2020

Effects of Ethnicity and Type of Crime on Juvenile Offenders' Recidivism Risk

Larry E. Taylor
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Larry E. Taylor

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Carl Valdez, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Neal McBride, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Charles Diebold, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2020

Abstract

Effects of Ethnicity and Type of Crime on Juvenile Offenders' Recidivism Risk

by

Larry E. Taylor

MS. Cardinal Stritch University, 2006

BS, Cardinal Stritch University, 1994

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Clinical Psychology

Walden University

November 2020

Abstract

Juvenile crime in the United States has been a persistent social problem that has reached epidemic proportions. The purpose of this between-subjects, comparative quantitative study was to examine the relationship between recidivism risk and the type of crime, ethnicity, and race of the juvenile. Social learning theory was used to guide the study. Archival data of 59,653 cases were collected from Inter-University Consortium Political and Social Research. Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions was used to assess the dependent variable recidivism risk. The independent variables were ethnicity and type of crime of the offender reported in the Transcript of the Record Conviction Report. The variables were tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test. For each of the 3 research questions by type of crime, by ethnic group, and interaction of both, the null hypothesis was rejected. Findings indicated that White, African American, and Hispanic juveniles by type of crime were viewed and treated differently in the juvenile justice system. The social change implication of the findings comes from considering the impact of recidivism risk for youth of color and type of crime by juvenile justice agencies recognizing these effects on the services in the community.

Effects of Ethnicity and Type of Crime on Juvenile Offenders' Recidivism Risk

by

Larry E. Taylor

MS, Cardinal Stritch University, 2006

BS, Cardinal Stritch University, 1994

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Clinical Psychology

Walden University

November 2020

Dedication

To the Walden instructors, my advisor, and staff who assisted me in pushing through the tough times I had during my research and writing my dissertation, thank you. My chair, Doctor Valdez, who steered me in the direction that encouraged me to think objectively and challenged me to think outside the box, thank you, sir. To my mentors and colleagues who gave me time and an ear when I needed it and then encouraged me by telling me “you got this”. God bless you!!!

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge several people for their valuable assistance throughout the completion of this doctoral degree. First, I would like to thank my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, who is the head of my life, for giving me the wisdom and strength to write this dissertation. To my wife, Anise, I thank you for pushing me when I wanted to quit and for putting up with me these last few years. You encouraged me to excel. Yes, honey, it will be worth it. I love you! To my family for encouraging me, thank you. To all the people in my life who saw my worth and gave me a gentle nod, you are all my shining stars. To my daughter, Jessica, I love to learn, but this time I am finished. I promise!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Members of the United States juvenile justice system often felt overwhelmed because of an increasing number of youths who commit crimes each year. At the beginning of the 20th century, police arrested approximately 2.3 million youths, younger than 18 years of age, whom juvenile court judges sentenced to prison (Mendel, 2011). Due to the increase in juveniles arrested each year, members of the juvenile justice system release a growing number of juveniles back into the same communities they resided in before corrections to make room for other offenders (Mendel, 2011). Community members are threatened by juveniles and are uneasy because of the condition of released criminal youths returning to the same communities that have not addressed the problems that led to their incarceration (Mendel, 2011). According to Cottle, et al., (2001), many young offenders returning to the same environments end up behaving in the same manner and find themselves committing the same or worse criminal offenses, which leads to recidivism. Cottle (2001) defined *criminal recidivism* as rearrest and the return to a juvenile facility.

Findings from Mendel (2011) showed that juvenile facilities are unnecessary, obsolete, wasteful, and inadequate. Given the severity of crimes committed by juveniles, members of the court and the corrections department believe that secure confinement is unnecessary, especially if the probationary placement will serve the same purpose (Mendel, 2011). Institutions that house some of the worst young criminals will also have some inmates who do not belong in such institutions. Moreover, some young people who

do not belong in the criminal justice system fall prey to a system that cannot handle a multitude of juvenile offenders (Mendel, 2011).

Perhaps the first step to decreasing the incarceration rate would be for the juvenile justice system to limit the number of crime categories (Mendel, 2011). Members of the juvenile justice system and community members affected by juvenile offenders are beginning to investigate different interventions to identify which groups of adjudicated youth will benefit from programs that effectively rehabilitate juvenile offenders instead of punishing them (Mendel, 2011). Hence, community leaders have started to invest time and money to prepare the youths for release back into their community (Mendel, 2011). However, determining the length of time that first-time offenders or returning juvenile offenders could spend in prison will depend on the seriousness of the offenses they commit, which are either violent or nonviolent offenses (Harris, et al., 2011).

The severity of criminal offenses is the determinant as to where members of the juvenile justice system place convicted youths (Mendel, 2011). The more severe the crime committed by offenders, the more severe the sentencing. According to Mendel (2011), many youths who need interventions that are not offered by the standard correctional facilities are placed there because they are considered expendable and are considered necessary to protect the community in which they lived.

Also, communications are not clear and concise where standard definitions are lacking, especially about determining recidivism risk and what it takes to hold a community accountable for helping to rehabilitate the youths who live there (Underwood, et al, 2006). Study results showed that facilities that are at or near capacity, and the rising

cost of incarcerating juveniles, are among the necessary factors in the development of community-based intervention programs (Underwood et al., 2006). Chapter 1 includes the background section that focuses on the literature regarding juvenile incarceration. This chapter also includes the problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, theoretical framework, nature of the study, assumptions, scope, and limitations, and significance of the research. The chapter closes with a summary.

Background

The issue of crime has been a reality in the United States ever since the new colonizers and settle came with an influx of prisoners from Great Britain's prison system (Walker, 2014). Members of the British government requested that prison officials in Great Britain's penal system empty the facilities of their prisoners (Wolcott, 2000). Moreover, members of the English government believed that sending prisoners out of the country was a way to rid England of this undesirable population (Lynch, 2011; Wolcott, 2000). At the time of British prison departures, the country had almost 2 million people in their prisons who needed removing to the new world (Wolcott, 2000). Between 1718 and 1775, more than 36,000 English, 13,000 Irish, and 700 Scots were transported to the new country only to be imprisoned or to become slaves (Wolcott, 2000). Some of the crimes committed by many of the prisoners were nothing more than petty crimes such as theft, larceny, or at the worst property damage (Wolcott, 2000). These crimes were small, but they introduced a way of life that the new settlers did not expect.

When prisoners arrived from England, members of the British Justice System placed them in prison, or they worked as slaves (Walker, 2014; Wolcott, 2000). Wolcott

(2000) stated that by the year 1750, those imprisoned individuals from Europe changed from all White slaves to all Black slaves (Walker, 2014; Wolcott, 2000). The Black slaves were a part of the ever-growing slave trade that was starting to become popular among British settlers (Walker, 2014; Wolcott, 2000). Members of the justice system eventually released the White prisoners, and they became indentured servants with an opportunity to earn their freedom. Wolcott (2000) stated that imprisonment turned into a system of total control and as a show of racial dominance, which resulted in total slavery. Justice officials initially meant for imprisonment to be a temporary period until the person convicted worked off their sentence (Wolcott, 2000). However, slave traders soon found that having African slaves work for businesses and individuals in the private sector would be more profitable than imprisonment because there was no time to work off, nothing owed to them, and they were never meant to have freedom (Wolcott, 2000). The colonial society portrayed imprisonment as a method of controlling labor, regulating political and military opponents, and practicing racial dominance (Wolcott, 2000).

Nevertheless, it was not until the early 19th century that juvenile crime first became noticeable as a direct result of economic problems among Americans (Meng, et al. 2013). The first sign that problems existed was with the banks, which continually changed policies causing the public to lose faith in the banking system ((Meng, et al.,2013). According to Meng et al., (2013), by the year 1819, the United States was in an economic panic, which forced many of the child factory workers out of their jobs. This change forced the children into a position where they were left home alone or unsupervised for long periods (Meng et al., 2013). As the children continued to grow up

and take on adult responsibilities while being left alone for longer periods, they became known as adolescents (Abrams, 2013). According to Abrams (2013), some of the adolescents developed delinquent behavior that stemmed from larger systems of influence, such as family issues, the status of the community in which they lived, and material or resource deprivation, which led to nonviolent and sometimes violent crimes. The crimes committed by the children in the late 18th century and early 19th century led court officials to punish and incarcerate youths in jails and other facilities with adult prisoners (Meng et al., 2013).

Justice officials incarcerated youths because there were few options at the time to address their criminal offenses (Meng et al., 2013). According to Meng et al., (2013), members of the adult courts imprisoned many of the adolescents for noncriminal behaviors because the court was not structured to handle juvenile crime. As crime rates began to rise, members of the community and members of the justice system pressured city leaders and lawmakers to do something to address the rising crime (Meng et al., 2013). Thomas Eddy and John Griscom responded to this outcry and organized the Society for the Prevention of Pauperism, which opposed housing youths in adult jails and prisons (Meng et al., 2013). In 1825, James Gerard and Isaac Collins came up with the idea for the first juvenile institution, called the House of Refuge, designed to house poor, destitute, and vagrant youths whom authority figures deemed to be delinquent (Meng et al., 2013). The purpose of the early era of the juvenile facility was to isolate the youths from the corruption of hard adult prisons and to provide them with discipline and guidance, but not much in the way of rehabilitation. The program was a success and, by

1840, there were approximately twenty five facilities throughout the United States (Meng et al., 2013).

Nevertheless, adult court officials continually tried many youths in adult courts and ultimately placed the juveniles in adult prisons (Meng et al., 2013). The U.S. Progressive Era (1890-1920) considered this period to be a child-saving victory that would address the unique needs of young people who were straying from moral paths (Abrams, 2013). In the 1980s and 1990s, many community leaders and members of the justice system sought major federal and state reforms to address the overcrowded prison system, which housed youths and adults in the same prison (Abrams, 2013). Even with federal and state reforms, many youth offenders who had been arrested and released back into the same environments and ended up behaving in the same delinquent manner and found themselves committing the same or worse criminal offenses. This led to recidivism (Cottle et al., 2001).

According to Mendel (2011), researchers need to examine the effects that community correction intervention, ethnicity, and crime type have on recidivism risks among juvenile offenders. Currently, the juvenile justice system sits at an important crossroads (Abrams, 2013), where the changes underlying the premise of the juvenile justice system have made a tremendous difference for adults and those who are developmentally amenable to rehabilitation.

Problem Statement

Juvenile incarceration is a social issue that has drawn attention throughout the world because of the adverse effects caused by the imprisonment of young offenders, especially among diverse ethnic minority populations (Aizer & Doyle, 2013). However, there was a gap in the literature regarding the relationship between ethnicity and crime type and recidivism risk among juvenile offenders, especially those deemed minority. Juvenile delinquency in the United States continues to be a major problem as law enforcement officials arrested over 2 million juveniles between the ages of 12 and 17 for violent and nonviolent crimes over the last century (Barbot et al., 2012). Moreover, many youth offenders who were arrested and served time in detention return to the same environments and ended up behaving in the same manner and found themselves committing the same or worse criminal offenses, which leads to recidivism (Cottle et al., 2001).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between ethnicity and crime type (independent variables) and recidivism risk (dependent variable) among juvenile offenders using de-identified archival data from the Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR), which gathered secondary data from the University of Florida in conjunction with the Florida Department of Corrections. The dependent variable (DV) was recidivism risk among juvenile offenders within secure incarceration and community-based facilities. The independent variables (IV) were

offense type (violent, nonviolent) and ethnicity (African American, Hispanic, and White). The ordinal categories of recidivism risk were low, moderate, moderate-high, and high. I used de-identified archival data from ICPSR/National Archive of Criminal Justice Data (NACJD) and the Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions (COMPAS) to assess recidivism risk. The Transcript of Record Conviction Report was used to assess ethnicity and crime type.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study addressed the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes?

H_o1: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

H_a1: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities?

H_o2: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

RQ3: Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk?

H_o3: There are no significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

H_a3: There are significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework used in this study was Bandura's (1977) social learning theory as it relates to criminology. Bandura argued that humans learn from their social environments through observation, that humans learn best when motivated, and that learning does not equate to behavior change. According to Cherry (2011), modeling is a good example of how children learn what is socially right or wrong by observing their parents or figures of authority. Based on ideas from Bandura, children who grow up in violent living environments may be more prone to violence as they learn the violence from members of the household. Thus, when juveniles experience interventions in which they learn behaviors to assist them from returning to the juvenile criminal justice system, they may be able to avoid recidivism and dangerous situations that are criminally motivated (Underwood et al., 2006).

Nature of the Study

This study had a quantitative focus and included several sources of archival data. The first archival data source was the ICPSR/NACJD. Data from this archival data source included information about the type of placement, type of crime, and ethnic and racial category of the juvenile. The second source of archival data was The Bureau of Justice Assessment Tool. Data from this source enabled me to determine the seriousness of the

crimes committed by youths. There are approximately 15 classes of offenses, both violent and nonviolent, perpetrated by juveniles. This study focused on 3 types of offenses for groups in detention: property damage (viewed as nonviolent) and robbery and murder (viewed as violent).

Data sources contained various classes of racial data, but for this study, I focused on 3 categories: White, African American, and Hispanic. To predict risks associated with offender release and possible reentry back into the legal system, I used an actuarial risk and needs-assessment instrument known as the COMPAS. Members of correctional departments use COMPAS in many parts of the United States as a means of predicting whether parolees will rearrest for crimes or violent offenses. A recent study of 91,334 parolees was conducted to assess the COMPAS (Zhang, et al, 2014). The instrument showed that an acceptable level of 0.70, which is considered minimally acceptable, was achieved by those interviewed (Zhang et al, 2014). In the model tested, four known risk factors were used based on existing official records, such as gender, age, first arrest, and the number of prior arrests (Zhang et al, 2014).

Recidivism risk data came from the COMPAS risk assessment tool, which is currently in use in many juvenile justice systems. This assessment tool was recently developed to assess the needs of juveniles who are entering the system for the first time or are getting ready for other changes in the correctional system. One of the primary benefits of this tool is it allows a range of theoretically relevant criminogenic factors and critical factors emerging from meta-analytic studies of recidivism. Data from this tool assist the corrections department in determining what kind of risk they are taking when

considering juveniles for probation or transfer to community intervention programs. The founder of the COMPAS risk assessment program designed the tool based on the needs of the state's justice system. Because of this tool scores will differ depending on the needs of that state (Brennan, Dieterich, & Ehret, 2008). The data were analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is a nonparametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA and does not share the ANOVA's distributional assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). An alpha level of .05 was used to test the null hypotheses.

Definitions

I used the following operational terms and phrases throughout the study:

Community corrections intervention: A structured program for adjudicated youths who were sentenced for nonviolent crimes or were pending sentencing as an alternative means to incarceration. This type of program is under the authority of the county or state agencies, which allow youths to maintain a structured probationary period in a community setting or at home instead of going to a secured facility (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

Juvenile delinquent: A person typically under the age of 18 who commits habitual criminal acts or offenses. Because of the status of a juvenile, it is not possible to prosecute them the same as if they were an adult offender (Schroeder, et al, 2010).

Juvenile detention: A detention center meant for youths who commit a violent crime; the offense is so severe that the youths are sent to secure detention, which is a prison for youths (Ryan, et al, 2013).

Nonviolent crimes: Crimes that do not involve the use of any force or injury to another person. Usually, these types of crime are property damage, burglary, and crimes that are not life-threatening (Rocque, et al, 2017).

Recidivism: The commission of repeat offenses and the most commonly used indicator of program and system effectiveness (Harris et al., 2011).

Recidivism risk: The tendency to relapse into a previous condition or mode of behavior; especially into criminal behavior (Lowenkamp, et al, 2016).

Violent crime: Crimes in which an offender uses force on a victim. Crimes of this type entail both situations in which the violent act is the objective, such as murder, as well as crimes in which violence is the means to an end (Stalans, et al, 2004).

Assumptions

Several assumptions were used in this study. The first assumption was that youths who were adjudicated delinquent and sentenced to a detention center may have committed more than 1 crime, in which case it would elevate their recidivism risk to make them ineligible to participate in the community intervention program. The second assumption was that some county arrest records of youth do not indicate whether the youth arrested is a minority. Therefore, authorities fail to accurately record whether the youth is a minority at the time of detention. The results could make a difference when the youth appears in court. According to Mendel (2011), 3 in 5 youths arrested are minorities. In the State of Wisconsin, each county is required to record demographics of juveniles arrested, such as whether the youth is a minority and their ethnic affiliation. Although the current study focused on juveniles convicted of a crime, I assumed that for

various reasons a nonviolent offender who is considered to have low risk should not be allowed to participate and become lost in the system.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study includes juveniles who had experienced recidivism in the criminal justice system. I sought to examine whether the recidivism risk was related to the type of crime or ethnicity. Placing young delinquents on probation because of a low recidivism risk will allow them to be released from secure detention and be placed in an alternative program (Mendel, 2011). Pilot studies showed that juveniles who participate in community corrections or another intervention that was designed to keep them from being locked up in detention have a greater chance of remaining crime-free once released (Underwood et al., 2006). Those who go on to interventions show more of a willingness to enroll in programs aimed at true rehabilitation such as high school completion, working part-time jobs, and respecting the legal system (Underwood et al., 2006).

The current study also focused on the need for clear communication between youths and the legal system. Recidivism, which is the commission of repeat offenses, is the most used indicator of program and system efficiency (Harris et al., 2011). The goal of rehabilitation programs is to prevent recidivism, which reduces crime, and the youths have a chance to be a good asset to the community instead of a dangerous asset.

According to Fine et.al (2017), adjudicated youths who hold negative attitudes toward the justice system are more likely to engage in crime. The study of attitudes is important early in a youth’s criminal career when they are usually open to ideas that

make sense to them. When individuals encounter the legal system, they usually are in obedience to it because they recognize the system as being legitimate

. When this recognition is flawed and determined to be anything but legitimate, the individual will feel justified in committing crimes because they feel the law is not legitimate and therefore will not apply to them (Fine et al., 2017) Black youths are said to disobey the law because of the negative attitudes they feel toward police, the court system, and judges. Black youths feel that even after being arrested, the outcome will not look good for them because historically they have been dealt with more harshly than their White counterparts (Fine et al., 2017). Hispanic youths feel a sense of negativity toward the law, but unlike Black youths who feel targeted from the beginning, Hispanics will withhold their negative feelings unless they are arrested more than twice (Fine et al., 2017).

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. Although youths who commit a crime face charges for a violent or nonviolent criminal action, they are subject to the punishment the court system gives them and are often given harsher sentences because of ethnic/racial differences. White offenders are often overrepresented in court and are likely to be given a chance to take part in programs that will allow them to go into programs of intervention. The non-White population will often be underrepresented and will often draw a sentence, regardless of the nature of the crime, that will make it difficult for them to have the same chance as those who are White (Fine et al., 2017).

Another limitation was the recidivism risk that is used to qualify juveniles who are eligible for programs in community corrections interventions. There is an urgent need for communities to invest in developing or sponsoring programs that will help eligible juveniles who are coming back into the community. If they have any chance of using this program to complete high school, obtain job skills, and rejoin families, it is at this point in their lives to do so. Many communities, regardless of how they feel about juvenile crime, will not have the finances needed to fund such programs and are not aware of sources to obtain funds. This limitation can be eased if local, state, and federal governments provided support (Fine et al., 2017).

The archival population data were from a sample of juvenile arrest records and other records pertinent to the juvenile system. Some laws protect minors from anyone gaining access to juvenile records without permission. Therefore, alternate sources were needed to provide the information from underaged juvenile data is much harder to obtain because of the federal laws that protect their identity. I was able to find the type of crime, arrest records, but to find out who the youth is was not possible. These juveniles will have committed crimes and will have been adjudicated as delinquent and assigned to corrections either in secure detention or a type of intervention aimed at deterring them from returning to crime.

Significance

The significance of this research included adding to the current literature on identifying interventions and assessment tools that will assist juveniles in finding interventions that will address their needs and will have an impact on their recidivism

risk. Juvenile offenders are often placed in a juvenile facility while awaiting court sentencing, but that experience can damage their attitude toward correct thinking and cause their recidivism rate to spiral and make them ineligible. Findings from the current study may help the local correctional facilities and other officials bridge the gap by keeping youths who have lower recidivism risk out of secure detention for crimes that are not as harsh as others (see Melton, 2010).

Identifying shortcomings in the juvenile system may aid the judicial system in discovering programs that will allow juveniles who did not commit serious crimes but are still in detention. The current study may enable agencies and communities to discover topics that have not been discussed and to address what to do with youths who offend and re-offend. These types of interventions are piquing the interest of communities, large and small, who are willing to invest in community juveniles. Instead of building bigger prisons, there should be a move to build more community correctional sites that might contain boot camps, foster homes, and other facilities that will provide alternative interventions to the juveniles released from custody. (Melton,2010).

