



Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 2014 National Report

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Chapter 1

Population characteristics

1

Problems experienced by children today are the products of multiple and sometimes complex causes. Data presented in this chapter indicate that conditions for juveniles have improved in recent years in some areas, and not in others. For example, teenage birth rates have declined to historically low levels; however, the proportion of teen births to unmarried females continues to rise. Fewer children are being raised in two-parent families. The proportion of juveniles living in poverty has increased since the mid-2000s, returning to the relatively high levels of the early 1990s. Although high school dropout rates have fallen for most juvenile demographic groups, the rates are still too high, especially in an employment market where unskilled labor is needed less and less.

This chapter serves to document the status of the U.S. youth population on several indicators of child well-being and presents an overview of some of the more commonly requested demographic, economic, and sociological statistics on juveniles. These statistics pertain to factors that may be directly or indirectly associated with juvenile crime and victimization. Although these factors may be correlated with juvenile crime and/or victimization, they may not be the immediate cause but may be linked to the causal factor. The sections in this chapter summarize demographic, poverty, and living arrangement data developed by the U.S. Census Bureau, birth statistics from the National Center for Health Statistics, and education data from the National Center for Education Statistics.

In 2010, 1 in 4 residents in the United States was under age 18

The juvenile population is increasing similarly to other segments of the population

For 2010, the U.S. Census Bureau estimated that 74,181,500 persons in the United States were under the age of 18, the age group commonly referred to as juveniles. The juvenile population reached a low point in 1984, at 62.5 million, then grew each year through 2010, increasing 19%.

Current projections indicate that the juvenile population will continue to grow throughout the 21st century. The Census Bureau estimates that it will increase 10% between 2010 and 2035—about one-half of one percent per year. By 2050, the juvenile population will be 16% larger than it was in 2010.

In 2010, juveniles were 24% of the U.S. resident population. The Census Bureau estimates that this proportion will decline to 21% by 2050; i.e., the relative increase in the adult population will exceed the increase in the juvenile population during the first half of the 21st century.

The racial character of the juvenile population is changing

The Census Bureau changed its racial classifications with the 2000 decennial census. Prior to the 2000 census, respondents were asked to classify themselves into a single racial group: (1) white, (2) black or African American, (3) American Indian or Alaska Native, or (4) Asian or Pacific Islander. In the 2000 census, Asians were separated from Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders. In addition, respondents could classify themselves into more than one racial group. The number of juveniles classifying themselves as multiracial is expected to double between 2010 and 2030.

In 2010, Hispanic youth accounted for more than 25% of the juvenile population in 7 states

State	2010 juvenile population ages 10–17	Percentage of juvenile population					Percent change 2000–2010
		Non-Hispanic					
		White	Black	American Indian	Asian	Hispanic	
U.S. total	74,181,500	56%	15%	1%	5%	23%	2%
Alabama	1,132,500	61	31	1	1	6	1
Alaska	187,400	58	5	21	8	8	-2
Arizona	1,629,000	43	5	5	3	43	19
Arkansas	711,500	67	20	1	2	11	5
California	9,295,000	30	7	1	12	51	0
Colorado	1,225,600	60	5	1	3	31	11
Connecticut	817,000	63	12	0	5	20	-3
Delaware	205,800	55	27	0	4	13	6
Dist. of Columbia	100,800	19	67	0	2	12	-12
Florida	4,002,100	48	22	0	3	28	10
Georgia	2,491,600	49	35	0	4	13	14
Hawaii	303,800	20	3	0	62	15	3
Idaho	429,100	79	1	1	1	17	16
Illinois	3,129,200	54	18	0	5	23	-4
Indiana	1,608,300	76	13	0	2	10	2
Iowa	728,000	83	6	0	2	9	-1
Kansas	726,900	71	8	1	3	17	2
Kentucky	1,023,400	83	10	0	2	5	3
Louisiana	1,118,000	54	39	1	2	5	-8
Maine	274,500	92	3	1	2	2	-9
Maryland	1,353,000	49	34	0	6	11	0
Massachusetts	1,418,900	70	9	0	6	15	-5
Michigan	2,344,100	71	18	1	3	7	-10
Minnesota	1,284,100	76	9	2	6	8	0
Mississippi	755,600	50	45	1	1	4	-2
Missouri	1,425,400	76	15	1	2	6	0
Montana	223,600	83	1	10	1	5	-3
Nebraska	459,200	74	7	1	2	15	2
Nevada	665,000	42	10	1	7	39	29
New Hampshire	287,200	90	2	0	3	5	-7
New Jersey	2,065,200	53	15	0	9	22	-1
New Mexico	518,700	27	2	11	1	58	2
New York	4,324,900	53	17	0	7	22	-8
North Carolina	2,281,600	57	25	1	3	13	16
North Dakota	149,900	84	3	9	1	4	-7
Ohio	2,730,800	76	17	0	2	5	-5
Oklahoma	929,700	60	10	13	2	14	4
Oregon	866,500	69	3	2	5	21	2
Pennsylvania	2,792,200	73	14	0	3	9	-4
Rhode Island	224,000	67	9	1	3	21	-10
South Carolina	1,080,500	57	34	0	2	8	7
South Dakota	202,800	77	3	14	1	5	0
Tennessee	1,496,000	69	21	0	2	7	7
Texas	6,865,800	35	12	0	4	48	16
Utah	871,000	78	2	1	3	17	21
Vermont	129,200	93	2	1	2	2	-12
Virginia	1,853,700	59	23	0	6	11	6
Washington	1,581,400	65	6	2	9	19	4
West Virginia	387,400	92	5	0	1	2	-3
Wisconsin	1,339,500	75	10	1	3	10	-2
Wyoming	135,400	81	1	3	1	13	5

Note: Detail may not total 100% because of rounding.

Source: Authors' analyses of Puzanchera et al.'s. *Easy Access to Juvenile Populations* [online analysis].

Most national data systems have not yet reached the Census Bureau's level of detail for racial coding—and historical data cannot support this new coding structure, especially the mixed-race categories.* Therefore, this report generally uses the four-race coding structure. For ease of presentation, the terms white, black, American Indian, and Asian are used.

With that understood, in 2010, 76% of the juvenile population was classified as white, 17% black, 2% American Indian, and 5% Asian. These proportions will change in the near future if the anticipated differential growth of these subgroups comes to pass.

Percent change within racial segments of the juvenile population (ages 0–17):

Race	1990–2010	2010–2030
White	10%	–0.3%
Black	19	–0.9
American Indian	40	–3.3
Asian	40	19.9
Total	13	8.3

The Hispanic proportion of the juvenile population will increase

In 2010, 23% of juveniles in the U.S. were of Hispanic ethnicity. Ethnicity is different from race. Nearly 9 of every 10 Hispanic juveniles were classified racially as white. More specifically, 89% of Hispanic juveniles were white, 6%

* The National Center for Health Statistics modifies the Census Bureau's population data to convert the detailed racial categories to the traditional four-race categories. This bridging is accomplished by estimating a single racial group classification of mixed-race persons based on responses to the National Health Interview Survey, which asked respondents to classify themselves using both the old and new racial coding structures.

black, 4% American Indian, and 2% Asian.

The Census Bureau estimates that the number of Hispanic juveniles in the U.S. will increase 37% between 2010 and 2030. This growth will bring the Hispanic proportion of the juvenile population to nearly 30% by 2030 and to 36% by 2050.

How useful are race/ethnicity classifications

Using race and Hispanic origin as characteristics to classify juveniles assumes meaningful differences among these subgroups. If Hispanic and non-Hispanic juveniles have substantially different characteristics, then such comparisons could be useful. Furthermore, if Hispanic ethnicity is a more telling demographic trait than race, then a five-category classification scheme that places all Hispanic youth in their own category and then divides other youth among the four racial categories may be useful—assuming available data support such groupings.

However, this is only one of many race/ethnicity classification schemes. For example, some argue that the Hispanic grouping is too broad—that data should, for example, distinguish youth whose ancestors came from Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, and other countries. Similar proposals make finer distinctions among juveniles with ancestry in the various nations of Asia and the Middle East as well as the various American Indian nations.

In the 1920s, the Children's Bureau (then within the U.S. Department of

Labor) asked juvenile courts to classify referred youth by their nativity, which at the time distinguished primarily among various European ancestries. Today, the idea of presenting crime and justice statistics that distinguish among juveniles with Irish, Italian, and German ancestry seems nonsensical. The demographic classification of juveniles is not a scientific process but a culturally related one that changes with time and place. Those reading our reports 100 years from now will likely wonder about the reasons for our current racial/ethnic categorizations.

