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Factors Contributing to Juvenile Crime Leading to the Disparity of the Risk Levels for Secure Detainment

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Nova Southeastern University
Department of Justice & Human Services

“Factors Contributing to Juvenile Crime Leading to the Disparity of the Risk Levels for
Secure Detainment”

By

Dawn M. Prystajko

A Dissertation Presented to the

Department of Justice & Human Services

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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

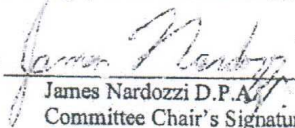
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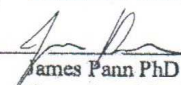
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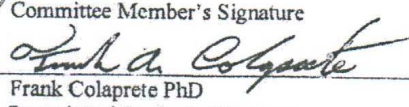
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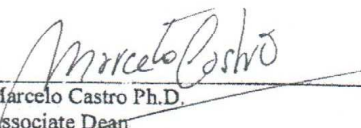
Approval Page

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Abstract

Factors Contributing to Juvenile Crime Leading to the Disparity of the Risk Levels for Secure Detainment. Dawn M. Prystajko. 2018: Dissertation. NOVA Southeastern University, PhD Criminal Justice/Juvenile Justice.

The main purpose of this research was to explore the factors that contributed to juvenile crime which in turn caused disparity in secure detainment among juveniles. This was based upon the alternate hypothesis that there is a noticeable disparity with minority youths being more securely detained opposed to majority youths. Therefore, the research was designed to examine raw data obtained from the Juvenile Justice Services Planner/JDAI Coordinator of the excel database of juvenile arrests/detainment.

The findings revealed several key points. The finding revealed that useable data extracted from the excel database was not able to neither agree with nor support the hypothesis. The research conducted in regard to minority youths being held or securely detained longer than majority youths was not proven. The research had shown that African-American youths tended to be detained longer than white youths by the Greece Police Department; however, white juveniles had a higher percentage of detainment by the Irondequoit Police Department as well as the Monroe County Sheriff's Department. Several conclusions were drawn from the culmination of the research as follows: There was no pattern of detainment of the youths. The Rochester Police Department, who patrols and secures the City of Rochester, which is predominantly African-American, detained over 65% of African-American juveniles. Across all three years of data that was

used, only 21% of the youth's detained by any of the various police department were females.

The recommendations that the research supported are that more research is necessary to address the difference between police departments and what factors determine if a juvenile is to be detained. Research should also be conducted to examine whether the Risk Assessment Instrument is being filled out completely and correctly to determine the age, location, race and gender of youths being detained so there is a starting point to address juvenile crime in these areas.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Over a period of three years from 2010 to 2012, in Monroe County, Rochester, New York, there seems to have been a significant increase in the percentage of youths admitted who are 16 years old or older at the time of admission, particularly minority youths that have been held in secure detention (Hare, 2013). This research aims to explore and identify factors that contribute to the offenses, in turn causing these juveniles to be held in secure detention opposed to being released to their parent or guardian or simply given an appearance ticket to appear in Juvenile or Family Court.

Background

A Secure Detention Utilization Study conducted by Kim Hare, Monroe County JDAI Coordinator (2013), shows that there was a 43% decline in juvenile arrests from 2008-2012. The background of more juveniles being held in secure detention seems to be that although there was a significant drop in juvenile arrests in 2012, there seems to be an increase in juvenile arrests in the year 2013 (Hare, 2013). According to Hare's study (2013), since 2009, for the safeties of the community, the majority of juveniles held in secure detention were detained due to the seriousness of the offenses that had been committed. Hare's study (2013) showed that the majority of youths that are admitted and/or detained in the Monroe County Children's Center for secure detainment are males. The ratio of males to females in secure detention was 4.1:1 in 2009 and has dropped to 3.3:1 in 2012 (Hare, 2013).

Problem Statement

There is a significant disparity of the level of risk causing more detainment for male youths compared to female youths as well as minority youths compared to majority youths.

Once a juvenile is arrested and taken into custody, a Risk Assessment Instrument (RAI) is used to assess each juvenile to determine how the juvenile justice system worker should proceed with the juvenile. Monroe County in Rochester, New York has a particular form that was derived from the New York State Department of Juvenile Justice, which is used by the intake worker of the law enforcement agency that completes a risk assessment on each youth that has been arrested. As the intake worker goes through each section, a numerical value is assigned as it relates to the juvenile that is being assessed. Once the scores are tabulated using the RAI, the juvenile can be released to the parent or guardian with an expedited appearance ticket to appear, released with restrictions or detained.

Relevance and Significance

While the youth of color represent about a third of the youth population, the latest figures show that they represent 61% of detained youth (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) found that the youth of color are disproportionately detained at higher rates than whites, even when they engage in delinquent behavior at similar rates as white youth. The 2006 research by Holman and Ziedenberg showed that the detained white youth population increased by 21%, while the detained minority youth population grew by 76%. By 1997, Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) found that 30 out of 50 states (which contain 83% of the U.S. population) minority youth represented the

majority of youth in detention. Per the Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research, even in states with small ethnic and racial minority populations, (like Minnesota, where the general population is 90% white, and Pennsylvania, where the general population is 85% white), more than half of the detention population are a youth of color. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention found that in 1997 every state in the country (with the exception of Vermont), the minority population of detained youth exceeded their proportion in the general population (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

There seems to be a problem of more juveniles being detained in secure detention. These juveniles (ages 10-17) are affected as well as the families of these juveniles. If a juvenile has a court appearance, diversion program appointment or other means of restitution to complete, it affects the families as they may have to leave work to be at said places with the juveniles or they may have to actually participate in the programs along with the juveniles. These potential conditions or requirements put an extra monetary strain on those who may already struggle with low socioeconomic status already.

The actions of the juveniles affect the community as well. Whether the act of a juvenile is an offense or one of a violent nature, the actions of the juvenile have an impact of greater proportion. The juveniles's actions will have an effect on their own lives and/or futures; their families as well as the communities that they live in.

At this time, Monroe County has diversion programs such as Persons in Need of Supervision (PINS) or Children in Need of Supervision (CHIN) that basically provide services for non-criminal conduct, such as truancy, disobedience or running away from home. Juveniles may also be processed through Monroe County Probation in a program referred to as Intensive Supervision Program that provides in-home, community –based,

intensive services to high- risk youths that have been adjudicated as juvenile delinquent or Persons in Need of Supervision. These risk factors may include gang involvement, weapon possession, drug sale or use, truancy, pregnancy and sexual offending. Due to the caseloads, the juveniles in these programs may slip through the cracks due to not enough accountability due to the overloaded caseworkers.

There need to be some answers found to the following questions: How can our juvenile justice system rehabilitate these juveniles to reduce delinquency? What is the reasoning behind the juvenile crime? Are there particular factors that “make” juveniles commit crimes or it a biological reasoning? Are the factors that cause the juvenile to commit crimes societal? Do juveniles commit crimes to fulfill a particular need? Once there are at least adequate answers to the above questions society, as well as the juvenile justice system, can initiate appropriate plans to help reduce the causes of the juvenile crimes.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to examine and determine if there are any disparities in youth detainment and if so, provide recommendations for positive change. The importance of this study was to determine the variables and/or factors causing juvenile crimes that lead to secure detention. Once the variables/factors are determined, then the next steps are to develop positive reinforcements to reduce these variables/factors to potentially reduce juveniles in obtaining high- risk assessment scores that lead to secure detainment. If juveniles can be given positive reinforcement then they may turn away from negative actions that will more than likely affect the rest of their young lives.

Definition of terms

Fix -the feeling of needing the feeling a drug provides.

Risk Assessment Instrument (RAI) - form tailored for use by Monroe County to assess whether a juvenile is to be detained or released.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The importance of conducting literature review was to determine what variables and/or factors take part in causing juveniles to commit crimes, which in turn leads them to secure detention. Once the variable and/or factors were determined, then the next step is to develop positive reinforcements to reduce such factors, which in turn would potentially reduce juvenile crimes, therefore reducing the juvenile obtaining high- risk assessment scores that lead to secure detainment.

The age females commit crime begins at an earlier age than for males (Loeber & Farrington, 2013). Loeber and Farrington (2013) research showed that crime more often occurs for young minority males growing up in disadvantaged neighborhoods than those being brought up in advantaged neighborhoods. The Loeber and Farrington (2013) research indicated that causes and conditions of delinquency leading to delinquency include, but are not limited to poverty, drugs, gangs, abuse and neglect as well as truancy. Ramirez (2008) research indicated that there are higher rates of detention and probation within minority racial and ethnic groups. However, this understanding only scratches the surface (Ramirez, 2008).

A brief review of the literature was conducted and shows that the major areas that will need to be researched to identify the causes of delinquency that put a youth at a higher risk for secure detainment are: a) crime rates and gender issues, (b) race as to whether it has an impact on the juvenile's behavior, (c) substance abuse to determine if drug use is a contributing factor in the crime/offenses youths commit, (d) gang involvement as a reasoning behind crimes/offenses committed, (e) household

composition and socioeconomic status as a factor for delinquency, and (f) secure detainment (Elrod & Ryder, 2011).

Crime and Gender Issues

Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) research found that psychological explanations of female delinquency vary between early and more recent explanations. Early studies addressed what was assumed “innate” female nature and its relationship to deviant behavior, but more recently, the focus of study has been in social contexts as they contribute to female delinquency (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

Gisela Konopka’s early study of delinquent females, for example, linked a poor home life with a deep sense of loneliness and low self-esteem (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014). Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) found that Konopka’s conception of delinquency relied heavily on the notion of individual pathology, and she concluded that only a female who is “sick” could become delinquent. Konopka identified four key factors contributing to female delinquency: 1) a uniquely dramatic biological onset of puberty, 2) a complex identification process because of a girl’s competitiveness with her mother, 3) the changing cultural position of females and the resultant uncertainty and loneliness, and 4) the hostile picture that the world presents to some young females (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

A contemporary study, in contrast, focused on physical and sexual abuse of girls and found that abused female delinquents tend to psychopathology, including post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), suicidal behavior, dissociative disorder, and borderline personality disorder (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014). Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) found that in sum, recent studies of female delinquency have shifted away from the

psychoanalytical perspective and begun to emphasize the social context of gendered behavior.

A study conducted in April 2007, by the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention showed that 1997 juvenile crime statistics showed that 700 juveniles were involved in over 1300 murders (Puzzanchera, 2008). The research conducted by Puzzanchera (2008) showed that over one hundred and twenty-five of these murders involved a juvenile female. Further, Puzzanchera (2008) found that close to 80% of juvenile murders committed by juveniles were by the use of a firearm. During the following period of 1998-2007, the percentage of male arrests for simple assault declined 4%, while the percentage of females arrested for simple assault increased 10% (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Of the arrest totals for 1999, youths ages 10-17 accounted for over 17% or close to three million arrests (McCord, Widom & Crowell, 2001). The research by McCord, Widon and Crowell, (2001) shows that younger juveniles are likely to be arrested for property crimes opposed to crimes of a violent nature. Recently juveniles have increased in violence during offending (McCord, Widom, & Crowell, 2001).

In 2002, the FBI Uniform Crime Report shows youths under 15 years of age were arrested for violent crimes, 11% for property crimes and 5% of all total crimes (Puzzanchera, 2008). Puzzanchera's (2008) research found that youths younger than the age of 18 accounted for 15% of violent crimes, 30% of property crimes and a total of 16% for all crimes. By the end of 2002, according to Puzzanchera's (2008) research, juvenile male arrests declined by 6%. Puzzanchera's (2008) research further revealed that the change in serious crime showed that for serious violent crime arrests, males decreased

by 33%, where white female violent crime arrests only decreased by 2%. In 2002, juvenile courts handled over 420,000 cases involving delinquent girls (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Between 2003 and 2004, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) found that female arrest rates increased by a little over 1% (Puzzanchera, 2008). Puzzanchera's (2008) research showed that the increase for girls was 0.2% in violent crimes and 3.2% in property crimes. According to Puzzanchera's (2008) research girls arrested for robbery increased by over 55%. In 2004, over 1.5 million juveniles arrested, females accounted for over 472,000 of those arrests (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Girls will commit just about every antisocial act that boys will, but at much-reduced level and with different particulars (Fuller, 2013). Take, for example, homicide, in Fuller's (2013) research it was shown that in 2009, there were just 69 juvenile female homicide arrests versus 873 male juvenile homicide arrests. Fuller (2013) noted that the differences do not stop there. Fuller (2013) noted that the victims of girls tended to be children below the age five, other females, and family members; boys tended to kill other males, strangers, and victims aged 14 to 34. Girls were more likely to use knives, personal weapons (fists, hands or feet), and asphyxiation, and their homicides were more likely than boys' to be conflict-related were. Boys tended to kill during the commission of another offense and to use guns (Fuller, 2013).

Historically there are greater rates of status offenses among females (Sedlak & Bruce 2010). In Sedlak and Bruce's (2010) research, shows that of FBI data from 2003, shows that there were two times more girls than boys arrested for status offenses, leading

to females being held in custody. Females are most held in custody due to status violations than are males (Sedlak & Bruce, 2010).

