| **Study** | **Design** | **Country, demographics and sample size** | **Key findings**  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| ***General and criminal thinking and criminal lifestyle research*** |
| Adamson (2004). *Different routes to reducing youth crime*. | Pre-post comparison | * U.K.
* Over three years
* 50 young people
 | * Small decrease in crime with youth (but approach conclusion with caution).
* Reduction in criminal damage offences (Bradford) and violent offences (Hackney) some saw reduction in offending and reoffending, arrests and number of offences.
* Bradford – crimes saved 360 criminal damage, 1 drugs offence, 57 robberies, 57 theft from vehicle, 71 theft of vehicle
 |
| Baker, Jones, Roberts, & Merrington (2005). *The evaluation of the validity and reliability of the Youth Justice Board’s assessment for young offenders: Findings from the first two years of the use of ASSET.* | Non-experimental | * U.K.
* 3395 ASSET (assessment tool) profiles and 627 Forms completed by young offenders and comparative self-assessment data from a school population.
* 82% male, 18% female, 10% ethnic minorities, 90% white.
 | * ASSET rating score predicted reconviction with 67% accuracy.
 |
| Barry (2007). Youth transitions: From offending to desistance. | Non-experimental  | * U.K.
* 20 males and 20 females current or previous persistent young offenders aged 18-33 years old.
 | * 10 men and 18 women stopped offending, reasons included risks of being incarcerated and losing people close to them.
 |
| Burnett & Santos (2010). *Found in transition? Local inter-agency systems for guiding young adults into better lives. Final report of the formative evaluation of the T2A pilots.* | Non-experimental Self report and keyworker-s reports and interview. No official reconviction data gathered. | * U.K.
* 29 case studies (first interview), 16 (second interview).
 | * 76% (*n*=22) of the 29 case study participants were either known or believed to have not reoffended since the year they were first interviewed.
 |
| Cunningham & Underhill (2002). *Outcome evaluation of police youth at risk programmes: July 1997 to June 2000.* | Non-experimentalInterviews with programme providers, questionnaires sent to random selection of stakeholders.  | * New Zealand
* 440 clients involved across 13 programmes and Otago Youth Wellness Centre served 790 clients.
 | * *Community-based programmes shown to be most effective, followed by programmes which used mentoring approach. The school-based programme was not effective.*
* Between 40 and 90 per cent of clients offended prior to involvement with the programme, and this decreased varied between 6 and 70 per cent during the involvement.
* For seven of the thirteen programmes, a reduction in the seriousness of offence was observed in the second time period.
 |
| Farrington, Ditchfield, Hancock, Howard, Jolliffe, Livingston, & Painter (2002)*.*  | Experimental | * U.K.
* Aged 18-21 male offenders
* Thorn Cross High Intensity (HIT) 303 (176 experimentals, 127 controls) 1997-1998.
* Military Corrective Training Centre (MCTC) 109 (66 experimentals and 103 controls) 1998.
 | * *Followed up over two years, Thorn Cross ex-prisoners reconvicted at significantly lower rate than Colchester.*
* *Success was attributed to CBT skills programmes and to substantial education, training, mentoring and throughcare (Colchester was primarily psychical activities).*
* *Reconviction rates for the Thorn Cross group was not sustained in the second follow up. However avoided reoffending for two months longer than a control group, committed substantially fewer offences than the control group, and the offences committed by the experimental group were less damaging.*
* £5 saving for each £1 pound invested at Thorn Cross but for every £1 spent at Colchester £1 was lost.
 |
| Flint, Batty, Parr, Fowler, Nixon, & Sanderson (2010). | Non-experimental | * U.K.
* 20 Intensive Intervention Projects (IIPs) were established
* 15 young people
 | * Two thirds of the case studies achieved cessations, reductions in offending or anti-social behaviour and improvements in education.
* IIPs represent good value for money. Return on investment – for each £1 spent £8 was saved.
 |
| Flint, Green, Hunter, Nixon, Parr, Manning, Wilson, Pawson, Davidson, & Anderson (2007). | Non-experimental  | * Scotland, U.K.
* 8 neighbourhoods.
 | * *There was a general rise in the number of officially recorded incidents of antisocial behaviour across the 4 local authorities in the last 3 years. 7 of the case study neighbourhoods had also experienced a rise in recorded antisocial behaviour incidents, although there was a reduction in one neighbourhood.*
 |
| Froundigoun & Addidle (2009). | Non-experimental | * Scotland, U.K.
* Youth participants - 72 male and 16 female, 3 under 12 years of age and remaining aged 12-25.
* Phase 1-204, Phase 2 – 186, total 390 young people.
 | * Policing initiative that focused on at risk youth to change behaviour patterns to program led to reduced calls about youth disorder anti-social behaviour in the area by around 50%.
 |
| Hales, Nevill, Pudney, & Tipping (2009).  | Non-experimental | * U.K.
* Ages 10-25 interviewed four times.
* Approximately 5,000 participants.
 | * The likelihood of offending *generally increase*d during the early teens, reaching a peak between the ages 14 and 16 before declining. Over a period of four years the sample members (82% of 10 to 25 years olds) with a low propensity to offend accounted for around one-third (36%) of all offences. This is about the same proportion of all offending as that admitted by the small group (4% of 10 to 25 year olds) described as ‘prolific offenders’ who committed a disproportionately large amount of offences (responsible for 32% of all offences) (p. 1).
* Younger sample members were *less likely* to be offenders, but this reflected a shorter time ‘at risk’ (p. 2)
* Female sample members were *significantly less likely* to have been offenders than males (p. 2).
* Social class, ethic group and religious participation were not significantly associated with increased or reduced likelihood of offending, ASB and drug use (p. 2).
* Family, peer group and school factors were found to be very important influences on the pathways of young people (p. 2).
 |
| Healy (2010a).  | Quasi-experimental  | * U.K.
* Male offenders.
* 73 adult males mean age 25.4 years.
 | * Participants who reported no offending in the past month were defined as ‘primary desisters.’ In a regression analysis, age, age at onset of offending and criminal thinking styles (measured at eight thinking styles that support criminal behaviour – mollification, cutoff, entitlement, power orientation, sentimentality, super-optimism, cognitive indolence, and discontinuity) emerged as important predictors of primary desistance, whereas social circumstances and pro-criminal attitudes did not (pro-criminal – indicated more favourable attitudes toward crime).
* Primary desisters were significantly younger and significantly less likely to endorse pro-criminal attitudes and reported few social problems than current offenders.
 |
| Hirst, Formby, Parr, Nixon, Hunter, & Flint (2007). | Non-experimental | * U.K.
* York 25 participants, age range of majority of members 11-12 year olds gender not specified.
* Bradford 44 participants, age range of majority of members 12-15(include 9-10 year olds), 12 boys and 32 females.
 | * Bradford scheme had greater success in recruiting and retaining young people and in completing activities (*n=*44) (then York (*n=*25).
 |
| Lowenkamp, Hubbard, Makarios, & Latessa (2009). | Quasi-experimental | * U.S.A.
* Two groups similar age, race and gender. White (84%), male (71%), and average 33.5 years old.
* 217 participants: treatment group (*n=*121) and control group (*n=*96).
 | * 23% of the treatment group recidivated (i.e. were rearrest for new criminal behaviour) compared to 36% of the comparison group (*p=.*047).
* Control group were 1.57 (57%) more likely to be arrested during the follow-up.
* Younger offenders, higher-risk offenders, and offenders in the control group were more likely to be arrested for new criminal behaviour during the follow-up.
 |
| National Audit Office (2006).  | Non-experimental  | * U.K.
* 46% of cases were aged under 18 and 54% were over 18.
* 893 case files in 6 local areas.
 | * 65% people who received an anti-social behaviour intervention did not re-engage in anti-social behaviour.
* Contracts were less effective with people aged under 18 where just over 60% of cases displayed further anti-social behaviour.
* Many individuals are responsible for minor incidents of anti-social behaviour and quickly desist from such behaviour. Some 65% of sample only received one intervention.
* Small core of people repeatedly engaged in anti-social behaviour. Around 20% of sample received 55% of all interventions issued.
 |
| Sampson & Laub (2003). | Quasi-experimental  | * U.S.A.
* Boys aged 7 to 70 – 35 year follow up.
* 475 (of original 500) delinquents.
 | * Crime declines with age sooner or later for all offender groups, whether identified prospectively according to a multitude of childhood and adolescent risk factors, or retrospectively based on latent-class models of trajectories.
* Desistence processes are at work even among active offenders and predicted life-course persistors, and that childhood prognoses account poorly for long-term trajectories of offending.
* The average career length of the delinquent group was 25.6 years.
* The mean onset for violence and alcohol and drug arrests was 22 and 25 respectively. Violent criminal careers were shortest 9 years.
 |
| Simons, Stewart, Gordon, Conger, & Elder (2002). | Quasi-experimental  | * U.S.A.
* 236 young adults, male and female (p. 410).
* Mean age 22 years and partners interviewed in 1977 (p. 410).
 | * For both male and females, adolescent delinquency and affiliation with deviant peers predicted having an antisocial romantic partner as a young adult. The path coefficients are .38 and .23 respectively.
* For females, quality of the romantic relationship also predicted crime (β= -.15). Analyses revealed several mediating influences. For females, a conventional romantic partner, strong job attachment, and conventional adult friends all served to moderate the chances that a woman with a delinquent history would graduate to adult crime. In contrast, only conventional adult friends served this function for males.
 |
| Wheeler, Holland, Bambrick, Lindsay, Carson, Steptoe, Johnston, Tayler, Middleton, Price, & O’Brien (2009).  | Comparison groups | * U.K.
* 237 cases.
* 40.5% female, average age 36 years.
