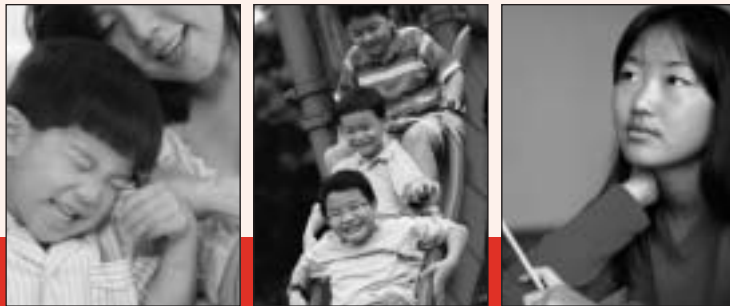# Promoting Positive Development and Preventing Youth Violence and High-Risk Behaviors in

ASIAN AMERICAN/PACIFIC ISLANDER COMMUNITIES

A SOCIAL ECOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

PREPARED BY

Larke Nahme Huang
Director of Research
Center for Child Health and Mental Health Policy
Georgetown University
Washington, DC

and

D.J. Ida, Ph.D.
Executive Director
National Asian American Pacific Islander Mental Health Association
Denver, Colorado

Promoting Positive Development and Preventing Youth Violence and High-Risk Behaviors in

ASIAN AMERICAN/PACIFIC ISLANDER COMMUNITIES

A SOCIAL ECOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

PREPARED BY

Larke Nahme Huang
Director of Research
Center for Child Health and Mental Health Policy
Georgetown University
Washington, DC

and

D.J. Ida, Ph.D.
Executive Director
National Asian American Pacific Islander Mental Health Association
Denver, Colorado

SPRING 2004

■ Acknowledgments

Asian Americans and Pacific Islander Americans are a numerically small but rapidly growing segment of the United States population. They are an extremely diverse population in terms of ethnicity, language, socioeconomic and educational status, level of acculturation and residency status. Some ethnic groups have been in the U.S. for multiple generations, others are more recent immigrants and refugees and part of newly emerging communities. The needs, challenges and strengths of this population have been sorely overlooked by mainstream services and institutions and they have often sought help through alternative pathways, not necessarily accessing existing services or supports. The needs of AAPI youth have similarly received little attention as they have been stereotypically depicted as either academic "whiz kids" or dangerous "gang members."

In this document we have tried to "fill in the blanks" about this youth population. We have attempted to provide a richer understanding of AAPI youth and families, the developmental and social challenges they confront, the inherent strengths within their culture and communities, and strategies to prevent violence and other high risk behavior among this population.

We would like to recognize and graciously thank the many knowledgeable and helpful people who made this project possible. First, at the Center for Mental Health Services, Ms Kana Enomoto and Dr. Tiffany Ho provided the vision and leadership for the Asian American and Pacific Islander Mental Health Summit in July 1999 that led to the recommendation for this project. Mr. Michael English, the director of the Division of Knowledge Development and Systems Change and Dr. Anne Mathews-Younes, branch chief of the Special Programs Development Branch, provided the support and "home" for this project. Dr. Malcolm Gordon and Ms Shelly Hara, the project officers, gave steady support, guidance and patience, persevering with us through the "long haul."

The wisdom of a talented working group was essential in helping to define the direction of the project and the importance of a public health and ecological approach. We especially learned from the community leaders who are doing the hard work of meeting the needs of youth and families in their communities, struggling with daunting obstacles and often with limited financial and human resources. We heard from youth and families. They helped us study risk and protective frameworks and understand the gaps in these frameworks for AAPI youth. The working group reflected the diversity of the AAPI population, as described above, and included federal policy makers, directors of AAPI community-based organizations and national organizations, academic and applied researchers, AAPI ethnic family members and youth, practitioners and community evaluators. Their leadership and guidance was essential.

■ Table of Contents

■ Youth Violence: A Community Problem and A Public Health Issue

Youth violence is both a community problem and a public health issue. In 1997 violence claimed the lives of more than 3,700 children under the age of 19, an average of 10 deaths per day (Thornton, Craft, Dahlberg, Lynch, & Baer, 2000). In our society, violence involving youth affects all communities. It is no longer a problem confined to large cities and impoverished communities; it is growing in suburban and rural communities, and across all socioeconomic and ethnic/racial groups. While it affects all communities, minority communities (communities of color) bear a disproportionate share of death, disability, and violence-related social disintegration (Cohen & Lang, 1991).

The decade from 1983 to 1993 marked an epidemic of violence throughout the country. It took a tremendous toll on young people, their families and communities. Since the peak of this epidemic, youth violence, as evidenced in arrest records, victimization data, and hospital emergency room records, has declined. However, the problem has not resolved as reflected by another indicator of violence—youth's confidential reports about their violent behavior. These reports reveal no change since 1993 in the numbers of youth who have committed physically injurious and potentially lethal behaviors. Arrests for aggravated assault have declined only slightly and in 1999 remained nearly 70 percent higher than pre-epidemic levels (Brener et al., 1999).

Youth violence is recognized as a public health concern. It contributes significantly to morbidity and mortality, and exacts an enormous toll on the health and well-being of our society and its health resource expenditures. A public health approach focuses more on prevention than rehabilitation. In contrast to a criminal offender or medical model, this approach looks at youth violence as a multi-

determined behavior, involving numerous antecedents and risk factors. No single etiology can explain this phenomenon. Rather, a combination of social, cultural, environmental, and individual factors contribute to the incidence of youth violence (American Psychological Association, 1993; Children's Defense Fund, 1999). Thus, this model calls for a practical, goal-oriented, community-based strategy for promoting and maintaining the health of a population.

The objective of this paper is to examine models of youth violence prevention and the applicability of these models to Asian American Pacific Islander (AAPI) youth and their communities. The increase in youth violence, the alarm stimulated by tragic school-based acts of violence, and the attention of the U.S. Congress have resulted in the establishment of numerous violence prevention programs. While some of these programs and federal initiatives have focused on ethnic minority youth, most have targeted African American or Latino communities (Wilson-Brewer & Jacklin, 1991). Few programs have addressed AAPI youth.

The issue of culture in understanding youth violence and violence prevention has received little attention. While policy makers proclaim the need for "culturally sensitive" programs— acknowledging that one must know Harlem to design a program for Harlem; must know the barrios of Texas to work there, must know Chinatown to work in Chinatown—this perspective is not translated into the design of programs (Novello, 1991). Culture is an integral determinant of human and community behavior, and its effect on risk or protective factors in youth violence must be examined (U.S.DHHS, 2001). Cultural factors inherent in AAPI communities may impede, or enhance, the effectiveness of existing models of prevention.

Overview. This paper presents background statistics on youth violence in general and in the AAPI community in particular. Unfortunately, limited data-collection efforts for AAPI communities have resulted in poor tracking of AAPI youth involvement in violence. In the absence of national statistics, data from several state studies are presented. A brief discussion follows on development and resiliency for youth of color. Risk and protective frameworks for violence prevention and examples of mainstream and AAPI-specific programs are presented. The paper concludes with brief recommendations to address violence prevention for AAPI youth from a research, policy and program perspective. There are three appendices, which include an annotated list of websites focusing on youth violence prevention and AAPI resources, a list of AAPI work group members for this project, and a matrix of promising programs in AAPI youth development and violence prevention.

■ Scope of Youth Violence

During the early to mid 1990's, youth violence escalated to epidemic proportions. A majority of interpersonal violence was accounted for by youth under the age of 19. Fagan (1996) noted that since 1985: (1) 15- to 19-year-old youths have produced the highest rates of violent crime, (2) rates of robbery and aggravated assault have risen steadily; and (3) the percentage of weapons involved in teen murders has increased from 50 percent to 85 percent. The violent crime rate increased overall by 51.5 percent from 1989 to 1993; juveniles accounted for the largest increase in these crimes (Hughes & Hasbrouk, 1996). The rate of youth homicide was twice that of other industrialized nations (Howard, Flora, and Griffin, 1999).

Among youth, the rate of nonfatal violent victimization (including assaults, robberies, and sexual assaults) was nearly three times that of adults (Sickmund, Snyder, & Poe-Yamagata, 1997). During a 1-year period, 39 percent of youths reported being in a physical fight and 4 percent were treated for fight-related injuries

(Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1996). Between 1986 and 1995, violent crime committed by youth under age 18, which included murder, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault, rose 67 percent (United States Department of Justice, 1996).

In spite of these grim statistics, the most recent reports, based on 1997 data, indicate that the juvenile crime rate has dropped dramatically (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1999a). In the mid-1980s, as juvenile crime began to increase rapidly, many observers and policy makers warned of waves of youth violence and "superpredators" as the youth population grew (Zimring, 1998). Recent statistics for 1995-96 indicate a slight decrease in juvenile crime, however, including a 9 percent decrease in the juvenile violent crime arrest rate, a 14 percent reduction in the number of juveniles arrested for murder, an 8 percent reduction in the number of juveniles arrested for robbery; a 10 percent reduction in motor vehicle theft; and a 9 percent reduction in weapons-related arrests (Snyder, 1997). These declines cannot be attributed to changes in the youth population; the number of youth increased by 1 percent during this period. More likely the declines may be due to positive and sustained community prevention initiatives (Children's Defense Fund, 1999). In absolute terms, however, juvenile violence and crime remain unacceptably high (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1998).

Youth at-risk for violent or antisocial behavior are vulnerable to gang recruitment and membership. Gang membership is strongly associated with an increase in violent behavior, either as victim or perpetrator. Youth gangs have become a significant public policy issue largely due to the growth of gang violence and the proliferation of youth gangs throughout the United States, spreading beyond major large cities to smaller cities and suburban and rural areas. The findings from a National Youth Gang Survey estimated 4,824 jurisdictions throughout the U.S. with active youth gangs. Within these jurisdictions were

30,818 gangs and 846,428 active gang members (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1999b). Gang membership is estimated to be on the increase, with the all-girl gang the fastest growing sector of gang culture (Acts Against Violence, 1995).

Most violence occurs in the youths' communities, although a significant proportion happens in schools at all levels—elementary, junior high, and high school, or in the vicinity of schools. A recent national survey of high school students estimated that 10 percent had carried a weapon on school property in the previous month; 8 percent of students had been threatened or injured with a weapon; 16 percent had participated in a physical fight; and 35 percent had property stolen or deliberately damaged in the previous year. Five percent of students reported missing at least one day of school in the previous month because of feeling unsafe in school (Centers for Disease Control, 1996). Another national survey of secondary school students found that 25 percent had been a victim of violence at or around school, 14 percent were "very worried" or "somewhat worried" about being physically attacked or hurt at school; 20 percent reported their desire to change schools because of violence; and 25 percent felt the school had not taken adequate steps to prevent violence (Everett & Price, 1995). However, recent trends in violence-related behaviors among high school students show declines in fighting and weapon-carrying (Brener et al., 1999.)

■ Asian American Pacific Islander Youth Involved in Violence: A Growing Concern

Youth violence is a growing problem in AAPI communities. Arrest statistics published by the U.S. Department of Justice (1990, 1992, 1996) indicate a steady increase in arrests for AAPI youth (18 and under) from 1987 to 1995, while arrests of those over 18 years were stable in the population at large. The types of offenses contributing to this increase were crimes against families and children, embezzlement, gambling, robbery, curfew violations, runaways, and sex offenses. In New York City from 1993 to 1996, the number of Asian youths arrested for major criminal activities rose from 399 to 549, a 38 percent increase (New York Police Department, 1998). This was a significant change, given that the city's Asian population increased only 23 percent and the overall number of adolescents of all ethnic groups in the city arrested for major felonies actually declined during this period (New York Police Department, 1998).

A similar trend was noted in Seattle and the surrounding King County area, where growing concern about the increase in youth violence and gang activity involving AAPI youth led to the formation of an Asian Pacific Islander Task Force on Youth. Findings from the task force (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993) indicated that gang involvement, criminal activity, youth violence, and educational problems are prevalent among AAPI youth, particularly for Filipino, Samoan, and Southeast Asian youth. The criminal justice system is also receiving more referrals of AAPI youth. According to the King County Department of Youth Services, referrals of AAPI youth have steadily increased each year, from 8 percent of the 1991 referrals to 10 percent in 1992,

and 13 percent in only the first half of 1993. AAPI youth are also increasingly at risk for school problems. More AAPI youth are being suspended or expelled, performing below grade level, and dropping out of school. Southeast Asian, Filipino, and Samoan middle- and high-school students are the primary AAPI ethnic groups at risk (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993).

An analysis of juvenile arrests in San Francisco indicated that AAPI's are underrepresented when compared to other racial/ethnic populations. They are the largest populations but have one of the lowest rates. Disaggregating the data reveals a different pattern for particular ethnic groups. For example, Samoans and Southeast Asian have a higher arrest and recidivism rate compared to other minority youth (Le et al., 2001).

■ Juvenile Offenses and Deportation for Foreign-born Asian Americans

The need for early intervention and prevention programs are of particular importance to foreign born Asian Americans. Consequences for violent or delinquent behavior can be severe and may result in deportation if the juvenile is adjudicated as an adult (Ida & Yang, 2002; Yang, 2002). In twenty-three states, juveniles can be tried as adults. A major change in deportation laws since 1996 rendered offenses that garnered only a one year sentence to be subject to deportation. This is a major shift from the laws prior to 1996 that required a sentence of five years or more.

In April, 1996, the Anti-Terrorist and Effective Death Penalty Act broadened the categories for what constitutes a deportable offense and in

September of the same year, the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigration Responsibility Act (IRAIRA) effectively removed the ability of Immigration and Naturalization Services (INS) to look at the merits of a case on an individual basis (Coalition for Juvenile Justice, 2004). While most Southeast Asian youth are now American born, there are a number of foreign born youth who are currently serving lengthy jail sentences having been tried as adults. The U.S. government can deport any non-citizen to the country of origin with the exception of Vietnam, Laos and Cuba. This leaves individuals from these countries in legal limbo: the U.S. wants to deport them, their country of origin will not accept them. In March 2002, the US government signed an agreement with Cambodia that allows Cambodians to be returned to Cambodia. In June of 2002, the first Cambodians were deported. Once deported, the likelihood of being reunited with family members in the U.S. is virtually nonexistent. Some who have been deported are strangers to their country of birth, having come to the U.S. when they were children. For them, the consequences are truly a life sentence.

■ AAPI Youth Gangs

Despite historically low levels of Asian youths' criminal involvement, recent trends suggest dramatically rising arrest levels for AAPI youth, primarily due to gang-related criminal activity (Le et al., 2001). In recent years, there has been a resurgence of attention to Asian youth gang activities (Dao, 1992; Lee & Zhan, 1998). Gangs are defined as any denotable group of youngsters (and young adults) who are generally perceived as a distinct aggregation by others in their neighborhood, recognize themselves as a denotable group, usually with a group name, and have been involved in a number of delinquent incidents that generate a negative response from the community and/or law enforcement agencies (Klein, 1969). In New York City, youth gang activities around Chinatown have been on the rise (Lee & Zhan, 1998). Vietnamese gang activities in New York, California, and Texas were reported to be increasingly dangerous because many members

grew up in post-war Vietnam and witnessed severe atrocities (Hays, 1990; Gross, 1991). It is estimated that AAPI youth constitute five to six percent of U.S. gang membership. The highest average proportion of AAPI gang members occurs in western urban areas where they make up 11 percent of the gang population. In other political jurisdictions they make up 2-6 percent of gang membership, greater than their proportion of three percent in the overall population. A higher average proportion of Asian gang members were reported in large cities (7 percent) and suburban counties (6 percent) than in small cities and rural counties (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1999).

In 1993, the Seattle Gang Unit identified 23 local AAPI gangs and 400 gang members (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993). About 200 AAPI gang members have spent time in detention. The King County Gang Unit is also seeing more AAPI youth involved with gangs at the county level. It is estimated that King County has between 500 and 800 active gang members, about half of who are AAPI youth.

According to the 1998 Report on Gang Activity of the California Department of Justice Bureau of Investigations, there are approximately 25,000 Asian street gang members belonging primarily to Vietnamese, Cambodian, Laotian and Hmong gangs, varying in size from 5 to 500 members. The average gang member ranges in age from 15 to 30 years old. In the city of Westminster in Orange County, CA approximately 17 percent of all juvenile delinquency and 48 percent of all Asian delinquency offenses involve Asian gangs (U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice Delinquency Prevention, 2000.)

Youth without adequate parental supervision and communication skills are at risk for gang involvement. This is seen often among Southeast Asian refugees who experience severe economic and educational disadvantage, and more recent immigrants from China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan who are either brought to the U.S. by family members or are sent as unaccompanied minors.

Many of these youth are often frustrated in their new country, experience language difficulties, are forced to attend classes with younger students, perform poorly in school, and are taunted by youths from other ethnic groups—and even viewed with disdain by American-born or more acculturated members of their own group (Cartledge & Feng, 1996). These youth face tremendous pressures related to social adjustment and academic performance (Cowart & Cowart, 1993).

Some of these youth, forced to survive in a new country without adequate supports and supervision, withdraw from school and join gangs as a means of belonging and socializing. In a study of Chinese subculture and criminality, Chin (1990) found that Chinese gangs initially began in schools where racial tensions were high and then moved beyond the schools and into the community, engaging in more criminal behavior. These youth indulged in self-destructive behaviors, such as violence and substance abuse, to cope with a sense of alienation. As parental authority erodes and constraints against aggression become less effective, and confronted with high unemployment, impoverished conditions, poor housing, and the stresses of acculturation, gang membership becomes more appealing (Huang & Ying, 1998). Furthermore, as ethnic traditions fade and restrictions are relaxed, AAPI youth, harboring feelings of alienation and poor self-concept, become vulnerable to problem behaviors. Similarly Toy (1992a) indicates that the history of Asian youth gangs is profoundly linked with patterns of immigration combined with American society's rejection of its new immigrants.

In a comprehensive study of Chinese youth gangs, Lee (1994) presents the argument that youth join gangs because they are out of options. Due to their ethnic minority status, limited economic opportunities, and negative experiences with government institutions, Asian youth perceive that they have no choice but to join gangs in order to survive in this society. Lee documented some of the distinctive features of Chinese youth gangs:

- They do not fit the traditional youth gang definition because many members are older, ranging in age from 14 to 34 years old.
- The usually discreet nature of Chinese gangs makes their existence slow to be recognized by the communities or law enforcement.
- These gangs are often connected to other criminal organizations abroad and some are controlled by a few main tongs (crime families) in the Chinese organized crime network linked to China or Hong Kong.
- Some Chinese youth gangs originate in China and spread to the U.S. as part of the immigration process.
- These gangs participate in violence and criminal activities ranging from youth gangs to organized-crime.
- The local, national, and international gang circuits are enmeshed, such that a larger organization will rotate its members among different cities in order to bring new faces and confusion to law enforcement.
- The gang organizational structure is similar to traditional Chinese family structure in its hierarchical rigidity.
- Recruitment into gangs is coercive or linked to friendships.

Compared to established ethnic gangs, many Vietnamese or Chinese-Vietnamese gangs were originally more fluid and difficult to monitor and control (Ranard, 1991). These gangs were referred to as "nomad gangs," "roving criminals," and "hasty gangs." They were highly mobile and loosely organized, traveling from city to city. With no particular territory, group name, or permanent leader and they were often in a state of flux with new members joining and dropping out. These gangs had a preference for quick-getaway crimes such as car thefts, store robberies, and home burglaries, and home invasions. A more recent study of Southeast Asian gangs suggests that these gangs are less fluid now and share similar characteristics with more traditional gangs, such as identifying names, gang insignia, and a defined social structure (Hunt, Joe, & Waldorf, 1997).

Vietnamese gangs tend to prey on their own ethnic groups, using their shared cultural knowledge to target the vulnerabilities of their victims (Ranard, 1991). For example, knowing that many Vietnamese distrust banks, keep large amounts of valuables and cash at home, and are unwilling to cooperate with law enforcement for fear of reprisal, these Vietnamese gangs target them for home invasions involving armed gang members holding family members hostage until they surrender their valuables.

In the past two decades Hmong communities have grown in size, primarily due to secondary migrations after they were initially dispersed throughout the U.S. Hmong gangs also have emerged in these communities, with the gangs manifesting some of the same social dynamics of mountaineer Hmong villagers faced with an outside threat (Westermeyer, Bouafuely-Kersey, & Her, 1997).

In a qualitative interview study with Southeast Asian gang members in northern California, Hunt and colleagues (1997) found that the development of gangs is often a protective mechanism created by adolescents to deal with hostile situations. The respondents reported that race and ethnicity became increasingly important and divisive as they moved into their teen years, with heightened physical and verbal abuse from their contemporaries who taunted them with racial stereotypes. These youth joined gangs for protection and a place of refuge from strained relations with family, peers, and the community at large. Toy (1992b) found that racial and intra-racial tension, cultural barriers, family stress, and prolonged separation and diminished time and attachment to parents fuel the need to form social ties with other Asian youth sharing similar

experiences. Given these conditions, some youth join gangs, others select alternative peer groups. Toy (1992b) suggests that the need for protection and personal security, and the ready presence of gangs and growing up into gangs contribute to gang membership; however, in his study, most gang members joined as a result of their own victimization, being physically assaulted or battered by individuals, other ethnic groups, or other Asian gangs.

Lee (1994) and Gibbs (1995) summarize some of the risk factors that promote gang involvement for ethnic minority youth. Individual/peer factors include ethnic minority status leading to cumulative experiences of racism and ensuing frustration and anger, and a sense of alienation and isolation from the greater community. Family factors include intergenerational and intercultural conflict, lack of supervision and monitoring, and parents ill equipped to help youth adjust and cope with a new society and culture. School factors include discriminatory practices, lack of connection between the youth and the school, and poor academic performance. Community factors include lack of preparation to help newcomer youth adjust to the new culture. Based on an extensive focus group study of African American youth gang members, Gibbs (1995) presents 10 major functions provided by gangs: sense of group identity, surrogate family, enhanced social status, self-esteem, social structure, social activities, security, social support, source of income, and redirection of anger and aggression.

In constructing violence prevention programs for AAPI youth, it is imperative to understand the socio-cultural risk factors for joining gangs and the specific functions served by gang membership for AAPI youth.

◼ AAPI Demographic and Social Indicators

Prior to focusing on the risk behaviors of AAPI youth, it is important to start with an accurate picture of who Asian American and Pacific Islanders are. First, the AAPI population is the fastest growing racial/ethnic population in the United States. In 2000, the AAPI population had increased to 11.9 million persons or about 4 percent of the total U.S. population. This includes Asian alone or in combination with one or more other races. Using Asian alone, there is a 48 percent increase in the population between 1990 and 2000. Based on Asian alone or in combination with other races, the increase from 1990 to 2000 is 72 percent. In comparison, the total population of the U.S. grew by 13 percent in the same decade (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002.) The U.S. Census Bureau estimates that the AAPI population will double again to more than 20 million persons by the year 2020. The largest Asian ethnic groups and their percent growth rates from 1990 to 2000 were Chinese with a growth rate of 48%, Filipino at 30%, Asian Indian at 113%, and Vietnamese at 89%. The largest Pacific Island groups are Native Hawaiian and Samoan. Six in ten AAPIs in the U.S. are foreign-born (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2002).

The projected rate of growth of the AAPI juvenile population (under age 18) exceeds that of any other group. The Census Bureau estimates that between 1995 and 2015, the number of AAPI juveniles is expected to increase 74 percent, compared to 19 percent for African American juveniles, 17 percent for American Indian juveniles, 59 percent for Hispanic juveniles, and a decrease of 3 percent for white, non-Hispanic juveniles (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Program, 1999). Resources for health, human service, education, and youth programs have not kept up with the needs associated with this growing population.

Relative to other population groups, the AAPI population is young with an estimated median age of 31. The age distributions are as follows:

Under 5 years:	7.8%
Five to nine years:	7.3%
10 to 14 years:	7.8%
15 to 19 years:	8.6%

The AAPI population is an extremely heterogeneous population. The 2000 Census categories included 25 Asian ethnic/national groups. Among these groups are distinct languages, dialects, and cultural customs and practices. The majority of the AAPI population tends to be foreign-born, and, in some communities, such as New York City, almost four out of five AAPIs are foreign-born. These immigrant families bring traditions and beliefs from their home countries that often conflict with the values and practices of mainstream U.S. society. The AAPI population has much variability in generation status, with some groups being well established over multiple generations and others representing more recently arrived, emerging groups.

Ogbu (1987) puts forth a theory of involuntary and voluntary minority groups that may be framed as a potential risk factor or social indicator for poor outcomes. East Asians, including many Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans, represent voluntary groups in that they emigrated to the U.S. by choice with the anticipation of improving their lives (Schneider & Lee, 1990). In contrast, Southeast Asians (Laotians, Cambodians, and Vietnamese), more recent groups, came to the U.S. primarily as refugees and are considered an involuntary group (Dao, 1991). A critical distinction is that people who choose to emigrate are relatively more psychologically prepared, whereas refugees forced to leave their countries are usually psychologically and economically

unprepared, and encounter more severe adjustment and survival problems (Dao, 1991; Cartledge & Feng, 1996). Insufficient language skills, barriers of prejudice and racism, poverty, overwhelming uncertainty, and the loss of family, friends, community, country, and social, status render survival in a new country extremely difficult (Rumbaut, 1985). Southeast Asian refugee parents tended to be culturally and linguistically less prepared to provide psychological, social, and academic assistance to their children than voluntary immigrants from East Asia. While variability still exists within these groups, given the educational and economic disadvantage of rural Vietnamese, Laotians, and Cambodians, the high levels of traumatic experiences, lack of preparation for resettlement in the U.S., high rates of post-traumatic stress syndrome within families, and difficulties in acculturation, it is clear that a growing number of Southeast Asian American children are at risk for dropping out of school and engaging in maladaptive behaviors (Dao, 1991).

While not a direct predictor of youth violence and other risk behaviors, poverty is a social indicator associated with increased risk of violence. Violence is most prevalent among the poor, regardless of race (APA, 1993). In 1997, the poverty threshold for a family of four was $16,400. In 1997, juveniles under age 18 accounted for 26 percent of the total U.S. population but 40 percent of all persons living below the poverty level. The proportion of children living in poverty varied by race and ethnicity. **In 1997, the proportion of AAPI juveniles living in poverty was 20 percent**, compared to 37 percent for African American and Hispanic juveniles, and 16 percent for white juveniles. Between 1988 and 1997, the overall number of juveniles living in poverty increased by 13 percent. However, the number of AAPI youth living in poverty increased by 32 percent (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1999). In looking at this data, it is important to disaggregate within ethnic groups. For AAPI, the percent of families living at the poverty level

varies from 6 percent for Filipinos to as high as 63 percent for Hmong (Coalition for Asian American Children and Their Families, 1999).

