

SEXUAL MINORITY YOUTH IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM: PROFILES OF
UNHEARD VOICES

By

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(Under the Direction of GEORGIA B. CALHOUN)

ABSTRACT

Research has indicated disproportionality among sexual and gender minority youth within the juvenile justice system, with a multitude of increased risk factors leading to system involvement among sexual minority youth when compared to non-sexual minority youth. Given the increased risk for system involvement among sexual minority youth and the greater likelihood of mistreatment within the juvenile justice system when compared to non-sexual minority youth, this study aimed to better understand behavioral, personality, and relational components of sexual minority youth as well as differences in recidivism rates and charge types among sexual minority identifying youth when compared to non-sexual minority identifying counterparts. A sample population of 35 sexual minority identifying juvenile youth (males and females) between the ages of 13 and 17 and 35 matched non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth of the same age range was used through archival data. Differences in profiles on the BASC-2 SRP-A, the BASC-3-SRP-A, the CROPS, the MMPI-A, the PGQ, and the TSCC were assessed through a one-way ANOVA, and results indicated significant differences on the Pa Clinical Scale and Sc1 Harris-Lingoes Subscale on the MMPI-A and on the Relations with Parents Adaptive Scale on the BASC-2 SRP-A, as well as differences in recidivism rates and

charges placed forth against sexual minority identifying youth. A more holistic understanding of factors placing sexual minority youth at risk of system involvement and mistreatment within the juvenile justice system is warranted in order to ensure greater support and care for such youth and to break the disproportionate rates of system involvement.

INDEX WORDS: LGBT, sexual minority, juvenile justice, juvenile youth, adjudicated youth, forensic psychology

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DEDICATION

To my family and loved ones who helped me through this process in their own special way, words cannot express my eternal love and gratitude to each of you. I hope you know that this is as much your accomplishment as it is mine, and that this was only possible because of you.

Mom,

Thank you for your endless support in everything I do. And thank you for reading every paper I've had since starting out on this journey. You have no idea how much it means to me.

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Thank you for encouraging me through all of my decisions and for reinforcing the importance of giving back and loving what you do. You have been nothing short of an inspiration and motivating force throughout this process.

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Pop,

Thank you for reminding me of the importance to laugh, enjoy life, spread joy everywhere you go, and to “hang loose and keep it cool.” I couldn’t ask for a better friend than you, Pop.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|---|-----------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | vi |
| LIST OF TABLES | x |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xiv |
| CHAPTER | |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM..... | 1 |
| CONTEXT WITHIN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY | 4 |
| PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY | 7 |
| RESEARCH QUESTIONS & HYPOTHESES | 9 |
| DEFINITION OF TERMS | 10 |
| 2. REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE | 17 |
| INTRODUCTION..... | 17 |
| LGBTQ YOUTH IN JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM OVERVIEW | 17 |
| RISK FACTORS OVERVIEW..... | 23 |
| VICTIMIZATION, HOMELESSNESS, & THE CHILD WELFARE SYSTEM | 25 |
| SCHOOL RELATED CONCERNS FOR SEXUAL & GENDER MINORITY | |
| YOUTH | 28 |
| POLICING AGAINST SEXUAL & GENDER MINORITY YOUTH..... | 35 |
| YOUTH-RELATED RISK FACTORS FOR INCARCERATION | 37 |

| | | |
|----------|--|----|
| | CONCERNS EXPERIENCED BY SEXUAL & MINORITY YOUTH IN DETENTION | 45 |
| 3 | METHODS | 52 |
| | DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE | 52 |
| | DESIGN | 54 |
| | INSTRUMENTS | 55 |
| | BEHAVIOR ASSESSMENT SCALE FOR CHILDREN – SECOND EDITION (BASC-2) AND BEHAVIOR ASSESSMENT SCALE FOR CHILDREN – THIRD EDITION (BASC-3) | 55 |
| | CHILD REPORT OF POST-TRAUMATIC STRESS (CROPS) | 56 |
| | PARENT/GUARDIAN QUESTIONNAIRE (PGQ) | 56 |
| | THE MINNESOTA MULTIPHASIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY— ADOLESCENT (MMPI-A) | 56 |
| | TRAUMA SYMPTOMS CHECKLIST FOR CHILDREN (TSCC) | 57 |
| | DATA COLLECTION | 57 |
| | STATISTICAL TREATMENT | 58 |
| | ASSUMPTIONS | 58 |
| | HYPOTHESES | 58 |
| 4 | RESULTS | 60 |
| | DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS | 60 |
| | FINDINGS | 60 |
| | RESEARCH QUESTION 1 & ANALYSIS 1 | 60 |
| | RESEARCH QUESTION 2 & ANALYSIS 2 | 90 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| RESEARCH QUESTION 3 & ANALYSIS 3 | 93 |
| RESEARCH QUESTION 4 & ANALYSIS 4 | 98 |
| RESEARCH QUESTION 5 & ANALYSIS 5 | 101 |
| 5 DISCUSSION | 109 |
| SUMMARY OF STUDY | 109 |
| DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS | 111 |
| CLINICAL & PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS | 117 |
| LIMITATIONS | 118 |
| RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH | 120 |
| REFERENCES | 123 |

LIST OF TABLES

| CHAPTER 3 | Page |
|--|------|
| Table 1: Sexual Minority Identified Youth Demographic Characteristics | 53 |
| Table 2: Non-Sexual Minority Identified Youth Demographic Characteristics | 53 |
| Table 3: Total Demographic Characteristics | 53 |
| | |
| CHAPTER 4 | Page |
| Table 4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 64 |
| Table 4.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 66 |
| Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 67 |
| Table 5.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 69 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 70 |
| Table 6.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 72 |
| Table 7: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 73 |
| Table 7.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 75 |
| Table 8: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 76 |
| Table 8.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 78 |
| Table 9: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Clinical Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 79 |
| Table 9.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Clinical Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 81 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 10: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 82 |
| Table 10.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 85 |
| Table 11: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Content Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 87 |
| Table 11.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Content Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 89 |
| Table 12: Individual Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Youth Identifying Recidivism Data One- and Two-Years Post Service Date..... | 91 |
| Table 13: Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Youth Identifying Recidivism Data Totals One- and Two-Years Post Service Date..... | 92 |
| Table 14: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing CROPS Item Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 94 |
| Table 14.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing CROPS Item Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications | 95 |
| Table 15: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing TSCC Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 96 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 15.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing TSCC Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 97 |
| Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing PGQ Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 99 |
| Table 16.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing PGQ Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 100 |
| Table 17: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 103 |
| Table 17.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 105 |
| Table 18: Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification | 106 |
| Table 18.1: One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classifications..... | 108 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| CHAPTER 4 | Page |
|--|------|
| Figure 1: BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales..... | 65 |
| Figure 2: BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales..... | 68 |
| Figure 3: BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales..... | 71 |
| Figure 4: BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales..... | 74 |
| Figure 5: BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales..... | 77 |
| Figure 6: MMPI-A Clinical Scales..... | 80 |
| Figure 7: MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales..... | 84 |
| Figure 8: MMPI-A Content Scales..... | 88 |
| Figure 9: BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scales..... | 104 |
| Figure 10: BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales..... | 107 |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

While the juvenile justice system has dated back to the early 1800s with roots in institutionalizing “deviant” children who were treated comparably to adults with histories of criminal offenses (Mennel, 1972), it was not until the Progressive Era—specifically 1899, that the first juvenile court was established, and reformers began to view juvenile justice through a treatment-focused and rehabilitative nature rather than through a punitive lens (Holsinger, 2011). However, studies have described changes in the juvenile justice system in the decades since, with research between the 1960s and 1970s identifying “treatment” for youth being overtly punishing and correctional (Holland & Mlyniec, 1995; Holsinger, 2011; President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967), which was confirmed in 1966 by the United States (U.S.) Supreme Court, who declared, “[t]here is evidence... that the child receives the worst of both worlds: that he gets neither the protection accorded to adults nor the solicitous care and regenerative treatment postulated for children” (Kent v. United States, 1966).

Deinstitutionalization and diversion programming in the 1970s led to greater preventative and community-focused efforts, which were followed by a “get tough” era and mindset by legislatures in the 1980s, while advocates and researchers continued to focus on the efficacy of programs based in prevention and rehabilitation (Butts & Mears, 2001, p. 169). The history of the juvenile justice system has led us to the current era in which adjudicated and incarcerated youth experience the system in diverse variations (Holsinger, 2011), which is frequently

dependent upon state policies, legislature, and the frameworks of juvenile justice professionals assigned to such cases.

When factoring in fiscal concerns, states continue to pay hundreds of thousands of dollars each year per juvenile youth—for housing costs alone—in correctional or other residential facilities (Pew Charitable Trusts, 2015). For example, research has revealed that housing a juvenile youth in Georgia cost \$91,126 in 2013 in comparison to \$179,400 in California in 2012 (Pew Charitable Trusts, 2015). In addition, not only can one violent offense cost as much as \$64,000, but costs of career offending can range between \$2.47 and \$3.34 million per individual. (Fox et al., 2015),

While reducing societal costs pertaining to juvenile justice and incarceration continues to remain a nationwide priority, various studies have indicated cost-benefit analyses of preventative and community-focused interventions as opposed to juvenile detention (Cohen, 1998; Robertson et al., 2001). In fact, one study estimated that measures taken to prevent a high-risk 14-year-old youth from engaging in a lifetime of offending behaviors and crime could save society between \$2.6 to \$5.3 million, whereas similar preventative measures from birth for an otherwise high-risk youth could save society between \$2.6 and \$4.4 million (Cohen & Piquero, 2009).

Even though juvenile incarceration is frequently considered a final means of intervention for public safety, studies have posited that most youth detentions are a product of non-violent offenses (Puzzanchera & Hockenberry, 2018). Yet, on a daily basis, there are approximately 48,000 youth living in juvenile detention facilities with over 884,000 adjudicated cases in juvenile courts annually (Sickmund et al., 2017; Sickmund, et al., 2018). Reports have indicated that there were nearly two million juvenile offenders arrested each year in the early 2000s, with significant decreases in arrests since 2008 (OJJDP, 2019b). Current estimates approximate that in

2018, there were nearly 728,280 arrests of youth under the age of 18, which is the least amount of arrests made since 1980 (OJJDP, 2019b; OJJDP, 2019c).

While efforts from juvenile justice advocates have contributed to the significant decline in the amount of youth involved in the system within the past fifteen years, the rate of involvement within the juvenile justice system among youth of color has significantly increased (Butts, 2016; Mariscal & Bell, 2010; W. Haywood Burns Institute, 2016). Specifically, Black youth are disproportionately overrepresented in the system, with approximate rates as high as 42 percent of the total youth detention population in 2015 in comparison to 16.5 percent of youth between the ages of 10 and 17 in the general U.S. population (Sickmund et al., 2017). Significant increases have also been observed in the number of arrests for female juvenile youth in recent years, with rates as high as 30 percent between 2015 and 2018 compared to 20 percent in 1985 (Crenshaw et al., 2015; OJJDP, 2019c; Scott & Brown, 2018; see also Puzzachera & Ehrmann, 2018). Disproportionalities of youth in the juvenile justice courts and system overall also extend to youth with mental health concerns, disabilities (primarily learning disabilities), and youth with histories of trauma—many of whom are low-risk youth with high needs who have been failed by other systems, and as a final result, brought through the juvenile justice system (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2008).

However, when discussing disproportionalities among policing and risks pertaining to detention and incarceration, literature has primarily focused on race and class, but not sexual orientation or gender identity, or poor sexual and gender minorities of color who experience heightened levels of policing, discrimination, stigma and incarceration (Ritchie, 2017). Research and policy reports have demonstrated the significant overrepresentation of sexual and gender minority youth—especially sexual and gender minority youth of color within the juvenile justice

system and the unjust treatment, conditions, victimization, and abuse these youths experience and are exposed to while in the system (Center for American Progress and Movement Advancement Project [CAP and MAP] 2016; Dank et al., 2015; Feinstein et al., 2001; Hunt & Moodie-Mills, 2012; Irvine & Canfield, 2016; Majd et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2017).

Given that not all youth may feel safe or comfortable disclosing sexual orientation and/or gender identities within the confines of the juvenile justice system, it is essential that efforts be implemented to ensure this population is being considered and included when working to prevent all youth from system involvement (Fedders, 2015). With that being said, if the juvenile justice system expects to adhere to its obligation of providing effective rehabilitative care and treatment to all youth, concerns pertaining to sexual orientation, gender identities, and gender expression must be given a greater focus—especially as it relates to heightened oppression against intersecting identities (Fedders, 2015).

Individualized services that foster the general well-being of youth within the juvenile justice system can only begin to happen once there is a much needed and long overdue recognition of the diversity that encompasses sexual orientation, gender identities, and gender expression (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2015) and an understanding of the societal challenges experienced by such youth that increase risk factors for system involvement. A number of these complex and multifaceted domains will be further explored throughout this study.

Context Within Counseling Psychology

Sexual and gender minorities have a long-founded history of societal injustices, and among sexual and gender minority youth, this population continues to face disparities in various facets of daily life, including but not limited to, an increased likelihood and rate of bullying,

suicide, depression, and substance use, in addition to greater health inequalities (CDC, 2019), higher rates of discipline within school systems, negative contact with law enforcement, and entry into the juvenile justice system than heterosexual counterparts (Mountz, 2016, 2020; Poteat et al., 2016a). Upsettingly, the discipline of psychology has also contributed to the marginalization, stigmatization, and pathologizing of sexual and gender minorities (Baughey-Gill, 2011; Johnson et al., 2019), as homosexuality was deemed a mental illness in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) until 1973 (Hereck, 2009).

However, in years following, the American Psychological Association (APA) has called upon members of the profession to advocate for sexual and gender minorities and to oppose discrimination directed toward this population (Anton, 2009; Conger, 1975; Drescher, 2015). Johnson et al. (2019) have described a responsibility among psychological scholars to research the foundation of disparities that sexual and gender minorities continue to experience in society in order to help eradicate these inequalities that have resulted in such marginalization. Similar calls to action focused on increased attention to inequities experienced by sexual and gender minorities have been placed by the APA (2012, 2015) and other organizations (e.g., National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities, 2016), in addition to joint statements focused on the eradication of violence and discrimination against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people (United Nations, 2015).

Counseling psychology, a specialty housed within the realm of professional psychology, is rooted in key principles such as social justice, advocacy, action, prevention, multicultural practice through a strengths-based approach (Delgado-Romero et al., 2012; Hartung & Blustein, 2002; Ivey & Collins, 2003; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). In considering such principles, Fouad et al. (2006) described social justice as ensuring equity among all individuals, “regardless of

race, gender, ability status, sexual orientation, religious affiliation, or physical makeup” (p. 1). Within the context of counseling psychology, this includes striving to transform social institutions, political and economic systems, and governmental entities that contribute to unjust practices and policies as they relate to accessibility, the dissemination of resources, and human rights (Fouad et al., 2006). Given the overrepresentation of sexual and gender minority youth in the juvenile justice system, the victimization and mistreatment that such youth experience in homes, communities, and frequently lead to system entry, and further abuse experienced within the system, the guiding principles of counseling psychology call for greater attention to be placed on this societal injustice impacting disproportionately minoritized youth.

Quintana et al. (2012) described a psychological science of diversity, noting the importance of research focused on race and ethnicity in counseling psychology. Not only have studies indicated the overrepresentation of minority populations within the juvenile justice system, specifically as it pertains to African American and Latinx youth (Leiber & Fix, 2019), but findings have also revealed increased rates of involvement within the juvenile justice system based on intersecting identities including race, class, age, ability status, gender, gender identity, and sexual orientation, in addition to histories of trauma and mental health concerns (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2008; Mendoza et al., 2020; Mountz, 2016).

Sexual orientation is not limited to gay, lesbian and bisexual youth, gender identity is not limited to transgender youth, and gender expression is something that pertains to every youth—regardless of whether one does or does not conforms to gender norms (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2015). Providing safe environments that recognize and respect youth of varying gender identities and sexual orientations offers permission for youth to discover their developing identities, assists in the prevention of sexual and gender minority oppression and bias, and

encourages the well-being of each and every youth in an autonomous, affirming, and supportive manner (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2015). The holistic, action-based values and guiding principles of counseling psychology align with the need for greater recognition and understanding of risks pertaining to juvenile justice involvement among sexual and gender minority youth. In doing so, such efforts can work toward transforming an oppressive system that has historically overlooked, mistreated, and victimized sexual and gender minority youth to one that fosters safety, understanding, support, and growth for all youth.

Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze existing literature pertaining to the rate of juvenile justice involvement among sexual minority youth, to explore system-related concerns, and examine both risk factors that lead to system involvement and differences in treatment toward sexual minority youth within the system in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying counterparts. This study will then more accurately identify differences in offenses and charges, trauma history, personality dimensions, parental perceptions of and relationships with their children, and strengths and sources of resiliency among self-identified sexual minority juvenile youth in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth. These dimensions will be analyzed by scores on various measures including the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-2 SRP-A), the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-3-SRP-A), the *Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms* (CROPS), the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Adolescents* (MMPI-A), the *Parent/Guardian Questionnaire* (PGQ), and the *Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children* (TSCC).

This study will include archival data from sexual minority (e.g., mostly straight, gay, lesbian, bisexual) identifying juvenile youth (males and females) between the ages of 13 and 17. The sample used in this study was selected through the identification of a sexual minority identity (e.g., mostly straight, gay, lesbian, bisexual). While this research will identify the need for more studies focused on gender minority juvenile youth, this study will focus specifically on sexual minority juvenile youth. Data collected and will be analyzed through self-report from juvenile youth who were mandated by the state of Georgia to receive counseling services and/or psychological evaluation(s) following adjudication from masters and doctoral-level graduate students at the University of Georgia involved in the Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program (JCAP).

The Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program (JCAP) is a research and treatment program for juvenile youth within the University of Georgia's Counseling Psychology program, that aims to serve, protect, and best meet the needs of juvenile youth (Calhoun et al., 2001). Sexual minority participants were identified by self-report either to graduate student clinicians during the receipt of counseling services or psychological evaluation testing, to their probation officer, or to the Chief Judge of the Athens-Clarke County Juvenile Court at the time of court involvement. The primary aim of this study is to gain more detailed insight and information about the needs of sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system and explore similarities and/or differences that may exist among this population in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth. Doing so will allow findings from this study to contribute to pre-existing literature on this topic and provide direction on future research, education, and areas of advocacy for sexual minority juvenile youth.

Research Questions

1. Are there differences between personality, as measured by the BASC-2 SRP-A, BASC-3-SRP-A, MMPI-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Hypothesis 1: There are significant differences between personality dimensions, as measures by the BASC-2 SRP-A, BASC-3 SRP-A, and MMPI-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

2. Are there differences between charges set forth by the juvenile justice court system one-year post service date and two years post service date among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Hypothesis 2: There are differences between charges set forth by the juvenile justice court system one-year post service date and two years post service date among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

3. Are there differences between trauma histories, as measured by the CROPS and TSCC, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Hypothesis 3: There are differences between trauma histories, as measured by the CROPS and TSCC among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

4. Are there differences between parental or guardian perceptions of their children, as measured by the PGQ, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Hypothesis 4: There are differences between parental or guardian perceptions of their children, as measured by the PGQ, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

5. Are there differences between parental (or guardian) relationships, self-esteem, and resilience, as measured by the adaptive scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A and BASC-3 SRP-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Hypothesis 5: There are significant differences between parental (or guardian) relationships, self-esteem, and resilience, as measured by the adaptive scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A and BASC-3 SRP-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

Definition of Terms

Many of the following terms, as they pertain to sexual orientation and gender identity, may be significantly inadequate to describe the expansive and individualized identities of other individuals—especially when considering that such terms may evolve and progress over time (Singh, 2018). Therefore, the following terms, which only comprise of certain identities rather than the full spectrum of identities that individuals may hold, are specific to this study.

- **Adjudicated Youth**

Adolescents involved in the juvenile justice system between the ages of 12 and 17 who have been determined as having committed a crime, per the court (Juvenile Justice Information Exchange, 2019).

- **Adjudication**

The juvenile court's formal finding that is presented following an adjudicatory hearing or a guilty plea/admission from the juvenile youth in question (National Juvenile Defender Center, 2020).

- **Bisexual**

An individual who is attracted (emotionally, romantically, or sexually) to more than one sex, gender, or gender identity (HRC, 2020).

- **Cisgender**

A person whose gender identity and gender expression are aligned with their sex assigned at birth (APA, 2015).

- **Cisnormative; Cisnormativity**

An assumption and expectation within the greater societal and cultural context that all individuals identify as cisgender (Bauer et al., 2009).

- **Corrective Rape**

A form of rape in which a perpetrator attempts to "correct" an individual of any group that does not conform to gender norms or heterosexuality (Doan-Minh, 2019)

- **Disposition**

A decision that dictates how a juvenile youth's case will be handled following an adjudication. Dispositions may often result in fines, restitution, community service, in-

home placement under supervision or probation, or out-of-home placement in commitment facilities (National Juvenile Defender Center, 2020).

- **Felony**

Although not equivalent across states in the United States, this is considered the most serious type of offense that can lead to more than one year in prison (Department of Justice, n.d.).

- **Gay**

An individual who is attracted (emotionally, romantically, or sexually) to someone of the same gender (HRC, 2020). Within the context of this study, this term will pertain to individuals who identify as boys or males.

- **Gender Conforming**

A term that pertains to individuals who behave in a manner that conforms to traditional expectations of their gender (as denoted by societal expectations), or whose gender expression similarly conforms to societal expectations.

