

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Andridia Victoria Mapson entitled “How Factors Related to Social Control Might Contribute to Juvenile Delinquency Among African American and Caucasian Females”. I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Social Work.

John S. Wodarski
Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

William R. Nugent

Jenny Jones

Lois Presser

Accepted for the Council:

Anne Mayhew
Vice Chancellor and Dean of
Graduate Studies

(Original signatures are on file with official student records)

**HOW FACTORS RELATED TO SOCIAL CONTROL MIGHT CONTRIBUTE
TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AMONG AFRICAN AMERICAN AND
CAUCASIAN FEMALES**

A Dissertation Presented for
The Doctor of Philosophy Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Andridia V. Mapson

August 2006

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Josephine Mapson, my role model and the greatest inspiration of my life. I could not have done this without your unconditional love and support throughout my educational and professional endeavors, even when we were thousands of miles apart. There were no restrictions on what I could accomplish. You gave me the gift of limitless possibilities.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I want to thank God first and foremost. The journey to obtaining my Ph.D. was bittersweet and challenging. I was faced with many obstacles but was able to overcome them. I wish to thank all of those who helped me complete my Doctoral Degree in Social Work. First and foremost, I would like to thank my chair, Dr. John Wodarski, who saved me when things were falling apart all around me. He helped ease my transition from stage to stage of the dissertation process. I would like to thank Dr. Lois Presser for her guidance and extraordinary effort in helping me through the research and writing process for this dissertation. She provided me with the course that came to be the formulation for this project. I would also like to thank Dr. William Nugent for sitting on my committee and providing me with statistical assistance. I would not be where I am today if it wasn't for the urging of my thesis advisor Dr. Sarita Davis. She made research seem conquerable and pushed me to achieve the unimaginable. Lastly, I would like to thank Dr. Jenny Jones who has been my mentor since my graduate studies and from whom I have learned invaluable lessons. Jenny has been involved since the beginning of this dissertation process and provided constructive feedback. She has an uncanny ability to make anything seem obtainable. Just when I thought running was the best I could do, Jenny taught me to fly.

Family has always been the most important thing to me. To my mother, whose support I needed the most, kept me going when I wanted to stop. My Aunt and Uncle, Gloria and James Wood who helped me move to Knoxville, TN and gave me a place to escape to whenever I needed it.

Within my circle of friends, there are so many people who have helped me maintain my sanity. My partner in crime/classmate, Shakira Kennedy, who knows the trials and tribulations I went through and who endured this journey with me. My classmate John Miller, who is like a brother to me, gave me a shoulder to lean on. We made history! There is no one else whom I would have wanted to go to battle with. Ilka Franklin and Michele Weber who never failed to lift my spirits and make me laugh. You two are the best! I looked forward to our trips every year so I could debrief. My best friend Raphael Holloway, who put up with my constant dramatics. I don't know where I would be without your many interventions. Dempsey Johnson rounds off this bunch of friends. He believed in me when I didn't even believe in myself at times. He always had time to listen to me no matter what time of night and I appreciate that.

To my new found friends, Eric Keyes, Binta Alleyne, Requia Gray, Sukenya Best, and Shantel Agnew. Our times together were very therapeutic. You helped make Knoxville feel like a home away from home.

A special thank you goes to Dr. Stan Bowie and the NABSW UT Chapter. He always supports students and goes to bat for us. He truly is a model of the type of professor I strive to be. "I'll Find a Way or Make One" is the motto we live by.

ABSTRACT

This study examined how social control factors might contribute to delinquent behavior (status and criminal offenses) among African American and Caucasian females using Hirschi's 1969 model of social control. Secondary data was used from the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN). Data were used for African American and Caucasian girls from Wave I, resulting in a sample of 837. The results indicated that the social control variables did not decrease status offenses with the exception of involvement, which had a negative statistically significant relationship. There were no differences among the races. When looking at criminal offenses, results indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship for attachment and commitment, but not in the predicted direction. Involvement and belief were the only statistically significant variables and they were in the predicted negative direction. An interaction was detected between race-by-belief, race-by-involvement, and race-by-commitment, but only race-by-involvement was in the predicted direction. Further research is needed testing this model.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1: The Study	1
Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Study	5
Objectives	5
Summary	7
Chapter II: Literature Review.....	9
Introduction.....	9
Review Process	9
Female Delinquency: Historical Background.....	10
Girl Delinquency.....	13
Variations Along Race Lines.....	17
Race and Social Bonds.....	21
Hirschi's Model of Social Control.....	23
Summary	28
Chapter III: Methodology	30
Introduction.....	30
Data	30
Measurement.....	34
Research Questions and Hypothesis	39
Chapter IV: Results	45
Data Analyses	45
Regression Analyses	50
Summary	57
Chapter V: Discussion	61
Introduction.....	61
Discussion.....	61
Suggested Future Research	65
REFERENCES.....	66
APPENDICES.....	78
APPENDIX A: Tables	79
APPENDIX B: Scales.....	80
APPENDIX C: Excluded Measures.....	89
VITA.....	97

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Percent Change in Juvenile Arrests 1992 to 2001, Female and Male	3
Table 2: Chart of Variables.....	44
Table 3: Correlations between Independent Variables and the Square Root Transformed Number of Status Offenses	48
Table 4: Correlations between Independent Variables and the Square Root Transformed Number of Criminal Offenses.....	49
Table 5: Dependent Variable Cube Root of Status Offenses.....	52
Table 6: Dependent Variable Cube Root of Criminal Offenses	56
Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Sample Characteristics	79

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Chart of Social Control Questions.....	40
Figure 2: Social Control Variables Histogram with Status Offenses	53
Figure 3: Social Control Variables Normal P-Plot with Status Offenses	54
Figure 4: Social Control Variables Scatterplot with Status Offenses	55
Figure 5: Social Control Variables Histogram with Criminal Offenses	58
Figure 6: Social Control Variables Normal P-Plot with Criminal Offenses.....	59
Figure 7: Social Control Variables Scatterplot with Criminal Offenses.....	60

CHAPTER 1: THE STUDY

Introduction

During the last two decades, the number of females involved in the juvenile justice system has increased significantly, and according to research, females are involved in more violent crimes than they were a decade ago (Chesney-Lind and Shelden, 2004).

Like males, females can find their way into the juvenile court system through either criminal (i.e., rape, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, and homicide) or status offenses (i.e., neglect, abuse, truancy, uncontrollability, and destitution) (Carlen, 1993). It is important to note the distinction between criminal and status offenses. Criminal offenses are those offenses that are considered crimes if committed by adolescents or adults. Status offenses are delinquent acts that are not considered crimes if committed by adults (Calhoun, Jurgens, & Chen, 1993).

It is apparent that status offenses play an important role in the character of females' delinquency and their initial involvement in the juvenile court system (Chesney-Lind, 1989; Krisberg, 1992). They make up most of the arrest cases for female delinquents; however, an increasing number of females are committing more severe crimes, such as assault, robbery, drug trafficking, and gang activity (Calhoun, Jurgens, and Chen, 1993).

Statistics show increases in female juvenile delinquency from the late 1980s to the beginning of the 21st century. The number of delinquency cases involving females rose 83% between 1988 and 1997, compared to a rise of 39% for males (Sickmund, 2000).

The growth in cases involving females out-paced the growth in cases involving males for all offense categories (Sickmund, 2000). The Department of Justice (1996) revealed that between 1989 and 1993, the number of juvenile court cases involving females with delinquency offenses increased by 31%, while the number of cases involving males increased by 21%. But according to the same report, males tend to dominate in arrest statistics overall. From 1992 to 2001, female juvenile arrests increased more (or decreased less) than male arrests in most of the offense categories, with the largest increases for assault. The percent change in juvenile arrests is presented in Table 1.

According to Table 1, the largest percentage change in juvenile arrests from 1992 to 2001 was for drug abuse violations, in which female juvenile rates increased 201% while male juvenile rates increased 110%, followed by simple assault where female rates increased 66% and male rates increased 18%. Female juveniles' rates increased 57% while male juveniles increased 26% for curfew and loitering, 38% increase for liquor law violations for females and 14% increase for males. For aggravated assault, female juveniles increased 24% while male juveniles decreased 21%.

"While there is some controversy over whether these increases reflect changes in law enforcement and prosecutorial practices or whether they represent a dramatic upsurge in girls' delinquent behavior, the numbers alone demand attention" (Acoca, 1998, p. 562). Further, numerous studies have shown that status offenders escalate in their criminal behavior and recidivism rates suggest that these status offenders continuously cycle through the system (Acoca, 1998). A dearth of research exists in the comparison of African Americans to their Caucasian female counterparts. But even less is known about

Table 1: Percent Change in Juvenile Arrests 1992 to 2001, Female and Male

Most Serious Offense	Female	Male
Robbery	-29%	-32%
Aggravated assault	24	-21
Burglary	-22	-42
Larceny-theft	-3	-37
Motor vehicle theft	-34	-54
Simple assault	66	18
Vandalism	7	-32
Weapons	-8	-37
Drug abuse violations	201	110
Liquor law violations	38	14
Curfew and loitering	57	26
Runaways	-21	-29

Data Source: Crime in the United States, 2001, table 33.

the differences in their offending patterns. Male delinquents, as opposed to females, have traditionally captured the interest of professionals (Archwamety & Katsiyannis, 1998). This could be the result of females being seen as harmless and less of a threat to society than males.

In 1969 Hirschi created a model to possibly explain why adolescents engage in delinquent behaviors. This model consisted of four elements (attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief) to explain what prevents rather than what predicts an adolescent from being delinquent. In his research, he collected data on both male and females but only reported findings on males. It is possible that Hirschi did not report his findings because his theory was not relevant to females. His theory will be tested to determine it's applicability to females and if it also explains the increase in female delinquency. This theory is discussed further below.

Theory

Hirschi's (1969) model of social control asserts that delinquent acts result when an individual's bond to society is weakened or broken. According to Hirschi (1969), there are four elements of that bond: attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief.

Attachment refers to the psychological and emotional connection one feels towards other persons or groups and the extent to which one cares about their opinions and feelings.

The closer one is to someone, the more he or she cares about his or her expectations.

Commitment is the result of a cost-benefit approach to delinquency. It refers to the investments accumulated by conforming to conventional rules (i.e., money, status, time) versus estimated costs, or losses, of investments that are associated with nonconformity (Hirschi, 1969). The cost of losing one's investment in conformity prevents him/her from norm violations.

Involvement refers to participation in conventional and legitimate activities. In school, for example, it would include extracurricular activities such as clubs, organizations, and athletic events. The person involved is so busy with conventional activities that the opportunity to commit deviant acts is greatly reduced. Belief involves the acceptance of a conventional value system. It is argued that the weakening of conventional beliefs, for whatever reason, increases the chance of delinquency. The less a person believes that he or she should obey the laws, the more likely he/she is to violate them (Hirschi, 1969).

Like Hirschi (1969), other scholars did not clearly define what factors contributed to female delinquency. Rather, they have opted simply to use the results of theories tested on samples of males and applying their findings to females.

Statement of the Problem

In the past, research has been conducted specific to the male offender (Chesney-Lind and Shelden, 2004), and even though a vast amount of literature on female juvenile delinquency exists, most of the research involves conceptual perspectives on juvenile delinquency based on the study of male delinquents. Even scarcer are conceptual perspectives on juvenile delinquency grounded in the experiences of African American and Caucasian females. This study targeted African American and Caucasian adolescent females and focused on social control factors that might contribute to delinquent behavior. This research was needed so that gender-appropriate and culture specific interventions and programs can be developed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and examine social control factors that may be predictors of delinquent behavior among adolescent females. In order to fully understand juvenile delinquency among females, it was necessary to consider gender and race issues, social factors, and their contributions to delinquent behavior. According to Chesney-Lind and Shelden (1992) “consideration of the impact of girls’ structural position in a male dominated, socially and racially stratified society on their development is an important though neglected aspect of gender role research” (p.84). This can also be said in relation to literature on juvenile delinquency.

Objectives

Sociologists have investigated contributors to delinquent behavior among males and females. They have also gone as far as identifying what offenses are more likely to

be committed by both genders. The field of social work has not been as involved in this area of research. It is important that other research be conducted in order to develop effective solutions to the problem.

The results of this study will have implications for preventing the increase of delinquency among female offenders, specifically African Americans. The Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) database was used as this data focused on individuals and their communities and individuals in their communities. It offered a comprehensive understanding of human social behavior both positive and negative, the environments in which it plays out, and the complex influences of community, family, and individual factors on human development. It can deepen society's understanding of the causes and pathways of juvenile delinquency, adult crime, substance abuse, and violence that have not been available in the past. Furthermore, there are a limited number of social scientists that have used the PHDCN database in their research, and its use in this study contributes to the limited pool of results drawn from it. The objective of this study was to:

1. Test Hirschi's 1969 social control model to determine if there is a relationship between social control variables (attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief) and the engagement in delinquent behavior among African American and Caucasian female juvenile offenders and
2. Determine if there are any racial differences between African American and Caucasian Female juvenile offenders.

Research Questions of the Study

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between attachment to significant others and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between commitment and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between involvement and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between belief and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Summary

Chapter 1 presented the introduction, statement of the problem, purpose, and rationale that guided the study. The theoretical framework was discussed as well. Chapter 2 presented the literature review and chapter 3 offered an explanation of the data set, selection of the subset, methodology and data analysis. Chapter 4 presented the results and Chapter 5 was the discussion.

Social control theory was used to explore delinquent acts that result when an individual's bond to society is weakened or broken. An adolescent's likelihood in engaging in delinquent behavior supposedly declines when influenced by bonds such as

affective ties to parents, success in school, involvement in school activities, and belief in the moral validity of conventional norms. If there is a weak social bond, the likelihood of delinquent behavior is greater.

