

Racial Discrimination and Juvenile Sentencing: An Analysis of American Public Opinion on  
Perceptions of Black Criminality

Government 10: Quantitative Political Analysis

March 13, 2023

Does the American public engage in racial discrimination when it comes to sentencing juvenile defendants?

### **Introduction**

Across the United States is a disproportionate representation of Black Americans in the criminal justice system. As of 2021, the Black demographic comprised 13.6% of the national population, yet they represent 38.4% of the national prison population across state and federal institutions (United States Census Bureau 2021; Federal Bureau of Prisons 2023). Arising from these numbers is a considerable disparity, substantiating what America has termed the ‘mass incarceration’ of Black Americans. The juvenile justice system is a microcosm of this phenomena and serves as the focal point of this analysis. We are primarily concerned with the variation in sentencing of Black and White offenders contingent upon their racial identity as Black youth are four times more likely to be detained in a juvenile institution as their White peers (Rovner 2022). This reality is bolstered by the fact that Black youth are 2.4 times more likely to be arrested and detained than White youth (United States Department of Justice 2022). Such disparities in arrest and punishment cause us to question what role racial discrimination has in this persistent pattern of Black carceral overrepresentation. These numbers suggest a hyper criminalization of the Black population, utilizing incarceration to mitigate Black mobility. The United States Department of Justice shared a similar sentiment in their 2015 investigation of the Ferguson, Missouri Police Department and municipal courts following the murder of Michael Brown, an 18-year-old Black teenager, in 2014. Their report proved racial bias in Ferguson’s adjudication and law enforcement procedures, asserting, judicial officials and “officers appear to see some residents, especially those who live in Ferguson’s predominantly African-American neighborhoods, less as constituents to be protected than as potential offenders” (United States

Department of Justice 2015, p. 2). There is thus a contrived criminal identity ascribed to Black Americans, subsequently leading to the prejudice seen in the US justice system. Racial discrimination appears to permeate the American judicial landscape, and we seek to explore the basis of this issue in relation to public perception.

### **Background**

The public maintains a vital role in this investigation due to their influence on state judiciaries. Analogous to district and state's attorneys, criminal court judges in many states are elected by the citizenry. As noted by attorney and scholar Kate Berry, "the dynamics of judicial elections threaten judges' ability to serve as impartial arbitrators in criminal cases" (Berry 2015, p. 1). Prosecutors and judges are subject to the will of the people come reelection, and some feel a need to acquiesce to the desires of the people, weary of adversarial "television ads attacking" them and seeking "to portray them as "soft on crime"" (Berry 2015, p. 3). Aware of the public's consumption of this media, judges sentence defendants more severely in preserving an image of purported justice. A 2009 study executed by political scientists Sanford Gordon and Gregory Huber confirmed this reality. Focusing on the state of Kansas, they observed that incumbent judges facing competitive re-election rendered more severe sentences than judges appointed through non-contested races (Gordon and Huber 2009, p. 122). This study affirms the relevance of the citizenry in how judges approach sentencing, further substantiating our focus on the public rather than judicial officials.

In many cases, race becomes a factor of consideration in these sentencing disparities. Certain demographics become the target of harsher punishment by the criminal justice system in alignment with the will of the people. It becomes critical to examine the potential causes of

these disparities, assessing the ideological landscape of the United States. As asserted by American psychologist Phillip Goff, Black adolescents are subject to more perverse punishment due to racial dehumanization, “making them seem older and...rendering them less innocent and more vulnerable to harsh adult-like treatment” (Goff et. al 2014, p. 527). Goff contends that this dehumanization has resulted in an adultification of Black youth where the criminal justice system deems it permissible to corrupt their innocence and subsequent well-being. This corruption is primarily achieved through the fabrication of an inherent criminal and violent identity. Offenses associated with the Black demographic are often violent in nature, qualifying them as “more guilty and more aggressive than [their] white” counterparts” (Hurwitz and Peffley 1997, p. 379). The Black population fits a very particular persona, defined not merely by crime, but crime of a violent nature. Blackness subsequently becomes synonymous with an intrinsic violence requiring reprimand and mitigation. These distorted portrayals act as the primary representation of Black people in America, consumed by millions of citizens across the nation.

These misrepresentations have considerable policy implications. As observed by several studies on the matter, the violent identity ascribed to Black people is an important factor in punishment for criminal infractions. After a certain age threshold, Black defendants are significantly more likely to face punitive reprimand, whereas White defendants are more likely to experience more treatment-oriented options (Zane, Cochran, and Meers 2022, p. 56). Black defendants are similarly less likely to be considered for furlough, drug-treatment, and other rehabilitative options in relation to their White counterparts (Hurwitz and Peffley 1997, p. 387). We see here the policy implications of ideological racism translated into a more invasive structural racism. The corruption of Black innocence directly results in this disproportionate criminalization, realized through harsher punishments and sentencing. Our experimental analysis

seeks to investigate the culture of discrimination that leads to this stringent and racialized punishment. Our analysis also intends to consider the race of the victim, assessing how the adultification and dehumanization of Black adolescents is realized when they are transgressed.

### *Hypotheses*

This investigation hypothesizes that the severity of punishment will be greater for the Black male juvenile transgressor than for the White male juvenile transgressor in our survey experiment.

- Null Hypothesis  $H_0$ : The races of the juvenile transgressor and victim have no effect on the subsequent severity of punishment.
- Alternative Hypothesis  $H_a$ : The races of the juvenile transgressor and the victim have an effect on the severity of punishment.
  - We hypothesize that the race of the Black juvenile transgressor corresponds to a greater severity in punishment.
  - We hypothesize that the race of White victim corresponds to a greater severity in punishment.

### **Data & Methods**

To test our theory, we fielded our own survey experiment, measuring how a randomized sample of American citizens believe juvenile defendants should be penalized for violent infractions. Rather than assessing the potential racial bias of prosecutors and other criminal justice officials, this study sought to explore the national culture of prejudice present in the

United States. We thus found it most advantageous to survey a nationally representative sample of the general public.

We implemented our survey with a national, quota-based sample of 2,197 respondents. Participants were randomly and evenly divided into four groups, offering each group a specific assault scenario. Respondents were presented with a situation where a male juvenile perpetrator with a prior misdemeanor conviction had assaulted another young male with a varying racial combination for each vignette. The four scenarios are located in Appendix A.

We conveyed race through name, desiring to mitigate the likelihood of response bias that might result from overtly stating the race of the defendant. Using names as an indicator of race is a common practice throughout social science research (Crabtree et al. 2023, p. 1) Had we explicitly stated the race of the transgressor and victim, respondents could have tried to moderate their implicit racial bias, potentially distorting our results. These names came from a vetted list often utilized in survey experiments regarding race. For both the Black and White names included in the scenarios, we used a variation of first and last names. This was to ensure that the potential effect of race as an explanatory variable was not limited to one name (Crabtree et al. 2023, p. 8). The survey also included ancillary questions on the respondent's age, political affiliation, race and ethnicity, and gender.

In justifying our choice of the defendant's age, we consulted scholarship at the intersection of psychology and juvenile delinquency. Juvenile criminal policy and sentencing is heavily dictated by perceptions of age and one's ability to discern what is considered legally right and wrong. 16 is considered a threshold age for agency over "cognitive capacity," where adolescents should be held accountable for their actions and potential transgressions (Widom, 2001, p. 14). Age was an important consideration in our experiment as there is often variation in

how criminal culpability is perceived based on maturity. 16 thus served as the established age for every scenario. Similarly, the prior infraction by the defendant was also a vital element. Certain crimes can provoke varying perceptions, especially if the offenses differ in severity. We consequently utilized misdemeanor shoplifting as the only prior offense on the defendant's record.

As a final consideration for our vignettes, we noted gender. We wanted homogeneity in sex across the transgressor and victim roles to keep our analysis respective to race. We focused on male defendants as scholarship demonstrates that, within the criminal justice system, Black men are disproportionately more criminalized than their Black female counterparts, which is the case across most races in the United States (Steffensmeier et al. 2010). Similarly, the gender of the victim is a critical factor in how sentencing is handled by judges, where crimes are perceived as worse when the victim is a woman (McKimmie et al., 2016). In this particular investigation, we found it necessary for race to be our exclusive explanatory variable, selecting not to examine the nuance of gender.

Based upon each case, respondents determined the appropriate punishment from five presented sentences for misdemeanor juvenile assault, including no punishment, a substantial fine, 6-months community service, 6-months juvenile incarceration, and 1-year juvenile incarceration, increasing in severity with each choice. The ordering of these sentences comes from a number of factors articulated by juridical scholars, including the duration of the sentence, the physical requirement of incarceration, and the monetary restitution component (Buchner, 1979, p. 183). These punishments derive from firms asserting the most common reprimands for juvenile assault. For a majority of states, assault comprises enacting or threatening harm upon another individual, resulting in a misdemeanor charge depending on the severity of the violent

encounter (Mince-Didier, 2023; HammerSchmidt Law, 2023). Once respondents answered their designated scenario, their chosen reprimand was converted to a corresponding quantitative score to facilitate our statistical analysis (see Appendix A). To statistically determine the significance of our results in relation to our hypothesis, we performed a bivariate regression analysis through the R programming system. Bivariate analysis served as the appropriate measurement due to its tailored assessment of two variables, determining the direction of the relationship and the strength of the correlation. Because our research design utilized a randomized treatment, there was no necessity to perform a multivariate analysis as there were not any potential confounders.

### *Variables*

The explanatory/independent variable of our experiment was the race of the male juvenile defendant and the victim. In a visual dataset, the four intended race variations might be denoted as “blackonwhite,” “blackonblack,” “whiteonblack,” “whiteonwhite.” The independent variable was nominal in nature, measured by four different scenarios that capture the race variations noted above. Race was specifically indicated through name. The dependent variable of our study was the severity of punishment, defined by a scale of reprimands ranging from no punishment to 1-year juvenile incarceration. Our response variable is thus ordinal, increasing in harshness over the five presented punishments. We treated this ordinal scale as numerical in our statistical analysis.



