

Understanding Gangs and Delinquency on Oahu  
Volume I:  
A Report to the Twenty-Second Hawai'i State Legislature

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## PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Hawaii's Youth Gang Response System (YGRS) was created in 1990 by Act 189 of the Hawaii State Legislature. In years that followed, the system, administered since 1993 by the State's Office of Youth Services (OYS), has functioned to provide a vast array of prevention and intervention services to address gangs and delinquency in Hawaii.

The two volumes of this report present data and studies also funded by OYS but authored by the University of Hawaii's Youth Gang Project (YGP). As an applied research and policy-oriented project at the Social Science Research Institute, the YGP performs research, completes evaluations, and serves as the technical consultants to the YGRS. YGP has showcased its research at numerous conferences both locally and nationally, and has also published twenty-three reports including a number of academic journal articles.

Although it would be impossible to identify all of the individuals who frequently assist the University of Hawaii's Youth Gang Project, a handful need to be recognized. We would first like to acknowledge the continued and excellent staff in the Office of Youth Services, most notably Carl Imakyure and Bert Matsuoka for their on-going enthusiasm and support of the project. Additionally, we would like to thank all of those who agreed to participate in the following research, either through interviews or data collection. Our appreciation is extended to everyone at Honolulu Police Department, especially Wayne Anno, who assisted in the Hawaii Gang Member Tracking System evaluation. For their invaluable assistance, we thank the staff members who lead youth services which were evaluated at Kaimuki-Waialae YMCA's Palolo Project, Hui Malama Ohana Youth Service Center, and Boys and Girls Club--Waianae's Power Hour: Kellet Hussey, Kim Capllonch, David Nakada, Robert Bajet, AJ Wheeler, Cheryl Johnson, Stan Inkyo, Jaque Kelly-Ueoka, and Kili Kono.

**Finally, as with all external evaluation and research, the contents and analyses presented are those of the authors.**

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### **Trends in Juvenile Arrests**

Hawaii, like the rest of the mainland, has seen decreases in juvenile arrests over the last decade. The number of juvenile arrests declined by over a third (36.3%) due largely to a decline of 50.6% in the arrests of youth for index property crimes (burglary, larceny theft, auto theft and arson). Arrests of youth for serious crimes of violence decreased by 5.5%, with relatively steep decreases since the mid-nineties. As an example, arrests of young people for robbery decreased by 16.2% and aggravated assault arrests decreased by 22.3% between 2000 and 2001 (Department of the Attorney General, 2002).

Status offenses<sup>1</sup> continue to account for a very large percentage of the juvenile arrests in Hawaii. In 2001, well over one in three (38.2%) arrests of youth in our state are for these non-criminal offenses for which only youth can be arrested. By contrast, they account for only about one in ten arrests nationally (11.3%). Recent years, though, have shown some decreases in these arrests. Arrests for curfew and runaway combined have decreased 19.2% in the decade, with a decline since the mid 1990's (28.9%). Nationally, status offenses arrests have shown a mixed pattern: arrests of youth for curfew and loitering offenses increased 34.3% but runaway arrests declined 24.8%.

Because status offenses constitute such a large percentage of overall juvenile arrests in Hawaii, girls continue to be brought into Hawaii's juvenile justice system in proportions far larger than those seen on the mainland. In 2001, as an example, girls

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<sup>1</sup> Status offenses are non-criminal behaviors for which only youth may be taken into custody (e.g., running away from home or being truant).

constituted 41% of juvenile arrests in Hawaii, while nationally, girls constitute 28% of juvenile arrests (Department of the Attorney General, 2002; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2002).

### **Trends in Gang Membership on Oahu**

Data collected and maintained by the Honolulu Police Department's Hawaii Gang Member Tracking System reveal 736 youth identified as gang members—an increase of 18% in the last two years. Gang members are overwhelmingly male (97%) and generally in the 18-25 years old age group. These figures likely reflect the fact that official gang data bases, like the one employed by HPD, have relatively high standards for inclusion and tend to represent more gang youth and young adults that are more seriously involved in criminal activities.

Certain neighborhoods, particularly Kalihi and Waipahu, have produced many of the youth suspected of gang membership, which in turn, partially explains the heavy representation of Filipino youth (40% of those suspected of gang membership) and Samoan youth (22% of those suspected of gang membership). Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians account for 12.5% of youth suspected of gang membership. Because both Kalihi and Waipahu have been sites for federally-funded Weed and Seed crime prevention and intervention efforts, it is also possible that heavy policing of these neighborhoods may be a factor in these findings. Increased law enforcement and surveillance, especially for illegal drug offenses may have resulted in more individuals' names entered into the HGMST tracking system from these neighborhoods.

## **Truancy: Two Views**

In 2002, the University of Hawaii Youth Gang Project (YGP) assisted Honolulu Police Department's (HPD) School Attendance Program (SAP) in uncovering and understanding both parents' and children's explanations for repeated truancy

In an attempt to discern causes for truancy, officers conducting truancy counseling sessions administered surveys to both parents and children enrolled in the program. After reviewing these self-report questionnaires (69 from Kapolei and Leeward areas and 65 from Honolulu and Windward areas<sup>2</sup>) for students who had received a referral to HPD for repeated truancy, some patterns of behavior contributing to truancy began to emerge.

Parents typically attributed truancy to peer or sibling influence. Their children, on the other hand, most often gave school-related concerns as their reasons for missing school. Truant children reported concerns ranging from dislike of one or more teachers, a lack of interest in school, or school problems in many forms. Youth cited a range of school-related concerns as reasons they refused to go to school: lack of interest in school, boredom, classes being too long, difficulty with homework assignments, and having already failed courses, etc. One area of agreement between parents was the difficulty of getting students up in the morning. Very few of the youth were missing school because of illness (though slightly more parents thought their children missed school due to illness than did the truant youth). Truant youth but not their parents were likely to report that family obligations and/or responsibilities kept them out of school.

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<sup>2</sup> Those surveys where a response was missing or indiscernible were excluded from this analysis.

More importantly, a number of students reported anxiety over fights at school such as being bullied as a frequent reason cited by youth for not attending school. The SAP survey of students and parents shows a correlation between students' level of attachment and academic performance in school, fear of violence, and their truant behavior. The maintenance of positive academic expectations, healthy peer and teacher involvement, and feelings of safety appear important areas to enhance in reducing unexcused absenteeism.

### **Samoa Youth: Comparing American Samoa and Hawaii**

Samoa youth are significantly over-represented among those arrested for juvenile offenses, and this over-representation is particularly marked among arrests for serious offenses. Moreover, Samoa youth, who constitute only 1.8% of the juvenile population, are almost a quarter of those suspected by HPD of being gang members.

Because so little is known about the problems facing Samoa youth, this exploratory research focused on interviewing key leaders in the area of youth work with Samoans both in Samoa and in Hawaii. Interviews with these Samoa experts identified key problems confronting the Samoa Community, and the particular challenges these pose for our state. Most significantly, Samoans in Hawaii experience extreme poverty that puts severe pressure on the communal values in traditional Samoa culture. In addition to the stresses of poverty, immigration to a country that places little value on sharing and care for the whole community and a great premium on individualism, consumerism, and competition produces a landscape that is difficult for Samoa youth to negotiate.

Reflecting the marginalization of Samoans in Hawaii, schools and other institutions have few, if any, individuals who speak Samoan or who have cultural competence about Samoa. Negative stereotypes of Samoan youth, often products of a failure to understand Samoan norms for youth, are compounded by a lack of information about key resources in the Samoan community (particularly the Samoan church) that could provide assistance in helping when youth problems are first identified. The failure of key institutions in our state to seek to understand the unique challenges facing the Samoans among us is a problem that requires urgent attention. Institutional discrimination at early levels in the educational system produces a woefully small number of Samoans attending institutions of higher education and even fewer in key leadership positions in our state. Interviews with experts in Samoan culture go a long way to helping us understand the many problems and challenges that lie ahead as we attempt to make Hawaii a welcoming place for our most marginalized ethnic group.

### **Community Profiles**

Throughout 2002, YGP continued developing community profiles of selected neighborhoods on Oahu. When comparing the various profiles, several significant differences emerged in demographic, school, and criminal characteristics. What follows is a summary of the sections of this report.

Waianae stood out as the community with the largest percentage living below the poverty level, the highest percentage living on public assistance, the highest percentage of suspended students, and the most students on free or reduced lunch. Waianae also stood out with the highest rate of aggravated assault (3.4 per 1,000 residents) and rape (.66 per 1,000 residents). In comparison, Kaimuki-Palolo community had the highest

number of households without wage or salary income and tied Kalihi-Palama with the highest murder rate among the neighborhoods selected (.08 per 1,000 residents). Lastly, Waipahu had the highest rate of auto theft (13.2), and Kahuku stood out with the highest rate of burglary (25.8) and larceny (68.3).

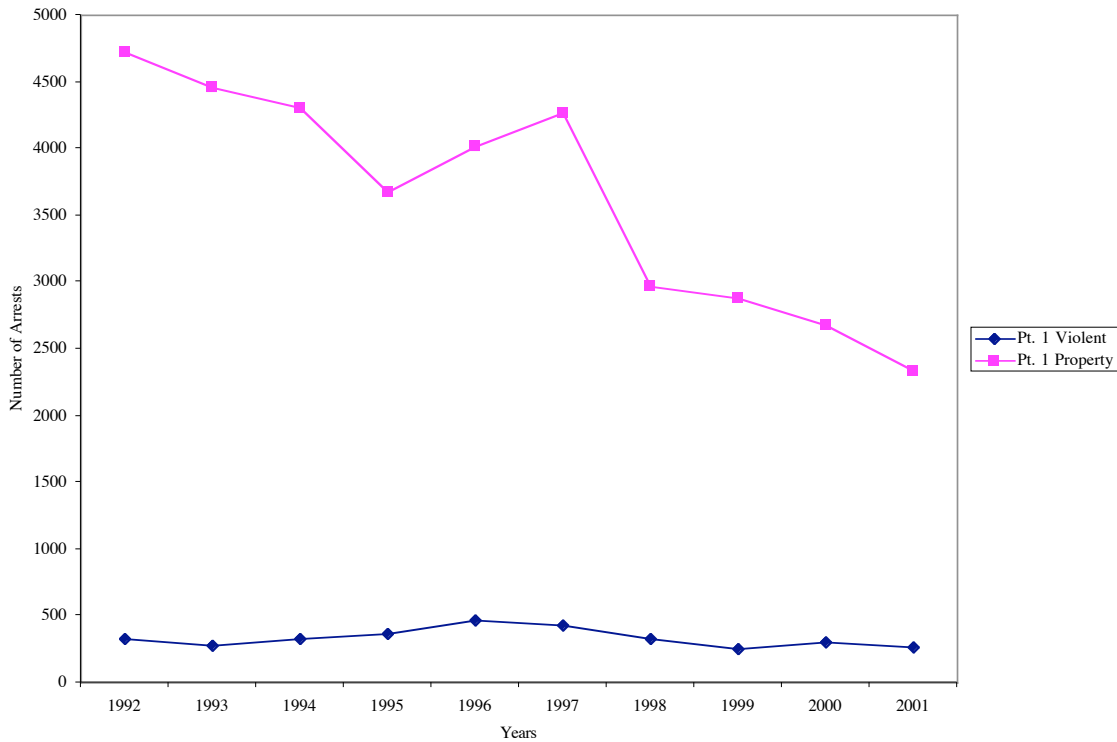
## CHAPTER ONE: JUVENILE ARREST TRENDS

### **United States Juvenile Arrest Trends, 1992-2001**

In 2001, arrests of young people accounted for nearly a fifth (1.6.4%) of all arrests in the United States. Over the last decade, youth arrests decreased by 2.5 % due largely to a dramatic drop in the arrests of youth for index offenses. Arrests of youth for what are called index crimes (a category that includes the serious violent crimes of murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, as well as property crimes like burglary, larceny theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson) decreased 30.7% between 1992 and 2001.

Another pattern was seen, though, when examining offenses that are not part of the “crime index.” Arrests of juveniles for other types of offenses (called Part 2 offenses) have increased 12.6% due to increases in juvenile arrests for crimes like drug abuse violations (up 121.3%), offenses against family and children (up 108.5%), and curfew and loitering (up 34.3%). More recently, though, the national trend has significant decreases in juvenile arrests. In the last five years, as an example, we have seen a 28.1% decline in arrests of youth for Part 1 Offenses and Part 2 Offenses down 16%. From 2000 to 2001, arrests of individuals age 18 and under declined or stayed the same in most all offenses including drug abuse and status offenses (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2002).