The geographic distribution of the AAPI population is uneven across the nation with nearly 80 percent residing in 10 states, the largest being California with 32 percent of the AAPI population, New York, the second, with nearly 10 percent, and Hawaii, the third, with nine percent. Geographic distribution has an impact on the availability of resources and the design of programs. Resources tend to be clustered in areas with high concentrations of AAPIs. Cities such as Los Angeles, San Francisco, Boston and New York have large, ethnic specific services, e.g. programs designed specifically for Koreans, Chinese or Vietnamese. Areas such as Denver and Salt Lake City tend to have multi-ethnic programs, often having one Vietnamese clinician for the entire Vietnamese population, one Korean for the Koreans, etc.. There remains a large portion of the country that has no ethnic specific agencies and must rely on individual ethnic service providers or interpreters who are embedded in larger community based organizations or mental health centers. Providing services for Hawaii and the other Pacific Islanders is particularly challenging. The distance between islands is a major factor impeding the ability to provide comprehensive services.

Common to most communities is the shortage of resources available or targeted to AAPI populations. For example, a study of Asian Americans in New York City begins to present a more complete picture of how this population is faring. Here, as across the nation, AAPIs are found on opposite sides of the spectrum. Common misconceptions characterize all AAPIs as affluent and highly educated. In reality, AAPIs are extremely variable on social indicators. In New York City, AAPIs, the fastest growing segment of the population, make up one tenth of the city's population; however, health and human services have failed to keep pace with the specific linguistic, cultural, and geographical needs of this growing population (Coalition for Asian American Children and Families, 1999).

In terms of social indicators, this study of AAPIs in New York found that 48 percent of AAPI children are born into poor or near poor families. In the city's public high schools, one out of three AAPI students does not graduate with his or her class, and one of five students has limited English proficiency. Rates of depression are high, and suicide is the third highest cause of death among AAPI youth age 15-24. Arrests of AAPI youth have increased far beyond increases in rates for other youth. The level of poverty among AAPI New Yorkers is obscured by statistics that do not reflect the bimodal incomes found in the diverse Asian community and typical Asian household. AAPIs tend to be concentrated on either end of income levels; thus income statistics based on averages tend to conceal the many families living in poverty and the many households that often include multiple wage earners. Per capita income is well below that of the white population and much closer to that of African Americans. While AAPIs are more likely to be employed than other ethnic groups, many work 10- to 12-hour days, six or seven days a week, in labor and service industries where they barely earn minimum wage. Although more than one of six AAPI households live in poverty, only one third of those who appear eligible actually receive public assistance (Coalition for Asian American Children and Their Families, 1999).

AAPI New Yorkers are concentrated in nine community districts that are mostly low to moderate income. They live in the most overcrowded housing of any broadly defined ethnic or racial group in New York City, with nearly 20 percent of all Asian households in the city considered overcrowded (Administration for Children's Services, 1998).

Substance abuse and involvement in criminal behavior are closely connected. Alcohol is the drug most frequently connected with violent behavior. While AAPI youth as a group have low rates of substance abuse, there are significant within group differences. Although AAPI youth's abuse of prescription drugs is lowest of all the racial groups, it has more than tripled from 1999 to 2000 (NCADI, 2002).

These demographic and social indicators must be addressed when considering youth development and prevention programs for AAPI youth. The AAPI youth's educational and developmental needs are unique and compounded by the stress of cultural adaptation, issues of poverty, and intergenerational and acculturation conflict.

■ Social Ecology of Youth Development

Understanding the process of youth development is essential to designing prevention programs. Various theories have examined developmental outcomes, effective patterns of adaptation to the environment, and, more recently, development of competence and resilience in favorable and unfavorable environments. These approaches have evolved from an exclusive focus on the individual's emotional/social functioning to a more social ecological focus on the youth in relevant, naturally occurring settings. This ecological orientation extends beyond individual behavior to encompass functional systems both within and between settings, and the complex interaction between the developing person and the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This perspective examines how the individual develops in interaction with the immediate social environment and how aspects of the larger social context affect the individual's more immediate settings (Garbarino, 1982). This framework spawned the concept of positive youth development, a key component in contemporary prevention science.

■ Positive Youth Development

In the 1990s, a number of key organizations focusing on youth—the Carnegie Corporation of New York (1995), the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (1996), the Consortium on the School Based Promotion of Social Competence (1994), and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (1995)—promoted a positive youth-development approach. This represented a paradigm shift in thinking about youth and the prevention of youth problems. Rather than focusing on maladaptive behavior (e.g., academic failure, teen pregnancy, youth violence, or substance abuse), this perspective focuses on positive social change and strategies that promote positive youth development. More than a semantic shift, this change in thinking has implications for the way programs and policies are developed, implemented, and evaluated. Focusing solely on the elimination of problem behavior does not provide the adaptive skills required to help the person lead a productive life. The individual may know what not to do but is still inadequately prepared to know what he/she should do. Most strategies that are used to prevent maladaptive behaviors are in fact encouraging positive developmental skills (e.g., social skills, communication skills, self-awareness, family and community commitment, etc.).

An exclusive focus on the problem detracts from viewing youth in a holistic, integrated manner that includes problems, strengths, hopes, and aspirations. Historically, this approach is represented by theories emphasizing predetermined organismic bases of development, as in attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969), ethological theory (e.g., Lorenz, 1965), behavioral genetics (e.g., Plomin, 1986), psychoanalytic theory (e.g., S. Freud, 1954), neo-psychoanalytic theory (e.g., A. Freud, 1969; Erikson, 1968), or environmental, reductionistic and mechanistic bases of behavior change (e.g., Bijou & Baer, 1961; Gewirtz & Stingle, 1968). A few theories stressed the interaction between organismic and environmental sources of development (e.g., Piaget, 1950, 1970), but for the most part, there were two different sources of development and the individual and the environment were seen as separate.

Current empirical work on human development uses more dynamic, systems models to understand the trajectory of change across the life span (Lerner, 1998). This framework is relevant to the development of ethnic and racially diverse youth, in that it emphasizes the cultural factors in

different ethnic communities and the impact on youth development (Parker, Sussman, Crippens, Scholl & Elder, 1996). Previous developmental theory had minimal, if any, focus on ethnic minority children and the specific cultural factors that contribute to their development.

Thus, in contemporary theory, the essential process of development involves changing relations between the developing youth and his or her changing context (Lerner, 1998). The youth's intra-individual characteristics (e.g., physiological status, cognition, personality, temperament, and ethnicity) are connected to his or her behavioral and social context, functioning, and development. The inner and outer worlds of the youth are dynamically interactive. The main focus is on the *relations* between individuals and their settings, rather than on understanding or changing solely the individual or the context. In terms of intervention, the emphasis would be on positively altering the relations between youth and their settings, not just the youth or the setting. For example, understanding and striving for the healthy development of youth may require examining the effects of maternal employment, parental illness, single parenting, temperamental styles, community-based youth programs, school structure, neighborhood resources, peer group norms, and economic resources (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1995; Lerner & Castellino, 1998).

■ Role of Culture in Contemporary Developmental Frameworks

Contemporary developmental theory extends beyond the individual to encompass functional systems and diverse settings. This approach represents a useful framework for understanding the development of culturally diverse youth. By focusing on the interaction between the youth and the setting, positive youth development and ecological theories are poised to take into account the role of race, ethnicity, and culture (Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990).

AAPI youth and their families negotiate a different set of developmental challenges and tasks. These challenges give rise to adaptive strategies, socialization goals, and developmental outcomes for these youth that may be distinct from youth belonging to the dominant culture. These developmental challenges are generated by cultural differences, which may lead to clashes in values, behaviors, and attitudes, and by "minority" status, which is potentially devaluing and stress producing. As AAPI youth and their families negotiate the usual developmental tasks, the cultural overlay and acculturation and generation status add complexity to these tasks.

The next section presents several examples of developmental tasks and challenges, and adaptive strategies for AAPI youth and families and supporting empirical literature. This information is used to identify risk and protective factors in violence-prevention models.

■ Developmental Tasks and Adaptive Strategies for AAPI Youth

The developmental progression for AAPI youth is not dissimilar to other mainstream and culturally diverse youth. However, the role of culture, the attributions associated with "minority" status, and the level of acculturation of the family contribute to the increased complexity and challenges of these normative tasks. The methods of adaptation and mastery of these socio-developmental challenges are often culturally-based.

Identity and Autonomy

Identity development is a more complex task for culturally diverse youth. Commitment to an ethnic identity is considered an important factor contributing to positive adjustment, ego identity, and self-esteem among culturally diverse adolescents and young adults, especially those from minority status groups in the U.S. (Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Havira, 1992). AAPI families, peer groups, schools, and communities potentially contribute to this by teaching these youth about the strengths of their cultural heritage. Rosenthal and Feldman (1992) suggest that a warm family environment, consisting of explicit rules, control, and encouragement of autonomy, predicted ethnic pride but not ethnic knowledge. Ethnic behavior and knowledge are expected to be influenced by specific parent practices. Okano and Spilka (1972) highlight that parents actively serving as ethnic role models for their second- or third-generation adolescents do not significantly account for ethnic identification. This suggests that other entities, such as peer groups, teachers, religious groups, or community groups, may play a significant role in promoting healthy ethnic identity. Unfortunately, little research has examined the impact of these interactions on formation of ethnic identity (Serafica, 1990).

Empirical investigations of identity and self-concept formation among AAPI youth address issues of morality, alienation, body image, social relationships, and group identity are dominant (Hall, 1995; Leong & Chou, 1994; Serafica, 1990). AAPI youth rate high on issues of morality,

but lower on measures of social relationships, attitudes toward physical appearance, and group identity. The developmental task for AAPI youth is not merely to develop a sense of identity and associated autonomy and competence, but to do this within the context of maintaining close relationships with the family. Available literature indicates that AAPI parents tend to be more restrictive of their children's independence in social activities and occupational choices (Yao, 1985) but foster early independence in the academic area (Lin & Fu, 1990) compared to Caucasian American parents. Differences related to acculturation also exist, with more acculturated Chinese and Japanese American parents less restrictive and more encouraging of behavioral autonomy than their less acculturated AAPI counterparts (Uba, 1994).

The empirical literature has documented larger emotional and communication gaps between AAPI adolescents and parents, compared to Caucasian American youth, which seem to interfere with the process of identity and self-concept formation (Han, 1985; Nguyen and Williams, 1989). These intergenerational gaps are attributed to differential acculturation rates and limited proficiency in the Asian language among the youth and limited proficiency in English among the parents and older generations (Yee, Huang & Lew, 1998; Uba, 1994). In a study of Korean American adolescents, Han (1985) noted that these adolescents disclosed the most to their same-sex peers in comparison to Caucasian American adolescents, who disclosed more to their mothers.

The process of immigration or resettlement for AAPI youth may exacerbate normal developmental struggles with identity, self-concept, and generation conflicts with parents (Ho, 1992). AAPI youth often encounter conflicting social norms between their ethnic communities and mainstream American society, while simultaneously vulnerable to changing social norms within their own families (Uba, 1994). They are actively exploring roles and behaviors of the American culture, redefining their values and self-concepts, and renegotiating social and family roles and relationships (Huang, 1989; Ida 2002).

Negotiating Family Dynamics

The developmental task of forging an identity and acquiring a sense of autonomy is particularly challenging in the context of Asian family norms of filial obedience and family interdependence, coupled with mainstream societal goals of verbal assertiveness, individualism, and independence (Nagata, 1989). Newer-generation parents, whether immigrants or refugees, commonly instill a desire for maintenance of language and traditions in their children; however, due to their own resettlement and adjustment stresses, they confront social, psychological, and economic obstacles that impede this objective. Adolescent-parent conflicts in these families are exacerbated by disruption of roles and parent-child role reversal (Ho, 1987; Uba, 1995; Ida, 2002, Lee, 1997). Due to feelings of helplessness and frustration, these parents often display a bimodal response, either increasing discipline in an attempt to restore traditional family roles or removing themselves from the task of supervision and monitoring. This internal and intergenerational conflict might manifest in its extreme forms as youth gang involvement, substance use, and delinquency (Furuto & Murase, 1992).

Biculturalism: An Adaptive Strategy

Culturally diverse groups in the U.S. go through a process of acculturation driven by the juxtaposition of two or more autonomous cultures. For communities of color, this has been problematic because of the devaluing of their ethnic culture by the dominant culture. A strategy for adapting to this cultural clash has been a bicultural orientation. The bicultural person learns to function optimally in more than one cultural context and to switch repertoires of behavior appropriately and adaptively as indicated by the situation (Laosa, 1977; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1993; Huang, 1994, Ida, 2002). Studies of this strategy have indicated the dual existence of public and private domains of culturally diverse individuals and families, and a bicultural adaptation that uniquely combines aspects of the mainstream and ethnic cultures. Acculturation may change the way

individual family members interact and present themselves to outside groups, but internal family dynamics remain mostly intact. Tamura (1994) indicated that Nisei (second generation Japanese or the first generation born in the United States) may be more direct, aggressive, and individualistic in public or among Caucasian Americans, but very traditional, group consensus-focused, and subtle in communication style at home or among Japanese friends. The behavior among AAPI individuals may be determined by the context and contribute to a bicultural orientation. Gim-Chung (1994) notes that in most models of acculturation and ethnic identity, biculturalism is the desired adaptation. Biculturalism implies that the individual is invested in one or more cultures without judging any one culture as superior.

■ Developmental Tasks and Adaptive Strategies for AAPI Families

Culture is a strong determinant of the structure and roles of families. For AAPI families, the cultural underpinning often determines the family tasks and functions and how these are to be carried out. The strategies for addressing these family developmental tasks reflect the culture and generational status of the family.

Socialization, Emotional Expression, and Kin-Keeping

Social, emotional, and kin-keeping tasks are critical functions of AAPI families. The development of social skills and the fulfillment of kin-keeping tasks for survival, maintenance, and socialization of AAPI family members is a developmental task for these families throughout the life course. These "adaptive strategies" are cultural patterns—behaviors, not personality dynamics—that promote survival and well-being of the community, families, and individual members of the group and are passed down from one generation to the next (DeVos, 1982; Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990). These strategies include family extendedness, biculturalism, and ancestral world views.

Family Extendedness: An Adaptive Strategy

Family extendedness is an adaptive strategy and typical family structure in many culturally diverse communities. For AAPI communities, the extended family is a problem-solving and stress-coping system that adapts and commits family resources to normal developmental tasks and crisis situations. The family resources may encompass tangible contributions such as material support, income, child care, household assistance, and intangible help, such as expressive interaction, emotional support, counseling, instruction, and social regulation (Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990). This proximal contact provides a family with a sense of group and personal identities, behavioral rules, roles and responsibilities, and emotional affiliations and attachments (Gibson, 1972; Gibbs & Huang, 1998).

The traditional AAPI family is characterized by well-defined, unilaterally organized, hierarchical, and highly interdependent roles within a cohesive patriarchal vertical structure. Prescribed roles and relationships emphasize subordination and interdependence, the virtue of filial piety and the avoidance of loss of face (Tseng, 1973; Lee, 1997). The primary importance of the kinship relationship supersedes development of ties to other groups, organizations, or individuals. Family interaction patterns and socializing principles convey avoidance of personal confrontations to produce smooth interpersonal relationships (Agbayani-Siewert & Revilla, 1995; Yee & Hennessey, 1982).

Pacific Islanders share many similar family values with Asian families; however, the manifestation of these values varies across Pacific Islander families. The Hawaiian extended family, central to Hawaiian culture, is a matriarchal structure, which highly values and indulges their children. It promotes interdependence and increased opportunities for children to exercise adult roles as part of their family duties. Sibling cooperation and conflict avoidance with adults are encouraged as primary coping strategies (Gall more, Boggs, &

Jordan, 1974). All family socialization practices reinforce the value of affiliations, and the mature, successful Hawaiian person is one who can accurately perceive and attend to another person's needs without being asked (Shook, 1985). The affiliative nature of interpersonal relations is a central theme in Hawaiian identity and socialization (Ito, 1985).

In a study of the largest overseas community of Samoans living in southern California, Shu (1985-86) found that the Samoan kinship system has retained extended family features such as temporary financial and material support to new immigrants from the homeland. Nearly 88 percent of the interviewees desired to have elderly relatives live in the same household. Chain migration of young relatives was very high, with 42 percent of respondents having kin in the same household. Kin provided living accommodations and helped with employment referral. The presence of kin was a social support, but also increased financial and social stress for the Samoans because they often lacked the resources to help extended family with economic and financial assistance, and nearly one third of the respondents lived below the poverty level (Janes, 1990).

A survey study of 490 second- and third-generation Japanese Americans in California from 1979 to 1990 found a persistence of traditional social relationships across the generations (Fujita & O'Brien, 1991). Involvement with Japanese voluntary associations, such as *tanomoshi* (rotating credit associations) reinforced iemoto (cultural origin of the household). This reinforcement of the mutually dependent hierarchical relationships in the Japanese community and family served to buffer against assaults from the outside community and strengthened ethnic solidarity and cultural values.

As an adaptive strategy, reliance on the extended family has led to a greater sense of interdependence, a greater focus on group goals, and less emphasis on individuality and individual needs. With increased acculturation, however, the extended family may be experienced as a strength

for some members, but as a restriction on autonomy for others.

Cultural Traditions and Worldview: An Adaptive Strategy

Mainstream American culture is dominated by the belief in the importance of the individual, heralded in the concept of "rugged individualism." The social order is predicated on encouragement and recognition of individual achievements, accomplishments, and power with the emphasis on self-fulfillment and self-development. In contrast, the worldview of many communities of color is one of collectivism. The fluidity of boundaries between self- and non-self interests is based on a more inclusive concept of the person as attached to families, households, communities, and the group (Hsu, 1981; Sampson, 1988).

The salience of this cultural worldview is reflected in the spiritual, religious, and philosophical orientations in contemporary ethnic communities. For AAPIs, the traditional cultural orientations and values are deeply rooted in the doctrines and philosophies of Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism, each offering a prescription for living that emphasizes selected virtues and adherence to codes of behavior. For example, in Confucian thought, harmony is the core of existence, and the individual's obligation is to sustain harmony within the social order (Chan, 1986; Sue & Sue, 1990). Filial piety, modesty, and the interconnectedness of the past, present, and future are valued. Self-fulfillment and self-development are expressed through interpersonal relationships that define and enhance a social group, again reflecting the focus on harmony in Confucian teachings (Yamamoto, Silva, Ferrari, & Nukariya, 1997). In general, Asian worldviews emphasize interdependence, not only in relation to integrating the family and the kinship clans, but also in responding to the community. Thus, AAPI children learn early to be sensitive to the impact of their thoughts and actions on the group. They become especially aware of the family group, followed by the school group and then work and community groups.

Indebtedness and a sense of obligation play a significant role in maintaining family solidarity, connectedness, and traditions through the generations. In a study of Japanese-American kinship relations, Johnson (1977) concluded that the maintenance of kinship relations among second- and third-generation Japanese Americans was based on an obligatory system rather than on an optional one. Lifelong and ongoing exchange of services, respect, care, advice and reciprocity increased the social contact and connectedness among these families. Children often felt an ongoing sense of obligation and indebtedness to their parents who, in turn, manifest a similar indebtedness to their own parents. Johnson (1977) noted that these values of interdependence, reciprocity and indebtedness were present three generations past the first American-born generation and served to strengthen these Japanese families in Hawaii.

These cultural traditions and worldview are critical strategies for AAPI youth and are often maintained, although in modified form, remaining adaptive long after acculturation to American lifestyles has occurred. Particularly when confronted with racism, discrimination, and denigrating portrayals of their ethnic group, these families and their youth have used their cultural traditions and worldviews as an adaptive strategy for pathways to achievement, a sense of personal worth, and overcoming societal barriers (Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990).

Understanding the particular developmental challenges and the adaptive strategies of AAPI youth and their families has important implications for (1) identifying the vulnerabilities that may contribute to youth involvement in violence and (2) harnessing the cultural strengths and adaptive strategies on which to build prevention programs.

■ Risk and Protective Factors in Youth Development

The concepts of risk and protection are essential to public health. A risk factor is anything that raises the probability that an individual will suffer harm. A protective factor is something that decreases the potentially injurious effect of a risk factor (USDHHS, 2001). Risk factors predictive of violence are not static. Their impact changes depending on when they occur in a young person's development. A risk factor for a young child will not necessarily put an adolescent at risk. For protective factors, there is more ambiguity of definition. Some view protective factors as the absence of risk. Others view it completely separate from risk. Protective factors may also buffer the effects of risk. What are the factors that precipitate involvement in youth violence? What are the risk factors and the protective factors? Why is it that children and adolescents exposed to the same risk factors and environments have different developmental trajectories, with some engaging in problem behaviors such as substance abuse, delinquency, and violence, and others emerging with better outcomes? **What is the role of ethnicity, race, and culture in determining these developmental outcomes?**

■ Risk Factors

Consistent with a positive youth development framework, prevention researchers and planners have moved toward a "comprehensive" approach for working with youth (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996; Dryfoos, 1994; National Academy of Sciences, 1999). Prevention experts express dissatisfaction with the pathological, single-problem approach that narrowly focuses on the individual and on preventing a specific problem behavior. As prevention scientists have remarked, young people who are not drug abusers, drop-outs, or delinquents may be "problem free", but still lack skills, attitudes, and knowledge to be productive, competent, contributing members of the family or community (Weissberg & Greenberg, 1997).

Prevention experts have identified longitudinal predictors that increase or decrease the likelihood of problem behaviors, including youth violence, in families, schools, peer groups, and neighborhoods, and within the individual. Factors that increase the likelihood have been referred to as "risk factors"; those that decrease the likelihood of violence are considered "protective factors." Empirical support for these identified risk and protective factors has been documented. For example, in terms of individual factors, constitutional factors resulting from head injuries or exposure to toxins in utero or in early childhood, poor impulse control, early aggressive behavior and early initiation of substance use have been identified as risk factors for problem development in adolescence (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Werner & Smith, 1992; Rutter, 1979). Family factors predictive of problem behavior include a family history of crime or substance abuse, poor family management practices and high levels of family conflict, and lack of a good relationship with a parent (Luthar & Zigler, 1991; Yoshikawa, 1994). In the school setting, academic failure and low commitment to school have been predictive of adolescent problems (Maguin & Loeber, 1996). Community risk factors associated with youth problems include the community laws and expectations regarding substance abuse, violence and criminal behavior and characteristics of the community and neighborhood environment, such as high levels of community disorganization and poverty (Sampson, Raudenbush & Earlys, 1997).

In a review of evidenced-based studies on risk factors for youth violence, Hawkins (1999), using a social ecological framework, documented risk factors in four domains—individual/peer, family, school, and community. These factors are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1: RISK FACTORS FOR YOUTH VIOLENCE	
DOMAIN	**RISK FACTOR**
Individual/Peer Domain	Friends who engage in violence Early initiation of violent behavior Constitutional factors
Family Domain	Family history of violent behavior Family management problems Family conflict Favorable parental attitudes toward & involvement in violence
School Domain	Early & persistent antisocial behavior Academic failure beginning in late elementary school Lack of commitment of school
Community Domain	Availability of drugs Availability of firearms Community laws and norms favorable to drug use, firearms, and crime Media portrayals of violence Low neighborhood attachment and community disorganization Extreme economic deprivation

From J. D. Hawkins, *Creating Safe Schools and Communities* (Social Development Research Group, 1999).

▪ AAPI-Specific Risk Factors

The compilation of evidenced-based risk and protective factors for youth represents a positive trend toward understanding the multiple factors that may contribute to healthy or maladaptive outcomes for children. Given the high likelihood of multiple risks occurring in a child's life, prevention and intervention efforts will probably be more effective if they target multiple risks for amelioration and boost multiple protective factors (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Unfortunately, few of these efforts to identify risk and protective factors have examined the applicability and relevance of these frameworks for Asian American/Pacific Islander youth. Intuitively, it would be expected that these risk factors have some predictive value for AAPI youth. **However, given the developmental challenges of culturally diverse youth, are these factors the most significant for AAPI youth? Should the amelioration of these factors be the focus of prevention efforts in AAPI communities?**

The assumption in the literature is that general risk factors for youth violence are applicable across culturally diverse groups. However, in order to obtain a complete picture of risk for AAPI youth, it is essential to include ethnic-specific risk factors in the general risk framework. Risk factors for AAPI youth are presented in Table 2 using Hawkins's four domains and highlighting four risk factors that cut across all domains. No single risk factor may result in negative youth behaviors, but the literature suggests that the additive influence of multiple risk factors increases the probability of problem behaviors, whether violence, substance abuse, teen pregnancy or other risk behaviors of adolescence.

TABLE 2: PROPOSED ADDITIONAL RISK FACTORS FOR AAPI YOUTH	
DOMAIN	**RISK FACTOR**
All Domains	Acculturation stress Reconfigured family role structure Language difficulties Racism
Individual/Peer Domain	Alienation and isolation Devalued ethnicity Lack skills to negotiate different culture
Family Domain	Intercultural/intergenerational conflict Low adult supervision Isolation Low socioeconomic status
School Domain	Disconnection between family & school School system rejection Limited cultural models and understanding Peer rejection
Community Domain	Unprepared for diverse cultures Poor home-community linkages Lack of cultural-specific institutions

Acculturation Stress

Acculturation refers to the degree to which the AAPI youth is socialized to the mainstream or host culture and how this balances with the culture of family origin. In the family domain, tension and conflict exist due to varying acculturation levels of family members (Yee, Huang, & Lew, 1998; Lee, 1997). For AAPI youth, the meaning of being Asian American or bicultural is often associated with mixed valence. Although AAPI communities have resided in the United States for several generations, the majority of the current AAPI population are foreign born and still in the process of acculturating to the host society. Varying degrees of acculturation in an AAPI family complicate the mastering of developmental challenges. For example, if the parents are monolingual Chinese, then the bilingual child's entry into the school system and associated tasks might be quite different from those of an English-speaking, third-generation Chinese American family. The task of language acquisition might be confounded by different language priorities within the family. Immigrant parents emphasize the native language, whereas many AAPI youth prefer to speak in the language of their peer group.

Several empirical studies have linked acculturation and delinquency. Only a few of these studies have examined this relationship within the AAPI population, so extrapolation is done from studies of other ethnic groups. In an observational study of 21 AAPI youth, James, Kim, and Moore (1997) found that the transition to the Western culture disrupted the family structure of these children, which in turn was related to the adolescents drug use. The adolescents who used drugs were described as alienated and more nonconforming.

