RELATIONSHIP OF ADJUDICATED YOUTHS' PERCEPTIONS OF JUVENILE JUSTICE WORKERS' IMPLICIT THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT GOALS ON MOTIVATION TO COMPLETE TREATMENT TO REDUCE DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

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Abstract:
Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence (i.e., *incremental* and *entity* theories) and achievement goals (i.e., *mastery* and *performance* goals) in determining youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals) to complete treatment programs designed to reduce delinquency. Hierarchical regression models were used to evaluate youths' perceptions of workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals and interactions of youths' perceptions of workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence on youths' motivation to complete delinquency reduction programs. To test interaction effects each variable was computed into standardized interaction terms and tested for effects of youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals on youth self-efficacy and achievement goals.

Findings and Conclusions: The regression models were significant when examining for the effect of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on youths' self-efficacy, *mastery* goals, and *performance* goals. Multiple regressions were run to investigate the effects of youths' perceptions of workers' achievement goals (i.e., *mastery goals* and *performance* goals) on youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals. The regressions revealed youths' perceptions of workers' *mastery* goals positively affect youths' self-efficacy, *mastery* goals, and *performance* goals and workers' *entity* theories of intelligence positively affect youths' *performance* goals. A significant interaction effect was revealed between youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy, *mastery* goals and *performance* goals for completing treatment. The relationship between workers' *performance* goals and delinquent youths' self-efficacy varied as a function of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental*. Youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals showed a significant positive effect on youths' self-efficacy only when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs were high. Youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs moderated the effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance goals* on youths' *mastery* goals. The relationship between youths' *performance* goals and youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals varied depending upon youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The circumstances and needs of youth who find themselves involved with the judicial system are different from those of adults involved with the judicial system. Thus, the juvenile justice system (JJS) was developed to address these distinct differences and to provide a system separate from the adult criminal justice system. The United States Government Accountability Office (GAO) defines juvenile offenders as "youth under the age of 18 . . . found to have committed an offense that would be criminal if committed as an adult" (GAO Reports, 2009, p.1). In most states, the age for criminal accountability is fixed at 18 years of age. Because of the discrete differences between adult and juvenile offenders, the juvenile system's goals differ from those of the adult court. The primary goal of the JJS is the rehabilitation of the juvenile offender as opposed to punishment (Wernham, 2004). Community safety and youth accountability are crucial among the many goals of the juvenile justice system (Rosado, 2000). Probation departments of the juvenile courts have the primary responsibility of ensuring that rehabilitation, treatment services, and supervision follow the release of youth from treatment programs along with the support of youth skill development (Torbet, 2008).

Juvenile delinquent offenses are considered by the juvenile courts when there is a need to determine appropriate dispositions or arrangements for juveniles who are

adjudicated delinquent. At the time of the disposition the needs and circumstances of the adjudicated youth are taken into consideration (National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges (NCJFCJ, 2005). The dispositional hearing determines the services required to address the youths' needs and circumstances. Since the juvenile court view adolescence as a time of significant developmental change, the juvenile justice system recognizes adjudication as an opportunity to address delinquency and make a significant impact on youths' lives while deterring further delinquent behavior (Rosado, 2000).

The juvenile justice system, established by federal legislation, prescribes processes for the treatment of youth placed in the juvenile justice system. Within the juvenile system, a number of governmental agencies work in concert to provide a myriad of specific services tailored to meet the varied needs of youth. Personnel from numerous government departments, agencies, and organizations; such as the police, social welfare and probation, judiciary, lawyers, detention centers and institutions, work together to assist adjudicated youth in achieving treatment goals (Wernham, 2004). Treatment interventions for adjudicated delinquent youths' behavior may range from intake screening with release to home to complex residential programs that deal with a number of aspects of environmental and developmental supports (Brandt, 2006).

In most states, the basic responsibility of the JJS includes functions such as intake screening of delinquent cases, referral to juvenile courts, predisposition or pre-sentencing investigation, and court-ordered supervision of juvenile offenders. The juvenile system provides aftercare or post-custody services for youth released from institutions and other treatment facilities such as detention and residential facilities (Torbet, 2008). JJS workers are expected to provide both case management and public safety functions. Therefore, the

JJS workers, responsible for providing these functions, can at times find these roles or functions conflict with one another (Howe, Clawson, & Larivee, 2007).

Facilitating the motivation of youth to complete treatment is one of the most important of the many functions of juvenile justice workers. It is as important that the JJS worker report youths' treatment work to the court. Juvenile justice workers must report treatment successes, failures and delinquent behaviors to the court. For some juvenile justice workers this role creates a difficult and conflicted obligation when coupled with the requirement to provide motivation for youth to achieve treatment goals (Howe, Clawson, & Larivee, 2007).

Day, Bryan, Davey, and Casey (2006), sited the failure of youth to complete treatment intervention programs and achieve intended program outcomes successfully is frequently related to poor motivation. Juvenile justice workers who facilitate increased motivation in youth may demonstrate an improvement in youths' program participation and involvement. Mincey, Maldonado, Lacey, and Thompson (2008) determined when juvenile justice workers take steps to increase youths' motivation there is an increased likelihood that youth will complete treatment programs and achieve outcomes successfully. Mincey, et al., (2008) found that many juvenile offenders report their workers are not adequately prepared to provide them with the motivation or skill development they need and that poorly prepared workers is an obstacle to youths' progress in intervention and treatment programming.

Like teachers, juvenile justice workers are in a position to provide motivational discourse to youth by encouraging persistence on tasks, helping to minimize frustration and personal risk, and enhance confidence (Turner et al., 2002). Mincey, et al., (2008)

suggest that by helping youth construct knowledge, mastery goals may be encouraged. Mastery goals may aid youth in building stronger skills and developing greater motivation. When mastery goals are supported, there is an association with lower incidences of avoidance strategies, thus increasing the likelihood of successful outcomes (Turner et al., 2002).

Mincey, et al., (2008) determined that by assisting youth in the development of mastery goals orientation, youth are provided with greater opportunities to gain new skills. This achievement goal further motivates and supports youth to continue learning. Youth provided with models of mastery goals are encouraged to engage in new skill development as they learns new skills by asking questions, and making mistakes (Mincey, Maldonado, Lacey, & Thompson, 2008). When youth are successfully engaged in skill development, motivation is increased due to the efforts and diligence they invest (Turner et al., 2002).

Motivation is grounded in the fundamental belief that people have the power to effect change in life circumstances (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, & Regalia, 2001). When youth believe they have little or no ability to control life outcomes, the result is often poor motivation to pursue goals or prevent undesired outcomes (Bandura, 1991). Further, when youth hold core beliefs that little or no power exists to influence destiny youth may develop inadequate incentives to persevere when difficulties arise. Generalized self-efficacy is derived from a sense of competence across various domains. Self-efficacy impacts individuals' decisions, goals, efforts, and willingness to try new things. Self-efficacy impacts individuals' resiliency, depression and optimism or pessimism (Bandura, 1991).

Bandura et al. (2001, 2008, & 2003) suggest the self-efficacy belief system is the foundation of human motivation and an important factor in deterring delinquent behavior. These beliefs influence the effort youth invest and in the types of decisions they make at the important junctures in life. Self-efficacy beliefs influence how youth perceive personal accomplishments. Youths' self-efficacy serves to mediate or insulate against peer pressure and delinquent behaviors. Bandura, et al., (2003) suggest that increased self-efficacy triggers concern over harm to others, providing specific pro-social behaviors that could provide a deterrent to delinquent behaviors. This may increase youths' abilities to discuss conflicts with parents and other adults. Self-efficacy in areas such as self-regulation provides youth with a greater degree of skill to resist delinquent activity (Bandura et al., 2001).

Self-efficacy and achievement goals are two predominant theories in the motivation literature. Self-efficacy works in combination with achievement goals to increase one's motivation. Achievement goals refer to the purposes or reasons an individual has for engaging in tasks. As goals are attained, self-efficacy is improved (Caraway et al. 2003). Achievement goals in the area of juvenile justice have practical implications since delinquent youth attach great importance to goals associated with delinquent activities, freedom from adult control, and the desire for independence. Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton (1997) concluded that delinquent youth attached high importance to ego orientation goals. They attach importance to goals relating to peer status and work avoidance. However, it remains possible that delinquent youth invest task orientation to some of their goals. For example, youth may be prepared to work hard to

achieve outcomes in activities, such as delinquent activities, that others (schools, parents, authorities) find undesirable (Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, & Houghton, 1997).

The motivation of youth may be significantly influenced by the individuals with whom youth have relationships, the individuals involved with youths' skill development, as well as the environment in which youth are expected to attain their goals (Leroy, Bressoux, Sarrazin, & Trouilloud, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to attend to the relationships youth have with juvenile justice workers. The theories of motivation to which JJS workers ascribe affect the perception they have of the youth with whom they work and the perceptions youth have of them. As a result an interpretive framework is created to support behavior and goals corresponding to those frameworks. For example, workers' implicit theories of intelligence may influence youths' motivation. Juvenile justice workers who adhere to entity theories of intelligence may find they are likely to praise youth for innate abilities when youth are successful, thus creating performance-oriented climate for youth. Whereas workers who ascribe to incremental theories of intelligence of intelligence may find they promote a motivational climate that urges youth to work hard and be persistent in order to attain goals. This results in a positive relationship between the incremental or growth theory of intelligence and a high level of self-efficacy in youth (Leroy, Bressoux, Sarrazin, & Trouilloud, 2007).

Background of the Problem

Juvenile justice workers or practitioners referred to as social workers, fulfill a dual role as case managers and public safety officials. While providing case management, the JJS workers are tasked with ensuring public safety and youth accountability, management of youth behavior, and rehabilitation and coordination of youth

development. This faceted role may be viewed by some workers as an opportunity to provide youth with skill development and to work directly as a mentor to youth. Some workers may see this role as providing the JJS practitioners the opportunity for mentoring and coaching youths' pro-social skill development. However, Howe, Clawson, and Larivee (2007) found that for many workers the duality of the role proves to cause much difficulty. The role requires the worker to hold youth accountable for behavior while providing case management and skill development. This may prove difficult for workers when determining how to execute the job duties effectively. Requiring the oversight of delinquent youths' behavior for many parole or probation counselors provides an experience of conflict with the role of case management (Howe, et al., 2007). Some workers experience the court-reporting role as an inhibiter of success and a barrier to the relationship, when working toward rehabilitative and treatment goals with youth (Howe, et al., 2007). This conflict provides for an enthusiastic topic of discussion in the juvenile justice community.

Though youth development is a necessary responsibility for JJS workers, given that youth with poor motivation may be more likely to have poor problem-solving skills, that results in delinquent behavior (Kuperminc & Allen, 2001), the role of motivating delinquent youth has not been addressed by research thus far. Mallicoat (2007) suggests the relationship between the workers and delinquent youth be examined to determine how these relationships can be most beneficial.

Though there is no research regarding delinquent youths' beliefs related to achievement goals, motivation research in educational settings demonstrates that student's beliefs about personal skills are related to success in the classroom (Skinner,

Wellborn, & Connell, 1990). Additionally, there are findings that students with poor self-efficacy and motivation may believe they are unable to interact effectively with others and expect negative outcomes (Kuperminc & Allen, 2001). Whether students perceive teacher support to be dependent upon the students' abilities has an impact on students' motivation to perform (Ryan & Patrick, 2001). This suggests that students' perceptions of teachers' achievement goals are related to changes in student motivation (Ryan & Patrick, 2001) and like teachers, juvenile justice workers' implicit beliefs of intelligence for youth and achievement goals may be instrumental in facilitating increased self-efficacy and a mastery goals in treatment motivation for youth involved in the juvenile justice system.

Theoretical Framework

Few studies have examined delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence (i.e., entity vs. incremental beliefs) and achievement goals (i.e., mastery vs. performance goals). None have examined how these perceptions affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals. Review of theoretical frameworks for major constructs guided this study.

Youths' Self-Efficacy

Zimmerman and Cleary (2006) noted self-efficacy beliefs include judgments about the abilities necessary to make progress towards the attainment or fulfillment of goals. Self-efficacy beliefs refer to the beliefs or feelings that one has about one's competence with regard to the difficulty of a task. These beliefs influence the choices people make and the courses of action they pursue based upon those beliefs. When faced with challenging situations students with weak self-efficacy beliefs frequently fail to

persevere in attempts to achieve specific goals, while students with strong self-efficacy beliefs are able to anticipate and develop strategies for successful outcomes (Bandura, 2006; Pajares, 2006; Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Similarly, one's perceived self-efficacy in learning situations affects how individuals approach mastering new challenges, depending upon success or failure in similar activities in the past (Bandura, et al., 2001). Individuals tend to perform according to how well they believe or perceive they are able to perform. These beliefs or perceptions may be dependent upon specific tasks rather than broad general categories since self-efficacy beliefs are specific on context and task (Bandura, 2006; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006). Zimmerman and Cleary (2006) noted that self-efficacy beliefs include judgments about one's abilities to coordinate the steps necessary to make progress towards, attain or fulfill goals such as achievement goals.

Youths' Achievement Goals

An individual's goals are the outcomes that one is purposefully trying to achieve and one's achievement goals are one's reason for approaching and engaging in the tasks (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Achievement goals represent an individual's reasons for engaging in a behavior in an achievement situation (Elliot, 2005). Two types of achievement goals have been identified: performance; which are associated with demonstrating competence, and mastery, which is concerned with developing task mastery and competence.

Youth with mastery goals are concerned with increasing competency, and are able to recognize links between effort and outcomes. They recognize growth as incremental, and recognize mistakes as part of the learning process (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese,

2008). Schunk, et al., (2008) suggest that students demonstrate a positive correlation between self-efficacy and mastery goals.

Research indicates that teacher achievement goals affect students' achievement goals. When teachers promote achievement goals students are likely to adopt a similar, if not the same, achievement goals (Ames, 1992; Midgley et al. 1995; Roeser et al. 1996). Walker and Greene (2009) determined that students are likely to adopt achievement goals that correspond with the achievement goals that exist in their classrooms. Ames and Archer (1988) asserted that there is a strong relationship between classroom mastery goals and students crediting teachers when the students performed well. However, students tend to assume responsibility for performance when they performed poorly in mastery classrooms. Ames and Archer (1988) found that students in classrooms embracing performance goals tend to attribute failure to lack of ability and difficult work. The degree to which teachers establish classroom climates that emphasize mastery, rather than performance, may predict how students choose to approach tasks and engage in learning activities (Ames & Archer, 1988).

Juvenile Justice Workers' Implicit Theories of Intelligence for Youth

Implicit theories are likely to influence the interpretations individuals have of challenges in their lives and how they respond to these challenges (Erdley et al., 1997; Molden & Dweck, 2006). Implicit theory of intelligence is a fundamental belief that sets up contrasting patterns of achievement motivation (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). Past research indicates that teachers who believe student learning can be cultivated or developed through effort or trying hard ascribe to an *incremental* theory or *growth* orientation. Teachers who believe intelligence is an "immutable trait" hold the *entity*

theory or *fixed* orientation (Dweck, 1999), which can influence student academic success. Teachers with this belief tend to focus on student performance and abilities which may prove to be detrimental to student academic success (Leroy, Bressoux, Sarrazin, & Trouilloud, 2007). Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck (2007) found when teachers taught students to think of intelligence as malleable those students had more positive motivation in the classroom, and in turn students achieved more highly. They further determined that adolescents endorsing an incremental view, rather than an entity or fixed view, ascribe to less superficial learning goals.