Chart 1: Total Part 1 Violent and Part 1 Property Offenses Arrests in Hawaii, 1992-01



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

### State of Hawaii Juvenile Arrest Trends, 1991-02

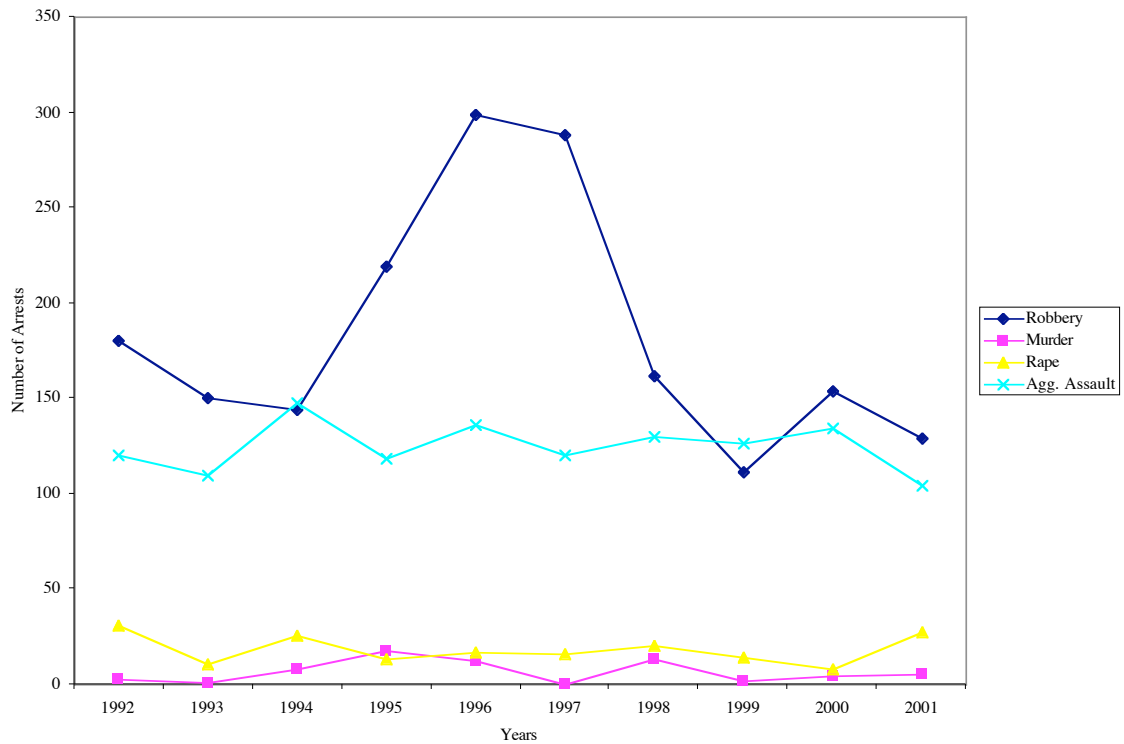
In Hawaii, the decreases in juvenile arrests are larger and reflect a consistent downward trend. Overall, juvenile crime arrests in Hawaii have decreased 36.3% in the past ten years, caused primarily by a decline of 50.6% in the arrests of youth for property crimes (Department of the Attorney General, 2002). Arrests of Hawaii youth for all Part 1 Index crimes decreased by 48.6% in the last decade.

### Trends in Hawaii's Arrests of Youth for Violent Offenses

Arrests for Part 1 violent crimes (murder, robbery, rape, and aggravated assault) fluctuated over the ten years but have been down from 1996. In the decade, arrests for

these offenses decreased 5.5%. In the past year, arrests for violent crimes declined 11.7% due to decreases in both robbery and aggravated assault offenses. Arrests for robbery are much lower than those numbers for 1996 and 1997. Between 2000 and 2001, arrests for robbery decreased 16.2%. Aggravated assault arrests varied little over the ten-year period until a downturn in 2001.

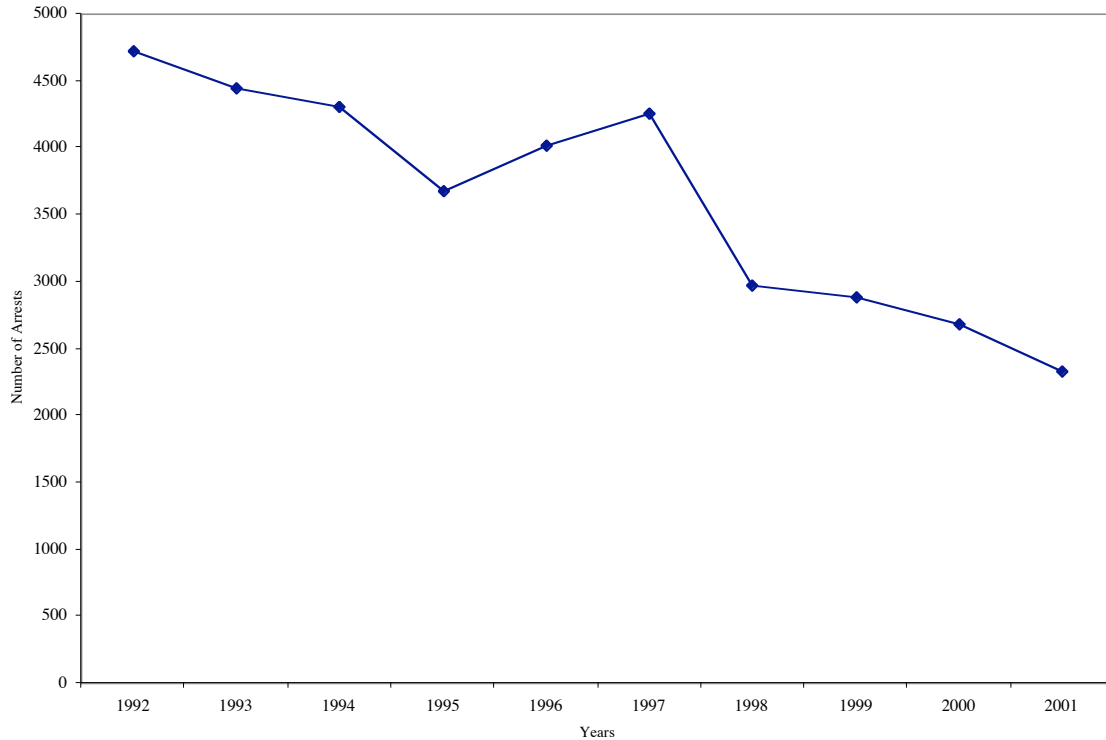
Chart 2: Juvenile Arrests for Part 1 Violent Offenses in Hawaii, 1992-2001



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

## Trends in Juvenile Property Arrests in Hawaii

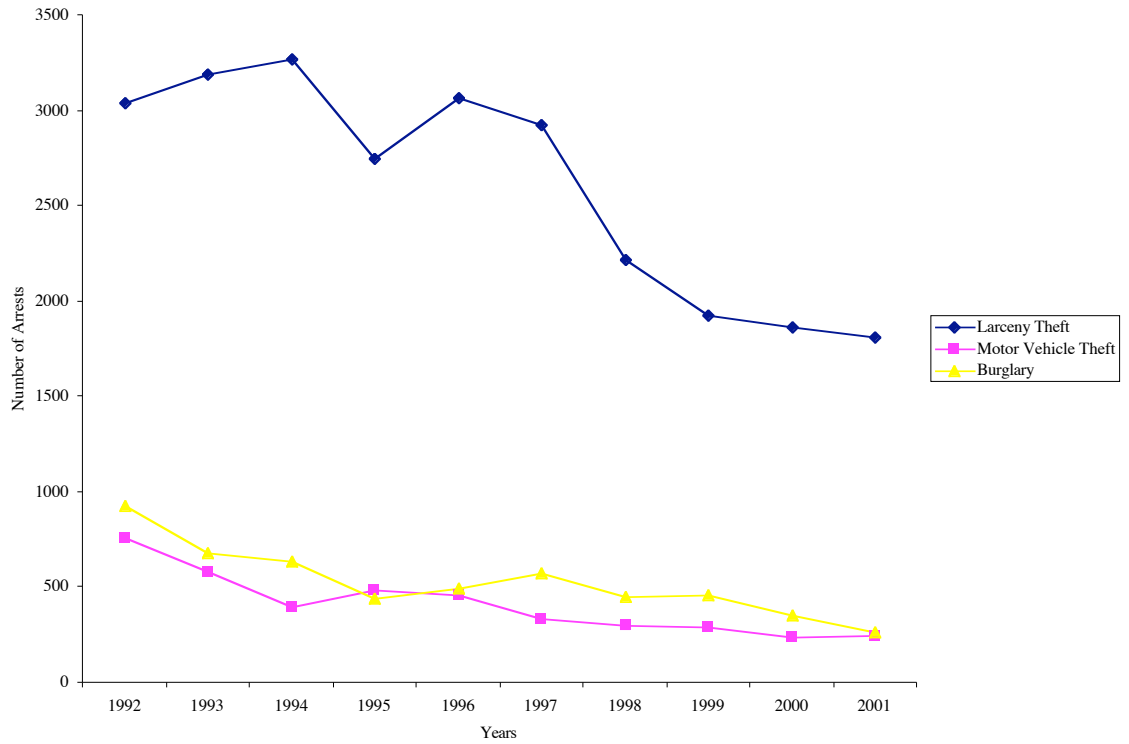
Chart 3: Juvenile Arrests for Part 1 Property Offenses in Hawaii, 1992-2001



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

Between 1992 and 2001, arrests of Hawaii youth for Part 1 property offenses (burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft and arson) decreased 50.6%. Larceny theft declined 40.3% and motor vehicle theft decreased 67% in the past decade. Burglary arrests have dropped 72% from their peak in 1992. Between 2000 and 2001, property offenses arrests declined 5.5%. Among these offenses, only motor vehicle theft arrests showed an increase (4.6%).

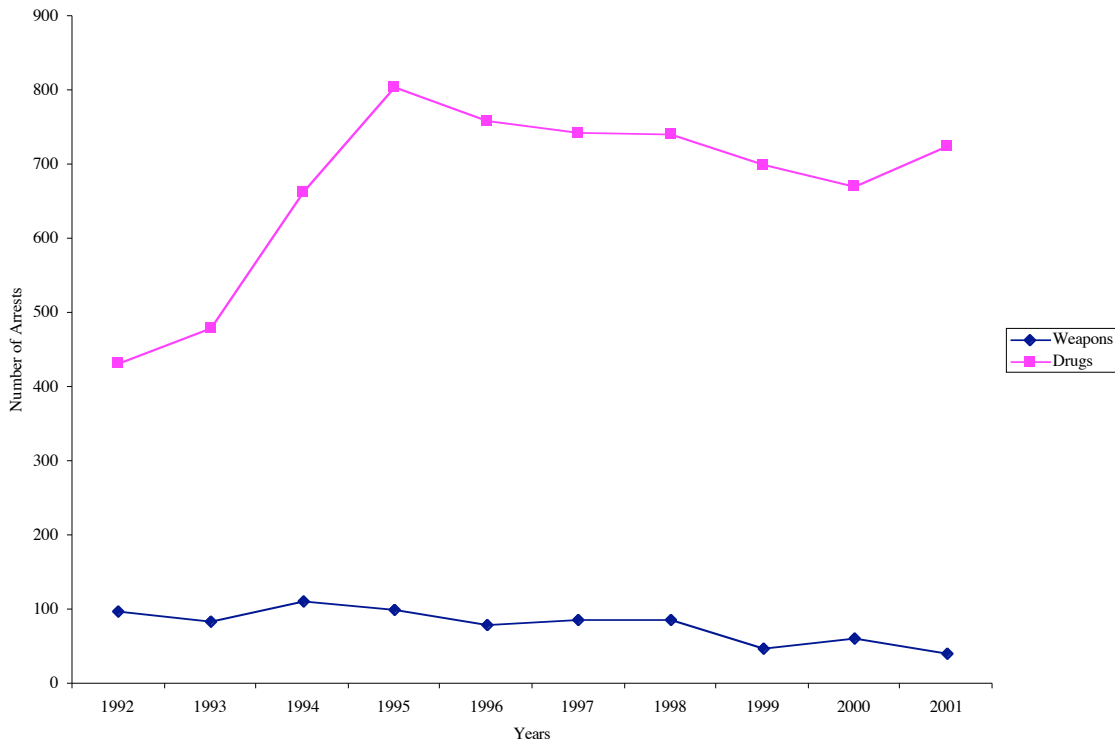
Chart 4: Juvenile Arrests by Type of Part 1 Property Offenses in Hawaii, 1992-2001



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

## Trends in Selected Juvenile Arrests

Chart 5: Juvenile Arrests for Weapon and Drug Offenses in Hawaii, 1992-2001



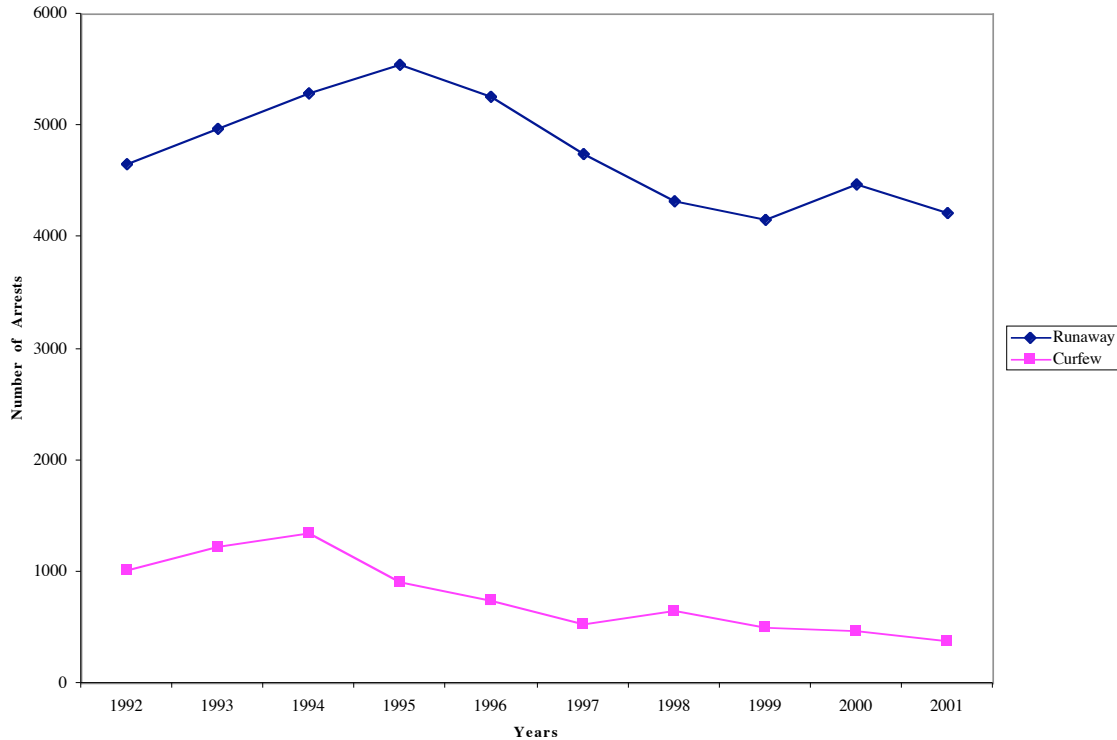
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

Arrests of youth for weapon offenses remained very stable during the last decade, while drug offenses showed an increase of 40.3 percent. The peak for drug arrests was in 1995. Arrest of youth for marijuana possession, the most common drug offense, showed an increase of 92.7% during the decade (though these arrests are down from 1995 as well). Nationally, arrests of youth for drug offenses increased 121.3% during the decade, though nationally these have also been declining in more recent years (dropping 7.2% since 1997).

