Unaccompanied Youth and Private-Public Order Failures

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ABSTRACT

Each year, approximately 1.7 million “unaccompanied youth” under the age of 18 live on their own in homelessness or in other unstable living conditions. Many of these youth ran away or were kicked out of their families or child welfare placements. Others became homeless upon or soon after being released from juvenile detention.

As this Article describes, the government responds to unaccompanied youth through a complex web of family-centered interventions in both the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems. Child welfare responses adopt a view of unaccompanied youth as victims of negative family circumstances and respond by altering their family environments—first through attempting to repair the biological family relationship, and when that is not possible, by providing youth substitute families through foster care and adoption. When those family-centered approaches are not working, juvenile justice laws and law enforcement policies and practices pressure unaccompanied youth to reunite with their families (whether
biological, foster, or adoptive) and allow for their arrest and detention. In this regard, the government adopts a very different view of unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders when they do not fit into family systems.

This Article shows that unaccompanied youth whose needs are not served under family-centered child welfare responses are ultimately left vulnerable to entering a destructive cycle of homelessness and involvement in the juvenile and criminal justice systems. It further argues that the experiences of unaccompanied youth, and unaccompanied LGBTQ youth in particular, demonstrate the limits of the family-centered approach as a wholesale or comprehensive solution to the child welfare needs of adolescent youth. The shortcomings of this approach illustrate a need for a paradigm shift in child welfare law and policy (and relatedly, juvenile justice law and policy) that places greater emphasis on non–family centered approaches to serve vulnerable youth in need of help from the state, especially late-adolescent youth. Under this new framework, child welfare law and policy responses would conceptualize the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth in positive and empowering terms, and provide greater space for support systems, skills, and resources outside of family systems to help them achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults.

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INTRODUCTION

Consider the story of a teenager named Jack.¹ During his senior year of high school, Jack told his family that he was gay.² At the time, Jack was living with his mother and her new boyfriend, who became abusive and did not accept Jack’s sexuality.³ Jack’s mom was not ready to end the relationship, but wanted to find a safe home for him.⁴ She discovered a transitional living program, which provided a supervised community living environment to youth between the ages of 16 and 22 who were homeless or at risk of becoming homeless.⁵ The program also helped youth build necessary life skills to live independently as adults.⁶ Jack entered the program, stayed in school, maintained a GPA in the top ten percent of his graduating class, and got accepted to college.⁷

Jack’s success story, however, is rare. A teenager in Jack’s situation is more likely to follow a path like Tracey’s.⁸ After Tracey told his family that he was gay, he was sent to live in a group home.⁹ He bounced between four group homes in six months.¹⁰ At each group home, he was teased, tormented, and harassed because he was gay.¹¹ After he could

2. Id.
3. Id.
4. Id.
5. Id.
6. Id.
7. Id.
9. Id.
10. Id.
11. Id.
no longer take the abuse, Tracey left his last group home to live on the streets.\textsuperscript{12} He lived with friends, slept on people’s sofas, and sold his body for sex to survive.\textsuperscript{13} At one point, he “lived in an abandoned trailer truck with ten other people, [and] slept in railroad tunnels.”\textsuperscript{14} As bad as it got on the streets, Tracey found the group homes to be much worse.\textsuperscript{15}

Although Jack and Tracey’s stories follow very different trajectories, their shared separation from their families is not uncommon. Each year, approximately 1.7 million youth under the age of 18 live on their own in homelessness or other unstable living arrangements for some amount of time.\textsuperscript{16} Over 130,000 “unaccompanied youth”\textsuperscript{17} endure these inadequate living conditions for one month or longer,\textsuperscript{18} and many never return home.\textsuperscript{19} Many of these unaccompanied youth were kicked out of their homes or ran away from abusive families.\textsuperscript{20} Others left or were pushed out of foster homes, or became homeless upon or soon after being released from juvenile detention.\textsuperscript{21}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{12} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{13} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{14} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{15} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{16} An Emerging Framework for Ending Unaccompanied Youth Homelessness, Nat’l Alliance to End Homelessness (Mar. 6, 2012), https://endhomelessness.org/resource/an-emerging-framework-for-ending-unaccompanied-youth-homelessness. These figures likely underestimate the actual number of unaccompanied youth. Different definitions of “youth” and what it means to be “unaccompanied,” coupled with the fact that unaccompanied youth are a transitory and difficult population to identify, frustrate the ability to obtain a true estimate. Abigail English, Youth Leaving Foster Care and Homeless Youth: Ensuring Access to Health Care, 79 Temp. L. Rev. 439, 442–43 (2006); see Yvonne Vissing, Homeless Children and Youth: An Examination of Legal Challenges and Directions, 13 J.L. Soc’y 455, 458 (2012).
\item \textsuperscript{17} In this Article, the term “unaccompanied youth” refers to youth who are not in the physical custody of a parent or legal guardian and live on their own in homelessness or other unstable living arrangements. It does not include youth who live in homelessness or other unstable living conditions with their parents, legal guardians, or an adult relative. E.g., 34 U.S.C.A. § 11279(3)(B)–(C) (West 2018) (formerly 42 U.S.C. § 5732a(3)(B)–(C) (2012)) (defining “[h]omeless [y]outh” as youth “for whom it is not possible to live in a safe environment with a relative” and “who ha[ve] no other safe alternative living arrangement”). For a discussion on theories of homelessness involving children in homeless families, see generally Jessica Dixon Weaver, Beyond Child Welfare—Theories on Child Homelessness, 21 Wash. & Lee J.C.R. & Soc. Just. 17 (2014) (discussing connections between family poverty and child homelessness).
\item \textsuperscript{18} An Emerging Framework for Ending Unaccompanied Youth Homelessness, supra note 16.
\item \textsuperscript{19} See Marya Viorst Gwadz et al., Understanding Organizations for Runaway and Homeless Youth: A Multi-Setting Quantitative Study of Their Characteristics and Effects, 73 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 398, 398 (2017).
\item \textsuperscript{20} See Susan M. Snyder et al., Homeless Youth, Strain, and Justice System Involvement: An Application of General Strain Theory, 62 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 90, 90–91 (2016) (describing different pathways to youth homelessness).
\item \textsuperscript{21} See id.
\end{itemize}
Existing scholarship on unaccompanied youth is fairly limited in scope. Two issues largely shape this literature: (1) the reasons why youth leave or are driven out of their families, and (2) the experiences of unaccompanied youth while they are living on the streets or in other unstable living arrangements. Less attention has been paid to the broader theoretical and conceptual issues that the experiences of unaccompanied youth reveal about the structure, foundation, and functioning of the U.S. child welfare system.

This Article is part of a larger project that examines how the government approaches child welfare issues concerning adolescent youth. As this Article explains, the current child welfare framework is oriented toward families. This framework places primacy on how swiftly the government can repair existing biological families, and when that is not possible, how quickly it can provide youth and children temporary or permanent substitute families (often, that match the traditional family model). My scholarship leads me to be increasingly skeptical of this family-centered approach as a wholesale or comprehensive solution to the child welfare needs of adolescent youth. The research underlying this Article leads me further in this direction.

In this Article, I argue that the common challenges of unaccompanied youth illustrate the limits of family-centered models of child welfare. I further contend that when family-centered approaches define the scope of responses in the child welfare system, then unaccompanied youth whose needs are not served by those responses are left vulnerable to entering a destructive cycle of homelessness and involvement in the juvenile and criminal justice systems. This cycle implicates both youth who are at risk of becoming unaccompanied as well as youth who are already unaccompanied.

In light of these shortcomings, I contend that there is a need for a paradigm shift in child welfare law and policy (and relatedly, juvenile justice law and policy) that places greater normative and practical emphasis


23. Casey Holtschneider, A Part of Something: The Importance of Transitional Living Programs Within a Housing First Framework for Youth Experiencing Homelessness, 65 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 204, 204 (2016) (“This focus has resulted in a knowledge base almost entirely dedicated to understanding the characteristics of homeless youth rather than the service sector’s efforts to respond to their needs.”).


on non–family centered approaches, especially for late-adolescent youth. Unlike the current regime, these alternative approaches would conceptualize unaccompanied youth’s agency and autonomy in positive and empowering terms, and provide support systems, skills, and resources outside of family systems to help them achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults. Moreover, the government would recognize that family-centered approaches do not serve all youth who seek or need help from the state, and soften its reliance on criminalization measures when family-centered approaches cannot reach, or fail, vulnerable youth.

My analysis in this Article draws largely, although not exclusively, on the experiences of unaccompanied lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth. Unaccompanied LGBTQ youth are positioned in ways that make their experiences a promising lens to examine the limits of the current family-centered approach in the child welfare system. To begin, LGBTQ youth (and LGBTQ youth of color in particular) are a large and identifiable segment of the unaccompanied youth population. Recent studies have found that LGBTQ youth account for as high as 20–40 percent of the U.S. homeless youth population.

26. For possible ideas of how this nonfamily-centered approach might take shape, see infra Part IV.

27. Self-actualization is defined in different ways, but as Abraham Maslow described, it generally involves “acceptance and expression of the inner core or self.” A.H. Maslow, Some Basic Propositions of a Growth and Self-Actualization Psychology, in PERCEIVING, BEHAVING, BECOMING: A NEW FOCUS FOR EDUCATION 34, 36 (Arthur W. Combs ed., 1962). I include self-actualization here because youth may need more to live successfully as adults than simply achieving financial and housing stability. Scholars in the field of social work have recognized this very point and have advocated for evaluating the success of government interventions for unaccompanied youth based on additional criteria than simply whether those programs help unaccompanied youth achieve self-reliance. See, e.g., Casey Holtschneider, From Independence to Interdependence: Redefining Outcomes for Transitional Living Programs for Youth Experiencing Homelessness, 97 FAMILIES SOC’Y: J. CONTEMP. SOC. SERVICES 160, 166 (2016).

28. See infra Part IV.


As this Article will discuss, LGBTQ youth leave or are forced out of their families for both LGBTQ-specific and non-LGBTQ-specific reasons.\textsuperscript{31} This range of reasons allows me to draw conclusions from the LGBTQ youth context that are relevant at times to unaccompanied youth more generally. At the same time, the most prevalent reason why LGBTQ youth leave or are forced out of their homes is because their families reject them on the basis of their sexual orientation or gender identity.\textsuperscript{32} Therefore, I recognize and discuss more specifically in different parts of this Article that some experiences of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth might not map neatly onto the experiences of unaccompanied non-LGBTQ youth.

Moreover, LGBTQ youth (and LGBTQ youth of color in particular) are a hidden, yet overrepresented, population in both the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems.\textsuperscript{33} Importantly, LGBTQ youth are also overrepresented among “dually involved” or “crossover youth”—i.e., youth in the juvenile justice system who have had prior involvement with the child welfare system.\textsuperscript{34} As this Article will discuss, LGBTQ youth face widespread discrimination and abuse in foster families, adoptive families, group homes, and homeless shelters.\textsuperscript{35}

For these reasons, LGBTQ youth are a salient example of an especially marginalized

\begin{itemize}
\item Id.
\item Irvine & Canfield, supra note 33, at 244.
\item See infra Parts II.A.2, II.B.
\end{itemize}
group that the child welfare system leaves behind, both before and after they have had contact with the juvenile justice system.

This Article proceeds as follows. Part I draws on historical and current perspectives from multiple disciplines (including law, social work, criminology, sociology, and psychology) to sketch two major categories of theories that attempt to explain how youth become unaccompanied. The first category is structural theories, which focus on environmental causes for why youth leave or are forced out of their families only to find themselves homeless or living in other unstable conditions. Examples include family conflict, poverty, lack of affordable housing, and discrimination. The second category is deficient-agency theories, which explain unaccompanied youth status in terms of individual-level factors, such as the irresponsible decisions, personal failures, or personal inadequacies of unaccompanied youth. In blaming youth for their unaccompanied status, deficient-agency theories conceptualize the agency of unaccompanied youth in negative terms—a view that I later critique.

I then draw on this theoretical foundation to critique government responses to unaccompanied youth. I show how the government has responded to unaccompanied youth through a complex web of family-centered public reordering in both the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems. I conceptualize responses in the child welfare system as discussed infra Part I, these theories also shape the literature and public and political discourse on the causes of homelessness more generally. See, e.g., Joanne Neale, *Homelessness and Theory Reconsidered*, 12 *Housing Stud.* 47, 49 (1997) (discussing how two theoretical explanations—agency and structural explanations—have shaped debates on the causes of homelessness); Suzanne Speak, *Degrees of Destitution: A Typology of Homelessness in Developing Countries*, 19 *Housing Stud.* 465, 468 (2004) (discussing how the causes of homelessness have been associated with either individual or structural factors).

36. As discussed *infra* Part I, these theories also shape the literature and public and political discourse on the causes of homelessness more generally. *See, e.g.* Joanne Neale, *Homelessness and Theory Reconsidered*, 12 *Housing Stud.* 47, 49 (1997) (discussing how two theoretical explanations—agency and structural explanations—have shaped debates on the causes of homelessness); Suzanne Speak, *Degrees of Destitution: A Typology of Homelessness in Developing Countries*, 19 *Housing Stud.* 465, 468 (2004) (discussing how the causes of homelessness have been associated with either individual or structural factors).

37. *See infra* Part I.A.

38. *See infra* Part I.B.

39. *See infra* Part III.B.

40. In this Article, I use the term “private-order failures” to refer to failures with roots in the individual actions or capacities of unaccompanied youth, or in private family disagreements. In addition, I use the term “public-order failures” to refer to failures with roots in public systems, such as lack of access to public assistance programs that help individuals and families obtain basic necessities (for example, affordable housing, food, and income). It is important to stress that my arguments in this Article do not rest on a strict division between the private and the public order. *See generally* Anne L. Alstott, *Private Tragedies? Family Law as Social Insurance*, 4 *Harv. L. & Pol’y Rev.* 3 (2010) (noting exaggerated distinctions between the public and private in family law).

as more in line with structural theories, and responses in the juvenile justice system as more in line with deficient-agency theories, outlined above. Part II focuses on family-centered public reordering in the child welfare system. Consistent with structural theories, I discuss how dominant child welfare responses view unaccompanied youth as victims of negative family circumstances and respond by altering their family environments. Organized around the concept of permanency planning, child welfare responses assume that families are necessary and optimal environments for a child’s growth and development. Permanency goals require the government to act swiftly and decisively to keep youth and children within their own families, and when that is not possible, to place youth and children in temporary or permanent substitute families through foster care and adoption.

I then advance two criticisms of these family-centered responses based on how they apply to unaccompanied youth. First, I contend that these responses rest on assumptions about youth agency and autonomy that are often out of touch with the realities of unaccompanied youth status. Many unaccompanied youth—out of necessity—have had to learn to survive on their own. Research suggests that unaccompanied youth commonly reject narratives that portray them as powerless victims of negative family circumstances, and are hesitant to seek social services that may jeopardize their agency and control. Critically, in order to receive government support, the child welfare framework leaves unaccompanied youth with little option but to revert back to a state of dependence on family systems—whether on biological parents who may


42. See Justeen Hyde, From Home to Street: Understanding Young People’s Transitions into Homelessness, 28 J. Adolescence 171, 172 (2005) (“Service providers and child welfare advocates often depict homeless young people as victims, emphasizing complex histories of child abuse and neglect, domestic violence, substance abuse and poverty.”); infra Part II.A.


45. Pecora et al., supra note 44, at 44–45.

46. See infra Part II.B.1.

47. See Hyde, supra note 42, at 173 (presenting the findings of one study which showed that many unaccompanied youth participants recalled leaving home “in a way that allowed them to feel empowered”); infra Part II.B.1.
not care for them or on foster or adoptive parents who unaccompanied youth may not trust. For many unaccompanied youth in late adolescence, this transition might be impossible or take longer than the amount of time that they have left before aging out of the child welfare system.

Second, I argue that tensions between prevailing normative conceptions of “family” and youth agency and autonomy can not only harm youth, but ultimately facilitate their exclusion from the child welfare system. These tensions and exclusions are acutely visible in the LGBTQ youth context. Heteronormative conceptions of “family” can encourage LGBTQ youth who come into contact with the child welfare system to experience rejection or mistreatment on the basis of their sexual orientation or gender identity—features that may very well lie at the core of their agency. As scholars and advocates have described, LGBTQ youth are commonly rejected from or abused in foster families and group homes, are more likely to experience multiple out-of-home placements, and are often unfairly deemed “unadoptable,” because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. These challenges cause many LGBTQ youth to run away from or be kicked out of child welfare placements and take to the streets, and inhibit them from accessing government support once they are living on their own.

Part III then shifts gears to examine public reordering in the juvenile justice system. I show that these responses reflect inconsistent views of unaccompanied youth as both delinquent offenders and crime victims. On one hand, consistent with deficient-agency theories, juvenile justice laws and law enforcement practices have historically pressured and still compel unaccompanied youth to reunite or stay within their families.

48. See infra Part II.B.1.
49. See infra Part II.B.1.
50. See infra Part II.B.2.
51. See infra Part II.B.2.
52. Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 11, 40 (indicating that LGBTQ youth are often deemed “unadoptable”); Anne Gallegos et al., Exploring the Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Questioning Adolescents in Foster Care, 14 J. Fam. Soc. Work 226, 228 (2011) (identifying “low placement stability” and “violence in group homes” as LGBTQ youth–specific issues); Overview, Child Welfare Info. Gateway, https://www.childwelfare.gov/topics/outofhome/overview (last visited Mar. 14, 2018) (noting that out-of-home care can “include kinship or relatives’ homes, family foster homes, treatment foster homes, or group or residential care”); see also generally Ariel Love, A Room of One’s Own: Safe Placement for Transgender Youth in Foster Care, 89 N.Y.U. L. Rev. 2265 (2014) (discussing the challenges that transgender youth face in the foster care system).
54. Cray et al., supra note 29, at 14.
55. See infra Part III.A.1.
When youth do not, juvenile justice laws and policies allow for them to be arrested, charged, and confined in juvenile detention or correctional facilities.\(^{56}\) On the other hand, public funding for programs and services specifically targeting unaccompanied youth is largely channeled through juvenile justice laws and policies that are primarily concerned with their criminal victimization.\(^{57}\) As explained, those programs and services are mostly geared toward addressing immediate and short-term needs so that unaccompanied youth can get off the street before becoming victims of crime.\(^{58}\)

I then critique these juvenile justice responses.\(^{59}\) Specifically, I argue that the short-term outlook of these responses leaves the responsibility for meeting the long-term needs of unaccompanied youth to family systems that have likely already failed them, making it doubtful whether those long-term needs are ever met.\(^{60}\) I further explain that the crime-control orientation of these responses does little to foster the long-term living stability of unaccompanied youth, and ultimately leaves them vulnerable to a destructive cycle of homelessness (or other unstable living arrangements) and involvement in the juvenile and criminal justice systems.\(^{61}\) Unaccompanied youth whose needs cannot be served by the family-centered approach of the child welfare system are especially vulnerable to entering or continuing in the cycle.

Finally, Part IV discusses the broader implications of my analysis and preliminary insights for reform. My analysis shows how the combined public reordering in the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems adopts a view of unaccompanied youth as victims insofar as they are able to fit into families (whether biological, foster, or adoptive), but then shifts to treat unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders when they cannot fit into family systems.\(^{62}\) I discuss how these shifting constructions rest on oversimplified victimization and offending narratives of unaccompanied youth. Specifically, these constructions neglect unaccompanied youth’s multiple layers of victimization—and especially victimization within families, which my analysis suggests can render family-centered government responses to their situations unworkable and ineffective.

