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The Plan Starts Now: A Study of Juvenile Delinquency and a Re-entry Program Back into the Community

Lynell Porch

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DePaul University
College of Education



**A Study of Juvenile Delinquency
and a Re-entry Program
Back into the Community**

A Capstone in Education
With a Concentration in Educational Leadership

By Lynell Porch

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

June 2021

I approve the capstone of Lynell Porch

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Andrea Kayne", written over a horizontal line.

Andrea Kayne
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A handwritten date "5/10/21" in blue ink, written over a horizontal line.

Date

Certification of Authorship

I certify I am the sole author of this capstone. Any assistance received in the preparation of this capstone has been acknowledged and disclosed within it. Any sources utilized, including the use of data, ideas and words, those quoted directly or paraphrased, have been cited. I certify that I have prepared this capstone according to program guidelines, as directed.

Author Signature

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Date

5-10-21

Executive Summary

African American youth are five times as likely as whites to be detained or committed to youth facilities; 1 out of 10 high school dropouts are institutionalized. \$8–21 billion is spent locking up juvenile delinquents. The educational system has failed many African American youth, which can lead them into delinquency. These youth are disregarded in the educational system, placed in overcrowded classrooms, and often dismissed as unable to learn.

The results of this are school to prison pipeline. Many youths have learning disabilities that are not addressed by teachers, so youth began acting out. These are acts of attention and frustration lacking reading and comprehending skills, with little to no family support these youth then turn to street gangs to be loved and feel a part of something and make money.

Re-entry programs are greatly needed to support youth who have been adjudicated by giving them necessary life skills to survive upon release. Chapter 2 is a proposed re-entry program that gives youth these necessary supports. Chapter 2 has professional counselors to help young African American men to deal with mental, physical or substance abuse as well as trauma and other related issues. A primary goal of Chapter 2 is to decrease the chances of recidivism by helping youth to be the best citizens they can be upon returning to the community. Mixed methods data collection and analysis is recommended to assess the program's impact and effectiveness.

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Introduction

It is 3 A.M. As the night is still, and the quietness falls over the community, the dispatcher places a call to Officers Patel and Brown. While peering out of his living room window, a citizen observes two black male subjects walking in the middle of the street. The male subjects are approaching parked vehicles and pulling on the door handles of the cars.

The resident described two male blacks, wearing a gray sweatshirt, jeans, tall, thin build, and the other black wearing a black hoodie, blue jeans, short, medium build. Ofc. Patel and Ofc. Brown arrives in the area. They observed two male blacks fitting the description given by the caller. The officers approached the two suspects and began to pat them down for officer safety and discovered one of the suspects had stolen credit cards and social security numbers in his possession. At the same time, while patting down the other subject, the officers discovered a firearm.

Both suspects were taken into custody and transported to the station for further investigation. Upon arriving at the station, the identified suspects one 14-year-old and one 15-year-old male juvenile. Ofc Brown, a juvenile officer, questioned the boys about their parents or legal guardians. Both youngsters stated to Ofc. Brown that they did not have a place to stay, and both of their fathers had passed away, and their mothers had kicked them out of the house.

They stated to Ofc. Brown, "This is how we survive!" They went on to say, "We are not out here killing nobody, and we have the gun for protection; you don't know how these streets are!" The boys told Ofc. Brown, "We bought the gun off the streets!"

Ofc. Brown looked at his partner and said, "**The Plan Starts Now!**"

This story is one of many incidents of juvenile delinquency that infest our black adolescent youths. A majority of the juveniles introduced to the juvenile justice system are unfortunately from impoverished communities, broken homes, little to no education, family members who struggle with substance abuse, and lack of family support and supervision. At the same time, they witness death and destruction daily. The only world they know of is "survival."

Problem Statement

Many black youths have lost the race before it even starts. The purpose of this paper is to propose a viable solution for the war against young African American males and their demise. A re-entry program was created entitled Chapter 2. This research addresses minority male youth from middle and low-income communities facing many adversities from family, school, drugs, and impoverished communities to an unequal justice system. Being young, black, and male gives you three strikes in today's society. In underserved communities, black youth are targeted by gang members, profiled by police, discarded by the school system, with little to no family support while continuously witnessing violence as the norm. In this paper, I address the inequalities of the justice system, educational system, lack of family support, and the school system serving as a conduit to prison with the zero-tolerance policy.

Purpose of the Study

The research highlights the issues young African American males face in low-income areas with high crime rates, lack of educational resources, family and moral support, and lack of black male role models. The researcher's interest in this paper reflects himself and the obstacles he endured to make it out of the crime-infested neighborhood where he grew up. Giving insight into an everyday occurrence and experience the researcher faced within the educational system and encounters with law enforcement as a young black youth inspired and motivated the researcher to pursue this topic.

The purpose of this study was, first, to analyze experiences and perceptions of African American males' trajectory into incarceration as youths. Then, a re-entry plan for previously incarcerated youth was developed to give them the ingredients missing that caused their trajectory into the justice system (e.g., a sense of family and mentorship to encourage their progress while in the justice system). The re-entry program incorporates many supports for the youth and treats various aspects to ensure positive results, e.g., education, a reduction in substance abuse, and mental health counseling. The goal of the program is to prepare the youth for adulthood with continuous supervision from the time the handcuffs go on, throughout their time in the justice system, to their transition back into the community.

Significance of the Study

The research's significance identifies several aspects as spoken about previously, beginning with family, school, community, and means of survival as essential factors in determining African American male youth outcomes, thus giving insight on some of the issues young African American males face that can lead to delinquency.

Author's Experience

I grew up in the Auburn/Gresham neighborhood located on the south side of Chicago, nestled just in between Englewood and Chatham. 99% of the community was African American. The Auburn/Gresham neighborhood had a multitude of single-parent households; because of this, I was a kid who needed some sort of activity. There was a neighborhood field house that drew underprivileged children and children who needed mentorship and guidance as well as movements. The field house gave us a place to play games and talk with counselors; it showed acceptance to the youth while feeding kids who had a low amount of food at home.

Like many of my peers, I was raised by my grandmother, who already had seven children of her own to raise. The elementary school I attended was within the neighborhood, servicing the auburn Gresham area; all the neighborhood children participated in this school and classes were filled, making it difficult for the teacher to attend to every student need, so a lot of children did not get the much-needed attention and were just passed by the wayside and pushed through the educational system. This crippled a lot of youth who needed the one-on-one help but were not fortunate enough to receive it. When the child was not able to catch onto some of the lessons, they began acting out, fighting, and throwing items through the classroom. Youth need attention; they need to feel loved and secure. If they do not, they will act out, often leading to delinquency.

Growing up, I experienced many adversities, such as police harassment. My community was 99% African American. In the years I grew up, police harassment of African American males was rampant. I can recall being pulled over by two Caucasian officers at a service station in Auburn/Gresham; I was ordered out of my vehicle and called nigger as they ravished through my truck looking for guns and drugs without a search warrant and without my consent. They gave me no reason why. I had schoolbooks on my rear seat. One of the officers referenced my books; I told him I was attending school, taking criminal justice classes. He said, "Oh yeah!" I asked what his probable cause was and told him I did not give them consent to search my car.

He ignored me while his partner began searching my car. One of the officers asked, "Whose schoolbooks are these?"

Because they were criminal justice books, I replied, "Mine!"

He started laughing and stated, "Oh, you a smart nigger!"

This was one of few incidents I encountered as an African American male trying to better myself. I also remember when I was interested in taking a medical course at Robert Morris College in 1991. I would drive to the suburbs of Orland Park, where I would get pulled over by the police before class and after class. It became a routine for them. My counselor would witness me leaving the campus, and an Orland Park police officer would be waiting in the nearby parking lot and pull me over consistently, looking for drugs and guns daily until I finally just stopped attending school. I relate these two incidents to "driving while black." In both incidents, I handed over a driver's license and other documents when asked to present them.

My experience and stories similar to mine were a motivational factor that pushed me into becoming a police officer to show citizens that look like me that all police are not the same and to let other officers know racial profiling will not be tolerated in my presence. These were just a couple of incidents I experienced in the inner city and suburban areas, whereas many black and brown youth still experience the same treatment. This type of experience creates a failure plan for many children and leaves them with a traumatic negative experience involving police contact.

Driving While Black

There were other incidents that took place like mine across the nation. A 37-year-old Army Sergeant First Class Rossano Gerald and his son Gregory drove across the Oklahoma border one summer day in August 1998. Gerald was a career soldier and highly decorated veteran of Desert Storm and Operation United Shield in Somalia. Gerald, a black man of Panamanian descent, realized that he could not travel more than 30 minutes through the state without being stopped at least twice. Gerald was controlled first by Roland City Police Department and then by the Oklahoma Highway Patrol (Walsh, 1999).

Gerald's encounter on the second stop, when he was accompanied by his 12-year-old son Gregory, lasted a total of two and half hours and included a bonus: a police dog. Gerald and his

son were both placed in a closed car with the air-conditioning off and fans blowing hot air and warned Gerald if he or his son tried to escape, the dog would attack (Walsh, 1999).

As the Troopers were halfway through their tormenting, they realized their intrusion on Gerald and Gregory violated their rights. They then shut off their patrol car video camera. Gerald could not understand. After walking a straight and narrow line, he wondered how it came to be that he and his son were on the side of the road being detained by a barking police dog (Walsh, 1999).

Gerald and his son were victims of discriminatory racial profiling by police, just as I was in those two incidents. There is nothing new about this problem. Police abuse against people of color is a legacy of African American enslavement, repression, and legal inequality (Walsh, 1999). Walsh (1999) suggests significant blame for this rampant abuse of power also can be laid at the feet of the government's war on drugs, a misguided crusade applauded by lawmakers and administrations of both parties at every level of government. Racial profiling is based on the assumption that most drug offenses are committed by minorities. Since police look for drugs primarily among African Americans and Latinos, they find a disproportionate number of them with contraband. Hence, more minorities are arrested, prosecuted, convicted, and jailed, thus appearing to support the myth that drug trafficking is primarily a minority activity (Walsh, 1999).