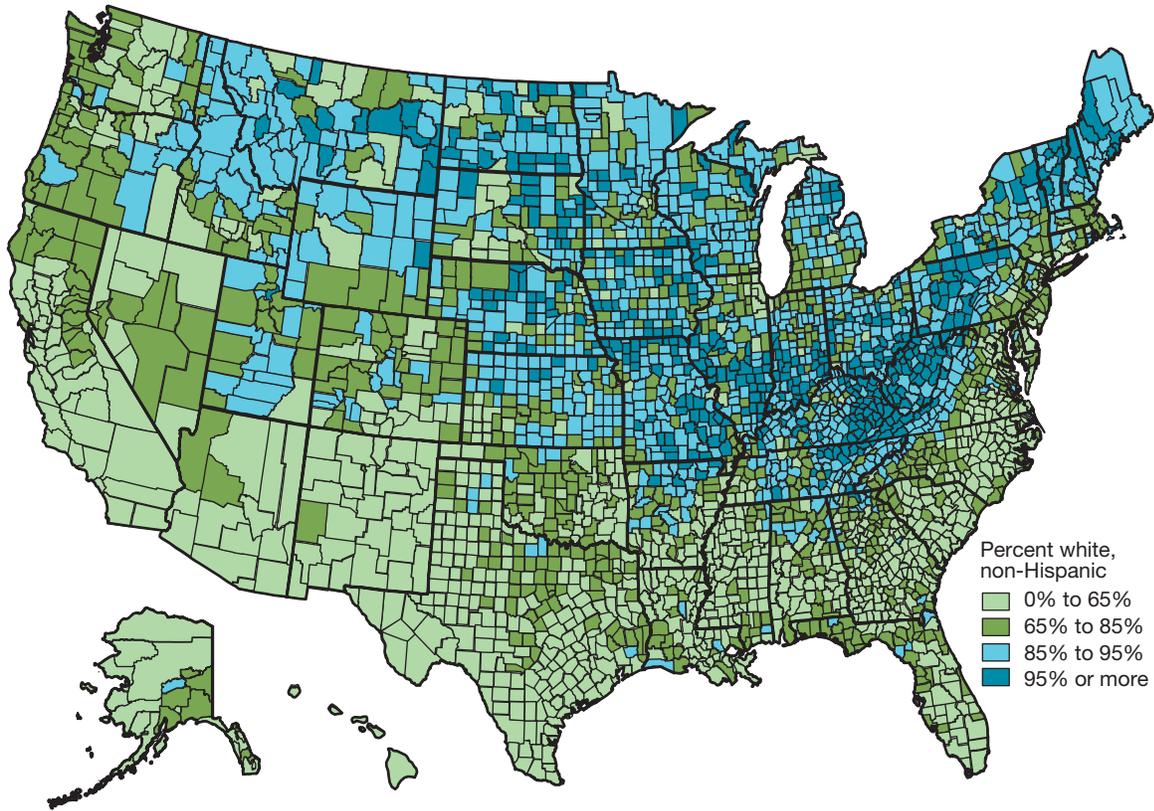
Juvenile justice systems serve populations that vary greatly in racial/ethnic composition

In 2010, at least 9 of every 10 juveniles in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and West Virginia were non-Hispanic and white. In contrast, more than half of California's and New Mexico's juvenile populations were Hispanic (51% and 58%, respectively). Other states with large Hispanic juvenile populations were Arizona (43%), Nevada (39%), and Texas (48%).

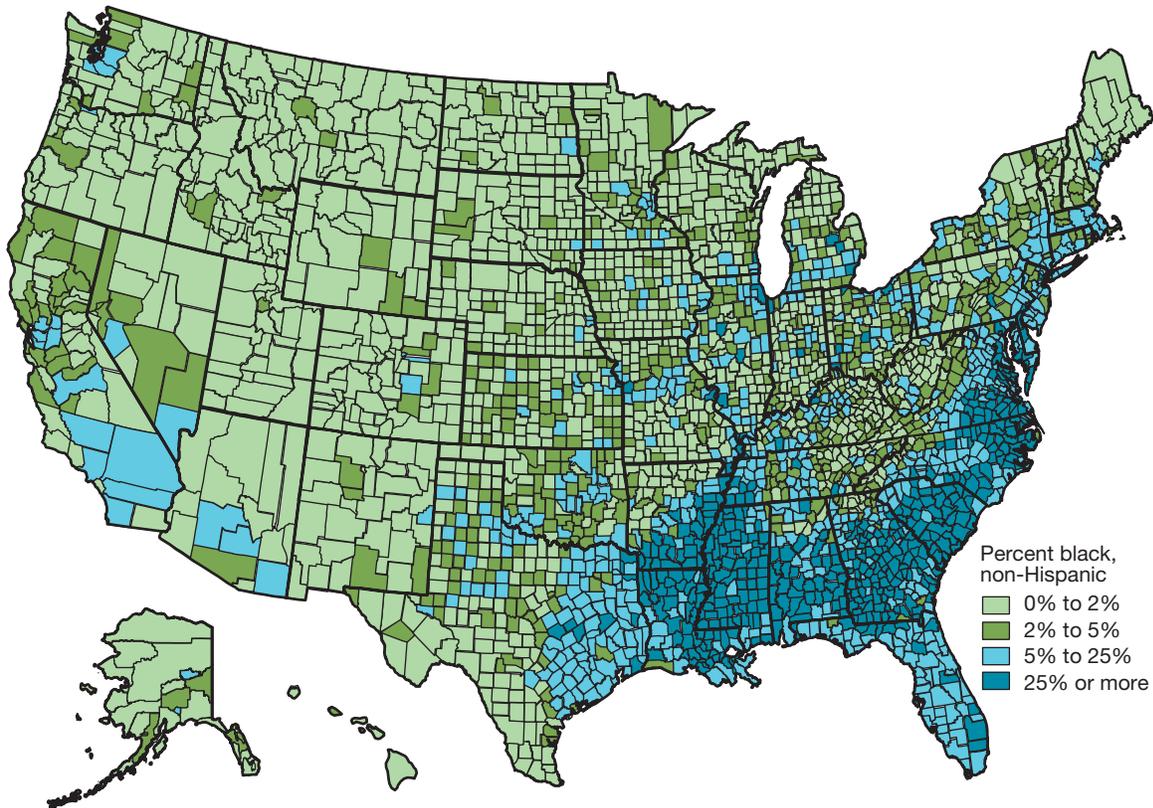
In 2010, five states had juvenile populations with more than 10% American Indians or Alaska Natives. These states were Alaska (21%), Montana (10%), New Mexico (11%), Oklahoma (13%), and South Dakota (14%).

The states with the greatest proportion of black juveniles in their populations in 2010 were Georgia (35%), Louisiana (39%), Maryland (34%), Mississippi (45%), and South Carolina (34%). The black juvenile population was highest in the District of Columbia (67%).

Proportion of non-Hispanic white youth in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2010