\(^{56}\) See infra Part III.A.1.
\(^{57}\) See infra Part III.A.2.
\(^{58}\) See infra Part III.A.2.
\(^{59}\) See infra Part III.B.
\(^{60}\) See infra Part III.A.2.
\(^{61}\) See Cray et al., supra note 29, at 13 (noting the cyclical relationship between homelessness and interactions with the juvenile justice system); see also infra Part III.B.
\(^{62}\) Cf. Suzanne McKenzie-Mohr et al., Responding to the Needs of Youth Who Are Homeless: Calling for Politicized Trauma-Informed Intervention, 34 CHILD. & YOUTH SERVICES REV. 136, 137 (2012) (“[T]here has often been an implicit assumption that youth who are homeless are somehow to blame for their situations . . . .”).
I then describe how this Article’s analysis illustrates a need for a paradigm shift in child welfare law and policy, and relatedly, juvenile justice law and policy. As a normative matter, this shift would embrace a child welfare regime that is not so strictly organized around family-centered permanency goals and that adopts a positive and empowering conception of unaccompanied youth’s agency and autonomy. As a practical matter, this shift would inspire greater investment in alternative approaches that provide unaccompanied youth with support systems, skills, and resources outside of family systems to achieve self-reliance and self-actualization. Under this new public ordering, the government would recognize that family-centered responses do not serve all youth who seek or need help from the state, and soften its reliance on criminalization measures when those family-centered responses are failing to serve vulnerable youth.

In support of these points, I reference an emerging body of empirical research on a very limited number of existing programs that house and help unaccompanied youth to achieve self-reliance and self-actualization outside of the family setting.

At the outset, two caveats are in order. First, to be clear, I am not arguing that family-centered child welfare approaches should be abandoned, and I am not advancing a wholesale critique of these approaches. I fully recognize that there is ample room to improve family-centered responses in the child welfare system and that these approaches are successful for many youth and children, whether they identify as LGBTQ or not. Rather, this Article challenges the dominant assumption that child welfare law and policy interventions based on family models (and in particular, the traditional model of the nuclear family) are nec-

63. It is important to recognize here that these skills are also important for youth who are successfully living in the foster care system and are transitioning to adulthood. See generally Child Welfare Info. Gateway, Helping Youth Transition to Adulthood: Guidance for Foster Parents (2013), https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubPDFs/youth_transition.pdf (discussing the challenges for youth exiting foster care and available laws and programs to support transitioning youth).

64. Martha Albertson Fineman, Our Sacred Institution: The Ideal of the Family in American Law and Society, 1993 Utah L. Rev. 387, 390 (describing “the idealized nuclear family form” as “husband/father, wife/mother, and child”). Here, it is important to acknowledge the important work of family law scholars who for decades have pushed for expanding the legal conception of “family” beyond biological and traditional family models. See, e.g., Paula L. Ettelbrick, Who Is a Parent?: The Need to Develop a Lesbian Conscious Family Law, 10 N.Y. L. Sch. J. Hum. Rts. 513, 548–49 (1993) (advocating for a functional approach to parenthood for the law to recognize the “functional lesbian parent”); Douglas NeJaime, The Nature of Parenthood, 126 Yale L.J. 2260, 2268 (2017) (“urg[ing] greater emphasis on parenthood’s social dimensions”); Nancy D. Polikoff, This Child Does Have Two Mothers: Redefining Parenthood to Meet the Needs of Children in Lesbian-Mother and Other Nontraditional Families, 78 Geo. L.J. 459, 573 (1990) (“[C]ourts should redefine parenthood to include anyone in a functional parental relationship that a legally recognized parent created with the intent that an additional parent-child relationship exist.”).
necessary and optimal for youth in need of help from the state. Drawing on the experiences of unaccompanied youth, especially in late-adolescence, this Article urges greater investment in a more pluralistic vision of child welfare that can serve youth whose needs may not be met under a family-centered approach.

Second, the term “youth” is inconsistently understood and open for debate. There are different takes in scholarship, law, and legislation on the age range that the word “youth” describes. Although this Article does not resolve this definitional debate, my analysis below is especially concerned with late-adolescent youth between the ages of 15 and 17 who are unaccompanied or at risk of becoming unaccompanied. Late-adolescent youth who are removed from their homes are generally much less likely to be reunited with their families than are young teenagers or children in the child welfare system. Late-adolescent youth are also below the age of majority in most jurisdictions, and therefore must rely on the child welfare system to receive government support.

I. THEORIES OF UNACCOMPANIED YOUTH STATUS

This Part draws on historical and current perspectives from multiple disciplines, including law, social work, criminology, sociology, and psychology, to briefly outline two categories of theories that attempt to explain why youth become unaccompanied. Subpart A discusses structural theories, which largely account for unaccompanied youth status in terms of environmental factors that influence youth to leave or be forced out completing school, with no place to live, and without a job or other means of support. See generally Kimberly Bender et al., Experiences and Needs of Homeless Youth with a History of Foster Care, 55 CHILD. & YOUTH SERVICES REV. 222, 222 (2015) (“[Y]outh exiting care . . . by aging out of care at the age of 18 . . . are often unprepared to enter adulthood.”).

66. Betty Boyle-Duke, Black Adolescent Girls in Foster Care, in BLACK GIRLS AND ADOLESCENTS: FACING THE CHALLENGES 183, 193 (Catherine Fisher Collins ed., 2015) (“In general, teens in [foster] care are less likely to reach permanency goals of reuniting with birth parents as compared to younger children.”).

67. Although not a per se rule, I also acknowledge that the younger that youth are below this range, the less likely that they will achieve self-reliance and self-actualization on their own outside of families. Although I focus on youth between the ages of fifteen and seventeen in this Article, I am also concerned with youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four who have aged out of the child welfare system without proper means of support to live on their own. “[B]etween 750,000 and 2 million young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 experience homelessness each year.” Cray et al., supra note 29, at 3. Notably, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development distinguishes between unaccompanied youth under the age of eighteen and unaccompanied youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four. See U.S. DEP’T OF HOUS. & URBAN DEV., THE 2016 ANNUAL HOMELESS ASSESSMENT REPORT (AHAR) TO CONGRESS, Part 1: POINT-IN-TIME ESTIMATES OF HOMELESSNESS 44 (2016), https://www.hudexchange.info/resources/documents/2016-AHAR-Part-1.pdf.
out of their families. Subpart B then describes deficient-agency theories, which explain unaccompanied youth status in terms of individual-level factors. As will be discussed later, government responses to unaccompanied youth rest on assumptions that appear in both categories of theories.

A. **Structural Theories**

Structural theories of unaccompanied youth status primarily focus on environmental factors that contribute to youth leaving or being forced out of their families. As explained below, these theories largely view unaccompanied youth as victims of environmental circumstances that are beyond their individual control. Three major types of environmental factors are discussed in the literature: (1) family factors; (2) economic factors; and (3) social or cultural factors.68

1. **Family Factors**

Scholars identify family conflict as one of the most common reasons why youth leave or are forced out of their homes.69 Family conflict can take several forms. For instance, there is a high prevalence of both family rejection and family neglect among unaccompanied youth, which contributes to separation from home.70 Abuse—whether physical, sexual, or emotional—is also common.71 Other types of family conflict may include frequent arguments between family members (including exposure to intimate partner violence between parents) and parent-youth disagreements about parental control.72 In addition, substance abuse can spur family disagreements that result in youth leaving or being kicked out of their homes.73
2. Economic Factors

Unaccompanied youth are more likely to come from poor and low-income families and communities. Parental unemployment, low wages, and poverty place stress on family relationships, which in turn contributes to youth leaving or being kicked out of the home. This stress may encourage family conflicts discussed above that ultimately result in family separation; youth may run away to escape the stress associated with family poverty; or parents who cannot provide adequate financial support may expect youth to live on their own. Many of these economic challenges also result in youth being placed into foster families or group homes where discrimination and mistreatment can cause youth to leave or be forced out of child welfare placements, after which they have no place to live.

These economic challenges are discussed in more detail later and are described by scholars and advocates as connected to a broader weakening of the welfare state in the past several decades. Declines in public assistance, affordable housing, and social service programs have resulted in a large increase in the number of individuals and families who experience homelessness. These declines have had significant racialized consequences, especially for poor and low-income single mothers of color and their children.

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74. Id. at 2–3; Edidin et al., supra note 22, at 356; Marie Robert et al., Factors Associated with Homelessness of Adolescents Under Supervision of the Youth Protection System, 28 J. Adolescence 215, 218 (2005).

75. Morewitz, supra note 69, at 2–3 (discussing studies on the connection between low socioeconomic status and future unaccompanied youth status).

76. Id. at 2 (discussing studies finding that a majority of runaways are from lower socioeconomic groups and that attribute this trend to youth attempting to escape their families’ problems).

77. Street Kids—Homeless and Runaway Youth: Hearing Before the S. Subcomm. on Children, Family, Drugs and Alcoholism of the S. Comm. on Labor and Human Rex., 101st Cong. 28 (1990) (statement of Della M. Hughes, Executive Director, National Network of Runaway and Youth Services, Inc.) (“Many young people . . . may be forced from their homes when their parents cannot deal with their own economic situations . . .”); Lennette Azzi-Lessing, Behind from the Start: How America’s War on the Poor Is Harming Our Most Vulnerable Children 91 (2017) (“[T]he majority of the children placed into foster care come from poor families . . .”).

78. See infra notes 94–96 and accompanying text.

79. See generally Bender et al., supra note 65. Discrimination and maltreatment will be discussed in more detail infra Part I.A.3.

80. See generally William T. Armaline, (Re)Conceptualizing Adolescent Homelessness: Misdirection of the State and Child Welfare, in 4 CHILD POVERTY IN AMERICA TODAY 1, 2–3 (Barbara A. Arrighi & David J. Maume eds., 2007) (discussing connections between the weakening of social welfare programs in the United States and the rise in homelessness among families and children).

to demography and challenges of unaccompanied youth because many unaccompanied youth separate from families that cannot financially support them.  

Residential instability is another relevant economic factor. For many unaccompanied youth, homelessness is part of a broader pattern of unstable living arrangements over the course of their lives. Many unaccompanied youth have experienced multiple prior residential moves with their biological parents or relatives. They are also more likely to have had repeated contacts with child welfare placements, mental health institutions, and juvenile detention and correctional facilities. Data suggests that “as many as 70 percent of homeless [youth] have spent time in . . . foster [care], [a] group home, or [an]other residential facility . . . .” Youth homelessness is also commonly preceded by living in “doubled-up” housing, where youth are temporarily taken in by others when they have no other place to go.

School-related difficulty is a final relevant factor. Prior to running away or becoming homeless, many unaccompanied youth have interrupted school histories. These interruptions are often due to housing instability which causes youth to move between schools. Data lends support to the notion that excessive school mobility is a risk factor for academic failure. Other potential school-related challenges involve mothers tend to receive child welfare support only when they have been charged with child maltreatment.”

82. See Street Kids, supra note 77.


84. JAN MOORE, NAT’L CTR. FOR HOMELESS EDUC., UNACCOMPANIED AND HOMELESS YOUTH REVIEW OF LITERATURE (1995–2005), at 8 (2005), https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED489998.pdf (“An increasing number of homeless youths have spent time in foster care or treatment facilities.”); Thompson et al., supra note 69, at 200 (“Homeless youths are more likely to have spent time in juvenile detention centers . . . .”).

85. Id.

86. See generally Bradley R. Entner Wright et al., Factors Associated with Doubled-Up Housing—A Common Precursor to Homelessness, 72 SOC. SERV. REV. 92 (1998) (noting that doubled-up housing often paves the way for homelessness and potentially raises the probability of homelessness).


88. Id.

bullying and learning disabilities that school administrators and teachers ignore or mishandle.⁹⁰

3. Social and Cultural Factors

Discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity, and gender contributes to youth leaving or being forced out of their homes. For instance, criminal and family law scholars have documented how the government has scaled back its welfare institutions over the past several decades and replaced them with measures that rely on surveillance and criminalization to control members of marginalized communities.⁹¹ In the child welfare context, this shift has inspired laws and policies that monitor and blame parents for not being able to provide for their children and remove their children from the home.⁹² Scholars have discussed how these laws and policies are rooted in structural racial inequality and recreate racial disparities that especially harm poor and low-income single mothers of color.⁹³

One major consequence of these surveillance and criminalization measures is the influx of youth and children of color into out-of-home child welfare placements.⁹⁴ After entering the child welfare system, racial inequality and discrimination in the system can pose difficulties for them. Youth of color are more likely to experience multiple placement moves and less likely to be adopted or find permanent families—instability.

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⁹². See, e.g., Roberts, supra note 81, at 1484.

⁹³. See id.

⁹⁴. See id.

⁹⁵. Wendy B. Smith, YOUTH LEAVING FOSTER CARE: A DEVELOPMENTAL, RELATIONSHIP-BASED APPROACH TO PRACTICE 13 (2011) (noting that children of color in the child welfare system “are less likely to be returned home to their families, less likely to be adopted, and more likely to leave care without a permanent connection to a caring adult” (citation omitted)); Reiko Boyd, AFRICAN AMERICAN DISPORTIONALITY AND DISPARITY IN CHILD WELFARE: TOWARD A COMPREHENSIVE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, 37 CHILD. & YOUTH SERVICES REV. 15, 23 (2014) (“Compared to children of other backgrounds . . . African American children . . . are far less likely to be adopted.” (citations omitted)); E. Michael Foster et al., EXPLAINING THE DISPARITY IN PLACEMENT INSTABILITY AMONG AFRICAN-AMERICAN AND WHITE CHILDREN IN CHILD WELFARE: A BLINDER—OAXACA
ties that can destabilize and put them at greater risk of homelessness.96 Youth of color are also aging out of the child welfare system at increasing frequencies without adequate resources to survive on their own, which increases the risk of adult homelessness.97

In addition, a growing body of literature describes how discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity places LGBTQ youth at greater risk for homelessness. As noted previously, studies have found that LGBTQ youth (and LGBTQ youth of color in particular) are highly overrepresented among unaccompanied youth, and may account for as high as 20–40 percent of homeless youth nationwide.98 Many of these youth were kicked out of their homes or ran away after suffering family rejection or abuse because of their sexual orientation or gender identity.99 As will be discussed later, research suggests that the current epidemic100 of LGBTQ youth homelessness is connected to anti-LGBTQ discrimination and mistreatment in the child welfare system as well as homeless youth shelters.101

* * *

Although structural theories of unaccompanied youth status may focus on one or more of these environmental factors, an important commonality is that they account for unaccompanied youth status in terms of different failures in the private and the public order. To clarify this point, we can place private and public order failures along a spectrum. At one end, private-order failures have roots in private system breakdowns (such as the family) or an individual youth’s actions or capacities. Closer to this end of the spectrum are structural theories of unaccompanied youth status that place primacy on private family disagreements to account for why youth leave, or are forced out of their homes, only to

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96. See, e.g., Carrie Lippy et al., King County Youth of Color Needs Assessment: The Experiences, Strengths, and Needs of Homeless & Unstably Housed Youth of Color 16 (2017), https://static1.squarespace.com/static/566c7f0e2399a3bdab-b57553/t/597fd3ed893fc098807bb872/1501549553222/Youth+of+Color+Needs+Assessment+_+Final+Report.pdf (discussing the destabilizing nature of repeated moves in the foster care system for youth of color that the youth perceived “set them on a path towards homelessness”).


98. See supra note 33.


101. See infra Part II.B.
wind up homeless or living in other unstable arrangements. On the other end of the spectrum are public-order failures which have their roots in breakdowns in societal structures or public systems. Closer to this end of the spectrum are structural theories of unaccompanied youth status that stress inadequacies in the public welfare system (for instance, lack of access to affordable housing, income, or food) as the major reasons why youth leave, or are kicked out of their homes, only to find themselves on the streets or living in other unstable arrangements.

To be clear, this is not to imply that structural accounts or specific environmental factors can be neatly placed at either end of this spectrum. Consider the example of parental abuse. On one hand, parental abuse can be conceptualized as a private-order failure in the sense that the abuse embodies a parent’s personal failure that erodes the parent-child relationship. On the other hand, studies show that parental abuse can be linked to social and economic marginalization, which places stress on family relationships and facilitates conditions that trigger parental abuse.

Therefore, the purpose of thinking about structural theories in these terms is to consider how the range of potential causes of unaccompanied youth status may involve different failures in the private and the public order. This sets the stage to evaluate how government responses to unaccompanied youth in the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems address those failures. The same logic applies to deficient-agency theories of unaccompanied youth status.

B. Deficient-Agency Theories

Unlike structural theories, which largely stress environmental factors, deficient-agency theories focus on individual-level factors that result in unaccompanied youth leaving or being forced out of their homes. Deficient-agency theories presume that youth have a role in shaping their life outcomes.

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102. As noted previously, scholars have criticized exaggerated distinctions between the public and private order in family law. See, e.g., Alstott, supra note 40, at 3.

103. See, e.g., John Eckenrode et al., Income Inequality and Child Maltreatment in the United States, 133 Pediatrics 454, 454 (2014) (concluding that greater income inequality across U.S. counties was significantly associated with higher county-level rates of child maltreatment); Emily J. Warren & Sarah A. Font, Housing Insecurity, Maternal Stress, and Child Maltreatment: An Application of the Family Stress Model, 89 Soc. Serv. Rev. 9, 34 (2015) (“Housing insecurity is directly associated with neglect risk, as well as indirectly associated with both neglect and abuse risk through maternal stress.”); see also Elizabeth Bartholet, Nobody’s Children: Abuse and Neglect, Foster Drift, and the Adoption Alternative 6 (1999) (“The starting point for honest and meaningful debate has to be the recognition that racial and social injustice is at the core of child abuse and neglect.”); Clare Huntington, Rights Myopia in Child Welfare, 53 UCLA L. Rev. 637, 639 (2006) (critiquing rights-based models in the child welfare system and stressing that “rights obscure the role of poverty in abuse and neglect”).
circumstances and thus explain unaccompanied youth status in terms of the irresponsible decisions, personal failures, or personal incapacities of unaccompanied youth. By placing the blame on unaccompanied youth, deficient-agency theories conceptualize their agency and autonomy in negative terms—a view that I will later critique and argue that government responses to unaccompanied youth should avoid.

Granted, many scholarly accounts in line with deficient-agency theories have lost popularity in recent decades. Nonetheless, it is important to describe these accounts because contemporary government responses to unaccompanied youth often rest on assumptions that are consistent with deficient-agency theories—a point I will argue in more detail later. As discussed below, deficient-agency theories can be divided into three strands. Although these strands are not mutually exclusive, each strand is tailored to a specific narrative of unaccompanied youth—namely, that they are “bad kids,” “carefree kids,” or “sick kids.”

1. “Bad Kids”

The first strand of deficient-agency theories depicts unaccompanied youth as “bad kids.” These accounts tend to assume that unaccompanied youth are runaways who voluntarily chose to leave home without their parents’ permission, usually for insignificant reasons. They further characterize running away in ways that negatively define the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth. For instance, some accounts define runaway activity as a behavioral problem or deviant act. Others consider running away an early warning sign that youth may be on a path to more serious delinquency or criminal behavior.