Because of this perception, a profile is created, resulting in more stops of minority drivers. Meanwhile, white drivers receive far less police attention, and many who are drug dealers and possessors go unapprehended. Thus, the perception that whites commit fewer drug offenses than minorities is perpetuated, and the cycle continues. This cycle results in the prosecution of innocent people based on their skin color. It has a harsh effect on the legitimacy of the entire criminal justice system. This type of practice deters people of color from cooperating with the police in criminal investigations. It also sways the minds of jurors of all races and ethnicities, who end up doubting the testimony of police officers when they serve as witnesses, making criminal cases difficult to win (Walsh, 1999).

Literature Review

Disparities in the Juvenile Justice System

Juvenile delinquency has been rearing its ugly head for many centuries leaving the justice system with an ever-evolving question on combatting delinquency. Focusing as far back as World War II, crime in New York City had become a critical issue; the debate on crime touched on many aspects such as racial, political, and social implications (Suddler, 2019).

New York Mayor Fiorello La Guardia believed the cognitive thought of carceral sovereignty to establish order in the 1930s was a great idea. Still, others such as Jane Bolin disagreed with the Mayor's notion and believed in attacking the social ills contributing to the criminal behaviors facilitated through the youth. Bolin emphasized the theory of eliminating social and racial disparities relating to the black child of Harlem, attempting to create crime prevention antidotes (Suddler, 2019).

The depression era of the 1930s was named a contributor to the crime wave that attacked New Yorkers. Suddler (2019) found that 37% of the criminal cases were juvenile relating to black youth. Harlem's black youth were taken to children's court in masses, and there was no adequate representation for black youth.

A majority of judges hearing cases against the black youth were of European descent without much regard for the black children. The judges did not rule on evidence but on their emotions Suddler (2019). Black judges were rare in the 1930s era. The justice system showed great racial inequality in black youth vs. white youth being placed into reformatory schools; white children were accepted when black children were denied access. Mayor LaGuardia of New York called Jane Bolin to become the first African American woman judge in history.

Bolin observed the inequality when it came to black youth in New York. Bolin decided to give equal attention to the black child as was given to the white youth. She started by stopping white kids from being only seen by only white judges, while Bolin's courtroom was bombarded by black youth, and not one single white child appeared in front of her bench. In 1940 Bolin experienced an increase in juvenile delinquency amongst white boys and girls, while Negro juvenile delinquency was noted as the most famous crime problem in New York (Suddler, 2019). Bolin began the desegregation process by assigning probation officers to the youths.

She mixed up the probation officers, giving white probation officers black youth and black probation officers white youth. Bolin implemented full-time surveillance amongst the youth, using the probation officers to monitor the youth while providing adequate psychiatric and probationary care in the courts in the schools for black children as they entered the beginning of their delinquency stage.

She also implemented a strategy by keeping playgrounds and parks open, giving the youth extracurricular activities to do to curb their delinquent activities with continuous supervision using plainclothes probation officers to circulate through Harlem without being detected easily. Bolin

was adamant in revamping the juvenile justice system to give equality to the youth, assuring both black and white children were treated equally and without prejudice (Suddler, 2019).

Children's incarceration in juvenile facilities is declining nationwide, but the racial disparity in youth incarceration has grown, according to data from the Department of Justice. As of 2015, African American youth were five times as likely as whites to be detained or committed to youth facilities (Jones, 2017).

Disparities in the juvenile justice system start younger than you would think, having a staggering impact. Are the scales of justice balanced? We all like to believe that the scales of justice are balanced, but in the case of juvenile justice, the rankings are weighted more against black males.

Many people wonder, "do black kids offend more than their white counterparts?" Moore (2016) states some staggering facts and figures that show how unequal the system is. The FBI found the distribution over the total number of criminal offenses charged for youth younger than 18, in 2012, were 65.2 percent white and 32.2 percent black. When it came to driving under the influence, white children were at 84.6 percent of those charged, blacks only 12.1 percent. That number may have something to do with the fact that white adolescents are more likely to have access to a car.

Blacks account for 55 percent of those charged for robbery, while whites were at 43.3 percent (Moore, 2016). Moore (2016) argues sometimes statistics are skewed by police presence in poor urban neighborhoods. Further research reveals that kids in more affluent areas are more likely to be disciplined by their parents; the juvenile justice system penalizes kids who are less fortunate to have parent intervention (Moore, 2016).

Have you ever wondered how much it costs to lock up juveniles? They are still kids, and they still need to be monitored and kept safe from themselves. Moore (2016) notes that society's wallet takes a heavy hit for locking up youths.

The Justice Policy Institute estimates that between \$8 and \$21 billion per year is spent locking up juveniles. The funds used to keep youth in prison could provide preschool education for every 3- and 4-year-old in the country, double the salary of every high school teacher, or pay for new roads, bridges, and airports, job training programs (OJJDP, 2017).

Understanding this is a shocking and alarming statistic, we have to do better for our children; whether black, white, or any other ethnicity, we have to tip the scales of justice back in balance. The Sentencing Project in Washington, D.C. (2017) reported black youth were more than five times as likely to be detained or committed than white youth, according to data from the Department of Justice collected in October 2015. Racial and ethnic disparities have long plagued juvenile justice systems nationwide. The new data show the problem is increasing.

In 2001, black youth were four times more likely to be incarcerated in juvenile facilities, residential treatment centers, detention centers, training schools, and juvenile jails. Prisons held

48,043 youth. In October 2015, 44 percent of these youth were African American (The Sentencing Project, 2017).

Racial disparities are a vital issue in the juvenile justice system. McCord et al. (2001) state, “The existence of disproportionate racial representation in the juvenile justice system raises questions about fundamental fairness and equality of treatment of these youth by the police, courts and other personnel connected with the juvenile justice system” (p. 228). Minority juveniles, especially blacks, tend to experience higher rates of arrest and further justice system involvement than do whites.

The three most common ways to measure delinquency and crime are self-reporting surveys, victimization surveys, and statistics on official arrests and convictions. All indicate that high rates of offending are most severe among young blacks. It is difficult to determine the degree of difference in rates of youth crime involvement across racial, ethnic, and social class categories, but most research does show significant racial differences (McCord et al., 2001).

The National Youth Survey (1994) found that, at age 17, 36 percent of black males, 25 percent of white males, 18 percent of black females, and 10 percent of white females reported committing a severe violent offense that involved a weapon and/or caused injury. Some examples of violent offenses are: robbery, rape, or aggravated assault (McCord et al., 2001).

As we continue discussing juvenile delinquency, let's look at some contributing factors, such as gang influence. Most of the research on youth gangs has been based on sociological, ethnographic, and psychological methods (Cooper, 2008). Using methodological constructs of these disciplines, most research focuses on how the socioeconomic and environmental factors work to foster gangs. Poverty, poor educational opportunities, joblessness, and unstable family structures are among social structures identified that can influence at-risk youth to join and remain in gangs (Cooper, 2008). This information is prevalent because of the backgrounds some of these youth come from they have no family relations, no education, and no source of income. Society elaborates on an individual achieved status. Status can be achieved or ascribed but when youths join gangs, they have an achieved status as you will read about in the next section.

Status

What is status? Status is socially defined as a position in a group. It affects how a person interacts with others and how others interact with them. A status determines who and what people are in relationship to each other. The class can be ascribed or achieved (Regoli et al., 2000). An ascribed status is received at birth. Being a child is an ascribed status, so is being a Caucasian or a female. An achieved status is earned. Being a college student is achieved status, and so is being a juvenile delinquent. The ascribed status influences achieved status. It is not a coincidence that most physicians are white males from upper-class backgrounds and more African Americans than whites are in state and federal prisons (Regoli et al., 2000).

Bowman et al. (2018) addressed the achievement gap, bringing to light that it is not only African American students and their families and communities but the entire country that is affected. Continuous research has discovered that lack of education creates a handicap, which can bring about recession because the youth are not educated or trained in vocational skills (e.g.,

Bowman et al., 2018). Their lack of knowledge prevents them from being able to obtain employment. They lack skills to occupy blue collar or white-collar positions.

All children, black or white, are born with the ability to learn but require experiences to bring their potential to maturity. Their abilities are developed through continuous interactions with people and things, which begins to develop the understanding that control children's physical, social, emotional, and cognitive development. Most children master these tasks at about the same ages and in comparable ways (Bowman et al., 2018).

Bowman et al. (2018) explain that most African American children have learning potential as they develop. They catch on, but unfortunately many of them are not afforded the opportunity to go to school due to their living environment creating stress and emotional blocks to learning. So, youth are placed at a disadvantage compared to the average youth not exposed to such circumstances who are afforded the opportunity to grow and develop. Due to unfortunate circumstances youth are led to believe that education will not help them in their current situation. These youth do not get the extra dose of emotional stability and guidance needed to face the adversity they are exposed to including adapting to the demands of school.

History has taught us that African Americans have been exposed to centuries of legal and illegal measures denying them basic human rights. It echoes back to slavery and Jim Crow and has evolved to today's housing, health care, and voting inequities, for example. The African American community has endured relentless racism that begins at an early age. Due to today's economic structure these variables not only affect African Americans but whites as well. People black or white tend to be looked at in two different categories: Haves and Have Not's (Bowman et al., 2018).

When a family experiences poverty, burdens are placed on them; many African Americans are living at an economic low. The poverty level places adversities on families physically and mentally, as they deal with hunger, mental and physical illness and despair. Research suggests poverty among African Americans exceeds that of any other group (Bowman et al., 2018).

Early History of Institutional Control

Regoli et al. (2000) found that juvenile delinquency tended to result from subjecting good children to environmental and structural factors that they had no control over. A short list of these disadvantages include poverty, overcrowding, language barrier, and lack of parental guidance. In the early 1800s, a group of citizens called the child savers took it upon themselves to "help" children in bad homes by removing them from their families and placing them in a "better" rehabilitation environment (Regoli et al., 2000). They believed children were born good and became terrible and delinquent due largely to bad parenting. Regoli et al. (2000) noted that these well-intentioned efforts were actually inhumane, and yet they represented the first attempts in this country to address the problem of juvenile delinquency in a systematic, institutional way.