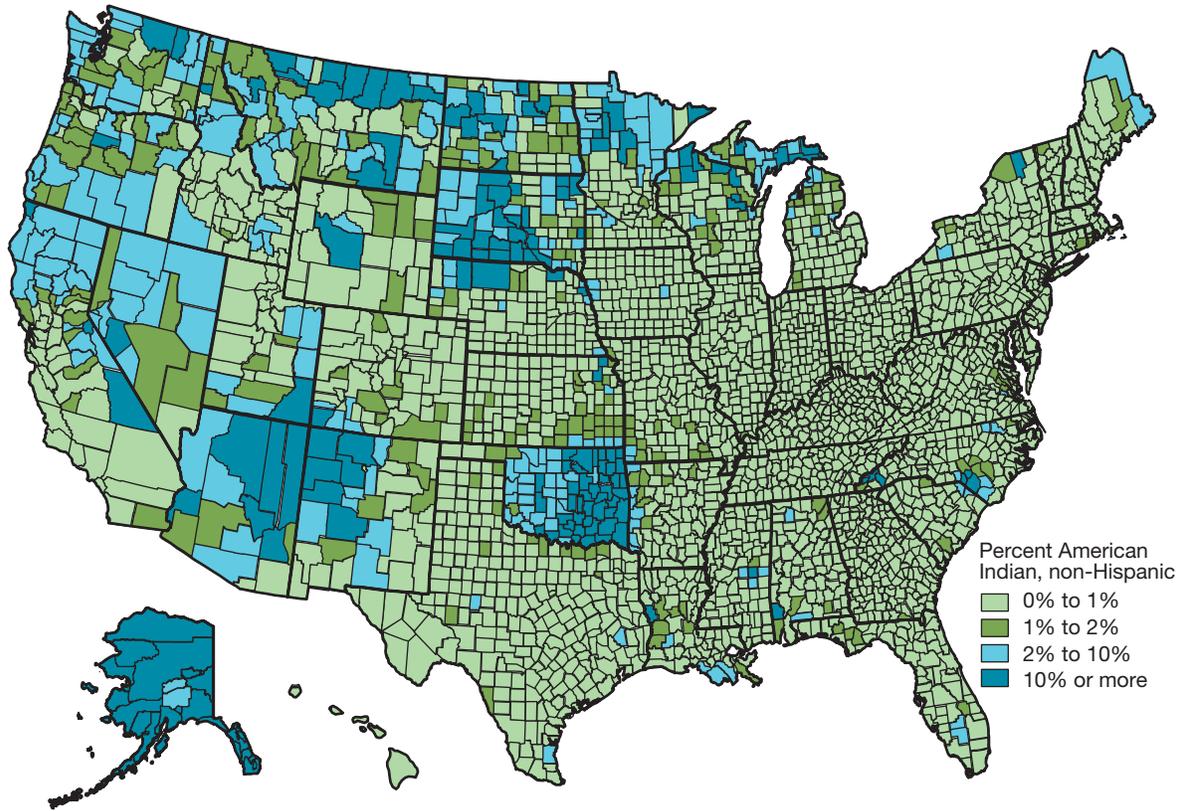


Proportion of non-Hispanic black youth in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2010

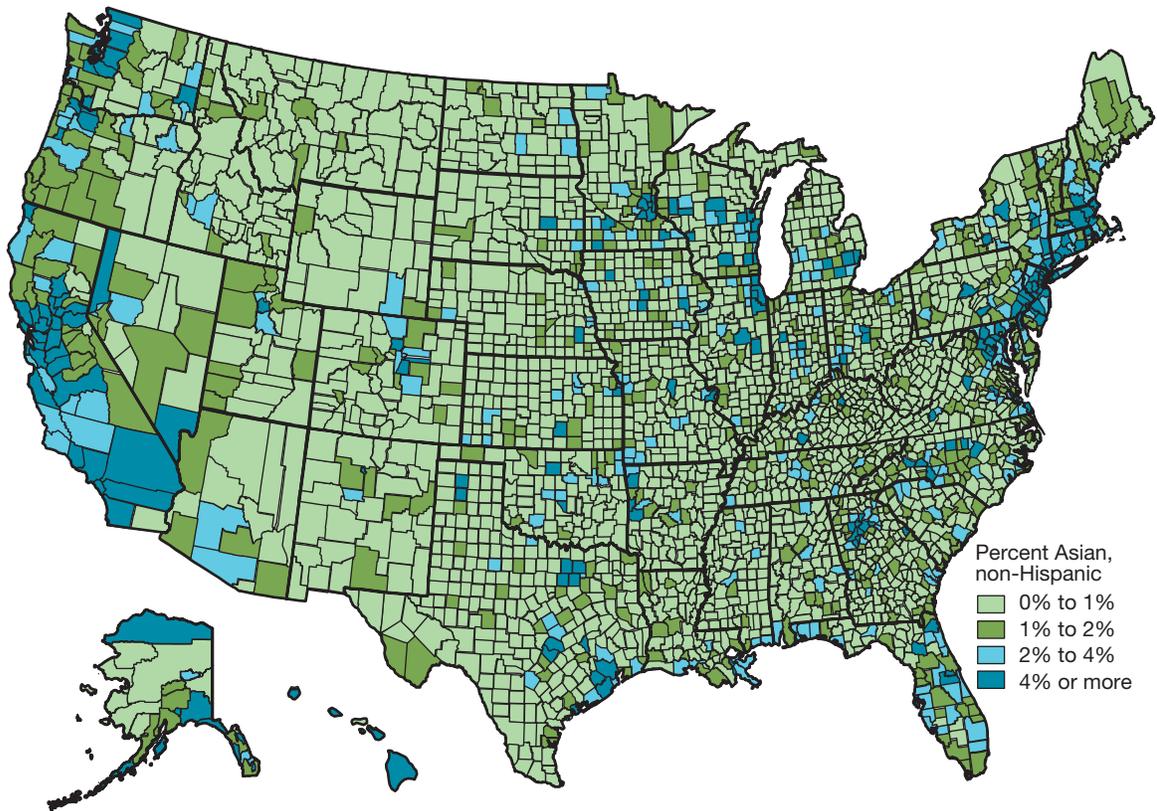


Source: Authors' adaptation of National Center for Health Statistics' *Vintage 2012 Postcensal Estimates of the Resident Population of the United States (April 2, 2010, July 1, 2010–July 1, 2012)*, by Year, County, Single-Year of Age (0, 1, 2, . . . , 85 Years and Over), Bridged Race, Hispanic Origin, and Sex [machine-readable date file].

Proportion of non-Hispanic American Indian/Alaska Native youth in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2010

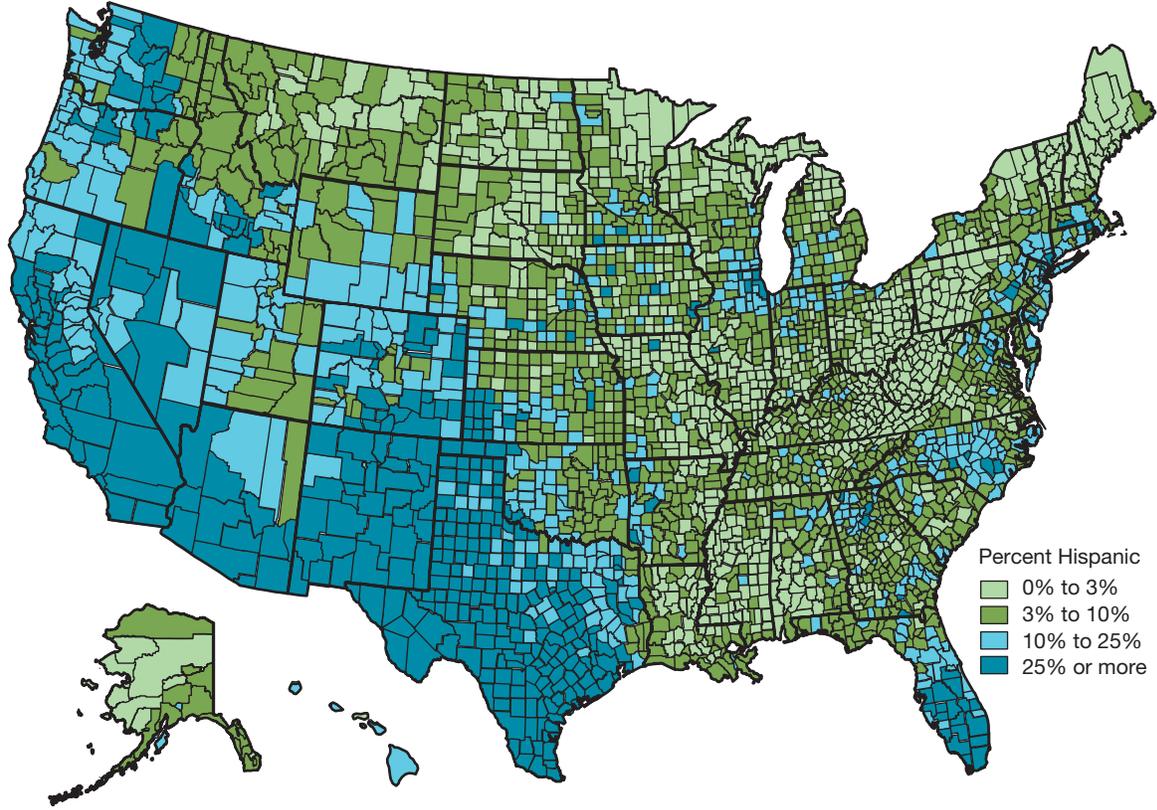


Proportion of non-Hispanic Asian youth in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2010