Juvenile Justice Workers' Achievement Goals for Youth

Achievement goals' affect classroom behaviors and are the reason students engage in academic activities. Teachers demonstrate achievement goals through the messages they give students, the academic activities they prepare for students and the classroom goal structure they perpetuate (Haselhuhn, Al-Mabuk, Gabriele, Groen, & Galloway, 2007). Achievement related behaviors associated with achievement goals orientations include persistence, self-regulation, effort, use of cognitive strategies, handicapping behaviors, intrinsic motivation, help-seeking, and achievement (Nelson & DeBaker, 2008). Urdan and Midgley (2003) found an association between students' perception of classroom goal structure and increased motivation, affect, and achievement. Classes with stronger and greater mastery goal structure demonstrated greater academic increases as opposed to classrooms with performance goal structures. Urdan and Midgley (2003) also argue that students may not notice teachers' mastery goal messages; but students do notice the absence of the mastery goal messages.

Researchers have discussed *mastery, performance-approach goals, and performance-avoid goals*. Mastery goals are associated with a person's concern with mastering material and concepts, seeking challenges, and the view of learning as the end goal. Performance goals are associated with concern with doing better than others, appearing smart or avoiding appearing incompetent (Pajares, 2006). Performance goals are separated into performance-approach goals and performance-avoidance goals. Both performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals use normative standards to assess performance. Performance-approach goals focus one's efforts on outperforming others using normative standards. Performance-avoidance goals focus one's efforts on avoiding the negative judgments or outcomes (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese, 2008).

Students with a mastery-achievement goals focus on using strategies that help improve task competency. When students participate in goal decisions and use effective learning strategies there is direct impact on individual student improvement (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006). Elliot (2005) suggests an interaction between achievement goals and student confidence about learning. Further, there is an association between achievement goals and achievement related behaviors such as persistence, self-regulation, effort, use of cognitive strategies, handicapping behaviors, intrinsic motivation, help-seeking, and overall achievement (Nelson & DeBaker, 2008). Ultimately, the achievement goals adopted influence how one judges the performance of self and others (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006).

If the juvenile justice system were to view the treatment and intervention programs for adjudicated delinquents through an educational lens, it may become clear that as with students in the classroom, youth working through treatment and other

interventions are learning new skills. Given that achievement goals are characterized by interrelated patterns of beliefs within each goal type, they provide a wide-ranging framework for youth achievement. Thus, when adults apply achievement goal constructs in the learning environment, there is an influence on students' learning strategies, attributions and task choices (Elliot, 2005). As with all skill development, the students' achievement goals, self-efficacy and handicapping strategies affect the students' progress. Therefore, motivational theory must be addressed for optimum effectiveness in juvenile justice treatment and intervention programming.

Statement of the Problem

As evidenced by the preceding sections, there is no research that addresses the influence of the JJS worker on delinquent youths' motivation to engage in treatment programs (e.g., personal achievement goals, and self-efficacy). Nor has there been a study to determine how and to what degree adjudicated delinquent youths' perception of workers' entity beliefs (incremental versus entity) and achievement goals (performance versus mastery) influence youths' motivation. There is gap in the knowledge relative to whether youths' perception of the juvenile justice worker affects treatment/intervention outcomes. Research in education demonstrates that increased motivation (achievement goals, self-efficacy, and implicit beliefs) is a result of students' perceptions of their teachers, but no study is available to indicate if these studies are generalizable to juvenile justice workers working with delinquent youth, or youth outside the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study is to examine how delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence (i.e., entity and

incremental beliefs) and achievement goals influence delinquent youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals).

Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that by gaining an understanding of how delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' beliefs impact the nature and development of youths' motivation to engage in their treatment program (e.g., personal achievement goals, and self-efficacy), practices might be developed to better engage youth in treatment and intervention programs. Additional benefits may be that by responding to the survey questions the delinquent youth may become more aware of their motivation to engage in their treatment program and of the motivational dynamics involved in the relationships with their JJS worker.

Researchers suggest that delinquent behavior may be the result of poor motivation. Youth who believe that they are unable to deal effectively with issues will expect negative outcomes and will fail to pursue constructive relationships with others (Kuperminc & Allen, 2001). Research does not exist that assesses youths' perception of worker motivational support or juvenile justice workers' desire to provide motivation to adjudicated delinquent youth during the treatment or intervention program. Therefore, there is a need to pursue further study in the area of motivation of delinquent youth.

Primary Research Questions

1) How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence (i.e., entity and incremental beliefs) affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals?

2) How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals?

3) How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals interact in predicting youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals)?

Assumptions, Limitations, and Scope

If the juvenile justice system viewed treatment programs and other interventions as learning experiences, it would become apparent that like students in the classroom, youth proceeding through treatment interventions are developing new skills in a program of instruction. As with all new skill development, the learner's achievement goals and self-efficacy affect the learner's progress. Therefore, motivational theory must be addressed for optimum effectiveness in juvenile justice programming.

This study will evaluate the perceptions of delinquent youth on probation, parole or confined to facilities for delinquents in the Midwestern state. Of these youth the majority are male. This is consistent with the number of females and males under supervision or in the custody of this Midwestern state. This group was chosen because they represent the largest group of delinquents for this state. By examining youth in treatment facilities, on probation and on parole status, differentiation may be made in the data regarding differences in youths' perceptions of the juvenile justice workers' influences during the different stages of intervention and treatment of delinquent youth.

The effect of youths' perception of the juvenile justice workers' to motivate youth is examined while taking into account the age, gender, race, status (probation, parole, and institution), race of worker, and amount of time spent with worker per week (on phone or

in person) for each youth. This will allow for a determination of biases by youth based on each of the variables. The number of girls in confinement limits the study, as does the number of girls willing to participate in the study. There are also a disproportionate number of students with educational disabilities who are enrolled in special education services (about 34%). For adjudicated youth with special needs who have endured chronic skill deficits and environmental unresponsiveness, dramatic motivational issues may exist that must be addressed before weak skills are strengthened or compensatory skills may be utilized and growth may occur (Ford, 1995).

Definition of Terms

Adjudication: a determination by the court that a juvenile is responsible for a delinquency or status offense.

Assessment: evaluation or appraisal of a juvenile's appropriateness for placement in a specific treatment.

Commitment: The court's assignment of guardianship of a juvenile to the state or other juvenile justice agency or corrections.

Correctional facility: A public or private residential facility designed to restrict the movements and activities of juveniles or other individuals, used for the placement after adjudication and disposition of a delinquent act.

Delinquency: An act when committed by an adult could be prosecuted in a criminal court, but when committed by a juvenile are within the jurisdiction of the juvenile court.

Delinquent act: crimes against persons, crimes against property, drug offenses, and crimes against public order.

Detention: the placement of youth in a secure facility under between the time of referral and case disposition.

Disposition: the action ordered or treatment plan determined in case by a juvenile court.

Intake decision: The decision made by juvenile court intake that results in a case being handled informally at the intake level or being petitioned and scheduled for an adjudicatory hearing.

Intervention: Programs or services intended to disrupt the delinquency process and prevent youth from penetrating further into the juvenile justice system.

Judicial disposition: action taken or treatment plan determined regarding a particular case after the judicial decision is made.

Judicial decision: a decision generally made by a juvenile court judge or referee in response to a petition that asks the court to adjudicate youth.

Juvenile: youth at or below the upper age of juvenile court's jurisdiction for a particular state.

Juvenile court: has jurisdictional authority over juvenile matters.

Placement: delinquents are removed from their homes and placed elsewhere.

Status offense: nondelinquent/noncriminal offense, that is illegal for underage persons, but not for adults.

Probation: youth are placed on supervision.

Residential placement: a facility in which youth are removed from their homes and housed out of home. Residential placements can include secure confinement, residential treatment facilities, nonsecure confinement, group homes, foster care, shelter care, etc.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The development of new skills requires a motivated individual who has the capability to acquire the skills, an environment conducive to the facilitation of the skill development, and support for the individual throughout the development of skills (Ford, 1992). Ford (1992) believed that should there be a lack any of these components, an individual's achievement towards the skill development was inadequate and competence was reduced. As a result, youth with a poor history of achievement in skill development will pursue goals that are of shorter duration and less academically orientated than will higher achieving peers (Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, & Houghton, 1997). This might be attributable to the influence of youths' self-efficacy; or how an individual thinks, feels and motivates him/herself relative to the pursuit of a goal (Carroll, et al., 1997). Self-efficacy is generally referred to in terms of specific domains such as math or science; however an individual's generalized self-efficacy is a global sense of competency across various domains. Youths' sense of self-efficacy influences goal choices and the effort applied in achieving goals (Caraway, Tucker, Rienke, & Hall, 2003). Youths' self-efficacy is directly influenced by the implicit theories of intelligence held. Implicit beliefs can predict whether youth were likely to embrace skill development as opposed to using prior experiences as evidence of inadequate abilities (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002).

Implicit theories of intelligence reflect an individual's belief about the fundamentals of intelligence; specifically whether an individual believes that intelligence is a fixed entity or trait that cannot be changed (entity theory) or intelligence is a malleable quality that can be increased through one's efforts (incremental theory) (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). These theories may have significant implications in treatment work and skill development with juvenile justice system (JJS) involved youth.

While implicit theories provide a number of explanations concerning how individuals manage obstacles in the academic domain (Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck, 2007), Yeager, Trzesniewski, Tirri, Nokelainen, and Dweck (2011) assess the effect of implicit theories with youth involved with juvenile justice. They concluded that youth with fixed or entity theories of intelligence are more likely to believe that people cannot change, causing youth to ruminate over past conflicts and continue thoughts of revenge for prior perceived victimizations. These researchers also discerned that youth who embraced an entity theory of personality continued to express the desire for revenge after recalling conflicts with acquaintances (Yeager, et al., 2011). In contrast, youth holding an incremental theory appeared was determined to have less shame relative to feelings of victimization and as a result held fewer feelings of hatred towards a perceived victimizer, thus had less humiliation (Yeager, et al., 2011). These findings emphasize the need to further examine the role of implicit theories with juvenile justice involved youth and the individuals working with youth involved in the juvenile justice system.

According to the United States General Accounting Office (GAO), finding the means to provide greater motivation for JJS involved youth is necessary to increase program participation. In 2009, the GAO interviewed 22 experts in the area of juvenile

justice regarding their perceptions of the needs for JJS involved youth. Of these 22 experts, 16 indicated as a priority the need for additional means to increase the motivation of delinquent youth in order to improve youth program participation. Additionally, the experts suggest that by increasing the motivation of JJS involved youth the achievement of youths' treatment and intervention outcomes will increase. The experts indicate that many JJS involved youth display low motivation to participate in treatment and other interventions. These finding support those of Day, Bryan, Davey, and Casey (2006) who also suggest poor treatment compliance due to lack of motivation. They suggest however that youths' lack of motivation may be rooted in poor comprehension regarding the gravity of the effect of adjudicated offenses. As a consequence, many JJS involved youth may not be motivated to expend the effort necessary to develop new skills or participate in other JJS treatment and interventions (Day, Bryan, Davey, & Casey, 2006).

Ames (1990) stresses the need to address the diversity of youths' motivation or reasons for learning new skills in an effort to encourage "a positive motivation orientation" (p. 419). Youths' motivation may be affected by how they perceives they are judged by others As a result of the effect of others' perceptions on youths' self-efficacy, youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence (i.e., entity vs. incremental beliefs) and achievement goals (i.e., mastery vs. performance goals) may be significant. The impact of youths' perception of another's implicit theories of intelligence, and the effect of another's achievement goals on youth is examined in this review of literature. Also studied in this review of literature is the effect of the perceptions of others on youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals. The theoretical

frameworks for the major constructs that guided this study include self-efficacy, achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence.

Youth Self-Efficacy and Achievement Goals Research

Ryan, Gheen, and Midgley (1998) examined whether there is a relationship between youths' sense of academic efficacy and whether or not they would ask teachers for help (help-seeking behavior) and how youths' perceptions of classroom goals structure affect the relationship. They reported a significant discovery in that youth who felt less academic self-efficacy was less likely to engage in help-seeking behavior (Ryan, Gheen & Midgley, 1998). For example, youth with high academic self-efficacy are more likely to engage in help-seeking behavior than are youth with low academic self-efficacy who may be inclined to refrain from help-seeking since youth may sense that requesting help indicates a lack of ability to complete the work successfully (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998). Additionally, Ryan, Gheen and Midgley, (1998) determined boys avoid seeking help more frequently than girls. The study found, nonetheless, that when teachers exhibit concern for learner's social-emotional needs, youth with low efficacy are more likely ask for help. This study suggests that classrooms with a goal structure that supports intrinsic motivation provides youth experiencing low self-efficacy encouragement to participate in help-seeking behavior (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998).

The actions of adults perform an important function in the skill development or learning processes of youth. Turner et al. (2002) noted that in a classroom in which teachers provide instructional and motivational support for learning, youth report lower incidences of avoid achievement goals strategies in an effort to escape certain academic tasks. Additionally, there are indications that youth in classrooms with emphasis on both

performance and mastery goals are less likely to use avoidance behaviors (Wentzel, 1993). Turner, et al., (2002) determined that classroom environments that emphasize mastery goals are most beneficial when teachers meet both the cognitive and motivational or emotional needs of youth. Typical of this type of classroom is an environment that incorporates discussion or dialogue models, in an effort to offer support for youths' intellectual and motivational development, in a manner distinctive of both low-avoid achievement goals and high-mastery classrooms (Turner et al., 2002).

In classrooms with high performance goals, where finding the correct answer is emphasized, it is typical for youth to fail to fully understand the instruction or share in adequate dialogue with the teacher, thus youth may experience "high-avoidance/low-mastery" (Turner et al., 2002, p. 103). On the other hand, classrooms with high mastery goals exhibit both academic and affective support, whereas teachers in low mastery classrooms generally exhibit either affective support or cognitive support, not both. Turner et al., (2002) confirms the need for both cognitive and affective support in the classroom. They concluded that youths' perceptions of learning environments are positively correlated with teachers who are caring and respectful, and as a result of these perceptions, youth will employ fewer avoidance behaviors, and interpret the teachers' behavior as signaling the teachers' belief they are capable of learning (Turner et al., 2002).

Youth Self-Efficacy

Initial models of achievement motivation established that youth with adaptive self-efficacy are motivated to learn (Bandura, 2006; Pintrich, 2003; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006). Youth with achievement motivation are more likely to experience the

motivation needed to expend effort when they believes in their ability to succeed and do well. Further, youth who possesses achievement motivation are more apt to display perseverance in the completion of a task than are youth who believes they are less capable of success (Pintrich, 2003). Nevertheless, self-efficacy beliefs work differently for each individual. For example, one youths' achievement motivation may be sustained through personal self-efficacy beliefs while another youths' self-efficacy's beliefs may allow continued persistence toward achievement based only upon personal goals and interests but not upon the belief that he/she will have a successful outcome (Pintrich, 2003).

A fundamental result of youths' self-efficacy beliefs is that youth will tend to perform according to how well they believes or perceives they are able to perform. These beliefs or perceptions may be dependent upon specific tasks rather than broad general categories since self-efficacy beliefs are specific to context and task (Bandura, 2006; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006). Zimmerman and Cleary (2006) noted that self-efficacy beliefs include judgments about an individual's ability to coordinate the steps necessary to make progress towards the goal or to attain or fulfill goals such as achievement goals.