This study has the potential of contributing to positive social change for officials and affected individuals. Mendel (2011) stated that no juvenile belongs in prison for extended periods, but if the crime warrants such consequences then prison is for them. To have juveniles locked up and forgotten about should be a crime because it limits children, no matter how bad they may be, from seeking a life outside of corrections if they qualify (Mendel,2011).

Significance to Theory

The consequences for adjudicated juveniles are clear: If they commit crimes and break the law they will go to prison. Two major types of crime determine the fate of juveniles: violent and nonviolent. The law is clear regarding the punishment for committing a crime. The two types of punishment are secure detention, which means prison, and probation, which means a halfway house, community correction intervention, or suspended sentence. Controlling who is released back into the community remains a challenge because a criminally minded individual released back into the community can continue to be a danger to the citizens of the community based on the recurring habits that sent the juvenile away in the first place. When it comes to juvenile criminal behavior, recidivism is the most commonly used indicator of program and system effectiveness. Preventing recidivism is the goal of programs that deal with criminal backgrounds. The major concern is that of public safety. Therefore, recidivism remains a closely tied element in determining who is eligible to participate (Harris et al., 2011).

The current study focused on the theory that recidivism is a clear indicator of recurring crime in the life of a criminally minded youth. At the same time, if a juvenile is given probation to a community-based program, their chances of reoffending are slim because they were selected to serve their sentence outside of a place that restricts their movement. Communities continue to find ways to invest in juveniles to offer positive changes. Positive social change may result from investigating the recidivism risk of juveniles, especially those who are members of ethnic and cultural groups, who have

given up on the system because they feel that they do not stand a chance because of the color of their skin or beliefs.

Significance to Practice

The literature that targets juveniles and their whereabouts is a significant concern. Juvenile detention has been proven not to work (Underwood et al., 2006). Further, youths placed in secure detention, even for a short period, will not have the same success as someone who did not go to detention at all (Mendel, 2011). Further research hopefully will help fill the gap in knowledge of what happens to juveniles who are locked up and forgotten about, meaning they never get a chance to seek the help they need (Mendel, 2011). As knowledge becomes evident in communities and the legal system, the amount of care and concern provided to juveniles may change.

In earlier decades, the United States started to think about what to do with the juvenile recidivism problem that appeared to be spiraling out of control. Some state officials began to experiment with ideas of how to predict recidivism and control how juvenile delinquents think, react, and what it is officials can do about it (Harris et. al,2011). As states began to continue with experiments, other states started to take notice and tried to emulate the success of the more successful programs (Harris, et al.,2011). The results were pressure being put on states to start to develop models to deal with mounting crimes among juvenile offenders in that particular state (Harris, et al., 2011).

Recidivism risk is a tool to reduce the crime rate among juveniles. As crime rises, it is critical for municipalities to predict what kind of individual is being released back

into the community. The race, ethnicity, and type of crime is an accurate predictor of what type of juvenile is being sentenced and released (Harris et al., 2011).

Significance to Social Change

Social change is an alteration in the social order of society. The current study may improve the understanding that exists between juveniles, community leaders, and state officials. Juveniles are convicted and placed in many types of facilities including boot camps and group homes that are locked and considered a proper place for youths with a criminal background. Nearly 40% of youths arrested are sent to these facilities, which hold upwards of 200 to 300 youths (Mendel, 2011). Prison operations are in the standard correctional fashion that includes bars on the windows and razor barb wire, which may influence how juveniles view their future.

Further, there is a chance that federal and state officials may pay attention to the fact that more juveniles are locked up with recidivism risk soaring, and the public fear of increasing crime, not to mention politician's fears of being soft on crime. It seems the change society wants is being passed from community to federal to state to address the problem of where to place the juvenile offenders. Findings from the current study may motivate interest in all levels of government to examine the juvenile justice system to find ways to solve the problem instead of perpetuating the problem.

Summary

Thousands of juveniles are being detained each year for crimes that were committed by them. The crimes perpetrated deserve some punishment, and society demands that something is done to combat the crimes committed by criminal juveniles.

For decades, the typical way to handle crimes was to take juveniles to court, where they may be found guilty, and lock them up for several years. However, it became apparent that placing juveniles in prison caused the problem to escalate, and in some cases, it made matters worse because the recidivism risk for juveniles would be extremely high. Anytime a minor goes to secure detention, there is a chance that they will not maintain low recidivism that will make them eligible for probation, which would include interventions that will help them turn their life around.

The other challenge is that of race and ethnicity, which causes affected minorities to become almost invisible because no matter how the juvenile looked at the justice system, the color of their skin is a deterrent to anything that will cause positive change. Chapter 2 provides an exploration of the various ways recidivism affects juveniles and what effects race and method of crime have on their life. I review literature that addresses why some juveniles never achieve a place on probation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

At the beginning of the 20th century, approximately 2.3 million juveniles under the age of 18 were arrested and placed in a youth facility for crimes they committed (Underwood et al., 2006). Juvenile courts handled 1.5 million cases. By 2009, some 2,300 jurisdictions represented an estimated 82% of the delinquent juvenile population in the legal system throughout the United States (Livsey, 2012). In the past three decades, there were nearly 60,000 juveniles at any given time detained while waiting for their day in court (Mendel, 2011).

The increase in juveniles being arrested and placed in youth facilities has put a demand on the prison system to provide space to house more offenders, which has resulted in delinquent juveniles being set free at record rates (Mendel,2011). Adjudicated juveniles released into the community are considered by the court and correctional officials to be a danger because of unknown factors that make it uncertain whether they will offend or not, but because of room constraints, they are released into the community (Mendel, 2011). Community officials remain concerned about the offender's release because of what could happen if the offender remains criminally-minded. In the current study, I examined the relationship between the type of crime and race (independent variables) and recidivism (dependent variable).

The type of crime made the most significant impact on where the juveniles served time after conviction, and the racial and ethnic background of the youth made a significant contribution to 68% of cases tried (Underwood, et al.,2006). According to Underwood et.al (2006), ethnic minority juveniles, mainly African Americans and

Hispanics, are increasingly at risk of entering the juvenile justice system rather than an alternative treatment facility. Recidivism risk helps to determine how a juvenile will interact with the community once they complete court-ordered incarceration. Economic conditions, population density, levels of access to health care, and quality of education affect recidivism risk (Harris et al., 2011). In communities where these types of conditions exist, there is a chance the youth will have a difficult time adjusting.

Some states are seeking ways to reduce the number of juveniles going into secure facilities by limiting the categories of criminal activity imposed on juvenile delinquents (Mendel, 2011). Currently, there are 3 categories of criminal risk: high risk (reserved for murderers and other violent offenders), mid-level risk (reserved for offenders who are nonviolent in their actions), and low risk that involves those convicted of a nonviolent crime categorized by property damage, burglary, and robbery (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Redesigning limits for juveniles' risk will make some juveniles who were eligible for incarceration to be sentenced to an alternative intervention such as a group home or boot camp. Some states are prohibiting all low-level risk and nonviolent offenders from going into secure detention (Mendel, 2011). Community leaders are continuing to hold the offenders accountable for their actions but are continuing to review recidivism risk based on the category in which they fall (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

Many staff in the legal system who oversee delinquents are encouraging a second look at interventions and what is happening to juveniles in detention. Crowded facilities are the number one factor that leads to high recidivism. Crowded facilities will increase the recidivism risk to a population that has already had its share of high rates

(Underwood et al., 2006). If a nonviolent individual is placed in a facility with violent offenders, there is a chance they will become as violent as the other offenders. This situation stimulates community leaders to investigate other interventions supported by state and federal agencies (Underwood et al., 2006).

Literature Search Strategy

I used Walden University library databases such as PsycINFO, SAGE Premier, PsycARTICLES, and SocINDEX to identify relevant literature to complete this study. Search terms including *recidivism*, *juvenile incarceration*, *violent crimes*, *nonviolent crimes*, *community corrections interventions*, and *ethnic minorities in the justice system* were used to find relevant articles.

Chapter 2 begins with a discussion of statistics and the effects of juvenile detention on youths. An essential element in recidivism determination is the kind of crime and where the juvenile is remanded to serve their time. The challenge facing the judiciary system is transitioning and reintegrating youth from corrections back into the community (Mendel, 2011). According to Mendel (2011), the length of time matters when determining juveniles for alternative intervention. Even a short period in a general population where violent and nonviolent criminal teens serve time together is damaging to the recidivism risk of young offenders (Mendel, 2011).

Although research is ongoing in addressing youth crimes, it has become evident that no one method will address the needs of juvenile delinquents. Researchers have identified some assessment tools that are used to identify successful recidivism (Andrews &Bonta, 2010). Risk/needs assessment tools and social learning models are two of the

more modern assessment tools that are used to determine recidivism. Most states have different methods of measuring recidivism. Successful assessment tools are found to ease high recidivism risk (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

The theoretical framework in this chapter will include such models as the risk-needs-responsibility model (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Bandura's social learning theory involves relationship building, assessment, problem statement, goal setting, intervention, and evaluation. The risk/needs assessments for youth tool is used to estimate the risks of recidivism and identify other factors that can reduce the juvenile's risk (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Another tool is the Delinquency Reduction Outcome Profile (DROP), which is a situational judgment test designed to measure social decision-making in juvenile delinquents (Barbot, et al.,2012). The DROP involves a scoring method that captures the deviation of an individual's response from an ideal expert-based response pattern. The DROP includes the Multiconstruct-Multisituational factor-scoring method to measure the stable decision-making tendencies of the individual (Barbot et al., 2012). The chapter concludes with a review of each assessment tool and how it assists the justice system in determining risk assessment over time (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015).

Conceptual Framework

Bandura's self-efficacy theory stems from social cognitive theory. The concept of self-efficacy is the belief that people can succeed in life and have the power to change their lives (Morgenstern et al., 2016). Self-efficacy is difficult to achieve for people who struggle with drugs and alcohol addiction and have a history of recidivism in the criminal

justice system (Van Hout & McElrath, 2012). Self-efficacy starts developing during early childhood and continues throughout a person's life (Bandura, 1982; Cherry, 2016). In childhood, individuals learn new tasks and learn how to complete those new tasks (Bandura, 1982). Some researchers view the concept of self-efficacy as mastering tasks (Bandura, 1977; Cherry, 2016; Zhang & Chan, 2017). When people master certain tasks, they develop a belief that they can accomplish other tasks (Cherry, 2016; Zhang & Chan, 2017). Another important aspect of self-efficacy is what people witness or observe in their environments relating to completing tasks (Bandura, 1977). As people grow and develop in their environments, they learn how to cope and deal with life issues from their family members and other people of influence (Bandura, 1982). People, who grow up in chaotic families, experience inadequate ways of coping with life issues and may learn to deal with failure by abusing drugs and alcohol (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2010). As life tasks get harder some individuals fail to achieve their goals and lead to self-doubt and anxiety (Bone et al., 2011). Self-doubt and failure can lead to the third concept of self-efficacy, which are negative personal thoughts (Bandura, 1977). The more people fail, the more they believe they cannot accomplish tasks in life, and these negative thoughts could be devastating for them in early recovery (Gorski P., 2008).

People recovering from drugs and alcohol addiction failed recovery attempts, due to their inability to cope with life's issues, they began to doubt they have what it takes to maintain recovery, and many revert to old ways of coping (Kelly & Greene, 2014). People in recovery need to believe they have the power to manage and deal with their

problems as they arise (Kelley & Greene, 2014). When people start believing they have the power to be successful they are experiencing self-efficacy (Gorski, 2008).

Hope and goal-directed thinking lead toward a desire to accomplish goals, which are essential aspects of recovery and important for the person in recovery (Davis et al., 2014). The absence of hope leads to depression and hopelessness, which is related to relapse for individuals who are trying to maintain recovery (Kelley, et. al. 2015). The application of hope and goal-directed thinking, decrease depression, anxiety, and other negative cognitive thoughts that leads to relapse (May et al., 2015). The more successful people experience, the more evidence of hope, and self-efficacy they will have to draw from in the future (Davis et al., 2014; May et al., 2015). Success increases hope and self-efficacy, and continued success increases the belief that they can achieve goals and maintain recovery (Kemp & Butler, 2014). Success helps the person understand that they have the power to maintain their recovery (Buckingham, et. al.2013).

Another important point about self-efficacy is self-love. Learning to love self may be a difficult issue for people who abuse drugs and alcohol (Kemp & Butler, 2014). The concept of self-love relates to this research study and may link the importance of believing in oneself to obtaining and maintaining recovery (Kemp & Butler, 2014). Hopeful and goal-oriented people who support the recovering person can foster self-love (Gestel-Timmermans & Brouwers, 2014; Kemp & Butler, 2014). A central focus for people recovering from drugs and alcohol addiction is learning to love-self and by surrounding themselves with others, who are caring, compassionate, and hopeful is the most important aspect of maintaining long-term recovery (Kemp & Butler, 2014).

In this stage of recovery, the individual needs to deal with family origin issues and negative self-concepts that can fuel relapse triggers (Gorski, 2008). This stage in recovery where the individual is learning to live life, on life's terms, while breaking old patterns (Gorski, 2004). Long-term recovery gives the person time to take responsibility and use tools they have learned, in other stages of recovery, to avoid relapse (Gorski, 2013). As a person in recovery deals with problems and life stressors, they can build confidence, increase self-efficacy and self-concept, and believe that they are capable and deserving of long-term recovery (Buckingham et al., 2013).

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical framework will achieve several things; it will serve as the structure that can hold or support a theory in researching the topic chosen. In identifying what types of theory would be most useful in this area, the risk/needs model, which is a standardized tool that assists practitioners to collect and collate information about a youth's risk of recidivism (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Practitioners hope to find signs using this tool that will treat and change the attitude of criminally-minded youth. Therefore, this model is designed to inform decisions about estimating a juvenile's risk of recidivating once they serve their sentence (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

Risk/needs assessment consists of two components, the risk assessment, which provides a way to predict the likelihood of recidivism of the youth. The next component is the needs assessment which identifies factors about the youth that can change with redirection. Recidivism involves predicting future contact the adjudicated juvenile will have with the justice system. The need for this tool is useful because it will alert law

enforcement or other juvenile agencies to focus on the background of the youth and how long since their release did they offend (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). The question that agencies may ask is: was the chance of releasing the youth a good choice? questions such as this will help authorities determine what could have been done differently by authorities. The risk/ needs model provides assessment tools that predict the likelihood of recidivism of the youth (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

One of the issues that will determine the recidivism rate is an individual's ability to make a decision that will influence the juvenile system. According to Barbot et al. (2010), a strong predictor of juvenile recidivism is their antisocial behavior. The main reason for measuring the attitudes of youth is to determine the type of intervention that a community will need to improve the skills necessary for the juvenile to remain in compliance with the justice system. The writer continues by saying it is surprising that so few social scientists have developed such assessment tools to assist in developing improved systems (Barbot, et al., 2012).

Assessments are a key instrument in helping juvenile justice practitioners, who are responsible for determining where the juvenile is sentenced, and once released the chance of recidivism is greatest when practitioners will not take the time to do research. For this purpose assessment tools should be well designed, validated, reliable, and based on the principles identified through use (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). The results are paramount to public safety due to juveniles assessed and classified as faulty charges that lead to release out of incarceration without a plan. The danger remains, because of the lack of rehabilitation in prison (Barbot, et al., 2012). The research

identified changeable-dynamic, and unchangeable-static, risk factors that are considered closely related factors of wicked thoughts and activities (Barbot, et al.,2012).

There are seven dynamic risk factors associated with criminals, assessed and altered through effective interventions (Underwood et al., 2006). It is important to match offenders to programs based on their risk level, which is considered the key to reducing recidivism. In considering if a program will work for all levels of offenders. Care must be taken in administering programs, while some programs will work for high-risk criminals, research has also shown that low-risk criminal youth's recidivism increased (Andrews, et al.,2004).

The correct risk classification will assist criminal justice officials to maximize the use of program resources, meaning they can concentrate on offenders, with whom they can have the greatest impact. In regards to this type of assessment, criminal individuals may have many needs that will require treatment, but all requirements of the offender become important when reviewing their criminal behavior referred to as the central seven risks/needs factor (Andrews, et, al, 2004)

Table one, which was published by Andrews, et, al (2004), lists the central seven factors, the risk associated with the factor, and where the focus of treatment should be to address the risk. The general assumption of the risk/needs assessment tools is the criminogenic needs are dynamic and the central seven risk factors address the dynamic needs of the criminally minded individual (Andrews, et, al, 2004). Researchers state that risk/needs assessments have become the cornerstone of good correctional practice. Research consistently explains that assessing each's risk of reoffending, matching

supervision, and the general treatment of an offender's risk level and targeting the unique needs of the criminal youth (Andrews, et al.,2004). Studies show that evidence-based community supervision and treatment strategies have helped to reduce recidivism as much or more than the standard rate of incarceration (Andrews, et, al, 2004)

Table 1

Risk Needs Assessment Model

Factor	Risk	Dynamic need
Antisocial personality pattern	Impulsive, adventurous pleasure-seeking, restless, aggressive, and irritable behavior	The need to build problem-solving skills, teach self-management, anger management, and better-coping skills
Pro-criminal attitudes	Offering rationalizations for crime and expressing negative attitudes toward the law	Interventions aimed at reducing exposure to activities that formulate negative beliefs and build a stronger rapport with law enforcement
Social support for crime	Having criminal friends and being isolated from prosocial peers	Reduce association with criminal others, enhance association with positive peers
Substance abuse	Abuse of alcohol and drugs	Reduce substance abuse, reduce personal and interpersonal support for SUD behavior and introduce alternatives to drugs
Low-income family/marital relationships	Low-income family relationships and inappropriate parental monitoring and disciplining	Reduce conflict within relationships, continuous counseling and teaching positive actions within the home
School/work failure	Poor performance and low levels of satisfaction with school or work	Enhance the involvement of teachers, parents, other educational professionals
Lack of prosocial recreational activities	A lack of involvement in prosocial recreational and leisure activities	Introduce interventions that promote sports and other recreational activities

Social learning modeling is different from that of risk/needs assessment because the theory behind this type of modeling involves the individual viewing others that inspire them to pattern after the model. Study shows that focusing on the cause of juvenile delinquency has proposed that the quality of the parent-child relationship has important implications for juveniles to develop antisocial behavior (Prather & Golden, 2009). Community leaders are using social learning methods as an intervention rather than a model that predicts recidivism. In the intervention, probation officials are using this model as home-based programs for high risk and high need gang members. The program provides a standardized approach to the methods of delivery for treatment (Prather&Golden, 2009).

The social learning model is six months long and focuses on the needs of the individual and their family (Underwood, et al.,2006). While this model is not designed to address the specific needs of the individual such as the risk/needs model, it does integrate principles of cultural competency that ensure that groups will have access to the information providers have to offer (Underwood, et al.,2006). State Department of Corrections and other law enforcement or other judicial agencies became more involved in schools that required focusing on improving, and training treatment providers on how to best handle high-risk gang members (Underwood, et, al, 2006)

Recent studies of violent crimes among juveniles, support prior assumptions that juveniles who commit these types of crimes have a history of severe child abuse and witnessing family violence (Prather & Golden, 2009). Further studies show that not only are the young offender victims of child abuse but are also associated with activities that

exhibit the type of crime themselves commit (Prather & Golden, 2009). Social learning theory has been used to explain the behaviors as well as the problem it causes among juveniles. The theory then summarizes that the patterns of behavior through interaction with various reinforcing or socializing agents, and through these interactions, rewarded behaviors are then reinforced behaviors (Prather & Golden, 2009).

Like the risk/needs assessment, the social learning method finds that theoretical assumptions regarding the importance of punishers, reinforcers, and differential associations, and indicates that the activities and messages of others serve as either direct models or reinforcement of behavior (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Bandura, who is considered the father of modern cognitive, social learning theory, states the process of behavior change involves the substitution of new controlling conditions or stimulus patterns for those that have regulated a person's behavior (Underwood, et al.,2006). Research has concluded that the impact of abuse and neglect on family relationships had important implications and summarized that the lower the quality of the parent-child relationship, the higher the likelihood of juvenile delinquency (Prather & Golden, 2009).

