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ABSTRACT

This publication combines three papers on rural and urban youth issues. "Key Issues Facing Rural Youth" (Daniel F. Perkins) notes that rural adolescents share the same concerns and exhibit the same problem behaviors as their urban counterparts. But in addition, geographic isolation presents problems unique to rural areas. A framework is proposed whereby rural communities establish a sense of belonging and connectedness among their youth through community gatherings and programs that are intergenerational. Rural schools can help by including projects that enable students to learn about their community's history, resources, needs, and entrepreneurial opportunities. "Urban Youth" (Anthony J. LaGreca) discusses factors paramount to understanding urban youth, including family life, education, employment, health, suicide, sexual behavior, delinquency, gangs, guns, and substance abuse. It notes that negative generalizations ignore the fact that urban youth can be highly resilient. Still, there is a point at which stress factors can cause even the most resilient of young people to break down emotionally or socially. Young people face many social and psychological stresses, yet our society is still reluctant to place resources into school and community mental health services. "Annotated Bibliography: Youth Issues," compiled by Ronald L. Mullis, offers 104 publications dealing with youth issues such as careers, crime, culture, education, family relations, health peers, risk, teen pregnancy, technology, and other miscellaneous topics. (Contains 75 references.) (TD)

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Key Issues Facing Rural Youth

Daniel F. Perkins, Pennsylvania State University*

Introduction

"No child can escape the community. He may not like his parents, or the neighbors, or the ways of the world. He may groan under the processes of living and wish he were dead. But he goes on living in the community. The life of the community flows about him, foul or pure, he swims in it, drinks it, goes to sleep in it, and wakes to the new day to find it still about him. He belongs to it: it nourishes him or starves him, or poisons him: it gives him the substance of his life, and, in the long run it takes its toll of him and all he is." (Hart, 1951, pp. 8-9)

All too often, youth and the challenges they face are discussed as though youth grew up in a vacuum devoid of context. When context is taken into account, the research literature on children and adolescents has focused primarily on suburban and urban youth. The challenges, issues and opportunities within context for youth have not been misunderstood; rather, they have been largely ignored. Little is known, scientifically, about the experiences of growing up in rural America, that is, in small-town neighborhoods and agricultural communities. Furthermore, little research has been conducted to examine how the issues and trends of rural America influence its youth.

This paper's purpose is to examine the challenges and prospects of youth living in rural areas. In addition, a framework is provided that offers a powerful way of harnessing the energy and potential of youth for the betterment of their own development and the development of the rural communities in which they live. The first section of this paper introduces the major questions and developmental tasks facing all adolescents, regardless of context. While the definition "youth" often incorporates children and adolescents, in this paper we will focus on the second decade of life. However, both how those questions facing youth are thought about and the strategies employed by youth in achieving developmental tasks do vary across context. The second section, therefore, examines the major trends facing rural communities and the influence these trends may have on youth as they attempt to address the questions and tasks that confront them. The changes in rural populations and the challenges that rural communities are facing also are examined. An explanation and application of the Community Youth Development framework is offered in the third section. This framework provides a foundation from which communities can mobilize on behalf of youth to meet the challenges outlined in section two.

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Section One:
Questioning Nature of Adolescents

Regardless of the context in which they grow up, all adolescents face certain issues. Adolescents are young people who straddle the fence between childhood and adulthood. It is a unique period in the life span. In fact, no developmental period, other than infancy, is characterized by so many changes (Carnegie, 1995; Cobb, 1996; Gullotta et al., 2000; Erikson, 1968). Complex changes are marked by fast growth, and those changes include: physical growth, the rise of reproductive sexuality, new social roles, growth in thinking, feelings and morals, and in school transitions. These changes make adolescence an exciting and awkward time in one's life (Cobb, 1996).

In addition, abstract thinking ability develops during adolescence. The onset of complex thinking that begins in adolescence includes in-depth questioning. Adolescents begin to ask themselves four basic abstract questions: Who am I (pertaining to his or her sexuality and social roles)? Am I normal (do I fit in with a certain crowd)? Am I competent (am I good at something that is valued by peers and parents)? Am I lovable and loving (can someone besides mom and dad love me)?

Adolescents are also more likely to question things that were unquestionable before (Carnegie, 1995; Gullotta et al., 2000). For example, an adolescent who had been attending religious services may begin to question his or her religious beliefs. Challenging the status quo is a normal part of adolescence, even though it may be perceived as rebellious behavior. Experimenting with risk behaviors is also a normal part of adolescence and is, to some extent, to be expected. However, experimentation can lead to habit-forming "risk behaviors" if it is not limited (Cobb, 1996; Erikson, 1968; Dryfoos, 1990; Lerner, 1995). Examples of risk behaviors are: alcohol and drug abuse, delinquency and early, unprotected sex. Adolescents are testing their independence, but they are not, and do not want to be, totally independent. In section three of this paper, a framework will provide strategies for how parents and other adults in the community can provide a supportive environment for adolescents to search and explore their identity. Now that we have described the common developmental tasks and issues adolescents face, we will examine the major trends facing rural communities and rural youth in particular.

Section Two:
Trends of Rural America Influencing Youth and Their Environments

For America and the world, rapid change is the defining variable of the last decade in the twentieth century. Scholars agree that this change has been brought on by the movement from industrial jobs to service jobs, globalization of economy and the infiltration of technology into the fabric of society. As this nation changes, so too does the face of rural America. These economic and technological changes transform the contexts of people who live in rural areas. In this section, we will examine how these changes influence rural America and her youth.

In-migration and Commuting

While the 1980s saw out-migration of skilled individuals from rural areas, the 1990s, especially since 1995, has seen an increase in the number of college-educated people in-migrating to rural areas. The majority of these individuals were young families and people in the early career years (Nord and Cromartie, 1999). Because these individuals, on average, receive low salaries compared to well-established professionals and their families, the immigration of young families and people in the early career years does not mean huge increases in local tax revenues. Increasing local tax revenues in rural areas is critical to the sustainability of quality education, as noted later in this section.

Many individuals are immigrating into the rural areas in the hopes of finding better housing and a different quality of life than can be found in urban and suburban areas. However, these individuals are spending more time commuting for work into the urban and suburban areas from their homes in rural areas (Aldrich et al., 1997). This separation of work and residence is increasingly common in small towns and seems to lessen the connection of individuals to place (Aldrich et al., 1997). Moreover, the long-distance commuting of parents and individuals decreases the interconnection of people to one another, or in other words, the social capital of these newly established rural "bedroom communities."

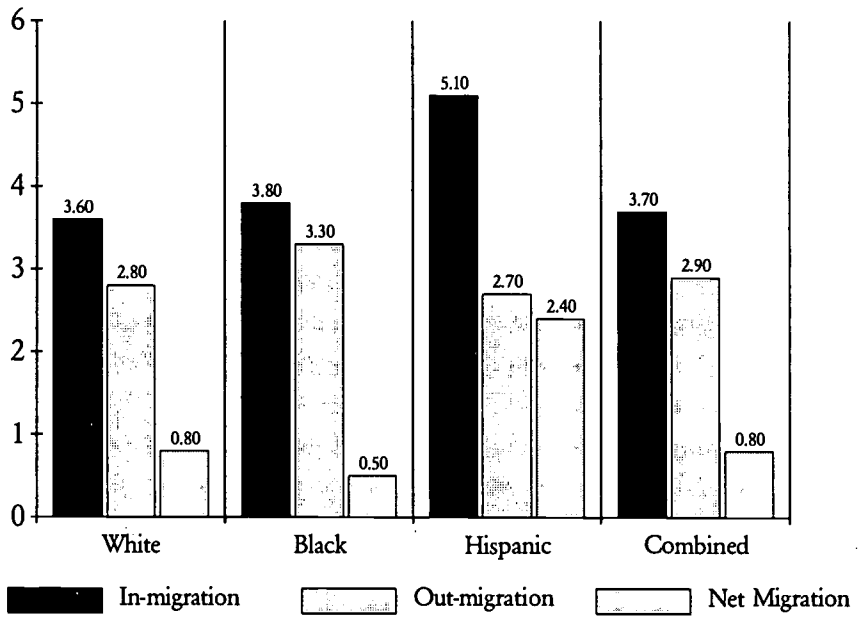
The decrease in connection to place and others in the community also has occurred as a result of the dramatic rise in the number of dual-career families since the 1960s. About 60 percent of mothers of young children (ages 2-5 years) work (Carnegie, 1992; Carnegie, 1995). Two-parent working families are stretched already, and adding an hour commute only lessens the time parents and adults are able to spend with their families, in their communities, with others and with the youth in those communities. This decrease in time available for community involvement has several implications.

First, youth are less likely to have career role models in close proximity, that is, youth are unable to observe first hand the potential career opportunities. Second, youth also are less likely to have adults modeling civic responsibility in terms of volunteering and service to a community. Third, youth are more likely to have more unsupervised free time now than in years past (Carnegie, 1992; Carnegie, 1995). This unsupervised time generally occurs between the hours of 2 and 6 p.m., that is, after school and before parents return home from work and their commutes. This time can be an opportunity for youth to engage in positive activities that enhance their development and foster their competency. Unfortunately it also can be a chance for youth to participate in negative activities that increase their chances of yielding to social pressures to engage in drug use, sex and anti-social activities (Perkins and Borden, n.d.; Villarruel and Lerner et al., 1994).

For instance, with the exception of school and sleep, youth in America spend more time watching television then they do on anything else (Carnegie, 1992; Robinson and Godbey, 1997). FBI statistics indicate 47 percent of violent juvenile crime occurs weekdays between the hours of 2 and 8 p.m (Snyder and Sickmund, 1997). Of course there are more positive uses of this discretionary time that includes: sports, hobbies, reading, talking on the phone with friends, playing computer games, and participation in youth-serving organizations and

in faith-based activities (Robinson et al., 1997). However, as is noted later in this section, rural areas are often unable to provide as many of these opportunities for positive use of free time as suburban and urban areas.

Figure 1. Average annual domestic migration rates to nonmetro areas, by race and ethnicity, 1995-97.



Source: Calculated by ERS using data from the March 1996 Current Population Surveys (Nord et al., 1999)

Hispanic Minority Population Growth in Rural Areas

In addition to the rise in numbers of young professionals in rural populations, recent years have seen a dramatic immigration of Hispanic people into rural areas (Nord and Cromartie, 1999). For instance, during the two-year period ending March 1997, about 5 percent of Hispanics migrated into rural areas compared to about 4 percent of blacks and 3½ percent of whites (Figure 1). Hispanics constitute the fastest growing racial-ethnic group in rural America because of both the high number of Hispanics migrating to rural areas and Hispanics having more children, on average, than whites or blacks. As with urban and suburban youth, traditional rural youth need now more than ever before to learn to function in a diverse society. Moreover, the educational system and social service systems in rural America will have to transform their operations in order to address this more diverse rural population.

Isolation and Limited Opportunities for Connectedness

One of the biggest challenges these new rural populations face is the lack of opportunities to create a sense of belonging or connectedness that was once common among rural people. A sense of belonging to a place occurs, in part, through community relations fostered through both unintentional and intentional community gatherings.

This loss of a sense of belonging has occurred, in part, due to the long commutes that many rural residents are making. As we have previously noted, parents' long commutes to work can leave their children without supervision, putting them at risk for developing problem behaviors. However, the creation of these rural bedroom communities can have negative consequences for the rural community as a whole, which, in turn, presents further developmental challenges to rural youth. There are few gathering opportunities among the families and the people that comprise small towns and rural communities. The limited interactions of adults with youth spurs on the deterioration of community support for youth. Kids are seen as the sole responsibility of the parents, a radical departure from times when parents were seen as having child-rearing responsibilities with the rest of society (Benson, 1997). Youth observe this lack of community support, and it creates a fragmented and untrusting society.

Learning through interaction and engagement with responsible adults nurtures valuable development and requires intergenerational communities (Benson, 1997). Unfortunately, opportunities for intergenerational interaction between young people and adults have become less frequent as society moves to extreme age-segregation (National Commission, 1991). Age-segregated activities are important for the development of youth; however, the exclusive emphasis on age-segregated activities has further exacerbated fragmentation and isolation in rural areas, as well as in other areas. Most communities are not relational places; youth tend to lack sustained relationships with adults and feel alienated from adults (Benson, 1997). Indeed, as the National Commission on Children stated, "Too few adults invest the personal time and effort to encourage, guide and befriend young people who are struggling to develop skills and confidence necessary for successful and satisfying adult life" (National Commission, 1991, p. 233). Of course, most of us have heard of the famous African proverb, "It takes a village to raise a child," however, less familiar is the corollary: "For good or for ill, the village raises a child." If we are not being intentional about our interactions with youth, then we are "raising" them by default with negative messages that do not foster positive development and make them less likely to contribute.

Now that we have discussed some of the recent changes in rural populations, we will examine further the ways in which rural locations affect members of rural communities. Rural America is often geographically isolated, making it very difficult for youth and families to have access to the opportunities for skill and competency development that can come from participation in after-school programs for youth, training programs for adults and social services for both (Weisheit et al., 1995). In addition, the isolation in rural areas has to do with limited opportunities and places for interactions among people of all ages. The physical distance between homes and small towns and a lack of public transportation are two major causes of isolation in rural America. Even if transportation is available — where is a young person to go? One of the most commonly mentioned crises in rural America is the disappearance of local gathering spots (Childress, 1993). These spots can be community relation settings where youth can interact with peers and adults.

Programming that links youth to peers and adults in positive ways and provides them with the opportunity to gain a sense of belonging is important, yet difficult to achieve. There are a limited number of programs and opportunities for community connection to occur. Limited program opportunities are due in part to the geographic isolation of rural America; that is, youth cannot participate in out-of-school activities due to transportation issues. However, the limited program opportunities in rural settings also have to do with a lack of diverse options. In rural areas, after-school programs are usually held at the school because no other gathering places exist. Generally, the programs include sports, and both academic and service clubs. The outside organizations often are limited to Scouts and 4-H. In general, other culturally diverse organizations are not found in rural areas because there are fewer specialized, talented people in rural places, and these programs have not traditionally been desired. Moreover, opportunities for youth employment, not to mention meaningful employment, are scarce compared to urban and suburban areas (Carnegie, 1995). For example, the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1995) noted that rural areas suffer from the poor distribution of jobs and wages, and, as a consequence, offer limited job opportunities for their residents" (Tickamyer and Bokemeier, 1993, p. 365).

Education

The isolation of rural areas also presents challenges to rural public education. Rural schools face tremendous challenges not unlike the urban public schools, yet their struggles are also unique due, in part, to their isolation. The lack of rural school funding can be seen in the "high rates of poverty and low levels of educational attainment" in rural schools (Herzog and Pittman, 1995). In addition, rural schools are more likely to have younger, less well-educated teachers and to pay them less, on average, than metropolitan counterparts. Rural school districts suffer high turnover rates of between 30 and 50 percent (Lemke, 1994), resulting in complete staff turnovers every three years. The reasons for the turnovers are due, in part, to the unique challenges that rural teachers face, such as adjusting to geographic isolation, population scarcity, low salaries and difficulty fitting in with the community (Herzog and Pittman, 1995). From the adolescent's view, the high teacher turnover contributes to a lack of sustained relationships with adults, thereby increasing the isolation and alienation felt by adolescents.

Rural schools also have difficulty with funding, due to a variety of problems that includes state cost-equalizing formulas based on population density and small tax bases. While funding exists from the federal government, it is highly competitive and inhibits collaboration among rural schools. Moreover, rural communities often lack staff with expertise in applying for state, federal and other grant moneys that could help meet the need for additional resources. The adolescents in rural schools are directly influenced by the low financial support, because it often means fewer opportunities both academically and programmatically. As we will discuss in section three, schools can be a tremendous asset in community efforts to support and aid their youth; however, rural schools will themselves need support if they are to assist in community revitalization movements.

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Tobacco and Methamphetamines

National estimates for rural areas show that illicit drug use overall is less prevalent in rural areas than in metropolitan areas, but cigarette use, particularly among youths, is higher in rural areas than in metropolitan areas (Office of Applied Studies, 2000). Among adolescents and young adults, the prevalence of past-month cigarette use was highest in completely rural counties, compared with small or large metropolitan areas. For youths age 12 to 17 years, past-month cigarette use was reported by 19.2 percent of those living in completely rural counties compared to 13.3 percent of adolescents living in large metropolitan areas (Office of Applied Studies, 2000). Among young adults age 18 to 25 years, the rate of past-month cigarette use was 43.1 percent in completely rural areas compared to 37.5 percent for young adults in the large metropolitan areas (Office of Applied Studies, 2000).

Rural and urban youth are not equally at risk for engaging in drug use. The rates of illicit drug use in metropolitan areas are higher than rates in rural areas. Eight percent of rural youth and 11.2 percent of non-rural youth used illicit drugs in the past month (Office of Applied Studies, 2000). However, the introduction of methamphetamines has increased rural youth drug use. Cheaper than cocaine and providing a longer rush, methamphetamine use has increased dramatically in the United States (McGraw, 1998). In addition, rural labs are popping up all over the country because meth is easy to produce from chemicals found at pharmacies and hardware stores (McGraw, 1998). The drug is appealing to rural, working-class men, women and youth. Indeed, Missouri, Iowa, South Dakota, Kansas and Nebraska are referred to as a high-intensity drug area (Bai, 1997). For example, Midwestern towns like Fargo, N.D., have seen increases of crime directly associated with the use of drug methamphetamines (Bai, 1997). Moreover, in Marshalltown, Iowa, American drug buyers and illegal Mexican drug sellers are getting rich exchanging methamphetamines. Teenage drug use has been associated with other problem behaviors in youth such as violence, school failure and teen pregnancy (see reviews of Dryfoos, 1998; Lerner, 1995).