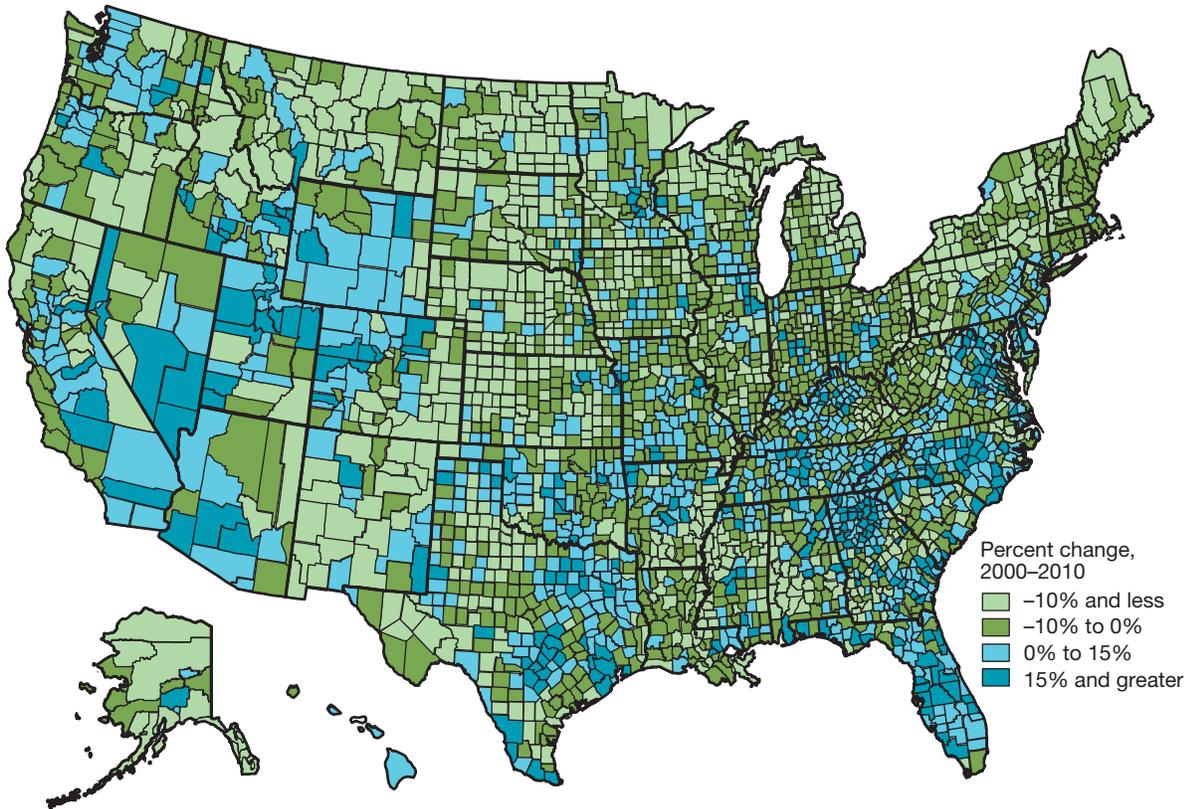


Source: Authors' adaptation of National Center for Health Statistics' *Vintage 2012 Postcensal Estimates of the Resident Population of the United States (April 2, 2010, July 1, 2010–July 1, 2012)*, by Year, County, Single-Year of Age (0, 1, 2, . . . , 85 Years and Over), Bridged Race, Hispanic Origin, and Sex [machine-readable date file].

Proportion of Hispanic youth in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2010



Change in the juvenile population (ages 0–17), 2000–2010



Source: Authors' adaptation of National Center for Health Statistics' *Vintage 2012 Postcensal Estimates of the Resident Population of the United States (April 2, 2010, July 1, 2010–July 1, 2012)*, by Year, County, Single-Year of Age (0, 1, 2, . . . , 85 Years and Over), Bridged Race, Hispanic Origin, and Sex [machine-readable date file].

In 2010, poverty was more common among children under age 5 than any other age group

Exposure to poverty at an early age is linked to delinquency

Research has often supported a connection between poverty and involvement in crime. Youth who grow up in families or communities with limited resources are at a higher risk of offending than those who are raised under more privileged circumstances. Those who are very poor or chronically poor seem to be at an increased risk of serious delinquency. The timing of exposure to poverty is especially important. A meta-analysis by Hawkins et al. of several studies found that family socioeconomic status at ages 6–11 is a stronger predictor of serious and violent delinquency at ages 15–25 than family socioeconomic status at ages 12–14.

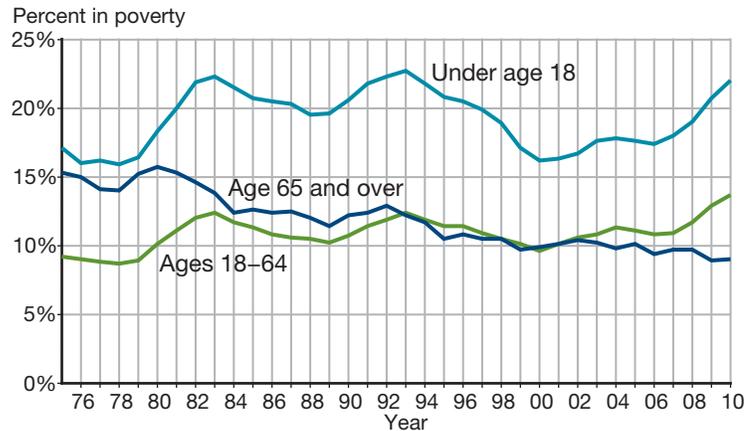
The linkage between poverty and delinquency, however, may not be direct. Some argue that the problems associated with low socioeconomic status (e.g., inability to meet basic needs, low access to support resources) are stronger predictors of delinquency than socioeconomic status alone. For example, Agnew et al. found that self-reported delinquency was highest among individuals who experienced several economic problems.

The proportion of juveniles living in poverty has grown

The U.S. Census Bureau assigns each person and family a poverty threshold according to the size of the family and ages of its members.* The national poverty thresholds are used throughout the U.S. and are updated for inflation annually. In 2000, the poverty threshold for a family of four with two children was \$17,463. In 2010, this threshold was \$22,113. In comparison, the poverty threshold for a family of six with four children was \$29,137 in

* Family members are defined as being related by birth, marriage, or adoption.

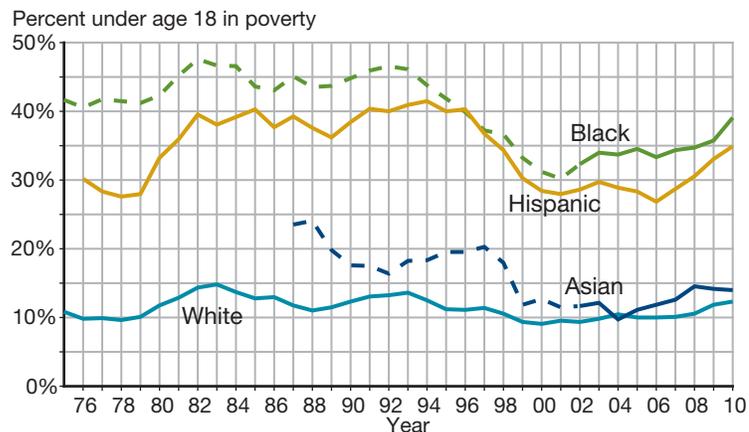
Over the past decade, the proportion of Americans under age 65 living in poverty has increased, with the proportion of juveniles in poverty considerably larger than that of adults



- The proportion of juveniles living in poverty in 2010 (22%) is similar to the two previous peaks in 1983 (22%) and 1993 (23%).

Source: Authors' adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Current Population Survey. Historical Poverty Tables. Table 3: Poverty Status of People by Age, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959–2010.*

In 2010, non-Hispanic black juveniles and Hispanic juveniles were 3 times more likely to live in poverty than non-Hispanic white juveniles



- Regardless of race or Hispanic ethnicity, the proportion of juveniles living in poverty in 2010 is the highest that it has been in the past decade.

Notes: The white racial category does not include persons of Hispanic ethnicity. The black and Asian racial categories include persons of Hispanic ethnicity prior to 2002 (dashed line) and do not include persons of Hispanic ethnicity beginning with 2002 data (solid line). The Asian racial category does not include Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islanders, beginning with 2002 data. Statistics on American Indians are not presented here because the small numbers produce unreliable trends.