It is believed Hirschi's 1969 theory of social control will explain female delinquency because during their adolescent years, parents, peers, and school are the most important things in girl's lives. Without these connections, research in the past has shown that female delinquency has been associated with broken homes, lack of affiliation with a group, and poor school attendance (Clark, 1989). If these girls have all the above factors according to Hirschi 1969, they are less likely to offend. This social control theory will be tested to determine if it explains female juvenile delinquency today. It is also believed there will be differences among African American and Caucasian girls due to their familial and community bonds and emphasis on education therefore, as hypothesized above, there will be differences in their levels of attachment, commitment, involvement and belief.

There is a great need for research on factors that contribute to delinquent behavior among females. The earlier this problem can be identified, the earlier effective programs can be developed. It is critical that females who are involved in the juvenile justice system receive appropriate treatment or they will continue the vicious cycle of delinquency, which could in turn increase their possibility of future contact with the criminal justice system.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Explaining crime and delinquency among adolescent females is a complex task in that a multitude of factors likely lead this population to engage in delinquent behavior. The social causes of female juvenile delinquency can encompass a wide array of theories that have been set forth by social workers, psychologists, criminologists and sociologists. Some view female delinquency as a function of the individual while others view female delinquency as a macro level function of society.

The objective of this chapter was to comprehensively review (1) the literature on the historical treatment of girl's delinquency with variations along race lines and (2) previous studies conducted using Hirschi's (1969) model of social control, thereby clarifying knowledge gaps.

Review Process

A complete review of the literature on juvenile delinquency was beyond the scope of this study. The studies presented in this chapter were located by searching literature on female juvenile delinquency and Hirschi's 1969 model of social control. The main source was The University of Tennessee's Hodges library, which also served as a vehicle in locating other relevant studies non-existent at this library. Also, from primary study reference lists, additional studies were found. Electronic searches were performed on various electronic databases, such as EBSCO Host, ERIC, Proquest, and Ingenta, from articles starting in 1969 until present. Several web pages served as sources of statistics on offending rates by race and gender, such as the Office of Juvenile Justice and

Delinquency Prevention, Federal Bureau of Investigation, and National Criminal Justice Reference Service.

A list of search keywords included: juvenile delinquency, female juvenile delinquency, African American female delinquents, Black females, Caucasian female delinquents, White females, race differences in juvenile delinquency and child welfare. As some of the keyword searches resulted in a limited number of articles, in order to locate relevant studies, merging the above keywords performed a combined search. The next section focused on the historical treatment of girls in the juvenile justice system.

Female Delinquency: Historical Background

It is necessary to discuss the history of the juvenile justice system to understand the treatment of delinquent females within the United States. Female delinquency is best understood through a socio-cultural perspective that looks at the impact of society's changing view of females and juvenile justice system practices.

During the nineteenth century, gender-based power relations forced white girls and women into constricted powerless lives (Cushman, 1995). "The emotional reaction produced by the restrictions placed on women found expression where it could, not in political action, which was severely limited or unavailable for most middle-class women, but in the activities allowed to women, such as a murky, dangerous sexuality" (Cushman, 1995, p. 107). As industrialization swept through America in the nineteenth century, an increasing number of female "sex delinquents" emerged who resisted societal efforts to shape them into efficient adults. Sanctions for this "murky, dangerous sexuality" found among females were severe (Cushman, 1995, p.107). In both Milwaukee and Memphis,

females were twice as likely as males to be committed to training schools. During 1899 to 1909 in Chicago one half of the girl's labeled delinquent, yet only one-fifth of the boy delinquents, were sent to reformatories. During 1929 to 1930 in Honolulu, over half of the girls referred to court were charged with "immorality," which meant evidence of sexual intercourse (Chesney-Lind, 1989). The approach taken in 19th century America to female sexuality was a punitive one.

According to Odem and Schlossman (1991), the law defined new areas of deviant behavior. Delinquent female activities included flirting, engaging in premarital sex, and staying out late. Using the police, the juvenile court could apprehend and incarcerate female youth who violated the social and moral norms. Data obtained from original case files in the archives of Los Angeles Juvenile Court demonstrate that, during the 1920's, 90% of female juveniles arrested were charged with status or other non-criminal offenses, particularly those involving sexual behavior (Odem & Schlossman, 1991).

One major initiative for reforming the female sex delinquent was to hire female police officers whose purpose was to "protect" white women, children, and the home. During the early part of this century, the following was written in a child welfare report: 'the department strongly believes in the importance of the preventative work done by its field officers with young people and their families, when their pattern of behavior brings them to the notice of the community... for it is from these problem families that many instances of anti-social behavior arise' (Carlen, 1993, p. 71).

The rise of industrialization coupled with urbanization brought even less tolerance of deviant behavior. The rise of an urbanized, industrial society was seen as producing a social order that forced the adoption of some form of institutional response. It set the

tone for an official response to female delinquency. Obsessed with female sexuality, the institutions set out to isolate females from all contact with males while housing them in countryside settings. The intention was to hold them to marriageable age and occupy them with domestic pursuits during incarceration. A huge number of girls' reformatories and training schools were established during the early 1900's. Schlossman and Wallach (1978) note that 23 facilities for girls were opened during the 1910 – 1920 decade, in contrast to the 60 previous years, when the average increase was five reformatories per decade.

The history of girl's juvenile delinquency in the United States, reads as a history of Caucasian girl delinquency. Historically, African American girls were not looked at or even mentioned in delinquency reports. Moreover, the discussions tended to focus on the problems of being overprotected and middle class. It is important to bring attention to experiences of racism during that time. African American girls were not respected. They were seen as property and had no standing in court. For example, for all the talk of protecting females from dangerous male sexuality, it was legal for a Caucasian or African American male to rape a Black female. The legal system rendered the rape invisible, and in addition, African American females were not protected because they were deemed as inherently "promiscuous" and hence, culpable for attacks against themselves (Wriggins, 2004).

Females present unique treatment issues, therefore research needs to incorporate female delinquent populations and racial differences within this group, to better understand how they are drastically different from males.

Girl Delinquency

During the past century, the causes of juvenile delinquency have been the target of formal theorizing and informal speculation. Current theoretical models explaining the causes of delinquency are generally based on studies of boys (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 1992). Chesney-Lind and Shelden (2004) argued that the majority of explanations of female juvenile delinquency treat females as if they are the same as male offenders. They argued that there are differences in both behavior and profiles between female and male delinquents. As females and males do not inhabit the same worlds, they do not have the same choices. Chesney-Lind and Shelden (1992) argued not that females do not share some of the same problems as males, but that the manner in which they respond to difficulties is often influenced by gender. For example, males act out aggressively whereas females opt to internalize their difficulties, leading to depression.

African American girls are influenced by a set of traditions, and even though they vary, they are shared to some extent by all of them. They have aspirations of being the hard-working backbone of the family, for children, for an education and for their spirituality to assist in understanding and developing the necessary resources to fight oppression and make healthy adaptations that are common features in sometimes overwhelming circumstances (Lewis, 1998).

Ladner (1971) conducted a qualitative field study on the psychosexual development of African American girls. Ladner's study was the first qualitative research project that had looked in depth at the social, psychological, and sexual development of African American female adolescents. Ladner's findings indicated that these youths became "consciously socialized into the role of womanhood when they were about seven

or eight years old (p.49-50).” The primary agents of socialization were the Black community, and the immediate and extended family.

Stevens (1997) theorized that the African American adolescent experiences a crisis in both racial and gender identity development. Stevens (1997) looked at African American females age 11-14 who were participating in a longitudinal pregnancy prevention program. She found that African American females have unique identity issues that structure their developmental tasks. Moreover, Stevens (1997) suggested that African American female adolescents developed “skillful, unique, impressionistic, and assertive styles of relating in order to negotiate perceived hostile environments.” Additionally, Stevens (1997) claimed that self-development of African American females took place in relation to others, providing a sense of connection, care, nurturance, and mutuality.

Ladner’s (1990) research also indicated that gender role socialization was different for young Black girls than for White, Euro-American girls. She suggested that the standard conception of the carefree child with no responsibilities has never been possible for the majority of Black children. Black adolescents from low-income families are not preoccupied with the typical confusion and rebellion characterized by the White adolescent majority group. In contrast, Maier (1965) stated that many Black girls find themselves preoccupied with the more vital issue of survival. In essence, Ladner (1990) contended that Black parents find it difficult to provide the protection and comfort to their children they would like to provide because of their own vulnerability and victimization from the discriminative practices of the larger society, and the influences of poverty.

For some youth, the temptation of making a fast buck becomes too irresistible. Among the African American girls Ladner (1990) studied, two general attitudes toward the rationale for stealing were found. Some girls felt as if they had a right to steal because they saw themselves as unable to “enjoy objects which seldom filter down to their world” (p.93). This aspect of deprivation, with the perception of no prospect of acquiring the desired material objects in the future, and observing others who had these objects, was motivation for the girls in Ladner’s sample to steal. The second reason Ladner found for stealing, primarily shoplifting, were the girls’ concerns with providing the basic essential of survival for themselves, by whatever means necessary, regardless of their poverty. The ability of young African American girls to form the belief that they will or will not be able to attain their desires may play a critical role as motivation for their delinquent behavior.

Black adolescents' racial and ethnic identities have also been protective. They have been associated with numerous psychological and behavioral characteristics including self-esteem, stress, and delinquent behaviors (McCreary, Slavin, & Berry, 1996; Phinney & Kohatsu, 1997; Rowley, Sellers, Chavous, & Smith, 1998; Smith, 1999; Spencer, Cunningham, & Swanson, 1995). A positive racial identity in Black students has also been associated with academic aspirations, achievement, and pro-school attitudes and behaviors (O'Connor, 1997; Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001; Resnicow, Soler, Braithwaite, Selassie, & Smith, 1999). Black adolescents are more likely to be actively engaged in exploring their racial or ethnic identity than White adolescents (Phinney, 1992; Ross Leadbeater & Way, 1996) and the racial content of societal messages intensifies during this period (Tatum, 1997, 2004).

At the beginning of adolescence, a richer emotional life develops, with the goal of growing up and finding your identity. During the teen years, girls began to separate themselves from their families, assert their own identities, identify with peers, explore sexuality, redefine their relationships with nurturing adults, develop their own moral and ethical sense, and prepare for responsibilities and challenges of adulthood (Austrian, 2002). In early adolescence, close friendships emerge, usually with same-sex friends. But, this phase ends with a turn toward heterosexual relationships. Friendships often have a narcissistic quality because the friend is idealized and admired because she has traits the person would like to have and feels she can acquire (Austrian, 2002).

Hirsch (1990) found that Black adolescents are more likely than Caucasian adolescents to report having a large network of neighborhood friends and are twice as likely to report having a close other-race friend who they see frequently outside of school. Clark and Ayers (1991) found that Black Adolescents had more contact with best friends outside of school, whereas Caucasian adolescent friends had more in-school contact. They concluded that for Black girls, school might not be as favorable a place for forming friendships as it may be for Caucasian girls, especially if the school is predominantly Caucasian.

Based on studies of Black and Caucasian girls in regards to their family, education, and peer relationships, it is believed there are differences in their delinquent behavior. African American girls have a tighter bond with their parents and extended family than a Caucasian girl. Because they do not have all the resources and opportunities available to them that some Caucasian girls have, they depend on their family for support. This is one of the reasons why it is believed African American girls will be more

attached. Black families tend to focus on education when raising adolescent girls because that is the only hope they have of being successful. They have limited options whereas Caucasians view education as a born right. Their focus is on getting into the best college when they are in high school whether then on graduating because that is expected. When these Caucasian girls are living a carefree life engaging in extracurricular activities, African American girls are focused on surviving to make ends meet, which could lead to delinquent behavior if they become desperate. Lastly, because research states that African American girls form their friendships in the neighborhood rather than at school, they are more likely to be trusting and easily influenced by peers versus Caucasian girls who form superficial friendships in school based on common activities.

This section focused on girl delinquency and the etiology as well as the differences between white and black girls. The next section will discuss the variations along race lines in the juvenile justice system.

Variations Along Race Lines

Rate Differences by Race

Official data report that overall rates of arrests involving Caucasian youth increased 36% between 1985 and 2000, compared to rate increases of 61% for African American youth. Although Caucasian youth represent the biggest share of delinquency cases, their contribution to the total declined between 1985 and 2000 from 72% to 68%. This is likely due to the disproportionate of minorities in the juvenile justice system. In contrast, delinquency cases involving African American youth increased from 23% to 26% of the total during this time period (Puzzanchera, Stahl, Finnegan, Tierney, Snyder,

2004). The delinquency case rate for African American juveniles in 2000 (95.6) was twice the rate for Caucasian juveniles (46.3) and nearly 3 times the rate of other races (32.5).

Types of Offenses by Race

When types of offenses are examined, drug offense cases show the largest increase between 1985 and 2000 - 231% and 149% respectively for African-American and Caucasian juveniles. Age-specific drug offense rates were similar for Caucasian and African-American juveniles through age 13 but after 13, the racial disparity in drug offenses increased so that by age 17, African-American drug offenses were almost double the Caucasian rate (Puzzanchera et al, 2004). In 2000, the rate of offenses against a person, for African-American juveniles was nearly 3 times that of Caucasian juveniles (Puzzanchera, Stahl, Finnegan, Tierney, Snyder, 2004). An increase in Disorderly conduct cases between 1985 and 2000 was greater for African-American juveniles (113%) than for Caucasian juveniles (67%) (Puzzanchera, Stahl, Finnegan, Tierney, Snyder, 2004). Property offense rates for African-American juveniles at each age were more than twice the rate for Caucasian juveniles.