For youth who are at-risk of delinquent behaviors such as those involved with juvenile justice, the development of increased self-efficacy in specific areas may contribute to the reduction in delinquency. Social cognitive theorists such as Bandura (2005) identify the development of self-regulatory self-efficacy as a means for managing potentially harmful circumstances or situations and to remove one from negative circumstances. Bandura (2005) posits that youth who are able to deal well with troublesome situations in which they have little or no experience expand and strengthen

their sense of efficacy through the success of the experience. By providing youth with experiences that allow mastery of new knowledge and skill youth are able to exercise some control over situations that once placed them at risk. This, Bandura (2005) points out, develops resilient self-efficacy but requires some experience in mastering the difficulties through perseverance and effort. Bandura (2005) also notes that the new skill should be learned through guided experiences.

Research on self-efficacy by Joët, Usher, and Bressoux (2011) found evidence of a contagion effect on self-efficacy among youth. They confirmed that when youth with low self-efficacy beliefs are enrolled in classes with youth with high average self-efficacy, there is an influence by youth with higher self-efficacy beliefs upon youth with lower self-efficacy. Thus the high self-efficacy of one youth may increase the self-efficacy beliefs of another youth. The authors of this study suggest this is an important finding for struggling youth who might gain an advantage from a classroom environment in which youth are supportive of one another (Joët, Usher, & Bressoux, 2011). Further, the authors found their work supports the theories of Bandura (1997), that mastery experiences are a powerful source of self-efficacy across academic domains, and Dweck and Elliott (1988) who established an approach to motivation emphasizing that both mastery and performance goals are critical in the development of academic self-efficacy.

Pastorelli, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Rola, Rozsa, and Bandura (2001) found that peers are an important source of self-efficacy information or feedback for youth. They determined that through peer relationships youth are able to expand and confirm their own competencies and as a result of these relationships girls have a greater sense of perceived academic self-efficacy than do boys (Pastorelli, et al., 2001). This perceived

academic self-efficacy includes the measurement of youths' perceived capability to manage their own learning, master academic subjects, and fulfill the academic expectations of one's self and others. Pastorelli et al. (2001) established that self-regulatory efficacy is an important component of academic success, which includes youths' ability to resist peer pressure to engage in high-risk activities. Self-regulatory efficacy appears to be greater for girls; who are found to be better able to resist peer pressure and disobedience than boys (Pastorelli, et al., 2001).

Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, and Regalia (2001) established that youth with perceived academic self-efficacy have a reduced likelihood of involvement in the juvenile justice system. These findings confirm that engagement in rule breaking or deviant behaviors is greater for youth without academic self-efficacy. Low engagement in deviant behavior is directly related to youths' perceived academic self-efficacy and is mediated by prosocial behaviors and adherence to principled self-discipline. Male adolescents in the study displayed more poorly perceived academic and self-regulatory efficacy than did girls and thus were more prone to suspend self-discipline when faced with conflict and engage in harmful or delinquent conduct (Bandura et al., 2001). The study found that boys would more quickly incite themselves to anger through aggressive thoughts, and had a less prosocial orientation than did girls. The researchers suggest that an evaluation of the unique contribution of "perceived self-efficacy for affect regulation in the causal structure of transgressive behavior (Bandura et al., p. 133)" would be an appropriate follow-up to this study.

Marsh and Evans (2009) examined the relationships of youth in juvenile justice confinement with specific significant staff members to determine if youth who report

stronger relationships with staff would also report more self-efficacy for success upon release. They observed that youth with strong relationships with one or more key staff members displayed greater self-efficacy for success upon release from juvenile justice confinement. The researchers assessed youths' likelihood of success upon release from confinement to be dependent upon youths' beliefs about their future (Marsh & Evans, 2009). As a result of this assessment Marsh and Evans (2009) determined a strong association between youths' self-efficacy beliefs and future behavior. March and Evans (2009) concluded that providing opportunities to raise the self-efficacy of youth while planning transition from confinement facilitates an increase in self-efficacy which may increase youths' progress toward goal achievement.

The results of Marsh and Evans' (2009) study indicated a correlation between the quality of youths' relationships and their domains of self-efficacy. These findings substantiate the benefit to youth of consistent and high quality relationships between youth and key staff members in juvenile justice settings, where there is an attempt to improve youths' self-efficacy for success upon release from confinement (Marsh & Evan, 2009). Further, Marsh and Evans' (2009) research provides evidence that the quality of the staff-youth relationship is a critical component of the rehabilitative process. This study established that the more positive youth–staff relationships exists in juvenile justice settings of confinement, the greater likelihood youth are to have similar relationships with effective mentors and role models in other settings and situations. The authors of this study conclude that relationships that increase youths' self-efficacy should be further explored since they may offer a positive structure for understanding beneficial relationship dynamics between youth and staff in juvenile justice settings (Marsh &

Evans, 2009). Bouffard, Bouchard, Goulet, Denoncourt, and Couture (2005) found when the effects between self-efficacy and youths' achievement goals were observed the involvement of mastery goals were always present. They suggests that while self-efficacy influences various aspects of youths' self-regulation and academic performance, the significance or value that youth place goals may matter more than youths' achievement goals (Bouffard, et al., 2005).

Youth Achievement Goals

Youths' achievement goals refer to the reason or purpose youth engage in academic tasks. Mastery and performance goals are two types of achievement goals that elicit response patterns have been associated with differentiated learning patterns (Ames, 1990; Midgley et al., 2000). Elliot (2005) suggests an interaction between youths' achievement goals and confidence about learning. Further, youths' achievement goals may be associated with their achievement related behaviors such as persistence, self-regulation, effort, use of cognitive strategies, intrinsic motivation, help-seeking, and overall achievement (Nelson & DeBaker, 2008).

Mastery goals are concerned with the development of competence and skills, and are generally gauged by youth against internal standards of quality (Midgley et al., 2000). Mastery goals are associated with youths' concern with mastering the material and concepts, seeking challenges, and the view of learning as the end goal (Pajares, 2006). On the other hand, youths' pursuit of performance goals tend to be concerned with the demonstration of youths' competence to others by proving ability to outperform or doing better than others (Midgley et al., 2000). Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece (2008) have established positive correlation between self-efficacy and mastery goals in youth.

Performance goals are also associated with one's concern with appearing intelligent or the avoidance of the appearance of incompetence (Pajares, 2006). Youth with performance goals generally gauge individual success against the success or failure of others (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Performance goals are separated into two goal components, performance-approach goals and performance-avoidance achievement goals. Both performance-approach goals and performance-avoidance achievement goals use normative standards to assess performance. Youth with performance-approach goals focus effort on outperforming others, using normative standards. Youth with performance-avoidance achievement goals focus effort on avoiding negative judgments by others or negative outcomes (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Leondari and Gialamas (2002) found that youth who hold performance-avoidance achievement goals might perceive less academic competence than peers. Pintrich (2003) ascertained that both mastery and performance-approach goals have the potential to positively impact youths' academic outcomes. However, youth with performance-avoidance structures alone do not seem to yield positive results as great as youth holding only mastery achievement goal structures. Performance-avoidance achievement goals appear to be a significant negative predictor of perceived competence Pintrich, 2003; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Also, youths' perceived academic competence appears to moderate achievement goals and achievement outcomes (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002).

Though both mastery and performance-approach goals can be adaptive for academic achievement, many researchers suggest that for optimal academic success youth pursue a combination of mastery and performance goals (Harackiewicz and Elliot, 1993; Pintrich, 2003; Wentzel, 1993). Since the achievement goals youth adopt

ultimately influence the performance judgment of self and others (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006) Leondari and Gialamas (2002) advise that youth accept a variety of achievement goals in an effort to find a model that best facilitates learning, youth generally embrace achievement goals with high mastery and low performance-approach goals.

Mastery goals. Mastery goals have been associated with adaptive patterns of learning (Midgley et al., 1995). Youth with mastery goals are likely to seek to increase subject mastery and expand understanding through skill development (Ames, 1990). When youth possess mastery goals, youth persist longer at tasks when faced with difficulty and tend to be more eager to attempt difficult or challenging tasks than peers with performance goals. Youth with mastery goals also tend to utilize more cognitive strategies and hold greater intrinsic motivation than peers with performance goals. Further, youth with mastery goals are likely to have more positive outlooks regarding school and schoolwork when compared to peers with performance goals (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Additionally, when youth with mastery goals participate in goal decisions there is a direct impact on motivation and use of effective learning strategies. Youth with mastery goals are more likely to focus on improvement and utilize strategies that facilitate the improvement of task competency (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006).

When youth are capable of learning from mistakes, through the exertion of effort, and through personal mastery of a goal, mastery goals usually develop (Ames, 1992). Instruction with mastery goals provide youth with instructional approaches designed to engage youth in meaningful learning, adapted to youths' interests. As a result, youth cultivate intrinsic value for learning while developing positive relationships with peers

and adults (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). As a result of these findings, Leondari and Gialamas (2002) assert that youth who are considered to be "at-risk" of academic failure are most likely to receive benefit from mastery goals. Leondari and Gialamas' (2002) determined that youth who are identified with mastery goals indicates an association with the following qualities: concern about improving academic skill, interested in learning, importance in learning new things at school, and desire to learn more. Harackiewicz and Elliot (1993) established that for youth with poor or low achievement orientation, mastery goals orientation raises intrinsic motivating thus increasing interest and academic involvement.

Elliot and McGregor (2001) developed a model of goal-centered achievement motivation, in which they divided mastery achievement motivation into two separate dimensions: mastery-approach, focusing on skill mastery and success, and mastery-avoidance focusing on mastering skills and the avoidance of challenges. Elliot and McGregor (2001) indicate that unlike performance-avoid goals motivation, mastery-avoidance achievement is associated with more positive academic outcomes, though mastery-approach achievement motivation is correlated most highly with academic success. According to Elliot and McGregor (2001) youth with mastery-approach goals have the desire to learn as much as possible from classes, to fully understand the course content and to master all the material presented. For these youth, embracing achievement goals may result in an overall need for achievement and work-mastery, increasing self-determination and feelings of competence. However, these youth may also feel the need to process information more deeply than is necessary and to eschew mastery-avoidance and performance goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

Elliot and McGregor (2001) established that youth with a mastery-avoidance achievement motivation may worry they are unable to learn all that is available to learn in a class, may not understand all of the class content as thoroughly as one needs, or may worry they may not learn all that there is to learn in a given subject area. As a result youth with mastery-avoidance achievement goals may appear to be rooted in the fear of failure. This may result in the development of poor self-determination, high test-anxiety, anxiety towards school, disorganized study habits and the avoidance of a mastery-approach or performance-approach goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Though mastery-avoidance goals could evoke various negative outcomes in some youth, generally mastery-avoidance goals provide positive outcomes that, unlike performance-avoidance orientation, facilitate the development of performance-approach goals and mastery-approach goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

Performance goals. The current educational emphasis on high-stakes testing, along with normative comparisons of youth, ability groupings and extrinsic rewards such as grades, encourages youth to embrace performance goals (Ames, 1990). As a result, youth with performance goals may focus on protecting their status in the classroom as opposed to actually learning in earnest how to complete a task. Youth may be more concerned about the ability to perform a task, than about the skill development necessary to actually carry out the task. Thus, youth with performance goals may experience failure as attributable to poor or low ability, including similar tasks (Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Youth with low academic achievement who continues to perform poorly may perceive they are less competent as compared to peers with mastery goals. Further, youth with

poor academic achievement, who embraces performance goals, are likely to avoid ability assessments finding comparisons to others difficult (Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993).

Dweck and Leggett (1988) typify youth with performance goals as more likely than peers to desire positive or favorable evaluations of competence or to escape unfavorable findings by others. They also determined that youth with performance goals might feel successful only if their work is found to be superior to that of peers. Performance goals are divided into two distinct components, performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). These performance goals may be easily distinguished from one another. As Pintrich (2003) points out, youth who ascribe to performance-approach goals are "focused on achieving at higher levels than others and demonstrating high ability," whereas youth who hold performance-avoid goals are "concerned with avoiding the demonstration of low ability or appearing stupid or dumb" (p. 676).

Performance-approach goals. Performance-approach goals have been associated with both adaptive and maladaptive patterns of learning (Midgley et al., 2000). When youth hold performance-approach goals they tend to focus on the demonstration of competence or skill in achievement settings (Midgley et al., 2000). Youth who feel confident in their ability to succeed academically may embrace performance-approach goals and perform in a manner similar to youth who holds a mastery orientation (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). This can be the result of youth possessing the confidence that their performance will result in positive outcomes. Performance-approach goals may facilitate motivation for youth to respond to challenges of tasks and persist until tasks are

successfully completed. Consequently, youth experience positive academic achievement result and the perception of competence (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002).

Performance-approach goals are somewhat facilitative for academic achievement (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). A study by Leondari and Gialamas (2002) concluded that youth with performance-approach may possess the following traits: attempts to attain higher grades than others, attempts to do better than others, attempts to manage tasks that other youth don't aspire to attempt, and attempts to answer questions in an effort to show more knowledge than other youth. Since some of these traits are consistent with mastery goals (Meece & Holt, 1993) it is important to note that the most facilitative pattern for academic achievement is a pattern that is high mastery orientation coupled with a low level of performance-approach goals (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002).

Performance-avoidance goals. The adoption of performance-avoidance achievement goals facilitates a focus by youth on self rather than academic achievement. Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) found that the pursuit of performance-avoid goals is usually associated with negative or maladaptive patterns of motivational beliefs and behaviors. More often than not, youth with performance-avoid goals are likely to give up when faced with adversity, challenges, or confronted with failure. Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) found that youth with performance-avoid goals tend to use less sophisticated cognitive strategies than do youth with mastery goals and are less likely to seek help when needed. Consequently youth with performance-avoid goals are more likely to engage in self-defeating, self-handicapping behaviors.

Leondari and Gialamas (2002) determined that performance-avoidance achievement goals are a significant negative predictor of perceived competence.

Therefore, youth with strong performance-avoidance achievement goals are more likely than peers to doubt academic abilities as a result of these achievement goals. However, poor academic performance, negative affect toward school, and poor persistence when faced with challenging tasks may be a result of the performance-avoid goals. Since youth with performance-avoid goals perceives they are less competent than peers (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002), it is common for youth with these goals to attempt to avoid individuals with mastery goals as a consequence of doubt regarding the ability to perform well (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). Leondari and Gialamas (2002) note that youth with performance-avoidance achievement goals are identifiable by concern about answering questions, worry about what others think, making mistakes and appearing "stupid" (p. 283).

Juvenile Justice Workers' Implicit Theories of Intelligence for Youth

The implicit theory of intelligence or the beliefs youth hold regarding intelligence may affect youths' achievement goals. Leondari and Gialamas (2002) demonstrated that implicit theories of intelligence are significantly related to youths' achievement goals. An incremental implicit belief or theory is the belief that one's ability is not a stable trait but may in fact be increased through efforts. Youth who embrace the belief that ability may be enhanced through effort are more likely to pursue expanded learning goals than are youth who perceive ability is a fixed entity (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). Additionally, Leondari and Gialamas (2002) determined youths' implicit beliefs may predict youths' goals, i.e. youths' achievement goals may be at the root of patterns of learning.

