2018

Effects of Race and Gender on Probability of Juvenile Delinquency Leading to Recidivism

Britney Latoya Smith
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Britney L. Smith

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. Ian Cole, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Tracey Phillips, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Daniel Jones, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2018

Abstract

Effects of Race and Gender on Probability of Juvenile Delinquency Leading to Recidivism

by

Britney L. Smith

MPA, Kean University, 2015

BS, New Jersey City University, 2012

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2018

Abstract

Studies have shown that U.S. juvenile recidivism rates range from 50% to 80%, and many risk factors have been associated with adolescent delinquency and recidivism. The purpose of this cross-sectional correlational study was to evaluate the Future Generation mentoring program's effectiveness by examining the relationships between race and gender (independent variables) and youth progress (dependent variable). The Future Generation mentoring program is a pseudonym for the actual program to help protect confidentiality and anonymity of the organization. Juvenile progress was measured by how well a youth met their goals. Youth progress was classified as successful, progressing, or unsuccessful in relation to a juvenile's status. Juveniles who were successful either completed the program or completed at least 75% of their program goals. Juveniles who were progressing made progress towards their goals, but did not complete at least 75% of their goals. Juveniles who received an unsuccessful status did not show adequate progress, those youth did not uphold their responsibility to stay out of trouble. The theoretical framework was rational choice theory. Secondary data were collected from a sample of 49 juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program. Results of chi-square analyses showed that race was significantly associated with youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. No significant association was found between gender and youth progress. Findings may be used to strengthen adolescent deterrence programs and educate stakeholders regarding trends in juvenile delinquency and recidivism rates.

Effects of Race and Gender on Probability of Juvenile Delinquency Leading to Recidivism

by

Britney L. Smith

MPA, Kean University, 2015

BS, New Jersey City University, 2012

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2018

Dedication

This research is dedicated to several people, notably my mother, Evangeline Jones, and my husband, Ryeshem Smith, who have been my backbone throughout my PhD journey. They encouraged me and helped me persevere when I felt as if I wanted to give up. Somehow, they kept me sane. Without them, my strength throughout this endeavor would not have been possible, and I am forever indebted to them. Furthermore, I am dedicating this research to my sister, Andrea Bland, who passed away in 2012 due to cancer. She always encouraged me and said how proud she was of me. I know she is looking down on me and I am making her extremely proud. Lastly, I am dedicating this research to my younger brother, Quamir Jones, to whom I have been a positive role model. I continuously encourage him to pursue his education like others have supported me along the way, because I know firsthand how challenging the education journey can be! I want him to succeed, expand his intellectual horizons by testing his limits, and being the best he can be. I truly hope this research can make the world a better, safer, and more productive place for all to enjoy and thrive.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank God for bringing me this far in the dissertation process. I would also like to thank my chair, Dr. Ian B. Cole, for his support and guidance, wealth of knowledge, and time devoted to my research. I would also like to thank Dr. Tracey Phillips, my second committee member, for her guidance, support, and encouragement throughout my journey. In addition, I thank Daniel Jones, university research reviewer, for helping to strengthen my study. I also want to thank my mentor, Karen Wallace, for helping me get through the dissertation phase. She continued to encourage me on days I wanted to give up. I would like to acknowledge my best friend, Shaquana Tolbert, for her support and encouragement throughout my dissertation journey. Lastly, I would like to thank Jessica Massenat, who has been an asset along my journey, along with a host of other family and friends for their encouragement.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Many juvenile mentoring programs serve as intervention and prevention tools to reduce recidivism by deterring delinquency. According to Mayworm and Sharkey (2013), adolescent delinquency prevention services can play an essential role in how successful or unsuccessful youth will be after receiving services designed to help reduce their delinquency and recidivism. Tolan et al. (2013) noted that in 2011, the U.S. government dedicated an estimated $100 million to juvenile mentoring initiatives. The National Mentoring Partnership (2006) indicated that programs receiving this funding stimulated youth development and reduced risk. Effective programming is crucial to organizations' efforts to facilitate positive youth development and decrease recidivism rates (Mayworm & Sharkey, 2013). Mentoring programs must be tailored to meet the needs of the juveniles enrolled if they are to operate efficiently and effectively to reduce recidivism (Tolan et al., 2013).

According to Miller, Barnes, Miller, and McKinnon (2013), researchers have measured juvenile prevention and intervention programs by design, quality and delivery, experience and knowledge of staff, and strength of the administration's leadership and support. To date, researchers have not examined the race and gender of juveniles as variables in program effectiveness. In the current study, I examined whether race and gender affected juveniles' progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. The Future Generation mentoring program is a pseudonym for the actual program to help protect confidentiality and anonymity of the organization. Findings may help program leaders monitor the program's effectiveness and efficiency.

Chapter 1 provides background information related to the study. I describe the gap in knowledge and the importance of addressing this study. I explain the research problem and its relevance to many disciplines. I also describe the quantitative approach used and explained why it was chosen. In addition, I describe the theoretical framework and the way in which it aligned with the research question. I explain the rationale for the quantitative approach, identify study variables, and explain how data were collected and analyzed. I provide definitions of key terms used in the study, and I describe assumptions that were made in conducting it. In addressing the study's scope and delimitations, I discuss the problem through the lens of validity and reliability and explain the reason for the study's focus.

Background

Future Generation is a nonprofit program that was developed to impact the lives of youth representing various demographic groups. Future Generation was established to improve the lives of high-risk as well as low-risk juveniles and was founded on the principle that addressing the needs of youth may improve their life circumstances. Future Generation was established October 14, 2015 and is currently operating in a state located in the mid-Atlantic. As a prevention program, Future Generation was designed to reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism rates.

The Future Generation program targets specific populations of juveniles enrolled in grades Kindergarten through 12. Their services for youth include mentoring, prevention, and family development. The program also provides opportunities for college students to gain leadership training and development as well as internship experience.

Transitioning adult services include leadership and workforce development. The type of service that an individual receives from Future Generation depends on his or her needs. The organization's services for juveniles and adults were developed to provide better opportunities for pathways to success. The Future Generation program collects data on race, age, neighborhood context (rural, suburban, urban areas), gender, case status, and other aspects of a juvenile's life to determine overall program success. Participating juveniles' progress is measured by how well they meet their individual goals.

Future Generation is located in an urban area. The current study data from the Future Generation program included juveniles enrolled from January to December 2016. Future Generation (n.d.) is founded on the principle that daily outcomes are essential in measuring the effectiveness of juvenile mentoring programs and other programs tailored for juveniles. Studies have indicated a variety of ways to measure adolescent intervention and prevention programs. For example, Johnson, Hays, Center, and Daley (2004) identified several significant components of successful evidence-based programs (EBPs). Johnson et al. (as cited in Cooper, Bumbarger, & Moore, 2015) noted the importance of "structure and formal linkages to and among the needed administrative organizations that play a role in continued program implementation, program champions, resources, administrative policies and procedures, and program expertise" (p. 146). Although Cooper et al. (2015) referred to Johnson et al.'s planning model, which focuses on sustaining successful EBPs, additional research revealed an emerging strategy for countering youth delinquency and misconduct involving the implementation of mentorship programs (Miller et al., 2013). As an intervention and prevention program,

Future Generation provides mentees with positive guidance, feedback, and support. Furthermore, Future Generation helps to decrease delinquency leading to recidivism and to give program attendees opportunities to be successful in life. In the study, I examined the effectiveness of the Future Generation program to determine whether its curriculum reduces delinquency leading to recidivism.

Mentoring prevention and intervention programs include a variety of methods for evaluating their effectiveness. Tolan et al. (2013) emphasized the importance of determining the appropriate population of interest, establishing inclusion criteria, and providing skills and training to providers in mentoring programs. Matz (2014) explained that youth mentoring could produce desired outcomes, but success depends on which areas programs target. Bouffard, Bergseth, and Enriquez (2013) found that the level of success achieved by mentoring programs may be unclear in instances involving at-risk populations and young people in the juvenile justice or court system. Miller et al. (2013) found that mentoring was an effective tool for juvenile probationers, but had the opposite effect for repeat offenders; the type of mentoring makes a difference in determining unsuccessful or successful outcomes for juvenile probationers. For example, Miller et al. (2013) discussed a previous study conducted on a mentoring program targeting juveniles on probation in which results revealed that "re-arrest was three times higher for participants compared to a control group" (p. 443). This study indicated that mentoring was not useful for juveniles on probation classified as repeat offenders. Repeat offenders are juveniles convicted of a crime who commit the same crime repeatedly. Enriquez (as cited in Miller et al., 2013) found that the type of mentoring (i.e., one-on-one vs. group

mentoring) had the same effect on chronic offenders, and that recidivism rates would likely remain unchanged. Miller et al. (2013) determined that mentoring for at-risk youth is more successful when used as a delinquency prevention tool as opposed to a delinquency reduction tool. Blechman and Bopp (2005), Bouffard and Bergseth (2008), and Enriquez (2011) revealed that studies of mentoring programs for juvenile aftercare and reentry had indicated inconsistent results. Mayworm and Sharkey (2013) noted a need for more exploration and research on delinquency prevention tools to assess their effectiveness.

According to Matz (2014), evaluation and review of programs showed that specific groups described as vulnerable populations were identified as potentially benefiting from mentoring. Matz defined vulnerable individuals as "abused and neglected youth, youth with disabilities, pregnant and parenting adolescents, juvenile offenders, academically at-risk students, urban youth, youth with incarcerated parents, and youth with co-occurring risk factors" (p. 89). Matz alluded to the interaction of race with factors that render youth vulnerable, reporting that 11% of African-American children and 4% of Hispanic children have an incarcerated parent compared to less than 1% of White children. Factors affecting vulnerable populations, such as neighborhood context and ethnicity, have an impact on juvenile recidivism and delinquency rates (Caughy, Nettles, O'Campo, & Lohrfink, 2006; Davis & Stevenson, 2006; Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006; Hughes, Witherspoon, Rivas-Drake, & West-Bey, 2009; Zapolski et al., 2016). However, mentoring prevention and intervention programs

tailor their core curricula to the needs of juveniles enrolled in their services to provide opportunities for success.

Zapolski, Garcia, Jarjoura, Lau, and Aalsma (2016) conducted a study using culture variables and racial socialization to assess risk factors such as aggressive behavior in relation to juvenile offenders. The results showed that a history of delinquency and moral disengagement contributed to a significant variance in the likelihood of aggressive behaviors in youth (Zapolski et al., 2016). This finding applied only when risk factors such as delinquency history, moral disengagement, and social support were present. Zapolski et al. found an increase in aggressive behavior predictions when adding ethnic/racial socialization to the model, and found a higher level of mistrust was associated with delinquency history, moral disengagement, and social support. Delinquency history, moral disengagement, and social support are important factors predicting juvenile recidivism because patterns of behavior can predict actions (Zapolski et al., 2016). Juvenile prevention and intervention strategies are only effective when administrators understand which supports can make the most significant impact on reducing recidivism in juveniles (Zapolski et al., 2016).

According to Zapolski et al. (2016), literature on juvenile recidivism/offending has indicated diverse findings. Some studies indicated that juvenile recidivism is increasing (Seigle, Walsh, & Weber, as cited in Zapolski et al., 2016), whereas others have indicated that it is decreasing (Puzzanchera, as cited in Zapolski et al., 2016). A finding of an increase or decrease in recidivism can depend on factors such as population size/group, location, national vs. statewide data, and how recidivism is measured. For

example, Puzzanchera (as cited in Zapolski et al., 2016) noted that crimes committed by juveniles had declined over 20 years; however, Puzzanchera (as cited in Zapolski et al., 2016) did not identify the number of violent crimes. Seigle et al. (as cited in Zapolski et al., 2016) noted that juvenile offense rates remained high and national juvenile recidivism rates ranged from 50% to 80%. The way in which juvenile recidivism is measured can lead to different results reflecting an increase or decrease in juvenile offending rates.

Measuring intervention and prevention programs may lead to effective program development to meet the needs of the juveniles served. Wandersman and Florin (as cited in Kuklinski, Fagan, Hawkins, Briney, & Catalano, 2015) described how difficult it can be for programs to implement delinquency prevention tactics. Community-based programs for delinquency prevention have been shown to be cost effective, but when these programs do not produce desirable results, they can face reductions in funding and resources (Kuklinski et al., 2015). These modifications may, in turn, lead to an increase in youth delinquency and recidivism rates.

In cases where funding and resources are too scarce to address juvenile recidivism and delinquency efficiently, communities must be creative in their efforts to reduce negative behaviors in teenagers. Kuklinski et al. (2015) conducted a study aimed at partnering with communities to gain an understanding of why juveniles engage in specific behaviors. Similar Kuklinski et al.'s study, I partnered with districts to gain an understanding of adolescent behaviors and patterns to support the effectiveness of the Future Generation mentoring program. Understanding youth development can lead to successful prevention and intervention programs to deter juvenile delinquency and reduce

recidivism rates. However, measuring juvenile delinquency can be complex. According to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (2015), national data on juvenile recidivism do not exist because each state has a specific system for measuring recidivism.

Matz (2014) found that mentoring programs do not always work effectively to achieve desired outcomes related to delinquency and education, even if they are evidence based. Matz noted that although mentoring results are mostly positive, mentoring can produce negative results as well. Outcomes aligned with mentoring programs' goals include the length of time spent with mentees, the number of interactions between mentors and youths, and formal and ongoing training for mentors (Miller et al., 2013). Tolan et al. (2013) found that mentoring programs were linked with reductions in youth delinquency. However, it remains unclear what aspects or activities make mentoring effective (Miller et al., 2013). Miller et al. (2013), Matz (2014), and Cooper et al. (2015) noted that mentoring programs relate to positive outcomes for at-risk youth, but there has been limited research on program activities. Previous research has indicated a need for further studies on program activities, cultural influences on delinquency, and whether mentoring can be used to reduce juvenile recidivism. Race and gender were examined in the current study to determine whether these two variables impact youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. Findings may help current program administrators understand how to monitor and evaluate their program's effectiveness. Further, this study may improve awareness of how race and gender influence juveniles' progress.