From 2001 to 2015, juvenile incarceration had a percentage reduction of 54 percent. Jones (2017) noted statistical facts stating white youth incarceration had declined faster than that of black youth. The national rate of youth incarceration was 152 per 100,000; the black youth placement

rate was 433 per 100,000 compared to 86 per 100,000 for white children. Overall, the racial disparity between black and white youth in custody increased 22 percent since 2001 (Jones, 2017).

Black children are more than twice as likely as white kids to be arrested. The disparity data shows it is not because black kids are committing more crimes. Black youth continue to be burdened by a history of racial injustice in this country. Racial disparities include frequent stops, searches, and violence. Black youth also suffer disproportionately harsh penalties at school such as suspension, expulsion, and arrest. They have more negative interactions with law enforcement than white youth; these include disproportionate entry into the juvenile justice system, harsher charging decisions and unfair sentences, ill-advised plea negotiations, increased wrongful convictions, and higher rates of probation and parole revocation (Jones, 2017). On any given day, more than 48,000 justice-involved youths are housed in juvenile residential facilities, with an additional 3,500 juveniles held in adult jails, including nearly 1,000 held in adult prisons (OJJDP, 2017). Almost all juveniles will eventually leave and return to their communities (Hockenberry, 2016).

Predictors of Delinquency in Juvenile Offenders

Prevalence of severe and violent delinquency reaches a peak during adolescence and early childhood and is more frequent among males than females (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). During the peak years, many offenses are committed by a small number of offenders. Lipsey and Derzon (1998) found benefits in youths having an outlet such as community centers and activities such as sports or mentorship. A significant portion of problem behavior correlated with social damage as youth repeat what they see in the community during their adolescence and early adulthood if their delinquency is not curtailed. It is important to understand the characteristics in juveniles that may be precursors to developing severe delinquent behavior. Being able to understand some of the warning signs and identify youth at risk for extreme delinquency helps with preventive measures. (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998).

Lipsey and Derzon (1998) conducted their predictor research through meta-analysis in which different variables were used with juveniles ages 6-11, 12-14, and 15-25. Cluster variables were defined and sequenced in the entry order of sample demographics, gender-mix, average age, and average socioeconomic status. The population sampled showed a relationship to effect size, with samples in the United States yielding smaller effect sizes than those from other countries, primarily Great Britain (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998).

Many of the predictor constructs had a high correlation with severe or violent delinquency; previous antisocial behavior was the best overall predictor of later antisocial behavior (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). In other words, it was somewhat possible to predict behaviors in youths between 15-25 by observing youths age 6-11 or 12-14.

This is important because being male, having low family socioeconomic status, and being a member of a racial minority were among the next strongest predictors. As I have observed in my career as a law enforcement officer, many of the court rooms are filled with young black males not able to afford legal counsel; they do not get the same defensive counsel as one with a private attorney. The private attorney uses the youth's lack of privilege to assist in the youth's case,

whereas the prosecutor uses the same information to create a beast-like image (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998).

Another procedure that was put into place to determine whether teens will commit a crime is the Algorithm (Metz & Satariano, 2020). In Philadelphia, a gentleman by the name of Darnell Gates also was faced with a predictor mechanism. Unfortunately, Mr. Gates has had an imperfect past, and because of this, he was assigned a probation officer upon his release from a correctional institution. Mr. Gates's freedom was very constricted and was deemed a high risk according to the Algorithm (Metz & Satariano, 2020).

Mr. Gates was unaware of the algorithm methods in determining his level of risk. Mr. Gates was informed of this through an interview with the *New York Times*. Mr. Gates was enraged that a computer dictated his level of severity. A Philadelphia professor created this machine's origins at the University of Pennsylvania to help dictate length and terms of probation (Metz & Satariano, 2020).

This algorithm has affected countless people's lives in Europe and the United States. Local authorities use the predictive algorithm to set police patrols, prison sentences, and probation rules because they believe it predicts whether teenagers are more likely to become criminals (Metz & Satariano, 2020). An example of the algorithm's usage and its predicting methods determining if an individual will commit another crime is collecting information about them and comparing that to statistics describing known offenders. The data might include age, sex, and past and current convictions (Metz & Satariano, 2020).

Satariano, a former public defender, was concerned that algorithms were unfairly attaching labels to individuals as they moved through the criminal justice system. He noted that if someone was arrested and charged with a new crime while on probation and had been deemed high risk by the algorithm, the probation office would automatically instruct the jail not to release the person (Metz & Satariano, 2020). This machine dictating people's future reflects biases involving race, class, and geography (Metz & Satariano, 2020). United Nations investigators, the ACLU and other civil rights lawyers, labor unions, and community organizers have been opposed to this machine predicting future criminals. The algorithm raised many flags about how its data was achieved and used, considering age, gender, and zip code. It is unreliable in part because different countries have different data and variables being entered. (Metz & Satariano, 2020).

Idaho recently passed a law stating the methods and data used to determine the bail algorithm must be made public, so the general public can understand how the algorithm functions and determines its decisions (Metz & Satariano, 2020). The district court of the Netherlands also prohibited governmental use of a predictive algorithm in dealing with welfare fraud because it was found to violate human rights laws. Gates, angered by this newfound information, asks where his opportunity is to interact with other humans. Gates feels beaten already because this machine does not know him and does not care about his life or situation. Gates states the algorithm was designed to stop him and determine his fate without knowing who he is.

This discussion of predicting delinquencies gives insight into how failure in juveniles is expected. Another way of predicting delinquent and deviant behavior comes from mistreatment in

the earlier years of a juvenile's life. In 1896 Freud explained the psychodynamic impact of memories relating to childhood sexual trauma and hysteria (Burgess, 1987). Burgess (1987) argues that the psychological trauma child goes through while being abused becomes overwhelming. In a study of abused children, processing the abuse happens in three critical steps. The traumatic event is actually the second step; the first acute phase happens before the trauma. A family history of instability and violence may predispose an abused child to anger and resentment. These feelings, in turn, can promote feelings of retaliation and fantasy (Burgess, 1987).

The second critical stage is the trauma stage. In Burgess's (1987) study, abused youth repeatedly experienced, witnessed, and practiced harmful adult-initiated sexual acts. Older children then perpetuate the harm on younger, weaker children to try to overcome the sense of inferiority they internalized. Abused children tend not to fear others' pain, shame, or fear (Burgess, 1987).

Burgess (1987) finds that the trauma that results from previous physical abuse can have various continuing negative effects on children's psychological wellbeing. Cumulative trauma can influence many functions including skill mastery, character formation, and ego and cognitive development. Defense mechanisms, such as dissociation, emerge during this trauma enclosure stage; this increases the likelihood that the abused child will adapt to the overall aggressive victimizing role (Burgess, 1987).

The third critical step, called the posttraumatic stage disclosure, brings out the child's memories of the traumatic experience and its impact. Burgess (1987) suggests it can start with the usage of alcohol, drugs, and heavy narcotic medications introduced to the victim by the abuser to help the child manage their anxiety and other negative thoughts associated with the victimization (Burgess, 1987). Drug usage is not a random phenomenon but, rather, self-medicating to subdue or heighten tension. Support and acceptance by family and friends have a way of prompting children to expose the traumatic experiences they have encountered. Research has revealed that in families that are supportive and non-blaming but still unable to directly confront and discuss the abusive situation, the pattern of avoidant behaviors may predispose the child to covert predatory acts within the family or neighborhood (Burgess, 1987). When children are subjected to sexual abuse, down the line the abuse tends to reemerge as the previously abused child not only reenacts their victimization but also starts to exhibit aggressive patterns of behavior. These experiences further trigger the psychodynamic trauma the child has been through (Burgess, 1987).

Racial Characteristics of the Juvenile Population

According to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP, 2017), the population of juveniles in 2010 was estimated at 74,181,500 persons in the United States under the age of 18. Statistical research has shown the juvenile population reached a low point in 1984, recorded at 62.5 million, then grew by a proportion of 19% in 2010. Recent predictions indicate that the juvenile population will continue to grow throughout the 21st century and increase 10% between the years 2010 and 2035, about one-half percent per year, indicating that by 2050 the juvenile population will be 16% larger was in 2010 (OJJDP, 2017).

The racial makeup of juvenile delinquency has received a lot of research attention. In 2010 76% of the adolescent population was white, 17% black, 2% American Indian and 5% Asian (OJJDP, 2017). Researchers have anticipated a change in these numbers in the upcoming years. In the juvenile justice system, however, white youth make up 10%, Blacks 19%, American Indian 40%, and Asian 40%. Numerous studies have investigated the inequality within the justice system dating back to the 1920s when the Children Bureau (U.S. Department of Labor) requested juvenile courts to classify youths referred to the courts by their nativity (OJJDP, 2017).

Poverty

Over the years, research has determined a connection between poverty and crime. Several studies have reported that youth who grow up in families or communities with minimal resources are more prone to delinquency than those with adequate resources (e.g., Hawkins, 2000). Studies have found that a family's social class at ages 6-11 is a more robust predictor of violent delinquency at ages 15-25 than a family's social class status at ages 12-14 (OJJDP, 2017). The debate over tardiness has revolved around poverty; some researchers argue this may not be direct, while others claim the problems associated with low social class status. For example, the shortcomings of unable to meet basic needs truly little access to resources make predictors of delinquency greater than social class alone. Agnew (2008) revealed that self-reported delinquency was most significant among individuals who experienced socioeconomic issues.

Several recent studies have reported on the proportion of juveniles living in poverty. The survey of youths living in poverty has become a vital aspect of the U.S. Census Bureau to investigate poverty children. According to the OJJDP (2017), the U.S. Census Bureau assigns each person and family a threshold according to the size of the family and ages.