Problem Behaviors in Rural Youth Increasing

Another challenge facing rural school districts is the increase in problem behaviors among youth, particularly school violence. School violence, once thought of as an urban issue, is now occurring in rural schools. For example, "Teachers in rural schools report experiences and perceptions about violence similar to those reported by their urban counterparts" (Ballard and McCoy, 1996). Rural communities have a distinct culture from urban and suburb communities. Rural culture may emphasize independence, honesty and religion; but it may also be characterized by prejudice, ethnocentricity and intolerance to nonconforming ideas (Ballard and McCoy, 1996). These contrasting sets of values could well provide an environment for violence in rural schools.

Unfortunately, school violence is not the only troubling behavior prevalent among rural youth. Indeed, all the previously discussed changes and challenges that rural populations face has resulted in a generation of rural youth

that is increasingly experimenting with risky behaviors. As noted earlier, youth will naturally experiment with risky behaviors, such as alcohol, tobacco and early sex. However, they are beginning their experimentation at younger and younger ages, thus increasing the likelihood of long-term consequences such as addiction, teenage pregnancy and even accidental death. The majority of rural youth 15 or younger have experimented with alcohol, tobacco and/or sex (Barrons et al., 1997). There is a myth that rural youth are sheltered from such behaviors; however, research demonstrates that this is not true. For example, gang-related activity has grown threefold in many rural area (Caldarella et al., 1996). In terms of alcohol use, rural youth's consumption of alcohol is similar to that of urban youth's, and rural youth begin drinking at earlier ages (Cronk and Sarvela, 1997).

Rural youth also express the same concerns as their counterparts in the cities and suburbs. A poll conducted on a national level found that rural students' top five concerns include education, family issues, war, violence and the environment (Barrons et al., 1997). Rural youth are not sheltered from the socially toxic environment that has been linked to inner city areas. This data provides evidence that rural youth exhibit the same problem behaviors as their urban counterparts and have similar concerns as urban youth. The disturbing truth is that rural communities are not automatically safe havens. In order to be places that foster the positive development of youth, communities must be intentional about it. In order to aid communities in such efforts, the Community Youth Development framework is presented next, along with some other practical points for transforming a community into a healthy place for youth to mature.

Section Three: Community Youth Development

Across the country, communities are trying desperately to understand what it takes to create environments that promote the positive and healthy development of all youth. Communities are attempting to redesign themselves to be places that promote both the general well-being of all young people and positive behavior, while concurrently preventing negative behavior. In addition to this challenge, rural communities are faced with challenges such as establishing a sense of belonging and connectedness among its youth and adults. As we mentioned earlier, without such connection, small towns and rural communities are in danger of becoming nothing more than bedroom communities whose existence is shaped by urban and suburban sprawl.

However, communities can develop effective solutions to revitalize themselves through partnerships between adults and youth. In addition, the importance of schools in rural community revitalization is also introduced in this section.

A community's youth-development perspective involves a shift away from concentrating on problems and toward concentrating on strengths, competencies and engagement in self-development and community development. Community youth development has a threefold definition: (1) purposely creating environments that provide constructive, affirmative and encouraging relationships that are sustained over time among youth and adults and youth and

their peers; (2) providing an array of opportunities that enable youth to build their competencies; and (3) engaging youth as partners in their own development as well as in the development of their communities.

Youth development, either positive or negative, occurs as youth interact with all levels of their surroundings, including the other people in their environment such as family, peers, other adults and their communities. Drawing understanding from research, a community's youth-development framework shifts the focus from the individual to the interaction of the individual with the multiple levels of his or her environment (Bogenshneider, 1998; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Therefore, fostering community youth development requires positive supports through such things as community gatherings and programs that are intergenerational, opportunities for skill and competency development through programs and activities, and partnerships with youth and adults that contribute to the community. These partnerships are youth's efforts with adults to be producers of their own development and shapers of their communities. The definition of community youth development is further explained in Appendix A.

The power of this framework is evident in findings from several studies. In these studies, young people who have grown up in communities that promote their positive development were found to have a better understanding of their own values, often became lifelong learners, were actively engaged in their communities, and were more likely to promote the positive well-being of other young people (See Benson, 1997; Benson et al., 1998; Blyth and Leffert, 1995; McLaughlin, 2000; Scales and Leffert, 1998).

The goals of community youth development involve what Lerner (n.d.) has identified as "The Five C's." These include: (1) competence in academics, social, emotional and vocational; (2) confidence in who one is becoming (identity); (3) connection to self and others; (4) character that comes from positive values, integrity and strong sense of morals; and (5) caring and compassion. However, from a community youth-development framework there is a sixth "C" as highlighted by Pittman (2000), that of contribution. By contributing to their families, neighborhoods and communities, youth are afforded practical opportunities to make use of the other five "Cs." Therefore, employing a community youth-development framework means including youth as partners in community mobilization efforts to create environments that both link youth with adults in positive relationships, and provide new opportunities for youth to develop skills.

The school is an important asset within the community youth-development framework and for rural communities in general. In fact, it has been referred to as the heart of a rural community (Farmer, 1989). The school provides mutual experiences and interests that unite rural community members in sharing common concerns. Only through community involvement can the school be transformed into places that foster the six "Cs" and foster a yearning among youth to stay in or return to their hometown after their post-secondary education. It fosters a connection to place that draws one near. "A school should be envisioned as an institution that exists not only to perpetuate a culture or a community, but which is, itself, an integral part of a community" (Nelson,

1995, p. 34). In addition, the community provides a large classroom: (1) to expand the school's and community's offering, and (2) for making the content being taught more relevant. For example, the school curriculum can include projects in various subjects and at various places that will enable students to learn about their community's history, resources, needs and entrepreneurial opportunities (Farmer, 1989; Nelson, 1995). As the new technology of options like telecommuting enables youth to return to their local communities, whether or not they do so will depend more on whether they grow up with a sense of belonging and connection to their local community than on the economic opportunities their local community offers. This connection is fostered as the community harnesses the power of youth as resources. By enabling youth to contribute their ideas, their competencies, their energies, their compassion and their caring attitudes for current community revitalization as well as in planning for the future, communities are increasing that sense of belonging that is necessary for connection.

By using the community youth-development framework, rural areas can address the major trends and revitalize themselves to become thriving communities. Of course, the strategies used will vary from community to community. In fact, the framework requires a community-specific plan of action that is developed by stakeholders of that community. This group of stakeholders includes community leaders, parents, business lead to the transformation of the community into a place that fosters the development of youth, and which positively affects all other members of the community. "If we adults are truly concerned about the future of our communities, our greatest task is do the things that will help our children [and youth] learn to enjoy living in their communities...And the best way to help them to love their home towns is to let them become fully involved in making good communities" (Nelson, 1995, p. 36).

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Appendix A
Community Youth Development: A Definition in Four Parts

Community youth development is an integration of youth development and community development. The first three parts of the definition below deal with youth development. These three parts are taken directly from Hamilton's "Youth development: a definition in three parts" (cited in Lerner).

1. A natural process: the growing capacity of a young person to understand and act upon the environment. Youth development (synonymous in this sense with child and adolescent development) is the natural unfolding of the potential inherent in the human organism in relation to the challenges and supports of the physical and social environment. People can actively shape their own development through their choices and interpretations. Development lasts as long as life, but youth development enables individuals to lead a healthy satisfying, productive life as youth, and later as adults, because they gain competence, character, connection, and confidence. The process of development may be divided into age-related stages (infancy, childhood, adolescence, and smaller divisions of these stages) and into domains (notably physical cognitive, social, emotional, and moral).

2. A philosophy or approach: active support for the growing capacity of young people by individuals, organizations, and institutions, especially at the community level. The youth development approach is rooted in commitment to enabling all young people to achieve their potential. It is characterized by a positive, asset-building orientation, building on strengths rather than categorizing youth according to their deficits. However, it recognizes the need to identify and respond to specific problems faced by some youth (e.g., substance abuse, involvement in violence, and premature parenthood). The most important manifestation of youth development as a philosophy or approach is the goal of making communities better places for young people to grow up. Youth participation is essential to the achievement of that goal.

3. Programs and organizations: a planned set of activities that foster young people's growing capacity. Youth development programs are inclusive, participation is not limited to those identified as at risk or in need. They give young people the chance to make decisions about their own participation and about the program's operation, and to assume responsible roles. They engage young people in constructive and challenging activities that build their competence and foster supportive relationships with peers and with adults. They are developmentally appropriate and endure over time, which requires them to be adaptable enough to change as participants' needs change. Youth development is done with and by youth. Something that is done to or for youth is not youth development, even though it may be necessary and valuable. Youth development organizations operate youth

development programs but have other functions as well. Programs to prevent or treat specific problems stand in contrast to youth development programs; however, problem-oriented programs may incorporate youth development principles by acknowledging participants' strengths and the wider range of issues they must cope with and by giving participants a strong voice in the choice to participate and in the operation of the program.

4. Partnerships for the community: collaboration and teamwork define the relationships between adults and youth on behalf of their communities. Of course, youth participation is required in every step of the programming process (e.g., planning, implementation, and evaluation), but just as important is youth participation in their community. Youth are fully invested in their community and are empowered as full partners to provide direction, insight, energy, and efforts around problem solving for the community. Youth are full contributors to community and are called upon to employ the skills and competencies that they are developing. Indeed, youth have a right and a civic responsibility to participate and contribute to their communities. Youth participation is viewed as essential to youth and to the thriving of community and institutions. Youth participation involves learning and work that is woven throughout the community not just in specific projects (Pittman, 2000). If engaged as partners, youth can be powerful change agents for the betterment of their community. Thus the engagement in the community represents the fourth leg of this stool known as community youth development. Pittman (2000) summarizes this point in the following quote:

"We will have to work carefully in this country to identify or create the public ideas that under gird a sustained effort to bring all young people into civic, social and change agents. We must recognize that this public idea, like any stable platform, must have at least three legs: one leg in policy, one in public opinion and values, and a third in organizational practice. We could argue for the importance of a fourth leg in youth culture, for this idea must resonate with young people, tap into their resources and unleash their potential." (pp. 35-36)

Urban Youth

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America's urban youth are a complex population, reflecting the complexity of modern times. Many are computer literate and economically "comfortable," yet they suffer from adjustment problems and substance abuse. Many live in urban areas of economic and physical deterioration, yet they triumph over these to move to more rewarding environs. We search for a common underlying explanation to understand urban youth but cannot find one.

This overview presents a selective introduction to a representative array of considerations paramount to understanding our urban youth. Table 1 shows that even in the past 10 years our society exhibited dramatic changes in age structure that portends a shift toward an aging population. Yet, we cannot let

Table 1. Recent Urban Youth Population 2000

Resident Population Estimates of the United States By Age and Sex
(in thousands)

	Aug 1 2000	July 1 1999	July 1 1998	July 1 1997	July 1 1996	July 1 1995	July 1 1990
BOTH SEXES							
Population, All ages	275,377	272,691	270,248	267,784	265,229	262,803	249,464
Summary Indicators							
Median Age	35.8	35.5	35.2	34.9	34.7	34.3	32.8
Mean Age	36.5	36.4	36.2	36.1	35.9	35.8	35.2
Five-Year Age Groups							
Under 5 years	18,947	18,942	18,989	19,099	19,292	19,532	18,853
5 to 9 years	19,743	19,947	19,929	19,754	19,439	19,069	18,062
10 to 14 years	19,930	19,548	19,242	19,097	19,004	18,853	17,198
15 to 19 years	19,884	19,748	19,542	19,146	18,708	18,203	17,765
20 to 24 years	18,528	18,026	17,678	17,488	17,508	17,982	19,135
25 to 29 years	17,773	18,209	18,575	18,820	18,933	18,905	21,236
30 to 34 years	19,551	19,727	20,168	20,739	21,313	21,825	21,912
35 to 39 years	22,215	22,545	22,615	22,636	22,553	22,296	19,982
40 to 44 years	22,644	22,628	21,883	21,378	20,812	20,259	17,795
45 to 49 years	19,929	19,356	18,853	18,467	18,430	17,458	13,824
50 to 54 years	17,346	16,446	15,722	15,158	13,928	13,642	11,370
55 to 59 years	13,351	12,875	12,403	11,755	11,356	11,086	10,474
60 to 64 years	10,688	10,514	10,263	10,061	9,997	10,046	10,619
65 to 69 years	9,424	9,447	9,592	9,777	9.901	9,926	10,077
70 to 75 years	8,750	8,771	8,798	8,751	8,789	8,831	8,023
75 to 79 years	7,421	7,329	7,215	7,083	6,891	6,700	6,147
80 to 84 years	4,926	4,817	4,732	4,661	4,575	4,478	3,935
85 to 89 years	2,712	2,625	2,554	2,477	2,415	2,352	2,051
90 to 94 years	1,184	1,148	1,116	1,078	1,043	1,017	765
95 to 99 years	365	343	323	304	291	268	206
> 100 years	66	59	57	54	51	48	37

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. (2000). *Population Estimates Program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Census Bureau Population Division

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the aging of our population cause us to lessen the attention and priority our society must give to understanding its young people.

Family/Household

The federal government has identified six major risk factors facing adolescents, four of which revolve around family/household structure: (a) both parents absent, (b) one-parent families, (c) unwed mothers, (d) parent who did not graduate high school, (e) poverty, and (f) welfare dependence. Most of our children do not face these risk factors and generally "survive" adolescence and move on to adulthood. Yet, these six risk factors can be detrimental in terms of outcome for our nation's youth. If a teenager has three or more of these risk factors, there is a 15 out of 100 chance that he or she will not be in school and will not be working; or, in the case of a young female that she will be a teenage mother. Since 1970, three of these risk factors have actually increased: children living in poverty, both parents absent and one-parent families (U.S. Department of Commerce 1997a).

Table 2 shows the most recent demographic breakdown of family characteristics regarding both composition and urban versus non-urban. Children living with both parents have a better financial and educational advantage than adolescents raised by just one parent. Furthermore, those raised by a divorced parent versus a never-married parent are more likely to have a financial and educational advantage. As one might expect, never-married parents are significantly younger than divorced parents. Of those children who live with only their mother, six out of 10 live near or below the poverty line. However, the background of this figure can best be understood when one realizes that almost seven out of 10 children raised by never-married mothers live in or near the poverty line. Although 4 million of our children live in the homes of their grandparents, only 37 percent of them actually live in the household where neither parent is present. (U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1997b).

Education

Urban school systems are highly differentiated regarding local and state economic resources. Arguments abound regarding what standard or benchmark should be used to assess the quality outcome of our kindergarten through senior year of high school educational system. However, some factors can be identified as related to strong student performance for the general adolescent student population as well as for those "at risk."

High school "high achievers" (superior grades, high standardized test scores, etc.) exhibit patterns of : (1) Developing a strong belief in self; (2) Having supportive adults around them such as teachers or counselors; (3) Having a network of other high achieving peers; (4) Being involved in extra curricular activities; (5) Challenging their learning experiences by taking difficult classes such as HONORS classes; (6) Having personal characteristics of strong motivation and appreciation of their cultural background and having a strong sense of will power; (7) Being highly resilient; and, (8) Having strong family support. At-risk high achievers also have a history of overcoming highly diffi-

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Table 2. Family/Household Characteristics of Urban Youth

Families by Type, Age, Metropolitan-Nonmetropolitan Residence, and Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder, 1998

(All families organized by size of family)

Total Size Family	US Total	US Married Couple	US Male Household	US Female Household	Metro Total	Metro Married Couple	Metro Male Household
Families	70,880	54,317	3,911	12,652	56,346	42,773	3,174
2 persons	30,282	22,042	2,225	6,016	23,548	16,843	1,785
3 persons	16,231	11,639	964	3,628	13,010	9,236	796
4 persons	14,633	12,402	454	1,777	11,918	10,074	372
5 persons	6,555	5,633	167	756	5,276	4,495	131
6 persons	2,047	1,746	63	239	1,661	1,409	54
> 7 persons	1,130	855	39	237	935	716	35
Total persons	225,360	175,770	11,178	38,412	180,781	139,927	9,191
Average Per family	3.18	3.24	2.86	3.04	3.21	3.27	2.9

Total Size of Family	Metro Female Household	Nonmetro Total	Nonmetro Married Household	Nonmetro Male Household	Nonmetro Female Household
Families	10,399	14,533	11,543	737	2,253
2 persons	4,920	6,735	5,198	440	1,096
3 persons	2,977	3,221	2,403	168	651
4 persons	1,482	2,716	2,329	82	305
5 persons	649	1,279	1,138	35	106
6 persons	198	386	337	8	41
> 7 persons	184	196	139	4	53

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. (2000.) Household and family characteristics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Census Bureau Population Division

Families by Type, Age, Metropolitan-Nonmetropolitan Residence, and Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder, 1998

(Organized by families with members under 18 years of age)

Total Size Family	US Total	US Married Couple	US Male Household	US Female Household	Metro Total	Metro Married Couple	Metro Male Household
Families	70,880	54,317	3,911	12,652	56,346	42,773	3,174
None < 18	33,403	27,882	1,707	3,814	26,308	21,1661	1,485
One < 18	15,572	10,026	1,330	4,216	12,421	7,954	1,009
Two < 18	13,916	10,604	578	2,773	11,272	8,568	449
Three < 18	5,768	4,292	218	1,258	4,597	3,407	170
Four < 18	1,538	1,098	55	384	1,216	853	48
Five < 18	441	280	17	144	340	214	10
Six + < 18	242	134	6	102	193	116	3

Total Size of Family	Metro Female Household	Nonmetro Total	Nonmetro Married Household	Nonmetro Male Household	Nonmetro Female Household
Families	10,399	14,533	11,543	737	2,253
None < 18	3,162	7,095	6,221	222	652
One < 18	3,458	3,151	2,072	321	759
Two < 18	2,255	2,644	2,036	130	479
Three < 18	1,020	1,171	885	48	238
Four < 18	315	322	245	7	69
Five < 18	116	101	66	7	28
Six + < 18	74	49	18	2	28
Total < 18	13,224	13,787	10,010	783	2,994
Average per family	1.27	.95	.87	1.06	1.33

cult backgrounds. By not only surviving but excelling beyond personal tragedies and deleterious environments, these students are able to have a strong belief in their motivation and abilities (Hebert and Reis, 1999).