In 2006, according to the FBI Uniform Crime Report, crime in the United States consisted of youths under the age of 15, who at 4%, were arrested for a serious violent crime, 9% of serious property crimes and a total of 4% of all other crimes (FBI Crime in the U.S. 2006). Youths younger than the age of 18 accounted for 16% of serious violent crime, 26% of serious property crime and a total of 15% of all crimes total (FBI Crime in the U.S. 2006).

In 2007, females accounted for 17% of juvenile arrests that included murder, robbery or aggravated assault, over 30% of arrests for burglary, larceny, arson and motor vehicle theft, and 33% of juvenile disorderly conduct arrest (Puzzanchera, 2008). From the research of Puzzanchera (2008), youths under the age of 15 made up approximately 28% of all juvenile arrests. Puzzanchera's (2008) research further showed that law enforcement agencies in 2007 made over 640,000 arrests of girls younger than 18 years of age. During the period 1998-2007, the arrest of females decreased less than those of males in aggravated assault, burglary and larceny/theft; however, females increased where males decreased in the categories of assault, drug violations, as well as DUI (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Juvenile females were most often arrested than juvenile males for running away (the only category that girls outnumbered the boys), in the age category of 13-17, 13-14-year olds had the highest number of arrests for disorderly conduct, sexual offenses (not including forcible rape and prostitution), weapons, vandalism, property crimes, arson and burglary (Puzzanchera, 2008). According to the research of Puzzanchera (2008),

juveniles made up 16% of the total of violent crime arrests and 26% of the total of all property crime arrests in 2007. Puzzanchera's (2008) research showed that the juvenile murder rate was 4.1 per every 100,000 juveniles arrested between the ages of 10-17 in 2007. There was over an estimated 300,000 juvenile arrest for larceny-theft in 2007 (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Over the last ten years, the arrests of juvenile females increased more (or decreased less) than male arrests for the same offense categories (Sedlak & Bruce, 2010). Research conducted by Sedlak and Bruce (2010), showed that according to the Uniform Crime Report shows that for the period of 1999 and 2008, juvenile arrests for aggravated assault dropped close to 22% for males but less than 3% for females. During this same period, simple assault arrests for juvenile males dropped 5.8% but increased 15.9% for juvenile females (Sedlak & Bruce, 2010).

For a period of 10 years up until June 2009, the number of juvenile girl offenders increased by more than a third and the number of juvenile male offenders had an increase of only a tenth (Holmes, 2010). Holmes (2010) research finds trends in offending juvenile females were the same as those of all females except for shoplifting, where there was a noticeable rise in the number of juvenile females. Juvenile females continue to commit fewer offenses than males (Holmes, 2010).

While males commit offenses that mostly lead to an arrest, females are mostly arrested for running away (59%) and prostitution (69%) (Elrod & Ryder, 2011). Elrod and Ryder's (2011) research of the offenses committed, juvenile female offenders are most likely to shoplift (21.2%), commit assault (10.9%), and commit malicious damage to property (62%). Juvenile males tend to commit malicious damage to property (10.4%),

commit assault (7.1%), breach bail conditions (6.6%) and shoplift (6.4%) (Elrod & Ryder, 2011).

Over the 10-year period of July 1999 to June 2009, 18% of all offenders in the New South West Criminal Justice System were female (Holmes, 2010). Holmes (2010) research, found that during this period, the number of female offenders significantly increased by 15% from a little over 32,000 in 1999/00 to closer to 37,000 in 2008/09 (an average increase of 1.5% per year). Further, Holmes (2010) found that in contrast, over the same period, the number of male offenders remained relatively the same. Although there was an increasing number of a female offender, for each of these years there were still significantly more male offenders compared to female offenders- for every female offender, there were between 4.3 and 4.7 male offenders (Holmes, 2010).

Across all years from 1999/00 to 2008/09, there were a higher number of older juvenile females than younger juvenile females offending (Holmes, 2010). In addition, Holmes (2010) research showed that offending by females ages 13 to 17 years increased significantly (on average, up 3% each year for 13-year old females, up 5% each year for both 14-and-15- year old females, up 4% each year for 16- year old females and up 2% each year for 17-year old females). However, the number of 11 to 12-year old female offending remained constant over this time (Holmes, 2010).

In 2010, there were close to 70 million Americans younger than the age of 18 in the United States (Loeber & Farrington, 2013). Research by Loeber and Farrington (2013) revealed that juvenile crime statistics showed that over 2 million juveniles were arrested in 2002. According to the juvenile crime statistics, murder accounted for 5% of

violent crimes committed by juveniles, 12% for rape, 14% for robbery and 12% for aggravated assault (Loeber & Farrington, 2013).

Females represent a relatively small proportion of the overall delinquency caseload (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). From the research conducted by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014), the juvenile courts handled over 345,000 cases involving females in 2011, compared with 891,100 cases involving males. However, the research conducted (2014) showed that between the periods of 2002 and 2011, the number of cases decreased more for males (-27%) than for females (-22%). The 2014 research by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera showed that as a result of these trends, the female proportion of the delinquency caseloads increased slightly from 27% in 2003 to 28% in 2011. Hockenberry and Puzzanchera's (2014) research shows that females accounted for a slightly larger proportion of cases in 2011 than in 2003 for person, property, and drug offenses. From 2003 through 2011, female caseloads decreased less than male caseloads for person, property, and drug offenses (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

Generally, boys and girls normally start offending at the same age for the less serious crimes such as drug offenses, but for more serious or violent types of crime, girls tend to start at a younger age than boys (Ford et al., 2012). The research of Ford, Chapman, Connor and Cruise (2012) showed that the juveniles who are considered truants are two to eight times more likely to become involved in delinquency. Ford et al. (2012), research found that nine out of 10 youths that are held in detention for criminal offenses have been known to be considered truants. Research (2012), further showed that female offenders are less likely to be arrested and formally charged for most offenses

than males. Further, when female offenders are charged, they are more likely to receive secure confinement more so than males. While in detention, female juvenile offenders are more violent towards staff than males tend to be (Ford et al., 2012).

Female offenders have a higher rate of mental illness over male offenders (McCord et al., 2001). McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) research indicated that girls rather than boys tend to suffer from mental disorders such as depression or anxiety. To continue, the research of McCord et al. (2010) showed that boys rather than girls tend to suffer from disorders such as ADHD, conduct disorder and other behavior problems. Depression during adolescence may be “a central pathway through which girl’s serious antisocial behavior develops” (McCord et al., 2001).

One of the characteristics, such as the antisocial behavior of girls who become teenage parents tends to account for some of the risk (Elrod & Ryder, 2011). Elrod and Ryder (2011) research indicated that a girl who exhibits antisocial behavior is at an increased risk of teenage motherhood, having impulsive liaisons with antisocial men and of having parenting difficulties. A teenage girl who becomes pregnant is also more likely to be poor, to be on welfare and to have stopped her education (Elrod & Ryder, 2011).

Although girls in the juvenile justice system are more likely to have a history of abuse and neglect than non-justice involved girls, there is further evidence that girls more often experience certain types of trauma (e.g., sexual abuse and rape) than boys (Zahn et al., 2010). Zahn, et al. (2010) research indicated that many studies of special populations suggest that incidents of sexual abuse are more pervasive among girls who engage in antisocial behavior, particularly those who engage in violent behavior, than among their male counterparts. On the other hand, the incident of physical abuse appears to be more

equally distributed between boys and girls in adjudicated populations, but for both at a much higher rate than in the general population, thus constituting a significant risk factor overall (Zahn et al., 2010).

Several studies suggest that early-maturing girls are more likely to engage in delinquency and other risk-taking behaviors (Zahn et al., 2010). Zahn et al. (2010) researched and found a longitudinal study of 931 males and females found that early onset of puberty among girls continued to predict increased risk behavior into adulthood. Some studies find that compared with other girls, early-maturing girls are at an increased threat of various high-risk behaviors such as substance abuse, running away, and truancy (Zahn et al., 2010).

Risk Factors

Although sociological theories remain in the forefront of delinquency literature, the focus has shifted recently to biopsychological vulnerability factors that may be related to girls' delinquency (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014). Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014), researched five general categories of such factors have been considered: 1) stress and anxiety, 2) attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and conduct disorder (CD), 3) intellectual deficits, 4) early pubertal maturation, and 5) mental health issues). These factors apply also to boys' delinquency, although in some cases, such as ADHD, boys have been labeled more often, but girls appear to have greater vulnerability when diagnosed (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

The term "early starters" refers to juveniles who enter puberty at an early age (Huizinga & Miller 2013). Huizinga and Miller (2013) research found that these early starters exhibit behavioral difficulties early in development, with their antisocial behavior

peaking in adolescences and persisting into young adulthood. Further research by Huizinga and Miller (2013) indicated that risk factors for this group of early starters include inconsistent and/or harsh parenting and underlying neurological problems, such as attention difficulties. In addition, Huizinga and Miller (2013) research found that late starters are juveniles who enter puberty later than most juveniles. Late starters do not exhibit behavioral difficulties normally until adolescence, and these problems may cease by young adulthood. Additional risk factors may include affiliation with problem-prone peers and shifting social norms that ascribe status to risk-taking activity (Huizinga & Miller, 2013).

Young girls may direct rage and the feeling of hurt as a reaction to abuse and maltreatment (Zahn et al., 2010). Zahn et al. (2010) research indicated that these inward undirected feelings might show themselves through problems such as drug abuse, prostitution or other self-destructive behaviors. Research conducted by Zahn et al. (2010) further indicated that normally, one of the first steps to the path of delinquency for girls is either running away or truancy in response to an abusive situation at home. Zahn et al. (2010) research further showed that over 90% of the girls that are incarcerated have experienced one or more form of physical, sexual, or emotional abuse before entering the juvenile justice system. More than 45% of incarcerated girls have been beaten or burned at least once, 40% have been raped, and 32% have chronic health problems (Zahn et al., 2010).

Boys who began puberty at an early age were more likely to later engage in violence, property crimes, drug use and precocious sexual behavior (Siegel & Welsh, 2009). Siegel and Welsh in 2009 conducted research that indicated that the boys who

matured early were most likely to develop strong attachments to delinquent friends and to be influenced by peer pressure. Although boys are easily influenced by peer pressure, they learn to value their own independence (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

Research has found that for both girls and boys, physical aggression is most common among same-sex peers, accounting for about 50% of incidents in which adolescents are violent (Zahn et al., 2008). The research in 2008 by Zahn et al. indicated that for girls who are physically assaultive, a family member is the second most common target (20.2% of girls compared with 5.7% of boys' fights are with family members) the second most common target of boys' assaults is strangers. Consistent with this pattern, girls' violence more often occurs away from home (Zahn et al., 2008).

Females through growing up are taught that their self-worth depends on their ability to sustain relationships (Siegel & Welsh, 2009). In 2009, Siegel and Welsh research found that female delinquency often goes unrecorded because the female is normally the instigator rather than the perpetrator of the delinquent offense. In a relationship of one type or another, the female will use her sexual charms to instigate crime and then try to charm the males in the justice system to obtain differential treatment (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

If a girl grows up in an atmosphere where sexual tension exists, where hostility exists between her parents or where the parents are absent, she will most likely turn to outside sources for affection and support (Siegel & Welsh, 2009). The 2009 research of Siegel and Welsh indicated that girls, who experience loneliness, frustration, and parental hostility, might begin to engage in the same activities as boys: staying out late at night, drinking, partying and riding around with friends. Girls may seek out the attention they

feel they lack by committing a juvenile offense to gain some attention (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

A delinquent girl normally does not form close relationships with female peers as they view them as rivals for males who would make eligible marriage partners (Holmes 2010). Holmes (2010) research showed that girls form relationships and enter into affairs with older men who exploit them, involve them in sexual deviance, and father their illegitimate children. Holmes (2010) research found that the result of these relationships or affairs is prostitution, drug abuse and marginal lives. Their daughters may repeat this pattern in a never-ending cycle of exploitation (Holmes, 2010).

Race

Research conducted by Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) indicated that one of the most disturbing issues facing the juvenile justice system today is the long-standing and pronounced disparities in the processing of white and minority youths. Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) reviewed Northeastern University's Donna Bishop conclusion that "Despite decades of research, there is no clear consensus on why minority youths enter and penetrate the juvenile justice system at such disproportionate rates". According to Bishop, two explanations have been given: "The first is that minority overrepresentation reflects race and ethnic differences in the incident, seriousness, and persistence of delinquency involvement (the "differential offending" hypothesis)" and the second is over-representation that is attributable to inequalities intended or unintended in juvenile justice practice (the "differential treatment" hypothesis) (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

University of Missouri-St Louis Professor Janet L. Lauritsen, in examining what is known about racial and ethnic differences in juvenile offending, offered the following conclusions that have wide support in the literature:

- Rates of juvenile homicide are higher for minorities than for white youthful offenders. Similarly, variations exist in rates of lethal violence between minority groups (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).
- Official data suggest disproportionate involvement in nonlethal violence on the part of African-American youths. When arrest data are restricted to specific forms of nonlethal violence, African-American youths appear to be disproportionality involved in a robbery, aggravated assault, and rape (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).
- Juvenile property crime data show that African-American youths are slightly more involved in such offenses than white youths, although the level of involvement varies by type of property crime (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).
- Arrest data shows that white youths are disproportionately involved in alcohol offenses and that American-Indian youth are slightly more likely than African-American or Asian-American youths to be arrested for these crimes (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).
- African-American youths are disproportionately arrested for drug abuse violations and illicit drug use, but self-report data from juveniles on their own drug involvement do not confirm the differences between African-American and white youths suggested by arrest data. In fact, white youths

are somewhat more likely to report using marijuana, selling any drug, and selling marijuana (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

- Weapon violations arrest data indicate that African-American youths are disproportionately likely to be arrested for weapons possession or use (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).
- Although the most commonly occurring crimes exhibit few group differences, the less frequent and serious crimes of violence show generally higher levels of African-American and Latino-American involvement (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014).