The Part 2 Offense of “Other Assaults,” which are physical fights without a weapon, declined 27.9% in this decade.

## Trends in Arrests of Youth for Status Offenses

Chart 6: Juvenile Arrests for Status Offenses in Hawaii, 1992-2001



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

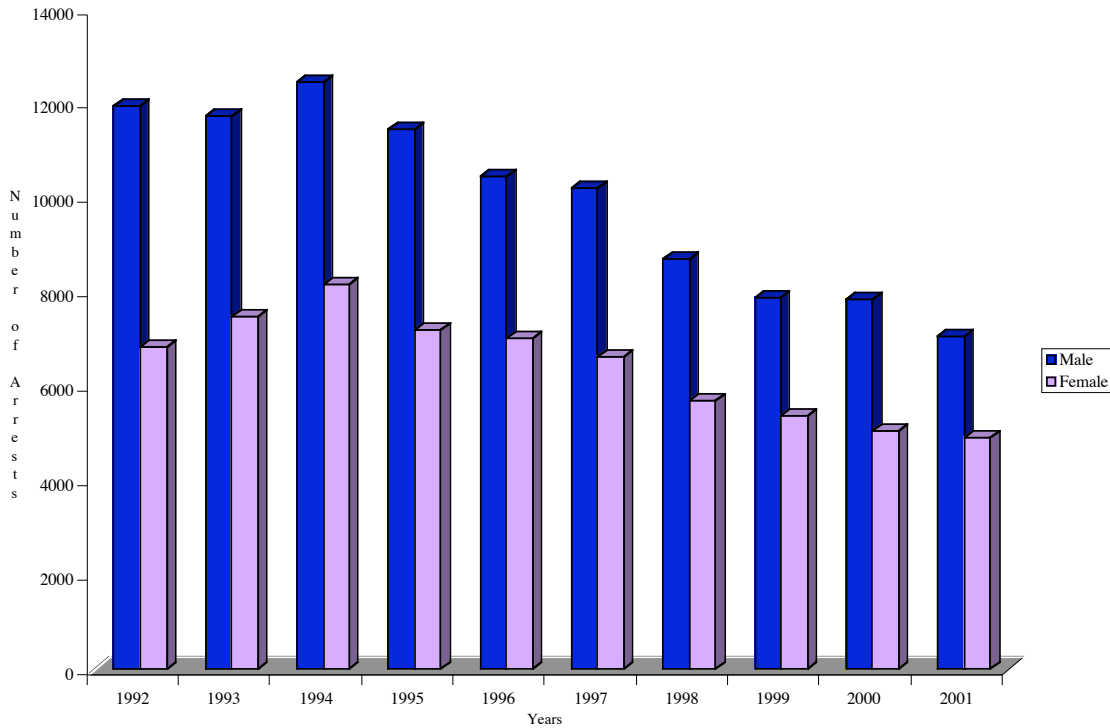
Status offenses continue to account for a very large percentage of the juvenile arrests in Hawaii. In 2001, well over one in three (38.2%) arrests of youth in our state were for these non-criminal offenses for which only youth can be arrested. By contrast, they account for only about one in ten arrests nationally (11.3% of arrests). Recent years, though, have shown some decreases in these arrests. Arrests for curfew and runaway combined have decreased 19.2% in the decade, with a greater decline since the mid 1990's (29%). Nationally, status offenses arrests have shown a mixed pattern; arrests of youth for curfew and loitering offenses increased 34.3% but runaway arrests declined 24.8%.

## **Arrest Trends by Gender**

Between 2000 and 2001 in Hawaii, arrests rates by gender remained essentially the same with a greater percentage of boys arrested for the more violent serious offenses and girls arrested more for the status offense of running away from home. However, among index offenses, girls accounted for 37.4% of the larceny-theft arrests and 34.8% of the motor vehicle theft arrests.

Juvenile males accounted for 69.8% of all arrests in Hawaii in 2001. Since 1992, male arrests have declined 41% and female arrests have declined as well though less sharply (28.2%). This pattern varies from that seen in the nation: arrests of males declined 9.2% but arrests for girls increased 18.8%. In Hawaii, arrests for both males and females have declined since the peak in 1994. Nationally, arrests for both genders decreased in all Part 1 Offenses except in aggravated assault where the arrests for girls increased 23.5% and arson, 4%. The increase in aggravated assault registered a 12.2% increase in the ten-year period for arrests of girls for violent offenses nationally. Arrests of girls for the Part 2 Offenses of “Other Assaults” was up 65.9% in ten years and drug abuse violation arrests were up 200.6% compared to 110.3% for boys. Girls show a greater increase in curfew violations and loitering than boys—up 56.7% compared to 25.6%. Both males and females were down in arrests for runaway--29.5% and -21.3% respectively. In Hawaii, females accounted for 61.8% of the runaway arrests, almost identical to the national rate of 59.8%.

Chart 7: Juvenile Arrests in Hawaii by Gender, 1992-2001



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

Males and females tend to show reasonably similar trends in reduction of arrests from the mid-90's in Hawaii. The decrease was more remarkable for males when overall arrests declined 41% while for females it declined 28% in the ten-year period. Between 2000 and 2001, arrests of juvenile males dropped 10% and females declined 5.1%.

Males accounted for 89.8% of the Part 1 violent arrests and 65.8% of the Part 1 property arrests. Ten years prior, males were 71% of the Part 1 violent arrests and 73% of the Part 2 property arrests. In 2001, males were arrested for 74.9%% of the drug offenses and 88.1%% of the weapons offenses, compared to 71% for drugs and 92% for

weapons in 1992. The percentage of female arrests for both drugs and weapons went up this past year compared to 2000.

Nationally, drug abuse violations increased greatly for both male and female youth, 110.3% and 200.6% respectively between 1992-2001. However, the five-year trend shows a downturn of male arrests for this offense (-9.0%) and a small increase (+4.1%) for girls. That was similar for the percentage change between years 2000 and 2001.

Chart 8: Juvenile Arrests for Part I and II Offenses by Gender, 2001

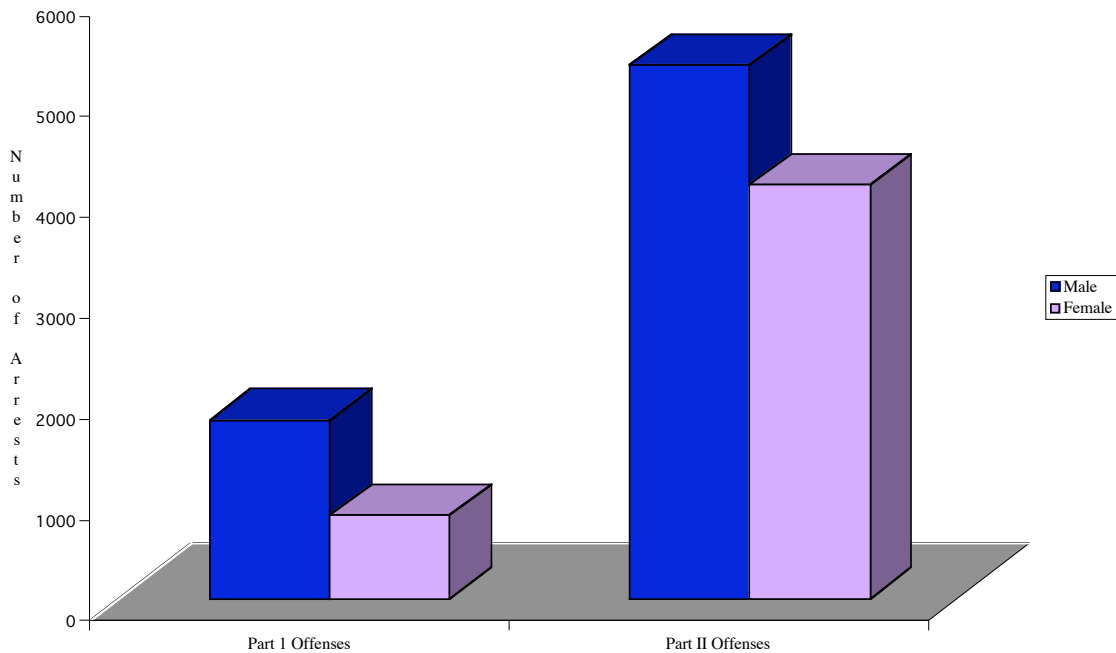
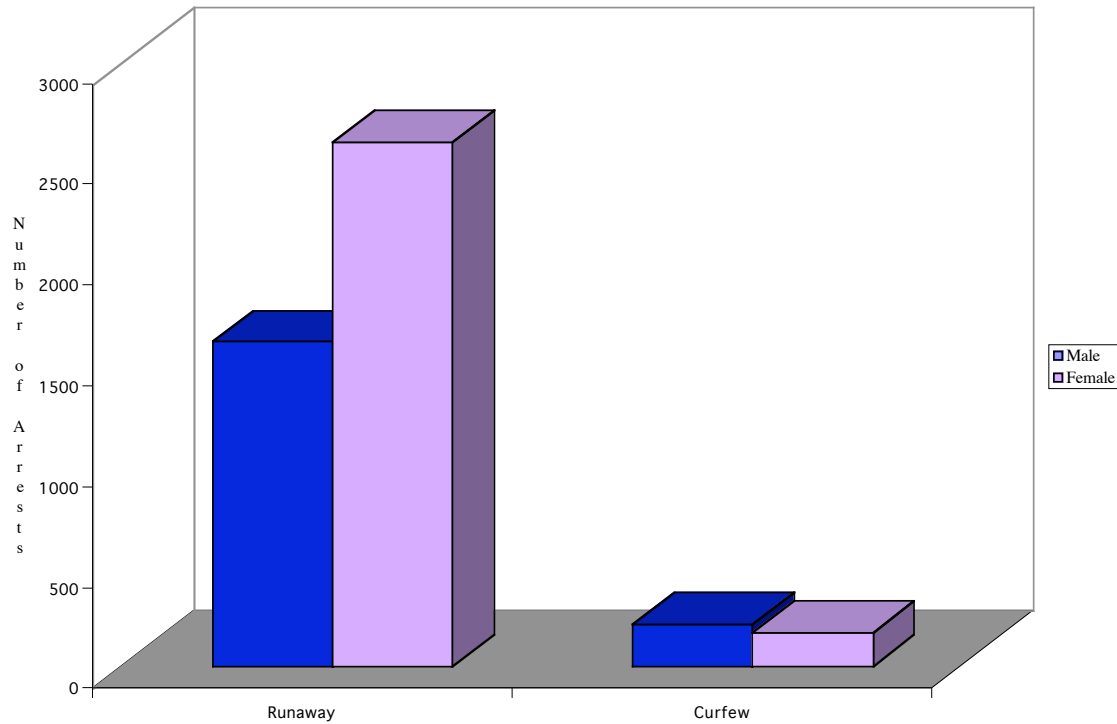


Chart 9: Status Offenses Arrests in Hawaii by Gender, 2001



Source for both charts: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii, 2001*. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

## References

Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division, *Crime in Hawaii, 2001: Uniform Crime Reports*. Honolulu, HI: 2002

Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Crime in the United States, 2001: Uniform Crime Reports*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Dept. of Justice, 2002. Taken from FBI web site <http://www.fbi.gov/ucr> Tables 32, 36, 38)

## CHAPTER TWO: THE HAWAII GANG MEMBER TRACKING SYSTEM

### **Introduction**

The current version of Hawaii Gang Member Tracking System (HGMTS) has been operational for the Honolulu Police Department (HPD) for more than two years, and the current database contains information collected from 1995-2002. As of July 2002, there were 736 identified gang members identified on Oahu, which represents an increase of 18% in the past two years. The HGMTS database is a derivative of the *Gang Reporting Evaluation and Tracking System* (GREAT) that was originally developed by the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department adapted for use in Honolulu in 1989. The current HGMTS system has some similarities with other U.S. urban police departments, most notably with the Houston, Texas Police Department's *Gang Member Tracking System* (see Vila and Meeker 1997 for examples of other U.S urban tracking systems).

This chapter has two sections. The first section summarizes data available in HGMTS. It gives an overview of the criteria used for tracking as well as information about gang members according to gender, race, age, and region. The second section of this chapter includes an evaluation. It describes conclusions, future directions, and suggested improvements for HGMTS, based on interviews with officers familiar with the system.

### **Criteria for Identification of Gang Members**

Similar to Los Angeles County's criteria system, HPD uses twelve criteria in their identification of someone as a gang member. Of the following twelve conditions,

applicability of at least three of the criteria is necessary to identify an individual as belonging to a gang. They are:

1. Self-admission of gang membership.
2. Tattoos depicting gang affiliations.
3. Style of dress consistent with gang membership.
4. Possession of gang graffiti on personal property or clothing.
5. Use of hand signs or symbols associated with gangs.
6. Reliable informant identifies person as a gang member.
7. Associates with known gang members.
8. Prior arrests with known gang members; crimes consistent with usual gang activity.
9. Statements from family members indicating gang membership.
10. Other law enforcement agencies identify the subject as a gang member.
11. Attendance at gang functions or known gang hangouts.
12. Identified by other gang members or rival gang members.