Hence, many education experts emphasize the need to "empower" students by developing structured programs aimed at academic improvement. High schools in several large urban areas have been successful in empowering their students, in part, through a pledge program whereby students agree to attending classes, being drug and alcohol free, resolving conflicts in a responsible manner, supporting the norms of the school, participating in class, and applying the five P's (polite, prepared, prompt, participate, positive Mental Attitude). These urban high schools also developed specialized six-week courses that helped socialize students into the demands necessitated by empowerment (Lamperes, 1994).

The major transition for economically poor students is entering junior high school rather than high school. Low-income youths in cities have less of a change in their sense of self-esteem and overall sense of self in going to high school than there was in going to junior high school. Antisocial involvement with peers is more likely to begin at the junior high level rather than high school. In this sense, high schools should be seen as the second rather than the first true transition for adolescents.

A pivotal dimension of education revolves around the effects of dropping out of high school. High school dropouts make up almost 50 percent of all households in poverty and half of those in prison. High school dropouts over the course of a life-span will earn $800,000 less on average in total income than what a college graduate will earn. The ramifications of dropping out of high school can be less problematic by attaining a GED, but even getting a GED does not compensate the negative effects of dropping out of high school itself.

Homeless youth in urban areas are confronted with a tremendous array of obstacles to learning. These youths suffer from developmental lag, emotional and psychological problems, health problems, behavioral problems and so forth. A program such as that done by SafeSpace in Times Square in New York City has been successful in reaching out to these homeless youths and providing them an educational program. SafeSpace has strong ties to other agencies that deals with adolescents, and it also has a cooperative arrangement with the local school boards. Furthermore, the SafeSpace educational program stresses basic skills, since most of these homeless students do not perform academically age-appropriate grade levels (Powers and Jaklitsch, 1993).

Employment

The youth of contemporary America are experiencing one of the most significant changes in the economic structure of U.S. history. A worldwide change in production techniques now means that technology and computerized automation play an increasingly strong role in providing manufactured goods and services. Labor unions in our nation are not as strong as they were in the mid-third of the twentieth century. Also, young people today cannot remotely count

on having a "job for life," in that job security has diminished significantly. Most young people today will experience, on average, a dozen different jobs throughout their adult lives. Residential segregation is a further amplification of the barriers for black youths to obtain jobs in higher-paying businesses and professions. This residential segregation by race in our country, although lessening, is still at significantly high levels — especially for blacks of lower socioeconomic status.

A "spatial mismatch" exists in that young people in the central city, especially ethnic minorities, are often times forced by discrimination to live in central cities while true job growth is in suburban areas. Higher-paying jobs decrease for the young in the central city, in part, because there is an oversupply of minority workers relative to the growth of jobs. This spatial mismatch between where ethnic groups live versus locations for better jobs is often a prime indicator for future negative prospects of employment for minority youths. Even when absolute levels of employment can be relatively high in central cities — in that jobs that are available are mostly filled — the amount of "job growth" in higher- paying jobs does not keep up with suburban-area job growth (Stoll, 1999; Raphael, 1998). So, both patterns of higher unemployment rates and a lack of job growth are strong predictors of future negative job outcomes for many inner- city youth — especially inner-city black youth.

Differential rates of employment for minorities are reinforced by a continuation in the suburbs of patterns of residential segregation found in central cities. Unemployment levels are high in areas accessible for suburban black youths, while employment growth tends to be much higher in areas of concentration of suburban white youths (Raphael, 1998). Both the level of youth employment in suburban high-growth areas and the types of jobs available in suburban high-growth areas differ from those of central city and poverty areas. That is, white male youths in central cities can have the same lack of quality education as blacks, yet they do not experience the same level of unemployment in the central city as do black male youths (Holloway, 1998). Stark differences of employment between black youths in suburbs when compared to those in central-city areas also exists: "For example, 74 percent of black male youths living in Detroit suburbs are employed, while only 41 percent of central-city black male youths are employed. Suburbanized black male youths in Chicago and Pittsburgh are employed at a rate of 60 percent, while only 37 percent and 34 percent of central-city youths are employed" (Holloway, 1998).

Health

One of the most pressing problems facing adolescents in our society as a whole is the lack of health insurance coverage. Almost 15 percent of all children under age 18 lack health insurance, with those 12-17 years of age being above the average among all children for not having health insurance. Although the poor are disproportionately represented in this lack of health insurance, about four out of five children lacking health insurance are actually above the poverty level. In the latter half of the twentieth century, our society began to pay more attention to those age 65 and over in terms of income and health care needs. Now, our society must pay attention to our young people who are lack-

ing resources for health care. It is more likely in today's America that a child under 18 years of age will be without health insurance coverage than will someone 65 years of age or older (US Department of Commerce, 1998).

In addition, inner-city youth under age 18 are highly more likely to be hospitalized for acute illnesses stemming from environmental factors than those children living in the suburbs. One of the most common chronic illnesses of children is asthma as related to air pollution, especially the higher pollution levels in the inner city. Inner city children are exposed to higher concentrations of fine particle matter (PM) and carbon monoxide (CO) pollution than are their suburban counterparts. This air pollution is a significant factor in the emergency room demand by adolescents in the inner city for asthma and respiratory problems (Norris et al., 1999).

Inner city youth are also "at risk" for dietary inadequacies and exposure to urban toxins. Bruening et al., (1999) in a study of Newark, N.J., adolescents (primarily African-American and Hispanic children ranging in age from 8 to 10 years) found that many of these children have calcium deficiencies tied to an inadequate diet of dairy foods. These dietary deficiencies exacerbate the absorption of environmental pollutants such as lead toxins, which are found both within a child's home (paint) and in many of the areas outside the home. The medical field sees the importance of a strong link between overcoming these calcium deficiencies as a means of lessening the impact of exposure to the lead toxins (Bruening et al., 1999).

Homeless youth are a special concern regarding health. Most health programs for the homeless have concentrated on HIV/AIDS prevention with some emphasis on the violence that underpins the lives of most homeless children. Rapid Assessment Procedures (RAP) have been used successfully to identify general health and nutrition and survival problems of the homeless. (RAP actually is closely aligned with anthropology, health care professionals and studies of children in developing countries.) Homeless youths self-identify their major problems as involving STDs, teen pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, depression, skin problems, cuts and injuries and drug use (Ensign and Gittelsohn, 1998). RAP underscores the need for practitioners to go beyond their professional assessment of what must be done to include how health problems are perceived by the homeless and how these homeless youths best perceive help coming from society.

One of the common overall health/nutrition concerns for adolescents in our society revolves around the notions of dieting and binge eating. Students in middle and high schools are more likely to have a better understanding of the notion of a proper diet than they are of binge eating. The complex interplay within our society between good nutrition and proper "dieting" and pathologies such as binge eating is conceptualized differently depending on a young person's age, gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic status (Neumark-Sztainer, 1998). Female, white, middle- to upper-middle-class adolescents mentally separate body image maintained by binge eating from that of proper nutritional needs.

Community health initiatives have to embrace a wide range of involvement from health care professionals and community youth programs, family, churches, media and schools. In trying to meet the health needs of younger

people, especially minorities, a good approach stems from having a strongly coordinated program between a university/college, senior citizens and the public school system. One successful approach is that of the Middle School Senior Citizen Health Promotion project outside of Washington D.C. (Green, 1999). Part of the lure of combining both the senior citizens and students was to have a broad appeal to the community and to develop a network of close ties for future reciprocal relationships between the College of Nursing, the public school system and senior citizens. Howard University Division of Nursing coordinated a program with a middle school of 380 minority students in Washington D.C. (78 percent African-American; 20 percent Hispanic). Regarding the program that was directed towards adolescents, the Division of Nursing had health promotions and health screening activities; any irregularities from the screenings resulted in a child actually being directed towards further health care. Eventually, the middle school project developed a network with the Parent Teacher Association and also allowed the Nursing Division to participate in other school activities. To increase legitimacy and support of the adolescents, the program had to take into account the personal issues of students, with particular emphasis on students' feelings of a need to develop a sense of personal strength to cope with distress.

Another successful approach has been that of the Health Assessment Project (HAP) (Torres, 1998), which has a strong record of reaching out to minorities. HAP follows a step-by-step process that can be used elsewhere to help identify critical health needs for adolescents and to further public awareness of health care assessment as well as health services available. HAP emphasizes that once the short-term health goals are recognized, their immediate implementation keeps the program alive in the thoughts of the students and the related community and family networks. These short-term programs revolve around meeting medical needs for asthma problems; ear, nose and throat (ENT problems); the common cold, and other respiratory conditions. HAP also recognizes that chief concerns for health care for adolescents involve substance abuse, gangs, drug dealing and crime, since these four factors are especially prominent in the minds of adolescents in urban settings. These problems cannot be ignored in trying to understand an overall health assessment and improvement program.

Suicide

Americans began to take a stronger notice of suicide amongst its young people as the twentieth century ended. Table 3 shows the actual rate of suicide for all age groups from 1950 to 1998. It is estimated that more than half of all high scholars have entertained some thought of suicide. This suicide ideation is fairly absent for younger children but becomes more pronounced as one moves into the middle school years (grades 6-9). Middle school children are especially prone to having an increase in suicide ideation. Zenere and Lazarus (1997) hypothesize that middle school years represent a strongly threatening transition for coping for many young people. Zenere and Lazarus suggest that school districts from kindergarten on develop programs that help elementary children to develop coping skills. Coping skills developed for these students

Table 3. Death Rates by Suicide, 1950-1998

Death Rates by Suicide, 1950-1998
(Deaths per 100,000 Resident Population)

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1985	1990	1996	1997	1998
All ages	11.0	10.6	11.8	11.4	11.5	11.5	10.8	10.6	10.4
5-14	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
15-24	4.5	5.2	8.8	12.3	12.8	13.2	12.0	11.4	11.1
25-34	9.1	10	14.1	16.0	15.3	15.2	14.5	14.3	13.8
35-44	14.3	14.2	16.9	15.4	14.6	15.3	15.5	15.3	15.4
45-54	20.9	20.7	20	15.9	15.7	14.8	14.9	14.7	14.8
55-64	27.0	23.7	21.4	15.9	16.8	16.0	13.7	13.5	13.1
65-74	29.3	23	20.8	16.9	18.7	17.9	15.0	14.4	14.1
75-84	31.1	27.9	21.2	19.1	23.9	24.9	20.0	19.3	19.7
> 85	28.8	26	19	19.2	19.4	22.2	20.2	20.8	21.0
Male, all ages	17.3	16.6	17.3	18.0	18.8	19.0	18.0	17.4	17.2
Female, all ages	4.9	5.0	6.8	5.4	4.9	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.0

SOURCE: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2000). Health, United States, 2000. Atlanta, GA: Author.

will help them to have a smoother transition between elementary, middle school and high school years.

Unfortunately, there is a small "hardcore" group of adolescents who are driven to take their own life and do so without any signals to others. General coping and suicide prevention programs in school systems can even help these young people to realize there is a recognized structure of refuge for them. Their thoughts of committing suicide can be conveyed to teachers and counselors who are programmatically trained to lessen the levels of suicide amongst our young people. Such strong suicide awareness and prevention programs in public schools can actually lead to a significant decline in youth suicide (Zenere and Lazarus, 1997).

Sexual Behavior

The complexity of the relationship between sexually risky behavior and knowledge of STDs and HIV is becoming more focused on whether knowledge of STDs and HIV is actually a strong preventor of sexually risky behavior. Demographic factors are important in understanding who is and who is not sexually "experienced," but they are relatively unimportant in understanding amongst these sexually experienced youths whether or not they are going to engage in risky sexual behavior. In other words, knowledge of STDs and AIDS is not highly related to any demographic factors that would also help to influence a lessening of risky sexual behaviors (Boyer, 1999). Boyer (1999) found that of adolescent males, African-American and Latino youths were more likely to have had sexual experience than their opposite counterparts. However, they found that the same demographic factors were not really associated with STD/HIV-related risky sexual behavior.

Everyday thinking almost assumes as common sense that younger people undergo certain risky sexual behaviors because of a combination of changing hor-

mones and a belief that they are "immortal" or "invulnerable" to negative consequences. This notion of immortality and invulnerability has been a common part of the explanation as to why teenagers engage in risky sexual behavior even though they are knowledgeable of the consequences of STDs and particularly the severe consequences of HIV infection. Adolescents of today are quite aware of the notion of death and violence in their lives, regardless of whether this knowledge comes from personal experience or from the media. Emphasizing mortality as a consequence of risky sexual behavior resulting in HIV is not a strong influence in preventing risky adolescent sexual behavior. The notion of threat of death is not as strong of an impact as is the notion of long-term illness consequences and consequences of immobility that can be associated with HIV infection. Langer (1998) suggests that an effective strategy to help adolescents lessen risky sexual behavior would be for them to actually begin to identify and relate to those activities in their lives that could be either limited or even eliminated through health impairment from HIV infection.

Emphasis towards young people on having monogamous relationships is not necessarily beneficial to protect against AIDS related sexual behavior. Many young people believe that monogamous commitment means that they have commitment to only one partner, but can make this commitment several different times in relatively short times periods to other partners in succession. Rather than focusing on monogamy, it is better to pay closer attention to two of the best predictors of sexually risky behaviors: the self-esteem of the individual adolescent and the peer group to which students identify. Those who engage in sexually risky behavior also tend to identify with peers who are involved in sexually risky behavior and who are also involved with alcohol and drug use.

Sex education programs for adolescents should lead toward a student's developing a sense of competence and worth as well as a sense of optimism about having mastery over environmental factors (Binson et al., 1993). Sex education programs should help young people develop strong coping skills in dealing with the stressors of grades, peer pressure and so forth (Ramirez-Valles, et al., 1998).

The promotion of abstinence in sex education of our youth is receiving a great deal of attention in contemporary times. The federally funded 12-week program called "Family Accountability Communicating Teen Sexuality" (FACTS) is a sex education curriculum that seeks to build character and self-esteem among adolescents. FACTS have been successful in changing the attitudes of students to think of abstinence in a positive manner (Carter-Jessop et al., 2000). Carter-Jessop concluded that "character based," sexual-abstinence-only education can lead to abstinence. Programs promoting abstinence should convey that premarital abstinence is a disciplined lifestyle and not a temporary decision and should posit that abstinence can improve the potential for having a more healthy, pleasurable sexual intimacy experience in marriage. Carter-Jessop et al. conclude that even those who have been sexually active in the past can have the ability to have their attitudes changed through the FACTS program to choose abstinence in the future and remain abstinent until married.

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Pregnancy

Table 4 shows there is a downward trend in adolescent birth rates, yet a disproportionate number of adolescent births are found among African-American adolescents when compared to other youth population subgroups. Also, a first pregnancy, even if it results in a miscarriage, is likely to lead to a second pregnancy for adolescents (Coard, et al. 2000). Those who used hormone implants such as progesterone or medroxyprogesterone were significantly more likely to prevent pregnancy than those who used oral contraception or condoms, since these latter methods often were not used consistently over time.

As one might expect, the rates of pregnancy for runaway/homeless urban girls are significantly higher than the rate of pregnancies for household youths. In some cities, almost 50 percent of the street youths become pregnant compared to a tenth of a percent of the household youths who became pregnant. Almost one in 10 street youths actually reported three or more pregnancies by age 17 (Greene and Ringwalt, 1998).

In the past decade, society has given much attention to welfare reform that has a powerful impact on urban youth, particularly unwed mothers with children in poverty. Part of the philosophical momentum leading to welfare reform was to discourage unmarried childbearing and to dissuade urban adolescents from having children at a young age. Coley (2000) did one of the first studies of the perception that African-American girls in poverty had about this type of welfare reform and its impact. She found that these young welfare recipients had only slight to moderate knowledge of welfare rules and welfare reform. Interestingly, however, they had deeply internalized the belief that being on welfare was highly negative and that the primary cause of being on welfare

Table 4. Teen Births in the United States

Teen Birth Rates in the U.S.: Selected years
(Rates Per 1,000 Females in Specified Group)

AGE	1980	1985	1990	1991	1993	1995	1996	1997	1998
All races									
10-14 yrs	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0
15-19 yrs	53.0	51.0	59.9	62.1	59.6	56.8	54.4	52.3	51.1
White, Total									
10-14 yrs	-----	-----	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6
15-19 yrs	-----	-----	50.8	52.8	51.1	50.1	48.1	46.3	45.4
White, NonHispanic									
10-14 yrs	.04	-----	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
15-19 yrs	41.2	-----	42.5	43.4	40.7	39.3	37.6	36.0	35.2
Black									
10-14 yrs	4.3	4.5	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.2	3.6	3.3	2.9
15-19 yrs	97.8	95.4	112.8	115.5	108.6	96.1	91.4	88.2	85.4
Hispanic									
10-14 yrs	1.7	-----	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.3	2.1
15-19 yrs	82.2	-----	100.3	106.7	106.8	106.7	101.8	97.4	93.6

SOURCE: Centers for Disease Control Prevention. (2000). National Vital Statistics Reports, 48 (6).

could be reduced to "personal laziness." Coley's findings showed that the message that society was giving to young welfare mothers was internalized in terms of the proscriptive aspects of that message against having children while in high school. Coley extrapolates from her findings that due to limited access to welfare because of welfare reform, these young women will greatly alter their sexual behavior, since the consequences of pregnancy would have much more profound effects in terms of being able to survive economically and socially with a child.