Problem Statement

The U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs and the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention provide grant funding to a variety of recognized programs. The Office of Justice Programs (n.d.) "considers programs and practices to be evidence-based when their effectiveness has been demonstrated by causal evidence, generally obtained through high-quality outcome evaluations" (Evidence-based Programs, para. 1). The Boys and Girls Club Organization Adolescent Diversion Project, and Youth Corps are examples of government EBPs. These programs help with the following, mentoring, transitional, reentry, mental health, educational, and substance abuse services for juveniles to reduce delinquency and deviant behaviors. Programs registered through an LLC that provide mentoring and other services for at-risk youth to deter misconduct face several challenges. Several programs that benefit communities at a micro and macro level are not EBP because of the cost to transform and operate a company to meet U.S. government requirements for EBP. LLC programs that are not EBPs approved by the national government lack credibility in relation to program effectiveness for juveniles. It is crucial for outside entities or an individual not connected to an entity to evaluate program effectiveness. Effective programming should be attentive to the needs of the population served to create positive social change. Because Future Generation is not an EBP program according to government guidelines, the effectiveness of the program was unknown. The Office of Justice Programs (n.d.) showed that of the 487 programs studied, 92 were effective, 292 were promising, and 103 had no effect. The percentage of effective programs using EBP was less than 50%. This supported the

notion that programs not established as EBP should be evaluated for effectiveness. Program evaluations can be useful when there is no government oversight for an organization to make sure that agencies are creating solutions to address social problems for juveniles.

Miller et al. (2013) revealed that juvenile prevention and intervention programs usually look at program design, quality, delivery, experience, knowledge of staff, and the strength of administration's leadership and support when assessing the effectiveness of deterrence programs. None of the studies addressed youth progress as an element of effective deterrence for adolescents to help prevent delinquency and reduce recidivism rates. It was necessary to investigate the effectiveness of the Future Generation program by examining how race and gender impact juvenile progress and how the impact plays a role in the probability of reducing delinquency leading to recidivism. Individual juvenile progress was measured to assess the effectiveness of the Future Generation mentoring program and to determine whether it contributed to adolescent deterrence. The purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of the Future Generation program was to determine whether race and gender impacted program progress to reduce delinquency leading to recidivism for juveniles. At the time of the study, there had never been an evaluation of the Future Generation program (Future Generations president, personal communication, August 20, 2017). The results of this study may provide administrators with guidance to evaluate programs for efficiency in relation to the populations served. Findings may encourage the development of policies and strategy development for programs that serve as intervention and prevention tools to curb juvenile delinquency, recidivism, and deviant behaviors. In

addition, the results may help reduce youth delinquency and aberrant behavior so juveniles can return to their communities as law-abiding citizens.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the Future Generation mentoring program's effectiveness by examining the relationship between the dependent variable (youth progress) and the independent variables of race and gender. The Future Generation program is located in the mid-Atlantic. This program is an LLC that partners with local universities, colleges, high schools, and nonprofits, allowing the mentoring program to operate as a prevention tool. The study included a representative sample of all adolescents enrolled in the Future Generation program from 2016 onward, so the results of this study may be applicable in many different contexts. I used a quantitative approach to answer the research question.

Research Question and Hypotheses

To what extent does race and/or gender influence youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic?

H_0: Race and/or gender has no influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

H_a: Race and/or gender has an influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

Theoretical Framework

The framework for this study was Cornish and Clarke's rational choice theory (RCT). RCT helped me examine how juveniles' race and gender influence their progress

while enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program. RCT was used in studies addressing negative and positive impacts of mentoring on juveniles. RCT served as a foundation for this study to explain why juveniles make choices that align with their self-interest. Juveniles tend to have limited developmental capabilities due to their psychological, social, and biological development (Fagan & Piquero, 2007). According to Fagan and Piquero (2007), when a crime is involved, limited cognitive and developmental factors can be justification for a juvenile's limited ability to have control, reason, and make choices. Limited cognitive and developmental factors are often reasons why juveniles become delinquent, and many times delinquency leads to recidivism. Fagan and Piquero argued that the period when juvenile developmental cognitive abilities start to stabilize is during early adulthood. RCT provided the lens to examine how juvenile adolescent development influences juvenile decision-making and leads to delinquent and repeat offenders.

According to RCT, adolescent development plays a significant role in influencing adolescent decision-making. Adolescents can learn how to make better decisions through prevention and intervention programs such as mentoring (DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn, & Valentine, 2011; Portwood & Ayers, 2005; Rhodes and DuBois, 2008). RCT is also used to focus on system status (e.g., at-risk youth, court-involved youth) and race (Black, White, other) to determine their relationship to youth progress. Fagan and Piquero (2007) explained the importance of community engagement, which is why prevention and intervention programs are crucial for juvenile deterrence concerning criminal offending. RCT provided a lens to understand the relationship between

delinquency and behaviors associated with race and gender in determining outcomes for program effectiveness. RCT also helped to explain contributing factors of juvenile behavior influencing misconduct leading to recidivism and helped me understand the relationship between contributing factors and the impact of variables. Results of this study may be used to improve program development and make program modifications. Chapter 2 provides a more detailed explanation of how RCT was used in this study.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was quantitative. The independent variables were race (e.g., Black, White, other) and gender (e.g., male and female) of juveniles. The dependent variable was youth progress. The study's population included at-risk youth, truant youth, youth on probation, and youth referred from the Department of Social Services. The study's data were derived from the Future Generation mentoring program. The chi-square test of contingency was used to analyze the data from the Future Generation program. I employed a cross-sectional design. Creswell (2009) argued that quantitative researchers can use instruments for measurements and can analyze data using statistical procedures. The chi-square analysis indicated whether Future Generation mentoring contributed to youth progress, which reflected the effectiveness of the Future Generation mentoring program.

Definitions

Adjudication: According to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (n.d.), adjudication is the "judicial determination (judgment) that a juvenile is

responsible for the delinquency or status offense that is charged in a petition or other charging document" (para. 1).

At-risk youth: Youth subjected to disadvantages and negative life outcomes due to environmental and personal factors (Bouffard & Bergseth, 2008).

Collective efficacy: Individuals in neighborhoods working together to help reduce youth crime within their communities (Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls, 1997).

Gender: The classification of being a male or female pertaining to social and cultural differentiation rather than biological.

Juvenile: Any person under the age of 19 years.

Juvenile delinquency: Illegal behaviors or crimes committed by a minor.

Neglect: According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (as cited in Ryan, Williams, & Courtney, 2013), neglect is "failure by the caregiver to provide needed, age-appropriate care although financially able to do so or offered financial or other means to do so" (p. 455).

Post-release: The time after an offender is released from jail, prison, or a juvenile facility.

Youth progress: The case status of an individual making progress or not making progress while in the program.

Race: For the purposes of this study, race includes individuals from groups identified as Black, White, or other. The 'other' designation refers to individuals who did not report a racial designation or those who identify as more than one race.

Recidivism: Individuals who re-offend after a first offense.

Rural area: A rural area is any area located outside of cities and towns (*Rural area*, n.d).

Suburban area: Any residential setting located on the border of a city (*Suburban area*, n.d).

Urban area: A geographical area established as a city or town (*Urban area*, n.d).

Assumptions

One assumption surrounding this topic was that not all intervention and prevention-mentoring programs have success with deterring delinquency by pairing adolescents with supportive adults. Matz (2014) reported that program outcomes for mentoring vary for each youth. Measuring program effectiveness is based on how programs weigh their results for success. Matz argued that youth populations considered vulnerable can impact program outcomes because some juvenile populations are optimistic and others are skeptical about their future. Their attitude drives mentoring programs and results to determine program effectiveness.

In addition, not all mentoring intervention programs are successful. The assumption in this study was that the success of the Future Generation mentoring program was accurately measured. The success of mentoring programs depends on the criteria used to measure and evaluate those programs. Programs are likely to maintain successful outcomes when program directors understand how to sustain long-term success (Adelman & Taylor, 2003). A program director must determine a program participant's needs to have a higher chance of sustained program success.

The second assumption in this study was that the tools used by the Future Generation mentoring program to assess juvenile success and treatment for reducing recidivism and delinquency are accurate for determining program success. Risk assessments do not always produce reliable results even when completed by professionals. Slobogin (2013) found that programs use risk assessments to predict juvenile recidivism, but these evaluations are subject to significant error. Furthermore, program administrators assume that neighborhood conditions influence parental supervision and monitoring (Furstenberg, Cook, Eccles, & Elder, 1999). The assumptions of juvenile recidivism and mentoring helped to address unresolved issues in creating and maintaining effective delinquency deterrence programs.

Scope and Delimitations

The philosophical paradigm used in the study was post-positivist. According to Creswell (2009), "post-positivists hold a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes" (p. 7). Numerical instruments are used to analyze people's behaviors through observations and measurements (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative studies include a post-positivist paradigm "to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes" (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). The use of mentoring programs for juveniles as prevention and intervention tools continues to rise (Keating, Tomishima, Foster, & Alessandri, 2002). The literature on the topic of mentoring programs in relation to juvenile recidivism and delinquency has generally focused on organizational structure for measuring program outcomes, but has not addressed race and gender as factors for evaluating and measuring program effectiveness to determine whether mentoring

programs are successful in deterring juvenile recidivism. According to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (2015), rates of adolescent recurrence differ by states. Standards to measure the effectiveness of programs also vary by state. Because recidivism rates change from state to state, I focused on a state located in the mid-Atlantic to determine the effectiveness of a juvenile intervention prevention mentoring program operated by Future Generation. Examining causes of juvenile delinquency relating to recidivism helps directors evaluate and monitor their programs' curricula for efficiency and effectiveness to deter youth delinquency and reduce recidivism.

Limitations

There were several limitations in this study. Limitations of the cross-sectional design include secondary data, which can be inaccurate, leading to a loss of study credibility and reliability. Reconfirming the evaluation of data helped to address this limitation. Reconfirming data included making sure that the data collected were from a credible and reliable source or database. Ensuring the credibility and reliability of data from Future Generation consisted of verifying that the data collected were used for its intended purpose, and ensuring the individual releasing and preparing the data was authorized and approved. Reconfirming the data also consisted of confirming that the data related to the study's topic, and ensuring that the data were current (no older than five years before collection).

Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias, and DeWaard (2015) referred to cross-sectional studies as correlational studies. Cross-sectional or correlational studies illustrate "relationships between variables" (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015, p. 106); cross-

sectional designs cannot be used to determine cause and effect of results or outcomes. The cross-sectional design used in this study was a limitation because the data collected included data for a specific point compared to a longitudinal design, which extends beyond a single point in time.

This study also had limitations related to the independent variables of race and gender. The race variable in this study include a category called *other*, which referred to any race not explicitly included in this study. Therefore, the race data may not represent everyone in each population specifically. I addressed this limitation by recording which individuals identified as being more than one race using the variable "other" to make a distinction for interpretation purposes.

Another limitation involved gender roles. Although gender roles were specified during the intake process when applying to the Future Generation program (see Appendix A for gender options), gender roles dictate how socially-appropriate females and males should behave. On the referral form, some providers completing the referral form may have identified juveniles as male or female. However, youth may have had a different perspective of which gender role they identified with other than male or female, which was not classified on the referral form for Future Generation. Therefore, the gender data may not be representative of everyone in each population accurately due to providers limiting the options on the intake form. A youth may not want to be honest about what he or she genuinely identifies as due to embarrassment, shame, parental consequences, or other people's opinions. Addressing this issue was challenging because the data were secondary. The secondary data on gender were collected from providers, parents, and

juveniles during the intake process of enrollment. Ultimately, the referral form needs to be submitted by a provider from an organization or agency (e.g., social services, school, court system, case management organization).

This study accounted for only two race groups and a category labeled as unknown, which included juveniles who identified with more than one race. The identification of race in the current study was dependent on the secondary data. The classification of race was not altered to reflect anything different from the secondary data obtained from Future Generation. The classification of race and gender was used with caution when determining whether the Future Generation mentoring program was useful for at-risk youth to help reduce delinquency.

Significance

Program administrators for juvenile mentoring intervention and prevention programs must continuously evaluate program performance to deter youth delinquency and reduce recidivism rates. Improving program effectiveness depends on awareness and tactics for meeting the needs of juveniles struggling with a range of issues within their communities. This study contributed to existing literature by providing an understanding of why juveniles become delinquent and recidivate so that program administrators can improve program outcomes. Educating individuals regarding program effectiveness and recidivism rates contributed to advancing knowledge in the social sciences and related fields. Filling the gap in the literature consisted of determining whether race and gender had an impact on the progress of youth. Understanding the causes of delinquency leading to recidivism may lead to the development of effective programming. This study

produced results that addressed the effectiveness of the Future Generation program to indicate whether the program was effective in deterring delinquency. Findings may help current prevention and intervention program administrators monitor and evaluate their programs. Findings also addressed how gender and race may play a role in influencing delinquency leading to recidivism.

Summary

Tailoring programs to meet the needs of juvenile populations is vital in reducing juvenile recidivism. It is essential to understand why juveniles engage in delinquency and behave the way they do. Studies have been inconclusive regarding whether juvenile prevention and intervention programs are effective in reducing delinquency and recidivism. Researchers had not considered factors such as race and gender when measuring program effectiveness. To operate successful juvenile prevention and intervention programs to reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism, program administrators must understand the extent of youth development issues. I used a quantitative cross-sectional design to determine whether the Future Generation mentoring program reduced delinquency leading to recidivism. In Chapter 2, I review the literature related to the study topic.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Studies have shown that mentoring programs can help deter juvenile delinquency and reduce recidivism rates. According to Miller et al. (2013), the U.S. Department of Justice articulated a need for further research examining evidence-based mentoring programs to determine best practices for prevention and intervention to deter delinquency and recidivism. Researchers have addressed the organizational structure of mentoring programs to assess program effectiveness; however, researchers have not addressed gender or race as influences on juvenile delinquency leading to increased recidivism. The purpose of this quantitative cross-sectional study was to add to the knowledge base about how gender and race affect juvenile delinquency leading to recidivism and whether the Future Generation mentoring program is effective in reducing delinquency. The theoretical framework of rational choice theory (RCT) was used to frame this study. Chapter 2 presents a detailed review of the literature surrounding this study's subject.