The racial composition of the United States juvenile population ages 10-17 in 2007 was 78% white, 17% African-American, 5% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% American-Indian (Puzzanchera, 2009). Puzzanchera (2009) research confirmed that most juveniles of Hispanic ethnicity were included in the white racial category. Further, Puzzanchera's (2009) review of The Office of Juvenile Justice Delinquency Prevention study that compared the likeliness of youths arrested according to race. Further, Puzzanchera (2009) found that when compared to youths of color, white youths are less likely to be incarcerated when youths have been charged with similar offenses. Latino youths are three times more likely and African-American youths are six times more likely to be incarcerated than white youths with similar backgrounds. Puzzanchera (2009) research found that the average lengths of confinement for youths of color were more than that of white youths. Puzzanchera (2009) research found that cases involving white girls are dismissed seven out of ten times, where only three of every 10 cases involving African-American girls are dismissed, also white youths made up 47% of arrests for

violent crimes in 2007 and 51% were African-American. For property crimes, the percentages were 66% white and 32% African-American (Puzzanchera, 2008).

Puzzanchera (2009) research found that the arrest rate for violent crimes for African-American was five times higher than whites. Puzzanchera (2009) found that for property crimes, the arrest rates for African-American were more than twice the rates for white juveniles. Although African-American youths represented approximately 15% of the U.S. population ages 10-17 in 1997, they represented 26% of all juvenile arrests, 30% of delinquency referrals to juvenile courts, 46% of cases that were waived to adult criminal courts and 40% of juveniles that were in public long-term institutions (McCord et al., 2001).

The Violent Crime Index arrest rate (i.e., arrests per 100,000 juveniles in the racial group) in 2007 for African-American juveniles was about five times the rates for white juveniles and American Indian juveniles and sixteen times the rate for Asian Juveniles (Puzzanchera, 2009). Puzzanchera (2009) research found for Property Crime Index arrests, the rate for African-American juveniles was more than double the rates for white juveniles and American-Indians juveniles and more than six times the rate for Asian juveniles.

In 2011, white youth accounted for over 75% of the United States juvenile population, African-American youth 16%, American-Indian youth (including Alaska Native) 2%, and Asian youth (including Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islanders) 5% (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) conducted research that determined that sixty-four percent of delinquency cases handled in 2011 involved white youths, 33% African-American youth and 2% American-Indian youth,

and 1% Asian youth. Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) research indicated that there was a racial disparity in delinquency cases that varied across offense categories; white youths accounted for a larger proportion of drug offense cases (77%) than for any of the other general offense categories. White youths were involved in only 58% of person offense cases, where African-American youths accounted for a larger proportion of person offense cases (40%) than for any other general offense category (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

Police routinely search, question and detain African-American males in an area if a violent criminal has been described as “looking or sounding African-American” (Siegel & Walsh 2009). The research conducted by Siegel and Welsh (2009) indicated that African-American youths who develop a police record are more likely to be severely punished if they are picked up again and sent back to juvenile court. The research (2009) also indicated that juvenile court judges more often see the offenses committed by African-American youths more serious than those committed by white offenders, and they seem more willing to give white defendants lenient sentences or dismiss their cases. Siegel and Welsh (2009) also found that African-American youths are more likely to get an official record than white youths. Research conducted by Siegel and Welsh (2009) further shows that youths of color also seem to stay in detention longer than white youths. Drug cases involving white youths were 66% of drug cases that had been referred to juvenile court however only 44% of those youths were detained although the drug offense cases that involved African-American youths were only 32% of those referred to juvenile court, but 55% of those cases were detained (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

Between 2002 and 2011, research by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) showed that the number of cases decreased for all racial groups and offenses with the exception of drug offense cases for American-Indian, which remained unchanged, and Asian youth, which increased slightly. Research conducted by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) showed that in 2011, the offense profile was similar to that of 2002 for all racial groups. Although the proportion of delinquency cases that involved property offenses decreased for all racial groups, the American-Indian caseload experienced the largest decrease for these offenses (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

Substance Abuse

Juveniles may begin to experiment with drugs because of peer pressure or the need to fit in. There are also other factors that put juveniles at risk for substance abuse such as: 1) social disorganization which includes racial prejudice, low self-esteem, poor socioeconomic status and the stress of living in a harsh urban environment, 2) peer pressure where youths in inner-city areas have feelings of alienation that run high often come in contact with drug users who teach them that drugs provide an answer to their feelings of inadequacy and stress, 3) family factors where the majority of drug users have had an unhappy childhood, which included harsh punishment and parental neglect (Siegel & Welsh 2009). Research by Siegel and Welsh (2009) found that there are additional factors may include low parental attachment, rejection and excessive family conflict, 4) emotional problems when youths may use drugs to help control or express unconscious needs. They may need drugs to reduce their feelings of inadequacy, 5) problem behavior syndrome where youths who abuse drugs are maladjusted, emotionally distressed and have many social problems. Siegel and Welsh (2009) research showed that having a

lifestyle of deviance might consist of associating with delinquent peers and living in a family where parents and/or siblings use drugs. Due to the alienation from the dominant values of society, youths begin delinquent behavior at an early age (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

Most of the growth in the male and female drug offense caseloads occurred in the 1990s (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera 2014). Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) found that during this period, the female drug offense caseload grew at an average rate of 16% per year while the male caseload increased at an average rate of 12% per year. In 2011, the male caseload contained a greater proportion of drug offenses than the female caseload (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

The drug offense case rate for males more than doubled between 1985 and 1997, while the female rate decreased 40% to its low in 1991 before tripling to its peak in 2004 (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). Research by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) found that although the drug offense case rate for females decreased through 2011, the 2011 rate was higher than the 1985 rate. The research in 2014 also showed that male and female drug offense case rates have converged since the early 1990s. In 1992, the male drug offense case rate was nearly seven times greater than the rate for females (4.6 compared with 0.7); by 2011, the male rate was four times greater than the rate for females (7.7 compared with 1.8) (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

The drug offense case rate for African-American juveniles increased dramatically from 1985 to 1989, leveled off, and then increased to a peak in 1996 (13.1) that was 254% above the rate in 1985 (3.7) (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). The research conducted by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) showed that between 1996 and 2011,

the drug offense case rate declined 55% for African-American juveniles, 5% for Asian youth, and 9% each for white youth and American-Indian youth. Further, the research in 2014 found that in 2011, the drug offense case rate for 17-year-old males was nearly 23 times the rate for 12-year-old males; among females, the drug offense case rate for 17-year-olds was nearly 16 times the rate for 12-year-olds. Hockenberry and Puzanchera (2014) also found that in 2011, racial disparity in age-specific drug offense case rates increased after age 13. By age 17, the African-American drug offense case rate was 1.5 times the white rate, more than twice the rate of American-Indian youth, and more than 6 times the rate of Asian youth (Hockenberry & Puzanchera, 2014).

A prevalent image in the news and entertainment media is the image of the drug user as a person of color (Walker, Spohn & Delore, 2007). Research by Walker, Spohn and Delore (2007) found that in particular, arrest data for non-alcoholic drug abuse violations reflect an overrepresentation of African-American and an overrepresentation of Native-Americans for alcoholic-related offenses. A more comprehensive picture of drug users emerges from self-report data that asks respondents to indicate their use of and prevalence of use behavior for particular drugs (Walker et al., 2007). In a recent report on the use of drugs among people of color, The National Institute of Health (NIH) summarizes the current body of research as indicating:

- African-American youth report less alcohol use than white youth and report similar prevalence levels for use of illicit drugs compared to other racial and ethnic groups (Walker et al., 2007)

- Asian/Pacific Islander youth responding to sporadic state level surveys and several years of pooled national data consistently report less drug use than other non-Asian populations (Walker et al., 2007).
- Native-American youth begin using a variety of drugs (not limited to alcohol) at an earlier age than white youth as well as inhalant use is twice as high among Native-American youth (Walker et al., 2007).

According to the Pathways to Desistance study, which followed more than 1300 serious juvenile delinquents for seven years after conviction, serious and chronic delinquents are much more likely than other delinquents to be substance users and to have substance use disorders (Fuller, 2013). In addition, Fuller's (2013) research showed substance use and delinquency at a young age consistently predicted continued serious offending later on. However, substance use and serious delinquency fluctuate in similar patterns, which suggest some kind of relationship, but not necessarily a relationship in which one behavior causes another (Fuller, 2013).

Gangs

Gangs hold out the promise of economic and social opportunities for many youths (Loeber & Farrington, 2013). Loeber and Farrington (2013) research showed that youths might see the gang life where they can have a sense of belonging and status as well as protection from rival gangs). Gangs are a means for dealing with a socioeconomic environment that fosters aggression and violence (Loeber & Farrington, 2013).

Joining a gang often takes place in early adolescence, peaks in mid-adolescence, and precedes the onset of other criminal activities (Loeber & Farrington, 2013). The research by Loeber and Farrington (2013) showed for example, one study found that a

large majority of youths who join gangs do so at very early ages, typically between 11 and 15, and ages 14-16 are the peak ages for gang involvement. Joining a gang will increase a youth's risk of offending (Loeber & Farrington, 2013).

Studies have shown that prior to joining a gang; a gang member's involvement in delinquency was similar to a non-gang youth (Elrod & Ryder, 2011). The research of Elrod and Ryder (2011) looked at when these youths joined a gang, their involvement in delinquency, especially violent delinquency and drug sales increased. Further, as found by Elrod and Ryder (2011) once a youth left a gang, their delinquency decreased. In addition, the same research (2011) showed that typically youths who are loyal to their delinquent friends who are "bad companions" are the ones who most likely will commit crimes and engage in violence. Delinquent behaviors are usually tied to peer groups due to delinquent acts tend to be committed in small groups rather than alone (Elrod & Ryder, 2011).

Inner-city areas that offer lower class youths few conventional opportunities may see gangs flourish and members are resistant to offers of help that cannot deliver legitimate economic hope (Siegel & Welsh, 2009). Siegel and Welsh (2009) found that youths normally hear about gangs around the age of nine, get involved in violence around 10-11 and join their first gang at 12. By the age of 13, most members have fired a pistol, seen someone killed or seriously injured, gotten a gang tattoo and/or have been arrested (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

A very specific aspect of the context in which girls may exhibit violence is their involvement in gangs (Zahn et al., 2008). Zahn et al. (2008) research showed that gang-involved girls tend to participate in different types of activities than gang-involved boys.

Most gang-involved young women did not participate routinely in the most serious forms of gang crime, in part because male members excluded them from these activities but also because many of the young women chose not to be involved in activities they considered dangerous or morally troubling (Zahn et al., 2008).

Females join a gang to experience a sense of sisterhood, independence, and solidarity, as well as a chance to earn money through illegal activities (Zahn et al., 2008). The research by Zahn et al. (2008) also showed that Inner-city girls normally join a gang to escape the turmoil of their home lives, characterized by abuse, parental crime and fatherless homes. The research by Zahn et al. (2008) further showed that young girls ages 14 to 15 are normally targets for sexual and criminal exploitation. Zahn et al. (2008) research concluded that joining a gang for girls can expose them to exploitation, but most girls join gangs in an effort to cope with their turbulent personal lives, which may provide them with an even harsher reality. Girls see gangs as an institution that can increase their status and improve their lifestyle (Zahn et al., 2008).

Several important studies have shown that gang youths account for a disproportionate amount of delinquency, particularly serious and violent acts (Miller, 2001). Research by Miller (2001) on obtained data from the Rochester Youth Development Study, Thornberry and Burch report that while gang members were only one-third of the sample, they accounted for 86% of all serious delinquent acts reported in the interviews, including 69% of all violent crimes and 70% of all drug sales. Moreover, studies show that gang membership has a facilitation effect on delinquency- that is, youth's participation in delinquency increases dramatically when they join gangs, and it declines significantly once they leave their gangs (Miller, 2001).

Twenty years after Thrasher's (1936) monumental work, Bloch and Niederhoffer (1958) expanded on many of his ideas (Whitehead & Lab, 2013). Whitehead and Lab (2013) researched where Thrasher viewed gangs as primarily a lower-class juvenile phenomenon, Bloch and Neiderhoffer proposed that gangs were different from other juvenile groups simply by a matter of degree. Whitehead and Lab (2013) research showed that the gangs provided its members with status, success, and feelings of belonging that they were not being provided by the larger society. The research of Whitehead and Lab (2013) further showed that lower-class youths, who made up most gangs, were simply striving to succeed in the same sense as middle-and-upper-class youths. Their social position, however, led them into situations that made gang behavior an acceptable alternative (Whitehead & Lab, 2013).

