. I feel guilty when I do something wrong	2	1	0	-1	-2
48. I demand a lot from others or I am pushy	0	1	2	3	4
49. I feel irritated	0	1	2	3	4
50. I throw-up or feel sick to my stomach more than others my age	0	1	2	3	4
51. I get angry enough to threaten others	0	1	2	3	4
52. I get into trouble when I am bored	0	1	2	3	4
53. I'm hopeful and positive	2	1	0	-1	-2
54. Muscles in my face, arms, or body twitch or jerk	0	1	2	3	4
55. I destroy property on purpose	0	1	2	3	4
56. I have a hard time concentrating, thinking clearly, or sticking to tasks	0	1	2	3	4
57. I get down on myself and blame myself for things that go wrong	0	1	2	3	4
58. I have lost a lot of weight without being sick	0	1	2	3	4
59. I act without thinking and don't worry about what will happen	0	1	2	3	4
60. I am calm	2	1	0	-1	-2
61. I don't forgive myself for things I've done wrong	0	1	2	3	4
62. I don't have much energy	0	1	2	3	4
63. I feel like I don't have any friends or that no one likes me	0	1	2	3	4
64. I get frustrated or upset easily, and give up	0	1	2	3	4

Subscales	Items
Interpersonal Distress	1, 3, 5, 9, 15, 17, 25, 32, 33, 34, 41, 49, 53, 57, 61, 62, 63, 64
Somatic	2, 10, 18, 26, 35, 42, 50, 54
Interpersonal Relations	4, 7, 11, 16, 19, 24, 27, 36, 37, 43
Social Problems	6, 13, 22, 29, 31, 39, 47, 55
Behavioral Dysfunction	8, 14, 23, 30, 40, 45, 48, 52, 56, 59, 60
Critical Items	12, 38, 44, 46, 51, 58

Attitudes Toward Police (ATP) Scale

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements, in general. Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree= 2, Neither Agree nor Disagree= 3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree =5.
I feel the police are honest
I feel that the police are rude
I feel that police are hardworking
I feel the police are friendly
I feel that police are courteous
I feel that police are respectful to people like me
I feel that police are prejudiced against minorities

Ohio Youth Assessment System (OYAS)
Re-Entry Subscale

Domain	Items
Juvenile Justice History	Documented Contact with JJS Attempted/Escaped from residential facility History of selling drugs Physical altercation with authority figure Weapon used during a crime Victim physically harmed during offense Received a major sanction while in residential care
Family and Living Arrangements	Family is important Family member arrested Parents use appropriate consequences Positive relationship with person at planned residence
Peers and Social Support Network	Acquaintances use drugs Friends fight Friends use drugs Friends arrested Relationship with youth on unit Relationship with staff Friends/family associated with gang activity Arrested with friends Adults in the community are supportive
Education and Employment	Truant from school Expelled ever Effort in school Relationship with current school personnel/employer
Pro-Social Skills	Can identify triggers/high risk situations Weighs pro/cons of a situation Pro-social decision making Frustration tolerance
Substance Abuse, Mental Health, and Personality	Age of drug onset Others complained about drug/alcohol use Positive drug test within past 6 months

	Alcohol/drugs caused problem in major life area Used substances while in residential facility Inflated self-esteem Risk taking behavior
Values, Beliefs, Attitudes	Pro-criminal Sentiments Negative attitude towards supervision Attitude supports substance use Demonstrates remorse for offense Demonstrates empathy towards others Attitude towards gangs

Disposition Subscale

Domain	**Items**
Juvenile Justice History	Documented contact with JJS 13 or younger Previous adjudications
Family and Living Arrangements	Family is important Consistently applies consequences Follows caregiver's rules Follows through with consequences Contact with biological/adoptive parent Relationship with adults
Peers and Social Support Network	Friends fight Friends arrested Friends/Family associated with gang activity Arrested with friends Friends suspended/expelled Friends are important
Education and Employment	Suspended from school-ever Suspended from school-last 6 months Expelled Ever Positive relationship w/current school personnel/employer
Pro-Social Skills	Can identify triggers/high risk situations Weighs pro/cons of a situation Pro-social decision making

Substance Abuse, Mental Health, and Personality	Age of drug onset Used drugs recently Used alcohol recently Likely to quit Inflated self-esteem Mental health issues
Values, Beliefs, Attitudes	Pro-criminal sentiments Future criminal behavior Blames others Attitude towards gang Self-efficacy

Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire

Child Version:

	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
1. Do you and your parent argue and fight with each other?	0	1	2	3	4
2. How often do you feel disappointed with your parent?	0	1	2	3	4
3. How often do you feel proud of your parent?	0	1	2	3	4
4. How well do you think that you and your parent understand each other?	0	1	2	3	4
5. Do you wish that your parent was different?	0	1	2	3	4
6. Do you accept your parent the way she or he is?	0	1	2	3	4
7. Does your parent usually support and encourage you?	0	1	2	3	4
8. How often do you feel angry or irritated by your parent?	0	1	2	3	4

Parent Version:

	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
9. Do you and your child argue and fight with each other?	0	1	2	3	4
10. How often do you feel disappointed with your child?	0	1	2	3	4
11. How often do you feel proud of your child?	0	1	2	3	4
12. How well do you think that you and your child understand each other?	0	1	2	3	4
13. Do you wish that your child was different?	0	1	2	3	4
14. Do you accept your child the way she or he is?	0	1	2	3	4
15. Does your child usually support and encourage you?	0	1	2	3	4
16. How often do you feel angry or irritated by your child?	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX D. HSRB FORM FROM ORIGINAL APPLICATION

BGSU
BOWLING GREEN STATE UNIVERSITY
Office of Research Compliance

DATE:	May 5, 2017
TO:	Mercedes Pratt
FROM:	Bowling Green State University Institutional Review Board
PROJECT TITLE:	[1063886-1] Evaluation Research with the Lucas County Juvenile Court
SUBMISSION TYPE:	New Project
ACTION:	APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE:	May 5, 2017
EXPIRATION DATE:	May 4, 2018
REVIEW TYPE:	Expedited Review
REVIEW CATEGORY:	Expedited review category # *5*

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Bowling Green State University Institutional Review Board has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

Please note that you are responsible to conduct the study as approved by the IRB. If you seek to make any changes in your project activities or procedures, those modifications must be approved by this committee prior to initiation. Please use the modification request form for this procedure.

All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. All NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must also be reported promptly to this office.

This approval expires on May 4, 2018. You will receive a continuing review notice before your project expires. If you wish to continue your work after the expiration date, your documentation for continuing review must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date.

Good luck with your work. If you have any questions, please contact the Office of Research Compliance at 419-372-7716 or orc@bgsu.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence regarding this project.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Bowling Green State University Institutional Review Board's records.

APPENDIX E. ASSENT & CONSENT FORMS

Participant Assent & Consent Documents
Participant Assent Form

Dear Participant;

You are being invited to participate in an evaluation of some of the services you are receiving through the Youth Treatment Center (YTC), the Re-entry Treatment Center (RTC), the Community Treatment Center (CTC), the juvenile probation department, and additional court-related programs. The evaluation of these services is separate from the services themselves. The evaluation is being run by Carolyn Tompsett and Adam Watkins, both Associate Professors at Bowling Green State University (BGSU).

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer a few questions about your relationship with your parents or guardians, and about your views of the services you are receiving or have received. You will be asked some of these questions once near the beginning of your time at YTC, and then will be asked again after you have been released from YTC or are close to release. You will be meeting with Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or a member of our BGSU research group. We will talk in a semi-private space. No one from the court will be allowed see any of your responses to questions. We will try to meet in a place where you cannot be overheard, and we will be careful not to ask you to say anything out loud that you would not want an adult to overhear. However, if another adult is in the room during our meeting you should be aware that there is a chance anything you say would be overheard. The meeting will last between 15 minutes and a half hour. Your decision to participate in this part of the evaluation will not affect your standing with the court or any court-related program officials. If you agree to participate, you will meet with at least one member of the BGSU research group, in a setting at YTC, RTC, or a building where you receive services but where court officials will not be able to overhear the conversation. If you do not attend these programs, we may meet with you and your parent in your home during one of your regularly scheduled meetings with a therapist or probation officer, or two members of the BGSU research team may schedule a time with your parent or guardian to meet with you in your home. Your responses will be kept confidential, and your participation will not affect your standing with the court or any court-related program officials.

In addition to the information you provide directly to the BGSU researchers, we will request additional information in order to better evaluate the services you receive. The court will be asked to provide your arrest record, history of court actions, which services you have received, court administered risk assessments, educational history, and your foster care history. Providers of related services will be asked to provide information on which services you have received, including parent- or family-focused services. Parents and children that participate in some programs arranged by the court, including the Nurturing Parents program at Center of Hope or Family Therapy with A Renewed Mind, will complete surveys as part of those programs. Those surveys are designed to measure how parents and children relate, how those relationships may

change over time, and how children may feel or behave. If you agree to participate in BGSU's evaluation, we may request to see your responses on those surveys.