Literature Search Strategy

Walden University's electronic database served as the research platform providing peer-reviewed literature, PDF files, full-text articles, scholarly journals, books, and dissertations on this study's topic, with an emphasis on research from 2011 to 2016. Other sources included ProQuest Criminal Justice, SAGE Premier, Future Generation, the Crime Solutions government website, and EBSCOhost. Table 1 shows the search terms used to retrieve literature on this topic.

Table 1

Research Terms

• Juvenile offending by race • Youth delinquency • Neighborhood youth crime • Rural youth crime • Rural communities • Risk factors of juvenile recidivism • Juvenile mentoring prevention programs • Prevention mentoring programs • Gendered juvenile offending • Youth reoffending	• Youth deterrence • Juvenile mentoring intervention • Predictors of juvenile crime • Cultural and juvenile crime • Juvenile crime how intervention programs help • Evaluation of mentoring programs • Program evaluations • Causes of recidivism • Juveniles committing crime	• Juvenile recidivism rates • Mentoring program effectiveness • Juvenile reoffending • Reducing delinquency • Mentoring program improvement • Mentoring for Juveniles • Intervention juvenile programs • Influences of juvenile delinquency • Mentoring programs reduce delinquency

Theoretical Foundation

Creswell (2009) explained theory as a means of explaining occurrences in modern society. Rational choice theory (RCT) is used to explain the rationale behind juvenile behaviors and criminal offending. Paternoster (1989) described RCT as a decision-making and choice model but iterated that decisions and choices do not always involve complete information before individuals make a choice or act on their choice. RCT helps to clarify why juveniles engage in illegal activity even after weighing the potential benefits because of acting in their self-interest. RCT was developed in the late 18th century originating with Beccaria's work. According to Akers (1990), RCT derived from the field of economics, but throughout the years has spread to other disciplines such as criminology, sociology, political science, and law. The theory has become popular for

examining criminal offending and recidivism because its approach to econometric modeling allows researchers to test models of criminal behavior along with the criminal justice system (Akers, 1990). According to Akers, "rational choice did not enter criminology primarily as research or theory on deterrence; instead, it was first through economic analysis of crime" (pp. 654-655). Economics became involved because the monetary benefits of crime may outweigh the consequences or punishment associated with it.

Cornish and Clarke (1986) contributed to the development of RCT. The assumption found in Cornish and Clarke's model is the following:

> offenders seek to benefit themselves by their criminal behavior; that this involves the making of decisions and choices, however rudimentary on occasion these processes might be; and that these processes exhibit a measure of rationality, albeit constrained by limits of time and ability and the availability of relevant information (p. 1).

RCT allows individuals to exercise some control (e.g., rational thinking, decision making) although the planning and thought process is not perfect. RCT involves individuals finding ways to benefit their self-interest through sound decision-making.

RCT has been used differently by theorists and scientists to explain criminal activity. Carroll and Weaver (1986) examined how experienced and inexperienced shoplifters thought about crime opportunities. Evidence revealed that shoplifters heavily considered their choice to steal and developed a strategy prior to committing the crime (Carroll & Weaver, 1986). Bennett (as cited in Akers, 1990) used RCT in his work on

opiate addiction. Although the researcher did not include a section on crime, Bennett (as cited in Akers, 1990) suggested that addicts employ rational decision-making as part of their addiction; evidence showed that people who abuse opiates were able to control their use. According to Bennett (as cited in Akers, 1990), "there was minimal compulsion, irrationality…or mindlessness in the decision to take the drug" (p. 663). However, tests showed that although addicts may be addicted to opiates and may control opiates sometimes, the decision-making rationale was insufficient.

Lattimore and Witte (as cited in Akers, 1990) argued that the RCT model is not sufficient because of the limited cognitive abilities, quick decision-making, inconsistent values based on self-interest, and other limitations in relation to rational actions. Lattimore and Witte (1986) and Fagan and Piquero (2007) both described RCT as involving some type of limited cognitive ability regarding criminal activity and noncriminal activity. Lattimore and Witte, as well as Fagan and Piquero, agreed on the importance of prevention and intervention strategies. Juveniles' limited capacity to think rationally about certain things can be detrimental to their futures.

RCT adds to the knowledge base on juvenile behavior to help explain how poor choices made by youth can lead to juvenile delinquency. Mentoring programs can help foster positivity and give youths opportunities to think logically and develop their maturity. Mentoring programs can help youths make better decisions for themselves. Mentoring programs can help juveniles learn skills that can help them plan better and make decisions that will impact them positively. RCT was used in the present study to

frame an understanding of program outcomes to determine whether the Future Generation program was useful in deterring juvenile delinquency and recidivism.

Juvenile Delinquency and Recidivism

Many intervention and prevention programs view recidivism as a major issue among their juvenile participants. Program administrators attempt to understand why juveniles engage in delinquent behaviors which lead to recidivism. Recent studies have verified that mentoring programs can effectively intervene and prevent delinquency; however, Miller et al. (2013) found that mentoring produced more favorable results as a prevention tool than as a tool for reducing juvenile offending. It is crucial for mentoring programs to monitor and evaluate program effectiveness to ensure services remain beneficial to the target population (Snyder & Mulako-Wangota, 2016). Program evaluations allow program administrators to tailor the program structure according to the population served.

In 2012, approximately 1.3 million youth under the age of 18 were arrested for a variety of crime and delinquency offenses (Snyder, & Mulako-Wangota, 2016). Thompson and Morris (2013) detailed juvenile detention and arrest rates as primary issues surrounding juvenile delinquency. In their study, Thompson and Morris explored risk factors linked to recidivism such as level of education, pattern of offenses, and youth demographics. The researchers surveyed a total of 3,287 Arizona juveniles ages 8-17 years old who were classified as delinquents. The juveniles included first-time offenders and repeat offenders arrested between one and fifty-four times for minor or severe offenses. Demographic risk factors included ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and issues

with social services agencies. Results revealed that female juveniles were more likely to have only one offense as opposed to males, who were likely to have six or more offenses. The researchers also found that emotional disability was an influential factor in predicting recidivism.

Previous studies revealed that incarceration of a parent could impact delinquency and recidivism rates of juveniles. Merenstein, Tyson, Tilles, Keays, and Rufflolo (2011) explored how parent incarceration affected youth behavior. The researchers used mentoring as an intervention tool for juveniles with an incarcerated parent. Merenstein et al. gathered observational data communicated by the child and their caregivers. The information gleaned from youth and their caregivers was used to address youth issues that could potentially lead to criminal behavior. To efficiently address youth recidivism in mentoring programs, the researchers recommended that program facilitators continuously evaluate constraints and implementation to promote program effectiveness. Continued research on the emotional and psychological effects of incarcerated parents can help mentoring programs address youth recidivism through appropriate program operations.

Villettaz, Gilliéron, and Killias (2015) conducted a study to determine the effectiveness of custodial or non-custodial sanctions on youth recidivism. Custodial sanctions represent places where youth can be confined such as youth detention centers and boot camps; non-custodial sanctions are community-based alternatives to these spaces (Villettaz et al., 2015). The authors revealed that noncustodial alternatives had a more positive impact on youth recidivism than custodial sanctions. Despite this finding,

the authors determined that a weakness in comparing the two sanctions was that both sanctions were biased. Bales and Piqueiro's 2012 study (as cited in Villettaz et al., 2015), stated, "the main problem in this area of research is that individuals sentenced to prison differ in fundamental ways from those individuals who receive a non-custodial sanction" (p. 97). The methodology of the study may have influenced the study's outcome. According to Villettaz et al. (2015), studies that utilized a quasi-experimental design revealed that custodial sanctions resulted in higher rates of recidivism than non-custodial sanctions; in contrast, results from experimental studies indicated no difference in recidivism rates for juveniles who received custodial versus non-custodial sanctions.

Abuse has a significant impact on the disruption of adolescent and teenage development (Watkins, 2011). Ryan et al. (2013) and Watkins (2011) both found that child abuse and neglect are prominent predictors of juvenile delinquency. Watkins' (2011) analysis of juvenile arrest rates revealed that over 30% of females and approximately 15% of males were victims of abuse by others. Additionally, youth who had a history of physical abuse experienced issues later in life such as mental health issues, drug abuse issues, decreased social relationships, poor social interactions with others, suicide, and victimization (Watkins, 2011). Watkins also discovered that over 20% of female juveniles and approximately 15% of male juveniles physically abused others. Vaughan (2012) noted that some juveniles offend for fun or to express their emotions.

Recent research found that incarcerated juveniles are likely to reoffend within two years after release. Miller et al. (2013) discussed that mentoring programs could cater to a

wide variety of needs to help reduce delinquency and recidivism in juveniles. Vaughan (2012) explained how some interest groups favored harsh treatments and believed these treatments would help minimize juvenile recidivism; others argued that determining the underlying factors of recidivism represented a better solution to decreasing or preventing delinquency. Juvenile programs with structures to help educate juveniles and teach juveniles how to handle real-life situations could reduce recidivism by at least 14% (Vaughan, 2012). Bazron, Brock, Read, and Segal (2006), DuBois et al. (2011), and Laakso and Nygaard (2007) agreed that mentoring programs focused on reducing delinquency could contribute to social, emotional, and attitudinal changes. Mentoring can be useful in addressing a variety of different needs for juveniles that may reduce reoffending.

Predictors of Juvenile Recidivism

Many researchers have investigated possible predictors of juvenile recidivism to inform the development and implementation of intervention and prevention strategies. According to Ryan, Williams, and Cortney (2013), juvenile offenses and recidivism represent a public health concern. Ryan et al. discovered that maltreatment and neglect are two primary predictors of juvenile offending and recidivism. Approximately one-third of girls admitted into the juvenile justice system were found to have a history of child welfare involvement. Results indicated that 51% of youth dually involved in the child welfare and the juvenile justice system and 49% of youth considered delinquent recidivate. Based on Ryan et al.'s findings, there is a need for collaboration between child welfare agencies and the juvenile justice system to decrease recidivism. Additionally,

potential risk areas such as child neglect and prior adjudication should be targeted for intervention purposes. Mentoring programs can tailor services towards the needs of juveniles to help reduce recidivism and juvenile offending (Matz, 2014).

Joo and Jo (2015) conducted a study that examined how family, school, and peers impact recidivism in juvenile offenders from South Korea. The authors sought to determine whether school, peers, and family influence rates of recidivism for South Korean juvenile offenders. Researchers analyzed the event histories of 9,988 juvenile offenders to track how soon juveniles reentered the juvenile justice system after release. Results indicated that juveniles who experienced undesirable school results were more likely to re-offend. Findings also indicated no significant impact of peers and family on juvenile recidivism. According to Joo and Jo, future studies should include variables that focus on the "supervision on children, amount of time spent with children, or congruence in cultural values may yield different findings" (pp. 113-114).

Heretick and Russell (2013) identified mental health diagnosis as an additional predictor of juvenile recidivism. According to Hammond (2007), 70% of juveniles who enter the juvenile justice system were identified to have at least one mental health diagnosis. Heretick and Russell (2013) conducted a study to determine the impact of juvenile mental health courts (JMHC) on recidivism rates. JMHC is a court-appointed program that provides treatment to juveniles diagnosed with mental health disorders using non-adversarial tactics (McNiel and Binder, 2007). The voluntary program involves collaboration between youth and their families; therefore, guardian support is important while youth are in treatment. Heretick and Russell compared the recidivism outcomes of

81 youths who entered a JMHC in Colorado between 2005 and 2011 with the recidivism outcomes of juveniles who entered a JMHC in California during the same time period. Results indicated that juveniles who received JMHC services showed a significant decrease in recidivism rates. The average recidivism time for JMHC program participants exceeded one year after program entry. Results also indicated a reduction in violent, property, and aggressive offenses among JHMC participants.

Van Wormer and Campbell (2016) conducted a program evaluation study of the FAST program, a juvenile detention alternative program for juveniles who violated their probation terms, to determine its effectiveness in reducing juvenile recidivism. The intent of the FAST program was to reduce juvenile detention visits and juvenile reoffending rates for probationers. The FAST program offered sessions on "accountability skill development to address targeted criminogenic needs instead of a formalized hearing and a subsequent stay in detention" (p. 12). The researchers utilized measures of age, race/ethnicity, county of residence, and sex to determine the FAST program's effectiveness in reducing juvenile recidivism in 124 participating youth. Results indicated that the program was unsuccessful in decreasing juvenile recidivism and reducing future probation violations. Community alternatives and additional treatment sessions were recommended for further research.

Mentoring Programs' Structures

A variety of mentoring programs have been used as intervention and prevention initiatives to reduce recidivism and deter delinquency. Mentoring consists of a formal or informal relationship between an adult (the mentor) and a juvenile (the mentee).

Mentoring can foster positive youth development and keep mentees out of trouble in school, home, and their community. Rhodes and DuBois (2008) described mentoring relationships as using "different practices that would be expected to promote the types of close, enduring, and developmentally enriching relationships that are highlighted as desirable by the preceding theory and research" (p. 256). Mentors are individuals who have positive interactions with a youth helping to foster healthy development. Mentors can include teachers, parents, counselors, spiritual leaders, coaches, family members, or neighbors.

There are two primary types of mentoring programs: site-based mentoring programs and community-based mentoring programs. Site-based mentoring programs are sponsored by schools, faith-based organization, or local community service clubs that utilize either paid employees or volunteers as mentors (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2006; DuBois & Karcher, 2005). Activities for site-based mentoring are "highly structured, may be group oriented, involve little or no interaction outside program functions, and relationships are often short-lived" (Miller et al., 2013, p. 441).