A review of the literature in educational psychology provides suggestions regarding the motivational effects of the juvenile justice worker on the self-efficacy and

achievement goals of youth involved in the juvenile justice system (JJS). When assessing the motivational effects of the relationship between teacher and student, the research provides evidence that the same effects teachers have on student may hold true for juvenile justice system workers and the youth with whom they work. Thus, whether JJS workers hold an incremental or entity (fixed) theory of intelligence may have implications for youth as a result of the motivational environment made available by JJS workers (Bressoux, Sarrazin, & Trouilloud, 2007). Leroy, Bressoux, Sarrazin, and Trouilloud (2007) used the Nature of Ability Beliefs Questionnaire (Sarrazin et al., 1996) to measure the impact of teachers' implicit theories and teachers' beliefs about their students' abilities on youth. Leroy et al. (2007) established teachers who see youth as having the ability to improve academic achievement, or have achievement "cultivated, *through effort"* (p.539), believe in their own ability to help youth make progress, Thus teachers with this belief perceives they play a determining role in youths' academic success. Leroy et al. (2007) also ascertained teachers' beliefs in their ability to effect change in youth will likely lead to increases in youths' achievement. As a result, teachers holding an incremental theory or the belief in youths' potential for growth seems to be a favorable condition for youth since the teachers' perceptions that their own actions can lead to improvements may in fact lead to increases in youths' achievement. Accordingly, the more capable of helping youth teachers feel, the more likely teachers are to report supporting youths' motivational needs (Leroy, et al., 2007).

Leroy et al. (2007) concluded that teachers who hold an entity theory are more likely that peers to be directive in their teaching and provide few opportunities for youth to develop intrinsic motivation through autonomous learning experiences. Directive

teachers may be prone to providing students with instruction that is less self-directed or to promote self-sufficiency in learners (Leroy, et al., 2007). Leroy et al. (2007) reasoned that teachers who hold an entity theory of intelligence may demonstrate this type of teaching behavior as a result of the teachers' perceptions that youths' ability are fixed, thus focus their efforts on establishing which youth are most likely to have success. Hence, teachers with an entity theory are more likely to have youth engaged in activities that are highly structured and accentuate youths' abilities. These results indicate that the teachers' beliefs about youths' competence may strongly guide the interactions between teachers and youth (Leroy, et al., 2007).

In an experimental study, Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck (2007) found youth had more positive motivation in classrooms where teachers taught youth to think of intelligence as malleable or incremental. This study provided a motivational framework for students which tracked the motivational trajectories of students' math achievement over the two years. Blackwell et al. (2007) found that youth endorsing more of an incremental theory during the experimental period had a greater increase in math grades as compared to peers who endorsed more of an entity theory. As a result, Blackwell et al. (2007) contended that youths' motivational framework continues to predict youths' motivation over a period of time. They further assert that when youth endorsed an incremental theory of intelligence rather than an entity theory they ascribed to greater learning goals than do youth who adhered to an entity theory. Youth with incremental beliefs were found to endorse stronger learning goals, hold more positive beliefs about effort, and make fewer ability-based ‘‘helpless’’ attributions (Blackwell, et al., 2007). Blackwell, et al., (2007) determined that youth who endorsed an incremental theory of

intelligence made more positive, effort-based strategies choices in response to failures, thus increasing motivation. This reinforces Leondari and Gialamas (2002) findings that determined youth with the implicit belief that ability is malleable (incremental) appeared to be more persistent in the pursuit of learning goals, supporting the assertion that youths' implicit theories of intelligence are related to youths' achievement goals. These findings further support the concept that youths' incremental theory of intelligence is a key factor in achievement motivation (Blackwell, et al., 2007).

Juvenile Justice Workers' Achievement Goals

Research has demonstrated that youth are affected by teachers' achievement goals and achievement motivation, thus indicating that it is important to assess the factors that influence youths' motivation (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998; Turner et al., 2002). The research related to the influence of teacher achievement goals on youth may give juvenile justice workers insight to the effect of achievement goals on youth with whom they are working. These research findings indicate teachers' goals influence their responses to student difficulty in the classroom. For example, teacher mastery goals predicted student reports of teacher encouragement of question asking and student help seeking behavior, and teacher ability-avoidance predicted student reports that teacher conveyed that these were signs of low ability (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998). Since research in the area of achievement goals with juvenile justice workers is not available, the examination of the relationship between teachers and students provides evidence that the same effects teachers have on student may hold true for juvenile justice workers and youth with whom they work.

Retelsdorf and Günther's (2010) study examined achievement goals and reference norms to determine if they are discrete (reference norms were understood as benchmarks used for evaluation of specific outcomes). They confirmed ability-approach achievement goals and ability-avoidance orientation, as two distinct factors, and achievement goals and reference norms as factors discrete from one another. Their results also demonstrate that reference norms are positively related to teachers' instructional practices, with social reference norm being associated with superficial or surface learning. Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) investigated the associations between teacher achievement goals and reference norms, along with associations between teachers' achievement goals for teaching, individual and social reference norms, and instructional practices. Individual reference norm were defined by this study as students' actual performance evaluated in comparison with prior performance. Social reference norms are defined by this study as the comparison of a student's performance to the performance of others (inter-individual comparisons).

Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) also investigated the interaction of teacher achievement goals for teaching, along with teacher cognitions (reference norms for evaluating students), and teacher instructional practices. They anticipated an influence of teachers' own goals for teaching on the goals for learning emphasized in their classrooms, finding teachers who endeavor to learn and acquire increased professional competence are more likely to emphasize mastery orientation with students. Whereas Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) anticipated that teachers who are motivated to prove teaching ability superior to that of peers are more likely to emphasize student performance and ability relative to others. They also determined that teachers'

achievement goals are significantly and highly associated with approach to instruction. For example, teachers with mastery achievement goals are favorably related with mastery approaches to instruction. They found positive associations of both ability-approach and ability-avoidance orientation evident with superficial student learning through the social reference norms, suggesting that teachers might not distinguish between a professional striving to demonstrate one's own competencies and the desire to avoid the appearance of failure. Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) concluded that the use of individual student reference norms is related to greater amounts of comprehensive learning and surface or superficial learning is related to social reference norms.

Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) confirmed a relationship between teachers' mastery goals and the promotion of comprehensive learning for students. Retelsdorf and Günther's (2010) confirmed teachers' orientation for mastery goals is associated with the most adaptive patterns of teachers' instructional practices for both teacher and student (Bandura, 2006; Butler, 2007, Butler, 2012, Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006; Pintrich, 2003; Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006). As a result, Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) proposed that teachers with mastery orientation will have positive implications for student motivation and learning and suggests that students' motivation benefits remarkably when teachers employ an individual reference norm as opposed to the use of social reference norms. Unfortunately Retelsdorf and Günther's (2010) found that many teachers 'grade on a curve,' which applies a social reference norm, whereupon student self-concept and motivation may be affected. Further, teacher work avoidance predicts a performance approach to instruction (Retelsdorf & Günther, 2010).

Butler's (2007) research also investigated the relationship between teachers' achievement goals and their approach to instruction in order to predict whether teachers might be likely to adopt mastery or performance approach to instruction. Butler's (2007) two studies showed a significant association between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching and teachers' report of mastery instructional practices. Butler (2007) also examined the reliability of teachers' self-reported achievement goals and teaching practices relative to the prediction of student perceptions of instruction.

Butler (2007) anticipated her research would demonstrate teachers' development of a close and caring relationship with youth would represent a new and discrete achievement goal for teaching. The findings for this prediction however, established only a low correlation with mastery goals. Nonetheless, when examining the relationship between teachers' achievement goals and teachers' approach to instruction, Butler (2007) found that teachers' mastery, ability, and work avoidance achievement goals predict teachers' approach to instruction. Both teachers and students were consistent in reporting findings. Butler's (2007) investigations also determined that teacher support for student learning was positively and significantly correlated with relational goals and teacher ability-approach and ability-avoidance goals, which were significantly correlated with a performance approach to teaching. Teachers who reported striving to avoid work in order to minimize teaching effort reported demanding little of students. Thus teacher work avoidance was found significantly correlated with teacher reports of performance instructional practices, and ability goals were significantly correlated with performance approach and with low demand teaching. On the other hand, Butler (2007), like Retelsdorf and Günther's (2010), concluded that the more determined teachers were to

increase their professional competence the more teachers reported teaching in ways that emphasized student mastery.

Butler (2007) determined that students perceived teachers with strong relational goals rather than mastery goals as having a mastery approach to teaching. However, teachers' relational goals rather than mastery goals were a significant predictor of students' perceptions of teachers' involvement with students and students were less likely to report that teachers taught in ways that encouraged competition and relative academic attainment when teachers also endorsed the need to learn and acquire greater professional competence. Butler (2007) ascertained that students experienced teachers with stronger strivings to develop close and caring relationships with students as having greater demands for student learning. Teachers' reports of mastery instruction rather than social support were significantly correlated with student reports of social support and teachers' involvement with students. Reports of teachers' performance practices were correlated with student reports of low demand teaching or low expectations for student performance. However, teachers' self-report of instructional practice is determined to be a poor predictor of student perceptions of teachers' instructional practices (Butler, 2007).

Wang and Holcombe (2010) reinforced the findings by others (Butler, 2007; Retelsdorf & Günther's, 2010) that teachers' emphasis on mastery goals can provide a positive influence on youths' academic achievement by presenting evidence that teachers' recognition of youth effort and ability increases the likelihood that youth will employ cognitive strategies consistent with academic success (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Midgley et al. 2000; Roeser et al. 1996; Walker & Greene, 2009). In addition, when youth experience academic success they will no longer fear becoming

embarrassed when compared to peers. Although Wang and Holcombe (2010) failed to account for varied levels of youth achievement, Wang and Holcombe's results still clearly demonstrate that teacher support of the development of personal mastery contributes more to youth academic success than do performance goals.

Research indicates that teachers' achievement goals affect youths' achievement goals (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Midgley et al., 2000; Roeser et al., 1996; Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998; Schwinger & Stiensmeier-Pelster, 2011; Wilkins & Kuperminc, 2010). When teachers promotes achievement goals youth are likely to adopt a similar, if not the same, achievement goals as teachers (Ames, 1992; Midgley et al., 2000; Roeser et al., 1996). Additionally, youth are likely to adopt achievement goals that correspond with the achievement goals that exist in their classrooms (Walker & Greene, 2009). For example, youth placed in classrooms that embrace performance goals are likely to attribute failure to lack of ability and difficult work, which is consistent with performance goals (Walker & Greene, 2009). The degree, to which teachers establish classroom climates that emphasizes mastery goals rather than performance, may predict how youth approach tasks and engage in learning activities (Ames & Archer, 1988). As a result, youth in classrooms with strong mastery goal structures are more likely to demonstrate academic increases than are peers in classrooms with strong performance goal structures (Urdan & Midgley, 2003).

Ames and Archer (1988) confirmed that youth enrolled in classrooms that emphasize mastery skills are more likely than peers to report using effective learning strategies, preferring tasks that offer challenges, enjoying classes, and believing that effort and success may exist together. When it is suggested to youth that ability is not a

factor in academic success, youth find the relationship between classroom mastery goal structure and mastery goals clearly evident (Ames & Archer, 1988). Ames and Archer (1988) suggest that modifying classroom goal structure in a manner that significantly promotes mastery goals can elicit more adaptive motivational patterns in youth. They claim the existence of a strong relationship between classroom mastery goals and the crediting of teachers' effort by youth when youth perform well. However, Ames and Archer (1988) determined that youth assume all the responsibility for poor performance when they perform poorly in mastery classrooms. But youth who embraces performance goals tends to attribute failure to lack of ability and to the difficulty of the work assigned. Thus, a mastery goal emphasis may actually take the place of youths' perceived ability with regard to achievement behaviors (Ames & Archer, 1988).

Ryan and Patrick (2001) studied youth in classroom environments that promoted comparison and competition between youth and encouraged youth to view classmates as rivals and competitors. Ryan and Patrick's attempt to determine the extent to which classrooms with perceived performance goals affected change in youth motivation found that when youth perceive an emphasis on comparison and competition there were also changes in social efficacy with regard to the relationship with teachers and increased disruptive behavior in the classroom. Ryan and Patrick (2001) indicate that youth may be less willing to engage in academic tasks and may become more disruptive in the classroom when they believe performance is viewed as an indicator of the relative lack of ability. Classroom environment that emphasize comparison and competition may demonstrate causal relationships to youth diminishing confidence in the ability to relate well to teachers (Ryan & Patrick, 2001). As a result, youth may seek to avoid the

demonstration of incompetence in an academic setting by instead adopting maladaptive learning patterns (Midgley et al., 2000). This could translate to youths' reduced willingness to engage in academic tasks (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

Wang and Holcombe (2010) suggested that the use of performance goal structure, which frequently employs social comparison and competition, might not necessarily result in maladaptive as is often reported (Midgley et al., 2000) and in some situations may even be considered adaptive. Wang and Holcombe (2010) determined that though an emphasis on performance goals typically diminishes youths' involvement in school and identification with school, a performance goal structure might aid youth in regulating already poor motivation and cognition if it provides a means for youth to gauge performance. Wang and Holcombe (2010) found that for some youth the focus on competition with others could facilitate youth in negotiating their way through boring or challenging tasks by providing a motivational strategy.

Summary for the Current Study

The impact of adults on the self-efficacy of youth has been the subject of an extensive number of studies (Bandura, 2005; Bandura et al., 2001; Joët, Usher, & Bressoux, 2011; Marsh & Evans, 2009; Pastorelli et al., 2001; Ryan, Gheen & Midgley, 1998; Schunk, 1983). Research finding such as Marsh and Evans (2009), which demonstrates that youth who has strong relationships with key staff members demonstrates increased self-efficacy for success upon release from juvenile justice confinement; suggests the need for further investigation of the impact of JJS staff on youths' self-efficacy and the implications for achievement goals and other outcomes. Joët, Usher, and Bressoux (2011) also offer evidence of the need for additional research

on the impact of others on youths' self-efficacy with findings of a contagion effect on self-efficacy among youth with higher self-efficacy to youth with lower self-efficacy. Further research is required to investigate Bandura's (2005) implications that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence the academic development of youth. Bandura's (2005) conclusions regarding the influence of teachers' own personal efficacy to motivate youth and promote learning, effect on youths' academic development and youths' judgment of intellectual capabilities. These conclusions further emphasize the need to explore the influence of JJS workers' impact on youths' self-efficacy.

Youth with adequate perceived academic self-efficacy are less likely to become involved in the juvenile justice system as compared with peers, (Bandura et al., 2001). According to Bandura et al. (2003) youth self-efficacy performs a crucial function in youth development of self-management, i.e. self-regulation. The development of self-efficacy assists youth in the regulation of both positive and negative affect, the ability to resist social pressures for antisocial activities, and empathize with others; thus youth with substantial self-efficacy is likely to have acquired much needed self-regulatory skills (Bandura et al., 2001). An appropriate follow-up to this study might be the examination of the effect of JJS workers on youths' perceived self-efficacy in an effort to gain a greater understanding of the contribution of the relationship and a harmful or delinquent behavior.