Youths often face problems with success in schools and other social situations (Whitehead & Lab, 2013). Whitehead and Lab (2013) research conducted found that gang behavior is seen as an alternative to the lack of success and status faced by youths. The research by Whitehead and Lab (2013) also showed that lower-class youths, regardless of ethnic or racial background, spend a good deal of time on the streets where they meet and interact with other youths. In addition, research of Whitehead and Lab (2013) showed that education is provided through daily street activity. The gang offers its members a sense of belonging and self-esteem, which may not be forthcoming at home (Whitehead & Lab, 2013).

Explanations for female ganging have been rare but generally, follow the same pattern of logic found for male gangs (Whitehead & Lab, 2013). Whitehead and Lab (2013) reviewed a study conducted by Brown (1978), Short and Strodbeck (1965), and

others have pointed to many of the same social factors associated with male gangs. The research conducted (2013) showed that blocked opportunity, lack of success at school and home, lack of status, desire for belonging, abuse and family problems at home, and community disorganization were among the cited reasons for female gang participation. Whitehead and Lab (2013) research found more recently that, Bell (2009), reports that there are few differences between males and females in terms of why they join gangs. Research conducted (2013) showed that among the factors contributing to gang membership for both sexes is less parental attachment, feeling less safe at school, and more contact with fighting. The research of Whitehead and Lab (2013) shows that there are some differences that are found between the sexes for Hispanics and immigrants, although these differences are not major. Whitehead and lab (2013) research found that the increased intergenerational nature of gang membership also contributes to the growth and construction of gangs. Research conducted by Whitehead and Lab (2013) shows that younger members are often siblings or offspring of current or past gang members. “Apprenticeship” periods for “wannabes” and initiation rituals help build the sense of belonging as well as the gang provides its members with things they do not get at home, school, or elsewhere (Whitehead & Lab, 2013).

Little is known about female participation in gangs, but several surveys estimate that around ten percent of gang activity can be attributed to girls and young women (Fuller, 2013). Fuller (2013) research as well as other studies put the figures closer to thirty percent. Female gang members participate in delinquent and criminal activities as part of male gangs and can be found operating all-female gangs according to Fuller (2013). Although we do not know the exact number of female gang members, Fuller

(2013) found that we do know they participate in a variety of ways and can be just as violent as male gang members can. According to researchers, girls who are active in gangs become the most serious, violent, and chronic delinquents of all girls (Fuller, 2013).

Females report a number of reasons for joining a gang (Fuller, 2013). Fuller (2013) research found that a primary reason is for protection. Fuller (2013) revealed that young women are often the victims of abuse by fathers or other family members, and joining a gang serves as a refuge from unwanted attention. Additionally, research by Fuller (2013) found that often, female runaways could choose only between joining a gang and becoming the property of a pimp. Fuller (2013) found that the gang gives them higher status and more control over their sexual activities. Research (2013) further shows that rebellious girls join gangs as a way to spite what they perceive to be overprotective parents. Research by Fuller (2013) also supports that sometimes the reason a young woman joins a gang is because her boyfriend is already a member, and she can either follow him into the gang or lose him to another female gang member. Additional research by Fuller (2013) concludes that economic reality provides females with a reason to join a gang. Fuller's research has shown that by participating in gang behaviors such as shoplifting, drug sales, and larcenies, the girls can improve their marginal economic status and obtain the stylish clothes, fast food, and other items valued by teenagers. According to Fuller's (2013) research, the females most likely to join a gang are those who suffer from low self-esteem, come from dysfunctional families, and have a history of victimization. Unlike males, who are often seeking thrills and action, females typically join gangs for defensive reasons (Fuller, 2013).

It is important to emphasize the social context of poverty within girl gangs exist and to examine what it means to be a young girl growing up in such an environment (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004). Chesney-Lind and Shelden (2004) researched that Campbell notes that female gang members “seek to resolve the intractable problems of class by simultaneously rejecting and opposing some aspects of community and mainstream values while incorporating and internalizing others, their resulting identity is often apparently contradictory or incoherent” (1990:172). Campbell argues that, at least for the young female gang members she studied in New York, there are five major problems such poverty-class girls face and to which they seek answers within the gang: 1) “A future of meaningless domestic labor with little possibility of educational or occupational escape”. Indeed, most are from welfare families and have dropped out of school and thus have few marketable skills; 2) “Subordination to the man in the house”. Especially within the Hispanic culture, the woman must submit to the man and has no say in the matter; 3) “Responsibility for children”. This job is hers and hers alone and this further restricts her options; 4) “The social isolation of the housewife”. She becomes trapped in the home with, at best, a few friends who are also homemakers; 5) “The powerlessness of underclass membership”. As a member of this class, she is not only removed from the social and economic world but is potentially a victim of a crime within her own neighborhood (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004).

Cox, Allen Hanser and Conrad (2011) research found that aside from listing the risk factors (i.e. drug use, antisocial beliefs, low-income household, single parent etc.), that can predict likely gang involvement, it is perhaps best to view the likelihood of joining a gang as entailing multiple pushes and pulls upon the juvenile. Pushes are

external factors that move a person toward circumstances that breed gang involvement whereas pulls are internal factors that make gang life attractive to the individual (Cox et al., 2011). Research by Cox et al. (2011) determined that social and economic factors might essentially push youth into gang membership. Cox et al (2011) showed that this is particularly true if gangs have been well established and are long lasting in the community. In communities where gang membership is commonplace, juveniles join gangs for protection from other gangs and/or are virtually born into a gang membership because their parents or family members have been prior members (Cox et al., 2011).

Economic factors can also push youth into gang membership (Cox et al., 2011). Research by Cox, Allen, Hanser and Conrad (2011) found that in areas of serious deprivation and where few prosocial opportunities exist, the prospect of joining a gang is enhanced, particularly if the gang is thought to offer material rewards that youth can readily observe. Cox et al. (2011) research confirms that seeing other older and admired youngsters dressed in new clothes, having rolls of cash, jewelry, and multiple friends can be very enticing to a preteen or teenager. The research (2011) also shows that this is particularly true of the youth who observes his or her parents working in some type of low-paid employment or if the parents are chronically unemployed. In addition, Cox et al. (2011) found that if the youth's family is unable to afford material goods or provide opportunities for the younger family members, it becomes easy to see why, amidst a community of little or no opportunities, youths will turn to gangs for their material security where there are seemingly no other truly viable options in their local area. Particularly, there are no options for which they are qualified, whereas gangs are always "hiring" regardless of economic conditions (Cox et al., 2011).

Urbanization is another factor that often serves as a push into gang membership (Cox et al., 2011). As researched by Cox, Allen, Hanser and Conrad (2011), this factor, being a macro-level influence on gang membership, has been found to impact likely gang membership throughout the United States and other areas of the world. In the United States, urbanization has contributed as a push toward gang growth, but it is perhaps now more the case that the suburbs have become a new and equally common playing ground for gangs (Cox et al., 2011).

Cox, Allen, Hanser and Conrad (2011) found that there are numerous pulls that can also entice youth into gang membership. Research by Cox et al. (2011) found that feelings of connection, involvement and a sense of identity could provide the emotional basis for joining a gang. Cox et al. (2011) research found that indeed, it has been noted, “for some youth, gangs provide a way of solving social adjustment problems, particularly the trials and tribulation of adolescence”. In addition, Cox et al. (2011) shows that further, the attractiveness of the gang may come by way of prestige or status that one may acquire through membership, especially if membership is seen as exclusive or difficult to obtain. The need for a sense of fellowship and brotherhood where psychological and/or emotional needs are met is often cited as a reason for membership among youth, particularly those who come from abusive or neglectful homes as found in Cox et al. (2011) research. There has been considerable research, including Cox et al. (2011) that has found that gangs often provide youth with basic human needs related to belonging and a sense of self-worth, which is even more likely if the individual youth has not been an achiever in school, whether academically or athletically. Thus, the gang can be a surrogate family, of sorts (Cox et al., 2011).

Household Composition and SES

Research conducted by Thornberry et al. (1999) states that one aspect of family life that is consistently associated with delinquency is the composition of the family itself. Thornberry et al. (1999) research suggests that children who live in single-parent households or in which marital relationships have been disrupted by divorce or separation are more likely to display a range of emotional and behavioral problems, including delinquency than children from two-parent families. Research conducted by Thornberry et al. (1999) suggests that increased risk of delinquency is experienced among children of broken homes and is related to the family conflict prior to the breaking up of the family. Of broken families, it was found that boys that stayed with their mother after the breakup of the family had almost equal delinquency rates of those of intact families (McCord et al., 2001).

Zahn et al. (2010) found that family issues such as inconsistent or lax supervision and various forms of abuse are some of the most studied links to juvenile delinquency. Zahn et al. (2010) research concluded that girls have stronger connections to family than boys do throughout life and this connection often serves as a protective factor. The theory follows that when this protective bond is weakened by instability, violence, sexual abuse, and/or lack of parental supervision, girls may engage in more risk-taking behaviors, which in turn may lead to delinquency (Zahn et al., 2010).

Family instability, with disruptions in social ties and continuity of education, also appear to be a factor in the development of erratic or disruptive behavior among youth (Zahn et al., 2010). When Zahn et al. (2010) reviewed a study by Keller and colleagues (2002) that focused on parental transitions (i.e., residential moves and/or changes in

parental caretakers) among the children of drug-using parents and found that a greater number of transitions were significantly associated with drug use and delinquency by the child. The delinquency effect was the same for boys and girls; the drug use effect was found for girls only (Zahn et al., 2010).

Research by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) that focused on the association of being born and raised in a single parent family was found to have an increased risk of delinquency and antisocial behavior. A number of studies researched by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) have found that children born to teenage mothers are more likely to be delinquent as well as chronic juvenile offenders. Research (2001) also found that if there are poor parental management and disciplinary practices in two-parent families, these could lead to the development of delinquent behavior. Research by McCord, Widom and Crowell found that failure to set clear expectations for a child's behavior, inconsistent discipline, excessively severe or aggressive discipline and poor monitoring and/or supervision of children can cause later delinquency. In addition, the research (2001) showed that children who suffer from parental neglect have an increased risk of delinquency. Further McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) research showed that those children who have been physically abused also are more likely to commit violent crimes later in life. Additional research by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) suggests that abused and neglected children normally start offending earlier than youths who have not suffered abuse or neglect. Research indicates that youths who lack closeness to parents or caregivers are more likely to engage in delinquency (McCord et al., 2001).

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Bulletin (NCJ 178285) stated that the makeup of a family and/or the income of a family have a major

impact on delinquency (Thornberry et al., 1999). Thornberry et al. (1999) researched that the way parents react, or not react, is of great importance to the behavior of their children. The income of a family, as well as the interaction of parents or lack thereof with their children, will have an impact on the delinquency of their children for future years (Thornberry et al., 1999).

The notion of Siegel and Welsh (2009) is that children today are more likely to live in a single parent home. Siegel and Welsh (2009) research concluded that single parent homes might be a result of children born out of wedlock or as the result of a divorce or even death. Research further conducted by Siegel and Welsh (2009) showed that single parent homes have a parent that needs to work to support their family, causing the children to be left unattended and unsupervised. The idea that the research of Siegel and Welsh (2009) suggests is that youths may take advantage of the parent being absent to get into trouble by trying to obtain something they want, whether it is monetary or materialistic. A high level of marital discord, conflict, and inadequate supervision gives youths the opportunity to become delinquent (Siegel & Welsh, 2009).

McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) reviewed data from The Bureau of Justice Statistics found that 72% of jailed teens came from broken homes. The study reviewed by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) showed that the incarceration rate for children of divorced parents was 12 times higher than for children in a two parent family. A 1998 U.S. longitudinal study found that children who grew up without their biological father in the home were three times more likely to commit a crime that led to incarceration than children from intact families as researched by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001). It was also shown of the research of McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) that if there was

tension between a child and a stepparent, usual boys to stepfathers, there were high rates of delinquency. Children that grow up with two attentive and involved parents in a low-conflict setting will be less likely to become delinquent (McCord et al., 2001).

Poverty plays as a major contributor to delinquency (McCord et al., 2001). Research conducted by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) further suggests that growing up in an environment of harsh poverty could give youths the feeling that opportunities for a better way of life are nonexistent. This feeling of lost opportunities may cause the youths to get the mindset that they are going to take what they want as well as do whatever they want as found in the research conducted by McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001). This same attitude may occur if there is a single parent home with a high number of children, where the parent is burdened just to make ends meet and find the time to care for all of their children as suggested by the research of McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001). The research (2001) further suggest that if the youth feels left out or overlooked, they may just take advantage that no one will notice what they do. If family incomes are higher, children may see less need for criminal activity to achieve their goals (McCord et al., 2001).

Social factors that have risks for delinquency are: 1) children who have parents that are involved in criminal activity or have a criminal background have a higher probability of becoming offenders themselves, 2) neighborhood poverty levels that change for the worse is associated with increasing rates of crime and delinquency, and 3) more disadvantaged area youths have less access to employment and more freedom to experiment with illegal activity (McCord et al., 2001).

After reviewing the research of McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001), youths who live in communities that lack economic and social opportunities have high levels of frustration. McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001) found that these youths who live in these communities believe that they can never compete socially or economically with youths being raised in areas that are more affluent. Youths may turn to criminal behavior for monetary gain and psychological satisfaction (McCord et al., 2001).