The most recent data obtained from HPD break down gang members by age, ethnicity, gender, and their affiliated geographic region. This information is helpful for establishing evaluation, intervention, and prevention programs designed for gang-related youth, as well as other at-risk youth susceptible to joining gangs. Additionally, the data are able to identify geographical regions that have more gang activity. The following charts and tables were compiled from data received in August 2002:

## Age and Gender, September 1995-July 2002

Chart 10: Males by Age (N=696)

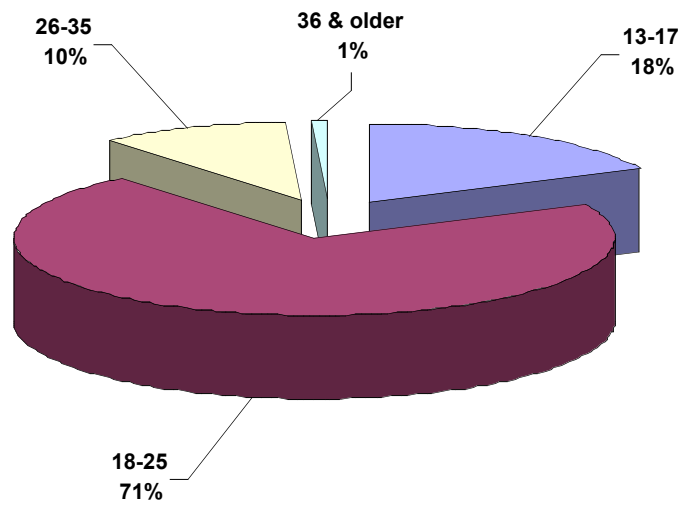
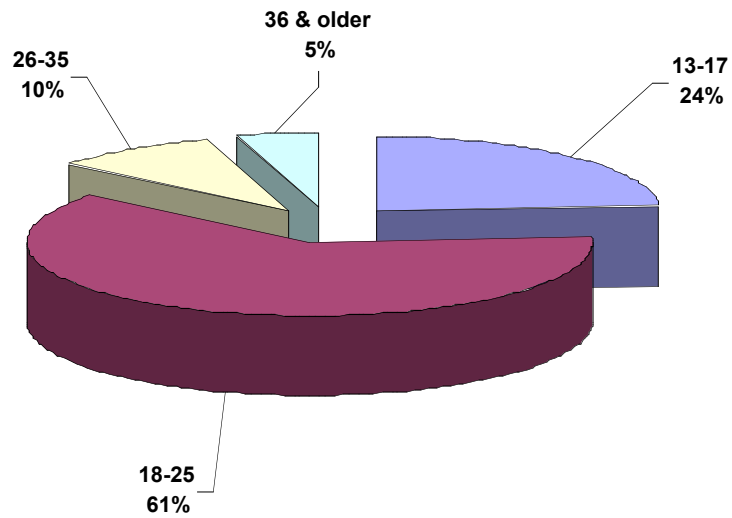


Chart 11: Females by Age (N= 21)



The charts illustrate gang membership for both males and females at ages grouped by 13-17 years, 18-25 years, 26-35 years, and 36 and older. Male gang members outnumbered their female counterparts at a ratio of roughly 36:1. Data showed males, 13-58 years old, were 97% of all gangs with the rest being females, ages 14-40. There were 123 reported male gang members in the 13-17 years old age group compared to five female gang members in the same age range. Furthermore, there were a reported 495 male gang members in the 18-25 years old range compared to 13 females in this same age group. For gang members between the ages of 26-35, the HGMTS database contains 73 listings for males and two for females.

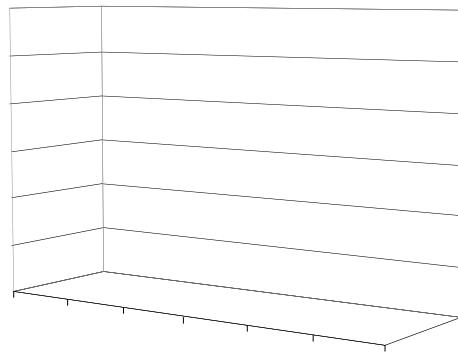
However, caution must be exercised in reviewing these numbers because a gang member may appear more than once due to multiple contacts with police as the individual ages. This may suggest a need for purging old contacts or upgrading the database as gang members no longer meet criteria for youth gang membership (e.g.: entry for male gang member aged 58).

### **Ethnicity and Gender, September 1995-July 2002**

The HGMTS data for ethnicity and gender indicates higher gang membership for Filipino and Samoan minorities youths. Filipinos make up 40% of documented gang members, followed by Samoans at 22%, and native Hawaiian at 12.5%. The higher representation of these ethnic groups seems to suggest that youth in these ethnic groups are more likely to be gang members. However, it is also possible that these data reflect enforcement patterns, meaning that police officers might “over-police” certain ethnic groups in certain communities. It should be noted, though, that self-report data suggest

relatively high rates of gang membership in these ethnic groups, particularly those living in communities like Kalihi and Waipahu (Chesney-Lind et al 2001a, 2001b). Females are 7.5% of Samoan gang members, 1.4% of “Others,” and under one percent for the remaining ethnicities.

Chart 12: Gang Membership from HGMTS by Ethnicity and Gender



**Ethnicity by Region: September 1995-July 2002**

The identification of gang members’ ethnicity by the geographic area they frequent<sup>3</sup> can be an invaluable tool for understanding and targeting susceptibility to gang membership. When combined with an economic and cultural sensitivity to those youth in the particular communities, this information can be particularly useful in creating prevention and intervention programs to specific groups that tend to cluster in some neighborhoods. Furthermore, these statistics may be useful in determining, on a progressive continuum, the success or failure rates of these programs and their continuing relevance to the communities they are designed to serve.

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<sup>3</sup> HPD defines region by where the gang member is known to spend most of his/her time, “cruise,” or more importantly, engage in illegal activities.

Table 1 provides data of gang membership by ethnicity and region.<sup>4</sup> The findings appear to closely follow what is known about the ethnic makeup of neighborhoods on Oahu. Gang members were identified in regions known to have residents of these ethnic groups, e.g., Filipinos and Samoans in Waipahu, Samoans in Mayor Wright Housing and Kuhio Park Terrace, and Chinese in Chinatown and near McKinley High School (Makiki/Ala Moana/Pawaa). Those grouped in “Others” (Whites, African Americans, other Pacific Islanders or Asians) are also notable in some areas like Ewa Beach, Mililani/Wahiawa/Waialua, Kapiolani/McCully/Kapahulu, and Waikiki. The fact that HPD separates major housing projects in Kalihi from a more general Kalihi category and Hans L’Orange Park from the rest of Waipahu makes neighborhood analysis confusing to those who are familiar with more conventional geographic boundaries.

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<sup>4</sup> The geographic region names used are those chosen by HPD not by the YGP researchers.

Table 1: Gang Membership from HGMTS by Ethnicity and Region

Geographic Area	Filipino	Samoan	Hawaiian	Chinese	Vietnamese	Others	Total
Waipahu	181	41	17	2	0	3	244
Mayor Wright Housing	7	70	12	2	1	11	103
Mililani/Wahiawa/Waialua	27	8	22	4	0	18	79
McKinley High School	6	0	0	11	17	10	44
Aiea/Halawa	8	18	10	0	0	1	37
Ewa Beach	11	1	10	0	0	14	36
Kalihi	22	3	0	0	0	2	27
Kap./McCully/Kapahulu	1	0	3	0	0	16	20
Hans L'Orange Park	17	0	0	0	0	0	17
Chinatown	0	0	0	15	2		17
Palolo/Kaimuki	0	2	1	0	0	6	8
Waikiki	0	0	0	0	0	8	8
Kuhio Park Terrace	0	7	0	0	0	0	7
Makiki	1	0	3	0	0	3	7
Honolulu (undefined)	0	0	0	1	2	2	5
Kaneohe/Laie	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Others	12	9	12	0	3	18	54
Total	293	160	90	35	25	112	714

## Age by Region: September 1995-July 2002

Table 2: Gang Membership from HGMTS by Age and Region

Geographic Area	13-18 Years	19-22 Years	23-27 Years	28-38 Years	Total
Waipahu	84	84	74	7	249
Mayor Wright Housing	11	37	49	9	106
Mililani/Wahiawa/Waiialua	11	50	17	0	78
McKinley High School	8	22	14		44
Kap./McCully/Kapahulu	26	10	0	1	37
Aiea/Halawa	10	8	11	0	29
Ewa Beach	5	15	7	1	28
Kalihi	7	4	7	2	20
Hans L'Orange Park	14	1	1		16
Kuhio Park Terrace	3	4	0	0	7
Palolo/Kaimuki	4	5	0	0	9
Waikiki	0	2	0	0	2
Kaneohe/Laie	0	0	1	1	2
Honolulu (undefined)	0	1	1	0	2
Chinatown	0	3	8		11
Others	9	45	23	3	80
Total	192	291	213	24	720

Table 2 shows age-related geographic concentrations of suspected gang members. Overall, the 19-22 years group is the most represented in the tracking system, followed by the next older group and then the younger ones, age 13-18 years.

Waipahu, with the largest number of gang members tracked (249), had similar numbers represented in the three age ranges under 28 years of age and by far the most in the youngest group: 84 youth, age 13-18, identified as gang members. Mayor Wright Housing has the largest number tracked in the older age groups. The pattern of those in their early 20's being tracked is true for several other regions such as Mililani/Wahiawa/Waiialua, McKinley High School vicinity, and Ewa Beach. The regions which have the largest proportion of those represented in the 13-18 years group are Hans L'Orange Park, Aiea/Halawa and Kapiolani/McCully/Kapahulu. The numbers illustrate a need for age-related prevention and intervention programs targeted for those neighborhoods. For example, the data would indicate that Waipahu appears to need services for a wide range of individuals under age 28; in Hans L'Orange Park (also Waipahu) area and Kapiolani/McCully/Kapahulu the focus should be on adolescent prevention services. It should be noted that youth not currently involved in gang activities have a higher susceptibility to joining gangs in areas where such activity is more highly visible. These demographics are highly useful tools for determining the allocation of funds for agencies whose primary focus are on specific age groups residing in particular neighborhoods where the identified need is greatest.

## **System Evaluation and Conclusion**

### **Methodology**

During 2002, YGP conducted an evaluation of HGMTS. In this evaluation, four interviews of officers who are familiar with HGMTS (either through administering the system, collecting/using the information, or inputting data) were completed. It should be noted that some officers (N=3) who were referred to YGP were reluctant to give an interview during our evaluation period (September 2002-December 2002). Of those in this category, the most common reason was that they felt they did not have enough experience or knowledge about the system to offer a thoughtful opinion. Hence, only a limited number of officers were surveyed, and as a result, the conclusions that could be generated about HGMTS are based on the insights of a limited number of officers; however, those with whom we did speak were very familiar with the system.

**Recommendations.** The current HGMTS represents an improvement over earlier systems, described by two officers as “extremely cumbersome.” In general, interviewees felt improvements needed to be made to increase its usefulness for HPD. One concern was that the system was not frequently accessed by police officers and therefore not very useful. Despite this overall concern, they agreed that HGMTS does have potential as a good way of tracking gang members on the islands. One interviewee also felt it is a valuable source for the Criminal Investigation Unit (CID), when they want to investigate conspiracy activity/charges (conspiracy to associate with other gang members).

Of the information gathered, the following recommendations were proposed:

- **Among gang detail members, the most often expressed suggestion was for increased training for officers responsible for inputting data and a higher priority placed on reliability and consistency.** The utility of any system like HGMTS relies on the accuracy of the information submitted. If a youth lies to an officer about his/her gang affiliation or another youth's membership, obvious misidentification and inaccuracies could happen. One problem, in particular, was noted by one interviewee: some personnel mistakenly think that self-admission of gang membership is required for suspects to be identified as a gang member.

These officers were using this criteria as a mandatory one in their information-gathering process. Depending upon the frequency of this problem, under-identification of gang members on Oahu is a possibility and the numbers presented in this report may actually be lower than the reality. Better training of officers to the gang member criteria and application can help address these situations.

- **Personnel in both gang detail and in programming recommend an ability to cross reference gang members by alias.**

This recommendation was made in order to eliminate duplication: the same youth could be entered into the system more than once, by his/her real name and then by an alias. If a cross referencing system were developed, this duplication would be eliminated and a more accurate number of gang members would be developed.

- **Eliminate duplication in record keeping.** Currently, one complaint offered by one interviewee was that officers do not always fill out the HGMTS information cards in the field (when officers encounter youths, they fill out an “information card” on them. On this card is a section for gang membership information.) Police officers complained about duplication in paperwork. They felt they have to complete two sets of paperwork that relay similar information. One officer suggested a merger of the information cards and report reports, i.e. including necessary HGMTS data-gathering sections on regular police reports. This will reduce duplication concerns in recordkeeping. The gang member tracking information could then be entered from the police reports.
- **Extend database to outer islands and connect with database already established in Hawaii County, which is presently inaccessible to HPD.** According to the Hilo department (and evident from the unavailability of Hawaii County gang member data in this report), information about gang members on other islands is not readily available to law enforcement. Gang members may travel between islands and engage in criminal activity, according to one of the interviewees. He furthered this thought by stating that having this information networked among all the islands would better facilitate communication and law enforcement goals, in his opinion.
- **Connect with California Law Enforcement databases such as the Los Angeles County Sheriff’s Gang Tracking System, or the Orange County Gang**

**Incident Tracking System, so that information can be accessed when mainland gang members are apprehended in Hawaii.** One interviewee felt that gang members from Los Angeles travel to the islands. He included one example of gang members from California arrested for burglary on the North Shore. In addition, another officer felt that Los Angeles gang members were beginning to reside on parts of Oahu. Because of this, the recommendation was given to connect data with Los Angeles County.

- **Frequent purging of old data in the system was recommended.** The Orange County system, for example, automatically purges from the database those gang members not accessed or upgraded within a five-year period (see Valentine, 1992). The information available in HGMTS is most useful when current and updated frequently. Three interviewees felt the system would be most effective if HPD could develop a similar system of purging.
- **Develop mobile accessibility from patrol car equipped computer terminals so that cases could be entered into personal computers to be later downloaded into HGMTS database.** This recommendation also eliminates police officers' complaints about paperwork duplication.
- **Having more than one person available for repairs and maintenance of HGMTS can aid in delivery of current, accurate information.** According to our review, only one ITS employee is capable of implementing repairs to the

system in the event of a breakdown. Consequently, one or more other individuals need to be trained to implement design reorganizations or repair the system.

Potential candidates for this position should be drawn from a pool of personnel familiar with the practical application of gang related data entry.

According to the interviews, HGMITS requires some improvement if it is to become a useful way of tracking gang members. Overall, however, it remains as the main source for such collective information and has potential to become more useful in the future. Therefore, moving the system statewide would be a logical next step, according to our interviewees. The overall purpose of the HGMITS is to maintain an information database on gang members and non-gang affiliated associates of gang members, for the purposes of crime investigation, deterrence, and statistical analysis. Once connected with law enforcement agencies in the other counties, the system would allow gang detail to better manage limited resources and coordinate anti-gang activities on a statewide basis. The systematic inputting of statistical information also helps to track trends and evolutionary patterns of gang behavior. This information is invaluable for the implementation of prevention, intervention, and reduction of gang activity and violence. Maximizing the potential benefits accruing from the information age technology now at the disposal of law enforcement and social service agencies can be a shared goal among these disparate organizations, especially if inter- and intradepartmental cooperation and consistency are available.