## Results

### *General Findings*

Our investigation sought to assess the relationship between race and the subsequent severity in punishment for misdemeanor assault. In order to assess this relationship, we executed a survey that yielded 2,197 observations. These observations were divided into four groups, each with a scenario that indicated a certain racial variation between the defendant and the victim. As previously mentioned, we utilized bivariate regression analysis in order to determine the statistical significance of our findings. Discussion of our results begins with the general distribution of responses to the four scenarios. As demonstrated in Figure 1, respondents were generally more punitive in their reprimands irrespective of race. Roughly 80% of the respondents selected one of the latter three options, including 6-months community service, 6-months juvenile incarceration, and 1-year juvenile incarceration. We find that participants felt increased punishment was necessary following the shoplifting incident noted in the four scenarios. In explaining this finding, criminologist Julian Roberts holds that “prior convictions serve as a proxy for the offender’s risk of future offending...This higher risk justifies the imposition of more punishment in order to prevent re-offending” (2015, p. 11). From this reasoning, respondents felt it important to enact a more substantial reprimand in order to prevent further infractions. There thus exists an increased harshness when a defendant has already offended in the past, limiting the leniency afforded for future offenses.

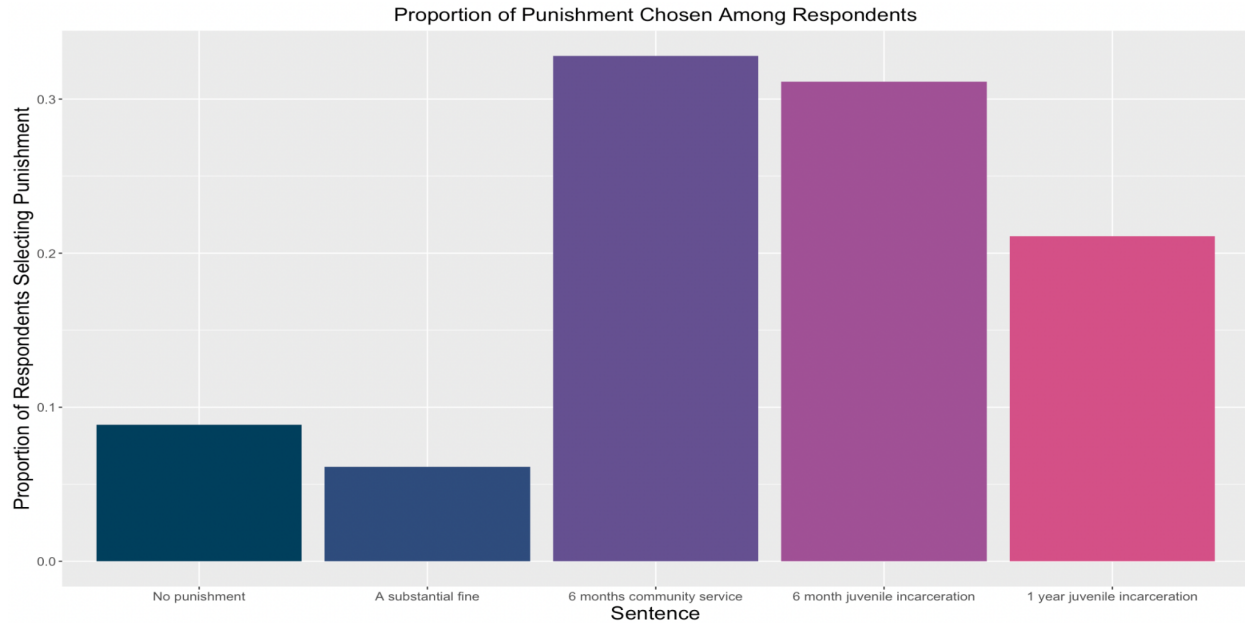


Figure 1. Proportion of Punishments Chosen among Respondents

We next turn attention to the core findings of our bivariate analysis, leading us to Table 1. It is first necessary to consider the  $p$ -values located in the  $\Pr(>|t|)$  column, measured against our 0.05  $\alpha$  level value. The  $p$ -value for the race of the victim was 0.378, and the  $p$ -value for the race of the transgressor was 0.196. Both of these values are well above the 0.05  $\alpha$  level and thus fall outside of the domain of statistical significance as they are not equal to or below 0.05 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). We observed that the race of the victim is less consequential than the race of the transgressor as it maintains a larger  $p$ -value. This leads us to believe that the race of the victim is generally of lesser importance when determining the severity in punishment of a defendant. Arising from these findings is an inability to reject our null hypothesis, asserting that there is not a relationship between our independent variable of race and our dependent variable of harshness in reprimand. We thus lack sufficient evidence to support our alternative hypothesis.

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.39	3.26 – 3.53	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	0.05	-0.06 – 0.17	0.378
TransgressorRace [White]	0.08	-0.04 – 0.20	0.196
Observations	1941		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.001 / 0.000		

Table 1. Bivariate Regression Results for Relationship Between Race and the Severity of Punishment

Despite our inability to reject the null hypothesis, there still exists interesting trends in the data, indicated by the estimate column in Table 1. Our findings were not only statistically insignificant, but they illustrated a trend quite opposite of our proposed hypothesis. We set our baseline category as the “blackonblack” vignette, so the bivariate regression estimates in the table are in relation to this baseline. The estimate value of the race of the transgressor as White is of particular importance. For every unit increase in the independent variable, as represented by the presence of a White transgressor, the severity of punishment increases by a unit of 0.08, in relation to our intercept value of 3.52 for the Black defendant. This was an unexpected finding as it directly contradicted our proposed hypothesis, suggesting a very interesting trend in public perception. This finding indicates that respondents are more likely to punish defendants who are White than those who are Black, best captured in our coefficient plot seen below in Figure 2.

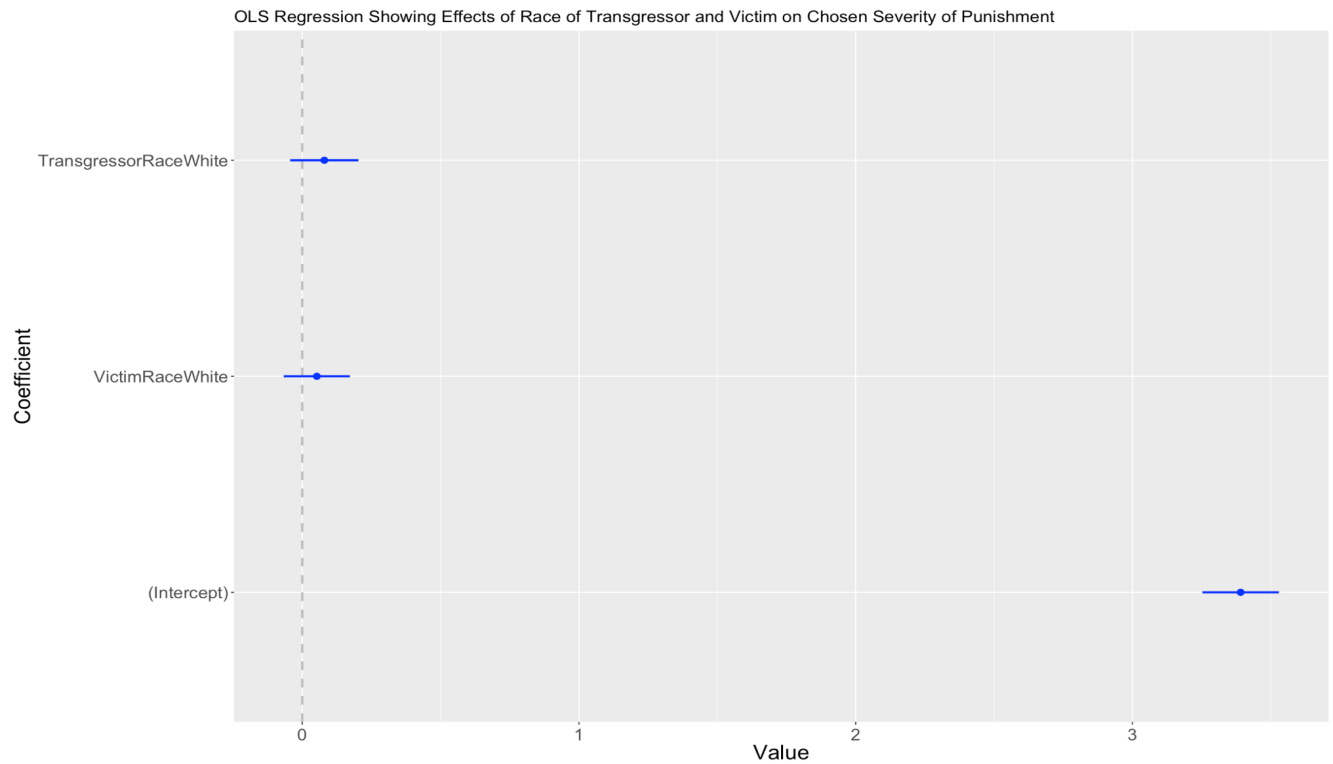


Figure 2. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Race and Severity in Punishment

Here, we see the visual representation of our “blackonblack” y-intercept and the accompanying estimate values for White defendants and White victims. Both values are to the right of the zero line, indicating a positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables, better articulated as a positive relationship between the race of the white defendant and an increased severity in punishment. This trend consequently conveys an increased punitiveness for White transgressors, opposing our initial theory. However, it is important to clarify that despite these trends and behaviors, these results are still statistically insignificant, not allowing us to draw veritable conclusions from the data. The insignificance of these findings are visually demonstrated by the 95% confidence interval bar on the coefficient point, which intersects the zero line and subsequently prevents us from rejecting the null hypothesis.

### *Race Subgroup*

This unpredicted trend and the general lack of statistical significance in our data led us to examine the subgroup demographics of our respondents, including their race, gender, and political party affiliation. We wanted to assess whether these subgroups, in some capacity, supported our proposed hypothesis and generally observe how demographic factors impact severity in punishment based upon race. As seen in Appendix A, we included several questions on the identity of the respondent in hopes of obtaining further nuance in our findings. We first direct attention to the respondents' race. The coefficient plots in Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the White and Black respondent subgroups. With respect to White respondents, the data demonstrates that they, on average, were harsher in punishment on the White transgressor than the Black transgressor with the coefficient point for this variable positioned at the right of the zero line. This was a relatively surprising result as we see a proclivity for White participants to be harder on their race than on Black Americans. From this display, we also see an even lower regression coefficient with the race of the victim, indicating its lacking importance in regards to punishment.