* Group 1: No CJS group- (*n=*188); Group 2: the CJS group (*n*=49).
 | * There was no association between mild ID and CJS contact or non-contact Omnibus χ2=84.034, *df* = 28, p <.001
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| ***Interventions designed to change criminal thinking through individual treatment, including drug and alcohol treatment******Area 1: Individual treatment and lifestyle change (14 –only 1 randomised)*** |
| Allen, Mackenzie, & Hickman (2001). The effectiveness of cognitive behavioural treatment for adult offenders: A methodological, quality-based review. | Quasi-experimentReview of evaluations of two rehabilitation programs reviewed* Moral Reconation Therapy (MRT)

Reasoning and rehabilitation (R&R) | U.S.A.& Canada**MRT**Drunk drivers* 115 driving-while-intoxicated offenders who received MRT during their incarceration and 65 who applied for the program but were unable to participate because of limited space.

Felony drug offenders* 70 male felons who admitted drug use and received MRT during incarceration and 82 male felons who volunteered for the program but were unable to participate because of limited space.

General felony offenders* 1,052 felony offenders who had participated in MRT at some point during their incarceration, including both dropouts and graduates. The control group consisted of 329 felony offenders who volunteered for the program but were unable to participate due to limited space.

Other settings* 20 male and female releasees who had received MRT in department of corrections field office.
* Male offenders in a Florida detention center, the sample consisted of a treatment group of offenders who participated in MRT during incarceration and control group consisted of all offenders released from the institution during a similar time period.
* Individuals released from a county jail in Ohio who received MRT, control group consisted of all inmates released from the jail during the same period of time.

**R&R**Federal offenders in Canada* Adult male offenders in a federal correctional system in Canada.
* High risk male-probationers randomly assigned either to regular probation or to probation with R&R, small sample size.
* R&R using treatment group and comparison group that were eligible for the program but did not participate.
 | * Moral Recognition Therapy and Reasoning and Rehabilitation programs appear to be successful approaches to reducing recidivism (p. 498).

**MRT*** MRT for drunk drivers – the treatment group consistently demonstrated lower reincarceration rate and lower rearrest rate for any offense over the course of the studies and this difference was statistically significant.
* MRT for drug offenders - The treatment group consistently demonstrated lower rearrest rate (significance not tested) for any offense throughout the four follow up studies.
* In addition, the group of felony drug offenders who received MRT had reincarceration rates that were consistently lower and these differences were significant in recent evaluations.
* MRT – general felony offenders suggest that those that participated in MRT had decreased recidivism, lower rearrest rate and fewer arrests.
* MRT – other settings (Washington & Ohio) found that the treatment group had significantly lower rearrest and reincarceration rates.
* MRT – other settings (Florida) participants had a significantly lower reincarceration rate.

**R&R*** R&R - Federal offenders in Canada – indicated a lower reincarceration rate for individuals who completed treatment, but this difference was not statistically significant.
* R&R found lower official reconviction and readmission rates for the treatment group.

Other R&R – * Found that although the 1 year reconviction rate for both general and serious offenses was lower for R&R participants than for the control group, this difference disappeared at 2 years.
* R&R participants had a higher reconviction and reincarceration rate than the control group.
 |
| Blud & Travers (2001). Interpersonal problem-solving skills training: a comparison of R&R and ETS.  | Quasi-experimentComparison of Reasoning and Rehabilitation (R&R) and Enhanced Thinking Skills (ETS)Pre-post and follow-up data  | * U.K.
* Over 8000 participants
* Comparisons made between R&R (*n*=1910) and Enhanced Thinking Skills (ETS) (*n=*6636)
 | * Significant differences were observed on all aspects of problem solving and effect sizes were moderate. While small but significant differences were observed, what is noteworthy is that the impact of the two programmes is similar (p. 251).
* Improvements from pre- to post-programme were greater for the R&R graduates than for ETS (alternatives: *F* = 3.311, *p* < 0.05, solutions: *F* = 5.034, *p* <0.01).
 |
| Briggs, Gray, & Stephens (2003)*. Offender literacy and attrition from the enhanced thinking skills programme.* | Quasi-experimentComparison groupFollow up 6 months  | * U.K.
* Offenders - 39 treatment and 50 non treatment.
* Literacy problem group 13% female, 87% male and comparison group 14% female, 86% male.
* 92% white treatment and 90% white comparison.
 | * “Offenders with identified literacy problems were more likely to drop out at every stage between sentence and final completion of post programme psychometric tests” (p. 1).
 |
| Butler, Baruch, Hickey, & Fonagy (2011). A randomized controlled trial of multisystemic therapy and a statutory therapeutic intervention for young offenders | Quasi-experimentRandomized to MST or YOT18 month follow up | * U.K.
* Majority of participants male, about equal numbers of white and black ethnicity.
* 108 families randomized to MST (*n*=56) and those in usual services delivered by youth offending teams (YOT) (*n=*52).
* MST – 16.4% female, 49.1% White British/European, 27.3% Black African/Afro-Caribbean, 3.6% Asian, 20% Mixed/other.
* YOT – 19.2% female, 25.5% White British/European, 39.2% Black African/Afro-Caribbean, 5.9% Asian, 29.4% Mixed/other.
 | * MST reduced offending significantly and the likelihood of nonviolent offending during an 18-month follow up period.
* By the last six months of the study, only 8% in the MST group compared to 34% in the control group, had one or more records of a non-violent offense [χ2 (1) = 10.6, p <.001, RR = 4.42, 95% CI = 1.57, 12.45].
* At 18 month follow-up found significant increase in custodial placement only for the YOT group [Kendall’s W = 0.07, χ2 (4) =15.5, p<.01; Kendall’s W = 0.03, χ2 (4) = 6.41, p<.2; for the YOT and MST groups respectively).
 |
| Cann, Falshaw, Nugent, & Friendship (2003). *Understanding what works: Accredited cognitive skills programmes for adult men and young offenders.* | Two matched comparison groupsControl | * U.K.
* Adult offender sample *n=* 2,195 males - aged 22 years or more at sentencing.
* Young offender sample *n=* 1,534 – aged 21 years or less at sentencing.
 | * There were no differences in the one and two year reconviction rates between adult men who started a prison-based cognitive skills programme and their matched comparison group (p. 1).
* There was no difference in the one and two year reconviction rate between young offenders who started a prison-based cognitive skills programme and their matched comparison group (p. 1).
* These results are in contrast to the first evaluation study of adult male programme participants, where a reduction in reconviction was shown, but are similar to the last evaluation which also showed no reduction in reconviction for programme participants (p. 1).
* When programme dropouts were excluded, however, the one year reconviction rate for both adult men and young offender programme completers was significantly lower than for the matched comparison groups. This represents a 2.5 percentage point difference in reconviction for the adult male programme completers (not seen in the last evaluation) and a 4.1 percentage point difference for the young offender programme completers (p. 1).
* These differences in reconviction at one year were not maintained at two years following release from prison (p. 1).
 |
| Davidson, Tyrer, Tata, Cooke, Gumley, Ford, Walker, Bezlyak, Seivewright, Robertson, & Crawford (2009). Cognitive behaviour therapy for violent men with antisocial personality disorder in the community: An exploratory randomized controlled trial. | ExperimentalRandomized controlled trial. Randomized to either treatment at usual (TAU) plus CBT, or usual treatment alone. 12 month follow up | * U.K.
* 52 adult men participants
* Average age 38 years old
* 67.3% white
* 27 TAU, 25 CBT
 | * At 12 months, both groups reported a decrease in the occurrence of any acts of verbal or physical aggression
* “Numbers of participants reporting any act of verbal aggression reduced from 26 (96.30%) to 17 (80.95%) in the TAU group and from 25 (100%) to 17 (77.27%) in the CBT group. In terms of physical aggression, numbers of participants reporting any act of physical aggression decreased from 23 (85.10%) to eight (38.10%) in the TAU group and from 22 (88%) to seven (31.82%) in the CBT group” (p. 574).
* CBT did not improve outcomes more than usual treatment for men with antisocial personality disorder (ASPD) who were aggressive and living in the community.
 |
| Falshaw, Friendship, Travers, & Nugent, (2003). *Searching for ‘what works’: An evaluation of cognitive skills programmes.* | Quasi-experimentMatched comparison group | * U.K.
* 649 adult male offenders.
* Comparison group 1,947 males who did not participate.
 | * “Found no differences in the two-year reconviction rates for prisoners who had participated in a cognitive skills programme between 1996-1998 and a matched comparison group. This contrasts with the reduction in reconviction shown in the previous evaluation of cognitive skills programmes for prisoners, delivered between 1992-1996” (p. 1).
 |
| Golden (2002). *Evaluation of the efficacy of a cognitive behavioral program for offenders on probation: Thinking for a change.* | Quasi-experimentMatched comparison groupThree month to one year follow up | * U.S.A.
* 100 males and 42 females – 71 experimental and 71 comparison.
* Over 18 years old, average age 27 years.
* 50% African American/Black, 33.1% Caucasian, 13.4% Hispanic/Latino, 2.1% Asian, 0.7% Native American, 0.7% Black Indian.
 | * “With n = 120, the trend appears to be that group completers re-offend less frequently than their untreated counterparts, with a 6.8% difference, or 33% reduction in new offenses between group completers and comparison subjects” (p. 72).
* “Recidivism rate for technical violations was 42.1% for group completers (16 violators), 77.3% for dropouts (17 violators), and 45% for the comparison group (27 violators). There was a significant difference among groups, χ2= (2, *n* = 120) = 8.09, *p* = .017, with group dropouts receiving technical violations at a significantly higher rate than either group completers or comparisons, and no differences observed between completer and comparison groups” (p. 74).