In 2000, the poverty threshold for a family of four with two children ranged about 17,463, while in 2010, this same threshold was averaging \$22,113, while further comparing the entry for a family of six with four children averaged \$29,137 in 2010 (OJJDP, 2017). These percentages of poverty are believed to have a powerful impact on delinquency within juveniles.

Single Parent Households

Recent studies have explored the impact of single-parent households on delinquency. For example, a 2004 study examined the relationship between family structure and self-reported problem behaviors. Researchers' findings indicated youth between the ages of 12 -17 who lived with both biological parents were less likely to be the subject of runaways, involved in sexual activity, commit theft, assault, or get in trouble with the law (OJJDP, 2017).

Researchers argue that family structure was a better predictor of these problematic behaviors than race and ethnicity (OJJDP, 2017). On the other hand, researchers stated family structure might not be an immediate cause of inappropriate behavior; conditions within the family may also be a leading contributor, such as inadequate supervision or low levels of parental involvement.

A few recent studies between 1970 and 2010 have found that the proportion of children living in single-parent homes increased from 9% to 22% for whites and from 32% to 53% for blacks in that time period. Hispanic children increased from 21% in 1980 to 29% in 2010, with blacks seeing the highest percentage increase. In 2010, black children were the least likely to live with two parents regardless of their marital status, leaving researchers to believe the parents' relationship contributes to children's delinquency (OJJDP, 2017).

Maltreatment

The OJJDP (2017) discusses different types of child maltreatment, defined as physical, emotional, or sexual mistreatment and educational neglect of children by caretaker or parent.

- Physical Abuse: Can be acts that caused or could have caused bodily injury to the child, including corporal punishment (OJJDP, 2017).
- Sexual abuse: "Is the involvement of the child in sexual activity either forcefully or without force, including contacts for sexual purposes, prostitution, pornography, or other sexually exploitative activities" (OJJDP, 2017).
- Emotional Abuse: References verbal threats and emotional assaults. Emotional abuse includes terrorizing a child, dispensing unprescribed and potentially harmful substances, and willful cruelty or exploitation not covered by other types of maltreatment. (OJJDP, 2017).
- Physical Neglect: This is the disregard of a child's physical needs and physical safety, including abandonment, illegal transfers of custody, expulsion from the home, failure to seek remedial health care or delay in seeking care, or inadequate supervision, food, hygiene, clothing, shelter. (OJJDP, 2017).
- Emotional Neglect: Includes inadequate nurturance or affection, permitting maladaptive behavior, exposing the child to domestic violence or other maladaptive behavior, exposing the child to domestic violence or other maladaptive behaviors or environments, and other inattention to emotional or development needs (OJJDP, 2017).
- Educational Neglect: "Includes permitting chronic truancy, failure to enroll, or other inattention to educational needs" (OJJDP, 2017).

Numerous studies have found that most maltreated children were neglected, and the overall rates of children either harmed or endangered by abuse or neglect have not changed. According to the OJJDP (2017), there has been a shift in the types of maltreatment experienced by children. A number of studies have shown that all categories of abuse declined. However, there continues to be a debate over the increase in the rate of neglect, specifically emotional neglect. The OJJDP sought to shed light on the dramatic increase in the rate of children exposed to domestic violence, which more than tripled from 2 children per 1,000 in 1993 to 7 children per 1,000 in 2005–2006. This study revealed the rates of maltreatment of black youth were considerably higher than those for White and Hispanic children (OJJDP, 2017).

Education

Several recent researchers have investigated the theory of dropouts as opposed to educated peers being institutionalized. The Center for Labor Market Studies has generated a wealth of data on the percentage of dropout rates stating that high school dropout rates are 63 times higher than

four-year college graduates. This study provides an overview of the percentage of dropouts and their path to incarceration after school dropping out. One of every ten male high school dropouts reportedly was institutionalized on any given day in 2006-2007 (OJJDP, 2017).

This study aimed to address the dropout rates of juveniles and their path to incarceration soon after. Further studies dictate 1 of every 500 males that held a bachelor's degree was institutionalized (OJJDP, 2017). This study critically reviews the demographic disparities in dropout rates of young adults ages 16-24 and their chances of becoming institutionalized if they are not enrolled in high school or have not completed high school. In 2009, the status dropout rate was 40% for institutionalized youth and 8% for those living in households and noninstitutional group quarters, i.e., college housing and military quarters; males were at a rate of 10% and females 7% (OJJDP, 2017). Dropping out produces lower earning power and fewer job opportunities, which can lead to unemployment, incarceration, and government assistance (OJJDP, 2017). High school dropouts suffer a remarkable \$400,000–\$500,000 deficit in earning potential during their working lives compared to high school graduates (OJJDP, 2017).

Juveniles' Exposure to Violence

Juvenile gun violence

According to OJJDP (2017), the number of juvenile homicides is tied to homicides involving firearms. An increased interest in teenagers killed by weapons has emerged in recent years. Of the juveniles murdered in 2010, 49% were killed with a firearm, 20% were killed by the offender's hands or feet (beaten, kicked to death, or strangled), while 13% were killed with a knife or blunt object. The remaining 18% of juvenile murder victims were killed with another type of weapon unknown. In homicides with firearms, 14% involved juveniles under the age of 12, and 82% involved juveniles ages 12-17. This data illuminated the percentage of black juveniles compares to white juvenile murder victims that were killed with firearms: 63% black vs. 36% white (OJJDP, 2017).

A number of recent studies found 59% of juveniles murdered were male, while 29% were female in 2010. As further research reveals, between 1980 and 2010, the deadliest year of juvenile murders was 1993, when an estimated 2,840 were murdered. The early 1990s marked a considerable percentage of juveniles killed involving firearms. Approximately 60% of young homicide victims were killed with a gun from 1992-1995 (OJJDP, 2017).

Between 1980-2010, 16- and 17-year-old murder victims were among the most likely to be killed with firearms, regardless of gender. "A number of recent studies reported that, in 2010, a stranger killed 2% of murdered children under the age of 6, while family members killed 70% and acquaintances killed 28% of children, while older juveniles were more likely to be murdered by non-family members" (OJJDP, 2017).

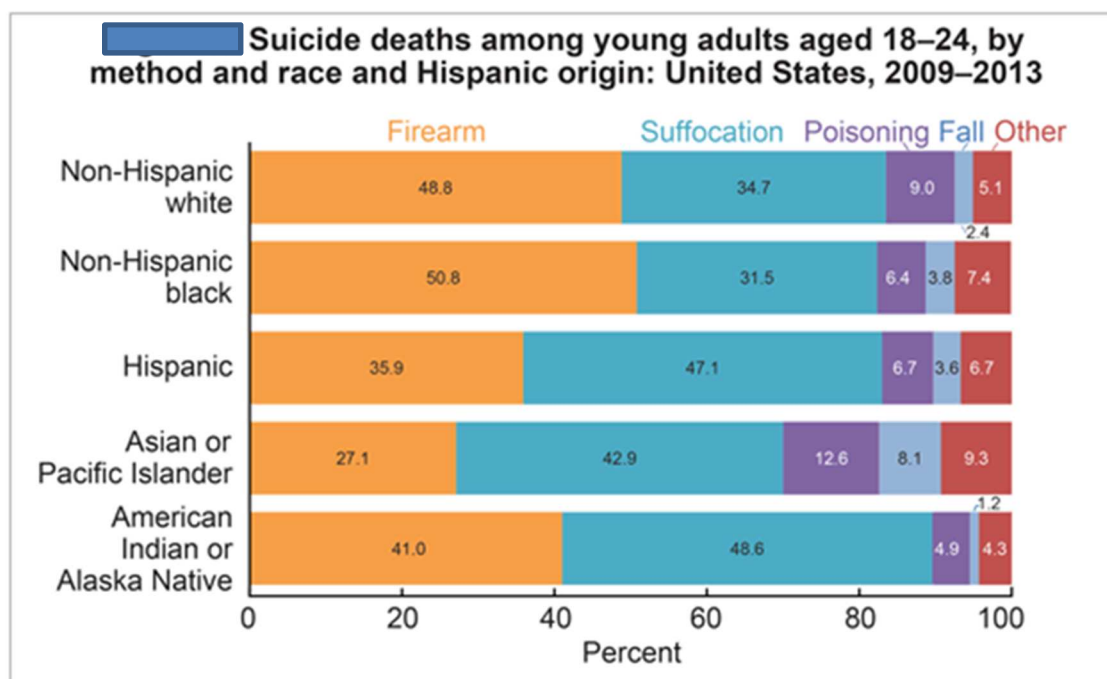
Juvenile suicide

Ample evidence exists regarding juveniles 7-17 who are likely to be victims of suicide. The National Vital Statistics System collects information from death certificates filed in state vital

statistics offices, including the causes of death regarding juveniles. Informational data received by NVSS regarding juvenile suicide and reports that 22,900 American children between the ages of 7-17 died due to suicide (OJJDP, 2017).

Alarming statistics from 1990–2010 show that 78% of all juvenile suicide victims were male, with about half of the deaths caused by firearms, 37% suffocation and hanging, and 6% poisoning (see Figure 1). Suicide was more prevalent than homicide for non-Hispanic white juveniles. The same held true for Hispanic children and non-Hispanic black youths (OJJDP, 2017).

Figure 1. Methods of juvenile suicide



Juvenile Substance Use

Considerable research attention has been directed toward the drug use of secondary school students. Each year, the Monitoring the Future (MTF) study asks a sample group of 50,000 secondary school students in approximately 400 private and public schools to relate their drug usage experience. This study was administered through self-administered questionnaires (OJJDP, 2017). Not all secondary students were analyzed in regards to this study; dropouts and institutionalized, homeless, and runaway youth were not included (OJJDP, 2017). According to (MTF) in 2010, 48% of high school seniors admitted to having tried an illegal drug, while 37% of the 10th graders experienced the usage of illicit drugs, and an alarming 21% of experimenters were 8th graders. Marijuana was the drug of choice regarding high school seniors. Further interviews by MTF revealed students had not ventured off into the usage of any other illicit drug. But on the contrary, 25% of seniors stated they have indulged in other drugs in addition to the use of marijuana.