Pastorelli et al. (2001) also propose that further research examining the impact of others on the formation of self-efficacy beliefs and claim that more research can increase the understanding of the influence of others on the development of youths' self-efficacy. They find that youth who enjoy high self-efficacy may be expected to establish goals that

present challenges and will likely possess the self-regulation necessary to overcome hardships or obstacles that threaten the realization of goals but advise that in cultures in which educational systems are heavily structured around relationships of authority, youth may have high self-efficacy for academic achievement but only under the guidance of teachers and/or parents. Consequently, youth may be lacking the self-regulatory behavior necessary to manage academic improvement without supervision. This further substantiates the need for additional study on the effect of others on the self-efficacy of youth involved in the juvenile justice system, to ensure to appropriate responses. Based on their research findings, Yeager et al. (2011) encourage more research in the teaching of implicit beliefs by those who work with delinquent youth. Yeager et al. (2011) propose that youth be instructed "to view themselves and their peers as works in progress rather than as finished products" whose development can be molded through positive (incremental) thought. As a result, Yeager et al. (2011) suggest that youth who are aggressive with others may move from a fixed or entity theory to a more incremental theory and in doing so may humanize their potential victims. Yeager et al. (2011) advocate aiding youth in seeing potential victims as individuals rather than targets, since aggressive youth may fail to justify actions with incremental theory beliefs. Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck, (2007) determined that youth who endorse an incremental theory of intelligence make more positive, effort-based strategies choices in response to failures and increase motivation. These findings further support the concept that youths' incremental theory of intelligence is a key factor in achievement motivation (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007).

Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton (1997) suggest that future research investigate the origin of the achievement goals and the potential implications for intervention programs. Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton (1997) determined that youth who are considered at-risk and/or delinquent are likely to attach greater importance to performance goals related to autonomy and delinquent behaviors. As a result youth considered at-risk or delinquent are also more prone than other youth to express goals associated with maintaining a specific social image. Accordingly, Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton (1997) indicate that group differences in achievement goals are evident for youth with a delinquent history. Schwinger and Stiensmeier-Pelster (2011) suggest individual differences be considered when assessing youths' motivation for the adoption of achievement goals. The goals of the environment or the adults may not be as influential as presumed and only with further study can these relationships and their influence be understood.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Following a thorough review of the literature, it became apparent there has been limited research to address the influence of the juvenile justice workers on juvenile justice involved youths' motivation (e.g., personal achievement goals, and self-efficacy) to engage in treatment programs. Research in education has demonstrated that youth motivation (achievement goals, self-efficacy, and implicit beliefs) is influenced by perceptions of school teachers' achievement goals and implicit beliefs of intelligence (Bouffard, Bouchard, Goulet, Denoncourt, & Couture, 2005; Mincey, Maldonado, Lacey, & Thompson, 2008). Nonetheless, no study is available to indicate if these studies are generalizable to juvenile justice workers working with delinquent youth outside a classroom environment. More specifically, studies have not been conducted to determine how and to what degree an adjudicated delinquent youths' perception of workers' implicit beliefs of intelligence (incremental versus entity beliefs) and achievement goals (mastery, performance-approach goals, and performance-avoidance) influence motivation. This gap in knowledge may be a crucial component affecting youths' treatment and/or intervention outcomes.

This study focused on determining whether there is a relationship between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice system (JJS) workers' implicit theory of

intelligence and achievement goals and youth motivation (self-efficacy and personal achievement goals).

This study also examined whether youth tend to hold the same achievement goals as they perceives are held by their juvenile justice workers. Finally, this study investigated the interactions between youth perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals to determine if there is an effect on youth motivation (self-efficacy and achievement goals).

Problem and Purposes Overview

Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton (1997) indicated an existence of significant differences in achievement goals for youth with delinquent histories. This difference in achievement goals for delinquent youth may have implications for treatment and intervention programs outcomes. Consequently, the finding from these studies confirm the need for investigation of the predictors of delinquent youths' achievement goals as a key factor in achievement motivation and should be the topic of further research. Additional research in the area of youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy, specific to juvenile justice involved youth, has been suggested by a number of researchers (Carroll, Durkin, Hattie, and Houghton, 1997; Turner et al., 2002).

Turner et al. (2002) discovered that adult interactions with youth perform an important function in skill development and learning processes. This establishes further validation of the need to investigate the influence of the beliefs and practices of juvenile justice workers on juvenile justice involved youth. It was anticipated this study would find a negative effect on youths' mastery goals and self-efficacy if youth perceived workers held a performance goal structure for treatment and entity views of youths'

intelligence. Likewise, negative effects were expected for youth with the perception that the JJS workers held performance goal structures and incremental views of intelligence. However, it was anticipated if youth perceived workers held incremental views of intelligence and mastery goals, there would be positive effects on youth motivation. The interactive effects of youths' perceptions of workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence were also examined in this study to determine their influence on youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy.

This study examined the following questions: 1) how do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence (i.e., entity and incremental beliefs) affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals; 2) how do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals; and 3) how do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals interact in predicting youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals)?

Research Hypotheses

Rationale for research question 1:

Ryan and Patrick (2001) determined that students perceive teacher support to be dependent upon teacher perception of student ability (entity and incremental beliefs), impacting the student's achievement motivation. This suggests student perceptions of teacher beliefs are related to changes in motivation. As with student-teacher relationships, juvenile justice workers' implicit beliefs of intelligence for youth may be instrumental in facilitating increased treatment motivation for JJS involved youth. It was expected that

correlations would be discovered between youths' perceptions of JJS workers' implicit goals and youth motivation.

Research question 1:

How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence (i.e., entity and incremental beliefs) affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals?

Hypothesis for research question 1:

- Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theory of intelligence will have a negative effect on youth self-efficacy and mastery goals, while they will have a positive effect on performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals.
- Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theory of intelligence will have a positive effect on youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals, while they will have a negative effect on performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals.

Rationale for research question 2:

Retelsdorf and Günther (2010) found that teachers' mastery goals have positive implications for student motivation and learning. This provided a foundation for examining whether juvenile justice workers' goals have the same effect on youth as teacher goals have on student achievement goals and motivation.

Research question 2:

How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals affect youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals?

Hypotheses for research question 2:

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *mastery goals* will have a positive effect on youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals, while they will have a negative effect on performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals.
- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *performance-approach goals* achievement goals will have a negative effect on youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals, while they will have a positive effect on performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals.
- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *performance-avoidance* achievement goals will have a negative effect on youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals, they will have a positive effect on performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals.

Rationale for research question 3:

Entity theory tends to influence individuals to adopt performance goals and incremental goals are likely to influence the adoption of mastery goals (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). Entity theory in concert with performance goals may demonstrate a strong increase or strengthening of the negative effects of performance goals on youths' motivation. The interaction between entity theory and mastery goals was expected to illustrate a reduction in the positive effect of mastery goals. Interaction effects of incremental theory coupled with performance goal adoption were expected to demonstrate a weakening of the positive effect of the incremental theory on youth motivation. This is an unlikely combination, since individuals who adopt incremental theory are not very likely to assume both performance goals and incremental theory. The

final interaction to be tested, incremental theory coupled with mastery goals, was likely to explain the powerful increases in youths' motivation possible when both incremental theory and mastery goals are assumed.

Research question 3:

How do delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals interact in predicting youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals)?

Hypotheses for research question 3:

Entity x performance goals interaction effect

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theory of intelligence will have a stronger negative effect on youth self-efficacy and mastery goals when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of performance goals* (i.e., performance-approach goals, performance-avoid goals goal) than a low level of performance goals.
- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theory of intelligence will have a stronger positive effect on youths' performance goals (i.e., performance-approach goals achievement, performance-avoid goals goal) when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of performance goals* (i.e., performance-approach goals achievement, performance-avoid goals goal) than a low level of performance goals.

Entity x mastery goals interaction effect

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theory of intelligence will have a weaker negative effect on youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals when

juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of mastery goals* (i.e., performance-approach goals achievement , performance-avoid goals goal) than a lower level of mastery goals.

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theory of intelligence will have a stronger positive effect on youths' performance goals (i.e., performance-approach goals, performance-avoid goals goal) when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a low level of mastery goals* than a high level of mastery goals.

Incremental x performance goals interaction effect

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theory of intelligence will have a stronger positive effect on youths' mastery goals when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of performance goals* than a low level of performance.
- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theory of intelligence will have a stronger positive effect on youths' performance goals (i.e., performance-approach goals, performance-avoid goals goal) when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of performance goals* than a low level of performance.

Incremental x mastery goals interaction effect

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theory of intelligence will have a stronger positive effect on youths' self-efficacy and *mastery* goals when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of mastery goals* than a low level of mastery goals.

- Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theory of intelligence will have a weaker negative effect on youths' performance goals (i.e., performance-approach goals, performance-avoid goals goal) when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse *a high level of mastery goals* than a low level of mastery goals.

Participants

Participants for this study included 112 male and female youth, ages of 13 to 18 (M = 16.49, SD = 1.09) as shown in Table 2. in the custody of the state and confined to treatment facilities. Table 2 provides information on youths' race and ethnicity. It was expected that 100-120 youth in state's custody would participate, however 112 youth completed the study (101 male and 11 female). Though there is a much larger number of males represented than females, this sample is representative of the delinquent population in custody. An estimated six youth, all male, declined to participate in the study and six youth failed to participate by not filling out the survey. The response pages are anonymous so it is not possible to determine information about these youth.

Table 1. Youth age

Age	N	%
13	1	.9
14	4	3.5
15	18	15.8
16	20	17.5
17	53	46.5
18	15	13.2
M	16.49	
SD	1.09	

Table 2. Youth race and ethnicity

Race or Ethnicity	N	%
African American	40	35.1
Caucasian	26	22.8
Native American	10	8.8
Hispanic	9	7.9
Mixed or Multiple Races	23	21.9
No Response	4	3.5

Data collection began upon Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and continued for two months following the IRB approval. Youth sampled were adjudicated

delinquent youth placed in secure facilities operated by a Midwestern state or group homes operated through a state contract with a Midwestern university. Youth housed in secure treatment facilities are thought to have greater treatment needs or are less responsive to treatment than youth in community group home facilities. The group home facilities are seven-month long treatment programs while the secure facilities are open-ended length of stay, dependent upon individual youths' needs.

Instruments and Data Collection

Measures

The present study's survey included three scales to measure youth perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals and implicit theories and youths' personal achievement goals, academic self-efficacy and general self-efficacy.

Youth Achievement Goals

Youths' achievement goals were measured using Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS) (Midgley, et al., 2000). Some modifications were made to the subscale in order to assess the achievement goals of youth in juvenile treatment programs for adjudicated delinquents. Youth mastery goals were assessed using the PALS (Midgley, et al., 2000) subscales items designed for that purpose. Mastery goals measures from these subscales consisted of five statements. These statements began with stems "It's important to me" and "One of my main goals is." Statements were modified to include the word "treatment" rather than "school" to provide relevance for the study. An example statement is, "One of my goals in treatment is to learn as much as I can." Cronbach internal consistency reliability for the PALS subscale is $\alpha = .85$ (Midgley, et al., 2000).

The performance-approach goals and performance-avoid goals subscales also began with opening stems such as "It's important to me" or "One of my goals is." The performance-approach goals subscale was comprised of five statements. The performance-avoid subscale included four statements. Statements from these subscales were also modified for relevance. An example of a performance-approach goals statement is, "One of my main goals is to show others that I'm good at my treatment group work." Statements for the performance-avoid goals subscales included statements such as, "It's important to me that I don't look stupid in treatment group." The PALS subscales used in this study have Cronbach internal consistency reliabilities of α = .89 for performance-approach and α =.79 for the performance-avoid (Midgley, et al., 2000).

Youth Self-Efficacy

Youth self-efficacy was measured using Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS) (Midgley, et al., 2000) and the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GES) (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). These scales were combined to create a composite score of youths' self-efficacy. Some of these statements began with stems "I can" and "I'm sure." Self-efficacy measures from the two subscales consist of fifteen statements. Modifications were made to PALS statements to include the word "treatment group" rather than "class" in an effort to provide relevance for the study. For example, "I can do even the hardest work in this treatment group if I try," and "I'm sure I can master the skills taught in treatment group." Cronbach internal consistency reliability for the PALS subscale is α =.78 (Midgley, et al., 2000). Reliability for GES generally yields internal consistencies between α = .75 and .90. The GES scale is proven to be reliable and valid with regard to convergent and discriminant validity (Schwarzer, et al., 1997). The GES

uses a 4-point response scale, anchored at 1 *(Not at all true of me)* and 4 *(Very true of me)*. The 10 responses are summed to yield the final composite score with a range from 10 to 40. The scale was created to assess a general sense of perceived self-efficacy in adult and adolescent populations. The authors recommend this scale be used to assess persons older than 12-years (Schwarzer, et al., 1995).

Youths' Perception of Juvenile Justice Workers' Implicit Theories of Intelligence

Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence were measured using a 14-item scale (Dweck, 1999). The items were adapted to examine youths' perception of JJS workers' beliefs for each statement. Youth were asked to respond to statements that reflect youths' perception of workers' implicit view of intelligence. All items in this subscale began with the stem "I think my worker/counselor thinks." Statements to assess youths' perception of JJS workers' entity view of intelligence are include, "I think my worker/counselor thinks my abilities are determined by how smart I am." The measure of incremental theory of intelligence includes the statement, "My worker/counselor thinks I can develop my intelligence if I really try." Youth were asked to indicate their level of disagreement or agreement for each of the statements on a 6-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Reliability and validity data from 6 studies support the use of this scale. The data from these studies demonstrate the high internal reliability α = .94 to .98, indicating high internal consistency for the instrument (Dweck, Chiu & Hong, 1995).

Youths' Perception of Juvenile Justice Workers' Achievement Goals

Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS) (Midgley, et al., 2000) were used to measure youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals. Some

modifications were made to the "Perception of Teacher Achievement goal" subscales in order to assess the perceptions of youth in juvenile treatment programs for adjudicated delinquents. Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' mastery goals were also assessed using the PALS subscales items designed to address student perception of teacher mastery goals (Midgley, et al., 2000). Mastery goal measures from these subscales consisted of five statements. Statements for assessing mastery goals began with the stem, "My counselor/worker." For example, "My counselor/worker thinks mistakes are okay as long as I am learning." Statements from PALS were modified to include the word "youth" rather than "student" to provide relevance for the study. Cronbach internal consistency reliability for this PALS subscale is $\alpha = .83$ (Midgley, et al., 2000).

PALS (Midgley, et al., 2000) subscales items designed to address student perception of teacher performance-approach and performance-avoid goal were used to assess youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' performance goals. The performance-approach goals subscale consisted of three statements and the performance-avoid subscale included four measures. The statements for these subscales also began with stem, "My counselor/worker." As with prior subscales, statements were modified to include the word "youth" rather than "student" to provide applicability to the study. An example statement from of the performance-approach goals subscale is, "My counselor/worker tells me how I compare to other youth." The PALS Cronbach internal consistency reliability for this subscale is $\alpha = .79$ (Midgley, et al., 2000). A sample statement from of the performance-avoid subscale is, "My counselor/worker tells me it's important to join in discussions and answer questions so it doesn't look like I can't do the

work." The PALS Cronbach internal consistency reliability for this subscale is $\alpha = .71$ (Midgley, et al., 2000).

Procedure

The researcher administered the survey to the participants at the facility in which youth resided. The survey was administered in small groups of no more than 10 youths. Youth adjudicated delinquent by judges in the Midwestern state and remanded to the custody of the State or placed on probation were asked by the researcher to voluntarily participate in this study. For youth in custody, a letter requesting consent for the study was sent to the Executive Director of the state agency and the facility administrators where youth were confined. For youth under the age of 18, parental consent was requested and assent was requested from the youth. For youth over the age of 18, consent was requested of the youth. Consent to conduct the study was obtained from the facility directors or superintendent for custody youth. They were also asked to give consent for youth in their facility to participate in the study. Participants were recruited by requesting youth confined in State's custody facilities and group homes participate in the study. The researcher made an announcement to all potential participants asking the youth to voluntarily participate in the research.