Crime and Delinquency

In the 1990's there was a decline in crime in general and juvenile delinquency in particular. This decline is due to changes in the demographic structure of society, the positive economic growth of our nation, having more police visibility, and stricter courts. Regardless of the decline in crime, there is still a strong and — one can even say — heightened societal fear of crime by adolescents.

Most of our nation was shocked by the appearance of spree killings in our suburban high schools in the 1990's, yet young people in the inner cities, especially in race/ethnic ghettos, have been exposed to serious, violent crime and killings over several decades. The fact that such violence and killing is now being seen in suburban areas and smaller communities, is a geographical continuation of a pattern that has long been present in inner-cities.

The relationship between dysfunctional families and delinquency is well spelled out in research. Adolescents who are involved in serious, chronic delinquency and felony behavior are likely to come from family backgrounds that are characterized by disruption, conflict, a lack of parental supervision and involvement, and deviant behavior amongst others in the family including the parents. This is especially true as one looks at poor inner-city youth such as the urban "underclass" (neighborhoods where 40 percent of the population lives below poverty) where there is a high proportion of dysfunctional families. This does not mean that all inner-city youth come from dysfunctional families and are juvenile delinquents. Some deteriorating inner-city neighborhoods can have crime rates that are much lower than other neighborhoods that are likewise deteriorating. Although the future facing inner-city adolescents is not bright, some inner city neighborhoods are showing a new vitality in trying to overcome problems that are faced by their young people (Curtis, 1998).

One of the links that our society is pursuing to better understand urban adolescent youth crime is a link between exposure to violence and the committing of deviant, and especially violent acts. Schwab-Stone et al., (1999) studied youth in grades 6-10 and their exposure to violence in terms of whether these young people had been victims of violence or witnessed violent acts. They then related this past exposure to that the youths current antisocial behavior and their willingness to actually commit violent acts themselves. Over a two-year time period, they found a broad range of exposure to either being a victim or witnessing violent acts so that the majority of these urban youths had witnessed or been victims of violent behavior. Their overall conclusion is that:

> " . . . prior exposure to violence is substantially associated with both internalization behaviors and internalizing symptoms over a period of two years. This persistent effect is even more striking that in light of the fact that some of the exposure might have occurred years ago because our measure included exposure in their lifetime." (Schwab-Stone, et al., 1999: p. 366). This exposure to violence not only leads to externalizing violent behavior but it also leads to people internalizing depression and somatic problems such as headaches, earaches for no reason, and so forth.

One frightening aspect of current juvenile delinquency is the "serial" nature of some offenders. Myers and Borg (forthcoming) defined serial delinquency as:

> " . . . occurring when a juvenile commits a second, unrelated crime — but at the same crime category — against another victim or target at a different time. We also require the time between crimes to be at least 24 hours so as to not to confuse these actions with "spree" offenses — those committed in different occasions with no cooling off period in-between. (Myers and Borg, forthcoming)"

In addition to a "generic" serial pattern of juvenile delinquency, they designate five specific areas of serial delinquency: cruelty to animals, arson, sex offenses, sadistic crimes and serial murder. Of course, male adolescents are overwhelming more prevalent as both chronic offenders and serial offenders than are females. However, serial offenders begin their lives of violence earlier than those juvenile delinquents that commit violent acts but are not serial offenders. Also, serial offenders have a discernible linkage of movement through series of violent acts. A young person who is a serial offender of cruelty to animals moves to becoming a juvenile offender of community-based violent crimes and even serial murder. Serial offenders begin their deviance at a young age from about age 4-8 years and experience severe mood swings. Serial juvenile offenders between the ages of 9 and 12 years also exhibit levels of anger and aggression that they project towards others in aggressive fighting behavior. Those in this age group also have had sleeping problems and a high degree of depression and somatic illnesses such as vomiting, diarrhea, and the like. The important point to remember is that serial juvenile offenders have patterns of behavior difficulties that can be detected early in life.

Gangs

The willingness to confront not only adults but also much of the legal normative system of our country is a haunting attribute of urban gangs. Gangs are characterized by a sense of belonging and a feeling that the collective sense of the gang is what helps individual members to stand against the world at large.

Venkatesh (1997) studied an urban gang that was related to a mid-sized public housing development in a poor area of a large mid-western city. He focused on the corporatization of this gang. Many contemporary urban youth gangs have a network of "corporatization" that focuses on making money (usually through the sale of drugs) and distributing the money amongst members and expand-

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ing the size and territory of the gang. This notion of corporatization is rationalized by many gang members by returning some of their money back to their local area in the form of recreation programs and providing overall security to their local area. A level of corporatization allows a gang to survive the imprisonment of its initial leaders as well as to survive times of decline in economic profits from its illegal activity. The pathological consequences associated with gang membership show that both male and female gang members have a substantially high rate of delinquency and substance abuse compared to comparable non-gang members. For both males and females, membership in a gang is a high predictor of the commitment of serious felonies. Even the peer structures outside of a gang tend to be a peer structure of males and females who are strongly engaged in delinquent behavior. The over-arching negativity of gang membership can be summarized as being pathological for adolescent development needs (Bjerregard and Smith, 1993).

Guns

Our society in the latter quarter of the twentieth century experienced a significant increase in the carrying of firearms and use of firearms by adolescents. Firearm-related deaths amongst teenagers both in central cities and in suburban areas are seen by many as an "epidemic of fatal violence" (Powell et al., 1996). However, one must also keep in mind that the majority of young people who have access to firearms do not use them against another person. Some inner-city youths carried firearms as a means to commit crime (particularly drug-related crimes), while other inner-city youths rationalized carrying firearms as a means of "reasonable protection." The carrying of firearms by suburban youths is not so easily explained. An interesting rationale for carrying firearms by suburban youths is developed by Sheley (1995), who looked at students in a predominately white middle-class suburban public high school system. Sheley concludes that the public rationale for some of these youths carrying guns is for protection, but in fact, there is a status factor involved in suburban youths carrying weapons. This enhancement of status is something that needs to be further explored regarding the carrying of firearms by our adolescents.

Substance Abuse

Peer influence tends to be the strongest predictor for substance abuse among adolescents. The mitigating factor of family structure on peer influence is a bit difficult to ferret out. In general, one can say that adolescents who come from a home with a father and mother, even if their relationship with a parent is not necessarily positive, tend to have a lower level of substance use. In households where there is a mother only, negative relationships with the mother tend to have a higher impact in terms of increasing the amount of drug use amongst adolescents who are already experiencing peer pressure for drug use and are already using drugs. Family structure is an important variable in drug prevention amongst adolescents but family structure often times cannot overcome the impact of peer pressure (Farrell and White, 1998).

Hardesty and Kirby (1995) argue that the positive effect of family structure to mitigate substance use is compounded by religion. Religiousness in the family can be a supportive buffer against using illicit drugs. A family setting that also has an adherence to religious beliefs helps youth to lessen drug use and helps them to associate with peers who are not prone to be drug users. The particulars of this religious affiliation are not necessarily important. That is, it is the practice of religion and not a denominational belief that seems to provide an increased buffer for families to have an influence against drug use (Hardesty and Kirby, 1995).

Alcohol use by adolescents is strongly affected by a young person's sense of personal competence and sense of social skills. The absence of social skills or a strong positive sense of self are both highly predictive of dysfunctional behavior of young people, especially that leading to alcohol and eventual substance abuse. Our society, especially our schools and community programs, must be geared towards helping ever younger ages to have a sense of self worth and to avoid self-derogation. We now know that youngsters in primary grades who have a very low self worth and are highly self-derogatory, are prone to alcohol and substance abuse and to bonding with peers who are themselves abusing alcohol or other substances (Scheirer and Botvin, 1998).

Conclusion

Our society has a great litany of negative over-generalizations about adolescents in general and about urban adolescents in particular. We must realize there is a great deal of positive adaptation amongst our urban young people. Our urban youth can be highly resilient. They can adapt to challenges and threatening situations even though their environment is not as structurally supportive as one would hope (D'Imperio et al., 2000). There is some "tipping point" level, yet to be delineated, at which stress factors can have even the most resilient of young people break down either emotionally or socially. However, those who maintain their resiliency have a strong will power characterized by self-confidence and they do not self-identify with peers who are not adapting well to their environment (Gordon, 1996).

Technology and other forms of modernization have not been totally effective in helping urban youth. "Age compression" forces many young people to develop skills at an early age to deal with adult responsibilities, learning challenges, and high risk factors. "Age compression" has resulted in many adolescents developing a sense of coping with challenge. The resiliency of adolescents is a much longer protective factor than we have acknowledged. There are many young people who are faced with very strong challenges from their personal life and societal structure, yet they are able to develop positive relationships and pursue academic or work-minded goals. The negative reification of certain attributes about young people ignores this pattern of achievement by our urban adolescents. Young people face many social and psychological stresses and pressures, yet our society is still timid towards placing a great deal of resources into school and community mental health services.

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Annotated Bibliography: Youth Issues

Ronald L. Mullis

Careers

Helwig, A.A. 1998. "Occupational Aspirations of a Longitudinal Sample from Second to Sixth Grade." *Journal of Career Development,* 24, 4, 247-265.

The hypothesis that children will increasingly aspire to sex "appropriate" jobs received support for boys but not for girls. In fact, with advancing age, girls more often aspired to male occupations to the extent that nearly one-half of the girls selected male jobs by the sixth grade. The efforts of educators and other adults significant to the children may be helping to expand the occupational horizons of girls. The authors pose the question: "Are boys becoming more "ossified" in traditional male occupations as they age?"

Jeffery, G., Hache, G. and Lehr, R. 1995. "A Group-Based Delphi Application: Defining Rural Career Counseling Needs." *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development,* 28, 45-60.

Developed materials to help rural parents assist their children in making career-related decisions, using a modified Delphi technique. Eleven meetings were held in three communities (all with a population of less than 1,500) to discuss the views of a total of 60 persons (parents, informed community members, youth graduating from high school and youth who were early school leavers). Four Delphi rounds encompassed the 11 sessions. Data were coded, parsed and condensed. The following themes were identified: career-related needs of youth and parents, school-related needs, community needs for career information and support services, and suggestions offered to address career-related needs. Booklets, audiotapes and videotapes were developed based on data gathered.

Lehr, R. and Jeffery, G. 1996. "Career Support Needs of Youth: A Qualitative Analysis of the Rural Perspective." *Canadian Journal of Counseling*, 30, 240-253.

Explored the role played by rural parents in the development and identification of careers by youth in rural communities. Researchers identified 60 subjects (parents, youth and community members from three populations). Findings from a series of focus-group interviews identified the needs of parents and families, individual youth and secondary school programs. For example, parents often saw themselves as poor role models because they had little education and felt they lacked the experience and knowledge to offer their youth sound educational advice. The detailed list of needs offered reflects potential activities which both parents, schools and other community organizations might engage in to help relatively disadvantaged rural youth.

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McMahon, M. and Patton, W. 1997. "Gender Differences in Children and Adolescents' Perceptions of Influences on Their Career Development." *The School Counselor,* 44 (May), 368-376.

Focus groups were used to gather information from school-age children and adolescents about careers. Female and male children continue to present stereotypical pictures about job knowledge in relation to industry areas. Boys were critical of boys in "female" jobs. Boys showed greater knowledge about career options than did girls. With age, children — boys more than girls — showed greater awareness of the relations between education and future careers. Girls were more concerned with the work environment, whereas boys were more concerned with work tasks. Boys were found to engage in more career planning and see school activities as related to future careers than girls.

Mustapha, N. 1995. "Attainments of Rural Youth in a Developing Society: Some Implications for Vocational Counseling." *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth,* 5, 195-201.

Illustrates the need for educational planning and vocational counseling to be more responsive to the changing socioeconomic environment. Data, obtained from a six-year longitudinal study of 284 rural youths in Trinidad and Tobago, show that aspirations are higher than expectations for high status. Six years after graduating from high school, educational and occupational attainment levels were much lower than both aspirations and expectations. Examination performance was generally poor and widespread involvement of graduates in nontraditional forms of education during the period studied testify to a perceived lack of relevance of formal education as presently administered. The general mismatch between aspirations and actual attainments suggests the need for more effective vocational guidance.

Quaglia, R. J. and Perry, C. M. 1995. "A Study of Underlying Variables Sffecting Aspirations of Rural Adolescents." *Adolescence,* 30, 233-243.

Aspirations are comprised of two major components — inspiration and ambition. Ambitions represents the ability to look ahead and invest in the future. Inspiration can be described as the ability to invest the time, energy, and effort to reach those ambitions. Variables such as how and why students spend their time illustrate the dynamics of these two components. The data in this report are based on the responses to the Aspirations Survey of 2,677 eighth- to 12th-grade students from seven rural schools in Maine. The data suggest that many students have no understanding of why they engage in certain activities. If students are to be responsible for their education and more importantly for themselves, they must see purpose in their pursuits.

Rojewski, J. W. 1995. "Impact of At-Risk Behavior on the Occupational Aspirations and Expectations of Male and Female Adolescents in Rural Settings." *Journal of Career Development,* 22, 33-48.

Determined the interactive and main effects of gender and academic at-risk behavior (status) on rural adolescents' occupational aspirations, expecta-

tions, and extent of agreement between aspirations and expectations. Data were gathered on 129 students (aged 14-28 years) through the self-report demographic data form. Results reveal that (1) rural adolescents aspired for careers with prestige-levels similar to those held by nonrural peers; (2) gender was not a significant influence on occupational aspirations by itself, although female youth at substantial risk aspired to higher-level careers than male peers at the same risk levels; and (3) at-risk status accounted for a relatively small amount of the total variance for occupational aspirations and aspirations-expectations discrepancy. It was concluded that the process of career compromise and circumscription were critical in determining success in attaining one's occupational aspirations.

Rojewski, J. W. 1994a. "Career Indecision Types for Rural Adolescents From Disadvantaged and Nondisadvantaged Backgrounds." *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* 41, 356-363.

A cluster-analytic technique classified a group of 189 adolescents from rural areas according to career indecision type as measured by the Career Decision Scale (S. H. Osipow, C. G. Carney, J. Winer, B. Yanico and M. Koschier, 1976). The resulting three-cluster solution described types of career indecision experienced by adolescents in the early exploration stage. These clusters span a continuum that includes tentatively decided-crystallizing preferences, transitional indecision and chronic indecision-impaired development. These types reflect the types and intensity of vocational tasks and situations typically encountered by individuals in early adolescence. Three demographic factors (gender, race and economic status) had no significant main or interaction effects on representation across these three indecision types. Results were interpreted on the basis past studies on indecision types and career development theory.

Rojewski, J. W. 1994b. "Predicting Career Maturity Attitudes in Rural Eeconomically Disadvantaged Youth." *Journal of Career Development,* 21, 49-61.

Examined the use of selected variables in accurately predicting or classifying economically disadvantaged youth (EDY) according to level of career maturity. The study, involving 90 EDY students, tested the following predictor variables: gender, race, degree of educational disadvantage, postschool plans, enrollment in vocational education courses and level of career indecision. Results show that one's level of career indecision contributes the most to overall classification accuracy and accuracy for classification of career-immature subjects, while level of career indecision and race were most important in classifying career-mature subjects. Race, educational disadvantage and stated post-school plans were important career-immaturity classification predictors. The least important variable for either subgroup was current involvement in vocational education.

Shanahan, M.J., Elder, G.H. Jr., Burchinal, M. and Conger, R.D. 1996. "Adolescent Paid Labor and Relationships with Parents: Early Work-Family Linkages." *Child Development,* 67, 2183-2200.

Examined adolescent (mean age 12.7 years) earnings and multiple dimen-

sions of relationships with parents by drawing on four waves of data from 385 families from the Iowa Youth and Families Project. Dynamic models based on the multiple perspectives of adolescent and parent are estimated with hierarchical equations. Between grades seven to 10, rural adolescent earnings and nonleisure spending are related to time spent with the family, less parental monitoring and more sharing of advice within the family. Earnings and nonleisure spending have positive associations with the affective quality of the adolescent-parent relationship. Results are discussed in terms of the multifaceted dimensions of adolescent work experiences and their implications for the life course.

Shepard, B. and Marshall, A. 2000. "Career Development and Planning Issues for Rural Adolescent Girls." *Canadian Journal of Counseling,* 34, 155-171.

Life-career planning and counseling often highlights a dilemma for young women, who feel torn by conflicting values around work and family. This situation is particularly challenging for young women living in rural communities because they may have limited access to role models. In this qualitative study, eight young women, aged 17-19 years, describe how they experienced growing up in a rural environment and the impact of that experience on their future plans. Several metathemes emerged from their narratives, which have practical relevance for counselors who are helping youth to shape their futures.

Trice, A. D., Hughes, M. A., Odom, C., Woods, K. and McClellan. 1995. "The Origins of Children's Career Aspirations: IV Testing Hypotheses From Four Theories." *The Career Development Quarterly,* 43, 307-322.

Career interests of school age children affect both their selection and rejection of careers throughout the period of childhood. For younger children there was greater concordance in career choices of children between themselves and their mothers than between children and their fathers. Children identify with their parents work more often when they are younger than when they are older.

Crime

Dunsire, M. and Baldwin, S. 1999. "Urban-Rural Comparisons of Drink-Driving Behaviour Among Late Teens: A Preliminary Investigation." *Alcohol and Alcoholism,* 34, 59-64.

Examined the nature and extent of urban-rural differences in self-reported drinking and driving among youths in Western Australia. A total of 102 youths aged 17, 18 and 19 years were surveyed via a random street sampling technique about their alcohol consumption and drink-driving behaviour. Analyses indicated that urban youths had a significantly higher level of self-reported drink-driving behaviour than their rural counterparts. Males indicated a higher level of self-reported drink-driving behaviour than females. This article also provides a review and summary of youth drink-driving literature with special focus on urban-rural comparisons.