- **Gender Expansiveness**

This term refers to a more encompassing and flexible scope or spectrum of gender identity and/or gender expression than what might otherwise be linked to societal expectations of a binary construct of gender (HRC, 2020).

- **Gender Expression**

The manner in which an individual presents themselves, which includes physical appearance, choice of clothing and accessories, and behaviors that portray components of gender identity or gender role (APA, 2015).

- **Gender Identity**

“A person’s deeply-felt, inherent sense of being a boy, a man, or male; a girl, a woman, or female; or an alternative gender (e.g., genderqueer, gender nonconforming, gender neutral) that may or may not correspond to a person’s sex assigned at birth or to a person’s primary or secondary sex characteristics. Since gender identity is internal, a person’s gender identity is not necessarily visible to others” (APA, 2015, p. 834).

- **Gender Minority**

Within the confines of this study, this term will be used to individuals who identify as transgender, intersex, or whose gender identities or expressions do not adhere to binary constructs of gender and/or sex assigned at birth (NIH, 2020).

- **Gender Non-conforming**

A term that pertains to individuals who do not behave in a manner that conforms to traditional expectations of their gender (as denoted by societal expectations), or whose gender expression may not conform to societal expectations (HRC, 2020).

- **Gender Norms**

A term used to describe social norms that define actions that are deemed as “acceptable and appropriate” for women and men within a group or societal context, which can in turn, have an impact on disparities pertaining to access and liberties (Cislaghi & Heise, 2019, p. 415)

- **Heteronormative; Heteronormativity**

An assumption and expectation that all individuals identify as heterosexual.

- **Homophobia**

A fear and hatred of, sense of discomfort toward, or prejudice against individuals who are attracted to members of the same gender (HRC, 2020).

- **Juvenile Youth**

Adolescents involved in the juvenile justice system between the ages of 12 and 17 will be referred to as juvenile youth within the framework of this study.

- **Lesbian**

A woman who is attracted (emotionally, romantically, or sexually) to other women (HRC, 2020).

- **LGBTQ**

An acronym that encompasses the terms “lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer” (HRC, 2020).

- **Misdemeanor**

Commonly a petty offense that is less severe than a felony, resulting in a fine or jail time of less than one year (United States Department of Justice, n.d.).

- **Mostly Straight**

A term used to describe individuals who identify predominantly as heterosexual but experience a degree of attraction to individuals of the same gender (Wilson et al., 2017).

- **Pronoun(s)**

Within the context of this study, a word or words individuals use to refer to themselves when being spoken about in the third person (e.g., she/her, he/him, they/them, etc.) (HRC, 2020).

- **Queer**

A term that may be used by individuals to describe sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression that does not conform to cisnormative, heteronormative, or gender norm expectations (APA & NASP, 2015).

- **Questioning**

A term used to describe individuals who are exploring their sexual orientation or gender identity (HRC, 2020). Within the context of this study, this term will specifically refer to the continued exploration of one's sexual orientation.

- **Reparative/Conversion Therapy**

Encompasses an array of harmful and discredited practices (which have been largely condemned by medical and mental health organizations) that are directed at changing an individual's sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression (HRC, 2020).

- **Sexual Minority**

Within the confines of this study, this term will be used to encompass individuals who identify as lesbian, gay, and bisexual (Wilson et al., 2017).

- **Sexual Orientation**

Part of an individual's identity that includes their sexual and emotional attraction to someone else and resulting behaviors and/or social affiliations (APA, 2015).

- **Status Offense**

This term refers to nonviolent, noncriminal acts such as truancy, running away from home, curfew violations, underage alcohol consumption, and ungovernability that are only deemed a violation of the law due to the youth's status as a minor (OJJDP, 2015).

- **Transphobia**

A fear and hatred of, sense of discomfort toward, or prejudice against transgender people (HRC, 2020).

- **Transgender**

An umbrella term used to depict individuals whose gender identity and/or gender role do not conform to their sex assigned at birth (APA, 2015).

- **Ungovernable; Incurable**

As per the juvenile justice system, a status offense that pertains to a youth being “beyond the control” or “lawful control” of their parent or guardian (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, n.d., p. 1).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

For decades, a widespread myth has dispersed throughout the juvenile justice system—a myth that has caused so many youths within this system to go unnoticed (Curtin, 2002). This myth, that sexual minority, gender minority, and gender nonconforming youth are minimally detained or involved in the juvenile justice system has proven to be inaccurate, while also causing undue harm to an already marginalized and targeted population. Given western society’s preconceived notions that sexual minority and gender nonconforming persons are most commonly white, middle class individuals, juvenile justice professionals are frequently misled to believe that this population is not one that might be present in jurisdictions where the majority of detained youth are comprised of youth of color (Irvine, 2010).

In order to better understand the needs and concerns of sexual and gender minority youth within the juvenile justice system from a holistic perspective, it is important to first discuss risk factors faced by this population in addition to experiences in various facets of these youths’ lives, which is what the literature reviewed in this chapter will aim to accomplish.

LGBTQ Youth In Juvenile Justice System Overview

While research has indicated that sexual and gender minority youth are overrepresented within the juvenile justice system, juvenile justice professions appear to have significantly different perspectives as to how many such LGBTQ youth they have worked with (Majd et al., 2009). In fact, one anonymously interviewed juvenile defender stated, “The court system, police,

probation, and child welfare are all happy to pretend these kids don't really exist" (Majd et al., 2009, p. 43). One particular juvenile judge posited, "This is not our [the judges'] problem. I don't really have anything to say about gay youth in my courtroom. I don't think there have been any that I am aware of" (Majd et al., 2009, p. 43). However, of note was the fact that various colleagues disclosed that numerous sexual and gender minority youth had recently gone through that specific court system in months prior (Majd et al., 2009). Similarly, when discussing the topic of sexual minority and gender conforming youth with a high-ranking probation officer within a large city in 2008, the probation officer exclaimed, "I've worked in this system for twenty-five years and in all of that time I think we've had three of [these types of youths]" (Irvine, 2010, p. 676). A separate study described a residential staff member in 2011 who stated, "it was about five years ago that we started getting all these gay kids" (Holsinger & Hodge, 2014, p. 34).

Sexual minority, gender minority, and transgender youth are not new to the juvenile justice system, but rather, have historically been overlooked and disregarded by this system (Wilber, 2015). In part, this has led many sexual and gender minority youth to withhold their identities in order to avoid the mistreatment and victimization that has long plagued LGBTQ youth in the juvenile justice system (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2015). Only recently have policies been enacted to address the needs of sexual minority, gender non-conforming, and transgender youth (Wilber, 2015), yet the overrepresentation of LGBTQ youth in the juvenile justice system and in detention, as well as the continued victimization of this population show that such needs are not being met (Center for American Progress [CAP] & Movement Advancement Project [MAP], 2016; Irvine and Canfield, 2017). Violence, harassment, and accrued trauma—much of which is compounded upon police contact and entry into the juvenile

justice system on the basis of race, sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression highlight the importance of understanding system involvement and experiences within the community among queer and transgender youth of color (Mountz, 2016, 2020)

The 2017 Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) indicated that nearly 2.4 percent of U.S. adolescents identified as gay or lesbian, 8.0 percent identified as bisexual, and 4.2% reported not being certain of their sexual orientation. Studies from the Center for Disease Control (CDC) found that among high school students between the ages of 14 and 17, approximately 12 percent of girls and nearly 4.5 percent of boys identified as lesbian, gay, or bisexual (Kann et al., 2016). Within the juvenile justice system, records indicate that there are approximately 300,000 non-heterosexual and transgender youth arrested and/or detained annually (Fedders, 2015). Based on results of a self-administered survey completed by 1,400 detained youth across seven detention centers in the United States between 2013 and 2014, nearly twenty percent of respondents identified as a sexual minority, gender nonconforming, or transgender youth— indicating overrepresentation in comparison to rates of LGBTQ identifying youth in the U.S. (Irvine & Canfield, 2017, 2016). Youth of color were also overrepresented within this identified population, comprising of eighty five percent (Irvine, 2017).

Previous research appears to have continuously shown overrepresentation among LGBTQ youth in the juvenile justice system, especially among lesbian and bisexual girls when compared to similarly identifying youth in the general population (Belknap et al., 2012; Buttar et al., 2013). For example, according to a 2012 federal agency survey (N=8,785), 39.4 percent of girls and 3.2 percent of boys in juvenile correctional facilities identified as lesbian, gay, or bisexual (Wilson et al., 2017). Results indicated disproportionality among sexual minority girls when compared to that of the general population and approximate proportionality among sexual

minority boys when compared to that of the general population (Kann et al., 2016).

Disproportionality among sexual minority girls appears to be aligned with rates of disproportionality among sexual minority women—specifically women of color among incarcerated adults in jails and prisons (Meyer et al., 2017).

In a 2008 study of 2,100 youth in pre-detention throughout six jurisdictions in the U.S., 15 percent of participants identified as a sexual minority or gender non-conforming youth, with equal numbers of white, African American and Latinx youth identifying as LGB and gender nonconforming (Irvine, 2010). Gender non-conforming youth (3 percent heterosexual and 3 percent LGB identifying, respectively) have a greater probability of being identified within the juvenile justice system, whereas youth who identify as LGB and gender conforming (9 percent) have a greater likelihood of remaining invisible while entering the juvenile justice system (Irvine, 2010). These results appeared comparable to that of Majd et al. (2009), who found that LGBT youth comprise of 13 to 15 percent of individuals currently in the juvenile justice system.

When looking at other prior findings, results have indicated that 12 percent of adjudicated youth in custody (N=2,200) identified as non-heterosexual (Beck et al., 2013). Other results have found that 31.4 percent of surveyed first-time offending, court-involved, nonincarcerated adolescents (N=423) identified as a gender or sexual minority, with 19.6 percent of surveyed youth identifying as non-heterosexual (Hirschtritt et al., 2018). In a systematic review and meta-analysis of 31,258 youth in the juvenile justice system, 11.5 percent identified as a sexual minority (Johnson et al., 2019). Results also indicated that sexual minority girls having an increased risk of juvenile justice system involvement when compared to heterosexual girls within the community (30.6 percent and 15.5 percent, respectively) (Jonnsnson et al., 2019).

When considering the results of such research, it is important to be mindful of the questions being asked in such surveys and disclosure rates among sexual and gender minority youths. For example, Hirschtritt et al. (2018) indicated that many of the youth in their study who identified as gender or sexual minorities would have otherwise not been counted, had there not been multiple questions asked to assess for youth identity. Additionally, aside for risk factors that may indicate more severe medical concerns, mental health, and forensic-related outcomes, there did not appear to be any other differences between surveyed sexual minority and heterosexual adolescents, which has indicated the importance of inquiring into sexual and gender minority status in different ways to ensure that these youth do not continue to be invisible and underserved (Hirschtritt et al., 2018). Majd et al. (2009) added that data collection on sexual orientation and gender identity—specifically within the juvenile justice system is challenging, given that not all youth may feel safe or comfortable disclosing this information with others.

Irvine (2010) posited that while the juvenile justice system is predominantly comprised of youth of color, sexual and gender minority youth of color are faced with a uniquely challenging dilemma. LGBTQ youth of color who disclose their identities may experience a loss of support on multiple levels, yet keeping their identities hidden jeopardizes invisibility in the juvenile justice system which already falsely perceives all LGBTQ youth to be white (Wilber, 2015). Given that disclosing sexual orientation and gender identity has resulted in many youth experiencing significant rates of homelessness (Cochran et al., 2002), bullying, victimization, and rejection from peers, family members, teachers, and juvenile justice staff and professionals, including judges, (D’Augelli, 2002; D’Augelli & Grossman, 2001), it is understandable why adjudicated youth would want to keep part of their identity hidden as to avoid further maltreatment.

In fact, among surveyed juvenile justice professionals, there was a collective agreement that sexual and gender minority youth experience acute forms of abuse, harassment, isolation, and varying levels of disrespect due to their sexual orientation or gender identity (Majd et al., 2009). Specifically, numerous surveyed youths reported that juvenile justice professionals were adamant about not accepting their sexual or gender minority identity (Majd et al., 2009). Findings also indicated that two-thirds of sexual and gender minority youth survey respondents believe that LGBT bias is a “very serious” or “somewhat serious problem,” causing many LGBT youth to not disclose their identities due to concerns of discrimination and repercussions they might face by professionals with prejudiced perspectives and biases (Majd et al., 2009). In a different study of surveyed LGBTQ youth engaged in survival sex in New York City, responses revealed that 44 percent had negative experiences within the court system, as many had experienced refusal from judges, prosecutors, and court offices to use correct names or pronouns during court proceedings (Dank et al., 2015). Numerous respondents from the same study reported having received disrespectful and hurtful remarks about their sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression by involved juvenile justice professionals (Dank et al., 2015).

Sexual minority and gender non-conforming youth are at twice the risk of being arrested and detained for minor, victimless status offenses that are often interconnected to circumstances of victimization, homelessness, financial insecurity, and survival (Wilber, 2015). Irvine (2010) described this as being cyclical in nature with sexual minority and gender non-conforming youth experiencing abuse, familial rejection, and detention for charges typically pertaining to truancy, warrants, probation violations, running away, sex work, and selling drugs (Irvine & Canfield, 2017). Given the stigma, discrimination, homophobia, and transphobia that target sexual and gender minorities, LGBT youth are also at greater risk of interaction with law enforcement,

criminal charges, unjustified detention, and abuse in various custodial environments (Wilber, 2015).

Risk Factors Overview

When working with sexual minority adolescents, it is important to be familiar with risk factors faced by the population, such as an increased likelihood of victimization (Toomey & Russel, 2016), partaking in alcohol and drug use (Marshal et al., 2008; Marshal et al., 2009), engaging in risky sexual behavior (Valleroy et al., 2000; Coker et al., 2010), and meeting Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) criteria for mood and anxiety related disorders (Mustanski et al., 2010). However, it is essential that professionals recognize the impact that prior and current experiences may have had on such risk factors.

Youth involved in the juvenile justice system have commonly experienced various forms of trauma, violence, and discrimination (Majd et al., 2009). When considering sexual and gender minority adolescents, studies indicate that this population has a greater likelihood of having experienced victimization (Birkett et al., 2009; Bontempo & D'Augelli, 2002; Corliss et al., 2009; D'Augelli et al., 2006; Hunter, 1990; Pilkington & D'Augelli, 1995; Russel & Joyner, 2001) self-injurious behaviors, suicidal ideation, and both suicide attempts and suicidal behaviors than heterosexual, cisgender counterparts (Balsam et al., 2005; D'Augelli, 2002; Diamond & Lucas, 2004; Eisenberg & Resnick, 2006; Liu & Mustanski, 2012; Marshal et al., 2011; Ybarra et al., 2015).

Sexual and gender minority youth have also been found to have increased rates of physical and sexual abuse reporting during childhood and adolescence when compared to heterosexual and cisgender peers, with sexual minority girls and gender non-conforming youth at particular risk (Wilson et al., 2017; see also Alvy et al., 2013; Dank et al., 2014; Friedman et al.,

2011; Kann et al., 2016; Roberts et al., 2012; Walters et al., 2013). In fact, sexual minority youth have been found to be 2.9 times more likely to have experienced childhood sexual abuse than heterosexual youth, with increased probabilities of childhood sexual abuse among sexual minority boys (4.9 times) than heterosexual identifying boys (Friedman et al., 2011).

Studies have indicated that rates of 30 percent of LGBTQ identifying youth have experienced some form of violence upon disclosing their sexual or gender minority identity to their families (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011). The impact of negative familial reactions and rejection during adolescence has been linked to LGB young adults being 8.4 times more likely to have attempted suicide, 5.9 times more likely to report more severe rates of depression, 3.3 times more likely to engage in illicit drug use, and 4.4 times more likely to partake in unprotected intercourse (Ryan et al., 2009). Hirschtritt et al. (2018) found that among surveyed participants in their study, there was a higher likelihood of sexual minority youth identifying as female, having previously engaged in mental health service provision, reporting greater substance use and intoxication during intercourse, having more severe mental health related concerns, post-traumatic symptomology, and self-harm as opposed to heterosexual counterparts. With regard to higher rates of substance use among sexual and gender minority youth (Birkett et al., 2009; Bontempo & D'Augelli, 2002; Garofalo et al., 2006; Russel & Joyner, 2001; Salomonsen-Sautel et al., 2008), studies have correlated substance use to a means of externalizing behaviors for many sexual and gender minority youth (Newcomb et al., 2012; Rosario et al., 2011). In fact, research has alluded to an increased rate of substance abuse among youth who have experienced trauma to cope with past memories (Eth, 2001).

Stigma surrounding sexual orientation and gender orientation (Ryan & Futterman, 1998), in addition to prior experiences of victimization and rejection amongst family have shown to

have a corollary effect on health and mental health concerns, HIV status, engagement in substance use, and repercussions on adolescent identity development in comparison to peers with more accepting families (Heck et al., 2014; Katz-Wise et al., 2016; Marshal et al., 2009, 2011; Ryan & Diaz, 2005; Ryan et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010). The impact of such rejection or familial victimization may also lead to running away, being evicted from one's home due to unacceptance, or placement in a group home or foster care (Friedman et al., 2011; OJJDP, 2014).

Victimization, Homelessness, and the Child Welfare System

Commensurate to previously described risk factors, studies on sexual minority and gender non-conforming youth have shown considerable rates of child abuse, sexual assault, victimization, homelessness, and parental discord (Burwick et al., 2014; Sullivan et al. 2001; Wilson et al., 2017). In fact, sexual minority and gender non-conforming youth have been found to be twice as probable to have experienced child abuse, placement in foster care or a group home, and homelessness, in comparison to heterosexual and gender-conforming youth (Irvine, 2010). Sexual and gender minority youth have also been disproportionately overrepresented within the child welfare system (Wilson and Kastanis, 2015) including foster care (Wilber et al., 2006) and group homes (Wilson et al., 2014)—other such systems where many of these youth have experienced continued victimization (Cochran et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 2015; Woronoff et al., 2006).

A 2013 telephone survey of 786 youth in long-term foster care in Los Angeles County indicated that 19 percent of youth between the ages of 12 and 21 in foster care identified as a sexual or gender minority—most of whom (93.6 percent) identified as youth of color, and many of whom were either born outside of the United States and/or whose parent(s) were born outside the United States (Wilson et al., 2014). More than twice the amount of LGBT youth described

having been treated negatively by the foster care system in comparison to heterosexual and cisgender youth (Wilson et al., 2014). Reports from sexual and gender minority youth in Washington State’s juvenile justice and child welfare systems indicated that 60 percent of respondents felt unsafe or uncomfortable disclosing their identity to staff members (Ganzhorn et al., 2015). Of lesbian and gay youth in New York City’s child welfare system, 56 percent of respondents reported having occasionally lived on the streets due to feeling safer there than in group or foster homes (Mallon, 1998).

Results of life history interviews with young adults indicated that most participants had been involved with the child welfare system, and had overlapping experiences of either switching schools, having worsening experiences within schools, or not having adequate support systems—especially when starting new schools within foster care (Mountz, 2020). Some participants reported being victimized due to their sexual orientation or gender identity, and described experiences of sexual assault, abuse, and corrective rape (Mountz, 2020). Notably, responses indicated an evident path between foster care placements, residential treatment facilities, negative school experiences, and involvement within the juvenile justice system (Mountz, 2020).

Frequently, service provision from the child welfare system, either by service providers or caregivers, are founded in biased and oppressive worldviews that cause undue harm to the youth (Wilber, 2015). When this happens, LGBTQ youth experience cyclical unstable and insecure placements (Mallon et al., 2002), and consequentially, when such systems unceasingly fail this youth, they are commonly directed to the “system of last resort,” the juvenile justice system (Wilber, 2015, p. 30). Given the increased risk factors that sexual and gender minority youth already face, such results appear aligned with findings from other studies that have

approximated that nearly 30 percent of children within the child welfare system will also become involved within the juvenile justice system (Smith et al., 2005; Vidal et al., 2017). Similar results have indicated higher risks of involvement within the juvenile justice system for youth within the child welfare system (Marshall & Haight, 2014; Ryan & Testa, 2005), in addition to disproportionate involvement within the child welfare system and juvenile justice system for youth of color—specifically African American youth (Herz et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2012; Ryan & Testa, 2005). Findings from a different study have also indicated that sexual minority youth leaving foster care have greater outcome-related risks pertaining to education, employment, housing, and finances when compared to heterosexual youth (Shpiegel & Simmel, 2016).

In considering the amount of home removals among identified LGBTQ youth, 20 percent of adjudicated gay, bisexual and questioning boys and 33 percent of lesbian, bisexual, and questioning girls in custody had been removed from their homes due to some form of abuse in comparison to 9 percent of heterosexual boys and 19 percent of heterosexual girls (Irvine, 2010). Findings also indicated that 32 percent of gay, bisexual, and questioning boys and 40 percent of lesbian, bisexual, and questioning girls had experienced homelessness after running away or having been kicked out of their homes in comparison to 16 percent of heterosexual boys and 23 percent of heterosexual girls (Irvine, 2010). Findings from a study of white and Latinx youth in California indicated that 42 percent of participants (more than four in ten) living in foster care or other out-of-home placements cited family rejection as to why they left their homes (Ryan & Diaz, 2005).