* “Group dropouts were 4.7 times more likely to receive a technical violations that the completers or comparison groups χ2 (1, *n*= 120) = 5.20, *p* = .023” (p. 75). “Being a group dropout, being classified as ‘high risk,’ and having poorer interpersonal problem solving skills were all predictive of technical violations” (pp. 11-12).
* “Study provides encouragement for cognitive behaviour group treatment for offenders, as positive change was found for social and problem solving skills, and a trend toward reduced criminal activity was observed” (pp. 11-12).
 |
| Hamil-Luker, Land, & Blau (2003). Diverse trajectories of cocaine use through early adulthood among rebellious and socially conforming youth. | Quasi-experimentLongitudinal survey – 18 year follow up  | * U.S.A.
* National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979.
* National sample of youth aged 14-16 in 1979, group followed up between 1984 and 1998.
* *n=* 2,509.
 | * In support of a life-course perspective, found that social ties to schools, families, religion, and the labour market help differentiate youth who refrain from, maintain, or desist from using cocaine through early adulthood (p. 300).
* Return to results
 |
| Hollin, McGuire, Hounsome, Hatcher, Bilby, & Palmer (2008). Cognitive skills behavior programs for offenders in the community: A reconviction analysis. | Quasi-experimentControlled for population factors Comparison group | * U.K.
* *n=* 2,186 male offenders, comparison group *n=* 2,749.
* Mean of 28.23 years, aged ranged from 16 to 83 years.
 | * Three offending behaviour programs Reasoning and Rehabilitation (R&R), Enhanced Thinking Skills (ETS), and Think First.
* “There was no difference in the reconviction rates of offenders allocated to programs and comparison group” (p. 270). χ2 (1, *n* = 4,935) = 1.78, *p* = n.s. (p. 274).
* “Offenders who completed a program had a lower rate of reconviction compared to the nonstarter, noncompleter, and comparison groups” (p. 270) χ2 (3, *n* = 3,365) = 14.68, *p* < .001 (p. 276).
 |
| Hussong, Curran, Moffitt, Caspi, & Carrign (2004). Substance abuse hinders desistance in young adults’ antisocial behavior. | Non-experimental  | * New Zealand
* Dunedin Multidisciplinary Health and Development Study
* *n=* 461 men accessed at age 18, 21 and 26.
 |  |
| McGuire, Bilby, Hatcher, Hollin, Hounsome, & Palmer (2008). Evaluation of structured cognitive-behavioural treatment programmes in reducing criminal recidivism. | Quasi-experimental17 month follow upComparison group and control sample | * U.K.
* 929 male offenders (735 experimental group and 194 comparison group)
* Completed program (*n=*215), non-completion program (*n=*181), group allocated to programmes but not commenced (*n=*339) and control (*n*=194).
* Mean age 26.87 years, white 84.6%, African-Caribbean 6.9%, Asian 2.2%, other 3.7%, missing data 2.6%.
 | * Results suggested a possible treatment effect for moderate and higher-risk cases (p. 21).
* “Pairwise comparisons showed that, when the key variables were controlled statistically, offenders in the completers group were significantly less likely to be re-convicted than were offenders in the comparison group [χ2 (1, n=409) = 4.46, *p*<0.05], the non-completers group [χ2 (1, n=396) = 26.92, *p*<0.001], and the non-starters Group [χ2 (1, n=554) = 33.30, *p*<0.001]”. Shown in as well in univariate analysis [χ2 (3, n=925) = 55.58, *p*<0.001]. (p. 31).
 |
| Prendergast, Huang, & Hser (2008). Patterns of crime and drug use trajectories in relation to treatment initiative and five-year outcomes: An application of growth mixture modeling across three datasets. | Quasi-experimental 1. Randomised, control group, 5 year follow up
2. Follow up
3. Randomized
 | * U.S.A.
* Three sample groups which were combined:
* Amity Study: 5 year follow up, randomized to prison treatment program (*n=*425) or to no treatment (*n=*290), 80% of original sample interviewed *n=*448, all men
* TUE study: 1,800 drug users, at second follow up with 566 subjects. Male subjects from second follow up who reported having participated in treatment (*n=*129) were included in analyses.
* TXPROC study: 511 drug abusers recruited from a stratified random sample of treatment programs. Only men were used in the present analysis, for a total of 215 subjects.
* In sum, the analysis sample (*n*= 792) consisted of 56.6% of subjects from the Amity Study, 16.3% from the TUE study, and 27.1% from the TXPROC study.
 | * Findings indicate that posttreatment drug use decreased. “Overall, after controlling for potential covariates, the total sample used drugs at a mean of 5.16 days (=e1.64) in the month following discharge, and days of drug use per month decreased significantly over the 5 years after discharge from first treatment by an average rate of 0.82 (=e −0.20) per year” (p. 66).
* “Those who received jail/prison treatment had a significantly lower level of incarceration right after treatment discharge than did those who had received community treatment, the increase in their incarceration (β = 0.17; *p* < .01) during the 5 years posttreatment was significantly higher than that for those whose first treatment was in the community” (p. 67).
* Posttreatment employment outcomes increased over the years after treatment (β = 0.10, p < .05).
* However, the main effect of drug use and the interaction of the drug use and incarceration grouping were significant predictors of the slope of the posttreatment employment pattern, with the Low Incarceration/Low Drug Use group showing the highest increasing rate of employment, or an increase of 138% per year (= e(0.10−0.01+0.10+0.33) =1.38).
 |
| Wallinius, Johansson, Larden, & Dernevik (2011). Self-serving cognitive distortions and antisocial behaviour among adults and adolescents. | Self-report questionnaire | * Sweden.
* Tested among offenders and nonoffender adults and adolescents (*n=* 364).
* Adult sample (*n=* 116) – male prison inmates (*n=* 56) and male university students (*n=* 60). Prisoners mean age 36.8 years and university mean age 20.4 years.
* Adolescent sample (*n=* 248) – incarcerated under the Care of Young Persons Act (*n=* 58) and nonoffender adolescents from primary and secondary education facilities (*n=* 190). Offender mean age 15.8 and nonoffender mean age 15.2.
 | * Results showed self-serving distortions to be more common among offenders and to predict self-reported antisocial behaviour when tested among adults. The underlying structure of the How I Think (HIT) was best explained by a three-factor solution with one major cognitive factors, referred to as ‘criminal mind.’ Concluded that the HIT, after further examination of its structural and divergent validity, could be used as a measure of criminal thinking in adults as well as in adolescents (p. 287).
* “The adult offenders scored higher than the adult nonoffenders on the total SCID-II measures of antisocial behavior, *t*(1, 89) = –14.06, *p* < .001; conduct disorder, *t*(1, 79) = –9.94, *p* < .001; and antisocial personality disorder (APD), *t*(1, 114) = –16.20, *p* < .001” (pp. 293-294).
* “When the total HIT scores were compared between the offender and the nonoffender subgroups, both the adult, *t*(1, 81) = –6.25, *p* < .001, and adolescent offenders, *t*(1, 73) = –9.76, *p* < .001, showed more self-serving cognitive distortions than the nonoffender groups” (p. 294).
 |
| Wiesner, Kim, & Capaldi (2005). Developmental trajectories of offending: Validation and prediction to young adult alcohol use, drug use, and depressive symptoms. | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal studySelf-reported offending behaviour, official arrests | * U.S.A.
* *n=* 204 men
* Oregon Youth Study data
* 90% Caucasian
 | * Chronic high-level offenders had higher levels of depressive symptoms and engaged more often in drug use compared with very rare, decreasing low-level, and decreasing high-level offenders (p. 251).
* Chronic low-level offenders, in contrast, displayed fewer systematic differences compared with the two decreasing offender groups and the chronic high-level offenders (p. 251).
* The findings supported the contention that varying courses of offending may have plausible causal effects on young adult outcomes beyond the effects of an underlying propensity for crime (p. 251).
 |
| Wilkinson (2005). Evaluating evidence for the effectiveness of the reasoning and rehabilitation programme. | Quasi-experimentalMatched control study2 year follow up | * U.K.
* *n=* 203
* Adult offenders
 | * Findings for reconviction were mixed. “67% of the R&R group were reconvicted within two years compared to 56% of offenders sentenced to custody from time of sentence, it would seems R&R did not reduce offending. Alternatively the fact that 5% fewer of the R&R group were reconvicted than predicted on the basis of age and previous convictions, compared to 14% more of the custody group after release, could be taken as indicating success” (p. 81). Offenders whose attitudes change pro-socially were more likely to be reconvicted than were offenders whose attitudes did not change positively (p. 70).
* “Over a two-year follow up there was no difference in the proportion reconvicted between offenders who commenced the programme and those given other sentences (see Table 3). However offenders who started the programme were less likely to be sentenced to custody at first reconviction: 29% of the R&R group compared to 35% of those given other sentences. On this basis, attending R&R could be said to have been associated with a 17% reduction in custody at reconviction for these offenders. This implies that the R&R group, when reconvicted, had committed less serious offences… These findings are not statistically significant” (pp. 76-77).
* This casts doubt on whether reconviction is reduced because of attitudinal change and on the use of measures of attitudinal change in evaluation (p. 70).
 |
| Young, Hopkin, Perkins, Farr, Doidge, & Gudjonsson (2013). A controlled trial of a cognitive skills program for personality-disordered offenders. | Experimental | * U.K.
* 31 males: 16 participated in group condition and 15 control.
* White (87.1%), black (9.7%), mixed race (3.2%), average age of treatment group 43.37 and control group 36.93 years old.
 | * Reasoning and Rehabilitation ADHD program (R&R2ADHD) was effective in a small sample of severely personality-disordered offenders. 75% of group participants completed the program, in contrast to the controls, showed significant improvements in scores with mainly medium effect sizes (using Cohen’s *d* for efficacy measures).