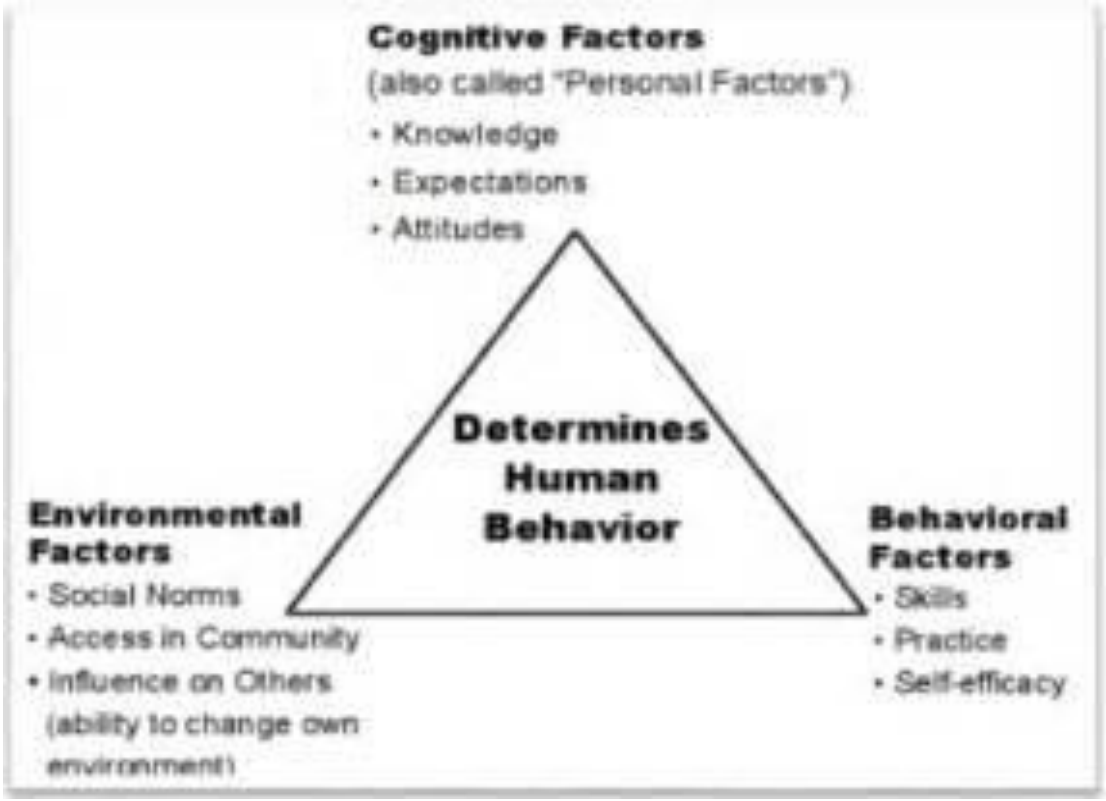

Figure 1. Development Services Group.

Figure 1, as described by Development Services Group, Inc. (2015) reveals much of the same factors as that of the risk/needs assessment tools and describes what effects stated factors have on the human emotional system (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Much like the factors in the risk/need model, social learning models have factors that are affected by what the individual sees. Human behavior becomes motivated by environmental factors, cognitive factors, and behavioral factors, which will affect a person's recidivism rate as well.

Recidivism Evaluation Tools

Criminal justice officials deal daily with the job of sentencing juveniles while contemplating what type of sentence they deserve, officials must evaluate juveniles who

have served their time or were placed in other types of incarceration)n (Andrew, et al., 2004). Some of the standard questions possibly asked by jurisdictions are: why should this offender be sentenced to prison or probation? What condition of supervision is appropriate? Does this violation of supervision warrant a revocation to prison? In generations past, these types of questions answered by individuals who had the experience, or who used professional judgment. While these types of methods exist, there was still limited understanding that caused some to slip through the cracks (Andrews, et al..2004)

According to studies, the assessment tool is a uniform report card that measures offenders' criminal risk factors and specific needs that will reduce the likelihood of future criminal activity(Development Service Group, Inc.2015). Many assessment tools are nothing more than a set of questions that guide face to face interviews with offenders, probing behaviors, and attitudes (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). The questionnaire often supplements the official records check, which includes prior arrest, and incarceration the answers are weighted, based on research. Once the data is gathered and statistically configured to come up with an overall score that will show how strongly each item will relate to recidivism(Development Service Group,2015). The responses are statistically weighted, based on research that shows the strength of each item. After this tabulation, the offender's needs can then inform decisions that will help in determining what steps should be taken (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015).

The recidivism risk of juveniles is not one size fits all, the needs of juveniles must match accordingly (Development Services Group,2015). As crimes are committed it

still falls under the heading of violent, nonviolent crimes, and yet some judges still group criminal youth juveniles. There are programs that, if the offender matches the criteria, will hold the keys to reducing recidivism (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Evaluation tools have changed dramatically over the years. Before computers and evidence-based tools came along, decisions on the fate of a juvenile were based on the official's understanding of the crimes (Fine, et. al., 2017). Their experience was the tool that helped determine the recidivism score of a juvenile. While this type of tool was most effective, it was evident that the underserved youth were disadvantaged because racism determined what kind of sentence minority youth faced (Fine, et al., 2017).

As criminal justice officials use tools that will target offenders, they will maximize the use of limited resources. Targeting high-risk offenders with programs that work to ensure that resources go where the need is the greatest (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015).

In determining the most significant needs of juveniles, according to Barbot et al. (2012) individuals who qualify for such programs, must be able to think, predict future outcomes, and make decisions that may need to be made even in times of stress. Interventions that serve adolescent programs exist to help prevent recidivism in juvenile crime. Fast forward evaluation tools in the present decade, there are more systematic and comprehensive tools that assist in making such decisions (Barbot et al.,2012). The assessments will use integrative interventions to monitor the actions of an offender on a broader range of risks and factors that may have missed in earlier generation evaluation

tools. Current methods are used by more judicial systems tools that will account for an individual's risk, strength, and offender needs (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

Literature Review

Recidivism Risk

Recidivism is the commission of repeat offenses. Recidivism comprises two elements: 1) the commission of an offense, and 2) by an individual who is already known to have committed at least one other offense (Harris, et al.,2011). When considering the dynamics of the definition, committing a crime by someone who is known to have already committed a crime (Harris, et al.,2011). If the released juvenile commits another crime, then the measurement of recidivism is activated. Measuring recidivism refers to a method of systematically determining its extent or degree within the given samples (Harris, et. al., 2011).

Several elements can affect recidivism risk. Such factors as economic conditions, population density, levels of access to health care, and the quality of education the juvenile receives (Harris et al., 2011). There are various reasons why juveniles re-offend, which may include; poor social relations, economics in the community, lack of job opportunities, crime, and schools that lack the knowledge to handle juveniles who commit crimes (Mendel, 2011).

Studies show that recidivism is meant to measure the risk of someone who is incarcerated and is preparing to reintegrate back into the community and to predict future contact with the justice system (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Studies have shown that the longer juveniles remain incarcerated, the higher their risk (Mendel, 2011).

Community leaders can reject an adjudicated juvenile's return based on the likelihood that they will return to a life of crime, which can happen within three years after release from incarceration (Fine, et al., 2017).

When assessing the risk of an individual who is up for probation, there are some factors to consider. Recidivism tools such as the risk/needs assessment is a standardized tool that helps officials collect and synthesize information about a juvenile that estimates their likelihood of coming into contact with the law again (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). There are two critical components in this methodology risk, which predicts the chances of reoffending, and the needs component which identifies factors about the youth that can be changed through individualized treatment or programming to reduce the likelihood of reoffending (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015).

Many state agencies will use either back-end measures, which are adjudication and re-incarceration to measure recidivism (Harris, et al.,2011). The other method is called front-end system decisions, which use arrest and petition. Both methods assist agencies in deciding which youths are more at risk. Usually, one-year periods are used to measure recidivism risk (Harris et al., 2011).

Methods such as predicting recidivism risk can efficiently help reduce crime and put more offenders into community programs (Desmarais et al., 2016). Society has all but written off rehabilitating juvenile criminals and seemed intent on placing all criminally minded juveniles in a single facility (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). Studies show that there is a difference in the recidivism rate of offenders convicted of a specific crime, and race

(Fine, et al., 2017). Community corrections and secure detention are two places where adjudicated juveniles spend time locked up for crimes they commit (Harris, et al.,2011).

While crimes are at an all-time high, there is still debate as to where would be the best place to monitor youth. Measuring recidivism risk is another determinant to reducing crime committed by youth released from incarceration or probation, which are the basis of this research (Fine, et. al., 2017).

Crime Type and Recidivism Risk

Murder is a crime that results in the death of an individual as a result of the offender's outcome. This type of crime results in carrying a life sentence or being tried in an adult court that will send the juvenile offender to adult prison (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). In the case of murder and the offender is found guilty, there is a chance offenders may face punishment that will result in a life sentence in adult prison, or according to the particular state, capital punishment (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). There are a few states that are passing laws that forbid enforcing life sentencing on youthful offenders, except a waiver takes place in adult court (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). However, according to studies when an offender is up for parole, a risk assessment tool is used for conditional release by a pardons board (Public Safety Performance Project, 2011).

Classifying offenders is a method of using a type of crime to determine what kind of punishment the juvenile is qualified to receive. There are three types of criminal activity used to differentiate their levels of risk (Development Service Group, Inc.,2015). There are High-risk offenders, described as a heterogeneous group, that will commit such

crimes as murder, rape, pedophiles, robbers, and other activities considered a danger to the community. (Development Services Group, Inc,.2015).

High-risk offenders are considered the worst of the mentioned risk types because of the kind of crime that not only inflicts harm on the victim but usually involves death and presents a danger to the community (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). In describing the actions of high risk, some of the crimes may be so heinous that authorities feel that they may be beyond rehabilitation in a general prison system (Development Services Group, Inc.2015).

Robbery is a crime that is committed by offenders who take property from an individual by force where there is usually no harm done to the victim (Desmarais, et al.,2016). If there is a weapon used and murder is committed, the robbery is then considered high risk. The recidivism risk for an offender who commits robbery is not considered high risk, but rather a moderate risk (Public Safety Performance Project, 2011).

Research has shown that moderate risk offenders are in the middle of the risk category, and officials have to determine the severity of the crime to deem it moderate. The moderate risk may require the same amount of attention as high risk depending on the severity. Moderate risk for this level usually requires the offender to see a probation officer, where the offender will be held accountable at a rate suited for this type of crime, but will not need as much attention as high risk (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015).

Property damage is considered low risk. Low risk refers to a category of a juvenile who commits crimes but are deemed unlikely to re-offend or engage in delinquent behavior in the future. This type of offense could involve destruction or damage of another's property or in some extreme cases destruction of property in such a manner that the crime is considered unusual (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). Offenders in this risk group we assigned probation in the form of reduced supervision because under normal circumstances; they were not a danger to the community (Development Services Group, Inc.,2015).

There are approximately 60,500 juveniles who are incarcerated each night in correctional facilities across the country or in other programs meant to control the movement of juveniles, who are awaiting court appearances or sentencing. Mendel (2011), states this country relies heavily on juvenile incarceration and will mix the violent and nonviolent into the same facility as a means to solve the stated problem of: " where to put youthful offenders" (Mendel, 2011). Institutions, which include incarceration and other programs run by the corrections department, have shown that recidivism risk for these young people remains unchanged (Mendel, 2011).

In a study of 395 juvenile offenders between the ages of 14 and 18 years of age with criminal records, and were placed on probation or were released for time served, were monitored for two years (Cuervo, et al.,2015) The type of crimes is limited to violent and nonviolent, with violence categorized as crimes against persons, and nonviolent as crimes committed against property (Cuervo, et. al., 2015). For this study, an ANOVA conducted variables between the two groups on the type of crime. The

findings of the type of crime and recidivism within one year showed that there were no statistically significant differences detected(Cuervo, et, al., 2015).

The Texas Department of Corrections discussed recidivism rates for seven offenses. A total of 920 juvenile offenders were selected according to the group of offenses (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). The Controlled Substance group showed 82 were released, and 24 were returned giving this group a 29.3% recidivism rate (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). For Crimes Against Persons, 196 released and 66 returned to incarceration giving this group a 33.7% recidivism rate. Property Crimes had 355 released with 130 returned giving this group a 36.6% recidivism rate. Sex offenses had 61 released with eight being returned giving this group a 13.1% recidivism rate. Weapons crimes had 34 released, 12 returned giving this group a 35.3% recidivism rate. Status not specified showed 22 released, and six were returned giving this classification a 36.4% recidivism rate (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). The last category listed as Other is a catch-all for offenses such as resisting law enforcement, driving intoxicated/suspended, non-support child, conspiracy, aiding and offense, attempt to commit a felony, and missing data. This category had 170 released with 59 returned to custody to give this recidivism rate of 34.7% (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Indiana's juvenile justice system is attempting to do what Texas achieved through guidelines that allow for more juveniles to attend a community corrections type of program. In a recent study in the state of Indiana, data showed that 36.6 % of juveniles released from the juvenile justice system in 2013 stated that the most severe offense was property crime and incarcerated within three years (Indiana Department of Corrections,

2016). Current crime categories found controlled substance, which showed a 29.3% recidivism rate, sex offenses at 13.1% recidivism rate, weapon crimes at 35.3% recidivism rate, status offenses with 6.4% recidivism rate, and person crimes at the highest recidivism rate of 33.7% (Indiana Department of Corrections, 2016).

Type of Setting and Recidivism Risk

Most crimes committed by juveniles are not worthy of secure incarceration but are considered necessary by public and government officials (Vries & Liem, 2011). The number of juveniles who commit violent crimes will be out of necessity confined to facilities for what the public feels, will protect the community from further crimes committed against them (Mendel, 2011). Juveniles who carry out a nonviolent crime could be confined but in a facility that will allow them to serve their sentence in a probationary environment, which will lower the recidivism rate of the person. Some pioneering communities across the country are attempting to bridge the gap in juvenile incarceration (Fine, et al., 2017).

As agencies attempt to correct some of the methods created by decades of misuse of the system by officials, recidivism is one tool that will help determine the risk level of the offender (Mendel,2011). The juvenile justice system has become a dumping ground for juveniles, despite the severity of their crime (Mendel, 2011).

Juveniles who are sentenced to secure detention will not complete their high school education, which causes more problems while they are locked up. While many correctional facilities offer classes for youth to complete their high school education, It is evident that youths will not attend and finish school, unless forced (Mendel, 2011).

Correctional facilities, along with courts, probation, and parole agencies, all use risk/needs assessment tools to assist them in making decisions on recidivism (Desmarais, et al.,2016). Risk/needs assessment tools are considered a valid report card that measures offenders' criminal risk. State and federal assessments differ and agencies develop a set of questions that guide interviews with offenders according to the crime and the population of juveniles (Public Safety Performance Project, 2011). The types of questions asked are meant to probe into the offender's recent behavior, and attitudes that will attempt to calculate a score that will help determine what kind of person the offender will be if released back into the community (Public Safety Performance Project, 2011).

States around the country are concerned with high budgets and the rising costs of taxes due to the cost of taking care of large populations of offenders. Providing care for criminal offenders has reached epidemic proportions with over 2.4 Million people currently incarcerated (Scurich & Monahan, 2016).

Therapy

Juvenile justice advocates have identified the need for therapy in secure detention. Knowledge is limited regarding what is happening to an individual who is behind bars (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). There are reports of juveniles incarcerated and what happens behind closed doors, but because reports are not substantiated, it is something that goes unknown because of their ages (Dierkhising, et al.,2014). Violence in juvenile incarceration facilities causes such reactions as PTSD, mental illness, among other signs of abuse (Mendel, 2011). The federal government is mandating therapy for those

incarcerated and is continuing to be advocates for the safety of juveniles in the prison system (Dierkhising, et al.,2014).

Substance Abuse Treatment

Substance abuse is one element facing juveniles incarcerated in detention. Over one-fifth of youths incarcerated that their need for AODA treatment was lacking or not offered at all. Studies report that 17% of youth surveyed reside in facilities that screen some juveniles that reside in detention, but not everyone has a chance to do so (Mendel, 2011). A majority of juveniles arrested and incarcerated come from backgrounds where they consumed alcohol and other substances as a way of life. A high percentage of juveniles incarcerated report no AODA treatment existed while they were serving their time (Mendel, 2011).

Local secure residential facilities may place adjudicated juveniles in secure residential facilities, which are designed to rehabilitate juveniles and provide public safety. Local or state-administered facilities will contract with private entities designed to house juveniles with serious delinquent histories and more severe needs in facilities such as this (Mendel, 2011). Juveniles with property-related crimes return to these facilities. In a three year study in Texas, a percentage of juveniles who are convicted, face deferred prosecution. Year one shows that approximately 33,552 cohorts were available. Year one of placement shows 67.2% of cohorts and 77.1% recidivism, year two placement 67.0% cohort, and 78.1% recidivism, and year three placement 68.3% cohort, 78.6 recidivists (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). State facilities are similar to local and secure facilities; the only difference is that juveniles reincarcerate at higher levels. The

recidivism risk for this category, for year one, is 73.1% recidivism, year two is 73.3% recidivism, and year three was 72.9% recidivism (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Effects of Community Interventions on Recidivism Risk

There are more than 100,000 juveniles discharged each year; this is the challenge faced by many communities with a considerable amount of their juveniles incarcerated (Underwood, et al.,2006). The challenge is in examining the relationship between juvenile characteristics and evidence-based practice, which contain community interventions, boot camp, or group homes (Underwood, et. al.,2006),. Community leaders are beginning to recognize as juveniles are being released back into their homes that there was a need to think about how best to help the offenders, who are newly released. The same community members that were instrumental in having juveniles locked up must find ways to reintegrate them back into the community with jobs, counseling, and means to finish their education (Underwood, et al.,2006). The concern then is if young offenders' recidivism risk is low enough where they are no longer a danger what happens to them (Underwood, et al.,2006)?

One significant obstacle to a juvenile maintaining their recidivism is the lack of education. Some 30% of the incarcerated juveniles are said to have a learning disability (Aragon,2016). Further, 48% have some academic proficiency below grade level, and at least 61% of juveniles who enter incarceration have either went through expulsion from school or stopped going before they entered incarceration, 21% of juveniles in this category did not enroll when they came into custody (Aragon, 2016).

In determining the strategy needed to bring delinquent juveniles back into communities, there are several options available. The first consideration is evidence-based interventions. There are factors in determining evidence-based review of what works, and what does not work. Several benchmarks must be met, such as assessment of actuarial risk, enhancement of motivation, and objective intervention (Underwood, et al., 2006).

Judges are often forced to choose between sentencing youthful offenders to probation or incarceration (Mendel, 2011). Judges, attorneys, and other officials determine the fate of offenders not realizing some programs allow someone who has low recidivism risk to serve time in a community corrections facility. These officials would instead lock up offenders who commit lesser crimes (Mendel, 2011).

Some pioneering communities across the United States are attempting to bridge the gap in juvenile incarceration (Fine, et al., 2017). Community corrections supervise people who are under the authority of the criminal justice system (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013). Most convicted offenders fall into one of several categories. The first is where the defendant is on release awaiting a court case. The second is where the defendant transfers to another court. The third is the offender pleaded guilty to the charges and sentenced. The fourth is where the offenders who have served their mandatory sentence. Lastly, the offenders who are released from prison and are turned over to a community corrections type of programming to complete the rest of their sentence (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

Under normal circumstances, the items listed would describe the nature of the typical offender and the typical outcome of the sentencing (Mendel, 2011). The study shows that there are circumstances that will make a significant difference in how the sentencing is carried out (Mendel, 2011). Racism plays a part in how the offender responds to treatment. Blacks and Latinos, are reported to be among the most significant populations that experience this type of treatment (Mendel, 2011). The purpose of developing community corrections programs are clear; it is for offenders convicted of a crime and would benefit from attending an alternative program instead of being incarcerated (Mendel, 2011). In the more than two centuries since the first prison opened in Philadelphia, the United States has responded to the increasing crime rate by locking the offender up as a means of controlling crime. The rise in crime also boosted the expense of taking care of the criminals (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

Proponents of community corrections interventions have made it clear that incarceration is not the answer to solving crimes committed by offenders and that another means would address the problems such as successful interventions (Melton, 2010). As more community officials research community corrections programs, the findings state that with the proper programs combined with structured supervision that treatment for juveniles would greatly benefit from programs of this type (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

Community correction programs were developed as a means to help ease the budget of states with high incarceration rates. Nearly 52 billion dollars are spent each year to cover the cost of offenders incarcerated in the nation's prison system (Vera

Institute of Justice, 2013). It is stated that community correction programs, which are interventions that assist the juveniles, are lower in cost than incarceration, there are some instances where high failure rates are inevitable because of overloaded staff, small program enrollment, and officials who did not recognize how to conduct such an agency (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

Starting in 2009, approximately 65% of 2.3 million probationers completed supervision successfully. While some corrections officials keep seeking community corrections, 16 % of those incarcerated face rearrest for failing to follow the terms of their probation and were returned to prison to finish serving their original sentence (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013). While the concept of community corrections programs are still somewhat new, research shows parolees and probationers who violate their supervision conditions can efficiently reduce recidivism, increase access to treatment, and limit reliance on incarceration as a sanction (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013). The measurement of the community corrections program shows that services offered in this program are few around the country (Vera Institute of Justice, 2013).