O'Grady, W., Asbridge, M. and Abernathy, T. 2000. "Illegal Tobacco Sales to Youth: A View From Rational Choice Theory." *Canadian Journal of Criminology,* 42, 1-20.

Informed by rational choice theory, this paper identifies the factors that predict illegal sales of tobacco to under-age youth. Data for this study are based on 439 merchant compliance checks in Ontario. At the bivariate level, analysis reveals that enforcement activity has a significant negative effect on sales to minors. This effect, however, is slightly weakened with the introduction of background factors (i.e., rural/urban distinction, type of business operation), and all but eliminated once event factors are taken into consideration. The event factors that have the strongest independent effects on sales are time of day (evening), age and gender composition of the youth attempting to purchase and the legal compliance behavior of tobacco merchants (asking for age and ID). These findings help to support a rational choice model of offending, and suggest that the situational context of the criminal event relates strongly to decisions to offend. In addition, the research suggests potential policy changes to reduce the illegal distribution and sale of tobacco to minors.

Osgood, D.W. and Chambers, J.M. 2000. "Social Disorganization Outside the Metropolis: An Analysis of Rural Youth Violence." *Criminology,* 38, 81-115.

A study was conducted to evaluate the generalizability to nonmetropolitan settings of the social disorganization theory of crime that has been developed and tested in urban communities. Data were gathered from an analysis of structural correlates of arrest rates for juvenile violence in 264 nonmetropolitan counties of four states. Results support the generality of social disorganization theory — juvenile violence was associated with rates of residential instability, family disruption and ethnic heterogeneity. It is revealed that rates of juvenile violence differed noticeably with population size through a curvilinear relationship in which counties with the smallest juvenile populations had exceptionally low arrest rates.

Smith, M., Usinger-Lesquereux, J. and Evans, W. 1999. "Rural Juvenile First Offenders Describe What Is Working and What Is Not." *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology,* 43, 322-337.

Interviews held with 18 program graduates (aged 13-18 years) one year after completing a court-ordered program for entry-level juvenile offenders are presented. The interviews contain insight obtained directly from rural youth regarding delinquency prevention and intervention programming. Their reflections give us useful insight about the challenges that former offenders face. These include (a) how they feel about themselves and their concern about how they are perceived by others, (b) their complex and often conflictual relationships with others, and (c) their lack of goals for the future. Results provide insight regarding the coping strategies adopted by program graduates to stay out of trouble. Implications for prevention and intervention programming, as well as future research are discussed.

Culture

Albrecht, S.L., Amey, C. and Miller, M.K. 1996. "Patterns of Substance Abuse among Rural Black Adolescents." *Journal of Drug Issues,* 26, 751-781.

A study was conducted to compare the incidence of drug use among rural blacks with their white and urban counterparts. Results revealed substantially lower reported use of all forms of drugs by blacks as compared to whites, regardless of whether they lived in urban or rural settings. Residence differences were largely nonsignificant with two exceptions: Urban whites were more likely to report both alcohol and marijuana/hashish use than were rural whites, but only the latter difference remained significant when the controls were introduced in the multivariate analysis. In the bivariate analysis, major correlates of drug use included gender, family structure, religious attendance, grade-point average and the availability of unearned income; in the multivariate analysis, these correlates remained significant. The potential protective role of the family and church in the rural, black context is considered.

Brody, G.H., Stoneman, Z. and Flor, D. 1996. "Parental Religiosity, Family Processes and Youth Competence in Rural, Two-Parent African-American Families." *Developmental Psychology,* 32, 696-706.

A model that linked parental formal religiosity to children's academic competence and socioemotional adjustment during early adolescence was tested. The sample included 90, 9- to 12-year-old African-American youths and their married parents living in the rural South. The theoretical constructs in the model were measured through a multimethod, multi-informant design. Rural African-American community members participated in the development of the self-report instruments and observational research methods. Greater parental religiosity led to more cohesive family relationships, lower levels of interparental conflict and fewer externalizing and internalizing problems in the adolescents. Formal religiosity also indirectly influenced youth self-regulation through its positive relationship with family cohesion and negative relationship with interparental conflict.

Brody, G.H., Stoneman, Z. and Flor, D. 1995. "Linking Family Processes and Academic Competence Among Rural African-American Youths." *Journal of Marriage and the Family,* 57, 567-579.

A family process model that links family financial resources and parental educational attainment to academic competence during early adolescence was tested. The sample included 90 rural African-American youths between the ages of 9 and 12 and their mothers and fathers. Rural African-American community members participated in the development of the self-report instruments and observational research methods. Parental educational attainment was linked with family financial resources and with parental involvement with the adolescent's school. Greater family financial resources were associated with more supportive and harmonious family interactions and with lower levels of interparental conflict. Maternal involvement with the child's school, family processes and family financial resources were linked directly with academic competence and mediated by the development of youth self-regulation.

Brody, G.H., Stoneman, Z., Flor, D. and McCrary, C. 1994. "Financial Resources, Parent Psychological Functioning, Parent Co-Caregiving and Early Adolescent Competence in Rural Two-Parent African-American Families." *Child Development,* 65, 590-605.

This study proposed a family process model that links family financial resources to academic competence and socioemotional adjustment during early adolescence. Ninety 9- to 22-year-old African-American youths and their married parents who lived in the rural South were interviewed and videotaped at home. Results largely support the hypotheses. Lack of family financial resources led to greater depression and less optimism in mothers and fathers, which, in turn, were linked with joint caregiving support and conflict. The associations among the caregiving processes and youth academic and socioemotional competence were mediated by the development of youth self-regulation. Disruptions in parental caregiving interfered with the development of self-regulation.

Dawkins, M.P. 1996. "The Social Context of Substance Use Among African-American Youth: Rural, Urban and Suburban Comparisons." *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education,* 41, 68-85.

This study compared substance use perceptions and behavior of African-American youth in metropolitan (urban and suburban) and nonmetropolitan (rural) settings. Based on an analysis of data from a subsample of 3,009 African-American eighth-graders who participated in the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88) and follow-ups in 1990 and 1992, the findings revealed that, overall, substance abuse is perceived as a relatively serious problem at school, and by the 12th grade most adolescents have tried alcohol and a substantial proportion have used marijuana. Early substance use and peer influence are major determinants of later substance use within each context. However, some important differences exist in the prediction of alcohol and marijuana use within each social context, suggesting a need to take into account the relative importance of selective sociodemographic, risk and protective factors for substance use within different social and environmental settings.

Faubert, M., Locke, D.C., Sprinthall, N.A. and Howland, W.H. 1996. "Promoting Cognitive and Ego Development of African-American Rural Youth: A Program of Deliberate Psychological Education." *Journal of Adolescence,* 19, 533-543.

This study investigated the effects of a role-taking, action-learning program on the cognitive and ego development of African-American rural high school students. The program employed instruction in scientific problem-solving in relation to past and current contributions of African-American scientists. There were two experimental and two comparison groups during the one-semester program. The main effects were assessed in two related domains: (1) concrete to abstract thinking (a Piagetian measure); and (2) self-concept development (J. Loevinger's [1976] Ego Stages). The results indicated significant gains in both abstract thinking and ego stage. Implications for school curriculum modification are also detailed.

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French, L.A. and Picthall-French, N. 1998. "The Role of Substance Abuse Among Rural Youth by Race, Culture and Gender." *Alcoholism Treatment Quarterly,* 16, 101-108.

Analyzed the responses of 468 rural Caucasian, African-American, Mexican-American, Mexican and Navajo adolescents (mean age 16 years) to the 10-item Problem-Oriented Screening Instrument (POSIT) to examine the relationship of race, culture and gender to potentially problematic functional areas, specifically substance abuse. The 10 functional areas assessed were: substance use/abuse, physical health status, mental health status, family relationships, peer relationships, educational status, vocational status, social skills, leisure and recreation, and aggressive behavior/delinquency. Compared to the POSIT's minimum mean score for pathology, Navajo females scored the highest followed by Navajo males, Caucasian males, African-American males, African-American adolescent females, Mexican adolescent females, Mexican-American males, Mexican males, Caucasian females, and Mexican-American females. Of the 10 POSIT items, peer relations, substance use/abuse, mental health, educational status and social skills respectively exceeded the minimum mean score for pathology for the sample overall.

Katragadda, C.P. and Tidwell, R. 1998. "Rural Hispanic Adolescents at Risk for Depressive Symptoms" *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 28, 1916-1930.

Levels of depression among rural Hispanic adolescents were assessed. Psychological factors affecting depression were examined. Included were family characteristics, measured by the Background Information Questionnaire; self-esteem, by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale; perceived stress level, by the Hispanic Children's Stress Inventory; acculturation, by the Cuellar Acculturation Index; and depression levels, by the Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale. Results revealed moderate to severe depression symptomatology among 33 percent of the subjects, and mild depression symptoms among 17 percent. Two family structure variables, birth order and number of brothers, were significantly related to depression. Gender was an important predictor of depression, as was self-esteem. Higher stress scores were related to higher levels of depression.

Lamborn, S.D., Dornbusch, S.M. and Steinberg, L. 1996. "Ethnicity and Community Context as Moderators of the Relations Between Family Decision Making and Adolescent Adjustment." *Child Development,* 67, 283-30.

This study investigated whether the impact of three types of family decision making (unilateral parental, unilateral adolescent or joint) on the adjustment of adolescents was moderated by ethnicity, community context or both. Over a two-year period, 3,645 ninth, 10th and 11th grade African-, Asian-, Hispanic- and European-Americans of diverse SES from either urban, suburban or rural environments completed self reports. Results show unilateral adolescent decision making is associated with diminished adjustment one year later, and joint decision making is associated with enhanced adjustment among youth from three distinct patterns of influence

and evinced a clear association between ethnic composition and various dimensions of advantage and disadvantage. Ethnic differences in the impact of unilateral parental decision making did not correspond to differences in community context.

Stetsenko, A., Little, T.D., Gordeeva, T., Grasshof, M., and Oettingen, G. 2000. "Gender Effects in Children's Beliefs About School Performance: A Cross Cultural Study." *Child Development,* 71, 2, 517-527.

Do young boys and girls understand what leads to academic success (e.g., talent, effort, good teaching, luck) in the same way? A cross-cultural study of 3,000 children in grades two through six were studied. Boys and girls around the world have similar ideas about what generally leads to academic success. When boys' and girls' beliefs are similar, their academic performances are equal. When girls out performed boys, their beliefs in their own talents were greater with regard to putting forth effort, getting their teacher's help, and luck. Girls were more biased in some contexts than others, suggesting that competence-related biases are rooted in culture-specific aspects of school settings.

Education

Alexopoulos, D.S. 1997. "Urban vs. Rural Residence and IQ." *Psychological Reports,* 80, 851-860.

In a stratified random sample (N = 2926) used for the standardization of AH4 by Heim for the age range from 13 to 18 years in Greece, the difference in IQ between urban and rural children was examined. The differences between urban and rural residence and IQ were significant at all ages except the 15-year-old age group; but the latter account for a small percentage (1 percent) of variability. IQs of both rural and urban boys are higher than those of girls, on the average.

Anderman, E.M. and Maehr, M.L. 1994. "Motivation and Schooling in the Middle Grades." *Review of Educational Research,* 64, 2, 287-309.

The middle grades are often a time when motivation of children starts to decline. One reason for this decline may be that adolescents may be encouraged to use more ability-focused (performance) academic goals, to use surface-level strategies, such as memorization. However, when adolescents use task-focused goals they are more likely to use more adaptive help-seeking strategies, to show higher levels of creativity, and know more about current events. Schools that emphasize grades above all motivate students to use ability-focused goals rather than task-focused goals.

Bjorkland, D.F. and Brown, R.D. 1998. "Physical Play and Cognitive Development: Integrating Activity, Cognition and Education." *Child Development,* 69, 3, 604-606.

There are cognitive benefits of physical play. Young children need more breaks from seat work and more frequent changes in activities. Physical play provides children a much needed break from intellectual tasks and in

fact may help children with cognitive growth. Gender differences in spatial cognition may be causally linked to the kinds of physical play activities typically engaged in by boys and girls.

Eccles, J.S. and Barber, B.L. 1999. "Student Council, Volunteering, Basketball or Marching Band: What Kind of Extracurricular Involvement Matters?" *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 14, 1, 10-43.

Participation in extracurricular activities provides a protective context for high school youth with regard to academic performance and risky behaviors. Students involved in extracurricular activities have higher GPAs and are more likely to be enrolled in college by age 21. Involement in sports predicted school attachment. Participation by students in pro-social activities was related to lower increases in alcohol and drug use, as well as lower levels at both grades 10 and 12, and participation in performing arts served this same function for males. Participation in sports was also linked to increases in alcohol use. Extracurricular activities can facilitate adolescents' developmental need for social relatedness and can contribute to one's identity as an important and valued member of the school community.

Garrod, A., Beal, C. and Shin, P. 1990. "The Development of Moral Orientation in Elementary School Children." *Sex Roles,* 22, 1/2, 13-27.

Do children's ability to consider issues of care and response to relationships with others, and their ability to consider both issues of care and justice affect their solutions to moral problems? A study of 6- to 12-year-old boys and girls revealed they tended to use a care-response orientation to moral problems. Children who were more adept at perspective-taking and more abstract reasoning were able to use both care and justice solutions to moral delimmas. Helping children consider moral problems from different perspectives helps them make better moral decisions

Harmon, H.L. 2000. "Linking School-to-Work and Rural Development." *Forum for Applied Research and Public Policy,* 15, 97-100.

Part of a special section on country classrooms. The writer contends that school-to-work initiatives can represent an important policy tool for rural development. He reveals that the School-to-Work Opportunities Act established a framework within which states can establish a statewide school-to-work system to provide students with an opportunity to earn transferable credits, prepare for first jobs in high-skill careers and pursue further education. He maintains that the primary policy issue in rural education is to ascertain the appropriate relationship between local communities and the larger society and the manner in which that is expressed in schools. He asserts that creating community-oriented policies will play a pivotal role in guiding and sustaining the implementation of these programs in rural areas.

Kalafat, J. and Illback, R.J. 1998. "A Qualitative Evaluation of School-Based Family Resource and Youth Service Centers." *American Journal of Community Psychology,* 26, 573-604.

As part of the Kentucky Education Reform Act, school-based Family

Resource/Youth Service Centers were commissioned to address those poverty-related issues that attenuate children and youths' coming to school prepared to learn. The centers had flexible mandates and were to adapt their service profiles to local urban, suburban and rural communities. A variety of grounded, inductive qualitative strategies were employed in an implementation evaluation that yielded profiles or domains of program elements, and descriptions of implementation strategies and impact on participants. These program descriptors were considered accurate by program personnel, formed the basis for training new program coordinators, and have served as reliable predictors of educational outcomes for program participants, thus affirming the use of the qualitative evaluation approaches.

Miano, G., Forest, A. and Gumaer, J. 1997. "A Collaborative Program to Assist At-Risk Youth." *Professional School Counseling,* 1, 16-20.

Describes a university and school collaborative project that provided a full range of counseling services to a secondary school population and the larger community of a rural locality to meet the needs of the growing population of at-risk students. Both day and evening counseling programs were implemented to begin to address issues such as failure in school work, substance abuse, incarceration of a close family member and death of a significant person in a student's life — the typical presenting problems for counseling. The structure of the counseling center, modalities of therapeutic interventions and characteristics of the day and evening programs are described. Results from a survey of eight of the county's high school, middle school and elementary school counselors show that the drop-out rate has decreased steadily over the years, from 7.09 percent of the school population in the 1989-1990 academic year to 7.51 percent in 1990-1991, 6.61 percent in 1991-1992, 5.20 percent in 1992-1993, 6.8 percent in 1993-1994 and 3.32 percent in 1994-1995. The total decrease in drop-out rate from the beginning of the program to the present is 3.77 percent or a 46.8 percent reduction in drop-outs. Sixty-six percent of the students who have received counseling services from the program have either graduated or are currently in the county school system.

Russell, S. and Elder, G.H. Jr. 1997. "Academic Success in Rural America: Family Background and Community Integration." *Childhood: A Global Journal of Child Research,* 4, 169-181.

Examined the academic success of children from farm and non-farm families in the rural Midwest of the U.S. Data from the Iowa Youth and Families Project, a panel study of 451 families, were used. Each family included two parents, a target adolescent and a sibling within four years of the target child. Participating families were contacted annually from 1989 to 1992, from the time the target subjects were in seventh grade until they reached 10th grade. Results indicate that children from farm families show the highest levels of academic performance, owing largely to the high levels of parental involvement and leadership in the local community. Parents who farm part-time have less time to be active in the community; nevertheless, their children retain the benefits of the community ties that were

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developed when the family farmed full-time. Overall results suggest that the benefits of rural farming life lie in the communities that farming families create and maintain.

Srebalus, D.J., Schwartz, J.L., Vaughan, R.V. and Tunick, R.H. 1996. "Youth Violence in Rural Schools: Counselor Perceptions and Treatment Resources." *School Counselor,* 44, 48-54.

Investigated the perceived seriousness of different types of aggressive and violent behavior among students; the availability and the quality of referral sources for students who have problems with aggression or other serious problems; and the training that school counselors request for dealing with aggressive students. Sixty-nine school counselors (mean age 45.1 years) from rural districts, in Maryland, West Virginia, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Illinois completed questionnaires. Results support the view that school safety and youth violence are concerns of school counselors in rural areas. It is suggested that counselors and other school personnel have not been adequately prepared to meet the need for greater school safety. Although the most common aggressive behaviors tend to be oppositional and verbal rather than physical, instances of serious violent acts were enough to make training a priority.