A study of Puerto Rican adolescent males, based on 1,007 self-report questionnaires, found that the least acculturated adolescents were more likely to report using drugs, while the mid-acculturated youth were most likely to be involved with interpersonal violence. Highly acculturated youth reported the least family involvement and the highest peer involvement. When this highly acculturated group was divided into immigrant and U.S. born, the former was found to be more involved in interpersonal violence. Similarly, in the low-acculturated group, the immigrants were more likely to use drugs than the American-born group. In this study, regardless of acculturation level, immigrant groups were found to be more at risk for delinquent behaviors.

A study of Cuban adolescents found that intergenerational acculturation differences between youth and their parents are associated with family disruptions, which have subsequently been linked to delinquent behaviors (Szapocznik, Scopetta, & Kurtines (1978). A study by Ascher (1985) of Southeast Asian parents and their children, found that the larger the gap in acculturation, the more likely conflicts were to arise.

In a Cambodian sample of 29 adolescent and parent pairs, Lim, Go, and Levenson (1996) found that differences in acculturation were not related to delinquency. Rather, lower adolescent acculturation scores, single-parent households, and younger age of the adolescent at time of entry to the U.S. were all associated with delinquency.

In the family domain, risk factors associated with violence involvement have not been empirically documented. However, there is a growing literature on risk factors for AAPI youth involvement in gangs that may be applicable to AAPI youth violence in general. These factors include intercultural conflict, different rates of acculturation leading to role reversals, lack of parent supervision and monitoring, and lower socioeconomic class (Lee, 1994; Kang & Saar, 1996). A study of Filipino Americans, who are over-represented in Honolulu gangs, found that the parents of these youth had come from rural areas in the Philippines and were currently working two to three low-paying and nonprofessional jobs, which resulted in their long absence from the home. Lacking the extended family of their home culture, these youth return to empty homes after school and, for some, the gang becomes the extended family that provides social

interaction, support, and a sense of belonging. While the main reason for joining gangs was protection from other gangs, boredom, deprivation of love and attention, poor performance in school, truancy, lack of recreational activities, and problems at home contributed to the allure of gang membership (Santos, 1997).

Reconfigured Family Role Structure

Uneven rates of acculturation and the language facility of youth as compared to adults leads to a reversal of roles in some AAPI families. This alters family dynamics and often results in more power and authority for the youth, and the gradual erosion of parental authority and responsibility (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993, Huang, 1998; Ida, 2002; Uba, 1995; Lee, 1997). This in turn contributes to family conflict, ineffective parental controls, and family confusion. Westermeyer, Bouafuely-Kersey, and Her (1997) note that family factors associated with Hmong youth gangs are intergenerational conflict, separation of the generations during daily activities, and the apparent inability of some Hmong parents to serve as role models for a successful lifestyle in the United States.

Kim, Kim, and Rue (1997) suggest that delinquent acts, substance abuse, and gang involvement result from the underlying dynamics of intergenerational tension, alienation between parents and adolescents, and identity conflicts. These dynamics are not unique to recently immigrated adolescents, but are observed also in second- or third-generation Korean American adolescents.

Language Difficulties

Culture is based on communication. Verbal and nonverbal communication is a critical vehicle of cultural transmission. The linguistic origins of Asian languages are considerably diverse, and they markedly contrast with the English language. The psycholinguistic characteristics of these languages, that is, how they influence thought, and their associated verbal/nonverbal communication patterns reinforce traditional cultural values.

Consistent with the orientation toward situation-centeredness, role hierarchies, and the primacy of the group, Asian languages are very context-bound and role-delineated (Chan, 1998). Asian cultures are high-context cultures, in which meaningful information is either in the physical context or internalized in the receiver of the information (Hall, 1976). The receiver must have knowledge of subtle meanings, nonverbal cues, and affect in order to interpret the speaker's intent. This contrasts notably with the low-context Eurocentric cultures in which information is conveyed directly through the verbal code, and communication is more precise, explicit, and straightforward (Chan, 1998).

With such marked contrasts in language structure and function, gaining English proficiency is especially difficult for many AAPI refugees and immigrants. Lack of English skills, however, places them at continued risk of marginality. Limited English speakers tend to suffer from unemployment, poor housing, and limited educational opportunities, and they face poorer prospects for socioeconomic improvement (Yamamoto, Silva, Ferrari, & Nukariya, 1997).

Language barriers remain a problem for many AAPI populations. About 22 percent of AAPIs between 18 and 64 years of age cannot communicate in English. More than half of the elderly (53.5 percent of those aged 65 years and older) cannot converse in English (Yoon and Chien, 1995). And in San Francisco, 39 percent of AAPI youth do not feel sufficiently comfortable with English to succeed academically (Guillermo, 1996). Data from the most recent census is being disaggregated and was not available at the time of this publication but according to data available based on the 1990 census, over two-thirds of AAPIs with the exception of Japanese, Hawaiian & Guamanian speak a language other than English. Fifty-nine percent of Hmongs, 54 percent of Cambodians, 51 percent of Laotians, 42 percent of Vietnamese, 35 percent of Koreans and 34 percent of Chinese are in linguistically isolated households. Linguistically isolated is defined as no

one over the age of fourteen in the house speaks English very well. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census, Social and Economic Characteristics)

It is common for children of all ages to serve as interpreters for parents who are either monolingual or have limited English proficiency. While this can serve an important function by helping parents communicate outside the family, it can also have negative consequences for both parties. Such role reversals may exacerbate an already tenuous situation where there has been a shift in status, placing the parents in a position of less power and authority. It also places an undue burden on the youth to translate information that may be beyond his/her cognitive abilities. In addition, the young person may be asked to translate information that is embarrassing or deemed a secret by the family, thereby jeopardizing their position in the family. In other instances, critical information is not passed on, leaving the parents unaware of the emotional, behavioral, legal or academic problems of their children. This results in missed court appointments, lack of involvement of treatment plans, limited interaction with the schools and overall lack of involvement in critical aspects of their children's lives. It is not a reflection of disinterested parents but rather a failure of the system to provide appropriate interpreters so parents can be equal partners in the upbringing of their children

Racism

Racism, operationally defined as beliefs, attitudes, institutional arrangements, and acts that denigrate individuals or groups because of phenotypic characteristics or ethnic group affiliation (Clark, Anderson, Clark, & Willliams, 1999), is an ever-present stressor and risk factor for AAPI youth. Attitudinal and structural or institutional racism contribute to feelings of inadequacy and self-devaluing, frustration, and anger. Ethnic and racially diverse youth learn early that their ethnic identity may not be respected in the larger society and, in fact, may be the target of hostility, antagonism, or exclusion.

Racism is frequently identified by youth as a contributing factor for getting involved with gangs or other delinquent behavior (Ida, 2002). These dynamics impinge on the self-esteem and sense of belonging of the youth, often resulting in negative self-image or group identity (Yamamoto, Silva, Ferrari, 1997). Barriers to educational and occupational opportunities generate frustration in cultural minority families, which in turn contributes to family conflict and stress. Clark, Anderson, and Williams (1999) recently put forth a biopsychosocial model for perceived racism (both intergroup and intragroup racism) among African Americans to investigate systematically the health and psychosocial effects of racism. Serafica (1990) and others have demonstrated that perceived racism affects psychological well-being among ethnic minority groups.

Real or perceived prejudice and discrimination can isolate and discourage AAPI youth and their families from interacting with key institutions, other families, and other youth. Many of the Seattle youth interviewed by the API Task Force (1993) felt they were unfairly treated by school personnel, policy, security personnel, and the larger community.

AAPI Risk Factors in the Individual/Peer Domain

The risk and resiliency literature and studies of precursors to youth violence involvement have minimally included AAPI youth. Extrapolating from studies of Asian youth gangs and violence involvement of other ethnic minority groups, **alienation and isolation** due to cultural differences is a proposed risk factor. This sense of disconnectedness is associated with maladaptive behaviors, such as substance abuse and delinquency, and membership in youth gangs. A second risk factor is **devaluing one's ethnicity** arising from racism, prejudice, and discrimination. This leads to damaged self-confidence and low self-esteem, which sets the foundation for anger, discontent, and violence (American Psychological Association, 1993), and **internalized oppression**.

For many AAPI youth, the social skills of their home/family culture and of the larger societal culture are not always congruent. Often these **youth lack the skills to negotiate culturally different social systems**. Given the emphasis on relation-based social order, AAPI youth often develop social behaviors that are socially dependent, authority oriented, and self-inhibited. In certain situations, these are highly valued social skills. However, in terms of social skills and problem behaviors, teachers indicated that their greatest concern for AAPI students was their low assertiveness and internalizing (Feng & Cartledge, 1996). The teachers were particularly concerned that these behaviors would lead to victimization, minimize their opportunities to attain personal or social goals, and result in further isolation and alienation.

AAPI Risk Factors in the Family Domain

The most significant family risk factors are intercultural/intergenerational conflict, lack of parental supervision, sense of family isolation, and low socioeconomic status. In the general population, **lack of parental supervision** is one of the strongest predictors of conduct problems and delinquency (American Psychological Association, 1993). In a study of urban minority youth, better perceived parental monitoring practices were directly associated with less aggression (Griffin, Scheier, Botvin, Diaz, & Miller, 1999). Given the frequency of parental absence from the home due to long working hours and multiple jobs for both parents, this is a risk factor for AAPI families.

Intergenerational/intercultural conflict may be a powerful risk factor for the development of problem behaviors, particularly in immigrant AAPI families (Ying, 1999). Migration is often motivated by the desire to provide the children with a better future. When these children begin to express dissenting views and make choices inconsistent with their parents' desires, immigrant parents feel betrayed and angry (Drachman, Kwon-Ahn, & Paulino, 1996; Ying & Chao, 1996).

AAPI youth report that family relationships are under stress. Conflicts between the expectations and values of traditional AAPI cultures and American culture occur constantly. Youth in the Seattle study (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993) as well as the NAAPIMHA Best Practices Conference (2003) listed discipline, dating, family responsibilities, police relations, and the role of schools as regular topics of disagreement. These continual clashes make it difficult for AAPI parents to be supportive and consistently nurturing of their children (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993).

Due to language and cultural and socioeconomic barriers, AAPI families may be **isolated** from the larger society. These families often remain disconnected from mainstream institutions such as schools, businesses, and social services. When this isolation extends to ethnic-focused organizations, such as religious or community organizations or language schools, the family lacks social support and resources to assist the youth in positively negotiating the larger society.

An American Psychological Association study (1993) suggests that **poverty** and its contextual life circumstances are major determinants of violence. Violence is most prevalent among the economically disadvantaged. Rates of poverty are high in communities of color. Twenty percent of AAPI children grow up in poverty (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1999). The socioeconomic inequality of the poor, the overwhelming sense of relative deprivation, and the lack of opportunity to change these life circumstances facilitate higher rates of violence (American Psychological Association, 1993).

AAPI Risk Factors in the School Domain

A significant risk factor is **disconnection between family and school**. Among adolescents, higher levels of school connectedness were associated with lower levels of violence. Strong parent-school collaboration is associated with better school outcomes for students (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989; Haynes & Comer, 1993). For AAPI families, both recent arrivals and later generations, the link between home and

school is often tenuous or nonexistent. AAPI immigrants often have differing cultural expectations of school, based on educational traditions in their homelands. Teachers may represent the ultimate authority, and therefore parents have learned not to be involved. For refugees from rural, underdeveloped countries, there may have been a lack of schooling and experience with schools. Limited English proficiency may impede involvement with the school. Immigrant families working heavy schedules in order to make ends meet may have limited time for school contact. Some immigrants may fear involvement with mainstream institutions due to wariness about their immigrant status. And traditional school vehicles for promoting parental involvement (such as PTAs, Back-to-School nights, etc.) may feel bewildering and unwelcoming to AAPI families (Huang & Gibbs, 1992).

This disconnect between family and school may extend to the youth's experience in the school as well. Many schools are unprepared to welcome and integrate culturally different students. AAPI students may experience these schools as unresponsive and lacking opportunities for attachment. Schools establish their own sense of culture, their patterns of functioning internally, and their implicit rules for engaging the external community. Often, little accommodation is made for students who cannot decipher these rules or understand the culture. These students may experience a sense of **system rejection** and detachment. They fail to attach to faculty, peers, or other aspects of the school. For AAPI youth in mainstream schools, there are **few role models and usually limited ethnic-cultural content** in the curriculum or day-to-day operations of the school. A longitudinal, nationwide study of adolescents found two key ingredients in successful youth: a connection with a parent in the home and a meaningful connection with a teacher in the school (Hallowell, 1999). Successful and resilient students growing up in unfavorable and impoverished environments can identify a teacher or other school staff as a mentor or role model.

Unfortunately, large urban schools are often anonymous and alienating. The inability of teachers and school staff to establish meaningful connections with students has become a key safety issue (Ascher, 1994). Furthermore, schools that are insensitive to diverse cultures fail to be supportive environments (Dwyer, 1999).

Peer rejection has been associated with gang involvement. Conflict between AAPI and other youth may arise due to differences in race, ethnicity, religion, language or other sources of difference. Rejection occurs in both directions leading to racial tension among groups. The unwillingness to accept another other group frequently results in turf battles, whether in school or in the community. To gain acceptance in a peer group, AAPI youth may become involved in a gang or demonstrate other problem behaviors. AAPI youth must cope with racial/ethnic stereotyping and anti-immigrant attitudes. These youth are often told to "go back to your own country," which suggest that he or she will never be fully accepted as American, regardless of country of birth (Coalition for Asian American Children and Families, 1999). This peer rejection contributes to a sense of alienation and rejection.

AAPI Risk Factors in the Community Domain

The inability of the larger society to effectively integrate diverse populations into the community is seen as a proposed risk factor. Communities that remain closed to these diverse populations are at risk for not being able to provide the appropriate support systems nor intervention strategies to promote positive outcomes for at risk AAPI youth. They lack an understanding of effective outreach, engagement of new populations, awareness of need, and understanding of different patterns of service and resource utilization. Conversely, AAPI youth and families thrust into a new or unfamiliar environment often are unable to comprehend the values, regulations, cultural practices, bureaucracies, and institutions that exist in the community. Misunderstandings, conflicts, and

cultural clashes may arise, creating more barriers (Kellogg Foundation, 1998; National Crime Prevention Council, 1999).

Sociopolitical as well as cultural barriers also contribute to this risk factor. Anti-immigrant sentiment is persistent and sociopolitical responses in communities are growing, especially in states such as California that receive a significant number of Asian immigrants and refugees. Communities are not prepared or are unwilling to provide assistance (Toy, 1992a). Employment, housing, social services, and educational services often are lacking. Many of these newcomer groups live in poverty with few economic or social service supports.

Poor linkages between home and community place families and communities at-risk for disruptive and violent behavior. Fragmented services, lack of consistent support, and investment in youth at the community level contribute to problem behaviors (Kellogg Foundation, 1998). Community agencies often lack the cultural competence to engage culturally diverse families. They are unaware of acceptable entry points to AAPI communities. Specific knowledge of certain formal and informal communication networks, and established social relationships within various AAPI communities play a role in determining how a family will initially engage with outside services, agencies, or community members. In some communities, such as the Hmong, identified community leaders usually are consulted in matters involving external resources. Their counsel, approval, and recommendations are sought first (Chan, 1998). Thus, indigenous intermediaries who have credibility within the family or ethnic community may be critical for building linkages between home and community.

Many Asian immigrants and refugees enter communities in the U.S. that **lack ethnic and cultural-specific institutions**. Consequently, these individuals and families lack a sense of "place" or belonging. The youth lack a place where they have a sense of physical and psychological "safety" and that provides opportunities for positive engagement and activities.

AAPI immigrants and refugees often originate from countries where the community or the "village" was actively involved in raising the children. Established cultural institutions fostered meaningful affiliations and traditions for multiple generations within families. Migrant AAPI families often lack a sense of cultural identification and the reassurance of their cultural traditions and beliefs. Over time, these transplanted communities work to establish faith-based institutions, language schools, cultural centers, and other venues to support their cultural attachments, traditions, and practices and a new sense of place and belonging. A study of Vietnamese ethnicity and substance abuse shows that involvement of youth in their ethnic community has a strong negative correlation with drug and alcohol abuse through lessening the probability that the youth would have substance-abusing friends (Bankston, 1995).

■ Protective Factors

For at-risk youth, protective factors decrease the likelihood of problem behaviors (Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, & Arthur, 1998). Studies that have documented a relationship between risk exposure and problem behaviors also have provided evidence of protective factors (Luthar & Zigler, 1991). These studies identify the qualities of the individual or the environment that are associated with competence or better psychosocial functioning following adverse experiences or circumstance (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Studies of children at risk prompted studies on resilience, seeking to understand why some youth exposed to multiple risk factors managed to avoid negative outcomes (Garmezy, 1985; Werner, 1994). Sources of resilience are identified in the strengths that individuals, families, schools, faith-based leaders and organizations, and communities draw upon to promote healthy outcomes and positive functioning (Davis, 1999). Protective factors might contribute to resilience either by exerting positive effects in direct opposition to the negative effects of risk factors or by buffering individuals against the negative impact of risk factors.

Three clusters of protective factors consistently have been recognized as favoring resilience in youth: (1) personal predispositions in the child (activity level, social responsiveness, autonomy in infancy and early childhood; (2) a family environment characterized by cohesion, closeness, and support; and (3) the presence of extrafamilial sources of support, including identification models or mentors (Masten & Garmezy, 1985).

Several empirically supported frameworks elaborating on these clusters of protective factors have been developed. Three frameworks are outlined here: Social Development Research Group Protective Factors (Hawkins, 1999), Search Institute's Forty Developmental Assets (Search Institute, 1997), and Healthy Kids Resilience Assessment (WestEd, 1999).

Social Development Research Group Model

Based on a decade of research, Hawkins, Catalano, and Miller (1992) use a social development strategy in risk-focused prevention. This approach is based on a simple premise: To prevent problems, it is critical to identify factors that increase the risk of that problem occurring, and then find strategies to reduce the risks in ways that enhance the protective or resiliency factors. They identified risk/protective factors associated with five domains of an individual's life in: family, school, community, peer group and individual. (see Table 3.) Understanding these factors is critical to developing effective means of prevention and increasing protection throughout the course of youth development.

This framework is the basis for prevention efforts addressing antisocial behaviors from birth through adolescence and has generated the Communities That Care Project (Developmental Research Programs, 1993). This project organizes what has been learned about prevention strategies into a comprehensive, operationalized approach for communities, requiring broad vision and many participants. In addition, using strategies that address risk factors and enhance protective factors, program developers have designed

TABLE 3: THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH GROUP: PROTECTIVE FACTORS	
DOMAIN	**PROTECTIVE FACTOR**
Individual Characteristics	Protective Factor Positive social orientation High intelligence Social/emotional competencies Resilient temperament Gender
Family, School, Peer Group & Community Environment	Bonding: warm affective relationship Healthy beliefs and clear standards for behavior Pro-social opportunities for involvement Reinforcement for pro-social involvement Cognitive, social, and emotional competencies and skills

From J. D. Hawkins, *Creating Safe Schools and Communities* (Social Development Research Group, 1999).

modules to prevent school failure, drug use, and delinquency among a wide group of populations. Several of these programs, Preparing for the Drug Free Years and The Incredible Years: Parents, Teachers & Children Training Series, have been recognized as exemplary, evidenced-based family strengthening programs by the Center for Substance Abuse Prevention and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Forty Developmental Assets Model

A second framework focusing on protective factors is the Forty Developmental Assets Model developed by the Search Institute. Based on extensive research, experience, ongoing examination of the youth development literature, focus groups with youth, and interviews with practitioners and other experts, the Search Institute attempted to identify the essential building blocks and benchmarks for positive adolescent development. This formed a strengths-based approach to healthy development.

In 1989, the Search Institute conducted a survey of 254,000 students in the sixth to twelfth grades. The survey, entitled "The Search Institute Profiles of Student Life: Attitudes and Behavior," was re-administered in 1996-97 to another 99,462 middle-school and high-school students. This

second survey encompassed 213 U.S. communities in 26 states, with an overrepresentation of white youth from smaller cities and towns. From these surveys, resilience and protective factors, categorized as external and internal assets, were identified and an assessment tool for schools was developed (Search Institute, 1997). External assets focus on positive experiences that youth receive from people and institutions in their lives. As shown in Table 4, there are four categories of external assets: support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and constructive use of time. Internal assets refer to the internalized qualities that guide choices and create a feeling of purpose, focus, and centeredness. Four categories of internal assets include commitment to learning, positive values, social competence, and positive identity.

The Search Institute acknowledges that factors such as family dynamics, school effectiveness, peer influences, support from community adults, values development, and social skills all contribute to healthy development. Unfortunately, these different areas of study and intervention typically are disconnected from one another. The Developmental Assets approach attempts to pull these pieces together into a comprehensive vision of what youth need to thrive.

Studies of this model demonstrate its applicability to racial/ethnic youth populations. All groups benefit similarly from having more of the 40 developmental assets, regardless of their socioeconomic status. However the importance of particular categories of assets varies by race/ethnicity. This suggests that the developmental assets do not work in the same ways for all youth. For example, the category "constructive use of time" was more strongly correlated with school success for American Indian and Asian American youth than for others. African American and Hispanic youth were more likely than white adults to view adult engagement in the lives of their children outside of their immediate family as very important (Sesma and Roehlkepartain, 2003).

TABLE 4: FORTY DEVELOPMENTAL ASSEST MODEL		
External Assets	Support	• Family support • Positive family communication • Other adult relationships • Caring neighborhood • Caring school climate • Parent involvement in schooling
	Empowerment	• Community values youth • Youth as resources • Service to others • Safety
	Boundaries and Expectations	• Family boundaries • School boundaries • Neighborhood boundaries • Adult role modes • Positive peer influence • High expectations
	Constructive use of time	• Creative activities • Youth programs • Religious community • Time at home
Internal Assets	Commitment to learning	• Achievement to learning • School Engagement • Homework • Bonding to school • Reading for pleasure
	Positive values	• Caring • Equality and social justice • Integrity • Honesty • Responsibility • Restraint
	Social competencies	• Planning and decision-making • Interpersonal competence • Cultural competence • Resistance skills • Peaceful conflict resolution
	Positive identity	• Personal power • Self-esteem • Sense of purpose • Positive view of personal future

Healthy Kids Resilience Assessment Model

A third framework, the Healthy Kids Assessment model, consists of six clusters containing 21 assets most consistently identified by researchers to be associated with health-risk behavior protection and positive youth development. This framework distinguishes between two types of assets: (1) protective factors, often considered external assets, and (2) resilience traits, also referred to as internal assets (WestEd, 1999).

This module is intended to serve as a tool for local and state educational agencies, primarily to be used in California secondary schools to assess and better understand a variety of external and internal resilience constructs associated with positive youth development. It enables the collection of local and statewide youth support and resilience data for use in needs assessment, program planning, program evaluation, and research (Constantine and Berard, 2001). See Table 5.

AAPI Culture-Specific Protective Factors

The frameworks presented above have not been empirically-tested on AAPI youth and communities. While intuitively it would be expected that many of the assets or protective factors enumerated in the three frameworks would be applicable to AAPI youth, there may be specific, culturally-based assets that should be examined for their protective qualities and source of resilience.

It has been suggested that one's culture is a source of strength and a possible protective factor for culturally diverse youth (Johnson-Powell, Yamamoto, Wyatt, & Arroyo, 1997). Revisiting the adaptive strategies presented in an earlier section on the developmental challenges and adaptive strategies for AAPI youth, it is proposed that these strategies—biculturalism, family extendedness, and cultural traditions and worldviews—are additional protective factors for AAPI youth that must be incorporated into protective factor frameworks (Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990). See Table 6.

TABLE 5: HEALTHY KIDS RESILIENCE ASSESSMENT MODEL	
Protective Factors: Supports and Opportunities (External Assets)	
CLUSTER	**ASSETS**
Caring relationships: Presence of others in the youth's life who model and support healthy development and learning	Caring relationships with… • Adults in the home • Adults in the school • Adults in the neighborhood • Adults in the community • Peers
High expectations: Consistent communication of both formal and informal messages that the youth can and will succeed	High expectations from… • Adults in the home • Adults in the school • Adults in the neighborhood/community • Pro-social peers
Meaningful participation: Involvement of the youth in relevant, engaging and responsible activities with opportunities for responsibility and contribution	Meaningful participation in… • The home • The school • The community
Resilience Traits: Positive Developmental Outcomes (Internal Assets)	
CLUSTER	**ASSETS**
Social competence: Ability to communicate effectively and demonstrate caring, flexibility, and responsiveness in social situations	• Cooperation and communication skills • Empathy • Problem-solving skills
Autonomy and sense of self: Sense of personal identity and power	• Personal conviction (strong sense of right and wrong and standing up for those beliefs) • Self-efficacy (belief in one's own competence) • Self-awareness (knowing and understanding one's self)
Sense of meaning and purpose: Knowing that one's life has coherence and makes a difference	• Optimism • Goals and aspirations • Achievement motivation

From *California Healthy Kids Survey: Healthy Kids Resilience Assessment,* 1999.

TABLE 6: PROPOSED ADDITIONAL PROTECTIVE FACTORS FOR AAPI YOUTH	
PROTECTIVE FACTOR	**DESCRIPTION**
Biculturalism	Ability to negotiate successfully two or more distinct cultures, valuing various aspects of each culture, and experiencing positive outcomes and a sense of coherence
Family Extendedness	Use of multiple family members or kin for various functions (e.g., social, psychological, economic support; provision of regulatory guidance and supervision; transmission of cultural values, etc.)
Cultural Traditions and Worldviews	Cultural traditions and worldviews reflect the values, beliefs, and cultural practices of the group. For AAPIs, this would include principles of filial piety, harmony, interdependence, collectivism, saving face, indebtedness and sense of obligation, etc.