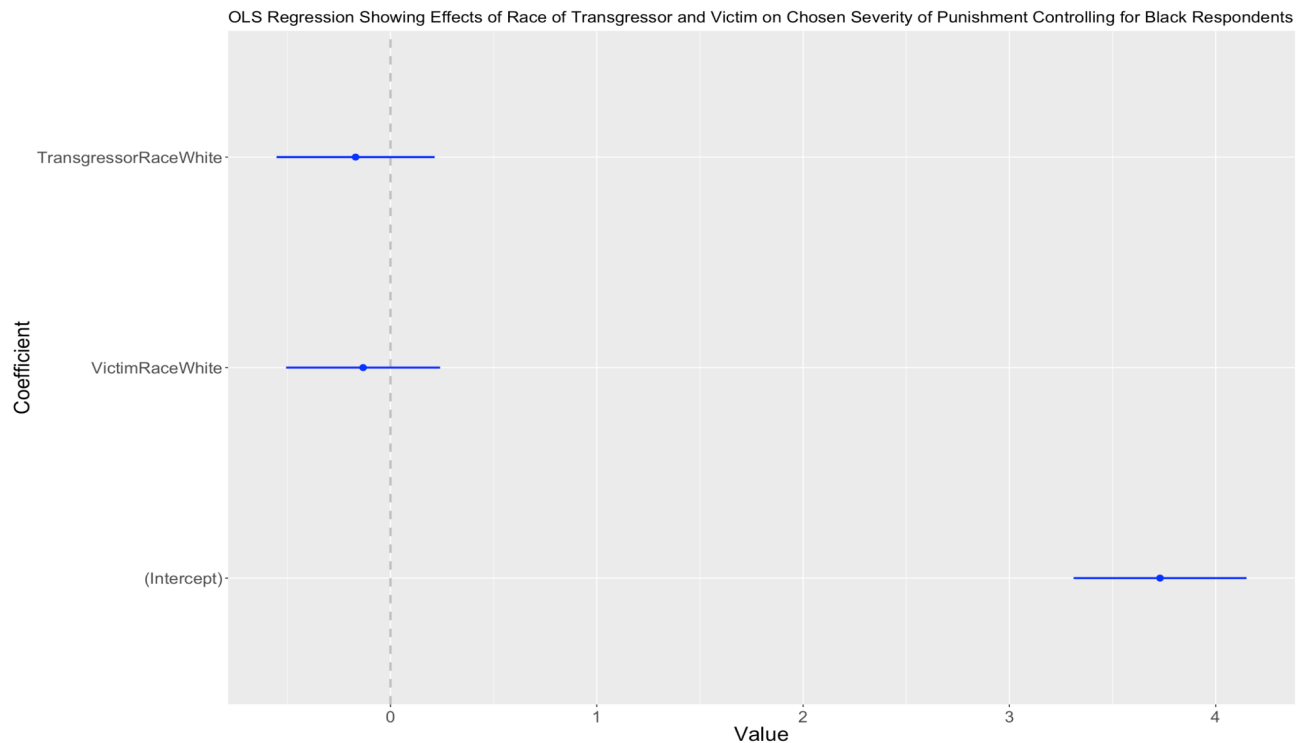


Figure 3. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between White Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

Shifting focus to the Black respondents, we see an equally interesting finding, where they are less harsh on White transgressors than on Black transgressors. Here, the coefficient point for the White transgressor is to the left of the zero line with a value of -0.17, allowing us to see some alignment with our alternative hypothesis (see Table B3). From each of the racial and ethnic subgroups analyzed, the cohort of Black respondents were the primary grouping to enact more severe punishment on their Black counterparts. This trend, although not statistically significant, leads us to consider the potential reasoning behind this occurrence. As noted by American political scientist Hakeem Jefferson, Black individuals in support of the “politics of respectability”, defined as the emphasis on “reform of individual behavior and attitudes both as a goal in itself and as a strategy for reform of the entire structural system of American race relations,” are more likely to support the death penalty, three-strikes laws, and maximum

punishment for drug offenses (Brooks Higginbotham 1993, 187; Jefferson 2023). It is again crucial to understand that our results are not statistically or substantively significant but do suggest a trend potentially explained by the above theoretical reasoning. Across the nation, there are members of the Black demographic who seek the holistic advancement of the people through meeting a certain socio-cultural standard. Deviation from this standard results in increased punitiveness as loosely conveyed in our findings.

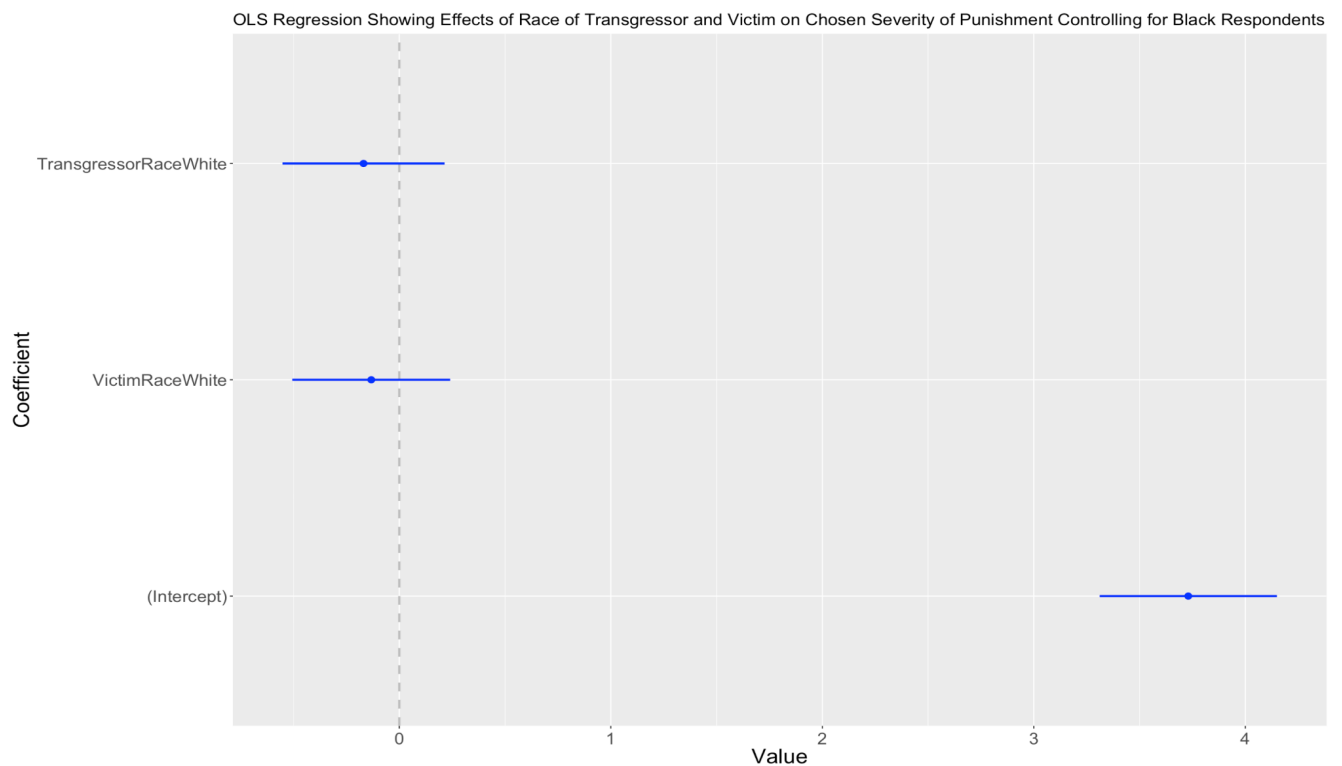


Figure 4. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Black Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

### *Political Ideology*

Turning attention, it is critical to also consider the political ideology of respondents as an explanatory factor of our results. Figures 7 and 8 offer a comparison in the sentences chosen by Democrats and Republicans. With Democrats, we see a very minuscule tendency for the White transgressor to be punished more harshly than the Black transgressor, as the regression

coefficient barely passes the zero line with a value of 0.05 (see Table B6). Republicans, however, are comparatively much more punitive regarding the White transgressor than the Black transgressor at an estimate value of 0.2, a rather unexpected result. Historically, Republicans, a party that is 89% non-Hispanic White, have always been greater advocates of punishment, but this desire for stringent reprimand is often directed towards minority demographics (Newport 2013). We were thus surprised by the harshness aimed at White defendants. Such findings might lead us to question the purported dichotomy between the Democratic and Republican parties when it comes to judicial reprimand. Holistically, our findings still suggest a more severe reprimand of White transgressors than their Black counterparts, contrary to our proposed hypothesis.

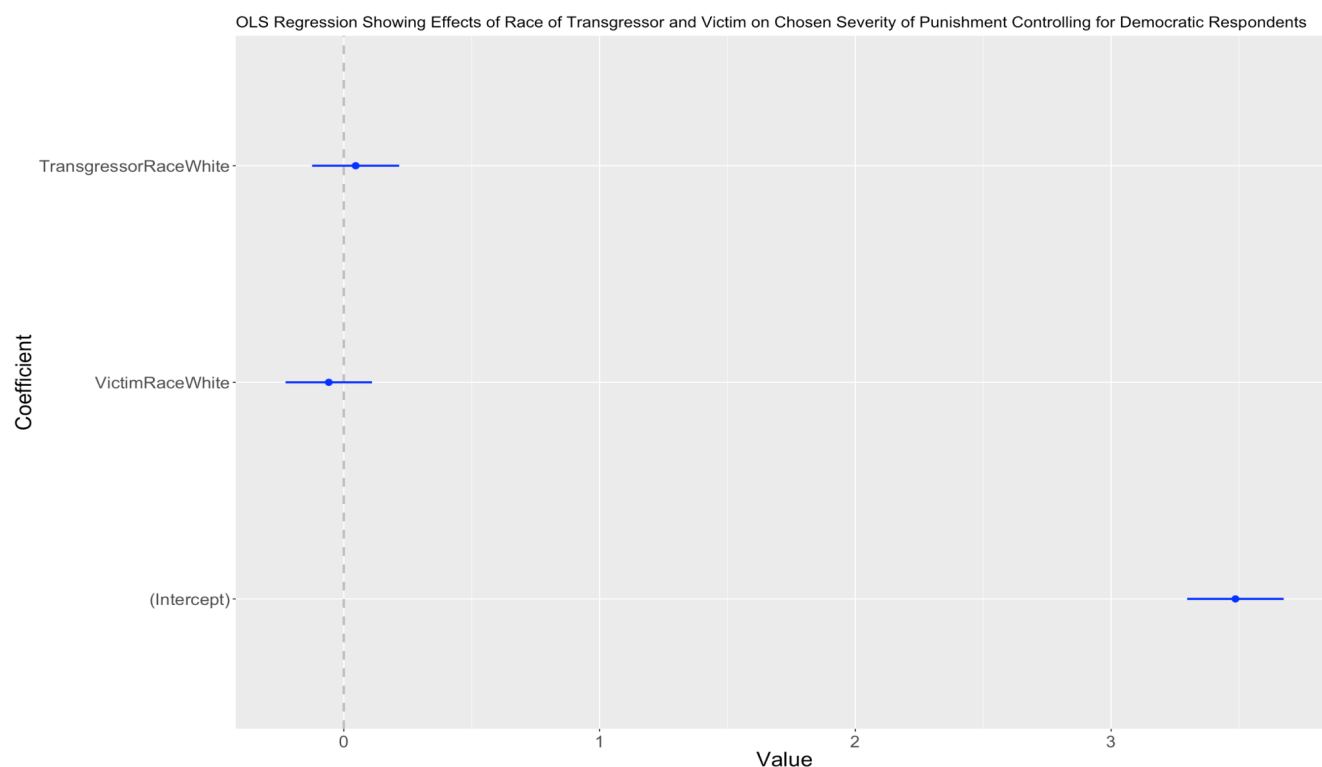


Figure 7. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Democratic Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant



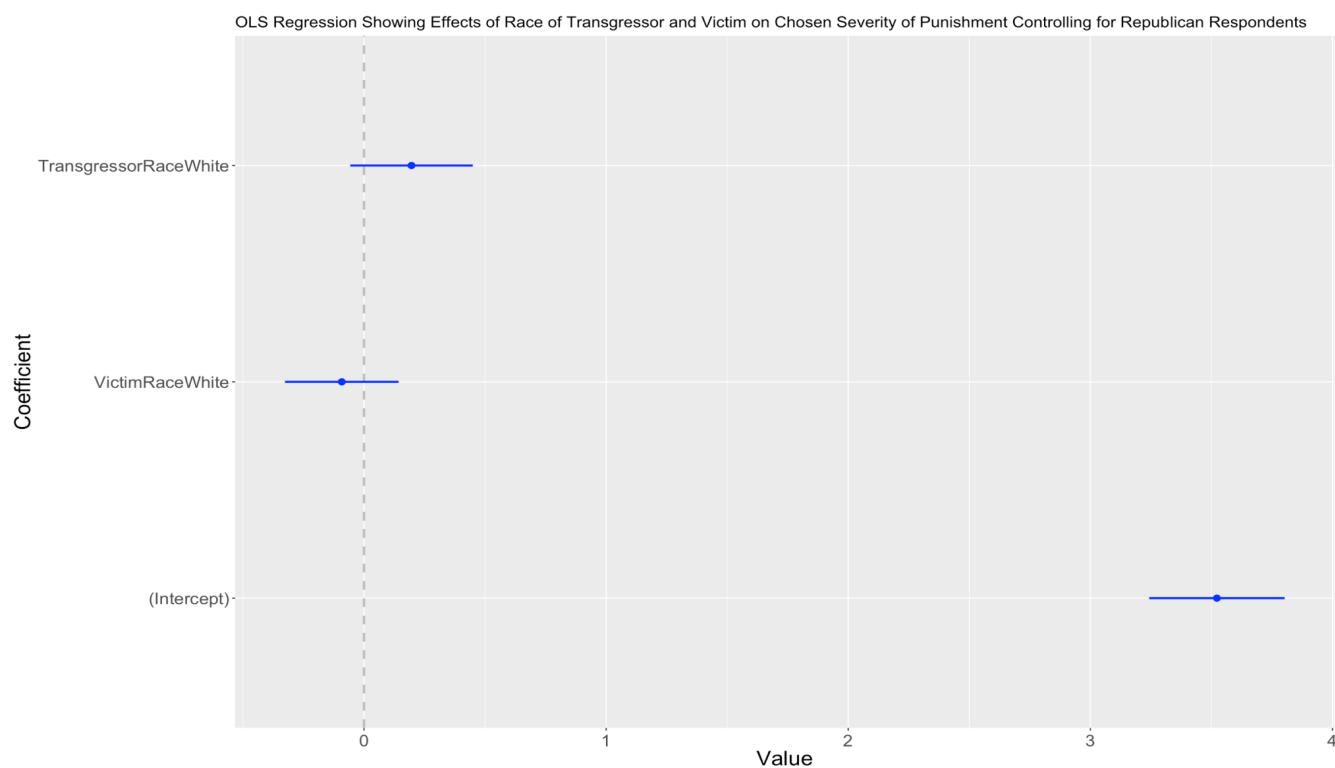


Figure 8. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Republican Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

### *Gender Subgroup*

As a final point of note, we focus on gender, an incredibly important factor in sentencing and the determination of guilt. Gender becomes especially important in jury selection, where the demographics of a juror can make or break a verdict of guilt or innocence. Our findings indicate a noticeable difference in how men and women execute sentencing based upon the race of the transgressor and victim. In Figures 9 and 10, the estimate value for women stands at 0.01, while the estimate value for men is 0.16, a considerable difference, especially when compared visually (see Tables B8 and B9). Men are more punitive with White defendants than Black defendants, whereas women are seemingly indiscriminate in their sentencing of transgressors. In fact, the race of the victim appears to be a more formidable factor in determining punishment for women. In a general sense, this trend aligns with our assumption that women are less penal than men

(Dodd 2020). However, we are still left with results that contradict our alternative hypothesis arguing that an increased severity in punishment accompanies Black defendants over their White peers.

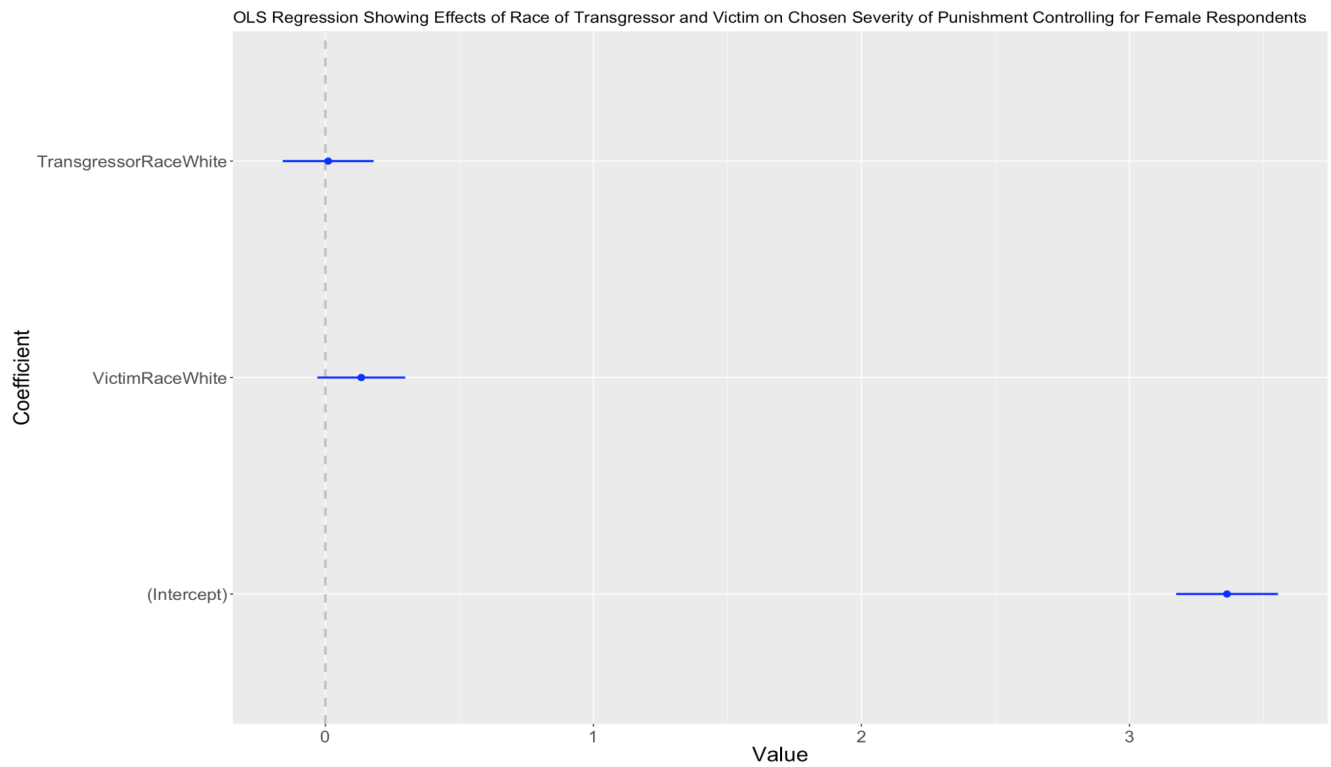


Figure 9. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Female Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