Stephens, K., Kiger, L., Karnes, F.A. and Whorton, J.E. 1999. "Use of Nonverbal Measures of Intelligence in Identification of Culturally Diverse Gifted Students in Rural Areas." *Perceptual and Motor Skills,* 88, 793-796.

Children and youth from economically disadvantaged and culturally diverse backgrounds have been under-represented in programs for gifted students. A method is needed for identifying potentially gifted students from such backgrounds via alternative testing measures. To identify culturally diverse, potentially gifted students in rural areas, the Culture-Fair Intelligence Test, the Raven Standard Progressive Matrices and the Naglieri Nonverbal Abilities Test were administered to 189 third- through eighth-graders in a rural elementary school. These three tests together identified 26 students who merited additional testing. For the purposes of screening and developing a pool of gifted students from culturally diverse students, a single test will not suffice.

Stevahn, L., Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., Oberle, K. and Wahl, L. 2000. "Effects of Conflict Resolution Training Integtrated into a Kindergarden Curriculum." *Child Development,* 71, 3, 772-784.

Kindergarten children learned and used conflict resolution strategies in this study. These children were capable of not only learning important conflict resolution strategies but were also capable of transferring these skills to a variety of appropriate situations with other children and adults. Children who were not taught these strategies were at a disadvantage in interactions with their peers.

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Brody, G.H., Stoneman, Z. and Flor, D. 1994. "Religion's Role in Organizing Family Relationships: Family Process in Rural, Two-Parent African-American Families." *Journal of Marriage and the Family,* 56, 878-888.

A study was conducted to examine the connections between parental formal religiosity and marital quality, parental co-caregiver relationships and parent-child relationships. Subjects were 90 African-American youths and their married parents, who were drawn from nonmetropolitan counties in Georgia and South Carolina. The findings indicate that formal religiosity does contribute to norms that govern marital, parental co-caregiver and parent-child relationships. Religiosity is associated with greater marital interaction quality and co-caregiver support and with lower marital and co-caregiver conflict. However, parents with a child in one of three stages (preschool, school age and early adolescence) were contrasted on their reported changes in parenting skills and their child's behavior following communications training. Parents of adolescents reported fewer changes in their child's behaviors than did parents of preschool or school age children in such behaviors as cooperativeness, demandedness and acceptance of rules.

Chase-Lansdale, P.L., Wakschlag, L.S. and Brook-Gunn, J. 1995. "A Psychological Perspective on the Development of Caring in Children and Youth: The Role of the Family." *Journal of Adolescence,* 18, 515-556.

Youth who have experienced caring relationships themselves develop a sense of the availability and accessibility of others. Children who are caring see themselves as resourceful and believe that they can master difficult challenges and influence other people in positive ways. Parents can help their children by providing a secure and warm environment, provide children with opportunities to be empathic and altruistic, and model these behaviors with their children.

Crockett, L.J. and Bingham, C.R. 2000. "Anticipating Adulthood: Expected Timing of Work and Family Transitions Among Rural Youth." *Journal of Research on Adolescence,* 10, 151-172.

This study examined family and individual processes influencing the future expectancies of 345 adolescents from an economically stressed rural community. Analyses were based on data from 10th, 11th and 12th grades. The anticipated timing and sequencing of key role transitions (school completion, job entry, marriage and parenthood) were examined for each gender. In addition, factors contributing to individual differences in expected timing were examined, and gender differences in predictors were tested. Results indicated that rural adolescents' expectancies about adult role transitions diverged somewhat from societal norms with respect to timing. Family background and relationships, adolescents' attitudes and behaviors, and educational aspirations all contributed to individual differences in expected timing, with somewhat different factors being salient for boys and girls. These findings provide clues to the psychological processes linking adolescent experiences to the construction of the adult life course.

Dyk, P. H. and Wilson, S. M. 1999. "Family-Based Social Capital Considerations as Predictors of Attainments Among Appalachian Youth." *Sociological Inquiry,* 69, 477-503.

The purpose of this study was to explore social and human capital theory in application to status attainment research using a sample of 463 low-income youth from rural Appalachian families. Comparisons were made between social capital variables based in the family of origin and social interaction variables based in the broader community as influences on the status attainment of youth. Surveys of youth were conducted during a 10-year longitudinal study (i.e., three assessments conducted during fifth/sixth grades and eleventh/twelfth grades, and for ages 21/22). Path analyses confirmed some of the social interaction hypotheses but demonstrated even greater support for individual human and family social capital variables in explaining young adult attainment outcomes. Support was provided for the inclusion of family-based social capital variables s a means of gaining a broader understanding of youth attainment.

Elder, G.H. Jr., King, V. and Conger, R.D. 1996. "Intergenerational Continuity and Change in Rural Lives: Historical and Developmental Insights." *International Journal of Behavioral Development,* 19, 433-455.

Examined declining rural population as a significant social change and its developmental implications for children. Using a sample of 280 second-generation Iowan fathers who grew up on farms, the family experience and children of men who followed either the path of farming or of nonfarm employment were compared. Farm children experienced greater social interdependency with other family members, and this reinforced their feeling of social significance, which is to say, they mattered for others and also shared responsibility for others. Farm youth acquired stronger attachments to their local community and family, which were expressed in subsequent agricultural activities and goals. It is suggested that the socialization of farm children is more adult-directed and is characterized by more joint activity between the generations, whereas peer influences and self-interests are more prominent in the socialization of nonfarm children.

Jaccard, J., Dittus, P. J. and Gordon, V. V. 2000. "Parent-Teen Communication About Premarital Sex: Factors Associated With the Extent of Communication." *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 15, 2, 187-208. 751.

African American inner-city youths (14-17 years old) and their mothers were asked questions about their discussions about sex and birth control. For mothers, the most prevalent reservations about discussing sex and birth control with teens were: concerns about embarrassing the teen, concerns about being afraid that their teen might ask them something they do not know, concerns that the teen would think they are prying and the teen would not take them seriously. For adolescents, their concerns about communicating with their mothers about sex or birth control were being embarrassed, fear their mothers would ask too many personal questions, fear that the mother would become suspicious and the belief that the teen already

had sufficient knowledge. This research underscores the importance of open and honest communication between both mothers and their teen daughters with regard to issues of sexual behavior and birth control.

Lewis, M., Feiring, C. and Rosenthal, S. 2000. "Attachment Over Time." *Child Development,* 71, 3, 707-720.

The continuity of attachment (emotional connections) of children to their parents from infancy to adolescence was examined. No continuity in attachments was found for children between the ages of 1 to 18. That is, being emotionally connected to your parents at age 1 does not predict that you will have the same emotional connection at age 18. However, divorce of parents was related to 13 year-olds' childhood attachment status at 18. They were less attached. Eighteen year-olds with insecure attachments to their parents were more likely to rate themselves as maladjusted.

Lobel, T.E. and Bar, E. 1997. "Perception of Masculinity and Femininity of Kibbutz and Urban Adolescents." *Sex Roles,* 37, 283-293.

The study investigated the perceived masculinity and femininity of kibbutz young males among kibbutz and urban adolescents. Seventy-nine 16- to18-year-old adolescents read six descriptions of a male target. Three descriptions were about a kibbutz born and raised target and three about an urban born and raised target. In each set of three descriptions, one description simply gave the place of residence and age of the target whereas the other two descriptions included either traditionally masculine or traditionally feminine occupational information. Half of the subjects were born, raised and currently resided on kibbutz and the other half were born, raised and currently resided in the city. After reading each description subjects were asked to make inferences regarding the target's traits, roles and physical appearance. It was found, as predicted, that the kibbutz target was perceived as more masculine than his urban counterpart when no additional individuating information was given. However, when the occupational information was given, inferences were based mainly on that information and not on place of residence. In addition, kibbutz and urban subjects differed in some of their inferences. The meanings of these findings are discussed within the framework of the out-group homogeneity effect.

Murray, A. D. and Yingling, J. L. 2000. "Competence in Language at 24 Months: Relations With Attachment Security and Home Stimulation." *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 16, 2, 133-140.

Mothers who have established secure relationships (sensitivity and responsiveness) with their toddlers and provide stimulating home environments (a variety of toys, daily routines and family outings) have children with higher language scores than children without such positive environments.

Plunkett, S.W., Henry, C.S. and Knaub, P.K. 1999. "Family Stressor Events, Family Coping and Adolescent Adaptation in Farm and Ranch Families." *Adolescence,* 34, 147-168.

Data from 77 adolescents in farm and ranch families were used to examine

the relationship of demographic variables, family stressor events and family coping strategies to adolescent adaptation. Results indicated that adolescent age and family transitions were positively related to individual stress. Males reported less family stress than did females. Seeking spiritual support was negatively related to family stress, while the perceived impact of the farm crisis was positively related to family stress. Family support was positively related, and family substance use issues were negatively related, to adolescent satisfaction with family life. The implications of these findings are discussed.

Stewart, E.R., McKenry, P.C. and Rudd, N.M. 1994. "Family Processes as Mediators of Depressive Symptomatology Among Rural Adolescents." *Family Relations,* 43, 38-45.

A study was conducted to examine the role of family process variables in mediating the impact of life events on adolescent depression. The participants, who were 108 rural adolescents and their parents, were drawn from four rural counties in one midwestern state. The five life events most frequently mentioned included increased family living expenses, increased pressure for good school performance, increased parent-adolescent arguments over curfew or use of car, the establishment by a family member of a new business and increased arguments about chores. The results indicated only a direct relationship between family life effects and depressive symptomatology. The findings failed to support the hypothesis that various family processes would mediate the relationship between family life events and adolescent depression.

Young, S.K., Fox, N.A. and Zahn-Waxler, C. 1999. "The Relations Between Temperament and Empathy in 2 Year Olds." *Developmental Psychology,* 35, 1189-1197.

Two-year old children showed relatively more concern for mother's distress, but were also responsive to unfamiliar victims. Infants who were unreactive and showed little affect also showed less empathy toward the unfamiliar adult almost two years later. Inhibition toward an unfamiliar adult (but not toward the mother) at two years of age was negatively related to empathy.

Health

Albers, E. and Evans, W. 1994. "Suicide Ideation Among a Stratified Sample of Rural and Urban Adolescents." *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal,* 11, 379-389.

This study examined factors associated with suicidal ideation among a stratified sample of rural and urban adolescents. Data was collected on 1,728 eighth- and 10th-grade southern Nevada students from 23 schools. No overall differences were found between rural and urban adolescents, although results did indicate that grade, gender and school achievement variations exist between rural and urban student populations. Implications for social workers and other youth service providers are discussed.

Botvin, G.J., Malgady, R.G. and Griffin, K.W. 1998. "Alcohol and Marijuana Use Among Rural Youth: Interaction of Social and Intrapersonal Influences." *Addictive Behaviors,* 23, 379-387.

A study was conducted to investigate moderating effects of intrapersonal skills on social risks related to alcohol and marijuana use among eighth-grade rural adolescents. Findings revealed that the relationships of peer and parental attitudes and peer usage to alcohol and marijuana use are moderated by adolescents' decision-making and self-reinforcement skills. Social risk factors were strongly related to greater alcohol and marijuana use among adolescents with poor intrapersonal skills, but good decision-making and self-reinforcement skills reduced the impact of social risk factors on substance use.

Chapman, P.L. and Mullis, R.L. 2000."Racial Differences in Adolescent Coping and Self-Esteem." *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 16, 2, 152-160.

The major question of this research was whether or not there are racial differences in how adolescents cope with stress. Coping strategies included ventilation of feelings, seeking diversions, being self-reliant, seeking spiritual support, investing in close friends, engaging in demanding activities, using one's family for support and relaxing. Caucasian adolescents used ventilation techniques and avoidance techniques more frequently than African-American adolescents. The study suggests that there are racial differences in how adolescents cope with stress and may have implication for educators and parents to help their youth to learn more effective coping strategies with age for better mental health.

Crespo, R.D. and Shaler, G.A. 2000. "Assessment of School-Based Health Centers in a Rural State: The West Virginia Experience." *Journal of Adolescent Health,* 26, 187-193.

Assessed the capability of school-based health centers (SBHCs) to provide access to health care for rural youth in West Virginia. Annual patient records were reviewed from 10 selected SBHCs in operation during the period 1994-97. Collected data included enrollment and use rates, and use by youth not covered by insurance and those covered by private insurance and Medicaid. Rural and urban SBHCs within West Virginia were compared based on enrollment, use, and visit rates, and the state's data were compared with national averages. Results show that statewide enrollment rates rose steadily during the study period, from 27 percent to 64 percent over the three-year period. In rural areas, 86 percent of youth were enrolled in SBHCs by the end of the study period. Youth with either Medicaid or no insurance comprised 52 percent of enrollees, but accounted for 64 percent of total visits. Average enrollment in West Virginia of 64 percent was higher than the national average of 58 percent. It is concluded that when SBHCs are available in rural areas of West Virginia, students use them. SBHCs have contributed to providing access to health care for rural youth.

Cronk, C.E. and Sarvela, P.D. 1997. "Alcohol, Tobacco and Other Drug Use Among Rural/Small Town and Urban Youth: A Secondary Analysis of the Monitoring the Future Data Set." *American Journal of Public Health,* 87, 760-764.

This study compared prevalence of substance use among high school seniors in rural and urban areas from 1976 through 1992. Methods: We used data collected for these years from urban (n = 75,916) and rural (n = 51,182) high school seniors. Thirty-day prevalence for alcohol, cigarettes, marijuana, cocaine, LSD and inhalant use, binge drinking, smoking a pack or more of cigarettes a day, and daily alcohol and marijuana use were evaluated. Results: Substance use declined from 1976 through 1992. In 1976, urban students had greater prevalence for most substances, but by 1992, rural and urban students were similar, with rural students having higher prevalence for alcohol and cigarette use (particularly excessive use). Trends were similar for both sexes, though rural girls showed a later catch-up to use levels of urban girls. Conclusions: Rural students are at risk approximately equal to that of urban students. Other studies have demonstrated the association of substance use with increased morbidity and mortality. Policy alterations and health education programs should address this pattern in the nation's rural areas.

Esters, I. G., Cooker, P. G. and Ittenbach, R. F. 1998. "Effects of a Unit of Instrution in Mental Health on Rural Adolescents' Conceptions of Mental Illness and Attitudes About Seeking Help." *Adolescence,* 33, 469-476.

The present study investigated the effects of a unit of instruction in mental health on rural adolescents' conceptions of mental illness and their attitudes about seeking professional help for emotional problems. Forty students enrolled in a rural Mississippi high school participated. Twenty were designated as the treatment group and 20 served as the control group. Results indicated that scores on both dependent variables (attitudes about seeking professional help and conceptions of mental illness) increased significantly for the treatment group and, further, these scores did not decrease significantly when the students were tested again 12 weeks later. The findings are discussed in the context of educating rural youth about mental illness with the express purpose of removing the stigma associated with the help-seeking process.

Felton, G.M., Liu, Q. and Parsons, M. A. 1998. "Health-Promoting Behaviors of Rural Adolescent Women." *Women and Health,* 27, 67-80.

A part of a larger study of the health behaviors of adolescent women, this investigation examined health-promoting behaviors and the influence of cognitive, social and environmental factors on these health-promoting behaviors of rural adolescent women. The sample consisted of 128 rural African-American and white adolescent women. Forty-four percent of the variance in health-promoting behavior of this sample was explained by five variables: self-image, problem solving, mother's education, employment status and family structure. Self-image was the most salient predictor of health-promoting behavior, explaining 33 percent of the variance.

Fisher, P.A., Storck, M. and Bacon, J.G. 1999. "In the Eye of the Beholder: Risk and Protective Factors in Rural American Indian and Caucasian Adolescents." *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,* 69, 294-304.

A study was conducted to investigate how relations between risk and protective factors and psychopathology vary by ethnic group, gender and informant. Data were gathered from Caucasian and American-Indian adolescents and their teachers. Findings reveal there is a need for interventions that reduce risk, increase protective factors and bring about more convergence in the perceptions of teachers and youth.

Harrell, J.S., Bangdiwala, S.I., Deng, S., Webb, J.P. and Bradley, C. 1998. "Smoking Initiation in Youth: The Roles of Gender, Race, Socioeconomic, and Developmental Status." *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 23, 271-279.

Investigated factors that predict the early initiation of smoking in schoolchildren, in a longitudinal, prospective study of smoking habits of children from the third to fourth grades through the eighth and ninth grades. Children were classified as nonsmokers, experimental smokers or current smokers at five time points over 6 years. Multivariate regression models examined relationships of demographic and developmental factors with smoking initiation. Experimental smoking increased from 4 percent at grades three through four to 42 percent at grades eight and nine, and current smoking prevalence rose from 0.4 percent to 9 percent over the same period. The mean age of initiation of smoking was 12.3 years. White children and those of low SES were more likely to be experimental smokers, and also started earlier than African-American children and children of high SES. Once they started, white children advanced more rapidly to become current smokers. Boys had a higher prevalence of experimental smoking than girls at all time points. Children in rural areas were more likely than urban children to start smoking after age 12 years. Children who were at a higher pubertal stage than their peers were also more likely to experiment with smoking.

Horn, K.A. , Gao, X., Dino, G.A. and Kamal-Bahl, S. 2000. "Determinants of Youth Tobacco Use in West Virginia: A Comparison of Smoking and Smokeless Tobacco Use." *American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse,* 26, 125-138.

Identified and compared the determinants of different types of tobacco use among rural youths and discussed the implication of these differences for youth tobacco use cessation. Subjects were 883 ninth-graders (aged 13-19 years), classified into four exclusive groups: nontobacco use, smoking only, smokeless tobacco (ST) use only, and conjoint smoking and ST use. The influences of 14 specific risk factors on tobacco use were investigated for each group. The factors were: knowledge about tobacco, attitude toward tobacco use, sibling smoking, sibling ST use, mother's smoking, mother's ST use, father's smoking, father's ST use, friends' smoking, friends' ST use, family problems, school problems, gender and age. Among the subjects, 20 percent were smokers only, 6 percent were ST users only, and 10 percent were conjoint users. Results of risk factors for each group were discussed. Findings revealed that seven of 14 factors were significant predictors of

tobacco use. Some factors predicted smoking only, ST only, and conjoint use; however, the pattern of predictors varied for these three categories.