Overrepresentation of Minority Youth

Overrepresentation of minority youth involved in the juvenile justice system crosses gender lines. African-American males are more predominant in juvenile facilities than African American females (Krisbert, 1992; Sickmund, 2000). Data obtained by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency from twenty-nine states demonstrated that African-Americans comprised almost 50% of all female delinquents in secure detention (OJJDP, 1998 c, p.1). This could be due to the fact that seven of every ten cases

involving Caucasian girls are dismissed, compared to three of every ten cases dismissed for African American girls (Bergsmann, 1994).

Minorities are disproportionately represented in the juvenile justice system, as evidenced first by more severe dispositions than White youth (Jones & Krisberg, 1994). “African American youth are confined in facilities at a rate over three times that of White youth” (Jones & Krisberg, 1994, p.30). Given that two-thirds of delinquency cases involve White youth, the overrepresentation in detention facilities is noteworthy (Sickmund, 2000).

Researchers found that California’s juvenile justice system’s decision-making process is affected by race. For example, minority youth are more likely than White youth to be arrested and detained for the same charges. These discrepancies between minority and Caucasian youth can be attributed in part to the get-tough policies of the 1970’s and 1980’s, which promoted the increase of severity and punishment for juvenile offenders. Policy makers felt that if they had zero tolerance policies for crime and punished to the maximum time allowed by law, adolescents would be too scared to offend for fear of serving a long sentence in juvenile detention. Based on these policies, during the years of 1979 and 1982, notable increases in incarceration occurred. This also contributed to a disproportionate number of minorities in the juvenile justice system (Sickmund, 2000).

Several factors within the juvenile justice system contribute to differential treatment of Caucasian and African American adolescents. The first is racial stereotyping and cultural insensitivity. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention declared 18 states to be engaging in racial stereotyping and cultural

insensitivity on the part of police and others in the juvenile justice system (i.e., judges, juvenile court workers) that contributed to higher arrest rates, charging rates, and higher rates of detention and confinement among minority youth (OJJDP, 2002). Racial disparities in detention occur due to both intentional and unintentional racism (OJJDP, 2002). Institutional and individualized racism play the same role in juvenile detention that it plays in other aspects of American life. Whether it is racial profiling, police shootings, or lack of access to quality defense representation, racism influences the decisions that are made and the options available in the juvenile justice system just as they do housing, employment or education (OJJDP, 2002). Racism affects African American girls because institutional racism seriously limits a girl's access to treatment and placement options such as group homes or foster care.

Involvement in the child welfare system is a factor that also contributes to overrepresentation in the juvenile justice system. Researchers have argued that there is a link between the child welfare and juvenile justice system (Tuell, 2003). Most state it is due to the long-term effects of child maltreatment, which leads to an increased likelihood of subsequent delinquent behavior and violence. Minorities are involved in the child welfare system more than their White counterparts even though studies conclude there are no differences in incidences of child abuse and neglect by any racial group. This racial disparity may be due to racial biases in rates of investigations and there may be a greater likelihood of investigations of African American than Caucasian families (Tuell, 2003).

The lack of alternatives to detention and incarceration is another factor that contributes to the overrepresentation of minority youth. The Office of Juvenile Justice

Delinquency Prevention reported eight states that identified lack of alternatives as the cause of frequent use of confinement. Most detention centers are located in the state's largest cities where the minority population resides so with a lack of alternatives, detention becomes the most often used (OJJDP, 2002). A third factor is the misuse of discretionary authority in implementing laws and policies. Five states observed had laws that increase juvenile justice professionals' authority over youth that contributes to harsher treatment of minority youth (OJJDP, 2002).

Notwithstanding the institutional racism of the juvenile justice system, it is useful to consider how race itself might affect social relationships, which affect juvenile delinquency, as predicted by several theories of offending including Hirschi's 1969 theory. I will proceed to discuss race and social bonds.

Race and Social Bonds

During the teen years, youth begin to separate from their families, assert their own identity, identify with peers, redefine their relationships with nurturing adults, explore their sexuality, develop their own moral and ethical sense, and prepare for the responsibilities and challenges of adulthood.

In the Black community, the primary agents of bonding for African American girls are her immediate and extended family. Even though she spends more time with her nuclear family, other members of the extended family including aunts, uncles, grandparents, and cousins play a vital function as well (Ladner, 1990). The influence of the extended family upon the socialization of a Black girl is often very strong. Many children grow up in a three-generation household and they absorb influences from their

grandparents and parents (Ladner, 1990). Partly because of sacrifices Black parents had to make for their families in a hostile environment, Black girls have closer relationships with their parents than Whites (Ladner, 1990; Johnson & Staples, 2005).

Black parents pass on to their children values for effective living and a quest for formal education (Hill, 1999). However, Black and Caucasian parents differ in the way they inspire their children toward achievement. Black parents use their disadvantaged position to motivate their children for upward mobility (Johnson & Staples, 2005). Black parents often feel that education is the most powerful way to challenge racial stereotypes, overcome barriers to success, and advance the cause of racial justice (Hill, 1999). White parents' desires for their children's achievement is strongly determined by the occupation of their parents. But Black parents have been criticized for their aspirations exceeding their expectations for their children whereas Whites' aspirations are closely matched (Johnson & Staples, 2005).

Although the influence of peers increases during adolescence for both Black and Whites, the family is still perceived as a stronger source of support by Black than White adolescents (Clark, 1989). During this time, peers influence each other in regards to attending school, getting good grades, friendships and engaging in deviant behavior. Both Black and White adolescents of all ages prefer peers that are of the same race. These influences determine if an adolescent abides for rules or breaks them. This preference tends to steadily increase from elementary to high school (Clark, 1989). Some research suggests that Black friendships differ from White friendships in that Whites are satisfied with peers based on the quality of mutual activities whereas Blacks' best predictor of satisfaction is based on their level of emphatic understanding (Clark & Ayers, 1986b).

In regards to conformity, White parents focus on their children's psychological well-being and give less concern to instilling strict conformity, Black parents stress obedience, conformity, and school performance in order to obtain a good job. This reflects White parents' security in their children's status and future success and Black parents' anticipation of greater challenges to success (Johnson & Staples, 2005).

The Hirschi theory of social control introduced in 1969, provides a comprehensive model for addressing bonds and will be used to discover if specific social control factors which include the elements of attachment, commitment, involvement, and beliefs have an effect on the engagement in delinquent behavior of African-American females in comparison to Caucasian females. Based on the above literature, it appears that Black girls compared to White girls should be more affected when bonds to family, school, and conformity are weakened compared to White girls.

Hirschi's Model of Social Control

The elements of the social bond identified by Hirschi include: the ties and affection that develop between children and key people in their lives, such as parents, teacher, relatives, and friends; commitment to social norms of behavior and to success in regard to such values as getting a good education, a good job, and being successful; involvement in activities because the more activities a person is involved in, the less time he or she will have to get into trouble; and finally the fact that most persons are brought up to believe in and respect the law (Hirschi, 1969). These are generally called attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief. This theory states that members in society form bonds with other members in society or institutions in society such as

parents, friends, churches, schools, teachers, and sports teams, etc. By creating these bonds, the individual internalizes the norms of society. This theory explains juvenile delinquency as the juvenile failing to form bonds and because of this deficiency in their socialization; the juvenile is far more prone to engage in criminal activity (Hirschi, 1969).

Tests of the Theory

Several scholars have tested Hirschi's (1969) model of social control to determine its validity, reliability, and applicability in explaining juvenile delinquency. This section will give a sense of the empirical status of Hirschi's (1969) model of social control using self-report studies.

Hirschi (1969) tested the principal hypotheses of social control theory by administering a detailed self-report survey to a sample of over 4000 junior and senior high school students in Contra Costa County, California. The sample from which this study was drawn was part of the Richmond Youth Project consisting of 17,500 students. Eighty five percent of Black boys, 60 percent of Black girls, 30 percent of non-Black boys, and 12 percent of non-Black girls were randomly selected for inclusion. Data for the study came from three sources: school records, a questionnaire completed by the students, and police records.

The school records contained information on race, sex, grade, academic achievement test scores, and grade point average. The questionnaire was divided into three sections. Some schools administered the questionnaire one section at a time on three consecutive days and at least one school administered all three sections during consecutive class periods. Measures included questions on school, teachers, school

activities, attendance and discipline, best friends, leisure activities, and attitudes and opinions. Last, police data was received for the total number of offenses committed, age at first offense, date of most recent offense, and types of offenses.

Hirschi found considerable evidence that supported his control theory. The results revealed that adolescents who were strongly attached to their parents were less likely to commit criminal acts. Associations between attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief, and measures of delinquency were positive and significant. A limitation of this study was that there was a high non-response rate so it is possible to say that non-response was related to delinquency. It is believed that those who responded are more likely to not be delinquent. Also, police records were not obtained on females so one is unaware of delinquent behavior among Black and White females during that time. Black and White girls were not even compared at all in the sample so one is not able to look at the racial differences within this gender. Black and White boys were compared in some instances and the results showed that Black-White differences were exaggerated due to racism.

Gove and Cruthchfield's (1982) interviews with a random sample of 620 adults/parents in Chicago were designed to evaluate the importance of a child's attachment to family as a determinant of delinquency. Delinquency was measured by looking at six delinquent offenses in the past year ranging from status to criminal offenses. Half of the families were black and half were white. The self-report cross-sectional data are unique in that the reports are from parents about their children's behavior, the nature of the children's lives at home, and parental perceptions of their relationships with the children.

Gove and Crutchfield's (1982) results show that the variable most strongly related to delinquency was parents' feelings toward their children. This study did compare males to females and took into account racial differences within the same gender. The data shows that when controlling for the effect of parent's relationships with their children, Black girls were 7 percent more likely to be delinquent than their white counterparts. Knowledge of friends also had a significant negative relationship with delinquency of girls. Contrary to their Black male counterparts, Black girls are slightly more likely to be delinquent than White girls. Among girls living with single parents who set limits, Blacks tended to be slightly more likely to be delinquent than whites, and there is a tendency for delinquency to be associated with low socioeconomic status.

Grove and Crutchfield's study supports Hirschi's 1969 social control model by showing that girls and boys less attached to their parents are more likely to engage in delinquent behavior. Based on these results, it is believed this study will yield similar results indicating that there is a negative relationship between attachment and delinquent behavior and that this relationship is stronger for Black girls than Caucasian. Based on research, African-American girls are more likely than Caucasian girls to be from a low socioeconomic background and to lack opportunities and resources. They in turn have to depend not on financial support but rather social support to get through hard times. As a result, they are likely more attached to their parents or others than Caucasians resulting in decreased criminal behavior.

Johnson (1995) investigated juvenile delinquency among African Americans, testing the theories of delinquency for their relevance to delinquency among African Americans. He examined variables drawn from three theories of delinquency-social

control, structural strain, and differential association. The sample consisted of 333 male and female adolescents. The measures included were socioeconomic status, attachment to parents, and perceptions of blocked or limited opportunities, commitment to school, delinquent companions, and delinquent behavior. Sixty-four percent of respondents were male and 36% were female. Johnson's (1995) results indicated that lack of attachment to parents played no role in generating delinquent behavior among girls. On the other hand, there was a significant relationship between attachment to school and delinquent behavior for girls. Attachment to school was measured using an interview schedule, which included 28 school-related items, each coded in a 1-to-5-likert format. This was the strongest relationship in the model.

These results, in comparison to the previous two studies, by Hirschi (1969) and Grove and Crutchfield (1982), indicated the more positive experiences in school, toward teachers, and involvement in school activities, plausibly, the more there are opportunities for them to succeed. Engaging in crime would result in a loss of these opportunities.

Svennson (2003) investigated gender differences in adolescent drug use using the variables parental monitoring and peer deviance. The data were longitudinal and collected in two surveys. The first survey included all students in their final year of compulsory education (14-15 years of age) and the other included all students in their senior year of high school (aged 17-18) in Sweden. The study used a census of 859 students. The study indicates that weak parental control increases the risk for an adolescent to become involved with a deviant peer group, and this involvement with deviant peers leads to an increased risk for drug use and delinquent behavior. Remarkably, the findings were significant only in relation to females. A reason could be

due to the focus on parental monitoring, which might play a greater role in delinquency by females than males.

Hirschi's model of social control seems appropriate for the present study based on the literature on girl's lives and tests of his theory. Family, friends, school, moral beliefs, and extracurricular activities appear to be the most important factors during adolescence. Without these relationships for guidance, girls are more likely to turn to criminal behavior. This is the one theory that encompassed all the above factors into one compared to other theories that only tap into one aspect of behavior. Tests of Hirschi's 1969 theory indicated that attachment had no effect on delinquent behavior while others indicated that parental attachment did have an effect. Also, results indicated that involvement in school is a good indicator of delinquent behavior. However, Hirschi (1969) did not look at girls but based on studies, it is expected these girls are attached so his theory might not explain girl delinquency. One can speculate on why a Black girl compared to a White girl engages in delinquent behavior based on attachment to others, involvement in conventional activities, commitment, and belief, but what specific factors may prevent a Black girl from committing a crime compared to a White girl due to their racial differences has not been studied.

Summary

Although boys commit the majority of juvenile crimes, arrests of girls have sharply risen in the last decade. While there is dispute as to whether shifts represent changes in girls' behavior or changes in arrest patterns, it is undeniable that girls are becoming more visibly present within the juvenile justice system (Acoca, 1998).

Statistics show that more girls are becoming involved in the justice system, at a younger age, and some for more violent offenses. Although research about female delinquents has been scarce, a growing body of research is beginning to identify factors most likely to lead girls to delinquency.

The reasons to focus on female delinquency are compelling, especially as the number of females involved in the justice system continues to grow. The results of this study may assist researchers in achieving an increased understanding of the factors that may be leading girls to delinquency. Practitioners will have a better knowledge of the best practices for working with girls in the juvenile justice system. The combination of these factors makes the timing appropriate to focus specifically on the needs of the girls of today, who will become the women of tomorrow.