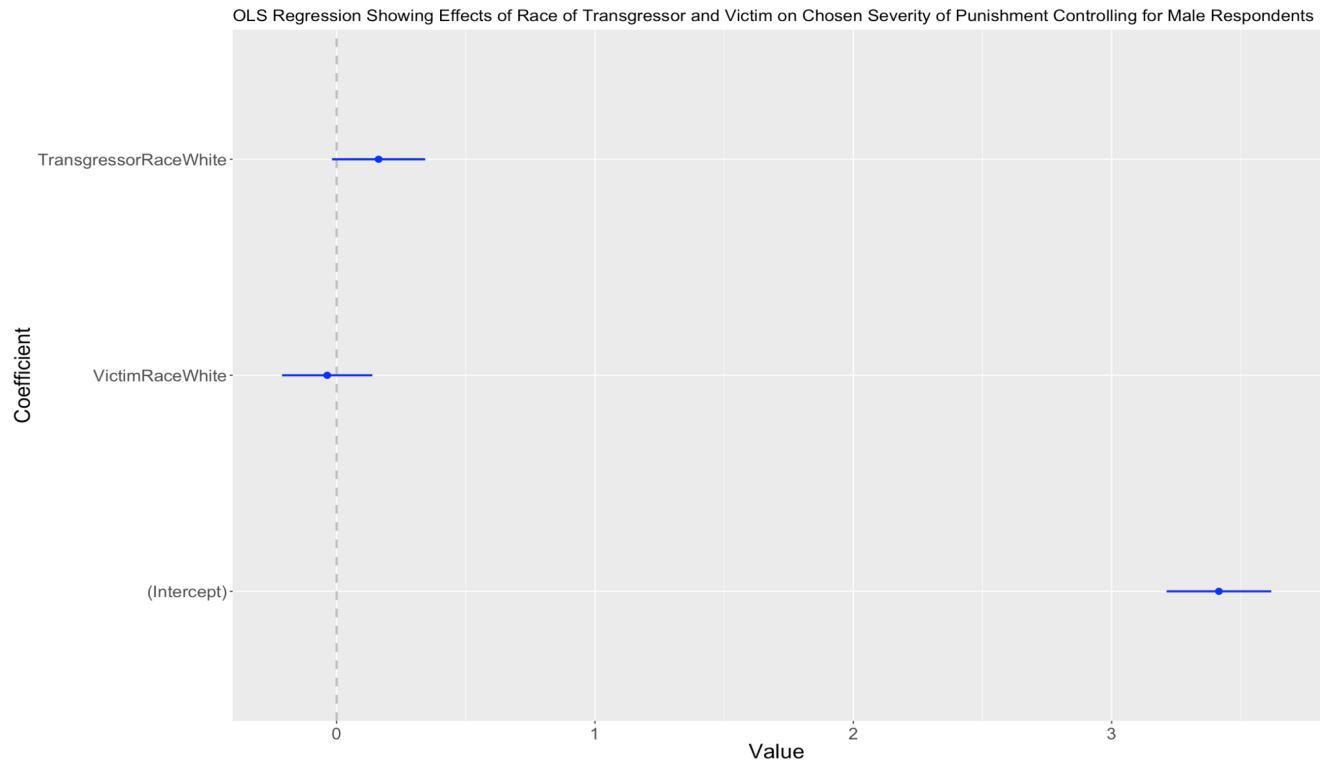


Figure 10. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Male Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

What arises from both our bivariate regression analysis of the full dataset and each subgroup are statistically insignificant results. We are consequently unable to affirm the racial discrimination present in juvenile sentencing. Despite this lacking significance, we still see intriguing trends that suggest a heightened severity in punishment for the White defendant, which directly opposes our original hypothesis. Our results lead us to consider how we arrived at these findings and the potential choices in methodology that might have caused this unexpected outcome. The following section discusses these considerations.

## Discussion

Our data did not convey statistically significant racial bias in sentencing for our vignettes entailing assault. However, that does not mean that discrimination in this manner is not

prevalent. As mentioned in our results section, there were several intriguing observations from our findings, including the tendency for White respondents to be harsher on the White transgressor. Supported by literature from forensic psychologist Rossol Gharin, “Whites are... more likely to endorse a ‘get tough on crime’ approach than Black and Hispanic person....The White person, unlike any minority, holds the privilege of navigating a society that favors them” (2021, p. 225) This statement, in a way, highlights the findings in our data that show a positive correlation between severity of punishment and being a White transgressor. Gharib investigates the positive and negative understandings of White identity and the effect this has on their punitiveness (2021, p. 232). He finds that there is some correlation between a negative White identity and more punitiveness. There thus exists a tendency for White respondents to more harshly condemn their racial peers as a result of their unfavorable actions. These transgressions are seen as reflecting badly on the collective race, resulting in more severe reprimand and thus potentially explaining our findings. This subgroup is a microcosm of the increased punitiveness towards White defendants that we saw in our data, which we examine further in our limitations.

### *Limitations*

There were a few primary limitations to our experimental design that potentially affected our results. The severity of the crime in our scenarios is one consideration as it might not have been serious enough to provoke a discernible racial disparity in sentencing. Misdemeanor adolescent assault is not comparable to felony murder, an offense that provokes a larger range of sentences depending on the circumstances. If the crime had been more severe, respondents may have started to implicitly analyze the role of race more in that situation, rather than primarily considering age. As we note in our background, violent criminality is often ascribed to the Black

identity, so a more severe crime might have been more appropriate for our investigative intentions. In a similar survey, but in a vignette with higher stakes and a more serious crime, our hypothesis might have been supported as implicit bias might have been more prevalent in respondent answers.

Another critical limitation concerned the lacking implications from answering our survey questions. If each respondent was an actual criminal judge, they would have the true authority to sentence defendants, affecting how they would determine punishment. These rulings would materialize, causing more careful consideration in deciding the fate of the adolescent offender. This could either be advantageous or detrimental, depending on the race of the transgressor and their offense. We thus find that the lack of real world implications might have altered our results. Additionally, many of our unexpected findings can be supported by social desirability bias, the tendency to respond in a way that is deemed socially acceptable. Respondents subsequently might have discerned the objective of our survey and responded in a way that reflected a hypothetically ‘better’ version of themselves, becoming socially and politically palatable to all audiences.

### *Future Research*

We are left with numerous questions to explore in future research surrounding this topic. Moving beyond this analysis, we seek to delve deeper into understanding racial bias in sentencing and subsequent perceptions of violence in association with certain races. Future surveys would include more ancillary questions that gauge interpretations of violence and what criminal acts maintain a racialized identity. These questions will ask respondents to determine the severity of different crimes committed by individuals of varying races. We can consequently

assess whether there are differences in how these crimes are perceived based on the race of the perpetrator. These crimes will include felony assault, homicide, and armed robbery. Indicating race through name will remain critical as to not hinder the intended findings. We might additionally expand the scope of the crime, considering drug-related offenses, which have also been historically associated with the Black demographic (Alexander 2010, p. 5). Questions will require respondents to determine the appropriate sentence from similar scenarios posed in this analysis, with a drug violation as the primary infraction. We further believe continued focus on public perception is critical as we seek to clarify the national sentiment of racial discrimination that permeates the United States. As noted in our background, judges are heavily influenced by public demand and opinion, affecting how they approach sentencing. The general public is thus the prime population we should continue to study. Future studies might inquire if respondents believe that there is racial bias present in the criminal justice system and if they even discern an issue with the adjudication process. Dissecting this data along partisan lines will be critical, allowing us to identify party-specific perspectives on the judicial system and reveal the biases that exist respective to both. From such questions, the prevailing intention is to establish a statistical and substantive relationship between race and sentencing. Clarifying the injurious effects of racial discrimination in the United States might hopefully contribute to the wealth of scholarship that aims to mitigate the biases present in our criminal justice system.

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## Appendix A

### Survey Information

#### Qualtrics Questions (4 Scenarios)

Hello! Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. This survey should take no more than 5 minutes. Your contributions can not be understated, and we are truly appreciative.

#### Preliminary Questions

- (1) How old are you?
    - (a) Denoted by intervals from 18 to 65+
  - (2) What is your gender
    - (a) Male
    - (b) Female
    - (c) Other
  - (3) What is your race/ethnicity?
    - (a) White
    - (b) Black or African American
    - (c) American Indian or Alaska Native
    - (d) Asian or Pacific Islander
    - (e) Hispanic
    - (f) Other
  - (4) Are you an American citizen?
    - (a) Yes
    - (b) No
- 
- (1) Black male juvenile defendant with White male victim
    - (a) DeWayne Thompson, a 16 year-old male defendant, has been recently convicted of assault and battery of another 16 year-old male, John Peterson. The assault began with a verbal altercation between the two and there is security footage showing DeWayne instigating the assault that caused John to have a broken arm. This is DeWayne' second infraction, as he was previously convicted for shoplifting, a misdemeanor; he was sentenced to three-months community service, which he completed successfully.

Based on this information, if you were a judge, how would you sentence the defendant?
  - (2) Black male juvenile defendant with Black male victim
    - (a) DeWayne Thompson, a 16 year-old male defendant, has been recently convicted of assault and battery of another 16 year-old male, Marcus Miller. The assault began with a verbal altercation between the two and there is security footage showing DeWayne instigating the assault that caused Marcus to have a broken arm. This is DeWayne' second infraction, as he was previously convicted for shoplifting, a misdemeanor; he was sentenced to three-months community service, which he completed successfully.

Based on this information, if you were a judge, how would you sentence the defendant?

(3) White male juvenile defendant with Black male victim

- (a) John Peterson, a 16 year-old male defendant, has been recently convicted of assault and battery of another 16 year-old male, DeWayne Thompson. The assault began with a verbal altercation between the two and there is security footage showing John instigating the assault that caused DeWayne to have a broken arm. This is John's second infraction, as he was previously convicted for shoplifting, a misdemeanor; he was sentenced to three-months community service, which he completed successfully.

Based on this information, if you were a judge, how would you sentence the defendant?

(4) White male juvenile defendant with White male victim

- (a) John Peterson, a 16 year-old male defendant, has been recently convicted of assault and battery of another 16 year-old male, Todd Miller. The assault began with a verbal altercation between the two and there is security footage showing John instigating the assault that caused Todd to have a broken arm. This is John's second infraction, as he was previously convicted for shoplifting, a misdemeanor; he was sentenced to three-months community service, which he completed successfully.

Based on this information, if you were a judge, how would you sentence the defendant?

Sentences	Quantitative Score
No punishment	1
A Substantial Fine	2
6-Months Community Service	3
6-Month Juvenile incarceration	4
1-Year Juvenile incarceration	5

## Appendix B

### Tables & Figures

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.39	3.26 – 3.53	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	0.05	-0.06 – 0.17	0.378
TransgressorRace [White]	0.08	-0.04 – 0.20	0.196
Observations	1941		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.001 / 0.000		

Table 1. Bivariate Regression Output For All Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.34	3.16 – 3.51	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	0.06	-0.09 – 0.22	0.419
TransgressorRace [White]	0.14	-0.02 – 0.30	0.078
Observations	999		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.004 / 0.002		

Table 2. Bivariate Regression Output for White Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.73	3.32 – 4.14	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	-0.13	-0.50 – 0.24	0.478
TransgressorRace [White]	-0.17	-0.55 – 0.21	0.378
Observations	211		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.007 / -0.003		

Table 3. Bivariate Regression Output for Black Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.37	3.11 – 3.64	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	0.06	-0.17 – 0.29	0.622
TransgressorRace [White]	0.11	-0.13 – 0.36	0.353
Observations	537		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.002 / -0.002		

Table 4. Bivariate Regression Output for Asian Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.69	2.97 – 4.41	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	-0.17	-0.78 – 0.43	0.574
TransgressorRace [White]	-0.06	-0.60 – 0.48	0.824
Observations	126		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.003 / -0.013		

Table 5. Bivariate Regression Output for Hispanic Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.49	3.30 – 3.67	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	-0.06	-0.22 – 0.11	0.487
TransgressorRace [White]	0.05	-0.12 – 0.21	0.585
Observations	832		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.001 / -0.002		