■ Violence Prevention Strategies for AAPI Youth

A positive youth development approach embedded in social ecology and public health frameworks places a greater emphasis on positive outcomes for youth, on developmentally based strategies, and on the role of families and communities. Current prevention scientists call for a broad focus in prevention efforts, recognizing that problem behaviors, whether substance abuse, delinquency, school drop-out, or violence, often co-occur and share many common antecedents. The literature consistently identifies the close relationships among school failure, drop-out, substance abuse, and delinquency (Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 1989; O'Donnell et al., 1995). These problem behaviors involve multiple risk factors and multiple domains. Research suggests prevention programs must address both risk and protective factors:

- For multiple problems (Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 1989)

- Across all social domains in which youth are involved (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996)

- At developmentally appropriate periods, understanding normative developmental challenges (Catalano et al., Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, & Arthur, 1998)

- With inclusion of cultural-specific factors and perspectives (Banks, Hogue, & Timberlake, 1998; Cartledge & Feng, 1996)

Prevention efforts should target multiple domains (individual, family, peers, school, and community) with the objective of reducing risks and strengthening protective factors associated with resiliency and reduced likelihood of negative outcomes. While there has been an ongoing debate in the field on whether to focus on risk or protective factors, Pollard, (manuscript under review) conducted a survey of more than 80,000 students exposed to varying levels of risk and protection to investigate the prevalence of a broad range of adolescent behavioral outcomes. The findings suggest that strengthening assets or protective factors alone might not be as effective in promoting positive youth development and reducing problem behaviors as focusing on both risk reduction and protective factor enhancement. Building assets or protection among those exposed to high levels of risk might reduce the prevalence of problem behaviors, but not as much as both reducing risk exposure and enhancing protection. **Thus, prevention and positive youth development policies and programs should focus on both the reduction of risk and the promotion of protective influences in multiple social units** (Catalano, Hawkins, Berglund, Pollard, & Arthur 1998). These efforts should be appropriate to the child's stage of development. Risk and protective factors for a young child may be very different than those for an adolescent.

Evidenced-based prevention efforts targeting AAPI youth across multiple domains are lacking. Consequently, little large-scale empirical data exist to indicate what works and what doesn't work for this population, from a social ecology or public health perspective. However, two sources of data are beginning to address this question. First, numerous smaller studies, targeting one or two domains, have promise. Most of these studies are community-based interventions with an evaluation component that attempts to assess impact and generate lessons learned. In most cases these community-based organizations have been established to serve AAPI populations. A second source of prevention data on AAPI is more limited. A number of larger-scale studies of prevention efforts have included AAPI youth in their sample. However, the percentage of AAPI youth included is usually small (ranging from 1 to 16 percent). Often because of this small sub

sample, data are not disaggregated by ethnicity, making it difficult to discern relevance and effectiveness for AAPI participants.

Thus, we have little empirical data about what works in prevention for AAPI youth. Current approaches may be adaptations of existing evidence-based models of prevention. or "home-grown" programs designed to address a community need and not specifically linked to evidenced-based models. To date, this is the state-of-the-art for AAPI youth. In the following discussion, examples of both types of programs are presented below. They are grouped according to their targeted domain: individual, family, school, or community. In a related study, Huang and colleagues (2004) provide a more in-depth analysis of promising approaches for AAPI youth programs. (Appendix C contains a matrix of nominated promising programs for AAPI youth development and violence prevention.)

■ Promotion and Prevention Projects in the Individual/Peer Domain

In the individual domain the leading prevention efforts have been mentoring and social skills training. Social skills have focused on such topics as anger management, decision-making, and life skills planning strategies. Mentoring builds on the relationship between the individual youth and a caring adult. Both of these types of individual-focused prevention efforts have generated some empirical evidence for effectiveness, however, these data have only rarely included AAPI youth.

Social Skills Training

Most prevention projects that focus on the individual provide clinical treatment or social skills training. Interventions emphasizing social skills training, using peer role models, behavioral rehearsal, and psychodrama, have evidenced success in reducing violent interactions among adolescents (Hammond, 1990). The Violence Prevention Project of the Health Promotion Program for Urban Youth, a nationally recognized

program, involves a 10-session education program that provides descriptive information on the risks of violence and homicide, alternative conflict resolution techniques and a nonviolent classroom atmosphere (Prothrow-Stith, Spivak, & Hausman, 1987). Although the importance of social skills or mental health interventions for AAPIs is often acknowledged in the literature, there are few examples of social skill instruction with AAPI youth. Cartledge and Feng (1996) suggest that AAPI youth, particularly recent immigrants, are especially in need of social skills intervention. Leung (1988) supporting this view, suggests that social skill instruction should be of major concern in the education of minority students in general, and AAPI students in particular, because a learner's cognitive, affective, and physical conditions are inextricably related. AAPI students who experience stress and anxiety due to minority status and acculturation difficulties are particularly vulnerable to problem behaviors.

■ Assertiveness Training and Social Skills for AAPI Youth and Young Adults (Cartledge and Feng, 1996)

Cultural norms are a significant factor in determining the effectiveness of social skill training (Cartledge & Feng, 1996). In a study of assertiveness training for AAPI older adolescents and young adults, major considerations in this training were cultural norms, a bicultural model, cultural values, group composition, and trainer background (Fukuyama & Coleman, 1992). Cultural norms most likely to influence the degree of assertiveness were deference to authority, interpersonal harmony, modesty, and avoidance of public shame. These norms, incorporated into the training, made it a more culturally appropriate, bicultural rather than monocultural, training. In a bicultural training, the social skill is viewed in a situation-specific context, and the trainee is encouraged to draw on the value systems of both cultures and act according to the demands of the situation. Bicultural training presents the value systems as equal and helps the trainee analyze cultural values and social situations and respond

appropriately and in accord with their own belief systems. There was no evaluation or outcome data component to this study.

▪ The Teen Peer Advocate Program (TPAP) (Asian Counseling & Referral Service (ACRS) Seattle, WA)

TPAP is a school and community-based program that recruits and trains high school age young women to educate and advocate for their peers around issues of dating violence, sexual assault and domestic violence. The goals of TPAP are: 1. To create effective services for teenage API young women who experience dating/domestic violence, sexual assault and/or community violence. 2, To educate youth, teens, parents, school administrators, and other community stakeholders about dating/domestic violence and promote collaborative efforts to address the issue among teens of color.

TPAP has two components: (1) API Young Women's Empowerment Groups; and (2) AP ADVICE (Asian Pacific Americans Against Dating Violence Involving Community Education). Empowerment groups meet weekly and are facilitated by an ACRS mental health counselor. Many of the participants are survivors of dating violence or sexual assault. AP ADVICE recruits and trains teenage young women as advocates to provide outreach, education and referrals to youth and other community members. Teen peer advocates receive 40 hours of training every year on issues such as dating/domestic violence, gender roles and oppression, and community resources. More than 100 young women have been trained as teen peer advocates. They have conducted outreach and education to more than 2,000 community members. Nearly 100 have participated in the empowerment groups. 87 percent of the respondents reported an increase in knowledge about dating violence; 86 percent increased their knowledge about community resources; 84 percent increased their knowledge about cultural issues. In a visit to Seattle in January 2003, Former U.S. Attorney General Janet Reno praised TPAP as a model for the nation.

Youth Mentoring Programs

Mentoring programs are a widely used form of prevention. These programs address the needs of at-risk youth by structuring relationships that would otherwise be absent. Mentors offer youth a protective factor to counter risks they face in their daily lives. Mentoring addresses risk factors such as isolation and lack of needed supervision, and may enhance protective factors such as the opportunity to build a relationship with a caring adult. In a series of epidemiological studies, Rutter (1979; 1987) identified factors that reduce risk for disorder in children. He stated conclusively that children with "one good relationship" were less likely to develop conduct disorder than other children in similar homes whose relationships with both parents were poor.

Mentoring programs are particularly applicable for AAPI youth in lower socioeconomic circumstances. Often these families are unable to provide adult supervision in the home due to their long working hours. Parents, overburdened with acculturation stresses and financial difficulties, lack time to develop a caring relationship with the child. Interestingly, in a survey of available mentors for the Juvenile Mentoring Program (JUMP) funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice Delinquency Program (1998), in Cohort I, 4.4 percent of the mentors were AAPI; in Cohort II (a different group of grantees), 1.2 percent of the mentors were AAPIs. In terms of the youth or mentee ethnicity, 1.8 percent in Cohort I and 0.7 percent in Cohort II were AAPIs. While the participation of AAPI mentors and mentees reflects the location of the grant sites, this statistic also reveals the greater availability of AAPI mentors to mentees, which suggests promise for this type of intervention in AAPI communities. Perhaps the resources are available and ready to be linked with the at-risk youth.

A recent review of the research on mentoring programs for adolescents concluded that mentoring has important benefits for the youth (Sipe, 1998). The Big Brothers/Big Sisters (BBBS) evaluation provided the most conclusive and wide-ranging

evidence that one-on-one mentoring alone can reduce the likelihood of initiating drug and alcohol use, decrease aggressive behavior, and decrease truancy. Youth participating in BBBS reported more positive relationships with their friends and their parents. These results were sustained for boys and girls across ethnicity and race. BBBS has been selected as an exemplary program by the Blueprints Violence Prevention Project of the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Sipe (1998) also concluded in her review that a critical factor in determining successful mentor-mentee matches was the mentor's focus on first building trust and becoming a friend to the youth, rather than being overly goal-oriented and trying immediately to reform the mentee. Sipe detailed mentor practices associated with more effective and less effective mentoring relationships.

OJJDP's (1998) Report to Congress on the Juvenile Mentoring Program (JUMP), cited violence prevention as one of the primary project goals of their grantees. They also emphasized the need for a multi-dimensional intervention requiring that community-based organizations and agencies work together to provide a comprehensive continuum of care for the youth they are serving. JUMP grantees were required to establish a collaborative relationship with a local educational agency.

■ Project Youth Connect: Asian Youth Mentorship Programs

US Dept of Health and Human Services, SAMHSA, Center for Substance Abuse Prevention, CSAP, funded fifteen agencies, including four AAPI programs to assess the effectiveness of mentoring with at-risk youth. The programs were implemented at the Asian Pacific Family Center in Rosemead, California; the Asian Association of Salt Lake City, Utah; the Asian Pacific Development Center in Denver, Colorado; and Hmong American Partnership in St. Paul, Minnesota. The programs examined the effectiveness of mentoring on preventing, delaying and/or reducing substance abuse and delinquent and violent behavior, improving

school bonding and academic performance, improving family bonding and functioning, and improving life management skills. Mentors were matched with youth received formal training on becoming a mentor. Youth indicated that developing healthy relationships with their mentors and other staff were critical elements of the project.

■ Prevention Projects in the Family Domain

Prevention projects in the family domain have included social skills, parenting skills, strengthening parent-child relationships, family empowerment, and family therapy. The framework is usually one of educating and empowering parents to become more effective parents. The targeted participants are usually parents and youth independently and occasionally together. For example, the Family Strengthening Program (Kumpfer, 1998; Kumpfer, DeMarsh, & Child, 1989) teaches parents better parenting skills and teaches young children problem-solving and other skills. It then brings families together in weekly meetings and therapeutic play sessions with the objective of enhancing family functioning. This model has resulted in significant reductions in problem behaviors, poor parenting, and family dysfunction, all risk factors for substance abuse, violence and other problem behaviors.

While the prevention literature is replete with family-focused interventions, few of these programs have focused on AAPI populations. Programs that focus on the family unit, including the extended family, however, will more likely be successful in AAPI communities where the family is under constant stress. Only recently have researchers undertaken systematically documented efforts to intervene with AAPI populations at risk for problems behaviors such as substance abuse, school drop-out, and violence. These programs are in various stages of development and data collection, and researchers hope they will soon generate findings on what works for what AAPI subgroups.

◼ **The Family Strengthening Program Grantees (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration/Center for Substance Abuse Prevention)**

This federally funded initiative has a number of grantees in AAPI communities including Salt Lake City, Long Beach, St. Paul, and Denver. The objectives of this program are to prevent/reduce violence among high-risk youth, increase family resilience, decrease family conflict, and decrease desirability of substance use among youth and family members. Each grant site has tailored the model to address problems and concerns particular to the AAPI subgroup they serve, and has modified the process to be culturally competent and responsive. Findings from these sites will fill a serious gap in the knowledge base of what constitutes effective prevention strategies for AAPI youth and families at risk. The twelve-week curriculum included topics such as family communication, rites of passage, traditional customs and values, conflict resolution, violence, depression, suicide, creating a protective environment, developing empathy, identifying family roles, and becoming involved with the community. Parents were interested in discussing issues around raising children in a Westernized culture, and conflict and lack of support from their spouses, primarily husbands. Guest speakers were also brought in on topics identified by the parents. In addition to the various discussions, the parents and youth participated in weekly activities that included eating together, field trips, youth activities, and graduation. In an effort to minimize barriers to involvement, child care and transportation were provided at some of the sites. Given the overwhelming needs of the community, case management and home visits were also provided. In addition, mental health referrals were made when possible at different agencies.

◼ **Strengthening Hawaii Families (Coalition for a Drug-Free Hawaii)**

www.drugfreehawaii.org. This cultural values-based primary prevention program emphasizes values clarification, family relationships, and communication skills to allow parents and children to discover and determine for themselves what works best for them based on their values and family vision. A team of four facilitators works with groups of 6-10 families on the importance of connecting with one another, practicing family values and management skills, and making healthy lifestyle choices. Families meet once a week for two hours for a 14-week period.

This program has been recognized by the SAMHSA and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention as a model family program. Evaluation of the program, conducted at the University of Hawaii, found significant improvement in family cohesion, family organization, and family communication and a decrease in family conflict and parental depression (Lacar & King, 2000).

◼ **Strengthening Intergenerational and Intercultural Ties in Immigrant Chinese American Families (Ying, 1999)**

This intervention for immigrant Chinese parents focuses on Strengthening Intergenerational and Intercultural Ties in Immigrant Chinese American Families (SITICAF). This eight-week parenting program, that aims to prevent and reduce intergenerational/intercultural conflict and build on the assets of the family, addresses a significant gap in prevention work. SITICAF aims to bridge the intergenerational and intercultural gap in Chinese American immigrant families by bringing it to the parents' awareness, promoting greater cross-cultural competence, promoting better coping with the stresses of cross-cultural parenting, promoting a sense of control in parenting, and developing effective parenting skills, particularly in the area of communication. This intervention, conducted entirely in Chinese, was tested with 15 immigrant Chinese American families. Ying administered translated instruments pre- and post-intervention to measure the intervention's impact on intergenerational relationship, parent locus of control, parent's well-being and sense of coherence, social desirability, and child's self-

esteem. In spite of the small sample size, several significant findings emerged. There was a significant increase in parents' sense of responsibility, quality of the intergenerational relationship, and sense of coherence. SITICAF was effective in meeting its targeted goals as well as increasing the immigrants' general sense of competence in the U.S. (sense of coherence). This intervention assisted immigrant parents to anticipate and meet the challenge of intergenerational/intercultural conflict, a critical risk factor for AAPI involvement in youth violence and gangs.

■ MELD (Hoelting, et al.,1996.)

This parent education intervention uses peer support groups to help parents develop skills and confidence. This program has been adapted for families of Southeast Asian descent. MELD's mission is to strengthen families at critical transitions in the parenting process by bringing together groups of parents who have similar parenting needs, providing them with pertinent information, and helping them develop supportive peer groups. The program is based on a family education and child development curriculum. Formal evaluations have found MELD to be successful in improving parents' knowledge about meeting the emotional and physical needs of children, coping with issues of personal development while raising children, and decreasing familial isolation.

■ Prevention Projects in the School Domain

SAMHSA's Center for Mental Health Services (1999) has compiled an extensive list of about 120 evidence-based prevention programs, many funded or identified by collaborations among different federal agencies, such as the Departments of Health and Human Services, Education, and Justice, and professional groups such as the National Association of School Psychologists. About 65 percent of these programs are based in the school domain, with target populations ranging from preschoolers to high school students. Many of these interventions include parents and teachers.

These programs are designed to teach social skills, conflict resolution, social competence, engagement in school, bullying prevention, prevention skills for teachers, proactive class management, and cooperative learning, or to change school characteristics, organizational structure, and management approaches. In this extensive list, few programs focus on or even include AAPI youth populations. A significant number of programs target African American youth.

In a comprehensive review of school-based violence prevention interventions published between 1993 and 1997, Howard, Flora, and Griffin (1999) identified 44 school-based intervention studies that included an evaluation. Thirteen of these studies had a control group or multiple measures of the participants over time, approaching a quasi-experimental design. Five of these were elementary school interventions. The goals of these interventions included increasing social skills, social problem solving, and developing pro-social behavior to decrease aggression and violence. These programs each included a significant classroom component and two programs actively integrated parents. The five studies reported some positive outcomes on behavior.

Of the middle and high school interventions identified in the review, the majority focused on African American and Latino youth. Intervention goals were similar to those reported in the elementary school programs. Parent participation was included in one middle and one high school program. As with the elementary schools, none of these interventions involved community efforts. Teachers most frequently administered interventions. The results of these 13 empirically tested interventions were mixed. An anti-bullying program and the high school intervention that included efforts beyond the classroom showed relatively impressive results, with significant decreases in behavioral outcomes in school bullying and suspensions (Hausman, Pierce, & Briggs, 1996; Olweus, 1994). However, the strongest intervention effects were seen for lower order changes in student knowledge, attitudes, and responses to hypothetical situations rather

than actual behavior. Most programs, particularly those with only classroom-based curricula, reported weak results (Howard, Flora, & Griffin, 1999).

Of these 13, three interventions included AAPI youth in the sample. The Seattle Social Development Project included a significant proportion of AAPI participants (details presented below). The other two projects had 1 percent and 8 percent AAPI participation, and did not conduct ethnic sub-analyses.

■ The Seattle Social Development Project (O'Donnell, Hawkins, Catalano, Abbott, and Day, 1995)

This project included a high-risk sub-sample (based on low socioeconomic status) and a general population sample. The high-risk sub-sample was 25 percent (27) AAPI, and the general population sample was 6 percent (31) AAPI. This project aimed to reduce or eliminate the effects of exposure to risk by developing interventions that targeted (1) academic failures, (2) low commitment to school, (3) early conduct disorders, (4) family management problems, and (5) involvement with antisocial others. Each intervention within the project was designed to increase protective factors while reducing these risk factors.

This project tested an intervention that combines modified teaching practices in mainstream classrooms, child social skills training, and developmentally adjusted parent training. These strategies were designed to enhance skills, opportunities, and reinforcements for children both in the classroom and in the family. This six-year longitudinal intervention began in first grade. It intervened with teachers, students, and parents in both school and home environments. Results indicated that girls from low-income families in the intervention perceived more opportunities and reinforcements for involvement in the classroom, expressed stronger bonding to school, and were significantly less likely to initiate use of tobacco, drugs, and alcohol. Low-income boys showed positive academic gains, perceived slightly

greater reinforcements in the classroom, exhibited more attachment and commitment to school, and tended to initiate delinquent behavior at significantly lower rates than the control group. Their rates of drug use initiation were not significantly lower. Ethnic differences were not reported.

Family bonding, management practices, and involvement showed no significant gains. In part, this may be due to low attendance in parenting classes. Despite creative recruitment strategies, including personal invitations from teachers, free child care and transportation, and periodic lotteries, few low-income caretakers participated. This is a critical issue for low-income and AAPI (and other ethnic minority) families. More effective methods of engaging these families need to be developed.

Numerous factors contribute to parents' lack of involvement in schools and school programs. Some parents feel that schools assign a disproportionate share of the blame for aggressive and violent behavior to families, without understanding critical familial issues and pressures; others struggle to survive economically in multiple jobs and lack the time to participate; still others fail to understand what is required of them in these prevention programs. In this sense it is critical that program implementers develop meaningful parent programs that reflect the needs of parents, are culturally competent, are conducted at times and locations convenient to parents, and provide transportation and child care. School-based programs could make more effective use of strong parent groups and leaders that already exist in communities, and enlist their help in encouraging more active parental involvement in schools (Bullock, Fitzsimons, & Gable, 1996).

This study was reported in detail not only because it is one of the few prevention studies to include a significant percentage of AAPI youth, but because it encompasses multiple components that are characteristic of school-based prevention programs, was a quasi-experimental

study, and explored the longitudinal, cumulative effects of six years of intervention. This study has also been selected as one of the promising programs identified by the Blueprints for Violence Prevention Project at the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (Elliott, 1994).

■ **School, Community, and Law Enforcement (SCALE) Project (Asian Pacific Family Center, 2000; Masuda, 2000)**

The SCALE Project is a collaborative prevention, early intervention program involving schools, law enforcement agencies, community groups and the Asian Pacific Family Center, a multi-service center serving the Asian community in the West San Gabriel Valley east of Los Angeles. The goal is assist Asian youth at high risk for delinquency by counteracting the significant risk factors associated with violence, gang involvement and other antisocial activities. The project targets intermediate school age Asian immigrant youth and their families. The project involves cross-agency collaboration and includes the following program components: a) a holistic family needs assessment of youth referred by either school authorities or law enforcement; b)linkage for youth and their families to intensive, individualized and coordinated community resources based on their identified needs; c) individual and family counseling and support using skill-based short term counseling focusing on such areas as positive bicultural identity development, prosocial decision-making, conflict resolution, and, for parents, effective bicultural parenting; d) training and consultation services to schools and law enforcement to help increase knowledge and skills in order to make early identification and referral of Asian youth at risk for delinquent behavior; and e) community collaborative activities designed to link family case management efforts, community network deveopment and community events in support of these targeted families.

In 1998-1999, over 1,000 youth and family members were served by SCALE. The project has been effective in helping youth increase protection from drugs and gangs and reduce suspensions, expulsions and probation involvement. It has helped parents improve their bicultural communication and discipline skills, built close working relationships with the targeted schools, established a referral and information exchange system with law enforcement and developed a supportive relationship between these agencies.

■ Prevention Projects in the Community Domain

The increase in youth violence, coupled with several tragic school shootings, has underscored the need to view this as a community problem. Clearly the literature indicates that interventions in a single social domain—individual, family, school—are not sufficient to address the multiple factors that contribute to this behavior. While school-based efforts remain the most frequent locus of intervention, increasingly more community efforts are being mounted.

Community Collaborations

Community initiatives are focusing on breaking family cycles of violence. Many of these interventions provide a range of family services and involve **collaborative efforts** of religious and recreational organizations; social service, public housing and health agencies; the business community; schools; and law enforcement agencies. After-school programs constructively engage youth when their families are unavailable, provide them with attention and good role models, and separate them from negative influences on the street (Schwartz, 1996).

Effective **anti-gang programs** involve collaboration among police, probation officers, schools, families, and community leaders. They include intensive community, family, and youth education programs; alternative youth activities; and a long-term commitment. (Schwartz, 1996). Goldstein and Huff (1993) have provided exhaustive summaries of gang interventions. While these recommendations and interventions are sound, it is critical to ensure that the cultural context of the

problem and the cultural appropriateness of the intervention are addressed (Soriano, 1993). Particularly for AAPI gangs, interventionists should keep in mind the combination of ethnic minority context, experiences with governmental and local institutions, and limited economic opportunities (Lee, 1994).

Anti-gang interventions traditionally have focused on changing the youth's behavior, attitudes, or values through court dispositions such as diversion, probation, parole, or therapeutic interventions (Goldstein, 1991). The effectiveness of diversion programs has been limited, in part, due to overcrowded juvenile facilities and rehabilitative programs, and limited staff. The effectiveness of these strategies may be even poorer for AAPI youths, given the scarcity of culturally competent professionals and the youth and families' ignorance of services and law enforcement institutions (Lee, 1994). In order to take advantage of the limited services and supports, youth often need an advocate or family member to navigate this bureaucracy. However, AAPI youth often become involved with gangs or criminal behavior due to lack of parental and family support.

Soriano (1993) provides a framework for cultural sensitivity and gang interventions, citing the importance of linguistic competence, understanding ethnic-based behavioral and communication patterns, and addressing the ethnic/cultural background of the program and professional staff. Previous experience with AAPI ethnic groups and understanding the cultural perspective of the youth gang are important.

Spergel (1989) advocates a multimodal approach towards gang intervention requiring a variety of significant social supports across different agencies and community groups. Business and agencies that can provide jobs (Corsica, 1993) are critical for youth focused employment training programs that provide legitimate avenues for employment and career growth. On a youth survey of services and needs, the API Task Force on Youth (1993) found that the top priority was "help finding a job."

Experts are highlighting the need for an integrated, collaborative approach to gang and violence prevention. Weak or nonexistent links among educational, juvenile justice, mental health, and child welfare systems lead to isolated, parallel efforts that fail to address the complexity and multiple determinants of these problems. **Providers, parents and family members, and youth need to work collaboratively to identify youth at risk in order to curb the incidence of gang involvement and violence** (Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force, 1993; Bullock, Fitzsimons, & Gable, 1996).

A successful community initiative demonstrated in Boston resulted in an 80 percent drop in juvenile homicide rates between 1990 and 1995, a 65 percent decline in juvenile arrest rate for firearms-related assaults in one year, and a 20 percent drop in violent crime in the schools in one year. Key components of this strategy included Operation Night Light that assigned police officers and probation officers to make regular home, school, and work-site visits to youth on probation, thus providing for interaction among families, police, and the probation department. The Boston Gun Project focused on gang activities to stem the flow of firearms into the city, and the Ten Point Coalition united clergy, with the police, schools, Department of Youth Services, and others to develop alternatives for youth through a street ministry effort (Children's Defense Fund, 1999).

AAPI groups around the country have been developing effective collaborations with various systems and service providers to prevent youth involvement in crime and violence. AAPI refugee groups have engaged law enforcement officers, business owners, and civic leaders to work collaboratively for neighborhood improvement, community safety, and economic well being. Refugees have become involved in local groups such as neighborhood associations, service clubs, parent-teacher associations, and religious fellowships in order to increase awareness and understanding of the refugees' interest, concerns, and customs. Most of these are grassroots programs with limited documentation, but some programs have attempted to document

systematically the effect of their interventions and the lessons learned.

■ **The East Dallas Community Police and Refugee Affairs Center (National Crime Prevention Council (NCPC), 1999)**
This program began in 1985 as a unique police storefront designed to address the complex needs of the city's growing Southeast Asian refugee population. The storefront provided a range of culturally sensitive, multi-lingual social service and crime prevention programs aimed at decreasing crime, enhancing quality of life, and increasing cooperation between the refugee community and the police. A key component of this program were the Vietnamese, Laotian, and Cambodian public service officers (PSO), unarmed but uniformed officers, who walked the refugee community with a regular, sworn police officer. These PSOs could relate to the specific needs of the refugee community, were able to break down traditional barriers of language and cultural differences, mistrust of authorities, ignorance of laws, and fear of retaliation. This program has been selected by the Police Foundation as one of the best inner-city crime reduction programs in the nation.