Confidentiality. All information collected from you, your parent, and official records, will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Surveys and interview notes will be labeled with identification numbers. These identification numbers will be linked to your name in a codebook that will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in Dr. Carolyn Tompsett's office at Bowling Green State University. Only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, and their research team will be allowed to see your information, the surveys, or any interview notes.

When results of the study are published or presented, the results from all participating parents and teenagers will be combined. No one will be able to tell what your specific answers were. The court will see the general results across all parents and teens, but will not know which parent or teen specifically said what. Please note: if you talk about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of killing yourself, or plans to hurt someone else, we will have to break confidentiality and tell other people to make sure everyone is kept safe. However, we are not going to ask you about any of these issues.

To help us protect your privacy, we have obtained a Privacy Certificate from the National Institute of Justice. This Certificate demonstrates that Drs. Tompsett and Watkins take responsibility for maintaining the privacy of all parents and youth participating in our evaluation research. This Certificate shows that only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or members of the BGSU research team will be able to see the information you and your child provide. Your information will not be shared with court officials, except when combined with other people's results in such a way that is impossible to identify your specific answers. The only exceptions are if you or talk about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of hurting yourself, or plans to hurt someone else, the Privacy Certificate will not prevent the researchers from sharing that information with the appropriate authorities.

Risks, Benefits, and Voluntary Status. Your decision to participate in this research is voluntary. Your decision to participate or to not participate will not impact your standing with the court or with Bowling Green State University. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer, and may stop participating in the evaluation at any time. If you do not consent to participate, you will not be asked to complete any part of the survey or interview. However, the court may still release limited information to the BGSU evaluation team about your service participation and arrest history, as required by the funders of the services you receive. You are not likely to have any direct benefit from being in this research study. The benefit of this research is that your participation will help us to better understand the ways in which services might keep future youth from being re-arrested.

What do you need to do? Please complete the form on the next page and return it to the researcher or court official who provided you with the form.

Contact Information. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Review board at Bowling Green State University (Phone: (419) 372-7716, Email: hsrb@bgsu.edu). If you have any questions or concerns about the evaluation project please feel free to contact Dr. Tompsett or Dr. Watkins at the e-mail addresses or phone numbers listed below.

Thank you for your help!

Carolyn J. Tompsett, Ph.D, Associate Professor
Address:
Psychology Building
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403
Phone: (419) 372-8256
Email: cjtomps@ bgsu.edu

Adam Watkins, Ph.D, Associate Professor
Address:
Department of Health and Human Services
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403
Phone: (419) 372-9540
Email: adammw@ bgsu.edu

Participant (Over age 18) Consent Form

Dear Participant;

You are being invited to participate in an evaluation of some of the services you are receiving through the Youth Treatment Center (YTC), the Re-entry Treatment Center (RTC), the Community Treatment Center (CTC), the juvenile probation department, and additional related programs. The evaluation of these services is separate from the services themselves. The evaluation is being run by Carolyn Tompsett and Adam Watkins, both Associate Professors at Bowling Green State University (BGSU).

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer a few questions about your relationship with your parents or guardians, and about your views of the services you are receiving or have received. You may have been asked some of these questions once near the beginning of your time at YTC, and are now being asked again now that you have completed more of the services. You will be meeting with Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or a member of our BGSU research group. We will talk in a semi-private space. No one from the court will be allowed see any of your responses to questions. We will try to meet in a place where you cannot be overheard, but we will be careful not to ask you to say anything out loud that you would not want an adult to overhear. However, if another adult is in the room during our meeting you should be aware that there is a chance anything you say would be overheard. The meeting will last between 15 minutes and a half hour. Your decision to participate in this part of the evaluation will not affect your standing with the court or any court-related program officials.

If you agree to participate, you will meet with at least one member of the BGSU research group, in a setting at YTC, RTC, or a court building where court officials will not be able to overhear the conversation. If you do not attend these programs, we may meet with you in your home during one of your regularly scheduled meetings with a therapist or probation officer, or two members of the BGSU research team may schedule a time to meet with you in your home. Your responses will be kept confidential, and your participation will not affect your standing with the court or any court-related program officials.

In addition to the information you provide directly to the BGSU researchers, we will request additional information in order to better evaluate the services you receive. The court will be asked to provide your arrest record, history of court actions, which services you have received, court-administered risk assessments, educational history, and your foster care history. Providers of related services will be asked to provide information on which services you have received, including parent- or family-focused services. Parents and youth that participate in some programs arranged by the court, including the Nurturing Parents program at Center of Hope, or Family Therapy with A Renewed Mind, will complete surveys as part of those programs. Those surveys are designed to measure how parents and youth relate, how those relationships may change over time, and how youth may feel or behave. If you agree to participate in BGSU's evaluation, we may request to see your responses on those surveys.