Those who fund HGMITS might also consider assisting HPD in maintaining an “audit trail” of all users, especially once the system is connected to neighbor islands.

This is recommended as an effective way of knowing how often the system is really accessed and used by personnel (see Valentine 1992 and Vila and Meeker 1997 for similar recommendations).

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CHAPTER THREE  
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE PROGRAMS: UNDERSTANDING TRUANCY FROM  
THE PARENTS' AND STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES

**Introduction**

In 2002, the University of Hawaii Youth Gang Project assisted Honolulu Police Department's (HPD) School Attendance Program (SAP) in uncovering and understanding both parents' and children's explanations for truancy. SAP defines truant as any student who is absent from school without authorization from the principal, or designees, for a full day. Under Hawaii Revised Statutes (HRS) 298-9, all school-age children must attend either a public or private school unless exempted. Any parent or guardian having responsibility for the care of a child must send the child to school, unless the child is exempted as provided by law. School-age children are all children who are at least six years old and who are not 18 years old on or before December 31 of any school year. HRS 298-12 states that a parent or guardian who does not diligently enforce the child's regular school attendance may be subject to legal sanctions of a fine or guilty of a petty misdemeanor.

There are several levels to SAP, depending upon the frequency of truant offending. Students who are deemed first-time truants receive school sanctions for their unexcused absence in the form of counseling or parent conference. With second-time truants, parents are notified of the scheduled Saturday class the student must attend, finally, an individual counseling sessions for parents and their children conducted by officers. Third-time truants are arrested, taken back to school, and scheduled for evening counseling at the Juvenile Services Division or referred to Family Court. Students

deemed fourth-time (or more) truant offenders are arrested, taken back to school after parents are notified, and referred to Family Court.

This chapter presents an analysis of truancy offending and policy recommendations addressing this problem behavior. Included in this section are explanations for truancy concluded from national examples of school attendance programs, findings from surveys administered to both second-time truants in SAP and their parents, and summary analysis of the data.

### **Literature Review**

Studies have found truancy to be linked to several areas of youth delinquency, such as substance abuse, gang activity, status offenses, vandalism, and potentially property or violent crimes (Baker, Sigmon, and Nugent, 2001; White, Fyfe, Campbell, and Goldkamp, 2001). Adults with high rates of earlier school absenteeism or dropping out from school altogether, have been found to be in poorer physical and mental health, stuck in lower paying jobs, have a higher incidence of poverty or reliance on welfare, tend to have children with more behavioral problems, and are more prone to being incarcerated or having problems with law enforcement and judicial agencies.

Critical nationwide data on truancy rates is non-existent due to a lack of uniformity in truancy codes or standard definition (Baker, Sigmon, and Nugent, 2001). However, many regions, especially large urban areas, report large numbers of hours of missed classes due to class cutting, chronic absenteeism, and tardiness. In 1998, for example, truancy was responsible for 26% of status offenses adjudicated in juvenile courts nationally (Baker, Sigmon, and Nugent, 2001). According to this report on truancy

prepared by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, four major areas account for reasons of truancy offending:

- 1. Family Factors.** Lack of parental guidance and or supervision, domestic violence, substance abuse in the home, lack of understanding compulsory education laws, and ambivalence about the importance of education are cited.
- 2. School Factors.** School climate issues, such as overcrowded classrooms, attitudes of students, teachers, and administrators, and diverse learning styles (that could lead to some students feeling isolated from certain classroom teaching methods) are included as environmental impediments to maintaining attendance in schools. As an example, some students learn best in cooperative groups rather than in standard lectures. Also, an inconsistent method of dealing with chronic absenteeism is also listed as a contributing factor.
- 3. Economic Influences.** Poverty, lack of adequate transportation, single parent households, working students, parents working multiple jobs, greater mobility due to high unemployment or insufficient low cost housing are a few of the various economic stressors leading to truancy.

**4. Student Variables.** Substance abuse among youth, physical and mental health difficulties, poor social skills, and developmental deficiencies are some of the problems faced by students on a personal level.

Truancy has also been identified as a risk factor for other delinquent activity, teen pregnancy, social isolation, dropping out of school, and among very young children, has been linked to serious delinquent behavior at age 12 and under (Baker, Sigmon, and Nugent, 2001).

Several studies have found that the best way to reduce truancy is through programs that foster a collaborative atmosphere among school districts, law enforcement, juvenile court, social service and community agencies, and, of perhaps even greater importance, both parents and children (Viggiani, Reid, and Bailey-Dempsey, 2002; White, Fyfe, Campbell, and Goldkamp, 2001; Baker, Sigmon, and Nugent, 2001). As an example of one such collaboration, Arizona's Abolish Chronic Truancy (ACT) Now Program was launched in tandem with the community-based non-profit agency, the Center for Juvenile Alternatives (CJA), in 1995. This program provides essential services through case management and counseling as an alternative to criminal penalties for students and their parents. Participation in the program is offered to parents after their children have had three unexcused absences and preliminary referral to CJA. If diversion is accepted as an alternative to court proceedings, penalties are waived and the case is dismissed upon the parent's completion of the program. Counseling with the parents and students, parenting skills classes, and youth and parental support groups are among the services offered in an attempt to ameliorate the underlying causes of truancy. A three year process evaluation of the program concluded two main areas of overall

improvement: 1) decreased incidents of unexcused absenteeism and 2) increased responsibility and involvement of parent and students in treating truancy problems.

Similar collaborative approaches to truancy programs yielded similar findings (White, Fyfe, Campbell, and Goldkamp, 2001; Viggiani, Reid, and Bailey-Dempsey, 2002). In Richmond, California, school districts worked closely with the police department to develop a school attendance program that incorporated counseling (to discover underlying problems at home that may contribute to truancy) and tutoring (to catch up on homework and missed in-class assignments). Outcome evaluation of the program found overall improvement in school attendance and performance.

### **School Attendance Program (SAP) Level II Program Survey Results**

In an attempt to discern causes for truancy, officers conducting SAP Level II programming administered surveys to both parents and children enrolled in the program. After reviewing these self-report questionnaires (69 from Kapolei and Leeward areas and 65 from Honolulu and Windward areas<sup>5</sup>) for second time truant students from Oahu schools, some patterns of behavior contributing to truancy began to emerge. Parents attributed truancy to peer or sibling influence at a high rate (11 responses). Students gave their dislike of one or more teachers as contributing to their cutting classes (10 responses). Students' self-reported lack of interest also was a frequent response (14), and factors to explain this lack of interest varied from boredom, to classes being too long, to getting tired in class. Difficulty getting students up in the morning was a common complaint of parents (7) and had the same response number from students (7). Nine (9)

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<sup>5</sup> Those surveys where a response was missing or indiscernible were excluded from this analysis.

students reported anxiety over fights at school or being bullied, and ten responses claimed that falling behind, difficulty with completing assignments, or having already failed courses were reasons that students refused to go to school. Students (6) also complained about homework assignments as a reason that they found school unappealing, but whether it was because they didn't understand the assignments or just didn't do the work is unclear. Two students stated that they would probably end up dropping out of school and using the GED to obtain a diploma (See Tables 3 and 4).

Illness was cited as a reason for missing school (parents 6, students 4), with two other students also reporting vision difficulties. Drugs were mentioned four times as a reason for missed classes, but the survey instrument wasn't designed to discriminate whether the student was using drugs, whether the drugs were illicit, or if the existence or use of illegal drugs by others on campus were the reasons for missed school. Feelings of not belonging or not having a connection to peers or teachers were mentioned by both parents (1) and students (5). Some students (5) complained that they either did not like, or felt neglected by their school counselors, and other student complaints of fatigue or hunger (2) were cited as reasons for non-attendance. One report (parental) of menstrual problems was cited.

Student reports of such sociological factors as fear of gang and/or weapons prevalence on school grounds (2), parents suggesting divorce/separation or working mom for their children's missing school (5), and both students (2) and parents (4) blaming relocation or recent moves to a new school were other variables given as reasons for truancy. Family obligations such as babysitting younger siblings or working in family

businesses were cited by students (4) and a parent (1), and another parent noted transportation difficulties as a reason behind their child's missing school.

Perhaps one aspect of truancy for these children appears to be associated with a level of functional illiteracy for many of the parents, and to a somewhat lesser degree, the writing and lack of communication skills of the children. Although only four (4) students reported that they were having difficulty with speaking or understanding English, not one parent claimed linguistic deficiencies as causing their child's truancy at school. What should be noted here is that some parents' surveys were blank or had incomplete responses. Whether this was due to lack of comprehension or relevance of the survey items remains unclear, but one possibility is that parents may have trouble with English language abilities, and this may be problematic in communicating with teachers, counselors, and their children.

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Table 3: Students' Explanations for Truancy, SAP Level II

Students' reasons for truancy	Number of responses, Kapolei and Honolulu
Lack of interest	14
Dislike of one or more teachers	10
Anxiety over fights at school or being bullied at school	9
Difficulty getting up in the morning	7
Difficulty completing homework assignments	6
Not having a connection to peers or teachers	5
Did not like or felt neglected by their school counselors	5
Illness	4
Drugs	4
Difficulty with speaking or understanding English	4
Family obligations—babysitting, work in family business	4
Fatigue or hunger	2
Fear of gang and/or weapons prevalence on school grounds	2
Recent move to a new school	2
Expectation to drop out	2

Total responses: 80

Table 4: Parents' Explanations for Child's Truancy, SAP Level II

Parents' reasons for child's truancy	Number of responses, Honolulu and Kapolei
Peer or sibling influence	11
Difficulty getting students up in the morning	7
Illness	6
Family problems	5
Recent moves to a new school	4
Not having a connection to peers or teachers	2
Transportation difficulties	1
Family obligations—babysitting, work in family business	1

Total responses: 37

## Conclusion

This survey of repeat truants and their parents shows that truant students' report a lack of attachment to school. They also fear violence at school. The maintenance of positive academic expectations, healthy peer and teacher involvement, and feelings of safety appear important areas to enhance in reducing unexcused absenteeism. According to the surveys, students claim to lack feelings of motivation from teachers and counselors, as evident in their responses of disinterest or dislike of one or more of their teachers. Parents, on the other hand, appear to place blame on factors external to the school experience itself. Negative peer influence, children's inability to wake up early, and health problems were blamed for attendance problems, as well as their children's attitudes in general. Parents' reports that their children's friends have more behavioral

influence than they do seems to reflect a certain lack of confidence that they can end their children's unexcused absences from school.

What cannot be ignored is the third most common explanation by students for their truancy—their fear of going to school—and that this reason was not cited in any of the parents' responses. While this may signal a need for communication between parents and their children, this may also that bullying may account for some truancy on Oahu. Coupled with other research conducted by the YGP (Chesney-Lind, et al; 2001), this suggests that improvement in campus safety, as well as travel to and from campus, could reduce truancy. Some students mentioned family obligation for their truancy, but only one parent saw this as the source of truancy. This, again, suggests a disconnection between youth and their parents.

In order to decrease truancy, what is essential is not only students' well-developed interest in education and healthy connections to peers, teachers, and counselors, but the ability to recognize and address the family stressors and fears at school that can equally deter them from attending. The assumption that both parents and their children cite the same reasons for absence must also be addressed by anti-truancy initiatives, particularly those that hold the parents accountable for their children's behavior.

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CHAPTER FOUR:  
UNDERSTANDING SAMOAN DELINQUENCY IN HAWAII:  
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SAMOAN YOUTH IN AMERICAN SAMOA AND  
OAHU

*Q: What About Role Models for Samoan Youth?*

A: “You know ...[long silence]...it’s kind of sad. Rap stars, they see them as a role model. The Rock [a professional wrestler who is part-Samoan] is seen as “the man.” They don’t role model the minister, the judge, the few doctors around. . . .Maybe there’s not a lot of role models...it’s taking us too long to get there.”

*Q: What about educational issues with Samoan Youth?*

A: “Find out the real story. There is a widespread belief that Samoans are not interested in education. All that stuff is not true. The parents get embarrassed because they cannot speak English. They just shut down. We desperately need outreach workers that speak Samoan.”

## **Introduction**

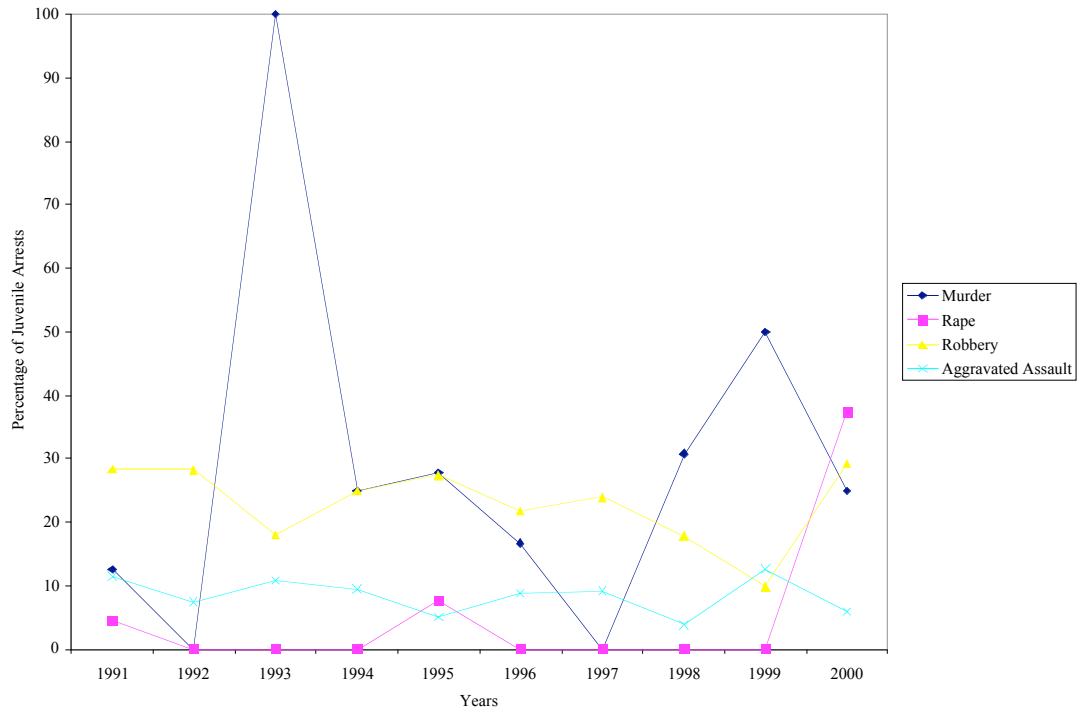
As early as 1991, numerous studies have noted that Hawaiian, Part-Hawaiian, Filipino, and Samoan youth experience higher risks of arrest compared to other ethnic groups (Matsuo, 1991; Kassebaum et al., 1995; Chesney-Lind et al., 2001). In particular, Samoan youth, comprising only 1.8% of the juvenile population (age 10-17), have been over represented in arrest, court, detention, and Hawaii’s Youth Correctional Facility (HYCF) populations.