In a partnership among the federal Office of Refugee Resettlement, the Bureau of Justice Assistance (U.S. Department of Justice), the National Crime Prevention Council, and state and local agencies, the Outreach to New Americans project was initiated to build collaborations among refugee communities, law enforcement, and other community agencies toward the goal of building safer, healthier communities. In **Powerful Partnerships** (National Crime Prevention Council, 1999) 20 of these programs are described. These exemplary programs were selected because they demonstrated innovation, replicability, collaboration, law enforcement involvement, relevance, results, and sustainability. These programs demonstrated the following results:

• Decrease in crime and violence

• Decrease in home invasions

• Decrease in number of youths joining gangs

• Increase in reporting of crimes

• Increase in refugee participation in civic activity

• Increase in self-esteem of refugee children, resulting in improved school attendance and performance

• Increase in number of parents obtaining assistance for parenting issues, intergenerational conflict, and family violence

• Increase in the feeling of safety in the community

Two of the programs involving AAPI refugees are briefly described below.

■ **Lao PTA Youth Crime Prevention and Intervention Program (NCPC, 1999)**
In 1993, parents, teachers, and the staff of Lao PTA began a Youth Crime Prevention and Intervention Program in response to the growing concern for the safety and future of Lao children. The program aims to provide productive activities and support groups for Lao youth in the Near North neighborhood of Minneapolis, Minnesota. Activities are designed to improve English language skills, improve academic performance, encourage Lao children to stay in school, and build self-esteem by teaching about heritage, culture, history, and language, and traditional dances.

Two-hour tutorial and study groups meet twice a week at schools, and the Lao PTA, through volunteers, helps 215 children with language skills and homework. Supervised after-school recreational activities include individual and team sports for 100 boys and girls, computer skills classes for 90 students during the school year and the summer, two peer-support group sessions each week to improve decision-making ability (ten girls with a female facilitator and 10 boys with a male facilitator), instruction in Lao traditional dance once a week for 70 elementary school children, band practice each week for 30 children at the Lao PTA, and classes for 100 youth in Lao history, culture, language, cooking, music, and dance during the school year and the summer. In addition, the program sponsors three

cultural and social gatherings a year for 70 families to celebrate young people's achievements and to encourage the development of positive family relationships. The program also conducts workshops for 80 parents on the American juvenile justice system, appropriate means of discipline, and parenting skills; the American system of education and parents' role in their children's education; and recognizing the warning signs of gang involvement or substance abuse.

The results of this program include the following:

• Some rival gang members became friends after the Lao PTA recruited high-risk teens from different gangs to participate on their winning soccer team. Team loyalty replaced gang loyalty, and rival gang members developed friendships despite their differences.

• The Minneapolis Police Department reported a decrease in crime and violence within the Lao community.

• School officials reported that many youth who were identified as troublemakers and who are now involved in the Lao PTA have improved their school performance and behavior.

• School officials reported that an increasing number of program participants are dressing in more conventional clothing instead of gang attire.

• Parents reported satisfaction with the results of the Lao PTA program because their children are not associating with delinquent youth and are having more success in school and in the community.

• Lao youth reported feeling better about themselves, their families, and school than they did one year prior.

• Staff members observed that participating youth handle conflicts and stressful situations more effectively.

■ **Southeast Asian Leadership Youth Program (SEAL) (NCPC, 1999)**
In the effort to become "Americanized", Hmong youth adopt American cultural values, practices, and ideals. Confronted with the pressure to fit

in with their peers, many find group support in gangs. In 1988, the LaCrosse, Wisconsin area Hmong Mutual Assistance Association (HMAA) developed SEAL to empower and educate refugee youth. The objectives were to prevent high school dropout, continue higher education or training, and become self-sufficient members of the community. Components of the program included one-to-one meetings with HMAA staff to form relationships with adults who are positive role models; classes of 15-20 student twice a week devoted to classroom instruction and tutoring in independent living skills and leadership development, and tutoring on school work and homework; a third class focused on community activities and projects or social events to enhance development of students' social skills. SEAL participants also serve on the Multicultural Youth Council, whose mission is to reduce racism and prejudice through nonviolent educational efforts. Results from this program include:

• More than 300 youth have participated in SEAL.

• Of the gang members participating in SEAL, 5 percent have broken off all connections with the gang, which included changing their friends, not engaging in criminal activity, and dressing differently. Ninety-five percent have stopped involvement in criminal activity.

• Ninety-eight percent of SEAL participants graduate from high school.

• Approximately 88 percent pursue higher education or training.

• SEAL won an award from the National Association of Counties in 1991 as a highly effective, culturally sensitive, and cost-effective program meeting the needs of at-risk youth.

• Southeast Asian community members now realize the need to provide parent training on preventing and resolving their children's behavioral problems.

• Many youth are court ordered to attend SEAL because the program helps them resolve problems and provides a needed support structure.

• The Multicultural Youth Council has increased awareness of diverse social issues in the mainstream community.

This program provides important lessons on involving difficult-to-engage parents from cultures that believe the responsibility of raising children rests with family elders, not community programs.

■ **PACT: Policy, Action, Collaboration, and Training Violence Prevention Project (Benjamin, 1995)**
PACT is a federally funded collaboration among nine community-based organizations working with the Health Department in Contra Costa County, California, an ethnically diverse region with pockets of severe poverty. The prevention project is an interdisciplinary public health program focusing on the prevention of violence, childhood injury, and chronic disease. The project applies a systems-wide approach to coordinate and further develop existing community efforts. Instead of duplicating efforts, coalitions are formed to facilitate the development of common strategies, thus conserving resources, sharing ownership, avoiding program duplication, and achieving broad educational and policy objectives. Participating PACT agencies represent African American, Latino, Laotian, and Caucasian communities.

The components of this program include direct services to youth and families within participating agencies; violence prevention leadership training with a multicultural group of youth ages 12-18; community events, forums, and conferences to promote violence prevention and cultural awareness themes; presentations by youth and staff to community and school groups; networking with other agencies and organizations; joint policy development involving agencies, schools, and elected and appointed city and county officials; and youth activities including training retreats, discussion groups, cultural and educational field trips, and the creation of plays, newsletters, and videos with violence prevention themes.

■ After School Programs

There has been renewed interest in after-school programs as a strategy to reduce the involvement of youth in risky behaviors. FBI statistics indicate that 47 percent of violent juvenile crimes occur on weekdays between 2:00 pm and 8:00 pm (Larner, Zippiroli, & Behrman, 1999). After-school programs encompass a heterogeneous mix of programs designed to meet a range of objectives. Some programs seek to promote learning and enrichment, while others are designed to protect youth from dangers, risky experimentation, and unsupervised time. Others promote new interests, relationship building with caring adults, and academic and social support. To build a sustainable system of after-school options, designers of these programs must consider the interests of its major constituencies: parents, youth, and policy makers. Parents seek supervision and enrichment; policy makers seek prevention of crime, substance abuse, teen pregnancy, and promotion of school achievement. In contrast, youth desire time to build relationships and a sense of autonomy and competence. To meet these various goals, after-school programs must not only enhance prevention and reduce problem behaviors, but also must be appealing to youth.

AAPI community-based organizations are increasingly involved in after-school programs. The components of these programs often include tutoring, life skills training in small groups, opportunities to learn about and gain appreciation for one's culture of origin, discussion groups, leadership training, and conflict resolution. To date, there is limited evaluation data that systematically documents the effectiveness of these individual programs. While anecdotal evidence points to the positive impact of these programs on youth and families, the need for evidenced-based documentation remains. As a result, these organizations are designing more systematic tracking methods and evaluation components.

■ **Asian American LEAD (Dang, 1999; www.aalead.org)**
This organization provides youth and family support services to Vietnamese refugee families in a Washington, DC neighborhood. The mission of this organization is to provide

concrete services to refugee and immigrant families as they adapt to American society; bridge gaps between generations, while promoting cultural identity; enhance educational opportunities and achievement for Asian American youth and adults; and foster a sense of responsibility, self-reliance, entrepreneurship, and community leadership. The youth program includes an after-school program that focuses on enhancing educational achievement, improving social competence, and increasing self-esteem. AALEAD addresses these goals through a variety of activities, including tutoring, monitoring of homework and class assignments, training in test-taking skills, leadership training, opportunities for peer and adult social interaction, and participation in cultural and community events. Baseline measures and tracking of academic, social, and personal indicators are conducted.

Selected accomplishments in the past year include:

• Sixty mentors provided services to more than 70 children.

• Thirty youth participated in a Cultural Arts Project for five weeks over the summer that connected them with two neighboring ethnic groups, Latinos and African Americans. This project involved a poetry workshop, workshops on Mexican culture and dance, song-writing workshops, and painting and drawing murals.

• Thirty youth participated in a leadership-training program in which they organized and implemented a public event.

• Families engaged in their children's education by regularly attending individual quarterly meetings between staff and parents of participating youth. One hundred percent of the parents fulfilled this request.

• Ongoing training was provided for the bicultural/bilingual staff.

■ **Southeast Asian Youth and Family Development (NCPC, 1999)**
In 1992 in Providence, Rhode Island, the Mayor's Council on Drug and Alcohol Abuse created the

Southeast Asian Youth and Family Development (SAYFD) project to bring crime, gang, and drug prevention efforts for Southeast Asian youth into one collaborative, citywide effort. This project was initiated in response to alarming numbers of school drop-outs and increasing gang membership, and a need to improve the quality of life for refugee youth and families. This project continues to provide an after-school program of mentoring and tutoring, a Summer Academy where high school credits can be earned, and a Gangs to Clubs program. The program focuses on both the needs and strengths of at-risk refugee youth by fostering self-esteem, pride, and a sense of belonging and by providing positive choices and alternatives to youth gangs.

This program works collaboratively with the school system and the police department. Public school teachers often participate in the Summer Academy, and police officers may sponsor and participate in club activities. About 140 at-risk middle school students meet in clubs or in mentor relationships, and in life skills training sessions.

A 1996 SAYFD evaluation indicated many improvements in the lives of the participating youth and in the community:

• Of the refugee population surveyed in 1993 more than half indicated that the gang problem was very serious; in 1996 this portion declined to 14 percent.

• In 1993, more than half the refugee population surveyed indicated that there was an increase in weapons carried by Southeast Asian youth in schools; this proportion declined to 10 percent in 1996.

• Asian gang violence came to a halt. The police department organized athletic competitions with active participation—playing, competing, and talking—among gang members.

• Most Southeast Asians surveyed felt it safe to walk in their neighborhood during the day and most felt safe at night. They believed their neighborhood conditions would continue to improve.

■ Summary and Conclusions: What Have We Learned and What is Relevant to AAPI Populations?

There are Significant Gaps in Data Collection and Reporting.

This literature review revealed glaring omissions in the study of youth violence in AAPI communities. While some federal programs are beginning to collect demographic, incidence, and involvement data, these efforts do not systematically or consistently include AAPIs. While AAPIs comprise a small percentage of the overall national population, their patterns of household residence and their bimodal distribution on social indicators often obscures the fact that many youth and families in this population are at high risk for problem behaviors. For example, AAPI incomes tend to concentrate on either end of the income spectrum. Thus income averages tend to conceal the many families living in poverty and the larger households that often include multiple wage earners. Although the median income overall is higher than other groups, there is much disparity among the various Asian groups. The percentage below the poverty level varies from 6 percent for Filipinos to as high as 63 percent for Hmong. In order to gain a more accurate picture of community needs and resources, better strategies for data collection and analysis need to be developed.

Strategies for collecting data about AAPI youth need to consider culturally-appropriate methodologies that would maximize the validity and reliability of the data. Two strategies are generally used to gather information about youth violence: police reports and youth self-report. Stigma, shame and unfamiliarity with survey and self-report mechanisms may impede access to respondents and diminish accuracy of the data.

Disaggregate the Data—More Than Once!

Many of the studies reviewed did not report the ethnicity of the target populations. Some studies indicated participation of ethnic minorities, but did not identify the groups. In studies where the AAPI population is included, disaggregating the data by ethnicity would begin to identify what works and what doesn't work for AAPIs. Although, a few studies included a significant AAPI population, their results did not include an analysis by ethnic/racial breakdown. Disaggregating the data further within the AAPI group would be even more meaningful given the broad diversity within the AAPI population. Some AAPI groups have been in the U.S. for multiple generations, are more acculturated, and have developed a network of supports and resources. Other communities, such as Southeast Asians and Pacific Islanders, often referred to as the emerging groups, have more recently resettled in the U.S. and are confronted with multiple economic, social, health, and psychological stressors with few community resources or established networks for support. The risks and protective factors for these diverse groups may be quite different, requiring different types of interventions. Although disaggregating within the AAPI population may diminish the power of findings due to smaller sample sizes, qualitatively, it would provide a more accurate portrayal of the population.

Research on Prevention Practices Needs to be More Inclusive of AAPI Populations.

Careful science is fundamental to a public health approach to violence prevention. The science base regarding AAPI youth and prevention of high risk behaviors is limited. Very few prevention studies have included AAPI youth. Few of the exemplary or promising practices of the Blueprints Project compiled by the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence targeted AAPIs. Many of the federally funded prevention programs are only recently including this population. The exceptions to this are some of the Department of Justice collaborative projects. A greater effort needs to be made to include vulnerable youth from the diverse AAPI groups in research studies on prevention. This may require new strategies of outreach and data collection and new collaborations with critical partners in these communities. More research is needed to confirm the efficacy of evidence-based preventions for racial and ethnic groups, in particular, AAPI youth. The lack of ethnic-specific analyses signifies a gap in knowledge. The science base should also determine the efficacy of ethnic- or culture-specific interventions for AAPI youth and their effectiveness in real-world settings.

Models of Risk and Protective Factors Need to Include Cultural Factors.

Comprehensive models of risk and resiliency have been developed for the general population. Given the cultural differences and developmental and ecological challenges specific to AAPI populations, these models would be more relevant for AAPIs with the inclusion of culture-related risk and protective factors. Current models omit critical variables. The risk and protective factors for AAPI youth proposed in this paper must be tested systematically. These factors do not replace, but rather supplement, the previously delineated factors and potentially enhance the relevance of these frameworks for AAPIs. While these factors were derived from the literature on minority youth development, some concurrent validity exists for

these factors in that they are consistently addressed in AAPI community-based prevention programs. Adding factors such as acculturation, help seeking behaviors, stigma, ethnic identity, racism and spirituality may facilitate better understanding of protective factors for AAPI youth.

Studies are Needed to Test the Applicability of Existing Risk and Resiliency Models.

Factors have been identified that compromise the development of children and lead to high-risk behaviors. Potentially protective conditions have also been identified. A critical question is: Do risk factors that have been identified as sources of vulnerability for U.S.-born children in U.S.-born families similarly affect AAPI families, and particularly AAPI immigrant families? In terms of protective factors, are children in AAPI families insulated from risk by the same factors that have been identified for non-AAPI youth? There is little empirical information to clarify whether the dynamics of risk and protective factors operate similarly across groups (National Research Council, 1998) although a recent study suggests that "developmental assets" while essential across all ethnic groups, operate differently for different groups in terms of protection from risk (Sesma and Roehlkepartain, 2003).

Build Programs That Aim to Reduce Risk Factors and Enhance Protective Factors.

Approaches to prevention that aim to reduce risk factors while enhancing protective factors are more likely to be the most effective forms of prevention (Institute of Medicine, 1994). The AAPI community-based programs, through a combination of strategies, addressed risk and protective factors. After-school programs involving tutoring, social skills, ethnic heritage classes, and cultural activities countered devalued ethnic identity, isolation, and lack of bicultural skills. Parent education groups addressed intercultural conflict and isolation; mentoring programs countered low supervision. Engagement

in the community, whether through collaborations with law enforcement, PTA, civic or sports groups, made the AAPI community more visible and provided opportunities to develop home-community linkages and educate and expand awareness of the AAPI culture to the mainstream community.

Effective Violence Prevention Efforts Target Multiple Domains.

While domain-specific intervention efforts have an impact on the identified behaviors and problems, comprehensive, community-based programs that foster connections across domains may have greater and more sustained effects. Programs that address both the youth and the families, or the school and law enforcement, seem to foster more connections and address more risk and protective factors. A single intervention conducted in isolation is unlikely to solve youth violence; too many factors contribute to violent behavior to be addressed by one strategy (Thornton, Craft, Dahlberg, Lynch, & Baer, 2000.)

Violence Prevention Programs Need to Collaborate with Natural Supports, Cultural Leaders and Community Coalitions.

Most research has shown that race and ethnicity have little to do with predicting an individual's tendency to engage in violent behavior. However, these factors have everything to do with how a community responds to an intervention (Thornton, Craft, Dahlberg, Lynch, & Baer, 2000). Thus, cultural informants, natural support systems, and cultural community leaders will be instrumental in developing programs that fit the needs and enhance the outcomes for their communities. The community-based AAPI programs that had an impact on youth developed strong collaborations between the community, the school, and law enforcement. Outreach and engagement efforts by ethnic community groups built important connections between families and mainstream community groups or agencies. This seemed to be a critical component in the

community violence prevention projects. Recruitment strategies needed to draw upon naturally existing social networks or structures serving the ethnic population. A two-year Seattle-based study found that churches and friends were most effective in recruiting Samoan youth and families (Harachi, Catalano, & Hawkins,1997). The mainstream organizations learned how to work with different cultures. They learned to identify or be responsive to community gatekeepers, acknowledging their potential liaison role and establishing mutually beneficial working relationships. Increased cultural understanding and strategies for culturally competent intervention eventually were reflected in their programs, policies, and practices.

Effects of Violence Prevention Efforts Take Time to Emerge.

Quasi-experimental studies of violence prevention programs underscore the need for long-term commitment to the program and long-term follow-up. Prevention is difficult to measure and track. Initial evaluations may show no gains. In some studies, it took two or more years for any measurable effects to appear. Additionally, community-based programs often require lengthy development phases to build collaboration and implement a program. While much in today's world is focused on "real time" reporting, the impact of prevention may take considerably longer to emerge. Sustaining a prevention program, its funding and political will is difficult without supporting data, concrete results and cost savings. Gaining political and community buy-in, "for the long haul" may require new collaborations and innovative strategies for reporting results.

Engage the Community.

In order to obtain community buy-in and sense of ownership, it is critical to involve the community in the early planning stages and implementation of an intervention. This may be particularly true for racial or ethnic populations that often are mistrustful of outsiders and externally imposed

interventions. Additionally, involving the community may facilitate access and obtaining resources, volunteers, and personnel for the intervention.

In conclusion, this review is a beginning sketch of the issues for AAPI youth and their communities. Considerably more work needs to be done to better meet the needs of this population, to build on its cultural strengths and to ensure positive outcomes for its youth and families.

References

Acts Against Violence. (1995). *A guide to action: National campaign to reduce youth violence*. New York: Educational Resources Center.

Administration for Children's Services. (1998). *Early childhood capacity by school district*. Agency for Child Development. New York: Author.

Agbayani-Siewert, P., & Revilla, L. (1995). Filipino Americans. In Pyong GapMin (Ed.), *Asian Americans: Contemporary trends and issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

American Psychological Association. (1993). *Violence and youth: Psychology's response. Volume I. Summary report of the APA commission on violence and youth*. Washington, DC: Author.

Arthur, M. W., Hawkins, J. D., Pollard, J. A., Catalano, R. F., & Baglioni, A. J. (2002). Measuring risk and protective factors for substance use, delinquency, and other adolescent problem behaviors: The communities that care youth survey. *Evaluation Review*; not currently available.

Ascher, C. (1989). *Southeast Asian adolescents: Identity and adjustment*. Washington, DC: Educational Resource Information Service.

Ascher, C. (1994). Gaining control of violence in the schools: A view from the field. ERIC Digest No. 100. ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, Washington, DC: National Education Association, Center for the Revitalization of Urban Education.

Asian Pacific Family Center. (2000). *School, Community, and Law Enforcement (SCALE) project: Brief program description*. Rosemead, CA: author.

Asian/Pacific Islander Task Force on Youth. (1993). *Executive summary of a framework for meeting the needs of at-risk Asian/Pacific Islander youth*. King County, WA: Author.

Banks, R., Hogue, A., & Timberlake, T. (1998). An Afrocentric approach to group social skills training with inner-city African American adolescents. *Journal of Negro Education, 65*, 414-423.

Bankston, C. (1995). Vietnamese ethnicity and adolescent substance abuse: Evidence for a community-level approach. *Deviant Behavior, 16*(1), pp. 59-80.

Benjamin, M. (1995). *Effective collaboration as the key to understanding and reducing youth violence*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Child Development Center, National Technical Assistance Center for Children's Mental Health.

Bijou, S., & Baer, D. (1961). *Child development: A systematic and empirical theory*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Blumstein A., & Wallman, J. (Eds.). (2000). *The crime drop in America*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment and loss. Vol. 1. attachment*. New York: Basic Books.

Brener, N., Thomas, S., Krug, E., & Lowry, R. (1999). Recent trends in violence-related behaviors among high school students in the United States. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 282*, 440-446.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bullock, L., Fitzsimons, A., & Gable, R. (1996). Combating youth violence: An "all hands-on deck" approach to making schools safe again. *Preventing School Failure, 41*, 34-41.

Butts, J., & Travis, J. (2002). *The rise and fall of American youth violence: 1980 to 2000*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. (1989). *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century: The report of the task force on education of young adolescents*. Washington, DC: Carnegie Corporation.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. (1992). *A matter of time: Risk and opportunity in the non-school hours*. New York: Carnegie Corporation.

Carnegie Corporation of New York. (1995). *Great transitions: Preparing adolescents for a new century*. New York: Carnegie Corporation.

Cartledge, G., & Feng, H. (1996). Asian Americans. In G. Cartledge (Ed.), *Cultural diversity and social skills instruction: Understanding ethnic and gender differences*. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Catalano, R., & Hawkins, J. D. (1996). The social development model: A theory of antisocial behavior. In J. D. Hawkins (Ed.), *Delinquency and crime: Current theories*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Catalano, R., Hawkins, J. D., Berglund, L., Pollard, J., & Arthur, M. (1998). *Prevention science and positive youth development: Competitive or cooperative frameworks?* Paper prepared for Invitational Conference, Health Future of Youth II: Pathways to Adolescent Health. Maternal and Child Health Bureau, Annapolis, MD.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (1996). CDC surveillance summaries, September 27, 1996. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 45*, (No. SS-4).

Center for Mental Health Services. (1999, February). *CMHS school violence prevention initiative: Matrix of evidence-based prevention interventions*. Washington, DC: Center for Mental Health Services.

Chan, S. (1986). Parents of exceptional Asian children. In M. Kitano & P. Chinn (Eds.), *Exceptional Asian children and youth*. Reston, VA: Council for Exception Children.

Chan, S. (1998). Families with Asian roots. In E. Lynch & M. Hanson (Eds.), *Developing cross-cultural competence: A guide for working with children and their families*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Company.

Children's Defense Fund. (1999). *The state of America's children yearbook, 1999*. Washington, DC: Author.

Chin, K. (1990). *Chinese subculture and criminality*. New York: Greenwood.

Clark, R., Anderson, N., Clark, V., & Williams, D. (1999). Racism as a stressor for African Americans: A biopsychosocial model. *American Psychologist, 54*, 805-816.

Coalition for Asian American children and families. (1999). *Half-full or half-empty? Health care, child care and youth programs for Asian American children in New York City*. New York: Author.

Coalition for Juvenile Justice. (2004) Transfer: Sending Children to Adult Criminal Court. New York: Author.

Cohen, S., & Lang, C. (1990). *Applications of the principles of community-based programs*. Background paper prepared for Youth Violence in Minority Communities: A Forum on Setting the Agenda for Prevention, Atlanta, GA. Newton, MA: Education Development Center.

Consortium on the School-Based Promotion of Social Competence. (1994). *Drug and alcohol prevention curricula*. Seattle, WA: Developmental Research and Programs.

Corsica, J. Y. (1993). Employment training interventions. In A. Goldstein & C. R. Huff (Eds.), *The gang intervention handbook*. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Cowart, M., & Cowart, R. (1993). Southeast Asian refugee youth and the cycle of violence. *NAASP Bulletin*, pp. 40-45.

Dao, J. (1992, April 1). Asian street gangs emerging as new underworld. *The New York Times*, p. B2.

Davis, N. (1999). *Resiliency: Status of the research and research-based program implications for mental health policy*. Center for Mental Health Services, SAMHSA. White Paper.

Developmental Research and Programs. (1993). *Communities that care: Risk-focused prevention using the social development strategy*. Seattle, WA: Developmental Research and Programs.

DeVos, G. (1982). Adaptive strategies in U.S. minorities. In E. Jones & S. Korchin (Eds.) *Minority mental health*. New York: Praeger.

Drachman, D., Kwon-Ahn, Y. H., & Paulino, A. (1996, December). Migration and resettlement experiences of Dominican and Korean families. *Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services*, 626-638.

Dryfoos, J. (1994). *Full service schools: A revolution in health and social services for children, youth, and families*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dwyer, K. (1999). Preventing school-community violence. *Schools in the Middle, 8*(4), 12-14, 43.

Elliott, D. (1994). Y*outh violence: An overview*. Boulder, CO: Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Elliott, D., Huizinga, D., & Menard, S. (1989). *Multiple problems youth: delinquency, substance abuse, and mental health problems*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Erikson, E. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.

Everett, S., & Price, J. (1995). Students' perceptions of violence in the public schools: The Metlife Survey. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 17*, 345-352.

Fagan, J. (1996, May). *Recent perspectives on youth violence*. Keynote address to Pacific Northwest Conference on Youth Violence, Seattle, WA.

Feng, H., & Cartledge, G. (1996). Social skills assessment of inner city Asian, African, and European American students. *School Psychology Review, 25,* 227-238.

Freud, A. (1969). Adolescence as a developmental disturbance. In G. Caplan & S. Lebovier (Eds.), *Adolescence*. New York: Basic Books.

Freud, S. (1954). *Collected works* (standard ed.). London: Hogarth Press.

Fujita, S., & O'Brien, D. (1991). *Japanese American ethnicity: The persistence of community*. Seattle, WA: University of Washington Press.

Fukuyama, M., & Coleman, N. (1992). A model for bicultural assertion training with Asian-Pacific American college students: A pilot study. *The Journal for Specialists in Group Work, 17*, 210-217.

Furuto, S., & Murase, K. (1992). Asian Americans in the future. In S. Furuto, R. Biswas, D. Chung, K. Murase, & F. Ross-Sheriff (Eds.), *Social work practice with Asian Americans*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gallimore, R., Boggs, J., & Jordan, C. (1974). *Culture, behavior and education: A study of Hawaiian Americans*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Garbarino, J. (1982). Sociocultural risk: Dangers to competence. In C. Kopp & J. Krakow (Eds.), *The Child: Development in a social context*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Garmezy, N. (1985). Stress-resistant children: The search for protective factors. In J.E. Stevenson (Ed.), *Recent Research in Developmental Psychopathology: Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry Book, Supplement 4*, (pp.213-233). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Gewirtz, J., & Stingle, K. (1968). Learning of generalized imitation as the basis for identification. *Psychological Review, 75*, 374-397.