Sexual and gender minority youth are overrepresented among homeless youth (Corliss et al., 2011; Durso & Gates, 2012), and comprise of approximately 20 to 40 percent of homeless

youth in the United States, many times due to familial discord and rejection over one's sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression (Durso & Gates, 2012; Ventimiglia, 2012). Various defenders, probation officers, and juvenile justice professionals who had experience working with homeless sexual and gender minority youth reported that charges often consisted of shoplifting, which frequently pertained to basic necessities such as toothpaste and deodorant, and in some instances, clothing associated with gender identity for youth who were otherwise not able to acquire such clothing (Majd et al., 2009). While homeless youth have a greater likelihood of interactions with law enforcement (Ray, 2006), negative health and mental health concerns, substance use, physical abuse, and sexual exploitation and victimization, these risks are significantly greater for homeless LGBTQ youth (Kosciw et al., 2012; Van Leeuwen et al., 2006).

School Related Concerns for Sexual and Gender Minority Youth

Research has highlighted the continuous maltreatment, verbal and physical harassment, and sexual violence experienced by LGBTQ middle and high students within school systems by peers and school staff due to their sexual orientation or gender expression (Kosciw et al., 2012). LGBTQ and questioning students have been found to experience harassment, cyberdating abuse, and bullying at alarmingly increased rates in comparison to other students (Mitchum & Moodie-Mills, 2014; Zwig et al., 2013).

National data acquired from the 2016 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) indicated that sexual minority youth had a greater risk of being bullied in school (34 percent compared to 19 percent) and online (28 percent compared to 14 percent) (Kann et al., 2016). These results correspond to other studies in which sexual minority youth reported increased amounts of peer victimization than heterosexual counterparts

(Russell et al., 2014; Russell et al., 2001). Results from the 2017 National School Climate Survey (N=23,001, ages 13-21) revealed that 59.5 percent of LGBTQ students reported feeling unsafe in school due to their sexual orientation, 44.6 percent due to their gender expression, and 35 percent because of their gender. In fact, data revealed increased amounts of verbal harassment (70.1 percent due to sexual orientation, 59.1 percent due to gender expression, and 53.2 percent due to gender expression), physical harassment (28.9 percent due to sexual orientation, 24.4 percent due to gender expression, and 22.8 percent due to gender), and physical assault (12.4 percent due to sexual orientation, 11.2 percent due to gender expression, and 10.0 percent due to gender) (Kosciw et al., 2018).

According to the results from the CDC's Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS), sexual minority students have been found to be two times as probable to experience threats or injuries with weapons at school than heterosexual peers (10 percent compared to 5 percent) and one in three sexual minority students reported having experienced bullying within the past year (34 percent) in comparison to heterosexual students (19 percent) (Kann et al., 2016). In a national study, more than one-third of LGBTQ secondary students reported avoiding physical education class due to fears pertaining to safety (Kosciw et al., 2016). In fact, 75.4 percent of sexual and gender minority students surveyed in the 2017 National School Climate Survey reported avoiding school-related events and 70.5 percent reported avoiding extracurricular activities due to safety-related fears and discomfort (Kosciw et al., 2018).

Increased victimization among LGBTQ students have been associated with greater rates of truancy, course and school failure, lower academic grades and grade point averages, more frequent alcohol, cigarette, and marijuana use, more severe depression, decreased self-esteem, school discipline, being nearly two times as likely to not want to pursue a postsecondary

education, increased likelihood of carrying a weapon to school, and increased chances of involvement within the juvenile justice system (Kosciw et al., 2018; Palmer & Greytak, 2017; Poteat et al., 2016). In fact, sexual and gender minority students who experienced discrimination based on sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression were nearly three times as probable (44.6 percent compared to 15.7 percent) to have missed school within the past month as opposed to those who had not experienced such discrimination (Kosciw et al., 2018).

In many cases, bullying within school systems has also resulted in increased risk factors among LGBTQ youth including substance use and emotional distress (Birkett et al., 2014; Reisner et al., 2015), as well retaliation (Majd et al., 2009). However, research has indicated that sexual and gender minority students, especially girls, experience disproportionate and more severe discipline within the school and justice systems than heterosexual peers (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011; Piquero, 2008; Potet et al., 2016). Such disciplinary measures have not been found to be attributable to a greater amount of illegal or offensive behaviors (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011).

LGBTQ students have described being blamed for reporting victimization, being reprimanded for defending oneself, and being punished for engaging in public displays of affection and not adhering to gender norms through enforced dress codes (Burdge et al., 2014; Snapp et al., 2015). In fact, when students try to defend themselves in various ways against bullies, they are often suspended and may face criminal charges (Fedders, 2015). In a survey of LGBTQ middle and high school students (N=8,215), results indicated that sexual and gender minority youth who have experienced victimization at school have also experienced increased rates of discipline including referrals to the school administrative personnel, detention, suspension, and expulsion (Palmer & Greytak, 2017). However, as research has indicated, it is

important to recognize that lack of school staff intervention in victimization and bullying of sexual and gender minority students can result in avoiding school, which may consequentially lead to further disciplinary action due to truancy (Palmer & Greytak, 2017).

Interviews with formerly incarcerated queer and transgender youth of color in New York between the ages of 18 and 25 indicated that being perceived as queer or transgender often resulted in unjust disciplinary targeting from school personnel through overlooking instances of frequent bullying and misinterpreting instances in which the youth would engage in self-defense (Mountz, 2020). Surveyed LGBTQ students in a separate study who did not report instances of harassment or assault to school personnel (55.3 percent) reported either not feeling as though staff interference would provide beneficial intervention or that the situation could worsen if reported (Kosciw et al., 2018). Of those students who did report such instances, 60.4 percent indicated that school personnel either did not intervene or instructed the student to ignore the situation (Kosciw et al., 2018). In a different study, participants who had reported victimization to school personnel but were met with further victimization or unhelpful responses described a greater likelihood of school discipline and involvement within the juvenile justice system than students who received helpful responses from school personnel (Palmer & Greytak, 2017).

The 2017 Youth Risk Behavior Survey indicated that in comparison to heterosexual students (6.1 percent), a greater amount of sexual minority students (10 percent) reported missing school due to concerns of safety (CDC, 2018). However, many of the resulting outcomes of bullying and victimization, such as truancy, expulsion, and dropping out of school, place LGBTQ students at an increased risk for contact with law enforcement rather than support and protect those youth being victimized (Thomas, 2020).

While school systems have enforced disciplinary methods such as suspensions and expulsions, such measures have been found to increase a youth's probability of being referred to the juvenile justice system (Peguero & Bracey, 2015; Skiba, 2013; Mendoza et al., 2020). In fact, between 1973 and 2006, suspension rates of K-12 students significantly increased from 3.7 to 6.9 per 100 students, with racial disparities having significantly increased as well (Losen & Gillespie, 2012; Losen & Skiba, 2010; Skiba et al., 2011). Between the escalation of suspension and expulsion rates currently being higher than the past four decades (U.S. Department of Education, 2016) and "zero tolerance" discipline policies enforced within school systems that repeatedly target youth of color and LGBTQ youth of color (CAP & MAP, 2016), disproportionate disciplinary actions against LGBTQ and students of color have resulted in more LGBTQ youth of color being exposed to, and funneled through the school-to-prison pipeline (Burdge et al., 2014; Meiners, 2011; Mitchum & Moodie-Mills, 2014; Snapp et al., 2015).

In considering intersecting identities such as race, ethnicity, gender identity, and disability status, findings from 2013-2014 data indicated that while African American and Latinx students formed 40 percent of the total student population in the United States, this collective group represented 51 percent of total referrals to law enforcement and 55 percent of total school-related arrests (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2014). In fact, African American students have been found to have a threefold likelihood of suspension, whereas African American females have a six-fold likelihood of suspension when compared to white peers (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2014). Further, studies reveal that African American females receive more severe punishments than white counterparts for similar behaviors (Blake et al., 2017), with African American females being 2.7 more probable of referral to the juvenile justice system than white females (Epstein et al., 2017). While African American students experience increased rates of more severe discipline for less

severe and more subjective “offenses” in comparison to other peers, African American females are no more probable to partake in unsafe or serious transgressions at school in comparison to other peers (Gregory et al., 2010; Skiba, 2013), highlighting the disproportionate disciplinary repercussions that frequently target these students (Mendoza et al., 2020).

Research has also indicated increased rates of repercussions against ethnic minority youth, who have often been exposed to stark differences in treatment both within school and juvenile justice settings (Piquero, 2008), which has been compounded by a greater likelihood of bullying among students who identify as both an ethnic and sexual minority (Kosciw et al., 2009). When factoring in disability status, not only do students with disabilities experience discipline and exclusionary disciplinary practices at higher rates than non-disabled peers (Sullivan et al., 2014), but students with disabilities are at an increased risk of suspension in comparison to peers (Sullivan & Bal, 2013; Vincent et al., 2012; Wagner et al., 2004). In fact, students with disabilities have been identified as being twice as likely to receive a school suspension when compared to non-disabled peers (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2014). Students with reported disabilities have been found to be representative of 12 percent of the student population within the United States but have disproportionately (25 percent) experienced school-related arrests and referrals to the juvenile justice system (Villalobo & Bohannon, 2017). Findings from a 2012 study indicated that nationally, nearly seven percent of students receive suspensions, yet rates for suspension among students with disabilities have been estimated to exceed 15 percent (Losen & Gillespie, 2012).

Research has posited that students with disabilities comprise of 30 to 60 percent of the entire youth population within the juvenile justice system (Bullis & Yavanoff, 2005; Morris & Morris, 2006; Quinn et al., 2005), with increased risks for students diagnosed with emotional

behavior disorder or specific learning disability (Sinclair et al., 2017), and even greater risks for students of color with disabilities (Mendoza et al., 2020). Factoring in disability with intersecting identities of race and gender identity significantly increase the risk for exclusionary disciplinary practices (Fabelo et al., 2011) and juvenile justice system referral (Christle et al., 2005). The impact of such disciplinary measures places students with intersecting identities including race, gender, and disability at a severe disadvantage in terms of over-exposed vulnerability to the school-to-prison pipeline (Annamma, 2016; Crenshaw, 1989).

As indicated by student reports in Palmer and Greytak's (2017) survey, increased school discipline has resulted in more involvement with the justice system, which has included arrest, adjudication, and detention in either a juvenile or adult facility. In fact, results from a study in Dane County, Wisconsin denoted a greater likelihood of school suspensions and involvement within the juvenile justice system among sexual minority youth (Poteat et al., 2016). Studies have posited that the negative consequences of suspension can be more impactful for students with no prior or current history of behavioral concerns, indicating that disciplinary action against such youth can, in fact, result in possible involvement in the juvenile justice system (Monahan et al., 2014). Further, every suspension thereafter increases one's risk for future arrest (Mowen & Brent, 2016). Such risks may have detrimental implications on already disproportionate youth such as sexual and gender minority youth (Poteat et al., 2016), and especially sexual and gender minority youth of color. In a national study of 1,367 middle and high school students, findings revealed that sexual and gender minority students were at increased likelihood of experiencing school discipline (63 percent compared to 46 percent), in addition to being more likely to have been sent to the principal's office (38 percent compared to 25 percent), assigned detention (45 percent compared to 33 percent) and suspended (25 percent compared to 15 percent) (Greytak et

al., 2016). Findings from a different study indicated that sexual minority youth had experienced greater rates of school suspension and involvement within the juvenile justice system than heterosexual youth who had engaged in similar transgressions (Poteat et al., 2016a).

Sexual and gender minority students are frequently deprived of the opportunity to explore their identities, be themselves, and engage in learning and growth within a safe environment (Palmer & Greytak, 2017). Discriminatory, biased, and adverse school atmospheres can have a significantly negative impact on what should be a time of positive social involvement and academic growth, which are not only important aspects of adolescent development, but also important factors in lessening rates of student misconduct and discipline (Skiba et al., 2014; Wilber, 2015). Bullying and victimization can impact one's academic standing and the likelihood of completing high school, which can ultimately impact pathways to continued education and career opportunities, thus resulting in an increased risk of being involved with the juvenile justice system (Palmer & Greytak, 2017).

Policing Against Sexual and Gender Minority Youth

In comparison to heterosexual youth, sexual minority youth are at increased risk for being arrested by the police and being charged with stricter sanctions in court (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011). In fact, results of Himmelstein and Brückner's (2011) study indicated that sexual minority youth, particularly girls, experience more criminal charges than heterosexual youth and that non-heterosexual youth are 1.25 to 3 times greater probability to receive sanctioning than heterosexual youth. When factoring in race, similar findings were reported in a survey of sexual and gender minority youth in New Orleans, in which 87 percent of LGBTQ youth of color reported having been approached by law enforcement officers in comparison to 33

percent of White LGBTQ youth (BreakOUT! And the National Council on Crime & Delinquency, 2014).

Results from interviews conducted in 2011 with 283 sexual and gender minority youth, young men who have sex with men, and young women who have sex with women—all of whom engaged in survival sex in New York City indicated that two-thirds of respondents disclosed having been stopped, questioned, and frisked by police at least once, with 19 percent reporting weekly, and sometimes daily encounters with law enforcement (Dank et al., 2015). Participants shared that such contact with the police was frequently due to profiling based on race, sexuality, and gender nonconformity (Dank et al., 2015). In another study comprising of 414 surveys and 65 interviews with juvenile justice professionals (including judges, defense attorneys, prosecutors, probation officers, detention personnel, and juvenile justice advocates), and focus groups and interviews of 55 youth, approximately seventy percent of respondents reported that police mistreatment was either a “very serious” or “somewhat serious” concern for sexual and gender minority youth (Majd et al., 2009).

Studies have indicated that engaging in self-defense upon experiencing harassment on the streets led to greater risks of police interactions among queer and transgender youth of color, which often resulted in heightened abuses of power (Mountz, 2016). In fact, several focus group members comprised of sexual and gender minority and questioning young people in New York reported having been given tickets for having their feet on subway seats, sitting in a playground after dark, and wearing clothing that police officers believed was “offensive” (Stoudt et al., 2011). Approximately two-thirds of surveyed sexual and gender minority youth described encounters with police as occasionally negative in comparison to 18 percent who described such encounters as occasionally positive (Dank et al., 2015). In fact, for LGBTQ youth who have had

encounters with law enforcement, such encounters have been reported as negative, especially for youth of color and gender non-conforming youth (Amnesty International, 2005; Dank et al., 2015; Graham, 2014; Majd et al., 2009; Mountz, 2016; Wilson et al., 2017). One-third of participants in one study reported feeling unsafe while being arrested, booked, and detained prior to arraignment and reported experiences of violence and abuse from the officers (Dank et al., 2015). Such abuse comprised of verbal harassment, physical assault, sexual assault, rape, being offered release from custody in exchange for sex and rape, having personal property stolen or destroyed, and not being assisted upon reporting crimes against police (Dank et al., 2015). Additionally, among surveyed LGBTQ youth in New Orleans, 59 percent of transgender youth and 12 percent of cisgender sexual minority youth reported having received a request for sexual favors by the local police force (BreakOUT! And the National Council on Crime & Delinquency, 2014). Similarly, sexual and gender minority youth in New York City were more than twice as probable to have reported negative sexual contact with police officers within the past six months when compared to non-LGBTQ youth (Stoudt et al., 2011).

Such negative and often abusive interactions make it difficult for LGBTQ youth to seek assistance from the police due to perceptions of not feeling safe or protected by law enforcement (Rios, 2011). Policing methods that further target and marginalize sexual and gender minority youth also negatively impact all youth by conveying the message that identity exploration and identity identification outside of a heteronormative and cisnormative society is unacceptable and requires punishment (Garnette et al., 2011).

Youth-Related Risk Factors for Incarceration

There are various risk factors specifically associated with transgender youth involvement within the juvenile justice system—some of which include rejection, abuse or neglect within

families, and running away from home (Thomas, 2020). These risk factors extend to sexual and gender minority youth who may experience rejection and victimization within their homes, schools, and communities, which frequently leads to withdrawal and isolation, increased challenges and failure within school, homelessness, and involvement in other public systems of care (Wilber, 2015). In fact, sexual minority youth have a three-time likelihood of being incarcerated than heterosexual counterparts (Meyer et al., 2017).

Racial and economic disparities also contribute to disproportionate rates of incarceration among youth and sexual and gender minority youth. In a survey of more than 1,100 incarcerated sexual and gender minority adults, 58 percent reported having been arrested prior to the age of 18, with Black and Latinx respondents having increased rates of arrest at youth (Lyndon et al., 2015). More broadly, in comparison to White youth, research has indicated that in 2011, the rate of residential placement for Black youth was 4.5 times higher and the rate for Latinx youth was 1.8 times higher (OJJDP, 2014), with increased disproportions in certain states (W. Haywood Burns Institute, 2016). In 2014, youth of color between the ages of 10 and 17 comprised of 16 percent of the total youth population within this age range. However, youth of color in this age group comprised of 34 percent of youth arrested, 38 percent of youth adjudicated, and 68 percent of youth placed in residential facilities (Children's Defense Fund, 2014). Studies have indicated that such disparities based on race are not caused by higher rates of offenses or transgressions among youth of color (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2008). In fact, one study revealed that although White youth reported selling drugs at increased rates in comparison to African American youth, the White youth were half as likely to be arrested for drug related offenses (Beaty et al., 2007).

It is important to note that such disparities are not exclusive to racial differences, as studies have shown disparities based on socioeconomic status as well, which frequently intersect with racial and sexual and gender minority identities. In fact, Woodhouse (2002) indicated that low-income youth have a greater likelihood of entering the juvenile justice system and receiving the harshest dispositions in comparison to non-low-income youth. More specifically, White, upper middle-class LGBT youth are less likely to be involved in the juvenile justice system, given a foundation of racism and classism which most often targets poor youth of color as the most probable to be arrested, detained, prosecuted, and strictly punished (Birckhead, 2012). Even though familial rejection due to sexual and gender identities is not exclusive to any particular race, children from wealthier backgrounds have a lesser likelihood of homelessness and juvenile justice system involvement due to financial access to private or other services (Birckhead, 2012). When considering racial and socioeconomic disparities within the juvenile justice system, it is important to recognize that policing and systemic biases and responses have a greater impact on these disparities than differences in the rate of offenses (Majd et al., 2009).

For youth who experience homelessness, sexual and gender minority youth must commonly partake in activities in exchange for their survival, including but not limited to sex work, theft, and selling drugs, which results in an increased risk of arrest and prosecution (Majd et al., 2009). Of surveyed sexual and gender minority youth engaged in survival sex in New York City, 37 percent identified as African American or Black, 22 percent identified as Latinx, and 30 percent identified as multiracial, which considering policing disparities pertaining to race and sexual and gender identities, such youth experienced increased risks of contact with law enforcement (Dank et al., 2015). LGBTQ youth and youth involved in same-sex behaviors have also been individually targeted and arrested, charged, and adjudicated at alarmingly

disproportionate rates for sex offense laws and violations of age-of-consent laws in comparison to heterosexual youth (Majd et al., 2009). Not only can such laws have damaging repercussions for youth being miscategorized and unjustly charged, but these laws are frequently disregarded when heterosexual youth are in question for such offenses (Hunt and Moodie-Mills, 2012; Majd et al., 2009).

Familial discord due to a youth's sexual orientation or gender identity (whether actual or perceived) can result in the youth's involvement within the child welfare or juvenile justice system (Fedders, 2015). In fact, among sexual and gender minority youth, family acceptance has been found to be a pivotal protective factor (Majd et al., 2009), whereas leaving one's home due to family rejection has been described as the most significant predictor of future possible involvement within the juvenile justice system (Fedders, 2006). This is in addition to parents or guardians having the option to petition juvenile courts for status offenses against their child with the goal of enforcing the youth to obey and conform to parental rules—commonly through “ungovernability” or “incorrigibility” offenses (Majd et al., 2009; Fedders, 2015). In fact, one juvenile defender described parents occasionally involving the court in concerns related to their children because “[t]here's a sense the court can control the sexuality of the children [by bringing] the hammer down” (Majd et al., 2009, p. 63). Further, one interviewed intake officer described that 9 of the 10 sexual and gender minority youth in her jurisdiction have been given charges of ungovernability, curfew violations, or truancy due to parental opposition of their children's sexual orientation (Majd et al., 2009). Mountz (2020) further identified that the use of PINS (Persons In Need of Supervision) petitions by parents of interviewed youth was a means of attempting to control the youths' sexual orientation and/or gender identity due to homophobic and transphobic beliefs and worldviews.

Even though overwhelming evidence points to the essential role families have in positive or negative outcomes of cases pertaining to youth delinquency, courts, probation agencies, and correctional systems infrequently involve families in decision-making processes or in the development of disposition plans (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2009). This concern is exacerbated when factoring in the elevated rate of family rejection that sexual and gender minority youth in the juvenile justice system experience, which also increases the probability that LGBT youth without familial support will receive disproportionately stricter reprimands by the system (Feinstein et al., 2001). This can have even more adverse implications on sexual and gender minority youth of color who have a lesser probability of receiving support from adults, family, or other support systems, which often results in an increased likelihood of survival strategies that might introduce LGBTQ youth of color to the juvenile justice system or continued involvement in the system (Mountz, 2020).

Of more than 400 surveyed justice and legal professionals, 90 percent reported that the absence of parental support is a significant problem for sexual and gender minority youth (Majd et al., 2009). Juvenile justice specialist, Dr. Marty Beyer stated “[a] kid coming into court wearing handcuffs and shackles versus a kid coming in with his parents—it makes a very different impression” (Redman, 2010, para. 3). Given that sexual and gender minority youth are twice as probable to be detained in jail or correction facilities prior to trial—including adjudication for nonviolent offenses, familial support, or lack thereof, this can have a significant impact on a possible conviction (Irvine, 2010; Redman, 2010). In fact, detained youth have a lesser likelihood of being able to contribute to their trial preparation, a lesser likelihood of leaving a positive impression on the judge, and have a greater likelihood of acquiring a more severe disposition compared to youth who are not detained pre-trial (Calvin et al., 2006).