Participants were presenting the study during leisure time activities. The study was explained to youth who were then given an opportunity to express an interest in participating in the study. Youth who chose not to participate in the study were given the opportunity to engage in an alternative activity. Participants were then given a page with *Information about the Study*, which was also explained to the youth and youth were again given the opportunity to refrain from participation in the study. The *Information about*

the Study explicitly outlined the subjects' rights, including the purpose of the study, confidentiality, and the right to cease participation at any time. Participants were asked to read the *Information Sheet* and then to complete the survey questions as well as provide some demographic information including his/her age, gender, race, education and length of stay in custody. Participants were reassured that participation was entirely voluntary and that responses are both anonymous and confidential. The name of the participants was not necessary and was not attached in any way to the survey response form. It was explained to the participants that though some demographic information was collected, no identifying information was shared with the state agency and all reporting would be done in aggregate.

Youth were presented a form for consent or assent, depending whether or not they had reached the age of majority. Youth were asked to sign the form to indicate desire to participate in the study and an understanding of their rights. To protect the confidentially of this population, parents were sent letters requesting consent and signatures for assent and consent were gathered from youth on pages separate from the survey data collected. Following an explanation of the assent/consent form, youth were asked to sign either consent or assent form. Youth were told to think about the juvenile justice worker who is responsible for their program and then to begin the survey by reading the statements and responding to survey questions. Survey forms along with pencils and demographic information sheets were collected into a large manila envelope at the end of the survey administration. Youth were provided a candy bar or Pop Tart snack as compensation for participation in the study. No other compensation was provided per the state's policy. The data collection took place at a secure state facility and four community-based group

homes. Each data collection session took approximately 30 minutes. This included presenting the youth with *Information about the Study,* study procedures, explanation of the study and time for the youth to complete the study.

All data collected were kept confidential. Information about how the study was distributed was explained to the participants. No data are stored with identifiable information. No participant names were collected or allowed on any research documents. Data is stored electronically on an external data file stored in a locked file in the office of the principal investigator. No one other than the researcher and her dissertation advisor has access to the data obtained. Data files will remain securely stored on a password-protected computer of the principal investigator and will remain anonymous. If any identifying information data was inadvertently collect it will be destroyed five years after the completion of the research study along with all other data collected in this study. Additionally, no other individual subject identifiers are connected to the data. Descriptive statistics and demographic information are reported in aggregate on the overall sample. All paper copies of the data are stored in the principal investigator's office in a locked file for a one-year period after the study file closes with the IRB, at which time they will be shredded. Electronic files will be destroyed five years after the completion of the study.

Data Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed using SPSS to determine the relative contributions of youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' implicit theory of intelligence and achievement goals in predicting youth's motivation (achievement goals and self-efficacy). Stepwise regression analyses were employed to analyze interaction effects. Preliminary data analysis was conducted to identify whether demographic

variables such as gender and age may need to be controlled for during the regression analysis. If significant differences had been found to exist in the demographic data, these variables would have been entered as control variables in the first step of the regression. There are four independent variables: youth perceptions of JJS workers' implicit theories of intelligence (entity theory, incremental theory) and youth perceptions of JJS worker achievement goals (mastery and performance goals). There are three dependent measures: youth self-efficacy and achievement goals (mastery and performance goals).

The first step of the hierarchical regression model included youths' perception of JJS workers' implicit theories of intelligence on youths' motivation. The second step included youths' perception of JJS workers' implicit theories of intelligence on youths' motivation. The third step included the interaction terms of youths' perceptions of workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence on youths' motivation.

Interaction effects were tested. Each variable was computed into standardized interaction terms, created by multiplying together two variables of interest (Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G., 1991). Interactions were then tested for the effects of youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' theories of intelligence and achievement goals on youth self-efficacy and achievement goals as follows:

- Entity Theory × Performance
- Entity Theory × Mastery
- Incremental Theory × Performance
- Incremental Theory × Mastery

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study addressed the influence of juvenile justice system (JJS) workers' goals and beliefs about delinquent youth (i.e., achievement goals, theories of intelligence) on delinquent youths' motivation (i.e., achievement goals, and self-efficacy) to engage in and complete treatment programs designed to reduce delinquency. This study hypothesized that delinquent youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals (i.e. *mastery* and *performance* goals) would be influenced by youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence. Further, it was hypothesized that there would be interaction effects between implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy.

Correlation Analyses

Zero order correlational analyses were used to determine the degree of relationships among the key variables (see Table 3). The preliminary results indicated that delinquent youths' *performance-avoidance* goals were strongly associated with *performance-approach* goals ($r = .73$, $p < .01$). Due to the strong correlation, the two variables were combined into one variable; delinquent youths' *performance* goals. The combined variable was used in subsequent analyses. Correlational analysis indicated significant correlations for delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers'

mastery goals with youths' *mastery* goals *(r* =.31*, p* <.01*)*, *performance* goals *(r* = .48*, p* <.01*)*, and self-efficacy*(r* = .31*, p* <.01*).* Delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals revealed significant correlations for youths' *performance* goals *(r* = .39*, p* <.01*).* Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence revealed significant correlations with youths' *mastery* goals *(r* = .44*, p* <.01*)* and *performance* goals *(r* = .24*, p* < .05*)*. Youths' perceptions of workers' *entity* theories of intelligence displayed significant correlations with youths' *mastery* goals *(r* = .27*, p* <.01*)* and *performance* goals *(r* = .40*, p* < .01*).* Youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals *(r* = .06*, p* < .05*), incremental* theories of intelligence *(r* = .21*, p* >.05*),* and *entity* theories of intelligence *(r* = .12*, p*>.05*)* revealed non-significant correlations with youths' self-efficacy. Delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals revealed non-significant correlations with youths' *mastery* goals *(r* = .13*, p* >.05*).*

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. Youth Self-Efficacy	-						
2. Youth *Mastery* Goal	.51**	-					
3. Youth *Performance* Goal	.43**	.41**	-				
4. YP Worker *Mastery*	.31**	.48**	.31**	-			
5. YP Worker *Performance*	.06	.13	.39**	.37**	-		
6. YP Worker *Incremental*	.21	.44**	.24*	.69**	.46**	-	
7. YP Worker *Entity*	.12	.27**	.40**	.30**	.51**	.54**	-
M	3.55	3.55	3.08	3.35	2.80	3.78	3.28
SD	1.04	.85	.84	.92	.98	1.14	1.08
Scale Reliabilities	.86	.83	.87	.81	.88	.89	.84

Note. *$p < .05$, ** $p < .001$. YP = Youths' perception

Regression Analyses

Regression analyses were performed to examine how delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of

intelligence affect youths' motivation. Three hierarchical regression models were tested with youths' perceptions of workers' implicit theories of intelligence, mastery goals, and performance goals considered as outcome variables and with youths' motivation (i.e., youths' achievement goal and self-efficacy) considered as outcome or dependent variables. Interactions terms were created to test potential interactions between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence on the outcome variables.

The first step of the regression model included three main effect terms (i.e., delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence, mastery goals, and performance goals). The second step of regression model included four interaction terms (i.e., incremental × mastery, incremental × performance, entity × mastery, and entity × performance). Standardized variables were used to avoid multi-collinearity and aid in interpretation of the model (Aiken & West, 1991).

Preliminary analyses revealed that three interaction terms were non-significant: youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' incremental beliefs × mastery goals, entity beliefs × mastery goals, and entity beliefs × performance goals. As a result they were dropped from the final regression model for clarity and only significant interaction terms were examined in the final regression model. Main effects were retained in the model to estimate the effects of a variable after controlling for other variables; regardless of significance level. The interaction terms were plotted graphically for deeper understanding of the nature of the interaction effects (Pedhazur, 1997).

As shown in Table 4, overall, the regression models were all significant, examining the effect of delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' implicit theories of

intelligence and achievement goals on youths' self-efficacy (R^2 = .20, F (5, 106) = 4.93, p < .01), *mastery* goals (R^2 = .32, F (5, 106) = 9.49, p < .01), *performance* goals (R^2 = .20, F (5, 106) = 11.53, p < .01).

Table 4.
Hierarchical regression predicting youths' motivation for treatment outcomes.

Predictors	Youths' self-efficacy		Youths' mastery goals		Youths' performance goals	
	β	*t*	β	*t*	β	*t*
Step 1						
YP Worker Mastery Goals	.40	3.12**	.36	3.15**	.35	2.94**
YP Worker Performance Goals	-.10	-.86	-16	-1.58	.25	2.17
YP Worker Incremental Theory	-.08	-.52	-.18	1.31	-.30	-2.80*
YP Worker Entity Theory	.09	.74	.14	1.32	.34	3.15**
Step 2						
YP Worker Mastery Goals	.42	3.37**	.39	3.36**	.37	3.30**
YP Worker Performance Goals	-.17	-1.49	-.22	-2.15	.14	1.46
YP Worker Incremental Theory	-.04	-.27	.21	1.59	-.25	-1.97
YP Worker Entity Theory	.08	.66	.13	1.26	.33	3.21**
YP Incremental × *Performance*	.27	2.94**	.23	2.67**	.31	3.80**
F	4.93**		9.49**		11.53**	
R^2 *(Adjusted* R^2*)*	.20 (.16)		.32 (.29)		.36 (.33)	

Note.*p < .05, ** p < .01. YP = Youths' perception

Research Question 1: Effect of Juvenile Justice Workers' Theories of Intelligence on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

Three multiple regressions were run to examine the main effects of delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* and *entity* theories of intelligence on delinquent youths' motivation (i.e., self-efficacy, *mastery* goals, and *performance* goals). Upon inspection of the regression models, youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence did not show significant main effects on youths' self-efficacy (β = -.04, t = -.27, p >.05), *mastery* goals (β = .21, t =1 .59, p >.05), and *performance* goals (β = -.25, t = -1.57, p >.05).

Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *entity* theories of intelligence positively predicted youths' *performance* goals (β = .33, t = 3.21, p <.01), while it did not significantly predicted youths' *mastery* goals (β = .13, t = 1.26, p >.05) and self-efficacy (β = .08, t = .66, p >.05).

Research Question 2: Effect of Juvenile Justice Workers' Achievement Goals on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

Multiple regressions were run to investigate the effects of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals (i.e., *mastery goals* and *performance* goals) on youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals (i.e., *mastery and performance)*. The regressions results revealed youths' perceptions of workers' *mastery* goals had a positive effect on youths' self-efficacy (β = .42, t = 3.37, p < .01), *mastery* goals (β = .39, t = 3.36, p < .01), and *performance* goals (β = .37, t = 3.30, p < .01). This suggests when delinquent youth sense that juvenile justice workers adopt *mastery* goals for youth; youth are likely to adopt *mastery* goals and *performance* goals. Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals were not a significant predictor of delinquent youths' self-efficacy (β = .17, t = 1.49, p > .05), *mastery goals* (β = -.22, t = -2.51, p > .05), or *performance* goals (β = .14, t = 1.46, p >.05).

Research Question 3: Interaction Effects between Juvenile Justice Workers' Theories of Intelligence and Achievement Goals on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

Research question three proposed that the potential interactions between youths' perceptions of workers' achievement goals and implicit theories of intelligence would have a synergistic effect on delinquent youth motivation variables (i.e., self-efficacy and achievement goals).

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Self-Efficacy

There was a significant two-way interaction effect between delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy for completing treatment ($\beta = .27$, $t = 2.94$, $p < .01$), although neither delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence or *performance* goals displayed a significant main effect on youths' self-efficacy. Procedures developed by Aiken and West (1991) were used to plot the interaction for further examination (see Figure 1). Regression lines were displayed at high and low levels for youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence.

The relationship between juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals and delinquent youths' self-efficacy varied as a function of youths' perception of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence. Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals showed a significantly negative effect on youths' self-efficacy only when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were low. The negative effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on delinquent youths' self-efficacy disappeared when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were high. Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence served as a buffer to reduce the negative effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were high.

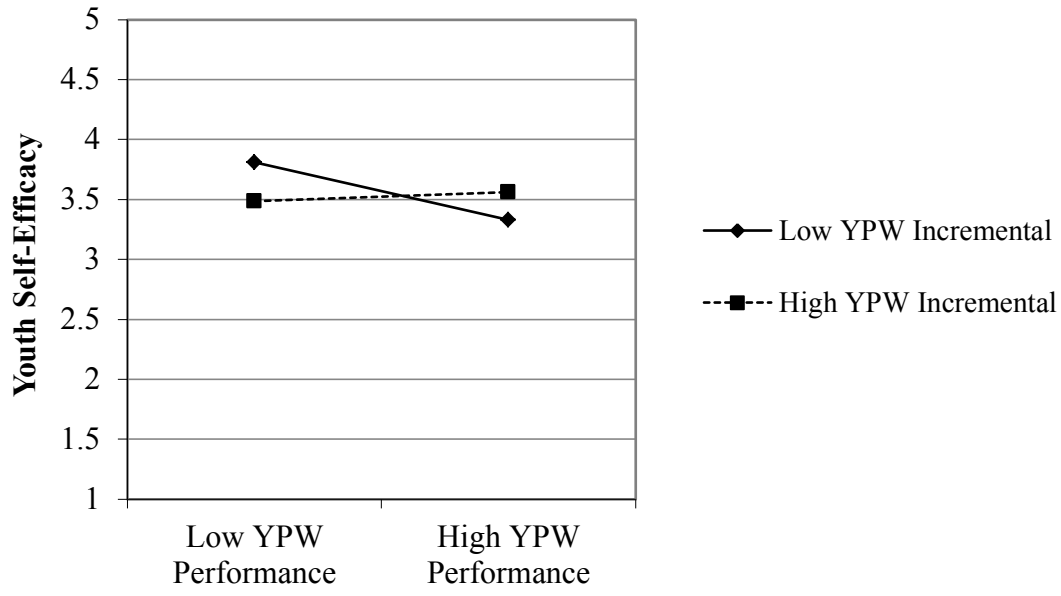

Figure 1. Interaction effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories and *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy for completing treatment.

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Mastery Goals

There was a significant two-way interaction effect between delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals ($\beta = .23$, $t = 2.67$, $p = < .01$) on youths' *mastery* goals. Interaction effects were plotted for graphic examination (see Figure 2).

Delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence moderated the effect of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance goals* on youths' *mastery* goals. Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *performance goals* had a negative association with youths' *mastery* goals only when youths perceived juvenile justice workers ascribed to a low level of *incremental* theories of intelligence. The negative association between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers *performance* goals and youths' *mastery* goals did not emerge when youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were high. Delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence

provided a buffering effect, reducing the negative effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on youths' *mastery* goals when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were high.