Community-based mentoring programs tend to employ one-on-one mentoring relationships where mentors and mentees participate in less-structured activities within the community. Mentoring requirements are more flexible within community-based programs; however, a one-year commitment is recommended to build a longer-term relationship between mentors and mentees (DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn, & Valentine, 2011; Portwood & Ayers, 2005).

Impact of Race on Mentoring

Since the 1800s, judicial staff have used mentoring to guide and monitor juvenile offenders (Matz, 2014). Researchers discovered that the first juvenile court in Chicago implemented mentoring to divert youths from institutionalization (Matz, 2014; Tanenhaus, 2004). However, youth of color are overrepresented in the juvenile justice system. Fortune (2014) found that recidivism rates for the African American population in California is 64% -- the highest recidivism rate compared to other ethnicities and races. However, Fortune (2014) contended that previous research has shown that mentoring can be effective for African American youth to reduce delinquency and recidivism. Mentorship is a protective factor that can foster positivity in youth to counter thoughts of delinquency.

Fortune (2014) explored the perspectives of African American male juveniles to understand the impact of mentoring on the Sons of the System (SOS) population. The population used in this study included ten male juveniles between the ages of 13-17 years of age who participated in the SOS program. All ten participating juveniles spent some time during their childhood in the foster care system. Findings indicated that programs used to counter delinquency and reduce recidivism are crucial to the lives of juveniles. Findings also indicated that juveniles can benefit from their entry in the juvenile justice system because they can receive services geared towards improving their lives. The experiences of juveniles who participated in this study highlighted the ways in which youth can learn from their mistakes.

Recommendations from Fortune's (2014) study included the possible exploration of the at-risk female juvenile population along with juveniles of other races and ethnicities. Fortune also recommended studying the behaviors of juvenile probation officers and detention staff to better understanding their perspectives of youth in custody. One limitation of the study was that juveniles had varying conceptualizations of mentoring. As a result, Fortune's work revealed the perspectives of youth and what mentoring meant to them and not from the perspectives of program administrators. Risk and needs assessments are critical to inform the implementation of best practices and reduce youth offending (Slobogin, 2013).

According to Mennis et al. (2011), intervention programs can reduce juvenile delinquency by meeting the needs of youth. Lipsey (1999) and Lipsey and Wilson's (1998) previous quantitative statistical analyses discovered that the successes of intervention and prevention programs and program effectiveness differ when institutional and non-institutional programs are compared. Lipsey and Wilson reviewed and tested 200 programs for juvenile offenders and found that community-based programs had a greater effect on juvenile recidivism than institutional programs.

Harris, Mennis, Obradovic, Izenman, and Grunwald (2011) examined neighborhood influences on juvenile recidivism in Philadelphia and found the importance of policy and program evaluation on juvenile recidivism. Mears and Travis (2004) indicated that national re-arrest rates were as high as 66%. Findings in Mennis et al. (2011) determined that poverty and violent crime are strong predictors of juvenile recidivism.

Predictive Factors of Juvenile Offending

According to Robison et al. (2016), previous studies have shown that prior contact with the juvenile justice system is a strong predictor for future juvenile justice involvement. The influence of demographic, geographic and school-related factors are important to understanding the choice to commit a crime and the severity of offenses. There is a lack of consistent research on the topic of African American male criminality rates (Robison et al., 2016). For example, Chung, Little, and Steinberg (2002) discovered that race was not a significant predictor of juvenile crime. However, Barrett, Katsiyannis, and Zhang (2006) found that violent offenses were more likely committed by African American males than Caucasian males.

The purpose of Robison et al. (2016) was to examine how predictor factors for juvenile offending impacted youth from Louisiana, which is known to have one of the highest poverty rates in the nation. The sample used in this study included juveniles from the juvenile database maintained by the Louisiana Department of Education (LADOE) and the Louisiana Office of Juvenile Justice (LAOJJ). The sample also included students from Louisiana's public schools. Results indicated that major predictors of juvenile offenses are school expulsion, male gender, poor school performance, and prior contact with the juvenile justice system. Findings revealed that "being male matters more as the severity of the offense increases" (Robison et al., 2016, p. 44).

According to Robison et al. (2016), the root of behavior issues may be found in homes and communities. Therefore, prevention and intervention programs are crucial tools for reducing delinquency and juvenile recidivism. Targeted interventions for

African American males was recommended. One limitation of this study was that the participants outside of the juvenile justice system was not a representative sample of the population. Despite the limitations of the study, further research is recommended to expand the current body of knowledge on race and juvenile recidivism.

Program at a Glance (n.d), evaluated programs geared towards juvenile crime prevention and intervention. The statistical results of Program at a Glance (n.d), indicated that 19% of programs had no effect, 61% of programs may have had some effect, and only 20% of the programs were effective. Careful development and implementation of programs are necessary to provide juveniles with the best opportunity for success after offense.

Positive Impact of Mentoring on At-Risk Youth

Wesely, Dzoba, Miller, and Rasche (2017) detailed mentoring as an intervention strategy for at-risk youth and youth involved in the juvenile justice system to help decrease delinquency and misconduct. Blechman (1992) and Rhodes and Lowe (2008, as cited in Wesely et al., 2017) believed that at-risk juveniles can overcome negativity when there is at least one caring adult in their lives. Wesely et al. (2017) used a qualitative approach to examine how mentors perceived and responded to mentee strain. In this study, strain was identified as "one way to conceptualize the detrimental conditions and events in the lives of at-risk youth" (Wesely et al., 2017, p. 201). Thirteen mentors from a national mentoring program participated in this study along with juveniles from two middle schools from the Scholastic Mentoring Program (SMP). Results showed that SMP altered youth perceptions. Results also revealed that home environment and relationships

were primary causes of strain in the lives of participating juveniles. Davis-Kean (2005) and Sirin (2005) detailed that home stressors impact school performance. Wesely et al. (2017) extended these works to find that stressors at home could lead to juvenile delinquency; however, how mentors respond to mentee strain can impact mentee success. Based on their findings, Wesely et al. recommended future studies that consider observational techniques to determine which factors most align with mentorship to improve behavioral outcomes for at-risk youth.

Mentor-mentee relationships are key to mentee success. As such, it is important for mentoring programs to evaluate their programs for effective mentor-mentee matches. For example, ineffective mentors may need additional training but limited opportunities to evaluate mentor performance will restrict opportunities to provide feedback on mentors' abilities to effectively serve juveniles in need. Evaluation was necessary for the Future Generation program to determine the likelihood of juvenile deterrence from delinquency and recidivism.

Mentoring and Importance of Service Delivery

According to Vergara, Kathuria, Woodmass, Janke, and Wells (2016), juvenile service providers has taken countless efforts to increase the cultural competence of its employees and the services they provide at a disproportionate rate to minority juveniles. The U.S. and Canada continues to struggle with the adaptation of culturally-responsive policies to ensure equitable treatment for minorities. Vergara et al. (2016) examined and analyzed the impact of cultural adaption and how cultural adaption may enhance the appropriateness of culture and linguistics of service delivery within the juvenile justice

system. The National Criminal Justice Reference Service, an online literature database used by all justice offices within the U.S. government, was used as the primary source for articles used for the meta-analysis. Findings indicated that studies which addressed cultural competence focused primarily on service delivery for prevention and treatment. Three factors – the needs of impacted juveniles, program responsivity, and the risk principal – were found to reduce juvenile recidivism and contact with the juvenile justice system. Findings also indicated the importance of community mentoring to reduce risk reduction by "supporting the social needs of disadvantaged youth by boosting their positive behaviors and attitudes" (Vergara et al., 2016, p. 96). Based on this study's findings, the authors recommended future studies that include an isolated evaluation of cultural components instead of using what states consider to be level changes in recidivism after "large-scale policy modifications/introductions" (Vergara et al., 2016, p. 98). In improving program outcomes related to the effectiveness of cultural adaptation and recidivism, programs should evaluate their offerings and ensure their services are appropriate for the targeted population. The current study examined the impact of the Future Generation mentoring program on juvenile delinquency and recidivism by assessing individual progress for juveniles who participated in the program.

Cultural Influence on Juvenile Delinquency

The federal government has granted over $100 million to mentoring initiatives; however, recidivism rates remain above 50% (DuBois et al., 2011; Tolan et al., 2013; Zapolski et al., 2016). Researchers have determined that culture is a predictor of juvenile recidivism (Caughy, Nettles, O'Campo, & Lohrfink, 2006; Davis & Stevenson, 2006;

Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006; Hughes, Witherspoon, Rivas-Drake, & West-Bey, 2009; Zapolski et al., 2016). Vergara et al. (2016) affirmed that cultural competence in service delivery can impact juvenile recidivism. Zapolski et al. (2016) focused on the relationship between cultural factors and violence & aggression. Factors correlating to violence and aggression included juveniles' history of delinquency, moral disengagement, and strength of social network supports (Zapolski et al., 2016).

Future Generation Program Review

The Future Generation mentoring program provides transitional services to court-involved youth to reduce recidivism, improve community safety, and allow an easier transition to life outside of the juvenile justice system. Future Generation is a community-based mentoring program dedicated to serving at-risk juveniles from various demographics through prevention and intervention services. The mission of Future Generation is to work as a collaborative team with the court system, youth, and their families to fill the systematic gaps that create barriers for juveniles, college students, and transitioning adults from reaching their fullest potentials (Future Generation, n.d.). According to Future Generation, "we do this through an intentional focus on character, leadership and professional development, supported by preventative services" (p. 1). The need for prevention and intervention services are inevitable in one of the states located in the mid-Atlantic, which is why the development of Future Generation came about for juveniles and transitioning adults.

Summary

Research has proven that intervention and prevention tools help reduce delinquency and recidivism. Factors contributing to delinquency and recidivism include juvenile incarceration, maltreatment, family disruption, race, cultural relevance of programming, and gender. Other studies revealed that mentoring deterrence programs are less effective in reducing recidivism than in preventing first offenses.

The current examined the Future Generation mentoring program to add to the knowledge base on factors influencing delinquency and recidivism. Further research regarding the connection of race and gender to program outcomes will help intervention and prevention programs understand other potential factors of recidivism. The variables in this study are race (Black, White, and other) and gender (male and female). Cornish and Clarke's rational choice theory (1987) provided the theoretical framework for the current study, clarifying the correlation of race and gender with program progress to determine program effectiveness in reducing delinquency and recidivism.

Chapter 2 presented a summary of the literature surrounding race, gender, the importance of service delivery, cultural influences, mentoring impact, and predictive factors related to juvenile delinquency and recidivism. The chapter also highlighted causes of juvenile delinquency and recidivism, as well as the existing body of literature on mentorship, prevention, and intervention services. It is important to understand why juvenile re-offend during and after treatment to provide effective and efficient programming to juveniles.

In Chapter 3, I outline the purpose of this study and the variables used to measure the effectiveness of the Future Generation mentoring program. I provide an overview the research design and how it aligns with the study's research questions. I also clarify the target population, effect size, and sample size for the study. I close the chapter with a discussion of the data collection and analysis protocols, threats to validity and reliability, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Mentoring programs are crucial intervention and prevention tools to help reduce delinquency and juvenile recidivism. Evaluating mentoring programs used to counter delinquency is vital to youth development and well-being. The purpose of this study was to enhance the current understanding of why juveniles recidivate by considering the additional factors of race and gender. Findings may clarify risk factors and provide new ideas for how to reach at-risk youth and tailor mentoring initiatives to address these factors.

Research Question and Hypotheses

This study addressed the following research question:

To what extent does race and/or gender influence youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic?

H_0: Race and/or gender has no influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

H_a: Race and/or gender has an influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

Research Design and Rationale

I used a quantitative cross-sectional design to investigate the relationship between the independent variables (race and gender) and the dependent variable (youth progress) to determine whether the Future Generation mentoring program was effective in achieving successful program outcomes for juveniles. Creswell (2009) noted that a quantitative approach is used to examine a relationship between variables for

measurement purposes. The study was conducted to examine how the Future Generation mentoring program addresses race and gender for juveniles living in suburban, rural, and urban communities. If the relationship between the independent and dependent variables was significant, this would indicate that the Future Generation mentoring program was effectively deterring delinquency leading to recidivism for juveniles. If the relationship between the variables was not significant, this would indicate that the Future Generation mentoring program was not effective in deterring delinquency leading to recidivism for juveniles. The President of Future Generation provided secondary data to help me measure the relationship between the variables.

A qualitative approach was not appropriate because the research question required quantitative data. According to Creswell (2009), a qualitative approach focuses on "exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribed to a social or human problem" (p. 4). I examined the relationship between variables that contributed to program outcomes. Previous researchers used quantitative approaches to examine program effectiveness when measuring a large population, so my design choice was consistent with previous contributions to the literature. The design choice was also relevant to advancing knowledge because current methods to evaluate intervention and prevention programs involve correlational studies to determine probability of effectiveness.

Methodology

This study addressed the following research question: To what extent does race and gender influence youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation

mentoring program located in a mid-Atlantic state? The secondary data included juveniles 8 to 18 years of age. The secondary data included the independent variables for gender (male and female) and race (Black, White, other). The dependent variable youth progress (e.g., progressing, successful, unsuccessful) was included in the secondary data collected. The Future Generation mentoring program defines progress as the willingness to consistently achieve goals that have been set by the governing board. Youths categorized as progressed have shown consistent progress in reaching the goals over a period of time. Future Generation defines unsuccessful as not showing adequate progress in the program. Unsuccessful youth have either not taken to the program or have not upheld their responsibilities in the program to stay out of trouble. Not upholding their part of the agreement may mean that youth end up getting arrested by their probation officer, moved from their natural home into a foster home, or moved out of their current school into a specialized school. Future Generation defines successful as completing the program or completing 75% of the goals for completion.

The types of juveniles enrolled in the program have classifications as to why they are receiving services or how they are referred to the program. The three classifications associated with each youth enrolled in the Future Generation program are truancy, probation, and Department of Social Services (DSS). According to Future Generation, truancy clients receive services because of school attendance issues. Probation clients receive services because of legal trouble with the court service unit. DSS clients are in foster care, foster care prevention, or Child Protective Services. The effectiveness of the Future Generation program involves how gender and race impact youths' progress while

enrolled in the program. Examining how race and gender are associated with the probability of delinquency leading to recidivism was the purpose of this study. Findings may help administrators evaluate and monitor their programs for effectiveness.