This chapter presented the most important aspects of juvenile delinquency and females. The following chapter described the research questions and hypotheses, research methodology used to research the social factors that contribute to delinquent behavior among African American and Caucasian females using the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) data set.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study explored the relationship between social control and delinquent behavior among African American and Caucasian female delinquents. This chapter described the methodology that was used in the exploration, the data set and its background, and an overview of the analytical techniques used.

Data

Sampling, Data Collection and Data Selection Procedures

The Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) is an interdisciplinary study designed to understand the developmental pathways of positive and negative social behaviors. It was directed by the Harvard School of Public Health, and funded by the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation, the National Institute of Justice, the National Institute of Mental Health, the U.S. Department of Education, and the Administration for Children, Youth and Families. The project examined the causes and pathways of juvenile delinquency, adult crime, violence, and substance abuse. It also provided a detailed look at environments in which these social behaviors took place. The Project is unique in both size and scope because it combined two studies into a single, comprehensive design. The first study was an intensive examination of Chicago's neighborhoods. It looked at their social, economic, organizational, political, and cultural structures, and the dynamic changes that took place in these structures over the study's seven years (1994 – 2001).

The second study was a series of longitudinal studies, using a stratified probability sample of 80 neighborhoods that followed up to 7,000 randomly selected children, adolescents, and young adults, all residents of Chicago, over time. It looked at the changing circumstances of their lives and personal characteristics that may lead them toward or away from antisocial behaviors. Numerous measures were administered to gauge various aspects of human development, including individual differences, as well as family, peer, and school influences. The study centered on violent crime and substance abuse, but also encompassed many other forms of juvenile delinquency and adult crime, from shoplifting to security fraud. Recently the Project added two new elements to the research: a study of children's exposure to violence and its consequences, and a study on child care and its impact on early child development.

There were three waves of the longitudinal study: Wave 1 conducted in 1994-1997, Wave 2 in 1997-1999, and Wave 3 in 2000-2001. There are at least four waves planned with an optional fifth wave. The study used an accelerated longitudinal design. Seven different age cohorts from prenatal to age 18 (separated by three years intervals) were followed for seven years. Three years into the study, the age range became continuous. Each cohort is equally distributed by gender and racial/ethnic backgrounds. The target sample was 7,000 and the final sample was 6,234.

The sampling frame of the present study consisted of African American and Caucasian adolescent females, age 12 and 15, of the original cohort of the PHDCN. This age group will be selected for the sole purpose of researching the impact of social control variables over time on delinquent behavior, such as family, peers, school, and the

community. The following criteria will be used to select data from adolescent females to be included in the proposed research:

- 1) information for the subject was complete in the data set for wave 1; and
- 2) the adolescent is African American or Caucasian, age 12 and 15 during wave 1.

The subjects, for whom data are selected, based upon these criteria, will form the sample for the proposed study.

A comprehensive collection of measures has been included in the PHDCN's longitudinal study. Data from the following measures will be used in the proposed study.

Data from the Demographic and Cultural Information Interview (used in Wave 1) will be used. It yielded basic demographic information (place of birth, addresses over past years, social security number, education, marital status), as well as information relevant to race/ethnicity. More extensive information was obtained in the first year of data collection, with updated information included in subsequent years. Information on income and employment was included within the Demographic Update, which also includes sections regarding welfare status and material hardship (Brooks-Gunn et al., 1997; Burman, Telles, Hough, & Escobar, 1987).

The Family Environment Scale (FES) examines interpersonal relationships and the social environment in the family. The primary caregivers completed this questionnaire for ages 0-15 and participants age 18. It captures a family member's perception of the family's functioning (Moos & Moos, 1994). Three scales (Conflict, Control, and Moral-Religious Emphasis) were selected from the Family Environment Scale, which is a 26-item self-report measure (Moos & Moos, 1994).

Provision of Social Relations (PSR) is a 20-item interview completed by parents of all participants and participants between the ages of 9 and 18. This measure provides information about the amount and source of social support the respondents received from friends and family. The main focus was the closeness of relationships with the subject and his or her family and friends (Turner, Frankel, & Levin, 1983).

The Self-Report of Offending scale is a self-report questionnaire focusing on the participant's involvement in antisocial behavior and the legal consequences. It was adapted from the Self-Report of Delinquency Questionnaire and the Self-Report of Antisocial Behavior Questionnaire to cover ages 7 to adulthood. It was administered to cohorts 9 to 18 in Wave 1 and Wave 2 and to cohorts 6 to 18 in Wave 3 (Huizinga, Esbenson, & Weiher, 1991). Information about lifetime and past-year involvement in 32 delinquent and criminal behaviors was also obtained with follow-up prompts designed to obtain information about age of onset and date of recent involvement and factors such as police involvement or solitary versus group offending. Participants' involvement with the police and court system was also obtained. (Huizinga, Esbenson, & Weiher, 1991).

The Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) Inventory attempted to observe the developmental environment in which participants were raised. It captured the presence or absence, in the home, of cognitive stimuli, including learning experiences and educational materials. It also measured the nature and extent of interactions occurring between the participant and their primary caregiver, participant's father, and other family members. The PHDCN version also assessed physical conditions in and around the home (Selner-O'Hagan & Earls, 1994).

The School Screen was adapted from the school section of the Youth Interview Schedule used in the Philadelphia Family Management Study. It included sections that addressed school environment, the participant's attitude toward school, how he/she rates current achievement, future educational goals, history of repeating or skipping a grade, and participation in activities within and outside of school (Youth interview schedule, 1990).

Measurement

For the research study, only items administered to adolescents 12 and 15 at wave 1 were used. These items were selected from the following instruments based upon content validity considerations: Demographic and Cultural Information Interview, FES, PSR, Self-Report of Offending, Home Inventory, and School Screen. Items were selected by the researcher from the instruments that appeared to be closely related to Hirschi's (1969) social control measures. Once items were selected, they were given to five individuals, along with Hirschi's social control definitions. The individuals selected were male and female master's level social workers in doctoral programs. These individuals selected the items they felt were most consistent based on Hirschi's measures. The final measures were selected by picking those chosen most often by the participants by selecting those that were chosen by at least 3 of the 5 individuals. Once the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) data set was received, an item analysis was conducted on these items. It allowed me to get an estimate of the reliability coefficient for each scale used in this research.

Attachment

Attachment refers to the psychological and emotional connection to others and the extent to which one has close affectional ties to others, admires them, and identifies with them so that the individual cares about their expectations. Below, the numbers in parentheses refer to the number of people, out of 5 total, who selected that particular item to comprise the scale. Items stem from the PSR to measure attachment. The questions selected include:

1. No matter what happens, I know my family will always be there for me should I need them (5/5)
2. My family lets me know they think I'm worthwhile (valuable) person (5/5)
3. People in my family have confidence in me (4/5)
4. I have a grandparent, uncle, or aunt that I feel close to and who helps me out (4/5)
5. I have a brother, a sister or a cousin who listens to me and understands my problems (4/5)

The response format was very true, somewhat true, or not true. The range of scores is very true = 2, somewhat true = 1, and not true=0, where 2 signifies high attachment, 1 signifies moderate attachment, and a 0 signifies low attachment. The range of possible total scores is 0 to 14 with a 0 signifying no attachment and a 14 signifying high attachment. The higher the attachment score, it is hypothesized, the less likely one is to engage in delinquent behavior.

Items also stemmed from The HOME Inventory, which will also be used to measure attachment. The questions that will be used include:

6. Subject eats one meal per day, on most days, with primary caregiver and father (or father figure) (4/5)

7. Primary caregiver talks daily with subject about his/her day (5/5)

The response format was yes or no. The range of scores is yes = 1 and no =0, where 1 signifies high attachment, and a 0 signifies low attachment. The range of possible total scores is 0 to 14 with a 0 signifying no attachment and a 14 signifying high attachment. The higher the attachment score, I propose, the less likely one is to engage in delinquent behavior.

Commitment

Commitment is the investment in conventional rules and social norms of behavior and success in regard to obtaining an education and employment. This stake in conformity would be jeopardized if one engaged in law violations. The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of evaluators, out of 5 total, who selected that particular item to comprise the scale. Items stem from the self-report of offending scale to measure commitment, and the questions proposed are:

1. Have you ever had a job? (4/5)

The school screen will also be used to measure commitment. The questions are:

2. Does subject currently attend school? (5/5)

3. Was subject involved in extracurricular activities connected to school, such as sports, clubs, and music groups? (5/5)

4. Was subject involved in any other after-school program other than extracurricular activity? (5/5)

The response format was yes or no. The range of scores is yes = 1 and no =0, where 1 signifies high commitment, and a 0 signifies low commitment. The range of possible total scores is 0 to 4 with a 0 signifying no commitment and a 4 signifying high commitment. The higher the commitment score theoretically, the less likely one is to engage in delinquent behavior.

Involvement

Involvement in school is the engrossment in activities such as studying and participation in extracurricular activities such as clubs, organizations, and athletic events. The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of evaluators out of 5 total, who selected that particular item to comprise the scale. Items for the involvement scale stem from the school screen. Questions selected are:

1. Does subject currently attend school? (4/5)
2. Was subject involved in extracurricular activities connected to school, such as sports, clubs, and music groups? (5/5)
3. Was subject involved in any other after-school program other than extracurricular activity? (5/5)

A response format of yes or no was used. The range of scores is yes = 1 and no =0, where 1 signifies high involvement, and a 0 signifies low involvement. The range of possible total scores is 0 to 3 with a 0 signifying no involvement and a 3 signifying high involvement. It is proposed that the higher the involvement score, the less likely one is to engage in delinquent behavior.

Belief

Acceptance of conventional values and norms implies adhering to such values as sharing, sensitivity to the rights of others, and respect for the legal code of the society. The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of people, out of 5 total, who selected that particular item to comprise the scale. Items stem from the FES scales to measure belief. For the belief factor, questions include:

1. Family members have strict ideas about what is right or wrong (3/5)
2. There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our family (3/5)

A true or false response format was used. The range of scores is true = 1 and false = 0, where a 1 signifies high belief, and a 0 signifies low belief. The range of possible total scores is 0 to 2 with a 0 signifying no belief and a 2 signifying high belief. The higher the belief score, it is proposed, the less likely one is to engage in delinquent behavior.

Delinquency

Delinquency is the commission of an illegal act by a juvenile, who is a person under the age of 18. The self-report of offending scale will be used to measure the number of incidents of delinquency. Delinquency will be operationalized as the sum total of criminal offenses (property and violent) and status offenses in the past 12 months. Property offenses range from burglary to trespassing, from theft to forgery and embezzlement, and to criminal mischief for damage to property. Violent offenses include rape, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, and homicide. Status offenses include running away, truancy, and incorrigibility. There are 22 questions total, with 12 property offenses, 7 violent offenses, and 3 status offenses. The range of possible total scores is 0

to infinity, with a 0 signifying no delinquent behavior and infinity signifying unlimited delinquent behavior. See Figure 1 for a chart of social control factor questions.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions and hypotheses were formulated to address the purpose of the study:

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between attachment to significant others and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 1: There is a stronger relationship between attachment and delinquent behavior among Caucasian juvenile offenders than their African-American counterparts.

Data Analysis: The independent variables in the regression model will be attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable will be delinquency. The independent variable of focus will be the interaction between attachment and race. A directional hypothesis will be tested to determine if the results are consistent with the null hypothesis. A directional hypothesis is formulated due to the results being specified and wanting to know which direction the relationship is going. The results are analyzed to check the statistical significance of the model, and to determine if the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is consistent with the hypothesis. Based on the hypothesis, it is believed there will be a negative relationship between attachment and delinquent behavior. I expect it to be stronger for Caucasian girls than African-American girls. The more attached the individual is to others, the less likely they are to engage in delinquent behavior.

Attachment 1. No matter what happens, I know my family will always be there for me should I need them 2. My family lets me know they think I'm worthwhile (valuable) person 3. People in my family have confidence in me 4. I have a grandparent, uncle, or aunt that I feel close to and who helps me out 5. I have a brother, a sister or a cousin who listens to me and understands my problems 6. Subject eats one meal per day, on most days, with primary caregiver and father (or father figure) 7. Primary caregiver talks daily with subject about his/her day
Commitment 1. Have you ever had a job? 2. Does subject currently attend school? 3. Was subject involved in extracurricular activities connected to school, such as sports, clubs, music groups, etc.? 4. Was subject involved in any other after school program rather than extracurricular activity?
Involvement 1. Does subject currently attend school? 2. Was subject involved in extracurricular activities connected to school, such as sports, clubs, music groups, etc.? 3. Was subject involved in any other after school program rather than extracurricular activity?
Belief 1. Family members have strict ideas about what is right or wrong 2. There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our family
Delinquency (DV) Sum total of criminal offenses (property and violent) and status offenses in the past 12 months

Figure 1: Chart of Social Control Questions

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between commitment and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 2: There is a stronger relationship between commitment and delinquent behavior among African-American female juvenile offenders than their Caucasian counterparts.

Data Analysis: The independent variables in the regression model will be attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable will be delinquency. The independent variable of focus will be the interaction between commitment and race. A directional hypothesis is tested to determine if there is a relationship between commitment and engagement in delinquent behavior. The results are analyzed to check the statistical significance of the model, and to determine if the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is consistent with the hypothesis. Based on the hypothesis, it is believed there will be a negative relationship between commitment and delinquent behavior. I expect it to be stronger for African American girls than Caucasian girls. The more committed the individual is, the less likely they are to engage in delinquent behavior.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between involvement and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 3: There is a stronger relationship between involvement and delinquent behavior among Caucasian female juvenile offenders than their African-American counterparts.