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| ***Area 2: Sports/leisure activities and lifestyle change*** |
| Hartmann & Depro (2006). Rethinking sports-based community crime prevention: A preliminary analysis of the relationship between midnight basketball and urban crime rates.  | Non-experimentalPre-post crime data | * U.S.
* Target group was young men between the ages 17 and 22 years.
* 28 cities with midnight basketball and 170 cities without.
 | * “Results show cities that were early adopters of officially sanctioned midnight basketball leagues experienced sharper decreases in property crime rates than other American cities during a period in which there was broad support for midnight basketball programs” (*p<*.05) (p. 181).
 |
| Hawkins (1998). Evening basketball leagues: The use of sport to reduce African American youth criminal activity. | Can’t find copy |  |  |
| Home Office. (2006). *Positive futures impact report: End of season review.*  | Non-experimental | * U.K.
* 109,546 young people have been involved in the project.
* *n=*19,609 males, *n=*10,277 females
* 10-12 year olds *n=*4,947, 13-16 year olds *n=*7,749, 17 years and older *n=* 2,888
* Ethnic groups- white *n=* 10,562, black *n=*1,782, Asian *n=*1,137, Mixed black *n=*1,025, other *n=*839, Irish *n=*173, Mixed Asian *n=*88.
 | * “Between March and September 2005 almost 600 participants began looking for a job, with a similar number having actually obtained employment; – 509 young people took on volunteering roles; – over 4,000 participants signed up for, or completed, awards or training through Positive Futures projects; – 736 participants returned to full-time education and 1,756 were doing better in school since they became involved with Positive Futures; and – Positive Futures staff perceive that over 2,000 young people have improved their relations with peers and that 1,237 participants have made progress with their family relations” (p. 4).
* “In terms of the ultimate key aim of Positive Futures ‘to have a positive influence on participants’ substance misuse, physical activity and offending behaviour’: – 50 per cent of project partners believe that Positive Futures makes a positive difference to drug use; – 90 per cent of project partners believe that Positive Futures makes a positive difference to the availability of sports activities; – 76 per cent of project partners believe that Positive Futures makes a positive difference to anti-social behaviour; and – 68 per cent of project partners believe that Positive Futures makes a positive difference to local crime rates” (p. 5).
 |
| Martin, Lee, & Brown (2003). *Evaluation of positive futures*. | Can’t find copy |  |  |
| Meek (2012). *The role of sport in promoting desistance from crime: An evaluation of the 2nd chance project rugby and football academies at Portland young offender institutions.* | Non-experimentalMixed methods One to two year reconviction data Interviews  | * U.K.
* 79 male offenders.
* Age range 18-21 years old (mean of 19 years and 8 months), 46% white, 33% black, 21% mixed race, Asian, or ‘other’.
 | * “Of the 50 participants who had been released over the past 18 months of study, nine had reoffended or been recalled to prison, 18% reconviction rate (compared to prison average of 48% after one year) (p. 2).
* Statistically significant improvements were observed in established measures of conflict resolution, aggression (F (2,98), *df* 2.34, *p*<.05), impulsivity (F (4,85), *df* 2.26, *p<*.01), and attitudes towards offending (F (2,62), *df* 2.34, *p*<.05) following participation (pp. 2 & 18).
* “Qualitative interviews and testimonies illustrated the positive impact of participation on behaviour within the prison, staff-prisoner relationships and the resettlement opportunities for prisoners in managing the transition from custody to community” (p. 2).
 |
| Meek, Champion, & Klier (2012). *Fit for release: How sports-based learning can help prisoners engage in education, gain employment and desist from crime.* | Can’t find copy |  |  |
| Nichols & Taylor (1996). *West Yorkshire probation service sports counselling project final evaluating report.* | Can’t find copy |  |  |
| Robins (1990). *Sport as prevention: The role of sport in crime prevention programmes aimed at young people.* | Can’t find copy |  |  |

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| **Interventions designed to change criminal lifestyle through mentoring**  |
| Danish Crime Prevention Council. (2012). *The effectiveness of mentoring and leisure-time activities for youth at risk: A systematic review.* | RTN |  |  |
| Johnson (2004). Religious programs and recidivism among former inmates in prison fellowship programs: A long-term follow-up study. | Quasi-experimentalMatched comparison group Up to eight year follow up | * U.S.A.
* 201 males participated in at least one of three activities.
* Mean age 32 years
* Race (47% black, 12% white, 40% Hispanic).
* Compared with almost 40,000 inmates.
 | * “There was no difference between the Prison Fellowship (PF) and non-PF groups on either measure of recidivism – rearrest or reincarceration, throughout the 8 year follow up period” (p. 351).
* “Dividing the sample into groups of high and low levels of participation in Bible studies produced significant differences in survival curves using 2- and 3- year endpoints” (pp. 351-352).
* “Only 27% of the high participation group were rearrested within 2 years compared to 46% of the low participation group. This difference was smaller after 3 years (41% versus 56%). The survival analyses revealed reliable differences in curves using the 2- and 3-year endpoints (p < .05 in each case)” (p. 343).
* “The median time to rearrest was 17 to 18 months longer among individuals in the high participation group, or 3.8 years versus 2.3 years” (pp. 351-352).
 |
| Jolliffe & Farrington (2007). *A rapid evidence assessment of the impact of mentoring on re-offending: A summary*. | Rapid evidence assessment | * U.K. (*n=*2), U.S.A. (*n=*16).
* No demographic details provided.
 | * “18 studies, seven showed statistically significant positive impact on re-offending (*p*=<.05). Overall, the results suggested that mentoring significantly reduced subsequent offending by 4 to 11 percent, but this result was primarily driven by studies of lower methodological quality. The best studies designed to provide the most accurate assessment of the impact of mentoring, did not suggest the mentoring caused a statistically significant reduction in re-offending” (p. 3).
 |
| LaVigne, Brazzell, & Small (2007). *Evaluation of Florida’s faith- and character-based institutions: Final report.* | Quasi-experimental Two matched comparison groups | * U.S.A.
* 696 males, 261 female -545 male and 150 female entered the program during the study.
* Male-42% white, 55% African American, 2.6% Hispanic, average 36.5 years.
* Female-59.4% white, 37.9% African American, 2.7% Hispanic.
* Study created two matched comparison groups (*n*= 189 males, *n*= 100 females) that had been released at least 6 months prior to the study end date.
 | * Staff, inmates and volunteers find value in the FCBI model and believe that it is achieving its goals of changing inmate behaviours, preparing inmates for successful re-entry and reducing recidivism (p. ix).
* “For the male FCBI inmates who were reincarcerated during the study, the average time to reincarceration was 371 days, while the average for the male comparison group was 262 days. The difference is large (109 days) but not statistically significant. None of the 189 male FCBI inmates included in the outcome analysis were reincarcerated within 6 months of their release, while 4 (2.1 percent) of the 189 male inmates in the matched comparison group were reincarcerated during that time. This difference was statistically significant at the 0.05 level” (pp. 44-45).
* “Analyzed a subset of inmates from the matched samples who were released at least one year prior to the study end date. Just 1 (1.8 percent) of the 56 FCBI inmates and 2 (2.4 percent) of the 82 comparison group inmates were reincarcerated within their first year out. This difference was not statistically significant, likely due to the small number of cases” (p. 45).
* “As with the male inmates, the average time to reincarceration for the female FCBI inmates who were reincarcerated (385 days) was longer than for the female comparison group (318 days). The difference for the females, 67 days, is less than for the males and was not statistically significant. None of the 100 female FCBI inmates and 1 (1.0 percent) of the 100 female comparison inmates in the outcome analysis were reincarcerated within six months of release. This difference was not statistically significant, due at least in part to the small number of cases. For those inmates released at least one year prior to the study end date, 1 (1.9 percent) of 54 female FCBI inmates and 4 (6.5 percent) of 62 female comparison inmates were reincarcerated in the first year, but again, this difference is not statistically significant” (pp. 45-46).
 |
| Rogers (2011). Evaluating community-based interventions for young people: measuring the impact of informal mentoring. | * Can’t find copy
 |  |  |
| Taxman (2009). No illusions: Offender and organizational change in Maryland’s proactive community supervision efforts. | Quasi-experimentalRandom selection-individual match design  | * U.S.A.
* 274 Proactive Community Supervision model (PCS) and 274 non-PCS cases.
* PCS - 83% male, 85% African American, 53.3% over the age of 30, mean age 33.9.
* Non-PCS – 83% male, 85% African American, 54% over the age of 30, mean age 33.8.
 | * “Offenders who were supervised in the new style were less likely to be rearrested (30% for the PCS and 42% of the non-PCS sample *p <* 0.01) and less likely to have a warrant issued for technical violations (34.7% of the PCS group and 40% for the non-PCS group *p<* 0.10)” (p. 275).
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| ***Interventions designed to change criminal lifestyles through employment and education******Area 3: Employment, education and lifestyle change*** |
| Bellotti, Derr, & Paxton (2008). *Examining a new model for prisoner re-entry services: The evaluation of beneficiary choice.*  | Non-experimentalCompared to state administrative data | * U.S.A.
* 2,382 participants aged between 18-29.
* 88.3% male, 11.7% female, Race- 34.7% white, 58.6% black, .04 Asian, 4.2% American Indian or Alaskan Native, 0.9% Hawaiian Native or other Pacific Islander and 1.2% multiracial.
 | * “65% of participants received a placement in unsubsidized employment, placements were made an average of nine weeks after enrolment” (p. xvii). But there was quite a variation across the five locations
* “34% of participants were rearrested for a new crime within one year of release (compared to nationwide study of 44%)” (p. xvii).