Measuring program progress included looking at the results for the number of successful or unsuccessful youth and the number of youth progressing from January 2016 to December 2016. Looking at the gender results to determine whether males or females have a higher rate of youth progressing helped to assess the effectiveness of the program. Next, looking at which race group had the highest percentage of youth progressing indicated how race could influence youth progress. Looking at the highest percentages of youth progressing showed how race and gender influenced youth progress in the Future Generation program.

Population and Sampling

This study's independent variables include juveniles' race (Black, White, and other) and gender (male and female). The dependent variable in this study is youth progress. Race and gender are used to determine the impact of effectiveness for the Future Generation mentoring program. The sample included 49 juveniles enrolled in the program from January 2016 to December 2016. I used a nonprobability sample design to sample the secondary data. This method used purposive sampling technique within a nonprobability sampling frame. Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015) detailed purposive sampling as a judgment sampling which allows the researcher to decide the sampling unit necessary for a study. Purposive sampling was best to use because this study sampled only juveniles receiving mentoring services within the program. However, it is important

to note that Future Generation provides mentoring services to adults as well. According to Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015), purposive sampling units are selected "that appear to be representative of the population" (p. 149). Since the focus of the study was on juvenile progress, only youth ages 8-18 were included in the purposeful sample. My analysis of the secondary data helped determine the extent to which race and gender correlated with youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program.

I used secondary data to determine whether the Future Generation mentoring program was effective in reducing delinquency and recidivism among juvenile participants. The data measured individual program progress to establish the program's probability of success in reducing recidivism rates and validate the program's effectiveness. The primary focus of this study was to determine program effectiveness by considering the factors of race and gender. I used the chi-square test of contingency to analyze and interpret the correlation between the dependent variable of youth progress and the independent variables of race and gender.

According to Field (2013), the formula to determine the effect size is $k/(N-1)$. Results are most accurate when the sample size is large (Field, 2013). However, because I used secondary data for my analysis, the sample included all 49 juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program. Despite the small sample size, effect size remained essential. Therefore, this study used a large effect size $r^2=.5$, critical $\chi^2= 6.0$ and a sample of 49 juveniles who received mentoring through the Future Generation program.

Data Justification and Explanation

I used juvenile progress data from January 2016 to December 2016 for the current study. The selected date range aligned with one year of participation in the Future Generation mentoring program. A total of 72 individuals were enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program between January 2016 and December 2016: 49 juveniles and 23 adults. Since the focus of this study was juvenile progress, exclusion of adults from the data set was required. Due to policies enforced by Future Generation and a state located in the mid-Atlantic, additional data on participating juveniles was not available.

Procedures for Data Collection

All universities employ strict guidelines and procedures for graduate students to follow prior to collecting data for research. Rudestam and Newton (2015) emphasized the importance of students' awareness regarding the university's expectations, rules, and standards for data collection procedures. I received approval from the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) of my research plan prior to collecting data for the current study. Walden's IRB is responsible for ensuring that proposed research plans will have limited to no risk for participants. IRB policies and procedures ensure that researchers protect of participants' rights. According to Rudestam and Newton (2015), "although research may involve risks, beneficence implies maximizing benefits over risk" (p. 314).

A letter of intent or data use agreement was required as part of the IRB application process. I created a data use agreement between Future Generation and myself to gain access to juvenile demographic and program success data. The president

of Future Generation granted permission for me to use the data to determine program effectiveness in reducing juvenile delinquency and recidivism. The president of Future Generation removed personal identifiable information from the shared data set but included information relevant to this study, including the services provided to youth while enrolled in the program, race, gender, youth progress, and the age range of the juveniles. Participant data were secured on a password-protected computer in a locked office. The data set will be stored for a minimum of five years after the completion of the study. Once the required maintenance period has elapsed, the data set will be destroyed.

Instrumentation

Secondary data was obtained from the Future Generation mentoring program for the current study. A survey instrument was not used to collect additional data on juvenile participants.

Operationalization of Variables

Data for each of the study variables was obtained from client referral forms (Appendix A). The study examined the relationship between youth progress and juvenile race and gender. The three variables of interest were race, gender, and youth progress.

Race was one of two independent variables used for the current study. The racial categories used in my analysis included *Black*, *White*, and *other*. The *other* category included juveniles whose racial identity was unknown as well as juveniles who identified as more than one race.

Gender was the second of two independent variables used for the current study. The gender categories used in my analysis included *male* and *female.*

Youth progress represented the dependent variable for this analysis. Youth progress was classified as *successful*, *progressing*, or *unsuccessful*. Juveniles who received a *successful* designation either completed the program or completed at least 75% of their goals. Juveniles who received a *progressing* designation were making progress towards their goals but did not complete at least 75% of their goals. Juveniles who received an *unsuccessful* designation did not show adequate progress in the program. Unsuccessful youth did not uphold their responsibility to stay out of trouble.

Data Analysis Plan

I used IBM SPSS Statistics version 21 to analyze and interpret the data. Chi-square tests of contingency measured the relationships between the dependent variable of youth progress and the independent variables of race and gender. The research question and hypotheses were as follows:

To what extent does race and/or gender influence youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic?

H_0: Race and/or gender has no influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

H_a: Race and/or gender has an influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

Descriptive statistics – frequencies, means, and standard deviations – were obtained to provide an overview of participant demographics. Chi-square tests of contingency interpreted the study variables to determine whether there was a statistically-significant relationship between youth progress and race & gender. If the *p*-value of the

chi-square analysis was less 0.05, a significant relationship was determined and the hypothesis was confirmed; a *p*-value equal to or greater than 0.05 indicated that there was no significant relationship between the two comparison variables and signifies that the null hypothesis should be rejected. Tables, pie charts, and percentages graphically represented data collection outcomes and the impact of the variables.

I conducted a preliminary analysis to determine whether there was an association between juvenile classification – truancy, probation, or DSS referral – and youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. If an association between classification and youth progress existed, a direct binomial logistic regression analysis would have been used to determine the relative importance of classification, race, and gender on youth. However, the preliminary chi-square analysis determined that there was no association between classification and youth progress. As a result, two additional chi-square tests were employed to determine the relationship between youth progress and race & gender, respectively. The resulting data analysis allowed me to answer the research question and conclude whether the Future Generation program effectively improved juvenile outcomes.

Threats to Validity and Reliability

Construct validity measures "hypothetical constructs or concepts" and determines whether the study measures what the researcher intends to measure (Creswell, 2009, p. 149). The current study used the constructs of race and gender and how these variables correlated to youth progress related to reduced delinquency and recidivism while enrolled in the Future Generation program. Assessing the effectiveness of the program required

insight in an examination of the relationship between variables. Creswell (2009) describes reliability as repeated consistent measures. Reliable measures repeatedly produce consistent results. The consistency of past applications of all three tested variables – race, gender, and youth progress – speaks to the reliability of the chosen variables.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical procedures are important when working with participants, subjects, or other forms of data collection for research purposes. I submitted my research plan to the Walden IRB for approval before collecting and analyzing data. Future Generation received a data use agreement formally requesting permission to collect and use their data for research purposes. Once approved by the president of Future Generation, I waited to receive IRB approval before collecting any data. Ethical procedures are an essential component for collecting data. Researchers cannot collect data to use in a study prior to receiving approval from participants. I began the data collection process once my IRB application was approved.

The president of Future Generation shared participant data in an encrypted spreadsheet file. Document encryption limited any trace of information that may have inadvertently identified participants linked to the study. Personal identifiable information from all participants was removed from the data set before it was shared with me. Information collected from the Future Generation program and all data analysis files were stored on a password-protected laptop in a secure office location. Five years after the completion of the study, the stored data files will be destroyed.

Summary

A quantitative cross-sectional design was used to examine the relationship between race, gender, and youth progress to determine whether the Future Generation mentoring program was effective in reducing juvenile delinquency leading to recidivism. The quantitative approach permitted the examination of relationships between variables. This study utilized a purposive sampling technique to juveniles who participated in the Future Generation program between January 2016 and December 2016. Descriptive statistics and chi-square analyses were performed to provide an overview of participant demographics and an analysis of relationships between dependent and independent variables.

In Chapter 4, I describe the systematic collection of data and study results. I include tables and figures explaining the relationship between race, gender, and youth progress to determine whether the Future Generation mentoring program was effective in achieving successful program outcomes for juveniles.

Chapter 4: Results

Prevention and intervention programs are critical to promoting positive youth development. To aid program administrators in understanding how to address the needs of juveniles efficiently, an evaluation of the effectiveness of prevention and intervention programs is necessary. Literature on evaluating the effectiveness of prevention and intervention programs had not addressed factors such as race and gender. In the present study, I evaluated the Future Generation mentoring program to determine its effectiveness in reducing juvenile delinquency and recidivism in youth ages 8 to 18 years of age. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of race and gender on juvenile delinquency likely leading to recidivism for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program. The goal of the study was to measure the correlation between juvenile demographics and program status to determine the likelihood of recidivism. This study answered the following research question:

To what extent does race and/or gender influence youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic?

H_0: Race and/or gender has no influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

H_a: Race and/or gender has an influence on youth progress for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in the mid-Atlantic.

In this chapter, I interpret the results of this study using secondary data collected from the Future Generation program between January 2016 and December 2016. Chi-square statistical tests were used to analyze program data. The chapter begins with an

overview of the data collection methods and the sample population for the study. I then present the results of the statistical tests performed on the secondary data set. The chapter concludes with a summary of the major takeaways from the statistical analysis.

Data Collection

Secondary data were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the Future Generation mentoring program. Future Generation granted permission for me to use the program data for research purposes. Next, I contacted program representatives to gain access to the data needed to conduct my study. Once the data were released by the president of Future Generation, I began the process of preparing the data for statistical analysis.

Purposive sampling (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015) was used to identify the sample for the study. Between January 2016 and December 2016, the Future Generation program served 72 individuals, including 49 juveniles ages 8-18 and 23 adults over the age of 18. All 49 juveniles were included in the sample for the present study. The data were gathered by program administrators through participant surveys, analysis of the learning outcomes from daily activities, and observation data from mentors and other program staff. Because of Future Generation's confidentiality and state confidentiality policies, I was unable to retrieve a copy of a completed or blank participant survey form and a copy of a blank or completed observation data form. I was also unable to retrieve a copy of a completed youth daily interaction form used to measure youth progress while enrolled in the program. I retrieved a blank copy of Future Generation's youth daily interaction form (see Appendix B).

Sample and Population Demographics

The sample used in this study was representative of the juvenile population at Future Generation for the reporting period January 2016 to December 2016. Program participants over the age of 18 were not included in the study sample. Gender data may not accurately reflect the gender preference of participating youth because this data point was recorded by referring agencies and not by the participants themselves. Youth may prefer a different gender identity than their perceived gender presentation. The referral form used by referring agencies included two gender identifications (male and female) and did not allow for the consideration of other gender identities (e.g. transgender, polygender etc.) that may have been self-reported by participating youth.

External Validity

To ensure external validity, demographics of the study sample were compared to 2015 juvenile probation statistics in a state located in the mid-Atlantic as reported by the U.S. Department of Justice (2016). As shown in Table 2, the Future Generation sample was comparable to statewide demographics in race and gender. Black juveniles accounted for 46.9% of the study sample, compared to 48% across a state located in the mid-Atlantic. White juveniles, the second largest racial group, constituted approximately 41% of the study sample, compared to 46% statewide. The largest population disparity was found between juveniles of other or unknown races, which accounted for 12% of the study sample and 6% of the statewide juvenile population. Male juveniles were overrepresented in both groups, accounting for 69% of the study sample and

approximately 77% of the statewide population. Female juveniles represented 31% of the study sample and 23% in a mid-Atlantic state for the juvenile population on probation.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution of the Juvenile Population on Probation in a mid-Atlantic state and the Future Generation Program by Select Characteristics

	Group			
	Mid-Atlantic State[a]		Future Generation[b]	
Characteristic	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*
Race				
White	2,019	46.3	20	40.8
Black	2,092	48.0	23	46.9
Other/unknown	244	5.6	6	12.2
Gender				
Male	3,346	76.8	34	69.4
Female	1,051	23.2	15	30.6

[a]$N = 4{,}355$. [b]$N = 49$.

Descriptive Statistics

Gender and Race

Participant demographics by race and gender are presented in Table 3. The sample included 34 male juveniles (69%) and 15 female juveniles (31%). Fifty percent of male participants identified as Black, compared to 40% of female participants. White juveniles accounted for approximately 44% of the male population and 33% of the female population. Approximately 6% of male participants and 27% of female participants identified as a member of another race or ethnicity.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution of Client Gender by Race (N = 49)

	Race					
	Black		White		Other	
Gender	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Male	17	50.0	15	44.1	2	5.9
Female	6	40.0	5	33.3	4	26.7

Classification

Most juveniles in the sample (45%) were referred by a state in the mid-Atlantic Department of Social Services (DSS) and were in foster care, foster care prevention, or child protective services at the time of the study. Specific information on why juveniles were referred by a state in the mid-Atlantic DSS was not provided by Future Generation. Approximately 37% of the study sample was referred because of school truancy issues. The remaining juveniles (18%) were referred for mentoring services because of legal trouble with the court service unit.