Johnson, K., Bryant, D.D., Collins, D.A., Noe, T.D., Strader, T.N. and Berbaum, M. 1998. "Preventing and Reducing Alcohol and Other Drug Use Among High-Risk Youths by Increasing Family Resilience." *Social Work,* 43, 297-308.

Examines the effects of a community-based program designed to delay onset and reduce the frequency of alcohol and other drug use among high-risk youths, ages 12-14, through strengthening family resilience. The program was implemented in five church communities in rural, suburban, and inner-city settings with 143 parents and 183 youths. Data were collected through interview and questionnaires before program initiation, after six to seven months of parent and youth training, and at one year follow-up. Program components of this study included parent or guardian and youth training, early intervention services and follow-up case management services. Results show that the program produced positive direct effects on family resilience. The evaluation also found positive moderating effects on delayed onset of alcohol and other drug use and frequency of alcohol and other drug use among youths in the form of conditional relationships with changes in those family resilience factors that were targeted by the program.

Johnson, K., Bryant, D., Strader, T. and Bucholtz, G. 1996. "Reducing Alcohol and Other Drug Use by Strengthening Community, Family and Youth Resiliency: An Evaluation of the Creating Lasting Connections Program." *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 11, 36-67.

Examines the Creating Lasting Connections (CLC) program, a five-year demonstration project for delaying and reducing alcohol and drug use among high-risk 12-24 year olds, and reports the findings from its implementation in multiple church communities. CLC aims to positively impact resiliency factors in three domains: Church community, family and individual. Its major components include community mobilization, parent/-guardian and youth training, early intervention and follow-up case management services. Its implementation in rural, suburban and inner-city settings was evaluated over a one-year period. Data collected before CLC initiation, after parent and youth training and after the follow-up case management reveals that CLC successfully engaged church communities in substance abuse activities and produced positive direct effects on family and youth resiliency. It had moderating effects on onset and frequency of alcohol and drug use.

Manlove, J. Mariner, C. and Papillo, R. 2000. "Subsequent Fertility Among Teen Mothers: Longitudinal Analyses of Recent National Data." *Journal of Marriage and the Family,* 62, 430-448.

High school age mothers were followed for six years in order to examine factors associated with having a second teen birth or a closely spaced second birth. Those teen mothers who were involved in even part-time classes, work or a training program had a lower chance of a second birth. Teen

mothers who were not involved in outside activities were more likely to have another child in their teens or soon after their first child. Teens with a high school diploma or GED were more likely to postpone a second teen birth. In addition, mothers who lived at home with at least one parent or who lived alone after the birth of their first child were less likely to have a second child.

Miller, M.N., Verhegge, R. and Miller, B.E. 1999. "Assessment Risk of Eating Disorders Among Adolescents in Appalachia." *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry,* 38, 437-443.

A study was conducted to investigate the risk of eating disorder among students from five public schools in east Tennessee in grades six through 10. A sample of 1,302 male and female adolescents completed the Eating Attitudes Test. Findings revealed that 19.8 percent of females and 3.7 percent of males scored higher than 29, indicating high risk for development of an eating disorder. In addition, there was a movement toward increased prevalence of risk in areas that are more rural.

Ouellette, J.A., Gerrard, M., Gibbons, F.X. and Reis-Bergan, M. 1999. "Parents, Peers and Prototypes: Antecedents of Adolescent Alcohol Expectancies, Alcohol Consumption and Alcohol-Related Life Problems in Rural Youth" *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors,* 13, 183-197.

Most research on alcohol consumption has considered the impact of social influences, such as parental and peer factors, separately from more cognitive factors, such as alcohol expectancies. No research to date has prospectively considered the antecedents to alcohol expectancies and how they may relate to other alcohol-related cognitions (e.g., risk images). Using a recently developed model of health behavior in a longitudinal study with a sample of 357 adolescents and their parents, the study investigated the combined impact of social, parental, and cognitive factors on alcohol expectancies, consumption and alcohol-related life problems. Results suggest that parental and social factors are antecedents to expectancies and that cognitive factors mediate the impact of parental influence on consumption.

Pilgrim, C., Abbey, A., Hendrickson, P. and Lorenz, S. 1998. "Implementation and Impact of a Family-Based Substance Abuse Prevention Program in Rural Communities." *Journal of Primary Prevention,* 18, 341-361.

A family-based alcohol, tobacco, and other drug abuse prevention program was evaluated. The program targeted families with students entering middle or junior high school. The goals of the program were to increase resiliency and protective factors including family cohesion, communication skills, school attachment, peer attachment, and appropriate attitudes about alcohol and tobacco use by adolescents. The Families In Action program is a structured program which includes six 2½-hour sessions, offered once a week for six consecutive weeks to parents and youth. The program was offered to eligible families in eight rural school districts. Families who chose to participate began the program with lower scores on several protective factors as compared to nonparticipating families. Analysis of

covariance controlling for initial differences found several positive effects of program participation at the one year follow-up. The results were strongest for boys. These findings suggest that providing parents and youth with similar communication skills can be an effective approach to substance abuse prevention.

Roth, J. and Brooks-Gunn, J. 2000. "What Do Adolescents Need for Healthy Development? Implications for Youth Policy." *Social Policy Report,* A Publication of the Society for Research in Child Development, XIV, 1, 3-19.

The authors conclude that adolescents who are merely problem-free are not fully prepared for their future. Healthy development for adolescents includes: 1) competence in academic, social, and vocational areas, 2) confidence or a positive self identity, 3) connection or healthy relations to community, family, and peers, 4) character or positive values, integrity, mortal commitment, and 5) caring and compassion. Children and adolescents live in various overlapping worlds — family, peers, school, workplace, neighborhood, community, region, and country. We know a lot about worlds of family and school, but less about the neighborhood or community.

Savage, M.P. and Scott, L.B. 1998. "Physical Activity and Rural Middle School Adolescents." *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 27, 245-253.

This study reports the self-reported physical activity level of rural adolescents. Eight hundred and twenty two middle school adolescents (M = 229, F = 593), mean age = 13.9 in three rural Indiana middle schools reported their participation in out-of-school physical activities over a five-day period. Responses to the activity items were recoded into sedentary, active and very active exercises and preferred types of exercise. Over one-third (36 percent) of adolescent males indicated participation in vigorous physical activity less than two times per week and almost half (42 percent) of females reported levels of activity below nationally recommended guidelines. Adolescent males reported more frequent engagement in strength exercises than females (33 percent and 25 percent respectively). Over one third of males and females (35 percent) reported stretching three or more times each week. Significant differences were found between males and females satisfaction with their present body weight, such that 21 percent of males and 44 percent of females indicated dissatisfaction with their present body weight. Males and females both reported a preference for active team sports such as volleyball, football, softball, and individual activities such as weight training, bicycling and swimming. The levels of reported activity reflect national survey findings, indicating that many adolescents may not be involved in the recommended levels and that exercise behaviors of rural adolescents may be similar to those in urban areas.

Scheer, S.D., Borden, L.M. and Donnermeyer, J.F. 2000. "The Relationship Between Family Factors and Adolescent Substance Use in Rural, Suburban and Urban Settings." *Journal of Child and Family Studies,* 9, 105-115.

We tested the relationships and predictive power of family factors on rural, suburban and urban adolescent substance use. A representative statewide sur-

vey of 11th-grade students for gender, place of residence and ethnicity was conducted. No significant differences were found between rural, suburban and urban adolescents for substance use. For family sanction variables across all locations, adolescent substance involvement was significantly lower the more they perceived their families would "stop them" or "care" if they got drunk, smoked cigarettes or used marijuana. Rural and suburban youth who reported that their parents talked to them about the dangers of smoking and getting drunk were less involved in substance use. While controlling for location, gender and ethnicity, regression analyses showed that family sanctions against smoking cigarettes and marijuana explained a modest proportion of the variance in substance use. Finally, "family talking about the dangers of cigarettes," "family involvement in schools" and "belief that their families cared about them" predicted lower substance use regardless of location, although minimal variance was explained. The findings have implications for social service providers regarding location settings, prevention, education and intervention programming.

Shisslak, C.M., Crago, M., McKnight, K.M., Estes, L.S., Gray, N. and Parnaby, O. G. 1998. "Potential Factors Associated With Weight Control Behaviors in Elementary and Middle School Girls." *Journal of Psychosomatic Research,* 44, 3/4, 301-313.

School age girls are susceptible to weight control problems as a function of self-confidence, peers' weight related pressures, ethnicity and parental divorce or separation. Substance use and abuse by middle school girls was associated with disordered eating behaviors, especially bulimic behaviors. School age girls who have low self esteem along with body dissatisfaction are most likely to have eating disorders when they become adolescents and young adults.

Smith, M.G. and Hill, G.C. 1994. "An Alcohol and Drug Education Needs Assessment Survey Among 4-H Youth in Isolated, Rural Northeast Nevada." *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education,* 40, 69-88.

Assessed the extent of drug and alcohol use among 255 4-H members (aged 9-29 years) in Nevada. Results were compared to a similar survey of 2,031 students (grades six, eight, 10 and 12) conducted in local schools by the Nevada State Department of Education. No significant differences were found between the 4-H subjects' drug and alcohol use and subjects in the school survey. Seventy percent of the 4-H subjects indicated that 4-H had made a difference in their attitudes about drug and alcohol use. Yet, school was the most reported source of their information about drugs and alcohol.

Stevens, M.M, Mott, L.A. and Youells, F. 1996. "Rural Adolescent Drinking Behavior: Three-Year Follow-Up in the New Hampshire Substance Abuse Prevention Study." *Adolescence,* 31, 159-166.

A three-year follow-up study of alcohol prevention among 4,406 children showed that neither a comprehensive school curriculum nor a community intervention was successful in preventing adolescent drinking. Predictor

variables for drinking are examined and the importance of tolerance and encouragement of drinking by adult role models are noted.

Veneziano, R.A. 2000. "Perceived Paternal and Maternal Acceptance and Rural African-American and European-American Youth's Psychological Adjustment." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 62, 123-132.

The writers consider perceived paternal and maternal acceptance in relation to rural African-American and European-American youths' psychological adjustment. Focusing on 281 families in a poor, rural, biracial county of Georgia, they examine whether these youths' experiences of such acceptance equally related to their self-reported psychological adjustment, and they explore social-class, age, gender and paternal-residence differences in perceived paternal and maternal acceptance and youths' psychological adjustment. Their findings reveal that only perceived paternal acceptance is significantly linked to European-American youths' self-reported psychological adjustment when the effect of perceived maternal acceptance is controlled for; in African-American families, both perceived paternal and maternal acceptance are significantly linked to youths' self-reported psychological adjustment; and relationships between acceptance and adjustment are not related significantly to youths' age, gender, paternal residence or class.

Weiler, R. M. 1997. "Adolescents' Perceptions of Health concerns: An Exploratory Study Among Rural Midwestern Youth." *Health Education and Behavior,* 24, 287-299.

This exploratory investigation examined health concerns of adolescents and their perceptions of their peers' health concerns. Data were collected from a convenient sample of 419 high school students (aged 14-19 years) in rural southern Illinois in May 1990, using the Adolescent Health Concerns Inventory (AHCI). The AHCI contains 150 health-related items, grouped into 12 topical subscales. Analysis of the 150 items found statistically significant differences for all but two items: use of alcohol and acne. Analysis of the 12 subscales found that students believed other teenagers were concerned more about issues related to substance use and abuse, human sexuality, and personal health than about the issues they reported as concerns for themselves or their best friends. These findings indicate what health issues students are personally concerned about. They also suggest that students believe their personal health concerns differ from the health concerns of their best friends and other teenagers.

Weist, M.D., Myers, C.P., Danforth, J., McNeil, D.W., Ollendick, T.H. and Hawkins, R. 2000. "Expanded School Mental Health Services: Assessing Needs Related to School Level and Geography." *Community Mental Health Journal,* 36, 259-273.

The authors surveyed 62 school administrators on factors relevant to developing school-based mental health programs. Administrators were from schools that varied on education level (elementary, middle and high) and geographic location (urban, suburban and rural), with equivalent numbers

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in each subgroup. Administrators provided ratings to questions grouped in five categories: (1) Stressful Conditions, (2) Internalizing Behavioral Problems, (3) Externalizing Behavioral Problems, (4) Substance Abuse, and (5) Barriers to Mental Health Care, and provided open-ended comments on needs of youth and mental health programs for them. They rated behavioral and substance abuse problems as progressively more serious as students advanced in school level. Urban youth were reported to encounter higher stress and present more severe internalizing problems than suburban or rural youth. Suburban and rural schools provided more health and mental health services than urban schools. Across geographic locales, physical health services far outnumbered mental health services. Findings related to barriers to mental health care, and the viability of schools as delivery sites for comprehensive mental health services, are discussed.

Wislar, J.S., Grossman, J., Krusei, M.J.P., Fendrich, M., Franke, C. and Ignatowicz, N. 1998. "Youth Suicide-Related Visits in an Emergency Department Serving Rural Counties: Implications for Means Restriction." *Archives of Suicide Research,* 4, 75-87.

A large proportion of suicide attempts result in injuries requiring medical attention, but little is known about youth presenting to rural emergency departments (EDs) for suicide-related behavior. The authors conducted a chart review of youth receiving mental health (MH) evaluations during 1994 in an ED serving rural counties. Forty percent of these visits were for suicide-related events. These youth were more likely to be older, female and white than youth receiving MH evaluations for reasons not related to suicide. No differences were found on recent substance use, non-suicidal aggression or MH service contact when comparing suicidal to non-suicidal youth. Youth receiving MH evaluations were homogenous with respect to suicide risk factors. Chart reviews provided no evidence that means restriction education was provided. We discuss broader implications of these findings for the role of means restriction in EDs.

Zavela, K.J., Battistich, V., Dean, B.J., Flores, R., Barton, R. and Delaney, R.J. 1997. "Say Yes First: A Longitudinal, School-Based Alcohol and Drug Prevention Project for Rural Youth and Families." *Journal of Early Adolescence,* 17, 67-96.

Evaluated data from a five-year, comprehensive educational and case-management approach to drug prevention that involved 859 students of the class of the year 2000 as they progressed from fourth through eighth grades in four rural Colorado school districts. Among a four-year longitudinal subsample (395 subjects), program participation was associated significantly with academic achievement for all subjects and was associated negatively with frequency of drug use among high-risk subjects. The prevalence of alcohol, tobacco and other drug use for the last 30 days among program participants in eighth grade was lower than that for a preceding cohort who had not participated in the program. Findings indicate that school-based drug-prevention strategies can be effective in improving academic achievement and reducing use of alcohol and other drugs in rural at-risk students.

Peers

Evans, W.P., Fitzgerald, C., Weigel, D. and Chvilicek, S. 1999. "Are Rural Gang Members Similar to Their Urban Peers? Implications for Rural Communities." *Youth and Society,* 30, 267-282.

Investigated factors associated with gang involvement among rural and urban adolescents. The data were derived from a large self-report survey of 2,183 seventh- to 12th-grade students. Surprisingly, there was no significant difference in gang membership or pressure to join gangs between the rural and urban samples. There were differences, however, on other gang and violence indicators between the rural and urban settings. Overall, urban students were significantly more likely to report they had friends in gangs and were threatened by gangs, and had significantly heightened concerns for personal safety, gangs and violence in their schools and communities. Several rural/urban gender-related differences also were found. Implications for rural communities, prevention and intervention programming and future research are discussed.

Hastie, P.A. and Sharpe, T. 1999. "Effects of a Sport Education Curriculum on the Positive Social Behavior of At-Risk Rural Adolescent Boys." *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk,* 4, 417-430.

The training of positive social behavior in children and youth holds particular significance in contemporary culture. One setting that holds great appeal for implementing social behavior interventions is public school physical education in which sport education is a part of the curriculum. This study describes the changes in a number of positive social behaviors of at-risk adolescent youth during the implementation of a sport education season. Twenty 7th- and 8th-grade boys from a small rural school in the south participated in an experimental subject matter curriculum consisting of a 20-lesson unit of "kangaroo ball." During the latter part of the season, two specific fair-play interventions were introduced and changes in student compliance, interpersonal behaviors and leadership behaviors were measured. Results indicated that exposure to the curriculum model produced increased student positive peer interactions, as well as accurate self-monitoring by students of their social interactions. Implications for the importance of providing specific prosocial objectives in physical education are discussed in light of this study's findings.

Kerns, K.A., Klepac, L. and Cole, A. K. 1996. "Peer Relationships and Preadolescents' Perceptions of Security in the Child-Mother Relationship." *Developmental Psychology,* 32, 3, 457-466.

Fifth- and sixth-grade children who are more emotionally connected to their mothers are more accepted by their friends, have more reciprocated friendships and are less lonely than children who are less emotionally connected to their mothers. Parents have a definite impact on their child's peer relations.

Kniveton, B.H. 1986. "Peer Models and Classroom Violence: An Experimental Study." *Educational Research,* 28, 2, 111-116.

Five-year-old boys who watched two aggressive models in the classroom tended to be more aggressive in their own peer relationships. Watching an aggressive model, after having first seen a constructive one, reduced the impact of the constructive model. Teachers and parents need to expose children to "good" behavior models.

Kupersmidt, J.B., Griesler, P.C., DeRosier, M.E., Patterson, C.J. and Davis, P.W. 1995. "Childhood Aggression and Peer Relations in the Context of Family and Neighborhood Factors." *Child Development,* 66, 360-375.