A study has shown that as the popularity of community corrections and other alternative programs increase, there is a need for a facility that addresses the need for those offenders who face incarceration in facilities between youth and prisons for adults (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016). Standardized evaluations of programs of this sort have linked program integrity and program effectiveness as significant players in the reduction of recidivism (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016). States are encouraging local communities to place youth into local facilities, such as half-way houses, and group homes instead of more

costly state-run prisons. The state's primary concern is to house juveniles and adult offenders who commit felony criminal activity (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016). Placing youth into a facility that offers interventions of this sort, will lower recidivism risk which could be initiated to further reduce this risk to more manageable numbers (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016).

In a study, the Wisconsin Department of Corrections instituted a community corrections program with state-owned boot camps for juveniles who were being released either on probation or parole. DJC (Department of Juvenile Corrections) created a program that will allow released juveniles from correctional facilities the opportunity to meet for individual treatment, workshops, job training, among other programs. Each juvenile was allowed to interact in community programs depending on their level of risk to the community (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014).

No statistical data was found to substantiate the number of juveniles that transitioned to community corrections programs, but the Department of Corrections have reviews as to the success of the program. In a given year there were 382 new admissions, 993 formal cases, four informal. Reports show offenders completing the program reported that 43 returned to their own homes. One hundred and thirty-one juvenile offenders returned to their homes or group homes on Corrective Sanctions Supervision. Six juvenile offenders resided in the home of relatives, 90 resided in Residential Care Center, and 39 offenders resided in another alternative care facility/program (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014). The majority of juveniles under DJC supervision are

in a program called: Corrective Sanctions Program, which provides intensive supervision and monitoring.

The DJC provided adjudicated juveniles placed in secure detention with stated sanctioned care, those placed in community corrections programs are in one of two regions in the state where the Department of Human Services provided supervision of youth (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014). This department contracted community agencies that provided the community structure that the juvenile must follow to remain in the program. The DJC was responsible for the outcome of the community effort to rehabilitate juveniles by monitoring each youth's level of risk to the community and use appropriate control and disciplinary procedures as needed to protect the community (Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2014).

Ohio's Department of Corrections is committed to reducing juveniles' recidivism risk by creating community correctional facilities that will serve intermediate placement between state confinement and local probation, which includes community corrections, boot camp, and state-sponsored group homes (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016). Research conducted by Ohio corrections revealed that treatment using a genuine alternative to secure detention does work (Lowenkamp, et al., 2016). The method of treatment is Cognitive Behavioral Modality and Target Dynamic Risk factors. Combined treatments suggest that program characteristics and treatment do indeed play an essential part in the success of the program (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016). Recidivism risk is said to be the tendency to relapse into a previous condition or mode of behavior; especially relapse into criminal behavior (Lowenkamp, et al.,2016)

. While the program was open to middle and high-risk offenders, the showing for high risk did not serve 75% of that population, and the youth assigned to their programs performed poorly (Lowenkamp et, al, 2016).

The Texas Justice Department (TJJD) instituted the Community-based program for juvenile probation departments across the state of Texas in 2010. Prison officials closely monitored the community corrections program and analyzed the effectiveness of those programs in their attempt at lowering recidivism rates (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013). Officials determining the effectiveness, it is here that recommendations made as to what programs worked and which ones did not (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

There are approximately 33 different types of programs offered to offenders assigned to this type of probation. The programs offered ranged from cognitive behavioral therapy and specialized programs intended for specific juveniles. Fifty-one percent of programs use a curriculum created by the department providers. Due to the nature of each offender's crime, individual treatment plans, case management, and other programs are developed and used (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Depending on the severity of the crime the program length varies from an afternoon to the entire length of the offender's probation. Only 3% of programs last longer than a year. The majority of offerings are programs for intensive level drug charges, and sex offenders (Texas Juvenile Justice Department,2013). An example of programs utilized, a program for first-time offenders may provide cognitive behavioral therapy to discourage the thinking patterns that lead to new charges. This program is for

first-time offenders with a mentor to provide additional support as juveniles attempt to adjust to this new way of life (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Twenty-four percent of programs serve offenders who are either deferred prosecution or probation supervision. Nearly one half of cognitive-behavioral therapy and life skills served those juveniles who are at high risk for re-offense or have high needs (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013). The Texas Department of Justice felt to protect the public, programs of this sort must be developed and implemented to address concerns by officials and the public (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

A study released by the Texas Legislative Budget Board indicates that juveniles rearrested, incarcerated, or reincarcerated, return to detention or probation programs that are served by the TJJD facility, which consisted of juvenile detention, probation facility which included community corrections. The Texas DOC oversees state facilities and the agency also provides funding and oversight of local juvenile probation departments supervision of juveniles (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

The population included in the analysis were deferred prosecution supervision, adjudicated probation supervision, local secure residential facilities, parole supervision, and state residential facilities (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). In a three year period of those juveniles who were rearrested and were subject to a deferred prosecution, for status crimes in year one 42.6% recidivism, year two 41% recidivism, and year three 41.3% recidivism. This category is for juveniles who had shorter and less severe offense histories (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Adjudicated probation supervision is a type of community-based supervision. To be placed in this type of program, the judge must first determine the juvenile committed the petitioned offense. Of those who are released and rearrested in a three-year period is year one 62.3% recidivism, year two is 61.9% recidivism, and year three is 62.2% recidivism. Juveniles placed in this category are said to commit minor crimes such as property (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). Juvenile parole is much like that of probation except the juvenile offender is released from state residential facilities and are supervised for a time with local agencies in the community, but is still subject to rules set by the DOC. Violating conditions of their release will have the offender rearrested and reincarcerated. The study shows that for a three year period that recidivism rates are 18.0% for the first year, 14.3% for the second year, and 13.9% for the third year. Study shows that juveniles released on parole have a lower recidivism rate than that of adjudicated probation where the juvenile is monitored more closely by correction officials (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Racial and Procedural Injustice

Racism and procedural justice continue to show a strong presence in the prison system on a national level. A broad perspective is that at every stage of the juvenile justice system people of color are receiving severe treatment that is considerably worse than their White counterparts (Mendel,2011). As juveniles are considered for interventions outside of incarceration Blacks and Hispanics, are likely to be overlooked and sent directly to detention, regardless of their risk level. Also, African American youth

are subject to abuse at a greater rate at the hands of prison staff than other youth (Mendel, 2011).

Perhaps that is one of the reasons people of color disrespect the law is because they realize if caught, and brought before a judge what the ultimate results will be. They have adopted an "I do not care attitude" (Fine, et al., 2017). Abuse and racism have made an indelible mark on the juvenile justice system (Fine, et al.,2017). Reports show that judges on the bench have options to choose from when sentencing juveniles, but many of them decide to incarcerate where the recidivism risk of juveniles is high and will never reach rehabilitation (Underwood et al., 2006).

A survey of offenders whose classifications were White, Black, and Hispanic, was done to explore longitudinal, reciprocal associations between the attitudes of the three groups toward the justice system (Fine, et al.,2017). Step one involved tracking approximately 1216 male juvenile offenders who were ages 13 to 17 over 2.5 years. The second step involved follow-up interviews, which were done mostly by self-reporting, to check on the attitudes of the three groups of offenders. The third step involved separating each group by race, and ethnicity keeping in mind the rearrest of each member of the affected groups. The purpose of the study was to see if the attitudes toward the justice system consistently affect youth behavior (Fine, et al., 2017).

Expected results show that if there is a negative attitude about the justice system by a juvenile, it would possibly affect his propensity to engage in crime and his likelihood of being rearrested regardless of how much time has passed since they entered the system (Fine, et al., 2017). After the 2.5 year study, the results were as followed: after

the first arrest, White youth's attitudes toward the system remained mostly stable with a score of 38% probability, which indicates their attitude toward the justice system was unchanged (Fine, et al., 2017).

There was no evidence among White juveniles that the development of attitudes differed between juveniles who reoffended and those who did not (Fine, et .,2017). Black juveniles' perception of the justice system grew more harmful over time and registered as compared to the beginning of the study with a final probability of approximately 25.9%. The one difference was those who were not arrested a second time remained stable, but over a period their perception of the system turned negative (Fine, et al., 2017).

Lastly, Hispanic youths' perception remained stable for those arrested with a probability rating of 03.0%. Within this group were found a small pocket of Hispanics who viewed the justice system differently after being rearrested (Fine, et al.,2017). These findings lead to suggestions that the development of attitudes toward the justice system after the youths' first arrest may involve different processes for the youth of different races/ethnicity (Fine, et al., 2017).

The findings were that Black and Hispanic juveniles were watched and tracked the most of all three groups. The outcome of the study provided information that led officials to the conclusion that the system was not concerned about all offenders when it came to recidivism and the type of place where they could find the services needed (Scurich & Monahan, 2016).

Minority juveniles are overlooked, and have been for decades when it comes to sentencing for crimes that some would say does not fit the conviction (Melton,2010).

Recidivism exists among all groups of juveniles, but it seems that the highest rate exists among the non-Whites. Attorneys fail to take the time to search for alternatives to incarceration, the judges who sit on the bench will follow the recommendation of the defense, and the plaintiff attorneys (Melton, 2010).

The Texas Juvenile Correction system instituted a program whereby juveniles may avoid adjudication by completing a community-based supervision program called deferred prosecution (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). This program is reserved mainly for juvenile offenders with shorter and less dangerous offense history. For a juvenile to participate in a program such as deferred prosecution, a formal request for admission is made by the offender and his family (Texas Legislative Budget Board). The program may be terminated at any time and is then subject to an adjudication hearing to decide on the offender's status. The program usually only last for upwards of 6 months unless the sentencing judge request a more extended period (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015)

When data gathered according to the race and ethnic background of the offenders during a three-year study, the study found that in year one out of nearly 30,000 juveniles, called cohorts by the Texas DOC, 22.7% of the cohort and 34.9% of those that recidivist were African Americans placed in a deferred prosecution. Hispanics are 46.9% of the cohort and 40.5% recidivist. Whites are 29.0% of the cohort and 23.8% recidivist. In year 2, African American 21.7% make up the cohort and 38.9% recidivists. Hispanic juveniles are 48.3% of the cohort and 43.9% recidivist. White juveniles are 28.6% of the cohort and 15.8% recidivist. In year 3, African American juveniles are 21.4% of the cohort, and

33.5 recidivists. Hispanics were 48.1% of the cohort and 44.5%, recidivist. Whites were 29.1% of the cohort and 20.1% recidivism. The term recidivism refers to juveniles who are placed on deferred prosecution supervision and incarcerated. The predominant crime for the three-year study was property with 32.8% year one, 32.5% for year two, and 31.0% for year three (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

The next type of supervision found in the Texas Juvenile Correction system adjudicated probation supervision requires a judge to determine if the crime committed by the juvenile was not severely dangerous. If approved the judge determines the length and conditions of supervision the judge may pace the juvenile into probation at home or in a secure or non-secure setting. It is up to the judge to modify or cancel the agreement if the juvenile breaks any of the rules. Most juveniles rearrested are done so for minor crimes that are property related. According to the study, the average time out of custody before rearrest is approximately 12 months (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

The adjudicated probation supervision and rearrested offenders data for three years show that the cohort population for targeted juveniles and those subject to rearrest for year one at nearly 35000, year two is nearly 30000, and year three again at nearly 30,000. Data for year one African Americans had a 29.1% recidivism rate and 26.6% of the cohort, Hispanics had a recidivism rate of 50.2%, and cohort 48.9% and Whites had 20.0% recidivism and 23.6% cohort (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Year two showed African American recidivists at 28.8 % and the cohort was 26.6%. Hispanic's recidivist at 50.8% and 50.2% of the cohort. White youth recidivist at 19.7% and 23.1% of the cohort. In year three, African American juvenile recidivists at

28.9% and are 25.6% of the cohort. Hispanics had 51.5% recidivist and 51.5% of the cohort. White recidivist is 18.9% and 22.1% of the cohort (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015). The findings do show that White juveniles were not given as much time in detention or placed on lengthy probation as African American, and Hispanic juveniles (Texas Legislative Budget Board, 2015).

Effects of Race and Ethnicity on Recidivism Risk

There are several ideologies in determining why race makes such a difference, in particular among the growing population who commit such crimes. A sizable portion of Americans holds the belief that racial and ethnic bigotry is one of the main reasons for such high incarceration rates in this country (Fine, et al.,2017). Two-thirds of inmates in prisons and jails are ethnic-minority, which includes: African Americans, and Hispanics (Fine, et al., 2017). Reports continue by stating that African Americans are 6.5 times more likely to be imprisoned than their White counterparts and are 2.5 times more likely to be imprisoned than Hispanics (Melton, 2010).

It has been stated that perhaps one of the most blatant acts of prejudice occurs at the initial filing of charges after an arrest, where African American and Hispanic juveniles rank higher for more severe offenses (Mendel,2011). This course of action is one of the reasons the gap exists among young juvenile delinquents. Affected minority offenders are charged more severely than non-minority offenders, thereby placed in a secured facility (Mendel, 2011).

Black and Hispanic youth in nearly every state are more likely to be arrested, detained, prosecuted, incarcerated, or transferred to adult centers compared to their White

counterparts (Bechtold, et al., 2015). While Black youth-only comprise 16% of the United States delinquency ages 10 to 17 years of age, they now are involved in 51% of arrests for violent crimes. Statistically, Black youth have an arrest rate five times higher than the arrest rate for White juveniles (Bechtold, et al., 2015).

States are exploring methods of ensuring that the juvenile justice system starts on the local level to assess youth who come from one of three ethnic groups.: White, African Americans, and Hispanics (Listenbee, 2013).

In an attempt to discover how far juvenile justice systems have come in the United States, there are ongoing studies that attempt to determine if juveniles of different races, ethnicities, and religious backgrounds are getting the opportunities to receive the same interventions offered to nonminority juveniles. In a recent study of recidivism rates by race, the Indiana Department of Corrections separated juveniles by race and ethnic background (Indiana Department of Corrections, 2016). The races were African American, American Indian, Asian/Pacific, Caucasian, Hispanic, and Unidentified. In a study of rates based on race, African American juveniles had a 42.4% recidivism rate, the Caucasian rate was 27.9%, and Hispanic was 41.5%. Rates were calculated based on juveniles released, and the number returned to custody (Indiana Department of Corrections, 2016).

A study conducted by the TJJD showed during a three-year period, 2105 juveniles were released from state-run facilities. Out of 2105 in the first year, 947 of the juveniles rearrested contained a mix of male, female, and all races and ethnic backgrounds but the report only focus on White, African American, and Hispanic youth, which was 45% of

the cohort group. In year two of the cohort group, a total of 430 youths arrested made up 20.4 of the cohort group, and in year three 161 are rearrested for a total of 7.6%. A total percentage of 73% of the cohort group rearrested during a three-year study (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

During the same three year study, a break down by race and ethnicity comparison was conducted. This study was conducted using 2105 first year released cohorts from the Texas juvenile system (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013). Year one showed African Americans made up 34.5% of those cohorts released with recidivism at 37.1%. Hispanics are 44.4% released cohort and 42.9% rearrested. White juveniles were 20.6% of the released cohort group and 19.7% rearrested. In year two, with 1158 in the cohort released, African Americans made up 36.2 of the cohort and 38.3% recidivists (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Hispanic juveniles were 43.8% of the cohort and 42.7%, recidivist. White juveniles are 19.2% of the cohort and 18.4% recidivist. In year three, 728 out of 2105 remained released from the cohort with African American juveniles making up 35.4% of the cohort and 38.4% recidivists. Hispanic juveniles were 42.7% of the cohort and 40.5% rearrested. White juveniles made up 21.0% of the cohort with 20.1% rearrested. Again, state-run facilities are designed to rehabilitate juveniles and provide for public safety (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

The report continues by stating that juveniles may be released from a secure state residential facility to non-secure residential facilities, to parole supervision, or they may discharge altogether. While juveniles face rearrest and reincarceration, the most common

offense that would reintroduce them to the justice system again is property-related. According to Texas standards, the average time out of custody before rearrest was 11 months (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Texas conducted a study on three separate cohort groups, we know cohorts were paroled from state-owned facilities, there is no knowledge as to the type of crime this group committed. In year one of the study 3,257 are found in the cohort released, with the year two cohort at 3,223, and year three had 3,085 in the cohort study(Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013). When broken down by race and ethnicity in year one, African American juveniles 31.2% are released from the cohort group, 37.1% were rearrested. Hispanic juveniles for year one make-up 46.7% released, and 48.5% are rearrested. White juveniles make-up 21.3% of this cohort released and 14.0% rearrested. In year two, African Americans make up 28.2% of released juveniles and 34.8% rearrested. (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Hispanic juveniles make-up 50.2% released and 48.7 % rearrested. White juveniles are 20.9% of the cohort released and 17.2% rearrested. Year three of the study showed that African American juveniles make-up 30.3% of the cohort released and 37.1% rearrested. Hispanic juveniles are 50.2% of the cohort released and 48.9% rearrested. White juveniles are 18.7% of the cohort released and 13.6% rearrested. The results showed that White juveniles incarcerated in local secure facilities remained lower than non-Whites. White juveniles showed fewer instances of rearrest than non-White juveniles (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

The conclusion of the research reviewed on race, ethnicity, type of crime, and setting on recidivism left open how important race, ethnicity, type of crime, and setting interact on recidivism risk. The type of crime committed by juveniles connects to the type of crime setting, which is central to recidivism and recidivism risk. This topic is one discussed in the literature up to this point, that race and ethnicity affect the type of setting and recidivism risk is a gap and is a study purpose (Texas Juvenile Justice Department, 2013).

Summary and Conclusions

At the beginning of this dissertation subjects such as violent crimes, nonviolent crimes, secure incarceration, community corrections interventions, race, ethnic backgrounds, and recidivism were discussed. All of the items belong to a select group of individuals, which are young juvenile offenders who work their way through the system. Some writers state that incarceration is no place for young delinquent Juveniles (Mendel,2011). There are instances where youth will not benefit from being incarcerated but instead needs redirection. Racism plays a big part in the justice system, where minorities and those of ethnic backgrounds have lost respect for law enforcement, which causes them not to trust or even care what happens to them because they feel that fairness is not something that will happen to them. In an era of protest and crime committed by youth, the type and nature of the crime will determine the juvenile's ultimate punishment. (Mendel,2011).

Recidivism impacts not only the individual who has been convicted of a crime and is facing the uncertain future but the community, who would rather see a juvenile

incarcerated than to have them back on the street, where they are a danger to the community (Mendel,2011). A child incarcerated in a facility with several hundred other juveniles is no place for them to stay for any length of time (Mendel, 2011). Studies state that not only will recidivism be at its highest point, but the individual will not have the type of encouragement or opportunity to have that second chance (Mendel, 2011).

Evaluation tools play an essential part in the prediction of recidivism, and it is at this point that communities can play a crucial part in the juveniles they want off the street. With probation, juvenile offenders will have the chance to participate in interventions that will help them succeed in finding jobs, completing education, and staying out of prison (Melton, 2010).

Evaluation tools such as risk/needs assessments use a method of matching the risk of an individual with the correct need response. It is at this point that statistically generated scores will determine the recidivism risk will be calculated (Desmarais, et al.,2016) Before this method of evaluation, the experience of officials was the acceptable method of determining recidivism scores. The flaw with that method is when minority and ethnic individuals were unfairly treated (Fine, et al., 2017).

The social learning model is a tool that is used to help determine individuals' recidivism. Studies show that with near accuracy a child's future can be predicted because of the relationship the youth has with his family. The child will model after what he sees around him (Fine, et al., 2017). They are more likely than not to be products of verbal and physical abuse in their past. Drugs are a major factor in this prediction. When

juvenile officials do an initial assessment for teens, drugs are sometimes missing detection (Desmarais, et al., 2017).