Source: Authors' adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Current Population Survey. Historical Poverty Tables. Table 3: Poverty Status of People by Age, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959–2010.*

2010. Although the thresholds in some sense reflect families' needs, they are not intended to be a complete description of what individuals and families need to live.

In 2010, 15% of all persons in the U.S. lived at or below their poverty thresholds. This proportion was far greater for persons under age 18 (22%) than for those ages 18–64 (14%) and those above age 64 (9%). The youngest children were the most likely to live in

poverty: while 21% of juveniles ages 5–17 lived in households with resources below established poverty thresholds, 26% of children under age 5 did so.

Many children live far below poverty thresholds in what is labeled as extreme poverty. One technique for gaining a perspective on the frequency of extreme poverty is to look at the proportion of children who are living below 50% of the poverty level—e.g., in

2010, how many children lived in families of four with two children and incomes less than \$11,057, half the poverty threshold. In 2010, 10% of persons under age 18 were living below 50% of the poverty level, compared with 7% of persons ages 18–64 and 3% of persons over age 64. This proportion was once again highest for children under age 6 (12%). In all, more than 45% of juveniles living in poverty lived in what can be characterized as extreme poverty.

In 2010, 22% of juveniles in the U.S. lived below the poverty level; 20 states had proportions greater than the national average

State	Percent of persons living below the poverty threshold, 2010				State	Percent of persons living below the poverty threshold, 2010			
	All ages	Ages 0–17	Ages 18–64	Over age 64		All ages	Ages 0–17	Ages 18–64	Over age 64
U.S. total	15.1%	22.0%	13.8%	8.9%	Missouri	15.0%	21.0%	14.8%	6.0%
Alabama	17.2	24.7	15.9	10.3	Montana	14.5	22.2	12.8	10.4
Alaska	12.5	16.2	11.2	*	Nebraska	10.2	13.8	9.2	7.6
Arizona	18.8	28.7	17.2	6.2	Nevada	16.6	23.9	15.1	9.4
Arkansas	15.3	21.9	13.3	12.4	New Hampshire	6.5	6.2	6.3	7.6
California	16.3	23.4	15.1	7.8	New Jersey	11.1	15.0	9.9	9.7
Colorado	12.3	19.0	10.6	7.6	New Mexico	18.3	26.9	16.7	9.8
Connecticut	8.6	11.9	8.1	5.1	New York	16.0	24.4	14.1	10.9
Delaware	12.2	18.6	10.9	7.6	North Carolina	17.4	28.2	14.8	9.7
Dist. of Columbia	19.5	33.9	16.5	*	North Dakota	12.6	17.0	11.2	11.5
Florida	16.0	23.0	15.5	9.5	Ohio	15.4	23.9	13.8	7.8
Georgia	18.8	25.1	17.1	12.9	Oklahoma	16.3	25.3	14.1	9.4
Hawaii	12.4	20.3	10.3	8.5	Oregon	14.3	21.9	13.5	6.1
Idaho	13.8	18.9	12.9	6.8	Pennsylvania	12.2	17.3	11.5	8.3
Illinois	14.1	21.1	12.6	8.0	Rhode Island	14.0	21.5	12.6	9.1
Indiana	16.3	26.3	13.2	11.7	South Carolina	16.9	25.5	15.4	10.0
Iowa	10.3	13.5	10.1	5.2	South Dakota	13.6	17.3	13.3	8.5
Kansas	14.5	23.8	12.2	6.7	Tennessee	16.7	23.6	15.1	11.9
Kentucky	17.7	24.9	16.9	8.5	Texas	18.4	26.8	16.1	10.0
Louisiana	21.5	30.3	18.1	19.9	Utah	10.0	13.7	8.7	6.7
Maine	12.6	18.9	11.7	8.5	Vermont	10.8	14.6	10.3	7.9
Maryland	10.9	14.0	10.3	7.6	Virginia	10.7	12.7	10.0	10.4
Massachusetts	10.9	14.4	10.9	5.7	Washington	11.6	16.8	10.8	6.3
Michigan	15.7	21.5	15.2	7.9	West Virginia	16.8	21.0	16.9	9.9
Minnesota	10.8	15.0	9.5	8.7	Wisconsin	10.1	13.8	9.7	6.1
Mississippi	22.5	34.4	19.9	11.7	Wyoming	9.6	13.6	8.4	*

* The percentage has been suppressed because the denominator (i.e., the total population in the age group) is less than 75,000, making it statistically unreliable.

Source: Author's adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Current Population Survey, 2011 Annual Social and Economic Supplement, POV46, Poverty Status by State*.

In 2010, 2 in 5 black children were living in poverty, and 1 in 5 were living in extreme poverty (incomes less than half the poverty threshold)

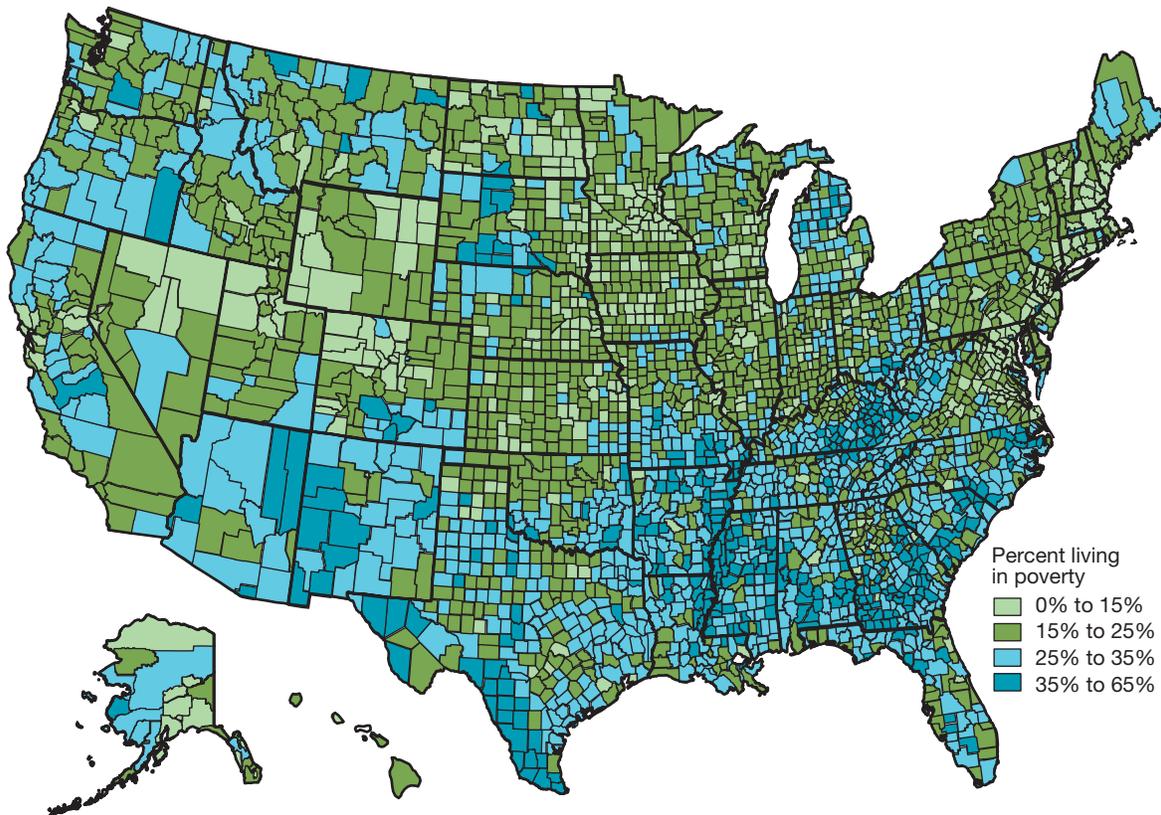
Age	Living below the poverty level							Living below 50% of the poverty level						
	All	White	Black	Amer. Indian	Asian	Multiple races	Hispanic	All	White	Black	Amer. Indian	Asian	Multiple races	Hispanic
All ages	15%	10%	27%	26%	12%	19%	27%	7%	4%	13%	14%	6%	9%	11%
Under age 18	22	12	39	35	14	23	35	10	5	20	19	5	12	15
Under age 5	26	15	46	42	15	30	38	12	6	26	20	6	15	17
Ages 5–17	21	12	36	32	13	19	34	9	5	18	19	5	10	14
Ages 18–64	14	10	23	24	11	14	23	6	5	12	13	6	8	9
Over age 64	9	7	18	17	14	15	18	3	2	5	5	6	5	5

■ There was little difference between the proportions of juveniles in poverty compared with adults ages 18–64 in poverty for either white or Asian populations in 2010. Juveniles in poverty and adults ages 18–64 in poverty differed by 12 percentage points in the Hispanic population and 16 percentage points in the black population.