* “Study showed a *strong relationship* between an offender’s age and probability of recidivating, with younger offenders more likely to recidivate than older offenders. This suggest that the rearrest rate for Beneficiary Choice participants is lower than the national rate for offenders between 18 and 29 years” (p. xvii).
 |
| Burghardt, Schocket, McConnell, Johnson, Gritz, Glazerman, Homrighausen, & Jackson (2001). *Does Job Corps work? Summary of the national Job Corps study.* | ExperimentalEligible participants randomly assigned to program group or control groupTwo year follow up | * U.S.A.
* 11,313 youths, retained about 80% of group at the 48-month interview.
* 59% male, 29% females without children, 12% females with children
* 46% aged 16-17, 32% aged 18-19, 27% aged 20-24
* 48% black, 27% white, 18% Hispanic, 8% American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander, other.
 | * “93% of program group engaged in some education or training, compared to 72% of the control group. Job Corps increased the education and training that program participants received, despite the activity of the control group” (pp. 12-13).
* “Significantly reduced arrest and conviction rates, as well as time spent incarcerated. 33% of control group and 29% of program group members were arrested during the 48 month follow-up period” (p<.05) (p. 16).
 |
| Lloyd, Gowland, Turczuk, & White (2011)*. Monitoring and evaluation of intensive intervention projects for young people.*  | Non-experimentalSelf-report questionnaire  | * U.K.
* 20 intensive intervention projects
* 1,836 referred, 61% accepted into programs – 1,117.
* Results for the 790 who exited an Intensive Intervention Project (IIP) or been working an IIP for at least eight months.
* 74% male, 78% from a white ethnic background, average (median) age 14 years.
 | * “49% of young people who left an IIP were recorded as having successfully completed their intervention and achieved a positive outcome” (p. 1).
* “60% had fewer crimes and ASB issues between starting and leaving the IIP” (p. 1).
* “Young people were least likely to have achieved a successful outcome in relation to school attendance (38%) and for those over 16 years being not in education, employment or training (NEET) or at risk of being NEET” (25%) (p. 33).
 |
| Martin, Hernandez, Hernandez-Fernaud, Arregui, & Hernandez (2010). The enhancement effect of social and employment integration on the delay of recidivism of released offenders training with the R&R programme.  | Quasi-experimentalComparison group of inmates who received only social-cognitive training with group of inmates who also received social and employment integration and with a comparison group received neither of these interventions.6 year follow up | * Spain.
* 117 offenders.
* 87 male and 30 female, ranged in age 19 to 60 years (*M=* 38).
 | * “67.5% of the sample had not returned to prison after a 6 year follow up” (p. 406).
* “The group that received social and employment integration had the highest level of delayed recidivism, but the difference with the group that only received social-cognitive training was not statistically significant” (p. 401).
 |
| Paternoster, Bushway, Brame, & Apel (2003). Effect of teenage employment on delinquency and problem behaviors.  | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal data | * U.S.A.
* National Longitudinal Survey of Youth data (NLSY97)6,557 respondents when studying delinquency, 6,564 when studying substance abuse, 6,666 when studying problem behavior
* 1999 – last wave demographics – average age 16.99, male 50.63%
* 14.81% black, 12.52 Hispanic
 | * The relationship between intensive school-year work and delinquency/problem behaviours is largely spurious and intensive work is not likely to be detrimental to youths (p. 325).
* “There is a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between working more than 20 hours a week during the school year and the probability of committing a delinquent act (β=.157, *p*< .01). Specifically, the coefficient means that there is a 20% increase in the probability of committing a delinquent act if an individual works more than 20 hours per week during the school year” (p. 316).
* “Strong positive relationship between intensive school-year work and substance use (β = .590, *p* <.01). This coefficient indicates that on average there is a 31% increase in the probability of substance use as a result of working intensively during the school year” (p. 319).
* “Work intensity is positive and significant in the probit model with no covariates, (β = *.110, p*< .01). The effect is slightly smaller than with delinquency and substance use, with increasing school year work intensity only associated with a 17% increase in the probability of problem behaviour” (p. 321).
* “Although people who work intensively during the school year over all three waves are more likely to be involved in problem behaviors than people who do not, moving from not working to working intensively during the school year results in a 20% reduction in the probability of problem behaviors” (p. 322).
* RTN
 |
| Redcross, Bloom, Azurdia, Zweig, & Pindus (2009). *Transitional jobs for ex-prisoners: Implementation, two-year impacts, and costs of the center for employment opportunities (CEO) prisoner re-entry program.*  | ExperimentalRandom assignment Control groupTwo year follow up | * U.S.A.
* 977 ex-prisoners – 568 program group and 409 control group.
* Full sample - 93% male, 1.8% white non-Hispanic, 64.4% black non-Hispanic, 30.6% Hispanic, 3.2% other.
* 57% over 30 years old average age 34.
* Participants range 18 years – 41 years or older.
 | * Large but short-lived increase in employment, the increase was driven by the transitional jobs (*p*<.001) (p. iii & 40).
* Reduced recidivism during both the first and the second year of the study period. The program group was significantly less likely than the control group to be convicted of a crime (*p<.*011), to be admitted to prison for a new conviction (*p<.*07), or to be incarcerated for any reason in prison or jail during the first two years of the study period (*p<*.06) (p. iii & 64).
 |
| Redcross, Bloom, Jacobs, Manno, Muller-Ravettl, Seefeldt, et al. (2010). *Work after prison: One year-findings from the transitional jobs re-entry demonstration.*  | *Experimental* *Random assignment**One year follow up**TJRD – Transitional Jobs Reentry Demonstration* | * U.S.A.
* Sample 1,813 men.
* Average age 35 years.
* TJRD sample 81% black/African American.
 | * “During the year following random assignment, there were no significant impacts on the percentage of the sample that was arrested, convicted, or admitted to prison. 39 percent of the transitional jobs (TJ) group and 35 percent of the job search (JS) group was arrested, a difference that is not statistically significant” (p. 93).
* “Overall, the TJ programs had no consistent impacts on recidivism during the first year of follow-up” (p. iii).
* “Despite the lack of significant impacts on the percentage admitted to prison, the transitional jobs programs reduced the number of days spent in prison in Year 1 by about seven days” (*p<*.04) (p. 95).
 |
| Schochet, Burghardt, & McConnell (2006). *National job corps study and longer-term follow-up study: Impact and benefit-cost findings using survey and summary earnings records data.* | ExperimentalRandom assignmentControl groupTwo year follow up | * U.S.A.
* For participants aged between 16-24 years old.
* 11,313 youths (2 year follow up) 6,828 program group, 4,485 control group members.
* 59% male, 29% females without children, 12% females with children
* 27% white, 48% Black, 18% Hispanic, 8% other.
 | * “Arrest rate was reduced by 16 percent (*p*<.01), and similar reductions were found also for conviction and incarceration rates. Reductions in criminal activity were found across all youth subgroups” (p. 3)
 |
| Schochet, Burghardt, & McConnell (2008). Does job corps work? Impact findings from the national job corps study.  | ExperimentalRandom assignmentControl groupTwo year follow up | * U.S.A.
* Nationwide sample of 15,400 treatments and controls.
* For participants aged between 16-24 years old.
* 11,313 youths (6,828 treatments and 4,485 controls)
* 59% male, 29% females without children, 12% females with children
* 27% white, 48% Black, 18% Hispanic, 8% other.
 | * “Job Corps significantly reduced arrest and conviction rates, as well as time spent incarcerated. About 33 percent of controls were arrested during the 48-month follow-up period, compared to 29 percent of treatments” (*p<*.05) (p. 1874).
* “Arrest rate reductions were largest during the first year after random assignment, although Job Corps also led to small arrest reductions afterwards. Although treatments were less likely to have arrest charges for all categories of crimes. Job Corps had a larger impact on reducing arrests for less serious crimes (such as disorderly conduct and trespassing) than for more serious crimes (such as murder and aggravated assault)” (p. 1874).
* “Job Corps also reduced conviction rates by 3 percent points per eligible applicant (from 25 to 22 percent), and incarceration rates for convictions for 2 percentage points (from 18 to 16 percent)” (p. 1874).
 |
| Schochet, McConnell, & Burghardt (2003). *National job corps study: Findings using administrative earnings record data.* | ExperimentalRandom assignmentProgram and control group comparisonFour year follow up | * U.S.A.
* 11,313 youths (2 year follow up) 6,828 program group, 4,485 control group members.
* Age range 16 to 24 at intake.
* 59.4% male, 28.9% female without children, and 11.7% female with children,
* White 27.1%, black 47.7%, Hispanic 17.7% and other 7.6%.
 | * Job Corps substantially increases the education and training services that youths receive (*p<*.01) it also improves their educational attainment and literacy (p<.10).
* “There are no long-term impacts on earnings” (p. 3).
* Significantly reduces involvement with crime, arrest rate was reduced by 16 percent (*p<*.01), similar reductions were found for conviction and incarceration rates (*p<*.01) (p. 3).
 |
| Secretary of State for Education and Skills. (2005). *Reducing re-offending through skills and employment.* |  |  |  |
| Sweeten, Bushway, & Paternoster (2009). Does dropping out of school mean dropping into delinquency? | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal data (NLSY97) | * U.S.A.