The risk/needs model, and the social learning model will be utilized to determine recidivism. Studies show what causes recidivism, and the answers to questions exist in the study (Fine, et al.,2017). Chapter 3 took into account the two models that discussed the design and procedures found in the research. Several states still use data that formulated the recidivism rate. States such as Texas and Ohio are but two communities that use rates to calculate recidivism. Some states are still implementing the concept of community corrections which plays a significant part in helping offenders keep recidivism risk low.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This chapter includes a discussion of the research method. The dependent variable was the recidivism risk as measured by an interval-level 8-point scale. The independent variables were ethnicity and type of crime. Intervention is the type of alternative program reserved for offenders because of his crime. Community corrections are, but one type of intervention set aside for low recidivism offenders, and secure detention is the last intervention for offenders who are deemed high risk and would be a danger to the community. Two levels included in the study are an alternative placement with community support and the ability to live in a group home setting or some cases at home with their parents or, secondly, secure detention in a locked facility with a specified sentence. The first independent variable was race/ethnicity as measured using three categories: White, African American, and Hispanic. The second independent variable was the type of crime committed as measured using two levels: violent and nonviolent.

Data collected include the juvenile's criminal history from nonviolent and violent records and the type of crime, race, ethnicity, and type of placement if found guilty. Archival data were collected from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections. In determining the risk of juveniles, state correctional officials use initial intake data from the first arrest that includes factors that determine the outcome of the offender regarding age, race, ethnic group, risk level, first offense, re-offense, and prior history. The named factors must be committed within 3 years after release (National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges, 2016).

One example of assessment tools comes from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections, which started using an assessment tool called COMPAS. The risk-needs-responsibility model and social learning model are used to estimate the risk of recidivism and to identify other factors that can reduce the juvenile's risk. These tools are used to determine the recidivism risk to determine whether it is necessary for the offender to be placed on probation or to remain incarcerated. COMPAS is used to assess criminogenic risk and needs assessments and unified case planning. This actuarial risk assessment system contains offender information designed to determine their risk and needs and inform effective case plans that will guide the offender throughout their life cycle in the criminal justice system.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative methodology was used to explore the possible effects the independent variables (ethnicity and type of crime) have on the dependent variable (recidivism risk). The quantitative methodology involves deductive reasoning in which a researcher formulates a hypothesis, collects data, and analyses this data to make conclusions. Quantitative methodology is used to test hypotheses and research questions. When using quantitative methods, researchers attempt to quantify variables. Because I sought to use de-identified archival data to compare the type of crime and ethnicity with recidivism risk, a quantitative methodology was appropriate. Verbal data or data not subjected to statistical analysis would not have allowed me to answer the questions (see Crowe & Sheppard, 2010). Qualitative researchers gather verbal data and analyze them in a more subjective manner (University of Southern California, 2018)

A 2X2X3 Factorial ANOVA will be used to analyze archival data to determine if there are significant differences-in recidivism risk (measured on an interval-level 8-point scale) among juvenile offenders as measured by the type of intervention, race/ethnicity, and type of crime. Factorial ANOVA is used in research to analyze the difference between a continuous dependent variable. There are currently three levels that represent the severity of the crime that the criminal justice systems used as the basis for calculating risk (Statistics Solutions, 2013).

Individual's data selected for this research will have their risk scores as set by the initial offense and have their recidivism risk reviewed and determined by risk/needs assessment tools. The offender's progress will be monitored and will consist of two components that assist officials in collecting and synthesize information about youth to estimate that youth's likelihood of reoffending. The first component predicts the likelihood of recidivism of the youth reoffending and returning to custody. The determinates include the person's ethnic makeup, type of crime, and the offender's ultimate disposition, and depending on the type of crime and the severity, it will determine if he will go to detention or be sentenced to probation. The second consideration deals with the needs of the individual. The individual will undergo an assessment using tools designed to see which needs he needs the most to help him control his recidivism. If he lacked education, then his need will be to provide education, if they need AODA or depression, then the offender will be directed to attend sessions that target those needs. This tool is also helpful in creating plans for appropriate treatment or services (Development Services Group, Inc., 2015). For this study, COMPAS

assessment, and risk/needs tools are used to focus on the risk of recidivism and the potential for juveniles to succeed once they are released.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This proposed study will specifically address the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes?

H_o1: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

H_a1: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities?

H_o2: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

RQ3: Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk?

H_o3: There are no significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

H_a3: There are significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

Methodology

Participants and Eligibility

Archival data were used from the years 2012 to 2016. Archival data included teenage males from three ethnic groups (White, African American, and Hispanic) between the ages of 12 and 17. Archival data were collected by The Wisconsin Department of Corrections in conjunction with the University of Wisconsin-Madison and the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data Department of Juvenile Corrections. Juveniles arrested and processed through the intake and placed in temporary detention are eligible to participate in community supervision (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2011).

Sampling Procedure

Youthful offenders data comes From the named source. There was no contact with these offenders because of laws that protect youth under 18 years of age. Only the data that describes the offense, the type of punishment, the race, and ethnicity will be used for this study (Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2014). Wisconsin is one state that uses a method of entering risk score data from all counties in the state of Wisconsin where juveniles are arrested and pending adjudication. Juveniles belong to a protected class in this age group by federal law due to age; the Department of Corrections must grant permission to obtain information on juveniles. By gathering data during an initial assessment at the time of entry into the juvenile justice system allows the DOC to have access to risk scores of the juvenile whether they are incarcerated or placed on probation (Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2014).

Once initial assessment scores are taken and entered into the system, juveniles are placed in a temporary facility for the next step, which usually means they will appear before the judge who will determine what happens to the juvenile. Regardless of what happens to the juvenile, their risk scores become a permanent part of their files in state databases for later use. Participants selected come from a list of juveniles who are in a facility where they are waiting for sentencing. The participants must have scores comparable to the limit as set forth by the DOC to qualify for community supervision programs (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014).

Juveniles considered for release must complete a pre-release program which includes the completion of intake assessment, signatures of juvenile and parents if they are under the age of consent and administering the COMPAS tool to provide a more informed assessment of the client. The combination of COMPAS assessment, intake interview, and additional assessment tools will determine a risk score that will give officials an idea of what the juvenile will do upon their return to the community (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014).

A power analysis was conducted using the software G*Power to determine the minimum sample size. The specific statistical test will use a 2x2x3 factorial ANOVA, which would have 12 groups and numerator degrees of freedom of 2 for the three-way interaction. The parameters of the power analysis were a medium effect size of 0.25, a significance level of .05, and a power level of .80. As a result, this study will have a suggested minimum sample size of 158 (Faul F., et al 2007).

Data Collection

Archival data is the information used from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections, and the Bureau of Justice Assessment will provide information on male juveniles based on the type of crime, the age of the offender at the time of arrest, and the ethnic background. The current COMPAS from data compiled from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections as well as the University of Wisconsin-Madison requires this researcher to ask for permission to gain access to the data dealing with the juvenile population in question (Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2011). COMPAS has several modules: risk/needs assessment, criminal justice agency decision tracking, treatment, and intervention tracking, outcome monitoring, agency integrity, and programming implementation monitoring. (Zhang, et al.,2014)

The Wisconsin Division of Juvenile Corrections reports recidivism rates for youth exiting juvenile corrections. As Wisconsin's Department of Corrections starts to depend entirely on using COMPAS, several reports were designed to aid the DOJ with generating information to assist in decision making for such events as a release, probation, and other interventions(Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice and Statistics, 2017). There are currently eight items that Wisconsin DOJ use: county, age, gender, race/ethnic., risk level, first offense, re-offense, and prior history. (Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice, and Statistics, 2017).

The sample used in this research will utilize several items from the COMPAS; age, race/ethnicity, and risk level. Counties in Wisconsin will help provide information on juveniles who were arrested or is in the process of other action in the justice system.

As mentioned, the ages of juveniles will be from 12-17, race/ethnicity would be White, African American, and Hispanic. The risk level will reflect the level the juvenile placed arrested- Low, Medium, and High (Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice and Statistics, 2017).

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Contructs

As mentioned, Wisconsin recently began using the Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions (COMPAS) in many of the counties in the State of Wisconsin to assist the Department of Justice in directing the needs, and other services that will ultimately meet the needs of juveniles. The data contain scores calculated by the DOJ and the results based on these scores (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2011). The primary reason for using this type of assessment tool is to take information from the offender, and official information that consists of dynamic data to generate risk/needs scores that are vital in the decision-making ability to meet the needs of an offender. This program was developed by the Northpointe Institute for Public Management and is comprised of five types of scales: basic, higher-order, validity, professional judgments, and risk scales (Skeem & Louden, 2007).

The COMPAS model consists of approximately 18 scales, in a nearly identical format. The first step in determining the risk level is to provide a short sketch of the scale provided and linked with some criminological literature suggesting that it relates to recidivism. Second, the scale's items are described and listed in a table. Third, the scales are subject to a principal component analysis that draws out three components to reflect their associations with one another. Fourth, the scale's reliability is presented regarding a

coefficient alpha, which is usually.05. Fifth, basic statistics describe how the sample scored on the scale, the distribution of the results distributed among ten groups (Skeem & Louden, 2007).

According to Skeem and Louden (2007), groups are broken down to show normative scores that will be considered a risk. Scores 1-4 are low risk, 5-7 is a medium risk, and 8 and higher is high risk. These scales help to determine the offender's outcome.

Risk scales, which perhaps are the most critical part of the assessment, consist of four outcome models: violence, recidivism, failure to appear, and community non-compliance. Two types of data are used to determine the information that contains offenders' information from, self-report, and official information (Skeem and Louden,2007). The program is computer-based which allows for ease in tabulating scores. Offenders use paper forms to record information, and officials then enter the results into the computer(Skeem and Louden, 2007) After the program is complete the results show the appropriate level of risk for each offender, in this case, it was low, medium, and high along with the need (Skeem & Louden, 2007). There are two COMPAS scales designed to assess whether Offenders respond to the self-report sections of the measure in a manner that is biased or careless. The writer states that when it comes to measuring validity that there is no evidence that one or both validity measures can detect when offenders consciously distort their responses (Skeem & Louden, 2007).

In a comprehensive analysis of the COMPAS system, information used must have sound evidence that it predicts future re-offending of offenders. The most relevant forms of re-offense include violent recidivism, general recidivism, and technical violations all

of which cause the offender arrest (Skeem & Louden, 2007). The first steps in predicting re-offense in using this tool are it must have two elements; a standard score that evaluates across studies as, what the writer calls, the predictor, secondly the outcome variable of recidivism must be measurable for future use (Skeem & Louden, 2007).

One of the standard measures of determining the predictive accuracy of a risk-assessment instrument relies on Area Under the Curve or AUC, which plots the ratio of actual positives and false positives. 0. To 1.00. (Zhang, et al.,2014). The more significant the AUC value, the more precise the risk assessment instrument.

COMPAS system, developers found the reliability of such program, early validation found that COMPAS recidivism risk model probation achieved satisfactory accuracies, with 0.72 and 0.74 AUC tracked over 24 months. As stated by this author the value range has a coefficient of between 0.50 to 1.00. According to the results of a recent study of the COMPAS system in the California criminal institute, a score of 0.72, and 0.74 is said to be the target value of AUC the researcher was hoping to achieve from data collected where 1,077 inmates (male n=786 and female n=291). Results found the analysis on inmates to have satisfactory scores on measures such as internal consistency, concurrent and criterion validity, and construct validity (Skeem and Louden 2007).

According to Skeem and Louden (2007), the coefficients alpha often is used to assess internal consistency on scales. The greater the coefficient is under the AUC, the more precise the COMPAS test becomes in determining scores for inmates. The initial study was an attempt to assess the predictive accuracy of the COMPAS risk assessment on California's general parole population (Skeem & Louden, 2007).

Juvenile justice departments implemented the success of the COMPAS risk assessment model. Wisconsin's Department of Corrections uses COMPAS as its statewide automated risk assessment and unified planning system. DJC uses this tool to assess the risk and criminogenic needs of every juvenile on an initial commitment to the many juvenile facilities (Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2014). Wisconsin juvenile system social workers and other agents use results to determine which needs to address in treatment and to help facilitate case plans that will assist the juveniles to make a smooth transition once released (Wisconsin Department of Corrections, 2014).

The key results of using COMPAS is to track the predictive power, as determined by the Wisconsin Department of Juvenile Justice, to determine the area of their treatment plan needed the most. The tool is useful in two areas; subsequent arrest for any reason following release, and subsequent arrest for a violent offense such as; homicide, assault, sexual assault, robbery, domestic violence, and kidnapping(Wisconsin Department of Corrections,2014).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the Intellectus Statistics software (Intellectus Statistics, 2018). A three-way ANOVA and its associated procedures were conducted to answer the research questions and hypotheses (Diez, et al.,2017).

Factorial ANOVA is appropriate to conduct when the researcher aims to determine if there are differences in a continuous dependent variable based on two or more categorical independent variables)(Diez, et al.,2017). There are three independent variables in this study: a) correction intervention, which has two levels (community

corrections and secure detention), b) crime type, which has two levels (violent and nonviolent), and c) ethnicity, which has three levels (White, African American, and Hispanic). There are three independent variables with levels of two, two, and three respectively, this analysis was a 2x2x3 ANOVA(Diez, et al.,2017).

The dependent variable in this analysis will be recidivism risk, which was an interval-level measure with scores ranging from 1 to 8. In addition to testing the main effects of each independent variable (i.e., Research Questions 1-3), the factorial ANOVA also determine if there are significant interaction effects between any of the factors An alpha level of .05 was used to test all null hypotheses. If any main effects or interactions are significant, Tukey posthoc tests were conducted to determine the exact nature of the differences.

The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were tested before interpreting the factorial ANOVA. Normality was tested by visually assessing a Q-Qscatterplot. The assumption passes if the data do not strongly deviate from the normal line. Homogeneity of variance was tested by visually assessing a scatterplot of residuals and fitted values. The assumption passes if the data is evenly distributed around zero with no curvature.

Ethical Procedures

Data will come from existing secondary archival data sources that contain such categories as the type of crime, age of the offender, and other pertinent information to analyze desired results. The population consisted of youthful male offenders between the ages of 12 and 17 years of age. The juvenile subjects are a protected class that normally

requires special considerations when used as research subjects. However, there was no data collected from or direct contact with youthful offenders. The data from this population was collected previously and is entirely anonymous. The archival data will come from several sources the Wisconsin Department of Corrections and the Bureau of Justice statistics. The Bureau of Justice data is available on the internet and after securing permission from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections, they will provide de-identified data.

Summary

Ongoing research about the recidivism of youthful offenders is one that will continue for some time. As juveniles are committed to detention, it is evident that a gap in the literature is more extensive than first believed. There is a need for correctional officials, courts, and those who work with offenders to constantly monitor the results of such tools. In doing so, it will allow all needs to be made where ethnic groups will be treated fairly, which will result in lower recidivism for those offenders who need a chance at rehabilitation. This study will use a quantitative method. This study will continue to emphasize that secure detention is no place for a child. Given the popularity of community-based interventions, there is no reason to lock up kids who do not belong (Mendel, 2011).

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to use de-identified archival data to examine whether ethnicity and crime type affect recidivism risk among juvenile offenders. I examined a population of juveniles, which consisted of Whites, African Americans, and Hispanic males, to determine whether ethnicity and type of crime influenced their recidivism risk. Many correctional organizations use recidivism risk to gauge the type of treatment juveniles receive while they are in secure detention or juvenile intervention. The following research questions and hypotheses were used to guide the study:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes?

H_o1: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

H_a1: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes.

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities?

H_o2: There is not a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities.

RQ3: Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk?

H_o3: There are no significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

H_a3: There are significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk.

Chapter 4 begins with a description of the data collection and the demographic characteristics of the sample. Then, the results of the analyses conducted to answer the research questions are presented. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to address each research question. This chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

Data Collection

The archival data used in this study were retrieved in collaboration with ICPSR, which is connected with the University of Michigan. The data used in this study were from ICPSR study 36972 titled "Florida State University and Florida Department of Juvenile Justice Research Partnership Project 2002-2017." The original collection period for this data set was March 2014 to December 2017. I analyzed data sets containing data for all juvenile first-time arrests in Florida from 2004 to 2009. These data were used instead of data from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections (as originally proposed) because the Wisconsin Department of Corrections data were not available to use.

Walden IRB approved the use of ICPSR. At the beginning of this study, Walden's IRB permitted me to collect data from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections. When the Wisconsin DOC changed their mind, I had to secure other data. I found data from the ICPSR, which is a division of the University of Michigan. I was required to resubmit an application to Walden's IRB for permission, which was granted, to use archival data from

the new source. After receiving permission, I proceeded with getting the license to use archival data from the ICPSR. Permission was granted by the ICPSR to proceed with gaining access to their data set (see Appendix D).

The archival data set used in the present study contained 94,708 cases. The present analysis was delimited to include youths between 12 and 17 years of age. After removing cases outside of the 12- to 17-year age range, cases that did not have a risk to re-offend score, and cases with an ethnicity other than White, African American, or Hispanic, the final sample included 59,242 cases. Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages of the sample characteristics. The average age of the sample was 14.61 years (*SD* = 1.16). Recidivism risk scores were recorded in the data set as low, moderate, moderate-high, and high. Most juveniles in the data set had a low recidivism risk score (*n* = 54,756, 91%). The highest proportion of juveniles in the sample were White (*n* = 27,007, 46%), and most of the juveniles had committed a nonviolent offense (*n* = 43,509, 73%). For this study, violent offenses included murder, manslaughter, attempted murder or manslaughter, sexual battery, aggravated assault or battery, violent obstruction of justice, and simple assault or battery; all other offenses were classified as nonviolent. Because the available recidivism risk data were ordinal and there were no data available on facilities in which the juveniles were incarcerated, the research questions were changed to include only type of offense and ethnicity as independent variables, and the planned statistical analysis was changed from an analysis of variance to a Kruskal-Wallis test. Table 3 displays a crosstabulation of recidivism risk with the categories of ethnicity, offense type, and subgroups of ethnicity and offense type.

Table 2

Frequency Table for Nominal and Ordinal Variables

Variable	*n*	*%*
Recidivism risk		
Low	53756	90.74
Moderate	4052	6.84
Moderate-High	1075	1.81
High	359	0.61
Ethnicity		
White	27007	45.59
Black	21137	35.68
Hispanic	11098	18.73
Offense type		
Violent	15733	26.56
Nonviolent	43509	73.44

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

Table 3

Crosstabulation of Recidivism Risk with Ethnicity and Offense Type

	Recidivism Risk			
Variable	Low	Moderate	Moderate-High	High
Ethnicity				
White	24788 (46%)	1682 (42%)	420 (39%)	117 (33%)
Black	18862 (35%)	1604 (40%)	484 (45%)	187 (52%)
Hispanic	10106 (19%)	766 (19%)	171 (16%)	55 (15%)
Offense type				
Violent	13661 (25%)	1534 (38%)	419 (39%)	119 (33%)
Nonviolent	40095 (75%)	2518 (62%)	656 (61%)	240 (67%)
Ethnicity x Offense type				
White/Violent	5562 (10%)	610 (15%)	165 (15%)	40 (11%)
White/Nonviolent	19226 (36%)	1072 (26%)	255 (24%)	77 (21%)
Black/Violent	5584 (10%)	643 (16%)	197 (18%)	58 (16%)
Black/Nonviolent	13278 (25%)	961 (24%)	287 (27%)	129 (36%)
Hispanic/Violent	2515 (5%)	281 (7%)	57 (5%)	21 (6%)
Hispanic/Nonviolent	7591 (14%)	485 (12%)	114 (11%)	34 (9%)

Note. Due to rounding errors, column-wise percentages may not equal 100%.

Results

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was the following: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared to teens who commit nonviolent crimes? To answer this question, I conducted a Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test to assess whether there were significant differences in recidivism risk between the offense types (violent and nonviolent). In this analysis, the independent variable was offense type and the dependent variable was recidivism risk. Because the recidivism risk score in this data set was an ordinal level of measurement, the Kruskal-Wallis test was

more appropriate to conduct than a parametric analysis of variance (ANOVA), as originally proposed. The Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA and does not share the ANOVA's distributional assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). The only assumptions required for this test are that the independent variable must be categorical, and the dependent variable must be an ordinal, interval, or ratio level of measurement (Conover & Iman, 1981).

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test were significant based on an alpha value of .05, $\chi^2(1, N = 59242) = 388.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .007$ indicating that the mean rank of recidivism risk score was significantly different between the levels of offense type. Table 5 presents the result of the Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test. The results indicate that recidivism risk scores were significantly different between violent and nonviolent offenders; therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o1) can be rejected, however, the effect size was small and statistical significance was achieved as a result of the very large sample size.