Walker, Spohn and Delore (2007) point out that retreatism entails a rejection of both the goals and the accepted means of achieving those. Further stated by Walker, Spohn and Delore (2007) a person may retreat, for example, into drug abuse, alcoholism, vagrancy, or a counter-cultural lifestyle. Retreatism helps explain the high rates of drug and alcohol abuse in America per research conducted (2007). Many forms of drug abuse involve criminal behavior: the buying and selling of drugs, robbery or burglary as a means of obtaining money to purchase drugs, or involvement in a drug trafficking network that includes violent crime directed against rival drug dealers (Walker et al., 2007).

Community risk factors that have been identified include the availability of drugs and guns within the environment (Roberts, 2004). Roberts (2004) research suggests that given community norms that favor drug use, firearms use, and crime, a prevalence of delinquency at a younger age has been demonstrated. Economic deprivation and health problems have also shown a positive correlation to the development of delinquency (Roberts, 2004).

Nearly three-fourths of delinquent children brought before the Cook County Juvenile Court during its early years had parents who were foreign-born (Rosenheim et

al., 2002). Rosenheim, Zimring, Tanenhaus and Dohrn (2002) point out that although these statistics reinforced prevailing stereotypes, Addams and Breckinridge and Abbott were quick to point out that the disproportionate representation of the children of foreign-born parentage did not mean that they were any “worse” than children of native-born parentage were. Rosenheim et al. (2002) research suggests that rather they framed the problem in terms of a conflict of cultures: The Old World’s emphasis on child obedience and wage contributions to the family economy versus the New World’s emphasis on personal autonomy and investments in secondary education. When immigrant families were slow to become assimilated to New World ways, Breckinridge and Abbott argued, truancy ran high, children became alienated from parental authority, and the lure of the streets brought juveniles within the reach of the court (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Shaw and McKay also located the source of delinquent behavior in a conflict of values (Rosenheim et al. 2002). Rosenheim, Zimring, Tanenhaus and Dohrn (2002) research found that it was not just the disarticulation between Old World and New World values that Breckinridge and Abbott had identified. Rosenheim et al. (2002) reviewed that Shaw and McKay argued that there also existed within areas of high “social disorganization” a competing cultural system that condoned delinquent acts in direct opposition to the mainstream values symbolized by the family, the church, and other conventional institutions. To account for the persistence of these delinquent subcultures in community areas, they turned to the theory of urban growth that Park and Burgess (1925) had developed (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

According to the ecological theory of urban growth, impersonal market and technological forces tend to bring about a typical geographical sorting of the city’s

population (Rosenheim et al., 2002). These geographical groupings develop over time a local organization and neighborhood identity of their own as found in research of Rosenheim, Zimring, Tanenhaus and Dohrn (2002). Once formed, Rosenheim et al. (2002) research shows that the neighborhood imposes itself as an external structure that defines the quality of life and opportunities of its residents. In this way, a neighborhood takes on an organized existence of its own that is more or less independent of the individual persons and families who temporarily inhabit it (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Shaw and McKay adapted this general theory to their explanation of juvenile delinquency (Rosenheim et al., 2002). As found in Rosenheim, Zimring, Tanenhaus and Dohrn (2002) research first, they distinguished between neighborhoods with high and low degrees of social organization. Research by Rosenheim et al. (2002) suggests that neighborhoods with low degrees of an organization comprised of diverse immigrant and racial groups whose cultural standards conflicted with each other and with larger society. In addition, the research (2002) shows these neighborhoods were constantly besieged by the destabilizing forces of high mobility, chronic unemployment, family breakdown, and a host of additional urban ills. Further research conducted by Rosenheim et al. (2002) suggests that under these disorganizing conditions, immigrant and poor families lost control of their children to the competing influences of local street gangs. Local gangs then became the primary transmitters of criminal traditions and delinquent values to each successive generation of children that inhabited the streets of these disorganized areas (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Later researchers such as Sutherland (1939), Glueck and Glueck (1968), and Tannenbaum (1938) began to appreciate that delinquency was a manifestation of an

unfolding sequence of underlying problems that often was initiated long before birth and that could be located as well in community conditions (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Rosenheim et al. (2002) researched and found that later researchers located children's development trajectories in the cultural and community conditions that shaped both the structure and process of family life. Research by Rosenheim et al. (2002) found that instead of looking for single causes resulting in distinctive outcomes, later students of the ecological approach to child and youth development examined more broadly the ways that community process shaped the socialization of children. Rosenheim et al. (2002) research found that the focus on socialization provided a way of exposing how community conditions insinuated themselves in the development of the child, both inside the family early in life and later on as the child moved into school, formed peer relationships, and engaged in the life of the surrounding community. Research (2002) suggests that this process of movement through progressively larger contexts was a way of understanding the formation of problem behaviors over the early part of the life course. It also showed how syndromes of behavior could be traced back to very early childhood: neglect, illness, accidents, poor mental health, low cognitive skills, and physical disabilities early in life: truancy, aggressiveness, and school failure in primary school: and delinquency, dropout, sexual promiscuity, drug use, and suicide in the teen years (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Detainment

The decision to make an arrest can be affected by race and social class (Shoemaker, 2013). In addition, research by Shoemaker (2013) shows that being detained can negatively affect a juvenile's case during the adjudicatory hearing or the disposition

hearing, and it too, can become another legal factor. Thus, what on the surface seem to be legal factors have in reality been influenced by race, class or other extralegal factors (Shoemaker, 2013).

Race may also become a factor in court decision-making apart from individual characteristics (Shoemaker, 2013). Shoemaker (2013) research also suggests that sometimes the racial composition of a community with a largely young, minority and/or poor component may elicit fearful attitudes among adult whites in the community, attitudes that may reflect in higher minority representation in court decision-making. Shoemaker (2013) researched and found that in a national study of juvenile court decisions, for example, Robert Sampson and John Laub (1993) found that measures of racial inequality and “underclass” poverty, including families living in poverty and ratios of African-American to white levels of poverty, were significantly associated with the filing of formal petitions to the court, detention decisions, and out-of-home placement or dispositions for minority youths.

Review of youth corrections shows that detention has a profoundly negative impact on young people’s mental and physical well-being, their education, and their employment (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research found that one-third of incarcerated youth are diagnosed with depression, which occurred after they began their incarceration, and another suggests that poor mental health and the conditions of confinement together conspire to make it more likely that incarcerated teens will engage in suicide and self-harm. There is credible and significant research that suggests that the experience of detention may make it more likely that youth will continue to engage in delinquent behavior, and that the detention experience may

increase the odds that youth will recidivate, further compromising public safety (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

Exposure to complex trauma places children at risk for a range of serious internalizing (e.g., fear and depression) and externalizing (anger, aggression, conduct disorder, and substance abuse) problems (Ford et al., 2012). Ford, Connor and Cruise (2012) found that in secure juvenile justice settings, youth suffering the continuation of complex trauma often display aggressive behavior (e.g. reactive episodes of rage or methodically assaultive or destructive acts) that has substantial social, educational and economic costs.

The Sentencing Commission estimated the effect of racial/ethnicity on both the probability of receiving a substantial assistance departure and the magnitude of the sentence reduction (Walker et al., 2007). Research by Walker, Spohn and Delore (2007) found they controlled for other variables such as the seriousness of the offense, use of a weapon, the offender's prior criminal record, and other factors deemed relevant under the sentencing guidelines. They found that African-American and Hispanics were less likely than whites to receive a substantial assistance departure were; among offenders who did receive a departure, whites received a larger sentence reduction than either African-American or Hispanics (Walker et al., 2007).

The primary information about any discrepancies in institutional utilization is associated with single-day counts, rather than admissions (Rosenheim et al., 2002). Research conducted by Rosenheim et al. (2002) showed that one of the major sources of gender and racial disparities is associated with the differences between public and private facilities. Rosenheim et al. (2002) research found that since the first recent survey in 1975

located the number of private facilities that housed as least ten percent delinquent youth, the private sector has displayed a persistent increase, particularly in facility types such as shelters for status offenders and non-offenders, special training schools, and halfway houses/group homes. These three types make up about 88% of all of the census day residents and 84% of the admissions to private facilities (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

In 1995, females were much more likely to be part of private facilities than public ones (about 29 to 11 percent, respectively) (Rosenheim et al., 2002). Rosenheim et al. (2002) research stated that in 1995, African-American made up about 43 percent of public, non-detention facilities and Hispanics made up about 21 percent. In contrast, in private facilities, African-American made up about 32 percent and Hispanics made 9 percent of the resident population (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

When private facilities are assessed by type, for 1991, clear racial and ethnic are evident (Rosenheim et al., 2002). Rosenheim et al. (2002) found that African-American were least likely to be in private halfway houses/group homes and shelters (the more open types of facilities) and most likely to be in such secure facilities as private detention and training schools as well as Hispanics were most likely to be in private detention centers. It is not possible to control for age, history, or current offense in making further assessments, but these disparities continue to warrant further study (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Available evidence also indicates that there are consistent ethnic/racial differences in the rates of detention for youth who are formally petitioned to appear before the court (Rosenheim et al., 2002). If the type of current offense is controlled, as was done in an

analysis of 1994 juvenile court data by The National Center for Juvenile Justice, then the following disparities in detention proportions appear for each type of offense:

- Violent offenses: 21% white detained vs 29% African-American
- Property offenses: 14% white detained vs 22% African-American
- Drug offenses: 14% white detained vs 22% African-American
- Public order offense: 21% white vs 30% African-American (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Disparities exist for all offenses, but they are particularly notable for the drug offenses (Rosenheim et al., 2002).

Minorities are overrepresented among youths held in secure detention, petitioned in juvenile court, and adjudicated delinquent (Bartollas & Schmalleger, 2014). Bartollas and Schmalleger (2014) research found that among those who are adjudicated delinquent, minorities are more often committed to the “deep end” of the juvenile system: when confined, they are more likely to be housed in large public institutions rather than in privately run specialized treatment facilities or group homes, and prosecutors and judges seem quicker to relinquish jurisdiction over minorities, transferring them to criminal court for prosecution and punishment.

Race and sex disparities exist in detention decisions just as they do in arrest decisions, adjudications, dispositions, and waivers, and decisions about community corrections versus institutional placement (Regoli et al., 2011). Regoli, Hewitt and Delisi (2011) found during research that Eleanor Hoyt and her colleagues argue, “Because detention is a key entry point from which youth further penetrate the juvenile justice system, decisions made at detention can have a profound impact on disproportionality

throughout the system”. The disparities or overrepresentation raise serious questions and, for many people, suggest the possibility of race and sex discrimination (Regoli et al., 2011).

Race and sex also appear to interact in terms of detention decisions (Regoli et al., 2011). Regoli, Hewitt and Delisi (2011) found that according to Christy Sharp and Jessica Simon, in the mid-1990s approximately 63% of all girls in secure detention were African-American or Hispanic; African-American girls were roughly three times more likely to be detained than white girls were. Bond-Maypin and her colleagues argue that the less serious nature of girl’s offenses does not justify the use of detention and that it is used inappropriately to resolve school and family-based problems (Regoli et al., 2011).

Of juveniles charged with a delinquency offense, males are more likely than females to be held in detention (Regoli et al., 2011). Regoli, Hewitt and Delisi (2011) found in data published jointly by the American Bar Association and The National Bar Association, overall 22% of male delinquency cases involved detention, compared to 17% of female delinquency cases. Research by Regoli, Hewitt and Delis (2011) found in recent years, however, the use of detention has increased more rapidly for girls than for boys and regardless of the general offense category, detention is prescribed more often in cases involving male juveniles. Although research (2011) states that even so, girls are more likely than boys to be detained for minor offenses such as status offenses and traffic offenses. In addition, girls are more likely than boys to be placed in detention for probation and parole violations as noted in Regoli, Hewitt and Delis (2011) research. Females with less extensive delinquency histories also are more likely than males with similar histories to be placed in detention, to be detained for technical violations of

probation, to “protect” them, and to spend more time in detention than their male counterparts (Regoli et al., 2011).

The amount of time a youth spends in secure detention or confinement is not just time away from negative factors that may have influenced his or her behavior (Austin, Johnson and Weitzer, 2005). Austin, Johnson and Weitzer (2005) found that detaining or confining youth might also cause a wide gap between the youth and positive influences such as family and school. Austin et al. (2005) found that research on traditional confinement in large training schools, where large majorities of confined youth are still held in the U.S. has found high recidivism rates. Research has shown that as many as 50-70% of previously confined youth are rearrested within one or two years after release (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer, 2005).