Note: Racial categories (white, black, American Indian, Asian, and multiple) do not include persons of Hispanic ethnicity. The Asian racial category does not include Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islanders.

Source: Author's adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Current Population Survey, 2011 Annual Social and Economic Supplement, POV46, Poverty Status by State*.

Proportion of juveniles (ages 0–17) living in poverty, 2010



Source: Authors' analysis of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Small Area Income & Poverty Estimates 2010* [machine-readable data file].

The proportion of children living in single-parent homes more than doubled between 1970 and 2010

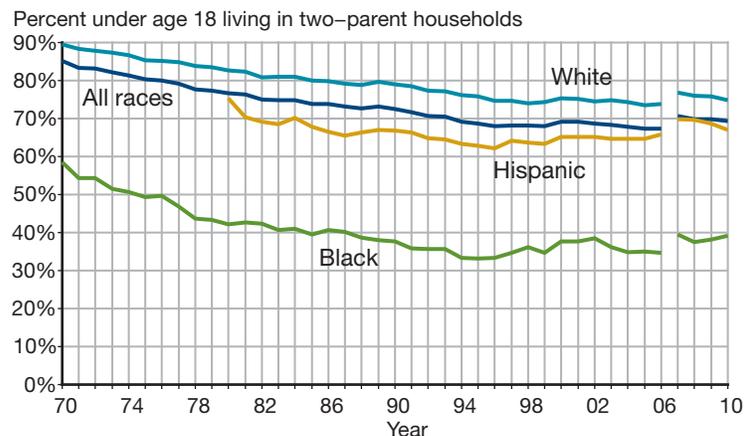
Juveniles living with both parents generally report less delinquency

A 2004 study by McCurley and Snyder explored the relationship between family structure and self-reported problem behaviors. The central finding was that youth ages 12–17 who lived in families with both biological parents were, in general, less likely than youth in other families to report a variety of problem behaviors, such as running away from home, sexual activity, major theft, assault, and arrest. The family structure effect was seen within groups defined by age, gender, or race/ethnicity. In fact, this study found that family structure was a better predictor of these problem behaviors than race or ethnicity. The family structure effect emerged among both youth who lived in neighborhoods described as “well kept” and those in neighborhoods described as “fairly well kept” or “poorly kept.” For these reasons, it is useful to understand differences and trends in youth living arrangements. However, it is important to note that family structure may not be the proximate cause of problem behaviors. Rather, conditions within the family, such as poor supervision and low levels of parental involvement, are risk factors.

More than two-thirds of children lived in two-parent families in 2010

Analysis of the 1960 decennial census found that 88% of children under age 18 lived in two-parent families. The Census Bureau’s Current Population Survey found that the proportion of children living in two-parent families declined throughout the 1970s and the 1980s and through the first half of the 1990s. In 2010, 69% of children were living in two-parent families—a level that has held since the mid-1990s. Most other children lived in one-parent households. The proportion of children living in single-parent

The proportion of children under age 18 living in two-parent homes has declined since 1970



- Between 1970 and 2010, the proportion of children living in single-parent homes increased from 9% to 22% for whites and from 32% to 53% for blacks. The proportion of Hispanic children increased from 21% in 1980 to 29% in 2010.

Notes: Race proportions include persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Persons of Hispanic ethnicity may be of any race; however, most are white. Beginning with 2007, estimates for two-parent homes include married or unmarried parents (biological, step, or adoptive).

Source: Authors’ adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau’s *Current Population Survey, Families and Living Arrangements, Historical Tables*.

households increased from 9% in 1960 to 27% in 2010.

Beginning with the Census Bureau’s 2007 Current Population Survey, better data are available to document the proportion of children who live with married or unmarried parents. In 2010, 4% of children under age 18 were living with unmarried parents. This is a slight increase from the proportion (2%) reported from the 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP). This proportion varied with race and ethnicity: white non-Hispanic (2%), black (5%), Asian (1%), and Hispanic (6%). In 2010, two-thirds (66%) of U.S. children under age 18 lived with married parents. This proportion was highest for Asian (84%) and white non-Hispanic (75%) children, lower for Hispanic (61%)

children, and lowest for black children (35%).

According to the Census Bureau, most children who live in single-parent households live with their mothers. The proportion of children living with their mothers in single-parent households grew from 8% of the juvenile population in 1960 to 23% in 2010. In 1970, the mothers of 7% of the children living in single-mother households had never been married; this proportion grew to 44% in 2010.

The proportion of children living with their fathers in one-parent households grew from 1% in 1960 to 3% in 2010. In 1970, the fathers of 4% of the children living in single-father households had never been married; this proportion grew to 26% in 2010, a pattern similar to the mother-only households.

The Census Bureau found a major difference between mother-only and father-only households: cohabitation was much more common in father-only households. A living arrangement is considered to be cohabitation when there is an unrelated adult of the opposite gender, who is not one's spouse, living in the household. In 2010, children living in single-parent households were more likely to have a cohabiting father (18%) than a cohabiting mother (10%).

Some children live in households headed by other relatives or by nonrelatives. In 2010, 3% of children lived in households headed by other relatives, and about half of these children were living in the home of a grandparent. (Across all household types, 10% of children

lived in households that included a grandparent.) In 2010, 1% of all children lived with nonrelatives.

Most children live in a household with at least one parent in the labor force

Overall, 88% of children in 2010 lived in families with one or both parents in the labor force. (Being in the labor force means that the person is employed or is actively looking for work.) Of all children living with two parents, 97% had at least one parent in the labor force, and 61% had both parents in the labor force. When just one parent in the two-parent families was in the labor force, 87% of the time it was the father. Among children living in single-parent households, those living

with their fathers only were more likely to have the parent in the labor force than those living with their mothers only (86% vs. 74%).

Almost half of children living with only their mothers or neither parent live in poverty

The economic well-being of children is related to family structure. In 2010, 22% of all juveniles lived below the poverty level. However, children living in two-parent families were less likely to live in poverty (13%) than children living with only their fathers (22%), only their mothers (43%), or neither parent (43%).

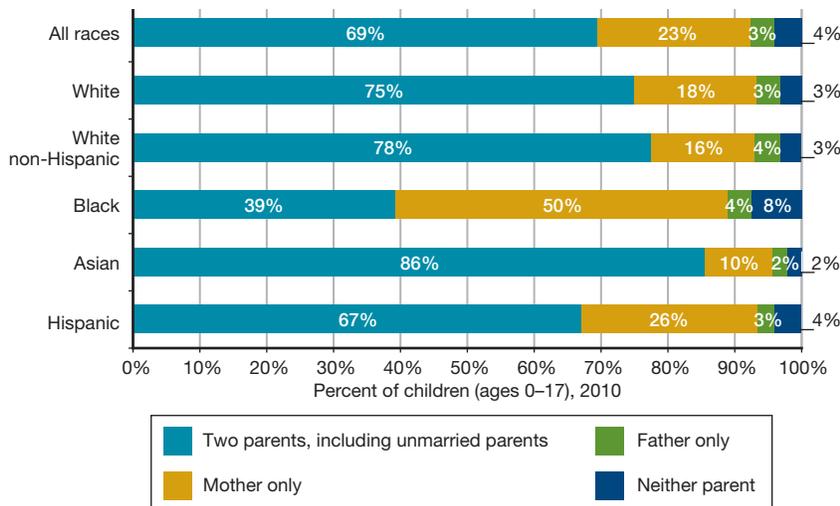
Family structure is also related to the proportion of children in households receiving public assistance or food stamps. Overall, 4% of children in 2010 lived in households receiving public assistance and 19% lived in households receiving food stamps, but the proportions were far greater for children living in single-mother families.

Percent of children receiving assistance, 2010:

Family structure	Food stamps	Public assistance
All types	19%	4%
Two parents	11	2
Married	10	2
Unmarried	31	7
Single parent	38	9
Mother only	41	10
Father only	17	3
Neither parent	26	10

In 2010, 57% of children receiving public assistance and 50% receiving food stamps lived in single-mother families. Two-parent families accounted for 31% of children receiving public assistance and 41% of those receiving food stamps.