A specific look at arrests during the 1990s demonstrates how Samoan youth have remained a disproportional percentage of juvenile index offense arrests (see Chart 13). In murder arrests between 1991 and 2000 (although juvenile arrests for murder are low in number generally—as low as 0 and as high as 18 in the past decade), Samoan youth represented between 12.5% to 100% of those arrests. Samoan juveniles were also disproportionately arrested for robbery (as high as 28% of all juvenile robbery arrests)

and aggravated assault (as high as 9.5%) offenses during the past decade. While their overall percentage of property crime arrests are lower than with violent crimes, Samoan youth are still over represented, especially in motor vehicle and larceny-theft arrests (see Chart 14). Additionally, this report has noted that they are dramatically over-represented among youth suspected by HPD of being gang members: Samoans are 22% of suspected gang members on Oahu.

Because of this continuous concern that ethnicity appears as a risk factor for Samoans, the University of Hawaii at Manoa Youth Gang Project (YGP) took a specific look at this population. Two main goals are central to this project: 1) to compare school, peer, and family life of Samoan youth in American Samoa and Samoan youth in Hawaii in order to specify risk and protective factors (see Volume II of this report for general explanation of risk and protective factors); and 2) to make recommendations for programming that will address such factors.

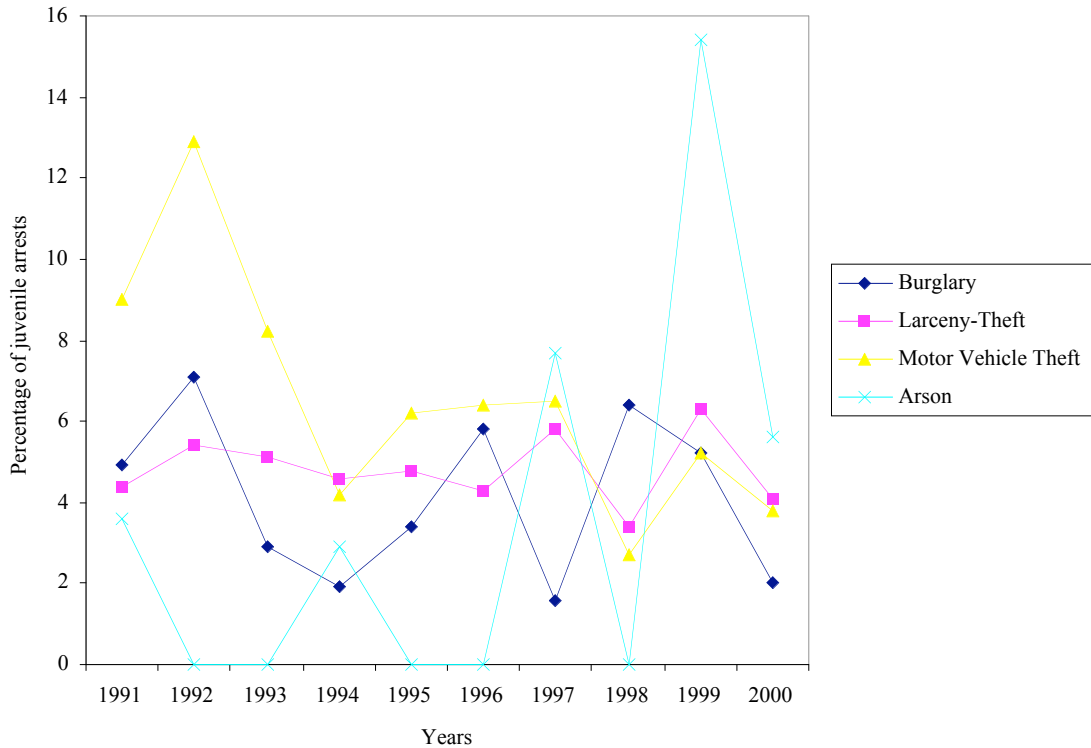
Chart 13: Percentage of Violent Crime Juvenile Arrests of Samoan Youth, 1991-2000



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii* reports for 1991-2000. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

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Chart 14: Percentage of Property Crime Juvenile Arrests of Samoan Youth, 1991-2000.



Source: Uniform Crime Reporting System, Federal Bureau of Investigation. Taken from *Crime in Hawaii* reports for 1991-2000. Department of the Attorney General, Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division.

## Overview

Several factors and conditions help explain why Samoan youth may be at higher risk for arrest, adjudication, and detention. This section will briefly review a few of them. negative stereotypes, economic distress, family stressors, and problems associated with immigration and cultural change.

## Negative Stereotypes

When youth from a particular ethnic background are disproportionately represented throughout the different layers of the juvenile justice system, it is vital to

examine the sources of this phenomenon. While one clear possibility is that the actual behavior of the group accounts for this situation entirely, it is also extremely important to explore other possible explanations for these patterns. It's important to examine the experiences that place these groups at higher risks for exposure to violence and delinquency. Negative stereotypes attached to a particular ethnic group is one such condition worth examining. Negative stereotypes that reinforce the belief that a particular ethnicity is violent and criminal powerfully affect a group's opportunities and expectations (Berry 2000). Such stereotypes frequently depict minorities as lazy, stupid, intoxicated, uncontrollable, and responsible for society's social ills; they often produce what sociologists term a "self-fulfilling prophecy"—a process evoking the very attributes that are associated with the group (Goode 1996).

Researchers have found the following negative stereotypes reported in focus groups of Samoan youth and their parents about their own ethnicity (Chesney-Lind et al. 2001; Tuana'itau 1997):

Table 5: Negative Samoan Youth Stereotypes

- Inferior in intelligence and academic aptitude
- Prone to violence
- Tough/ dangerous
- Potential gang members
- Potential drug dealers
- Only valued as football players (for boys)

When these negative stereotypes are strengthened through media portrayals and interpersonal experiences at school with teachers, counselors, and peers, such stereotypes can lead to low self-esteem and eventually even embracing some of these stereotypical traits. As an example, some Samoan youth reported that they eventually accepted the stereotype of being “violent” since it gave them some visibility in an educational system that typically discounts and ignores them (Mayeda, Chesney-Lind, and Koo, 2001).

### **Economic Distress**

Poverty and problems associated lower socio economic status are important areas in understanding the Samoan experience in Hawaii. The majority of the Samoan population is settled in Kalihi and urban Honolulu, many in public housing, such as Kuhio Park Terrace, Mayor Wright housing, Palolo housing, and Halawa housing. On average, Samoan families are twice the size of the average family in the general population (5.0 persons, compared to 2.7) (Tuana’itau 1997; United States Census Bureau 2002). About one in four Samoan families live in a female-headed household and about 38% live below the poverty level. Additionally, Samoans’ unemployment is more than twice that of the general Hawaii population and the number of Samoans without educational attainment is one-fifth higher than those not Samoan (Tuana’itau 1997; United States Census Bureau 2002). Educational disadvantage is even more pronounced for Samoan females. Oftentimes, because the expected role as caretaker of younger siblings or children adopted into the family, girls must drop out of school, only to return after falling behind academically (Tuana’itau 1997).

This economic distress is compounded by culturally specific income expenditures and extended family obligations of Samoan families. Most Samoans direct a part of their earnings to extended family network in Samoa, Hawaii, and on the mainland. This income expenditure, known as “fa’alavalava” (family obligation), can significantly impact Samoan families, as this obligation is often not linked to affordability, but rather one’s social and cultural status (Tuana’itau 1997, p. 8). Fa’alavalava can be a heavy burden, especially for families who already are functioning below the poverty level. Within the context of poverty, unemployment, lack of education, and financial family obligation, there are clearly powerful pressures exerted on youth and others to participate in the “grey” economy (e.g., doing odd jobs from extra cash and not reporting this income) or even access criminal behaviors as means of survival in severely marginalized neighborhoods.

### **Family Stressors, Immigration, and Cultural Change**

Samoans experience problems similar to other immigrant groups moving to Hawaii, including language, social status, and cultural difference. However, with economic distress comes other contributing risk factors as well. Single-parent households and parents working more than one job lends itself to low levels of parental supervision and alienation of children from their families—both of which could lead youth to engaging in delinquency and joining gangs for a sense of belonging and family (Kassebaum et al. 1995; Tuana’itau 1997; Chesney-Lind et al. 2001).

Disconnection from traditional values and a lack of sense of community have also been cited as problems for Samoans in Hawaii. Samoans are deeply religious people who

believe in building community and collective identity (Tuana'itau 1997), in performing stringent discipline of disobedient children, in suppressing emotion in the face of discipline, and in accepting the dictates of authority without question. These cultural traits function well within the extremely cohesive communities in Samoa, but in Hawaii, where such social control, strong family authority and religious affiliation, and sense of collective identity may not culturally be available, such traits can become problematic (Tuana'itau 1997). Additionally, cultural changes in dress, music, language, and behavior—all of which are limited or compounded by economic marginalization—can produce challenges for Samoans in Hawaii.

## **Methodology**

Despite these explanations for overrepresentation of Samoan youth in juvenile justice statistics, many protective features exist within the Samoan community and culture. It is these characteristics, coupled with a further exploration of risk factors, which this study seeks to understand.

In order to clarify the changes Samoans face in coming to and living in Hawaii, YGP interviewed both people who work with youth in America Samoa and practitioners who work with Samoan youth in Hawaii; all of those interviewed were Samoan. Eight total interviews were performed and the occupations of those interviewed varied, from teachers, to social worker/ outreach workers, to legal professionals. The interviews were confidential and anonymous and were performed in an open and conversational style, so as to elicit the respondents' life histories as well as experiences working with Samoan youth. See Appendix I for general outline of interview instrument.

## **Issues Confronting Samoan Youth**

Respondents were asked about different areas of Samoan youth's lives, from peers to culture to family, and were asked if any significant changes were noticed in the past five years. Several key themes emerged during the interviews. Some themes emerged as common in all interviews while others were specific to location.

**Culture.** According to all respondents, Samoan children come from a collective society. Here the incentive to conform is great because since if one commits wrongdoings, he or she risks embarrassing the chief. The chief in a Samoan community, particularly in Samoa, has great power and stature, enormous amount of control over others, and is responsible for many families. If the chief is embarrassed by one's offense, the chief can deliver the harshest punishment—expulsion from the village. It is this incentive to conform that creates a self-policing way of life in Samoa and reduces incidents of delinquency and crime. Community consensus is a way of life. When Samoan youth come to Hawaii they lose this form of self-discipline. As one Oahu respondent illustrated, “Samoans come from a collective society to an individual society. They lose the village when they come here. They lose lots of forms of self constraint in the culture.”

This cultural difference between a collective and individualistic worldview can create a cultural gap between parents and their children. This cultural gap is further aggravated by language barriers. One respondent explained, “When Samoans come to Hawaii, they lose the language and this becomes a barrier. Children may understand it but not speak it. Kids start doing their own thing.” Another respondent agreed, “Culture

can be a protective factor. When it [culture] gets Westernized, it can become a problem for Samoans. Those who lose language will lose culture and practices will not be as strong.”

Respondents in American Samoa agreed. One interviewee noted that “more youth are not wearing lavalava (material wrapped around the hips), but are wearing saggy pants to look like gangsters. They don’t speak Samoan all the time but mix it in with English. They spend leisure time playing videos instead of family or neighbor obligations. “ As youth engage in American values of consumerism and individuality, the Samoan practices and cultures become diminished. Three respondents explained that the Samoan family and community buffer children from delinquency and violence through discipline and respect of others (called “a” oai le tama e tusa ma na ala’). Samoan respondents in Samoa were particularly critical about the corrosive impact of American values in American Samoa.

Samoan parents in Hawaii, coming from a culture with a strong sense of community, authority and family unit, then find themselves without culturally available internal or external controls over their children. Corporal punishment and discipline used in Samoa appear ineffective as well as culturally censured parenting practices in Hawaii. Ensuing alienation from and conflict with parents then leads to the possibility kids may find a sense of family and belonging with peers, and potentially, gangs, instead. As Samoan youth break away from the family, they may embrace negative ethnic stereotypes that will help them go from feeling powerless in their ethnicity to powerful and proud. As one respondent noted, “They have a total gang mentality then.”

**Family.** In addition to cultural changes and diminished sense of community, parents also face economic hardships when they come here. One respondent commented, “They come here looking for better education for their children and they are not prepared for the economy [cost] to support big families. They are put into housing and experience an overlap of poverty on poverty.” Another interviewee added that in addition to poverty and dependence on welfare more now the last decade has also seen an increase of problems with drug and alcohol addiction in the family.

Gender roles and obligations within the Samoan family unit can also complicate boys’ and girls’ ability to attend and achieve in school. Girls may need to take time off of school to fulfill family obligation and take care of the household. Boys also have family obligations, especially financial ones that may also lead them to missing school. One respondent clarified, “There is a big emphasis on guilt. You find time to study when you are done with everything else.”

**Religion.** All respondents stated that a strong protective factor for Samoan youth in American Samoa is religion. In Samoa, scripture is very important and read to them. Church is a centerpiece to the family. Religion plays an important role in preventing delinquency and creating self-discipline and positive self-identity for youth. When Samoans move to Hawaii, this important resource is lost or de-emphasized. As one interviewee comments, “A big difference is no church. Kids become alienated from church and a huge resource is lost.”