Detention centers serve a role by supervising the most at-risk youth (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research found that with 70% of youths being held for nonviolent offenses, it is not clear whether the number of youths being held is necessary or being borne equally. While the youth of color represent about a third of the youth population, Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research showed that the latest figures show that they represent 61% of detained youth. The youth of color are disproportionately detained at higher rates than whites, even when they engage in delinquent behavior at similar rates as a white youth (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

The use of juvenile detention has hit some communities harder than others (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Research conducted by Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) found that from 1985 to 1995, the number of youth held in secure detention nationwide increased by over 70%. Research (2006) also showed that during the period of 1985 to

1995, the proportion of white youth in detention actually dropped, while the youth of color came to represent a majority of the young people detained. The detained white youth population increased by 21%, while the detained minority youth population grew by 76% (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Research by Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) further found that by 1997, 30 out of 50 states (which contain 83% of the U.S. population) minority youth represented the majority of youth in detention. Further, Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) noted that even in states with small ethnic and racial minority populations, (like Minnesota, where the general population is 90% white, and Pennsylvania, where the general population is 85% white), more than half of the detention population are a youth of color. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention found that in 1997 every state in the country (with the exception of Vermont), the minority population of detained youth exceeded their proportion in the general population (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

Between 1985 and 2011, the proportion of all delinquency cases that involved African-American youth averaged 30%, while that average was 38% of all detained cases (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) research showed an overrepresentation of African-American youth was greatest for drug offense cases. On average, between 1985 and 2011, African-American youth accounted for 30% of all cases involving drug offense violations but represented 46% of such cases detained, as contained in the 2016 research of Hockenberry and Puzzanchera. Cases involving African-American youth were more likely to be detained than cases involving white youth in each year between 1985 and 2011 across offense categories (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

Between 1985 and 2011, the proportion of all delinquency cases that involved African-American youth averaged 30%, while that average was 38% of all detained cases (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) research noted an overrepresentation of African-American youth was greatest for drug offense cases. On average, between 1985 and 2011, African-American youth accounted for 30% of all cases involving drug offense violations but represented 46% of such cases detained (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

Between 1985 and 1991, the proportion of detained drug offense cases involving youth increased substantially (from 29% to 65%) (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014). Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) found that since that time, the proportion of detained drug offense cases involving African-American youth fell, resulting in a level in 2011 that was 27 percentage points below the 1991 peak. Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) research concluded that African-American youth accounted for 20% of all drug offense cases processed in 2011 but were involved in 28% of the drug offenses that involved detention. Research by Hockenberry and Puzzanchera (2014) indicates that African-American youth accounted for 40% of the person offense cases processed in 2011 and 43% of those detained. Cases involving African-American youth were more likely to be detained than cases involving white youth in each year between 1985 and 2011 across offense cases (Hockenberry & Puzzanchera, 2014).

The number of juveniles detained increased between 1990 and 2000 (Roberts, 2004). However, the percentage of juvenile offenders detained has decreased from 23% in 1990 to 19.5% in 2000 as found in research by Roberts (2004). Research by Roberts (2004) also found a decrease in the percentage of youths detained was observed for males

and females as well as for both White and nonwhite youths. One reason for the decrease in detention may be that youths who might otherwise have been detained are being processed in the adult system (Roberts, 2004).

Delinquency cases involving African-American youths were placed in detention more frequently than cases involving white youths (Whitehead & Lab, 2013). Research conducted by Whitehead and Lab (2013) showed that this was true for every year from 1985 to 2007. Research by Whitehead and Lab (2013) confirms that minority youths are more likely to be detained than white youths. One reason for this is a structural disadvantage, which is, living in disadvantaged areas (Whitehead & Lab, 2013).

The number of delinquents held in placement increased 4% between 1997 and 1999 and then decreased 43% to its lowest level in 2011 (Hockenberry, 2014). Hockenberry (2014) research found that the number of delinquents held in public facilities outnumbered those held in private facilities. Hockenberry (2014) research also showed that delinquents held in private facilities accounted for 82% of the overall increase between 1997 and 1999. Since 1999, the number of delinquents held in public facilities decreased 44%, and the number held in private facilities decreased 39% (Hockenberry, 2014).

The least serious offense categories have the greatest level of racial disparity for detainment (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research found that surveys from the late 1990s found that whites used and sold drugs at rates similar to other races and ethnicities, but that African-American were detained for drug offenses at more than twice the rates of whites. Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research indicates that on any given day, African-American comprise nearly half of all youth in

the United States detained for a drug offense. Further research by Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) had shown that the demographics of detention that occurred during the 1980s and 1990s continues today: in 2003 African-American youth were detained at a rate 4.5 higher than whites, and Latino youth were detained at twice the rate of whites. Minority youth represented 61% of all youth detained in 2003 (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

Over the past 15 years, crowded detention and confinement facilities have become more common (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer, 2005). Austin, Johnson and Weitzer (2005) research showed that between 1990 and 1999, the number of delinquency cases involving detention increased by 11 %, or 33,400 cases. Austin et al. (2005) over the same period, the number of adjudicated cases resulting in out-of-home placement increased 24%, from 124,900 in 1990 to 155,200 in 1999. As a result, approximately 39% of all juvenile detention and confinement facilities had more residents than available beds (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer, 2005).

According to research conducted by Hockenberry (2014) during the period between 2001 and 2011, the population of offenders dropped 41%. This decline, however, did not affect all race/ethnicity groups equally as found in Hockenberry (2014) research. Hockenberry's (2014) research also had shown that since 2001, when the white proportion was at its peak, the number of whites dropped 52%. In comparison, Hockenberry (2014) noted the number of minority offenders in residential placement declined only 34% over the time. Hispanic offenders had the smallest relative decrease (22%) between 2001 and 2011 (Hockenberry, 2014).

From 1989 to 1998, the increase in a number of detained females (56%) was greater than for males (20%) because of the large increase in the number of female delinquency cases involving person offenses (157%) (Roberts, 2004). Roberts (2004) research noted that during the same time, the number of White juveniles detained grew more (33%) than for African- American juveniles (15%), also because of the higher increase of person and drug offenses for white youths. Roberts (2014) research suggests that it may be due in part to the much higher proportion of African-American youths being processed in the adult system.

In 2011, 38% of females under the age of 16 were in residential placement, compared with 29% of males (Hockenberry, 2014). Hockenberry (2014) found during conducting research that for females in placement, the peak age was 16, accounting for 27% of all females in placement facilities. However, for males, the peak age was 17. There were a greater proportion of offenders age 18 and older among males (15%) than among females (9%) (Hockenberry, 2014).

The largest share of youth offenders in placement was African-American (Hockenberry, 2014). In 2011, Hockenberry (2014) found that the population of juvenile offenders held in residential placement was 40% African-American, 32% white, and 23% Hispanic. Hockenberry (2014) research also showed the youth of other races, including those of two or more races, accounted for 5% of youth in residential placement. The race/ethnicity profile of offenders in residential placement shifted substantially from a decade earlier (Hockenberry, 2014). Hockenberry (2014) concluded that in 2001, 40% of juvenile offenders in residential placement were white, 39% were African-American, and 18% were Hispanic.

Monroe County has seen a decline in overall admissions to secure detention over the past five years: 750 in 2008 to 379 in 2012 (Hare, 2013). Hare's 2013 composition of data showed that the average daily population has gone from 35 in 2009 to 18 in 2012. Data from Hare (2013) showed the number of non-Monroe County youths admitted has ranged in the mid-30s to 40s with a jump in 2011 to a high of 52 youth. There has been a significant increase in the percentage of youth admitted who are 16 or older at the time of admissions: 17% in 2008, 19% in 2009, 21% in 2010, 23% in 2011 and 29% in 2012 (Hare, 2013).

The causes of the disproportionate detention of youth of color are rooted in some of the nation's deepest social problems, many of which may play out in key decision-making points in the juvenile justice system (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006). Holman and Ziedenberg (2006) research found that while white youth and minority youth commit several categories of crime at the same rate, minority youth are more likely to be arrested. Once arrested, white youth tend to have access to better legal representation and programs and services than minority youth (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2006).

The proportionate likelihood of detention, however, varied among the demographic groups irrespective of whether they were charged with a serious or non-serious offense. For example, only about 5% of white males accused of non-serious offenses were detained whereas twice the percentage of similarly charged African-American males were detained. Among serious offenders, African-American males were also most likely to be detained. Close to half (45.61%) of African-American males accused of serious offenses were detained whereas only about one-fifth (20.97%) of similarly charged white males were detained. Detention rates for girls charged with

serious and non-serious offenses, regardless of race, fell between the two extremes represented by African-American and white males (National Juvenile Detention Association, 2002).

Over one-third (35%) of youth in residential placement are white non-Hispanic and no other race (Sedlak & Bruce, 2010). Sedlak and Bruce (2010) research showed that nearly another one-third (32%) are African-American or African-American and no other race, and close to one-fourth (24%) are Hispanic. An estimated 6% identify as multiracial (Sedlak & Bruce, 2010).

Status offenders do not require secure detention to ensure their compliance with court orders or to protect public safety (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer, 2005). Austin, Johnson and Weitzer (2005) research of recent data indicates that one-third of all youth held in juvenile detention centers are detained for status offenses and technical violations of probation. Austin, et al. (2005) research concluded that detaining youth in facilities prior to adjudication should be an option of last resort only for serious, violent and chronic offenders and for those who repeatedly fail to appear for scheduled court dates. Secure detention and confinement are almost never appropriate for status offenders and certain other small groups of offenders- those who are very young, vulnerable, and first-time offenders (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer, 2005).

Summary

After reviewing the above literature review, there seems to have been numerous studies conducted to research as to why juveniles, either male or female, or of any specific ethnic group commits delinquent acts. The literature review leaves many unanswered questions as to whether there are specific environmental or social factors that

can be attributed to delinquency aside from juveniles coming from disadvantaged neighborhoods. Researchers have conducted studies on juveniles who have entered puberty earlier than others have, but fail to state why it seems that the earlier a juvenile enters puberty, puberty causes said juvenile to engage in behavioral problems earlier in life as well. The Rochester Youth Study Group conducted a meta-analysis on youths held in detainment; however, such study was not categorized by gender and/or race alone.

Research Questions

1. What environmental factors such as residential zip code, contribute to youth incarceration?
2. Are age, race and/or gender biological factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency?
3. Are all minority youths more at risk based on most serious offense, a risk of failure to appear or risk of re-offending for secure detainment than majority youths?
4. Do female youths have a lower risk based on most serious offense, a risk of failure to appear or risk of re-offending for secure detainment than males based only on gender?

Chapter 3

Methodology

Participants

The participants studied consisted of approximately 420-475 juveniles based on the categories of federally standard classification categories consisting of race, gender, and ethnicity on the RAI score that was given to such juvenile after an arrest, while processed through the intake process of various law enforcement agencies. To address the research problem, the researcher used the Ex Post Facto approach (causal-comparative method). This approach is most appropriate when experimentation is not appropriate or unethical. It allows for hypothesis testing techniques and making assumptions about cause and effect (Simon & Goes, 2013).

Population

The data consisted of 462 juveniles based on the categories of federally standard classification categories consisting of race, gender, and ethnicity on the RAI score that was given to such juvenile after an arrest, while processed through the intake process of various law enforcement agencies. The inclusion criteria of the juveniles included consisted of race, age, gender together with what law enforcement agency had arrested said juvenile. All data that was collected was secured using a password-protected database. Data that is reported does not include any identifying factors such as juvenile's names or addresses if available, however, each juvenile is represented by a numerical and/or alpha code to distinguish each database.

Instrument

The Vera Institute provided the instrument used to Monroe County through technical support for Justice. Other instruments were reviewed in NY State and across the county, a completed retrospective analysis using various tools/questions to see what might be determined, meeting with stakeholders (judges, police, Probation Officers etc.) were held to review the instrument and to make any necessary changes. The instrument has been in use since January 2009 and it is still being used as of today with no changes. The method by which the data was collected consisted of obtaining legal consent from the local Department of Human Services' legal department to acquire the database of the juveniles arrested and/or detained for the period of 2010-2012. After being given the consent of the legal department, the researcher had gained approval from the Commissioner of the local Department of Human Services due to the sensitivity and the need of protection of the study group. The researcher needed to ensure Monroe County Department of Human Services that due to the data being collected involves the protected population of juveniles, that confidentiality was maintained at all times before, during and after the study was conducted and that there was not the need to actually view the juvenile files or to record the juvenile's names and any other sensitive information in relations to the juveniles themselves. Upon gaining consent from the Department of Human Services legal department and the Commission of Human Services, the researcher contacted the Juvenile Justice Services Planner/JDAI Coordinator of the local Department of Human Services who maintains the excel database of juvenile arrests/detainment.

While accessing the data, the researcher extracted the data that consisted of all of the following characteristics: race, age, gender as well as RAI score. In reviewing the available data, the researcher focused on gathering information that related to the research questions that were to be answered. Each database for each of the three years being studied contained the necessary questions being asked. This researcher focused on the differences between the variables under investigation in this study about juveniles held in secure detainment.

Procedures

The research design that was used was Ex Post Facto (causal-comparative) design. The data set that was available for the period of 2010-2012 studied the entire population consisting of all gender, race, and ethnicity with no particular sample being pulled from the database. The researcher selected two groups that differed, either by gender or by race, using the races of white, African-American as well as Hispanic. The researcher attempted to determine reasons for secure detainment of one group compared to the other (e.g. male to female; white to African-American, etc.). The difference of each group is clearly defined since each group represents a different population. The researcher measured the number of gender, race and ethnicity risk factors as they relate to the population. Each group was as similar as possible on all relevant variables except for the variable of the RAI score determined for each participant. If a participant in either group did not have a suitable match (e.g. RAI score assigned), the participant was eliminated from the study. In controlling the independent variable of each participant, it permitted the researcher to determine whether the independent variable affects the dependent variable differently. Such procedure was conducted by using each participant

that had all specific independent variables listed, such as race, RAI score as well as gender. Using this type of procedure allowed the researcher to look “backwards” to see what may have caused this difference of secure detainment for some, but not others to occur by reviewing the data to determine if the juvenile was held in secure detainment in one instance but another juvenile was released. By conducting this study and determining what factors attributed to secure detainment, it ruled out other causal factors.