Table 4

Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test for Recidivism Risk by Offense Type

Level	Mean rank	χ^2	*df*	*P*	η^2
Violent	30778.17	389.80	1	< .001	.007
Nonviolent	29203.24				

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was the following: Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among juveniles based on their ethnic identities? To answer this question,

a Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test was conducted to assess if there were significant differences in recidivism risk between ethnicities (White, Black, and Hispanic). In this analysis, the independent variable was ethnicity and the dependent variable was recidivism risk.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test were significant based on an alpha value of .05, $\chi^2(2, N = 59242) = 97.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .002$, indicating that the mean rank of recidivism risk score was significantly different between the levels of ethnicity. Table 6 presents the result of the Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test. The results indicate that recidivism risk scores were significantly different between ethnicities; therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o2) can be rejected, however, the effect size was extremely small.

Table 5

Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test for Recidivism Risk by Ethnicity

Level	Mean Rank	χ^2	*df*	*P*	η^2
White	29307.44	97.10	2	< .001	.002
Black	30077.19				
Hispanic	29517.85				

Pairwise comparisons using a Bonferroni correction were examined between each level of ethnicity. The results of the multiple comparisons indicated significant differences based on an alpha value of .05 between the following ethnicity pairs: White-Black and Hispanic-Black. This indicates that White juveniles had significantly lower recidivism risk than Black juveniles, and Hispanic juveniles had significantly lower recidivism risk than Black juveniles. Table 7 presents the results of the pairwise comparisons.

Table 6

Pairwise Comparisons for the Mean Ranks of Recidivism Risk by Ethnicity

Comparison	Test Statistic	*p*	Effect Size (*d*)
White-Hispanic	-210.41	.090	0.022
White-Black	-769.75	< .001*	0.089
Hispanic-Black	559.34	< .001*	0.062

*Bonferroni adjusted $p < .05$

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was the following: Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk? To address this question, a Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test was conducted to assess if there were significant differences in recidivism risk between ethnicities (White, Black, and Hispanic) by offense type (violent and nonviolent). In this analysis, the independent variable was the interaction between ethnicity and offense type and the dependent variable was recidivism risk. The interaction was represented by a categorical variable with six levels representing all possible combinations of ethnicity and offense type (White/Violent, White/Nonviolent, Black/Violent, Black/Nonviolent, Hispanic/Violent, and Hispanic/Nonviolent). The Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA and does not share the ANOVA's distributional assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). The only assumptions required for this test are that the independent variable must be categorical, and the dependent variable must be an ordinal, interval, or ratio level of measurement.

The result of the Kruskal-Wallis test was significantly based on an alpha value of .05, $\chi^2(5, N = 59242) = 466.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .008$, indicating that the mean rank of

recidivism risk score was significantly different between the levels of ethnicity by offense type, but with a small effect size. Table 8 presents the result of the Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test. The results indicate that recidivism risk scores were significantly different between ethnicities by offense type; therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o3) can be rejected.

Table 7

Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test for Recidivism Risk by Ethnicity by Offense Type

Level	Mean Rank	χ^2	*df*	*P*	η^2
White/Violent	30659.42	466.60	5	< .001	.008
White/Nonviolent	28889.53				
Black/Violent	30990.05				
Black/Nonviolent	29673.43				
Hispanic/Violent	30563.80				
Hispanic/Nonviolent	29152.33				

Pairwise comparisons using a Bonferroni correction were examined between each level of ethnicity by offense type. The results of the multiple comparisons indicated significant differences based on an alpha value of .05 between the following variable pairs: White/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent, White/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, White/Nonviolent-White/Violent, White/Nonviolent-Black/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-White/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Violent, Black/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, Black/Nonviolent-White/Violent, and Black/Nonviolent-Black/Violent. Table 9 presents the results of the pairwise comparisons.

Table 8

Pairwise Comparisons for the Mean Ranks of Recidivism Risk by Ethnicity by Offense Type

Comparison	Test Statistic	*p*	Effect Size (*d*)
White/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Nonviolent	-262.81	.286	0.028
White/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent	-783.90	< .001	0.090
White/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent	-1674.27	< .001	0.128
White/Nonviolent-White/Violent	1769.90	< .001	0.175
White/Nonviolent-Black/Violent	-2100.52	< .001	0.209
Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent	521.10	< .001	0.058
Hispanic/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent	1411.46	< .001	0.144
Hispanic/Nonviolent-White/Violent	1507.09	< .001	0.174
Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Violent	1837.72	< .001	0.212
Black/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent	-890.37	< .001	0.077
Black/Nonviolent-White/Violent	985.99	< .001	0.105
Black/Nonviolent-Black/Violent	1316.62	< .001	0.141
Hispanic/Violent-White/Violent	95.63	1.000	0.010
Hispanic/Violent-Black/Violent	426.25	.403	0.046
White/Violent-Black/Violent	-330.63	.438	0.038

*Bonferroni adjusted $p < .05$

Summary

There were three research questions in this study. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to answer each research question. The results for Research Question 1 indicated that there is a significant difference in juvenile recidivism risk between violent and nonviolent offenders. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o1) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis is supported; however, the effect size for this analysis was small. Research Question 2 asked if there is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens of different ethnic identities. The results indicated that there is a significant difference in recidivism risk among juveniles of different ethnic identities. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o2) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis is supported; however, the effect size for this analysis was very small. The last research question was: Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk? The results indicated that there is a significant interaction between ethnicity and offense type on recidivism risk. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o3) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis is supported; however, the effect size for this analysis was small.

Chapter 5 contains a discussion of these findings concerning previous research, the implications of these findings, as well as directions for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to use de-identified archival data to examine whether ethnicity and crime type affect recidivism risk among juvenile offenders. The population of juveniles consisted of Whites, African Americans, and Hispanics to determine whether ethnicity and type of crime influenced the recidivism risk among these groups. Many correctional organizations use recidivism risk to gauge the type of treatment that juveniles receive while they are in secure detention or a juvenile intervention facility. I used the actuarial risk and needs-assessment instrument known as the COMPAS to determine the recidivism risk.

Nature of the Study

This study had a quantitative focus on data retrieved in collaboration with ICPSR. The data that I used in this study were from ICPSR study 36972, titled "Florida State University and Florida Department of Juvenile Justice Research Partnership Project 2002-2017." Within the data set that I retrieved, there were a total of 94,708 juvenile cases. The present analysis was delimited to include youths between the ages of 12 and 17 years. After removing cases outside of the 12- to 17-year age range and cases that did not have a risk to re-offend score, the final sample analyzed in this study included 59,653 cases. The original data collection period for this study was from March 2014 to December 2017. I used these data instead of data from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections (as originally proposed) because the Wisconsin Department of Corrections data were not available. I addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens who commit violent crimes compared with teens who commit nonviolent crimes?
2. Is there a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens based on their ethnic identities?
3. Are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk?

Interpretation of the Findings

Summary of Major Findings

I conducted a Kruskal-Wallis test to answer each research question. The results for Research Question 1 indicated a significant difference in juvenile recidivism risk between violent and nonviolent offenders. After the findings were calculated, the null hypothesis (H_o1) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported. The effect size findings for Research Question 1 were $\chi^2(1, N = 59242) = 388.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .007$. Research Question 2 asked whether there is a significant difference in recidivism risk among teens of different ethnic identities. The results indicated a significant difference in recidivism risk among juveniles of different ethnic identities. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o2) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported. The effect size findings for Research Question 2 were $\chi^2(2, N = 59242) = 97.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .002$. Research Question 3 asked whether there are there significant interactions between crime type and ethnicity regarding juvenile recidivism risk. The results indicated a significant interaction between ethnicity and offense type on recidivism risk. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o3) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported. The

effect size findings for Research Question 3 were $\chi^2(5, N = 59242) = 466.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .008$.

Detailed Findings

Recidivism risk was the focus of this study. Juveniles who are convicted of a crime and spend time in incarceration are subject to recidivism risk, often before they are released on probation. The findings of the current study analyses confirmed what was indicated in the peer-reviewed literature. The results indicated that there was a significant interaction between ethnicity and offense type on recidivism risk. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_o3) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported. The findings were consistent with the assumptions that Whites, African Americans, and Hispanics were treated differently and that the punishment for each group was different. The results of the comparative analyses indicated significant differences based on an alpha value of .05 between the following variable pairs: White/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent, White/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, White/Nonviolent-White/Violent, White/Nonviolent-Black/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Nonviolent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-White/Violent, Hispanic/Nonviolent-Black/Violent, Black/Nonviolent-Hispanic/Violent, Black/Nonviolent-White/Violent, and Black/Nonviolent-Black/Violent.

The pairwise comparison indicated that all possible calculations were taken on the three ethnic groups. With an alpha value of .05, the difference between the ethnic groups was significant. African Americans were more likely to commit a crime and to have a high recidivism risk.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this research is described in Chapter 2 as a risk-needs-responsibility model (Andrews & Bonita, 2010). These types of tools are used to determine whether the juvenile recidivism risk is low enough to qualify for community-based services. Table 1 in Chapter 2 outlines the seven central factors that are associated with the general assumption of the risk/needs model. The criminogenic needs are dynamic and the central risk factors address the needs of the criminally minded individual.

Many states use these tools to estimate the risk of youths scheduled to be released or paroled (Development Services Group Inc., 2015). The primary reason for using this type of assessment tool is to take information from the offender and dynamic data to generate risk/needs scores that are vital in the decision-making ability to meet the needs of an offender. In this study, I used COMPAS to assess the recidivism risk of juveniles. The risk section of the measure is used to measure the level of risk but leaves out the services to mediate recidivism.

The research questions asked whether there are differences between ethnicity, crime type, and recidivism risk. The first research question asked whether the risk assessment was significantly different for violent and nonviolent cases. The findings were significant, which was expected. The effect size was small based on the large sample size and a higher number of low recidivism scores. Research Question 2 asked whether the ethnic identity of the juvenile made a difference in the risk assessment. According to the risk/needs assessment, the lowest risk individuals will be selected for community-based

services. Findings indicated that African Americans would less likely to receive community-based services compared to Hispanic and White juveniles. The third research question asked whether there was an interaction between the type of crime and ethnicity regarding the risk assessment among the three groups. Considering the worst crimes committed among the three groups, the risk seemed to be in favor of White juveniles because of their potential low risk.

Conceptual Framework

The social learning model was the conceptual framework used for several reasons. Human behavior is viewed as motivated through a range of environmental, cognitive, and behavioral factors, which will affect a person's recidivism rate. For example, a child will model what they see around them. Unlike the risk/needs model, the social learning model takes into account the juvenile's role models, friends, family members, and other peers to determine who is living a life of crime, who is using drugs, and who has served time in prison.

A central behavioral factor of social learning model is self-efficacy, which is the belief that people can succeed in life and have the power to change their lives (Morgenstern et al., 2016). The application of self-efficacy may sound simple, but it is difficult for people to achieve. Self-efficacy is even more difficult to achieve for people who struggle with drugs and alcohol addiction and have a history of recidivism in the criminal justice system (Van Hout & McElrath, 2012).

Self-efficacy is what people witness or observe in their environments relating to completing tasks (Bandura, 1977). As people grow and develop in their environment,

they learn how to cope and deal with life issues from their family members and other people of influence (Bandura, 1982).

The social learning model has implications for services while considering risk factors identified by the risk/needs model. The social learning model offers a reevaluation of the type of program that would allow juveniles a chance to participate in services based on their needs, particularly in the community (Development Services Group, 2015).

In each of the research questions, the ethnic juvenile when compared with the other in terms of White/Black, Black/Hispanic, and Hispanic/White, based on the level of the offense and the risk score would limit for minority youth opportunities to community-based, community correction services. The social learning model becomes a view to consider community services to recreate opportunities.

Limitations of the Study

Design Limitations

As described in Chapter 3, the design is quantitative, which I used to explore the effects of independent variables-ethnicity, and the type of crime has on the dependent variable recidivism risk. The overall structure of a quantitative design is dependent on scientific research methods. This type of design uses what is called deductive reasoning, where the researcher will formulate a hypothesis, collect data, and then use the data from the investigation (Aragon, 2016) attempting to quantify variables.

The reliability and validity of the archived data is a topic that requires considerations. Both require the understanding that data obtained for this population is

archival because of the restrictions placed on juveniles younger than 18 years and protected by the government. Because of this type of data, there was a need for alternate sources that will provide the necessary data. This population's data came from samples of juvenile arrest records, and other records pertinent to the juvenile system.

Naturally, the findings of this study are not indicative of the population of juveniles in the United States, due to the regulations and procedures in each state. The study targets juveniles from the state of Florida Department of Correction. Archival data are used from the years 2002 to 2017. Originally, data from the Wisconsin Department of Corrections was to be used, but because of reasons unknown, data were not available.

Analysis Limitations

The archival dataset used in this study contained 94,708 total cases. The present analysis was delimited to include juvenile males between 12 and 17 years of age. After removing cases outside of the 12- to 17-year age range and cases that did not have a risk to re-offend score, the final sample analyzed in this study included 59,653. The average age of the sample was 14.61 years. Recidivism risk scores were recorded in the dataset as low, moderate, moderate-high, and high. Most juveniles in the dataset had a low recidivism risk score (n = 54,137; 91%). The highest proportion of juveniles in the sample were White (n = 27,007; 45%), and most of the juveniles had committed a nonviolent offense (n = 43,822; 73%). Results show that in total juvenile crime is viewed in low recidivism risk, with a higher percentage of low recidivism risk identified in White populations, followed by African Americans, and finally Hispanics.

Originally a one-way ANOVA was proposed to perform the analyses, but the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is a nonparametric alternative to the ANOVA does not share the ANOVA's distributional assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). Thus, the only assumptions required for this test are that the independent variable must be categorical, and the dependent variable must be an ordinal, interval, or ratio level of measurement. With this type of system in place, not all juveniles were found not to have a chance to utilize rehabilitation services and other services that would have helped to keep the juvenile's recidivism risk low (Conover & Iman, 1981).

Recommendations

Further research is needed to examine the interaction type of intervention, race/ethnicity type of crime, and recidivism risk. Considering how recidivism risk predicts intervention and type of crime by race/ethnicity would extend current research. There are seven dynamic risk factors associated with criminals, assessed and altered through effective interventions (Underwood, et al., 2006).

It is important to match offenders to programs based on their risk level, which is considered the key to reducing recidivism. In considering if a program will work for all levels of offenders, care must be taken in administering programs. It is found that some programs will work for high-risk criminals, research has also shown that low-risk criminal youth's recidivism increased (Andrews, et al., 2004).

Considering the correct risk classification will help criminal justice officials to maximize the use of program resources, meaning they can concentrate on the offender, with whom they can have the greatest impact. Regarding risk/needs assessment, criminal-

minded individuals may have many needs that will require treatment, but all requirements of the offender become important when reviewing their criminal behavior referred to as the central seven risks/needs factor (Andrews, et, al, 2004). The general assumption of the risk/needs is that the criminogenic needs are dynamic and the central seven risk factors address the dynamic needs of the individual (Andrews, et, al,2004). By far, in this research, recognizing how race and ethnicity are linked to risk factors is needed for social change.

As mentioned, the social learning model is different from that of the risk/needs assessment. Some community leaders used the social learning model as an intervention rather than a model that predicts recidivism (Mendel,2011). In the intervention used, probation officials used the social learning model as a home-based program for high risk and high need gang members. The program provides a standardized approach to the methods of delivery for treatment (Underwood, et al.,2006). This program is approximately 6 months long and focuses on the needs of the individual and their family (Underwood, et al., 2006). While this program is not designed to address the specific needs of the individual such as the risk/need model, it does integrate principles of cultural competency that groups will have access to the information providers have to offer.

Implications

Perhaps one of the most useful implications would be risk/needs and social learning model which would be used to assist the juvenile justice system in tailoring program services for a juvenile. Strengthening community interventions allows the juvenile to interact with other juveniles in a positive environment that will foster a change

in their thought process (Mendel.2011). Community agencies are developing programs that allow juveniles to come out of detention or prison and participate in state-regulated programs to assist in the areas juveniles are weak in (e.g., GED, trade, and others), which will allow them to catch up with the parts of their lives they may have missed (Mendel, 2011).

Conclusion

Recidivism risk is a powerful indicator of what to expect from juveniles who are involved in juvenile justice. Recidivism risk relates to telling a story of what to expect from someone who has a history of crime (Fine, et al.,2017). For instance, a young minority youth is released from detention with no formal education, no firm plan in place for a job, lost relationships with family, the risk of him returning to incarceration within three years are heightened because of the crime they are charged with and race or ethnic class they are in. It is the hope that they will build a stronger bond when they come out of the system.

There is evidence among White juveniles that the development of attitudes differed between juveniles who reoffended and those who did not (Fine, et al,2017). African American juveniles' perception of the justice system grew more harmful over time and registered as compared with the beginning of the study with a final probability of approximately 25.9%. The one difference was those who were not arrested a second time remained stable, but over a while, their perception of the system turned negative (Fine et al., 2017).

All juvenile offenders are at risk of recidivism, but it appears that people of color get the brunt of the system's inability to measure the correct justice. Ethnic/racial populations will often draw sentences that will make it hard for them to keep their risk at a manageable level (Fine et al.,2017). Recidivism risk for juveniles of color becomes a feature of racial and procedural injustice to recognize.

Reference

Abrams, L. (2013). Juvenile Justice at a Crossroads: Twenty-First Century Reform. *Social Service Review*, https: // doi.org/10.1086/674074.

Aizer, A., & Doyle, J. J. (2013). *Juvenile Incarceration, Human Capital, and Future Crime: Evidence from Randomly-Assigned Judges.* Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Aragon, S. (2016). Teacher shortage: What we know. Teacher shortage series. *Education Commission*.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self Efficacy Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change. *Psychology Review* , 191-213, https:// DOI,org/10.1037/0033.295x84.22191.

Bandura, A. (1982). The Psychology of Chance Encounters and Life Paths. *American Psychologist, Volume 37(7),* 122-147, https://doi.org/10.1037/0003.066x.37.2.122.

Barbot, B., Macomber, D., Hart, L., Haeffel, G. j., Chapman, J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2012). Development and Validation of the Delinquency Reduction Outcome Profile in a Sample of Incarcerated Juvenile: A Multiconstruct/Multisitualtioal Scoring Approach. *Psychological Assessment*, 901-912.

Barnes, G. C., Ahlman, L., Gill, C., Sherman, L. W., Kurtz, E., & Malvestuto, R. (2010). Low-intensity community Supervision for low-risk offenders; a randomized, controlled trial. *J Exp Criminol*, 159-189.

Bechtold, J., Monahan, K., Wakefield, S., & Cauffman, E. (2015). The Role of Race in Probation Monitoring and Responses to Probation Violations Among Juvenile Offenders in Two Jurisdictions. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 323-337.

Bone, R. D. (2011). The Lived Experience of Volatile Substance Misuse: How Support Contributes to Recovery and Sustained Well Being. *Taylor-Francis Online*, https://doi.org/10.3109/10826084.2011.580230.

Brank, E. G. (2011). Holding Parents Responsible: is Vicarious Responsibility the publics' answer to Juvenile Crime. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 502-529.

Brennan, T., Dieterich, W., & Ehret, B. (2008). Evaluating the Predictive Validity of the Compas Risk and Needs Assessment System. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 21-40.

Chamberlain, P., & Reid, J. B. (1998). Comparison of Two Community Alternatives to Incarceration for Chronic Juvenile Offenders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 624-633.

Cherry, K. (2011). Social Learning Theory: An Overview of Bandura's social learning theory. *New York Times*. New York, New York: New York Times Online.

Conover, W., & Iman, R. (1981). Rank Transformations as A Bridge between Parametric and Nonparametric Statistics. *The American Statistician*, 124-129, HTTP //DOI: 10.1080/00031305.1981.10479327.

Cottle, C. C., Lee, R. J., & Heilbrun, K. (2001). The prediction of Criminal Recidivism in Juveniles: a Meta-Analysis. *Criminal Justice And Behavior*, 367-394.

Crowe, M., & Sheppard, L. (2010, October 01). *Qualitative and quantitative research designs are more than different.* Retrieved from The Internet Journal of Allied Health Sciences and Practice.: http://www.nsuworks.nova.edu/ijahsp/vol8/iss4/5

Cuervo, K., Villanueva, L., Gonzalez, F., Carrion, C., & Buszuets, P. (2015). Characteristics of young offenders depending on the type of crime. *Psychosocial Intervention*, 9-15.

Davis, C. G. (2014). Social Desirability and Change Following Substance Abuse treatment in Male Offenders. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 872-879, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037528.

Desmarais, S. J. (2016). Performance of Recidivism Risk Assessment instruments in U.S. correctional settings. *Psychol Serv.*, 206-222.

Development Services Group, Inc. . (2015). Risk and Needs Assessment for Youths. *Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention*.

Dierkhising, C. B., Lane, A., & Natsaki, M. N. (2014). Victims Behind Bars: A Preliminary Study of Abuse During Juvenile Incarceration and Post-Release Social and Emotional Functioning. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 181-190.