Race. An overview of juvenile classifications by race is presented in Table 4. Over 61% of truancy referrals were Black juveniles, compared to 28% for White juveniles and 11% for juveniles of other races. Black juveniles were also the largest referral group from the court service unit, accounting for nearly 56% of probation referrals; White juveniles accounted for the remaining 44% of probation referrals. Fifty percent of DSS referrals were White juveniles, compared to approximately 32% of Black juveniles and 18% of juveniles of other racial and ethnic backgrounds.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Client Classification by Race (N = 49)

	Race					
	Black		White		Other	
Classification	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*
Truancy	11	61.1	5	27.8	2	11.1
Probation	5	55.6	4	44.4	0	0.0
DSS	7	31.8	11	50.0	4	18.2

Gender. An overview of juvenile classifications by gender is presented in Table 5. Male juveniles represented 72% of the truancy referrals, compared to 28% of female truancy referrals. Of the program's probation referrals, approximately 78% were male, and 22% were female. DSS referrals were 64% male and 36% female.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of Client Classification by Gender (N = 49)

	Gender			
	Male		Female	
Classification	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*
Truancy	13	72.2	5	27.8
Probation	7	77.8	2	22.2
DSS	14	63.6	8	36.4

Case Status

Juvenile case status was determined by their progress on program goals while enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program. Progress was measured by surveys administered to juveniles, tracking logs completed by program staff, and observation forms completed by mentors and other program staff. The daily interaction form used to track juvenile progress is presented in Appendix B.

Approximately 19% of juveniles in the sample were classified as "successful" participants who completed at least 75% of their program goals during 2016. Seventy-one percent of the sample was classified as "progressing" because they demonstrated a willingness to consistently achieve their goals. Juveniles who did not demonstrate adequate progress in the program – classified as "unsuccessful" clients – represented 10% of the study sample.

Data Analysis Protocol

Chi-square tests of contingency were used to determine the relationship between demographic variables and youth progress in connection to the probability of reducing juvenile delinquency. The primary assumptions of the chi-square test are the independent variables of comparison are categorial or ordinal in nature, and the categories for each independent variable are mutually exclusive (Yates, Moore & McCabe, 1999). The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) quantitative analysis software (Version 25) was used to perform chi-square analyses for the present study. The Pearson chi-square statistic is recommended for larger sample sizes where at least 80% of the expected counts are greater than 1.0; however, because the sample size for the present study is small, the likelihood ratio chi-square statistic was used for the present analysis (Agresti, 1990).

Results

Classification and Youth Progress

A chi-square test of contingency was conducted to determine the relationship between classification and youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. A

total of 18 juveniles were classified as truancy clients, 9 juveniles were classified as probation clients, and 22 juveniles were classified as DSS clients. The frequency distribution of juveniles who were successful, progressing, or unsuccessful in the mentoring program by classification is summarized in Table 6. The relationship between juvenile classification and youth progress was not significant, $\chi^2(4, N = 49) = 5.05$, $p = .28$.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution of Client Classification by Case Status (N = 49)

	Case Status					
	Unsuccessful		Progressing		Successful	
Classification	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Truancy	3	16.7	11	61.1	4	22.2
Probation	1	11.1	5	55.6	3	33.3
DSS	1	4.5	19	86.4	2	9.1

Note. $\chi^2 = 5.05$, $df = 4$.
$^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

There are several possible explanations for the lack of relationship between classification and youth progress. The count of juveniles on probation in the current sample ($n = 9$) is relatively small compared to juveniles referred to the program from DSS ($n = 22$) and truancy ($n = 18$). In addition, juveniles referred by DSS are at a higher risk for delinquency and recidivism due to the prevalence of abuse, neglect, family composition, and abandonment in their home environment. Some of the juveniles involved with DSS may also fit under multiple classifications; however, because DSS referred these juveniles to the Future Generation program, the referring category was used for the data analysis. Another possible rationale for the observed results is that a juvenile's referral pathway may not inform their behavior in the program once enrolled.

Because an association between juvenile classification and youth progress was not found, binomial logistic regression analysis was not performed. Instead, two additional chi-square tests were performed to determine whether a relationship existed between juvenile race and youth progress as well as juvenile gender and youth progress.

Race and Youth Progress

A chi-square test of contingency was conducted to determine the relationship between race and youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. The sample included 20 White juveniles, 22 Black juveniles, and 6 juveniles of other races. The count of juveniles who were successful, progressing, or unsuccessful in the mentoring program by race is summarized in Table 7. A significant relationship was found between race and youth progress in the mentoring program, $\chi 2(4, N = 49) = 15.39$, $p < .01$. Approximately 22% of Black juveniles who participated in the mentoring program were unsuccessful, compared to none of the juveniles who identified as White or another race. Conversely, approximately 30% of Black juveniles who participated in the mentoring program were successful, compared to 5% of White juveniles and approximately 7% of juveniles of other races.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution of Client Race by Case Status (N = 49)

	Case Status					
	Unsuccessful		Progressing		Successful	
Race	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*n*	*%*
White	0	0.0	19	95.0	1	5.0
Black	5	21.7	11	47.8	7	30.4
Other/unknown	0	0.0	5	83.3	1	16.7

Note. $\chi^2 = 15.39^{**}$, $df = 4$.
$^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

A potential rationale for the observed results could be related to the socioeconomic status (SES) of juveniles who participated in the Future Generation program. SES can be influenced by education attainment, income, housing, access to employment, and other social and economic forces that impact daily life. Juveniles from families of low SES usually attend the poorest schools in their districts; many of their parents or guardians may not have earned a high school diploma. It is challenging to teach juveniles the values of society when their basic needs are not met. As a result, juveniles from different race groups may act according to the examples of acceptable behavior in their home environments. Another rationale for the correlation between race and youth progress is the presence of positive role models in a juvenile's life. Regardless of a juvenile's upbringing, the presence of at least one positive adult role model who supports, guides, and cares about their success can alter perceptions and motivate them to want a better life for themselves.

Gender and Youth Progress

A chi-square test of contingency was conducted to determine the relationship between gender and youth progress in the Future Generation mentoring program. The sample included 34 male juveniles and 15 female juveniles. The count of juveniles who were successful, progressing, or unsuccessful in the mentoring program by gender is summarized in Table 8. The relationship between gender and youth progress was not significant, χ^2 (2, N = 49) = .53, p = .77. Approximately 21% of male juveniles were successful in meeting their goals, compared to 13% of female juveniles. Conversely,

approximately 9% of male juveniles were unsuccessful in the program, compared to 13% of female juveniles.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution of Client Gender by Case Status (N = 49)

	Case Status					
	Unsuccessful		Progressing		Successful	
Gender	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Male	3	8.8	24	70.6	7	20.6
Female	2	13.3	11	73.3	2	13.3

Note. $\chi^2 = .53$, $df = 2$.
$^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

Possible rationales for the lack of relationship between gender and youth progress include the size and composition of the sample. A sample size of 49 juveniles – of which 69% of the sample is male – is relatively small and does not provide adequate representation from the female population. Previous research suggests that males are overrepresented in prevention and intervention programs, which may explain the disproportionate sample size between males and females in the present study. Another possible rationale is that program status is likely determined by juveniles' willingness to succeed, not their gender. Ambition and determination are not gender-specific.

Summary

The objective of the study was to examine the relationship between juvenile demographic characteristics -- race and gender, specifically – and youth progress while enrolled in the Future Generation mentoring program located in a mid-Atlantic state. After analyzing the secondary data using chi-square analyses, results showed that there is no significant relationship between classification and youth progress. Further, chi-square

demonstrated that there is no significant relationship between gender and youth progress. However, a significant relationship was observed between race and youth progress. Chapter 5 will include a discussion of the results of the data analysis, the implications of these results for practitioners and policymakers, and recommendations based on the study outcomes.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the independent variables (race and gender) and the dependent variable (youth progress) for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generations mentoring program. Future Generation is a mentoring program designed as an intervention and prevention tool to help reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism. The program was implemented to help keep juveniles on a path toward success and deter them from further trouble. However, prevention and intervention programs are not always effective; evaluating program effectiveness is critical for positive youth development.

The U.S. government evaluates intervention and prevention programs through high-quality outcome evaluations. Programs that pass the rigorous evaluation process are deemed evidence based. Future Generation has yet to receive a federal evaluation and, as a result, elected to participate in this study to receive a program assessment. The present study was conducted to examine demographic factors in relation to program effectiveness. Previous research addressing the efficiency and effectiveness of programs focused on the design, quality, and delivery of services, as well as the experiences of program staff and administrators; participant demographic variables such as race and gender were not included in these analyses. The present study filled a gap in the literature on the effectiveness and efficiency of intervention and prevention programs.

Quantitative analyses revealed that referral classification was not associated with youth progress. Because the chi-square analysis did not demonstrate an association between classification and youth progress, additional chi-square analyses were conducted

to examine possible relationships between youth progress and two demographic variables, race and gender. No significant relationship was found between gender and youth progress while enrolled in the Future Generation program. A significant relationship was found between race and youth progress.

Chapter 5 includes an interpretation of the quantitative findings to explain how they confirmed, disconfirmed, or extended new knowledge in the discipline. I interpret the findings by comparing them to those from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. I also discuss limitations of this study and make recommendations for future research that would be helpful to the discipline. This chapter concludes with an explanation of how this study may inspire social change and how this study makes a positive contribution to the growing body of research on prevention and intervention programs.

Interpretation of the Findings

Overall, the Future Generation mentoring program was found to be effective in reducing juvenile delinquency and recidivism. Only 10% of participating juveniles were unsuccessful in the program. Most students who participated in the program were classified as progressing (72%) while the remaining 18% were classified as successful (Figure 1). The research findings also revealed that referral type and gender were not associated with youth progress (see Table 6 and Table 8). However, results indicated there was an association between race and youth progress while in the program (Table 7).

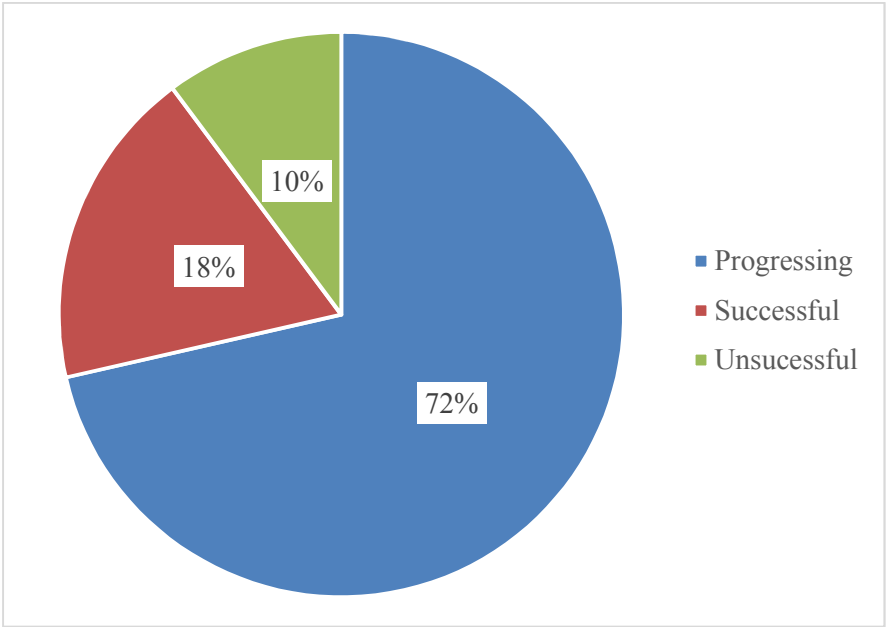

Figure 1. Percentage of juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program by progress status ($N = 49$).

The findings provided evidence of the relationship between race and program status for juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program. The results of the present study reinforced the findings of Fortune's (2014) study, which indicated that the recidivism rate for African Americans in California's juvenile system was 64%, which was the highest recidivism rate of all racial and ethnic groups. The present study's findings also confirmed and extended Thompson and Morris's (2013) conclusion that a youth's ethnicity and pattern of offense are important risk factors to consider because of their links to recidivism. Although the present study indicated that there was a relationship between race and youth progress, Chung et al. (2005) found that race was not a predictor of juvenile delinquency; in contrast, Barrett et al. (2006) discovered that African Americans were more likely to commit a violent crime than Caucasians.

The findings of this study also provided evidence that assists in understanding the importance of evaluating programs designed to reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism. The present study indicated that the Future Generation mentoring program was effective in aiding juveniles in reaching their goals. Progressing students outnumbered successful and unsuccessful juveniles in each comparison category: race (Figure 2), gender (Figure 3), and referral type (Figure 4). These results confirmed Tolan et al.'s (2013) findings that mentoring programs can reduce youth delinquency. According to Laakso and Nygaard (2007), mentoring can contribute positively to juvenile's attitudes, emotional well-being, and social abilities. Matz (2014) and Cooper et al. (2015) also agreed that mentoring programs produced positive results for youth classified as at-risk; however, both studies indicated the need for additional research to determine how specific program components promote positive outcomes.

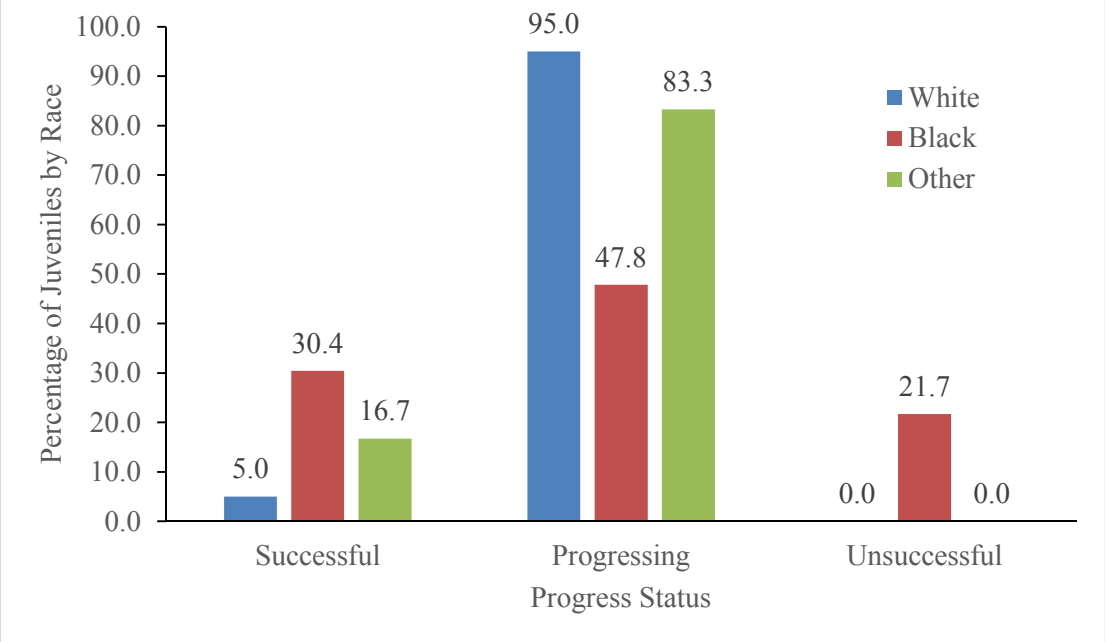

Figure 2. Percentage of juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program by race and progress status ($N = 49$).