Gibbs, J. (1995). *Gangs as alternative transitional structures: Adaptations to racial and social marginality in Los Angeles and London*. Presented at the American Orthopsychiatric Association, Chicago, IL.

Gibbs, J., & Huang, L. (1998). *Children of color: Psychological interventions with culturally diverse youth*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Gibson, G. (1972). Kin family network: Over-heralded structure in past conceptualizations of family functioning. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 34,* 13-23.

Gim-Chung, R. (1994). *Measurement of acculturation and cultural identity: A comparative analysis*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles.

Go, C. *The Southeast Asian situation: Acculturation and delinquency*. From doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Goldstein, J. (1991). *Delinquent groups: A psychological perspective*. IL: Research Press.

Goldstein, A., & Huff, C. (1993). *The gang intervention handbook*. IL: Research Press.

Griffin, K., Scheier, L., Botvin, G., Diaz, T., & Miller, N. (1999). Interpersonal aggression in urban minority youth: Mediators of perceived neighborhood, peer, and parental influences. *Journal of Community Psychology, 27*, 281-298.

Gross, J. (1991, April 6). Six are killed as 8-hour siege by gang ends in California. *The New York Times*, p. A6.

Guillermo, E. (1996, October 4). Pearls of wisdom: On model minorities and immigrant makeovers. *Asian Week*, p. 5.

Hall, C. (1995). Asian eyes: Body image and eating disorders of Asian and Asian American women. *Eating Disorders: The Journal of Treatment and Prevention, 3*(1), pp. 8-18.

Hall, E. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, NY: Anchor.

Hallowell, E. (1999). *Connections*. New York, NY: Pantheon Books.

Hammond, W. R. (1990). *Positive adolescent choices training (PACT)*. Washington, DC: American Association of State Colleges and Universities.

Han, Y. K. (1985). Discriminant analysis of self-disclosing behavior and locus of control among Korean American and Caucasian American adolescents. *Pacific/Asian Mental Health Research Review, 4*, 20-21.

Harachi, T., Catalano, R., & Hawkins, J. D. (1997). Effective recruitment for parenting programs with ethnic minority communities. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal, 14*(1): 23-39.

Harrison, A., Wilson, M., Pine, C., Chan, S., & Buriel, R. (1990). Family ecologies of ethnic minority children. *Child Development, 61*, 347-362.

Hausman, A., Pierce, G., & Briggs, L. (1996). Evaluation of comprehensive violence prevention education: Effects on student behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 19*, 104-110.

Hawkins, J. D. (1999). *Creating safe schools and communities*. Presentation, CMHS school violence prevention initiative meeting. Rockville, Maryland.

Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., & Miller, J. Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*, 64-105.

Haynes, N., & Comer J. (1993). The Comer School Development Program: Process, outcomes, and policy implications. *Urban Education, 28*, 166-199.

Hays, C. (1990, July 31). Amid gang violence, Chinatown casts off quiet image. *The New York Times*, p. B1.

Ho, M. K. (1987). *Family therapy with ethnic minorities*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ho, M. K. (1992). *Minority children and adolescents in therapy*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hoelting, J., Sandell, E., LeTourneau, S., Smerlinder, J., & Stranik, M. K. (1996). The Meld Experience with Parent Groups 9-18. Bulletin of Zero to Three: National Center for Infants, Toddlers and Families.

Howard, K., Flora, J., & Griffin, J. (1999). Violence-prevention programs in schools: State of the science and implications for future research. *Applied & Preventive Psychology, 8*, 197-215.

Howell, J. (Ed.). (1998). *Guide for implementing the comprehensive strategy for serious, violent, and chronic juvenile offenders*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Hsu, F. (1981). *Americans and Chinese: Passage to differences*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Huang, L. N. (1989). Southeast Asian refugee children and adolescents. In J. Gibbs & L. Huang (Eds.), *Children of color: Psychological interventions with minority youth*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Huang, L. N. (1994). An integrative view of identity formation: A model for Asian Americans. In E. Salett & D. Koslow (Eds.), *Race, ethnicity, and self: Identity in multicultural perspective*. Washington, DC: National Multicultural Institutes Publications.

Huang, L., Lee, Y., & Arganza, G. (2004). *Promising programs for youth development and risk prevention for Asian American/Pacific Islander youth: Voices from the field*. Paper prepared for the Center for Mental Health Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Department of Health and Human Services, Rockville, MD

Huang, L. N., & Gibbs, J. T. (1992). Partners or adversaries? Home-school collaboration across culture, race, and ethnicity. In S. Christenson & J. Conoley (Eds.), *Home school collaboration: Enhancing children's academic and social competence*. National Association of School Psychologists.

Huang, L. N., & Ying, Y. (1998). Chinese American children and adolescents. In J. Gibbs & L. Huang (Eds.), *Children of color: Psychological interventions with culturally diverse youth*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Huff, C. R. (1993). Gangs and public policy: Macrolevel interventions. In A. Goldstein & C. R. Huff (Eds.), *The gang intervention handbook*. IL: Research Press.

Hughes, J., & Hasbrouk, J. (1996). Television violence implications for violence prevention. *School Psychology Review, 25*, 134-152.

Hunt, G., Joe, K., & Waldorf, D. (1997, May). Culture and ethnic identity among Southeast Asian gang members. *Free Inquiry—Special Issue: Gangs, Drugs & Violence 2, 25*(1).

Ida, D. J. (1999). *Project Youth Connect: Asian youth mentorship program*. Denver, CO.

Ida, D. J & Yang, P. (2002) Working with Southeast Asian children and families. In J. Gibbs & L. Huang (Eds.), *Children of color: Psychological interventions with culturally diverse youth*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Institute of Medicine. (1994). *Reducing risks for mental disorder: Frontiers for preventive intervention research*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Ito, K. (1985). Affective bonds: Hawaiian interrelationships of self. In G. White & J. Kirkpatrick (Eds.), *Person, self, and experience*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

James, W. H., Kim, G. K., & Moore, D. D. (1997). Examining racial and ethnic differences in Asian adolescent drug use: The contributions of culture, background and lifestyle. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy, 4*(1):39-51.

Janes, C. (1990). *Migration, social changes, and health*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Johnson-Powell, G., Yamamoto, J., Wyatt, G., & Arroyo, W. (Eds). (1997). *Transcultural child development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kang, C., & Saar, M. (1996, January 25). Asian gangs rise strikes a paradox. *Los Angeles Times*, p.1-3.

Kellogg Foundation. (1998). *Safe passages through adolescence: Communities protecting the health and hopes of youth*. Battle Creek, MI: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Kim, W. J., Kim, L., & Rue, D. (1997). Korean American children. In G. Johnson-Powell, J. Yamamoto, G. Wyatt, & W. Arroyo (Eds.), *Transcultural child development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Klein, M. (1969). Violence in American juvenile gangs. In D. J. Mulvihill & M. M. Tumid (Eds.), *Crimes of violence, Vol. 13*. Washington, DC: National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence.

Kumpher, K., & Alvarado, R. (1998). *Effective family strengthening intervention*. U.S. Department of Justice. www.jcjrs.org/pdffiles/171121.pdf

Kumpher, K., DeMarsh, J., & Child, W. (1989). *The strengthening families program*. Salt Lake City, UT: Department of Health Education, University of Utah and Alta Institute.

Lacar, S., & King, J. (2000, January-February). *Strengthening Hawaii families*. Presentation at National Training Conference on Strengthening America's Families, sponsored by CSAP and Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Program, Washington, DC.

Laosa, L. (1977). Cognitive styles and learning strategies research. *Journal of Teacher Education, 28*, 26-30.

Larner, M., Zippiroli, L., & Behrman, R. (1999, Fall). When school is out: Analysis and recommendations. *The Future of Children, 2*, p. 5.

Lee, E. (1997). The Assessment and Treatment of Asian American families. In E. Lee (Ed.), *Working with Asian Americans: A guide for clinicians*. New York: Guilford Press.

Lee, P. (1994). *Out of options: The problems of Chinese youth gangs*. Unpublished paper. School of Social Welfare, University of California, Berkeley, CA.

Lee, L., & Zhan, G. (1998). Psychosocial status of children and youths. In L. Lee & N. Zane (Eds.), *Handbook of Asian American psychology*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Leong, R., & Chou, E. (1994). The role of ethnic identity and acculturation in the vocational behavior of Asian Americans: An integrative review. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 44*, 155-172.

Leung, E. K. (1988). Cultural and acculturational commonalities and diversities among Asian Americans: Identification and programming considerations. In A. Portz & B. Ramirez (Eds.), *Schools and the culturally diverse exceptional student: Promising practices and future directions*. Reston, VA: ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children.

Lerner, R. (Ed.). (1998). *Theoretical models of human development: Vol. 1. The handbook of child psychology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Lerner, R., & Castellino, D. (1998). *Contemporary developmental theory and adolescence: Developmental systems and applied developmental science*. Paper prepared for Health Future of Youth II: Pathways to Adolescent Health. Maternal and Child Health Bureau, Annapolis, Maryland.

Lin, C. Y. C., & Fu, V. R. (1990). A comparison of child-rearing practices among Chinese, immigrant Chinese, and Caucasian-American parents. *Child Development, 61*, 429-433.

Lim, K. V., Levenson, M., & Go, C. G. (1999). International Congress of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology, 14 Aug. 1998. Western Washington U, Bellingham WA, US. Acculturation and delinquency among Cambodian male adolescents in California. In Lonner, W. J., Dinnel, D. L., Forgays, D. K., & Hayes, S. H. (Eds.), *Merging past, present and future in cross-cultural psychology. Selected readings from the 14th International congress of the International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Lorenz, K. (1965). *Evolution and modification of behavior*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.

Luthar, S., & Zigler, E. (1991). Vulnerability and competence: A review of research on resilience in childhood. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 6*(1), 6-22.

Maguin E., & Loeber, R. (1996). Academic performance and delinquency. In M. Tonry (Ed.), *Crime and justice: A review of research* (Vol. 20). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Masten, A., & Coatsworth, J. D. (1998). The development of competence in favorable and unfavorable environments. *American Psychologist, 53*, 205-220.

Masten, A. S., & Garmezy, N. (1985). Risk, vulnerability and protective factors in developmental psychopathology. In B. B. Lahey & A. E. Kazdin (Eds.), *Advances in clinical child psychology, Vol. 8*. New York: Plenum Press.

Masuda, G. (2000). Personal communication.

Nagata, D. (1989). Japanese American children and adolescents. In J.Gibbs & L. Huang (Eds.), *Children of color: Psychological interventions for minority youth*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

National Crime Prevention Council. (1998). *Powerful partnerships: Twenty crime prevention strategies that work for refugees, law enforcement, and communities*. Washington, DC: Author.

National Crime Prevention Council. (1999). *When law and culture collide: Handling conflicts between U.S. laws and refugees' cultures*. Washington, DC: Author.

National Research Council. (1998). *From generation to generation: The health and well-being of children in immigrant families*. Board on Children, Youth, and Families, National Research Council-Institute of Medicine. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

New York Police Department. (1998). *Crime and justice annual report*. New York, NY: Office of Management and Planning.

Nguyen, N., & Williams, H. (1989). Transition from East to West: Vietnamese adolescents and their parents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 28*, 505-515.

Novello, A. (1991). Violence is a greater killer of children than disease. *Public Health Reports, 106*(3), 231-233.

O'Donnell, Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R., Abbott, R., & Day, L. (1995). Preventing school failure, drug use, and delinquency among low-income children: Long-term intervention in elementary schools. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 65*(1), 87-100.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice. (1998). *Juvenile mentoring program, 1998 report to Congress*. Washington, DC: Author.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, (1999). *Juvenile offenders and victims: 1999 national report*. (Compiled by H. Snyder & M. Sickmund, National Center for Juvenile Justice). Washington, DC: Author.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, (1999). *1996 national youth gang survey: Summary*. Washington, DC: Author.

Ogbu, J. (1987). Variability in minority school performance: A problem in search of explanation. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 18*(4), 312-234.

Okano, Y., & Spilka, B. (1971). Ethnic identity, alienation and achievement orientation in Japanese-American families. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 2*, 273-282.

Olweus, D. (1994). Annotation: Bullying at school: Basic facts and effects of a school based intervention program. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 35*, 1171-1190.

Parker, V. C., Sussman, S., Crippens, D. L., Scholl, D., & Elder. (1996). Qualitative development of smoking prevention programming for minority youth. *Addictive Behaviors, 21*(4), 521-525.

Phinney, J. (1992). The multigroup ethnic identity measures: A new scale for use with diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 7*(2), 156-176.

Phinney, J., & Chavira, V. (1992). Ethnic identity and self-esteem: An exploratory longitudinal study. *Journal of Adolescence, 15*, 271-281.

Piaget, J. (1950). *The psychology of intelligence*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's theory. In P. Mussen (Ed.), *Carmichael's manual of child psychology, I*. 703-732. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Plomin, R. (1986). *Development, genetics, and psychology*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pollard, J., Catalano, R. F., Hawkins, J. D., & Arthur, M. (under review). *Development of a school-based survey measuring risk and protective factors predictive of substance abuse in adolescent populations*. Unpublished manuscript, Social Development Research Group, University of Washington.

Prothrow-Stith, D., Spivak, H., & Hausman, A. (1987). The violence prevention project: A public health approach. *Science, Technology and Human Values, 12*, 67-69.

Ranard, D. (1991). A look at Vietnamese "gangs." In *America: Perspectives on refugee resettlement, No. 10*. Refugee Service Center, Center for Applied Linguistics and Bureau for Refugee Programs, U.S. Department of State.

Rosenthal, D., & Feldman, S. (1992). The relationship between parenting behavior and ethnic identity in Chinese-American and Chinese-Australian adolescents. *International Journal of Psychology, 27*(1), 19-31.

Rumbaut, R. (1985). Mental health and the refugee experience: A comparative study of Southeast refugees. In T. C. Owan, B. Bliatout, R. Lin, W. Liu, T. Nguyen, & H. Wong (Eds.), *Southeast Asian mental health: Treatment, prevention, services, training, and research*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Rutter, M. (1979). Protective factors in children's responses to stress and disadvantage. In M. W. Kent & J. E. Rolf (Eds.), *Primary prevention of psychopathology: Vol. 3: Social competence in children* (pp. 49-74). Hanover, NH: University Press of New England.

Rutter, J. (1987). Temperament, personality, and personality disorder. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 150*, 443-458.

Sampson, E. (1988). The debate on individualism. *American Psychologist, 43*, 15-22.

Sampson, R., Raudenbush, S., & Earlys, F. (1997). Neighborhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study of collective efficacy. *Science, 277*, 918-924.

Santos, R. (1997). Filipino American Children. In G. Johnson-Powell, J. Yamamoto, G. Wyatt, & W. Arroyo (Eds.), *Transcultural child development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Schwartz, W. (1996). An overview of strategies to reduce school violence. New York, NY: ERIC clearinghouse on Urban Education. *ERIC/CUE Digest No. 115*.

Schneider, B. & Lee, Y. (1990). A model for academic success: The school and home environment of East Asian students. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 21*, 358-377.

Search Institute. (1997). *Forty developmental assets*. Minneapolis, MN: Author.

Serafica, F. (1990). Counseling Asian-American parents: A cultural-developmental approach. In F. Serafica, A. Schwebel, R. Russell, P. Isaac, & L. Myers (Eds.), *Mental health of ethnic minorities*. New York: Praeger.

Shook, E. (1985). *Ho'oponono: Contemporary uses of a Hawaiian problem-solving process*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Shu, R. (1985-86). Kinship system and migrant adaptation: Samoans of the United States. *Amerasia Journal, 12*(1), 23-47.

Sickmund, M., Snyder, H., & Poe-Yamagata, E. (1997). *Juvenile offenders and victims: 1997 update on violence*. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice.

Sipe, C. L. (1998). *Mentoring programs for adolescents: A research summary*. Paper prepared for Invitational Conference, Health Futures of Youth II: Pathways to Adolescent Health. Maternal and Child Health Bureau, Annapolis, MD.

Snyder, H. (1997). *Juvenile arrests 1996. Bulletin*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Snyder, H., & Sickmund, M. (1999). *Juvenile offenders and victims: 1999 national report*. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Soriano, F. (1993). Cultural sensitivity and gang intervention. In A. Goldstein & C. Huff (Eds.), *The gang intervention handbook*. IL: Research Press.

Spergel, I. (1989). *Survey of youth gang problems and [rograms in forty-five cities and six states*. Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Spergel, I. (1995). *The youth gang problem: A community approach*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (1990). *Counseling the culturally different: Theory and practice (2d ed.)*. New York: Wiley.

Szapocznik, J., & Kurtines, W. (1980). Acculturation, biculturalism, and adjustment among Cuban Americans. In A. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: theory, models, and some new findings*. Boulder, CO: Westview.

Szapocznik, H., & Kurtines, W. (1993). Family psychology and cultural diversity. *American Psychologist, 48*, 400-407.

Tamura, E. (1994). *Americanization, acculturation, and ethnic identity: The Nisei Generation in Hawaii*. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Thornton, T., Craft, C., Dahlberg, L., Lynch, B., & Baer, K. (2000). *Best practices of youth violence prevention: A sourcebook for community action*. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.

Toy, C. (1992a). A short history of Asian gangs in San Francisco. *Justice Quarterly, 9*, 601-619.

Toy, C. (1992b). Coming out to play: Reasons to join and participate in Asian gangs. *The Gang Journal, 1*, 1.

Travis, J., & Waul, M. (2002). *Reflections on the crime decline: Lessons for the future*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

Tseng, W. (1973). The development of psychiatric concepts in traditional Chinese medicine. *Archives of General Psychiatry, 29*, 569-575.

Uba, L. (1994). *Asian Americans: Personality patterns, identity, and mental health*. New York: Guilford.

U.S. Census Bureau: The Asian Population. (2000). *Census 2000 brief*. Washington, DC: Author.

U.S. Census Bureau: Asian Pacific Islander Health Forum. (1999). Data prepared by the Empowerment Through Training and Technical Assistance (ETTA) Program.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (1996). *Trends in the well-being of America's children and youth: 1996*. Washington, DC: Author

U.S. Department of Justice. (1990). *Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics—1989*. Washington, DC: Hindelang Criminal Justice Research Center.

U.S. Department of Justice. (1992). *Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics—1991*. Washington, DC: Hindelang Criminal Justice Research Center.

U.S. Department of Justice. (1996). *Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics—1995*. Washington, DC: Hindelang Criminal Justice Research Center.

Weissberg, R., & Greenberg, J. (1997). School and community competence-enhancement and prevention programs. In W. Damon (series Ed.) and I. E. Sigel & K. A. Renninger (Vol. Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology. Vol. 5. Child Psychology in Practice* (5th Ed). New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Werner, E. E. (1994). Overcoming the odds. *Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, 15*(2), 131-136.

Werner, E. E., & Smith, R. S. (1992). *Overcoming the odds: High-risk children from birth to adulthood*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

WestEd. (1999). *The healthy kids resilience assessment*. Los Alamitos, CA: WestEd.

Westermeyer, J., Bouafuely-Kersey, M., & Her, C. (1997). Hmong children. In G. Johnson-Powell, J. Yamamoto, G. Wyatt, & W.Arroyo (Eds.), *Transcultural child development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Wilson-Brewer, R., & Jacklin, B. (1991). Violence prevention strategies targeted at the general population of minority youth. *Public Health Reports, 106*(3), 270-271.

Yamamoto, J., Silva, J., Ferrari, M., & Nukariya, K. (1997). Culture and psychopathology. In G. Johnson-Powell, J. Yamamoto, G. Wyatt, & W. Arroyo (Eds.), *Transcultural child development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Yang, I. Press Release May 7, 2002, U.S. Cambodian Government Plans to Force Refugees Back to Cambodia.

Yao, E. (1985). Adjustment needs of Asian immigrant children. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 19*, 222-227.

Yee, B., & Hennessey, S. (1982). Pacific/Asian families and mental health. In F. Munoz & R. Endo (Eds.), *Perspectives on minority group mental health*. Washington, DC: University Press of America.

Yee, B., Huang, L., & Lew, A. (1998). Families: Life-span socialization in a cultural context. In L. Lee & N. Zane (Eds.), *Handbook of Asian American psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ying, Y. (1999). Strengthening intergenerational/ intercultural ties in migrant families: A new intervention for parents. *Journal of Community Psychology, 27*(1), 89-96.

Ying, Y., & Chao, C. (1996). Intergenerational relationship in Lu Mien American families. *Amerasia Journal, 22*(3), 47-64.

Yoon, E., & Chien, F. (1995). Asian American and Pacific Islander health: A paradigm for minority health. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 275*, 736-737.

Yoshikawa, H. (1994). Prevention as cumulative protection: Effects of early family support and education on chronic delinquency and its risks. *Psychological Bulletin, 115*, 28-54.

Zimring, F. (1998). *American youth violence*. New York: Oxford University Press.

■ Appendix A: Directory of Violence Prevention Websites

(with annotation, listed alphabetically)

1998 Annual Report on School Safety

www.ed.gov/pubs/AnnSchoolReport98/index.html

Website allows access to this guide that describes the nature and extent of crime and violence on school property and presents information on how schools and communities can work together to prevent and address school violence. An extensive list of resources and references is also available.

America's Promise—The Alliance for Youth

www.americaspromise.org

This website details the work of this organization, led by General Colin Powell, dedicated to mobilizing individuals, groups, and organizations from every part of American life, to build and strengthen the character and competence of youth. The site also details various related news and events, and offers information on how to become more involved in community activities.

Asian–Nation: The Landscape of Asian America

www.asian-nation.org/index.shtml

Website has three purposes: 1) educate those who would like to learn more about the Asian American population, 2) provide general and specific information about different topics and issues that affect the Asian American community, and 3) identify other sources of information related to Asian Americans.

Asian/Pacific Islander Youth Violence Prevention Center

www.api-center.org

The ultimate goal of the API Center is to prevent and reduce youth violence among the API population to position communities to become proactive in creating a safe and healthy environment for themselves.

Big Brother Big Sisters of America

www.bbbsa.org

The website details the work of this organization, which has matched millions of children in need with caring adult mentors since 1904. Research shows that children with Big Brothers and Big Sisters are less likely to use drugs and alcohol, skip school, and exhibit violent behavior. The site also provides information on how to become a mentor and other volunteer activities.

Boys and Girls Clubs of America

www.bgca.org

The website details the work of this organization, which promotes youth programs and activities. Boys and Girls Clubs of America has a line-up of more than 25 national programs areas, including education, the environment, health, the arts, careers, alcohol/drug and pregnancy prevention, gang prevention, leadership development, and athletics. The site also has links to related websites, including a career information center for youth.

Bureau for At-Risk Youth

www.at-risk.com

The website provides information on this organization, an educational publisher and distributor of programs, videos, publications, and products for at-risk youth and their caregivers. Started in 1990, the Bureau provides resources that help children, teens, parents, educators, and others cope with the many vital issues facing today's youth. Areas of concern and publishing activity include substance abuse, teenage sexuality and pregnancy, violence prevention, conflict resolution, child abuse, self-esteem, and much more. The website has an At-risk Resources Directory and links to other related websites.

Center for Study and Prevention of Violence

www.colorado.edu/cspv/blueprints/index.html

This website summarizes 10 violence prevention programs that met a very high scientific standard of program effectiveness and describes these interventions in a series of "blueprints" that describe the theoretical rationale, the core components of the program as implemented, the evaluation designs and results, and the practical experiences programs encountered while implementing the program at multiple sites. The Blueprints for Violence Prevention provide step-by-step instructions that help communities plan and implement youth crime and violence prevention strategies.

Children and Violence, American Psychological Association

www.apa.org/pi/viol&fam.html

This web page offers factual briefs on children and violence with topics ranging from children and television violence to potential warning signs of violence to raising children to resist violence. It also allows access to the report: "Violence and the Family: Report of the APA Presidential Task Force on Violence and the Family," and offers links and information on how to order related books.

Children, Youth and Families Education and Research Network

www.cyfernet.org

This is the website of the National Children, Youth and Families at Risk Initiative of the Cooperative Extension System of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. It provides tools and information for working with youth, parents, families, and communities. There is also a chat room for on-line conferences and youth activities, such as Cyber Camps and virtual 4-H clubs. A page on violence prevention provides descriptions of current research articles, intervention tools, and fact sheets, as well as links to related resources. The site also provides information on 3,000 community-based State Strengthening programs targeting at-risk youth.

Coming Up Taller

www.cominguptaller.org

This website provides detailed information on this initiative to focus national attention on, and garner support for, out-of-school programs that use the arts and the humanities to provide children safe places to go, new learning opportunities, chances to contribute to their community, and ways to take responsibility for their own futures. The site also provides resource links to related websites.

Conflict and Violence: Adolescent Directory On-Line (ADOL)

www.education.indiana.edu/cas/adol/conflict.html

This website is an electronic guide to information on adolescent issues intended for parents, educators, researchers, health practitioners, and teens. It is a service of the Center for Adolescent Studies at the School of Education at Indiana University.

Creating Safe and Drug-Free Schools: An Action Guide

www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/safescho.pdf

This guide outlines action steps for schools, parents, students, and community and business groups, and provides information briefs on specific issues affecting school safety. It also contains research and evaluation findings, and a list of resources and additional readings.

Department of Justice National Mentoring Website

www.nwrel.org/mentoring/index.html

This website details the work of this organization, which provides training and technical assistance to mentoring programs through a variety of services and conferences. Created and funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), the National Mentoring Center aims to create connections between children and caring adults in the community. The site also provides links to other related sites and has an extensive list of resources on mentoring.

**Early Warning, Timely Response:
A Guide to Safe Schools**

www.ed.gov/offices/OSERS/OSEP/earlywrn.html

This publication offers research-based practices designed to assist schools and communities in identifying warning signs early and in developing prevention, intervention, and crisis-response plans.

**Early Warning, Timely Response:
A Guide to Safe Schools**

www.air-dc.org/cecp/guide/default.htm

The website allows access to this guide, which presents a brief summary of the research on violence prevention and intervention, and crisis response in schools. It details the early warning signs that relate to violence and other troubling behaviors, and the action steps that school communities can take to prevent violence and other troubling behaviors, to intervene and get help for troubled children, and to respond to school violence when it occurs. It also offers links to other websites and resources on school safety and violence prevention.