Diez, D. M., Barr, C. D., & Cetinkaya-Rundel, M. (2017). *openintro.* Open intro statistics.

Faul, F. E. (2007). A flexible statistical power analysis program for social, behavioral, and biomedical science. *Behavioral Research Methods*, 175-191.

Fine, A., Cavanagh, C., Donley, S., Frick, P. J., Steinberg, L., & Cauffman, E. (2017). Is the effect of justice system attitudes on recidivism stable after the youth's first

arrest? Race and legal socialization among first-time youth offenders. *Law and Human Behavior*, 146-158.

Fine, A., Donley, S., Steinberg, L., Cavanagh, C., Frick, P. J., & Cauffman, E. (2017). Is the Effect of Justice System Attitudes on Recidivism Stable After Youths First Arrest? Race and Legal Socialization Among First-time Youth Offenders. *Law and Human Behavior*, 146-158.

Gorski, P. (2008, April). *The Myth of The Culture of Poverty*. Retrieved from Educational Leadership: www.newsletteronline.com/user/user.fas/s

Gorski, T. K. (2004). *Counselor's Manual For Relapse Prevention with Chemically Dependent Criminal Offenders.* Rockville: Department of Health and Human Services.

Harris, P. W., Lockwood, B., Mengers, L., & Stoodley, B. H. (2011). Measuring Recidivism in Juvenile Corrections. *Journal of Juvenile Justice*.

Indiana Department of Corrections. (2016). *Juvenile Recidivism.* Indianapolis: Indiana Department of Corrections.

J.A.W.M. Van Gestel-Timmerman, E. B. (2014). Feasibility and Usefulness of The Peer Run Course "Recovery is Up to You" For People With Addiction problems: A Qualitative Study. *Alcohol Treatment Quarterly Volume 32*.

Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice, and Statistics. (2017). *Juvenile Justice Services-Wisconsin*. Retrieved from www.jjgps.org/juvenile-justics-services/wisconsin

Kelley, Greene, May, Hunter, Ferrari, & Noel, a. (2014 & 2015). *Practicing Self-Efficacy and Transparency to Achieve Long-term Recovery and Reduce Recidivism.* Scholar works, Walden.

Kemp, R. B. (2014 25(2)). Love, Hate, and The Emergence of Self in Addiction Recovery. *Society for Existential Analysis*, www.extentialanalysis.org.uk.

Listenbee, R. (2013). *Juvenile arrest.* Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, ojjdp-ojp.gov.

Livsey, S. (2012). National Report Series: Juvenile Delinquency Probation Caseload,2009. *Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention*.

Lowenkamp, C. T., Makarios, M. D., Latessa, E. J., Lemke, R., & Smith, P. (2016). Community Corrections Facilities For Juvenile Offenders in Ohio. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 695-708.

Lynch, J. (2011). *Cruel and unusual prisons and prison reform.* Retrieved from www.history.org/Foundation/journal/Summer11/prison.cfm

May, E. H. (2015). Hope and Abstinence, self-Efficacy: positive Predictors of Negative Affect in Substance Abuse Recovery. *Community Health Journal*, 695-700, HTTP: DOI 10.1007/s10597-015-9888-7.

Melton, G. B. (2010). Keeping the Doors to the Community Open. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 451-461.

Mendel, R. A. (2011). No Place For Kids; The Case for Reducing Juvenile Incarceration. *The Anne E. Casey Foundation*.

Meng, A., & al., e. (2013). American Juvenile Justice System History in The Making. *Adolescent Psychiatry*, 191-213, https: // doi.org/ 10.1037/0033-295x84.2.191.

Morgenstern, J. K. (2016). Within-person associations between daily motivation and self-efficacy and drinking among problem drinkers in treatment. . *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 630-638.

National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges. (2016). Wisconsin Juvenile justice services. *Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice & Statistics*.

(2010). *National Institute on Drug Abuse.* Baltimore: United States.

National Juvenile Justice Network. (2011). *Advances in Juvenile Reform-WI.* Washington: National Juvenile Justice Network.

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Provention. (1998, October). *Program of Research on the Causes and Correlates of Delinquency.* Retrieved from Office of Juvenile and Delinquency prevention.: www.ojjdp.gov/jjbullettin/9810_2/program

Pew Charitable Trust. (2011, April). Pew Center on the States, Recidivism: the Revolving Door of America's Prisons. Washington, DC, United States.

Prather, W., & Golden, J. A. (2009). Learning and Thinking: A Behavioral Treatise on Abuse and Antisocial Behavior in Criminal offenders. *International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy*.

Public Safety Performance Project. (2011, 9). *The Pew Center on the states*. Retrieved from Risk/Needs Assessment 101: science Reveals New Tools to Manager Offenders: www.pewcenteronthestates.org

Rocque, M., Jennings, W. G., Piquero, A. R., Ozkan, T., & Farrington, D. P. (2017). The Importance of School Attendance Findings From the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development on the Life-Course Effects of Truancy. *Crime & Delinquency*, *63*(5), 0011128716660520. Retrieved 9 19, 2017, from http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/0011128716660520

Ryan, J. P., Williams, A. B., & Courtney, M. E. (2013). Adolescent Neglect, Juvenile Delinquency, and the Risk of Recidivism. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 42*(3), 454-465. Retrieved 9 19, 2017, from https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10964-013-9906-8

Schelle, S. (2014, July). *Indiana Department of Correction.* Retrieved from Measuring and Using Juvenile Recidivism Data to Inform Policy, Practice, and Resource Allocation: www.in.gov/idoc/files/2016juvRecidivismRpt.pdf

Schroeder, R. D., Osgood, A. K., & Oghia, M. J. (2010). Family Transitions and Juvenile Delinquency. *Sociological Inquiry, 80*(4), 579-604. Retrieved 9 19, 2017, from http://winona.edu/sociology/media/osgood_family_transitions.pdf

Scurich, N., & Monahan, J. (2016). Evidence-Based Sentencing: Public Openness and Opposition to Using Gender, Age, and Race as Risk Factors for Recidivism. *American Psychological Association*, 36-41.

Skeem, J. L., & Louden, J. E. (2007). Assessment of Evidence on The Correction Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions. *Center for Public Policy Research*.

Stalans, L. J., Yarnold, P. R., Seng, M., Olson, D. E., & Repp, M. (2004). Identifying Three Types of Violent Offenders and Predicting Violent Recidivism While on Probation: A Classification Tree Analysis. *Law and Human Behavior*, 253.

Statistics Solutions. (2013). *Data analysis plan: Factorial ANOVA.* Retrieved from Statistical Solutions: www.statisticssolutions.com/academic-solutions/member-resources/member-profile/data-analysis-plan-templates/factorial-anova/

Texas Juvenile Justice Department. (2013). *Overview of Community-Based Juvenile Probation Program.* Texas Department of Corrections.

Texas Legislative Budget Board. (2015). *Statewide Criminal and Juvenile Justice Recidivism and REvocation Rates.* Legislative Budget Board Staff.

The National Center for Juvenile Justice. (2016). JJGPS-Juvenile Justice Geography, Policy, Practice, and Statistics. *JJGPS.*

Underwood, L. A., von Dresner, K. S., & Phillips, A. L. (2006). Community Treatment Program for Juveniles: A Best-Evidence Summary. *International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy*, 289-304.

The University of Southern California. (2018, April). Organizing Your Social Sciences Research Paper: Quantitative Methods. Los Angeles, California.

Van Hout, R. M. (2012). Service Users Involvement In Drug treatment programs: Barriers To Implementation and Benefits for Client Recovery. In *Drugs: Education, Prevention, and Policy 19(6)* (pp. 474-483). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Vera Institute of Justice. (2013). The Potential of Community Corrections: To Improve Safety and Reduce Incarceration. New York, New York, United States.

Vries, A. M., & Liem, M. (2011). Recidivism of Juvenile Homicide Offenders. *Behavioral Sciences & The Law*, *29*(4), 483-498. Retrieved 9 21, 2017, from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/bsl.984/abstract

Walker, L. (2014). *United States prison system*. Retrieved from HTTP:// purehistory.org/united-states-prison-systems/

Walker, S. (2014). *Popular Justice: A History of American Criminal Justice.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Wisconsin Department of Corrections. (2014). *2014 Annual Report.* Madison: Wisconsin Department of Corrections.

Wolcott, D. (Summer 2000). With Liberty For Some: 500 Years of Imprisonment in America. *Journal of Social History Volume 33, number 4*, 988-990, HTTP:DOI: 10.1353/jsh.2000.0090.

Zhang, R. M. (2017). Perceived Primal Threat of Mental Illness and Recovery: The Mediating Role of Self-Stima and Self Empowerment. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 87(1)*, 44-51, https: // doi.org/10.1037soft0000202.

Zhang, S. X., Roberts, R. E., & Farabee, D. (2014). An analysis of Prisoner Reentry and Parole Risk Using COMPAS and Traditional Criminal History Measures. *Crime and Delinquency*, 167-192.

Appendix A: Ethical Certificate

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Larry Taylor** completed the NIH Web-based training course, "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 12/19/2012

Certification Number: 0000000

Appendix B: NIJ Privacy Certificate

Instructions for Applicants

The Privacy Certificate[1] is an additional safeguard to protect respondent privacy. It is essentially a summary of your project description and commitment to not identify respondents. This is a requirement of the National Institute of Justice (NIJ), which funded the collection and archiving of the restricted data you are requesting.

While the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data (NACJD) has taken measures during its processing tasks to de-identify data, restricted data may still have potentially identifying data (e.g. variables used in conjunction with one another). For this reason, NIJ still considers the restricted data to be identifiable as described in the Privacy Certificate.

Though research projects using archived data will not be new, collecting original data from subjects, **respondents should answer these questions as though the data being analyzed is identifiable.** Responses of *"Not applicable"* or blank responses will not be accepted, thus delaying the request for data.

The Privacy Certificate must be written as a standalone document, independent of the application. Certain components of the Privacy Certificate will repeat the information you completed in the online IDARS application.

The Privacy Certificate must be signed by the Investigator listed on the Restricted Data Use Agreement and a representative from the Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Refer to pages 13-14 for specific guidance on how to complete the specific fields found in the Privacy Certificate.

Exempt Studies and Series

The studies and series listed below are exempt from the requirement stated above. However, to ensure all sections of the online application are completed, applicants seeking access to these studies or series must upload the Privacy Certificate form (although the form fields remain unfilled). This step will permit users to submit the application, avoiding delay.

- Capital Punishment in the United States Series

[1] The Privacy Certificate is in compliance with the common rule 28 CFR 22 *Confidentiality of Identifiable Research and Statistical Information (*for more information, see Government Printing Office http://tinyurl.com/oc5yczo).

- Civil Justice Survey of State Courts Series
- Federal Court Cases: Integrated Database Series
- Federal Justice Statistics Program Data Series
- Los Angeles Homicides, 1830-2003
- Monitoring of Federal Criminal Convictions and Sentences: Appeals Data Series
- Monitoring of Federal Criminal Sentences Series
- Multi-User Database on the Attributes of United States Appeals Court Judges, 1801-2000
- Multi-User Database on the Attributes of United States District Court Judges, 1801-2000
- National Corrections Reporting Program Series
- National Evaluation of the Safe Start Promising Approaches Initiative, 2006-2010
- National Jail Census Series
- National Judicial Reporting Program Series
- National Pretrial Reporting Program Series
- National Prosecutors Survey Series
- Offender Based Transaction Statistics (OBTS) Series
- Organizations Convicted in Federal Criminal Courts Series
- Recidivism Among Released Prisoners, 1983
- Recidivism of Prisoners Released in 1994
- State Court Processing Statistics Series
- Survey of Inmates of State and Federal Correctional Facilities Series • Survey of Youth in Residential Placement (SYRP)

If the data being applied for is not listed above, applicants ***must complete*** the Privacy Certificate to receive the restricted data files. There are no exceptions to this requirement.

PRIVACY CERTIFICATE AND CONFIDENTIALITY REQUIREMENTS OF NIJ FUNDING

Dear Applicant:

As you know, much of the research conducted by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) involves collecting data on individuals through direct observation, interviews or surveys, case records, crime reports, and other administrative records. These activities raise a number of ethical and legal concerns about harm or embarrassment to individuals that must be addressed before the research may be conducted. NIJ and recipients of NIJ funding are subject to the statutory and regulatory confidentiality requirements of 42 USC §3789g and 28 CFR Part 22. Both 42 USC §3789g and 28 CFR Part 22 provide that research and statistical information identifiable to a private person is immune from the legal process and may only use or revealed for research purposes.

The regulations at 28 CFR Part 22 require all applicants for NIJ support to submit a Privacy Certificate as a condition of approval of a grant application or contract proposal that contains a research or statistical component under which personally identifiable information will be collected. The Privacy Certificate is the applicant's assurance that he/she understands his/her responsibilities to protect the confidentiality of research and statistical information and has developed specific procedures to ensure that this information is only used or revealed in accordance with the requirements of 42 USC §3789g and 28 CFR Part 22.

NIJ, as a matter of policy, requires that Privacy Certificates be submitted as part of all applications regardless of whether the project involves the collection of identified data. In cases where no personally identifiable information will be collected, the Privacy Certificate should contain a statement to this effect.

In order to assist you in preparing your Privacy Certificate, we have enclosed a sample format.
You may use this or any other format that includes all the points addressed by 28 CFR Part 22.

Privacy Certificate Guidelines

The regulations at 28 CFR §22.23 require that a Privacy Certificate be submitted to NIJ as part of any application for a project in which information identifiable to a private person will be collected for research or statistical purposes. However, NIJ, as a matter of policy, requires that Privacy Certificates be submitted as part of ALL grant applications

regardless of whether the project involves the collection of identified data. In cases where no personally identifiable information will be collected, the Privacy Certificate should contain a statement to this effect.

The following summarizes the requirements of 28 CFR §22.23 and should be used as a guide to completing the Privacy Certificate.

1. The Privacy Certificate must fully describe the following:

   - Procedures to ensure data confidentiality;
   - Procedures to ensure the physical and administrative security of data;
   - Procedures for subject notification or justification for waiver; and
   - Procedures for final disposition of data.

2. The Privacy Certificate must also include the name and title of:

   - the person with primary responsibility for ensuring compliance with the regulations;
   - the person authorized to approve transfers of data; and
   - the person authorized to determine final disposition procedures for the data collected and developed by the project.

3. The Privacy Certificate must contain assurances by the applicant that:

   A) Data identified to a specific individual will not be used or revealed unless it is research or statistical information that is being used for research and statistical purposes. B) Identified data will be used or revealed only on a need-to-know basis to:

   i. Officers, employees, and subcontractors of the recipient of assistance;

   ii. Persons and organizations receiving transfers of information for research and statistical purposes only if an information transfer agreement is entered into in which the recipient is bound to use the information only for research and

statistical purposes and to take adequate administrative and physical precautions to ensure the confidentiality of the information.

C) Employees with access to data on a need-to-know basis will be advised in writing of the confidentiality requirements and must agree in writing to abide by these requirements.

D) Subcontractors requiring access to identified data will only do so according to an information transfer agreement which states that the confidentiality of the data must be maintained and that the information may only be used for research or statistical purposes;

E)Private persons from whom identified data are obtained or collected will be advised either orally or in writing that the data will only be used for research and statistical purposes and that compliance with requests for information is not mandatory. That is, participation in the research is voluntary and may be withdrawn at any time. **If the notification requirement is to be waived, an explanation must be contained within or attached to the Privacy Certificate;**

F) Adequate precautions will be taken to ensure the administrative and physical security of the identified data.

G) A log indicating that identified data have been transferred to persons other than those in NIJ or other OJP bureaus, created under the Omnibus Crime Control Act or its amendments, or to the grantee, contractor, or subcontractor staff will be maintained and will indicate whether the data has been returned or if there is an alternative agreement for the future maintenance of such data.

H) Project plans will be designed to preserve the anonymity of persons to whom the informa-tion relates, including where appropriate, name-stripping, coding of data, or other similar procedures.

I) Project findings and reports prepared for dissemination will not contain information that can reasonably be expected to be identifiable to a private person.

J) Upon completion of the project, the security of research or statistical information will be protected by either:

i. the complete physical destruction of all copies of the materials or the identified portions of the materials after a three-year required recipient retention period or as soon as authorized by law; or

ii. the removal of identifiers from the data and separate maintenance of a name-code index in a secure location.

If you choose to keep a name-code index, you must maintain procedures to secure such an index.

Privacy Certificate

Grantee1, _____, certifies that data *identifiable to a private person*2 will not be used or revealed, except as authorized in 28 CFR Part 22, Sections 22.21 & 22.22.

Brief Description of Project (required by 28 CFR §22.23(b): This project involves examining the criminal records of three groups of ethnic juveniles who are incarcerated in the justice system. The recidivism rate will be examined to see if the rates are an indication of fair judgment or if the rates are skewed according to race and ethnicity. There are research questions that will help determine the outcome of the sample taken to see if the fairness of the justice system is fair or if the juveniles are being evaluated based on the color of their skin.

The grantee certifies that any private person from whom identifiable information is collected or obtained shall be notified, in accordance with 28 CFR §22.27, that such data will only be used or revealed for research or statistical purposes and that compliance with the request for information is not mandatory and participation in the project may be terminated at any time. In addition, the grantee certifies that where findings in a project cannot, by virtue of sample size or uniqueness of subject, be expected to totally conceal the identity of an individual, such individual shall be so advised.

Procedures to notify subjects that such data will only be used or revealed for research or statistical purposes and that compliance with the request for information is not mandatory and participation in the project may be terminated at any time as required by 28 CFR §22.23(b)(4): Since the United States prohibit juveniles from being identified, this research will not attempt to identify the targeted youth but will use only their information, such as their age when they were arrested, the outcome of their court appearance, the recidivism rate, and the interventions used. At no time will the youth be identified by name. Every precaution will be used to protect their identity.

If notification of subjects is to be waived, pursuant to 28 CFR §22.27(c), please provide a justification: There will be no notification of subjects because the only information that will be used is their race, age, ethnic background, adjudication, type of institution. There will be no need to notify individuals.

The grantee certifies that project plans will be designed to preserve the confidentiality of private persons to whom the information relates, including where appropriate, name-stripping, coding of data, or other similar procedures.

Procedures developed to preserve the confidentiality of personally identifiable information, as required by 28 CFR §22.23(b)(7): Coding will be a major part of obtaining information for the three groups. Since the only information will come from the group mentioned, it seems logical to code the group so that the only information will come from individuals on this list. Efforts will be used to completely strip the names of individuals and replaced them with coded information.

The grantee certifies that, if applicable, a log will be maintained indicating that (1) identifiable data have been transferred to persons other than employees of NIJ, BJA, BJS, OJJDP, OVC, OJP, or grantee/contractor/subcontractor staff; and (2) such data have been returned or that alternative arrangements have been agreed upon for future maintenance of such data, in accordance with 28 CFR §22.23(b)(6).

Justification for the collection and/or maintenance of any data in identifiable form, if applicable: Not Applicable.

Procedures for data storage, as required by 28 CFR §22.23(b)(5): Data storage will be done by transferring the information on a flash drive and will be in the possession of the researcher. There are no other members so the research will be the only one in control of the flash drive. Once the research is complete, the drive will be saved for a period of 30 days after which it will be destroyed by a program called Eraser to completely destroy data from the hard drive.

The grantee certifies that all contractors, subcontractors, and consultants requiring access to identifiable data will agree, through conditions in their subcontract or consultant agreement, to comply with the requirements of 28 CFR §22.24, regarding information transfer agreements. The grantee also certifies that NIJ will be provided with copies of any and all transfer agreements before they are executed as well as the name and title of the individual(s) with the authority to transfer data.

Description of any institutional limitations or restrictions on the transfer of data in identifiable form, if applicable: Not Applicable

Name and title of individual with the authority to transfer data:
Carl Valdez, Principal Investigator

Grantee certifies that access to the data will be limited to those employees having a need for such data and that such employees shall be advised of and agree in writing to comply with the regulations in 28 CFR Part 22.

The grantee certifies that all project personnel, including subcontractors, have been advised of and have agreed, in writing, to comply with all procedures to protect the privacy and the confidentiality of personally identifiable information.

Access to data is restricted to the following individuals, as required by 28 CFR §22.23(b)(2):

Principal Investigator(s) Carl Valdez

Project Staff: Larry E. Taylor

The grantee certifies that adequate precautions will be taken to ensure the administrative and physical security of identifiable data and to preserve the confidentiality of personally identifiable information.

Procedures to insure the physical and administrative security of data, as required by 28 CFR §22.25(b), including, if applicable, a description of those procedures used to secure a name index: The data storage method will be an encoded flash drive, with password protection to assure no one other than the principal investigator and staff. The password will be changed every 30 days while it remains active.