In 2010, black children were the least likely to live with two parents regardless of the marital status of the parents



Note: Persons of Hispanic ethnicity may be of any race.

Source: Authors' adaptation of the U.S. Census Bureau's *Current Population Survey, 2010 Annual Social and Economic Supplement*.

The teenage birth rate has seen an overall decrease between 1970 and 2010

Teen birth rates continue to fall through 2010

Kelley and her coauthors have stated that having a baby as a teenager has serious and often deleterious consequences for the lives of both the young mother and her baby. Teenage mothers and fathers are often ill equipped to effectively parent and often draw heavily on the resources of their extended families and communities. For teenage parents who themselves were raised in dysfunctional or abusive families, parenting problems may be even more evident and family support limited.

In 2010, the birth rate for older juveniles (i.e., females ages 15–17) was 17.3 live births for every 1,000 females in the age group. In the same year, the birth rate for young adults (i.e., women ages 18 and 19) was more than 3 times greater (58.2). The 2010 birth rate for females ages 10–14 (0.4) was lower than any time since 1970.

Birth rates for older juveniles and young adults varied by race and Hispanic ethnicity.

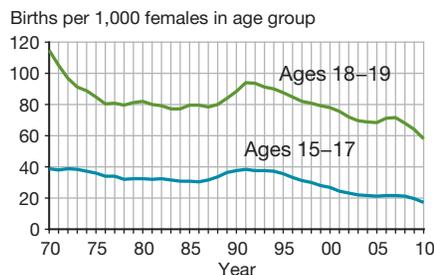
Births per 1,000 females, 2010:

Race/ethnicity	Ages 15–17	Ages 18–19
All races	17.3	58.2
White, non-Hispanic	10.0	42.5
Black, non-Hispanic	27.4	85.6
Hispanic	32.3	90.7

The birth rate for white non-Hispanic females ages 15–17 in 2010 was about one-third the rates of both Hispanic and black non-Hispanic females of the same age.

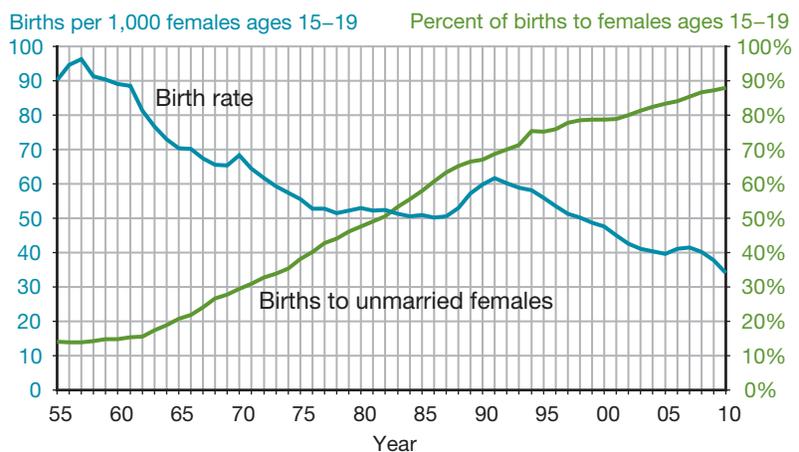
Between 1991 and 2010, birth rates declined more for older juveniles (55%) than young adults (38%). The decline for older juveniles was greatest for non-Hispanics blacks (68%), followed by non-Hispanic whites (58%) and Hispanics (53%).

Birth rates in 2010 for both older juveniles and young adults were about half their 1970 rates



- The birth rate for older female juveniles ages 15–17 saw a peak in 1991 (38.6 per 1,000 females) and then fell 55% to the 2010 rate of 17.3.
- After falling from its 1970 peak (114.7), the birth rate for young adult females ages 18–19 peaked again in 1991 at 94.0. The 2010 birth rate for young adult females was 38% lower than in 1991.

The annual birth rate for females ages 15–19 declined substantially between 1955 and 2010, while the proportion of these births that were to unmarried women increased



- In 1958, about 14% of births to females ages 15–19 were to unmarried women. By 2010, that proportion grew to 88%.

Source: Authors' adaptation of Martin et al.'s Births: Final Data for 2010, *National Vital Statistics Reports*, 61(1); National Center for Health Statistics' annual series, Births: Final Data, *National Vital Statistics Reports*, for the years 2000–2009; and Ventura et al.'s Births to Teenagers in the United States, 1940–2000, *National Vital Statistics Reports*, 49(10).

Birth rates for females ages 15–17 varied greatly across states in 2010, ranging from 6.1 in New Hampshire to 30.6 in Mississippi

State	Births per 1,000 females in age group, 2010			Ratio of ages 15–17 to 18–19
	Age 15–19	Ages 15–17	Ages 18–19	
United States	34.2	17.3	58.2	30%
Alabama	43.6	22.9	71.8	32
Alaska	38.3	16.3	73.4	22
Arizona	41.9	22.3	69.8	32
Arkansas	52.5	24.7	91.4	27
California	31.5	16.4	53.4	31
Colorado	33.4	17.7	56.5	31
Connecticut	18.7	8.4	34.5	24
Delaware	30.5	16.0	48.9	33
Dist. of Columbia	45.4	35.7	52.0	69
Florida	32.0	15.5	55.2	28
Georgia	41.4	21.2	70.6	30
Hawaii	32.5	12.9	62.6	21
Idaho	33.0	15.1	58.9	26
Illinois	33.0	17.2	56.9	30
Indiana	37.3	18.4	63.5	29
Iowa	28.6	13.3	49.0	27
Kansas	39.3	19.2	67.9	28
Kentucky	46.2	21.9	80.2	27
Louisiana	47.7	23.5	81.0	29
Maine	21.4	8.3	40.3	21
Maryland	27.3	16.5	47.6	35
Massachusetts	17.2	9.0	27.4	33
Michigan	30.1	14.1	52.7	27
Minnesota	22.5	10.0	41.3	24
Mississippi	55.0	30.6	88.7	34
Missouri	37.1	17.0	65.1	26
Montana	35.0	12.9	67.0	19
Nebraska	31.1	14.8	54.0	27
Nevada	38.6	18.9	69.5	27
New Hampshire	15.7	6.1	29.2	21
New Jersey	20.1	9.6	37.6	26
New Mexico	53.0	29.9	86.4	35
New York	22.7	11.2	38.6	29
North Carolina	38.3	19.9	63.5	31
North Dakota	28.8	13.4	46.9	29
Ohio	34.1	16.0	60.2	27
Oklahoma	50.4	25.9	83.8	31
Oregon	28.2	13.3	48.9	27
Pennsylvania	27.0	14.2	43.8	32
Rhode Island	22.3	13.7	31.6	43
South Carolina	42.6	22.3	68.6	33
South Dakota	34.9	15.9	61.6	26
Tennessee	43.2	20.3	75.4	27
Texas	52.2	29.3	86.5	34
Utah	27.9	14.0	46.4	30
Vermont	17.9	7.5	30.5	25
Virginia	27.4	12.5	47.8	26
Washington	26.7	13.0	46.7	28
West Virginia	44.8	21.1	75.6	28
Wisconsin	26.2	11.7	47.2	25
Wyoming	39.0	17.0	68.9	25

■ Comparing birth rates for older juveniles (age 15–17) with those of young adults (ages 18 and 19) shows that the older juvenile rate ranged from 19% of the young adult rate in Montana to 43% of the young adult rate in Rhode Island and 69% in the District of Columbia.

Source: Authors' adaptation of Martin et al.'s Births: Final Data for 2010, *National Vital Statistics Reports*, 61(1).

The teenage birth rate in the U.S. is high compared with other industrialized nations

Birth rates for a large number of countries are collected annually by the Statistics Division of the United Nations. The most recent data available for industrialized countries were not available for a common year but ranged from 2007 to 2010.

Births per 1,000 females ages 15–19

Country	Birth rate	Data year
United States	39.1	2009
Russian Federation	29.8	2009
New Zealand	29.4	2009
United Kingdom	25.1	2009
Portugal	15.6	2009
Australia	15.5	2010
Israel	14.3	2009
Ireland	14.3	2009
Canada	14.1	2008
Spain	13.3	2007
France	11.9	2009
Greece	11.8	2009
Belgium	10.8	2008
Austria	10.3	2010
Norway	9.5	2010
Germany	9.2	2009
Finland	8.4	2009
Italy	6.5	2010
Sweden	5.9	2009
Denmark	5.5	2009
Netherlands	5.3	2009
Japan	4.9	2009
Switzerland	4.1	2009

Source: Authors' adaptation of the United Nations Statistics Division's *Adolescent Birth Rate, per 1,000 Women* [machine-readable data file].