Scholars have described how this “bad kids” narrative places the blame on unaccompanied youth for their family separation and unstable living conditions, rather than blaming the youth’s home environment. They have further argued that this victimblaming narrative fosters stereotypes of unaccompanied youth as delinquents or deviants. In


105. See generally David Farrugia, The Symbolic Burden of Homelessness: Towards a Theory of Youth Homelessness as Embodied Subjectivity, 47 J. Soc. 71 (2010) (discussing how agency theory and irresponsibility are the primary lenses through which youth homelessness is understood and that this framework shapes young people’s subjective experiences of homelessness).

106. See infra Parts III.A.1, IV.


108. Id. at 21.


110. David Farrugia, Youth Homelessness and Individualised Subjectivity, 14 J.
turn, these stereotypes encourage law enforcement, juvenile justice, and criminal justice responses that treat unaccompanied youth as threats to public order and security.111

Scholars have also discussed how this victimblaming narrative can negatively affect how unaccompanied youth construct their identities and view themselves.112 Research shows that some unaccompanied youth internalize ideas that they are homeless because of their own personal failures, which damages their self-esteem and self-worth.113 This is one of many problems flowing from government responses that rely on negative conceptions of unaccompanied youth’s agency and autonomy—a point that I will discuss later in more detail in the conclusion.

2. “Carefree Kids”

The second strand of deficient-agency theories depicts unaccompanied youth as “carefree kids.” These accounts usually assume that unaccompanied youth run away from home without their parents’ permission in order to gain independence, pleasure, or adventure.114 They further conceptualize unaccompanied youth status as a product of youth’s immature and irresponsible choices to leave home.115

Depictions of unaccompanied youth as “irresponsible” and “carefree” have deep historical roots. For instance, such depictions are prominent in popular historical fiction characters, such as Mark Twain’s Huck Finn.116 They are also associated with youth counterculture movements of the 1960s, during which youth across different economic classes

YOUTH STUD. 761, 763 (2011) (“Popular representations often construct ‘the homeless’ as morally suspect, irresponsible, dangerous or passive, and young people experiencing homelessness are aware of these representations.” (citations omitted)). Scholars have also discussed how stereotypes of deviancy are associated with deficient agency explanations of homelessness more generally. See, e.g., Joanne Neale, Theorising Homelessness: Contemporary Sociological and Feminist Perspectives, in HOMELESSNESS AND SOCIAL POLICY 35, 36–37 (Roger Burrows et al. eds., 1997).

111. See infra Part III.A (describing those responses).

112. See, e.g., Farrugia, supra note 105, at 84–85; Farrugia, supra note 110, at 771–72.


116. Debbie B. Riley et al., Common Themes and Treatment Approaches in Working with Families of Runaway Youths, 32 AM. J. FAM. THERAPY 139, 140 (2004) (noting how runaway “youth are usually not fortune or thrill seekers who were once glamorized in fiction writing”).
left or ran away from home to pursue “hippie” lifestyles as alternatives to living under the strict rules of their parents.\textsuperscript{117}

Similar to the “bad kids” narrative, scholars have characterized this “carefree kids” narrative as victim blaming.\textsuperscript{118} They have further described the ways in which this victimblaming narrative has negatively shaped popular perceptions of unaccompanied youth\textsuperscript{119} and fostered stereotypes of unaccompanied youth as lazy and irresponsible.\textsuperscript{120} Studies have found that many unaccompanied youth internalize these stereotypes, which negatively affects their self-esteem and self-confidence.\textsuperscript{121}

3. **“Sick Kids”**

The third strand of deficient-agency theories depicts unaccompanied youth as “sick kids.” Early empirical studies of runaway youth came from clinical mental health research, causing runaway behavior to be viewed and defined through a medical lens.\textsuperscript{122} Specifically, mental health professionals characterized running away as a reflection of deeper psychological problems, including impulsivity, low self-esteem, and depression.\textsuperscript{123}

The historical acceptance of this pathological view is illustrated by the prior inclusion of “runaway reaction” as a behavioral disorder in the American Psychiatric Association’s \textit{Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders} (DSM-II) between 1968 and 1980.\textsuperscript{124} According to the DSM-II, children and adolescents with this disorder were typically timid, reclusive, immature, felt rejected at home, lacked self-confidence,

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item \textsuperscript{117} Ken Libertoff, \textit{The Runaway Child in America: A Social History}, 1 J. Fam. Issues 151, 161 (1980).
\item \textsuperscript{118} See infra note 120.
\item \textsuperscript{119} See infra note 120.
\item \textsuperscript{120} See, e.g., Morewitz, supra note 69, at 43; Theresa Rogers et al., Public Pedagogies of Street-Entrenched Youth: New Literacies, Identity and Social Critique, in \textit{Everyday Youth Literacies: Critical Perspectives for New Times} 47, 57 (Kathy Sanford et al. eds., 2014); Charis Romilly, \textit{Services for Street Youth: Do They Reproduce, Contribute to, and Perpetuate Oppression?}, in \textit{Emerging Perspectives on Anti-Oppressive Practice} 121, 135 (Wes Shera ed., 2003).
\item \textsuperscript{121} See, e.g., Farrugia, supra note 105, at 84–85; Sean A. Kidd et al., \textit{Stories of Working with Homeless Youth: On Being “Mind-Boggling,”} 29 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 16, 24–25 (2007). I will further revisit these points infra Part IV.
\item \textsuperscript{122} Brenda K. Melson, \textit{Runaway Adolescents: A Family Systems Perspective} 24 (1995) (“The early research on runaway youth came primarily from the psychiatric literature . . . .”); Gerald R. Adams & Gordon Munro, \textit{Portrait of the North American Runaway: A Critical Review}, 8 J. Youth & Adolescence 359, 360 (1979) (“Running away has been defined, historically, as a behavioral manifestation of psychopathology.” (citation omitted)).
\item \textsuperscript{123} Adams & Munro, supra note 122, at 360–61; Helm Stierlin, \textit{A Family Perspective on Adolescent Runaways}, 29 Archives Gen. Psychiatry 56, 56 (1973) (describing running away as a “surface manifestation[] of complex psychosocial conditions and developments”).
\item \textsuperscript{124} Melson, supra note 122, at 24.
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and were inclined toward stealing. Medical professionals at the time advanced the idea that effective treatment required either changing the conditions within adolescents’ and children’s home environments or removing adolescents and children from their homes, followed by a substantial period of socialization “in an accepting but firm environment.”

Although this pathological view has lost popularity over time, more recent studies have identified connections between mental illness and running away. Studies have found that unstable and abusive family environments can trigger or accelerate the development of various psychological problems before youth run away from home. Examples include trauma, depression, anxiety, and emotional reactivity. As will be discussed later, the multiple layers of potential family victimization that unaccompanied youth experience can undermine the utility and effectiveness of family-centered child welfare responses. Studies have also found that depression is a predictive factor for running away from home, and that runaway behavior is correlated with a greater likelihood of suicide attempts and suicidal thoughts.

* * *

In sum, deficient-agency theories of unaccompanied youth status stress individual-level factors that contribute to youth leaving or being forced out of their families, only to end up without a home or stable living arrangement. Given their focus on individualized explanations, deficient-agency theories mostly account for unaccompanied youth status in terms of private order failures. Private order failures may involve unaccompanied youth’s alleged personal failures (for instance, youth’s bad or irresponsible decisions to leave home without permission) or their alleged personal incapacities (such as mental health problems).


126. Jenkins, supra note 125, at 173.


128. Michael D. McCarthy & Sanna J. Thompson, Predictors of Trauma-Related Symptoms Among Runaway Adolescents, 15 J. Loss & Trauma 212, 213 (2010).

129. Id.

130. See infra Conclusion.


The analysis now turns to examine how government responses to unaccompanied youth address the private and public order failures described above. As discussed below, the government has responded to unaccompanied youth through a complex web of family-centered public reordering in both the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems. The analysis shows that whether unaccompanied youth can successfully fit into family systems largely guides when government responses to unaccompanied youth embrace or reject the victimblaming assumptions within these bodies of theory.

II. CHILD WELFARE SYSTEM RESPONSES TO UNACCOMPANIED YOUTH

This Part examines family-centered government responses to unaccompanied youth in the child welfare system. Subpart A explains how, in line with structural theories of unaccompanied youth status, child welfare responses view unaccompanied youth as victims of negative family circumstances and are geared toward altering their family environments. Those changes may take the form of reuniting and improving the relationship between unaccompanied youth and their biological parents or adult relatives, or, when that is not possible, providing unaccompanied youth with substitute families through foster care and adoption.

Subpart B then advances two related criticisms of this family-centered approach. First, I explain how this approach rests on assumptions about the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth that are often inconsistent with the realities of unaccompanied youth status. Second, I discuss how tensions between prevailing normative conceptions of “family” (i.e., the traditional model of the nuclear family) and youth’s agency and autonomy can harm youth, and ultimately facilitate their exclusion from the child welfare system. These tensions and exclusions are acutely visible in the LGBTQ youth context, where traditional family concepts can facilitate the rejection or mistreatment of LGBTQ youth on the basis of their sexual orientation or gender identity in the child welfare system.

As a preliminary matter, it is important to note that unaccompanied youth can come into contact with the child welfare system at multiple different points. For instance, unaccompanied youth can come into contact with the child welfare system for the first time while they are homeless, after their parents kicked them out of their homes.133 Other times, unaccompanied youth who had prior involvement with the child

133. Many state laws require homeless youth shelters to refer youth to child welfare services if their parents cannot be reached. See, e.g., N.H. Rev. Stat. Ann. § 170-E:27-a (2017) (noting that if a youth’s guardian cannot be reached, the shelter must notify the New Hampshire Department of Health and Human Services within 30 days).
welfare system can come into contact with the system again after leaving or being kicked out of foster families or group homes, or upon release from juvenile detention.\textsuperscript{134}

A. Family-Centered Public Reordering in the Child Welfare System

This Subpart begins with historical background on the child welfare system’s role in handling unaccompanied youth.\textsuperscript{135} This background provides necessary context for more recent family-centered practices and trends in the child welfare system, which the analysis turns to next.\textsuperscript{136} That analysis shows how prevailing methods of child welfare interventions assume that families are necessary and optimal environments for youth to succeed as adults, and based on this assumption, are geared toward improving youth’s family settings (consistent with structural theories of unaccompanied youth status). This orientation leaves little space for child welfare responses that provide unaccompanied youth support systems outside of family systems to help them achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults.

1. Historical Background

Until the late 19th century, to the extent that legislatures and courts regulated family life, they protected the authority of husbands and fathers to govern the household.\textsuperscript{137} Based on the idea that the household was a private domain, the law rarely became involved with issues concerning child abuse and neglect.\textsuperscript{138} No public regulatory framework served dependent or neglected youth, including unaccompanied youth.\textsuperscript{139} Rather, private entities and philanthropic organizations assumed the role of assisting those youth.\textsuperscript{140}

Outside of child labor laws, the federal government’s first major activity in the area of child welfare occurred in 1935 with the enactment of the Social Security Act.\textsuperscript{141} This federal law created the Aid to Depen-
dent Children (ADC) program, which was modeled after states’ existing mothers’ pension programs. The ADC program provided financial assistance to certain widows and single mothers (“primarily . . . white mothers, who were not expected to work”) so that they could care for their children without sacrificing caregiver roles by seeking or holding a job. The goal of the ADC program was to prevent youth and children from being pressured to leave their homes for an orphanage because of poverty. In grounding eligibility for public assistance on the circumstances of parents (and single mothers in particular), this early reform neither recognized nor provided help to unaccompanied youth who were living on their own.

The ADC program, and subsequent amendments to that program, shaped the extent of the federal government’s involvement in the child welfare domain until Congress enacted the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA) in 1974. Proponents of CAPTA stressed

Deal and the Social Security Act of 1935 . . . “). For the purpose of the historical analysis in this Subpart, I am primarily focusing on developments in federal child welfare law, which are critical to understanding existing child welfare responses to unaccompanied youth at both the federal and state levels today. See infra Part II.A.2.

142. Hasday, supra note 137, at 357–58.


146. As explained later, this changed in 1961 when Congress expanded the ADC program to pay for the maintenance of children in foster care who were eligible for ADC. An Act to Amend Title IV of the Social Security Act to Authorize Federal Financial Participation in Aid to Dependent Children of Unemployed Parents, and for Other Purposes, Pub. L. No. 87–31, 75 Stat. 75 (1961) (codified in scattered sections of 42 U.S.C.).


that state and local efforts to combat child abuse and neglect were inadequate.\textsuperscript{149} CAPTA made a number of significant changes that dramatically increased the federal government’s role in the area of child welfare.\textsuperscript{150} CAPTA instituted a minimum definition of child abuse, mandated the development of infrastructure to compile nationwide data on child abuse, created a federal office responsible for administering the federal law, and authorized research into the frequency, causes, and treatment of child abuse.\textsuperscript{151} CAPTA also allocated funds to help states respond to child abuse, and conditioned receipt of federal funds on the enforcement of CAPTA’s investigation and reporting mandates.\textsuperscript{152} These funding conditions helped to create substantial uniformity in state legislation that addressed child abuse.\textsuperscript{153}

In the same period that Congress tackled child abuse, it also turned its attention to an emerging crisis in the foster care system. Between the 1960s and 1970s, the number of youth and children in the foster care system nearly doubled to almost 500,000.\textsuperscript{154} Experts at the time attributed this surge to significant changes that Congress made to the ADC program in the early 1960s. They argued that these changes provided financial incentives for states to remove children from their homes and place them in foster care.\textsuperscript{155} Specifically, the revised ADC program allocated ample federal funds that followed youth and children into foster care placements, but allocated significantly less funds for services

\textsuperscript{149} The Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act: 40 Years of Safeguarding America’s Children 5–6 (2014), https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/cb/capta_40yrs.pdf (“[S]tate and local efforts in both the public and private sectors to combat child abuse and neglect were widely deficient.”).

\textsuperscript{150} See Myers, supra note 148, at 456 (“Prior to 1974, the federal government played a useful but minor role in child protection.”); id. at 457 (outlining the changes that CAPTA authorized resulting in Congress assuming a leadership role in child welfare).

\textsuperscript{151} Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act §§ 2–3, 88 Stat. at 5.

\textsuperscript{152} Id. § 4, 88 Stat. at 5–7.


to prevent foster care placements or to reunite children with their biological families after being placed in foster care.\textsuperscript{156}

With new pressures on the foster care system, child welfare agencies and private organizations in the 1970s started to explore different options to tackle the foster care crisis—including the treatment of LGBTQ youth who were difficult to place or had no viable placement options in the child welfare system.\textsuperscript{157} A select number of private organizations and state-based child welfare agencies started to openly place lesbian and gay homeless youth who had been rejected from their biological families, foster families, or group homes with openly lesbian and gay foster parents.\textsuperscript{158} These placements, however, were not always welcome. Some parents opposed them,\textsuperscript{159} some judges denied them,\textsuperscript{160} and backlash against lesbian and gay foster parenting motivated a wave of legislation and child welfare agency policies that prohibited or restricted lesbian and gay adults from becoming foster or adoptive parents.\textsuperscript{161}

\textsuperscript{156} Guggenheim, \textit{supra} note 155, at 142.

\textsuperscript{157} See, e.g., Lucinda Franks, \textit{Homosexuals as Foster Parents: Is New Program an Advance or Peril?}, N.Y. TIMES, May 7, 1974, at 47 (discussing early efforts to match homeless gay teenagers with no other viable options in the child welfare system with openly gay and lesbian foster parents).


\textsuperscript{159} See, e.g., Nancy D. Polikoff, \textit{Resisting “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell” in the Licensing of Lesbian and Gay Foster Parents: Why Openness Will Benefit Lesbian and Gay Youth}, 48 HASTINGS L.J. 1183, 1183–84 (1997) (describing a case from 1976 in which parents opposed the placement of a gay teenager who had been kicked out of his home and placed into foster care with an openly gay foster parent).

\textsuperscript{160} See, e.g., George, \textit{supra} note 158, at 377–78 (describing a case from 1975 in which a Washington state judge removed a gay teenager from the foster care of a gay couple, even though the teenager had been rejected from multiple group homes because of his sexual orientation).

\textsuperscript{161} Id. at 384–95 (describing early bans on lesbian and gay adoption through
As foster care placements surged, legal scholars and commentators in the 1970s also advanced a full-throated critique of the foster care system.\textsuperscript{162} In particular, these critics challenged the vast discretion that the law afforded judges to remove children from their parents and place them in foster care.\textsuperscript{163} Critics further stressed that such vast discretion opened doors for judges to impose their own personal and moral judgments over parents’ values in deciding what was best for their children.\textsuperscript{164}

In response to these concerns, Congress held several hearings on how to manage the foster care crisis in the late 1970s.\textsuperscript{165} Experts and witnesses testified that youth and children were being unnecessarily placed into foster care, and that those youth and children could have remained in their homes if there had been greater government investment in programs and services to keep families together.\textsuperscript{166} Critics further stressed that the substantial amount of federal funding to help states pay for foster care created a heavy financial incentive for states to rely on foster care as the first response rather than as a last resort when intervening in family life.\textsuperscript{167}

Congress responded to the hearings by enacting the Adoption Assistance and Child Welfare Act of 1980 (AACWA).\textsuperscript{168} AACWA was

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\item \textsuperscript{163} See, e.g., Mnookin, supra note 162, at 630 (noting that “the court’s wide discretion” is “the fundamental fault in the system”); Wald, Standards for Removal, supra note 162, at 641 (“If I am correct that judges frequently apply broader standards unwisely, the interests of most children will be protected by limiting, rather than promoting, the decisionmaker’s discretion.”).
\item \textsuperscript{164} See, e.g., Mnookin, supra note 162, at 618 (“By necessity, a judge is forced to rely upon personal values to determine a child’s best interests.”).
\item \textsuperscript{165} Guggenheim, supra note 155, at 141–42 (“Beginning in 1977, Congress started paying serious attention to these criticisms.”).
\item \textsuperscript{166} Debra Ratterman et al., Reasonable Efforts to Prevent Foster Placement: A Guide to Implementation 3–4 (1987).
\item \textsuperscript{167} Guggenheim, supra note 155, at 142.
\item \textsuperscript{168} Adoption Assistance and Child Welfare Act of 1980, Pub. L. No. 96–272, 94 Stat. 500, amended by Adoption and Safe Families Act of 1997, Pub. L. No. 105–89, 111 Stat. 2115 (codified as amended in scattered sections of 42 U.S.C.). Here, it is important to recognize that the AACWA was not the first legislative response that Congress made to growing concerns in the 1970s surrounding foster care and adoption. In the mid-1970s, evidence mounted supporting allegations of abusive practices in child welfare agencies that resulted in high rates of unwarranted separation of Native American
intended to reduce public spending on foster care by increasing federal investment in programs and services to keep families together, and to find permanent homes for youth and children who were removed from their homes for neglect and abuse. As discussed below, this emphasis on permanency shapes the current child welfare framework and how it responds to unaccompanied youth today.

2. Contemporary Child Welfare Responses to Unaccompanied Youth

Since the 1980s, two major pieces of federal legislation have molded the child welfare framework across states. The AACWA, introduced above, was the first major federal legislation. AACWA conditioned federal funds for states’ child welfare programs on compliance with the federal law. In so doing, AACWA came to shape philosophy and practice in child welfare agencies nationwide.