* National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997 Cohort
* 8,112 with 4,129 males and 3,983 females aged 12-17 years old
 | * “Leaving school early for economic reasons in one time period leads to less delinquency in subsequent periods for males only (*b* = –.767, *p* < .05). This substantial immediate reduction in the odds of offending after dropout for economic reasons among males decays over time. Coupled with the within-individual years since dropout estimate, it seems that this inhibitory effect of dropout for economic reasons lasts about 2 years. Males who drop out for unclassifiable reasons, however, commit more crime in subsequent periods (*b* = .278, *p* < .05). But this result is transitory, and it decays within 3 years. For females, once again, there is no evidence of a causal effect of any kind of dropout on delinquency” (p. 75).
 |
| Uggen (2000). Work as a turning point in the life course of criminals: A duration model of age, employment, and recidivism.  | ExperimentalControl groupRandomisationData used collected in large-scale experimental employment program, the National Supported Work Demonstration Project | * U.S.A.
* Age (mean) control 24.6 and treatment 25.2, male control 92%, male treatment 91.6%,
* African American control 76.2%, African American treatment 76.9%, White control 11.1%, white treatment 11.7%, Latino control 12.3%, Latino treatment 11%.
* Number of cases in control ranged from 1,937 to 2,210 and for treatment group the number cases ranged from 1,821 to 2,052.
 | * “Age is found to interact with employment to affect the rate of self-reported recidivism. Those aged 27 or older are less likely to report crime and arrest when provided with marginal employment opportunities than when such opportunities are not provided. Among young participants, those in their teens and early twenties, the experimental job treatment had little effect on crime. Work thus appears to be a turning point for older, but not younger, offenders” (p. 529).
* RTN
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| Wadsworth (2006). The meaning of work: Conceptualizing the deterrent effect of employment on crime among young adults.  | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal data | * U.S.A.
* National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NYSY) data
* 3,136 males and females, age range 18-20 in 1979.
 | * “Findings suggest that quality of employment has a stronger influence on individuals’ involvement in both economic and noneconomic criminal behaviour than do income, job stability, educational achievement, and a variety of background factors” (p. 343).
* RTN to interpret tables
 |
| Weerman (2010). Delinquency after secondary school: Exploring the consequences of schooling, working, dropout. | Quasi-experimental Pre and post-testNo control | * Netherlands.
* 273 youths
* Aged between 17 and 19 years old, mean age 17.98.
* 56% girls, 44% boys, 50.5% ethnic minorities.
 | * “Educational careers do affect changes in delinquency, independently from other factors. Respondents who had attention or other problems in their further education and, in particular, respondents who combined schooling and work appeared to have increased their level of delinquency most strongly (*p*<.01). Respondents who left school for a full-time job were not significantly more involved in delinquency” (p. 330).
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| ***Other factors affecting criminal lifestyles– family, relationships, age, relocation, peers, housing, etc.******Family/relationships:*** |
| Barnes, Golden, Mancin, Boutwell, Beaver, & Diamond (2011). Marriage and involvement in crime: A consideration of reciprocal effects in a nationally representative sample. | Quasi-experimental Random sampling Longitudinal data | * U.S.A.
* Wave 4 data – 24-34 years of age, 15,701 respondents
* National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health data
 | * “Findings reveal mixed support for the effect of marriage on crime. The marriage effect is observed in one of the cross-lagged models but not in the reciprocal effectors model” (p. 230).
 |
| Beijers, Bijleveld, & van Poppel (2012). ‘Man’s best possession’: Period effects in the association between marriage and offending. | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal study | * Netherlands.
* Starting point of sample 198 adolescent males placed in reform school between 1911 and 1914 (classified as high-risk sample). All descendants from this generation were followed up – children, grandchildren and great-grandchildren to two distinct periods 1930-70 and 1971-2006
* 971 males who had offended once - 832 had married at least once and 139 had never married.
* Age range 18-45 years.
 | * “Married and unmarried men in the first marriage cohort did not differ in the prevalence of their offending. This means that the men who got married and stayed married for at least 10 years between 1938 and 1970 were equally likely to offend after marriage as the unmarried sample members of the same age (OR = 0.84, CI95 = 0.31–2.24)” (p. 433).
* “Those who married between 1971 and 1998 (1997 taken as a last marriage year because then the last marrying men also had a full 10 years of exposure) were significantly less likely to offend (OR = 0.46, CI95 = 0.30–0.71) than their unmarried cohort members” (p. 434).
* “Marriage is associated with a reduced likelihood of offending among high-risk men who married after 1970 in the Netherlands. For men who had married before 1970, no such effect was found” (p. 438).
 |
| Bersami, Laub, & Nieuwbeerta (2009). | Quasi-experimentalData Criminal Career and Life-Course Study (CCLS) – Longitudinal Study | * Netherlands.
* Nearly 4,615 males and females convicted in 1977. 4,187 males and 428 females
* Age range 12-55
 | * “Find that the effect of marriage on offending is significantly different for men and women. Being in the state of marriage is associated with a 36% (1 - exp(-0.443)) decrease in the odds of a conviction for men and a 21% (1 - exp(-0.443 + 0.212)) decrease in the odds of a conviction for women. That is, the effect of marriage for women is significantly lower than that for men; however, for both men and women, being in the state of marriage is associated with a decrease in the odds of a conviction” (pp. 14-15).
* “Compared to group 1 (the oldest group), the effect of marriage significantly differs for group 3 (the youngest group). Being in the state of marriage is associated with a 28% (1 -exp(-0.325)) decrease in the odds of a conviction for individuals in group 1, it is associated with a 33% (1 - exp(-0.325 + -0.073)) decrease for group 2, whereas being in the state of marriage is associated with a 45% (1 - exp(-0.325 + -0.275)) decrease in the odds of a conviction for group 3. Stated simply, the good marriage effect is strongest in the most contemporary context” (p. 15).
 |
| Blokland & Nieuwbeerta (2005). | Quasi-experimentalSelf-report and conviction history dataDutch national crime survey60 year follow up Longitudinal study Criminal Career and Life Course Study data | * Netherlands.
* *n=*4,615 of individuals whose criminal case was tried in 1977.
* 1996 – *n*=2,244 aged 15 years or older
 | * “Results indicate that life circumstances substantially influence the chances of criminal behaviour, and that the effects of these circumstances on offending differ across offender groups. Age-graded changes in life circumstances, however, explain the aggregate age-crime relationship only to a modest extent” (p. 1203).
* “The results first show that, even after controlling for trajectory group membership and between-individual differences, the development of offending is still significantly affected by within-individual differences in life circumstances over time. For example, for those in the CCLS low-rate trajectory group, marriage is associated with a 27 percent (exp(-0.321)= 0.73) drop in conviction rates. Thus, the same individual while married is less likely to be convicted than when he is not married. Separation again increases the rate of convictions, leaving individuals when separated 44 percent (exp(0.362)=1.44) more likely to be convicted than when they were married, and 4 percent (exp(-0.321+0.362)=1.04) more likely than when they were single. The same is true for offenders in the moderate rate trajectory group. Parenthood does not seem to influence the development of offending. Based on these results, the static hypothesis regarding the effects of life circumstances must be rejected in favor of dynamic ones” (p. 1224).
* “High-rate offenders however are not entirely immune to changes in life circumstances: being divorced, compared to being single, acted as a catalyst and boosts the offense rate by 13 percent (exp(-0.207 +0.325)=1.13)” (p. 1225)
 |
| Craig & Foster (2013). Desistance in the transition to adulthood: The roles of marriage, military, and gender. | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal study | * U.S.A.
* National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health data, wave I public use data includes 6,504 and wave III 3,355 respondents.
* 49% females, average age (2001) 21 years old
* 66% white, 16% African American, 12% Hispanic, 6% other.
 | * “Marriage (*p<*.001) but not military (*p=*.25) involvement led to desistance. However, gender sub-sample analyses further showed military enlistment led females, but not males, to desist from crime” (p. 208).
* “For the female sub-sample includes both ever being in the military and currently being married. The results show that ever being in the military decreases delinquent behaviour among females (b= -.29, *p*<.01). Also for this group, currently being married is protective of delinquency (b= -.21, *p*<.05)” (p. 217).
* “Among males, currently being married is associated with a decrease in delinquency at Wave III (b= -.70, p<.001)” (p. 218).
* “Both current military involvement (b= -.45, p<.001) and serving in the reserves (b= -.28, p<.01) showed protective influences among females” (p. 218).
 |
| Doherty & Ensminger (2013). Marriage and offending among a cohort of disadvantaged African Americans.  | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal study followed up at three time points (ages 16, 32, and 42) | * U.S.A.
* African American male and female first graders first assessed in 1966
* Included those that had been arrested between the ages of 17-32.
* 965 respondents – 461 males (49%) and 504 females (51%).
 | * “Found strong evidence of a marriage effect for the males across crime type, with a reduction in offending between 21% and 36% when in a state of marriage. The findings for females were less consistent across crime type, a 10% reduction in the odds of a property arrest and a 9% increase in the odds of a drug arrest when in a state of marriage” (pp. 1-2).
 |
| Giordano, Seffrin, Manning, & Longmore (2011). Parenthood and crime: The role of wantedness, relationships with partners, and ses.  | Quasi-experimental Toledo Adolescent Relationship (TARS) Longitudinal Study dataRandom sampleStudy ranged up to 75 months | * U.S.A.
* 1,066 (566 females and 500 males).
* Approximately 65% white, 24% Black and 11% Hispanic.
 | * “Status of the relationship (married or cohabiting and single) was in general not a strong predictor (of criminal involvement). Highly disadvantaged young men and women are not as likely as more advantaged young adults to evidence lower levels of criminal behaviour after becoming parents, however, wanted pregnancies may reduce female involvement in crime regardless of socioeconomic status” (*p<*.05) (p. 405).
 |
| Kerr, Capaldi, Owen, Wiesner, & Pears (2011). Changes in at-risk American men’s crime and substance use trajectories following fatherhood. | Quasi-experimental?Longitudinal study 20 yearsSelf report data | * U.S.A.