**School.** School can be problematic for many Samoan kids. Encountering discrimination and the aforementioned stereotypes, Samoans find themselves alienated in the classroom and pushed into sports, which often yields only short-term success. With few Samoan teachers or classes that concentrate on Samoan history, language, and society, cultural competency may not exist among counselors, teachers, and principals. One interviewee illustrated cultural differences and competency in terms of expressing respect. Instead of raising hands in class and maintaining eye contact when teachers talk to students, Samoan students may “lend an ear” and choose to listen in class and not participate vocally. While in Samoan culture this may mean respect, in a classroom depleted of this cultural competency, it may be understood from a Western view as disrespect, or worse, as “laziness” or “stupidity.” One respondent elaborates on school: “High school is the bridge, and if they are depressed, no voice, disenfranchised, then they are not going anywhere.”

In addition, Samoan students may not understand the value in education or see a professional future for themselves because of low representation of Samoans in college and professional occupations. One respondent further explains: “We need to recognize how Samoan kids feel. Parents can’t help them. Schools ignore the problem. They do not see enough of their own faces to feel comfortable. We need to recruit more Pacific Islanders (into the professions).”

## **Future Directions**

Given these explanations of problems confronting Samoan youth, several recommendations were made for future directions in prevention and intervention strategies.

- 1) **Building a strong sense of community and pride.** Classroom courses that center on Samoa and after-school programs where Samoan youth can sit with elders can create a sense of community, facilitate Samoan youth's understanding and pride in Samoan culture and value orientations, and confront negative stereotypes. Teachers must be culturally competent and understand cultural differences. Initiatives such as Samoan Cultural Pride Day can assist kids from feeling powerless in their ethnicity to powerful in it. Teachers should work within the great strengths of the Samoan community, particularly with key leaders in that community, including those active in the Samoan churches which appear to perform a wide array of services for the Samoan community in Hawaii.
- 2) **Use of cultural dances and plays that reinforce the protective aspect and pride in Samoan culture.** After-school recreation programs that include activities other than sports are essential for Samoan youth. Such programs can help provide a safe environment where Samoan youth can deal with complications in their lives as they negotiate Samoan and Western culture. Such programs can also create pride and understanding of "fa' asamo'a" (Samoan way of life) and help defy negative stereotypes.

- 3) **Maintaining a strong and vital family.** The restoration of the family as the primary group that is able to provide emotional strength, discipline, and guidance is essential in the Samoan community. Remedial services, family counseling, and parenting classes can help create an environment where the generation and cultural gap can be addressed and understood and different methods of discipline realized. Furthermore, because of potential language barriers, one recommendation made by two respondents was for outreach and social workers to be Samoan and speak Samoan. This will help overcome embarrassment Samoan parents may feel and dispel myths that parents are lazy or disinterested in their children's lives.
- 4) **Having visible adult role models in the professional work environment.** One of the major reasons explained by several respondents (3) as to the over representation of Samoans in the correctional system and the under representation of them in other institutions is because the paucity of Samoans in the professional and occupational environment. With so few teachers, social workers, lawyers, judges, etc being Samoan, Samoan youth do not regularly see these professions as options or have opportunities to see the value in their education. Compounding this alienation from major institutions is discrimination, as negative stereotypes are confronted by Samoans as they enter school and employment. It is essential, therefore, that Samoan youth, through active engagement with Samoan professionals who can dispel negative stereotypes, can envision positive self images and different directions for their futures.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### NEIGHBORHOOD PROFILES: A SUMMARY OF SELECTED OAHU COMMUNITIES

#### **Introduction**

For Youth Service Centers (YSC) to respond with effective programming, it is essential to have full knowledge of the neighborhoods they serve. This chapter consolidates data about Kahuku, Kalihi, Palolo, Waianae, and Waipahu, all of which can be considered communities that face challenges that could produce delinquency and gang membership, though for quite different reasons.

#### **Methodology**

In order to consolidate the data and make comparisons between communities, community areas have been defined according to boundaries determined by the school complex area. Comparable census tracts and police beats were then used to determine demographic information and crime rates for each respective community. Caution should be made that both census tract and police beat parameters do not directly correlate with school complex boundaries, and therefore, some margin of error exists. Also, conspicuously absent from the census information for each neighborhood are figures for race and ethnicity. As of December 2002, race and ethnicity information that broke down Asian and Pacific Islander into specific categories was not yet available; therefore, that information was excluded from this report<sup>6</sup>. Despite these limitations, the following

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<sup>6</sup> After December 2002, consult the following for updates information: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp) or United States Census Bureau. 2001.

information allows for easy comparative examination of some of Oahu’s at-risk neighborhoods. One reminder is that the Department of Education’s School Status and Improvement Report used in the U.H. Center on the Family’s school profiles provided a few socio-economic characteristics of youth in these neighborhoods, e.g., percentage of students receiving free or reduced lunch. Therefore, indicators from DOE may not represent characteristics for youth who live in the neighborhood but attend private school.

### **Kahuku Community**

Included in this community profile are the areas that incorporate Kahuku High and Intermediate, Hau’ula Elementary, Ka’a’awa Elementary, Kahuku Elementary, La’ie Elementary, and Sunset Beach Elementary schools in their school complex.

Table 6: Kahuku—Census Information, Year 2000

Population: Census tracts: 103.03, 103.05	
Total:	9431
Female:	4746
Male	4685
Percentage of households with wage or salary income:	85%
Percentage of households without wage or salary income	15%
Percentage of households with public assistance	6.5%
Median income	\$62,476
	5%
Percentage of households with income below poverty level	
	14.8%
Percentage of unemployed individuals 16 years and older	
Percentage immigrant residents	6.6%
Percentage of households with children under 18	81.5%

Source: *Profiles of General Demographic Characteristics, 2000 Census of Population and Housing Hawaii*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce. Found at [http://www2.census.gov/census\\_2000/datasets/demographic\\_profile/Hawaii/2kh15](http://www2.census.gov/census_2000/datasets/demographic_profile/Hawaii/2kh15)

Table 7: Kahuku School Complex Characteristics

Number of status offenses per 1,000 youth	0.6
Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch (as of 1999)	
elementary	61.4%
intermediate	67.6%
high school	37.0%
Average daily attendance	95.2% (1999)
Percentage of graduating seniors	92.7% (1999)
Percentage of student population suspended	3.6% (2000)
Percentage of students with preschool experience	49.4% (2000)
Public school class size	16.7 (2000)
Percentage of seniors with college plans	49.5% (2000)

Source: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp).

Table 8: Index Offenses Reported to Police in Kahuku Community, 2001

Index Offense	Rate per 1,000 residents
Murder	0
Rape	.2
Robbery	1.2
Aggravated Assault	2.0
Burglary	25.8
Larceny	68.3
Auto Theft	6.2

Source: Honolulu Police Department 2002 *Annual Report*, Beats 472-480

## Kalihi-Palama Community

Included in this community profile are the areas that incorporate Wallace Rider Farrington High School, Kapalama Elementary, Linapuni Elementary, Pu’uhale Elementary, King David Kalakaua Middle, Sanford B. Dole Middle, Joseph J. Fern Elementary, Ka’ewai Elementary, Kalihi Elementary, Kalihi-kai Elementary, Kalihi-uka Elementary, and Kalihi-waena Elementary in their public school complex.

Table 9: Kalihi-Palama Census Information, Year 2000

Population: Census tracts: 58,59,60,61	
Total:	23563
Female:	11565
Male	12049
Percentage of households with wage or salary income:	83%
Percentage of households without wage or salary income	17%
Percentage of households with public assistance	15.2%
Median income	\$49,122
	13%
Percentage of households with income below poverty level	
	3.8%
Percentage of unemployed individuals 16 years and older	
Percentage immigrant residents	45%
Percentage of households with children under 18	71%

Source: *Profiles of General Demographic Characteristics, 2000 Census of Population and Housing Hawaii*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce. Found at [http://www2.census.gov/census\\_2000/datasets/demographic\\_profile/Hawaii/2kh15](http://www2.census.gov/census_2000/datasets/demographic_profile/Hawaii/2kh15)

Table 10: Farrington School Complex Characteristics

Number of status offenses per 1,000 youth	data not yet available
Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch (as of 1999)	
elementary	69.7%
intermediate	67.6%
high school	42.2%
Average daily attendance	92.5% (1999)
Percentage of graduating seniors	82.4% (1999)
Percentage of student population suspended	7.6% (2000)
Percentage of students with preschool experience	22.3% (2000)
Public school class size	16.6 (2000)
Percentage of seniors with college plans	35.3% (2000)

Source: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp).

Table 11: Index Offenses Reported to Police in Kalihi-Palama Community, 2001

Index Offense	Rate per 1,000 residents
Murder	.08
Rape	.60
Robbery	2.1
Aggravated Assault	2.5
Burglary	13.3
Larceny	32.6
Auto Theft	6.9

Source: Honolulu Police Department 2002 *Annual Report*, Beats 558-56

## Kaimuki-Palolo Community

The residential community examined in this section includes the following schools in their public school complex: Kaimuki High, William P. Jarrett Middle, Ala Wai Elementary, Ali’iolani Elementary, Hokulani Elementary, King William Lunalilo Elementary, Palolo Elementary, Prince Jonah Kuhio Elementary, and Thomas Jefferson Elementary.

Table 12: Kaimuki-Palolo—Census Information, Year 2000

Population: Census tracts: 9.01,9.02,9.03,10,11,12.01,12.02	
Total:	22688
Female:	11699
Male	10989
Percentage of households with wage or salary income:	75%
Percentage of households without wage or salary income	25%
Percentage of households with public assistance	5%
Median income	\$54,696
	8.5%
Percentage of households with income below poverty level	
	2.5%
Percentage of unemployed individuals 16 years and older	
Percentage immigrant residents	14.3%
Percentage of households with children under 18	18.75%

Source: *Profiles of General Demographic Characteristics, 2000 Census of Population and Housing Hawaii*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce. Found at [http://www2.census.gov/census\\_2000/datasets/demographic\\_profile/Hawaii/2kh15](http://www2.census.gov/census_2000/datasets/demographic_profile/Hawaii/2kh15)

Table 13: Kaimuki-Palolo School Complex Characteristics

Number of status offenses per 1,000 youth	0.8
Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch (as of 1999)	
elementary	50.1%
intermediate	57.5%
high school	35.8%
Average daily attendance	92.6%
Percentage of graduating seniors	83.1%
Percentage of student population suspended	5.8%
Percentage of students with preschool experience	51.8% (2000)
Public school class size	14.8 (2000)
Percentage of seniors with college plans	34.7% (2000)

Source: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp).

Table 14: Index Offenses Reported to Police in Kaimuki-Palolo Community, 2001

Index Offense	Rate per 1,000 residents
Murder	.08
Rape	.13
Robbery	.80
Aggravated Assault	.61
Burglary	9.4
Larceny	27.0
Auto Theft	8.6

Source: Honolulu Police Department 2002 *Annual Report*, Beats 762-766

## Waianae Community

The residential community examined in this section includes the following schools in their public school complex: Waianae High, Waianae Middle, Kamaile Elementary, Leihoku Elementary, Mai’ili Elementary, Makaha Elementary, and Waianae Elementary.

Table 15: Waianae—Census Information, Year 2000

Population: Census tracts: 96.01, 96.03, 96.04, 97.01, 97.02, 98.01, 98.02	
Total:	42323
Female:	21224
Male	21099
Percentage of households with wage or salary income:	78%
Percentage of households without wage or salary income	22%
Percentage of households with public assistance	25.5%
Median income	\$42,099
Percentage of households with income below poverty level	21%
Percentage of unemployed individuals 16 years and older	6%
Percentage immigrant residents	10%
Percentage of households with children under 18	85%

Source: *Profiles of General Demographic Characteristics, 2000 Census of Population and Housing Hawaii*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce. Found at [http://www2.census.gov/census\\_2000/datasets/demographic\\_profile/Hawaii/2kh15](http://www2.census.gov/census_2000/datasets/demographic_profile/Hawaii/2kh15)

Table 16: Waianae School Complex Characteristics

Number of status offenses per 1,000 youth	data not yet available
Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch (as of 1999)	
elementary	80.1%
intermediate	74.1%
high school	50.8%
Average daily attendance	90.9% (1999)
Percentage of graduating seniors	85.7% (1999)
Percentage of student population suspended	12.2% (2000)
Percentage of students with preschool experience	52.5% (2000)
Public school class size	14.7% (2000)
Percentage of seniors with college plans	32.3% (2000)

Source: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp).

Table 17: Index Offenses Reported to Police in Waianae Community, 2001

Index Offense	Rate per 1,000 residents
Murder	.05
Rape	.66
Robbery	1.0
Aggravated Assault	3.4
Burglary	11.4
Larceny	34.4
Auto Theft	3.9

Source: Honolulu Police Department 2002 *Annual Report*, Beats 850-860

## Waipahu

The residential community profiled in this section includes the following schools in their public school complex: Waipahu High, Waipahu Middle, August Ahrens Elementary, Honowai Elementary, Kalei'op'u Elementary, Waikele Elementary, and Waipahu Elementary.

Table 18: Waipahu—Census Information, Year 2000

Population: Census tracts: 83.01, 88.0, 89.05, 89.12, 89.22	
Total:	31,664
Female:	15844
Male	18791
Percentage of households with wage or salary income:	94%
Percentage of households without wage or salary income	6%
Percentage of households with public assistance	6%
Median income	\$66,237
	5%
Percentage of households with income below poverty level	
Percentage of unemployed individuals 16 years and older	2.3%
Percentage immigrant residents	30%
Percentage of households with children under 18	52.5%

Source: *Profiles of General Demographic Characteristics, 2000 Census of Population and Housing Hawaii*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce. Found at [http://www2.census.gov/census\\_2000/datasets/demographic\\_profile/Hawaii/2kh15](http://www2.census.gov/census_2000/datasets/demographic_profile/Hawaii/2kh15)

Table 19: Waipahu School Complex Characteristics

Number of status offenses per 1,000 youth	1.6
Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch (as of 1999)	
elementary	59.4%
intermediate	61.6%
high school	30.5%
Average daily attendance	92.2% (1999)
Percentage of graduating seniors	95.8% (1999)
Percentage of student population suspended	6.8% (2000)
Percentage of students with preschool experience	32.2%(2000)
Public school class size	16.9 (2000)
Percentage of seniors with college plans	21.6% (2000)

Source: Center on the Family. 2001. *School and Community Profiles*. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa. Found at [http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles\\_results.asp](http://uhfamilydata.hawaii.edu/datasearch/profiles_results.asp).