In 2010, it was found that 13% of high school seniors reported using other narcotics; Vicodin and OxyContin were among these drugs. Amphetamines were considered the most prevalent drug other than heroin and the second most used illicit drug besides marijuana. According to MTF 4% of seniors used narcotics, 11% of seniors used amphetamines at least once, 2% used methamphetamine, and another 2% experienced using ice (crystal methamphetamine). In addition, 6% of seniors experienced the usage of cocaine at least once, about 2% of seniors experimented with crack cocaine; heroin was the minor drug used. According to MTF, those who used heroin used heroin without a needle (OJJDP, 2017).

Alcohol

A number of studies have shown that, in 2010, 7 out of 10 high school seniors admitted to trying alcohol once in their lifetime. Amongst the 10th graders, it was a more common practice. More than half have tried alcohol, and one-third of the 10th graders used alcohol the month prior. The OJJDP (2017) has generated a wealth of data on juveniles and heavy drinking habits, defined as 5 or more drinks continuously within a 2-week span. 23% of heavy youth drinkers were seniors, 16% 10th graders, 7% were 8th graders (OJJDP, 2017).

Tobacco

Ample evidence exists to support the usage of tobacco among juveniles. Research revealed tobacco was less dominant than alcohol, but it was the most likely substance used on a daily basis. Over the years, an enormous amount of research was conducted in 2010, 42% of 12th graders, 30% of 10th graders, and 18% of 8th graders had tried cigarettes, and 19% of seniors 12% of 10th graders, and 6% of 8th graders smoked in the prior month including 11% of seniors, 7% of 10th graders, and 3% of 8th graders reported currently smoking cigarettes on a daily basis. The research done on tobacco usage involving juveniles has indicated the use is declining compared to the early 1990s (OJJDP, 2017).

Male vs. female usage of drugs and alcohol

Recent studies have explored the heavy usage of drugs and alcohol between males and females; in 2010, it was related that males were more prominent than females to drink alcohol and to consume heavily. Amongst high school seniors, 44% of males and 38% of females reported they used alcohol in the past 30 days, 28% of males and 18% of females stated they had five or more drinks back-to-back in the previous two weeks. It was also discovered males were twice as likely as females to report daily alcohol usage: 4% males and 2% females (OJJDP 2017).

Unearthed research suggests males are more likely than their female counterparts to use marijuana. In recent years, 38% of males reported marijuana use vs. 31% females. These percentages have grown from 9% males vs. 3% females and 25% males vs. 17% (OJJDP, 2017). The study of illicit drug and alcohol usage has become an essential aspect of delinquency. The proportions of male and female high school seniors who reported widespread use of illegal drugs other than marijuana in 2016 were 19% males 15% females, but this pertains to varieties of

medicines. A number of recent studies have reported 12th-grade males, compared to 12th-grade females, are 3 to 6 times more likely to use salvia, heroin with a needle, Provigil, methamphetamine, Rohypnol, GHB, and steroids, and more than twice as likely to try to get high by the usage of cocaine, crack, cocaine powder, heroin, Ritalin, ketamine, and hallucinogens such as LSD (OJJDP, 2017). Males are also 1.5 to 2 times more likely than females to use inhalants, OxyContin, and crystal methamphetamine (ice). Moreover, it was found that males account for a more significant proportion of heavy users of many of these mentioned drugs (OJJDP, 2017).

Juvenile access to drugs and alcohol by race

This study addresses the issue of young blacks' usage of tobacco, alcohol, and drug usage vs. that of whites and Hispanics. According to OJJDP (2017) in 2010, 10% of black high school seniors stated they had used nicotine products in the previous 30 days, in comparison of the 23% of whites and 15% of Hispanics. Approximately 31% of black seniors reportedly used alcohol within the past 30 days, compared to 45% of white seniors and 40% of Hispanic seniors. Whites were more than twice as likely as blacks to have been drunk in the past month, 32% vs. 15%; the figure for Hispanics was 21% (OJJDP, 2017).

Several recent studies have found that for nearly all drugs, black seniors' daily usage rates are lower than those for their white counterparts. In reference to seniors' usage of amphetamines, only 3% were black, 9% white, and 4% Hispanic. In addition, whites and Hispanics were three times more likely than blacks to have used cocaine in 2016 (OJJDP, 2017).

Youth and Gangs

According to Federal statute, a gang is an ongoing group, club organization, or association of five or more persons with felonious crimes involving controlled substances and acts of violence as primary activities (OJJDP, 2017). Different states have their way of defining the word gang. Laws vary from state to state, a majority referencing gangs as three or more people in an organization or association. Over the years, an enormous amount of research has been done on youth and gangs. The National Youth Gang Center has collected gang information since 1996 using national survey data. Gangs are often associated with violence and serious crimes (OJJDP, 2017). Data collected from law enforcement agencies ranging from cities to suburbs and rural areas, according to the National Youth Gang Survey (NYGS), show there were an estimated 29,400 gangs made up of 756,000 members in 3,500 jurisdictions in the United States in 2010 (OJJDP, 2017). A number of studies have shown that cities with a population of 50,000 or more residents including suburban, and rural areas are accounting for 36% of gang activity. The NYGS reported the presence of gang activity declining from 40% to 24% between 1996 and 2001, then increasing to 34% in 2005, and continuing at a steady pace between 32% and 35% in the years between 2006 and 2010 (OJJDP, 2017).

Law enforcement agencies responding to NYGS over the years have reported demographic details regarding gang members in their jurisdictions; this information includes the gang members' age, gender, race, and ethnic makeup (See Figure 2).

Figure 2. Gang membership by race/ethnicity

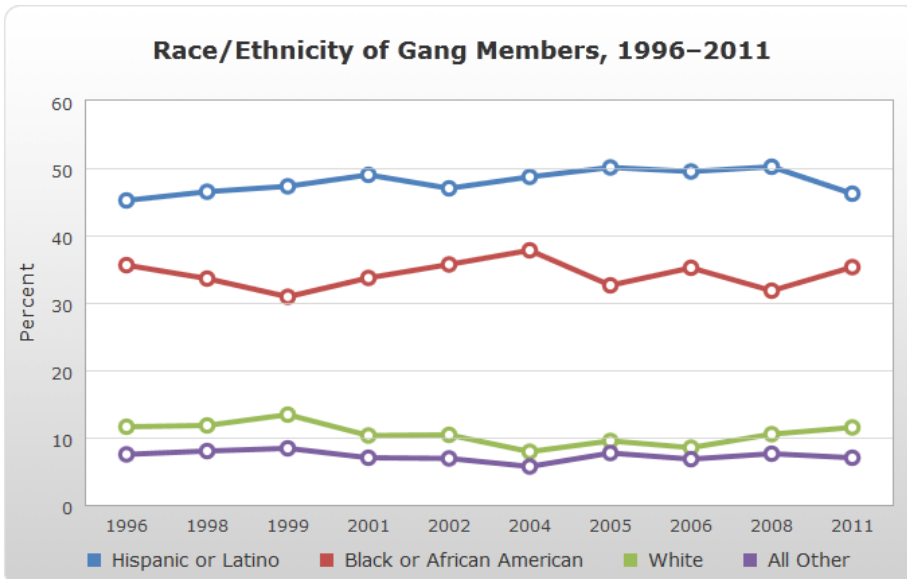


Figure 2 shows that in the 15 years between 1996 and 2011 there was very little change in the racial and ethnic makeup of gang members, and the largest percentage were Hispanic while the second largest were Black.

Juvenile Justice System

The first juvenile court in the United States was established in Chicago in 1899. A century earlier, children as young as seven could stand trial in criminal court for offenses committed, and if found guilty could be sentenced to prison or even death. Noting that children were not fully developed morally and cognitively, the Society for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency established a facility in 1825 specifically for the housing, education, and rehabilitation of juvenile offenders. By around 1850, privately operated youth prisons were under scrutiny for various abuse cases. In the midst of allegations, many states took on the responsibility of managing juvenile facilities (OJJDP, 2017).

The juvenile justice system has undergone a drastic change since the 1960s due to several different entities: Supreme Courts, federal legislation, and amendments to state statutes (OJJDP, 2017). Juveniles are a delicate issue because they are still minors; special laws and procedures have been adapted in the case of juveniles and their delinquencies. In the early 1990s, attention was brought to juveniles. There was scrutiny from the media, turning the public's attention to the juvenile justice system and its ability to effectively control violent juveniles. This led more youth to criminal court prosecution (OJJDP, 2017). Thus, a juvenile court system designed not simply to punish youth but to turn them into productive citizens through rehabilitation and treatment may have inadvertently led to more prosecution of youths.

Juvenile Court

The purpose of the juvenile courts was to help troubled youth; the mission of the courts led to procedural and substantive differences between juveniles and the criminal justice system. During the first 50 years of the juvenile court's existence, there were jurisdictional boundaries in place, placing all youth under 18 who was charged with violating criminal laws.

In the 1980s, it was determined that the seriousness of juvenile crimes had increased, and the system put into place was too lenient with young offenders; in turn, many states began adopting harsher penalties regarding juveniles and crime. Some of the laws were removed depending on the severity of the crime. It was turned over to the adult courts for hearings; other states continue to keep the juvenile offenses in juvenile court but treated them as severe criminal cases.

As the 1990s approached, laws began to change, adapting to the juvenile crimes, and transfer provisions were put into place, making it easier to transfer juvenile offenders from the juvenile justice system to the criminal justice system. At arrest, a decision is made either to send the case further into the justice system or divert the point out of the justice system (OJJDP, 2017).

Sometimes a youth may be diverted into an alternative program. This decision is made after the officer speaks with the victim, the juvenile, and the parents and a review of the juvenile's prior incidents involving law enforcement and the juvenile justice system. According to (OJJDP, 2017) in 2010, 23% of all juvenile arrests were settled within the police department and often resulted in the release of the youth; in 68 of 100 arrests, the cases were referred to juvenile court. The remaining arrests were referred for criminal prosecution.