Fight Crime: Invest in Kids

www.fightcrime.org

This website provides information on this national anti-crime organization led by police chiefs, prosecutors, and crime survivors working to decrease school and youth violence prevention by working with child-care and after-school programs. The website also provides information on various reports and evidence on programs and techniques that prevent crime. There are also electronic links to other crime prevention resources.

Harvard School of Public Health, Division of Public Health Practice, Violence Prevention Programs maintains a web page for ordering "Peace by Piece: A Community Guide for Preventing Violence"

www.hsph.harvard.edu/php/VPP/partnerships/order2.html

The guide is based on descriptions of exemplary violence prevention programs from all over the country. Media campaigns, professional education seminars, adolescent job and life skills training, and gang prevention initiatives are examples of different components presented in the guide. This site is simply an order form for the guide, along with e-mail and contact information for those wanting additional information.

Hmong Homepage

www.hmongnet.org

This webpage is a collection of resources relating to Hmong history, culture, and language, and current events. There are also listings of current events and announcements, special projects, general information about Hmong people, and electronic links to further community resources.

Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior

http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~ivdb

The Institute's mission is to empower schools and social service agencies to address violence and destructive behavior, at the point of school entry and beyond, in order to ensure safety and to facilitate the academic achievement and healthy social development of children and youth. This is a combination of community, campus, and state efforts to research violence and destructive behavior among children and youth.

Justice Information Center

www.ncjrs.org

The National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) is a source of extensive information on criminal and juvenile justice in the world, providing services to an international community of policy makers and professionals. NCJRS is a collection of clearinghouses supporting all bureaus of the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs: National Institute of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Bureau of Justice Statistics, Bureau of Justice Assistance, Office for Victims of Crime, and Office of Juvenile Prevention Program Offices.

KidsCampaigns/Connect for Kids

www.connectforkids.org

This website, sponsored by the Benton Foundation, a Washington, DC-based foundation focusing on communications in the public interest, provides information for adults who want to find information online that they can use to become more involved in the lives of children. The website helps people become more active citizens by promoting activities from volunteering to voting.

Life in a Vietnamese Gang

www.cwis.usc.edu/dept/elab/buidoi/vietgangs.html

This website describes a documentary film by Nick Rothenberg and Ahrin Mishan that explores the life of a Vietnamese refugee and gang member. The film is based on field research begun during their graduate studies at the Center for Visual Anthropology, University of Southern California. "bui doi: life like dust" premiered at the Sundance Film Festival in 1994, and has gone on to win seven U.S. and international awards. The website also provides on-line information on Vietnam and Asia-related topics.

National Alliance for Safe Schools

www.safeschools.org

This website provides information on this organization that was established to provide training, technical assistance, and publications to school districts interested in reducing school-based crime and violence. The site offers information on trainings and workshops conducted by NASS to help school administrators—working with students, teachers, parents, and support staff to identify and correct the local issues that may be causing fear and anxiety on the part of students and staff. There is also a list of publications and links to related sites.

National Association of Town Watch

www.natw.org

This website offers detailed information on NATW, a nonprofit organization dedicated to the development and promotion of organized, law enforcement-affiliated crime and drug prevention programs. Members include, Neighborhood, Crime, Community, Town and Block Watch Groups; law enforcement agencies; state and regional crime prevention associations; and a variety of businesses, civic groups, and concerned individuals working to make their communities safer places in which to live and work. Further information is available on NATW's annual "National Night Out" program held on the first Tuesday each August, which promotes involvement in crime and drug prevention activities, strengthening police-community relations, and encouraging neighborhood camaraderie as part of the fight for safer streets.

National Center for Conflict Resolution Education Network

www.nccre.org

This website details the work of this organization which provides training and technical assistance nationwide to advance the development of conflict resolution education programs in schools, juvenile justice settings and youth service organizations, and community partnership programs. The website offers further information on programs, services, resources, and conference and news updates.

National Center for Education Statistics

http://nces.ed.gov

As part of the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act of 1994, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) is required to collect data to determine the "frequency, seriousness, and incidence of violence in elementary and secondary schools." NCES responded to this requirement by commissioning a survey, the Principal/School Disciplinarian Survey on School Violence, 1996-97, the results of which are detailed in the report that can be accessed at this website.

National Council on Crime and Delinquency

www.nccd-crc.org

The website detail research, publications, conferences, and issues addressed by this nonprofit organization that promotes effective, humane, fair, and economically sound solutions to family, community, and justice problems. NCCD conducts research, promotes reform initiatives, and seeks to

work with individuals, public and private organizations, and the media to prevent and reduce crime and delinquency. In 2000, the organization received a CDC grant on AAPI youth violence.

National Crime Prevention Council

http://www.ncpc.org

The website provides information on crime prevention and stopping school violence for parents, students, teachers, and law enforcement officials. It also provides links to other websites and resources that offer more ideas about what can be done to stop school violence.

National Mentoring Partnership

www.mentoring.org

This website provides detailed information on this organization, an advocate for the expansion of mentoring and a resource for mentors and mentoring initiatives nationwide. The site also provides further information on how to become a mentor and has a list of resources, including programs, products, and research.

National School Safety Center

www.nssc1.org

The National School Safety Center was created by presidential directive in 1984 to meet the growing need for additional training and preparation in the area of school crime and violence prevention. Affiliated with Pepperdine University, NSSC is a nonprofit organization whose charge is to promote safe schools—free of crime and violence—and to help ensure quality education for all America's children.

National Youth Advocacy Coalition

www.nyacyouth.org

This website provides information on this organization, which advocates for and with young people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender in an effort to end discrimination against these youth and to ensure their physical and emotional well being. The coalition provides information on working to create change at the national level by working with and supporting local community-based work as well. The site also

provides information on regional conferences, a list of publications and other related materials, and a bibliography of resources organized by topic area.

National Youth Gang Center

www.iir.com/nygc

The purpose of the NYGC is to expand and maintain the body of critical knowledge about youth gangs and effective responses to them. The center assists state and local jurisdictions in the collection, analysis, and exchange of information on gang-related demographics, legislation, literature, research, and promising program strategies. It features statistical data collection and analysis of gangs, as well as information on current gang-related legislation and promising program strategies. The site also contains gang literature reviews and the results of the Youth Gang Consortium Survey of Gang Programs. The NYGC provides technical assistance to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Rural Gang Initiative, and the website includes information about their approach to working with these community initiatives. It also coordinates activities of the OJJDP Youth Gang Consortium—a group of federal agencies, gang program representatives, and service providers.

National Youth Network

www.usdoj.gov/kidspage/getinvolved

Sponsored by the U.S. Department of Justice, this website provides young people the opportunity to share perspectives with other teenagers on issues related to delinquency prevention and juvenile justice. It also provides information on activities at the community level, conflict resolution and mediation, volunteer opportunities, and how to become a mentor or tutor.

National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center

www.safeyouth.org

A gateway to resources for professionals, parents, youth, and individuals working to prevent and end violence committed by and against young people.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention at the U.S. Department of Justice

www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org

This website provides information on this federal agency and describes its work in promoting its mission to provide national leadership, coordination, and resources to develop, implement, and support effective methods to prevent juvenile victimization and respond appropriately to juvenile delinquency. OJJDP works with prevention programs and the juvenile justice system to protect the public safety, hold juvenile offenders accountable, and provide treatment and rehabilitative services based on the needs of each individual juvenile. It also provides information on grants and funding, resources, programs, publications, and a calendar of events.

Oregon Social Learning Center

www.oslc.org/links.html

This center maintains a large website rich in resources and links. This site features extensive information on the observation research techniques that have been developed by the center, including a "coder" program that can be downloaded and utilized in coding observation research. Technical assistance is not available beyond the extensive information provided on the website. The site also provides information on various therapeutic approaches to working with children with antisocial behavior and their families. Links are provided to the Society for Prevention Research and the Early Career Preventionists Network.

Partnerships Against Violence Network

www.pavnet.org

PAVNET Online is a "virtual library" of information about violence and youth-at-risk, representing data from seven different federal agencies. It is a one-stop, searchable, information resource to help reduce redundancy in information management and provide access to information for States and local communities.

PAX

www.paxusa.org

PAX is a not-for-profit organization dedicated to reducing gun violence. Through communications and media strategies, PAX works to increase public awareness about gun violence. Visitors can also connect to other websites of anti-gun violence organizations working at the local and national levels.

Preventing Youth Hate Crime: A Manual for Schools and Communities

www.ed.gov/pubs/HateCrime/start.html

This website provides schools and communities with programs and resources that can be used in preventing youth hate crime and hate-motivated behavior.

Rock the Vote

www.rockthevote.org

This website provides information on this national organization dedicated to promoting freedom of expression and helping young people effect change in the civic and political lives of their communities. The website links to related websites.

Safe and Drug-Free Schools Program at the U.S. Department of Education

www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/SDFS

This website details the SDFS Program, the federal government's primary vehicle for reducing drug, alcohol, and tobacco use, and violence, through education and prevention activities in our nation's schools. The site provides program updates and information on model programs, grants, and research. The website also links to other related sites.

Safe and Drug Free Schools

www.oeri2.ed.gov/offices/oese/sdfs/idex.html

This website provides information on model programs to reduce substance abuse and violence through education and prevention activities in the public schools. It also provides information on grant opportunities, which are provided primarily to state governments, but are also given to public and private nonprofit organizations. The website also contains information on research, publications and links to related sites.

Safe, Drug-Free, and Effective Schools for All Students: What Works

http://cecp.air.org/resources/safe&drug_free/main. html

This website allows access to the report "Safe, Drug-Free, and Effective Schools for All Students: What Works!" this report represents an evaluation of programs formulated under the Safe and Drug-Free Schools Act. The goal of the project was to learn about schools that managed to reduce discipline problems and improve the learning and behavior of all students, including those with disabilities. This report describes three site visits conducted by a research team accompanied by expert panels.

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration: Understanding Youth Violence: Ethnic Minority and Cultural Issues

http://www.samhsa.gov/grants/content/2002/Youth Violence/ethnic.htm

Save the Children

www.savethechildren.org/mentors

This website provides detailed information on Save the Children's campaign to help meet the urgent need for mentors in the lives of children in the United States. The site also provides further information on how to become a mentor and other volunteer activities.

School Violence Prevention, Center for Mental Health Services (CMHS)

http://www.mentalhealth.samhsa.gov/schoolviolence/

This website provides information on school violence activities at CMHS such as the School Violence Prevention Initiative, resilience, and advice on parents and families "After a Disaster." The site highlights some exemplary/promising programs in the area of enhancing resilience and offers links to various websites on school violence prevention.

The Search Institute

www.search-institute.org

This research-based site seeks to communicate child and adolescent research findings to professionals, parents, policy makers, and the general public. The organization provides publications, training, and other services and resources through the website. Information is available on state and national initiatives to build positive youth and communities through an assets-based approach. The site also features a bulletin board, newsletter, and conference information.

SHiNE

www.shine.com/index.cfm

The SHINE Anti-Violence Network is a student-led group that empowers students to become active participants in the campaign for solutions to school violence. Through the network, students communicate on-line about the issues affecting them today, initiate community-based programs and activities in their neighborhoods, organize mentoring and peer mediation programs, and learn about conflict resolution, anger management, and mediation.

Strengthening Families Program 10-14

www.strengtheningfamilies.org/html/programs_1999/14_SFP10-14.html

This website details information about this prevention program based on research findings supported by NIDA, OJJDP, and DOE. The program is designed for parents or caregivers and their youth ages 10-14. Seven sessions plus boosters are designed to help parents build on their strengths in showing support and setting limits; help youth develop skills in handling peer pressure and building positive futures, and help families grow together. has been scientifically evaluated in a randomized, controlled design with 442 families through Project Family at the Institute for Social and Behavior Research at Iowa State University. Data analysis indicates positive results for both parents and youth..

Surgeon General's Report on Youth Violence

http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library/youthviolence

U.S. Census Bureau Home Page

www.census.gov

The website details this government organization with various links to data and maps of all types. It provides information on the latest economic indicators, publications, and links to other related websites.

Virginia Youth Violence Project

http://youthviolence.edschool.virginia.edu

This website identifies effective methods and policies for youth violence prevention, especially in school settings. Summarizes research on the understanding and reduction of violent behavior for educators, psychologists, and other colleagues in the social, legal, and human services professions. It offers information on business and community joint ventures on preventing violence, and highlights what works in preventing youth violence. Readers interested in scientific evidence can turn to several extensive, quantitative evaluations of literature and a report that overviews prevention strategies found to reduce juvenile violence.

Youth Crime Watch of America

www.ycwa.org

This website provides detailed information on this organization that sponsors hundreds of school and community programs throughout the United States to assist youth in actively reducing crime and drug use in their schools and communities. The website provides information on successful strategies, upcoming events and conferences, training information, and links to related websites.

Youth Service America

www.servenet.org

YSA is a resource center committed to increasing the quantity and quality of opportunities for young Americans to serve locally, nationally, or globally. The website provides youth service organizations and the media with information and research on best practices, resources, and opportunities in the youth service field. The site provides further information on volunteering activities, an extensive list of resources, a calendar of events, employment opportunities, funding resources, contests and awards, and research and surveys.

Youth Resource

www.youthresource.com

This webpage is a resource for gay and lesbian youth that provides information on current events, chat rooms, list servs, high school and campus links, and other networking tools. There is also an extensive library on lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transexual youth topics.

■ Appendix B: AAPI Work Group Members

Amando Cablas

Sonia Chessen

Sandy Dang

Douglas Dodge

Kana Enomoto

Nancy Gannon

Terry Gock

Tracy Harachi

Tiffany Ho

D.J. Ida

Jeannette Johnson

David Kakeshiba

David Moy

Patricia Mrazek

Nhai Nguyen

Howard Phengsomphone

Larry Sullivan

Bouy Te

Deborah Toth-Dennis

Nghia Tran

Tien Tran

KaYing Yang

Lucas Yang

■ Appendix C: Matrix of Nominated AAPI Youth Development and Violence Prevention Programs

Programs listed alphabetically by state and city.

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
ARIZONA							
Neighborhood After-School Academy (NASA) Program *Pan Asian Community Alliance Center* 940 S. Craycroft Road Tucson, AZ 85711 Dorothy Lew, Project Coordinator 520-512-0144	• Provides resources, such as computers, research materials, and technical assistance to participants • Individual tutoring and self-study courses available to develop and improve basic skills in English, reading, math, science, social studies • Drop out prevention program	Individual	University, Local Government, Community, Schools	Elementary through High School Asian students	U S	Monitored by City of Tucson. Report number of hours working with students and academic outcomes.	Community Development Block Grant
CALIFORNIA							
Strengthening Intergenerational Ties in Migrant Families *University of California School of Social Welfare* Berkeley, CA 94720 Yu-Wen Ying 510-643-6672 510-643-6126 (fax) ywying10@socrates.berkeley.edu	• 8-week parenting program • Curriculum to address intergenerational/intercultural conflict between parents and youth in immigrant families • Includes Instructor's Manual	Family	University, Community Centers	Immigrant parents	S	Pre-Post Tests Inter-generational Relationship Scale	
Gang Awareness Project *Korean Youth & Community Center* 680 S. Wilton Place Los Angeles, CA Charles Chang 213-365-7400 213-383-1280 (fax) chaschang@kyccla.org www.kyccla.org	• *Gang Awareness Project* matches former gang member and community mentor for gang-involved youth. Curriculum includes: • Leadership development • Community projects • Job training • *Multiethnic Youth Leadership Collaborative* trains ethnic youth for community advocacy and leadership • *Korean American Youth Leadership Program*	Individual		Gang-involved and at-risk youth	S I		Grants; Foundation; Corporate Donations
Search to Involve Pilipino Americans 3200 W. Temple Street Los Angeles, CA 90026 Joel Jacinto 213-382-4151 213-382-7445 (fax) jjacinto@sipa.apanet.org www.apanet.org/~sipa	• Gang diversion program with job training and pro-social activities • Youth advocacy in dealing with schools, parents, criminal justice; • *Youth Council:* youth- driven, leadership development.	Individual	Community-based Social Service Agencies	Substance abuse, gang-involved, and at-risk Filipino youth	S I		L.A. City Criminal Justice Planning Office; L.A. County Probation Office; L.A. City Community Development Department

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure   **S** = Selective Preventive Measure   **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
CALIFORNIA							
Roosevelt Family Services *Asian Community Mental Health Services* 310 Eighth Street, Suite 201 Oakland, CA 94607 Susan Ono, Project Director (510) 869-6095 (510) 268-0202 (Fax) susano@acmhs.org	• Functional Family Therapy (evidence-based program) model to improve family communication and supportiveness and decrease negativity. Direct service. Intensive, short term intervention. Sessions over 3 month period. • Hiring 4 bilingual therapists trained in FFT • Services to be integrated with the existing Roosevelt Village Collaborative	Family	Law Enforcement, School System, Community Service Providers, Youth and Parent Advocacy groups, Elected Officials	60 Youth, ages 11-18, at high risk for violent behavior	I	Process and Outcome Evaluation to be conducted by ARC Associates.	Substance Abuse Mental Health Services Administration of Federal Department of Health and Human Services.
Korean Community Center of the East Bay 4390 Telegraph Avenue, Suite F Oakland CA 94609 510-547-2662 kcc3@ix.netcom.com	• Substance Abuse prevention • Afterschool mentors • Leadership development	Individual					
East Bay Asian Youth Center 2025 East 12th Street Oakland, CA 94606 David Kakishiba 510-533-1092 510-533-6825 (fax) junji@ebayc.org	• Case management • Academic instruction • Leadership education	Individual Family School Community	Schools, Probation, Social Services, Courts	Primarily AAPI youth in high-risk communities	U S I	Surveys: Youth, Parent, Teacher; Analysis of Service-Utilization; Outcome Indicator Analyses: School Performance, Behavior, Social Relationships	
School, Community & Law Enforcement (SCALE) *Asian Pacific Family Center* 9353 East Valley Blvd. Rosemead, CA 91770 Glenn Masuda 626-287-2988 www.pacificclinics.org	• Networking: establishes networks among schools, law enforcement and community • Key component: developing cross-system linkages and relationships in wraparound approach for gang-involved and at-risk youth • Case management, includes family needs assessment, skill-based individual and family counseling • Training of school personnel and police officers regarding mental health, risk behaviors, and community collaboration	Individual Family Schools	Schools, Police, Community Groups, Asian Pacific Family Center	Middle school immigrant youth and their families	S I	Outcome Data from Schools and Probation Department.	L.A. County Probation Department; California Endowment

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
		CALIFORNIA					
Chinatown Wellness Village Project *NICOS Chinese Health Coalition* 1490 Mason Street, 3rd Floor San Francisco, CA 94133 Kent Woo 415-788-6426 415-788-0966	Joins teens and adults in partnership programs: • *Chinatown Teen Leaders Program:* promote self and cultural awareness, communication, interpersonal skills, leadership • *Lightwaves Mentorship* • *Strengthening Family Relations Project:* youth-led program to reduce conflict, increase communication, close the generation gap • Collaboration of San Francisco State University and several community-based organizations focusing on youth-adult partnerships and youth development	Individual Family Community	Public Health, CBOs, State University, Private agencies, Beacon Center	High School and Middle School youth	U		State Health and Human Services; City Human Services; Local Department of Public Health; Corporate; Foundations
After School Collaborative Program; Youth Center Partnerships; Fu Yau Project *Richmond Area Multi-Services (RAMS)* 3626 Balboa Street San Francisco, CA 94121 Evelyn Lee 415-668-5955 415-668-0246 (fax) RAMSINC@aol.com	• *After School Partnership Program* with elementary and middle schools: academic enhancement, problem-solving, self-empowerment, cultural and arts enrichment • *Youth Center Partnerships:* partners with 3 ethnic youth centers for mental health, prevention, and acculturation focus • *Fu Yau:* at-risk, low-income early childhood; enhance parent-child attachment and teacher-child engagement	Individual Family School Community	Mental Health, Schools, Child Care Centers, CALWORKS, Community Centers	At-risk, low-income youth and families 25 schools and developmental centers	U S I		S.F. City and County Department of Public Health; Mayor's Office; Foundations; City-wide Consortia
Youth in Detention *Helping & Outreaching to Peers Everywhere (HOPE) Program* 730 Polk Street, 4th Floor San Francisco, CA 94109 Lisa Nakamura 415-292-3420 ext.361 lisa@apiwellness.org	• Weekly group sessions for AAPI youth in juvenile detention. • Intensive case management • Peer education program and youth peer leadership • Outreach to build post-release support or to provide prevention for non-detained youth at-risk • Psychosocial support, tutoring, recreational activities	Individual	Juvenile Justice, Department of Public Health, Schools, Mental Health/ Substance Abuse agencies, CBOs	13-18 year old AAPI runaways and youth at risk for juvenile delinquency, or involved in juvenile justice system	S I		Department of Public Health; S.F. City Youth Guidance Center

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
CALIFORNIA							
Multicultural Youth Program *Asian Youth Center* 100 W. Clary Avenue San Gabriel, CA 91776 May To 626-309-0622 626-309-0717 (fax) asian_youth_center@yahoo.com	Youth violence, crime, and gang prevention: • Life Skills & Attitudes Groups • Parenting Classes • Counseling • Tutoring & Cultural Sensitivity • Community Consortium • Recreation, Educational, Cultural Diversity Activities • Community Service • Case Management • Employment Training Program • Teen Theater	Individual Family School Community	Schools, Social Services, Juvenile Justice, Health, Mental Health, CBOs, Park & Recreation, Businesses	Latino and Asian at-risk/high-risk youth ages 5-20 and their families residing in the San Gabriel Valley.	U S I	External Evaluation Being Conducted	State Department of Justice
Project All STARS *Asian Americans for Community Involvement* 2183 Tully Road San Jose, CA 95122 Manny dela Paz 408-929-9790 ext.15 408-929-9783 (fax) manny.delapaz@AACI.org	• *Afterschool Program*: focuses on leadership, team building, cultural diversity, self esteem • *Recreation Program* • *Parent Support Group*	Individual Family	Ethnic Consortia, Schools	3rd, 4th, 5th graders	U		City; County
Project Bridges *Asian Americans for Community Involvement* 2183 Tully Road San Jose, CA 95122 Manny dela Paz 408-929-9790 ext.15 408-929-9783 (fax) manny.delapaz@AACI.org	• Multicultural recreational after-school program to promote pride, provide academic help and develop social skills	Individual		7th, 8th graders parents	S		City; County
Project PLUS *Asian Americans for Community Involvement* 2183 Tully Road San Jose, CA 95122 Manny dela Paz 408-929-9790 ext.15 408-929-9783 (fax) manny.delapaz@AACI.org	• Weekly support group focusing on risk behaviors, gang involvement, and substance abuse	Individual	Schools, Mayor's Gang Prevention Task Force, Police, Social Services	7th -12th graders at-risk for or involved in gang activities	S I		City, Park and Recreation

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

CALIFORNIA

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
Project ACE *Asian Americans for Community Involvement* 2183 Tully Road San Jose, CA 95122 Manny dela Paz 408-929-9790 ext.15 408-929-9783 (fax) manny.delapaz@AACI.org	• Job preparation, referral and placement			Youth ages 16–21	U		City; County
Project Crossroads *Asian American Recovery Services, Inc.* 1370 Tully Road, Suite 501 San Jose, CA 95122 Naomi Nakano-Matsumoto 408-271-3900 408-271-3909 (fax) nnm@aars-inc.org www.aars-inc.org	• Modified best treatment practices to develop culturally relevant outreach and intervention for AAPI teens at risk for substance abuse and other risk behaviors	Individual Family	Schools, Juvenile Justice, Probation, Mental Health, Ethnic-community Consortia	Youth ages 13–20	U S I	City Evaluator	City of San Jose
Project Sister to Sister *Asian American Recovery Services, Inc.* 1370 Tully Road, Suite 501 San Jose, CA 95122 Naomi Nakano-Matsumoto 408-271-3900 408-271-3909 (fax) nnm@aars-inc.org www.aars-inc.org	• Culturally relevant outreach, prevention and intervention for AAPI female adolescents at risk for substance abuse and other high risk behaviors • Conference • Teen Pregnancy Prevention	Individual School Community	Schools, Juvenile Justice, Probation, Mental Health, Ethnic-community Consortia	Female adolescents ages 13–20	U S I	Consumer Feedback Survey	Private Donations State (sub-contract for CBO)
Project Reconnect *Asian American Recovery Services, Inc.* 1370 Tully Road, Suite 501 San Jose, CA 95122 Naomi Nakano-Matsumoto 408-271-3900 408-271-3909 (fax) nnm@aars-inc.org www.aars-inc.org	• Outpatient substance abuse treatment program modifies best practices to develop culturally relevant program. Uses youth development (challenge) model.	Individual	Schools, Juvenile Justice, Probation, Mental Health, Ethnic-community Consortia	Youth ages 13–20 primarily Vietnamese and Filipino; U.S. born and immigrants	S I	Consumer Feedback Survey	County funded Departments of Alcohol & Drugs

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
CALIFORNIA							
Restorative Justice Project *Asian American Recovery Services, Inc.* 1370 Tully Road, Suite 501 San Jose, CA 95122 Naomi Nakano-Matsumoto 408-271-3900 408-271-3909 (fax) nnm@aars-inc.org www.aars-inc.org	• Culturally relevant intervention/ diversion program for first time non-violent youth offenders	Individual Family Community Cross-System	Schools, Juvenile Justice, Probation, Mental Health, Ethnic-community Consortia	Youth under 18 years old	S I	County Evaluator	County Juvenile Probation Department
Richmond/San Pablo Youth Project *International Institute of the East Bay* 638-B El Portal Drive San Pablo, CA Yang Xiong, Program Manager (510) 235-7744 (510) 235-1744 (fax) yxiong@iieb.org	• *SafeFutures*: gang intervention • *Youth Together*: Leadership development • *Asian Youth Project*: counseling, mentoring, and prevention. • Curriculum includes video/documentary projects on gang involvement and other social issues, leadership, advocacy, academics	Individual Family	Probation and Courts System, Schools, CBOs, Employment Agencies	Middle and High school Studentss, primarily Laotians (Mien, Khmer) Some Latino youth	U S I	Arts Research Curriculum, External Evaluator	State; Foundations
Comprehensive Services for Youth and Families *Asian Pacific Counseling & Treatment Center of San Fernando Valley* 5900 Sepulveda Blvd. Van Nuys, CA 91411 Somsri Khalid 818-267-1106	• Mental health interventions (individual, group and family therapy) for youth in probation; also provides tutoring & mentoring • Seeking funds for gang prevention	Individual Family			I		
COLORADO							
Denver Get AHEAD *Asian Pacific Development Center* 1825 York Street Denver, CO DJ Ida 303-393-0304 303-388-1172 (fax) djaida@cs.com	• Afterschool Program • Mentoring • Life Skills • Leadership Development • Parent Advocacy	Individual Family School	Mental Health Schools	Youth ages 11-13 Primarily Vietnamese and Cambodian	U S I	CSAP Evaluation Tools: Ja Family Index; Huizinga/Elliot Youth Self-Report Inventory on Alcohol, Tobacco & Other Drugs; Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	Federal Cener for Substance Abuse Prevention