Neighborhoods and families do not have uniform roles in how they may affect aggression and peer adjustment in childhood. Each of these contextual factors can have positive, neutral or negative influence depending on the child's coping and adaptation within a particular environmental (e.g., neighborhood) context. Interventions with high-risk children and families may be more effective when they encompass not only the child and family but also the broader physical and social environment in which the child and family reside.

Malloy, T.E., Yarlas, A., Montivilo, R.K. and Sugarman, D.B. 1996. "Agreement and Accuracy in Children's Interpersonal Perceptions: A Social Relations Analysis." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 71, 4, 692-702.

Throughout middle childhood, children's interpersonal perceptions of peers in the school environment consistently agreed with teacher ratings. The agreed on behavior, cognitive ability, popularity, and affect especially when the targets were male more rather than female.

Schwartz, D. and Dodge, K.A. 1993. "The Emergence of Chronic Peer Victimization in Boys' Play Groups." *Child Development,* 64, 1755-1772.

Thirty play groups, each of which consisted of six unacquainted African-American 6-year-old or 8-year-old boys, met for 45 minutes sessions on five consecutive days. Thirteen of the boys came to be chronically victimized by their playgroups. These victims demonstrated lower rates of assertive behaviors, such as persuasion attempts, and social conversation initiatives, and higher rates of nonassertive behaviors, such as submissions to peers' social initiatives than their non-victimized counterparts. Results revealed important linkages between children's social behavior and victimization by peers. In particular, there appears to be a strong association between nonassertive behavior and abuse by peers for this age group.

Uhlendorff, H. 2000. "Parents' and Children's Friendship Networks." *Journal of Family Issues,* 21, 191-204.

Can parents' own friendships facilitate children's friendships? This study examined seven- to 12-year-olds' concepts of friendships. Findings showed that the more friends with whom parents spent leisure time and who were nominated by parents, the more friendships with nonclassmate, were named by their children. Additionally, when parents had more

friends, their children in middle childhood (ages 7-12) had more reciprocal friendships with classmates. The more friends that were maintained by parents, the more developed were children's friendships.

Risk and Protection

Bowen, N.K. and Bowen, G.L. 1999. "Effects of Crime and Violence in Neighborhoods and Schools on the School Behavior and Performance of Adolescents." *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 14, 3, 319-342.

A national probability sample of 2,099 middle and high school students completed The National School Success Profile. Males, African-Americans, high school students, school lunch participants and urban students tended to report higher exposure to environmental danger. Measures of neighborhood and school danger both contributed significantly to the prediction of attendance and problem behaviors in school. The authors conclude that decisions by community governing bodies to provide adequate funding to school districts for crime and violence prevention and policies by school boards and school administrators to make school safety a priority are necessary for combating school danger.

Brook, J.S., Kessler, R.C., and Cohen, P. 1999. "The Onset of Marijuana Use From Preadolescence to Young Adulthood." *Development and Psychopathology,* 11, 901-914.

Although well documented that intra-personal and inter-personal risk factors are related to the frequency of marijuana use, much less is known about the initiation of marijuana use. The major findings of this longitudinal study indicate that youth who associate with peers who use marijuana or smoke tobacco themselves are at a higher risk for marijuana initiation. Youth who identify with their parents are less likely to begin marijuana use. The predictors related to marijuana onset emerged during preadolescence, early adolescence, middle adolescence, late adolescence and the 20s.

Dishion, T.J., Capaldi, D.M. and Yoerger, K. 1999. "Middle Childhood Antecedents to Progressions in Male Adolescent Substance Use: An Ecological Analysis of Risk and Protection." *Journal of Adolescent Research,* 14, 2, 175-205.

Child, family and peer antecedents to patterned alcohol and tobacco use were examined longitudinally. Antisocial behavior at ages 9 and 10 was the most powerful predictor of marijuana and alcohol use in the adolescent risk period. In addition, depressed mood and poor academic achievement are part of the package.

Evans, W.P., Fitzgerald, C., Weigel, D. and Chvilicek, S. "Are Rural Gang Members Similar to Their Urban Peers? Implications for Rural Communities." *Youth and Society,* 30, 267-282.

Investigated factors associated with gang involvement among rural and urban adolescents. The data were derived from a large self-report survey of 2,183 seventh- to 12th-grade students. Surprisingly, there was no significant difference in gang membership or pressure to join gangs between the

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rural and urban samples. There were differences, however, on other gang and violence indicators between the rural and urban settings. Overall, urban students were significantly more likely to report they had friends in gangs and were threatened by gangs, and had significantly heightened concerns for personal safety, gangs, and violence in their schools and communities. Several rural/urban gender-related differences also were found.

Ouellette, J.A., Gerrard, M., Gibbons, F.X. and Reis-Bergan, M. 1999. "Parents, Peers and Prototypes: Antecedents of Adolescent Alcohol Expectancies, Alcohol Consumption and Alcohol-Related Life Pproblems in Rural Youth." *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors,* 13, 183-197.

Most research on alcohol consumption has considered the impact of social influences, such as parental and peer factors, separately from more cognitive factors, such as alcohol expectancies. Using a recently developed model of health behavior in a longitudinal study with a sample of 357 adolescents and their parents, the study investigated the combined impact of social, parental and cognitive factors on alcohol expectancies, consumption, and alcohol-related life problems. Results suggest that parental and social factors are antecedents to expectancies and that cognitive factors mediate the impact of parental influence on consumption.

Rumberger, R.W. and Larson, K.A. 1999. "Student Mobility and Increase Risk of High School Dropout." *American Journal of Education,* 107, 1-35.

The study followed 11,671 students from eighth through 12th grade. Students were from the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) and were examined for mobility and high school completion. One quarter of these eighth-graders changed schools in four years, most were lower socioeconomic level students. School mobility reflects differing degrees of educational engagement — high rates of absenteeism, misbehavior, and low educational expectations. Both academic and behavioral engagement contributed to students leaving school. Students who left school, even one time, were less likely to have completed high school, even taking into account family background and educational experiences in the eighth grade.

Scheer, S.D., Borden, L.M. and Donnermeyer, J.F. 2000. "The Relationship Between Family Factors and Adolescent Substance Use in Rural, Suburban and Urban Settings." *Journal of Child and Family Studies,* 9, 105-115.

Tested the relationships and predictive power of family factors on rural, suburban, and urban adolescent substance use. Participants included 3,189 11th-graders. No significant differences were found between rural, suburban and urban adolescents for substance use. For family sanction variables across all locations, adolescent substance involvement was significantly lower the more they perceived their families would "stop them" or "care" if they got drunk, smoked cigarettes or used marijuana. Rural and suburban youth who reported that their parents talked to them about the dangers of smoking and getting drunk were less involved in substance use. While controlling for location, gender and ethnicity, analyses showed that family sanctions against smoking cigarettes and marijuana explained a modest

proportion of adolescent substance use. Finally, "family talking about the dangers of cigarettes," "family involvement in schools" and "belief that their families cared about them" predicted lower substance use regardless of location.

Benda, B.B. 1996. "Testing a Theoretical Model of Adolescent Sexual Behavior Among Rural Families in Poverty." *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal,* 13, 469-494.

This was a study of 357 adolescents, aged 13 to 17 years, who resided in a family receiving AFDC in 10 rural counties in Arkansas. The study had a twofold purpose: 1) to examine what elements of social control, social learning and strain theories predicted three measures of sexual behavior; and 2) to test an integrated theoretical model with two-stage least squares regression to see if it fit the data on the three measures of sex. The measures of sexual behavior were frequency of sexual intercourse in the past year, number of sexual partners in the past year and number of sexual partners in lifetime. Bivariate analyses revealed that the consistent predictors of the three measures of sex were age, gender, attachment to mother, beliefs, parental supervision and punishment, family and friend support, frustration and use of rationalizations. The theoretical model that fit all measures of sex showed that bonding influences sexual behavior through frustration, and that age, gender and rationalizations directly impact behavior.

Benda, B.B. and Corwyn, R.F. 1998a. "Abstinence and Birth Control Among Rural Adolescents in Impoverished Families: A Test of Theoretical Discriminators." *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal,* 16, 191-214.

This was a study of 357 adolescents who resided with AFDC families in 10 rural counties in Arkansas. The study examined predictors of birth control from sociodemographic variables, control, strain and differential association theories. This was the first theoretically based investigation of abstinence and birth control among adolescents living with families on welfare in impoverished rural communities. Bivariate analyses indicated that all of the study factors, with the marginal exception of attachment to father, showed significance variance between the three groups of adolescents who had not had sexual intercourse, those who always used birth control, and those who did not always use birth control. The first function of the discriminant analysis discriminated between youth who had not had sexual intercourse and those who were sexually active, and indicated that the former (in order of discrimination) were younger, had fewer sexually active friends or family members, were more religious, had more fear of giving birth if sexually active, and had stronger beliefs in the moral validity of societal laws and norms. The second function discriminated between those who always used birth control and youth who did not always use birth control. The significant discriminators (in order of discrimination) showed that adolescents who always used birth control attended church more often, were more likely to be persons of color than Caucasian, had closer attachments to their mothers and did not desire a baby to love. Social work implications of these findings are discussed from an ecological perspective.

Benda, B.B. and Corwyn, R.F. 1998b. "Race and Gender Differences in Theories of Sexual Behavior Among Rural Adolescents Residing in AFDC Families." *Youth and Society,* 30, 59-88.

This study of 414 adolescents (aged 13-17 yrs) who resided with rural Aid to Families With Dependent Children (AFDC) families in 10 counties of Arkansas was designed to determine what demographic and theoretical factors from control, strain and social learning theories predicted sexual intercourse in the past year and lifetime sexual partners among African American and Caucasian females and males. Only among Caucasian females was support found for the hypothesis that attachment to mother is inversely related to experience of sexual intercourse in the past year. Among females of color beliefs were inversely related to behavior. Results also showed that family support inhibits sexual intercourse among Caucasian females, that confidence that one can escape welfare dependency is associated with having no sexual partners among females of color, and that feelings of frustration are positively related to having had sexual intercourse.

Blinn-Pike, L. 1996. "Preteen Enrichment: Evaluation of a Program to Delay Sexual Activity Among Female Adolescents in Rural Appalachia." *Family Relations,* 45, 380-386.

Part of a special section on marginalized families. A study was conducted to assess a project designed to delay sexual activity among female adolescents in the eastern Tennessee region of Appalachia. The project was a yearlong school-based preteen enrichment program, which was based on a socially oriented protective factor model of resiliency and designed to improve self-concept, expectations for the future, educational plans, perceptions of maternal acceptance and knowledge of human reproduction. Findings indicated that the program participants, when compared with the comparison participants, held somewhat less traditional sex role orientations, significantly improved self-concept, and decreased anxiety. The positive results of the program imply that there is potential for using social learning perspectives in a protective factor model of resilience to delay early sexual activity.

Crockett, L. J., Bingham, C. R., Chopak, J. S. and Vicary, J. R. 1996. "Timing of First Sexual Intercourse: The Role of Social Control, Social Learning and Problem Behavior." *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 25, 89-111.

This study examined the impact of pubertal timing, family socialization, psychosocial adjustment, bonds to conventional institutions (e.g., church attendance), involvement in problem behavior and SES on timing of first intercourse among 289 rural adolescent males and females. Data were collected through written survey questionnaires. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted for each gender, with timing group as the independent factor. Results support the importance of family socialization and problem behavior for both sexes, the role of biological factors for males and the role of social control processes for females. Social class and poor psychosocial adjustment were not supported in either sex. Results indicate that multiple processes influence the timing of first intercourse.

Teen Pregnancy

Loda, F.A., Speizer, I.S., Martin, K.L., Skatrud, J.D. and Bennett, T.A. 1997. "Programs and Services to Prevent Pregnancy, Childbearing and Poor Birth Outcomes Among Adolescents in Rural Areas of the Southeastern United States." *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 21, 157-166.

Examined how rural adolescents' needs for pregnancy prevention and improved birth outcomes are being addressed, and suggests strategies for future programs. Local and state-level informants knowledgeable about services to adolescents in the Southeastern U.S. were interviewed to determine the program start date and time frame, funding sources, target population, participating counties, implementing agency or organization, specific program services and status of program activities. Results show that the most common adolescent services in the rural Southeast attempt either to improve life options of youth, reduce sexual activity or provide prenatal and postnatal care. Unlike urban areas where there are a variety of family planning providers, health departments are the primary source of family planning for adolescents in the rural areas, with no abortion providers in most of these areas. The majority of programs that include adolescents among the population served are developed for all women rather than specifically for adolescents.

Technology

Kelly, K. 2000. "False Promises." *U.S. News and World Report,* Feb. 25, 48-55.

Educators, child development experts and physicians are speaking out against early computer use, especially when coupled with television watching. Excessive use of screen time at younger ages may undermine the child's development of critical skills needed for success, diminish creativity and imagination, motivation, attention spans and the desire to persevere. Experts call for more studies to examine the long-term physical, developmental and behavioral effects of early computer use on youth. Children need ample time in meaningful interactions with caring adults and current technologies may be depriving them of such interactions. Two-dimension play is not as good as three-dimension play.

Miscellaneous

Garrett, P., Ng'andu, N. and Ferron, J. 1994. "Is Rural Residency a Risk Factor for Childhood Poverty?" *Rural Sociology,* 59, 66-83.

A study was conducted to examine the influence of rural variables on young American children's poverty status, adjusting for individual and family characteristics. Data were drawn from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. The findings supported suggestions in the literature that specific demographic variables exert an overwhelming influence on children's poverty status. The residential histories of children have consequences for their poverty status, even when the influence of control variables is taken into account. The integration of survey and ecological data is identified as one promising direction for future research on childhood poverty.

Gordon, W.R. and Caltabiano, M.L. 1996. "Urban-Rural Differences in Adolescent Self-Esteem, Leisure Boredom and Sensation-Seeking as Predictors of Leisure-Time Usage and Satisfaction." *Adolescence,* 31, 883-901.

Australia's "sporting nation" image has been challenged by adolescents' decreasing involvement in active leisure pursuits. A significant number of adolescents experience leisure boredom and dissatisfaction, which have been implicated in drug use and delinquency. Researchers have largely ignored the multivariate nature of adolescent leisure experiences. This North Queensland, Australian adolescent leisure study explored the extent to which adolescent leisure experiences were mediated by individual and situational variables. Seventy-five Cairns and 65 Atherton high school students (66 males and 74 females) were surveyed from grades eight, 10 and 12 (ages 12-19 years), during normal class periods. The Self-Rating Scale (SPS) measure of self-esteem, Sensation-Seeking Scale Form II (SSS), Leisure Boredom Scale (LBS), and a time-use inventory yielded quantitative data. Urban adolescents reported less leisure satisfaction. Participation was highest for passive leisure and lowest for active leisure. Urban adolescents reported higher social leisure, while rural adolescents engaged in more passive leisure. For both Cairns and Atherton, the heaviest substance users were those who scored low on self-esteem and high on sensation-seeking. Atherton adolescents who scored low on self-esteem but high on sensation-seeking, reported the most crime involvement. Methodological issues and implications are discussed and suggestions made for future research.

King, V., Elder, G.H. Jr. and Whitbeck, L.B. 1997. "Religious Involvement Among Rural Youth: An Ecological and Life-Course Perspective." *Journal of Research on Adolescence,* 7, 431-456.

Developmental expressions of religion in the lives of youth extend from formal church attendance and ritual involvement to religious beliefs and knowledge, self-identity and participation in youth groups. Using multiple dimensions of religious development (church attendance, involvement in church activities, felt religiosity and religious identity), this study investigated data based on 365 adolescents of two-parent White, rural families from the Iowa Youth and Families Project. Ssubjects were followed from grade seven through 10 to explore the developmental pathways across the years of early adolescence, giving particular attention to changing influences among farm and nonfarm rural youth. Adolescents who have grown up on a farm have stronger ties to religious institutions than nonfarm youth, and they express stronger commitments to religious values. The correlates of religious change and continuity indicate that social identities and qualities of the parent-child relationship are important influences.

Nurmi, J. and Poole, M.E. "Age Differences in Adolescent Identity Exploration and Commitment in Urban and Rural Environments." *Journal of Adolescence,* 19, 443-452.

Part of a special issue on adolescent identity development in context. A study was conducted to examine differences in the extent to which identity exploration and commitment progress with age among youths living in

rural and urban environments. Data were drawn from younger (13-14 years) and older (16-17 years) Australian and Finnish rural- and urban-dwelling males and females. Results revealed that compared to younger Australian youths in urban environments, older youths in Australian urban environments showed higher levels of exploration and commitment regarding their future education and occupation. There was an age-related decrease in these variables among adolescents residing in Australian rural areas. However, no such urban or rural differences were observed for the Finnish adolescents.

Wilson, S.M., Henry, C.S. and Peterson, G.W. 1997. "Life Satisfaction Aamong Low-Income Rural Youth From Appalachia." *Journal of Adolescence,* 20, 443-459.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relative strength of objective, subjective and congruency variables as predictors of life satisfaction among low-income youth from rural areas. A 10-year longitudinal survey of low-income, rural youth from Appalachia (n=322) was conducted to explore these issues. Although support was provided for variables representing all three types of life satisfaction predictors, the strongest of these were subjective variables such as self-perceptions about goal attainment in jobs, overall goal attainment in life and self-esteem. Another set of consistent predictors of life satisfaction, congruence variables, were concerned with the extent to which low-income youth believed that they had fulfilled their own aspirations in terms of formal education, proximity to their childhood homes and number of children. Finally, some of the objective variables consisting of family of origin's SES, community size and marital status also were predictive of life satisfaction. In general, the life satisfaction of low-income, rural youth seemed to be influenced more extensively by personal meanings shaped within a particular cultural context rather than by traditional objective measures of life circumstances.

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