Law enforcement accounted for 83% of all delinquency cases (OJJDP, 2017) referred to juvenile court in 2010. The remaining referrals were instituted by others, such as parents, victims, school personnel, and probation officers. The intake process for juvenile offenders has many components and is usually the responsibility of the juvenile probation department or the prosecutor's office.

Once a juvenile is taken to intake, intake decides whether to dismiss the case or to move forward handling the matter formally requesting intervention by the juvenile courts. The decision to adjudicate the juvenile's case depends on the facts of the case. The prosecutor then determines if there is sufficient evidence to prove the allegations made against the child. If not, the point is thrown out (OJJDP, 2017).

If there is sufficient evidence regarding the case, the intake will decide if formal intervention is necessary. Nearly half of all patients referred to juvenile court intake are handled informally (OJJDP, 2017). Many of the informal cases are dismissed. In other informally processed instances, the juvenile voluntarily agrees to specific conditions of release for a particular period of time.

These conditions are outlined and explained to the juvenile in a written agreement called a consent decree. In this decree, requirements may address things such as victim restitution, school

attendance, drug counseling, or a curfew. Juveniles' compliance with the informal agreement is monitored by a probation officer. This process is labeled informal probation (OJJDP, 2017).

If the juvenile successfully complies with their informal disposition, the case is dismissed; however, if they do not comply and meet the requirements, the issue is referred for formal processing. (OJJDP, 2017). If the juvenile case is to be handled formally in juvenile court, there are two types of petitions to file: a delinquency petition requesting an adjudicating hearing or a petition requesting a waiver hearing transferring the case to criminal court. A delinquency petition states the allegations made against the juvenile and requests the juvenile be adjudicated (judged), thereby making the child a ward of the court (OJJDP, 2017).

In criminal court, adjudication would be like being convicted and sentenced. In reference to the delinquency petition, an adjudicating hearing is scheduled at the adjudicating (trial). Witnesses are called, and the facts are presented before the court. In nearly all adjudicating hearings, the determination that the juvenile was responsible for the crime is made by the judge. In some states, the child has the right to a jury trial (OJJDP, 2017).

The juvenile courts may hold juveniles in a secure facility if it is determined to be in the best interest of the community and the youth. Once the child is arrested, law enforcement officials take the juvenile to the local detention center. A juvenile probation officer or youth detention officer will review the case and decide whether the youth should be detained pending a hearing before a judge. In all states, a detention hearing must be held within a time frame defined by state statute (OJJDP, 2017). The usual time frame is within a 24-hour period. Once at the detention hearing, a judge reviews the case and determines whether detention is warranted or not. In 2010, juveniles were detained in 21% of delinquent cases processed by juvenile courts (OJJDP, 2017). The detention may extend beyond the adjudicatory and dispositional hearings. If residential placement is ordered by the judge and bedding is limited, detention centers may continue to hold the youth until adequate space is available (OJJDP, 2017).

The Re-entry Phase

The harsh policies on crimes in the past two decades have contributed to a dramatic increase in the incarceration of young people. Thus, they have also led to an increase in young people's challenging transitions back to schools, families, and communities (Mears & Travis, 2004). Steps are needed to ensure the youth returning from prison will become a contributing member of society, but how? Through a few identified programs, policies, and support systems, I believe this task can be accomplished as we look at further research. America faces the task of reintegrating approximately 200,000 juveniles and young adults ages 24 and under who leave secure juvenile correctional facilities or state and federal prisons and return home each year, a process called re-entry (Mears & Travis, 2004).

Many have physical, mental, and substance abuse problems. Many have children, and most have never graduated from high school, held a job, or lived independently. Many are returning to communities where poverty, unemployment, homelessness, drug addiction, and crime are epidemic (Mears & Travis, 2004). Young people reentering society after periods of incarceration frequently have difficulty successfully transitioning and avoiding lives of crime (Mears & Travis,

2004). Two-thirds of youth are expected to be rearrested. One-third will be reincarcerated within a few years after release. Some will overcome—completing high school and perhaps college and reaching other goals associated with healthy adults (Mears & Travis, 2004).

Research has shown the importance of assisting young adult's re-entry into the community, and the federal government has provided over \$31 million for a young offender initiative and \$100 million for the severe and violent offender reentry initiative (OJJDP, 2017; Mears & Travis, 2004).

Currently, 200,000 to 700,000 individuals released from state or federal prisons or equivalent custodial facilities in the juvenile justice system are age 24 and under. Society has to recognize the boundaries drawn between juvenile and adult systems. It neglects that individuals do not develop cognitively from a juvenile to adult just because they proceed into the adult criminal justice system; they are still youth mentally (OJJDP, 2017).

In more studies, evaluations concerning correctional programs' effectiveness suggest that well-designed and implemented programs can reduce criminal behavior and the range of effects it can have. Researchers have found contradictory results: both that nothing worked to curb criminal behavior and that delinquent youth responded positively to many interventions (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004).

Research suggests that theoretically based programs are, on average, five times more likely than those programs with no theoretical framework to yield positive outcomes (Izzo & Ross, 1990; Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). Izzo and Ross's (1990) reviews evaluated various theoretical frameworks on juvenile rehabilitation programs' effectiveness. They found that psychopathological approaches to curing criminal behavior using therapy have not proven successful.

When criminal activity is on the rise, policy specialists suggest that implementing harsher penalties to reduce the criminal activity only led to stiffer penalties that do not minimize illegal activity (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). Other factors, such as poverty, class, and culture, affect crime (Izzo & Ross, 1990; Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). Research was conducted in regard to cognitive and non-cognitive rehabilitation programs. Surprisingly, interventions that incorporated a social learning framework to explain delinquent behavior yielded positive results. A rigorous study was conducted, and reconviction and reincarceration rates reduced considerably when an experimental group was assigned to a comprehensive cognitive program. The reconviction rates were 18% for individuals assigned to the mental group and 70% for those in the non-cognitive control group (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004).

Further research revealed zero reincarceration rate for the cognitive group and 30% for the controlled group (Izzo & Ross, 1990; Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). Spencer and Jones-Walker (2004) argue findings confirmed that interventions aimed at rehabilitation and support during re-entry should consider contextual issues that contribute to criminal behavior and incorporate specific supports. These include the development of cognitive skills and the ability to cope with challenges, to have experiences such as training and productive work that produce a sense of efficacy, and to develop a sense of personal identity.

To have effective rehabilitation programs, researchers have documented what works with young offenders during their commitment to juvenile detention facilities and residential treatment centers (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). Variables to effective programs include high amounts of structure, clear expectations and consequences, demonstrated sensitivity to interpersonal dynamics, and a program duration of nine or more months (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004).

What Works

Spencer and Jones-Walker (2004) note there have been many different studies of juvenile re-entry programs; there are various variables that play an essential part in the re-entry process. One of the variables is being employed and sustaining intimate relationships with others (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004). The idea of locking away bad people to keep society safe has had broad appeal to American citizens. But it ignores the realities of what causes criminal behavior, the normative developmental challenges young people face during re-entry, and the essential role of race/ethnicity, class, and gender in the re-entry experience (Spencer & Jones-Walker, 2004).

After looking at several different re-entry programs and pinpointing what services the youth need to reenter mainstream society, a list of critical services has been discovered. The first step that should be implemented is to begin the re-entry phase at the beginning of incarceration, developing a step-by-step plan for juveniles: "think exit at entry." Juveniles are young individuals with no sense of responsibility or accountability, "no voice"; therefore, guidance is needed. Coordination and collaboration between agencies across services and supports are necessary at different re-entry stages. The stages of re-entry include: (1) transitional phase, and (2) the community-based aftercare phase. Each one of these phases is important to the success of re-entry for the juvenile.

Successful reentry programs and practices should ensure the delivery of prescribed services and supervision in the community (Youth.gov, n.d.). Juveniles need to feel wanted and secure and loved from improved and functioning families; they lack this emotional connection. Next is the reintegration back into school and attempt to master independent life skills, where the juveniles build resilience and positive development to divert from their delinquent behaviors. Although these are just a few factors when considering re-entry, there are many other factors to be considered, but there are five main factors in the implementation of a good re-entry plan.

These five factors (Youth.gov, n.d.) include:

- **Family:** Services and supports are needed to ensure family and home stability, skill development, and healing of damaged and broken relationships
- **Substance abuse:** Services and supports promote a reduction in or help to end substance use and abuse.
- **Peer association:** Programs need to be put in place to encourage private leisure time and prevent gang involvement and engagement with delinquent activities.
- **School conflict and achievement:** These are services that promote the transference of educational records and placement in the appropriate school settings to support academic success and achievement.
- **Mental, behavioral, physical health:** Services and supports need to be put into place to address juveniles' mental health, social/behavioral concerns, and chronic health problems (Youth.gov, n.d.).

Research has demonstrated that re-entry and aftercare programs, which connect youth with professional case managers, mentors, and education and employment opportunities, help reduce recidivism. Research has also found that children within residential settings should be provided with quality and appropriate educational programming that mimics mainstream public schools and holds juveniles to the same academic standards. This way, youth are eligible to return to school after release and be better prepared to succeed.

The final plan is the mental and behavioral health support, regardless of where the juveniles return. Upon their exit from secure care, they will need skills to control their emotions and behaviors within the community settings properly. "This requires that juvenile justice facilities address any mental and behavioral health needs juveniles may have and connect them with community-based treatment and support upon exit" (Youth.gov, n.d., para. 17).

Evidence-Based Prevention Program

“**The Plan Starts Now**” incorporates strategies and policies that have been rigorously tested under research conditions and proven effective in changing adolescents' drug use behavior and attitude. My program takes delinquent youth who have been informally petitioned or formally petitioned to place them with a life coach. This person assigned to the juvenile will monitor the youth from the start of the petition up to two years afterward.

The life coach will address the need for mental health counseling, substance abuse counseling, and academic help. The coach will assess the juvenile's needs and create a curriculum catered to the youth. Kids will enter the program one way, but exit another way, meaning self-assured, with newly learned life skills, and motivated to become a positive part of society.