Chapter 4

Results

Data Analysis

Preliminary data analysis

A preliminary data analysis was conducted in order to examine the data set for missing values, outliers and normality. Of the original 1,122 records included in the dataset, 660 were excluded because they did not have a RAI score. For each juvenile, the RAI scores were measured across all three years. The RAI scores ($M = 10.79$, $Mdn = 9.00$, $SD = 6.85$) were examined for normality. The range of days was from two to 28. This indicated the possible presence of outliers in RAI scores. RAI scores were converted into z -scores and then categorized in terms of potential deviation from a normal range of scores. Juveniles with z -scores greater than 1.96 were considered outliers and were excluded from the data set.

In order to examine this variable for normality, a P-P plot was generated and examined. A visual inspection indicated that the data is not normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wilks test was also conducted and was found to be significant ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that RAI scores are not normally distributed.

For each juvenile, the numbers of days of incarceration were also measured across all three years. The number of days of incarceration ($M = 10.24$, $Mdn = 3.00$, $SD = 20.26$) exhibited considerable variability. The range of days was from zero to 306 days. This indicated the possible presence of outliers in the number of days of incarceration. Days of incarceration were converted into z -scores and then categorized in terms of severity.

Juveniles with z-scores greater than ± 1.96 were considered outliers and were excluded from the data set.

In order to examine this variable for normality, a P-P plot was generated and examined. A visual inspection indicated that the data is not normally distributed. A Shapiro-Wilks test was also conducted and was found to be significant ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that the number of days of incarceration is not normally distributed. After outlier removal, 435 records will be used for subsequent analyses.

Results

Gender

Across all three years (2010-2012) combined, a total of 90 (21%) females and 345 (79%) males were detained by various police departments across Monroe County. In order to determine if the number of males and females were equally distributed, a Fisher exact test of goodness of fit was conducted. The result indicates that males and females were not equally distributed over all three years combined, $\chi^2 (1, N = 435) = 149.48, p < 0.001$.

The distribution of gender over all three years combined was also examined. The distribution of gender over all three years was; in 2010 82% males, 18% females; in 2011 75% males, 25% females; and in 2012 76% males, 24% females. In order to examine the relation between gender distribution and time, a z-test of column proportions, using a Bonferroni correction for all pairwise comparisons, was conducted. The relationship between male juveniles and year was not significant ($p = 0.11$). The relationship between female juveniles and year was also not significant ($p = 0.11$). Therefore, the unequal distribution of gender was maintained over all three years.

Throughout the years of 2010 through 2012, all juveniles were assessed and given an RAI score. The RAI score average over the three-year period was 8.8 for females and 11.0 for males. Prior to comparing the means between males and females, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted in order to determine the correct test for comparisons of means. The results of this test indicate that this assumption was not violated ($F = 0.35, p = 0.56$). As a result, an independent sample t-test was conducted between the RAI scores of male and female juveniles. The result indicates that, overall, males had a higher RAI score ($M = 11.05, SD = 6.58$) than females ($M = 8.84, SD = 6.59$).

Differences in an average number of days of incarceration as a function of gender were examined next. During the three-year period, the average number of days of incarceration for gender was an average of 6.7 days for females and an average of 7.7 days for males. A Levene's test of equality of variance was conducted in order to determine the most appropriate test for the comparisons of means. Results indicate that variances among different races was not significantly different $F(3,431) = 0.81, p = 0.49$. A one-way analysis of variance showed that the effect of gender on the average number of days incarcerated was not significant, $F(3,434) = 0.48, p = 0.70$.

Across all three years combined, 15 (17%) females and 51 (15%) males were remanded into custody. 75 (83%) females and 294 (85%) of males were not. A chi-square of independence was performed in order to examine the relationship between gender and remanding into custody. The results indicate that there was not a relationship between gender and remanding into custody, [$\chi^2(1, N = 435) = 0.20, p = 0.63$].

Across all three years combined, the relationship between gender and the average age at arrest was assessed. The average age at arrest was 14.2 years for females and 14.4 years for males. In order to determine the most appropriate statistical test for comparisons of means, Levene's test for equality of variance was conducted. The results indicate that the variances between genders are not significantly different, $F = 0.33, p = 0.56$. Therefore, an independent sample t-test was conducted. The results indicate that there was not any statistically significant difference between genders with respect to average age at arrest $t(433) = -1.07, p = 0.29$.

Race

Inclusive of all three years, African-American made up 72% percent of all juveniles detained. White (15%), Hispanic (9%) and Multiracial (4%) juveniles, followed this. In order to determine if the number of African-American, Whites, and Hispanics and Multiracial juveniles was equally distributed, a Fisher exact test of goodness of fit was conducted. The results indicate that race was not equally distributed over all three years combined, $\chi^2(1, N = 435) = 527.12, p < 0.001$.

The distribution of race over each year combined was also examined. For the years 2010-2012, the racial distribution of juveniles was as follows: 2010-14 % white; 8% Hispanic; 4 % Multiracial and 75% African-American. In the year 2011 the distribution was; 18% White; 11% Hispanic; 4% Multiracial and 68% African-American. In 2012, the distribution was 12% White; 12% Hispanic; 4% Multiracial and 76% African-American. In order to examine the relation between race distribution and each year, a series of z-tests were conducted. The results did not reveal statistically significant difference.

Differences in average RAI scores as a function of race were examined. When the difference in RAI scores were examined, the average was 11% for African-American; 12.1% for multiracial 9.4 % for Hispanics and 8.4 for Whites. A Levene's test of equality of variance was conducted in order to determine the most appropriate test for the comparisons of means. Results indicate that variances among different races was not equal $F(3,431) = 3.07, p = 0.03$. Therefore, a Welch test was conducted. Results indicate that the effect of race on average RAI score was significant $F(3, 55.40) = 4.29, p = 0.01$. Post hoc analyses using the Scheffé post hoc criterion for significance indicated that the average RAI score was significantly higher for African-American ($M = 11.11, SD = 6.74$) than for Whites ($M = 8.38, SD = 5.84$).

Across all three years overall, male juveniles were detained for an average of 7.70 days ($SD = 10.63$) while female juveniles were detained for an average of 6.70 days ($SD = 9.05$). A Levene test was initially conducted in order to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The results of this test indicated that this assumption was not violated ($F = 2.16, p = 0.40$). Therefore, an independent sample t-test was conducted in order to determine if there is a difference between males and females with respect to the average number of days incarcerated. The result of this test indicates that there was not any statistically significant difference between male and female juveniles with respect to an average number of days of incarceration, $t(433) = -0.84, p = 0.40$.

Across all three years combined, 47 (15%) African-American, 3 (15%) Multiracial, 9 (23%) Hispanic, and 7 (11%) White juveniles were remanded into custody. 267 (85%) African-American, 14 (82%) Multiracial, 30 (77%) Hispanic, and 58 (89%) of White juveniles were not. A chi-square of independence was performed in order to

examine the relationship between race and remanding into custody. The results indicate that there was not a relationship between gender and whether or not juveniles were remanded into custody $\chi^2 (3, N = 435) = 2.96, p = 0.38$.

Race, as it relates to the average age at the arrest of all juveniles, was measured for all time periods combined the overall average of age at arrest for the three year period was; 14.4 years for African-American; 14.1 for multiracial; 14.4 for Hispanic and 14.1 for Whites. Levene's test was conducted prior to a comparison of means to determine whether the variances of all average were equal across groups. The results indicate that this assumption was not violated $F (3,431) = 1.00, p = 0.39$. A subsequent one-way analysis of variance showed that the effect of race on average age at arrest was not significant, $F (3,434) = 1.12, p = 0.34$.

Time

Various police departments detained a total of 251, 151, and 33 juveniles across Monroe County during 2010, 2011, and 2012, respectively. In order to determine if the number of juveniles was equally distributed across all three years, a Fisher exact test of goodness of fit was conducted. The result indicates that the number of juveniles detained were not equally distributed across all three years, $\chi^2 (2, N = 435) = 164.24, p < 0.001$.

Differences in RAI scores were also examined between each year from 2010 to 2012 for all genders combined. The average RAI score for all juveniles for each year 2010-2012, was 10.5 in 2010 10.3 in 2011 and 10.9 in 2012. Prior to comparing the means between males and females, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted in order to determine the correct test for comparisons of means. The results of this test indicate that this assumption was not violated $F (2, 432) = 0.65, p =$

0.52. As a result, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted between RAI scores and each year. The result indicates that there was not any statistically significant difference between overall RAI scores over time $F(2, 434) = 0.20, p = 0.82$.

The average number of days incarcerated was examined to assess whether there was a significant change between all three years of interest. Prior to comparing the means for each year, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted in order to determine the correct test for comparisons of means. The results of this test indicate that this assumption was not violated $F(2, 432) = 1.15, p = 0.32$. As a result, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted between RAI scores and each year. The result indicates that there was not any statistically significant difference between an average number of days incarcerated and time $F(2, 434) = 0.94, p = 0.39$.

Finally, the potential effect of time on the average age at arrest was examined. The average age at arrest for all juveniles for all three years 2010-2012, were 14.2 years in 2010 14.4 years in 2011 and 14.7 years in 2012. Prior to comparing the means for each year, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted in order to determine the correct test for comparisons of means. The results of this test indicate that this assumption was violated $F(2, 432) = 3.31, p = 0.04$. As a result, Welch test was conducted between RAI scores and each year. The result indicates that there was not any statistically significant difference between average number of days incarcerated and time $F(2, 82.07) = 2.50, p = 0.09$.

Across all three years (2010-2012) combined, 13 police departments detained juveniles across Monroe County. The overall distribution of juveniles by arresting police departments over all three years 2010-2012 were: 60% Rochester Police Department; 9% Greece police Department, 6% Monroe County Sheriff Department; 3% Irondequoit Police Department; Gates Police Department and Brighton Police Department were at 2% each, while other unknown agencies were at 19%. The unknown agencies were not correctly entered into the database. In order to determine if the number of juveniles was equally distributed, a chi-square of a goodness of fit was conducted. The result indicates that the number of juveniles detained was not equally distributed between all police departments over all three years combined, $\chi^2 (11, N = 435) = 1,624.11, p < 0.001$.

Over the same period, the relationship between juvenile gender and the arresting police department was assessed. Over all agencies combined out of the all the 435 juveniles used in the study, 90 were females and 345 were males. A series of z-tests were conducted comparing the distribution of males and females for each department. Results indicate that there were not statistically significant differences in gender distributions for each police department. That is, the percent of each gender detained by each department was not found to be significantly different.

Over the same period, the relationship between juvenile race and the arresting police department was assessed. Over all agencies combined out of the 435 juveniles used in the study, 314 were African-American; 17 were multiracial; 39 were Hispanic and 65 were white. A series of z-tests were conducted comparing the distribution of juvenile's gender for each department. Results indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in the percent of White juveniles (2%) compared to African-

American juveniles (6%) detained by the Greece Police Department ($p < 0.01$). In addition, with respect to the Irondequoit Police Department, a greater percentage of White juveniles were detained (6%) when compared to African-American juveniles (2%, $p = 0.03$). When examining the Monroe County Sheriff's Department, a greater percentage of White juveniles (15%) were detained when compared to African-American juveniles (4%, $p < 0.01$). Finally, when examining the Rochester Police Department, a greater percentage of African-American juveniles (68%) were detained compared to Hispanic juveniles (51%, $p < 0.000$). This is part of there is a higher percentage of African-American and Hispanic juveniles in the inner city, compared to a lower percentage of these juveniles in the suburbs.

The extent to which juveniles were remanded into custody, between the years of 2010 and 2012, inclusive, was also examined. Over all agencies combined out of the 435 juveniles used in the study, 66 were remanded into custody while 369 of the juveniles were not. A series of z-tests were conducted on each police department with respect to whether or not a juvenile was remanded into custody.

Within the same time span, the relationship between the detaining police department and average RAI scores of juveniles was assessed. The average RAI score for juveniles by arresting police agencies were: 7.4 for Brighton Police Department; 10 for Gates Police Department; 8 for Greece Police Department; 11.4 for Irondequoit Police Department; Monroe County Sheriff was 8.9; Rochester Police Department 10.8; Webster Police Department was 9.8; Ogden Police Department was 5.3; Cattaraugus was 9.0; East Rochester Police Department was 14; New York State Police was 10 as well as the unknown agencies was 12.2. A Levene test of homogeneity of variance was initially

conducted. Results indicate that this assumption was not violated $F(9, 423) = 1.25, p = 0.26$. As a result, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Results indicate that there was not any statistically significant difference in RAI scores between police departments $F(9, 432) = 1.84, p = 0.60$.

Continuing within the same time span, once the arresting police agencies arrest the juveniles for the offense and lodge the charges against the youth, the charges are reviewed by the Family Court, which decides how long a juvenile will be detained, and when and under what circumstances the juvenile will be released. The average number of days of incarceration for all juveniles was: Brighton PD 5.4; Gates PD 6.1; Greece PD 6.6; Irondequoit 7.1; Monroe County Sheriff 4.6; Rochester PD 7.7; Webster 8.8; Ogden 2.0; Cattaraugus PD 27; East Rochester PD 18.3; New York State Police 1 and unknown was 8.1. A Levene test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted. Results indicate that this assumption was not violated $F(9, 423) = 1.32, p = 0.23$. As a result, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Results indicate that there was not any statistically significant difference in the average number of days juveniles were incarcerated with respect to police departments $F(9, 432) = 1.03, p = 0.42$.