Confidentiality.

All information collected from you, your parent, and official records, will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Surveys and interview notes will be labeled with identification numbers. These identification numbers will be linked to your name in a codebook that will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in Dr. Carolyn Tompsett's office at Bowling Green State University. Only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, and their research team will be allowed to see your information, the surveys, or any interview notes.

When results of the study are published or presented, the results from all participating parents and teenagers will be combined. No one will be able to tell what your specific answers were. The court will see the general results across all parents and teens, but will not know which parent or teen specifically said what. Please note: if you talk about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of hurting yourself, or plans to hurt someone else, we will have to break confidentiality and tell other people to make sure everyone is kept safe. However, we are not going to ask you about any of these issues.

To help us protect your privacy, we have obtained a Privacy Certificate from the National Institute of Justice. This Certificate demonstrates that Drs. Tompsett and Watkins take responsibility for maintaining the privacy of all parents and youth participating in our evaluation research. This Certificate shows that only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or members of the BGSU research team will be able to see the information you and your child provide. Your information will not be shared with court officials, except when combined with other people's results in such a way that is impossible to identify your specific answers. The only exceptions are if you or talk about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of hurting yourself, or plans to hurt someone else, the Privacy Certificate will not prevent the researchers from sharing that information with the appropriate authorities.

Risks, Benefits, and Voluntary Status. Your decision to participate in this research is voluntary. Your decision to participate or to not participate will not impact your standing with the court or with Bowling Green State University. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer, and may stop participating in the evaluation at any time. If you do not consent to participate, you will not be asked to complete any part of the survey or interview. However, the court may still release limited information to the BGSU evaluation team about your service

participation and arrest history, as required by the funders of the services you receive. You are not likely to have any direct benefit from being in this research study. The benefit of this research is that your participation will help us to better understand the ways in which services might keep future youth from being re-arrested.

What do you need to do? Please complete the form on the next page and return it to the researcher or court official who provided you with the form.

Contact Information. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Review board at Bowling Green State University (Phone: (419) 372-7716, Email: hsrb@bgsu.edu). If you have any questions or concerns about the evaluation project please feel free to contact Dr. Tompsett or Dr. Watkins at the e-mail addresses or phone numbers listed below.
Thank you for your help!

Carolyn J. Tompsett, Ph.D, Associate Professor
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Email: cjtomps@ bgsu.edu

Adam Watkins, Ph.D, Associate Professor
Address:
Department of Health and Human Services
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403
Phone: (419) 372-9540
Email: adammw@ bgsu.edu

Thank you for considering taking part in this project

CONSENT FORM FOR YOUTH OVER AGE 18 for the Bowling Green State University evaluation of YTC, RTC, CTC, and related services

_____I would like to participate and I also agree to allow those conducting this study access to my court records.

Your Name (please print): _____

Signature:_____

Today's Date:_____/_____/_____

Parent Consent Form

Dear Parent/Guardian;

You and your child are being invited to participate in an evaluation of some of the services you are receiving through the Youth Treatment Center (YTC), the Re-entry Treatment Center (RTC), the Community Treatment Center (CTC), the juvenile probation department, and additional court-related programs. The evaluation of these services is separate from the services themselves. The evaluation is being run by Carolyn Tompsett and Adam Watkins, both Associate Professors at Bowling Green State University (BGSU).

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer a few questions about your relationship with your child, and about your views of the services you are receiving or have received. You will be asked some of these questions once near the beginning of your child's involvement with YTC, and then will be asked again after your child has been released from YTC or is close to release. You will be meeting with Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or a member of our BGSU research group. We will talk in a semi-private space. No one from the court will be allowed see any of your responses to questions. We will try to meet in a place where you cannot be overheard, and we will be careful not to ask you to say anything sensitive out loud. However, if a court official is present during our meeting you should be aware that there is a chance anything you say would be overheard. Your decision to participate in this part of the evaluation will not affect your or your child's standing with the court or any court-related program officials. To thank you for your time, you will be provided with a $10 gift card when you finish taking the survey.

If you agree to allow your child to participate, your child will meet with at least one member of the BGSU research group, in a setting at YTC, RTC, or a building where they receive services but where court officials will not be able to overhear the conversation. If your child does not attend these programs, we may meet with you and your child in your home during one of your regularly scheduled meetings with a therapist or probation officer, or two members of the BGSU research team may contact you to schedule a time to meet with you and your child in your home. Your child's responses will be kept confidential, and your child's participation will not affect his or her standing with the court or any court-related program officials.