The juveniles will receive housing while going through several programs for hands-on training with computers and other academic and vocational knowledge. They will be given options concerning trades: e.g., electrician, plumbing, carpentry, or auto mechanics. They will learn life skills such as how to cook, clean, and budget. Life coaches will be available to the young people 24 hours a day.

At the end of the program, each youth will complete several assessments. A qualitative interview will be conducted to determine which aspects of the program were most helpful. A quantitative approach will also be applied with questionnaires and surveys as to how well the program worked for each youth. Longitudinal data will also be collected and analyzed to assess the program's longer-term impact.

Community Integration

Community integration is the final stage of Chapter 2. Once released, the juvenile will work with their Life Coach to identify essential community-based programs that can assist them with resources from health care, employment, and educational resources. I have created partnerships with Salvation Army and the Christopher Watts Initiative. The Salvation Army provides case management, after-school, and food assistance programs. The Christopher Watts Initiative provides employment assistance for individuals.

Theoretical Framework and Methodology

The theoretical framework focused on theories of critical race interpretation of participants' experiences based on their insights. Interpretivism nurtured phenomenology as an inquiry method that helps assist in collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data. This research study uses a mixed methods approach. After a review of the literature on juvenile delinquencies and their causation, along with re-entry plans for incarcerated juveniles, an interview will be administered to previously incarcerated males who were imprisoned as juveniles to learn about their trajectory into incarceration. This study explores the lived experiences of African American males from low-income communities with little to no education and a lack of family support about their understanding of their trajectory into incarceration. Their stories—in their own words—will be considered along with ongoing quantitative data collection to inform program supports and emphasis. After the proposed re-entry program is implemented, the researcher will collect and analyze quantitative data to assess the program's impact on the youth it is designed to serve.

The program itself will be evaluated using a mixed methodology. Assessments will be compared and analyzed at 3, 6, 9, and 12 months to ensure a positive programmatic impact. A qualitative interview will be conducted with youth to understand their perceptions of and experiences in the program. After collecting this quantitative and qualitative data, leadership and administration will analyze it to assess the impact of the program. Adjustments to program offerings will be made as necessary.

The Program

The child who is not embraced by the village will burn it down to feel its warmth.
– African proverb

Introduction

The plan starts now! The Re-entry program Chapter 2 is a second chance program created, implemented, and designed to help juvenile delinquents with an efficient transition back into the community. Once the youth is in custody, the plan for reentry starts then. The program helps adjudicated youth with an effective transition back into the community utilizing life coaches, peer life coaches, parents, lawyers, teachers, parole officers, and other initiatives such as career development, mental and physical health, and substance abuse resources to assist with their trajectory into becoming a positive member of society.

The program will also partner with community-based organizations such as the Salvation Army, which provides case management, food pantry, after-school programs, childcare, utility assistance, and other resources to serve the juveniles once they are released. Partnering with the Salvation Army organizations, employment services, law enforcement, faith-based organizations, the business community, and community coalitions will be important to assisting youths' reintegration at the community level; multiple stakeholder groups must be involved (Mears & Travis, 2004).

My program takes delinquent youth who have been informally petitioned or formally petitioned to place them with a Life Coach. This person assigned to the juvenile will monitor the youth from the start of the petition up to two years afterward. The Life Coach will address and identify the need for mental health counseling, substance abuse counseling, and academic help. The coach will access the juvenile's needs and create a curriculum catered to the youth. Kids will enter the program one way, but exit another way, meaning self-assured, with newly learned life skills, and motivated to become a positive part of society.

The juveniles will receive housing while going through several programs for hands-on training with computers and other academic and vocational knowledge. They will be given options concerning trades: e.g., electrician, plumbing, carpentry, or auto mechanics. They will learn life skills such as how to cook, clean, and budget. Life Coaches will be available to the young people 24 hours a day.

At the end of the program, each youth will complete several assessments. A qualitative interview will be conducted to determine which aspects of the program were most helpful. A quantitative approach will also be applied with questionnaires and surveys as to how well the program worked for each youth. Longitudinal data will also be collected and analyzed to assess the program's longer-term impact.

Program Entry

The Chapter 2 program will partner with the Cook County Juvenile Justice Department, taking youth from secured custody into a residential college campus-like setting and giving them a more dorm-like approach with the program. Parole Officers are trained to become Life Coaches who will conduct an intake with the youth, creating a personal care plan for each youth once they are released from secured custody. Peer life coaches are graduates of the program; they can assist other youths' transition through the program while creating positive reinforcements, giving youth inspiration that the program can be successful to their needs.

The ages of the youth in the program will range from 14 to 21. The program will work with the youth for an estimated 30 to 90 days, depending on the youth's stay in the custody of the Juvenile corrections. Chapter 2 will look to work with a minimum of 10 youth per session. The youth who participate in the program will have a care and exit plan established at the time of admittance; the care plan will be reviewed periodically during the youth's time in the program.

Program Intake

The program intake will include screening for anxiety and depression by using the General Anxiety Disorder (GAD-7); in addition, an intake form will also be utilized, this form will gather demographic information and other social history. Along with the intake form, a client questionnaire form will be completed to assist Life Coaches with identifying essential resources for clients. Finally, a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) will determine mental and physical health resources. Youth with significant behavior disorders, or history with trauma-related or mental health challenges will have additional support from a Mental Health Specialist. (McElhannon, 2020).

The intake form and client choice form are under development. After assessments are completed, Life Coaches will evaluate the level of supervision needed for the youth, with a point system starting at 1—with 4 being the least amount of supervision required. The point system will be discussed in further detail later in this paper.

The program will utilize Redcap to build a database that will hold information about the youth, including a picture, assessments, fingerprints, identifying markers such as tattoos or distinctive scars that will help identify each youth in case of a runaway or any issue that may occur.

The parents or caregivers may attend the admission process. As previously mentioned, the Chapter 2 program will utilize Redcap to build a database that will capture data for the program for evaluation purposes. A copy of the court order will also accompany the youth information within the system.

Youth Residence

The residential aspect of Chapter 2 draws on recommendations from the Missouri Department of Social Services (DSS), Children's Division, regarding independent living arrangements for young people (McElhannon, 2020). Youth enlisted in Chapter 2's program are

assigned to two in a room of the same age and same level of supervision. The youth rooms are designed like a college dorm with two beds in each room, a closet, dressers to place their belongings, and a study desk. The youth who reach level 4 will have a more apartment-like setting room to teach life skills. Youth will start the program at Level 1. Level 2 means they have been in the program and have learned the basics, at Level 3 they are ready to be granted more responsibility, and at Level 4 they are ready to leave and are given more independence.

Once Level 4 is reached in the program, the youth in Chapter 2's program will be able to come and go on their own for employment, school and other essential needs. The youth are given a curfew of 9 P.M. Youth at this point are ready to leave and are given more independence. Once Level 4 is reached in the program, the youth in Chapter 2 should be able to manage their own physical, and mental health needs daily; they are able to come and go on their own as long as they return by the curfew of 9 P.M.

Youth Evaluations

Youth in the program will have progress reports that are sent to the adjudicating judge detailing their improvement and a copy of any and all incidents that may have occurred with the youth while in the program. Reports will be generated regarding family interactions, group therapies, chemical dependency, and sexual behavior concerns. Educational progress, health, behavioral health, and mental health will be monitored.

Life coaches will review the youth's progress reports to ensure the youth are getting the support and services needed and remain consistent with the youth's individualized plan. Youth in Chapter 2's care will continue to have regular meetings with Life Coaches and support services until a level of satisfaction is reached with the Life coaches and courts. The purpose of this is to ensure the youth's quality of life. Returning the youth back into society can create anxiety issues for the youth; that will be why Life Coaches will be available 24 hours a day, even after completion of the program.

There is a consortium of factors that will be considered for their success. Youth will meet with Life Coaches who will assist with job search skills such as writing resumes, locating employment listings, completing applications, and interviewing strategies; these are all life skills preparing youth to gain sources of income. Youth seeking employment will also be offered tattoo removal services as part of their preparation for job interviews. A proportion of employers have a bias against ink (Premack, 2018).

Education

The educational aspect is a vital piece for the development of the youth. The Chapter 2 program will partner with the Chicago public school system to create and implement an innovative educational curriculum that matches the requirements of the state of Illinois and fits the unique learning style of the youth. Plans for college will be discussed with educators. A computer lab will be located within the facility. Computers will be donated via Apple and Dell through educational grants and initiatives. It is critical for youth to conquer the digital divide by accessing modern-day technologies. Vocational skills will also be available such as carpentry, electrical, automotive. For

youth who require special services, there will be staff to assist the special needs youth. Youth who plan to attend college will be provided transportation (vans) to college campuses through charitable donations from local dealerships within the community.

These efforts will only succeed with substantial levels of support for the youth. Generating support from all stakeholders—from the public to staff to schools—will require a continuous effort to overcome the adverse stereotypes of youth and criminal activity. There is an abundance of research documenting the toxic social effects of failed youth development attributable to the justice system (Mears & Travis, 2004). A successful Chapter 2 program would assist in building the policy argument for more attention to youth reentry.

Health Care

Many youths involved in the juvenile justice system cope with mental health and substance abuse issues; some have learning and cognitive disorders, which may contribute to behavior that results in run-ins with the law. Research has revealed that more than 60% of youth in the juvenile justice system suffer from at least three mental health disorders (Nellis & Wayman, 2009). Due to the overlap between mental illness, cognitive challenges, substance abuse, and criminality, the transition from secure custody to the community is a critical time where necessary supports should be in place to provide the medical attention needed. In the Chapter 2 program, medical attention will be readily accessible to the youth.

Counseling sessions will be administered to youth, helping them cope with traumas affecting their lives, such as physical, mental and substance abuse, and racism and other systemic problems. Counselors will meet with youth and help them to develop coping mechanisms to navigate their daily lifestyles.