Finally, the relationship between the detaining police department and average age at arrest of juveniles was assessed. The average age at arrest for all juveniles by arresting police department were: Brighton PD 14; Gates PD 14.4; Greece PD 14.3; Irondequoit 14.1; Monroe County Sheriff 14.4; Rochester PD 14.3; Webster PD 13; Ogden 14.7; Cattaraugus 15; East Rochester PD 15; New York State Police 14.3 with the unknown agencies being 14.7. A Levene test of homogeneity of variance was initially conducted. Results indicate that this assumption was not violated $F(9, 423) = 0.36, p = 0.95$. As a

result, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Results indicate that there was not any statistically significant difference in the average age at arrest for juveniles with respect to police departments $F(9, 432) = 1.38, p = 0.18$.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Introduction

This chapter addresses the conclusion and recommendation of the research conducted. This study revealed that there is an abundant amount of research that is available concerning the topic of juvenile crime and youth detainment. Recommendations include making changes to the Risk Assessment Instrument used by various police departments.

Results

The hypothesis was not accepted due to limited data due to the limitation of data received and analyzed on the study population. This research aims to explore and identify factors that contribute to the offenses, in turn causing these juveniles to be held in secure detention opposed to being released to their parent or guardian or simply given an appearance ticket to appear in Juvenile or Family Court. The following will address the four (4) research questions posed for the study.

Research question 1 asked: “What environmental factors such as geographic location, contribute to youth incarceration?” Based on the literature review, it was determined that crime more often occurs for young minority males growing up in disadvantaged neighborhoods than those being brought up in advantaged neighborhoods. Causes and conditions of juvenile crime included but are not limited to poverty, drugs, gangs, abuse and neglect as well as truancy. The results of the data indicate that an environmental factor such as geographic location does not contribute to youth incarceration. Although the methodology was valid, however a limited research

population failed to fully offer fully supported findings therefore the hypothesis was not accepted. However, as a focused study, the results may in fact be valid.

Research question 2 asked: “Is age, race and/or gender biological factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency?” The literature review shows that for females, juvenile crime is linked to a poor home life with a deep sense of loneliness and low self-esteem. Females tend to engage in juvenile crime to “belong” or gain acceptance they are lacking in their lives. Females tend to commit offenses such as running away, shoplifting and prostitution. The results of the data do not indicate that age, race and/or gender as biological factors have any contribution to juvenile delinquency and the hypothesis was not accepted

Generally, boys and girls normally start offending at the same age for the less serious crimes such as drug offenses, but for more serious or violent types of crimes, girls tend to start at a younger age than boys do. Ironically, female offenders are less likely to be arrested and formally charged for most offenses than males, however when female offenders are charged, they are more likely to receive secure confinement more so than males.

As for race, when compared to youths of color, white youths are less likely to be incarcerated compared to other youth who have been charged with similar offenses. African-American youths are six (6) times more likely to be incarcerated than white youths with similar criminal backgrounds. African-American youth are routinely searched and questioned in inner city areas known for criminal activity for no known legal reason based on the literature review (Siegel & Walsh. 2009).

Research question 3 asked: “Are all minority youth at risk based on most serious offenses, a risk of failure to appear or risk of reoffending for secure detainment than majority youth?” Youths of color made up 72% of all juveniles detained for the period of 2010-2012. Race may also become a factor in court decision making to detain a youth of color when the racial composition of a community with a larger young minority and/or poor component may elicit fearful attitudes among the adult whites in the community. Even though the literature review states that this commonality, there is no conclusion that can be drawn to validate or refute that the officers are wrong in arresting youths of color in a predominately white community. The literature review suggests that youths of color are at a higher risk of reoffending due to they are trying to obtain material possessions that they lack due to the lower social economic neighborhoods they tend to live in, therefore the hypothesis was not accepted.

Research question 4 asked: “Do female youths have a lower risk based on the most serious offense charged, a risk of failure to appear or risk of reoffending for secure detainment than males based only on gender?” Over the period, the relationship between juvenile gender and the arresting police department was assessed and compared the distribution of male and females for each department. The results indicate that there were not any statistically significant differences in gender distributions for each police department. Each percent of each gender detained by each department was not found to be significantly different. The literature review does not support that females are at more of a risk of reoffending leading to secure detainment over males, although the percentage of female delinquency is increasing each year, therefore the hypothesis was not accepted.

Conclusions

Whether examining literature review research or examining raw data obtained from various police departments across Monroe County, there seems to be a pattern of minority youths being questioned, charged and detained more so than majority youth. Previous research through progress discuss many opinions that were validated from the research based upon perspective developed research model to identify the population and gaining approval for research using the foundation of research to test the population.

Implications

The results of this study have implications for potential positive social change on the organizational, societal and individual levels.

At the organizational level, the audit process would ensure the process of gathering the correct information on each juvenile arrested. The audit process could ensure that training is given to those individual in the organizations that use the instrument to ensure that there are cost efficient measures in place to compiling the data. If the audit process is not completed, the process would remain the same of not compiling or collecting all necessary data or the process would worsen. As strains on police budgets grow, policing agencies need to know what plans and policies that are in place are valid to justify the monies allocated to such plan or policy. All agencies handling a crime or offense must keep a similar record keeping system and the lines of communication open between all aspects of the criminal justice system so there is less chance of offenders slipping through the cracks in the juvenile justice system.

At the societal level, the results from the study could increase the amount of the data. Collecting enough complete data is necessary to come to findings that are more

accurate. If there is not enough data collected or there is data that is missing, then the results could result in inaccurate or inconclusive findings. Research conducted can determine if policing agencies need to change the way they respond to calls and the methods in which they report pertinent information regarding crimes reported.

At the individual level, the study may inform governmental bodies if there was a larger population that included all juveniles arrested. An increase in the size of the population would have the expectations of having solid findings from the data analysis to inform those who work where governmental funding may be useful to make substantial changes in the juvenile justice system. If the sample was not large enough based on the data collected, there is not substantial or sufficient information to reach a conclusion from data analysis. If positive changes were to be made to the criminal justice policies, the amount of data collected could prove to be beneficial as to where more patrols were needed to potentially deter further juvenile crime.

A review of the literature review in contrast to the study conducted contradicted the results of the data analysis of the study. The literature review included different states and populations, whereas the study conducted consisted of a small-generalized population.

Limitations

The potential threats to the internal validity of the study conducted involved the entering of the initial data itself. Internally a threat may consist of an intake worker of juvenile detention not properly documenting all of the necessary information at the time of the youth's arrest. As with ex post facto designs, the researcher did not have control over the causal factor for the study as it has already occurred and could not be

manipulated. This made cause-effect conclusions tenuous and tentative. Another internal threat was if the data base itself was started at a point other than the beginning of an actual calendar year, causing less available data for the months not recorded. The results must be interpreted with caution due to potential selection bias, which is a major threat to external validity in causal-comparative studies. Random sampling was not conducted so generalizations to the target population are limited.

The potential threats to the external validity of the study would be not all the juveniles involved in a particular offense being processed through the secure detention intake process or not apprehended at all. One major external threat would be the inability to obtaining all the necessary data in a timely fashion. Since the data to be collected is empirical, the researcher can use only the data that has been collected by the organization and, whereas no additional data can be added having the researcher draw the conclusions from data sets that already exist. There was a weak external validity as although 100% of the data related to the study was obtained; only 435 records were to be used for analysis after excluding the other 660 that did not have a RAI score. Another limitation was that there was only one instrument used to collect data that included incomplete or missing data.

Another limitation of the study was the external validity of the data collected. With omitted or missing information on each juvenile collected, it could have a possible negative effect on future funding of the agencies that need more resources to make change in the juvenile justice system.

Recommendations

It is recommended that future research be conducted to determine if a countywide task force is needed to review the intake form to determine the validity or changes that are to be made to capture the information of the juveniles arrested. Based on the literature review, police agencies and our juvenile justice system need to remove all bias of color, gender, and social economic status when determining how to process juveniles. These youths are our future and what happens to them during their formative years will surely affect their future adult lives.

It is further recommended that this study be replicated using the same population to retest the findings that were pertinent that came from the literature review and data collected. In the future, this study could be looked at in another three (3) year window to see if there is a change of validation that came from the study of the available data.

Further recommended research should be conducted using additional New York State counties who utilize the Risk Assessment Instrument using the same variables of age, gender and race to determine if disparity is present between genders and/or race. Future research should be conducted using the variables such as age and gender among the races to determine if Risk Assessment scores cause disparity in secure detainment among the individual races or if age is a determining factor for detainment. Future research should be conducted using the arresting police agencies to determine if there is a disparity in gender and/or race upon a juvenile being arrested leading to possible higher Risk Assessment scores resulting in detainment.

Any arresting police agencies, whether City, County or State must utilize the same Risk Assessment Instrument with forced response drop down boxes to ensure that

all data, even the location of the offense is being entered for each juvenile they come into contact with, perhaps the disparity will tip towards the middle. The Risk Assessment Instrument needs to be tailored to fit the juveniles of all races and sexual identifiers. In this modern society, those in the criminal justice system have to realize that not all youths identify themselves as one race or by one gender. The Risk Assessment Instrument needs to be updated to include all sexual orientation including transgender, bisexual, gay or lesbian.

Another recommendation would be to contact the VERA Institute, who first designed the instrument used to collect data to reach out to the police agencies that use their instrument to ensure that there is proper training conducted to ensure the proper use of the form as well as the importance of gathering correct information on each juvenile arrested. With proper training there could be cost efficient measures to compiling data, the instrument could include drop down boxes that must be filled in prior to allowing the data to be entered into the database for the policing agencies. Each State could conduct a yearly audit of the arresting police agencies to ensure that these instruments are being completed and filed correctly.

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Appendix A: Letter of Consent from Monroe County Department of
Human Services



Department of Human Services
Monroe County, New York

Maggie Brooks
County Executive

Kelly A. Reed
Commissioner

April 23, 2014

COPY

Institute for the Study of Human Services
Health and Justice
Institutional Review Board
NOVA Southeastern University
3301 College Avenue
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida 33314

University IRB Office:

As Commissioner of the Monroe County Department of Human Services, I have given Dawn Prystajko permission to review and use archival data on secure detention admissions in Monroe County.

I have spoken to Dawn Prystajko and understand the scope of her research, and how she will be using our data. All information to be gathered will be done in a confidential and appropriate manner. The information that Dawn Prystajko will be accessing is the data that is contained in the Secure Detention Admissions database, not the actual case file of the youth.

The scope of the data to be released is limited to: gender, RAI scores, race, and offense committed. The above are the only categories of information that shall be released. Should you have any questions, please feel free to call me at (585) 753-6430.

Sincerely,

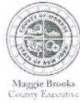
Kelly A. Reed
Commissioner

cc: D. Prystajko

111 Westfall Road • Rochester, New York 14620
(585) 753-6298 • fax: (585) 753-6296 • www.monroecounty.gov

PI: Prystajko
Version Date: **November 19, 2015**
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Appendix B: Juvenile Detention Risk Assessment Instrument (RAI)



**MONROE COUNTY
JUVENILE DETENTION RISK ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT (RAI)**

SCREENING AND JUVENILE INFORMATION

First Name: _____ Last Name: _____ Case Number: _____
 Date of Birth: ____/____/____ Home Zip Code: _____
 Arrest Date: ____/____/____ Arrest Time: ____:____ a.m. p.m.
 Referral Date: ____/____/____ Referral Time: ____:____ a.m. p.m.
 Charge: _____ Arresting Department: _____

CASE INFORMATION AND SCORING (only 1 score per section)

Most Serious Current Offense Category *(Choose only the most serious)*

Designated Felony <i>(see other side for list)</i>	13
Felony	7
Misdemeanor	2
Technical Violation of Probation	0

Risk of Failure to Appear *(Choose only the most serious)*

The youth has an active warrant	13
The youth has a prior JD warrant	8
The youth has a prior PINS warrant issued after 1/1/07	5
None of the above	0

Risk of Re-Offense *(Choose only the most serious)*

The youth has prior designated felony adjudication	10
The youth is currently under court ordered Probation Supervision	8
The youth has a prior JD adjudication	7
The youth has a JD petition pending	8
The youth is active with JD diversion	6
None of the above	0

TOTAL SCORE

DETENTION DECISION

DETENTION DECISION	Score 2	Authorized Release
	Score 7	Release w/ Expedited Appearance Ticket Review [next business day]
	Score 8 -12	Release w/ Restrictions/ATD
	Score 13+	Detain

Released to: _____ Relationship: _____
 Address: _____ Phone # _____ Cell # _____

RAI COMPLETED BY: _____ **DATE:** _____
TITLE: _____ **DEPT/AGENCY** _____

SPECIAL DETENTION CASES:

Detention Override (state reasons): _____
 Release Override (state reasons): _____
Override Approved by: _____ **Date:** _____

FOR STATISTICAL PURPOSES ONLY
Race: White Black/African American Asian/Pacific Islander Native American Other
Ethnicity: Spanish/Latin/Hispanic Non Spanish/Latin/Hispanic **Gender:** Male Female