Majd et al. (2009) described numerous cases in which sexual and gender minority youth were detained, regardless of the fact that they did not pose a flight or safety risk. Judges frequently consider histories of running away, truancy, and substance abuse as deciding factors as to whether a youth is a flight risk, even if the offense in question is nonviolent (Calvin et al., 2006). Given the impact that victimization and abuse may have on youth in school, at home, and associated coping mechanisms, sexual and gender minority youth may have an increased likelihood of being considered a flight risk and being detained (Majd et al., 2009). Screening tools and instruments may also contribute to decisions to detain youth, which may also disproportionately target sexual and gender minority youth (Majd et al., 2009). As explained by Laura Garnette, a former Director of Juvenile Probation, sexual and gender minority youth may score high on such measures—not because they necessarily are a flight risk, but because running away, truancy, substance abuse, and lack of familial support total to a higher score on these instruments (Majd et al., 2009).

One anonymously interviewed judge described how some judges who recognize the detriment that a lack of familial support can have on children might recommend counseling services to families who are experiencing difficulties accepting their child's sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression, adding however, that not all judges are prepared to work with such concerns (Majd et al., 2009). Another interviewed judge explained that services can, in fact, be beneficial to families, but only when such services exist and are accessible within the community, which speaks to the dire need to ensure accessible service provision to at-risk and vulnerable youth (Majd et al., 2009). Research has indicated that community-based programs focusing on immediate interventions are considered best practice for youth charged with status offenses and their families as opposed to the juvenile court (Mogulescu & Cao, 2008). Not only

are community programs that offer evidence-based practices more cost effective than detention, but they are also more effective to youth who are not considered to be a risk to public safety (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2009).

Research has identified that sexual and gender minority youth have twice the risk of being charged and held in secure detention for truancy, running away from home or a placement, prostitution, and arrest warrants (Irvine, 2010). While Irvine (2010) did not find differences among detention rates for violent offenses, weapon charges, property offenses, or substance related offenses between sexual and gender minority youth and counterparts, results indicated greater chances of detainment for sexual and gender minority youth due to non-violent offenses, which frequently traced back to out-of-home placements and homelessness (Irvine, 2010). LGBTQ youth have also experienced unjust and disproportionate rates of detainment pending trial for a multitude of reasons—some of which include parents rejecting custody of the youth, biased misperceptions that such youths are sexually exploitative or will not be safe in community settings, or detention being used as a safeguard when other, more appropriate alternatives have not been considered or when other placements have caused abuse and victimization (Majd et al., 2009).

Sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system are more likely to report prior experiences of being removed from their home, group home, or foster placement(s), homelessness (Irvine, 2010; Irvine and Canfield, 2016), abuse from family members, self-injurious behaviors, relational violence, and suicide attempts (Belknap et al., 2012; Buttar et al., 2013; Irvine, 2009). Further, given that court orders place expectations of youth to follow parental rules, stay home, and attend school, sexual and gender minority youth may be faced with the exceptionally challenging decision of remaining in unsafe environments or violating

probational terms, thus increasing the likelihood of secure detention (Garnette et al., 2011; Irvine, 2010). Professionals within the juvenile justice system are strongly urged to recognize associated risk factors, reasons for truant behaviors, and reasons for not wanting to stay at home or within one's assigned placement in order to ensure adequate and proper substitutions for detention and placement, or safe terms of probation (Irvine, 2010).

Another risk factor for incarceration is a lack of supportive and effective legal counsel for all youth, especially sexual and gender minority youth, which can result in increased probabilities of false confessions, wrongful convictions or unconstitutional pleas of guilt, and unsafe detention or incarceration (Calvin et al., 2006). Legal defenders must have an understanding of the impact that sexual and gender identity have within the lives of their clients and must recognize how sexual and gender minority youth are especially vulnerable to bias, abuse, and discrimination within the juvenile justice system (Fedders, 2006). It is also vital that defenders acknowledge how strongly held convictions and biases from law enforcement, court personnel, and corrections officers against sexual and gender minority youth and gender non-conforming youth further contribute to inequalities and mistreatment experienced by these youth (Mogul et al., 2011). Such bias has caused countless LGBT youth to experience unjust treatment within the juvenile justice system, including criminalization on the basis of their identity, unwarranted and extended incarceration, and various forms of assault and abuse, including verbal, physical, and sexual abuse (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2015).

Effective advocacy might not be taking place during detention hearings due to attorneys not knowing what questions to pose to clients, not being able to establish foundational trust with clients to obtain essential information, not knowing the extent or likelihood of abuse that many LGBT youth experience in detention or how to explain such information to the court, and also

not being familiar with alternatives to detention that can better serve LGBT youth (Fedders, 2006). One juvenile prosecutor stated that in delinquency courts, “sexual orientation is never brought to light,” highlighting the importance of defenders asking important questions in order to better understand and advocate for sexual and gender minority youth on all fronts within the juvenile justice system (Majd et al., 2009, p. 43).

Concerns Experienced By Sexual and Gender Minority Youth In Detention

While many youths in general experience harm while in placement and detention, studies have indicated that LGBTQ identifying or perceived youth in detention have a greater risk of verbal, physical, emotional and sexual abuse (Fedders, 2015; Wilber, 2015), and are sexually assaulted at disproportionate rates (Beck et al., 2016; Madj, 2009), which has indicated alarming similarities when compared to incarcerated adults (Fedders 2015). Further, in addition to greater risks for sexual and gender minority youth, youth in general who are charged and convicted as adults and placed into adult facilities have a fivefold likelihood of being sexually assaulted in comparison to youth in juvenile detention (Equal Justice Initiative, 2015). Transgender youth are also at an alarmingly high risk for youth-on-youth abuse and sexual assault (Majd et al., 2009). While legal cases in recent years have stated enforceable mandates to ensure the care and protection of transgender youth, correctional facilities are either not properly equipped or resourced, or staff do not have proper training and are unfamiliar with ways to meet the needs of transgender youth—especially the medical needs of this population (Majd et al., 2009; Thomas, 2020). Although several interviewed professionals reported wanting to better support transgender youth, they described not knowing how to adequately protect transgender youth in detention (Majd et al., 2009).

Aside for increased risks of facing discrimination, abuse, and violence while in detention, transgender and gender non-conforming may be forced to adhere to behavioral and regulatory norms associated with their sex assigned at birth (Marksamer, 2011). In fact, not only have transgender and gender non-conforming youth historically, and often continuously receive health care from health care professionals who are not properly or adequately trained in transgender-focused healthcare needs, but detention personnel may also refuse to call the youth by their identified name or pronouns or allow them wear clothing associated with their gender identity (Fedders 2015). Such experiences have been reported by all of the transgender youth in the focus groups of a different study (Majd et al., 2009). One study also highlighted significant differences among juvenile justice staff in terms of how they handled special requests from incarcerated girls, with some staff indicating beliefs that requests to use identified names or pronouns should not be approved or accepted (Holsinger & Hodge, 2014)

Results of the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) 2012 National Survey of Youth in Custody indicated that LGBTQ youth in confinement were approximately ten times more likely to be sexually assaulted than to heterosexual youth in confinement (Beck et al., 2013). In fact, although research has identified similarities between non-heterosexual and heterosexual youth reports of sexual victimization from staff members (7.5 percent and 7.8 percent, respectively), non-heterosexual youth were found to have considerably higher rates of victimization from fellow youth in comparison to heterosexual youth (10.3 percent and 1.5 percent, respectively) (Beck et al., 2013).

One study indicated that 80 percent of surveyed youth in the juvenile system reported that the absence of safety within detention was a significant problem (Hunt and Moodie-Mills, 2012). Some youth from the same study described having been exposed to reparative or conversion

therapy with the focus of altering the youth's sexual orientation (Hunt and Moodie-Mills, 2012). It should be noted that various national associations have taken stances against reparative or conversion therapy, including, but not limited to the American Psychological Association (Anton, 2010), the American Counseling Association (Whitman et al., 2013), and the Pan American Health Organization: Regional Office of the World Health Organization for the Americas (2012).

Research has described biased attitudes and behaviors toward sexual and gender minority youth that result in unjust treatment, disregard of health and medical concerns, disproportionate and unnecessary use of force, victimization—both sexually and physically, and lack of safety or protection by overlooking or dismissing reports of peer and staff harassment (Estrada and Marksamer, 2006; Feinstein et al., 2001; Holsinger and Hodge, 2014; Majd et al., 2009; Marksamer, 2008; Pasko, 2010; Wilber, 2015). While incarcerated sexual and gender minority youth may experience excessive and unwarranted administrative reprimanding (Wilson et al., 2017), staff misperceptions and stereotypes—especially of lesbian and bisexual girls as hostile, sexually exploitative, and masculine, can lead to further administrative punishment, criminalization, violence, verbal shaming, abuse, and excessive abuses of power (Holsinger & Hodge, 2014; Mountz, 2016; Pasko, 2010).

One study indicated that detention staff frequently “sexualize” sexual and gender minority youth by falsely interpreting interactions as sexual advances toward other youth, resulting in staff forcing LGBT to sit separately from other youth in order to prevent the youth from making “the other youth gay” (Majd et al., 2009, p. 104). Commensurate indications were reported by sexual minority girls who described inconsistent policies and practices being enforced upon sexual minority girls by staff in comparison to heterosexual counterparts

(Holsinger & Hodge, 2014). One such example included not being allowed to discuss relationships in groups due to concerns from detention personnel that such disclosures would encourage other girls within the facility to engage in sexual relations with one another (Holsinger & Hodge, 2014). Findings from Mountz (2016) indicated difficulties and ineffectiveness in reporting inconsistencies with policies or abuse, which participants disclosed has either resulted in isolation, extended time of incarceration, being labeled as a “snitch,” or other forms of retribution.

Fedders (2015) has described an institutional “culture” of homophobia within adult prisons, in which fighting is an expectation among incarcerated adults in order to demonstrate one’s masculinity. Other such research has indicated that staff responded to reports of sexual abuse with gendered connotations of being a “man” by fighting back (Buchanan, 2012). Similar cultures are expectedly prevalent among youth facilities as well (Fedders, 2015), as research has also alluded to sexual victimization targeting boys and men who may not or may not appear to “sufficiently” engage in male gender norms and perceived masculine stereotypes (Javaid, 2015; Weiss, 2008).

In considering the well-being of sexual and gender minority youth, intake officers seldomly inquire into sexual orientation or gender identity-related concerns with youth, especially as it pertains to safety (Thomas, 2020). Rather, detention staff knowingly, and frequently unknowingly, assign housing to LGBTQ youth that further imperils the youth (Majd, 2009). Specifically, transgender youth may be assigned housing without consideration of possible exposure to victimization and abuse from other youth in their surrounding (Fedders, 2015). Studies and firsthand accounts have also described sexual and gender minority youth being placed in isolating and restrictive environments, either due to harmful misperceptions that

the youth are sexually predatory, or so as to “protect” the youth from peer-based victimization (Majd, 2009). However, isolation does not protect youth from further potential victimization from staff members, (OJJDP, 2014), and multiple surveyed youth stated that isolation called more attention to the youth, which consequentially increased their risk of abuse (Majd et al., 2009). Research has also described the harmful effects that isolation might have on one’s health and mental health, including increased risk of suicide (Kaba et al., 2014; Bergen et al., 2015), and the impact on potential early release due to restricted access to re-entry focused programming (ACLU, 2013; OJJDP, 2014). This, of course, is in addition to the adverse effects that incarceration during adolescence can have on one’s physical health, mental health, education, and employment (Holman and Ziedenberg, 2006; Stokes et al., 2015; Teplin et al., 2012).

Sexual and gender minority youth are also often exposed to extended incarceration (Wilber, 2015), with sexual minority and mostly straight youth being two-to-three times more likely to remain in custody for one year or longer when compared to heterosexual youth (Wilson et al., 2017). In fact, a survey of more than four hundred juvenile justice personnel indicated that sexual and gender minority youth may experience greater risks of detention or residential placement than heterosexual, cisgender, and gender conforming youth (Majd et al., 2000). Among such placements, LGBTQ youth may face repercussions for expressing their gender identity, attraction or fondness to same-sex peers, defending themselves against harassment and victimization that target aspects of their identity, or for not admitting guilt to inappropriately afflicted charges such as sex-offending based on their sexual orientation (Wilber, 2015). Repercussions for any of the aforementioned actions may ultimately result in extended incarceration due to what may not be perceived as “successful rehabilitation” (Wilber, 2015).

Sexual and gender minority youth who do not present as a risk to themselves or others may also remain in custody for a prolonged amount of time due nonexistent or adequate alternative placements with the necessary competencies to serve LGBTQ youth (Majd et al., 2009). In fact, nearly 63 percent of surveyed juvenile justice professionals reported not knowing of sexual or gender minority-competent diversion programs in comparison to 37 percent of participants who reported knowing competent programs or resources that they believed would adequately serve LGBT youth (Majd et al., 2009)

Multiple individuals interviewed in one study reported that sexual and gender minority youth had been detained after disposition for one year, and sometimes more, due to placements not wanting to accept custody of LGBTQ youth or placements not being deemed appropriate for LGBTQ youth, thus delaying release from detention and court jurisdiction (Majd et al., 2009). Nearly 82 percent of surveyed juvenile justice participants stated that the absence of competent programming and placements for LGBT youth is a serious problem within the juvenile justice system, with 74 percent indicating that another serious problem is the absence of placements accepting of sexual and gender minority youth (Majd et al., 2009). While the juvenile justice system is meant to be rehabilitative in nature, increased time in detention has been found to raise the probability of future offending behavior, given that youth are removed from pro-social interactions and activities within the community (Calvin et al., 2006). A 2015 survey conducted by the Council of State Governments indicated that in numerous states, incarcerated youth do not receive the same degree of educational and vocational programming as youth outside of state facilities (Locked Out, 2015), which has implications on future risk factors upon one's release.

Among sexual and gender minority youth who leave the juvenile justice system, not having proper support systems frequently results in repeated negative contact with law

enforcement (CAP & MAP, 2016). This, of course, is in addition to numerous hardships to successful re-entry into society, which include schools not having the appropriate resources to re-assimilate the youth into the education system, familial-related concerns pertaining to finances, health, and support, or lack thereof, and dangerous community environments that do not provide pro-social support and sufficient medical and mental health services (CAP & MAP, 2016). Not being able to expunge one's record can also have negative consequences on housing and employment applications, which further contribute to added complications with re-entry into society (CAP & MAP, 2016).

It is important to note the positive impact that certain individuals can have on sexual and gender minority juvenile justice youth and formerly incarcerated LGBTQ young adults, which may include therapists, caseworkers, legal advocates, compassionate line staff, teachers, and mentors (Mountz, 2016). Participants in Mountz' (2016) life history interviews described the kindness, care, and assistance that many of these individuals displayed while in the juvenile justice system, and the importance of mentorship while in the re-entry process—indicating how significant support systems can be to sexual and gender minority youth currently and formerly involved in the juvenile justice system.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Description of the Sample

Participants meeting inclusion criteria for this study comprised of juvenile youth who were court-referred to receive clinical services by the Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice within the past two decades. Depending on the nature of the referral, clinical services either consisted of counseling services, a psychological evaluation, or a combination of both. Data for this study was collected by doctoral and masters-level graduate students from juvenile youth in community settings. Two samples were used within this study—sexual minority juvenile youth and non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth. Offenses against person(s), against property, against public order, drug charges, and status offenses were among the most frequent offenses committed by youth, as outlined by prior research in JCAP (Edner, et al., 2017). Refer to Table 1 for demographic characteristics pertaining to sexual minority identified youth, Table 2 for demographic characteristics pertaining to non-sexual minority identified youth, and Table 3 for total demographic characteristics.

Table 1.

| <i>Sexual Minority Identified Youth Demographic Characteristics</i> | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Cisgender Females | 18 | 51.4% |
| Cisgender Males | 17 | 48.6% |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| African American or Black | 29 | 82.9% |
| Caucasian | 4 | 11.4% |
| Latinx | 1 | 2.9% |
| Biracial | 1 | 2.9% |

Table 2.

| <i>Non-Sexual Minority Identified Youth Demographic Characteristics</i> | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Cisgender Females | 20 | 57.1% |
| Cisgender Males | 15 | 42.9% |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| African American or Black | 27 | 77.1% |
| Caucasian | 5 | 14.3% |
| Latinx | 3 | 8.6% |
| Biracial | 0 | 0% |

Table 3.

| <i>Total Demographic Characteristics</i> | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Cisgender Females | 33 | 47.1% |
| Cisgender Males | 37 | 52.9% |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| African American or Black | 56 | 80% |
| Caucasian | 9 | 12.9% |
| Latinx | 4 | 5.7% |
| Biracial | 1 | 1.4% |

A total of 70 participants, ages ranging from 13 to 17 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 15.27$, $SD = 1.10$ for total sample; $M_{\text{age}} = 15.21$, $SD = 1.01$ for sexual minority identifying youth; $M_{\text{age}} = 15.34$, $SD = 1.13$ for non-sexual minority identifying youth), were involved in the study ($N = 70$). The sample included more adolescent cisgender males (52.9%, $N = 37$) compared to cisgender females (47.1%, $N = 33$), with the predominant self-identified race comprising of African American or Black youth (80%, $N = 56$). Remaining sample demographics consisted of Caucasian participants (12.9%, $N = 9$), Latinx participants (5.7%, $N = 4$), and Biracial participants (1.4%, $N = 1$). Demographic information was self-reported through clinical interviews, court referral information, and delinquency history was provided by self-report and court records.

Design

Given that research on sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system has been limited in nature and has not included profiles between sexual minority and non-sexual minority youth, this study was comprised of an exploratory research design to more thoroughly analyze the research questions within this study (Shaddish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). The aim of this study was to explore similarities and differences among and between sexual minority and non-sexual minority juvenile youth. Gaining insight into the various dimensions of this study that was analyzed in greater detail among these two groups will allow this researcher to contribute to existing literature on the topic of sexual minorities within the juvenile justice system. The goal of this study focused on bringing greater attention to such concerns so that rehabilitative and preventative measures can be advocated for sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system and greater community.

Much of the existing literature on sexual minority juvenile youth has either focused on rates of sexual minority youth within the system, qualitative accounts, or youth experiences

within the confines of detention. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was most appropriate to compare and test statistical values between the two separate samples within this study—sexual minority juvenile youth and non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth (McDonald, 2014). A one-way ANOVA allowed this researcher to better understand various dimensions of concerns facing youth in the juvenile justice system—specifically from the context of sexual minority youth through a comparison of means of the measurement data among samples (McDonald, 2014).

Instruments

The instruments used in this study include the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-2 SRP-A), the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-3-SRP-A), the *Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms* (CROPS), the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Adolescents* (MMPI-A), the *Parent/Guardian Questionnaire* (PGQ), and the *Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children* (TSCC).

Behavior Assessment System for Children - Second Edition (BASC-2) and Behavior Assessment System for Children - Third Edition (BASC-3)

The *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition* (BASC -2), is a set of five primary measures initially published in the 1990s (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 1992), which included an array of measures and scales intended to assess behavioral and emotional adjustment, mental health and related symptoms, in addition to behavioral and emotional abilities among children (Kamphaus, 2015; see also Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). The *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition, Self-Report of Personality* (BASC-3-SRP-A) was developed to assess behavioral and emotional functioning in adolescents (Reynolds &

Kamphaus, 2015). The BASC-3 SRP-A is designed to obtain an adolescent's report related to their own adjustment across five composites, including: School Problems, Internalizing Problems, Inattention/Hyperactivity, Emotional Symptoms Index, and Personal Adjustment.

Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms (CROPS)

The *Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms* (CROPS) was initially developed on the foundation of symptoms pertaining to child trauma (Greenwald & Rubin, 1999; see also American Psychiatric Association, 1994; Fletcher, 1993). The child or adolescent is asked to endorse any symptoms they might have experienced within the past 7 days via items representing a range of post-traumatic symptoms (The National Child Traumatic Stress Network, 2020).

Parent/Guardian Questionnaire (PGQ)

The *Parent/Guardian Questionnaire* (PGQ) was initially developed as a more updated, briefer version of the Juvenile Offender Parent Questionnaire (JOPQ) (Glaser et al., 2000; see also Rose et al., 2004). The PGQ assesses for self-perceptions of parental efficacy by specifically measuring Parent Efficacy, Parent-Child Conflict, and Parent Monitoring, and Fear of Child in a juvenile court setting (Glaser et al., 2005).

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory–Adolescent (MMPI-A)

The *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory–Adolescent* (MMPI-A) (Butcher et al., 1992) was developed as a revision of the original *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* (MMPI; Hathaway & McKinley, 1943). The MMPI-A is a structured self-report questionnaire that provides a comprehensive evaluation of personality functioning in adolescents. Personality is conceptualized as a unique collection of traits and variables that together characterize the individual and influence their relationships with the world. The MMPI-A generates several independent scale scores that are combined to present a picture of how or to what extent a client

is experiencing psychopathology at the present time. In addition to providing insight into one's personality, it can be utilized as a diagnostic aid in clinical cases.