Table 6. Bivariate Regression Output for Democratic Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.52	3.25 – 3.80	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	-0.09	-0.32 – 0.14	0.434
TransgressorRace [White]	0.20	-0.05 – 0.44	0.122
Observations	476		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.006 / 0.002		

Table 7. Bivariate Regression Output for Republican Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.42	3.22 – 3.61	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	-0.04	-0.21 – 0.13	0.676
TransgressorRace [White]	0.16	-0.01 – 0.34	0.071
Observations	909		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.004 / 0.002		

Table 8. Bivariate Regression Output for Male Respondents

<i>Predictors</i>	<b>Dependent variable</b>		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	3.36	3.18 – 3.55	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
VictimRace [White]	0.13	-0.03 – 0.29	0.103
TransgressorRace [White]	0.01	-0.16 – 0.18	0.902
Observations	1030		
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.003 / 0.001		

Table 9. Bivariate Regression Output for Female Respondents

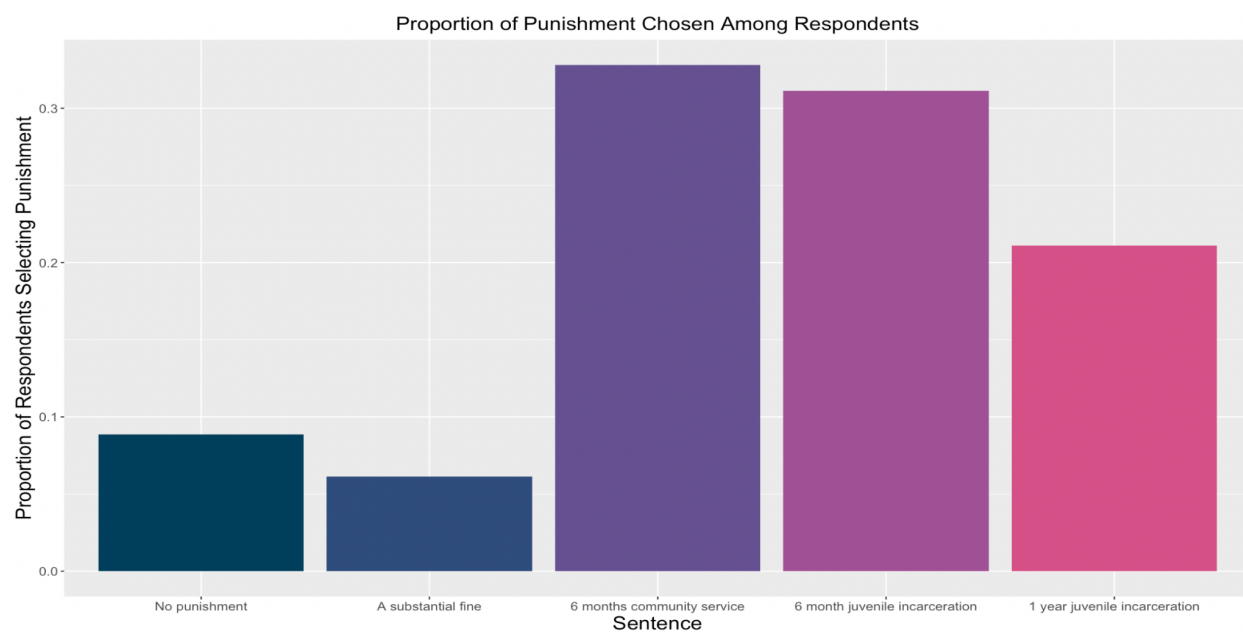


Figure 1. Proportion of Punishments Chosen among Respondents

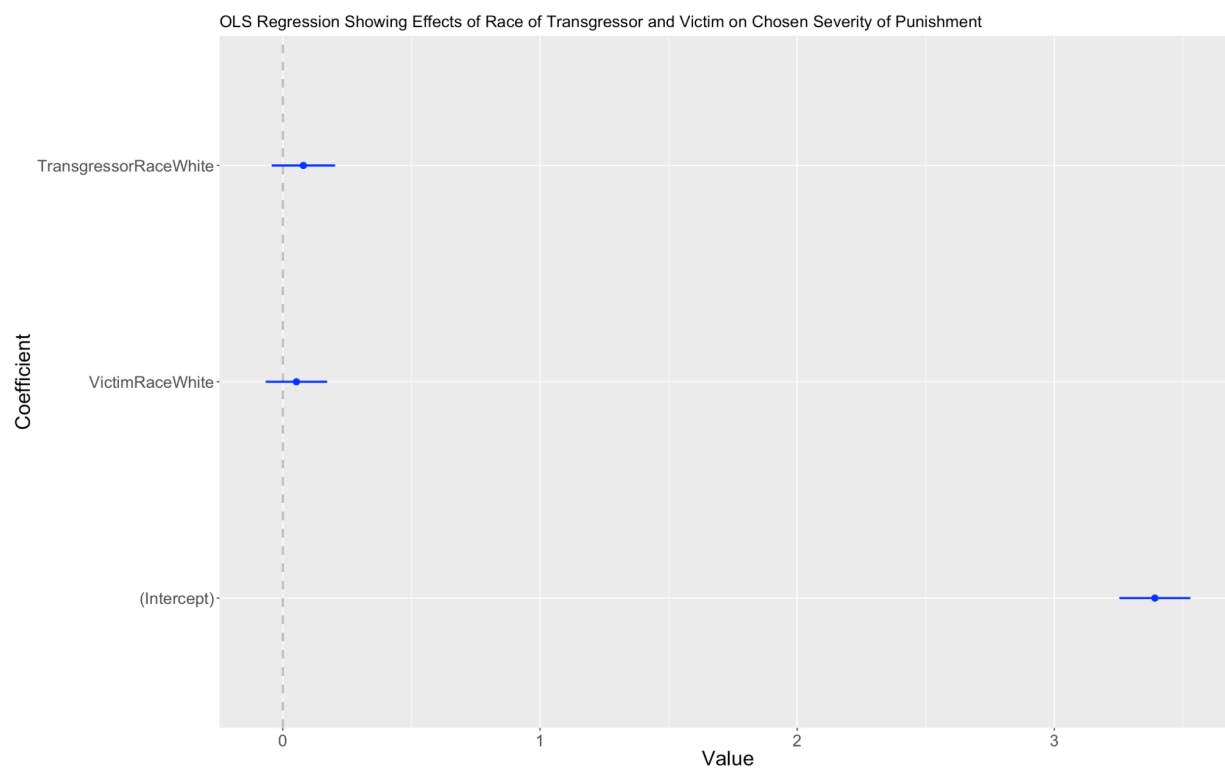


Figure 2. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Race and Severity in Punishment



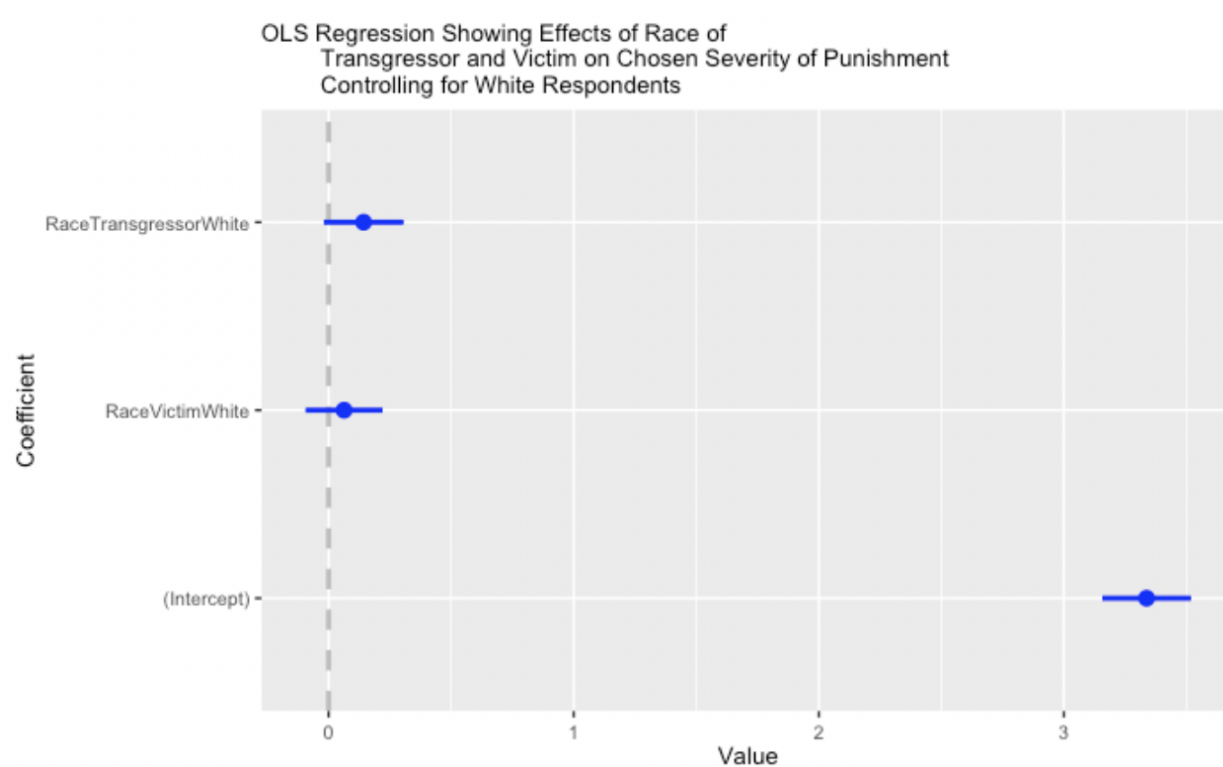


Figure 3. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between White Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