Although decreasing since 2000, the birth rate for U.S. females ages 15–19 still remained one of the highest. In 2009, the U.S. had a teenage birth rate of 39.1, more than twice the rates of Portugal and Australia, 3 times the rate of Spain, and nearly 10 times the rates of Japan and Switzerland.

Although high school dropout rates declined over the past 20 years, more than 370,000 youth quit high school in 2009

The dropout rate varies across demographic subgroups

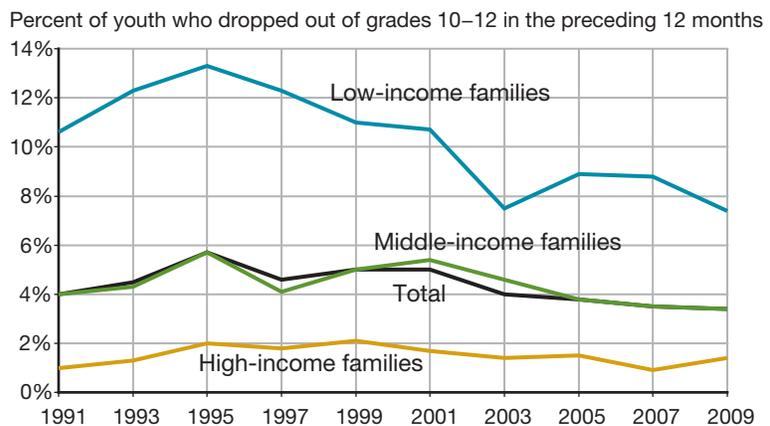
The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) develops annual estimates of (1) the number of persons in grades 10–12 who dropped out of school in the preceding 12 months and (2) the percent of persons ages 16–24 who were dropouts. The first statistic (the event dropout rate) provides an annual estimate of flow into the dropout pool. The second statistic (the status dropout rate) provides an estimate of the proportion of dropouts in the young adult population. Event dropout rates are based on data from the annual October Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS and the American Community Survey (ACS) are the sources for status dropout estimates.

Almost 4 of every 100 persons (3.4%) enrolled in high school in October 2008 left school before October 2009 without successfully completing a high school program—in other words, in the school year 2008/2009, about 373,000 youth dropped out and the event dropout rate was 3.4%. There was little difference in the 2009 event dropout rate for males (3.5%) and females (3.4%). The event dropout rates did not differ statistically among the various racial/ethnic groups: white non-Hispanic (2.4%), black non-Hispanic (4.8%), and Hispanic (5.8%). However, the event dropout rate was far lower (1.4%) for youth living in families with incomes in the top one-fifth of all family incomes than for youth living in families with incomes in the bottom one-fifth of all family incomes (7.4%).

Educational failure is linked to unemployment

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) estimates that 54% of the 2009/2010

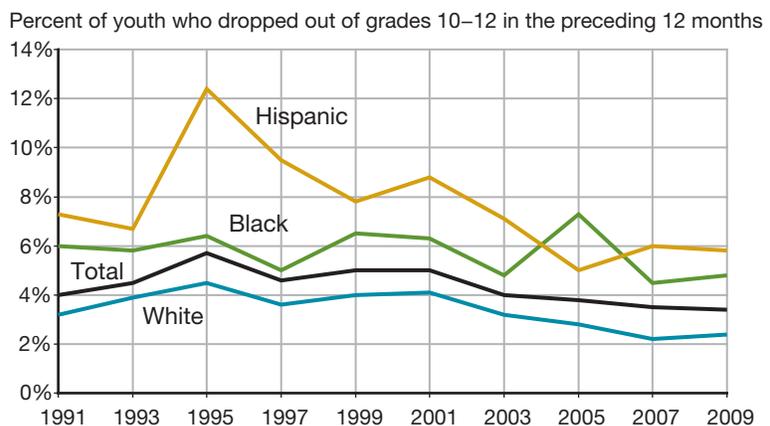
The average proportion of students who quit school without completing a high school program was lower in the 2000s than in the 1990s



Note: Low income is defined as the bottom 20% of family incomes for the year, middle income is between 20% and 80% of all family incomes, and high income is the top 20% of all family incomes.

Source: Authors' adaptation of Chapman et al.'s *Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates in the United States: 1972–2009*.

Dropout rates for white youth have remained below the rates of other racial/ethnic groups



Note: Race proportions do not include persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Persons of Hispanic ethnicity can be of any race.

Source: Authors' adaptation of Chapman et al.'s *Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates in the United States: 1972–2009*.

school year dropouts were in the labor force (employed or actively looking for work), and 43% of those dropouts in the labor force were unemployed. In comparison, 77% of the 2010 high school graduates who were not in college were in the labor force, and a far smaller proportion of this workforce (33%) was unemployed.

Dropouts are more likely than educated peers to be institutionalized

Based on the 2006–2007 American Community Survey, the Center for Labor Market Studies at Northeastern University estimated that 1.4% of the nation’s 16- to 24-year-olds were institutionalized, with nearly 93% of these young adults residing in correctional facilities. The incidence of institutionalization among high school dropouts was more than 63 times higher than among four-year college graduates.

Dropouts generate lifelong economic burdens on society

The Center for Labor Market Studies estimates the social and economic costs of dropouts as a consequence of lower earning power and job opportunities, unemployment, incarceration, and government assistance. High school dropouts are estimated to earn \$400,000 less than high school graduates across their working lives. The lifetime earning loss for males can exceed \$500,000. In addition, because of lower lifetime earnings, dropouts contribute far less in federal, state, and local taxes than they receive in cash benefits, in-kind transfer costs, and incarceration costs as compared to typical high school graduates.

The Center for Labor Market Studies conducted a separate analysis of institutionalization rates of 16- to 24-year-old males by school enrollment and educational attainment. Almost 1 of every 10 male high school dropouts was institutionalized on a given day in 2006–2007 versus less than 1 of 33 high school graduates. Only 1 of every 500 males who held a bachelor’s degree were institutionalized. Furthermore, across all demographic subgroups, institutionalization rates were highest among high school dropouts.

Over the years, demographic disparities in annual event dropout rates have accumulated to produce noticeable differences in status dropout rates—i.e., the proportion of young adults (persons ages 16–24) who are not enrolled in school and have not completed high

school (or received an equivalency certificate). The status dropout rate measure typically includes civilian, noninstitutionalized 16- to 24-year-olds. Youth, such as those who are incarcerated or in the military, are not included. However, the American Community Survey allows for comparisons of status dropout rates for 16- to 24-year-olds residing in households with those living in noninstitutionalized and institutionalized group quarters. Regardless of race/ethnicity, status dropout rates were substantially higher for institutionalized youth than for other youth. In 2009, the status dropout rate was 40% for institutionalized youth and 8% for those living in households and noninstitutional group quarters (e.g., college housing and military quarters). A higher proportion of males (10%) than females (7%) were status dropouts.

In 2009, status dropout rates were higher for males, minorities, and institutionalized youth than for other youth

Race/ethnicity	Status dropout rate, 2009								
	Total			Noninstitutionalized			Institutionalized		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	9%	10%	7%	8%	9%	7%	40%	41%	31%
White	6	6	5	6	6	5	31	32	29
Black	11	13	8	10	11	8	44	46	30
Hispanic	18	21	14	18	21	14	47	48	37
Asian	3	4	3	3	4	3	45	47	–
AI/AN	16	18	14	15	17	14	41	43	–
2 or more races, not Hispanic	7	7	6	6	7	6	30	31	–

- Hispanic males had higher status dropout rates than all other racial/ethnic groups.
- Overall, Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native females had higher dropout rates than females of other student groups.

– Too few cases to produce a reliable rate.

Note: Data are from the American Community Survey 2009 and include all dropouts, regardless of when they last attended school, as well as individuals who may have never attended school in the U.S., such as immigrants who did not complete a high school diploma in their home country. The data represent status dropout rates for all 16- to 24-year-olds, including those who live in institutional and noninstitutional group quarters and households.

Source: Authors’ adaptation of Aud et al.’s *The Conditions of Education 2011*.

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