Trauma Symptoms Checklist for Children (TSCC)

The *Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children (TSCC)* is a self-report measure designed to assess posttraumatic distress and related psychological symptomology. The TSCC analyzes effects of varying types of child abuse, neglect, interpersonal violence, the witnessing of trauma, significant accidents, and disasters (Briere, J., 1996). The TSCC has a total of 54 questions with six clinical scales including: Anxiety, Depression, Anger, Posttraumatic Stress, Dissociation, and Sexual Concerns. On the TSCC, T-scores at or above 65 are considered clinically significant, and T-scores in the range of 60 through 65 are suggestive of difficulty and may represent subclinical symptomatology.

Data Collection

The data for this study has been collected by the Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program (JCAP) from clinical services provided to juvenile youth who were court-referred for counseling services or psychological evaluation testing by the Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice within the past twenty years. This researcher analyzed client case files and JCAP research databases dating back to 2000 in order to obtain a sample of sexual minority youth and non-sexual minority matched youth. A list of all former court-referred juvenile youth was also provided to the sitting Chief Judge of the Athens-Clarke County Juvenile Court at the time of this study, in addition to probation officers from the Department of Juvenile Justice in Athens, Georgia. The sitting Chief Judge and probation officers were asked to identify any youth with whom they have previously worked who have disclosed their sexual orientation at the time as that of a sexual minority. Findings from the Chief Judge and probation officers were

corroborated with data collected from the JCAP team. Data collected by doctoral and masters-level graduate students was analyzed via SPSS Statistics, a statistical analysis software.

Statistical Treatment

This study was meant to learn more about a commonly overlooked population within the juvenile justice system, with the goal of better understanding multifaceted dimensions of sexual minority youth in the system, in addition to concerns experienced by this population in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth. Statistical and correlational analysis was used to examine similarities and differences among the samples as they relate to personality dimensions, charges, trauma histories, and parental perceptions of their children, in addition to parental relationships, self-esteem, and resilience.

Assumptions

Although results of measures were analyzed for validity, for the purpose of this study, it has been assumed that all youth answered truthfully and honestly on each of the measures and assessments they were administered. It has also been assumed that all of the administered measures and assessments were valid, and that any invalid measures were removed from the sample and database.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There are significant differences between personality dimensions, as measures by the BASC-2 SRA, BASC-3 SRA, and MMPI-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

Hypothesis 2: There are differences between charges set forth by the juvenile justice court system among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

Hypothesis 3: There are differences between trauma histories, as measured by the CROPS and TSCC among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

Hypothesis 4: There are differences between parental or guardian perceptions of their children, as measured by the PGQ, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

Hypothesis 5: There are significant differences between parental (or guardian) relationships, self-esteem, and resilience, as measured by the adaptive scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A and BASC-3 SRP-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

In order to determine whether there were any differences in profiles on the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-2 SRP-A), the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-3-SRP-A), the *Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms* (CROPS), the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Adolescents* (MMPI-A), the *Parent/Guardian Questionnaire* (PGQ), and the *Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children* (TSCC), a one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted. Given the self-identified identities of the sample, for the purposes of this study, a two-category system was utilized. Each participant was assigned to only one group, either sexual minority identified youth ($n = 35$) or non-sexual minority identified youth ($n = 35$), based on their self-identified sexual orientation.

Findings

Research Question 1:

Are there differences between personality, as measured by the BASC-2 SRP-A, BASC-3-SRP-A, MMPI-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Analysis 1:

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-2 SRP-A), and

although significant differences were not indicated across BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 4. A comparison of the group means for the BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 1. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 4.1. Although significant differences were not indicated across BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales for each group are displayed in Table 5. A comparison of the discovered means for the BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 2. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales for each group are displayed in Table 5.1.

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-3 SRP-A) and although significant results were not indicated across BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales for each group are displayed in Table 6. A comparison of the group means for the BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 3. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales for each group are displayed in Table 6.1.

Although significant differences were not indicated across BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 7. A comparison of the group means for the BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 4. Results from the one-

way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 7.1. Although significant differences were not indicated across BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales for each group are displayed in Table 8. A comparison of the group means for the BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 5. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales for each group are displayed in Table 8.1.

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Adolescents* (MMPI-A), and results indicated significant differences among sexual minority identifying youth in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying youth on certain Clinical Scales and Harris-Lingoes Subscales (Clinical Subscales). Specifically, on the Paranoia (Pa) Clinical Scale, sexual minority identifying youth responses ($N = 18$) reported significantly higher scores ($M = 60.67, SD = 11.23$) compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth ($N = 19$) ($M = 52.95, SD = 10.59$). A statistically significant difference among non-sexual minority identifying youth was found as determined by a one-way Analysis of Variance ($F(1, 35) = 4.63, p = .038$).

Additionally, on the Social Alienation (Sc1) Harris-Lingoes Subscale, sexual minority identifying youth responses ($N = 18$) reported significantly higher scores ($M = 58.72, SD = 8.67$) compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth ($N = 19$) ($M = 51.63, SD = 11.36$). A statistically significant difference among non-sexual minority identifying youth was found as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1, 35) = 4.52, p = .041$).

The descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the MMPI-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 9. A comparison of the group means for the MMPI-

A Clinical Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 6. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the MMPI-A Clinical Scales for each group are displayed in Table 9.1. The descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales for each group are displayed in Table 10. A comparison of the group means for the MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales among groups is displayed in Figure 7. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales for each group are displayed in Table 10.1. The descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the MMPI-A Content Scales for each group are displayed in Table 11. A comparison of the group means for the MMPI-A Content Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 8. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the MMPI-A Content Scales for each group are displayed in Table 11.1.

Table 4.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attitude to School | 52.25 | 12.30 | 2.75 | 52.36 | 9.33 | 1.99 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attitude to Teachers | 53.95 | 8.91 | 1.99 | 54.41 | 11.14 | 2.38 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Sensation Seeking | 48.60 | 9.43 | 2.11 | 50.32 | 10.49 | 2.24 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Atypicality | 49.70 | 9.43 | 2.11 | 51.27 | 10.54 | 2.25 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Locus of Control | 53.15 | 10.37 | 2.32 | 54.00 | 12.46 | 2.66 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Social Stress | 48.80 | 9.12 | 2.04 | 52.41 | 10.6 | 2.26 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Anxiety | 47.80 | 10.45 | 2.34 | 53.23 | 12.46 | 2.66 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Depression | 53.30 | 13.94 | 3.12 | 56.14 | 12.12 | 2.58 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Sense of Inadequacy | 53.75 | 11.64 | 2.60 | 57.73 | 14.31 | 3.05 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Somatization | 48.20 | 11.06 | 2.47 | 53.23 | 13.93 | 2.97 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attention Problems | 58.15 | 10.02 | 2.24 | 57.77 | 11.60 | 2.47 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Hyperactivity | 52.25 | 8.60 | 1.92 | 53.68 | 12.90 | 2.75 |

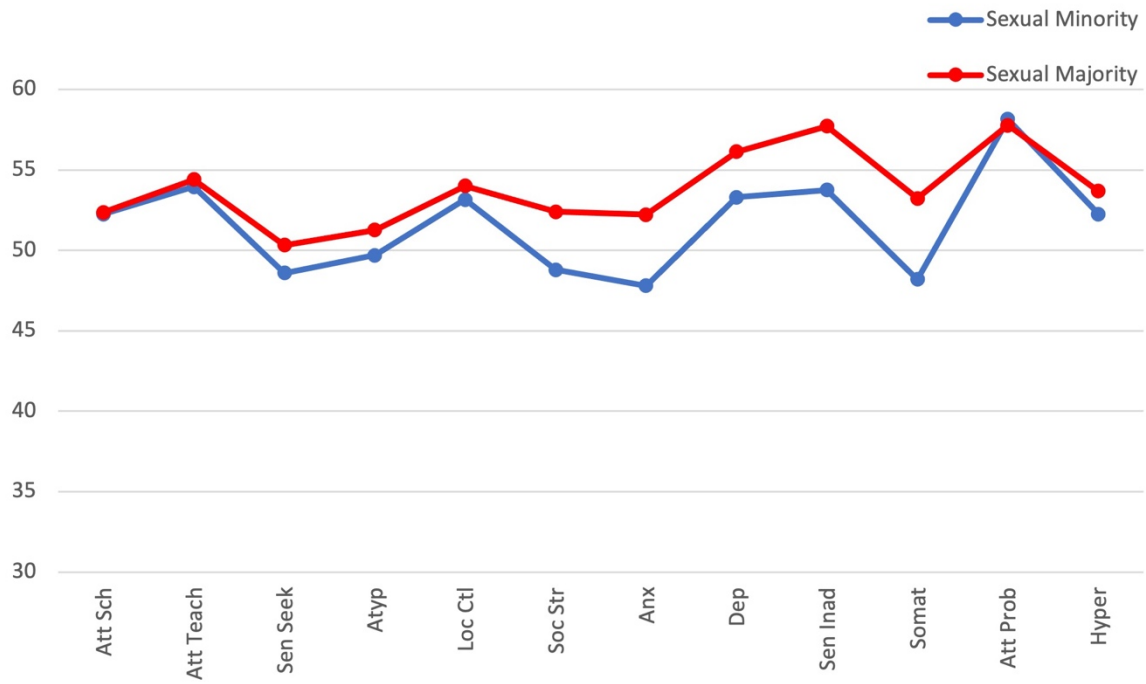


Figure 1. BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scales

Table 4.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attitude to School | .14 | 1 | .14 | .00 | .973 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attitude to Teachers | 2.21 | 1 | 2.21 | .02 | .884 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Sensation Seeking | 30.93 | 1 | 30.93 | .31 | .581 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Atypicality | 25.91 | 1 | 25.91 | .26 | .615 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Locus of Control | 7.57 | 1 | 7.57 | .06 | .812 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Social Stress | 136.46 | 1 | 136.46 | 1.39 | .246 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Anxiety | 308.58 | 1 | 308.58 | 2.31 | .136 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Depression | 84.28 | 1 | 84.28 | .5 | .485 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Sense of Inadequacy | 165.72 | 1 | 165.72 | .96 | .332 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Somatization | 264.77 | 1 | 264.77 | 1.66 | .206 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Attention Problems | 1.49 | 1 | 1.49 | .01 | .911 |
| BASC-2 SRP-A Hyperactivity | 21.48 | 1 | 21.48 | .18 | .678 |

Table 5.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2-SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Composite Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-2-SRP-A School Problems | 52.00 | 10.74 | 2.40 | 52.91 | 7.28 | 1.55 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Internalizing Problems | 50.90 | 11.89 | 2.66 | 55.27 | 12.53 | 2.67 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Inattention/Hyperactivity | 55.95 | 8.52 | 1.91 | 56.55 | 11.66 | 2.49 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Personal Adjustment | 45.60 | 9.67 | 2.16 | 48.18 | 10.63 | 2.27 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Emotional Symptoms Index | 51.45 | 11.17 | 2.5 | 55.41 | 12.38 | 2.64 |

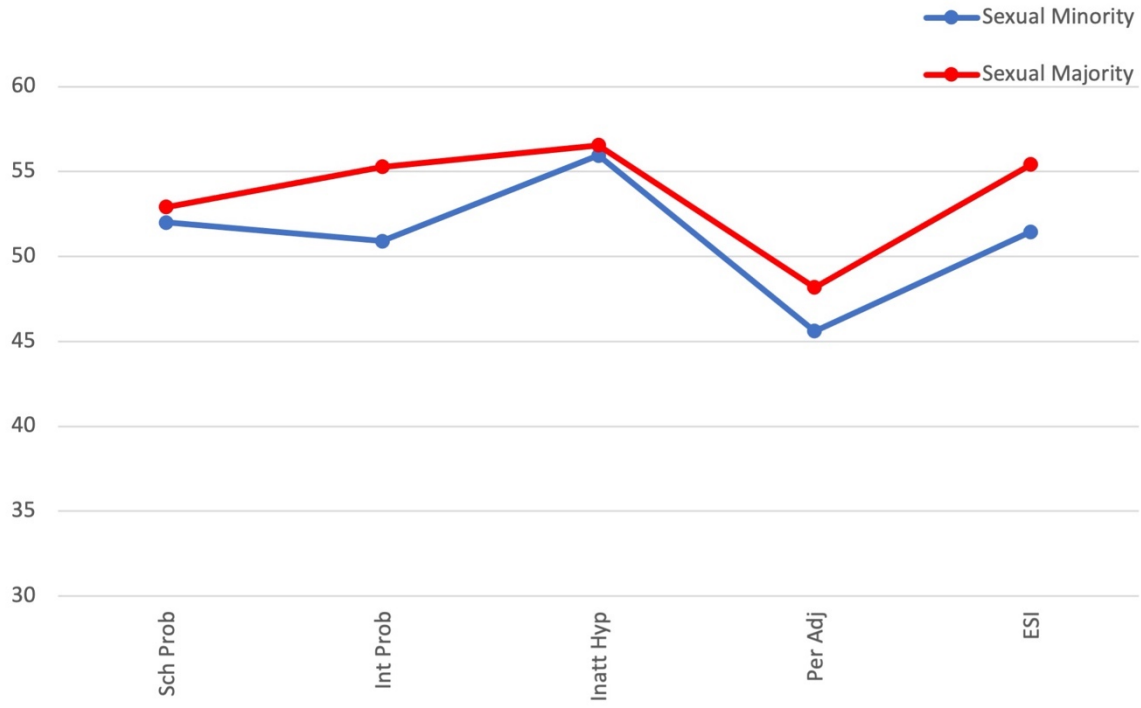


Figure 2. BASC-2 SRP-A Composite Scales

Table 5.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2-SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Composite Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-2-SRP-A School Problems | 8.66 | 1 | 8.66 | .11 | .748 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Internalizing Problems | 200.31 | 1 | 200.31 | 1.34 | .254 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Inattention/Hyperactivity | 3.72 | 1 | 3.72 | .04 | .852 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Personal Adjustment | 69.83 | 1 | 69.83 | .67 | .417 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Emotional Symptoms Index | 164.21 | 1 | 164.21 | 1.18 | .285 |

Table 6.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scale

Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group

Classification

| <u>Clinical Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|-----------|--|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attitude to School | 64.80 | 16.13 | 7.21 | 52.80 | 17.75 | 7.94 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attitude to Teachers | 59.80 | 9.73 | 4.35 | 57.80 | 11.43 | 5.11 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Sensation Seeking | 56.00 | 12.86 | 5.75 | 47.60 | 5.73 | 2.56 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Atypicality | 56.00 | 10.84 | 4.85 | 52.20 | 13.31 | 5.95 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Locus of Control | 52.00 | 11.81 | 5.28 | 48.20 | 13.68 | 6.12 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Social Stress | 51.80 | 10.06 | 4.5 | 50.00 | 11.9 | 5.32 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Anxiety | 53.00 | 17.93 | 8.02 | 50.80 | 10.26 | 4.59 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Depression | 59.40 | 14.66 | 6.55 | 53.20 | 20.80 | 9.30 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Sense of Inadequacy | 60.80 | 11.19 | 50.00 | 53.40 | 17.46 | 7.81 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Somatization | 49.80 | 12.66 | 5.66 | 46.20 | 3.42 | 1.53 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attention Problems | 58.20 | 12.5 | 5.59 | 52.20 | 15.32 | 6.85 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Hyperactivity | 58.00 | 14.27 | 6.38 | 52.80 | 11.19 | 5.00 |

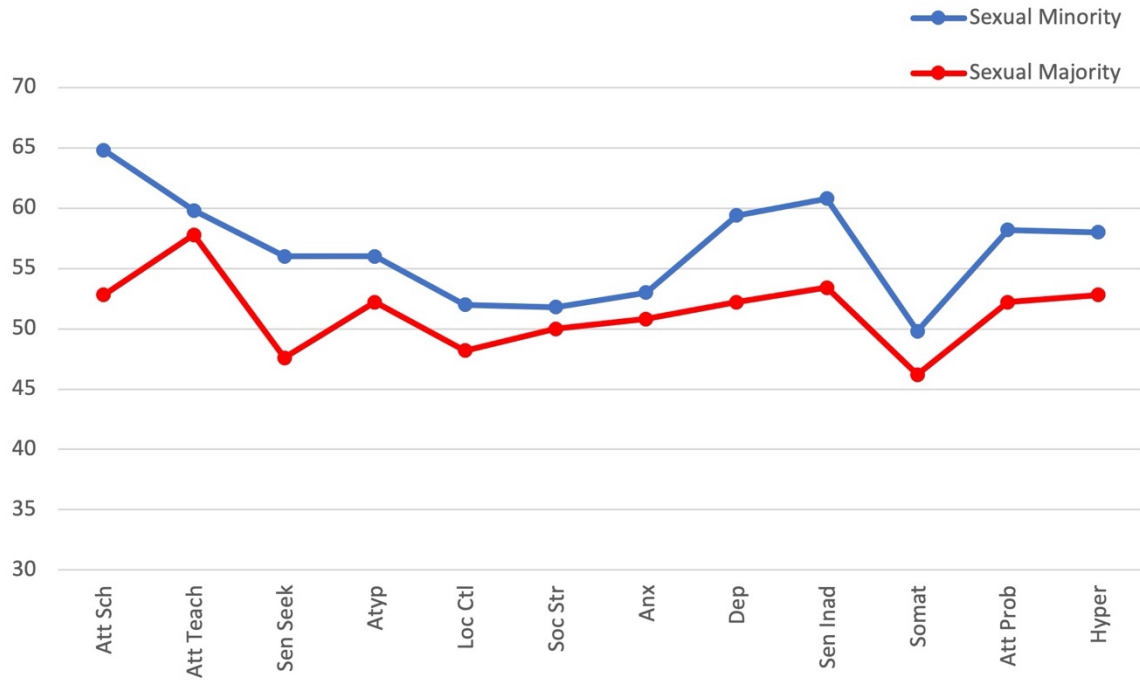


Figure 3. BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scales

Table 6.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Clinical Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attitude to School | 360.00 | 1 | 360.00 | 1.25 | .296 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attitude to Teachers | 10.00 | 1 | 10.00 | .09 | .773 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Sensation Seeking | 176.40 | 1 | 176.40 | 1.78 | .219 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Atypicality | 36.10 | 1 | 36.10 | .25 | .634 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Locus of Control | 36.10 | 1 | 36.10 | .22 | .651 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Social Stress | 8.10 | 1 | 8.10 | .07 | .803 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Anxiety | 12.10 | 1 | 12.10 | .06 | .818 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Depression | 96.10 | 1 | 96.10 | .3 | .601 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Sense of Inadequacy | 136.90 | 1 | 136.90 | .64 | .448 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Somatization | 32.40 | 1 | 32.40 | .38 | .556 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Attention Problems | 90.00 | 1 | 90.00 | .46 | .517 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Hyperactivity | 67.60 | 1 | 67.60 | .41 | .539 |

Table 7.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Composite Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A School Problems | 63.40 | 15.95 | 7.13 | 55.40 | 12.40 | 5.55 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Internalizing Problems | 55.60 | 13.94 | 6.23 | 51.20 | 14.52 | 6.49 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Inattention/ Hyperactivity | 58.80 | 14.06 | 6.29 | 53.00 | 13.21 | 5.91 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Personal Adjustment | 44.00 | 5.66 | 2.53 | 51.60 | 11.87 | 5.31 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Emotional Symptoms Index | 57.00 | 12.43 | 5.56 | 51.20 | 15.88 | 7.10 |

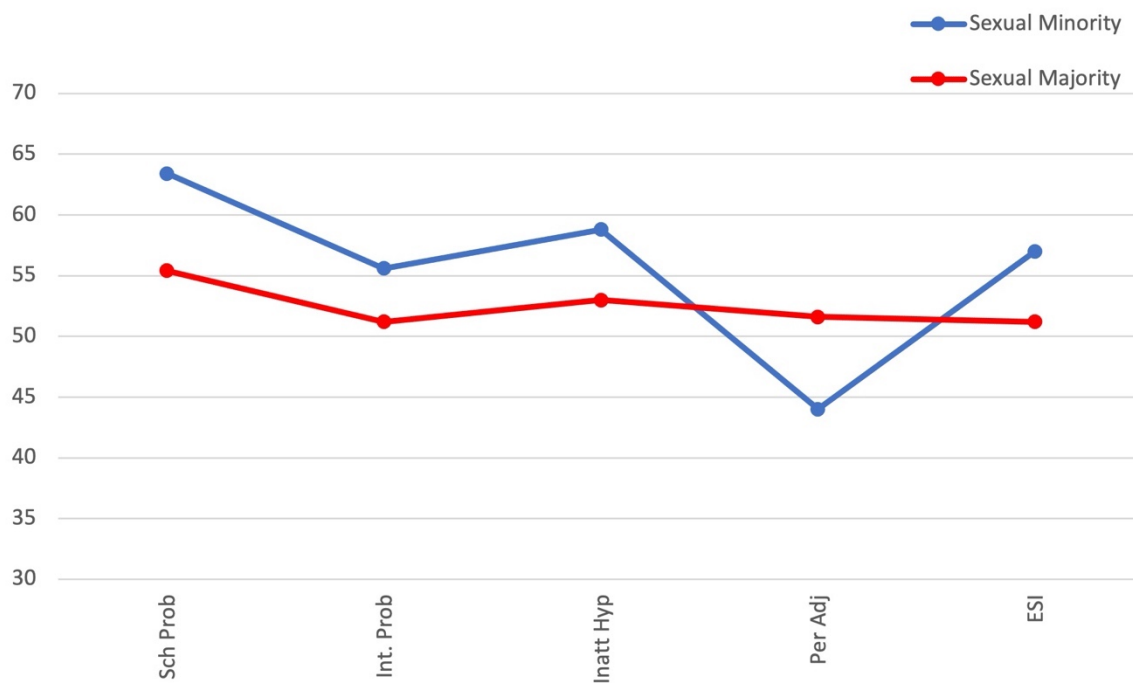


Figure 4. BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scales

Table 7.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Composite Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Composite Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A School Problems | 160.00 | 1 | 160.00 | .78 | .402 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Internalizing Problems | 48.40 | 1 | 48.40 | .24 | .638 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Inattention/Hyperactivity | 84.10 | 1 | 84.10 | .45 | .520 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Personal Adjustment | 144.40 | 1 | 144.40 | 1.67 | .232 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Emotional Symptoms Index | 84.10 | 1 | 84.10 | .41 | .538 |