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure   **S** = Selective Preventive Measure   **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA METROPOLITAN AREA							
Asian American LEAD 3045 15th Street Washington, DC 20009 Sandy Dang 202-884-0322 sdang@aalead.org www.aal.org	• Afterschool Program: individualized academic curriculum • Mentoring • Leadership Development • Family Support and Strengthening Program • Summer Program • Cultural Teaching	Individual Family School Community	Schools, Asian CBOs, Latin American Youth Center	Youth ages 7-18; Parents	U S I	Process and Outcome Measures	City Grants; Federal Office of Refugee Resettlement Foundations Corporate donations
Philippine American Foundations for Charities *Filipino Youth Committee* 1444 N Street, NW Washington, DC 20007 Mary Jo Maralit 202-986-9330 (phone) 202-431-5656 (fax) Magaral@aol.com	• *Box Talks*: Youth-developed network and discussion groups for high school youth • *Filipino American Youth Dialogue* Conference • Community Leadership & Enrichment • Academic Tracking • Art, Music, Media, Culture Event	Individual Family Community	Filipino Foundations	Filipino Middle and High schoolers Some college adults.	U		Foundation; Private Donors
GEORGIA							
Alpharetta Youth Program *Center for Pan Asian Community Services* 5302 Buford Hwy., Suite B-3 Doraville, GA 30340 Soomy Lee 770-936-0969 770-458-9377 (fax) kacscatl@aol.com	• *Afterschool Program* • Adapted "Preparing for Drug-Free Years" Curriculum to AAPI youth—10 hours of ATOD instruction; Includes SAT preparation classes; Modeled collaboration with community groups using the "Communities That Care" curriculum from Seattle, WA (206-286-1805).	Individual	CBOs, Church, Fulton Collaborative Council Initiative, Schools	High School students, primarily immigrant Korean and Chinese	U	Pre-post Tests Suinn-Lew Acculturation Scale Surveys from "Communities That Care" Prevention Program	Governor's Funds; County

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
		HAWAII					
Peer Education Program *State of Hawaii Department of Education Division of Learner, Teacher and Student Services; School Renewal Branch* 189 Lunalilo Home Road, 2nd Floor Honolulu, HI 96825 Catherine Kawamura, State Peer Education Program Resource Teacher 808-394-1336 808-394-1304 (fax) catherine_kawamura@notes.k 12.hi.us	• Peer education model building on naturally existing peer networks. • Involves school/community activities, peer support, classroom workshops, with comprehensive approach to adolescent health prevention; • Trains youth peer leaders at 26 secondary public schools with focus on AIDS, violence prevention, substance abuse, suicide, and personal/social skills development. • Developed curriculum for Peer Education Program	Individual Family School Community	State Departments of Health and Education, Community, Schools	Middle and high school youth	U	Analysis of systematically collected evaluation data over past 11 years, conducted by University of HI; includes Youth Risk Behavior Survey; Pre-post changes in knowledge, referral rates, and changes in behavior; student feedback on peer educators.	Departments of Health and Education
Lei-llima Program *Coalition for Drug-Free Hawaii* 1130 N. Nimitz Hwy., Suite A-259 Honolulu, HI 96817 Cheryl Kameoko 808-545-3228 Ext.28 808-545-2686 (fax) cdfh@pixi.com	• Reduce or prevent substance abuse and high risk behaviors in girls. Values and skills-based program and mentoring program for transition to high school • School credit if take as a class • *"Wellness Model"*-based afterschool club • Developed curriculum that is values, skills and culture based, adapted content from Strengthening Hawaii Families to focus on girls; specific gender and resiliency issues. Includes content on establishing prevention clubs especially for girls. • Based in rural area.	Individual	State Office of Youth Services, University of Hawaii; Business: Campbell Estate	7th and 8th grade girls; Asian-Pacific Islander (Samoan, Filipino, mixed AAPI groups).	S	Pre-post Surveys; CSAP measures. Include Attendance, Parent Satisfaction, Youth Self-Esteem; Parent-Child Relationships; Gang Involvement; Behavior Problems.	State Dept of Health and Block Grant through CSAP, federal DHHS

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
HAWAII							
Strengthening Hawaii Families *Coalition for a Drug-Free Hawaii* 1130 N. Nimitz Hwy. Honolulu, HI 96817 Alan Shinn, Executive Director 808-545-3228 808-545-2686 (fax) cdfh@pixi.net www.drugfreehawaii.org	• Fourteen session cultural values-based primary prevention program to prevent substance abuse, domestic violence, and gang involvement; trained facilitators work weekly with groups of 6-10 families. • Curriculum includes life skills, parenting, cultural continuity, problem-solving, anger and stress management	Family	Schools, Community Centers, Public housing, Community Human Services	Youth ages 5-12 and their families in high-risk communities	S	University of Hawaii Social Welfare Evaluation and Research Unit	CSAP; Federal Education Dept's Safe & Drug Free Schools; Federal HUD
Violence Prevention Consortium (VCP) *HI State Commission on the Status of Women* 235 S. Beretania Street, Rm 407 Honolulu, HI 96816 Martha Ross 808-586-5758 808-586-5756 (fax)	• VCP bridges University of Hawaii Violence Prevention course in the public school system to order integrate violence prevention skills, knowledge and understanding into curriculum for K-12 grades. This is seen as a strategy to reduce physical and sexual violence in the home, school and community.	School	University, School System		S		
ILLINOIS							
AmeriCorps PASS Program; SAFE Project Supporting Asian American Family Empowerment *Asian Human Services* 4753 N. Broadway, Suite 700 Chicago, IL 60640 Liz Kruse 773-728-2235 773-728-4751 (fax) www.asianhumanservices.org	*AmeriCorps PASS Program:* • Tutoring and mentoring to recent immigrant and refugee youth • Designing community service project • Training in leadership development, team building, conflict resolution. • *SAFE Project:* provides mentoring between AA college students/ young adults and at-risk youth to prevent poor academic performance and anti-social behavior.	Individual Family Community	Schools, Ethnic CBOs	Youth ages 5-18, recent immigrants and refugees	S	Evaluation report required by AmeriCorps	AmeriCorps; State, City funds; Foundations; Donations
Refugee Youth Program *Elgin YWCA* Elgin, IL Ann De Cruz	• *Afterschool Program* • Tutoring • Life Skills Workshop • Cultural Teaching	Individual Family Community		Youth Ages 12-21	U S I	Informal	United Way; City

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure   **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
LOUISIANA							
Vietnamese Youth Services *Catholic Charities Archdiocese of New Orleans Immigration & Refugee Services* 1000 Howard Ave., Suite 1200 New Orleans, LA 70113-1916 Dr. Susan Weishar 504-523-3755 Ext. 2606 504-523-6962 (fax)	• Major emphasis is collaboration with parents, church parish,schools and other service providers. **Three-tiered Program:** • *Recreational activities* attract at-risk youth to the program,includes sports, cultural events, Dragon Dance troupe; • *Life Planning*: interactive group sessions led by counselors providing values clarification and life skills training; • *Educational Activities*: academic computer-based tutoring.Use PLATO, an individualized computer tutoring and educational enrichment software program. • Regular meetings with parents, schools, and community members.	Individual Family School Community	Catholic Charities Archdiocese of New Orleans, Vietnamese Church Parish, Public Schools, Orleans Parish Juvenile Court, Versailles Arms Apartment Complex, Police.	Youth ages 12-18 years old; primarily U.S.-born Vietnamese and Lao.	S I	Annual program outcomes evaluation for Daughters of Charity	Initially Office of Refugee Resettlement now Daughters of Charity West Central Region Foundation
MASSACHUSETTS							
Recreation/Youth Program *Boston Chinatown Neighborhood Center* 885 Washington Street Boston, MA 02111 Elaine Ng 617-635-5129 617-635-5132 (fax) eng@bcnc.net www.bcnc.net	• *Afterschool Enrichment Program* with tutoring, ESL classes, academic classes • *Tutoring Program*: academic skills, SAT prep, bilingual staff. • *YOU LEAD*: peer mentorship and youth leadership skills building to address high-risk behaviors (e.g. violence, ATOD) and conflict resolution; participants plan and implement recreational and educational activities (workshops, skits, presentations) for younger program participants	Individual Family School Community	School System, Child Care Services, Boston Community Center, Medical Center	60% Immigrant youth ages 11-18; 40% Chinese-American youth ages 11-18	U S	For Federal and State grant requirements. National Youth Risk Behavior Survey (translated); Language Assessment Scales; Parenting Stress Index; Parenting Skills (culturally adapted)	State grants; Federal grants; Foundation; Fees

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

MINNESOTA

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
Lao Parents & Teachers Association 430 Bryant Avenue North Minneapolis, MN 55405 Khao Insixiengmay 612-374-2447 612-374-5997 (fax)	Four main areas: ● Strengthening the school-parents partnership; ● Youth Support Groups: Develop self-esteem, learning readiness, social skills; ● Teaching Lao culture and language ● Parent Workshops	Individual Family	Police, Schools, Parks & Recreation Department, CBOs, Mutual Aid Associations	Lao Youth	U S I	Informal Evaluation	Corporate Donors; Foundations; State; Church Donations
Hmong Peace Youth Action Team *Youth Violence Prevention Initiative, Ramsey County Partnership* 1558 Clear Avenue St. Paul, MN 55106 Lucas Yang 651-793-4089 651-793-8080 (fax) hlauyaj@aol.com	● *Youth Initiative Planning Process:* youth-led groups develop a Community Action Plan to address community violence and generate short and long-term solutions. ● Articulate values and develop leadership skills and abilities to prevent youth violence in their communities.	Individual	Ramsey County 5 School Districts and 3 Community-based Organizations, Foundations	Hmong adolescents ages 14-20.	U	Foundation evaluated broader Youth Violence Prevention Initiative, not specific Youth Action Teams.	Knight Foundation
Hmong Youth Pride *Hmong American Partnership* 1600 West University Ave, #12 St. Paul, MN 55104 Laura Schlick LaBlanc 651-642-9601 651-603-8399 (fax) hapmail@hmong.org www.hmong.org	After school Mentoring ● *Drug & Crime Prevention Program:* prevention and culture curricula designed specifically for this target population.	Individual	YMCA, Wilder Forest, Public Schools, City Parks and Recreation.	Hmong children ages 9-12.	U	CSAP evaluation conducted	Federal Center for Substance Abuse Prevention (CSAP)
Project Youth Connect *Hmong American Partnership* 1600 West University Ave., #12 St. Paul, MN 55104 Laura Schlick LaBlanc 651-642-9601 651-603-8399 (fax) hapmail@hmong.org www.hmong.org	● Individual and small group intensive intervention and prevention programming for Hmong youth delivered in individual and small group settings.	Individual	Probation Department, YMCA, Wilder Forest, Center for Employment Training, Public Schools, City Parks and Recreation, Hmong Clans and Churches	At-risk and behaviorally-identified Hmong youth ages 9-14.	U S I	CSAP Evaluation	CSAP 1999-2001

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
MINNESOTA							
Struggle for Success *Hmong American Partnership* 1600 West University Ave., #12 St. Paul, MN 55104 Laura Schlick LaBlanc 651-642-9601 651-603-8399 (fax) hapmail@hmong.org www.hmong.org	• *Prevention and Intervention Program* addressing drugs and youth violence. • *Family-based with Individual Family/Youth Plans:* includes mentoring, recreation, cultural activities, home visiting, family mediation, generational partners, peer support group, parent support/education and clubs.	Individual Family Community	Probation Dept, YMCA, Wilder Forest Center for Employment Training, Public Schools, City Parks and Recreation, Hmong Clans and Churches.	High-risk Hmong youth ages 12-18. Intervention Group: primarily youth referred by juvenile Justice.	U S I	CSAP Eval. 1998. United Way Report. Tools: Assets Inventory & Goal Setting Worksheet; Individual Plan: Positive Memory Bank Building.	CSAP, ended 1998.
NEW YORK							
South Asian Youth Action (SAYA!) 54-05 Seabury Street Elmhurst, NY 11373 Sayu Bhojwani 718-651-3484 ed@saya.org www.saya.org	• *School-based Services:* include case management, advocacy, leadership, mentoring pairs of U.S. and foreign-born students; also provides parent support. • *Center-based Services:* leadership, organizing, educational preparation, recreation. • Developed Leadership Curriculum	Individual Family	Schools, CBOs	Youth from Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Guyana, Trinidad Ages 11-19.	U S	Internal ongoing evaluation	Foundations
Street Impact and Second Chance *New Vision Asian Youth Services* 39-08 Janet Place, #13 Flushing, NY 11354 Rev. Young Ho Lee Rev. Daniel David 718-961-0532 718-961-6045	• *Street Impact:* on the street outreach • Leadership Training • Anger Management and Conflict Resolution • Parent-Youth Relations • Counseling • *Second Chance:* Diversion program for youth offenders includes Community Service and Counseling	Individual Family	Schools, District Attorney, Probation Dept Corrections, Church	Mostly Chinese and Korean youth ages 13-21 involved in gangs, truancy, probation, and aftercare.	S I		City; State; Private Donors
Asian Professional Extension, Inc. (APEX) 120 Wall Street, 3rd Floor New York, NY 10005 Su Ming Yeh 212-809-4391 212-344-5636 apex@apex-ny.org www.apex-ny.org	• Matches Asian American adult professionals with socially and economically disadvantaged Asian American junior high and high school youth. Provides personal, professional, and educational guidance. • Three programs: *Mentor Program for high school students; Tutoring;* and *Reading/Literacy Program.* • Promote interpersonal and acculturation skills, positive self-image, and broaden horizons.	Individual	Chinatown YMCA, Public Schools	Low-income AA middle and high school youth; Primarily immigrant Chinese. Exposed to high-risk situations.	S	Informal surveys and Big Brother/Big Sisters outcome measurement. No formal evaluation. Volunteer Assessment Progress Report; Mentor Log Sheet.	Corporate funders and Donors

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
NEW YORK							
Hamilton-Madison House Youth Development Programs 50 Madison Street New York, NY 10038 Simeon Curry 212-349-3724 212-791-7540 (fax) simeon@hmh100.com	• *Teen Reach Project:* Counseling, Case Management • *Workshops* on prevention of high-risk behaviors, youth empowerment conference. • *After School Program* • *Teen Evening Program* • *Saturday Sports & Tutorial* • *Summer Day Camp*	Individual	Park Department, Churches	Multi-ethnic teens: Chinese comprise 25-30%; African-American; Latino	U	Evaluations for funders and internal program evaluation	Private foundation
Project Reach *Youth Division of Chinese-American Planning Council* 65-69 Lispenard Street, 2nd Fl. New York, NY 10013 Florence Li 212-941-0920 ext. 122 212-966-8581 (fax)	• Leadership Training • Prevention • Empowerment & Advocacy • Hands-on Experience • Community Projects • Job-Shadowing	Individual	Community, CBOs, Schools	Multi-ethnic youth	U S	Yearly evaluations for funders	State, Division Of Criminal Justice; State, Office of Alcohol & Substance Abuse
Youth Training Youth *Youth Division of Chinese-American Planning Council* 65-69 Lispenard Street, 2nd Fl. New York, NY 10013 Florence Li 212-941-0920 ext. 122 212-966-8581 (fax)	• Truancy and gang-related prevention using peer counseling model. • *Curriculum focus:* identity, culture, immigration experiences, discrimination • *Counseling focus:* leadership and decision-making. • Workshops on gang prevention.	Individual	Schools, Courts, Chinatown YMCA, Chinatown Mental Health	Low-income 14-18 year old, multi-ethnic, mostly Chinese, immigrants and U.S.-born	S	Yearly evaluation for funders; internally conducted	State, Division of Criminal Justice (Federal DOJ grants.)
OHIO							
Asian Youth Programs *Asian American Community Services* 57 Jefferson Avenue Columbus, OH 43215 Judy Yeh 614-220-4023 614-220-4024 asiancomsv@juno.com	• *Advanced Development for Asian Youth:* team approach, Asian college students as youth leader, collaboration with Teen Institute and community service education; regard youth as resource in the community • Leadership development • Parenting education	Individual, Family	Schools, Teen Institute	Asian-American Adolescents	U		

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
OREGON							
Asian Pacific American Consortium on Substance Abuse PO Box 144315 Portland, OR 97293 Victor Leo 503-257-9117 503-254-7467 (fax) victorleo@hotmail.com	• Prevention-oriented group activities • *Community Workshops* based on community education approach; • *Youth Group:* focuses on leadership skills, youth initiate and lead own programs, addresses substance abuse and youth violence prevention. • *"Kitchen Table Chat Program"* for youth and friends. • *Parent Group:* social and educational needs; address concerns and identify needed services for their children.	Individual Family Community	State Office of SA, Tobacco Prevention, County Mental Health, Police, Regional Drug Initiative, Schools, Churches, Ethnic Community Associations (e.g. Korean Grocer Assoc, Hmong Unity, Vietnamese Parent Assoc.)	Youth ages 9 to 18, 90% immigrants; Parents.	U	No formal evaluation. Knowledge Survey re: Alcohol, Tobacco, and Other Drugs and some Pre-Post measures.	State Alcohol and Other Drugs and Substance Abuse; OJJDP Federal; County Mental Health
Gang Enforcement Team *Portland Police Bureau* 449 NE Emerson Street Portland, OR 97211 Preston Wong 503-223-3331 (Mr. Wong has since retired from the Police Bureau).	• Tutoring and academic support • *Chess Game Program:* provides student with confidence and strategies for future planning and goal setting based on chess competitions/ tournaments. Through chess, students learn to think, plan ahead, set goals.	Individual	Police Bureau, Asian Family Center, Schools, Rose City Village Housing Project	2nd through 12th graders	U	Informal, in-house evaluation.	County; Private Donations
RHODE ISLAND							
Southeast Asian Youth Family Development *City of Providence* *Mayor's Council on Drug and Alcohol Abuse* 591 Charles Street Providence, RI 02904 H. Phengsomphone 401-421-7740 Ext. 334 401-421-9243 howardhp@aol.com	• *Gangs to Clubs Program:* weekly group meetings to redirect/ provide alternatives to gang involvement; address need for sense of belonging, identity and self-esteem, and life skills training. • *Afterschool Tutorial and Summer Academy:* earn school credits, intensive work with tutors and mentors; provides academic and life skills support to at-risk students. • *Parent Workshop:* training on cross-cultural parenting, conflict resolution, anger management, Substance Abuse prevention. Adapted PLACE curriculum for parents. • *Case Management:* primarily for truancy and youth involved in violent incidents; provides linkage to services. • *Curriculum:* Survival Skills for middle school students to teach risk avoidance adapted for SE Asian youth. (Advocates for Human Potential). • Office of Refugee Resettlement Life Skills Curriculum.	Individual Family School Community	School Department, Police Department, Recreation Department, Ethnic CBOs, and the Mayor's Office	At-risk and gang and substance abuse-involved middle and high school youth of primarily Southeast Asian refugee parents	S I	Pre-Post Surveys; Advocates for Human Potential, Project Evaluators. SEAYFD Project: Student Survey	Federal ORR (previously, federal ACYF funds) & City

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

TEXAS

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
Scoutreach Program *Boys Scouts of America* 1325 West Walnut Hill Lane Irving, TX 75038 De Nguyen Associate National Director, Scoutreach Division (972) 580-2168 (972) 580-2184 (fax) dnguyen@netbsa.org *In Costa Mesa, CA:* Kent Gibbs, (714) 546-4990	• Innovative AAPI emphasis in outreach and curriculum • *Scoutreach* is urban outreach component to underserved groups within the Boy Scouts of America: • Outdoor activities, skills & learning • Leadership • Cultural preservation and traditions	Individual Family	Religious institutions, Public housing, Ethnic Chamber of Commerce, Language schools, Local CBOs	Boys (5-20 years); Girls (14-20 years); Parents US-born refugees and immigrants	U	National Outcomes Study conducted by Louis Harris & Associates	Grants from Foundation; Donors; Dues
Youth Education and Advancement *Asian American Family Counseling Center* 6220 Westpark Way, Suite 104 Houston, TX 77057 Kim Szeto 713-339-3688 713-339-3699 kimszeto@aafcc.org www.aafcc.org	• *Workshops:* focus on self-esteem, ethnic identity and pride, character building and skills. • *Mental Health focus:* Counseling services for youth and their families	Individual Family	Ethnic Programs; TRIAD: Juvenile Probation MH/MR, Social Services (CPS); Schools	Youth 13-20 years old; at-risk; involved with Juvenile Justice; some have made serious suicide attempts.	S I		TRIAD Local funds: City of Houston Community Develop-ment Block Grant

VIRGINIA

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
At-Risk Youth Services *Center for Multicultural Human Services (CMHS)* 701 West Broad St., Suite 305 Falls Church, VA 22046 Sarah Summers, Coordinator of Programs for Youth At-Risk 703-533-3302 703-237-2083 (fax) cmhs2000@aol.com www.cmhsweb.org	*At-Risk Youth Services*—prevention and treatment programs for at-risk youth in elementary, middle and high schools in Fairfax County. Located at community centers in low-income neighborhoods and at the CMHS site. Services include: • academic support, mentoring, life skills groups, team and leadership skills, recreational and enrichment activities, counseling, advocacy, support for parents and assistance with crisis and conflict situations.	Individual Family Group	Schools, Housing, Social Services, Community Police and Probation Officers	Youth to age 18; Primarily from diverse cultures. Includes immigrants and refugees	S I		County; Foundations and Corporate Donations; Fees and Insurance

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
WASHINGTON							
Children, Youth and Families Program *Asian Counseling and Referral Service* 720 8th Avenue S., Suite 200 Seattle, WA 98104 Junko Yamazaki, Director 206-695-7500 (office) 206-695-7606 (fax) junkoy@acrs.org www.acrs.org	1) *Counseling:* Individual/Family Parent Education/Family Support 2) Prevention/Early Intervention: Peer Support Group Peer Leadership Project Promoting Assets Across Cultures (PAAC) Summer Youth Activities	Individual Family School	Schools, Child Protective Services, Child Welfare Services, Juvenile Justice, YWCA, YouthNET, API Task Force on Youth	Youth ages 3 -17	U S I	Evaluators: Seattle-King County Public Health Dept. Forty Developmental Assets Satisfaction Survey All projects do Pre- and Post testing.	State and Local; Private; Foundation; Fees
Comunication About Health between Adults and Teens (CHAT) *University of Washington* 927 N. Northlake Way, Ste. 210 Seattle, WA 98103-8871 MaryEllen Cunningham 206-616-3062 206-616-3164 (fax) mec68@u.washington.edu	• *CHAT:Parent education program* to improve communication between adults and teens in a Vietnamese community. • Multi-session parenting program with occasional teen sessions; community partnerships, and communication strategies • Curriculum development	Individual Family	University, Community	Parents of 6-8th graders	U S	Pre-Post surveys	U.S. Office of Population Affairs
SafeFutures Youth Center 6337 36th Avenue SW Seattle, WA 98126 Steve Hamai 206-938-9606 ext.106 206-938-7540 (fax) www.sfyc.net	• *Counseling Case Management:* target areas include peer, individual, academic, juvenile justice issues and family involvement; • *Education Services:* GED HS credit program; academic tutoring and enrichment; native language and culture instruction in Cambodian; • *Youth Leadership Development:* youth leadership teams meet weekly to develop activities for their multiethnic community.	Individual Family	University of Washington, Seattle Public Housing, Juvenile Probation, Ethnic CBOs, Dept. of Social and Health Services, Department of Drugs and Alcohol	Youth, ages 5 - 18 years old, primarily Cambodian and a smaller group of Vietnamese	U S I	External Evaluators: Urban Institute & University of North Carolina Research and Evaluation	State and Local funds; Federal Grant
Youth Program *Refugee Women's Alliance* 3004 S. Alaska Seattle, WA 98108 Pang Chang 206-721-3846 Ext. 29 206-721-3967 (fax)	• *Afterschool Bilingual Reader's Theatre:* academic assistance, cultural preservation; • *Girls Empowerment Group:* peer support for prevention of high-risk behaviors; • *Parent Group:* focuses on communication with adults.	Individual Family Community	School's Out, Schools	Youth ages 7-14; primarily Cambodian & Ethiopian. Mostly, U.S.-born.	S	Quarterly Evaluation; Student and Parent Satisfaction Evaluations	Local funds; Private and Foundation funds; Fees

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure   **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure

WISCONSIN

PROGRAM	STRATEGIES: COMPONENTS & CURRICULUM	FOCUS OF PROGRAM	CROSS-SYSTEM COLLABORATION	TARGET GROUP	RISK LEVEL (U,S,I)	PROGRAM EVALUATION (TOOLS)	FUNDING
Southeast Asian Leadership (SEAL) *Hmong Mutual Assistance Association* 2613 George Street LaCrosse, WI Denis Tucker 608-781-5744 ext.26 608-781-5011 dtucker@centurytel.net	Provides positive alternatives to risky behavior through positive activities and support groups. Increases self -esteem and sense of pride and empowerment in youth. Educates and enlightens Asian youth about their own culture/heritage. • Weekly group-based discussion on life skills, values, gang prevention • Cultural education and reconnecting with culture of origin • Instruction in Life Skills • Case management • Tutoring • *Multicultural Youth Council:* brings together youth from diverse cultures to address cultural differences/similarities, and racism and prejudice to schools and civic groups. • Curriculum for SEAL program	Individual Family School	Schools, Police, Juvenile Court, Community and Local colleges, Local Human Services Department	Youth ages 12–18; mostly Hmong with some Cambodian and Lao Youth.	U S I	Pre-Post Measures Tools developed within the agency	Job Training Partnership Grants; Hmong Mutual Assistance Association Foundations

LEGEND FOR RISK LEVEL: U = Universal Preventive Measure **S** = Selective Preventive Measure **I** = Indicated Preventive Measure