In addition to the information you or your child provide directly to the BGSU researchers, we will request additional information related to your child in order to better evaluate the services you and your child receive. The court will be asked to provide your child's arrest record, history of court actions, which services your child has received, court-administered risk assessments, educational history, and your child's foster care history. Providers of related services will be asked to provide information on which services your child has received, including parent- or family-focused services. Parents and children that participate in some programs arranged by the court, including the Nurturing Parents program at Center of Hope or Family Therapy with A

Renewed Mind, will complete surveys as part of those programs. Those surveys are designed to measure how parents and children relate, how those relationships may change over time, and how children may feel or behave. If you agree to participate in BGSU's evaluation, we may request to see your responses on those surveys.

Confidentiality. All information collected from you, your child, and official records, will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Surveys and interview notes will be labeled with identification numbers. These identification numbers will be linked to your child's name in a codebook that will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in Dr. Carolyn Tompsett's office at Bowling Green State University. Only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, and their research team will be allowed to see your information, the surveys, or any interview notes.

When results of the study are published or presented, the results from all participating parents and teenagers will be combined. No one will be able to tell what you or your child's specific answers were. The court will see the general results across all parents and children, but will not know which parent or child specifically said what. Please note: if you or your child talks about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of killing yourself, or plans to kill someone else, we will have to break confidentiality and tell other people to make sure everyone is kept safe. However, we are not going to ask you or your child about any of these issues, and your child will be reminded of these limits to confidentiality before we speak with him or her.

To help us protect you and your child's privacy, we have obtained a Privacy Certificate from the National Institute of Justice. This Certificate demonstrates that Drs. Tompsett and Watkins take responsibility for maintaining the privacy of all parents and youth participating in our evaluation research. This Certificate shows that only Dr. Tompsett, Dr. Watkins, or members of the BGSU research team will be able to see the information you and your child provide. You and your child's information will not be shared with court officials, except when combined with other people's results in such a way that is impossible to identify your specific answers. The only exceptions are if you or your child talks about current child abuse, elder abuse, thoughts of hurting yourself, or plans to hurt someone else, the Privacy Certificate will not prevent the researchers from sharing that information with the appropriate authorities.

Risks, Benefits, and Voluntary Status. Your decision to participate in this research, and your decision to allow your child to participate, is voluntary. You or your child's decision to participate or to not participate will not impact your child's standing with the court or with Bowling Green State University. You and your child may skip any questions that you do not want to answer, and may stop participating in the evaluation at any time. If you choose to skip questions you will still receive the gift card. If you do not consent to participate or allow your child to participate, or your child chooses not to participate, you and your child will not be asked to complete any part of the survey or interview. However, the court may still release limited information to the BGSU evaluation team about your child's service participation and arrest history, as required by the funders of the services your child receives. You or your child are not likely to have any direct benefit from being in this research study. The benefit of this research is

that your participation will help us to better understand the ways in which services might keep future youth from being re-arrested.

What do you need to do? Please complete the form on the last page and return it to the researcher or court official who provided you with the form. If you received this form in the mail, please mail it back in the return envelope provided.

Contact Information.

If you have any questions about your rights or your child's rights as a research participant, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Review board at Bowling Green State University (Phone: (419) 372-7716, Email: hsrb@bgsu.edu). If you have any questions or concerns about the evaluation project please feel free to contact Dr. Tompsett or Dr. Watkins at the e-mail addresses or phone numbers listed below.

Thank you for your help!

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Phone: (419) 372-9540
Email: adammw@ bgsu.edu

Parent/Guardian consent form for the Bowling Green State University evaluation of YTC, RTC, CTC, probation, and related services

Parent survey:

_____ **YES** I am willing to complete a 15-20 minute parent survey myself, near the beginning of my child's current court-related services and/or again after my child has received services for some time. I also agree to allow those conducting this study access to my child's court records.

_____ **NO** I am not willing to complete the parent survey

Teen survey:

_____ **YES** I am willing to allow my child to complete a 15-20 minute survey, near the beginning of my child's current court-related services and/or again after my child has received services for some time. I also agree to allow those conducting this study access to my child's court records.

_____ **NO** I am not willing to allow my child to complete the child survey

I have indicated above whether I am willing to participate in the evaluation, whether I am willing to allow my child to participate in the evaluation, and whether I agree to allow those conducting this study access to my child's court records.

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Parent/Guardian Signature:_____

Child's name: _____

Parent/Guardian's Name:

_____

Relationship to child (e.g., mother, father, guardian):

_____