Table 20: Index Offenses Reported to Police in Waipahu Community, 2001

Index Offense	Rate per 1,000 residents
Murder	.06
Rape	.6
Robbery	2.1
Aggravated Assault	2.3
Burglary	14.1
Larceny	47.1
Auto Theft	13.2

Honolulu Police Department 2002 *Annual Report*, Beats 350-355

## **Summary**

While general comparisons are useful, these are very discrete communities, and different themes emerge when each community's characteristics, as reflected in the data, are reviewed.

### **Kahuku**

The data presented here suggest that Kahuku, a former sugar mill town and the related Ko'olauloa communities on the Windward side of Oahu might best be described as mixed communities. The area has a median income that is quite high (\$62, 476), but its public schools (particularly its elementary and intermediate schools) report a high (61.4% of elementary school youth and 67.6% of intermediate school youth) receiving free or reduced lunch (which is an income related measure). The fact that the neighborhoods that Kahuku School Complex serves borders wealthy beach areas may account for this relatively odd pattern. Such mixed income groupings, while socially desirable on many levels, also produce unique challenges to law enforcement (since this is a largely rural area and police resources are allocated by population) and youth services (again, budgets for parks are allocated based on resident population).

Only 6.6% of the community residents are immigrant, particularly significant when compared to communities such as Waipahu where nearly half are immigrant families. Kahuku Complex has the lowest proportion of immigrants among the communities examined here. The area reports one of the highest proportions of neighborhoods that

have children under 18 (81.5%); only Waianae among the neighborhoods surveyed here reported a higher proportion.

Crime data reveal at least one of the challenges of a community of mixed incomes--high larceny and burglary rates. Kahuku's is higher in fact than Kalihi or Waianae, neighborhoods that have long had the stereotype of being "high crime" areas on Oahu.

### **Kalihi**

Kalihi is an urban community that is located just outside of the urban core of downtown Honolulu. Its most notable characteristic is its large immigrant population (compared to most other communities examined here)—45%. Its median income of \$49,122 is among the lowest of the group (only Waianae is lower). Many of its youth, again particularly in elementary and intermediate school, qualify for reduced lunch--69.7% of those in elementary and 67.6% of those in intermediate school. This socio-economic indicator is interesting due to the fact that 83% of the Kalihi households report salary or wage income, about as high as Kahuku, a community with a median income that is far higher.

A considerable number of families (71%) have children under 18; but most of the youth that graduate from high school in this community do not expect to attend college (only 35.3% expect to go to college); compare this to nearly half of those in Kahuku.

Crime rates, particularly property crime rates are low for this community, but among the communities reviewed in this survey violent crime, particularly sexual assault and aggravated assault was quite high (only Waianae was higher).

## **Kaimuki**

A centrally-located urban Honolulu neighborhood that has recently been undergoing some commercial and residential revitalization, Kaimuki can also be described as a mixed community. This is particularly the case since a large public housing project is located in Palolo, one of the main valleys in the Kaimuki area. Household income is relatively high (\$54,696). Only 8.5% of the community is below the poverty line (compared to nearly a quarter of those in Waianae and 13% of those in Kalihi).

Three quarters of the families have children under 18 (like a number of other communities reviewed here); however, far fewer of these youth qualify for free or reduced lunch (50.1% of the elementary aged youth and 57.5% of the intermediate aged youth). Surprisingly, only 34.7% of Kaimuki youth expect to go to college (about equivalent to Kalihi).

Crime patterns in Kaimuki show high property crimes rates, particularly in the area of larceny and auto theft; burglary rates though are far lower than the rural community of Kahuku. Robbery rates, though, rival those found in Waianae, but in general other violent crimes are lower than those of other communities being reviewed here.

## **Waianae**

Waianae is a rural community located on the western shore of Oahu. It has the lowest median income of the communities reviewed here at \$42,099. Nearly a quarter (21%) of its residents are below the poverty level and 25.5% are on public assistance.

Clearly, Waianae families are economically challenged, and virtually all (85%) have children below 18 (the highest among these communities). Only 10% of Waianae's population is immigrants in contrast to far higher figures for other economically-challenged communities being reviewed in this section.

Virtually all children attending Waianae elementary and intermediate schools (80.1% and 74.1% respectively) receive either free or reduced lunch. Average daily attendance in school is low compared to other communities reviewed; and their suspension rate is the highest (12.2%) compared to 7.6% in Kalihi and 6.8% in Waipahu.

Crime rates, given this level of poverty, are not extremely high with the clear exception of aggravated assault which is the highest among all the communities surveyed: three times the rates found in Kaimuki and a third higher than those reported in Kahuku.

### **Waipahu**

Like Kahuku, Waipahu is a former plantation town, but unlike the Windward side of Oahu, it finds itself in the most rapidly growing suburban area of the island (West Oahu).

Nearly one in three Waipahu residents are immigrants, but unlike another heavily immigrant community (Kalihi,) the median income is higher (\$66,237). Likewise only 6% of the community's families receive public assistance and only 5% are below the poverty line. About half (52.5%) have children under 18.

Despite relatively high attendance and high school graduation rates, only about one in five Waipahu youth expect to go to college (lower than that reported by Waianae

where 32.3% expect to go to college). The fact that Waipahu youth have the lowest college aspirations of any of the communities in this group is also notable considering the relatively positive income characteristics.

Finally, crime rates are extremely high in Waipahu; and this is true of both violent and property crimes. Larceny rates, as an example, are considerably higher than Waianae (47.1 per 1,000 residents compared to 34.4). Auto theft rates are also the highest among all the communities reviewed.

Taken together, these profiles suggest that for a variety of reasons, the neighborhoods being reviewed (all sites of the Office of Youth Services new Youth Service Center initiative) have youth who need particular (and likely somewhat different) youth services. The needs documented in these brief demographic sketches argue for both educational and crime prevention efforts. In the next volume of this report, the specific efforts of the State of Hawaii's Office of Youth Services to address the needs of youth in these varied communities will be reviewed and evaluated.

## Resources for More Information

### *POPULATION AND GENERAL*

1. Author of Website: U.S. Census Bureau

Website: [www.census.gov](http://www.census.gov)

Information: This website offers information about population estimates, poverty, income, race, housing, economy, and many other information about people, business, and geography.

2. Author of Website: State of Hawaii Department of Business, Economic Development & Tourism.

Website address: <http://www.Hawaii.gov/dbedt/census2k/index.html>

Information: This website consists of data that compile social, economic, and housing characteristics from the Census 2000. Race/ethnicity is one key variable in this report.

3. Author of Website: State of Hawaii Department of Business, Economic Development & Tourism.

Website address: <http://www.hawaii.gov/dbedt/sdcript.html>

Information: This website offers information about Hawaii Census 2000 and 1990, Hawaii State Data Book Center, 1992 and 1997 Economic Census, and U.S. Census Bureau Population Estimate Reports.

4. Author of Website: Office of Hawaiian Affairs. Native Hawaiian Data Book.

Website: <http://www.oha.org/databook/index.html>

Information: This website presents data about population by age, gender, ethnicity, and marriage. Other data include health (e.g. death according to ethnicity), land, education, public safety, income and employment, housing, human services, voter registration, and census 2000 (population).

5. Author of Website: Center of the Family; University of Hawaii at Manoa.

Website: [http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/datacenter.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/datacenter.asp)

Information: This website offers resources and information on child and family indicators at the national, state and county level, school/community profiles, drug prevention State Incentive Grants (SIG), and Native Hawaiian early childhood education. Available at this site:

Center on the Family (University of Hawaii at Manoa) Data Center

-[http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/datacenter.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/datacenter.asp)

Child and family indicators

- [http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/cfi/family\\_indicators.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/cfi/family_indicators.asp)

School community profiles

- [http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/profiles/profiles.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/profiles/profiles.asp)

Drug Prevention SIG

- [http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/drug\\_prevention\\_sig/drug\\_prevention.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/drug_prevention_sig/drug_prevention.asp)

Native Hawaiian Early Childhood Education (under construction 2/03)

- [http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof\\_Data/hi\\_child\\_ed/hi\\_child\\_ed.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/Cof_Data/hi_child_ed/hi_child_ed.asp)

Kids Count

-[http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/hawaii\\_kids\\_count/kids\\_count.asp](http://uhfamily.hawaii.edu/hawaii_kids_count/kids_count.asp)

### *JUVENILE CRIME AND DELINQUENCY*

6. Author of Website: Department of the Attorney General's Crime Prevention and Justice Assistance Division (CPJA).

Website: <http://cpja.ag.state.hi.us>

Information: This website provides criminological data, community and crime prevention data, and grants and planning information about federal and state resources that can assist in improving criminal and juvenile justice system. The website also presents reports such as the annual Crime in Hawaii and other reports on crime-related issues.

7. Author of Website: The Judiciary State of Hawaii.

Website:

<http://www.courts.state.hi.us/attachment/25C2BB5252D534D1EB48B81B5B/PI-P-165anrep02.pdf>

Information: This website is a presentation of the Judiciary's annual report for 2002 and details their work, including cases processed in all courts.

8. Author of Website: Honolulu Police Department.

Website: <http://www.honolulu.org/ar2001/ar2001.htm>

Information: This web page contains the text of the Honolulu Police Department's 2001 Annual Report. Photographs and graphics are not included. This report describes the major activities, programs, and accomplishments of the Honolulu Police Department and presents crime-related statistics for the City and County of Honolulu for 2001. Statistics available at:

Website: <http://www.honolulu.org/ar2001/2001stats.htm>

9. Author of Website: Hawaii County; Office of the Prosecuting Attorney.

Website: <http://www.hawaii-county.com/pros/cs.htm>

Information: This website presents statistics on delinquency on the Big Island. It also presents strategies that prevent and help juveniles that commit crimes.

10. Author of Website: Hawaii Informed Prevention System (HIPS)

Website: <http://www.hawaii.edu/hips>

Information: This site contains a literature database on local and national prevention programs and Hawaii public school level data for the last four years. This information is used to produce school profiles for each public school in the state. The profiles were designed to complement the School Status and Improvement Reports (SSIR) produced by the State Department of Education. This site provides information "by district." To have specific information about a school, a request to the school's principal must be made. For questions, contact call Morris Lai, UH Curriculum Development and Research Group, 956-7900.

## *HEALTH AND WELL-BEING*

11. Author of Website: Hawaii Department of Health

Website: <http://www.state.hi.us/health/stats/index.html>

Information: This website includes information about vital statistics, such as births, death, marriages, and divorce. In addition, it informs the public about

physical symptoms of health problems and presents information from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) and Alcohol and Drug Use Surveys.

12. Author of Website: Hawaii Health Information Corporation

Website: <http://www.hhic.org/healthtrends/index.asp>

Information: This site contains health care data in an easy-to-use format for use by businesses and governmental agencies and organizations. It provides useful information for decision-making and policy-setting purposes. In addition, HHIC maintains one of Hawaii's largest databases, with more than 500,000 patient discharge records, with data collected from Hawaii's 22 hospitals for each year since 1993.

13. Author of Website: State Department of Human Services

Website: <http://www.state.hi.us/dhs/index.html>

Information: This website offers the annual report on child abuse and neglect statistics.

14. Author of Website: Department of Health Vital Signs

Website: <http://www.hawaii.gov/doh/stats/signs/html>

Information: This web site offers information about health indicators, leading causes of death, infectious disease, chronic disease, behavioral health risks, and maternal and child health risks.

## *EDUCATION*

15. Author of Website: Hawaii Department of Education

Website: <http://doe.k12.hi.us/>

Information: This website covers educational resources and links to the various schools and offices, the [Board of Education](#), [current state legislation](#) (while in session), and information about the [Standards Based Reform](#). It includes the superintendent's annual report that contains statistics on the educational system.

16. Author of Website: Department of Education School Status Improvement Reports

Website: <http://arch.k12.hi.us/school/ssir/default.html>

Information: This site includes the Department of Education's School Status & Improvement Report (SSIR) for the 255 public schools in the state of Hawaii. Information is available by school complex, district, and individual school.

## APPENDIX

### **Samoa Youth Worker Interview Instrument**

**1. Introduction/purpose of interview.** To identify the social environment and experiences of Samoan youth in Hawaii and to discern similarities/differences between Samoan kids in Hawaii and those in Samoa.

**2. Personal experience.** Please tell us about your experiences with Samoan kids.

Have you noticed any changes in the population in the past 5 years?

**3. School and Peers.**

What is the experience of Samoan kids in school? How is this unique?

How does this experience differ for boys and girls?

Do you feel they have specific needs?

How does their school experience impact them?

What would you say are Samoan kids' primary role models? How does this benefit or disadvantage them?

**4. Family.**

What are the key concerns for Samoan families?

How does their family life buffer them from delinquency and violence?

How does it disadvantage them?

Describe the role of the economy and poverty in these youth's lives.

Describe the role of religion in their lives. To your knowledge, does this differ between Samoan kids who live in Hawaii and those in Samoa?

**5. Culture**

In what ways do you feel Samoan culture can impact youth in Hawaii? Please describe positive impacts and negative consequences/stereotypes of Samoan youth.

Would you say Samoan girls and boys encounter different social challenges? Please describe.

**6. Gangs and Violence.**

What do you think are the strongest explanations as to why Samoan kids join gangs?

Why are Samoan youth overrepresented in violent crime statistics in Hawaii (disproportionately represented in aggravated assault and robbery)?

Why are Samoan kids more at risk for gang involvement and violence in Hawaii than in Samoa?

What suggestions would you make for culturally specific programming for Samoan boys and girls?

**7. Final comments.**

Any other comments/concerns/observations you can make about Samoan kids in Hawaii and in Samoa?