* 191 men recruited in 1983-1985, 90% white
* 191 men retained, mean age 32 years.
 | * “Marriage was associated with lower levels of crime and less frequent substance use. Following the birth of the first biological child, men’s crime trajectories showed slope decreases (*est.* = −*.*030, *p < .*01), and tobacco (*est.* = −*.*156, *p < .*01) and alcohol (*est.* = −*.*148 and−*.*031, *p < .*05) use trajectories showed level decreases” (p. 1101).
* “The older men were when they became fathers, the greater the level decreases were in crime (*est.* = −*.*032, *p < .*05) and alcohol use and the less the slope decreases were in tobacco and marijuana use (p. 1101).
 |
| King, Massoglia, & MacMillan (2007). The context of marriage and crime: Gender, the propensity to marry, and offending in early adulthood. | Quasi-experimental NYS longitudinal data | * U.S.A.
* Wave 7 respondents age range 21-27 years
* Original sample 1,725 respondents, 80% of sample retained.
 | * “Marriage suppresses offending for males, even when accounting for their likelihood to marry. Males who are least likely to marry seem to benefit most from this institution” (*p*<.05) (p. 34).
* “The influence of marriage on crime is less robust for females, where marriage reduces crime only for those with moderate propensities to marry” (p. 34).
 |
| Kraeger, Matsueda, & Erosheva (2010). Motherhood and criminal desistance in disadvantaged neighborhoods. | Quasi-experimental10 year longitudinal study Denver youth survey data  | * U.S.A.
* 567 women
* 10% white, 45% Latinos, 33% blacks, 12% other.
 | * The transition to motherhood is associated significantly with reductions in delinquency (decline between ages 18 and 26: ([.211 × 26] + [−.0056 ×26^2]) − ([.211 × 18] + [−.0056 × 18^2]) = –.28), marijuana, and alcohol behaviours (*t* statistic = 3.43, *p* < .001).
* “Moreover, we find that the effect of motherhood is larger than that of marriage for all outcomes. These results support the qualitative findings and suggest that the transition to motherhood – and not marriage – is the primary turning point for disadvantaged women to exit delinquent and drug-using trajectories” (p. 222).
 |
| Lyngstad & Skarðhamar (2011). Understanding the marriage effect: Changes in criminal offending around the time of marriage.  | Quasi-experimentalNorwegian register data | * Norway.
* Men who entered martial unions in the years 1995-2001, *n=*120,821 participants.
* Age range 20-49.
 | * “Show a gradual and substantial decrease in offending levels during the five years prior to marriage, followed by a small but a non-trivial increase after the formalization of the relationship. Overall the decade around the martial event is characterized by major strides towards criminal desistance. However, the effect of martial event is negligible relative to the amount of desistance that takes place prior to marriage” (p. 3).
* RTN for tables
 |
| Massoglia & Uggen (2007). Subjective desistance and the transition to adulthood. | Quasi-experimental Youth Development Study- longitudinal survey  | * U.S.A.
* 1,000 students.
* 75% white and 43% male.
* In 2002 most respondents were 29-30 years of age.
 | * “By age 29 to 30, most individuals have moved away from crime, and this was true for all measures of desistance. When desistance is measured by arrest, the great majority (85%) of individuals have desisted. Among the four indicators, the conceptualization and measurement of desistance through official arrest yield the highest level of desistance. The self-reported behavioral outcome, in contrast, indicates significantly less desistance than the arrest-based measure. This difference between official desistance (85%) and behavioral desistance (65%) is likely to be a result of undetected crime, official biases, and low-level behavioral deviance that fails to attract the attention of law enforcement authorities. The prevalence rates of subjective desistance (72%) and reference group desistance (60%) suggest that these conceptualizations capture movement away from crime at levels roughly similar to more traditional measures of desistance” (p. 95).
* “A quality relationship increases the odds of subjective desistance by 72% (logit = 0.543), reference group desistance by 89% (logit = 0.638), behavioral desistance by 102% (logit = 0.704), and official desistance by more than 250% (logit = 1.313).3 The estimate for relationship quality is thus the strongest in magnitude and the most consistent predictor across the measures of desistance considered in our analysis” (p. 98).
 |
| Moloney, MacKenzie, Hunt, & Joe-Laidler (2009). The path and promise of fatherhood for gang members.  | Non-experimentalFace-to-face interviews which consisted of quantitative and qualitative interview methods | * U.S.A.
* 91 gang members
* Latinos/Hispanics 31%, African Americans 30%, and Filipino-Americans 27%, others 13%.
* Median 23 years, age range 16 to 44 years.
 | * “Fatherhood initiated important subjective and affective transformations that led to changes in outlook, priorities and future orientation. However, these subjective changes were not sufficient unless accompanied by two additional features: first, changes in the amount of time spent on the streets and, second, an ability to support oneself or one’s family with legal income. Though fatherhood is no panacea, becoming a father did act as an important turning point toward desistance and motivator for change for some” (p. 305).
 |
| National Centre for Social Research (2010). ASB family intervention projects: Monitoring and evaluation.  | Non-experimental FIP – Family Intervention Project | * U.K.
* 2655 families accepted an ASB FIP intervention – 1030 completed the intervention with a formal, planned exit (17 were return families)
* 89% white.
 | * “Based on 1013 families that formally completed intervention – anti-social behaviour (ASB) had decreased from 89% to 32%, - with four or more ASB problems declined from 45% to 5%, -multiple other reductions in housing enforcement, truancy, exclusion, and bad behaviour, child protection concerns, mental health problems, domestic violence concerns, drug or substance misuse decline, and drinking problems/alcoholism decline” (pp. 5-6).
* “Early indications suggest that those outcomes are sustained for the 108 families who have been followed up 9 to 14 months after they exited from a FIP intervention” (p. 6).
 |
| Negura & Deslauriers (2010). Work and lifestyle: Social representations among young fathers.  | Quantitative and qualitative longitudinal study – interviews and socio-demographic questionnaire (interviewed twice during pregnancy and twice during child’s first year). | * Canada.
* 30 young fathers
* All Caucasians
* Mean age 193 when pregnancy was announced.
 | * “Social representations of work and lifestyle contributed to the creation of a new identity as a father and that those psycho-social dynamics had an impact on the social integration of the young fathers. Study highlights two developments in the discourse of these adolescents and young adults who, through their desire to enter the labour market and their intention to adopt pro-social behaviour and improve lifestyle, indicated their engagement – at times shaky, at times firm – in a dynamic of social integration” (p. 2652).
 |
| Pawson, Davidson, Sosenko, Flint, Nixon, Casey & Sanderson (2009). *Evaluation of intensive family support projects in Scotland.* | Non-experimentalInterviews with staff, referral agencies, key stakeholders and familiesSES and housing data | * U.K.
* 78 in-depth interviews undertaken with members from 51 families.
 | * “Across all five projects 70% of families whose cases were closed during the evaluation period successfully completed their agreed support programme” (p. 5).
* “Project staff assessed 81% of families as being at reduced risk of homelessness/eviction by the time their cases were closed… it would appear that complaints of antisocial behaviour had reduced in 94% of cases” (p. 5).
 |
| Rocque, Bierie, Posik, & MacKenzie (2013). | ExperimentalSurvey data from inmates at start and end of six month prison termData from the Maryland Correctional Boot Camp EvaluationRandom assignment to prison or boot camp | * U.S.A.
* 199 male participants
* Mean age 23.27, age range 17-35.
* 85% African American
 | * “Changes in social relationships (*p* = .045) predict recidivism, whereas improvements in prosocial beliefs do not. The data also suggest that the level of prosocial belief (*p <* .05) at release is significantly related to recidivism, whereas the level of attachment is not” (p. 210).
 |
| Rönkä, Oravala, & Pulkkene (2002). I met this wife of mine and things got onto a better track: Turning points in risk development.  | Quasi-experimental?Jyväskylä Longitudinal Study of Personality and Social Development data Random selectionSurveySemi-structured interviews | * Finland
* 196 boys and 173 girls followed from age 8 to age 36
* Sample at aged 35-36 – 143 male, and 135 women
 | * “Individuals with an unsuccessful childhood constructed their life courses less often in terms of education, work and social transitions compared to others. Those who were managing well in their lives at age 36, despite several risk factors in childhood (resilients) reported positive experiences and plenty of choice in relation to their turning points” (p. 47).
* “Participants in the vulnerable subgroup, for their part, perceived turning points more negatively, and reported few opportunities for personal choice. Results indicate that childhood experiences influence the content of turning points in adult life by shaping the direction of actual life paths. The quality of current life, however, has a greater bearing on the way turning points are evaluated” (p. 47).
* RTN to results
 |
| Sampson, Laub, & Wimer (2006). Does marriage reduce crime? A counterfactual approach to within-individual casual effects. | Quasi-experimentalLongitudinal study | * U.S.A.
* Original sample - 500 boys aged 10 to 32,
* Subsample 52 followed to age 70 interviewed.
 | * States of marriage casually inhibit crime over the life course (p. 465).
* “Both models produce a highly significant lagged effect of marriage at ages 17 to 32. Without controls for contemporaneous marital change, model 1 yields a significant (*p* < .001) marriage effect, with an event rate ratio of .74, meaning that being married at a particular age is linked to roughly a 25 percent reduction in crime at the next age. Model 2, however, suggests that contemporaneous change—or moving into marriage—is highly significantly related to lower crime as well. Once we adjust for contemporaneous change, the lagged causal effect of marriage is now even stronger (event rate ratio = .61, CI = .54, .70). Consideration of the underlying event rate ratio for lagged marriage reveals that being married is associated with 39 percent reduction in crime in the next age period, controlling for changes in that period. Lagged marriage and current change are correlated (.33, *p* < .001), such that failure to adjust current change (model 1) appears to underestimate the lagged marriage effect” (p. 493).
 |
| Savolainen (2009). Work, family and criminal desistance: Adult social bonds in a Nordic welfare state. | National sample of felony offenders convicted in 1996 | * Finland.