Data Analysis: The independent variables in the regression model will be attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable will be delinquency. The independent variable of focus will be the interaction between involvement and race. A directional hypothesis is tested to determine if there is a relationship between involvement and engagement in delinquent behavior. The results are analyzed to check the statistical significance of the model, and to determine if the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is consistent with the hypothesis. Based on the hypothesis, it is believed there will be a negative relationship between involvement and engagement in delinquent behavior. I expect it to be stronger for Caucasian girls than African-American girls. The more involved an adolescent is, the less likely they are to engage in delinquent behavior.

Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between belief and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 4: There is a stronger relationship between belief and delinquent behavior among Caucasian female juvenile offenders than their African-American counterparts.

Data Analysis: The independent variables in the regression model will be attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable will be delinquency. The independent variable of focus will be the interaction between belief and race. A directional hypothesis is tested. The results are analyzed to check the statistical significance of the model, and to determine if the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is consistent with the hypothesis. Based on the hypothesis, it is expected there will be a negative relationship where the more an adolescent conforms to

belief values, the less likely they are to engage in delinquent behavior. I expect this to be stronger for Caucasian girls than African-American girls. See table 2 for a chart of variables.

Table 2: Chart of Variables

Predictor Variables	Criterion Variable	Research Questions	Statistical Analysis
1. Attachment 2. Commitment 3. Involvement 4. Belief	1. Number of incidents of delinquency	1. Is there a relationship between attachment to significant others and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders? 2. Is there a relationship between commitment and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders? 3. Is there a relationship between involvement and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders? 4. Is there a relationship between belief and engagement in delinquent behavior and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?	1. Descriptive Statistics 2. Multiple Regression Analysis

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Data Analyses

This chapter presents descriptive statistics for the sample and the results of correlational analyses for all variables. Results for hypothesis tests from regression analyses are also reported. There were two regression analyses performed for each research question. Additionally, interaction effects were tested as part of the regression analyses.

Descriptive Sample Statistics

The data set included information on both adolescents and their primary caregivers. Once the data set was reduced to fit the sampling frame, the sample size was 837.

Adolescent characteristics. Fifty four percent (n=818) of the adolescents were age 12, and 45 percent (n=688) were age 15. Sixty six percent (n=555) of the adolescents were African American and thirty three percent (n=282) were Caucasian.

Parent characteristics. Eighteen percent (n=273) of the primary caregivers (PC) were single, 6.9% (n=102) were separated, 11.4% (n=171) were divorced, 55.1% (n=818) were married, 3.8% (n=56) were widowed, and 4.2% (n=63) were living with a partner. Thirty two percent (n=348) had not finished high school, and 67.4% (n=719) had completed high school. Twenty percent (n=150) had not studied beyond high school and 79.1% (n=569) had. Sixty-six percent (n=555) were African American and 33.7% (n=282) were Caucasian. Eight percent (n=128) of the PC's were not religious, and 91.3% (n=1358) were religious. Lastly, 15.7% (n=88) had an income less than \$5,000,

16.7% (n=94) made \$5,000-9,999, the income of 30.2% (n=170) had an income between \$10,000-19,999, for 19.4% (n=109) had an income \$20,000-29,999, 9.6% (n=54) had an income \$30,000-39,999, 5.0% (n=28) had an income \$40,000-49,999, and 3.4% (n=19) of the PC's had income greater than \$50,000. (See Appendix A: Table 7)

Reliability/Item Analysis

An item analysis was conducted on the Attachment, Commitment, Involvement, and Belief scales. An alpha of .7 or above is often considered acceptable for aggregate level research (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The Attachment scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .39. The Commitment scale had an alpha of .10; the Involvement scale had an alpha of .10 and the Belief Scale had an alpha of .65. These results indicated that there was low reliability for the scores from these scales, a limitation discussed later.

Missing Data

Missing data occurred frequently due to respondents leaving blank the questions concerning whether they had committed a status or criminal offense. The instructions for the items instructed participants to leave blank an item about status or criminal offenses if they had not committed an offense of the type asked about. Therefore, in those instances in which the respondent had left one of these items blank, zeros were placed in the blanks on the assumptions that the lack of a response indicated the respondent had committed 0 offenses of the type asked about. This approach led to substantially less missing data. Even when zeros were filled in, missing data still remained on some of the questions. The independent variable Attachment had .3% (N=5) data missing. Commitment had .2% (N= 3), Involvement had 1.5% (N=22) missing, and Belief had 1.4% (N=21). There was

44.6% (N=671) of the data were missing for number of status offenses, and 44.4% (N=668) of the data were missing for number of criminal offenses.

Descriptive Results for Scale Scores

The attachment scale had scores ranging from 0-14, where 0 was the lowest score and 14 was the highest (Mean=9.99, SD=2.064). The commitment scale had scores ranging from 0-4, where 0 was the lowest score and 4 was the highest (Mean=2.08, SD=.873). The scores from the Involvement scale ranged from 0-3, with a score of 0 being the lowest and 3 being the highest (Mean =1.73, SD=.694). The range of scores from the belief measure was 0-2, with 0 being the lowest and 2 being the highest (Mean=1.44, SD=6.233).

Bivariate Statistics

Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken (2003) have suggested the use of transformations such as the square root to render count data better behaved for ordinary least squares regression (OLS). The square root transformation was used for the correlational analysis. The results in Table 3 show the correlations between the independent variables and the square root transformed number of status offenses. It was expected that the correlations between the four independent variables and number of status offenses would all be statistically significant. However, a statistically significant relationship was only found between attachment and number of status offenses ($r=.132$, $p=.0001$, two-tailed), and between involvement and the number of status offenses ($r=-1.39$, $p=.0001$, two tailed). These correlations were not in the direction that was predicted. The correlational results in Table 4 are for the square root transformed number of criminal offenses. It was also expected that all correlations between the four independent variables and the number

Table 3: Correlations between Independent Variables and the Square Root Transformed Number of Status Offenses**Correlations**

		Attachment	Commitment	Involvement	Belief	Status transform
Attachment	Pearson Correlation	1	.030	-.044	-.021	.132(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.246	.092	.420	.000
	N	1499	1499	1480	1480	834
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.030	1	.827(**)	.032	-.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.246		.000	.216	.199
	N	1499	1501	1482	1482	835
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	-.044	.827(**)	1	.031	-.139(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.092	.000		.237	.000
	N	1480	1482	1482	1475	830
Belief	Pearson Correlation	-.021	.032	.031	1	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.420	.216	.237		.809
	N	1480	1482	1475	1483	834
Status transform	Pearson Correlation	.132(**)	-.044	-.139(**)	.008	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.199	.000	.809	
	N	834	835	830	834	836

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4: Correlations between Independent Variables and the Square Root Transformed Number of Criminal Offenses**Correlations**

		Attachment	Commitment	Involvement	Belief	Criminal Transformed
Attachment	Pearson Correlation	1	.030	-.044	-.021	.155(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.246	.092	.420	.000
	N	1499	1499	1480	1480	831
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.030	1	.827(**)	.032	.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.246		.000	.216	.482
	N	1499	1501	1482	1482	832
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	-.044	.827(**)	1	.031	-.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.092	.000		.237	.053
	N	1480	1482	1482	1475	827
Belief	Pearson Correlation	-.021	.032	.031	1	-.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.420	.216	.237		.863
	N	1480	1482	1475	1483	831
Criminal Transform	Pearson Correlation	.155(**)	.024	-.067	-.006	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.482	.053	.863	
	N	831	832	827	831	833

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

of criminal offenses would be statistically significant. However, a statistically significant relationship was only found between attachment and number of criminal offenses ($r=155$, $p=.0001$, two tailed). These directions of these findings were also contrary to expectation.

Regression Analyses

The objective of this study was to investigate the extent to which social control factors are related to delinquent behavior (both status and criminal). In order to test the hypotheses framed, regression analyses were conducted. There were four main research questions associated with each hypothesis. First, attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief were used as predictors of the cube root transformed count of status offenses. This transformation was used in lieu of the square root transformation since it performed better than the square root to render the data better suited to OLS regression. The same regression analyses were done with the cube root transformed number of criminal offenses.

Status Offenses

Research Questions 1-4: Is there a relationship between attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief and number of status offenses, and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 1-4: There is a stronger relationship between attachment, involvement, belief and number of status offenses for Caucasian juvenile offenders than for their African-

American counterparts. There is a stronger relationship between commitment and number of status offenses for African American juvenile offenders than for Caucasian juveniles.

Data Analysis 1-4: The independent variables in the regression model were attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable was the cube root transformed number of status offenses. The independent variables of focus were the interactions of attachment, commitment, involvement and belief with race.

Results 1-4: Overall, there was no support for the hypothesis. An overall test of the set of four interactions was statistically non-significant [$F(4, 797)=1.47, p>.20$]. These results indicate that there were no differences between African-American and Caucasian girls in terms of the relationships between independent variables and the cube root transformed number of status offenses.

There was a statistically significant relationship between attachment and status offenses, and between commitment and status offenses, but not in the predicted directions. There was a positive relationship between these variables and status offenses indicating that as attachment and commitment increase, so does number of status offenses. In contrast, the relationship between involvement and number of status offenses was negative and statistically significant. So, as involvement increased, number of status offenses decreased. It should be noted that the standard errors in Table 5 have been adjusted for heteroscedasticity, using the program EQS, to help control for the statistical inference problems associated with heteroscedastic residuals.

Regression Assumptions

When examining the distribution of the residuals, there were problems with normality, as suggested by the histogram and normal p-plot displayed in

Table 5: Dependent Variable Cube Root of Status Offenses

Variable	Coefficients (a)					
	B	Ordinary Std. Error	Heteroscedastic Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Intercept	0.177	0.171	0.187		0.950	0.343
Race2	-0.097	0.051	0.051	-0.067	-1.926	0.054
Attachment	0.050	0.013	0.014	0.130	3.583	0.000
Commitment	0.179	0.049	0.051	0.222	3.484	0.001
Involvement	-0.306	0.061	0.065	-0.303	-4.683	0.000
Belief	-0.089	0.046	0.052	-0.066	-1.726	0.085

Figures 2 and 3. Examination of the scatterplots of predicted values versus residuals suggested a problem with homoscedasticity (Figure 4). This is why the heteroscedastic standard errors were used in the regression analysis. The rule of thumb is that a tolerance level that is less than .2 indicates problems with multicollinearity (Cohen & Cohen, 2003). There were no problems with tolerance suggesting no problems with multicollinearity.

Criminal Offenses

Research Questions 5-8: Is there a relationship between attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief and number of criminal offenses, and does this relationship differ between African-American female offenders in comparison to Caucasian female offenders?

Hypothesis 5-8: There is a stronger relationship between attachment, involvement, belief and number of criminal offenses for Caucasian juvenile offenders than for their African-American counterparts. There is a stronger relationship between commitment number of criminal offenses for African-American juvenile offenders than for Caucasian juveniles.

Data Analysis 5-8: The independent variables in the regression model were attachment, commitment, involvement, belief, and race. The dependent variable was the cube root of

Histogram

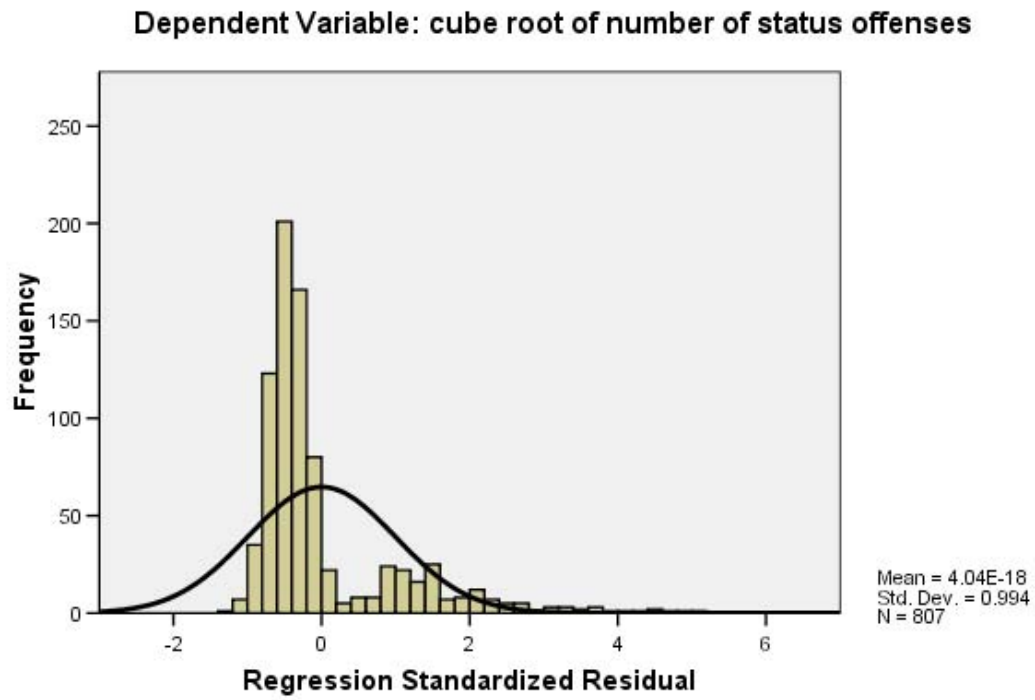


Figure 2: Social Control Variables Histogram with Status Offenses

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: cube root of number of status offenses