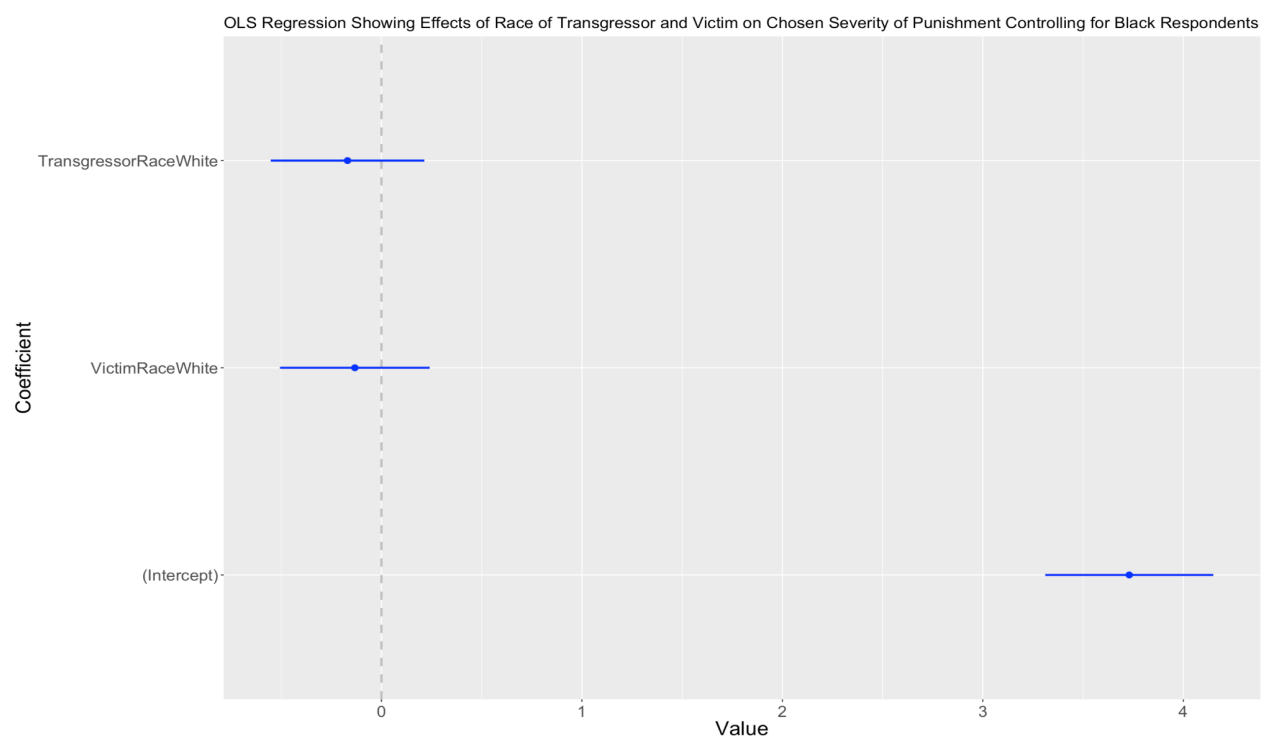


Figure 4. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Black Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

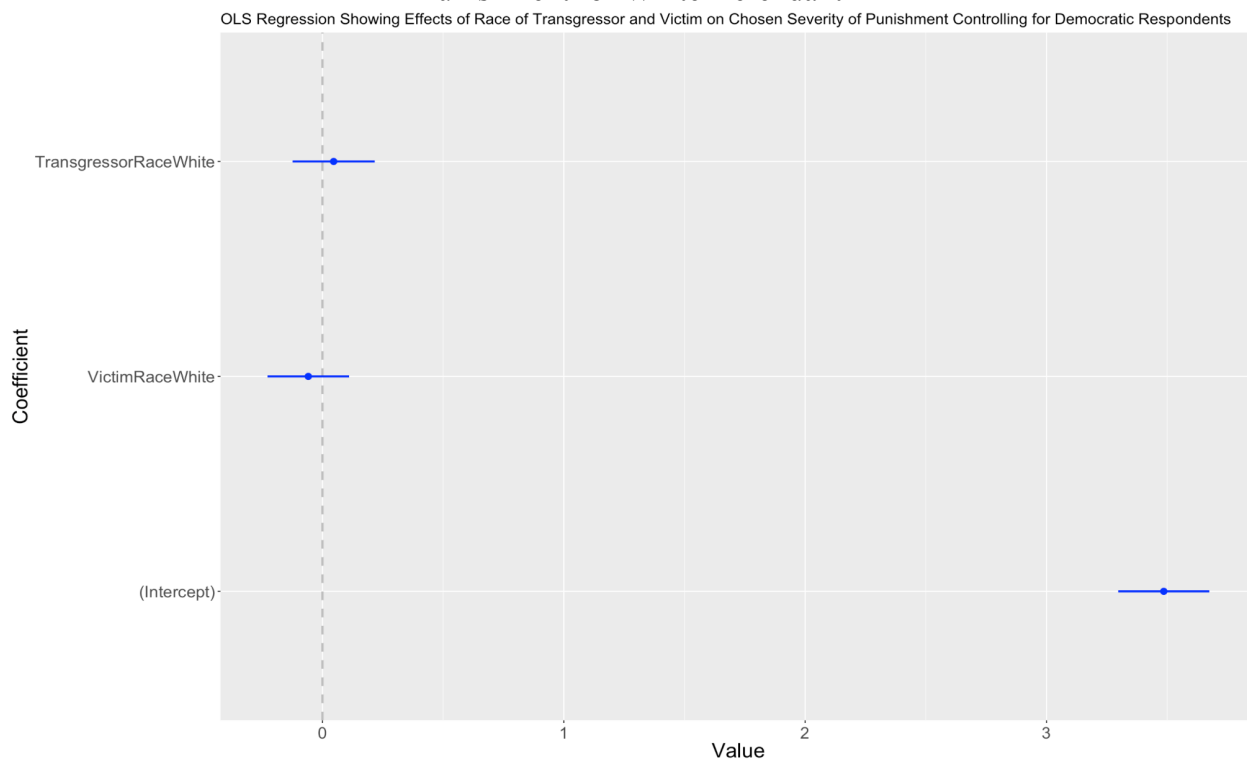


Figure 7. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Democratic Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

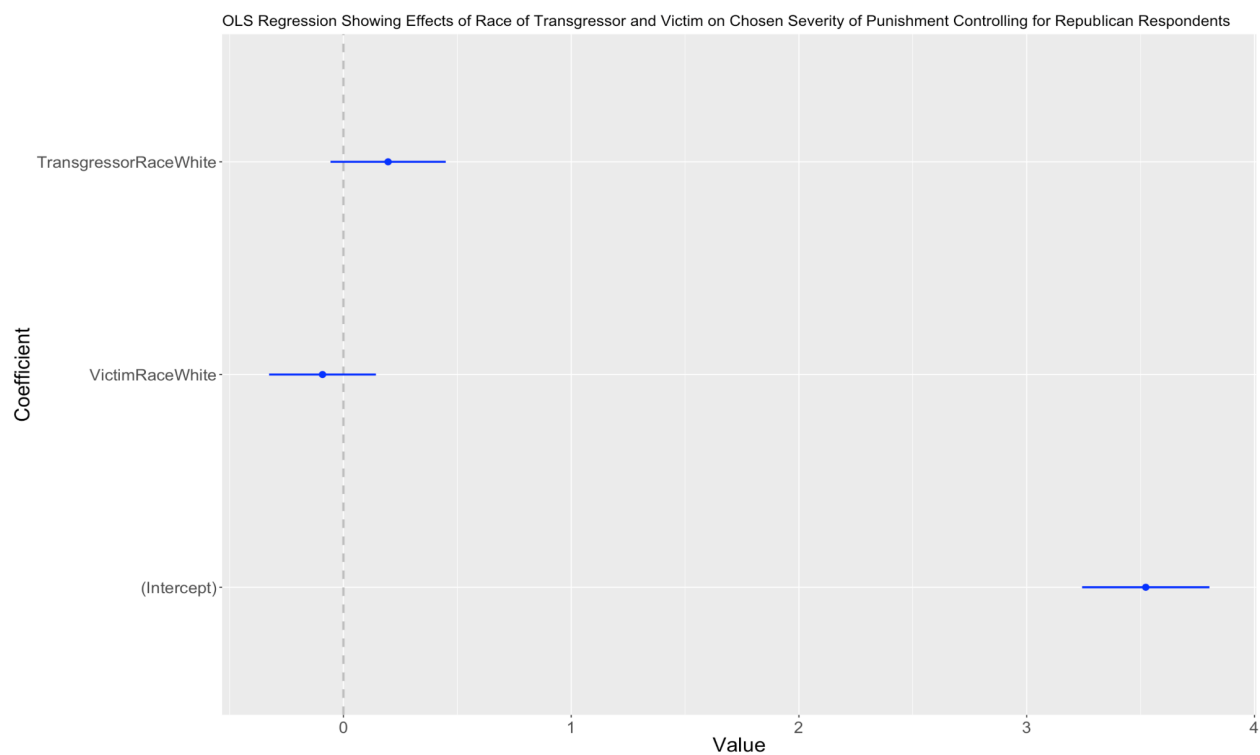


Figure 8. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Republican Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

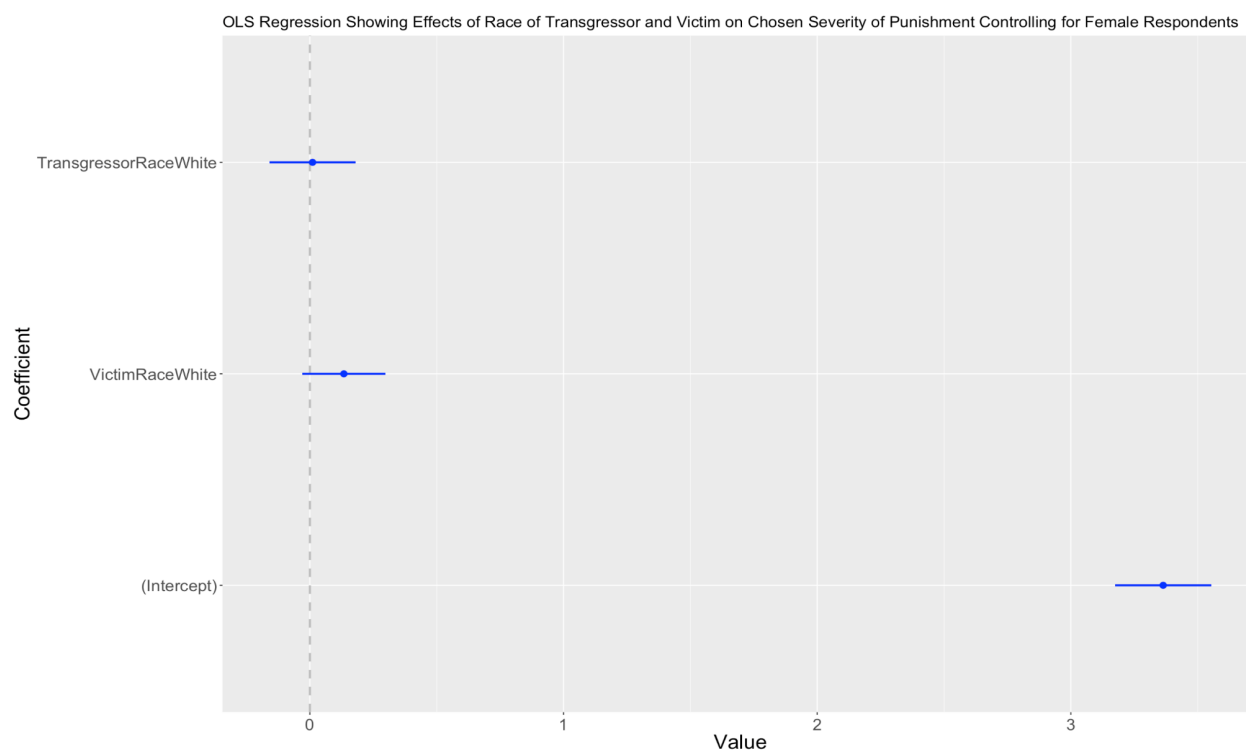


Figure 9. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Female Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