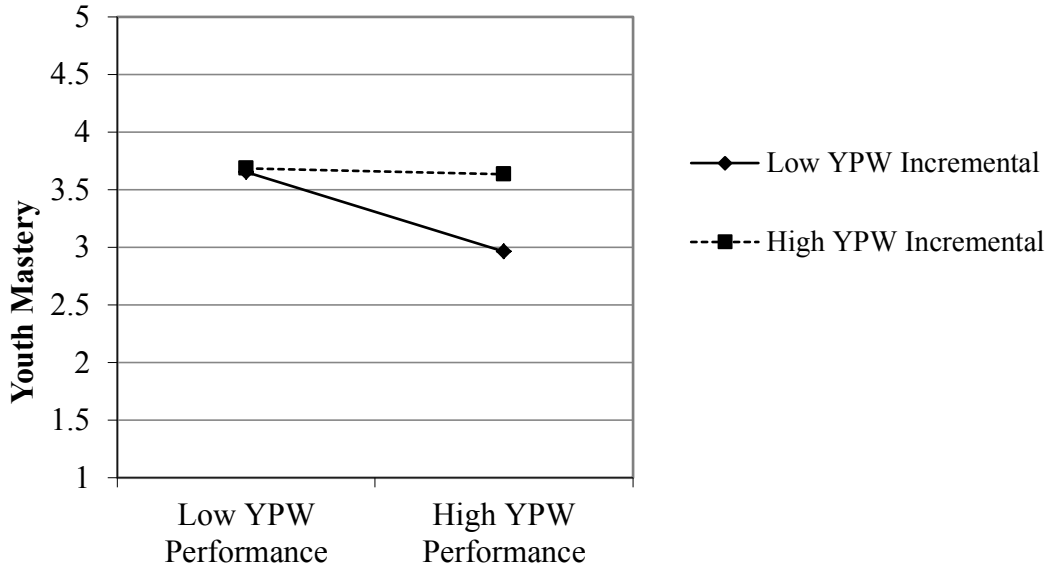

Figure 2. Interaction effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories and *performance* goals on youths' *mastery* goals for completing treatment.

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Performance Goals

As with the other delinquent youth motivation outcomes, a significant two-way interaction effect was found between delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals on youths' *performance goals* ($\beta = .31$, $t = 3.80$, $p = < .01$) for completing treatment, though the main effects of neither youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence or *performance* goals were significant. A plot displaying the interaction effect aids in further examination (see Figure 3).

The relationship between youths' *performance* goals and youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals varied depending upon youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence. When youths'

perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were high, youths' *performance* goals were positively associated with youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals. However, youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals are negatively associated with youth *performance* goals when youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs were low.

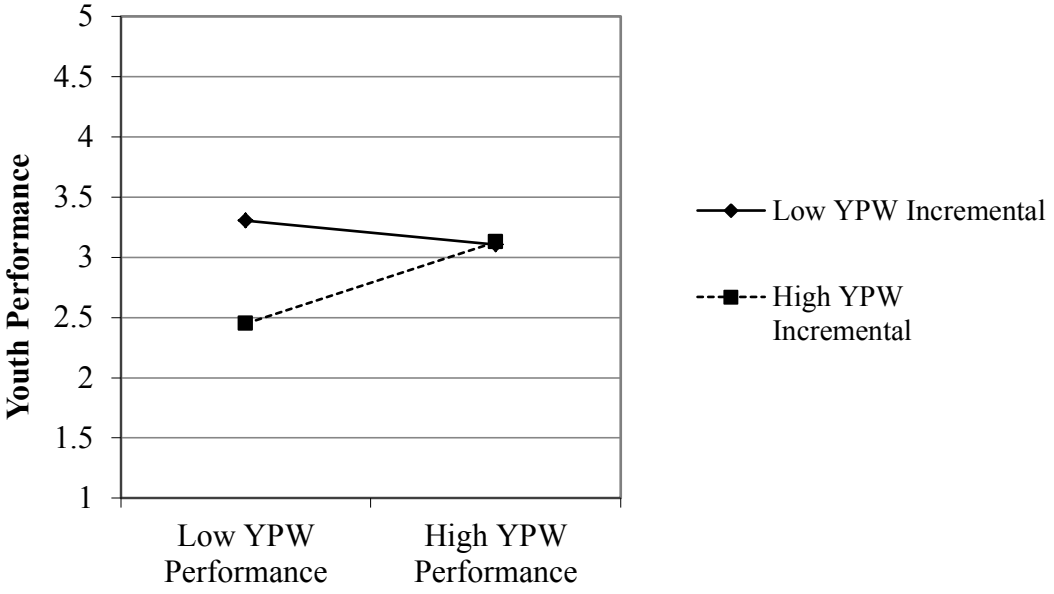

Figure 3. Interaction effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories and *performance* goals on youths' performance goals for completing treatment.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on delinquent youths' motivation (i.e., youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy) to complete treatment programs designed to reduce delinquency. There is scant research investigating the influence of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals and implicit theory of intelligence on delinquent youths' motivation. This study seeks to address this gap. This chapter provides a summary of this study, discusses theoretical and practical implications, and makes suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Study

This study examined the influence of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence (i.e., *incremental* theory and *entity* theory) and achievement goals (i.e., *mastery* goals and *performance* goals) in determining youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals) to complete treatment, which was designed to reduce delinquency. Previous research has suggested that adults' interactions with youth perform an important function in youths' motivation and subsequent skill development (Turner, et al., 2002).

Research Question 1: Effect of Juvenile Justice Workers' Theories of Intelligence on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

Research question one investigated the influence of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence (i.e., *entity* and *incremental*) on the youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals (i.e., *mastery* and *performance*). The zero order correlations of the variables and subsequent multiple regressions were performed to examine the predictive effects of juvenile justice involved youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on their motivation.

Main Effects of Youths' Perceptions of Juvenile Justice Workers' Entity Theories of Intelligence

The current research observed a positive effect for delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theories of intelligence on youths' *performance* goals. These findings were anticipated and supported the hypothesis since *entity* theories are frequently associated with the endorsement of *performance* goals, which focus on the demonstration of competence and the avoidance of negative judgments (Dweck, 1999; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). As previous study findings indicate, individuals ascribing to intelligence as a fixed trait tend to praise youth talent, resulting in differential treatment of youth and creating an atmosphere of competition (Leroy, et al., 2007). It is plausible that youth working with juvenile justice workers who believe that intelligence is not malleable (i.e., *entity* theory of intelligence) may be more likely to focus on demonstration of performance and comparison with peers.

The zero order correlation results showed positive relationship of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theories of intelligence with youths' mastery goals. However, multiple regression analyses results, when other predictors (e.g., workers' *mastery* goals) were controlled for, revealed that youths' perceptions of workers' *entity* theories of intelligence do not have a significant effect on youths' *mastery* goals. This indicates that workers' *entity* theory of intelligence fail to exert an influence on youths' *mastery* goals above and beyond the effects of other predictors. Neither zero order correlation results nor multiple regression analyses results showed a significant association for delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theories of intelligence with youths' self-efficacy.

In summary, delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *entity* theories of intelligence provided a positive effect on youths' *performance* goals. Increases in *performance* goals tend to heighten concerns about displays of performance since performance is commonly observed as an indicator of intelligence (Stipek & Gralinski, 1996). Workers' *entity* theories showed no significant influence on youths' *mastery* goals or self-efficacy. *Entity* theories are most often associated with emphasis on judgment, concern for demonstrations of successful performance and avoidance of risk, all of which are inconsistent with *mastery* goals and self-efficacy, which leads to learning from mistakes and skill mastery (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002; Molden & Dweck, 2006).

Main Effects of Youths' Perceptions of Juvenile Justice Workers' Incremental Theories of Intelligence

Multiple regression results showed that delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were not with a significant predictor

of their self-efficacy, mastery goals or performance goals, while correlation results revealed that delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were positively associated with youth' mastery goals and performance goals. This indicates that the relatively predictive power of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence is weaker than the other predictors such as juvenile justice workers' mastery goals. Despite the absence of significant main effect of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence, it showed a significant interaction effect with juvenile justice workers' performance goals. More details were discussed in later section.

Research Question 2: Effect of Juvenile Justice Workers' Achievement Goals on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

The second research question examined the effects of delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' achievement goals on youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals) to complete treatment. Previous research conducted with teachers and students indicated that teachers' *mastery* goals predicted teachers' encouragement of students' *mastery* goals and significant increases in youths' *mastery* goals and self-efficacy (Ryan, Ghee, & Midgley, 1998). These studies confirmed teachers' *performance* goals discourage youth behaviors such as help-seeking, as a sign of poor ability, resulting in reduced youths' *mastery* goals and self-efficacy but encouraging *performance* goals (Ryan, Ghee, & Midgley, 1998).

Main Effects of Juvenile Justice Workers' Mastery Goals

This study revealed that youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals tend to increase youths' self-efficacy and youths' endorsement of *mastery* goals.

These findings substantiate the hypothesis suggesting delinquent youths' mastery goals and self-efficacy increased as a result of perceptions of juvenile justice workers' mastery goals. This implies that delinquent youths' adoption of mastery goals increases as a result of youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals. As youth perceive workers ascribe to *mastery* goals, youth are more likely to adopt meaningful skill strategies related to skill development such as increased effort and persistence, and stronger feelings of competence (Schunk & Meece, 2005). When youth perceive mastery goals are encouraged, skill development becomes enjoyable and is approached without anxiety (Pajares, 2005). Delinquent youth may also perceive the encouragement of *mastery* goals, since the endorsement of *mastery* goals encourages youth to also assume *mastery* goals (Ames, 1992; Midgley et al. 1995; Roeser et al. 1996). Youth perceiving high worker *mastery* goals are more likely to expect workers to provide them with intellectually motivating tasks (Retelsdorf et al., 2010). Youth with increased *mastery* goals see growth as incremental and consider mistakes to be part of their learning process (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese, 2008). Encouraging delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals may result in stronger *mastery* goal development in delinquent youth. These increases may be indicated by gains in youths' thinking processes, ability to learn from mistakes, and questioning as a process of skill development (Turner, et al., 2002). As a result, youth may seek more challenges and utilize *mastery*-oriented responses to failure such as strategy formation and perseverance (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Youth may also expect workers to assign challenging and meaningful tasks, along with evaluating youth for growth and improvement, while assisting them with *mastery* goals development (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Increases

in *mastery* goals results in improved desire for skill acquisition and knowledge (Leondari & Gialamas, 2002). Delinquent youth appear to benefit from increases in motivation to complete treatment programs for delinquency reduction when juvenile justice workers' communicate messages promoting *mastery* goals. These messages may increase youths' focus on skill development and progress and self-efficacy to develop the skills (Urdan, & Schoenfelder, 2006).

These finding suggest that many juvenile justice workers may project their own *mastery* goals structures to youth. The degree to which the *mastery* goals are emphasized may predict the degree to which youth endorse *mastery* goals in treatment programs. When *mastery* goals are adopted, youth in treatment programs may have a greater understanding of the importance and significance of the goal content and how it directly relates to youths. As a result, youths' willingness to develop a meaningful understanding of that material may increase (Walker & Greene, 2009).

When youth perceive juvenile justice workers embrace *mastery* goals, youth in treatment for delinquency display positive increases in achievement goals (i.e., *mastery* and *performance*) and self-efficacy. The development of self-efficacy requires environments that assist youth in goal setting while focusing on improvement and mastery (Schunk & Meece, 2005). As youths' self-efficacy increases, youth begin to indicate more positive expectations for success and higher levels of confidence for task completion (Bouffard, et al., 2005). Youth holding greater sense of self-efficacy display increased engagement in skill development as a result of the perceptions that juvenile justice workers promote and emphasize the skill mastery as important and understand and communicate high expectations for youths' success (Meece et al., 2003).

It was hypothesized that delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals would have negative effects on youths' *performance* goals. These findings resulted in an unanticipated positive effect for workers' *mastery* goals on youths' *performance* goals. This seems to imply that juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals provide a strengthening effect on youths' motivation outcomes to complete treatment regardless of the achievement goals youth hold. The prediction that a negative relationship would exist was made given that youth with *performance* goals tend to focus on the avoidance of negative judgments or outcomes rather than skill mastery (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

These finding provide reason for further research, indicating that *performance* goals may provide a functional value for incarcerated youth since *performance* goals may be beneficial in treatment facility environments where a certain degree of *performance* goals contribute to peers' camaraderie and team competitions (Carroll, et al., 1997). As youth attach importance to goals relating to relative peer status, a part of the culture of treatment facilities, youth may display increases in *performance* goals (Pintrich, 2000c).

Main Effects of Juvenile Justice Workers' Performance Goals

Delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals were not a significant predictor of youth motivation variables (i.e., youths' self-efficacy, mastery goals, or performance goals). These findings failed to support the hypothesis that youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals would be negatively related with youths' self-efficacy and mastery goals and positively related with youths' performance goals. *Performance* goals are most frequently associated with the prescribing of superficial strategies for remediating delinquent behavior, such as

community service and restitution, skills that don't necessarily contribute to youths' skill development.

Though there are no significant main effects for delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals on youths' motivation, there was a significant interaction effect between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals and *incremental* theories of intelligence on all three youths' motivation variables. More details on the interaction effect were discussed in a later section.

Research Question 3: Interaction Effects between Juvenile Justice Workers' Theories of Intelligence and Achievement Goals on Delinquent Youths' Motivation

Research question three evaluated the interaction effects of delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on delinquent youths' motivation to complete treatment to reduce delinquency. It was hypothesized that the effects of the interactions would provide synergistic effects on youths' motivation (i.e. self-efficacy and achievement goals). The interaction between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and workers' *performance* goals was significant, displaying a significant influence on youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy.

Though youths' perceptions of workers' juvenile justice *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals on youths' motivation did not show a significant main effect; it is intriguing that these two variables showed significant interaction effects on all outcome variables.

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Self-Efficacy

A significant two-way interaction effect was found between delinquent youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy for completing treatment. Youths' perception of workers' *performance* goals had a negative effect on youths' self-efficacy when youth perceive workers endorse a low level of *incremental* theories of intelligence, while it did not show a significant effect on youths' self-efficacy when youth perceive workers endorse a high level of *incremental* theories of intelligence. Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence moderated the relationship between youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals and youths' self-efficacy, with youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals reducing youths' self-efficacy only when youth perceived that workers believe that intelligence does not change with effort and learning. Delinquent youths' perceptions that workers believe that youths' intelligence can change with effort and learning canceled out the negative effect of workers' *performance* goals on youths' self-efficacy. Thus, the relationship between these variables varied as a function of the strength of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs. Youths' self-efficacy has fundamental implications for academic performance, peer relationships, and career and vocational outcomes (Schunk & Meece, 2005), so this moderating effect which guards against decreases in delinquent youths' self-efficacy is crucial.

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Mastery Goals

The regression analysis revealed that youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence interact with youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals

to influence youths' *mastery* goals. Youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals have a negative association with youths' *mastery* goals when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse a low level of *incremental* theory rather than a high level of *incremental* theory. This model predicts that youths' *mastery* goals for treatment decrease when youth perceive juvenile justice workers' ascribe to high level of *performance* goals, coupled with low levels of *incremental* theories of intelligence. The study further finds when youths perceive workers hold higher *performance* goals and lower *incremental* theories of intelligence, youths' *mastery* goals are the most vulnerable. When youth perceive workers hold high levels of *incremental* theories of intelligence the negative effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals disappear. In other words, when youth perceive workers hold high levels of *incremental* theories of intelligence a buffering effect is produced, protecting youth from the negative effects of perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on youths' motivation outcomes.

Based on the results of this study, the adoption of practices that encourage delinquent youth to perceive juvenile justice workers as holding *incremental* beliefs does affect youths' motivation outcomes (i.e., achievement goals and self-efficacy) in a more nuanced way by mitigating or cancelling out the negative effect of workers' practices associated with performance goals. Encouraging youths' perceptions of workers' high levels of *incremental* theories of intelligence which moderates the negative effects of youths' *performance* goals may result not only in the reduction in the negative effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals, but increase the likelihood youth will endorse *mastery* goals.