Table 8.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Content

Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying

Group Classification

| <u>Content Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Anger | 70.00 | 20.86 | 10.43 | 50.20 | 9.42 | 4.21 |
| Control | | | | | | |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Ego Strength | 43.75 | 10.24 | 5.12 | 46.20 | 10.62 | 5.12 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Mania | 60.50 | 20.17 | 10.09 | 47.40 | 10.21 | 4.57 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Test Anxiety | 53.75 | 17.50 | 8.75 | 54.60 | 8.35 | 3.74 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Functional | 60.25 | 16.58 | 8.29 | 50.80 | 15.01 | 6.71 |
| Impairment | | | | | | |

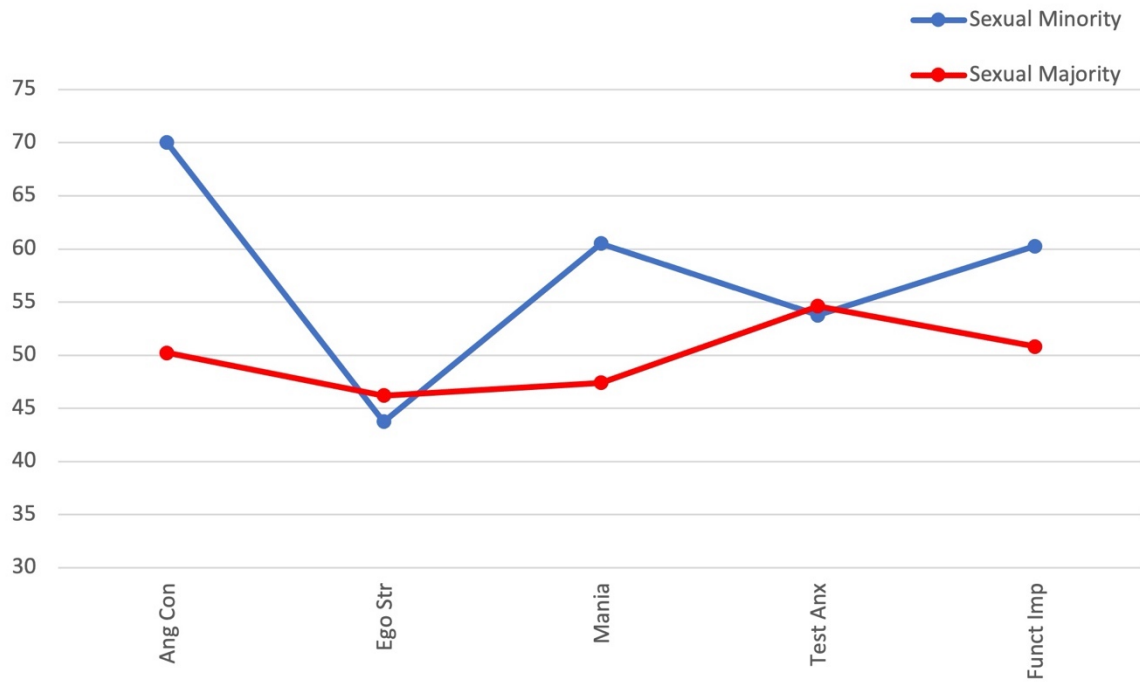


Figure 5. BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scales

Table 8.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Content Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Content Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Anger | 871.20 | 1 | 871.20 | 6.67 | .097 |
| Control | | | | | |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Ego Strength | 13.34 | 1 | 13.34 | .122 | .737 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Mania | 381.36 | 1 | 381.36 | 1.63 | .242 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Test Anxiety | 1.61 | 1 | 1.61 | .01 | .926 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Functional | 198.45 | 1 | 198.45 | .81 | .399 |
| Impairment | | | | | |

Table 9.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Clinical Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| 1-Hypochondriasis | 57.89 | 10.32 | 2.43 | 53.42 | 10.12 | 2.32 |
| 2-Depression | 60.00 | 7.11 | 1.68 | 57.32 | 8.14 | 1.87 |
| 3-Hysteria | 54.94 | 12.91 | 3.04 | 49.58 | 10.92 | 2.51 |
| 4-Psychopathic Deviate | 60.44 | 10.21 | 2.41 | 56.68 | 6.73 | 1.55 |
| 5-Masculinity-Femininity | 54.67 | 11.30 | 2.63 | 48.26 | 11.31 | 2.59 |
| 6-Paranoia | 60.67 | 11.23 | 2.65 | 52.95 | 10.59 | 2.43 |
| 7-Psychasthenia | 53.00 | 8.21 | 1.94 | 51.63 | 13.21 | 3.08 |
| 8-Schizophrenia | 55.72 | 11.84 | 2.79 | 53.74 | 12.40 | 2.85 |
| 9-Hypomania | 52.11 | 8.23 | 1.94 | 51.95 | 12.81 | 2.94 |
| 0-Social Introversion | 53.56 | 7.47 | 1.76 | 56.37 | 10.74 | 2.46 |

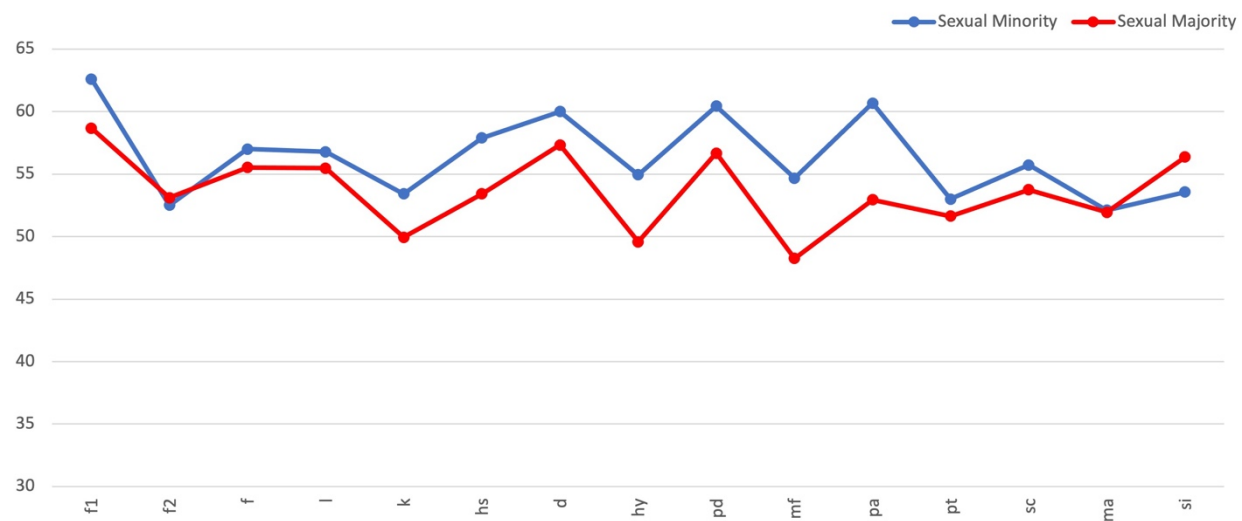


Figure 6. MMPI-A Clinical Scales

Table 9.1.

*One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Clinical Scales Between Sexual Minority
Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification*

| <u>Clinical Scales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig</i> |
| 1-Hypochondriasis | 184.51 | 1 | 184.51 | 1.77 | .192 |
| 2-Depression | 66.6 | 1 | 66.6 | 1.14 | .294 |
| 3-Hysteria | 266.10 | 1 | 266.10 | 1.87 | .180 |
| 4-Psychopathic Deviate | 130.69 | 1 | 130.69 | 1.77 | .192 |
| 5-Masculinity-Femininity | 379.02 | 1 | 379.02 | 2.97 | .094 |
| 6-Paranoia | 550.78 | 1 | 550.78 | 4.63 | .038 |
| 7-Psychasthenia | 17.31 | 1 | 17.31 | .14 | .712 |
| 8-Schizophrenia | 36.43 | 1 | 36.43 | .25 | .622 |
| 9-Hypomania | .25 | 1 | .25 | .00 | .964 |
| 0-Social Introversion | 73.14 | 1 | 73.14 | .85 | .364 |

Table 10.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes

Subscales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group

Classification

| <u>Harris-Lingoes Subscales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| D1-Subjective Depression | 57.44 | 10.07 | 2.37 | 55.74 | 10.06 | 2.31 |
| D2-Psychomotor Retardation | 53.72 | 8.29 | 1.95 | 52.63 | 8.51 | 1.95 |
| D3-Physical Malfunctioning | 63.56 | 10.29 | 2.43 | 59.63 | 8.11 | 1.86 |
| D4-Mental Dullness | 53.67 | 9.16 | 2.16 | 52.89 | 10.11 | 2.32 |
| D5-Brooding | 51.22 | 9.25 | 2.18 | 51.79 | 9.22 | 2.12 |
| Hy1-Denial of Social Anxiety | 48.61 | 11.03 | 2.60 | 48.63 | 9.63 | 2.21 |
| Hy2-Need for Affection | 50.00 | 10.15 | 2.39 | 46.53 | 8.95 | 2.05 |
| Hy3-Lassitude-Malaise | 56.00 | 11.06 | 2.61 | 52.37 | 10.94 | 2.51 |
| Hy4-Somatic Complaints | 55.28 | 11.53 | 2.72 | 52.53 | 11.79 | 2.71 |
| Hy5-Inhibition of Aggression | 48.89 | 11.62 | 2.74 | 48.37 | 12.17 | 2.79 |
| Pd1-Familial Discord | 50.94 | 11.18 | 2.64 | 53.42 | 9.37 | 2.15 |
| Pd2-Authority Problems | 61.50 | 10.31 | 2.43 | 58.53 | 10.49 | 2.41 |
| Pd3-Social Imperturbability | 51.44 | 11.95 | 2.82 | 50.74 | 12.87 | 2.95 |
| Pd4-Social Alienation | 58.78 | 7.71 | 1.82 | 54.21 | 9.64 | 2.21 |
| Pd5-Self-Alienation | 56.50 | 7.92 | 1.87 | 53.63 | 9.19 | 2.12 |
| Pa1-Persecutory Ideas | 60.11 | 9.89 | 2.33 | 55.84 | 10.22 | 2.34 |
| Pa2-Poignancy | 53.78 | 11.66 | 2.75 | 47.11 | 13.4 | 3.07 |
| Pa3-Naivet e | 46.28 | 10.84 | 2.55 | 45.00 | 10.08 | 2.31 |
| Sc1-Social Alienation | 58.72 | 8.67 | 2.04 | 51.63 | 11.36 | 2.61 |
| Sc2-Emotional Alienation | 53.61 | 12.76 | 3.01 | 52.42 | 13.85 | 3.18 |
| Sc3-Lack of Ego Mastery- Cognitive | 55.28 | 10.02 | 2.36 | 53.37 | 11.75 | 2.7 |
| Sc4-Lack of Ego Mastery- Conative | 54.89 | 11.78 | 2.78 | 53.74 | 12.62 | 2.9 |

| <u>Harris-Lingoes Subscales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| Sc5-Lack of Ego Mastery- Defective Inhibition | 50.28 | 8.93 | 2.12 | 50.11 | 13.03 | 3 |
| Sc6-Bizarre Sensory Experiences | 54.71 | 10.45 | 2.54 | 53.21 | 11.00 | 2.52 |
| Ma1-Amorality | 56.56 | 10.99 | 2.59 | 53.53 | 11.55 | 2.65 |
| Ma2-Psychomotor Acceleration | 44.50 | 9.08 | 2.14 | 45.68 | 10.78 | 2.47 |
| Ma3-Imperturbability | 53.39 | 12.58 | 2.97 | 53.74 | 8.45 | 1.94 |
| Ma4-Ego Inflation | 53.50 | 8.42 | 1.98 | 49.11 | 12.65 | 2.90 |
| Si1-Shyness/Self- Consciousness | 52.33 | 8.38 | 1.98 | 51.63 | 9.38 | 2.15 |
| Si2-Social Avoidance | 54.39 | 10.50 | 2.48 | 54.68 | 10.19 | 2.34 |
| Si3-Alienation-Self and Others | 52.06 | 10.8 | 2.54 | 54.33 | 13.73 | 3.24 |

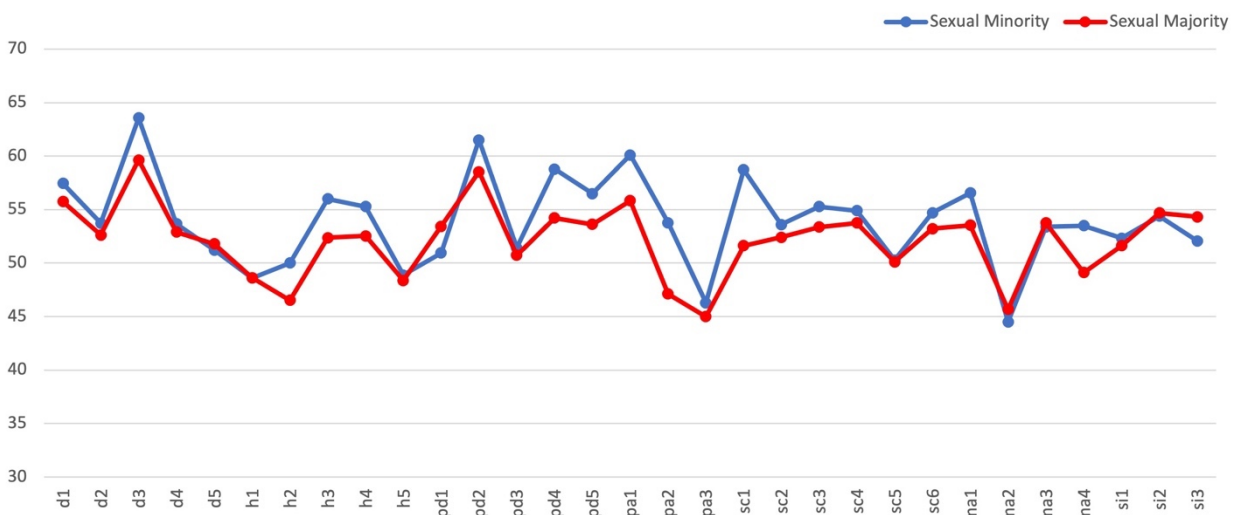


Figure 7. MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales

Table 10.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Harris-Lingoes Subscales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Harris-Lingoes Subscales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| D1-Subjective Depression | 26.95 | 1 | 26.95 | .27 | .609 |
| D2-Psychomotor Retardation | 11 | 1 | 11 | .16 | .695 |
| D3-Physical Malfunctioning | 142.32 | 1 | 142.32 | 1.67 | .205 |
| D4-Mental Dullness | 5.51 | 1 | 5.51 | .06 | .809 |
| D5-Brooding | 2.97 | 1 | 2.97 | .04 | .853 |
| Hy1-Denial of Social Anxiety | .00 | 1 | .00 | .00 | .995 |
| Hy2-Need for Affection | 111.53 | 1 | 111.53 | 1.22 | .276 |
| Hy3-Lassitude-Malaise | 121.90 | 1 | 121.90 | 1.01 | .322 |
| Hy4-Somatic Complaints | 69.98 | 1 | 69.98 | .51 | .478 |
| Hy5-Inhibition of Aggression | 2.50 | 1 | 2.50 | .02 | .895 |
| Pd1-Familial Discord | 56.69 | 1 | 56.69 | .54 | .469 |
| Pd2-Authority Problems | 81.74 | 1 | 81.74 | .76 | .391 |
| Pd3-Social Imperturbability | 4.63 | 1 | 4.63 | .03 | .864 |
| Pd4-Social Alienation | 192.81 | 1 | 192.81 | 2.52 | .122 |
| Pd5-Self-Alienation | 76.05 | 1 | 76.05 | 1.03 | .317 |
| Pa1-Persecutory Ideas | 168.45 | 1 | 168.45 | 1.66 | .205 |
| Pa2-Poignancy | 411.53 | 1 | 411.53 | 2.60 | .116 |
| Pa3-Naivet e | 15.09 | 1 | 15.09 | .14 | .71 |
| Sc1-Social Alienation | 464.73 | 1 | 464.73 | 4.52 | .041 |
| Sc2-Emotional Alienation | 13.09 | 1 | 13.09 | .07 | .788 |
| Sc3-Lack of Ego Mastery- Cognitive | 33.7 | 1 | 33.7 | .28 | .599 |
| Sc4-Lack of Ego Mastery- Conative | 12.27 | 1 | 12.27 | .08 | .776 |

| <u>Harris-Lingoes Subscales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| Sc5-Lack of Ego Mastery- Defective Inhibition | .28 | 1 | .28 | .00 | .963 |
| Sc6-Bizarre Sensory Experiences | 20.06 | 1 | 20.06 | .17 | .679 |
| Ma1-Amorality | 84.82 | 1 | 84.82 | .67 | .420 |
| Ma2-Psychomotor Acceleration | 12.96 | 1 | 12.96 | .13 | .721 |
| Ma3-Imperturbability | 1.12 | 1 | 1.12 | .01 | .922 |
| Ma4-Ego Inflation | 178.52 | 1 | 178.52 | 1.53 | .224 |
| Si1-Shyness/Self- Consciousness | 4.55 | 1 | 4.55 | .06 | .812 |
| Si2-Social Avoidance | .81 | 1 | .81 | .01 | .931 |
| Si3-Alienation-Self and Others | 46.69 | 1 | 46.69 | .31 | .584 |

Table 11.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing MMPI-A Content Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Content Scales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| A-obs-Obsessiveness | 50.56 | 9.33 | 2.33 | 49.28 | 11.05 | 2.60 |
| A-dep-Depression | 53.75 | 8.05 | 20.01 | 52.58 | 12.84 | 2.95 |
| A-hea-Health Concerns | 59.25 | 12.01 | 3.00 | 55.37 | 10.89 | 2.5 |
| A-aln-Alienation | 59.19 | 9.26 | 2.32 | 52.47 | 10.79 | 2.48 |
| A-biz-Bizarre Mentation | 53.00 | 9.43 | 2.36 | 50.63 | 10.05 | 2.31 |
| A-ang-Anger | 54.56 | 10.8 | 2.7 | 53.11 | 13.24 | 3.04 |
| A-cyn-Cynicism | 55.06 | 14.36 | 3.6 | 54.47 | 12.43 | 2.85 |
| A-con-Conduct Problems | 54.25 | 11.73 | 2.93 | 51.00 | 11.13 | 2.55 |
| A-lse-Low Self-Esteem | 53.13 | 11.33 | 2.83 | 52.68 | 14.26 | 3.27 |
| A-las-Low Aspirations | 54.94 | 9.78 | 2.45 | 56.11 | 12.84 | 2.95 |
| A-sod-Adolescent-Social Discomfort | 55.06 | 9.13 | 2.28 | 54.47 | 11.64 | 2.67 |
| A-fam-Adolescent-Family Problems | 55.19 | 10.41 | 2.60 | 52.63 | 12.88 | 2.95 |
| A-sch-Adolescent-School Problems | 60.19 | 11.95 | 2.99 | 55.89 | 12.24 | 2.81 |
| A-trt-Negative Treatment Indicators | 57.50 | 12.06 | 3.02 | 53.37 | 13.79 | 3.16 |

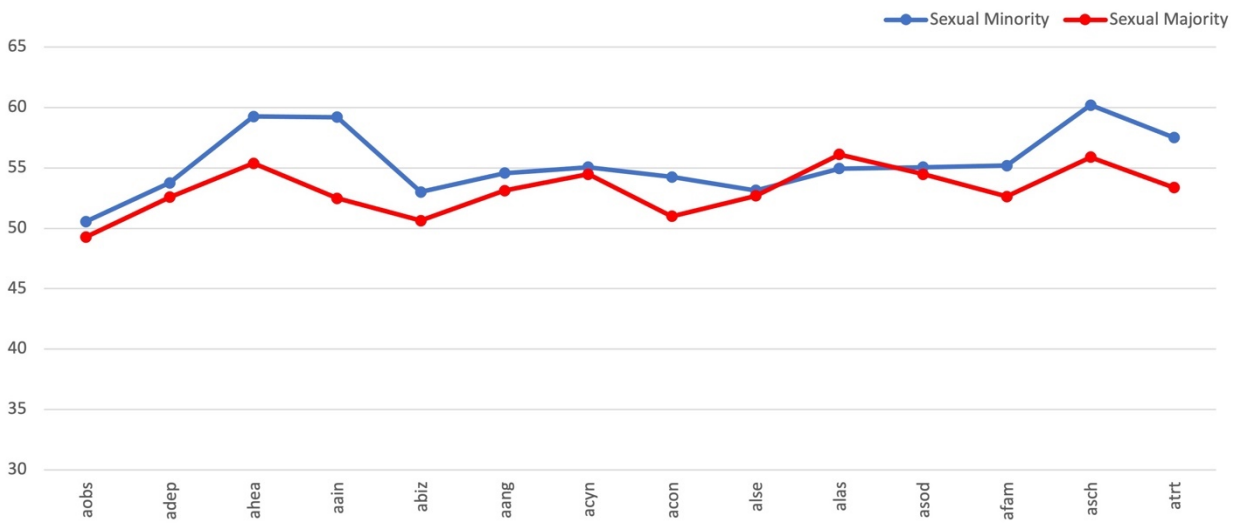


Figure 8. MMPI-A Content Scales

Table 11.1.*One-way ANOVA Results Comparing MMPI-A Content Scales Between Sexual Minority**Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification*

| <u>Content Scales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| A-obs-Obsessiveness | 13.98 | 1 | 13.98 | .132 | .718 |
| A-dep-Depression | 11.91 | 1 | 11.91 | .10 | .754 |
| A-hea-Health Concerns | 130.87 | 1 | 130.87 | 1.00 | .324 |
| A-aln-Alienation | 391.511 | 1 | 391.511 | 3.82 | .059 |
| A-biz-Bizarre Mentation | 48.72 | 1 | 48.72 | .51 | .480 |
| A-ang-Anger | 18.44 | 1 | 18.44 | .12 | .727 |
| A-cyn-Cynicism | 3.01 | 1 | 3.01 | .02 | .897 |
| A-con-Conduct Problems | 91.74 | 1 | 91.74 | .71 | .407 |
| A-lse-Low Self-Esteem | 1.69 | 1 | 1.69 | .01 | .921 |
| A-las-Low Aspirations | 11.84 | 1 | 11.84 | .09 | .768 |
| A-sod-Adolescent-Social Discomfort | 3.01 | 1 | 3.01 | .03 | .871 |
| A-fam-Adolescent-Family Problems | 56.74 | 1 | 56.74 | .41 | .528 |
| A-sch-Adolescent-School Problems | 160.06 | 1 | 160.06 | 1.09 | .304 |
| A-trt-Negative Treatment Indicators | 148.27 | 1 | 148.27 | .87 | .357 |

Research Question 2:

Are there differences between charges set forth by the juvenile justice court system one-year post service date and two years post service date among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Analysis 2:

To accurately assess differences between charges set forth by the juvenile justice court system among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority, youth records and files were analyzed via the Juvenile Tracking System (JTS). A cross tabulation table was then created to provide a comprehensive overview of the amount of youth who were charged with a status, misdemeanor, or felony charge one- and two-years post-service among groups. The results are displayed in Table 12. A cross tabulation table was also created to provide a comprehensive overview of the total amount of status, misdemeanor, or felony charges one- and two-years post-service among groups. The results are displayed in Table 13.