Medicaid is available to low-income youth; many juvenile offenders qualify for Medicaid because they come from households below the poverty level. Medicaid covers youth in the juvenile justice systems in out of home placement providing youth with access to necessary medications and other assistance with their health care, mental health treatment, and substance abuse treatment (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

Federal law began to restrict the use of federal Medicaid dollars (i.e., federal financial participation, or FFP) for services offered to an inmate of a public institution. Nevertheless, this constraint does not affect the youth's eligibility for Medicaid. Medicare and Medicaid Services advised states that they should begin a process, so the youth remain on the Medicaid list (Nellis & Wayman, 2009). It is suggested that States releasing incarcerated individuals should make every effort to ensure that the youth or adult can begin receiving Medicaid covered services immediately upon leaving the correctional institution for adults and out of home placement for youth (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

An alarming 46 states and two territories had policies in place that required termination of Medicaid supports for people in jail. Furthermore, 13 state-operating juvenile facilities have adopted a policy that automatically terminates Medicaid enrolled youth in pre-adjudicatory detention (Nellis & Wayman, 2009). Many facilities had adopted a termination policy upon the

youth's release from custody, 13% of state juvenile facilities try to reenroll eligible youth in Medicaid (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

It is particularly important to keep youth on the Medicaid list, due to the reenrollment process, the process can take up to twice as long once removed from the list. The youth need their prescriptions, due to some of the traumatic experiences they have experienced, which makes their medication vitally important for their safety and the communities.

A one-day supply of medication upon a youth's release is issued. However, some studies have shown that fewer than half of the youth on psychiatric medication were given a refill prescription once they were released, thus contributing to the influx of young mental health subjects roaming the city streets, coming into sometimes violent conflicts with law enforcement (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

Chapter 2 mental health specialists will assist in making sure youth have the necessary medication needed to continue with their daily agendas. An important factor that has been revealed about Medicaid enrollment is that when youth lose their Medicaid enrollment, it takes approximately 90 days or longer to complete a lengthy process to regain their benefits (Nellis & Wayman, 2009). This threatens successful re-entry back into the community, which delays treatment, medication, and services for the youth at a pivotal point in their life.

Creating a gap in the youths' treatment can mean recidivism. Research has discovered that the key advantage to keeping youths enrolled in Medicaid is a quick restoration of benefits upon release upon release. Chapter 2 is there to make sure youth do not skip a beat and their health needs are acquired. In 2007, New York allowed for the suspension of Medicaid, not termination, during incarceration. Due to the influx of juveniles and traumatic experiences, California adopted a similar bill in 2008 (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

Cook County programs may cover youth with special health care needs that are not covered by their present medical provisions. Chapter 2 will use the Cook County medical facilities and surrounding hospitals in the area. Cook County is a teaching facility and is in the proximity of the youth facility; that is why Chapter 2 youth residence will utilize Cook County medical facility. Cook County offers several medical services that are based on a sliding scale. There will also be services afforded to the youth, such as lawyer representation for various issues, e.g., emancipation, termination and expungement of juvenile records, or records being sealed (McElhannon, 2020).

Employment

Employment status is strong prognosticator of criminal behavior. People who have jobs are less likely to commit crimes; empirical research has provided copious evidence on this subject. When previously incarcerated offenders seek employment, they may encounter difficulties, especially if their record has not been expunged. Surveys of post confinement reveal that having a criminal record places job seekers at the bottom of the employment pyramid. Furthermore, the months or years spent out of the labor force while in detention, jail, or prison, places these individuals at a disadvantage in finding a job (Nellis & Wayman, 2009).

The time youth spend in out-of-home placements generally is not spent in preparation for employment. In Chapter 2, facilities youth spend time with Life Coaches conducting mock interviews, for example, to prepare them for the interview process. Upon reaching the exit stage, employment serves to reduce recidivism. If youth are interested in vocational education, as discussed earlier, youth will be able to earn industry certifications to present to employers.

Program Completion

To exit the program, the youth must meet their exit plan criteria ninety days prior to completion. Life coaches will meet with the youth prior to their exit to determine their readiness. For the youth with special needs, a meeting will occur once a year with the department of mental health, division of developmental disabilities, and schools they attend (McElhannon, 2020).

A letter is signed by Life Coaches and provided to the youth on Cook County letterhead accompanied by the judge's signature approving the graduation from the program. This letter will aid the youth in receiving continuing help by serving as an eligibility verification (McElhannon, 2020). The exit packet will include information regarding healthcare for the youth and a payee request form if youth are receiving social security benefits.

The youth will need important documents as they re-enter the community to complete a successful transition (McElhannon, 2020). Youth will have possession of the following documents, with a copy in their files upon exiting the program: birth certificate, social security card, driver's license or state issued ID, an up-to-date credit report, and a work ID card for eligible youth. The youth will also need information on insurance policies; a personal portfolio of completed programs, medical records, and educational records; and a list of known relatives. Finally, they will leave with any resumes they have created with the assistance of their Life Coach.

No youth will exit from the program until permanent housing is secured. Youth experiencing homelessness or who are at risk of homelessness should contact their Life Coach in order to be connected to housing services.

Guardianship and Conservatorship

Guardianship can be pursued by Chapter 2 for youth between the ages of 18-21 who have physical or mental conditions that are so serious that the youth cannot make decisions for themselves about their safety and wellbeing.

Financial Considerations

The Life Coaches must make a referral to the eligibility analyst within five working days from the youth's entry into the program. The life coaches will enter all information for the youth into a program that has been developed by the financial analyst. The program will automatically assign funds to the children depending on placement. The program will also be aware of children on temporary assistance that has been allocated to the families and redirected to the program to assist those children in their daily needs (McElhannon, 2020).

The youth will receive an allowance once a week. The amount of allowance is based on their age. Chapter 2 has a specialist that deals with Social Security. The Social Security specialist is responsible for completing applications and forms to the Social Security Administration. The financial analyst also monitors deposits from SSA into the youth's account to ensure resource limits are not surpassed (McElhannon, 2020).

Critical Event Procedures

Chapter 2 has put in place a critical event protocol for reporting, reviewing, and documenting the program's response to substantial events involving youth. These include youth deaths, suicides, or serious physical injury, as well as other incidents requiring critical event responses (McElhannon, 2020). The purpose of this process is to take a closer look at circumstances surrounding critical events, including the Life Coach's initial response to the critical event prior to involvement with the family that has been impacted. The method behind this is to identify systematic issues and practices or areas in need, which, if addressed through policy or practice, may improve Chapter 2's effectiveness while moving ahead (McElhannon, 2020). All incidents regarding a critical event must be reported to a hotline by Chapter 2's staff immediately.

Fiscal Budget

The budget to run the facility and pay personnel will come out of funds allocated from a private investor of \$500,000. The positions of staff and pay are as follows: Life Coaches who interact with youth on day-to-day events will earn a salary of \$45,000 annually, a chef who will come in and maintain balanced nutrition for the youth will receive a salary of \$35,000 annually, teachers who instruct youth will receive an annual salary of \$65,000. Partnering with Cabrini Legal Aid, lawyers will be available for legal counsel without cost.

Exit Questionnaire

Before exiting the program, the youth will complete a questionnaire (OJJDP, 2017); here is an exit examination presented to the youth upon leaving the program:

1. What are your goals for re-entry?

Youth will make a list of their goals in each section

Education Goals _____

Career Goals _____

Health Goals _____

Family and Relationship Goals _____

Financial Goals _____

Other Goals _____

2. What are you doing to meet your re-entry goals?

Make a list of the things you're doing now, such as certificate programs, mental health counseling, and meeting with a Life Coach that's setting you up for success in the community.

3. Where are you going to live after you are released? _____

At least 3 months before your release, sit down with your Life Coach to plan out your living situation. Use the following checklist to help guide the conversation you have with your Life Coach about housing.

Do you know who will be picking you up from the facility on the day of your release? Yes No

Do you know whom you are going to live with (if anyone)? Yes No

Do you know whom to contact if you find that you do not have a place to sleep at night? Yes No

Do you have a place to sleep at night? Yes No

Three Questions to Answer After Your Release:

1. Have you gathered your important documents together in a folder?

Check off the documents you have in a folder and write down how you will go about getting any documents that you did not check off.

___ State-issued driver's license or

___ School Records

identification card.

___ List of important contacts

___ Social Security card

Plan for getting missing documents (Whom to contact, where to go)

2. What keeps you motivated to follow the rules of community supervision and stay

focused on your re-entry goals?

Make a list of the people, strategies, and activities that are keeping you motivated and on task to follow the conditions of probation or parole and meet your goals.

People	Strategies	Activities
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

3. Who will you talk to when you need help?

Work with your Life Coach to come up with a list of names and contact information for the people or agencies you will reach out to if you need help.

Housing	Employment
Name _____	Name _____
Phone Number _____	Phone number _____
Email Address _____	Email _____
Education	Physical Health
Name: _____	Name _____
Phone Number: _____	Phone Number _____
Email address _____	Email Address _____
Juvenile Record Expungement/ Sealing	Mental Health
Name: _____	Name _____
Phone Number _____	Phone Number _____
Email address _____	Email address _____

Conclusion

The exit questionnaires will provide data to help Chapter 2's leadership to assess the program's impact on the youth it serves. Juveniles face many obstacles that hinder them from becoming successful citizens in society: mental health challenges, substance abuse, physical and emotional abuse, educational resources, family, living arrangements, and employment. Therefore, there is an urgent need for effective reentry programs to give youth a fighting chance by addressing their needs and preventing recidivism. Chapter 2 answers that call—The Plan Starts Now!

This comprehensive, holistic re-entry program is specifically designed to address the problem of the disproportionate adjudication of African American youths. Providing essential resources such as mental health support, education, vocational training, employment preparation, and housing, Chapter 2 seeks to assist youth in the juvenile system in order to reduce recidivism and promote their successful transition back into the community. By continuously collecting quantitative and qualitative data, leadership and administration will ensure the ongoing effectiveness of the program. If areas of concern come to light, leadership will conduct further research in an effort to carry out Chapter 2's mission to provide a warm village to embrace adjudicated youth so they can burn brightly as proud and productive members of society.

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