Interaction Effect on Delinquent Youths' Performance Goals

A significant interaction effect was found between delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on youths' *performance* goals for completing treatment to reduce delinquent behaviors. Regression analysis revealed youths' perception of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals had a positive effect on youths' *performance* goals when juvenile justice workers are perceived to endorse a high level of *incremental* theories. Negative associations with youths' *performance* goals were revealed when youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence are low.

Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence were expected to reduce the negative effect of the *performance* goals on youth motivation. Theoretically these constructs were an unlikely combination (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007), given that individuals who adopt *incremental* theories of intelligence generally do not assume both *performance* goals. The present study, however, showed a positive correlation between youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals and youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* beliefs.

Juvenile justice workers' *performance* goals positively predict delinquent youths' *performance* goals as a result of the interaction of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals. When youth perceive workers' *incremental* beliefs are strong, youths' *performance* goals strengthen as a result of the interaction effect of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs and *performance* goals. When juvenile justice workers are perceived by delinquent youth as ascribing to

intelligence as a fixed trait, efforts to provide youth with an environment that will promote the adoption of youths' personal *performance* goals will fail. Only when youth perceive that workers believe youths' abilities can improve will there be positive effects on youths' *performance* goals, even when workers' present performance-oriented practices.

Changes in delinquent youths' motivation outcomes were demonstrated as a result of the interaction effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals. When youth perceive that juvenile justice workers believe their abilities can increase, and that youth must demonstrate these abilities, differences occur in youths' motivation to complete treatment. How juvenile justice workers' adoption of performance goals for delinquent youth is a function of the strength of youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence. Thus, the strength of juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence should be clearly conveyed to youth.

Conclusions

The present research attempted to contribute to the knowledge of delinquent youths' motivation to complete treatment by assessing the effects of youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on youths' motivation outcomes. Juvenile justice workers are tasked with motivating delinquent youth to develop the skills required to successfully complete treatment programming to reduce delinquency. This study suggests three conclusions:

1) Youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals were the strongest predictors of youths' *mastery* goals, *performance* goals, and self-efficacy.

These findings are consistent with prior research (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Schunk & Meece, 2005) suggesting that youth who perceive juvenile justice workers hold *mastery* goals tend to exhibit positive increases in self-efficacy and *mastery* and *performance* goals. Increases in youths' *mastery* goal may bring about improved focus on task orientation and additional effort toward goal attainment. Increases in youths' self-efficacy are most strongly predicted by youths' perceptions of workers' *mastery* goals and may be realized by the types of challenges youth choose. However, it was unanticipated that this study would find that delinquent youths' perceptions of workers' *mastery* goals were associated with increases in delinquent youths' *performance* goals (Urdan & Midgley, 2003).

2) Youths' *performance goals* were positively predicted by youths' perceptions of workers' *entity* theory. This is consistent with previous studies conducted with teachers and students which determined teachers who hold *entity* theories of intelligence are likely to positively influence increases in students' *performance* goals research (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Increases in youths' *performance* goals may be evidenced by youths' behaviors such as social evaluations.

3) Significant interaction effects between youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and *performance* goals were found consistently on all outcome variables such as youths' *mastery* and *performance* goals and self-efficacy.

The effect of juvenile justice workers' performance goals on youths' motivation to complete treatment was determined as a function of youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence. When youths' perceive workers' i*ncremental* theories for youth are strong, youths' perceptions of workers' performance goals tended

to increase youths' motivation to complete treatment (i.e., achievement goals and self-efficacy).

Limitations of the Study

There are few limitations to this study. Only delinquent youth confined to a Midwestern state's custody treatment programs participated in the study. Useful information for delinquency reduction program might be provided were this study conducted with delinquent youth in community probation and parole programs to determine the influence of these youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' motivation theories on youths' treatment outcomes.

The survey was written with a readability or difficulty level of 4th grade, 6th month using the Flesch–Kincaid (F–K) Readability test. Many youth completing the study may have still had difficulty reading the study. Thus, youths' reading proficiencies may prove to be a limitation of this study. It appeared that for some youth there was difficulty reading the survey. This was evidenced by youth asking the researcher the meaning of a passage, asking a peer to read to the survey aloud or asking a peer to read a word. There indicates a strong likelihood that a number of youth participating had difficulty reading some words on the survey. Information provided to the researcher by the state agency with custody of the participants, greater than half the youth have a diagnosable learning or other disability that may have affected the youths' ability to respond to the survey.

Suggestions for Future Research

While studies on relationships between youths' perceptions of adults' implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals and the implications for youths' motivation are available, few have focused primarily on the nature and strength of

juvenile justice workers' relationships with delinquent youth. As a consequence, there is little understanding regarding factors associated with the increase of delinquent youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy to completion of treatment to reduce delinquency. As previous research has shown, youth are likely to adopt the achievement goals that correspond with the achievement goals that exist in their environment (Walker & Greene, 2009). However, little is known about the effects of promoting the increase of delinquent youths' self-efficacy and achievement goals to complete treatment to reduce delinquency while in treatment programs.

Investigation into other predictors of *mastery* goals acquisition for delinquent youth is a suggestion for further research. Though many of these youth may have poor achievement skills they may hold personal reasons to increase skills (Bandura, et al., 2001). This suggests that for some delinquent youth, achieving specific goals and a strong concern for not reoffending is essential. This is also true for youth concerned with gaining highest possible program status, which often a requirement for released from treatment to return home. On the other hand, some adjudicated youth may have a mitigated value for performing well as a result of a pervasive low self-efficacy (Bandura, et al., 2001).

Delinquent youth may be willing to struggle to make significant gains in treatment program goals despite being plagued by self-doubts, if they know the results of efforts will yield important outcomes. However, maintaining the motivation to reduce delinquent behavior when youth return home is an area requiring further research. For example, youth are often motivated to complete treatment programming within a specific period of time, so the decision is made to expend the effort needed to gain necessary

skills, despite believing the skills are too challenging. Similarly, if youth value the improvement of skill development, the expenditure of effort may be worthwhile regardless of whether the skills seem attainable or not. A greater understanding of the youths' personal motivation for increasing *mastery* goals and self-efficacy might be achieved through additional research. The findings herein may provide some guidance to future research regarding the separate and combined roles of delinquent youths' perceptions of both implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goals on specific outcome variables for juvenile justice involved youth. Further investigation into delinquent youths' development of achievement goals is warranted and may advance the theoretical understanding for both self-efficacy and achievement goal theories. Finding the appropriate motivation structure of delinquent youths in treatment for reducing delinquent behavior is complex but essential to providing the greater treatment outcomes.

Future studies may benefit from providing an audio tape version of the survey instrument to be played for the youth at the time of the data collection. It is noteworthy that several youth may have declined to participate in the study as a result of the extensive need to read. Further, several of the youth who did participate requested help from peers with reading the study or clarification for passages from the researcher.

Summary

This study revealed significant effects of youths' perceptions of juvenile justice workers' *mastery* goals on youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy and youths' perceptions of workers' *entity* beliefs on youths' *performance* goals. An interaction effect was established between juvenile justice workers' *incremental* theories of intelligence and workers' *performance* goals on youths' achievement goals and self-efficacy. Given

the present study, consistent with previous research, suggests youths' self-efficacy is influenced by youths' own *mastery* goals and perceptions of adults' *mastery* goals (Pajares, 2006); interventions to reduce delinquency should be directed at increasing youths' *mastery* goals. For the most part though, this study provides evidence that youth benefit when workers strive to provide them with the perceptions and encouragement necessary to support youth to embrace *mastery* goals. There is also evidence that youths' perceptions of workers' *incremental* beliefs influence a reduction in the negative effects of youths' perceptions of workers' *performance* goals on youths' sense of efficacy and achievement goals.

The motivation of delinquent youth is complex and reflected in numerous individual needs and circumstances. Clearly, many of these factors are beyond the control of the youth or the adults who are working with the youth to remediate delinquent behavior. This study focused only on circumstances over which juvenile justice workers have some control: communicating appropriate implicit theories of intelligence and achievement goal messages to youth to encourage feelings of competence and to assist them in viewing skill development as a process.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A- IRB Approval

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	Thursday, March 14, 2013
IRB Application No	ED12194
Proposal Title:	The Effect of Youths' Perceptions of Juvenile Justice Workers' Implicit Theories of Intelligence and Goal Orientation on the Motivation of Adjudicated Youth
Reviewed and Processed as:	Full Board

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 3/11/2014

Principal Investigator(s):

Elana Grissom
3736 E. 82nd Pl.
Tulsa, OK 74137

YoonJung Cho
426 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

X The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI, advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnett Watkins 219 Cordell North (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Shelia M. Kennison

Shelia Kennison, Chair
Institutional Review Board

	Check the box with the number that best describes what you think.	Not at all True of me	Hardly True of me	Somewhat True of me	True of me	Exactly True of me
	General Self-Efficacy	1	2	3	4	5
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.					
2	**If someone opposes me, I can find the ways to get what I want.**					
3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.					
4	I am sure that I could deal well with sudden events.					
5	Thanks to my creativity, I know how to handle most situations.					
6	I can solve most problems if I spend the needed effort.					
7	I can remain calm when facing problems because I can rely on my coping abilities.					
8	When I am faced with a problem, I can usually find several answers.					
9	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.					
10	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.					
	These are some statements about you and as a member of a treatment group. Check the box with the number that best describes what you think. (Achievement Goals)	Not at all True of me	Not True of me	Somewhat True of me	True of me	Exactly True of me
	It is important:	1	2	3	4	5
11	that I learn a lot of new skills. (M 9)					
12	that I thoroughly understand my treatment work. (M38)					
13	that I improve my skills in treatment. (M49)					
14	that other youth in treatment think I am good at my treatment work. (PA8)					
15	that I look smart compared to others in treatment. (PA48)					
16	that I don't look stupid to others doing treatment work. (PV3)					
	One of my main goals is:	1	2	3	4	5
17	to learn as much as I can in treatment. (M25)					
18	to master a lot of new treatment skills. (M29)					
19	to show others that I'm good at my treatment work. (PA26)					
20	to show others that treatment work is easy for me. (PA41)					
21	to look smart in comparison to the other youth in treatment. (PA45)					
22	to avoid looking like I have trouble doing the work in treatment. (PV55)					
23	to keep others from thinking I'm not smart in treatment. (PV33)					
	Check the box with the number that best describes what you think. (Achievement Goals)	1	2	3	4	5
24	I'm sure I can master the skills taught in treatment. (AE1)					
25	I'm sure I can figure out how to do the most difficult treatment work.(AE11)					
26	I can do almost all the work in treatment if I don't give up. (AE52)					
27	Even if the treatment work is hard, I can learn it. (AE56)					
28	I can do even the hardest work in treatment if I try. (AE58)					

	Pick one counselor or social worker and check the box with the number that best describes them. (Perception of Teacher achievement goals)	**Not at all True of me**	**Not True of me**	**Somewhat True of me**	**True of me**	**Exactly True of me**
	My worker/counselor:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
29	thinks mistakes are okay as long as I am progressing in my treatment work. (PTM1)					
30	wants me to understand treatment work, not just memorize it. (PTM2)					
31	really wants me to enjoy gaining new treatment skills.(PTM3)					
32	recognizes me for trying hard. (PTM4)					
33	gives me time to really explore and understand new skills.(PTM5)					
34	points out other youth as good examples. (PTPA1)					
35	tells me which youth do the best in treatment.(PTPA2)					
36	tells me how I do in treatment compared to other youth. (PTPA3)					
37	tells me that it is important that I don't look stupid. (PTPV1)					
38	says that showing others that I am not bad at my treatment should be my goal. (PTPV2)					
39	tells me to join discussions and answer questions so I don't look like I can't do the work. (PTPV3)					
40	doesn't let me do just easy work, but makes me think.(AP19)					
41	makes sure that the work I do really makes me think.(AP53)					
42	accepts nothing less than my full effort. (AP 57)					
43	asks me to explain how I get my answers to treatment work. (AP15)					

	Pick one counselor or social worker and check the box with the number that best describes them. (Implicit Theory of Intelligence)	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Mostly Disagree**	**Mostly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
	I think my worker/counselor thinks:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
44	When I make progress in treatment, my intelligence improves. (I)						
45	If I fail in something, my intelligence is questioned. (E)						
46	When you use a lot of effort, you show that you are not intelligent. (E)						
47	If I fail in a task, my worker still trusts my intelligence. (I)						
48	My treatment skills are decided by how smart I am. (E)						
49	Good preparation before I perform a task is a way to develop my intelligence. (I)						
50	I have a certain amount of intelligence and I cannot do much to change it. (E)						
51	I can develop my intelligence if I really try. (I)						
52	I was born with a set amount of intelligence. (E)						
53	Good performance in treatment is a way to show others that I am intelligent.(E)						
54	When I do new things, my basic intelligence improves (I)						
55	The effort I use improves my intelligence.(I)						
56	Difficulties and challenges keep you from increasing your intelligence. (E)						
57	Assessment by others can help develop your intelligence.(I)						

Demographic Survey

1. What is your gender (check one)?

_____Female _____Male

2. How old are you? _____ years

3. Please check the item that best describes your race. Check all that apply.

_____African American _____Asian American
_____Hispanic/Latino(a) _____American Indian
_____White _____Other, please specify:
_____

4. What is the highest grade that you have completed (check one)?

_____7 _____11
_____8 _____12
_____9 _____High School Graduate
_____10 _____GED

5. How long have you been in State's custody? _____

Probation?_____

6. What is the race of your Counselor/Worker (check one)?

_____African American _____Asian America
_____Hispanic/Latino(a) _____American India
_____White _____Other, please specify:
_____

7. What is the approximate age of your Counselor/Worker?
_____

8. What is the gender of your worker?

_____Female _____Male

9. How many hours per month do you spend taking to your Counselor/Worker? _____

10. How do you generally communicate with your Counselor/Worker?

_____ Phone _____Notes/Letters
_____ Face-to-Face _____Talk-Back TV
_____Other, please specify:
_____

VITA

Elana Dickson Grissom

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy/Education

Thesis: RELATIONSHIP OF ADJUDICATED YOUTHS' PERCEPTIONS OF JUVENILE JUSTICE WORKERS' IMPLICIT THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT GOALS ON MOTIVATION TO COMPLETE TREATMENT TO REDUCE DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December 2013.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Educational Administration at Oklahoma State University, Tulsa, Oklahoma in July 1993.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Special Education at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December 1982.

Experience:

2013- present, Director of Education and Program Development, Juvenile Bureau of the District Court, Tulsa County, Tulsa, OK

2008-2013 Education Coordinator, Oklahoma Office of Juvenile Affairs, Oklahoma City, OK

2004-2008 Director of Student Programs, Jenks Public Schools, Jenks, OK

1999-2004 Principal, Jenks Alternative Center, Jenks Public Schools, Jenks, OK

1995-1999 Assistant. Principal, Jenks High School, Jenks Public Schools, Jenks, OK

1993-1995 Teacher, Emotionally Disturbed, Jenks High School, Jenks, OK

Professional Memberships:

Oklahoma Transition Council
Tulsa County Juvenile Justice Force
Oklahoma Healthy Transition Initiatives (OHTI) Team
Tulsa County Children's Behavioral Health Community Steering Committee
Tulsa County Gang Coordination Committee (Law Enforcement) Committee