Table 12.*Individual Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Youth Recidivism Data**One- and Two-Years Post Service Date*

| <u>Status of Legal Charges</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Total Youth</u> | |
|--|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> |
| | <i>Yes</i> | <i>No</i> | <i>Yes</i> | <i>No</i> | | |
| Presence or Absence of Status Charge(s) One Year Post Service Date | 12 | 22 | 6 | 29 | 18 | 51 |
| Presence or Absence of Status Charge(s) Two Years Post Service Date | 2 | 32 | 7 | 28 | 9 | 60 |
| Presence or Absence of Misdemeanor Charge(s) One Year Post Service Date | 15 | 19 | 16 | 19 | 31 | 38 |
| Presence or Absence of Misdemeanor Charge(s) Two Years Post Service Date | 8 | 26 | 6 | 29 | 14 | 55 |
| Presence or Absence of Felony Charge(s) One Year Post Service Date | 8 | 26 | 8 | 27 | 16 | 53 |
| Presence or Absence of Felony Charge(s) Two Years Post Service Date | 3 | 31 | 3 | 32 | 6 | 63 |

*Please Note: Recidivism data was not able to be collected on one sexual minority identifying youth due to having a sealed file.

Table 13.*Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Youth Recidivism Data Totals**One- and Two-Years Post Service Date*

| <u>Status and Number of Legal Charges</u> | <u>Number of Sexual Minority Identifying Youth Charges</u> | <u>Number of Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Youth Charges</u> | <u>Total Charges</u> |
|---|--|--|----------------------|
| Number of Status Charges One Year Post Service Date | 17 | 15 | 32 |
| Number of Status Charges Two Years Post Service Date | 4 | 8 | 12 |
| Number of Misdemeanor Charges One Year Post Service Date | 46 | 41 | 87 |
| Number of Misdemeanor Charges Two Years Post Service Date | 20 | 13 | 33 |
| Number of Felony Charges One Year Post Service Date | 23 | 11 | 34 |
| Number of Felony Charges Two Years Post Service Date | 5 | 3 | 8 |
| Total Number of Charges One Year Post Service Date | 86 | 67 | 153 |
| Total Number of Charges Two Years Post Service Date | 29 | 24 | 53 |

*Please Note: Recidivism data was not able to be collected on one sexual minority identifying youth due to having a sealed file.

Research Question 3:

Are there differences between trauma histories, as measured by the CROPS and TSCC, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Analysis 3:

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms* (CROPS). Although significant differences were not indicated across CROPS Item Responses, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the CROPS for each group are displayed in Table 14. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the CROPS Item Responses for each group are displayed in Table 14.1.

A one-way Analysis of Variance was also conducted on the *Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children* (TSCC). Although significant differences were not indicated across TSCC Clinical Subscales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the TSCC for each group are displayed in Table 15. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the TSCC Clinical Scales and Subscales for each group are displayed in Table 15.1.

Table 14.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing CROPS Item Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Item Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|-----------|--|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| CROPS Item 1 Response | 1.00 | .93 | .24 | .87 | .74 | .19 |
| CROPS Item 2 Response | .93 | .88 | .23 | .73 | .70 | .18 |
| CROPS Item 3 Response | .93 | .8 | .21 | .87 | .83 | .22 |
| CROPS Item 4 Response | .62 | .65 | .65 | 1.01 | .88 | .23 |
| CROPS Item 5 Response | 1.01 | .70 | .18 | 1.13 | .74 | .19 |
| CROPS Item 6 Response | .87 | .74 | .19 | 1.0 | .76 | .2 |
| CROPS Item 7 Response | .73 | .88 | .23 | .60 | .83 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 8 Response | .67 | .72 | .19 | .53 | .64 | .17 |
| CROPS Item 9 Response | .67 | .72 | .19 | .73 | .96 | .25 |
| CROPS Item 10 Response | 1.3 | .62 | .16 | 1.33 | .82 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 11 Response | .73 | .70 | .18 | .67 | .82 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 12 Response | .20 | .41 | .11 | .33 | .49 | .13 |
| CROPS Item 13 Response | .67 | .62 | .16 | .73 | .88 | .23 |
| CROPS Item 14 Response | .47 | .64 | .17 | .67 | .72 | .19 |
| CROPS Item 15 Response | .53 | .64 | .17 | .67 | .82 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 16 Response | .73 | .8 | .21 | .73 | .8 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 17 Response | .87 | .74 | .19 | .80 | .94 | .24 |
| CROPS Item 18 Response | .53 | .74 | .19 | .60 | .74 | .19 |
| CROPS Item 19 Response | .40 | .63 | .16 | .67 | .9 | .23 |
| CROPS Item 20 Response | .73 | .70 | .18 | .67 | .82 | .21 |
| CROPS Item 21 Response | .07 | .26 | .07 | .40 | .74 | .19 |
| CROPS Item 22 Response | .73 | .88 | .23 | .73 | .88 | .23 |
| CROPS Item 23 Response | 1.0 | .85 | .22 | .87 | .92 | .24 |
| CROPS Item 24 Response | .47 | .64 | .17 | .40 | .63 | .16 |
| CROPS Item 25 Response | .53 | .64 | .17 | .80 | .77 | .20 |
| CROPS Item 26 Response | .67 | .72 | .19 | .40 | .63 | .16 |
| CROPS Total Score (Summed Items) | 18.00 | 11.58 | 2.99 | 18.87 | 13.87 | 3.58 |

Table 14.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing CROPS Item Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Item Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | | |
| CROPS Item 1 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .19 | .667 |
| CROPS Item 2 Response | .30 | 1 | .30 | .47 | .499 |
| CROPS Item 3 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .05 | .825 |
| CROPS Item 4 Response | 1.42 | 1 | 1.42 | 2.30 | 1.41 |
| CROPS Item 5 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .06 | .803 |
| CROPS Item 6 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .24 | .630 |
| CROPS Item 7 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .18 | .673 |
| CROPS Item 8 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .29 | .597 |
| CROPS Item 9 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .05 | .832 |
| CROPS Item 10 Response | .00 | 1 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| CROPS Item 11 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .06 | .812 |
| CROPS Item 12 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .65 | .426 |
| CROPS Item 13 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .06 | .812 |
| CROPS Item 14 Response | .30 | 1 | .30 | .64 | .429 |
| CROPS Item 15 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .25 | .623 |
| CROPS Item 16 Response | .00 | 1 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| CROPS Item 17 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .05 | .831 |
| CROPS Item 18 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .06 | .807 |
| CROPS Item 19 Response | .53 | 1 | .53 | .88 | .356 |
| CROPS Item 20 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .06 | .812 |
| CROPS Item 21 Response | .83 | 1 | .83 | 2.73 | .109 |
| CROPS Item 22 Response | .00 | 1 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| CROPS Item 23 Response | .13 | 1 | .13 | .17 | .682 |
| CROPS Item 24 Response | .03 | 1 | .03 | .08 | .776 |
| CROPS Item 25 Response | .53 | 1 | .53 | 1.06 | .313 |
| CROPS Item 26 Response | .53 | 1 | .53 | 1.16 | .292 |
| CROPS Total Score (Summed Items) | 5.63 | 1 | 5.63 | .04 | .854 |

Table 15.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing TSCC Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scales and Subscales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| TSCC-HYP-Hyperresponse | 51.23 | 10.15 | 2.82 | 50.31 | 10.03 | 2.78 |
| TSCC-ANX-Anxiety | 44.15 | 6.91 | 1.92 | 45.46 | 8.51 | 2.36 |
| TSCC-DEP-Depression | 46.23 | 6.59 | 1.83 | 50.00 | 12.45 | 3.45 |
| TSCC-ANG-Anger | 48.92 | 9.56 | 2.65 | 48.15 | 8.09 | 2.24 |
| TSCC-PTS-Posttraumatic Stress | 46.85 | 8.43 | 2.34 | 44.23 | 7.37 | 2.05 |
| TSCC-DIS-Dissociation | 48.62 | 8.89 | 2.47 | 44.15 | 7.50 | 2.08 |
| TSCC-DISO-Overt Dissociation | 49.77 | 9.02 | 2.50 | 45.85 | 8.44 | 2.34 |
| TSCC-DISO-Fantasy | 47.00 | 7.66 | 2.12 | 43.00 | 5.05 | 1.40 |
| TSCC-SC-Sexual Concerns | 47.69 | 9.7 | 2.69 | 51.67 | 8.22 | 2.37 |
| TSCC-SCP-Sexual Preoccupation | 47.00 | 9.15 | 2.54 | 50.67 | 7.33 | 2.12 |
| TSCC-SCD-Sexual Distress | 49.62 | 9.97 | 2.77 | 51.17 | 13.22 | 3.82 |

Table 15.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing TSCC Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Clinical Scales and Subscales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| TSCC-HYP-Hyperresponse | 5.54 | 1 | 5.54 | .05 | .818 |
| TSCC-ANX-Anxiety | 11.12 | 1 | 11.12 | .19 | .671 |
| TSCC-DEP-Depression | 92.35 | 1 | 92.35 | .93 | .344 |
| TSCC-ANG-Anger | 3.85 | 1 | 3.85 | .05 | .827 |
| TSCC-PTS-Posttraumatic Stress | 44.46 | 1 | 44.46 | .71 | .408 |
| TSCC-DIS-Dissociation | 129.39 | 1 | 129.39 | 1.9 | .180 |
| TSCC-DISO-Overt Dissociation | 100.04 | 1 | 100.04 | 1.31 | .263 |
| TSCC-DISO-Fantasy | 104.00 | 1 | 104.00 | 2.47 | .129 |
| TSCC-SC-Sexual Concerns | 98.56 | 1 | 98.56 | 1.21 | .282 |
| TSCC-SCP-Sexual Preoccupation | 83.89 | 1 | 83.89 | 1.21 | .283 |
| TSCC-SCD-Sexual Distress | 15.02 | 1 | 15.02 | .11 | .742 |

Research Question 4:

Are there differences between parental or guardian perceptions of their children, as measured by the PGQ, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Analysis 4:

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Parent/Guardian Questionnaire* (PGQ). Although significant differences were not indicated across Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the PGQ for each group are displayed in Table 16. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the PGQ Scales for each group are displayed in Table 16.1.

Table 16.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing PGQ Scales Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>PGQ Scales</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| PGQ Parent Exasperation (6 Factor/67 Item) | 51.33 | 8.94 | 2.31 | 47.4 | 6.88 | 1.78 |
| PGQ Mistrust of the Juvenile Justice System (6 Factor/67 Item) | 49.27 | 9.65 | 2.49 | 56.44 | 11.57 | 2.99 |
| PGQ Fear of Child (6 Factor/67 Item) | 50.27 | 7.47 | 1.93 | 48.41 | 8.56 | 2.21 |
| PGQ Shame Over Parenting Self-Efficacy (6 Factor/67 Item) | 47.99 | 8.56 | 2.21 | 49.28 | 10.23 | 2.64 |
| PGQ Parent Perceptions of Child's Exposure to Violence (6 Factor/67 Item) | 55.78 | 9.38 | 2.42 | 51.11 | 10.26 | 2.65 |
| PGQ Parent Monitoring (6 Factor/67 Item) | 45.47 | 10.85 | 2.80 | 51.5 | 8.75 | 2.26 |
| PGQ Lie (6 Factor/67 Item) | 50.84 | 8.46 | 2.18 | 52.19 | 10.82 | 2.79 |

Table 16.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing PGQ Scales Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>PGQ Scales</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| PGQ Parent Exasperation (6 Factor/67 Item) | 115.99 | 1 | 115.99 | 1.82 | .188 |
| PGQ Mistrust of the Juvenile Justice System (6 Factor/67 Item) | 386.21 | 1 | 386.21 | 3.40 | .076 |
| PGQ Fear of Child (6 Factor/67 Item) | 25.84 | 1 | 25.84 | .40 | .532 |
| PGQ Shame Over Parenting Self-Efficacy (6 Factor/67 Item) | 12.6 | 1 | 12.56 | .14 | .709 |
| PGQ Parent Perceptions of Child's Exposure to Violence (6 Factor/67 Item) | 163.71 | 1 | 163.71 | 1.69 | .204 |
| PGQ Parent Monitoring (6 Factor/67 Item) | 271.98 | 1 | 271.98 | 2.80 | .105 |
| PGQ Lie (6 Factor/67 Item) | 13.68 | 1 | 13.68 | .15 | .706 |

Research Question 5:

Are there differences between parental (or guardian) relationships, self-esteem, and resilience, as measured by the adaptive scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A and BASC-3 SRP-A, among those who identified as sexual minority youth versus those who have not identified as sexual minority?

Analysis 5:

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-2 SRP-A) and results indicated significant differences from sexual minority identifying youth from non-sexual minority identifying youth on certain Adaptive Scales. Specifically, on the Relations with Parents Adaptive Scale, sexual minority identifying youth responses ($N = 20$) reported significantly lower scores ($M = 39.35$, $SD = 11.86$) compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth ($N = 22$) ($M = 47.09$, $SD = 11.67$). A statistically significant difference among non-sexual minority identifying youth was found as determined by a one-way Analysis of Variance ($F(1, 40) = 4.54$, $p = .039$).

The descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scales for each group are displayed in Table 17. A comparison of the discovered means for the BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 9. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scales for each group are displayed in Table 17.1.

Similarly, a one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted on the *Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents* (BASC-3 SRP-A) and results did not indicate significant differences from sexual minority identifying youth from non-sexual minority identifying youth on Adaptive Scales. Although significant differences were

not indicated across BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales, the descriptive means, standard deviations, and standard errors of the BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales for each group are displayed in Table 18. A comparison of the discovered means for the BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales among groups is displayed in Figure 10. Results from the one-way Analysis of Variance for the BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales for each group are displayed in Table 18.1.

Table 17.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A

Adaptive Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority

Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Adaptive Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Relations with Parents | 39.35 | 11.86 | 2.65 | 47.09 | 11.67 | 2.45 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Interpersonal Relations | 51.25 | 8.83 | 1.97 | 50.82 | 10.18 | 2.17 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Self-Esteem | 52.60 | 8.66 | 1.94 | 49.41 | 11.82 | 2.52 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Self-Reliance | 43.80 | 9.07 | 2.03 | 47.27 | 8.61 | 1.84 |

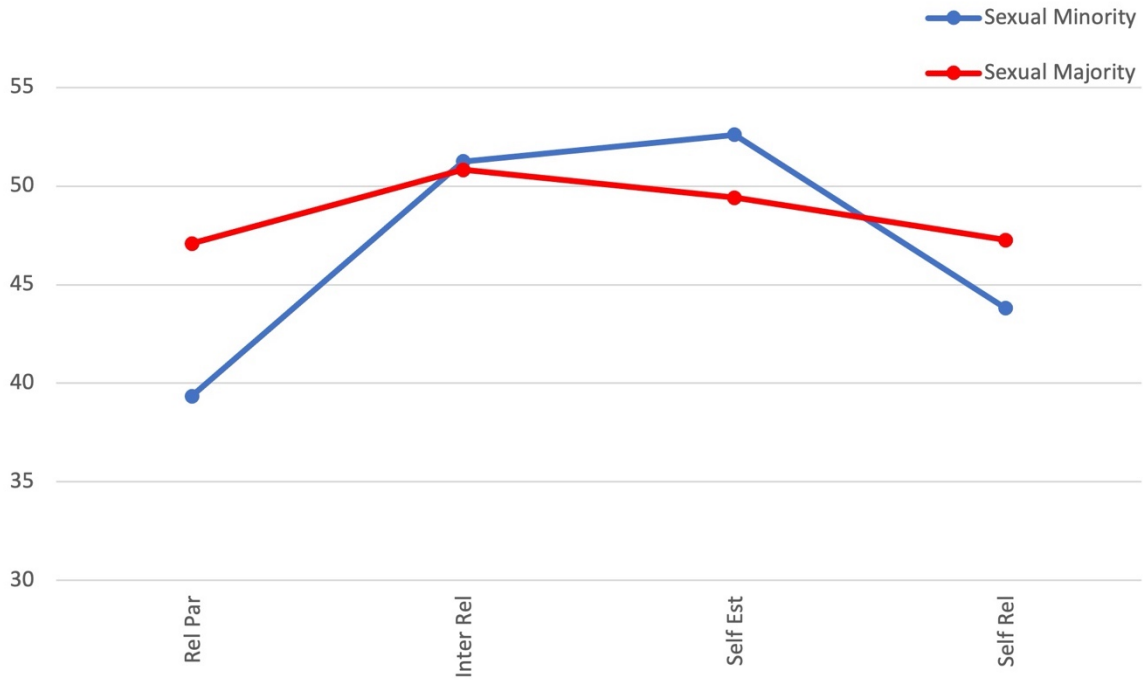


Figure 9. BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scales

Table 17.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-2 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Adaptive Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Relations with Parents | 627.75 | 1 | 627.75 | 4.54 | .039 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Interpersonal Relations | 1.95 | 1 | 1.95 | .02 | .884 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Self-Esteem | 106.67 | 1 | 106.67 | .98 | .328 |
| BASC-2-SRP-A Self-Reliance | 126.34 | 1 | 126.34 | 1.62 | .211 |

Table 18.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Error Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A

Adaptive Scale Responses Across Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority

Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Adaptive Scale Responses</u> | <u>Sexual Minority</u> | | <u>Non-Sexual Minority</u> | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | <u>Identifying Youth</u> | | | |
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>SE</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Relations with Parents | 41.80 | 12.72 | 5.69 | 49.80 | 10.62 | 4.75 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Interpersonal Relations | 46.80 | 10.78 | 4.82 | 51.40 | 7.60 | 3.40 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Self-Esteem | 53.00 | 7.14 | 3.19 | 55.20 | 10.23 | 4.58 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Self-Reliance | 39.40 | 7.50 | 3.36 | 48.80 | 9.68 | 4.33 |

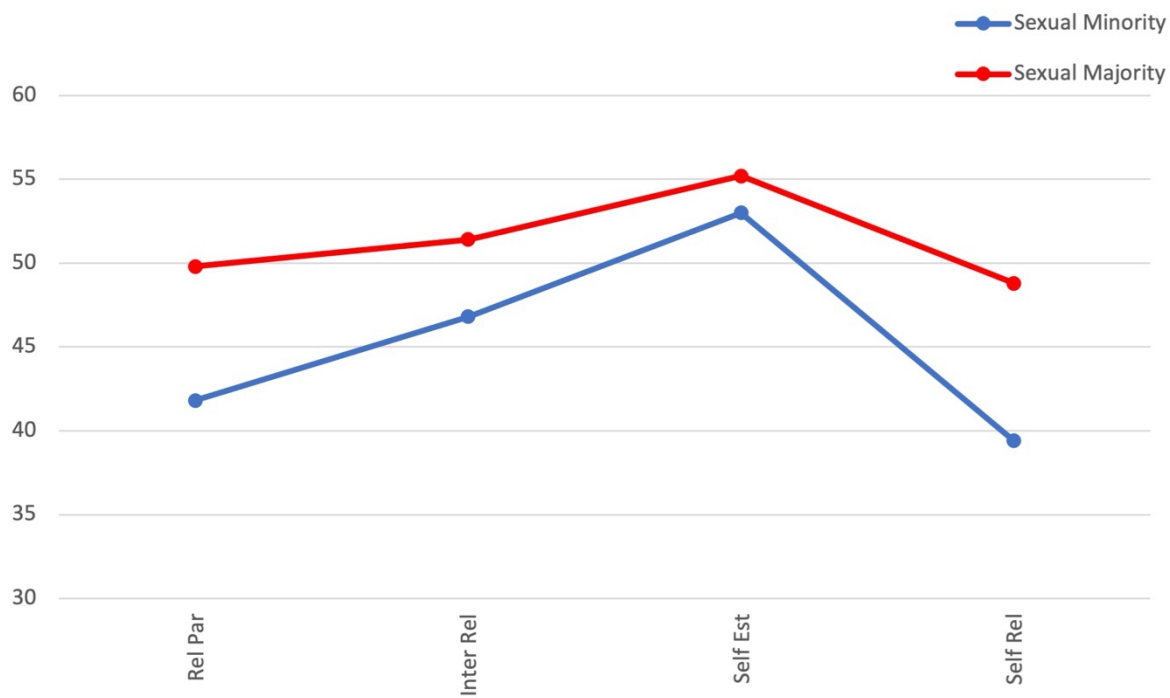


Figure 10. BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scales

Table 18.1.