* *n=* 1,325 males
* Aged 18-49 years old.
 | * “Finds support for the basic assumption of Sampson and Laub’s theory of age-graded informal social control, as well as the general contention that the restraining capacity of adult life course transitions is sensitive to the culture context in which they are embedded” (p. 285).
* RTN to results
 |
| Skarðhamar & Lyngstad (2009). *Family formation, fatherhood and crime: An invitation to a broader perspective on crime and family transitions.* | Administrative register data | * Norway.
* FD-Trygd database and the criminal statistics register system.
* Male participants (sample sizes p. 10).
 | * “Marriage, cohabitation, and fatherhood all are important aspects of the family formation process. Find some support for the hypothesis that family formation inhibits criminal behaviours, but results are less clear-cut than those reported by previous research. Most importantly, the declines in offending in the years prior to experiencing family transitions do not seem to be of a permanent nature” (p. 1).
* RTN to results
 |
| Stouthamer-Loeber, Wei, Loeber, & Masten (2004). Desistance from persistent serious delinquency in the transition to adulthood. | Quasi-experimental Longitudinal studyPittsburgh Youth Study  | * U.S.A.
* *n=* 506 boys, about half were African American, half Caucasian.
* Followed from ages 13-25.
 | * “About one-thid became persistent serious delinquents between ages 13 and 19. Out of that group, almost 40% desisted in serious offending between ages 120 and 25” (p. 897).
* “Following promotive factors were associated with desistance: low physical punishment by parents in early adolescence and being employed or in school in early adulthood” (p. 897)
* “The following risk factors were inversely associated with desistance during early adulthood: serious delinquency during late adolescence, hard drug use, gang membership, and positive perceptions of problem behaviour in early adulthood (p. 897).
* RTN to results
 |
| Theobald & Farrington (2009). Effects of getting married on offending: Results from a prospective longitudinal survey of males.  | Quasi-experimental Cambridge study in Delinquent Development – longitudinal survey. | * U.K.
* 411 males followed up from age 8 to age 48
* Sample 162 convicted males.
 | * “Results showed that getting married was followed by a reduction in offending but only for early (age 18-21) and mid-range (age 22-24) marriages” (p. 496).
* “1.70 convictions (on average) during the five years before marriage, compared with 0.53 during the five years after marriage; their controls incurred 1.51 convictions during the five years before marriage, compared with 1.00 during the five years after marriage” (p. 502).
* “Comparing five years before with five years after marriage, the decrease in convictions after marriage of cases was double that of controls for early marriages, and there was a very similar pattern for mid-range marriages (73 percent for cases versus 35 percent for controls). Similar results were obtained in an analysis comparing prior convictions from age 10 to the age of marriage with subsequent convictions in the ten years after marriage (an 80% decrease for cases vs a 60% decrease for controls; t-test not significant)” (p. 503).
* RTN to results
 |
| Theobald & Farrington (2011). Why do the crime-reduction effects of marriage vary with age? | Quasi-experimental Cambridge study in Delinquent Development – longitudinal survey. | * U.K.
* *n=* 411 males, 111 in study.
* Aged 18 and older
 | * “It was previously found that men who marry relatively early reduce their offending behaviour after marriage, unlike those who marry relatively later. Further analyses confirmed that the original findings were not caused by regression to the mean” (p. 136).
* “Comparisons between those who married at age 25 or older and those who married at 18-24 on risk factors at age 8-32 suggest that the later-married men tended to be more nervous, more likely to have experienced a broken home, to be drug users and binge-drinkers, to maintain aggressive attitudes from age 18 to 21, and to continue to go out with their male friends after marriage” (p. 136).
* “The later-married men tended to marry older women who had less influence than younger women on their offending behaviour. They were more likely to be long-term low-rate offenders than those who married early” (p. 136).
 |
| Woodward, Fergusson, & Horwood (2002). Romantic relationships of young people with childhood and adolescent onset antisocial behaviour problems. | Quasi-experimental Christchurch Health and Development Study (CHDS)Longitudinal study | * New Zealand.
* Original sample – 1,265 children – 635 males and 630 females born in 1977.
* Used sample of 495 (201 males, 294 females)
 | * “Results revealed the presence of clear linear associations between the developmental timing of antisocial behaviour and alter partnership risks, with these risks including partner violence perpetrated and victimization, interpartner conflict, and increased ambivalence about the relationship” (p. 231).
 |
| Zoutewelle-Terovan, Geest, Liefbroer, & Bijleveld (2012). Criminality and family formation: Effects of marriage and parenthood on criminal behavior for men and women. | Quasi-experimental Longitudinal data21 year follow up | * Netherlands.
* 540 – 270 men and 270 women born between 1969 and 1977.
 | * “Findings for men support the hypothesis that marriage promotes desistance from serious offending (37% reduction (*p<.*01)). Males additionally benefit from parenthood (33% reduction (*p*<.001), and from having a first child (36% reduction) in particular. Furthermore, although parenthood reduces offending more strongly than marriage, the ‘full family package’ brings the most benefit” (p. 1).
* “Female offending patterns were not significantly influenced by marital status or motherhood” (p. 1).
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| ***Peers/other factors*** |
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| Massoglia & Uggen (2010). Settling down and aging out: Toward an interactionist theory of desistance and the transition to adulthood. | Quasi-experimental Longitudinal Youth Development Study survey data and interview data | * U.S.A.
* *n=* 708, approx. 75% white, and 43% male.
 | * “People who persist in delinquency will be less likely to view themselves as adults, less likely to achieve behaviour markers of adulthood, and less likely to make timely adult transitions than others their age. Settling down or desisting from delinquency is an important part of the package of role behaviours that define adulthood” (p. 543).
* Return to results
 |
| Maume, Ousey, & Beaver (2005). Cutting the grass: A re-examination of the link between martial attachment, delinquent peers and desistance from marijuana use.  | Quasi-experimental National Youth Survey waves 5 and 6  | * U.S.A.
* Aged 11-17 in 1977 *n=* 593, male 56.5%, non-white 19%.
 | * Although change in delinquent peer association is a powerful predictor of marijuana desistance, findings are also consistent with the control theory interpretation of the marriage effect (p. 27).
 |
| Monahan, Steinberg, & Cauffman (2009). | Quasi-experimental Longitudinal study | * U.S.A.
* 1,354 youth, 1,170 male, 184 female.
* Aged 14-17 at time of participation.
* 41.5% African American, 33.5% Hispanic American, 20.2% non-Hispanic Caucasian and 4.8% other ethnicities.
 | * Find evidence that antisocial individuals choose to affiliate with deviant peers, and that affiliating with deviant peers is associated with individual’s own delinquency, these complementary processes of selection and socialisation operate in different developmental periods. In middle adolescence, both selection and socialisation serve to make peers similar in antisocial behaviour but from ages 16-20, only socialisation appears to be important. After age 20, the impact of peers on antisocial behaviour disappears as individuals become increasingly resistant to peer influence, suggesting that the process of desistance from antisocial behaviour may be tied to normative changes in peer relations that occur as individuals mature socially and emotionally (p. 1520).
 |
| Morizot & Le Blanc (2007). | Quasi-experimental | * Canada.
* Data from MTSLS used, men recruited in middle of 1970s.
* Beginning sample 470 boys aged 13-17 (1974-1975) followed up four more times until mean age of 41.
 | * The launch effect model suggests that very few self- or social control variables can predict trajectories of desistance from crime throughout a 25 year period. The contemporaneous effect model reveals that some measures of self- and social control accelerate (or restrain) the desistance process, but only at specific developmental periods (p. 50).
 |
| Poulton, Caspi, Milne, Thompson, Taylor, Sears, & Moffitt (2002). | Quasi-experimental | * New Zealand.
* 1,000 children born during 1972-1973 assessed at birth, ages 3, 5, 7, 9, 11 and 15 and followed up at 26 years (*n=*980).
 | * Compared with those from high socioeconomic status backgrounds, children who grew up in low socioeconomic status families had poorer cardiovascular health. Significant differences were also found on all dental health measures, substance abuse resulting in clinical dependence was related in a similar way to childhood economic status. The longitudinal associations could not be attributed to life-course continuity of low socioeconomic status, and upward mobility did not mitigate or reverse the adverse effects of low childhood socioeconomic status on adult health (p. 1640).
 |
| Wright & Cullen (2004). | Quasi-experimental National Youth Survey data | * U.S.A.
* 1,725 aged 11-17 in 1976 - used waves 5 and 6.
 | * Results demonstrate that prosocial coworkers disrupt previously established delinquent peer networks and are associated with reductions in adult criminal behaviour (p. 183).
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| Morenoff & Harding (2011). | Quasi-experimental | * U.S.A.
* 1,848
 | * Cumulative exposure to disadvantaged neighbourhoods was associated with lower employment and wages but not related to recidivism. Returning to a more affluent baseline neighbourhood was associated with a lower risk of being arrested, absconding, and returning to prison on a technical violation, and more positive labour market outcomes, including greater employment and wages. However, cumulative exposure to affluent neighbourhoods was not statistically significantly related to any of the recidivism or labour ….
 |
| Redcross, Millenky, Rudd, & Leveshin (2012).  | Experimental |  | * CEO substantially increased employment early in the follow-up period, but those effects faded over time (p. ES-1).
* CEO significantly reduced recidivism, with the largest reductions occurring among a subgroup of former prisoners who enrolled shortly after release from prison (p. ES-1).
* CEO’s benefits to society outweighed its costs under a wide range of assumptions (p. ES-2).
 |