Procedures for the final disposition of data, as required by 28 CFR §22.25: The final disposition will be done after the information has been used and is no longer needed. The drive will be erased and the drive on which it is stored will be destroyed.

Name and title of individual authorized to determine the final disposition: Carl Valdez, Principal Investigator

The grantee certifies that copies of all questionnaires, informed consent forms, and informed consent procedures designed for use in the project are attached to this Privacy Certificate.

The grantee certifies that project findings and reports prepared for dissemination will not contain information that can reasonably be expected to be identifiable to a private person, except as authorized by 28 CFR §22.22.

The grantee certifies that the procedures described above are correct and shall be carried out.

The grantee certifies that the project will be conducted in accordance with all the requirements of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 as amended and the regulations contained in 28 CFR Part 22.

The grantee certifies that NIJ shall be notified of any material change in any of the information provided in this Privacy Certificate.

Signature (s):

Carl Valdez _____ (Principal Investigator)

_____ (Principal Investigator)

Laura Knight Hayes _____ (Institutional Representative)

Date: 09/23/19

1 Please include the name of the Principal Investigator(s) for this project as well as the name of the person representing the institution receiving the grant funds.

2 *The information identifiable to a private person* is defined in 28 CFR §22.2(e) as "information which either--(1) Is labeled by name or other personal identifiers, or (2) Can, by virtue of sample size or other factors, be reasonably interpreted as referring to a particular person."

Appendix C: IRB Approval Letter

From: Libby R. Munson
Sent: Thursday, June 27, 2019, 5:10 PM
To: Larry Taylor
Cc: Carl M. Valdez
Subject: IRB Approval Granted, Conditional upon Partner Approval - Larry Taylor

Dear Mr. Taylor,

This email is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved your application for the study entitled, " The Effects of Intervention, Ethnicity, and Crime on Recidivism Among Juvenile Offenders," conditional upon the approval of the research partner, as documented in the notification of approval, which will need to be submitted to the Walden IRB when obtained. The researcher may not commence the study until the Walden IRB confirms receipt of that notification of approval. Our records indicate that you will be analyzing data provided to you by the research partner as collected under its oversight. Since this study will serve as a Walden doctoral capstone, the Walden IRB will oversee your capstone data analysis and results reporting. The IRB approval number for this study is 06-27-19-0069558.

This confirmation is contingent upon your adherence to the exact procedures described in the final version of the documents that have been submitted to IRB@mail.waldenu.edu as of this date. This includes maintaining your current status with the university and the oversight relationship is only valid while you are an actively enrolled student at Walden University. If you need to take a leave of absence or are otherwise unable to remain actively enrolled, this is suspended.

If you need to make any changes to your research staff or procedures, you must obtain IRB approval by submitting the IRB Request for Change in Procedures Form. You will receive a confirmation with a status update of the request within 10 business days of submitting the change request form and are not permitted to implement changes prior to receiving approval. Please note that Walden University does not accept responsibility or liability for research activities conducted without the IRB's approval, and the University will not accept or grant credit for student work that fails to comply with the policies and procedures related to ethical standards in research.

When you submitted your IRB materials, you made a commitment to communicate both discrete adverse events and general problems to the IRB within 1 week of their occurrence/realization. Failure to do so may result in invalidation of data, loss of academic credit, and/or loss of legal protections otherwise available to the researcher.

Both the Adverse Event Reporting form and Request for Change in Procedures form can be obtained at the Documents section of the Walden website: http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec

Researchers are expected to keep detailed records of their research activities (i.e., participant log sheets, completed consent forms, etc.) for the same period of time they retain the original data. If in the future, you require copies of the originally submitted IRB materials, you may request them from the Institutional Review Board.

Please note that this letter indicates that the IRB has confirmed your study meets Walden University's ethical standards. You may not begin the doctoral study analysis phase of your doctoral study, however, until you have received the **Notification of Approval to Conduct Research** e-mail. Once you have received this notification by email, you may begin your study's data analysis.

Sincerely,
Libby Munson
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Office of Research Ethics and Compliance
Walden University
100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 900
Minneapolis, MN 55401
Email:
Phone:

Appendix D: Restricted Data Agreement (ICPSR)

Restricted Data Use Agreement for Restricted Data from the Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR)

I. Definitions

A. “Investigator” is the person primarily responsible for conducting the research or statistical activities relative to the Research Description of the Online Application (the “Research Description”) or supervising the individuals conducting the research or statistical activities relative to the Research Description, for which Restricted Data are obtained through this Agreement.

B. “Research Staff” are all persons at the Investigator’s Institution, excluding the Investigator, who will have access to Restricted Data obtained through this Agreement, including students, other faculty and researchers, staff, agents, or employees for which Institution accepts responsibility.

C. “Institution” is the university or research institution at which the Investigator will conduct research using Restricted Data obtained through this Agreement.

D. “Representative of the Institution” is a person authorized to enter into binding legal agreements on behalf of the Investigator’s Institution.

E. “Restricted Data” is the research dataset(s) provided under this Agreement that includes potentially identifiable information in the form of indirect identifiers that if used

together within the dataset(s) or linked to another dataset (s) could lead to the re-identification of a specific Private Person, as well as information provided by a Private Person under the expectation that the information would be kept confidential and would not lead to harm to the Private Person. Restricted Data includes any Derivatives.

F. “Private Person” means any individual (including an individual acting in an official capacity) and any private (i.e., non-government) partnership, corporation, association, organization, community, tribe, sovereign nation, or entity (or any combination thereof), including family, household, school, neighborhood, health service, or institution from which the Restricted Data arise or were derived, or which are related to a Private Person from which the Confidential Information arise or were derived.

G. “ICPSR” is the Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research.

H. “Online Application” includes all information entered into the ICPSR web-based data access request system, including Investigator information, Research Staff information, Research Description, Data Selection specifying which files and documentation are requested, Confidentiality Pledge signed by the Investigator, Supplemental Agreement and Confidentiality Pledge signed by each Research Staff, Data Security Plan, and a copy of a document signed by the

Institution’s Institutional Review Board (IRB), or equivalent, approving or exempting the research project.

I. “Data Security Plan” is a component of the Agreement that specifies permissible computer configurations for use of Restricted Data and records what the Investigator commits to doing in order to keep Restricted Data secure.

J. “Deductive Disclosure” is the discerning of a Private Person’s identity or confidential information through the use of characteristics about that Private Person in the Restricted Data. Disclosure risk is present if an unacceptably narrow estimation of a Private Person’s confidential information is possible or if determining the exact attributes of the Private Person is possible with a high level of confidence.

K. “Derivative” is a file or statistic derived from the Restricted Data that poses disclosure risk to any Private Person in the Restricted Data obtained through this Agreement. Derivatives include copies of the Restricted Data received from ICPSR, subsets of the Restricted Data, and analysis results that do not conform to the guidelines in Section VI.F.

II. Responsibility to Address Disclosure Risk

Deductive Disclosure of a Private Person’s identity from research data is a major concern of federal agencies, researchers, and Institutional Review Boards. Investigators and Institutions who receive any portion of Restricted Data are obligated to protect the Restricted Data from Deductive Disclosure risk, non-authorized use, and attempts to identify any Private Person by strictly adhering to the obligations set forth in this Agreement.

III. Requirements of Investigator

A. The Investigator assumes the responsibility of completing the Online Application and any other required documents, reports, and amendments.

B. The Investigator agrees to manage and use Restricted Data, implement all Restricted Data security procedures per the Data Security Plan, and ensure that all Research Staff understand their requirements per this Agreement and follow the Data Security Plan.

C. Investigators must meet each of the following criteria:

1. Have a Ph.D. or other research-appropriate terminal degree; and 2. Hold a faculty appointment or have an appointment that is eligible to be a principal investigator at Institution.

IV. Requirements of Institution

The Institution represents that it is:

A. An institution of higher education, a research organization, a research arm of a government agency, or a non-governmental, not-for-profit, agency. B. Not currently debarred or otherwise restricted in any manner from receiving information of a sensitive, confidential, or private nature under any applicable laws, regulations, or policies. C. Have a demonstrated record of using sensitive data according to commonly accepted standards of research ethics and applicable statutory requirements.

V. Obligations of ICPSR

In consideration of the promises made in Section VI of this Agreement, and upon receipt of a complete and approved Online Application, ICPSR agrees to:

A. Provide the Restricted Data requested by the Investigator in the Restricted Data Order Summary within a reasonable time of execution of this Agreement by Institution and to make the Restricted Data available to Investigator via download or removable media. B. Provide electronic documentation of the origins, form, and general content of the Restricted Data sent to the Investigator, in the same time period and manner as the Restricted Data.

ICPSR MAKES NO REPRESENTATIONS NOR EXTENDS ANY WARRANTIES OF ANY KIND, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED. THERE ARE NO EXPRESS OR IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY OR FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE, OR THAT THE USE OF THE RESTRICTED DATA WILL NOT INFRINGE ANY PATENT, COPYRIGHT, TRADEMARK, OR OTHER PROPRIETARY RIGHTS. Unless prohibited by law, Institution assumes all liability for claims for damages against them by third parties that may arise from the use, storage, disposal, or disclosure by the Institution of the Restricted Data, except to the extent and in a proportion, such liability or damages arising from the negligence of ICPSR.

VI. Obligations of the Investigator, Research Staff, and Institution

Restricted Data provided under this Agreement shall be held by the Investigator, Research Staff, and Institution in the strictest confidence and can be used or disclosed only in compliance with the terms of this Agreement. In consideration of the promises in Section V of this Agreement, and for use of Restricted Data from ICPSR, the Institution agrees:

A. That the Restricted Data will be used solely for research or statistical purposes relative to the project as identified in the Research Description of the Online Application (the "Research Description"), and for no other purpose whatsoever without the prior written consent of ICPSR. Further, no attempt will be made to identify Private Person(s), no Restricted Data of Private Person(s) will be published or otherwise distributed, the Restricted Data will be protected against Deductive Disclosure risk by strictly adhering to the obligations set forth in this Agreement, and precautions will be taken to protect the Restricted Data from non-authorized use.

B. To comply fully with the approved Data Security Plan at all times relevant to this Agreement.

C. That no persons other than those identified in this Agreement or in subsequent amendments to this Agreement, as Investigator or Research Staff and who have signed this Agreement or a Supplemental Agreement, be permitted access to the contents of Restricted Data files or any Derivatives from the Restricted Data.

D. That within five (5) business days of becoming aware of any unauthorized access, use, or disclosure of Restricted Data, or access, use, or disclosure of Restricted Data that is inconsistent with the terms and conditions of this Agreement, the unauthorized or inconsistent access, use, or disclosure of Restricted Data will be reported in writing to ICPSR.

E. That, unless prior specific, written approval is received from ICPSR, no attempt under any circumstances will be made to link the Restricted Data to any Private Person, whether living or deceased, or with any other dataset, including other datasets provided by ICPSR.

F. To avoid inadvertent disclosure of Private Persons by being knowledgeable about what factors constitute disclosure risk and by using disclosure risk guidelines, such as but not limited to, the following guidelines1 in the release of statistics or other content derived from the Restricted Data.2

1. No release of a sample unique for which only one record in the Restricted Data provides a certain combination of values from key variables. 2. No release of a sample rare for which only a small number of records (e.g., 3, 5, or 10 depending on sample characteristics) in the Restricted Data provides a certain combination of values from key variables. For example, in no instance should the cell frequency of a cross-tabulation, a total for a row or column of a cross-tabulation, or a quantity figure be fewer than the appropriate threshold as determined from the sample characteristics. In general, assess empty cells and full cells for disclosure risk stemming from sampled records of a defined

group reporting the same characteristics. 3. No release of the statistic if the total, mean, or average is based on fewer cases than the appropriate threshold as determined from the sample characteristics. 4. No release of the statistic if the contribution of a few observations dominates the estimate of a particular cell. For example, in no instance should the quantity figures be released if one case contributes more than 60 percent of the quantity amount. 5. No release of data that permits disclosure when used in combination with other known data. For example, unique values or counts below the appropriate threshold for key variables in the Restricted Data that are continuous and link to other data from ICPSR or elsewhere.

1 For more information, see the U.S. Bureau of the Census checklist. Supporting Document Checklist on Disclosure Potential of Data, at http://www.census.gov/srd/sdc/S14-1_v1.3_Checklist.doc; NCHS Disclosure Potential Checklist at HTTP:// http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nchs_microdata_release_policy_4-02A.pdf; and FCSM Statistical Policy Working Paper 22 (Second Version, 2005) at HTTP:// http://www.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/spwp22.pdf 2 If disclosure review rules were established for a specific Restricted Dataset, they will be included in the dataset's documentation and are covered by this Agreement.

6. No release of minimum and maximum values of identifiable characteristics (e.g., income, age, household size, etc.) or reporting of values in the "tails," e.g., the 5th or 95th percentile, from a variable(s) representing highly skewed populations. 7. No release of

ANOVAs and regression equations when the analytic model that includes categorical covariates is saturated or nearly saturated. In general, variables in analytic models should conform to disclosure rules for descriptive statistics (e.g., see #6 above). 8. In no instance should data on an identifiable case, or any of the kinds of data listed in preceding items 1-7, be derivable through subtraction or other calculation from the combination of tables released. 9. No release of sample population information or characteristics in greater detail than released or published by the researchers who collected the Restricted Data. This includes but is not limited to the publication of maps. 10. No release of anecdotal information about a specific Private Person(s) or case study without prior written approval. 11. The above guidelines also apply to charts as they are graphical representations of cross-tabulations. In addition, graphical outputs (e.g., scatterplots, box plots, plots of residuals) should adhere to the above guidelines.

G. That if the identity of any Private Person should be discovered, then: 1. No use will be made of this knowledge; 2. ICPSR will be advised of the incident within five (5) business days of discovery of the incident; 3. The information that would identify the Private Person will be safeguarded or destroyed as requested by ICPSR; and 4. No one else will be informed of the discovered identity. H. Unless other provisions have been made with ICPSR, all originals and copies of the Restricted Data, on whatever media, shall be destroyed on or before completion of this Agreement or within 5 days of a written request from ICPSR. Investigator will complete and notarize an Affidavit of Destruction, attesting to the destruction of the Restricted Data. Investigators requiring the Restricted Data beyond the completion of this Agreement should submit a request for

continuation three months prior to the end date of the agreement. This obligation of destruction shall not apply to the Investigator's scholarly work based upon or that incorporates the Restricted Data.

I. That any books, articles, conference papers, theses, dissertations, reports, or other publications that employed the Restricted Data or other resources provided by ICPSR reference the bibliographic citation provided by ICPSR and be reported to ICPSR for inclusion in its data related bibliography.

J. To provide annual reports to ICPSR staff (through ICPSR's online data access request system), which include: 1. A copy of the annual IRB approval for the project described in the Research Description;

2. A listing of public presentations at professional meetings using results based on the Restricted Data or Derivatives or analyses thereof; 3. A listing of papers accepted for publication using the Restricted Data, or Derivatives or analyses thereof, with complete citations; 4. A listing of Research Staff using the Restricted Data, or Derivatives or analyses thereof, for dissertations or theses, the titles of these papers, and the date of completion; and 5. Update on any change in the scope of the project as described in the Research Description.

K. To notify ICPSR of a change in the institutional affiliation of the Investigator, a change in the institutional affiliation of any Research Staff, or the addition or removal of Research Staff on the research project. Notification must be in writing and must be

received by ICPSR at least six (6) weeks before the last day of employment with Institution. Notification of the addition or removal of Research Staff on the research project shall be provided to ICPSR as soon as reasonably possible. Investigator's separation from Institution terminates this Agreement.

L. Upon Investigator's change in institutional affiliation, all electronic and paper Restricted Data will be securely destroyed with a notarized affidavit of destruction submitted to ICPSR. ICPSR will, at the request and cost of the Investigator, store these files and transfer them to Investigator's new Institution upon submission and approval of an Online Application by the new Institution. Although the Restricted Data will be stored in a secure location, ICPSR assumes no responsibility for the Restricted Data or associated files and Institution and Investigator shall not be liable for any damages arising from any suits or claims arising from the storage of the Restricted Data or associated files by ICPSR. ICPSR makes no guarantees and provides no warranty that the exact same Restricted Data or associated files can be or will be provided to Investigator after such storage, or that any files or Restricted Data forwarded to Investigator after such storage will be free from defect or fit for any particular purpose.

M. That use of the Restricted Data will be consistent with the Institution's policies regarding scientific integrity and human subject's research.

N. To respond fully and in writing within ten (10) working days after receipt of any written inquiry from ICPSR regarding compliance with this Agreement.

VII. Violations of this Agreement

A. The Institution will investigate allegations by ICPSR or other parties of violations of this Agreement in accordance with its policies and procedures on scientific integrity and misconduct. If the allegations are confirmed, the Institution will treat the violations as it would violations of the explicit terms of its policies on scientific integrity and misconduct. B. In the event of a breach of any provision of this Agreement, Institution shall be responsible to promptly cure the breach and mitigate any damages. The Institution hereby acknowledges that any breach of the confidentiality provisions herein may result in irreparable harm to ICPSR not adequately compensable by money damages. Institution hereby acknowledges the possibility of injunctive relief in the event of a breach, in addition to money damages. In addition, ICPSR may:

1. Terminate this Agreement upon notice and require the return of the Restricted Data and any derivatives thereof; 2. Deny Investigator's future access to Restricted Data; and/or 3. Report the inappropriate use or disclosure to the appropriate federal and private agencies or foundations that fund scientific and public policy research. 4. Such other remedies that may be available to ICPSR under law or equity, including injunctive relief.

C. Institution agrees, to the extent not prohibited under applicable law, to indemnify the Regents of the University of Michigan from any or all claims, losses, causes of action, judgments, damages, and expenses arising from Investigator’s, Research Staff’s, and/or Institution’s use of the Restricted Data, except to the extent and in a proportion such liability or damages arose from the negligence of the Regents of the University of

Michigan. Nothing herein shall be construed as a waiver of any immunities and protections available to institutions under applicable law.

D. In the event of a violation, the Investigator must: 1. Notify ICPSR within five (5) business days; 2. Stop work with the Restricted Data immediately; 3. Submit a notarized affidavit acknowledging the violation of ICPSR; 4. Inform the Representative of the Institution of the violation and review security protocols and disclosure protections with them. The Representative of Investigator's Institution must submit an acknowledgment of the violation and security protocols and disclosure protections review to ICPSR; and 5. Reapply for access to the Restricted Data.

VIII. Confidentiality

This Agreement is consistent with the requirements of the United States Code -- 31 USC Section 3729 et seq. (The False Claims Act), and 34 USC Section 10231(a), which authorizes the Department of Justice to collect confidential data while mandating strict protections -- and the Code of Federal Regulations -- 28 CFR 22 (Confidentiality and Transfer of Confidential Data), 28 CFR 46 (Department of Justice version of the Common Rule), as well as 62 F.R. 35044 (June 27, 1997) (The Federal Confidentiality Order).

To the extent the Restricted Data are subject to a Certificate of Confidentiality, the Institution is considered to be a contractor or cooperating agency of ICPSR; as such, the Institution, the Investigator, and Research Staff are authorized to protect the privacy of

the individuals who are the subjects of the Restricted Data by withholding their identifying characteristics from all persons not connected with the conduct of the Investigator's research project. "Identifying characteristics" are considered to include those data defined as confidential under the terms of this Agreement.

IX. Incorporation by Reference

All parties agree that the information entered into the Online Application, including the Data Security Plan, IRB approval, and any Supplemental Agreements and Confidentiality Pledges, are incorporated into this Agreement by reference.

X. Miscellaneous

A. All notices, contractual correspondence, and return of Restricted Data under this Agreement on behalf of the Investigator shall be made in writing and delivered to the address below:

ICPSR P.O. Box 1248 Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1248 -or- help@icpsr.umich.edu

B. This agreement shall be effective for 24 months from the execution or until the IRB expires. C. The respective rights and obligations of ICPSR and Investigator, Research Staff, and Institution pursuant to this Agreement shall survive termination of the Agreement. D. This Agreement and any of the information and materials entered into the Online Application may be amended or modified only by the mutual written consent of the authorized representatives of ICPSR and Investigator and Institution. Both parties

agree to amend this Agreement to the extent necessary to comply with the requirements of any applicable regulatory authority. E. The Representative of the Institution signing this Agreement has the right and authority to execute this Agreement, and no further approvals are necessary to create a binding agreement. F. The obligations of Investigator, Research Staff, and Institution set forth within this Agreement may not be assigned or otherwise transferred without the express written consent of ICPSR.