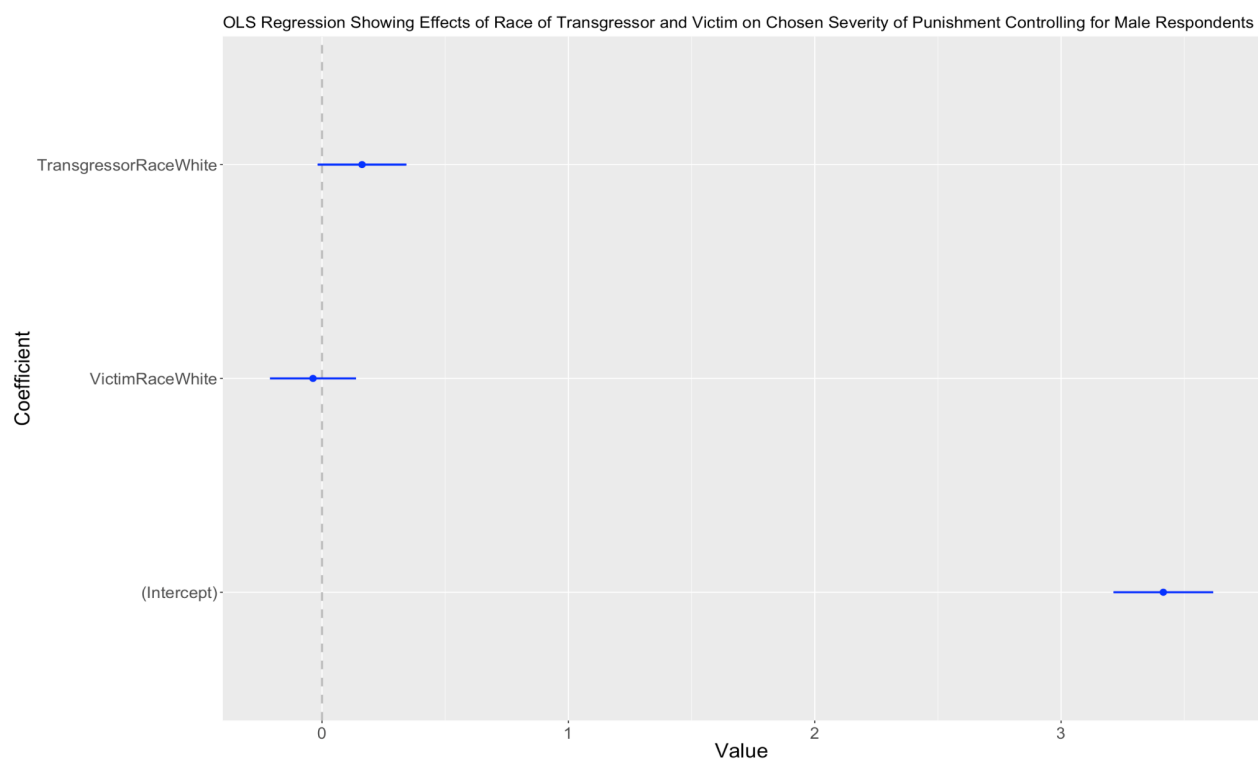


Figure 10. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Male Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

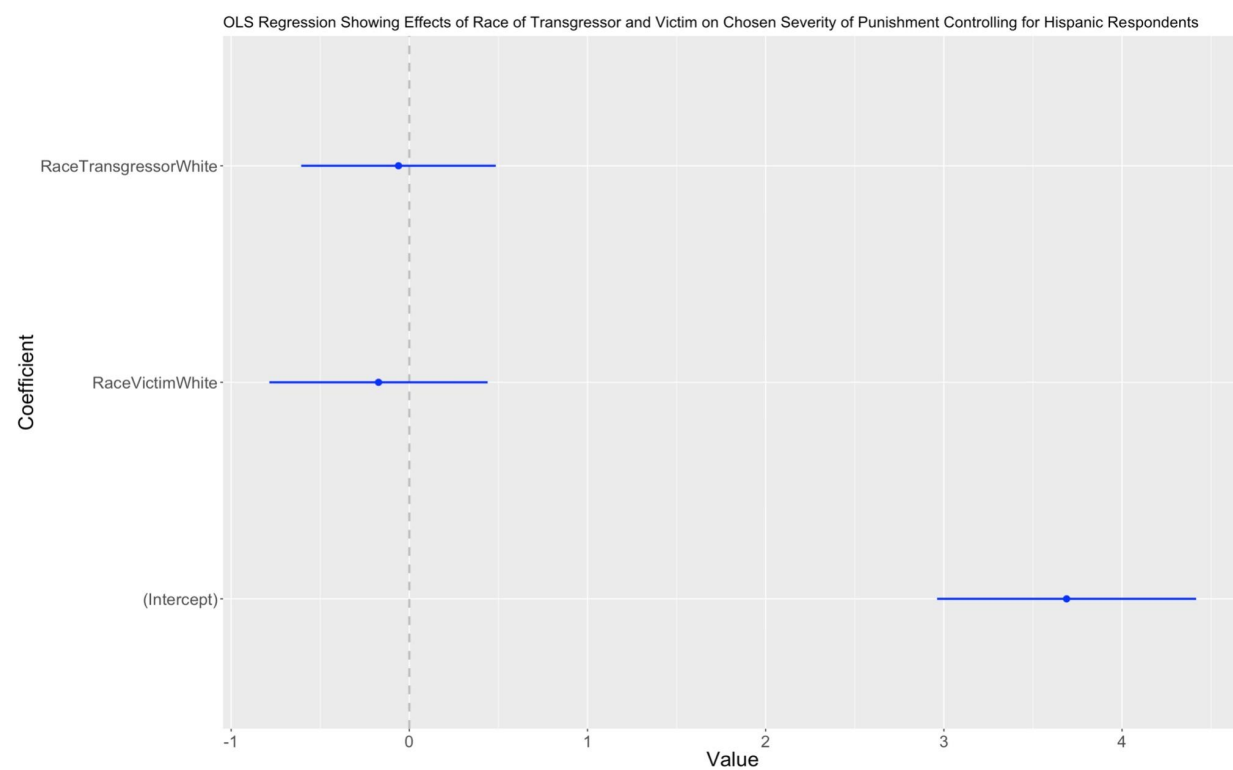


Figure 11. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Hispanic Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant

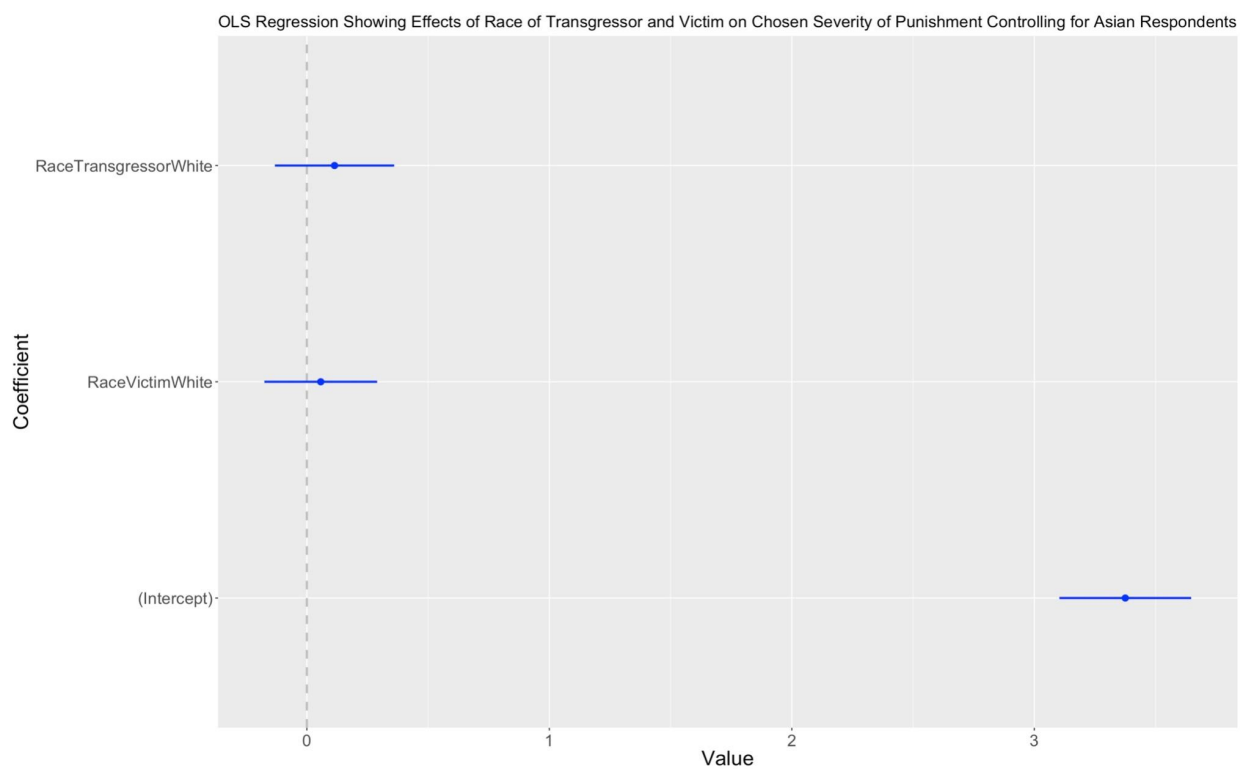


Figure 12. Coefficient Plot Showing the Relationship between Asian Respondents and Severity in Punishment for White Defendant