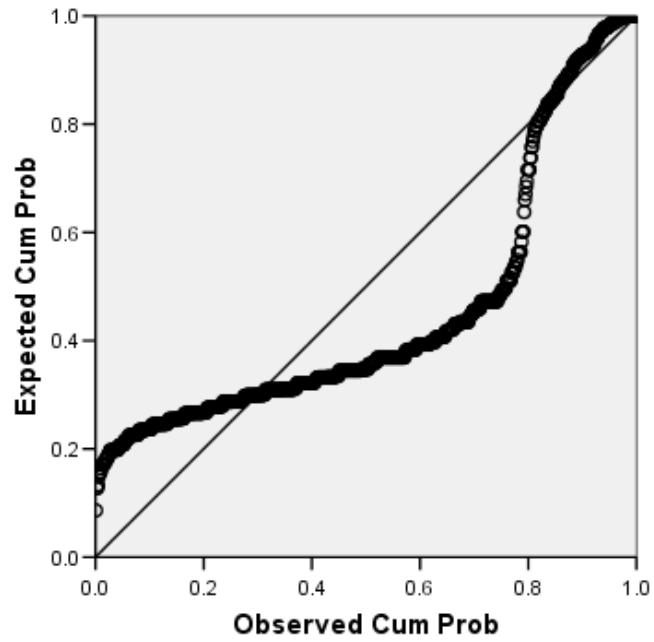


Figure 3: Social Control Variables Normal P-Plot with Status Offenses

Scatterplot

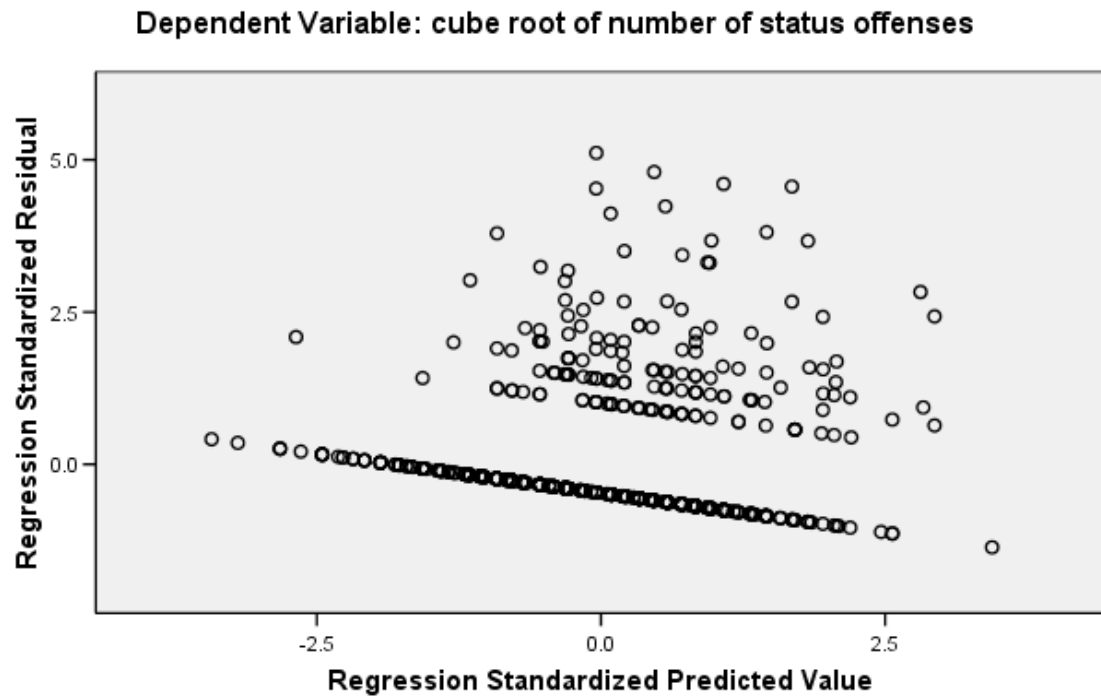


Figure 4: Social Control Variables Scatterplot with Status Offenses

the number of criminal offenses. The independent variable of focus was the interaction between attachment, commitment, involvement, belief and race.

Results 5-8: Results of the regression analysis are shown in Table 6. An overall test of the set of four interactions was statistically significant [$F(4, 798)=3.22, p=.012$]. The interactions of race-by-belief, race-by-commitment, and race-by-involvement were all statistically significant (see Table 6). It should be noted that heteroscedastic standard errors were used here to help control for problems with heteroscedasticity. There was no statistically significant interaction between attachment and race, meaning there was no evidence of a difference between the race in the relationship between attachment and number of criminal offenses. The statistically significant interaction between race and belief, and that between race and commitment, were not in the expected directions. In terms of the variable belief, there was no relationship between belief and number of criminal offenses for Caucasian girls. In contrast, there was a statistically significant relationship between belief and criminal offenses for African-American girls such that as

Table 6: Dependent Variable Cube Root of Criminal Offenses

Coefficients (a)						
Variable	B	Ordinary Std. Error	Heteroscedastic Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Intercept	0.600	0.372	0.428		1.401	0.162
Race2	-1.356	0.442	0.513	-0.465	-2.640	0.008
Attachment	0.143	0.026	0.027	0.185	5.237	0.000
Commitment	0.255	0.117	0.127	0.158	2.001	0.046
Involvement	-0.331	0.147	0.162	-0.165	-2.046	0.041
Belief	-1.652	0.638	0.808	-0.616	-2.043	0.041
RacexBelief	0.429	0.183	0.214	0.589	2.008	0.045
RacexInv	-0.537	0.249	0.272	-0.379	-1.969	0.049
RacexCom	0.514	0.201	0.206	0.439	2.493	0.013

belief increased, number of criminal offenses decreased. In terms of the independent variable commitment, as commitment increased the number of criminal offenses increased, and this relationship was stronger for Caucasian than for African-American girls. The interaction between race and involvement was such that as involvement increased, number of criminal offenses decreased, and this relationship was stronger for African-American than for Caucasian girls.

Regression Assumptions

The distribution of the residuals suggested no substantial problems with normality (Figure 5 and 6). The scatterplot of predicted values versus residuals suggested some problems with homoscedasticity (Figure 7), which, again, is why the heteroscedastic standard errors were used. Visual inspection of the scatterplot indicates heteroscedasticity. All tolerance levels with the exception of the independent variable belief were less than .2 indicating no problems with multicollinearity. Belief had a tolerance level of .020, suggesting some collinearity problems with the independent variable.

Summary

Chapter IV presented the results of the data analyses in this research study. It explained missing data, and reported descriptive statistics for adolescents, family/parent characteristics, and scale scores. A correlation analysis showed the intercorrelations between variables. The principal data analyses were regression analyses, which tested the study's research hypotheses.

Histogram

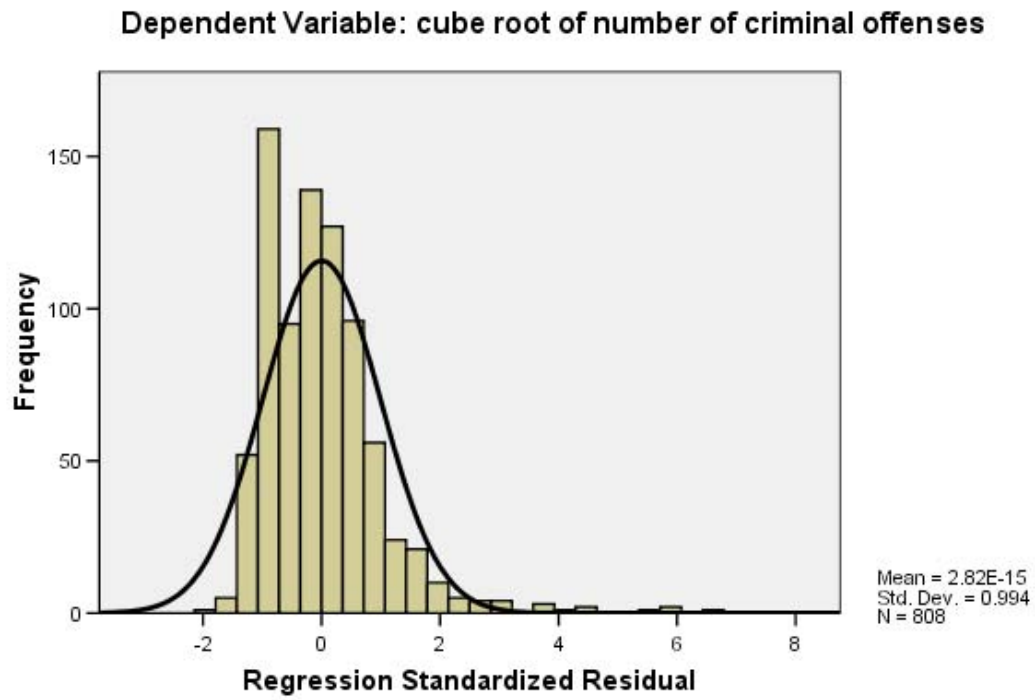


Figure 5: Social Control Variables Histogram with Criminal Offenses

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: cube root of number of criminal offenses

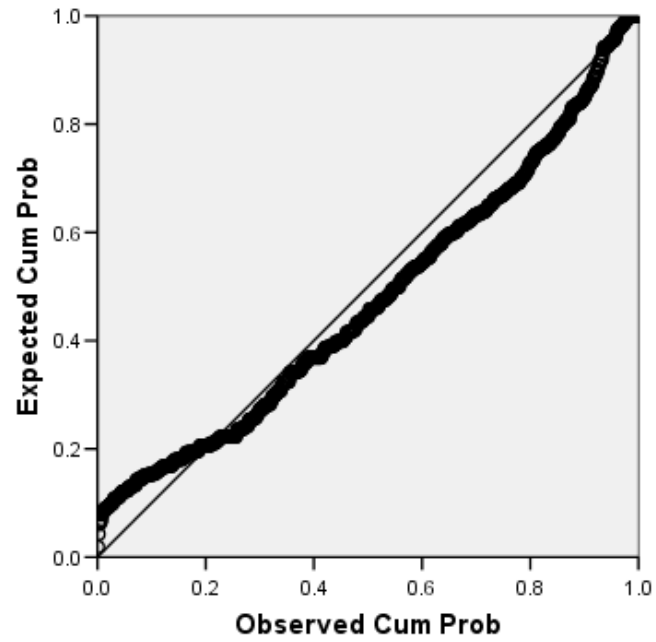


Figure 6: Social Control Variables Normal P-Plot with Criminal Offenses

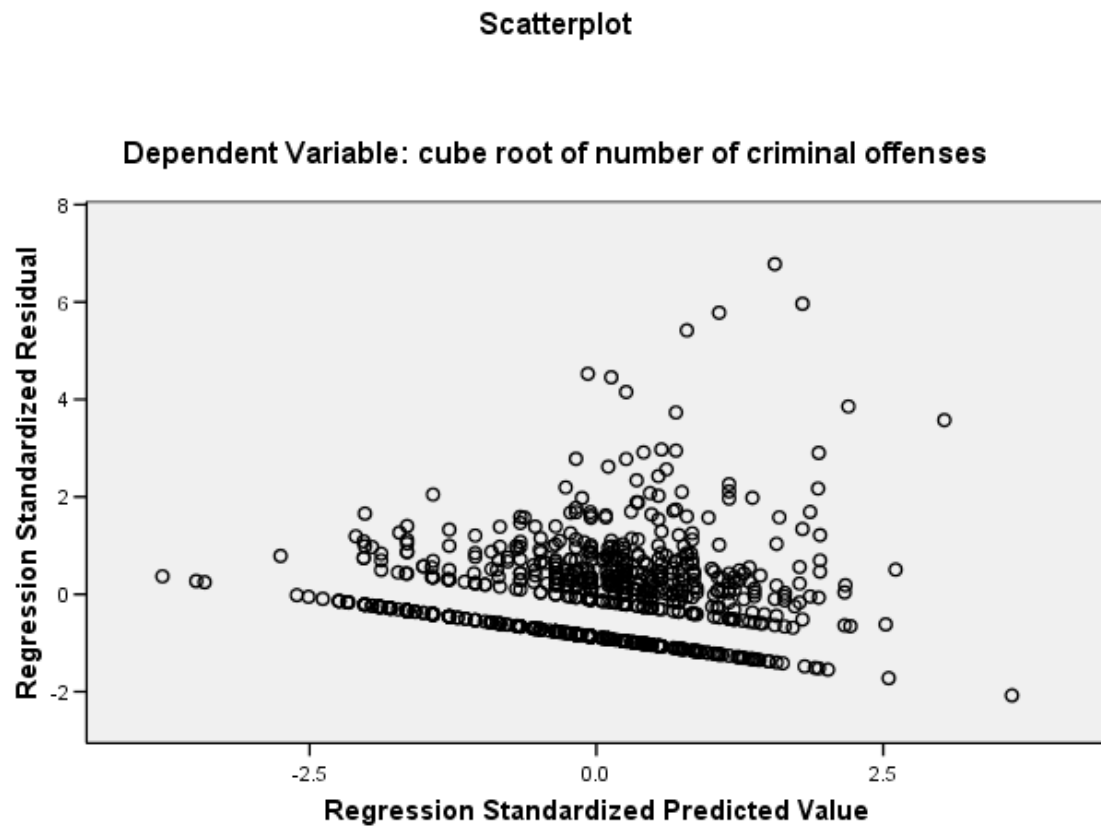


Figure 7: Social Control Variables Scatterplot with Criminal Offenses

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of results and their interpretation for each research question as well as of the study's weaknesses. Furthermore, there is discussion of the implications for social work practice, policy, and suggests direction and improvements needed for future research in this area.

Discussion

Overview of Significant Findings

Secondary data were used from a study of adolescents in a Chicago neighborhood. Univariate analyses were conducted to determine the make up of the sample, which was African American and Caucasian females, ages 12 and 15. Bivariate analyses showed a statistically significant positive correlation between attachment and the square root transformed number of status offenses; as well as a statistically significant negative correlation between involvement and square root transformed number of status offenses.