A key feature of AACWA was that it embraced the concept of permanency planning. The permanency planning movement emerged in the 1970s as a response to the criticisms discussed above that the child welfare system was too quick to remove children from their homes, and that too many children were drifting between foster care placements...
without finding stability in the system.\textsuperscript{175} As a concept, permanency planning rests on the premise that families are necessary and optimal environments for a child's growth and development.\textsuperscript{176} Based on this idea, disrupting the biological family “is a major decision” and “must be based on evidence that” leaving the child in the home will cause the child serious harm.\textsuperscript{177}

Permanency goals further demand that if children are removed from their biological families, then the government must provide children with the least detrimental family-centered alternative to separation from the biological family.\textsuperscript{178} This alternative initially takes the form of placing youth and children in a short-term substitute family while the government simultaneously attempts to repair the relationship with the biological parents.\textsuperscript{179} If those attempts are unsuccessful, then the government has a duty to place youth and children in long-term or permanent substitute families so that they can develop new parental ties.\textsuperscript{180}

AACWA implemented permanency goals by allocating federal funds to states’ child welfare programs along the following hierarchy of options: (1) preventing out-of-home child welfare placements through services geared to keep families together; (2) reuniting children with their biological parents or legal guardians as soon as possible after a short time in foster care; and (3) encouraging adoption or long-term foster care placements for children who cannot return to their biological families.\textsuperscript{181} By stressing permanency goals, the success of this framework was then, and still is, measured by how swiftly and decisively the government can intervene to help keep children within their own families, and when that is not possible, place them in long-term substitute families.\textsuperscript{182}

Until the late 1990s, this menu of family-centered options under AACWA largely defined child welfare responses to youth and children. In 1997, however, Congress made significant changes to AACWA by enacting the Adoption and Safe Families Act (ASFA)—the second major piece of federal child welfare legislation. The ASFA responded to the high level of bureaucracy in the child welfare system and funding

\begin{itemize}
  \item 176. Pecora et al., \textit{supra} note 44, at 43–44.
  \item 178. Id.
  \item 179. Id.
  \item 180. Id.
  \item 181. Pecora et al., \textit{supra} note 44, at 318 (describing the hierarchy under AACWA based on permanency goals).
  \item 182. Godsoe, \textit{supra} note 43, at 1126 (noting that the current permanency “framework follows a strict hierarchy”).
\end{itemize}
obstacles that stood in the way of executing AACWA's reforms.\footnote{Robert M. Gordon, Drifting Through Byzantium: The Promise and Failure of the Adoption and Safe Families Act of 1997, 83 MINN. L. REV. 637, 649 (1999) (noting concerns of Congress that “notwithstanding the mandatory processes under the Child Welfare Act, the child welfare system continued to move at a ‘glacial pace’”); Maluccio & Fein, supra note 175, at 2 (noting that “the resources required to implement [the AACWA] never became available at the federal level”).}

The ASFA’s proponents further stressed ongoing problems surrounding “foster care drift.”\footnote{Godsoe, supra note 43, at 1115–16; Gordon, supra note 183, at 648; Johan Strijker et al., Placement History of Foster Children: A Study of Placement History and Outcomes in Long-Term Family Foster Care, 87 CHILD WELFARE 107, 108 (2008) (defining “foster care drift” as “when a child moves from one placement to the other without the prospect of a permanent residence (i.e., return home, adoption or in kinship foster care)”).

Although the foster care population dropped in the early 1980s after AACWA passed, it began to increase again in the late 1980s, and eventually hit record levels in 1996.\footnote{Gustavsson & Segal, supra note 154, at 92 (noting that the foster care population “dropped in the early 1980s and began climbing again in the late 1980s”); Gordon, supra note 183, at 648 (noting that caseloads “reach[ed] a record of 502,000 in 1996”).}

“The median stay in foster care had also grown from fifteen months in 1987 to more than two years in 1994.”\footnote{See Gustavsson & Segal, supra note 154, at 92 (noting that the foster care population “dropped in the early 1980s and began climbing again in the late 1980s”); Gordon, supra note 183, at 648 (noting that caseloads “reach[ed] a record of 502,000 in 1996”).}

Scholars and commentators attributed this growth to a rolling back of the welfare state and to broader structural problems involving homelessness, poverty, unemployment, and lack of affordable housing.\footnote{See Gordon, supra note 183, at 648.}

In the 1960s and 1970s, there was a vast decrease in government spending on low-income housing.\footnote{Namkee G. Choi & Lidia J. Snyder, Homeless Families with Children: A Subjective Experience of Homelessness 6 (1999).}

In the 1980s, Congress slashed or capped federal funding for an array of social programs (including public housing subsidies).\footnote{Ralph da Costa Nunez, The New Poverty: Homeless Families in America 8 (1996).}

These reforms contributed to “the highest rate of homelessness among families since the Great Depression.”\footnote{Scott L. Cummings, Community Economic Development as Progressive Politics: Towards a Grassroots Movement for Economic Justice, 54 STAN. L. REV. 399, 422–23 (2001) (discussing welfare “cutbacks under the Reagan Administration”).}

Between 1982 and 1987, the homeless population in the United States doubled.\footnote{Gustavsson & Segal, supra note 154, at 125 (citation omitted).}

Families and children were “[t]he fastest growing group[s] [within] the homeless” population.\footnote{Da Costa Nunez, supra note 188, at 18.}

Poverty, unemployment, lack of affordable housing, and law and order crime-control policies left marginalized families (and in particular low-income single mothers of color) with no choice other than
to comply with government orders removing their children and placing them in foster care.\footnote{193}

In this political and social context, ASFA pushed at least two major reforms which further strengthened the child welfare system’s emphasis on permanency goals.\footnote{194} First, ASFA attempted to reduce foster care drift by enabling children to return to their homes or move to other permanent placements more quickly.\footnote{195} To accomplish this task, ASFA sped up permanency hearings by requiring them “to be held no later than 12 months after a child entered foster care (6 months earlier than . . . under the [previous] law).”\footnote{196} Moreover, ASFA required states to initiate proceedings to terminate parental rights when a child had been a ward of the state “for 15 of the previous 22 months.”\footnote{197}

Second, ASFA provided new financial incentives for states to promote adoption over reuniting foster youth and children with their biological families.\footnote{198} Specifically, “[s]tates that increase[d] their adoptions over an established baseline [were] eligible for $4,000 for each child . . . adopted from foster care and $6,000 for each child with special needs . . . adopted from foster care.”\footnote{199} In 2003 and 2008, Congress revised and extended these incentives.\footnote{200}


194. Godsoe, supra note 43, at 1115–19; Dorothy E. Roberts, Is There Justice in Children's Rights?: The Critique of Federal Family Preservation Policy, 2 U. Pa. J. CONSTR. L. 112, 112 (1999). In addition to these two reforms, proponents of ASFA testified that in attempting to comply with federal law, child welfare agencies were sending foster children back to abusive and threatening family environments. Gordon, supra note 183, at 646–47. Accordingly, “ASFA codifie[d] th[e] policy . . . that a child's health and safety [was] paramount in any decision” about child placement “and provided examples of when efforts to . . . reuniﬁy families [would] be ‘unreasonable’” (for example, returning foster children to dangerous households). MaryLee Allen & Mary Bissell, Safety and Stability for Foster Children: The Policy Context, 14 CHILD. FAMS. & FOSTER CARE 49, 62 (2004). ASFA also “require[d] states to develop standards to protect the health and safety of children in foster care and . . . [to] check the criminal records of both foster and adoptive parents as a condition of federal funding.” Id. at 53.

195. Gordon, supra note 183, at 650.

196. Allen & Bissell, supra note 194, at 52; Gordon, supra note 183, at 650–51.

197. Allen & Bissell, supra note 194, at 52–53. Scholars have critiqued this length-of-time standard on the grounds that it can apply to potentially terminate parental rights and harm youth and children in cases when parents are responding to child welfare services. Naomi R. Cahn, Children's Interests in a Familial Context: Poverty, Foster Care, and Adoption, 60 OHIO ST. L.J. 1189, 1201–02 (1999).

198. Allen & Bissell, supra note 194, at 54; Gordon, supra note 183, at 651–52.

199. Allen & Bissell, supra note 194, at 54; Gordon, supra note 183, at 651–52.

Since ASFA was enacted in 1997, the annual rate of children adopted from foster care has doubled, and the number of youth and children adopted from foster care each year has increased from approximately 30,000 to more than 50,000. The average length of time it takes to adopt a child in the foster system has also decreased from four years to less than three years.

At the same time, it is important to recognize that some scholars do not view ASFA as an unequivocal success in fostering adoption. Professor Elizabeth Bartholet, for instance, argues that ASFA’s goal to place children in adoptive families promptly “if they cannot safely stay” within their biological families is undercut “by a series of [statutory] exceptions and loopholes.” In particular, she stresses that ASFA’s focus on a child’s safety as opposed to a child’s wellbeing leaves the many cases involving child neglect—including severe, chronic neglect—beyond ASFA’s purview.

Nonetheless, today the federal government spends almost $7 billion each year on family-centered child welfare programs (for example, foster care, adoption, and guardianship)—a figure expected to rise “to $8.5 billion by 2023.” These programs largely define the menu of available options for unaccompanied youth seeking help under the child welfare framework. As discussed later, this multibillion-dollar figure far exceeds the amount of federal funding allocated for programs and services that specifically target unaccompanied youth, such as homeless youth shelters. Notably, the funding for those programs is largely channeled through juvenile justice laws—illustrating the government’s tendency to frame unaccompanied youth and their challenges as criminal concerns, rather than child welfare issues.

B. Criticisms of Family-Centered Public Reordering in the Child Welfare System

The analysis below advances two related criticisms of the family-centered public reordering in the child welfare system based on its


201. Id. at 2.
202. Id. at 3.
203. Id. at 4.
204. Bartholet, supra note 103, at 27.
205. Id.
207. See infra Part III.A.2.
208. See infra Part III.A.2.
application to unaccompanied youth (and in particular, unaccompanied LGBTQ youth). First, I argue that this family-centered approach rests on assumptions about the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth that are often inconsistent with the realities of unaccompanied youth status. Second, I discuss how tensions between normative conceptions of “family” (i.e., the traditional model of the nuclear family) and youth agency and autonomy can harm youth, and ultimately facilitate their exclusion from the child welfare system.

As a preliminary matter, it is necessary to explain how these criticisms relate to existing critiques of permanency planning. At least two lines of critique appear in legal scholarship. The first line focuses on families of origin, and explains how permanency planning disadvantages certain families in the child welfare system on the basis of race, gender, and class.209 As Professor Dorothy Roberts has powerfully demonstrated, permanency goals have encouraged laws and policies that make it easier to terminate the parental rights of poor and low-income single mothers of color and place their children in adoptive families.210 She has further documented how family substitution often serves as an improper response to deeper problems of racism, poverty, and sexism that place marginalized families at risk for state intervention in the first place.211 Scholars attribute these child welfare inequalities at the intersection of race, class, and gender to several structural problems, including: (1) structural discrimination in the labor and housing markets that result in poor and low-income families of color, and especially poor and low-income single mothers of color, having disproportionate child welfare needs; and


210. Roberts, supra note 194, at 119–20. Paradoxically, however, youth and children of color are less likely to be adopted and more likely to remain in foster care when taken from their parents’ custody. Id. at 120; see also Roberts, supra note 81, at 1477 (“About one-third of children in foster care are black, and most have been removed from black mothers who are their primary caretakers.”).


discrimination by child welfare professionals and agencies on the basis of race, class, and gender.\textsuperscript{213}

The second line of criticism focuses on new or reworked family arrangements. These perspectives argue that permanency goals rest on rigid and narrow definitions of “family,” which encourage child welfare laws and policies that prioritize certain family forms that are more in line with the traditional family model over others.\textsuperscript{214} As Professor Cynthia Godsoe has thoroughly documented, the types of family arrangements that permanency goals recognize and prioritize are not necessarily the family relationships that provide youth and children psychological permanency and stability.\textsuperscript{215} For instance, a foster child may have connections to multiple adults\textsuperscript{216} and not simply two biological or adoptive parents. Scholars have also called attention to how permanency goals have shaped laws and policies that only allow for traditional adoption that severs a child’s legal relationship to their biological parents, even when evidence suggests that nonexclusive adoptions\textsuperscript{217} may provide a more viable path for many youth and children to leave foster care through adoption.\textsuperscript{218} Scholars have further documented how permanency goals encourage laws and policies that prioritize adoption over guardianship and push families to choose adoption when they prefer guardianship.\textsuperscript{219}

Both lines of criticism raise important challenges to how permanency goals are currently defined and executed in the child welfare system. I am not discounting these critiques, and I fully recognize that opening space for child welfare responses that avoid these family-centered harms and adopt more flexible definitions of “family” can benefit many parents, youth, and children. At the same time, these accounts still maintain a focus on families in the sense that they call attention to which families permanency goals advantage and to which families they disadvantage and harm. My analysis illustrates how family-centered approaches—even improved ones—may not serve the needs of certain vulnerable youth who seek or need help from the state. Accordingly,


\textsuperscript{214.} Godsoe, \textit{supra} note 43, at 1113–14.


\textsuperscript{216.} Godsoe, \textit{supra} note 43, at 1126.


\textsuperscript{218.} \textit{See id.} at 720–21 (proposing that child welfare law should permit the nonexclusive adoption of foster children who cannot reunify with their parents).

my analysis broadens the scholarly conversation beyond marginalized families to scrutinize permanency goals from the more individualized perspectives of unaccompanied youth.

1. Assumptions About the Agency and Autonomy of Unaccompanied Youth

My first criticism of the family-centered public reordering in the child welfare system is that it rests on assumptions about the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth that are often inconsistent with the realities of unaccompanied youth status. Permanency goals assume that families (whether biological, foster, or adoptive) are necessary and optimal environments for youth and children to achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults. In emphasizing permanency goals, child welfare responses treat unaccompanied youth as victims of negative family circumstances (consistent with structural theories of unaccompanied youth status) and, as argued below, respond by altering their family environments.

This victimization mindset overlooks important contextual differences with regard to how unaccompanied youth develop and exercise their agency and autonomy compared to other youth. Although more research is necessary, existing studies describe how victimization narratives are often inconsistent with how many unaccompanied youth who decided to leave home in light of family problems perceive their family separation. For instance, many unaccompanied youth recount leaving home as an affirmative act of self-protection and a positive decision in which they took control over their negative family situations. For many unaccompanied youth, this sense of agency and independence becomes stronger once they separate from their families. After being kicked out, pushed out, or running away from home, many unaccompanied youth—out of necessity—have had to exercise control over their lives by learning how to survive on their own. While doing so, many unaccompanied youth develop a sense of pride in becoming

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220. See Pecora et al., supra note 44, at 44–45.
221. Hyde, supra note 42, at 172–73.
222. See, e.g., Bender et al., supra note 65, at 225; Hyde, supra note 42, at 172–73; Eric Rice et al., Homelessness and Sexual Identity Among Middle School Students, 85 J. SCH. HEALTH 552, 556 (2015) (“The experience of multiple living situations and the lack of a permanent residence put homeless youth on a trajectory toward early independence.”).
223. See, e.g., Sanna J. Thompson et al., Insights from the Street: Perceptions of Services and Providers by Homeless Young Adults, 29 EVALUATION & PROGRAM PLAN. 34, 41 (2006).
224. Hyde, supra note 42, at 175.
225. Id. at 180–81.
resilient and self-reliant in spite of the hardships that they may endure while living on the streets or in other unstable living arrangements.\textsuperscript{226}

Based on these insights, child welfare researchers and social workers warn that adopting a one-dimensional narrative of unaccompanied youth as powerless victims ignores many of their strengths, skills, and capacities.\textsuperscript{227} For example, researchers have stressed the personal strengths and problem-solving skills that unaccompanied youth develop to survive on their own can become assets for these youth in adulthood.\textsuperscript{228} Those skills include the ability to identify and avoid dangerous situations, and to navigate formal and informal systems for resources.\textsuperscript{229} Other important skills include knowing when and how to develop relationships with others who can provide support, as well as knowing how to avoid developing relationships with exploitative people.\textsuperscript{230}

Of course, these points do not discount the fact that the harsh realities of street life lead many unaccompanied youth to gain life skills through unsafe or illegal means.\textsuperscript{231} Some unaccompanied youth protect themselves by carrying weapons\textsuperscript{232} or by associating with criminally involved adults and youth who can offer resources and protection.\textsuperscript{233} Many unaccompanied youth also resort to illegal behaviors, such as sex work and theft, to survive.\textsuperscript{234} My point is that despite these challenges, the reality of unaccompanied youth status is more complex than dominant victimization narratives suggest.

Another important set of issues surrounding agency and autonomy involves potential cultural differences between unaccompanied youth in urban and rural areas.\textsuperscript{235} Scholars have described how the public discourse on homelessness is infused with urban stereotypes and

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{226} Don Schweitzer et al., Asking for Directions: Partnering with Youth to Build the Evidence Base for Runaway and Homeless Youth Services 12 (2013), http://commons.pacificu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1053&context=casfac; Sean A. Kidd, \textit{Street Youth: Coping and Interventions}, 20 Child & Adolescent Soc. Work J. 235, 255 (2003); Thompson et al., \textit{supra} note 223, at 37.
  \item \textsuperscript{227} Kimberly Bender et al., \textit{Capacity for Survival: Exploring Strengths of Homeless Street Youth}, 36 Child Youth Care F. 25, 39 (2007).
  \item \textsuperscript{228} \textit{Id.} at 38.
  \item \textsuperscript{229} \textit{Id.} at 32.
  \item \textsuperscript{230} \textit{Id.} at 30 & tbl.2.
  \item \textsuperscript{231} Kristin M. Ferguson et al., Predicting Illegal Income Generation Among Homeless Male and Female Young Adults: Understanding Strains and Responses to Strains, 63 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 101, 103 (2016).
  \item \textsuperscript{232} \textit{Id.} at 107.
  \item \textsuperscript{233} \textit{Id.}
  \item \textsuperscript{234} \textit{Id.} at 101.
  \item \textsuperscript{235} \textit{See, e.g.,} Mark Evan Edwards et al., \textit{Paradoxes of Providing Rural Social Services: The Case of Homeless Youth}, 74 Rural Soc. 330, 336–37 (2009) (discussing how the “individuation of social problems” in rural places influences the cultural dimensions in how rural communities respond to youth homelessness).
\end{itemize}
experiences that do not necessarily apply in rural contexts.\textsuperscript{236} Consistent with this idea, existing studies on unaccompanied youth largely focus on youth in cities and urban neighborhoods.\textsuperscript{237} A major reason for this urban focus is that unaccompanied youth in rural areas are more dispersed and difficult to reach.\textsuperscript{238}

Although more research is needed, scholars have examined how there is a greater cultural emphasis on individualism, self-sufficiency, and privacy in rural communities.\textsuperscript{239} In those communities, cultural values may lead members to view homelessness as the product of a person’s idleness and laziness.\textsuperscript{240} Consistent with this idea, research shows that unaccompanied youth in rural areas are often hesitant to admit that they need help—and often refuse to seek help—from the government or private organizations for fear of being perceived as lazy or idle.\textsuperscript{241} In addition, because many rural communities are small, unaccompanied youth in rural areas are often reluctant to let others know about their situation by seeking or receiving services.\textsuperscript{242} Rather than face potential judgment and ostracism within their communities, many of these youth prefer to remain invisible.\textsuperscript{243}

A limited body of research has also called attention to special considerations surrounding the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth. Today, LGBTQ youth in the United States “come out” (meaning they disclose their sexual orientation or gender identity to others) at earlier ages than did previous generations.\textsuperscript{244} Recent survey data suggests that the median age at which individuals begin to self-identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender falls squarely in late adolescence.\textsuperscript{245} Taking control over one’s life circumstances can be linked

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{236} See Yvonne M. Vissing, \textit{Out of Sight, Out of Mind: Homeless Children and Families in Small-Town America} 12 (1996). Here, it is important to note that sexuality scholars have also called attention to problems involving urban bias and the treatment of sexual minorities in rural communities under the law. See generally Luke A. Boso, \textit{Urban Bias, Rural Sexual Minorities, and the Courts}, 60 UCLA L. Rev. 562 (2013) (describing how public opinion of sexual minorities is shaped by urban biases and how the legal system perpetuates these biases). This point also fits into a broader critique in legal scholarship involving misunderstandings of rurality and livelihood in the law and legal institutions. See generally, e.g., Lisa R. Pruitt, \textit{Rural Rhetoric}, 39 Conn. L. Rev. 159 (2006) (investigating the law’s constitutive rhetoric about rural people, places, and livelihoods).
  \item \textsuperscript{237} Edwards et al., \textit{supra} note 235, at 332.
  \item \textsuperscript{238} \textit{Id.} at 344–45.
  \item \textsuperscript{239} \textit{Id.} at 336.
  \item \textsuperscript{240} \textit{Id.} at 336–37.
  \item \textsuperscript{241} See, e.g., \textit{id.} at 345–46.
  \item \textsuperscript{242} See, e.g., \textit{id.}
  \item \textsuperscript{243} \textit{See id.} at 346–47.
  \item \textsuperscript{244} Rice et al., \textit{supra} note 222, at 553.
\end{itemize}
to an important process in which unaccompanied LGBTQ youth are defining and exploring their sexual orientation or gender identity. This process may be an especially formative and sensitive period for unaccompanied LGBTQ youth who suffered rejection because of their sexual orientation or gender identity by their families, communities, or other institutions, such as schools and places of worship.