One-way ANOVA Results Comparing BASC-3 SRP-A Adaptive Scale Responses Between Sexual Minority Identifying and Non-Sexual Minority Identifying Group Classification

| <u>Adaptive Scale Responses</u> | <u>Between Groups</u> | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|
| | <i>SS</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>Sig.</i> |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Relations with Parents | 160.00 | 1 | 160.00 | 1.17 | .312 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Interpersonal Relations | 52.90 | 1 | 52.90 | .61 | .458 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Self-Esteem | 12.10 | 1 | 12.10 | .16 | .704 |
| BASC-3 SRP-A Self-Reliance | 220.90 | 1 | 220.90 | 2.95 | .124 |

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Summary of Study

Within the past fifteen years, research has pointed to significant disparities and increases in rates of involvement within the juvenile justice system among youth of color (Butts, 2016; Mariscal & Bell, 2010; W. Haywood Burns Institute, 2016), female youth (Crenshaw et al., 2015; OJJDP, 2019c; Scott & Brown, 2018; see also Puzzachera & Ehrmann, 2018), and youth with mental health concerns, disabilities (primarily learning disabilities), and youth with histories of trauma. Many such youth are considered low risk with high needs who have been failed by other systems, and as a final result, brought through the juvenile justice system (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2008). However, when discussing disproportionalities among policing and risks pertaining to detention and incarceration, literature has primarily focused on race and class, but not sexual orientation or gender identity, or poor sexual and gender minorities of color who experience heightened levels of policing, discrimination, stigma and incarceration (Ritchie, 2017).

Research and policy reports have demonstrated the significant overrepresentation of sexual and gender minority youth—especially sexual and gender minority youth of color within the juvenile justice system and the unjust treatment, conditions, victimization, and abuse these youths experience and are exposed to while in the system (Center for American Progress and Movement Advancement Project [CAP and MAP] 2016; Dank et al., 2015; Feinstein et al., 2001; Hunt & Moodie-Mills, 2012; Irvine & Canfield, 2016; Majd et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2017).

Sexual and gender minorities have a long-founded history of societal injustices, and among sexual and gender minority youth, this population continues to face disparities in various facets of daily life, including but not limited to, an increased likelihood and rate of bullying, suicide, depression, and substance use, in addition to greater health inequalities (CDC, 2019), higher rates of discipline within school systems, negative contact with law enforcement, and entry into the juvenile justice system than heterosexual counterparts (Mountz, 2016, 2020; Poteat et al., 2016a). Given the overrepresentation of sexual and gender minority youth in the juvenile justice system, the victimization and mistreatment that such youth experience in homes, communities, and frequently lead to system entry, and further abuse experienced within the system, this study emphasized the need for greater recognition and understanding of risks pertaining to juvenile justice involvement among sexual and gender minority youth in order to transform an oppressive system that has historically overlooked, mistreated, and victimized sexual and gender minority youth to one that fosters safety, understanding, support, and growth for all youth.

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to analyze existing literature pertaining to the rate of juvenile justice involvement among sexual minority youth, to explore system-related concerns, and examine both risk factors that lead to system involvement and differences in treatment toward sexual minority youth within the system in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying counterparts. This study aimed to more accurately identify differences in offenses and charges, trauma history, personality dimensions, parental perceptions of and relationships with their children, and strengths and sources of resiliency among self-identified sexual minority juvenile youth in comparison to non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth. These dimensions were analyzed by scores on various measures including the *Behavior Assessment*

System for Children, Second Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents (BASC-2 SRP-A), the Behavior Assessment System for Children, Third Edition Self-Report of Personality for Adolescents (BASC-3-SRP-A), the Child Report of Post-traumatic Symptoms (CROPS), the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Adolescents (MMPI-A), the Parent/Guardian Questionnaire (PGQ), and the Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children (TSCC).

Discussion of Findings

A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used in this study to compare and test statistical values between the two separate samples within this study—sexual minority juvenile youth and non-sexual minority identifying juvenile youth, which allowed this researcher to better understand various dimensions of concerns facing youth in the juvenile justice system—specifically from the context of sexual minority youth through a comparison of means of the measurement data among samples (McDonald, 2014).

Responses from the MMPI-A indicated significantly higher scores and statistical significance determined by a one-way Analysis of Variance for sexual minority identifying youth when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth on the Paranoia (PA) Clinical Scale. Content items from Scale 6, or the Pa: Paranoia Scale items are related to ideas of reference, suspiciousness, feelings of persecution, rigidity, and moral self-righteousness (Butcher et al., 1992). However, Pancoast and Archer (1988) indicated that Scale 6 items are typically endorsed more by adolescents than adults in non-clinical settings.

Scale 6 elevations among adolescents in non-clinical settings have been found to relate to a greater degree of sensitivity to comments made by others, perceived attitudes of others (Butcher et al., 1992), level of trust or distrust, and suspiciousness (Lachar, 1990). Research findings have inferred that elevations on the Pa: Paranoia Scale on the MMPI-A are correlated to

behaviors deemed as “aggressive,” “acting-out,” and “argumentative” (Butcher et al., 1992, p. 48). Behavioral correlations pertaining to the Pa: Paranoia Scale on the MMPI-A include school related concerns (e.g. failing courses or receiving school suspensions), and within a clinical identified sample, hostility and withdrawn behaviors among male identifying youth and parental disagreements among female identifying youth (Butcher et al., 1992).

It would appear as though elevations on the Pa: Paranoia Scale are commensurate with previous literature. This includes prior research findings pertaining to increased experiences of abuse, harassment, and isolation, (Majd et al., 2009; Friedman et a., 2011), increased rates of childhood sexual abuse (Friedman et al., 2011), frequent experiences of rejection and victimization within one’s home, school, and community (Wilber, 2015), increased rates of child abuse and placement in the child welfare system (Irvine, 2010), verbal and physical harassment and sexual violence within school systems (Kosciw et al., 2012), increased rates of discipline including referrals to the school administrative personnel, detention, suspension, and expulsion (Palmer & Greytak, 2017), and an increased risk of arrest and charges with stricter sanctions in court when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth (Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011).

Within a holistic framework of recognizing risk factors and concerns facing sexual minority youth, it would seem plausible for elevations to be present on the Pa: Paranoia Scale and for individuals to perceive such youth as “acting out,” while experiencing school-related concerns in potentially hostile and unsafe environments. It would also appear plausible for sexual minority youth to appear or be withdrawn, defensive, or on guard to preemptively avoid or try to avoid possible instances of violence, mistreatment, and rejection. Familial discord may also be present in households that may not be supportive of a youth’s sexual minority identity.

Responses from the Social Alienation (SC1) Harris-Lingoes Subscale on the MMPI-A indicated significantly higher scores and statistical significance determined by a one-way Analysis of Variance for sexual minority identifying youth when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth. While elevations in Scale 8, or Sc: Schizophrenia have been correlated with school related concerns, parental disagreements, and concerns pertaining to achievement, the Social Alienation (SC1) Subscale has been associated with feelings of alienation and being misunderstood as well as feeling as though others wish harm upon them or “have it in for them” (Butcher et al., 1992; Gordon, 2011). Elevations in the Social Alienation (SC1) subscale have also been connected to feeling as though families do not provide sufficient love and support and an avoidance of social relationships (Gordon, 2011).

As described, research has indicated the varying degrees of increased harassment, mistreatment, bullying, victimization, and abuse experienced by sexual minority youth in home environments, school systems, child welfare and juvenile justice systems, and in detention centers when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth. Unfair regulations such as “zero tolerance” policies in school systems that repeatedly target LGBTQ youth—specifically LGBTQ youth of color (CAP & MAP, 2016) result in greater numbers of sexual minority youth being pushed through the school-to-prison pipeline (Burdge et al., 2014; Meiners, 2011; Mitchum & Moodie-Mills, 2014; Snapp et al., 2015).

This, in addition reports of increased risks of negative police interactions and mistreatment, heightened abuses of power (Amnesty International, 2005; Dank et al., 2015; Graham, 2014; Majd et al., 2009; Mountz, 2016; Wilson et al., 2017), and policing methods that further target and marginalize sexual and gender minority youth (Garnette et al., 2011) would support possible feelings or perceptions of others wanting to harm or “have it out” for sexual

minority identifying youth. Alienation and feelings of being misunderstood may also result from lack of familial and/or social support systems and continued victimization within various facets and environments of one's life. This may, in turn, result in an avoidance of social relationships to prevent rejection and mistreatment that sexual minority youth may have already been experiencing or may fear experiencing. Further, feeling a lack of familial love and support appear commensurate with results observed from the BASC-2 SRP-A.

Responses from the BASC-2 SRP-A indicated significantly lower scores and statistical significance determined by a one-way Analysis of Variance for sexual minority identifying youth when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth on the Relations with Parents Adaptive Scale. While the Relations with Parents Adaptive Scale pertains to a youth's positive regard directed toward their parents and feeling esteemed by one's parents, lower scores on this scale indicate a strained relationship with parents, little trust in one's parents, and feeling subsidiary to family life and decision making (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004; 2015).

Research has alluded to the significant impact that may result from negative familial reactions, familial discord, rejection, and victimization as a result of adolescents' sexual minority identity and the disclosure of their identity (Durso & Gates, 2012; Fedders, 2006; Friedman et al., 2011; Himmelstein & Brückner, 2011; OJJDP, 2014; Ventimiglia, 2012). Such indications would appear to contribute to not feeling esteemed by one's parents, and rather, experiencing strained parental relations. Further, offenses such as "ungovernability" or "incorrigibility," as petitioned by parents or guardians (Majd et al., 2009; Fedders, 2015) would appear to have an effect on a youth's trust in their parents or guardians. This may especially be the case if such interventions lead to system involvement, and possible involvement in child welfare services or

homelessness, where such youth may experience additional forms of mistreatment, victimization, and abuse.

When looking at differences in charges one year post service date and two years post service date among sexual minority identifying youth and non-sexual minority identifying youth samples used in this study, results indicated that more sexual minority youth had been charged with status offenses one-year post service date when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth. This appears commensurate with previous findings of parents occasionally involving the court in matters related to their children with the purpose of the course “control[ling] the sexuality of the children” (Majd et al., 2009; Mountz, 2020) and findings of more sexual and gender minority youth having received charges of ungovernability, curfew violations, or truancy due to parental opposition of their children’s sexual orientation (Majd et al., 2009).

It was noted that more non-sexual minority youth had been charged with status offenses two-years post service date when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth. This may be due to multiple factors including but not limited to having reached the legal age of eighteen to no longer be eligible within the juvenile justice system to receive status offenses given one’s minor status, the effectiveness of counseling related services that the youth may have received, or greater support systems that helped the youth discontinue involvement in the juvenile justice system.

With regard to misdemeanor charges, there appeared to be some variability between the amount of sexual minority identifying youth and non-sexual minority identifying youth charged with misdemeanors one year and two years post service date, with the amount of youth charged being fairly close in number. Similarly, the amount of sexual minority identifying youth was

equivalent to the amount of non-sexual minority identifying youth charged with felonies both one year and two years post service date. This near equivalency in youth across samples charged with misdemeanors and the equivalency in youth across samples charged with felonies may be attributable to more consistent charges set forth by offenses deemed as misdemeanors or felonies within the state of Georgia during the time that these youth were adjudicated. More specifically, there may be less flexibility or variability in the court's ability to overlook misdemeanors or felonies in comparison to status offenses. On the other hand, with less consistent guidelines as to what may constitute a status charge and when a youth might be able to receive rehabilitative services as opposed to charges, there can be greater disparities among minority youth in terms of charges and sentencing due to implicit or explicit biases within the court system.

An important finding within this study is reflected in Table 13, indicating that the total amount of charges for sexual minority identifying youth were greater than non-sexual minority identifying youth as it relates to status charges one-year post service date, misdemeanors charges both one year and two years post service date, felony charges both one year and two years post service date, and the total number of charges both one year and two years post service date. The number of status charges two years post service date was greater for non-sexual minority youth than sexual minority youth. Findings may indicate larger total numbers of charges against sexual minority youth due to a number of factors. These may include, but not be limited to, greater risks for detainment and charges for offenses stemming from victimization, homelessness, financial insecurity, and survival (Wilber, 2015), which may frequently result from familial rejection (Friedman et al., 2011; OJJDP, 2014). This, in addition to sexual minority youth having an increased risk for arrest and being charged with stricter sanctions in court (Himmelstein &

Brückner, 2011) may contribute to a larger total number of charges against sexual minority youth in this study.

Clinical and Practical Implications

Overall, the findings in this study indicate behavioral, personality, and relational components of sexual minority youth and differences in recidivism rates and charge types among sexual minority identifying youth when compared to non-sexual minority identifying youth that are important to view within a contextual and holistic framework. These findings will allow service providers to more accurately recognize responses or behaviors by sexual minority youth that may seem “defiant” or “deviant” by nature to individuals in positions of power (e.g., teachers, school officials and personnel, police officers, court officials and personnel, judges, detention center staff, etc.).

Having a better understanding of factors that place sexual minority youth at risk for involvement within the juvenile justice system could have significant implications for support systems or lack thereof within school systems, disciplinary methods used within schools (such as detention, suspension, and expulsion) which frequently target youth with various minority identities (including sexual minority identities), policing targeting, practices, and treatment toward sexual minority youth, treatment of sexual minority youth within court systems and sanctions against such youth, and practiced used within detention centers that inherently (whether unintentionally or intentionally) target sexual minority youth.

The aforementioned personnel working with sexual minority youth must recognize the impact that family support or the lack thereof may have on the youth, and the increased risk factors that may be contributing to and pushing such youth into system involvement. The findings from this study provide a more holistic view as to differences in profiles of sexual

minority identifying youth, which has been further explained by previous studies. The results of this study in addition to firsthand accounts and literature from other research on sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system indicate the need for greater contextual recognition and understanding from adults and individuals in power who are involved in the lives of these youth. Doing so can result in drastic changes in terms of how individuals in power treat and support sexual minority youth, thus breaking the cycle of system involvement and mistreatment within the system for this population.

Psychologists and allied mental health professionals have a duty to use our positions of power and privilege to engage in social justice and advocate alongside marginalized populations and against systemic injustice. As such, it is the responsibility of psychologists to speak out against mistreatment and systemic related concerns facing sexual minority youth at-risk for system involvement and sexual minority youth involved in the juvenile justice system. This study provides insight into behavioral, personality, and relational components of sexual minority identifying youth that can better inform a holistic understanding of potential system involvement, and the need for psychologists to better advocate for greater support for these youth, increased system prevention, and rehabilitative-focused treatment rather than punitive-focused treatment for engaging in offenses that may stem from factors otherwise targeting one's sexual minority identify.

Limitations

Although researchers have described overrepresentation of sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system, studies have also indicated invisibility for many sexual minority-identifying youths within the system for multiple reasons—many of which pertain to safety (Irvine & Canfield, 2017, 2016; Majd et al., 2009). Due to the fact that not all youth who have

received clinical services from the Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program (JCAP) may have felt comfortable disclosing their sexual orientation because of fears of possible implications, limitations of this study primarily pertain to generalizability of what might be a limited sample size (Given, 2008).

Data pertaining to sexual orientation is also limiting in nature, given that in previous years, questions pertaining to sexual orientation did not specifically inquire into the youth's sexual orientation, but rather, if they were in a relationship. Only in recent years did the JCAP team begin to inquire into how youth identify in terms of their sexual orientation. Similarly, because of the fact that data pertaining to gender identity had only begun to be collected by the JCAP team within recent years, gender identity was limited to "male" or "female" on intake forms and documentation. For this reason, while it is of most importance that research also address the needs and concerns of gender minority and gender nonconforming youth within the juvenile justice system, this study solely pertained to sexual minority youth within the juvenile justice system, which is another limitation in terms of a limited scope that does not focus on profiles of gender minority youth.

It was observed that few of the youth were sixteen or older at the initial time of service date. Given the age of these youth, it was noted that these youth would no longer be involved in the juvenile justice system due to aging out of the system upon reaching the age of eighteen. For this reason, recidivism rates pertaining to the number of charges obtained two years post service date may be a limitation, given that such information would not exist in the Juvenile Tracking System (JTS) for these youth upon turning eighteen. Therefore, the age of certain youth used in this study's samples may be considered a limitation.

With regard to study limitations, this author would like to comment about several results that did not achieve statistical significance. While not statistically significant, various scales and subscales across measures indicated results that were close to significance levels. These scales and subscales include the Anxiety Clinical Scale on the BASC-2 SRP-A, the Anger Control Scale on the BASC-3 SRP-A, the Masculinity/Femininity (Mf) Clinical Scale on the MMPI-A, the Alienation (A-ain) Content Scale on the MMPI-A, the Poignancy (Pa2) Harris-Lingoes Subscale on the MMPI-A, the Fantasy (DIS-F) Subscale of the Dissociation (DIS) Scale on the TSCC, the Mistrust of the Juvenile Justice System Scale (6 Factor/67 Item Scale) on the PGQ, and the Parent Monitoring Scale (6 Factor/67 Item) on the PGQ. Similarly, there were qualitative differences observed in the means of both samples on the Relations with Parents Adaptive Scale and on the Self Reliance Adaptive Scale on the BASC-3-SRP-A among sexual minority identifying youth. Given the small sample size, these results were not found to be statistically significant. However, with a larger sample size, these results may have achieved statistical significance. For these reasons, the limited sample size within this study is a limitation.

Recommendations for Future Research

Given the results from this study that were close to significance levels but did not achieve statistical significance, subsequent studies will need a larger sample size. This will be important to determine statistical significance for responses to scales and subscales that may prove beneficial to better inform a comprehensive understanding of concerns facing sexual minority youth involved in the juvenile justice system. Future studies must also encompass gender minority youth, as this is another population that has remained underserved, misunderstood, mistreated, and discriminated against within the juvenile justice system. Replicating and expanding upon this study with a larger sample size of diverse sexual minority youth and gender

minority youth in different geographic locations of the United States will shed greater light into the disparities experienced by sexual and gender minority youth in addition to needs and concerns facing such youth involved in the juvenile justice system. Extending this research to other countries outside of the United States will also provide important cross-cultural data that can better inform a more diverse understanding of disparities facing sexual minority youth involved in the juvenile justice system across the globe.

Given the importance and impact of relationships and therapeutic relationships on personal disclosures, future replications of this study and additional studies are recommended to include a qualitative component to follow up on the quantitative data collection. Doing so would allow researchers to gain a more in depth understanding of the experiences of sexual minority youth in the juvenile justice system, and such data with larger sample sizes would be essential in understanding concerns of sexual minority youth that may not have been measured by the measures used in this study.

To this point, in order for greater sample sizes to be present in research studies, sexual minority youth and gender minority youth must feel comfortable disclosing either their sexual orientation, gender identity, or both to service providers. For this to happen, significant changes must be made within the juvenile justice system to ensure safety, security, and support to these youth. It is also important to recognize contributing factors leading to system involvement, which traces back not only to familial and social support, but the role of school systems in ensuring fair, equitable, and just treatment to sexual and gender minority youth.

This researcher calls for greater action on behalf of psychologists and allied mental health professionals to bridge existing gaps between such professionals and parents or guardians, schoolteachers, school personnel and administrators, police officers, and juvenile justice

personnel including but not limited to judges, attorneys, defendants, and probation officers. Research has described in detail the disproportion rates of minority youth, especially, LGBTQ youth of color being exposed to and funneled through the school-to-prison pipeline. For this reason, psychologists and allied mental health professionals must ensure that all individuals working with sexual and gender minority youth have a greater understanding of ways to better support such youth and foster growth and development rather than system involvement.

With regard to youth involved in the juvenile justice system, system personnel and professionals must recognize contributing factors that may lead to system involvement for sexual and gender minority youth with a greater emphasis being placed on support and rehabilitation for presenting concerns rather than punitive measures. It is the hope of this researcher that sexual and gender minority youth will receive the support they deserve from adults in positions of power who have the ability to make a difference in the lives of these youth who comprise of our future generation.

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