Regression analyses were conducted to test specific hypotheses implied by the social control model. The results did not support any of the hypotheses for number of status offenses. There were statistically significant interactions between the independent variables and race for number of criminal offenses. The statistically significant interaction between race and belief, and that between race and commitment, were not in the directions implied by the research hypotheses. The interaction between race and

involvement was such that as involvement increased, number of criminal offenses decreased, and this relationship was stronger for African-American than for Caucasian girls. This finding was contrary to predictions from the social control model.

Limitations of the Current Study

The item analysis conducted indicated low reliability of scores from the independent variable scales. Even though relationships were detected between independent variables and both number of status and number of criminal offenses, caution should be taken when interpreting the findings since they can only be interpreted within the context of these low reliabilities. Low reliabilities in independent variables can lead to biased regression estimates, with the biases in unpredictable directions (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Thus, the results reported from this study could be erroneous, and future research should make use of measures with better reliabilities.

Though the sample size was large (N=837), it may not be representative of the girls in the general juvenile population. The sample consisted predominately of African American females, thus the results may be more biased towards African American females. Therefore, we cannot assert with certainty that the model either worked the same for both groups, or that differences detected between the groups were real. The number of Caucasians in the secondary sample may have been too small to detect a meaningful difference.

The use of secondary data is a limitation of the study. The researcher was only able to construct measures of social control, based on the measures used in the original PHDCN study that approximated Hirschi's 1969 model. Items were selected only if they

appeared to be closely related to some measures used in tests of Hirschi's social control model. Had Hirschi's 1969 original measures been used and the researcher collected original data, then the results may have yielded findings of different relationships. Lastly, previous studies conducted by Hirschi only included males and not females. This could mean that his model is not applicable to females at all, and no matter what measures were used, it would still not be a significant predictor of delinquent behavior.

Implications for Research

More reliable measurement tools need to be constructed to test the social control model. Given the above results, researchers should go back and add items to the scales used in the current study that were not included in this study to see if the reliability in the scales increases. If so, they can attempt to use these alternate measurement procedures with the same data, or with data from another population. Examination of the validity of previous scales used to test this model with girls is also strongly recommended. It is possible that Hirschi's 1969 Social Control Model is not applicable to females. The results of this study showed some significant differences between African American and Caucasian girls, but the problems with reliability mentioned above strongly suggests that extreme caution be taken when interpreting the results of the current study. Retesting the model with a larger more diverse sample of females, and with more reliable measures, is crucial. There is also a need to confirm that the scales used to measure social control (attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief) and delinquent behavior function the same for men, women and people of different races in order for the results to be most valid for social work.

Implications for Social Work Practice and Policy

The results of this study provide both negative and positive implications for social work practice and policy. Social Control Theory is well recognized within sociology and criminology. It has been defined as being a good indicator of whether or not someone chooses to engage in delinquent behavior. There has been research to back up the validity of Social Control Theory. Theories drive research and Social Control Theory could be influential in future research with social service providers that provide services to this population of juveniles while incarcerated, as well as in the community. Since the measurement tools were unreliable, the results cannot be interpreted with confidence, so the results of the current study are of little practical use to social workers. Previous research has found differences among African American and Caucasian girls with respect to delinquent behavior. This research suggests that these groups should not be treated in the same way since they may respond to situations differently.

It was expected that the social control factors that contribute to delinquent behavior among African American girls would be different than those for Caucasian girls. In this study, results were suggestive that there were some differences in social control factors and engagement in delinquent behavior between the two groups, but these results were not strong enough to justify treating them in different ways. This topic and research opens doors for further research to be conducted in this area. The social work discipline does not make much use of social control theory. Social workers could use the significant results of studies when working with their clients to assess strengths and weaknesses. Social workers may also create treatment plans based on these results. There

is still much to be learned from social control theory and its impact on social work, the social work profession, and its clients.

Suggested Future Research

As researchers attempt to respond to the unique needs of females, race is often overlooked in favor of defining females as a homogeneous group. There continues to be limited information on how race influences female delinquency or racial differences in juvenile delinquency among the same gender. Thus, the interactions among individual traits, relationship to peers and family and neighborhood characteristics must be studied, not just differential rates of crime. The use of social control factors' contribution to delinquent behavior is more complex than this study captured. Even though the social control model has been used in various studies, particularly criminological, it was tentatively supported in this study. Only one of the variables (Involvement) held true in relation to status offenses, but three (Attachment, Commitment, and Belief) did not. But with more reliable instruments, it is possible different results would have been obtained. While the data set PHDCN provides a great opportunity for research, most of the studies conducted neglect important aspects of the participant's lives. The instruments lacked internal consistency as evidence by low reliability scores. So first, tests measuring the constructs must be improved. Second, more longitudinal research is necessary. Lastly, researchers need to use the social control model and test its validity in other fields and see if there are differences.

REFERENCES

- Acoca, L. (1998). Outside/inside: The violation of American girls at home, on the streets, and in the juvenile justice system. *Crime and Delinquency*, 44, 561-589.
- Agnew, R. & Brezina, T. (1997). Relational problems with peers, gender, and delinquency. *Youth and Society*, 29, 84-111.
- Akers, R.L. & Sellers, C.S. (2004). *Criminological theories: Introduction, evaluation, and application*, 4th edition. Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company.
- Allen, J.P. (1989). Adolescent pathways. *Child Psychiatry*, 23 (3), 34.
- Archwamety, T. & Katsiyannis, A. (1998). Factors related to recidivism among delinquent females at a state correctional facility. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 7(1), 59-67.
- Austrian, S.G. (2002). Adolescence. In S.G. Austrian (Ed.), *Developmental theories through the life cycle* (p. 123-180). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Baer, J. (1999). The effects of family structure and SES on family processes in early adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 22 (3), 341-354.
- Bergsmann, I. R. (1994). Establishing a foundation: Just the facts. *1994 juvenile female offenders conference: A time for change* (pp. 3-14). Lanham, MD: American Correctional Association.
- Bergsmann, I.R. (1989). The forgotten few. Juvenile female offenders. *Federal Probation*, 53 (1), 73.
- Bowker, L.H. & Klein, M.W. (1983). The etiology of female juvenile delinquency and gang membership: A test of psychological and social structural explanations. *Adolescence*, 18, 739-751.
- Brooks-Gunn et al (1997). Sections adapted from *Material Hardship and Welfare*

Knowledge.

Brown, W.K. (1977). Black female gangs in Philadelphia. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 21(3), 221.

Buka, SL, Selner-O'Hagan, MB, Kindlon, DJ, Earls, FJ. (1997). The "My Exposure to Violence Interviews". *Administration and Scoring Manual*, Version 3. Boston, MA: Harvard School of Public Health.

Burman, M., Telles, C., Hough, R. & Escobar, J. (1987). Measurement of acculturation in a community population of Mexican-Americans. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 9(2), 105-130.

Calhoun, G., Jurgens, J., & Chen, F. (1993). The neophyte female delinquent: A review of the literature. *Adolescence*, 28 (110), 460.

Campbell, A. (1990). On the invisibility of the female delinquent peer group. *Woman and Criminal Justice*, 21 (1), 41.

Campbell, J. R. (1995). Conference focuses on issues facing female juvenile offenders. *Corrections Today*, 57 (1), 72.

Canter, R.J. (1982). Family correlates of male and female delinquency. *Criminology*, 20, 149.

Carlen, P. (1993). *Offending girls*. NSW 2065 Australia: Allen & Unwin Pty Ltd.

Clark, M.L. (1989). *Friendships and peer relations of black adolescents*. Berkeley, CA: Cobb and Henry Press.

Clark, M., & Ayers, M. (1986b). *Friendship expectations and the evaluation of present*

- friendships: Effects of reciprocity, gender and race*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Chesney-Lind, M. (1987). *Childhood aggression and violence: Sources of influence, prevention and control*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Chesney-Lind, M. (1989). Girls' crime and woman's place: Toward a feminist model of female delinquency. *Crime and Delinquency*, 35, 5-29.
- Chesney-Lind, M. & Shelden, R. (1992). *Girls and violence: An exploration of the gender gap in seriously delinquent behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Chesney-Lind, M. & Shelden, R. (1992). *Girls and violence: Sources of influence, prevention and control*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Chesney-Lind, M. & Shelden, R. (1992). *Girls, delinquency, and juvenile justice*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Chesney-Lind, M. & Shelden, R. (2004). *Girls, delinquency, and juvenile justice*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Cincota, N.F. (2002). The journey of middle childhood: Who are "latency"-age children? In S.G. Austrian (Ed.), *Developmental theories through the life cycle* (p. 123-180). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc., Publishers.
- Cushman, P. (1995). *Constructing the self, constructing America*. Menlo Park: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Dishion, T.J., Spracklen, K.M., Andrews, D.W., & Patterson, G.R. (1996). *Deviancy*

- training in male adolescent friendships. *Behavior Therapy*, 27, 373-390.
- Durant, R.H., Cadenhead, C., Pendergrast, R.A., Slavens, G., & Linder, C. (1994). Factors associated with the use of violence among urban black adolescents. *American Journal of Public Health*, 84(4), 612-617.
- Earls, F., Brooks-Gunn, J., Raudenbush, S.W., & Sampson, R.J. (1994). *Project on human development in Chicago neighborhoods (PHDCN)*. Boston, MA: Harvard Medical School.
- Farnsworth, M. (1984). Family structure, family attributes, and delinquency in a sample of low-income, minority males and females. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 13, 349-363.
- Fausto-Sterling, A. (1992). *Myths of gender: Biological theories about women and men*. New York: Basic Books.
- Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2002). *Crime in the United States 2001*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Federal Bureau of Investigation (1999). *Crime in the United States 1998*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Fejes-Mendoza, K., Miller, D., & Eppler, R. (1995). Portraits of dysfunction: Criminal, educational, and family profiles of juvenile female offenders. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 18, 309-321.
- Ferdinand, T.N. (1991). History overtakes the juvenile justice system. *Crime and Delinquency*, 37, 204-224.
- Flannery, D.J., Williams, L.L., & Vazsonyi, A.T. (1999). Who are they with and what

- are they doing? Delinquent behavior, substance use, and early adolescents' after school time. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 69, 247-253.
- Giordano, P.C., Cernkovich, S.A., & Pugh, M.D. (1986). Friendships and delinquency. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91 (5), 1171.
- Gove, W. & Crutchfield, R. (1982). The family and juvenile delinquency. *Sociological Quarterly*, 23, 301.
- Hawkins, D.F., Laub, J.H., & Lauritsen, J.L. (1998). Race, ethnicity, and serious juvenile offending. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hepburn, J.R. (1977). Testing alternative models of delinquency causation. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 67(4), 450-460.
- Hill, S.A. (1999). African American children: Socialization and development in families. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of Delinquency*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Horowitz, R. & Pottieger, A.E. (1991). Gender bias in juvenile justice handling of seriously crime involved youth. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 28, 75-101.
- Howe, T.R. & Parke, R.D. (2001). Friendship quality and sociometric status: Between-group differences and links to loneliness in severely abused and nonabused children. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 25, 585-606.
- Huizinga, D., Esbenson, F. & Weiher, A. (1991). Are there multiple paths to delinquency? *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 82, 83-118.
- Johnson, L.B. & Staples, R. (2005). Black families at the crossroads: Challenges and

- prospects*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Jones, M.A. & Krisbert, B. (1994). Images and reality juvenile crime, youth violence and *public policy*. San Francisco, CA: The National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
- Joseph, J. (1995). Juvenile delinquency among African Americans. *Journal of Black Studies*, 25 (4), 475-491.
- Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, (P.L. 93-415).
- Keenan, K. & Shaw, D. (1997). Developmental and social influences on young girls early problem behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121 (1), 95-113.
- Krisberg, B. (1992). *Juvenile justice: Improving the quality of care*. San Francisco, CA: The National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
- Ladner, J.A. (1990). *Tomorrow's Tomorrow*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Leiber, M.J. & Mack, K.Y. (2003). The individual and joint effects of race, gender, and family status on juvenile justice decision-making. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 40 (1), 34-70.
- Lenzen V, S., Doreleijers, T., Van Dijk, E., & Hartman, C.A. (2000). Girls in detention: What are their characteristics? A project to explore and document the character of this target group and the significant ways in which it differs from one consisting of boys. *Journal of Adolescence*, 23, 287-303.
- Lewis, M.C. (1998). *Black female rites of passage*. Seventh printing.
- Loeber, Rolf (1988). *Families and crime*. National Institute of Justice, Crime File Study Guide. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Maeir (1965). Adolescencehood. *Social Casework*, 46.

- McGarrell, E.F. (1991). Differential effects of juvenile justice reform on incarceration rates of the states. *Crime and Delinquency*, 37, 262 – 280.
- Miller, J. (1996). Race, gender, and juvenile justice: An examination of disposition decision-making for delinquent girls. Pp. 219-246 in *Race, Gender and Class in Criminology: The Intersection*, edited by M. Schwartz and D. Milovanovic. New York: Garland.
- Moos, R. & Moos, B. (1994). *Family Environment Scale Manual: Development, Applications, Research* - Third Edition. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Morash, M. (1986). Gender, peer group experiences and seriousness of delinquency. *Journal of Research Crime and Delinquency*, 23, 43-67.
- National Criminal Justice Reference Service. (n.d. a). Exploring the link between violence against women and women's involvement in illegal activity. **Retrieved April 1, 2005 from <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles1/nij/180973.txt>**
- National Criminal Justice Reference Service. (n.d. b). Childhood victimization and the derailment of girls and women to the criminal justice system. **Retrieved April 1, 2005 from <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles1/nij/180973.txt>**
- Odem, M.E., & Schlossman, S. (1991). Guardians of virtue: The juvenile court and female delinquency. *Crime and Delinquency*, 37, 186-203.
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (1998 a). Guiding principles for promising female programming. **Retrieved March 20, 2005 from <http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/principles/contents.html>**
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1998 c). Recent profile of the

adolescent female offender. **Retrieved March 20, 2005 from**

<http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/gender/oview-2.html>

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. (1998 d). National efforts to address the needs of the adolescent female offender. **Retrieved March 20, 2005,**

from <http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org/pubs/gender/oview-3.html>

Poe-Yamagata, E., & Butts, J. A. (1996). *Female offenders in the juvenile justice system: Statistics summary*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Poole, E.D. & Regoli, R.M. (1979). Parental support, delinquent friends, and delinquency: A test of interaction effects. *Journal of criminal law and criminology*, 72(2), 188.