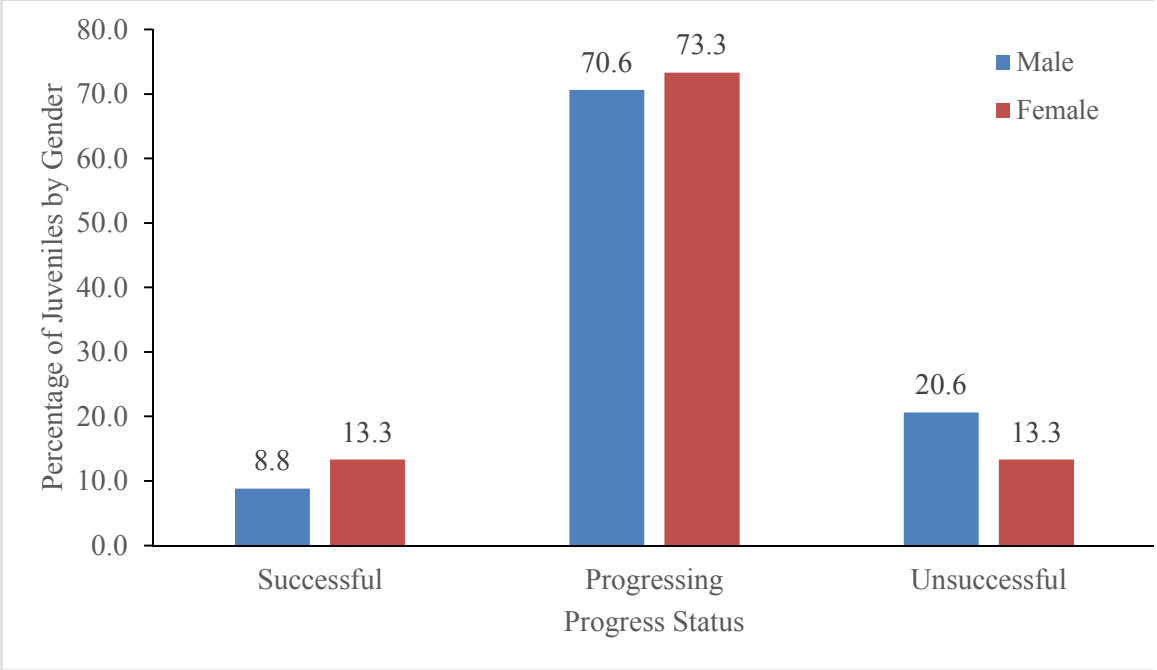

Figure 3. Percentage of juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program by gender and progress status ($N = 49$).

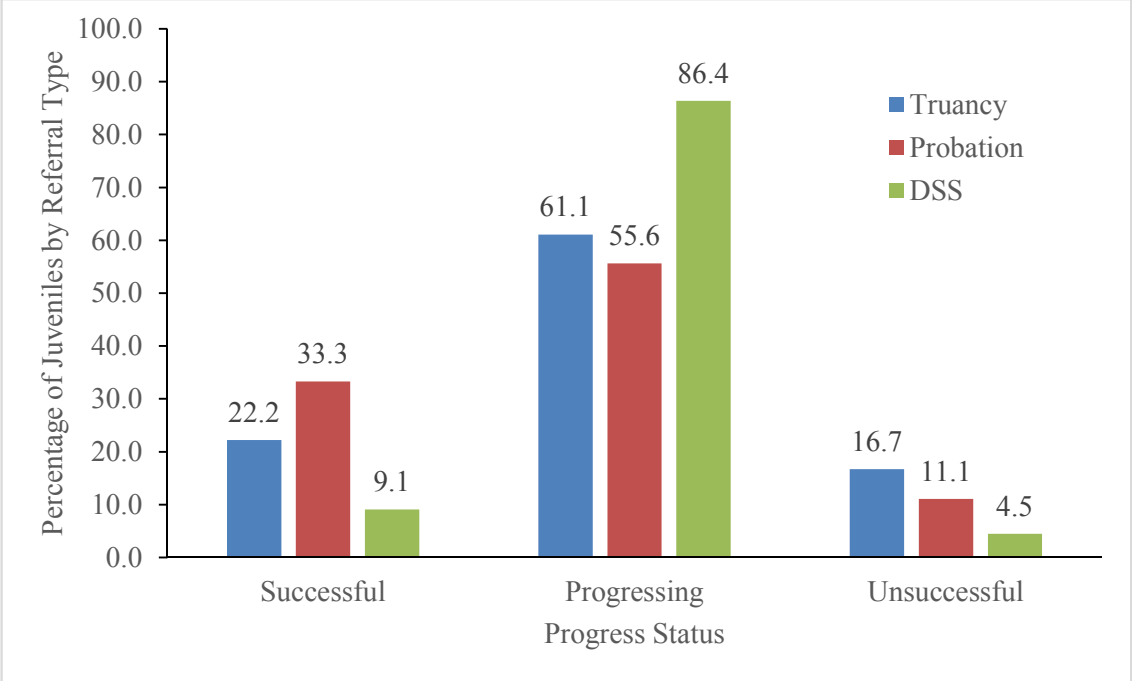

Figure 4. Percentage of juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program by referral type and progress status ($N = 49$).

According to Mayworm and Sharkey (2013), enrolling juveniles into effective mentoring programs can help reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism. Significant funding is provided to mentoring prevention and intervention programs to help with juvenile initiatives. In 2011, the federal government contributed approximately $100 million to support juvenile efforts (Tolan et al., 2013). Juvenile prevention and intervention programs are tools used to teach and educate; therefore, it is essential that these programs remain effective in meeting the needs of juveniles. Ryan et al. (2013) discovered that youth classified as delinquent recidivate at a rate of 49%, confirming the need for juvenile prevention and intervention programs.

The goals of prevention and intervention programs for juvenile delinquents should focus on reducing the number of juveniles who become delinquent and recidivate. Offord, Lipman, and Duku (2001) stated that there are two components to successful prevention: early identification of high-risk juveniles and effective service delivery. If prevention and intervention programs follow those two components, programs are engaging in active deterrence and positively contributing to finding solutions to juveniles' problems.

Theoretical Framework: Findings and Interpretation

Cornish and Clarke's RCT supports the idea that individuals are reasonable actors that weigh costs, benefits, means, and ends prior to making a rational decision. The theory assumes that crime is committed on purpose because of an intent to gain an advantage, meet a desire, or fulfill a need. Juveniles are often forced to make decisions in situations where the benefits may outweigh the consequences; as a result, juveniles

become delinquent and may recidivate. Linking the importance of decision-making to prevention and intervention addresses a critical role in educating and teaching juveniles about making proper choices and planning for their futures. Ensuring that intervention and prevention programs are effective can aid program administrators in their objective of promoting success for juveniles enrolled in their programs.

The Future Generation mentoring program was designed to serve as an intervention and prevention tool to help keep juveniles on a positive path in life. Programs that hope to address juvenile delinquency and recidivism should undergo external program evaluation to ensure their target population receives the help it needs.

Limitations of the Study

Four limitations exist within this study. First, secondary data was used as the primary data source for this study. The data was collected by Future Generation from various sources, including race/ethnicity data reported by the referral agency, referral data as classified by the mentoring program, and program classification status from each participant's case manager. Although the validity of Future Generation's data collection procedure is not in question, first-hand data collection by the researcher would have been preferred. A second limitation of this study is the small sample size of juveniles who participated in the Future Generations mentoring program during the study period. The G*Power test determined that an appropriate minimum sample size was 39 participants; however, a larger sample size than the observed 49 cases would have produced a more robust analysis. A third limitation of this study is the categorization of the variable *race*. The secondary data was presented as-is without an explanation of what the "other" race

classification represented. The six juveniles who were classified as "other" race may identify as one race or a combination of races. The final limitation of this study relates to the gender of juveniles enrolled in the Future Generation program. A juvenile may identify as male or female on the referral form (see Appendix A) but may have a gender-nonconforming or gender-fluid presentation.

Recommendations for Future Research

The research focus of this study was the relationship between juvenile demographic characteristics – race and gender, specifically – and juvenile delinquency. The study aimed to demonstrate and reinforce the importance of high-quality evaluations to ensure program effectiveness. Tolan et al. (2013) found that mentoring programs can reduce juvenile delinquency; however, Miller et al. (2013) discussed the need for determining which program components are most effective in reducing juvenile delinquency. Future studies should consider a qualitative approach to gain a better understanding of mentor activities that spur engagement with their mentees.

It may be insightful to conduct future research which includes additional race groups other than White, Black, and Other. A larger sample size would allow for generalization among multiple racial and ethnic groups. Future research may also want to consider including additional gender roles outside of the typical male-female binary. Consideration for transgender and gender-fluid juveniles may be helpful in future studies. Furthermore, future studies should consider a longer study period. The present study included one year of program progress. Comparing two years of program progress would allow for an evaluation of program effectiveness over time. Future studies can also focus

on juveniles who re-entered the program after completion and the factors that contributed their recidivism.

Implications for Social Change

The results of the present study promote positive social change for prevention and intervention programs by inspiring administrators to evaluate program effectiveness. This study provides opportunities for researchers and practitioners to explore ways to solve issues related to juvenile delinquency and recidivism. As the patterns and trends of juveniles change over time, current information on juvenile behavior will help administrators provide more efficient and effective services. It is important for administrators and evaluators to understand youth development, so they can provide targeted services to address the distinct needs of juveniles. It is imperative that administrators understand juveniles' behaviors so that plans can be developed to help alter negative, inappropriate behaviors. Training on best practices to reducing juvenile delinquency and recidivism would help program staff support juveniles in making confident decisions for themselves based on the knowledge learned from the program's curriculum.

Increased awareness of the growing challenges with juvenile populations can assist parents and community members in addressing the behavioral issues of juveniles. The cognitive abilities of adolescents and young adults are under development; education, knowledge, and support can become detrimental to their lives if they do not understand the difference between right and wrong. A better understanding of juvenile reasoning can help parents obtain the appropriate services for their children. Policy

administrators would benefit from this study by providing funding opportunities for the development of new organizations with the goal of reducing juvenile delinquency and recidivism. Federal funding and evaluation metrics can help organizations remain compliant while limiting wasted resources on ineffective juvenile programs.

Conclusion

Evidence-based prevention and intervention programs have been evaluated by the federal government as effective in changing juvenile outcomes; however, all juvenile prevention and intervention programs are not classified as evidence-based programs. As a result, program administrators are given the responsibility to evaluate their programs for effectiveness. Prevention and intervention programs serve several purposes, including but not limited to reducing delinquency, deterring recidivism, and avoiding adjudication; however, without sufficient and efficient evaluations, juvenile progress may not be realized. Before administrators can adequately respond to the needs of juveniles in their program, they must first be able to understand the extent of youth development issues. Program administrators must be able to educate themselves on the current trends and behavioral patterns of juveniles to determine what juveniles may need to succeed.

Overall, this study revealed that the Future Generation program is an effective mentoring program that helps to reduce the likelihood of juvenile delinquency and recidivism in enrolled students; however, race should be considered during the development process when attempting to address the needs of juveniles. Juvenile mentoring is essential for positive cognitive development. Continuous education throughout the mentoring relationship – delivered formally or informally – gives

juveniles an opportunity to learn from their mentors and mature into productive members of society. Without mentorship, juveniles may continue making the same mistakes and achieving with the same negative results.

References

Adelman, H. S., & Taylor, L. (2003). On sustainability of project innovations as systemic change. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 14,*1-25.

Agresti, A. (1990). *Categorical data analysis*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Akers, R. L. (1990). Rational choice, deterrence, and social learning theory in criminology: The path not taken. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, *81*(3), 653. doi:10.2307/1143850

Amadae, S. (2016). Rational choice theory. Retrieved from https://www.britannica.com/topic/rational-choice-theory

Anderson, V. R., Barnes, A. R., Campbell, N. A., Campbell, C. A., Onifade, E., & Davidson, W. S. (2016). Gender and adolescents' risk for recidivism in truancy court. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 5*(1), 93-110.

Andrews, D. A., Zinger, I., Hoge, R. D., Bonta, J., Gendreau, P., & Cullen, F. T. (1990). Does correctional treatment work? A clinically relevant and psychologically informed meta-analysis. *Criminology*, *28*(3), 369-404. doi:10.1111/j.1745-9125.1990.tb01330.x

Barrett, D. E., Ju, S., Katsiyannia, A., & Zhang, D. (2015). Females in the juvenile justice system: Influences on delinquency and recidivism. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 24*(2), 427-433. doi:10.1007/s10826-013-9853-8

Barrett, D. E., Katsiyannis, A., & Zhang, D. (2006). Predictors of offense severity, prosecution, incarceration and repeat violations for adolescent male and female offenders. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 15*(6), 708-718.

Bazron, B. J., Brock, L., Read, N., & Segal, A. (2006). *The mentoring tool-kit: Resources for developing programs for incarcerated youth* (Unabridged version). Washington, DC: National Evaluation and Technical Assistance Center for the Education of Children and Youth who are Neglected, Delinquent and At-Risk, U.S. Department of Education.

Blakeslee, J. E., & Keller, T. E. (2012). Building the youth mentoring knowledge base: Publishing trends and co-authorship networks. *Journal of Community Psychology, 40*(7), 845-859.