To illustrate these points, consider one study of homeless LGBTQ youth of color who lived on the streets of the Castro District in San Francisco. In spite of the harsh realities of being homeless, LGBTQ youth participants viewed public spaces in the Castro (such as the subway station) as places where they felt safe to be themselves and to express their LGBTQ identities, especially as LGBTQ youth of color. Youth participants perceived the Castro as a neighborhood in which they could seek safety, community, and resources when needed. Conversely, they reported feeling unsafe to express their sexual orientation or gender identity in other public and private spaces, as well as in family and community settings.

Given these different sets of issues, it is not surprising that many unaccompanied youth place primacy on their autonomy and are hesitant to seek social services that may jeopardize their independence and control. In order to receive long-term support, however, the child welfare framework leaves those youth with little option but to revert back to a state of dependence on family systems—whether on biological adult family members who may not want to care for them, or foster or adoptive parents who they may not trust. For unaccompanied youth in late adolescence, this transition might be impossible or take longer than the amount of time they have left before aging out of the child welfare system.

Lending support to these ideas, research describes how unaccompanied youth are often distrustful of adults—including their adult family members, adults in out-of-home child welfare placements, and adult

246. See generally Jen Reck, Homeless Gay and Transgender Youth of Color in San Francisco: “No One Likes Street Kids”— Even in the Castro, 6 J. LGBT YOUTH 223 (2009) (showing the extent of the societal and economic problems faced by LGBT youth of color). The Castro has had a large concentration of LGBT residents and has been a hub of LGBT activism and social life for decades. See generally Winston Leyland, Out in the Castro: Desire, Promise, Activism (2002) (detailing the history of the Castro and its role as an LGBT neighborhood). It is important to recognize, however, that scholars have called attention to the ways in which race, gender, and class biases pervade mainstream gay neighborhoods and communities. See, e.g., Russell K. Robinson, Marriage Equality and Postracialism, 61 UCLA L. REV. 1010, 1038–39 (2014).

248. Id. at 231, 234–35.
249. Id. at 229–32.
250. See Thompson et al., supra note 223, at 41.
251. See id.; Hyde, supra note 42, at 173.
caseworkers and staff in the child welfare system. As explained later in this Article, this tension has led some child welfare researchers to challenge the appropriateness and effectiveness of government responses that are modeled after traditional parent-child relationships in which agency providers or caretakers act as “parents” or “quasi-parents” for unaccompanied youth. Critically, those models largely define available child welfare responses to unaccompanied youth.

2. The “Traditional” Family and Child Welfare Exclusions

My second criticism is that tensions between traditional conceptions of “family” and the realities of unaccompanied youth status can harm and ultimately facilitate the exclusion of unaccompanied youth from the child welfare system. As explained previously, unaccompanied youth can come into contact with the child welfare system at different and multiple points in their lives. Guided by permanency goals, the child welfare system’s first line of defense is to try to reunite unaccompanied youth with their families.

We learn from the experiences of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth that family reunification is often not a feasible option when youth are kicked out of their homes because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. And even when practically feasible, family reunification might put LGBTQ youth at risk of further violence, harassment, or rejection. Those harmful family conditions—which initially drove LGBTQ youth out of their homes—then push LGBTQ youth back into homelessness or other unstable living arrangements.

These barriers to family reunification, however, are not unique to the LGBTQ context. Some studies have reported that nearly half of homeless youth are “throwaway youth”—meaning youth who are thrown out of their homes and not welcome back. Although different factors contribute to youth being kicked out of their homes, studies have found that throwaway youth experience greater levels of prior family conflict and family violence compared to other unaccompanied youth.

When family reunification fails, the child welfare system’s next line of defense is to provide unaccompanied youth with a substitute family through foster care or adoption. Family rejection for being LGBTQ is a common reason why LGBTQ youth enter out-of-home child welfare

252. Thompson et al., supra note 223, at 35.
253. See infra Part IV.
254. Bender et al., supra note 227, at 39.
255. See supra notes 133–34 and accompanying text.
256. Thompson et al., supra note 69, at 194.
258. Moore, supra note 84, at 9.
placements. Other LGBTQ youth enter the child welfare system when the state discovers that they have been kicked out of their homes with nowhere to go, or when the state removes them from their homes after reports of suffering family abuse for being LGBTQ.

Once they enter the child welfare system, LGBTQ youth face several systemic challenges, which contrary to permanency goals, result in low placement stability and multiple out-of-home placements. For instance, child welfare agencies often have few or no staff with adequate training on the specific challenges and needs of LGBTQ youth. Currently, only nine states require LGBT-inclusive competency training for child welfare staff or foster parents. Lack of cultural competence can shape caseworkers’ placement decisions as well as the extent of resources available to help foster and adoptive parents sensitively handle the needs and concerns of LGBTQ youth. In addition, LGBTQ youth commonly face discrimination by caseworkers, which can negatively affect placement decisions and how key actors (i.e., child welfare placement agencies or frontline caseworkers) in the child welfare system treat them.

LGBTQ youth are difficult to place through foster care and adoption because they are often unwanted by foster and adoptive families and are therefore more quickly sent to group homes and other congregate care facilities used to house youth with behavioral problems or multiple failed foster care placements. Many LGBTQ youth are rejected by foster families or group home staff on the basis of their sexual orientation or gender identity, and as a result, leave or are kicked out of foster placements for the streets. In addition, LGBTQ youth are at much

259. See Cray et al., supra note 29, at 12; Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 11.
260. See Cray et al., supra note 29, at 12; Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 11.
261. See Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 11–12; Gallegos et al., supra note 52, at 228.
264. Gallegos et al., supra note 52, at 228.
265. See Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 11–12; Love, supra note 52, at 2275–80.
266. See Amy Dworsky, The Economic Well-Being of Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual Youth Transitioning Out of Foster Care 2 (2013), https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/opre/opre_lgbt_brief_01_04_2013.pdf (“A shortage of LGB-friendly foster homes also means that many youth who identify as LGB are placed in more restrictive group care settings rather than with families . . . .”); Mallon, supra note 8, at 53 (noting that some youth who enter group homes “are troubled, others are delinquent, and many simply have no families available to care for them”); Wilson et al., supra note 33, at 6 (noting that “LGBTQ youth have a higher average number of foster care placements and are more likely to be living in a group home”); Love, supra note 52, at 2274–75 (discussing how transgender youth are often placed in congregate care facilities for reasons that are rooted in transphobia).
267. Mallon, supra note 8, at 110–11 (discussing the results of a study on LGBT youth in the foster care system and noting that “[y]oung people who fled to
greater risk for mistreatment and physical, sexual, and verbal abuse than are non-LGBTQ youth in foster families and group homes.\textsuperscript{268} Caretakers are also more likely to discipline LGBTQ youth for age-appropriate conduct that would likely go unpunished if it occurred between opposite-sex youth.\textsuperscript{269} These challenges and rejections can exacerbate LGBTQ youth’s housing instability in the child welfare system and contribute to their homelessness.

Moreover, many LGBTQ youth who come into contact with the child welfare system and have experienced prior family rejection for being LGBTQ prefer to be placed in child welfare settings that are supportive of their sexual orientations and gender identities (i.e., foster homes with LGBTQ caretakers or LGBTQ-affirming group homes or transitional living programs).\textsuperscript{270} These preferences, however, can go ignored when out-of-home placements adhere to rigid and traditional conceptions of family—a practice documented in existing critiques of permanency planning.\textsuperscript{271} For instance, Nebraska courts only recently decided that the state’s policy of excluding “persons who identify themselves as homosexuals” from being foster parents or from adopting a child in foster care was unconstitutional.\textsuperscript{272} In addition, many state adoption and foster care laws allow officials to give preference to married couples, which can disadvantage single individuals and unmarried cohabitants during the adoption and foster care process.\textsuperscript{273} Although marriage equality raises new questions about how adoption and foster care laws apply to same-sex married couples,\textsuperscript{274} these preferences and restrictions

the streets . . . were those who were no longer willing to tolerate the poor fit that was manifest in [their group home or foster home]”); Shelley L. Craig & Ashley Austin, *Childhood and Adolescence, in Trauma, Resilience, and Health Promotion in LGBT Patients: What Every Healthcare Provider Should Know* 57, 60 (Kristen L. Eckstrand & Jennifer Potter eds., 2017) (noting connections between the challenges that LGBTQ youth face in the child welfare system as a result of their sexual orientation or gender identity and the increased risk of “being kicked out of foster homes or becoming homeless”).

\textsuperscript{268} Wilson et al., *supra* note 33, at 11–12.

\textsuperscript{269} Id.

\textsuperscript{270} See, e.g., Gallegos et al., *supra* note 52, at 231. Here, I am not arguing that all LGBTQ youth in the child welfare system prefer placements with LGBTQ caretakers. In fact, studies have found that many LGBTQ youth in the child welfare system do not have a preference regarding the sexual identities of their caretakers. Id.


\textsuperscript{272} Stewart v. Heineman, 892 N.W.2d 542, 547, 568 (Neb. 2017) (citation omitted) (holding that it was not an abuse of discretion for a trial judge to enjoin the state from enforcing a memorandum banning lesbian and gay couples and individuals from being licensed as foster parents or to adopt a ward of the state).


\textsuperscript{274} These questions are especially pertinent in states that have adopted laws or
have disadvantaged and continue to disadvantage many suitable prospective LGBTQ parents during the foster care and adoption process.\footnote{275}

The recent proliferation of religious exemption laws that attempt to mediate conflicts between religious liberty and LGBTQ equality adds another layer of challenges to LGBTQ identity in the child welfare system.\footnote{276} Several states have recently enacted religious exemption laws that allow the religious views of child welfare actors (for instance, private child placement agencies or foster parents) to guide the nature of the services they provide, even if those views denounce LGBTQ people. Critics contend that these broad religious exemption laws permit religiously motivated discrimination against LGBTQ youth who come into contact with those agencies.\footnote{278} Child welfare providers may turn away

introduced bills providing religious exceptions that allow private and public entities involved in foster care, as well as prospective foster and adoptive parents, to discriminate on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity when such discrimination is grounded in a sincerely held religious belief or moral conviction. \See infra notes 275–77. \footnote{275. See Gary Gates et al., Adoption and Foster Care by Gay and Lesbian Parents in the United States 3 (Cal. Ctr. for Population Research On-Line Working Paper Series, CCPR-065-07, 2007) (“Although states might not have formal policies forbidding adoption or foster care by GLB parents, some adoption agencies or social workers might discriminate against GLB applicants.”). \But see Douglas NeJaime, Marriage Equality and the New Parenthood, 129 Harv. L. Rev. 1185, 1201–02 (2016) (discussing how some caseworkers and courts continued to grant adoptions to same-sex couples in spite of a policy against adoption by unmarried couples adopted by the California Department of Social Services between 1987 and 1994). \See generally George, supra note 158 (analyzing how social workers undermined bans on gay and lesbian foster and adoptive parenting in three states in the mid-1980s and early 1990s). For a more detailed discussion of the history of gay and lesbian foster and adoptive parenting, see generally Cynthia Godsoe, Adopting the Gay Family, 90 Tul. L. Rev. 311 (2015).}

\footnote{276. In a forthcoming article entitled Religious Exemptions and LGBTQ Child Welfare, 103 Minn. L. Rev. (forthcoming 2019), I discuss in more detail how the recent push for broad religious exemptions involving LGBTQ child welfare affects the treatment of LGBTQ youth in the child welfare system. For a more comprehensive discussion of complicity-based conscience claims in the context of religious exceptions from laws concerning sex, reproduction, and marriage, see generally Douglas NeJaime & Reva B. Siegel, Conscience Wars: Complicity-Based Conscience Claims in Religion and Politics, 124 Yale L.J. 2516 (2015).}


LGBTQ youth and children in need of support, including those who have been kicked out of their families because of their sexual orientations or gender identities. Alternative, LGBTQ youth and children could be forced to stay in foster homes that denounce their sexual orientations or gender identities and be forced to act in ways that are inconsistent with their LGBTQ identities. In more extreme cases, foster parents could pressure LGBTQ youth and children to undergo damaging conversion therapies that try to change a person’s sexual orientation or gender identity.

These challenges surrounding sexual orientation and gender identity in the child welfare system result in many LGBTQ youth leaving or being forced out of child welfare placements, after which they find themselves living on the streets or in other unstable living arrangements. Unaccompanied LGBTQ youth, however, face additional challenges when they seek help from shelters and other service providers to get off the streets. Many youth shelters are unequipped and lack staff with adequate cultural competence to handle the specific needs of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth. Moreover, in many localities, lack of public funding for homeless and runaway youth services results in private faith-based entities providing the bulk of available services to unaccompanied youth. LGBTQ youth may feel unwelcome, be turned away, or face discrimination when those entities openly denounce or are hostile toward LGBTQ people.

279. Id.
280. Id.
281. Id. at 2.
283. Cray et al., supra note 29, at 12.
284. The specific funding schemes for programs and services available to unaccompanied youth will be discussed infra Part III.A.2.
285. See Movement Advancement Project, supra note 278, at 5–6 (discussing the harms of religiously motivated discrimination against LGBTQ youth in the child welfare system and the harms of protecting those instances of religiously motivated discrimination through religious exemption laws); Deborah Lolai, “You’re Going to be Straight or You’re Not Going to Live Here”: Child Support for LGBT Homeless Youth, 24 Tul. J. L. & Sexuality 35, 53 (2015) (noting that many homeless youth shelters “are run by religious organizations that are openly hostile to LGBT youth generally
These issues, however, are not limited to purely privately funded entities. Studies document how unaccompanied LGBTQ youth commonly face discrimination, harassment, and abuse when they seek or obtain services from programs that receive public funds to assist homeless and runaway youth. Many LGBTQ youth hide, or feel pressure to hide, that they identify as LGBTQ when receiving services. Faced with these obstacles, unaccompanied LGBTQ youth may be deterred from seeking services, which prolongs their unaccompanied youth status.

These points illustrate how tensions between maintaining traditional family models and the realities of unaccompanied youth status can harm unaccompanied youth and facilitate their exclusion from the child welfare system. My analysis now turns to how these child welfare harms and exclusions interact with responses to unaccompanied youth in the juvenile justice system.

III. JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM RESPONSES TO UNACCOMPANIED YOUTH

This Part examines government responses to unaccompanied youth in the juvenile justice system. Subpart A describes the ways in which the public reordering in the juvenile justice system is not only family-focused but also adopts inconsistent views of unaccompanied youth as both delinquent offenders and crime victims. Subpart B then critiques this public reordering. I argue that family-centered juvenile justice responses and transgender youth specifically); see also Quintana et al., supra note 30, at 18 (discussing the lack of faith-based homeless shelters that are supportive of LGBTQ youth).


287. See Ray, supra note 100, at 94 (discussing the challenges that LGBT youth face in homeless shelters and noting that “[y]outh continue to hide in the system by denying their sexual orientation or gender identity, and as a result do not get the help they need”).

288. Quintana et al., supra note 30, at 18 (“Studies have found that many homeless gay and transgender youth choose to sleep on the streets rather than go to a service provider that is perceived to be homophobic or transphobic.”); Ray, supra note 100, at 94 (“If an LGBT youth receives the message—implicit or explicit—that he or she is not welcome because of his or her sexual orientation or gender identity, the youth will be less likely to use the agency’s services.”); Maccio & Ferguson, supra note 286, at 50 (noting the results of one study in which interviewed staff from organizations that offered services to LGBTQ homeless and runaway youth commented that “the discrimination, harassment, and violence that occur in general shelters often contribute to LGBTQ [runaway and homeless youths’] desire to remain on the streets or in precarious housing situations”).
facilitate a destructive cycle in which unaccompanied youth bounce between homelessness (or other unstable living arrangements) and the juvenile and criminal justice systems. Youth who have been harmed by, or excluded from, the child welfare system for the reasons discussed in the previous Part are especially at risk of entering this cycle.

A. Family-Centered Public Reordering in the Juvenile Justice System

This Subpart examines two types of family-centered public reordering in the juvenile justice system. The first type is juvenile justice laws and law enforcement policies and practices that allow for unaccompanied youth to be arrested, charged, and confined in secure detention facilities when they leave or fail to stay within families (whether biological, foster, or adoptive). I explain that these measures adopt a view of unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders and place the blame on them for their family separation, consistent with deficient-agency theories of unaccompanied youth status. The second type is public funding for programs and services that specifically target unaccompanied youth. I explain that this funding is largely channeled through juvenile justice laws and primarily concerned with unaccompanied youth’s criminal victimization. I argue that as a result of their victimization focus, these programs and services assume a short-term outlook by granting just enough resources for unaccompanied youth to get off the streets before they become victims of crime, leaving the responsibility to provide for their long-term needs to family systems that likely have already failed them.

1. Unaccompanied Youth as Delinquent Offenders: Arrest, Institutionalization, and Other Sanctions

The history of handling unaccompanied youth in the juvenile justice system through arrest and institutionalization dates back to the creation of the first juvenile court in 1899. An understanding of this history provides meaningful context for the ways in which the government has historically portrayed unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders, and why many unaccompanied youth are funneled into the juvenile and criminal justice systems today.


290. See infra Part III.A.2.


292. See FLOWERS, supra note 114, at 66.
i. Historical Background

Professor Barry Feld has described how the juvenile court emerged at a time of great social change in the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries. Modernization inspired massive industrialization, urbanization, and immigration. The transition from an agricultural to an industrial society reshaped the family as women moved into the new industrial work force. These changes helped to cement a cultural view of childhood that idealized children as innocent and fragile persons in need of protection.

The Progressive social reformers who created the juvenile court intended for it to have a nonadversarial and therapeutic mission, unlike courts in the criminal justice system. These reformers further intended for the juvenile court to reach a broad range of youth who faced trouble in their social and family lives and not just youth who violated the law. The idea that youth pauperism, if left unattended, could “ripen into criminality” motivated this convergence between “dependency” and “delinquency” concepts. Thus, the broad mission of the juvenile court enabled the government to act as parens patriae with the dual purposes of reforming youth and protecting society.

Even the earliest juvenile courts placed primacy on families when handling dependent and neglected youth, including unaccompanied youth. The Illinois Juvenile Court Act of 1899, which created the first juvenile court, reflects this emphasis. This statute provided

[t]hat the care, custody and discipline of a child shall approximate as nearly as may be that which should be given by its parents, and in all cases where it can properly be done the child be placed in an

294. Id.
296. Feld, supra note 293, at 1454.
298. Feld, supra note 293, at 1458–59.
299. SEALANDER, supra note 138, at 21.
302. Fox, supra note 310, at 1211–12.
improved family home and become a member of the family by legal adoption or otherwise.\textsuperscript{303}

Put simply, government intervention on behalf of dependent and neglected youth was supposed to model traditional family life.

At this point in time, the law differentiated between youth who needed help from the government and youth who violated the law. This gap narrowed as expanding legal definitions of “delinquent child” appeared in juvenile justice laws soon after the earliest juvenile courts appeared. The initial definition of “delinquent child” under the Illinois Juvenile Court Act of 1899 was fairly narrow in the sense that it was limited to any child who violated a state law or local ordinance.\textsuperscript{304} In the early 1900s, however, the legislature amended this definition to include “status offenses,”\textsuperscript{305}—acts considered illegal only because nonadults committed them.\textsuperscript{306} Critically, status offenses included the very behaviors that unaccompanied youth were likely to engage in due to their unaccompanied status, such as running away, being incorrigible, truancy, and violating curfew.\textsuperscript{307}

This expanded definition soon appeared in the juvenile justice laws of other states,\textsuperscript{308} making dependency and delinquency concepts virtually

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{303} Illinois Juvenile Court Act of 1899, § 21, 1899 Ill. Laws 131, 137 (1899) (repealed 1965). At the time, most adoptions took place through private agreements rather than public or nonprofit agencies. D. Marianne Brower Blair, \textit{Getting the Whole Truth and Nothing But the Truth: The Limits of Liability for Wrongful Adoption}, 67 \textit{Notre Dame L. Rev.} 851, 859 (1992). Until the 1850s, there were no state statutes “requir[ing] judicial supervision over the adoption process.” \textit{Id.}
\item \textsuperscript{304} Illinois Juvenile Court Act of 1899, § 1 (“The words delinquent child shall include any child under the age of 16 years who violates any law of this State or any city or village ordinance.”).
\item \textsuperscript{305} Act of May 11, 1901, § 1, 1901 Ill. Laws 141, 142 (“The words ‘delinquent child’ shall include any child under the age of sixteen (16) years who violates any law of this State or any city or village ordinance; or who is incorrigible; or who knowingly associates with thieves, vicious or immoral persons; or who is growing up in idleness or crime; or who knowingly frequents a house of ill fame; or who knowingly patronizes any policy shop or place where any gaming device is or shall be operated.”).
\item \textsuperscript{306} Jyoti Nanda, \textit{Blind Discretion: Girls of Color & Delinquency in the Juvenile Justice System}, 59 \textit{UCLA L. Rev.} 1502, 1528 (2012) (“Status offenses are acts that are not deemed criminal when committed by adults but carry juvenile court sanctions for youth because of their legal status as minors.”).
\item \textsuperscript{307} Illinois Juvenile Courts Amendment Act 1907, § 2, 1907 Ill. Laws 70, 71 (defining status offender as a youth who “violates any law of this State; or is incorrigible, or knowingly associates with thieves, vicious or immoral persons; or without just cause and without that [the] consent of its parents, guardian or custodian absents itself from its home or place of abode, or is growing up in idleness or crime . . . . or wanders about the streets in the night time without being on any lawful business or lawful occupation” (alteration in original)).
\item \textsuperscript{308} \textsc{Anthony M. Platt}, \textit{The Child Savers: The Invention of Delinquency} 139 (2d ed. 1977) (“The Illinois act was considered a prototype for legislation in other states . . . .”); \textsc{W. Vaughan Stapleton & Lee E. Teitelbaum}, \textit{In Defense of Youth: A Study of the Role of Counsel in American Juvenile Courts} 22–23 (1972); see, e.g.,
\end{itemize}
interchangeable across much of the United States. The justification for this expanded definition rested on two ideas. First, the noncriminal behaviors defined as status offenses were likely warning signs of a youth’s future criminal involvement. Second, the government had a duty to intervene in the family and social lives of youth who appeared to be on a path to criminal offending. This new role of the government contradicted earlier legal and social norms that safeguarded the family as a private domain free from state interference.

As a consequence of this blurred distinction between dependency and delinquency concepts, unaccompanied youth regularly came into contact with the police simply on the basis of their unaccompanied status. If unaccompanied youth were petitioned to the juvenile court, then judges could institutionalize them in secure detention facilities alongside other juvenile delinquents who committed serious crimes. Historical data shows that juvenile courts institutionalized status offenders (including unaccompanied youth) at high rates in the first half of the 20th century. In addition, indeterminate sentencing allowed for status offenders to be institutionalized for long periods of time. This was possible because remedies in the juvenile justice context were then (and are still intended to be) based on principles of individualized justice that


309. Lora Lee Pederson, 29 Tex. L. Rev. 576, 577 (1951) (reviewing Sheldon & Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency (1950)) (“The philosophy of the juvenile court, as embodied in the statute which established the Juvenile Court of Cook County, Illinois, in 1899, provided that the delinquent child should be treated like the neglected or dependent one.”).

310. Lee Teitelbaum, Status Offenses and Status Offenders, in A Century of Juvenile Justice 158, 162 (Margaret K. Rosenheim et al. eds., 2002) (“Proponents of the juvenile court viewed deviance as a developmental process, and the central premise of the juvenile court movement was the use of judicial authority to identify and rehabilitate, rather than punish, children whose acts or conditions bespoke the likelihood of future antisocial behavior.”).

311. Id. at 162–63.

312. See supra Part II.A.1.


314. Teitelbaum, supra note 310, at 163.


316. Jay D. Blitzman, Gault’s Promise, 9 Barry L. Rev. 67, 75 (2007) (noting “indeterminate commitments until adulthood for minor offenses and status offenses became publicized” pre-Gault); Barry C. Feld, The Transformation of the Juvenile Court, 75 Minn. L. Rev. 691, 700 (1991) (“Historically, juvenile court sentences were discretionary, indeterminate, and nonproportional to achieve the offender’s ‘best interests.’”).
focused on rehabilitation, and not principles of retribution that focused on the reprehensibility of their conduct.\textsuperscript{317}

Before describing more recent juvenile justice responses involving unaccompanied youth, it is important to acknowledge that this interlacing of dependency and delinquency concepts had (and still has) a distinct gendered effect, especially on female youth of color.\textsuperscript{318} Female youth were (and still are) more likely to be arrested and funneled into juvenile courts for status offenses, whereas male youth were (and still are) more likely to be arrested and funneled into juvenile courts for delinquent conduct.\textsuperscript{319} The bulk of status offense arrests and adjudications for female youth involved sexual misconduct, including promiscuity.\textsuperscript{320} Scholars argue that this disparity reflected the intent of the juvenile court’s creators to use juvenile courts as a means to enforce dominant norms of sexual morality in addition to idealized notions of childhood innocence.\textsuperscript{321}

\textit{ii. Contemporary Juvenile Justice Responses to Unaccompanied Youth}

In the 1960s, skepticism grew over whether juvenile courts were more beneficial than harmful for youth and children.\textsuperscript{322} Scholars and practitioners argued that juvenile courts were arbitrary and punitive,\textsuperscript{323} which contradicted their intended purposes of being therapeutic and nonadversarial. In light of these concerns, critics called for extending due process protections to minors in juvenile court.\textsuperscript{324} In 1967, these calls culminated in the U.S. Supreme Court’s groundbreaking decision in \textit{In re Gault}.\textsuperscript{325} \textit{Gault} extended a host of procedural protections into juvenile proceedings that were previously only available to defendants in criminal courts.\textsuperscript{326} Those protections included the right to notice of charges,

\begin{thebibliography}{99}
\bibitem{317} Teitelbaum, \textit{supra} note 310, at 162.
\bibitem{320} Godsoe, \textit{supra} note 318, at 1095–96.
\bibitem{321} Feld, \textit{supra} note 319, at 1064; Godsoe, \textit{supra} note 318, at 1109.
\bibitem{322} Feld, \textit{supra} note 293, at 1448.
\bibitem{324} Feld, \textit{supra} note 293, at 1448 (noting the “[s]ystematic and critical re-examination of the juvenile court’s cultural and legal premises [that] emerged . . . in the 1960s”).
\bibitem{325} \textit{In re Gault}, 387 U.S. 1 (1967).
\bibitem{326} See generally \textit{id.}
\end{thebibliography}
the right to counsel, the right to confrontation and cross-examination of witnesses, and the privilege against self-incrimination.\textsuperscript{327}

Scholars and practitioners also challenged the legitimacy of institutionalizing status offenders alongside juvenile delinquents, especially those who committed violent crimes. Professor Barry Feld explains that critics raised several concerns, including that the status jurisdiction of the juvenile court ultimately harmed youth, damaged relationships between youth and their families, inundated juvenile courts with high case volumes, and overburdened government agencies and schools which regularly referred status offenders to juvenile courts.\textsuperscript{328} Several states revised their delinquency laws in response to these concerns.\textsuperscript{329} These reforms created new lines between status offenses and delinquent acts and moved status offenders into newly created non-delinquent categories with acronyms like JINS, CHINS, or FINS “(juveniles, children, [or] families in need of supervision).”\textsuperscript{330}

This growing skepticism eventually shaped influential legislation at the federal level with the enactment of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (JJDPA)\textsuperscript{331}—which is still the main piece of federal legislation that sets national standards and allocates funds in the area of juvenile justice.\textsuperscript{332} When first enacted, the JJDPA required states to deinstitutionalize and divert status offenders from secure detention facilities in order to receive federal funding for their juvenile justice programs.\textsuperscript{333} States responded by amending their juvenile justice laws to formally comply with the JJDPA.\textsuperscript{334}

Notwithstanding this compliance, several loopholes allow states to circumvent the JJDPA’s deinstitutionalization mandate today. At least

\begin{enumerate}
\item[327.] See generally id.
\item[328.] Feld, supra note 316, at 696–97.
\item[330.] Id.
\item[332.] See id.; see also Alida V. Merlo & Peter J. Benekos, Reaffirming Juvenile Justice: From \textit{Gault} to \textit{Montgomery} 14–15 (2017) (discussing amendments to the JJDPA since its enactment in 1974). The JJDPA was not the first time that Congress became involved in the area of juvenile justice. In the 1930s, Congress passed federal legislation that attempted to offer juveniles who violated federal law the benefits of rehabilitation programs that existed in state juvenile systems. See Robert B. Mahini, Note, \textit{There’s No Place Like Home: The Availability of Judicial Review Over Certification Decisions Invoking Federal Jurisdiction Under the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act}, 55 Vand. L. Rev. 1311, 1315–17 (2000) (discussing federal juvenile justice legislation in the 1930s).
\item[334.] Anne L. Schneider, U.S. Dep’t of Justice, \textit{The Impact of Deinstitutionalization on Recidivism and Secure Confinement of Status Offenders I} (1985), https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/Digitization/99808NCJRS.pdf (“[M]ost States have altered their laws to be in compliance with the [JJDPA] and its amendments.”).
\end{enumerate}
four loopholes are relevant to unaccompanied youth. First, federal regulations implementing the JJDPA include a monitoring policy under which both accused status offenders and nonoffenders can be held in a secure detention facility for up to 24 hours prior to, and for an additional 24 hours after, an initial appearance in juvenile court. This monitoring policy opens opportunities for police officers to arrest and detain unaccompanied youth, even if those youth are not adjudicated delinquent and ultimately returned back to their families. For instance, police officers come into contact with unaccompanied youth either while on patrol or while investigating missing persons reports—often filed by an unaccompanied youth’s parents. In many cases, parents request that police officers find, arrest, and detain unaccompanied youth so that the youth can be brought home. Most states permit police officers to take unaccompanied youth into custody without a warrant, and return them to their parents or legal guardians against their wishes.

The second loophole involves subsequent amendments to the JJDPA that created an exception allowing states to detain youth who violate valid court orders (VCOs). This VCO exception applies to unaccompanied youth as follows: A juvenile court judge can issue an order prohibiting youth from engaging in behaviors associated with unaccompanied youth status (for example, running away, truancy, vagrancy, or violating curfew). When youth engage in those behaviors, a judge can send them to juvenile detention for violating the VCO. “Each year the VCO exception contributes to the [confinement] of thousands of” youth status offenders in secure detention facilities. Gaps in available data make it impossible to tell exactly how many of these youth are unaccompanied youth, although advocates have criticized the use of the

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335. For a general discussion of these four loopholes circumventing the JJDPA’s deinstitutionalization mandate, see Rayna Hardee Bomar, Note, The Incarceration of the Status Offender, 18 MEM. ST. U. L. REV. 713, 731–36 (1988) (discussing the four loopholes: relaxed monitoring standards, the valid court order exception, discretion in labelling offenders, and noncorrectional placements).
337. Morewitz, supra note 69, at 175.
338. See id.
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The third loophole involves how key actors in the juvenile justice system exercise their discretion when categorizing youth as status offenders or juvenile delinquents. Scholars have argued that in order to circumvent the JJDPA’s deinstitutionalization mandate, law enforcement and juvenile intake officers are more willing to label youth as delinquent offenders who they may have otherwise labeled status offenders.\(^{343}\) For instance, consider a teenager who takes $30 from her parents to buy a bus ticket and uses that bus ticket to run away from home. Under this loophole, law enforcement and juvenile intake officers would categorize the teenager as a delinquent offender (a “thief”) as opposed to a status offender (a “runaway”).

As a consequence of this relabeling process, unaccompanied youth are at greater risk of arrest and confinement. This is especially so given that with few or no legal means to survive, unaccompanied youth often turn to theft, survival sex, and other forms of crime to obtain money, food, and shelter.\(^{344}\) The next Subpart will explore these connections between unaccompanied youth status and criminality in more detail.\(^{345}\)

The fourth loophole is that the JJDPA only requires the deinstitutionalization of status offenders from secure detention or correctional facilities.\(^{346}\) It does not prohibit juvenile courts from referring youth to mental health institutions. Data after the JJDPA took effect shows that the number of youth status offenders referred voluntarily or involuntarily to mental health care facilities surged.\(^{347}\) Today, civil commitment

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\(^{342}\) For instance, in 2008, the American Bar Association (ABA) wrote a letter to the Committee on the Judiciary of the United States Senate to support legislation banning the confinement of youth status offenders in juvenile facilities. The ABA stressed that “runaway and homeless youth are also criminalized by the VCO exception.” Letter from Thomas M. Susman, Dir., Am. Bar Ass’n, to Patrick J. Leahy, Chairman, U.S. Senate Judiciary Comm., and Arlen Specter, Ranking Member, U.S. Senate Judiciary Comm. 3 (July 14, 2008), http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/events/aba-day/2008juvjusticeletter.authcheckdam.pdf.

\(^{343}\) Bomar, supra note 335, at 735 (“Some experts think that juvenile justice practitioners are, in fact, circumventing the intent of the Act by using their discretion to label as delinquent many youths who once would have been categorized as status offenders.”).

\(^{344}\) Hagan & McCarthy, supra note 22, at 89–90; Ferguson et al., supra note 231, at 101. Estimates of homeless and runaway youth who engage in survival sex range from 10 percent to 50 percent. See Dank et al., supra note 282, at 7.

\(^{345}\) See infra Part III.B.

\(^{346}\) 28 C.F.R. § 31.303(f)(2) (2017) defines a “secure detention or correctional facility” as “any secure public or private facility used for the lawful custody of accused or adjudicated juvenile offenders or nonoffenders, or used for the lawful custody of accused or convicted adult criminal offenders.”

\(^{347}\) Ira M. Schwartz, (In)Justice for Juveniles: Rethinking the Best Interests of the Child 131 (1989); Feld, supra note 316, at 700.
proceedings may intersect with juvenile status offense proceedings, ultimately resulting in the confinement of unaccompanied youth in psychiatric institutions and other mental health facilities. Although many unaccompanied youth have mental health challenges, not all of them have challenges that warrant institutionalization, and many others simply have nowhere else to go.

Beyond arrest and confinement, unaccompanied youth face other harsh sanctions for status offenses that relate to their family separation (for example, running away, being “ungovernable,” and violating curfew). Common sanctions include suspending driver’s licenses, imposing monetary fines, ordering youth to attend counseling or education programs, and placing youth in out-of-home placement programs (for example, group homes). As discussed later, these sanctions can interfere with unaccompanied youth’s employment and school attendance by restricting their mobility. Moreover, unaccompanied youth are at risk for future detention and criminal histories when they cannot afford to pay the fines imposed for status offenses, which further restricts their educational and employment opportunities.

Having sketched the ways in which family-centered public reordering in the juvenile justice system adopts a view of unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders, the analysis now turns to describe the ways in which this public reordering can adopt a different view of unaccompanied youth as crime victims.

349. Godsoe, supra note 318, at 1098 (noting that “[m]any children are removed from their homes for status offenses”—including running away and curfew violations—and placed into psychiatric hospitals, among other out-of-home placements).
350. GARY B. MELTON ET AL., NO PLACE TO GO: THE CIVIL COMMITMENT OF MINORS 82 (1998) (noting that commitment has served and will continue to serve as a public safety net to provide shelter for homeless youth and adults).
352. See infra Part III.B.
353. Beth A. Colgan, Reviving the Excessive Fines Clause, 102 CALIF. L. REV. 277, 290–94 (2014) (outlining the various collateral consequences for juvenile adjudicants who are unable to pay economic sanctions imposed on them); see also Mae C. Quinn, In Loco Juvenile Justice: Minors in Muns, Cash from Kids, and Adolescent Pro Se Advocacy—Ferguson and Beyond, 2015 B.Y.U. L. REV. 1247, 1292 (“The practical effect—unpaid fines, court fees, and then arrest warrants—is that such kids are passed over for jobs, turned away from housing, and civilly disabled in other ways as they try to become young adults.”).
2. Unaccompanied Youth as Crime Victims: Public Funding for Unaccompanied Youth Programs and Services

The second relevant type of public reordering in the juvenile justice system involves public funding for programs and services that target unaccompanied youth. As explained below, government funding for these programs and services is largely channeled through juvenile justice laws and is thus separated from the multibillion-dollar funding structure that child welfare laws set in place to support adoption, foster care, and guardianship. The analysis shows how this division results in significantly less public funding for programs and services that directly target unaccompanied youth than family-centered child welfare programs. It further shows how this division influences available programs and services to be oriented toward the immediate and short-term needs of unaccompanied youth so that they can get off the street before becoming victims of crime. This short-term outlook leaves the responsibility for the long-term needs of unaccompanied youth to family systems that may have already failed them, raising questions of whether those needs are ever met.

The Runaway and Homeless Youth Act (RHYA) is the primary public, and only federal, funding source for programs that target unaccompanied youth.\(^{354}\) Importantly, most states do not have laws that allocate funding for programs and services that address the particular needs of unaccompanied youth.\(^{355}\) Unlike the various financial incentives that child welfare laws create to support foster care and adoption, the RHYA includes no financial incentives for states to allocate funds for programs that target unaccompanied youth. Moreover, the private funding sources for these programs and services are limited.\(^{356}\) For these reasons, the RHYA has come to shape the philosophy, practice, and availability of programs and services that target unaccompanied youth in many localities.


The RHYA was originally entitled “The Runaway Youth Act,” and was enacted as part of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDPA) in 1974. As explained below, Congress enacted the law against the backdrop of several empirical, social, and cultural developments involving runaway youth. These developments provide meaningful context for how the law came to assume a crime-control focus.

In the 1960s and early 1970s, the number of reported runaways surged, which spawned critical conversations about the ability of law enforcement and the juvenile justice system to handle the growing problem. New data from the Federal Bureau of Investigation’s Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program was one development that contributed to these growing public concerns. The 1964 UCR report offered the first aggregate snapshot on the number of runaway youth, reporting 70,517 arrests for runaway activity that year. This figure increased to 149,052 arrests in 1968 and 204,544 arrests in 1971. Researchers at the time estimated that only one in six runaways were ever arrested, meaning that this data likely underestimated the true extent of the problem.

Increasing national press coverage surrounding runaways also inspired the Runaway Youth Act. In particular, media reports called attention to runaways who became victims of violent crime while living on the streets. The “Houston Mass Murders” were perhaps the most notorious example. In 1973 (only a year before Congress enacted the Runaway Youth Act), Houston police officers discovered the graves of 27

359. Moses, supra note 357, at 228.
360. Id. at 230.
361. The Federal Bureau of Investigation’s UCR Program began in 1930 and is one of the main sources of official crime data in the United States. LARRY J. SIEGEL & JOHN L. WORRALL, ESSENTIALS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE 31 (8th ed. 2012). The UCR is published every quarter, and is based on data reported from over 18,000 law enforcement agencies across the United States. FBI, Uniform Crime Reporting, https://ucr.fbi.gov (last visited Mar. 16, 2018).
362. See Moses, supra note 357, at 228–30.
363. Id. at 228.
364. Id.
365. Robert Shellow et al., Suburban Runaways of the 1960’s, 32 MONOGRAPHS SOC’Y FOR RES. CHILD DEV. 1, 22 (1967); see Moses, supra note 357, at 228.
366. Moses, supra note 357, at 231–32.
367. Id. at 232.
368. ALBERT R. ROBERTS, RUNAWAYS AND NON-RUNAWAYS IN AN AMERICAN SUBURB 5 (1981) (“The dangers of the runaway problem were gruesomely and emphatically brought to the attention of the entire nation by the mass murders in Houston which were uncovered in August, 1973.” (citation omitted)); Texan Said to Admit Role in 25 Killings, N.Y. TIMES, Aug. 10, 1973, at 1.
male youth, the youngest of which was 13 years old.\textsuperscript{369} The victims had likely been tortured to death, and many were runaway youth.\textsuperscript{370} The mass murders gained national media coverage because it was one of the worst serial killings in the United States up until that point.\textsuperscript{371} The murders inspired the Houston Police Department to issue a public statement on the number of estimated runaway youth in the area each year (approximately 5,000 youth at the time).\textsuperscript{372}

In light of these broader currents, the Runaway Youth Act of 1974 narrowly conceptualized unaccompanied youth as runaways, as the title of the law reflected.\textsuperscript{373} Congressional findings explicitly characterized runaway youth as leaving home without their parents’ permission,\textsuperscript{374} which overlooked unaccompanied youth who were forced out of their homes against their will.\textsuperscript{375} The findings also illustrated the law’s early focus on the criminal victimization of unaccompanied youth. For instance, the findings stated that the “alarming” increase in runaways “significantly endanger[ed]” youth who lacked resources to survive on their own and “creat[ed] a substantial law enforcement problem” for communities.\textsuperscript{376}

To address these concerns, the Runaway Youth Act created its first major funded program: the Basic Center Grant Program.\textsuperscript{377} Basic Centers are designed to address runaway youth’s immediate basic needs (shelter, food, etc.) for no more than 15 days so they can get off the streets and return to their families as soon as possible—conceivably before becoming victims of crime and in turn a community crime problem.\textsuperscript{378} Congress initially allocated $10 million to fund Basic Centers.\textsuperscript{379} Although this

\textsuperscript{369} Moses, supra note 357, at 232; Texan Said to Admit Role in 25 Killings, supra note 368, at 44.
\textsuperscript{370} Texan Said to Admit Role in 25 Killings, supra note 368, at 44.
\textsuperscript{371} David Hanna, Harvest of Horror: Mass Murder in Houston 33 (1975) (describing the Houston Mass Murders as “the worst in United States history”).
\textsuperscript{372} Roberts, supra note 368, at 5.
\textsuperscript{374} Id. § 302(1) (“[T]he number of juveniles who leave and remain away from home without parental permission has increased to alarming proportions . . . .”).
\textsuperscript{375} The legislative history to the 1977 amendments to the Runaway Youth Act supports this point. That history emphasizes how Congress intended for those amendments to clarify the law’s focus on youth “who have no home from which to run, the few who are so abused or neglected that leaving was a rational alternative, or those who leave home involuntarily.” S. Rep. No. 95–165, at 65 (1977) (Conf. Rep.), as reprinted in 1977 U.S.C.C.A.N. 2556, 2607.
\textsuperscript{376} Runaway Youth Act § 302, 88 Stat. at 1129–30.
\textsuperscript{378} See supra Part III.A.2.
\textsuperscript{379} Richard David Young, The Runaways, 3 Iustitia 35, 60–61 (1975).
amount is now just under $50 million,\textsuperscript{380} thousands of unaccompanied youth are still turned away from Basic Centers every year.\textsuperscript{381}

By design, Basic Centers were not (and still are not) intended to meet the long-term needs of runaway youth. The various ways in which the law placed primacy on family reunification\textsuperscript{382} lends support to the idea that Congress viewed families as responsible for runaway youth’s long-term care. For instance, to qualify for funding, a local agency had to develop adequate plans for contacting a runaway youth’s parents or relatives and for assuring the youth’s safe return according to his or her best interests.\textsuperscript{383} In addition, the law measured the success of Basic Centers in part by their effectiveness in strengthening family relationships, reuniting runaway youth with their families, and encouraging the resolution of intrafamily problems through counseling and other services.\textsuperscript{384} Critically, many of these provisions remain in the current version of the statute,\textsuperscript{385} illustrating the law’s emphasis on family reunification and the short-term outlook of Basic Centers today.

In 1977, Congress renamed the Runaway Youth Act to its current title, the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act.\textsuperscript{386} The new title reflected how Congress expanded the scope of the law to formally include homeless youth.\textsuperscript{387} Congress amended the RHYA again in 1988 to create its second federally funded program for unaccompanied youth: the Transitional Living Grant Program.\textsuperscript{388} This new program represented an important shift in federal youth homelessness policy in that Congress

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item \textsuperscript{380} Basic Center Program, Fam. & Youth Services Bureau 2 (2017), https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/fysb/bcp_facts_20170208.pdf (“In FY 2016, 291 grantees for the Basic Center Program received $48,369,00 [sic] total.”).
\item \textsuperscript{381} Nat’l Alliance to End Homelessness, FY 2016 Appropriations: Runaway and Homeless Youth Act 1 (2015), http://b.3cdn.net/naeh/cde1b8c909cc36f3ab_wgm6b5ob1.pdf.
\item \textsuperscript{382} Michael Glassman et al., The Problems and Barriers of RHYA as Social Policy, 32 Child. & Youth Services Rev. 798, 800 (2010) (noting that the focus of the RHYA was family reunification).
\item \textsuperscript{384} Id. § 315(1)–(3), 88 Stat. at 1131.
\item \textsuperscript{385} See, e.g., 34 U.S.C.A. § 5712(b)(3) (West 2017) (noting that providers “shall develop adequate plans for contacting the parents or other relatives of the youth and ensuring the safe return of the youth according to the best interests of the youth”); id. § 5712(b)(5) (noting that providers “shall develop an adequate plan for providing counseling and . . . for encouraging the involvement of their parents or legal guardians in counseling”).
\item \textsuperscript{387} Id.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
started to recognize the long-term needs of unaccompanied youth who could not reunite with their families. Congressional supporters stressed that the program was necessary because family reunification was not always a safe or a viable option for unaccompanied youth.\footnote{389}

The Transitional Living Grant Program allocates funds and provides technical assistance to both public and private nonprofit organizations to establish and run transitional living programs (TLPs).\footnote{390} TLPs were designed to offer long-term shelter (up to 18 months) for a maximum of 20 unaccompanied youth between the ages of 16 and 21 who cannot return home and who have “no other safe alternative living arrangement.”\footnote{391} Importantly, TLPs provide resources and skills outside of families to help unaccompanied youth transition to adulthood and achieve self-sufficiency (for example, through “services relating to basic life skills, interpersonal skill building, educational advancement, job attainment skills, mental and physical health care, parenting skills, financial planning, and referral to sources of other needed services”).\footnote{392}

In Part IV, I will discuss in more detail how TLPs are a promising alternative to help unaccompanied youth achieve self-reliance and self-actualization outside of families.\footnote{393} Here I want to briefly highlight that TLPs face several challenges that compromise their full potential. One major challenge is funding. The average annual cost to operate a TLP is more than three times the maximum available individual grant.\footnote{394} Moreover, the total amount of funding that the RHYA authorizes for TLPs is less than one percent of the over $7 billion that the federal government spends annually on family-focused child welfare programs (for instance, foster care, adoption, and guardianship assistance).\footnote{395} Every

\footnote{389. See, e.g., 134 CONG. REC. 13,077, 1988 WL 1091397 (daily ed. June 1, 1988) (statement of Rep. Leland) (“In an ideal world, adolescents live with their families until they reach adulthood and are able to venture out on their own. In the real world, however, this is not always the case. Many young people do not have access to a safe environment with relatives and have no alternative to life on the streets.”).}


\footnote{391. Anti-Drug Abuse Act § 7273, 102 Stat. at 4455–56.}


\footnote{393. See infra Part IV.}

\footnote{394. Chiamulera, supra note 354 (“[T]he cost to operate a . . . (TLP) is $600,000, but the maximum grant for a TLP [under the RHYA] is [only] $200,000.”).}

year, thousands of unaccompanied youth are unable to access TLPs due to lack of available space and funding.\textsuperscript{396}

In 1994, Congress further strengthened the RHYA’s focus on unaccompanied youth’s criminal victimization by creating its third and most recent program called the Street Outreach Program.\textsuperscript{397} This new program funds private nonprofit organizations to conduct street outreach and provide services to prevent and address unaccompanied youth’s sexual exploitation and abuse.\textsuperscript{398} Examples of services include “[s]treet-based education,” “[t]rauma-informed treatment and counseling,” “[p]revention and education activities,” “[i]nformation and referrals,” “[c]risis intervention,” and “[f]ollow-up support.”\textsuperscript{399} Initially, Congress authorized $7 million in federal funds to support the program, which has increased to over $15 million today.\textsuperscript{400} Nonetheless, this third program narrowly focuses on preventing and responding to unaccompanied youth’s sexual victimization.\textsuperscript{401} As a result, the program does little outside of the sexual victimization context to narrow the RHYA’s gap in addressing the long-term needs of unaccompanied youth to achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults.

In sum, public funding for programs and services that target unaccompanied youth are largely channeled through juvenile justice laws and concerned with preventing their criminal victimization. As a result, available programs and services are primarily geared toward addressing the immediate and short-term needs of unaccompanied youth so that they can get off the streets before becoming victims of crime.

B. Criticisms of Family-Centered Public Reordering in the Juvenile Justice System

Having sketched these two types of family-centered public reordering in the juvenile justice system—one which adopts a view of unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders and the other as crime victims—this Subpart draws on the unaccompanied LGBTQ youth context to advance two critiques. First, I argue that this public reordering

\textsuperscript{396} Fernandes-Alcantra, supra note 386, at 19 & tbl.1; Page, supra note 29, at 26–27 (“[M]any youth are routinely denied housing under the Transitional Living Program due to the lack of available housing.”).

\textsuperscript{397} The Street Outreach Program was first created under the Violence Against Women Act of 1994, which amended the Runaway and Homeless Youth Act to include the program. Violence Against Women Act of 1994, Pub. L. No. 103–322, § 40155, 108 Stat. 1903, 1922.


\textsuperscript{399} Id. at 2.

\textsuperscript{400} Violence Against Women Act § 40155, 108 Stat. at 22; Family & Youth Servs. Bureau, supra note 398, at 2.

\textsuperscript{401} See Family & Youth Servs. Bureau, supra note 398 (listing services of the Street Outreach Program).
incorrectly places the blame on unaccompanied youth for their living situations when they do not fit into family systems (whether biological, foster, or adoptive). Second, I contend that the short-term outlooks of programs and services that target unaccompanied youth leave them vulnerable to entering a destructive cycle of homelessness and involvement in the juvenile and criminal justice systems.

Before lodging these criticisms, it is important to underscore the significant overlap with involvement in the juvenile justice and the child welfare systems. Studies conclude that running away from foster care is a significant risk factor for entry into both the juvenile and criminal justice systems. These trends apply to both non-LGBTQ and LGBTQ youth. In the LGBTQ context, however, “leaving home as a result of family rejection is the greatest predictor of future involvement with the juvenile justice system.” LGBTQ youth are also more likely than non-LGBTQ youth to enter the juvenile justice system if they ran away from home or from a child welfare placement. Critically, LGBTQ youth are overrepresented among “‘dually involved’ or ‘crossover’ youth”—terms that describe youth in the juvenile justice system who have had prior or current involvement in the child welfare system.

Problems with the family-centered public reordering in the juvenile justice system are especially apparent when considering the different challenges that unaccompanied youth may face while living on their own. One set of challenges involves the range of victimization (sexual, physical, and verbal) that many unaccompanied youth face while living on the streets or in other unstable arrangements. On one hand, the funding conditions in juvenile justice laws result in the bulk of available programs and services that target unaccompanied youth to focus on these victimization concerns. On the other hand, many homeless youth do not report when they are victims of crime to the police. Distrust of authorities and fear of arrest, criminalization, and police mistreatment may deter

405. Irvine & Canfield, supra note 33, at 244.
406. Edidin et al., supra note 22, at 360–64.
407. See supra Part II.A.2.
408. NELL BERNSTEIN & LISA K. FOSTER, CAL. RESEARCH BUREAU, VOICES FROM THE STREET: A SURVEY OF HOMELESS YOUTH BY THEIR PEERS 5 (2008), http://www.issuelab.org/resources/11579/11579.pdf (reporting the results of one study involving a survey of 208 currently and formerly homeless youth in California that found that “[d]espite the reality that homeless youth are frequently the victims of crime while on the streets, not a single respondent described turning to police for help or reporting being victimized”).
unaccompanied youth from telling others, including law enforcement, when they are victims of crime.\textsuperscript{409}

Although all unaccompanied youth are at risk of victimization, research suggests that unaccompanied LGBTQ youth are at higher risk than are unaccompanied non-LGBTQ youth.\textsuperscript{410} The tense historical relationship between law enforcement and LGBTQ communities, as well as the negative treatment of LGBTQ identity under the criminal law,\textsuperscript{411} adds another dimension to why unaccompanied LGBTQ youth may fear reporting when they are victims of crime to others, including law enforcement. Thus, for both LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ youth, juvenile justice responses that facilitate the criminalization of unaccompanied youth may undercut the effectiveness of other juvenile justice responses that are intended to address their victimization.

Another set of challenges involves legal restrictions that, while generally appropriate, make it difficult for unaccompanied youth to meet their basic human needs. For instance, minors cannot legally enter into valid contracts in most states, making it impossible for unaccompanied youth to sign residential leases to obtain shelter.\textsuperscript{412} Child labor laws also preclude most unaccompanied youth from relying on the formal labor market to make ends meet.\textsuperscript{413} These problems are exacerbated by the fact that many unaccompanied youth struggle in school (or drop out or fail out),\textsuperscript{414} which further restricts their job prospects. In approximately one-third of the states, there is no explicit statutory process available for unaccompanied youth to become emancipated from their parents.\textsuperscript{415} Financial and procedural barriers also make it difficult for unaccompanied

\textsuperscript{409.} Cray et al., \textit{supra} note 29, at 14 (“In one survey, half of the youth surveyed were afraid to access services because they were uncertain whether they would be turned over to the police, their parents, or to child and family services if they attempted to get help . . . .”); \textit{id.} at 15 (“LGBT youth also experience more frequent, and sometimes more hostile encounters with police, potentially fueling distrust of authorities who are supposed to help them”); Nusrat Ventimiglia, \textit{LGBT Selective Victimization: Unprotected Youth on the Streets}, 13 J.L. & Soc’y 439, 449–50 (2012) (discussing that LGBT homeless youth may not report being victims of crime for reasons that include “fear of prosecution, retaliation, and finally fear of outright victimization”).


\textsuperscript{412.} Nat’l Law Ctr. on Homelessness & Poverty, \textit{supra} note 339, at 119 (listing legal restrictions on minors to enter into contracts).

\textsuperscript{413.} See Armaline, \textit{supra} note 80, at 1, 4.


\textsuperscript{415.} Nat’l Law Ctr. on Homelessness & Poverty, \textit{supra} note 339, at 10.
youth to obtain emancipation in states where the process is at least conceivably available.416

To reiterate, loopholes in the JJDPA facilitate the arrest and confinement of unaccompanied youth for various status offenses that relate to them separating from or disobeying their families (for example, running away, being “ungovernable,” and violating curfew).417 Beyond these status offenses, unaccompanied youth (both LGBTQ and nonLGBTQ) with few or no legal means to survive turn to survival sex, theft, and other forms of criminality to obtain money, food, and shelter.418 Many also use drugs and other illegal substances in order to cope with their harsh living conditions.419 Therefore, what begins as a status offense can quickly turn into a serious criminal offense.

As discussed previously, unaccompanied youth are potentially subject to a broad array of sanctions for status offenses and survival crimes. Beyond arrest and confinement, possible sanctions include suspending an unaccompanied youth’s driver’s license, imposing monetary fines, ordering youth to attend counseling or education programs, and placing youth in out-of-home placement facilities (for example, group homes).420 In restricting their mobility and means of travel, these sanctions can interfere with unaccompanied youth’s work and school. Moreover, when unaccompanied youth cannot afford to pay imposed fines, they are at risk for future detention or criminal records that further restrict their educational and employment opportunities.421

In addition, unaccompanied youth are the invisible victims of an expanding set of legal measures that criminalize homelessness generally.422 An increasing number of municipalities have passed ordinances that prohibit activities that are necessary for homeless people to survive.423 These “quality of life” offenses include prohibitions on camping, sleeping, and begging in public; loitering; loafing; vagrancy; sitting or lying down in public; living in vehicles; food sharing; and storing personal belongings in public.424 It is almost impossible for unaccompanied youth who live on their own and have no place to go to avoid violating these ordinances.

416. Id. at 105.
417. See supra Part III.A.1.ii.
418. HAGAN & MCCARTHY, supra note 22, at 89–90; Ferguson et al., supra note 231, at 101.
419. Hyde, supra note 42, at 181.
420. See generally Coal. for Juvenile Justice, supra note 341 (providing a national survey of status offenses and penalties attached to them).
421. Colgan, supra note 353, at 292; see also Quinn, supra note 353, at 1300–02.
422. See NAT’L LAW CTR. ON HOMELESSNESS & POVERTY, supra note 339, at 7; Alexandra Natapoff, Gideon’s Servants and the Criminalization of Poverty, 12 OHIO ST. J. CRIM. L. 445, 446 (2015).
423. NAT’L LAW CTR. ON HOMELESSNESS & POVERTY, supra note 339, at 7.
424. Id.
These criminalization measures facilitate unaccompanied youth's interactions with law enforcement, which contribute to their sense of hypervigilance and perception of danger on the streets. Homeless LGBTQ youth (and in particular homeless LGBTQ youth of color) commonly experience illegitimate practices of police profiling, “indiscriminate stops and searches . . . and arrests for ‘quality of life’ offenses.” These negative experiences of police profiling, however, are by no means specific to the LGBTQ context. Unaccompanied youth generally—and unaccompanied youth of color in particular—commonly experience negative interactions with the police, including police profiling.

These different criminalization measures are major sources of instability for unaccompanied youth. For instance, one study found that a majority of homeless youth participants had been ticketed for quality-of-life offenses, and that most of those youth did not pay the tickets because they could not afford to. Warrants issued and subsequent convictions for inability to pay then led to restrictions on driver’s licenses, employment, and the ability to secure housing—all obstacles that make it more difficult for unaccompanied youth to get off the streets or out of other unstable living arrangements.

After being funneled into the juvenile justice system, however, the challenges that unaccompanied LGBTQ youth specifically face may continue. Similar to professionals and staff in the child welfare system, many professionals and staff in the juvenile justice system lack the cultural competence to handle LGBTQ youth fairly and appropriately. Some professionals and staff do not have a basic understanding of sexual orientation or gender identity concepts. Others equate LGBTQ identities, same-sex sexual conduct, and gender nonconforming behavior with deviance or mental illness. Juvenile detention facilities might also lack

425. Bernstein & Foster, supra note 408, at 53.
426. Wilber, supra note 410, at 11; see also Dank et al., supra note 282, at 32; Majd et al., supra note 33, at 61.
429. Id. at 57.
430. Id.
431. Wilber, supra note 410, at 12.
433. Id.; Shannan Wilber et al., CWLA Best Practice Guidelines 30–31 (2006), http://www.f2f.ca.gov/res/2798_BP_LGBTQ.pdf (noting that practices in the child welfare and juvenile justice systems that pathologize, punish, or criminalize LGBT youth for appropriately exploring or expressing their sexual orientations and gender identities sends the message to those youth that they are “deviant, immoral, or
mental health and other services with professionals that are aware of
the hardships that LGBTQ juvenile justice-involved youth commonly
—such as homelessness, family rejection, and school bullying.

While in secure detention, LGBTQ youth (whether unaccomp-
panied or not) are at an increased risk for verbal, physical, and sexual
abuse than are nonLGBTQ youth. For instance, recent data from the
National Survey of Youth in Custody conducted by the U.S. Bureau of
Justice Statistics reported that nonheterosexual youth were almost seven
times more likely to suffer sexual assault by another youth than were
heterosexual youth (10.3 percent versus 1.5 percent). Nonheterosexual
youth also reported higher rates of sexual victimization by both youth
and staff (14.3 percent versus 8.9 percent). Studies have also found that
custodial staff often ignore, minimize, and even perpetuate these differ-
ent forms of abuse and mistreatment.

How LGBTQ youth are classified and housed while in juvenile cus-
tody is an additional source of stigma and harm. Many juvenile detention
facilities house transgender youth according to their birth sex, which
discourts their gender identity and increases risks for victimization. In
addition, LGBTQ youth (and transgender youth in particular) are more
likely to be placed in solitary confinement for their alleged protection.

Such isolation greatly increases risks for psychological harm, self-mutila-
tion, and suicide—especially for adolescents who are still in the midst
of psychological development.
Many youth who are released from juvenile custody “do not have a stable home to return to,” putting them at risk for homelessness where they are at risk for arrest and criminalization again. To the extent that unaccompanied youth were attending school or had jobs before confinement, juvenile detention interrupts that schooling and employment. Youth who are released from juvenile detention and find themselves homeless or living on their own in other unstable arrangements have difficulties finding employment or community programs to help them reenter society. Thus, the destructive cycle of homelessness and involvement in the juvenile and criminal justice systems continues.

This destructive cycle reveals the limits of family-centered government responses to unaccompanied youth. As discussed in the analysis to follow, this cycle illustrates a need for a paradigm shift in how public systems—and in particular, the child welfare and the juvenile justice systems—respond to unaccompanied youth.

IV. IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This Part discusses the broader implications of my critical analysis and preliminary insights for reform.

To recap, my analysis shows that family-centered responses to unaccompanied youth in the child welfare and juvenile justice systems rest on shifting and inconsistent views of unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders and as crime victims. At first, consistent with structural theories, child welfare responses recognize unaccompanied youth as victims of negative family circumstances and attempt to improve their family environments—whether by fixing the relationship with their biological families or by providing substitute families through foster care or adoption. When those family-centered child welfare approaches appear to not be working, the government resorts to arrest and criminalization in order to pressure unaccompanied youth to stay within family systems (whether biological, foster, or adoptive), and punish them when they do not. In

social, and developmental harms of youth in solitary confinement).


this regard, the government abandons the victimization mindset to treat unaccompanied youth as delinquent offenders who threaten public order and security. Consistent with deficient-agency theories, these punitive measures ultimately place the blame on unaccompanied youth for their family separation and inadequate living situations.

These shifting constructions reflect how current child welfare and juvenile justice responses to unaccompanied youth rest on oversimplified narratives of unaccompanied youth both as victims and as offenders. These shifting constructions neglect how unaccompanied youth's multiple layers of victimization—and in particular their prior victimization within families—can undermine the effectiveness of family-centered responses to their situations. The stakes are high for late-adolescent youth who will soon emancipate (or “age out”) from the child welfare system upon reaching adulthood.

Nonetheless, in the absence of a robust nonfamily-centered approach, government responses continue to ignore the complexities of the victimization experiences of unaccompanied youth, and further stigmatize and harm them through child welfare exclusion and criminalization. Critically, these punitive measures embrace a negative conception of unaccompanied youth’s agency and autonomy in order to preserve the centrality of family systems in law and policy responses to their situations. The previously evaluated experiences of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth reveal the acute problems of this approach.

Accordingly, there is a need for a paradigm shift in child welfare law and policy, and relatedly juvenile justice law and policy, that moves away from this negative conception of youth agency and autonomy toward a more positive view. Future theorization and research are necessary to work out the details of a child welfare regime that is organized around a more comprehensive positive agency model. 448. In terms of overarching principles, however, this new vision of child welfare would be more pluralistic and broaden the orientation of the child welfare system beyond family-centered approaches. It would also reconstitute the agency and autonomy of unaccompanied youth in an empowering way. Put differently, the system would place less exclusive emphasis on family-centered permanency goals, and invest significantly more in programs that provide unaccompanied youth with support systems, skills, and resources outside of family systems to achieve self-reliance and self-actualization as adults. Unlike the current regime, the government would acknowledge that family-centered approaches do not work for many vulnerable youth, and

448. In future work, I intend on pursuing this inquiry. To be clear, however, I am not rooting positive conceptions of youth agency and autonomy in a rights-based approach. Clare Huntington has discussed the limitations of a rights-based framing of children’s interests and needs, and called attention to the ways in which this framing underserves both children and parents. See, e.g., Huntington, supra note 103.
soften its reliance on criminalization measures when those approaches cannot meet their needs.

Some other important questions to consider are when should youth have access to a nonfamily-centered program, and who should decide whether they should have access. My preliminary intuition is that youth should not be required to suffer the harms of multiple failed foster family or group home placements in order to enter such programs. Moreover, youth should have a say in whether they prefer either nonfamily-centered programs or family-centered approaches. The specific details of a youth’s situation might determine how much say a youth should have, and whether that say should be prioritized above any relevant countervailing rights of family members or interests of the state. At the same time, the experiences of unaccompanied LGBTQ youth illustrate that in some situations, the stakes for youth agency are too high to force them to go back to their own families or enter substitute families that may mistreat or exclude them for reasons that are so central to their core identity, such as sexual orientation or gender identity. In these situations, I would argue that positive agency principles should override any (or at the very least most) countervailing considerations, and allow youth to enter nonfamily-centered programs if they prefer.

There might already be support for this position in new mandates surrounding the treatment of LGBTQ youth in the Illinois child welfare system. In June 2017, Illinois adopted statewide agency policies that impose obligations on foster care providers, caseworkers, staff, and foster parents to provide “LGBTQ-affirming” services to LGBTQ youth and children. The policies impose a range of affirmative duties on these key actors, including: (1) requiring that all LGBTQ youth and children be placed in affirming safe housing and receive adequate medical and mental health services; (2) requiring all staff, providers, and foster parents to treat LGBTQ youth and children in an affirming manner and to proactively work to create respectful space for them; and (3) requiring LGBTQ competency training for all staff, providers, and foster parents, including the challenges that LGBTQ youth and children commonly face in the child welfare system. In addition, the Illinois policies acknowledge that the child welfare system has a major role in recognizing and supporting a LGBTQ youth or child’s self-determination in developing and expressing their sexual orientations and gender identities. Critically, the policies stress that LGBTQ youth and children’s perceptions of where they would feel safest should guide placement decisions.

450. Id. at app. A.
451. Id. at app. E.
452. Id. at app. H.
Another relevant question is how to best execute a paradigm shift in child welfare law and policy toward positive agency principles. One potential approach is to significantly increase investment in TLPs. As explained previously, TLPs house up to twenty youth and are designed to provide unaccompanied youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two long-term shelter and life skills outside of families to help them achieve self-reliance as adults. TLPs typically provide housing in supervised settings, but some programs offer unsupervised housing for youth residents who are closer to achieving self-sufficiency.

Although the RHYA authorizes funding for TLPs, these programs have faced, and continue to face, several obstacles. In recent years the federal TLP program has only been able to serve between 3,300 and 4,400 youth annually. Official statistics report that more youth are turned away at TLPs every year than are served.

Funding is one major obstacle. Currently, the amount of annual federal funding allocated to the TLP amounts to less than one percent of the $7 billion that the federal government spends each year on family-focused child welfare programs (for example, foster care, adoption, and guardianship). In spite of the high demand for TLPs, the maximum available grant award under the RHYA covers only one-third of the average cost to operate a TLP.

The currently lopsided funding scheme leaves several states with only one federally funded TLP, which could be the only TLP in the entire state. The location of TLPs is also clustered in urban and suburban areas, making it difficult for unaccompanied youth in rural areas to access these programs. One recent cross-sectional study of federally funded TLPs found that 66.9 percent of programs were located in urban areas, 31.5 percent were in suburban areas, and only 1.6 percent were located

454. JARVIS & ROBERTSON, supra note 289, at 12–15 (describing the different physical settings for transitional living programs).
455. FERNANDES-ALCANTARA, supra note 386, at 19.
456. Id. at 19 & tbl.1 (reporting that between fiscal years 2007 and 2013, between 4,466 and 6,720 youth were rejected from TLPs each year).
457. CONG. BUDGET OFFICE, supra note 395, at 1 (detailing expenses for foster care, adoption assistance, and guardianship in FY 2017 that total $7,541 billion); FAMILY & YOUTH SERVS. BUREAU, supra note 392, at 2 (noting that in federal year 2014, 200 grantees received a total of $43.6 million in TLP grants).
458. Glassman et al., supra note 382, at 802.
459. Chiamulera, supra note 354, at 46 (“[T]he maximum grant under the RHYA is $200,000.”).
in rural areas.\textsuperscript{461} As noted previously, most states do not have laws that specifically allocate funding for services or programs that serve homeless and runaway youth.\textsuperscript{462} Unlike the various financial incentives that child welfare laws set into place to support foster care and adoption, the RHYA lacks financial incentives for states to allocate funds for programs that target unaccompanied youth.

Moreover, many TLPs are restricted to youth who are 18 or older\textsuperscript{463} and thus exclude late-adolescent unaccompanied youth. These exclusions arise from state prohibitions against housing programs that place individuals under the age of 18 in the same structures as individuals over the age of 18.\textsuperscript{464} In many states, housing contracts entered into by minors are also legally unenforceable.\textsuperscript{465}

Granted, more research is necessary to determine how many and to what extent unaccompanied youth would benefit from TLPs if they had access. Although there is a need for more empirical research on their outcomes and predictors of success, existing studies illustrate the promise of TLPs.\textsuperscript{466} For instance, Casey Holtschneider’s recent study analyzed the outcomes of 32 youth who previously resided at a TLP in Chicago at some point between the years of 2003 and 2013.\textsuperscript{467} Importantly, 97 percent of the youth participants identified as youth of color and 34 percent identified as lesbian, gay, or bisexual.\textsuperscript{468} The study found that the TLP had a significant and a positive overall impact on youth participants’ lives.\textsuperscript{469} When asked about the benefits of the TLP, one of the most commonly identified benefits was the bonds they formed with other staff and youth residents.\textsuperscript{470} Many of those relationships persisted years after the youth left the TLP, and several youth responded that they turned to one another for support when they faced challenges after leaving the TLP.\textsuperscript{471}


\textsuperscript{462} See Nat’l Network for Youth, supra note 355, at 1–24.

\textsuperscript{463} Glassman et al., supra note 382, at 802 (“[F]or a number of [TLP] programs the actual age range is 18 to 21.”).

\textsuperscript{464} Id.

\textsuperscript{465} Nat’l Law Ctr. on Homelessness & Poverty, supra note 339, at 10; Glassman et al., supra note 382, at 802.

\textsuperscript{466} Glassman et al., supra note 382, at 802 (noting that the structure of TLPs has “the greatest chance for success” for dealing with youth who spend a significant amount of time on the streets because the programs are “geared toward[] independent, responsible living”).

\textsuperscript{467} Holtschneider, supra note 23, at 206. The study was conducted in 2014 to ensure that participants had exited the TLP for at least one year. \textit{Id}.

\textsuperscript{468} Holtschneider, supra note 23, at 206. One male-identified participant also identified as transgender. \textit{Id}.

\textsuperscript{469} Holtschneider, supra note 27, at 162.

\textsuperscript{470} Id. at 163–64.

\textsuperscript{471} Id. at 164.
As discussed previously, many unaccompanied youth are hesitant to seek help from emergency shelters or child welfare services because they fear that their autonomy and independence will be stripped away.\textsuperscript{472} Lending support to the promise of nonfamily-centered models, an overwhelming majority of the youth participants in Holtschneider’s study “discussed the role of the [TLP] in their journey of personal development.”\textsuperscript{473} For instance, youth described how the TLP strengthened their empathy by helping them understand the struggles of others in relation to their own circumstances.\textsuperscript{474} Youth also explained that the TLP influenced them to change their values and priorities in a productive way, including having less motivation to engage in criminal activity (such as theft and substance abuse) and more motivation to attend school and to make new friends who were positive influences.\textsuperscript{475} Moreover, youth participants described connections between the TLP and self-actualization. Many youth stressed that the TLP helped them move closer to the person that they wanted to, and knew they could, be.\textsuperscript{476}

Notably, many of these benefits were the result of unaccompanied youth being able to share their experiences with one another in a supportive and a collective living environment. Unaccompanied youth cannot build off of one another in the same way when they are placed into separate foster families, adoptive families, or juvenile detention facilities. Holtschneider’s study also found that many youth “described a sense of home and family while [living] in the TLP.”\textsuperscript{477} This is consistent with a prior 2013 study of a different TLP, which found that youth gained a sense of belonging and referred to other residents as “family.”\textsuperscript{478} Critically, however, many youth participants in that 2013 study also expressed that they were “not looking for new ‘parents.’”\textsuperscript{479}

Therefore, the limited research available on TLPs lends support to the idea that many unaccompanied youth welcome and need systems of support, but they are hesitant to seek programs or services modeled on the traditional parent-child relationship. Put another way, many of these youth seek networks and forms of support that look different from what is currently offered under family-centered child welfare models. This disjoint underscores a need for greater investment in alternative nonfamily-centered approaches that meet unaccompanied youth where they actually are as opposed to where society thinks they should be based on idealized notions of the “family.”

\textsuperscript{472} See supra Part I.B.1.
\textsuperscript{473} Holtschneider, supra note 27, at 165.
\textsuperscript{474} Id.
\textsuperscript{475} Id. at 165–66.
\textsuperscript{476} Id. at 166.
\textsuperscript{477} Id.
\textsuperscript{478} See Schweitzer et al., supra note 226, at 13.
\textsuperscript{479} Id.
Despite these potential benefits, it is important to acknowledge that the limited available research on TLPs has also called attention to various challenges that youth face after leaving TLP. For instance, Holtschneider’s study found that one-third of the youth participants were not living in stable housing at the time of the study\textsuperscript{480} and that most of the other two-thirds living in stable housing had experienced an unstable living situation since leaving the TLP.\textsuperscript{481} Moreover, many youth participants reported financial stress after leaving the TLP, including struggling to find employment and earning low wages.\textsuperscript{482} In spite of these challenges, most youth participants still reported being “overwhelmingly grateful for the support they received in the TLP” and expressed wishes for other unaccompanied youth to benefit from the same experience that they had received.\textsuperscript{483} Many of the youth participants credited the TLP with saving their lives.\textsuperscript{484}

Therefore, there is much room for improving how TLPs operate. Child welfare researchers and social workers have brainstormed some potential ideas. One idea they have discussed is enhancing aftercare support for former TLP residents and reevaluating the role of TLP staff to be a guide both during and after residents are housed in TLPs.\textsuperscript{485} Moreover, researchers and social workers have stressed the importance of not losing sight of the fact that many challenges that TLP residents face after leaving the programs are connected to broader structural problems of poverty, discrimination, unemployment, and lack of affordable housing that no single TLP can solve on its own.\textsuperscript{486} Those structural problems require a more comprehensive set of law and policy interventions.

**Conclusion**

This Article has demonstrated that the experiences of unaccompanied youth—and unaccompanied LGBTQ youth in particular—show a need for a new vision of child welfare with a different set of underlying values and assumptions. Unlike the existing regime, a new public reordering must recognize that family systems (especially those based on the traditional model of the nuclear family) do not serve the needs of all youth who need or seek help from the state, and that vulnerable youth should not be punished when family-centered responses cannot address their situations. Many questions about how to best execute this

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{480} Holtschneider, *supra* note 27, at 162. As explained *supra* note 467, the study was conducted in 2014 to ensure that participants had exited the TLP for at least one year. Holtschneider, *supra* note 23, at 206.
\item \textsuperscript{481} See Holtschneider, *supra* note 27, at 162.
\item \textsuperscript{482} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{483} Id. at 165.
\item \textsuperscript{484} Id. at 162–63.
\item \textsuperscript{485} Id. at 168.
\item \textsuperscript{486} Id. at 167.
\end{itemize}
paradigm shift remain to be explored, and future research is necessary to provide the answers. This Article, however, made the important first step by revealing the problems of family-centered law and policy interventions as a wholesale approach to meet the needs of unaccompanied youth, particularly in late-adolescence. Moving away from this approach could be the difference between whether youth follow Jack’s path, and find a supportive living environment and finish college in spite of experiencing family rejection for being LGBTQ, or Tracey’s path, and live on the streets and engage in sex work to survive.  

487. See *Success Stories*, supra note 1.  
488. See *Mallon*, supra note 8, at 111.