Prinstein, M.J., Boergers, J. & Spirito, A. (2001). Adolescents' and their friends' health-risk behavior: Factors that alter or add to peer influence. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 26, 287-298.

Puzzanchera, C., Stahl, A., Finnegan, T.A., Tierney, N., Snyder, H.N. (2004). *Juvenile court statistics*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Quinsey, V.L., Skilling, T.A., Lalumiere, M.L. & Craig, W.M. (2004). *Juvenile delinquency: Understanding the origins of individual differences*. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Rosenbaum, J.L. (1989). Family dysfunction and female delinquency. *Crime and Delinquency*, 35(1), 31.

Schlossman, S. & Wallach, S. (1978). The crime of precocious sexuality: Female

- juvenile delinquency in the progressive era. *Harvard Educational Review*, 48, 65-94.
- Selner-O'Hagan, M & Earls, F. (1994). *PHDCN version of the HOME Inventory*.
Unpublished manual.
- Sickmund, M. (2000). Offenders in juvenile court, 1997. *Juvenile Justice Bulletin*, 1-15.
- Simourd, L. & Andrews, D.A. (1994). Correlates of delinquency: A look at gender differences. *Forum on Corrections Research*, 6, 26-31.
- Smith, D.J., & McVie, S. (2003). Theory and method in the Edinburgh study of youth transitions and crime. *British Journal of Criminology*, 43, 169-195.
- Snyder, H.N. (2003). *Juvenile Justice Bulletin*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice. December 2003: NCJ 201370.
- Steffensmeier, D. & Allan, E. (1996). Gender and crime: Toward a gendered theory of female offending. *Annual Review Sociology*, 22, 459-487.
- Steinhart, D. & Steele, P.A. (1990). *Juvenile justice models for California new approaches for troubled youth in the nations largest state*. San Francisco, CA: The National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
- Stevens, J.W. (1997). African American female adolescent identity development: A three dimensional perspective. *Child Welfare League of America*, 145.
- Sussman, A. (1977). Sex-based discrimination and the pins jurisdiction. In *beyond control: Status offenders in the juvenile court*. Cambridge, Mass: Balinger.
- Svensson, R. (2003). Gender differences in adolescent drug use: The impact of parental monitoring and peer deviance. *Youth & Society*, 34 (3), 300-329.

- Tappan, P. (1947). *Delinquent girls in court*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Tuell, J.A. (2003). *Promoting a coordinated and integrated child welfare and juvenile justice system*. Child Welfare League of America.
- Turner, R.J., Frankel, B., & Levin, D. (1983). Social support: Conceptualization, measurement and implications for mental health. In J.R. Greenley (Ed.), *Research in Community and Mental Health*, 3, 67-111. Greenwich: JAI Press.
- U.S. Department of Justice (1996). *Female offenders in the juvenile justice system: Statistical summary*. Public office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.
- Van Voorhis, P. & Cullen, F.T., Mathers, R.A., & Garner, C.C. (1988). The impact of family structure and quality on delinquency: A comparative assessment of structural and functional factors. *Criminology*, 26(2), 235-261.
- Weiten, W. & Lloyd, M.A. (2003). *Psychology applied to modern life*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson.
- Wiggins, J. (2004). *The criminal justice system and women: Offenders, prisoners, victims, and workers*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Williams, J.H., Ayers, C.D., Abott, R.D., Hawkins, A.J., & Catalan, R.F. (1999). Racial differences in risk factors for delinquency and substance use among adolescents. *Social Work Research*, 23, 241-256.
- Yoshikawa, H. (1994). Prevention as cumulative protection: Effects of early family support and education on chronic delinquency and its risks. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 28-45.
- Youth Interview Schedule (1990). Philadelphia Family Management Study.

Zimring, F. (1981). Kids, groups and crime: Some implications of a well-known secret.
The *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 72 (3), 867.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Tables

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Sample Characteristics

Variables	N	Percent	Mean	SD
PC Martial Status			3.25	2.904
Single	277	18.5%		
Separated	102	6.8%		
Divorced	171	11.4%		
Married	824	55.1%		
Widowed	56	3.7%		
Live with Partner	65	4.3%		
PC Finish High School			.67	.469
No	350	32.6%		
Yes	724	48.1%		
PC Study Beyond High School			.79	.407
No	150	20.7%		
Yes	574	79.3%		
Race				
Black	560	37.9%		
White	283	19.1%		
Religious			.85	2.529
No	129	8.6%		
Yes	1369	91.3%		
PC Salary			3.19	1.526
<5,000	88	15.7%		
5,000-9.999	94	16.7%		
10,000-19.999	170	30.2%		
20,000-29,999	109	19.4%		
30,000-39.999	54	9.6%		
40,000-49,999	28	5.0%		
>50,000	19	3.4%		

APPENDIX B: Scales

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE

1). Family members have strict ideas about what is right or wrong

1. T 2. F

2). There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our family

1. T 2. F

3). We believe there are some things you just have to take on faith

1. T 2. F

PROVISION OF SOCIAL RELATIONS SCALE

1). No matter what happens, I know that my family will always be there for me should I need them.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

2). My family lets me know they think I'm a worthwhile (valuable) person.

1-very true

2-somewhat true

3-not true

3). People in my family have confidence in me.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

4.) I have a grandparent, uncle, or aunt that I feel close to and who helps me out.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

5.) I have a brother, a sister or a cousin who listens to me and understands my problems.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

SELF-REPORT OF OFFENDING SCALE

Property Offenses

Have you ever:

1A). Purposely damaged or destroyed property that did not belong to you? (for example, breaking, cutting, or marking up something).

1. Yes

0. No

1B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

2A). Purposely set fire to a house, building, car, or vacant lot?

1. Yes

0. No

2B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

3A). Entered or broke into a building to steal something?

1. Yes

0. No

3B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

4A). Stolen something from a store?

1. Yes

0. No

4B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

5A). Taken something that did not belong to you from a member of your household?

1. Yes

0. No

5B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Have you ever:

6A). Taken something that did not belong to you from your place of work or your employer?

1. Yes

0. No

6B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

7A). Snatched someone's purse or wallet or picked someone's pocket?

1. Yes

0. No

7B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

8A). Taken something that did not belong to your from a car?

1. Yes

0. No

8B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

9A). Knowingly bought or sold stolen goods?

1. Yes

0. No

9B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

10A). Stolen a car or motorcycle to keep or sell?

1. Yes

0. No

10B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Have you ever:

11A). Used checks illegally to pay for something?

1. Yes

0. No

11B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

12A). Used credit or bank cards without the owner's permission?

1. Yes

0. No

12B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Violent Offenses

Have you ever:

1A). Hit someone with whom you lived with the idea of hurting them?

1. Yes

0. No

1B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

2A). Hit someone with whom you did not live with the idea of hurting them?

1. Yes

0. No

2B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

3A). Attacked someone with a weapon?

1. Yes

0. No

3B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Have you ever:

4A). Used a weapon or force to get money or things from people?

1. Yes

0. No

4B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

5A). Thrown objects, such as rocks or bottles, at people (other than events you have already mentioned)?

1. Yes

0. No

5B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

6A). Been involved in a gang fight in which someone was hurt or threatened with harm?

1. Yes

0. No

6B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

7A). Had or tried to have sexual relations with someone against their will?

1. Yes

0. No

7B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Status Offenses

Have you ever:

1A). Run away from home and stayed away overnight?

1. Yes

0. No

1B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

2A). Absent from school without an excuse?

1. Yes

0. No

2B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

3A). Absent from grade/high school without an excuse?

2. Yes

0. No

3B). How many times in your last year of grade/high school did you do this?

HOME INVENTORY

1). Subject eats one meal per day, on most days, with PC and father (or father figure).

Yes

No

2). PC talks daily with subject about his/her day.

Yes

No

SCHOOL SCREEN SCALE

- 1). Does subject currently attend school?
- 2). Was/Is subject routinely involved in extracurricular activities directly connected with his/her school, such as school sports teams, school clubs, music groups, etc.
- 3). Was/Is subject involved in any other kind of after school program? (This may be at subject's school, but is more of an after school program rather than extracurricular activity).

APPENDIX C: Excluded Measures

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE

1). Family members attend church, synagogue, or Sunday school fairly often

1. T 2. F

2). There are very few rules to follow in our family

1. T 2. F

3). The Bible is a very important book in our home

1. T 2. F

4). Rules are pretty inflexible in our household

1. T 2. F

5). Family members believe that if you sin you will be punished

1. T 2. F

6). You can't get away with much in our family

1. T 2. F

PROVISION OF SOCIAL RELATIONS SCALE

1). Sometimes I'm not sure if I can completely rely (count) on my family.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

2). People in my family help me find solutions to my problem.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

3). I know my family will always stand by me.

1-very true

2- somewhat true

3-not true

SELF-REPORT OF OFFENDING SCALE

Have you ever:

1A). Run away from home and stayed away overnight?

1. Yes

0. No

1B.) How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

2A1). Absent from school without an excuse?

1. Yes

0. No

2A2). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

2B1). Absent from grade/high school without and excuse?

1. Yes

0. No

2B2). How many times in your last year of grade/high school did you do this?

3A). Carried a hidden weapon?

1. Yes

0. No

3B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

4A). Caused trouble in a public place so that people complained about it, such as being

loud or disorderly?

1. Yes

0. No

4B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Have you ever:

5A). Sold marijuana or pot?

1. Yes

0. No

5B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

6A). Sold cocaine or crack?

1. Yes

0. No

6B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

7A). Sold heroin?

1. Yes

0. No

7B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

8A). Been paid by someone for having sexual relations with them?

1. Yes

0. No

8B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

9A). Used a false name or alias to try to obtain something you were not entitled to, such as a job or bank loan?

1. Yes

0. No

9B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

Have you ever:

10A). Given false information (other than a false name) on an application for a job, a tax form, or an application for a loan or bank account?

1. Yes

0. No

10B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

11A). Obtained welfare benefits or unemployment checks that you were not entitled to?

1. Yes

0. No

11B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

12A). Been given a ticket for a driving offense?

1. Yes

0. No

12B). How many times has this happened in the past 12 months?

13A). Driven a motor vehicle when you did not have a driver's license or after your driver's license had been suspended?

1. Yes

0. No

13B). How many times have you done this in the past 12 months?

HOME INVENTORY

1). Family visits or receives visits from relative or friends about twice a month.

Yes

No

2). Subject sees and spends some time with father or father figure 4 days a week.

Yes

No

3). PC or other family member regularly engages in outdoor recreation with subject once every two weeks.

Yes

No

4). Subject has gone with a family member on one outing every other week.

a. Yes

b. No

5). Family member has taken subject, or arranged for subject to go to a scientific, historical, art, or cultural museum within the past year.

a. Yes

b. No

6). Family member has taken subject, or arranged for subject to go on a trip more than 50 miles from home during the past year.

Yes

No

7.) Family member has taken subject or arranged for subject to take a trip on a plane, train (NOT subway), or bus within the past year.

- a. Yes
- b. No

8.) Family member has taken subject, or arranged for subject to attend some type of live musical or theater performance within the past year.

- a. Yes
- b. No

9.) Subject is regularly included in family's recreational hobby. (biking, walking, playing in park, playing ball, swimming, checkers, puzzles)

- a. Yes
- b. No

10.) PC sets limits for subject and generally enforces them.

- a. Yes
- b. No

11.) PC is generally consistent in establishing or applying family rules.

- a. Yes
- b. No

12.) PC does not violate rules of common courtesy.

- a. Yes
- b. No

SCHOOL SCREEN SCALE

- 1). What was the last grade subject was in?
- 2). What grade is subject currently in?
- 3). In the past year, was subject ever truant (skipped school without and excuse)?
- 4). In the pat year, did subject ever skip classes without an excuse?
- 5). Thinking back to the last year subject was in high school/grade school, was subject ever truant—skipped school for the whole day without and excuse?
- 6). How often did subject skip school for the whole day without and excuse?
- 7). Thinking back to the last year subject was in high school/grade school, did subject ever skip classes without an excuse?
- 8). Has subject ever skipped a grade?
- 9). Has subject ever repeated a grade?
- 10). What kind of program was/is this? (Circle all that apply)
 1. Recreational (sports, games, crafts)
 2. Artistic (music, dance, art)
 3. Academic enrichment (tutoring, classes)
 4. Other (please specify)
- 11). How would you describe the education subject is receiving in his/her current school?
 - a. excellent
 - b. good
 - c. fair
 - d. poor

VITA

Andridia V. Mapson was born in Champaign, Illinois on August 6th, 1977. She moved to Los Angeles, CA at the age of 3. She finished high school in Baldwin Park, CA, and proceeded for a college degree in Psychology at Clark Atlanta University, in Atlanta, GA. After graduating in May of 1999, she was accepted as a master's student at Clark Atlanta University's Whitney M. Young Jr. School of Social Work in Atlanta, GA. In May 2001, she received the degree of Master of Social Work (MSW). After graduating, she worked for a conditional release program (CONREP) in Los Angeles, CA providing individual and group therapy to mentally ill offenders as well as a juvenile detention center in Downey, CA. She started the Ph.D. program in Social Work at the University of Tennessee in August 2003. She received her Doctorate in Philosophy in Social Work from the University of Tennessee in August 2006.