Bouffard, J. A., & Bergseth, K. J. (2008). The impact of reentry services on juvenile offenders' recidivism. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice, 6*(3), 295–318.

Brief Instrumental School-Based Mentoring Program. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.crimesolutions.gov/ProgramDetails.aspx?ID=387

Carroll, J., & Weaver, F. (1986). Shoplifters' perceptions of crime opportunities: A process-tracing study. In D.B. Cornish and R.V. Clarke (Eds.), *The reasoning criminal: Rational choice perspectives on offending* (pp. 19-38). New York, NY: Springer Verlag.

Chung, H. L., Little, M., & Steinberg, L. (2005). The transition to adulthood for adolescents in the juvenile justice system: A developmental perspective. In D. W. Osgood, E. M. Foster, C. Flanagan, & G. R. Ruth (Eds.), *On your own without a net: The transition to adulthood for vulnerable populations* (pp. 68–91). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Cooper, B. R., Bumbarger, B. K., & Moore, J. E. (2015). Sustaining evidence-based prevention programs: Correlates in a large-scale dissemination initiative. *Prevention Science, 16*(1), 145-157. doi:10.1007/s11121-013-0427-1

Cornish, D.B., and Clarke, R.V. (1986). Introduction. In D. B. Cornish, & R. V. Clarke (Eds.), *The reasoning criminal: Rational choice perspectives on offending* (pp. 1-17). New York, NY: Springer Verlag.

Cornish, D., & Clarke, R. (1987). Understanding crime displacement: An application of rational choice theory. *Criminology*, *25*(4), 933–947.

Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (Laureate Education, Inc., custom ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dappen, L., & Isernhagen, J. C. (2006). Urban and nonurban schools: Examination of a statewide student mentoring program. *Urban Education*, *41*(2), 151-168.

DuBois, D. L., & Karcher, M. J. (2005). Youth mentoring: Theory, research and practice. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of youth mentoring* (pp. 2-11). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

DuBois, D. L., Portillo, N., Rhodes, J. E., Silverthorn, N., & Valentine, J. C. (2011). How effective are mentoring programs for youth? A systematic assessment of the evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 12*(2), 57-91.

Enriquez, A. E. Jr. (2011). *Juvenile system mentoring programs in Bexar county: Referrals and recidivism*. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Texas at San Antonio.

Fagan, J & Piquero, A.R. (2007). Rational choice and developmental influences on recidivism among adolescent felony offenders. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2818334/

Farlex (n.d.). *Race.* Retrieved from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/race

Farlex (n.d.). *Rural area.* Retrieved from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/ruralarea

Farlex (n.d.). *Suburban area.* Retrieved from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/suburban+area

Farlex (n.d.). *Urban area.* Retrieved from http://www.thefreedictionary.com/urban+area

Faul, F. (2014). *G*power version 3.1.9.1.* [Computer software]. Retrieved from http://www.gpower.hhu.de/en.html

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). London, England: Sage Publications.

Fortune, G. P. (2014). *Sons of the system: Promoting mentorship among African American delinquent youth* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Alliant International University, San Diego, CA.

Frankfort-Nachmias, C., Nachmias, D., & DeWaard, J. (2015). *Research methods in the social sciences.* New York, NY: Worth.

Furstenberg, F.F., Cook, T.D., Eccles, J., Elder, G.H. (1999). *Managing to make it: Urban families in high-risk neighborhoods*. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.

Future Generation. (n.d.).

Harris, P. W., Mennis, J., Obradovic, Z., Izenman, A. J., & Grunwald, H. E. (2011). The coaction of neighborhood and individual effects on juvenile recidivism. *Cityscape, 13*(3), 33-55. Retrieved from http://www.dabi.temple.edu/~zoran/papers/Cityscape12.pdf

Hammond, S. (2007). *Mental health needs of juvenile offenders*. Denver, CO: National Conference of State Legislators. Retrieved from www.ncsl.org/print/cj/mentaljjneeds.pdf

Heretick, D. M. L., & Russell, J. A. (2013). The impact of juvenile mental health court on recidivism among youth. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 3*(1), 1-14.

Johnson, K., Hays, C., Center, H., & Daley, C. (2004). Building capacity and sustainable prevention innovations: A sustainability planning model. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 27*, 135–149.

Joo, H. J., & Jo, Y. (2015). Family, school, peers, and recidivism among South Korean juvenile offenders: An event history analysis. *Asian Journal of Criminology, 10*(1), 99-116. doi:10.1007/s11417-015-9205-2

Keating, L. M., Tomishima, M. A., Foster, S., & Alessandri, M. (2002). The effects of a mentoring program on at-risk youth. *Adolescence, 37*(148), 717-734. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12564825

Kuklinski, M. R., Fagan, A. A., Hawkins, J. D., Briney, J. S., & Catalano, R. F. (2015). Benefit-cost analysis of a randomized evaluation of communities that care: Monetizing intervention effects on the initiation of delinquency and substance use

through grade 12. *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 11*(2), 165-192. doi:10.1007/s11292-014-9226-3

Laakso, J., & Nygaard, J. (2007). *Children of incarcerated parents project: How a mentoring program can make a difference* (Unpublished final report). Pierce County, WA: Washington State Department of Corrections and Big Brothers/Big Sisters.

Lattimore, P., & Witte, A. (1986). Models of decision making under uncertainty: the criminal choice. In D. B. Cornish, & R. V. Clarke (Eds.), *The reasoning criminal: Rational choice perspectives on offending* (pp. 129-155). New York, NY: Springer Verlag.

Laureate Education, Inc. (Executive Producer). (2009c). *Doctoral research: Social change.* [Video] Baltimore, MD: Laureate Education.

Lee, C., & Hoover, L. T. (2011). Variation in adult and juvenile arrest rates: The influence of city size and metropolitan environment. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 36*(2), 158-176. doi:10.1007/s12103-010-9098-7

Lipsey, M. W. (1999). Can intervention rehabilitate serious delinquents? *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 564*(1): 142–166.

Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (1998). *Effective intervention for serious juvenile offenders: A synthesis of research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Lockwood, S. K., Nally, J. M., & Ho, T. (2016). Race, education, employment, and recidivism among offenders in the united states: An exploration of complex issues in the Indianapolis metropolitan area. *International Journal of Criminal Justice*

Sciences, 11(1), 57-74. Retrieved from http://www.sascv.org/ijcjs/pdfs/lockwoodetalijcjs2016vol11issue1.pdf

Matz, A. K. (2014). Commentary: Do youth mentoring programs work? A review of the empirical literature. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 3*(2), 83-101. Retrieved from http://www.journalofjuvjustice.org/JOJJ0302/article06.htm

Mayworm, A. M., & Sharkey, J. D. (2013). Gender-specific mental health outcomes of a community-based delinquency intervention. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 3*(1), 15-35. Retrieved from http://www.journalofjuvjustice.org/JOJJ0301/article02.htm

McNiel, D. E., & Binder, R. L. (2007). Effectiveness of a mental health court in reducing criminal recidivism and violence. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 164(9),* 1395–1403.

Mennis, J., Harris, P., Obradovic, Z., Izenman, A., Grunwald, H., & Lockwood, B. (2011). The effect of neighborhood characteristics and spatial spillover on urban juvenile delinquency and recidivism. *Professional Geographer*, *63*(2), 174-192.

Mears, D. P. (2004). The dimensions, pathways, and consequences of youth reentry.

Merenstein, B., Tyson, B., Tilles, B., Keays, A., & Rufflolo, L. (2011). Issues affecting the efficacy of programs for children with incarcerated parents. *Journal of Correctional Education*, *62*(3), 166-174.

Miller, J. M., & Miller, H. V. (2016). Validating program fidelity: Lessons from the Delaware county second chance initiatives. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 41*(1), 112-123. doi:10.1007/s12103-015-9325-3

Miller, J. M., Barnes, J. C., Miller, H. V., & McKinnon, L. (2013). Exploring the link between mentoring program structure & success rates: Results from a national survey. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*(3), 439-456. doi:10.1007/s12103-012-9188-9

National Criminal Justice Reference Service. (2015). *Search questions and answers: What is the national juvenile recidivism rate?* Retrieved from https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/QA/Detail.aspx?Id=113&context=9

National Institute of Justice. (n.d.). *Programs at a Glance.* Retrieved from http://www.crimesolutions.gov/

National Mentoring Partnership. (2006). Mentoring in America 2005: A snapshot of the current state of mentoring. Alexandria, VA: Author

Oxford University Press. (2017). Rational choice theories. *Oxford Bibliographies.* Retrieved from http://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/view/document/obo-9780195396607/obo-9780195396607-0007.xml

Office of Justice Programs. (n.d.). Glossary. Retrieved from https://www.crimesolutions.gov/Glossary.aspx#E

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (n.d.). *Performance measures.* Retrieved from https://www.ojjdp.gov/grantees/pm/glossary.html

Offord, D., Lipman, E., & Duku, E. (2001). Epidemiology of problem behavior up to age 12 years. In R. Loeber & D. Farrington (Eds.), *Child delinquents: Development, intervention, and service needs* (pp. 95–117). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

O'Sullivan, E., Rassel, G. R., & Berner, M. (2008). *Research methods for public administrators* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson, Longman.

Paternoster, R. (1989). Absolute and restrictive deterrence in a panel of youth: explaining the onset, persistence/desistance, and frequency of delinquent offending. *Social Problems, 36*(3), 289-309. doi:10.1525/sp.1989.36.3.03a00060

Portwood, S. G., & Ayers, P. M. (2005). Schools. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of youth mentoring* (pp. 336–347). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Pryce, J. M., & Keller, T. E. (2011). Interpersonal tone within school-based youth mentoring relationships. *Youth & Society*. doi:10.1177/0044118X11409068.

Rhodes, J. E., & DuBois, D. L. (2008). Mentoring relationships and programs for youth. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 17*(4), 254–258.

Robison, S. B., Blackmon, B. J., & Rhodes, J. L. F. (2016). Variations in juvenile offending in Louisiana: Demographic, behavioral, geographic, and school-related predictors. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 5*(2), 31-49. Retrieved from https://search-proquest-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/docview/1845981312?accountid=14872

Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2015). *Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

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), 454-65. doi:10.1007/s10964-013-9906-8

Sampson, R. J., Raudenbush, S. W., & Earls, F. (1997). Neighborhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study of collective efficacy. *Science*, *277*(5328), 918-924.

Sciandra, M., Sanbonmatsu, L., Duncan, G. J., Gennetian, L. A., Katz, L. F., Kessler, R. C., Ludwig, J. (2013). Long-term effects of the moving to opportunity residential mobility experiment on crime and delinquency. *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 9*(4), 451-489. doi:10.1007/s11292-013-9189-9

Slobogin, C. (2013). Risk assessment and risk management in juvenile justice. *Criminal Justice, 27*(4), 10.

Snyder, H. & Mulako-Wangota, J. (2016). *Arrest data analysis tool: Bureau of Justice Statistics, Washington, D.C.* Retrieved from http://www.bjs.gov/index.cfm?ty=datool&surl=/arrests/index.cfm#

Thompson, K. C., & Morris, R. J. (2013). Predicting recidivism among juvenile delinquents: Comparison of risk factors for male and female offenders. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 3*(1), 36-47. Retrieved from http://www.journalofjuvjustice.org/JOJJ0301/article03.htm

Tolan, P., Henry, D., Schoeny, M., Bass, A., Lovegrove, P., & Nichols, E. (2013). Mentoring interventions to affect juvenile delinquency and associated problems: A systematic review. *Campbell Systematic Reviews, 9*(10). Retrieved from https://www.campbellcollaboration.org/library/mentoring-interventions-to-affect-juvenile-delinquency-and-associated-problems-a-systematic-review.html

U.S. Department of Justice, National Criminal Justice Reference Service (2016). *Search questions and answers*. Retrieved March 23, 2018, from https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/QA/Detail.aspx?Id=113&context=9

Vaughan, J. (2012). *Juvenile crime*. Mankato, MN: Smart Apple Media.

van Wormer & Campbell, C. (2016). Developing an alternative juvenile programming effort to reduce detention overreliance. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 5*(2), 12-30. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/docview/1845994108?accountid=14872

Vergara, A. T., Kathuria, P., Woodmass, K., Janke, R., & Wells, S. J. (2016). Effectiveness of culturally appropriate adaptations to juvenile justice services. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 5*(2), 85-103. Retrieved from https://search-proquest-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/docview/1845981489?accountid=14872

Villettaz, P., Gilliéron, G., & Killias, M. (2015). The effects on re-offending of custodial vs. non-custodial sanctions: An updated systematic review of the state of knowledge. *Campbell Systematic Reviews, 11*(1): 1-92. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/50b6/23cf47b0bedaaca77d60f09c57427d5f60df.pdf

Watkins, H. (2011). *Juvenile crime*. Detroit, MI: Greenhaven Press.

Wesely, J. K., Dzoba, N. P., Miller, H. V., & Rasche, C. E. (2017). Mentoring at-risk youth: An examination of strain and mentor response strategies. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 42*(1), 198-217. doi:10.1007/s12103-016-9353-7

Yates, D., Moore, D., and McCabe, G. (1999). *The practice of statistics* (1st Ed.). New York, NY: W.H. Freeman.

Zapolski, T. C. B., Garcia, C. A., Jarjoura, G. R., Lau, K. S. L., & Aalsma, M. C. (2016). Examining the influence of ethnic/racial socialization on aggressive behaviors among juvenile offenders. *Journal of Juvenile Justice, 5*(1), 65-79. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/305751075_Examining_the_Influence_of_EthnicRacial_Socialization_on_Aggressive_Behaviors_Among_Juvenile_Offenders

Appendix A: Daily Interaction Documentation for Youth

Results and learning outcomes of the day's activity or activities

1. Objective for the day:

2. Activities done to achieve the objective and why:

3. Result(s) & learning outcome(s) of the day's activity or activities:

4. Plan for next meeting to build on/correct results received from today's activity or activities:

5. Important information learned or discussed not related to today's objective: