

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES OF MALE AND  
FEMALE DELINQUENTS TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY,  
OPPOSITE SEX, FAMILY LIFE AND REFORMING

By

CAROL LOFTIN PEEK

"

Bachelor of Arts

East Central State College

Ada, Oklahoma

1968

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College  
of the Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Degree of  
MASTER OF SCIENCE  
December, 1973

APR 10 1974

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES OF MALE AND  
FEMALE DELINQUENTS TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY,  
OPPOSITE SEX, FAMILY LIFE AND REFORMING

Thesis Approved:

Thesis Adviser

*George E. Arquitt, Jr.*

*Edgar L. White*

*N. N. Durham*

Dean of the Graduate College

877275

## PREFACE

This research is concerned with comparing institutionalized male and female delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority, the opposite sex, family life and reforming. The goal of this study is to determine if differences between male and female delinquents are substantial enough to justify sex-differentiated rehabilitation programs for delinquent youth.

I wish to express my appreciation to my major adviser, Dr. Harjit Sandhu, whose interest in delinquent youth and firm conviction that they can be rehabilitated provided the foundation for this study. I would also like to thank my other committee members, Dr. George Arquitt, for his helpful suggestions and constant insistence on quality, and Dr. Edgar Webster, not only for his expert assistance, guidance and suggestions throughout the preparation of this manuscript, but also for his unlimited patience, consideration and understanding throughout my entire graduate program.

Other faculty members to whom I am indebted and wish to extend thanks are Dr. Richard Dodder and Dr. Donald Allen for their invaluable aid with statistical tests and computer programs. A special thank you is also extended to Dr. George Taylor for his genuine interest and encouragement and for the unrestricted use of his extensive library on juvenile delinquency.

Appreciation is expressed to the Department of Institutions, Social and Rehabilitative Services for their permission to conduct this study,

and a note of thanks is also extended to the administrative staff, employees and students of the State Training School for Boys at Helena and the State Training School for Girls at Tecumseh for their cooperation and assistance in gathering the data for this research. If the results of this study can be used in any way to help secure the future of these youngsters, the author's goal will have been fulfilled.

Fellow graduate students to whom I owe a special debt of gratitude are Jim Mayo and Larry Peppers for their moral support, help and a few much deserved, well-placed kicks.

In addition, I am indebted to many relatives and members of my own, immediate family who, somehow, managed to endure the outbursts of temper and clattering of the typewriter as I struggled with the manuscript for this thesis.

Finally, I wish to express heartfelt thanks to my husband, Bill, who made it all possible with his help, encouragement, many sacrifices and, most of all, his unlimited confidence in me.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Nature of the Research . . . . .	1
Purpose of the Research . . . . .	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	3
Introduction . . . . .	3
Sex Differentiation and Treatment of Delinquents . . . . .	5
Sex-Role Socialization and Delinquency . . . . .	7
Family Backgrounds of Delinquents . . . . .	12
Value Formation and Goals of Delinquents . . . . .	17
III. THE HYPOTHESES . . . . .	19
Introduction . . . . .	19
The Hypotheses . . . . .	21
IV. STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY . . . . .	22
Introduction . . . . .	22
Definition of Terms . . . . .	22
The Sample . . . . .	24
Method of Data Collection and Analysis . . . . .	29
Item Analysis of Attitude Scales . . . . .	34
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	38
V. DATA ANALYSIS . . . . .	41
Socio-Demographic Characteristics . . . . .	41
Attitudes Toward Parental Authority . . . . .	44
Attitudes Toward the Opposite Sex . . . . .	58
Attitudes Toward Family Life . . . . .	70
Perceived Likelihood of Reforming . . . . .	83
VI. FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	100
Findings and Conclusions . . . . .	100
Recommendations . . . . .	124
REFERENCES . . . . .	126

Chapter	Page
APPENDIX A . . . . .	129
APPENDIX B . . . . .	133

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Age . . . . .	26
II. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Race . . . . .	26
III. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Grade in School . . . . .	27
IV. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Place of Residence . . . . .	27
V. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Parents' Occupation . . . . .	29
VI. Attitudes Toward Parental Authority Scale . . . . .	36
VII. Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex Scale . .	37
VIII. Attitudes Toward Family Life Scale . . . . .	38
IX. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Family Structure . . . . .	41
X. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of Family Affection . . . . .	43
XI. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents by Number of Commitments to a Juvenile Training School . . . . .	44
XII. Comparison of Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority . . . . .	45
XIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Age . . . . .	46
XIV. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Race . . . . .	48
IV. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Place of Residence . . . . .	50
XVI. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Family Structure . . . . .	52

Table	Page
XVII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Perception of Family Affection . . . . .	54
XVIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Parental Authority by Number of Commitments to a Juvenile Training School . . . . .	56
XIX. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex . . . . .	58
XX. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Age . . . . .	59
XXI. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Race . . . . .	61
XXII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Place of Residence . . . . .	63
XXIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Family Structure . . . . .	65
XXIV. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Perceived Family Affection . . .	67
XXV. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex by Number of Commitments to a Juvenile Training School . . . . .	69
XXVI. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life . . . . .	71
XXVII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Age . . . . .	72
XXVIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Race . . . . .	74
XXIX. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Place of Residence . . . . .	76
XXX. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Family Structure . . . . .	78
XXXI. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Perceived Family Affection . . . . .	79
XXXII. Male and Female Delinquents' Attitudes Toward Family Life by Number of Commitments to a Juvenile Training School . . . . .	82



Table	Page
XXXIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming . . . . .	84
XXXIV. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Age . . . . .	85
XXXV. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Race . . . . .	87
XXXVI. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Place of Residence . . . . .	89
XXXVII. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Family Structure . . . . .	91
XXXVIII. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Perceived Family Affection . . . . .	92
XXXIX. Male and Female Delinquents' Perception of the Likelihood of Reforming by Number of Commitments to a Juvenile Training School . . . . .	95
XL. Effects of Third Variables on Sexual Differences and on Relationships Between Sex and Attitudes Toward Parental Authority, Opposite Sex, Family Life and Reforming . . .	115
XLI. Delinquents' Responses Regarding Their Priorities in Life . . . . .	130
XLII. Delinquents' Responses Regarding Their Interests in Life . . . . .	130
XLIII. Delinquents' Responses Regarding Their Goals in Life . . .	131
XLIV. Delinquents' Plans to Achieve Their Priorities, Interests and Happiness . . . . .	132
XLV. Delinquents' Responses Regarding What They Had Learned from the Training School in Which They Were Confined . .	132

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Nature of the Research

This research was concerned primarily with discerning differences and/or similarities between male and female delinquents regarding their attitudes toward parental authority, relations with the opposite sex and family life. In addition, male and female delinquents were compared on the basis of whether or not they thought of themselves as persons who were likely to reform. Only institutionalized delinquents who were confined in a specified State training school were used in this study.

The study was exploratory in nature and constituted one phase of a series of research projects designed to acquire information which could be utilized in designing more effective treatment programs for institutionalized delinquent youth. The research was not concerned with making comparisons between delinquent and non-delinquent youth.

#### Purpose of the Research

In view of the increasing rates of observable delinquency among both males and females and the high rates of recidivism within these two groups, there appears to be increasing concern among authorities, criminologists, and the general population about the need for more effective treatment programs for delinquent youth. A cursory examination of the statistics will serve as a partial explanation of the cause for this

concern. The United States Bureau of the Census (Spiegel, 1967: 58) has reported that the number of arrests in 1969 of persons under the age of eighteen was up 105% from 1960. Further, the recidivism rate for American youth offenders is higher than for any other age group of offenders (The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, 1967: 55). Youth in Trouble (1971: 33), a report prepared by the Oklahoma Council on Juvenile Delinquency Planning, stated that by the age of eighteen, nine of every ten children in the United States have violated at least one law for which they could have been referred to juvenile court, and that before the age of eighteen, one in every nine children will be brought before the juvenile court. According to the report, more than 1300 juveniles in the State of Oklahoma are on formal probation; 600 are confined in one of the State institutions for delinquent youth and almost as many are in private institutions; and almost 900 youth are on trial leave or parole. Spiegel (1973) highlighted the problem when he stated that

....the disposition and treatment of juvenile offenders represents one of our society's major shortcomings and is so inadequate and brutalizing as to be counted among our national shames (p. 54).

The need for more effective treatment programs for delinquent youth can hardly be overemphasized. In addition, evidence relative to the differential self-concepts which males and females have of themselves suggests a need for sex-differentiated rehabilitation programs designed to fit the needs peculiar to males and females (Reckless, 1967: 444-447). Information obtained from this research conceivably could help in designing more effective treatment programs for delinquent youth, both male and female, than those that are currently in existence.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The phenomenon of delinquency is complex, and a thorough understanding of the problem is complicated by the fact that no commonly accepted definition of delinquency has been formulated (Schafer and Knudten, 1970: xiii). As Tardif (1965) has pointed out,

....the term delinquency has become an inflated concept covering not only a wide age range but also a wide range of behavior, from the most trivial to the most serious. Cases of protection, assistance, guidance, counseling and the like are included with cases of genuine delinquency (p. 98).

Neumeyer (1961: 24) pointed to some of the difficulties involved in assigning official delinquent labels to individuals when he observed that whether the child is labeled delinquent, dependent or neglected is sometimes determined only by chance. Legally, "delinquency is what the law says it is (Neumeyer, 1961: 23)," and legal definitions of delinquency include a wide array of offenses. Technically, any child who violates the law is delinquent even though he may remain undetected and, therefore, undefined as delinquent. Thus, comparative studies of delinquents and non-delinquents are difficult given the legal definition of delinquency (Neumeyer, 1961: 24). In the words of Cyril Burt (Reckless and Smith, 1932),

....There is no sharp line of cleavage by which the delinquent may be marked off from the non-delinquent....It is all

a problem of degree....The line of demarcation is, at bottom, a social....concept (pp. 13-14).

A number of studies comparing delinquents with non-delinquents in terms of the extent of delinquent involvement have found relatively few differences between the two groups so far as quantity of delinquent involvement is concerned (Gibbons, 1970; Guthrie and Martin, 1972; Murphy, et al., 1946; Schafer, 1966; Short and Nye, 1958). The determining factor behind who is defined delinquent and who is not, therefore, appears to be a function of how society defines individual behavior. Cavan (1969: 243-258) presented an analysis of deviant behavior in terms of the degree of tolerance or intolerance expressed by the community toward individual behavior. In her view, official labels of delinquent are assigned to individuals when their behavior exceeds the limits of community tolerance. Ideally, "only those who have been officially adjudicated delinquent should be committed to training schools or similar institutions for delinquents (Neumeyer, 1961: 24)."

Another factor involved in the lack of a thorough understanding of the problem of delinquency is that most research into the area of juvenile delinquency has been concerned with factors which contribute to the incidence of male delinquency with little attention being given to the female delinquent. Although the literature on female delinquency is scarce, since 1950, investigators have taken more, though somewhat limited, interest in the differences between the sexes regarding delinquent behavior (Slater, et al., 1968: 25). Prior to 1950 the important studies focused on the delinquent boy rather than the delinquent girl (Slater, et al., 1968: 23). Since this earlier period, findings have continued to focus primarily on the male delinquent even though female delinquency appears to be increasing. For example, even though the

number of males under the age of eighteen who were arrested during the period between 1960 and 1969 exceeded the number of females arrested for that same period, the arrest rate of the female offender increased 176% compared with a 105% increase in arrest rate for all persons under the age of eighteen (Spiegel, 1973: 53). Further, some investigators (Clark, 1965: 224; Kay and Schultz, 1965: 211) recently have observed that not only is the amount of female delinquency much greater than the literature assumes, it is very similar to that of male delinquency in terms of extent.

Despite the evidence, juvenile delinquency has been and continues to be referred to as "essentially a problem of boys (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970: 278)," and researchers have observed that few studies concentrate on behavioral differentials between male and female offenders. Reckless (1967) has pointed out that "...practically all theories which have been propounded about criminal behavior are mainly focused on males; their applicability to females is still to be analyzed (p. 148)." Because official statistics concerning the extent of male and female delinquency tend to be misleading regarding the degree of involvement, further investigation is of the greatest importance.

#### Sex Differentiation in Treatment of Delinquents

A number of investigators have speculated on possible reasons for the disparity in delinquent involvement between the sexes as reflected by official reports. As Reckless (1967) has pointed out,

....There are certain superficial facts which are recognized, such as less willingness to report, arrest and convict females than males, resulting in an arrest ratio in most modern countries in which the volume of arrests is several times higher for males than for females (p. 148).

There appears to be adequate support concerning Reckless' point that females are given preferential consideration. Figures from 1966 reflect the tendency for authorities to be more lenient in handling female offenders in that only one girl was convicted of an indictable offense for every seven boys (Slater, et al., 1968: viii). Statistics from juvenile courts indicate that "...boys are referred to court four times as often as girls. Moreover, boys are arrested, charged in court, and committed to correctional institutions more often than girls (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970: 278)."

One factor which could possibly operate in conjunction with the apparent differential arrest rate of male and female delinquents is that in the case of boys, it is the police who generally bring them before the courts, whereas girls usually come to the attention of the authorities as a result of their parents' efforts (Friedman, 1969: 114). In addition, the incarceration process itself tends to be selective in that only the more serious offenders ever appear before the courts, and of these, only the most difficult are sent to training schools (Gibbons, 1970: 173). Regarding treatment of female offenders, Gibbons (1970: 178) has noted that females who come to the attention of the police are usually dealt with informally. Those who are eventually committed to training schools are not representative of all female offenders and are officially designated delinquent as a result of relatively serious delinquent involvement (Gibbons, 1970: 180). Short and Nye (Gibbons, 1970: 179) in a 1958 study comparing high school girls with training school girls found that the high school girls admitted to involvement in a number of petty delinquencies such as truancy from school, defiance of parents and stealing small items, while training school girls admitted

those involving sexual deviance. In addition, training school girls had been more extensively involved in both petty and serious delinquencies while high school girls had not. Grosser (Gibbons, 1970) found evidence that "....the sexual misbehavior which gets adolescent girls into the juvenile court is usually fairly public and flamboyant in character and is difficult to ignore due to its visibility (p. 185)."

Evidence that females are involved in delinquency more extensively than official records indicate was found by Kay and Schultz (1965: 211) in a study in which they compared adult male and female felony inmates. They reported that while more women than men admitted to having been involved in some form of juvenile delinquency, fewer women than men had been committed to a correctional institution prior to the sentence which they were then serving. Thus, as Clark and Haurek (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970) have pointed out, "....differential treatment of the sexes in reporting, enforcement and court handling....may account in large part for the higher official male offense rate (p. 282)."

#### Sex-Role Socialization and Delinquency

Despite the growing body of evidence to the contrary, some investigators of delinquent behavior remain ardent in their efforts to account for the lower rate of female delinquency on the basis of sex-role socialization. This causal argument takes as its point of departure the line of thought that the disproportionate ratio of male and female offenders is largely a reflection of the offender's sex-role. In short, because females are socialized to be "submissive and nice rather than rough and aggressive as boys are (Gibbons, 1970: 181)," they are less prone to engage in misbehavior. Clark and Haurek (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970: 279)



although questioning the magnitude of the reported sex ratios, have argued that it can be largely explained by the fact that females are traditionally taught to play a more docile and dependent role than boys.

Grosser (Gibbons, 1970), in his 1951 study, found evidence that

....adolescent males are allowed more independence from parental control than are girls so that the latter are encouraged to retain filial bonds to the parents, are accorded less freedom, and in other ways are treated differently than boys (p. 186).

Further, Gibbons (1970) has indicated that girls of all ages tend to be supervised more closely than boys so that their ties to their parents tend to be "more intense than those of boys (p. 181)," and Clark (1965) attempted to account for the lower rate of female delinquent involvement on the basis of the higher degree of control exercised by the family over the American female. She argued that

....the direct social control exercised by the family in restricting the child to the home is greater for female adolescents than for males in the same age group....girls have less motivation and opportunity to violate legal norms, barring those involving personal relationships (p. 218).

Morris (1965), in an attempt to determine whether the sex-roles influenced delinquency and if the sex-roles themselves would lead to delinquent behavior, found a relationship between cultural support and delinquent activity. She found that girls tended to receive less cultural and subcultural support for delinquent behavior than did boys and concluded that "cultural support is probably one significant factor leading to the lower rate of delinquency for girls (Morris, 1965: 265)." The absence of cultural support among females was reflected by the fact that female delinquents were significantly less willing to admit to delinquent activities than were male delinquents and were less willing to boast about delinquent involvement than boys (Morris, 1965: 256).

The fact remains, however, that the arrest rate of females for all kinds of delinquent acts is increasing. Some investigators have suggested that this might be a function of the "...narrowing of the difference between male and female cultural roles in recent years (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970: 278)." Thus, sex as a predictor of delinquency appears to be less accurate today than it was in the past since increasing numbers of females are becoming involved in delinquent activities. "In short, delinquency is becoming less of a 'young man's' game than was true in the past (Guthrie and Martin, 1972: I-12)."

However, as Bronfenbrenner (1961) has noted, differential socialization of the sexes appears to have consequences for their behavior. In his analysis of sexually differentiated socialization patterns, Bronfenbrenner stated that girls are repeatedly found to be "more obedient, cooperative, and in general better socialized than boys at comparable age levels (p. 10)." At the same time, girls are more likely to be "anxious, timid and sensitive to rejection (p. 10)."

Sex differentiation is further reflected in the types of offenses committed by members of each sex, and theoretical explanations based on the concepts embodied by sex-role socialization appear to be of some value in accounting for the variation in the nature of the offenses. In Friedman's (1969) words, "...all delinquency is a manifestation of disregard for, or rebellion against, authority in one form or another.... (p. 116)." However, the nature of its expression seems to be primarily a function of the social definitions of masculine and feminine sex-roles with the accompanying perception of the expectations and obligations attached to them. Support for this assumption has been provided by a number of investigators. For example, Grosser (Morris, 1964) found

evidence for his hypothesis that "the types of offenses committed by members of each sex are expressions of their own sex-roles (p. 82)." Further, Clark (1965: 217) has indicated that a number of researchers have observed that delinquent offenses reflect sex-role relatedness, and that boys tend to engage in theft and destruction whereas girls tend to commit offenses that are personally harmful. More light was shed on the nature of the differences in offense types in a statement by Friedman (1969) in which he noted that

....While the young male delinquent shows a wide variety of behavior, the girl, in contrast, possesses a quite limited repertoire. By and large, her legally defined offenses consist of sexual acting-out, vagrancy, running away and stealing....(p. 114).

Whereas theft has typically been associated with male delinquency, Clark (1965: 217) has noted that some researchers have found preadolescent girls admit to their having been involved in acts of theft to the extent that they appear to be involved almost as extensively as boys. However, because sexual deviance is a phenomenon typically associated with female delinquency, it has received widespread attention in the literature to the extent that other forms of female delinquency have been largely ignored. Block and Flynn (Friedman, 1969: 114) have reported that girls are referred to agencies or committed to institutions for behavior involving sexual deviations far more frequently than boys. In addition, sexual deviance among boys and girls appears to be different in nature. Atcheson and Williams (Slater, et al., 1968: 26-27), in a comparative study of juvenile sex offenders, found that the sexual behavior of boys tended to be characterized by sexual deviations, while the sexual behavior of girls was defined as "normal promiscuity." Commenting on the nature of sexual promiscuity among females, Friedman (1969)

presented an analysis of the nature of sexual promiscuity among females and the quality of their relationships with others. He stated that

....promiscuous behavior for many girls reflects a superficiality in human relationships. Sexuality for them is usually an empty gesture; oftentimes personal satisfaction is totally lacking....(p. 113).

✓ Konopka (1969) concluded from a number of observations regarding female delinquency that "....most delinquent girls have some problems in relation to sex (p. 19)." Furthermore, the problems of the delinquent girl are invariably deeply personalized, and regardless of the offense, "....it is usually accompanied by some disturbance or unfavorable behavior in the sexual area, thus involving her own total being and affecting her relations with others (Konopka, 1969: 4)."

Morris (1964) attempted to account for the nature of female delinquency on the basis of what she termed "relational" problems; that is, "any problem which could hinder a girl in her ability to establish and maintain satisfying relationships (p. 83)." Morris (1964) assumed that

....boys steal or destroy property because they are mainly concerned with 'status' goals: power, prestige, and wealth. Girls become involved in illicit sexual relationships or in aggravated family relationships as an expression of their primary concern with 'relational' goals (p. 82).

✓ Thus, obstacles to a girl's achieving and maintaining positive relationships would constitute relational problems and would tend to create a situation which could predispose her to deviance. Data from the research led Morris to conclude that girls were indeed more susceptible to relational problems than boys, and that this appeared to be a significant factor in the backgrounds of delinquent girls (Morris, 1964: 89).

Because female delinquency is so often characterized by sexual deviance, a variety of explanations have emerged to account for this phenomenon most of which revolve around the girl's presumed inability to

establish and maintain gratifying personal relationships of one sort or another. <sup>He</sup> Cohen (1955) has argued that "female delinquency is overwhelmingly sexual in nature and is associated with delinquent girls' faulty relationships with members of the opposite sex (pp. 141-142)," while Friedman (1969) has pointed to the "breakdown of parental control and an acute disturbance in the parent-adolescent relationship (p. 116)," as being precipitating factors of sexual delinquency among females. Further, Gibbons (1970: 182) has suggested that girls often become heavily involved with boys as a way of adjusting to emotional deprivation brought about by parent-child tensions. "Whatever the underlying reason, Halleck and Hersko (Gibbons, 1970: 185), in a study of institutionalized female delinquents, found that almost all of them had experienced sexual involvement with males prior to incarceration and concluded that sex appeared to be a way for obtaining both affectional gratification and fulfillment of dependency needs.

#### Family Backgrounds of Delinquents

Because the family plays a major role in the socialization of the child, it is of considerable importance in any discussion of delinquency. Barker and Adams (1962) have noted that "...most people are convinced there is a direct correlation between juvenile offenses and the disorganization of the family (p. 472)," and a number of studies have found the broken home to be a significant factor in the lives of delinquents.

Using data from the Michigan courts, Ferdinand (Winslow, 1964) found a relationship between the type of offense and broken homes. He stated that "broken home rates vary according to the type of delinquency being higher for authority offenses such as ungovernability and truancy

(p. 49)." Merrill (Slater, et al., 1968: 22), in a comparative study of male and female delinquents with male and female non-delinquents found that delinquents experienced disruption in their home life and were inclined to express hostility and indifference toward their families more frequently than non-delinquents.

While disruptions in home life appear to be significant for both male and female delinquents, the broken home and homes that suffer from family tension seem to be more critical for females than for males. A number of studies have shown that female delinquents have higher levels of home disruptions than do male delinquents.

In a critical review of the literature, Monahan (1954: 254) found broken homes to be in the backgrounds of delinquent girls more often than delinquent boys. In his own statistical study of records of delinquents for a six year period, Monahan (1954: 254) found 22% more male delinquents lived with both parents than did female delinquents. Wattenberg and Saunders (Slater, et al., 1968: 29-30) found that disturbed relations within the family occurred much more frequently among female than among male delinquents. Additional evidence that female delinquents operate at greater disadvantages than males regarding home life was provided by Otterstrom (Slater, et al., 1968) in an extensive comparative study in which she found that "....broken homes, frequent change of home, poor economic circumstances, and homes bad in their total character were all more frequent among the girls than the boys (p. 20)." Thus, home life seems to be more important for females than for males.

Similar findings were reported by Morris (1964: 88-89) in her study regarding relational problems of female delinquents mentioned previously. In a comparison of male and female delinquents with each other and with

non-delinquents, she found that delinquent girls came from broken homes separated by divorce and separation more than death more often than non-delinquent girls, delinquent boys or non-delinquent boys, and that these homes suffered with a variety of family tensions. ✓ In addition, delinquent girls tended to have poorer grooming and personal habits than did non-delinquents. The difference within the male group was not statistically significant though delinquent boys tended in the same direction as delinquent girls.

Not only do broken homes appear to be more prominent in the backgrounds of delinquent girls than delinquent boys, they also seem to have an effect on the recidivism rate for female offenders. In a comparative study of female delinquent recidivists and non-recidivists, Wattenberg and Saunders (Slater, et al., 1968: 30-31) found that female recidivists experienced more conflict and indifference toward their homelife and to come from homes that were broken more frequently than female non-recidivists. In addition, these difficulties carried over into school life with repeaters having greater difficulties and dislike for school, teachers and classmates than did non-repeaters.

✓The consequences of the broken home for the female and her need for supervision is reflected in the following statement by Slater and his associates (1968),

....repetition of delinquency was associated with stresses occurring at the time of repetition. The girls showed themselves to have a great deal of malleability....even in the least successful of them [training schools] the behavior of the girls was much better under supervision than after discharge, and a good deal better after discharge than it had been before admission (p. 177).

Monahan (1957: 253) echoed a similar vein of thought when he suggested that the higher percentage of female delinquents coming from incomplete

families might not be a function of family disorganization as such, but due, rather, to the higher degree of supervision of girls by families that were intact.

While a number of studies have pointed to the broken home as being a major factor in the backgrounds of delinquents, others have found conflict within the home and between the parents to be even more significant. Slater (1968) has stated that "...tensions and disagreements between parents are more effective in causing delinquency than mere absence of one parent (p. 45)." In reference to female delinquency Slater (1968) has commented that "the effective motivational factors are connected much more than with boys, with the intimate family, and with the girl's personal relations with her parents (p. 44)." Support for the statement was indicated in a comparative study of family relations of sexually experienced and inexperienced boys and girls conducted by Schofield (Slater, et al., 1968: 39-40). He found that the sexual experience of females was directly related to the amount of freedom which parents allowed them and increased significantly in those who were either allowed out late at night or were not restricted as to time. Though sexually experienced girls did not come from broken homes more often than the sexually inexperienced, they did report a higher incidence of poor relations with both parents and conflict between the parents than did the sexually inexperienced girls. Further, experienced girls tended to dislike restrictions at home, expressed antipathy to family loyalty and preferred friends' advice to that of their parents. Experienced girls rejected family influence to a greater degree than did boys. This finding led Schofield to conclude that since girls tend to be more influenced by the family than boys, they must overcome family loyalty and pressures before they



can allow themselves to engage in premarital sexual relations. Allen and Sandhu (1967: 265), in a comparative study of delinquents and non-delinquents, found that the quality of delinquent boys' relations with their parents, as measured by their rating of the degree of love they felt for their parents and their perceptions of their parents' love for them, appeared to be a major factor in predisposing them to delinquency. Thus, affection within the family appears to be importantly related to delinquent involvement.

✓ Further, parental affection and understanding appear to be importantly related to adolescent reactions to authority. Konopka (1965: 56-58), in an analysis of adolescent development, has commented that parental authority that is not tempered with understanding and affection comes to be resented by the adolescent, particularly the female. This resentment may be further generalized to adult authority outside the family so that the teen-ager often comes to view all authority as a preventive force. This, in turn, has the effect of engendering hostile and indifferent attitudes in the adolescent toward all adult authority. Guthrie and Martin (1972: VI-7) found that delinquents, as compared with non-delinquents, exhibited biased attitudes toward all forms of authority (teachers, police, judges, etc.), and Kay and Schultz (1965: 212) found that women offenders tended to have a more unfavorable set of attitudes toward authority than did male offenders.

Thus, the importance of the quality of family life and the family's role as a major socializing agency cannot be underestimated. As Haskell and Yablonsky (1970) have pointed out, the family influences the way in which the child will relate to other socializing agencies. If the family fails, then "...other socializing agencies take on increasing importance

(p. 296)." If normative conflict exists among major socializing agencies, such as the family, peer groups and school, then complications are created for the individual, the result of which could be delinquent behavior (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970: 296).

#### Value Formation and Goals of Delinquents

Recently, some investigators have come to question the reliability of using the traditional predictors of race, sex and income to explain variations in delinquency rates and have, instead, emphasized value formation as being a more reliable predictor of delinquent behavior. These investigators concentrate on the assumption that "...since value formation precedes behavior, then assessing values will allow some prediction of behavior (Guthrie and Martin, 1972: I-30)." Evidence that traditional socio-demographic predictors have become more difficult to use with a high degree of confidence was presented by Empey and Lubeck (Guthrie and Martin, 1972) in a study in which they found that "goal formation, school adjustment, family patterns and values about peer groups are far better predictors of delinquency than sex, income or race (p. I-30)."

That the family plays an important role in the value formation of youth has not been ignored by those who follow the causal argument based on value formation. Guthrie and Martin (1972: I-36) found a significant relationship between delinquency and having unmarried, divorced or unhappily married parents. This, in turn, was found to have important consequences for value formation and behavior. ✓ Further, Winslow (1968: 57) observed a relationship between family affection and internalization of parental values which led him to suggest that affectionate parent-child relations should protect a child from becoming delinquent assuming

that parents reflect a conventional rather than a deviant set of values. Support for the underlying assumption that delinquents' values are different from those of non-delinquents was provided by Guthrie and Martin (1972: VI-7) in their comparative study of delinquents and non-delinquents. They found that delinquent youth tended to respond negatively to specific accepted cultural values while non-delinquents tended to respond in a more positive direction. Slater (1968) has noted, however, regarding differences between male and female delinquents, that "delinquent boys approximate to general population norms much more closely than delinquent girls in all features which have been open to testing (p. 44)."

Regarding ambitions and goal-orientations of adolescents, Guthrie and Martin (1972: I-14-15) found a higher percentage (27%) of non-delinquent youth expressed an interest in pursuing an upper professional occupation than did institutionalized delinquents with 6% indicating a desire to achieve such a goal. They concluded that delinquents, as compared with non-delinquents, tended to have a "more materialistic orientation to life (Guthrie and Martin, 1972: VI-16)" than did non-delinquents.

## CHAPTER III

### THE HYPOTHESES

#### Introduction

As was apparent from a review of the literature, few studies have attempted to delineate differential attitudes between male and female delinquents, and few guidelines within which to develop effective rehabilitation programs based on the differential needs and attitudes of male and female delinquents have been established. Differences between males and females in terms of the extent of delinquent involvement, types of offenses, sex-role socialization patterns and quality of home life have been indicated by past research. Few studies, however, have concentrated on sex differentiation in attitudes toward those things which are considered to be of primary importance in the lives of individuals, namely, parents, the family with its accompanying responsibilities and obligations, and relations with the opposite sex.

Because females are generally socialized to maintain closer ties with their families than males, differences between males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority and family life may be expected to exist. It was indicated by several studies that females came from disrupted families and broken homes more often than male delinquents. At the same time other studies suggested that females are more closely supervised than males at all age levels. This closer supervision and greater degree of control exercised by the family over the female has

the potential for generating tension and conflict between the girl and her family particularly if affection is absent. This situation could lead to a reduction in positive attitudes toward parental authority so that females, given the higher degree of parental supervision and control, would tend to express negative attitudes toward parental authority more often than males. At the same time females tend to be more dependent and to have a greater need regarding acceptance than do males. Thus, females should express positive attitudes toward family life more often than males since the family is, ideally, the agency most likely to fulfill the dependency needs of adolescents. Dependency needs further imply a need for acceptance accompanied by affection. Thus, it may be expected that females would be inclined to perceive affection from their families more often than males.

✓ Given the prevalent contention that delinquent girls experience a high degree of heterosexual involvement and that this involvement has more profound effects on females than on males, it would seem reasonable to assume that females would be likely to find a way to reduce psychological discomfort which may be produced by sexual deviance. This reduction in psychological discomfort conceivably could be brought about by developing a more permissive set of attitudes regarding relations with the opposite sex. Since sexual involvement is tolerated more in males than in females, females may react by becoming more permissive in their attitudes than males regarding their relations with the opposite sex.

It was observed in the review of the literature that males tend to experience less permissive treatment at the hands of the authorities than do females and are more likely to be committed to correctional schools than females. It would follow, then, that males would experience a

a greater number of prior commitments to juvenile correctional facilities than would females.

### The Hypotheses

Because little information relative to differences between male and female delinquents has been produced, seven general hypotheses were tested in the study reported here.

- Hypothesis 1: Institutionalized female delinquents will come from broken homes more often than institutionalized male delinquents.
- Hypothesis 2: Institutionalized female delinquents will perceive affection from their families more often than institutionalized male delinquents.
- Hypothesis 3: Institutionalized male delinquents will have a greater number of prior commitments to juvenile training schools than institutionalized female delinquents.
- Hypothesis 4: Institutionalized male delinquents will have more favorable attitudes toward parental authority than institutionalized female delinquents.
- Hypothesis 5: Institutionalized female delinquents will have more permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex than institutionalized male delinquents.
- Hypothesis 6: Institutionalized female delinquents will have more favorable attitudes toward family life than institutionalized male delinquents.
- Hypothesis 7: Institutionalized female delinquents will think of themselves as "someone who will straighten out" more often than institutionalized male delinquents.

## CHAPTER IV

### STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

In keeping with the purpose of this study, an exploratory approach was used in an attempt to determine the differences and/or similarities between institutionalized male and female delinquents with regard to their attitudes toward parental authority, relations with the opposite sex, family life and whether they thought of themselves as persons who would be likely to reform. The data were collected from institutionalized male and female delinquents through the use of questionnaires and interviews.

This chapter contains a description of the delinquent population used for this research, the method of data collection and statistical treatment of the data, and the limitations of the study. A discussion of the research instrument and an item analysis of the questionnaire are included.

#### Definition of Terms

Several key terms and concepts which have been operationally defined were used in this study. A list of the terms and concepts are presented below.

### Juvenile Delinquent

A juvenile delinquent is any youth who has violated the law as defined by the legal statutes of the State governing youthful behavior and has been committed by a court of proper jurisdiction to a state training school for delinquent youth.

### Place of Residence

The place of residence refers primarily to the location of the delinquent youth's hometown. The reported residences were divided into three areas as defined below:

Rural. A town, village or farm community with a population of less than 7,500 which is not located immediately adjacent to an urban area.

Urban. A town or city with a population of 7,500 or more that is not contiguous to a metropolitan area.

Metropolitan. A major urban area characterized by an urban center surrounded by densely populated suburbs and towns contiguous with and immediately adjacent to the urban center.

### Family Structure

Family structure refers to the type of family unit from which the delinquent comes in terms of whether it is intact or broken as defined below:

Intact. A complete family unit characterized by parents, natural or adopted, who have not been separated by divorce, death or desertion and whose place of residence is the same as that of the child.



Broken. An incomplete family unit characterized by the absence of one or both parents because of death, divorce or desertion whose place of residence may be different from that of the child.

#### Perceived Family Affection

Perceived family affection refers to whether the delinquent child believes that his family cares about him. Two types of families relevant to perceived family affection are defined below:

Affectionate Family. A family in which the delinquent child perceives affection from both his parents.

Non-Affectionate Family. A family in which the delinquent child perceives no affection from either of his parents.

#### The Sample

The subjects of this study were 274 delinquent youth, 145 males and 129 females, black, white and Indian, who were confined in a state training school for delinquent youth. The males were incarcerated in the State Training School for Boys at Helena, Oklahoma, and the females were confined in the State Training School for Girls at Tecumseh, Oklahoma.

A description of the socio-demographic differences and/or similarities between institutionalized delinquent males and females, derived from data obtained from each respondent during private interview sessions, is presented below.

#### Age

Male and female delinquents used in this study ranged in age from thirteen to eighteen years of age. The respondents were grouped into

two age groups: 13-15 and 16-18 year olds. The mean ages of the males and females were 16.67 and 15.47, respectively. Thus, males were older than females with 89% of the males being in the 16-18 year old age group compared with 49% of the females. Chi-Square analysis of this data was statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ) and indicated a significant difference between males and females with regard to age (see Table I).

### Race

Three categories of race, black, white and Indian, were used to classify respondents. Of the males, 70% were white, 18% black and 12% Indian. Among females, 69% were white, 16% black and 15% Indian. Thus, the sexes were similar in terms of racial characteristics. Chi-Square analysis of this data was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ), and no difference between males and females was indicated (see Table II).

### Grade in School

Respondents were divided into junior high and senior high school classification categories. No significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) was indicated by Chi-Square analysis between males and females with regard to grade in school. More males than females were classified as senior high school students with 78% of the males and 67% of the females being in this category (see Table III).

### Place of Residence

Three categories of residential areas, rural, urban and metropolitan were used to classify respondents. Of the males 15% were from rural communities, 33% from urban areas and 52% from metropolitan areas. Of

TABLE I  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY AGE

Age	Males Mean = 16.67	Females Mean = 15.47
13-15	16 (11)*	66 (51)
16-18	<u>129</u> (89)	<u>63</u> (49)
Total	145	129

$\chi^2 = 52.40$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $\Phi = .44$ ;  $N = 274$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE II  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY RACE

Race	Males	Females
White	102 (70)*	89 (69)
Black	26 (18)	20 (16)
Indian	<u>17</u> (12)	<u>19</u> (15)
Total	145	128

$\chi^2 = .93$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .06$ ;  $N = 273$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE III  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY GRADE IN SCHOOL

Grade in School	Males	Females
7-9	31 (22)*	42 (33)
10-12	<u>107</u> (78)	<u>87</u> (67)
Total	138	129

$$\chi^2 = 3.43; p > .05; \text{Phi} = .01; N = 267$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE IV  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Place of Residence	Males	Females
Rural	21 (15)*	8 ( 6)
Urban	47 (33)	49 (38)
Metropolitan	<u>75</u> (52)	<u>72</u> (56)
Total	143	129

$$\chi^2 = 5.24; p > .05; \text{Phi} = .14; N = 272$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

the females 6% came from rural areas, 38% from urban areas and 50% from metropolitan areas. Chi-Square analysis of this data was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between males and females with respect to place of residence. Most delinquents, male and female were from metropolitan areas and fewer females than males were from rural areas (see Table IV).

#### Occupation of Parent(s)

Most of the delinquents in the sample came from homes in which one or both parents were employed in some form of manual labor with 63% of the males and 58% of the females reporting their parents to be engaged in manual work. Eighteen percent of the males and 21% of the females reported their parents were employed in white collar, non-professional work, while 1% of the males and 2% of the females indicated that their parents worked in a professional capacity. Of the males 13% reported no employment for their parents compared with 16% of the females. Five percent of the males and 3% of the females said that they did not know the occupational status of their parents. ✓ Chi-Square analysis of this data indicated no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) difference between males and females with regard to occupational status of their parents (see Table V).

Thus, with the exception of age, males and females were similar in their backgrounds. Other socio-demographic characteristics, specifically family structure, perceived affection from the family and number of commitments, were used to test specific hypotheses. ✓ *leave out* Consequently, the analysis of this data are presented in Chapter V.

TABLE V

## COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY PARENTS' OCCUPATION

Parents' Occupation	Males	Females
Blue Collar	90 (63)*	74 (58)
White Collar	26 (18)	27 (21)
Professional	1 ( 1)	2 ( 2)
Unemployed	18 (13)	21 (16)
Unknown	<u>7</u> ( 5)	<u>4</u> ( 3)
Total	142	128

$$X^2 = 2.26; p > .05; \Phi = .09; N = 270$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

## Method of Data Collection and Analysis

The data used in this study was collected from institutionalized male and female delinquents through the use of a combined questionnaire and interview technique (see Appendix B). The questionnaires were administered collectively, and each individual was interviewed privately following completion of the questionnaire section of the research instrument by a student volunteer. No attempt was made to select a random sample from either the Boys' Training School at Helena or the Girls' Training School at Tecumseh for use in this research since the administration of the research instrument to the respondents was contingent upon prior arrangements having been made with the administrative staff of the respective facility. Subjects who were available to the researcher

at the time of the pre-arranged appointment were used. The research instrument was administered to the females in this study at various times during a six months period from July, 1972, through December, 1972. The data for the males were collected during a one day period in April, 1973.

The questionnaire section of the research instrument consisted of two sets of questions. The first set was a series of close-ended questions consisting of three attitude scales designed to measure delinquent attitudes toward parental authority, relations with the opposite sex, and family life and one question designed to ascertain whether the delinquent thought of himself as a person who was likely to reform. The second set of questions was made up of a series of open-ended response questions designed to acquire information as to the priorities and interests of delinquents, the things that would make them happy in life, the ways in which they planned to achieve their goals upon release from the institution, and what they expected to learn from the institution during the period of their confinement.

The interview section of the research instrument was designed to acquire socio-demographic information from each individual interviewed. The areas with which it dealt specifically were: age, race, grade, place of residence, family structure, perceived family affection, occupation of parent(s), and number of times committed to a juvenile training school. Other questions included in this section, but excluded from this research, were: other correctional institutions to which the delinquent had been committed, probation dispositions, period of stay in the current institution, and sources of income other than parent(s)' occupation.

Each statement in the close-ended section of the questionnaire was given five options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, and

responses to each of the questions were assigned a score of from one to five depending on whether the statement reflected a conventional or a non-conventional quality. For example, a strongly agree response to a statement representative of a conventional value received a score of five while a strongly disagree response received a score of one. Responses to statements reflecting non-conventional values were scored in a reverse manner. Therefore, high scores always indicated a more conventional attitude toward the subject being considered.

Using the mid-point in the range of possible scores for each attitude scale as the defining point between high and low scores, subjects were grouped according to whether they scored high or low on a given scale. Males and females were then compared on the basis of these scores.

Responses to the open-ended questions were categorized as conventional or non-conventional depending on whether they were considered by the researcher to reflect socially acceptable or non-acceptable values. Males and females were compared on the basis of their responses, and an elaboration of the types of responses made is presented in Chapter V.

Males and females were further compared on the basis of socio-demographic characteristics. Delineation of the categories used for these comparisons is presented below.

#### Age

Using the mid-point in the age range of 13-18 years as the dividing point between age groups, two age groups, 13-15 and 16-18, were established. Males and females were placed in their respective age groups and compared on the basis of age.



### Race

Three racial groups, white, black and Indian, were represented among the respondents in this study. Thus, males and females were placed in the appropriate racial category and compared on the basis of race.

### Grade in School

The grade range among the delinquents was divided into two categories: grades 7-9 and 10-12. Not all the males in the sample were represented in either of these groups as seven of the males had been placed in a remedial school group at the institution in which they were confined. No comparable group was available at the girls' school. Consequently, the comparison of male and female delinquents on the basis of grade in school excluded males outside the established grade categories.

### Place of Residence

Three residential categories, rural, urban and metropolitan, were defined based on the size and location of the hometowns of the respondents. Males and females were placed in the appropriate residential group on the basis of their reported residences and compared to determine if significant differences existed between them on this basis.

### Family Structure

Two types of family structure were identified among the respondents and were labeled intact or broken according to the presence or absence of one or both parents. Males and females were grouped according to the intactness of their families and compared on this basis.

### Perceived Family Affection

The data for this variable were categorized into two groups and labeled as affectionate family or non-affectionate family according to whether delinquents reported perceived affection from their families. Male and female delinquents were grouped according to their responses and compared on the basis of affectionate or non-affectionate family groups. Two other possible categories, One Parent Affectionate or Don't Know, were excluded from the analysis of perceived family affection due to the small number of respondents involved in each case.

### Occupation of Parent(s)

Using occupation as a rough indicator of socio-economic status, delinquents were grouped according to their responses regarding the occupation of the head of the household in which they resided prior to commitment. Five categories were used in the comparison of males and females on this variable. The categories were blue collar, white collar, professional, unemployed and don't know for those subjects who were unable to report the occupational status of either their parents or their guardians.

### Number of Commitments

Three categories were used in the comparison of male and female delinquents on the basis of the number of times they had been committed to a juvenile training school. The categories were labeled as one, two or three and four or more commitments. Respondents were grouped according to the number of commitments they had experienced, and were then compared on this basis.

The data were analyzed primarily through the use of the Chi-Square test for significance and, when conditions required, Fisher's Exact test for significance. The strength of the relationships between the variables considered were measured by the Phi Coefficient. Percentages were used to compare males with females on each variable used in this research. When respondents failed to complete all items in a given attitude scale or did not respond to an interview question, they were omitted from the analysis of that particular variable. Thus, frequencies presented in the tables were not the same in every case.

Specific socio-demographic data were used as control variables to determine what effects they might have on the original relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority, the opposite sex and family life and the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming. Data used as control variables were: age, race, place of residence, family structure, perceived family affection and number of commitments to a juvenile training school.

#### Item Analysis of Attitude Scales

Items used to construct the attitude scales used in this research were borrowed primarily from three existing attitude scales. Some of the items were modified to fit the purpose of this study, and, in some instances, new items were added.

The reliability of the items comprising each scale were tested using the testat program outlined by Veldman (1967: 17-18). This computer program is designed to yield means, sigmas, r coefficients, and an alpha coefficient for each scale. Coefficient alpha determines the reliability of a given scale by estimating the internal consistency of the items

within the scale and is affected by both the internal consistency of the items and the number of items used to make up the scale (Nunnally, 1967: 210).

What a satisfactory level of reliability is depends on how a measure is being used. In the early stages of research on predictor tests or hypothesized measures of a construct, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of .60 or .50 will suffice (Nunnally, 1967: 226).

While coefficient alpha refers to the reliability of the entire scale being tested, the  $r$  coefficient refers to the correlation of the items with all the other items comprising the scale. If the  $r$  coefficient for an item does not yield a value of .30 or above, the item should not be included in the scale.

The first attitude scale to be considered was a five-item scale designed to measure the attitudes of delinquents toward parental authority. Four of the items used to make up the scale were borrowed from the Attitudes Toward Parental Control of Children's Activities Scale developed by Stott (1940: 46). Item number three was added to the scale for the purpose of this study. The items presented in Table VI were numbered identically with the items as they appeared in the original questionnaire administered to the respondents of this study.

All items comprising the Attitudes Toward Parental Authority Scale correlated beyond the .001 level of statistical significance. The coefficient alpha of .66 for this scale indicated an acceptable degree of internal consistency among the items comprising the scale.

The items presented in Table VII comprise a scale designed to measure attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex and contains three items, two of which were adapted from a 25-item scale developed by Bardis (1962: 102) to measure attitudes toward the dating behavior of

males and females. Item number eight is an original item added for the purpose of this research. The numbering of the items presented in Table VII is consistent with the numbering of the items in the original questionnaire.

TABLE VI  
ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY SCALE

Item	r coefficient
1. Young people should be trained to recognize the authority of their parents.	.60
2. Young people should be allowed to use their leisure time as they please.*	.55
3. If you don't listen to your parents, you get into trouble.	.64
4. Parents should allow their children of high school age to stay out at night as late as they wish.*	.74
5. Parents today are allowing their children too much freedom.	.71

alpha = .66

\*indicates a reverse scored item

All items comprising the Attitudes Toward Relations with the Opposite Sex Scale correlated beyond the .001 level of statistical significance. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .18. While alpha was relatively weak, in this case the r coefficients for the items comprising

this scale were of sufficient values and indicated that use of the scale was justified.

TABLE VII  
ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS WITH THE OPPOSITE SEX SCALE

Item	r coefficient
6. Girls should be allowed to choose their dating partners freely and independently.*	.63
7. Girls and boys of 13 and 14 should be allowed to go steady if they wish.*	.60
8. It is not important to remain pure until marriage.*	.64
alpha = .18	
*indicates a reverse scored item	

The six items used in the construction of the Attitudes Toward Family Life Scale were borrowed from a family scale designed by Rundquist and Sletto (1936: 419-420). The items presented in Table VIII have been numbered identically with the items which appeared in the original questionnaire.

All items comprising the Attitudes Toward Family Life Scale correlated beyond the .001 level of statistical significance. The alpha of .58 indicated an acceptable level of internal consistency for this scale.

TABLE VIII  
ATTITUDES TOWARD FAMILY LIFE SCALE

Item	r coefficient
9. One ought to discuss important plans with members of the family.	.63
10. One cannot find as much understanding at homes as elsewhere.*	.51
11. A person should be willing to sacrifice anything for his family.	.59
12. Obligations to one's family are a great handicap to a young person today.*	.50
13. One's parents usually treat him fairly and sensibly.	.66
14. So far as ideas are concerned, parents and children live in different worlds.*	.53
	.58

---

\*indicates a reverse scored item

#### Limitations of the Study

One major limitation of this study was the sample itself which excluded all delinquent populations except those that were institutionalized in one of the state training schools selected for use in this research. This factor alone makes ready generalizations of the findings to other segments of the delinquent population unfeasible in that, generally, only the more serious and difficult offenders are ever sent to state correctional facilities for juveniles. In addition, the sample was composed of delinquents who were institutionalized in only two of

the State's training schools, and this has the potential for making generalization of the findings to other institutionalized delinquent populations questionable. Some State facilities are less restricted than others and are designed to house the less serious and difficult offenders. Consequently, males who are considered to be very difficult or who have been found guilty of relatively serious acts of lawbreaking are usually sent to the State training school at Helena while the more serious female offenders are generally sent to Tecumseh. Another possible factor, relative to the sample, which could place limitations on the findings of this research is the tendency for authorities to treat female offenders more leniently than male offenders. This practice could result in the incarceration of only the most extremely serious cases of female offenders so that the females used in this study may be more seriously delinquent than the males.

A second major limitation of this study is related to the process of interviewing respondents. First of all, no effort was made to control for cross-sex interviewing and the possible influence this may have had on the interviewee's responses. The second problem encountered in connection with the interview sessions is the fact that because of time and the limited facilities available, several persons were interviewed in the same room at the same time on some occasions. Thus, conversations between interviewers and their subjects could sometimes be overheard by others present in the room. The effect this may have had on the answers of respondents is not known.

A final note in connection with the limitations of this research is related to problems involved with the design of the research instrument. One problem was that no measure designed to ascertain the effects of



institutionalization on the delinquent was included. Consequently, the possible effects of institutionalization on the attitudes of delinquents is not known. A second problem that placed limitations on this research is the fact that no question relating to the types of offenses represented in the delinquent population being studied was included. This information could have been used to determine whether the type of offense was in any way related to the attitudes of delinquents, and if the males and females in the sample differed significantly in terms of the types of offenses for which they had been committed.

## CHAPTER V

### DATA ANALYSIS

#### Socio-demographic Characteristics

The data used to test the null form of Hypothesis 1 are presented in Table IX. The hypothesis, stated in its null form, was: there are no significant differences between male and female delinquents regarding whether they come from intact or broken homes.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

Family Structure	Male	Female
Intact	50 (34)*	33 (26)
Broken	<u>95</u> (66)	<u>94</u> (74)
Total	145	127

$$\chi^2 = 2.33; p > .05; \Phi = .09; N = 272$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data yielded a value of 2.33 and was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ). Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between male and female delinquents was accepted.

The Phi Coefficient yielded a value of .09 and indicated no relationship between sex and family structure. Percentage comparisons of the data indicated that 74% of the females were from broken homes compared with 66% of the males. Although the percentages were in the direction predicted by the original hypothesis that females would be from broken homes more often than males, the difference between the sexes was not statistically significant, and the original, alternative hypothesis was rejected.

The data presented in Table X were used to test the null form of Hypothesis 2. The null form of this hypothesis was that there were no significant differences between male and female delinquents regarding whether they felt their families cared for them. A comparison of percentages revealed that 89% of the males and 74% of the females perceived affection from their families.

The Chi-Square result obtained from this data was statistically significant ( $p < .01$ ) and indicated rejection of the null hypothesis of no difference between males and females regarding perceived family affection. The Phi value of .19 indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and perceived family affection. The relationship was not in the direction predicted by the alternative hypothesis that females would perceive affection from their families more frequently than males, and rejection of the original hypothesis was indicated.

The data presented in Table XI were used to test the null form of Hypothesis 3; that is, there are no significant differences between males

and females in the number of prior commitments to juvenile training schools. In percentages, 33% of the males and 26% of the females had been committed once; 39% of the males and 53% of the females had been committed two or three times; and 28% of the males compared with 21% of the females had been committed four or more times.

TABLE X  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF FAMILY AFFECTION

Perceived Affection	Male	Female
Yes	103 (89)*	85 (74)
No	<u>13</u> (11)	<u>30</u> (26)
Total	116	115

$$X^2 = 8.44; p < .01; \Phi = .19; N = 231$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data indicated no statistically significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) between males and females with regard to the number of commitments they had experienced. The null hypothesis of no difference was, therefore, accepted.

A Phi value of .13 for this data was indicative of no relationship between male and female delinquents and the number of prior commitments to a juvenile correctional institution which they had experienced. Thus,

the alternate hypothesis that predicted that males would have a greater number of prior commitments than females could not be accepted.

TABLE XI  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS BY NUMBER OF  
COMMITMENTS TO A JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOL

Number of Commitments	Male	Female
One	48 (33)*	34 (26)
Two or Three	56 (39)	68 (53)
Four or More	<u>40</u> (28)	<u>27</u> (21)
Total	144	129

$$X^2 = 5.27; p > .05; \Phi = .13; N = 273$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

#### Attitudes Toward Parental Authority

Table XII contains the data used in the testing of the null form of Hypothesis 4; that is, there are no significant differences between male and female delinquents' attitudes toward parental authority. The data, expressed in percentages, revealed that 62% of the male delinquents indicated unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority compared with 51% of the females. Chi-Square analysis of this data indicated that the difference between male and female delinquents was not statistically

significant ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority was accepted.

TABLE XII  
COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS'  
ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	Male	Female
Favorable	53 (38)*	63 (49)
Unfavorable	<u>85</u> (62)	<u>66</u> (51)
Total	138	129

$$\chi^2 = 2.97; p > .05; \text{Phi} = .11; N = 267$$

\*The number in the parentheses is the percentage.

The Phi Coefficient for this data yielded a value of .11 which was indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. The original hypothesis which predicted that males would have more favorable attitudes toward parental authority than females was, therefore, rejected.

Because significant differences in the ages of male and female delinquents were indicated, the data relating to attitudes toward parental authority were analyzed taking the factor of age into account. The data, controlling for the variable of age is shown in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES  
TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY BY AGE

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Age</u>			
	<u>13-15</u>		<u>16-18</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	7 (54)*	35 (53)	46 (37)	28 (44)
Unfavorable	<u>6</u> (46)	<u>31</u> (47)	<u>79</u> (63)	<u>35</u> (56)
Total	13	66	125	63
	$\chi^2 = .003; p > .05;$ Phi = .006; N = 79		$\chi^2 = 1.03; p > .05;$ Phi = .08; N = 188	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the 13-15 year old age group was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no significant difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. The Phi for this group was .01 which was indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. Percentage comparisons of male and female delinquents in this age group showed that the sexes were similar in their attitudes toward parental authority with 46% of the males and 47% of the females indicating unfavorable attitudes.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the 16-18 year old age group was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ), and, again, no difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority was indicated with

age held constant. A Phi of .08 indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. Males were more likely than females to express unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority with 63% of the males and 56% of the females indicating unfavorable attitudes.

An overview of the table revealed that the original relationship weakened for the 16-18 year old group and almost disappeared in the 13-15 year old group. This finding suggested that age may be more importantly related to parental authority than sex. Percentage comparisons of the data indicated that younger delinquents were more inclined to view parental authority favorably while older ones tended to indicate unfavorable attitudes more often regardless of sex.

Because race may have an effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority, the data were analyzed controlling for the variable of race. Table XIV presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of the white group was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority for this group. A Phi of .03 was indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority with 58% of the white males and 55% of the white females indicating unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

For black delinquents Chi-Square analysis was statistically significant ( $p < .02$ ) and signified a difference between black males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority. The Phi for this data was .37 and indicated a moderate, positive relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. Percentages showed that 71% of the males and 35% of the females in the black group held unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.



TABLE XIV

## MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY BY RACE

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Race</u>					
	<u>White</u>		<u>Black</u>		<u>Indian</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	41 (42)*	40 (45)	7 (29)	13 (65)	5 (31)	9 (47)
Unfavorable	<u>57</u> (58)	<u>49</u> (55)	<u>17</u> (71)	<u>7</u> (35)	<u>11</u> (69)	<u>10</u> (53)
Total	98	89	24	20	16	19
	$\chi^2 = .18; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .03; N = 187$		$\chi^2 = 6.16; p < .02;$ $\Phi = .37; N = 44$		$\chi^2 = .94; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .16; N = 35$	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the Indian group was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. The Phi of .16 for this group denoted a very weak, positive relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. Comparison of Indian males and females by percentages showed that 69% of the males and 53% of the females regarded parental authority unfavorably.

Examination of the partials in Table XIV showed that all delinquents, except black females, regarded parental authority unfavorably more often than not, and that males tended to have unfavorable attitudes more often than females. For white males and females, this tendency was slight, but for the Indian and black groups, percentage disparities between males and females became more pronounced. There was a change from the original data as indicated by the Phi values in that the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority weakened for the white group, strengthened slightly for the Indian group and became much stronger for the black group. These changes in Phi values indicated that race is a factor which designates the circumstances under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority becomes more or less pronounced.

To determine if one's place of residence had an effect on the attitudes of delinquents toward parental authority, males and females were compared on the basis of the size and location of their hometowns. The data relevant to this analysis is contained in Table XV.

For metropolitan delinquents no significant difference ( $p > .05$ ), based on Chi-Square analysis of the data, was indicated between male and female delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority. For

TABLE XV

## MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Place of Residence</u>					
	<u>Rural</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Metropolitan</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	10 (48)*	3 (38)	16 (43)	29 (59)	27 (37)	31 (43)
Unfavorable	<u>11</u> (52)	<u>5</u> (62)	<u>28</u> (57)	<u>20</u> (41)	<u>45</u> (63)	<u>41</u> (57)
Total	21	8	44	49	72	72
	Fisher's P = .47 Phi = .09; N = 29		$\chi^2 = 4.81$ ; $p < .05$ ; Phi = .23; N = 93		$\chi^2 = .46$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .06; N = 144	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

rural delinquents Fisher's P was .47 and indicated no difference between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. The Phi values obtained from the data for rural and metropolitan area delinquents were .09 and .06, respectively. Both Phi values were indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority for either rural or metropolitan area delinquents. Examination of the percentages shown in the partial for rural delinquents indicated that 52% of the males held unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority compared with 62% of the females. Among metropolitan area delinquents, 63% of the males and 57% of the females indicated unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

For urban delinquents Chi-Square analysis was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and indicated a difference between urban males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority. A Phi of .23 indicated a low positive relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority with 57% of the male delinquents from urban areas indicating unfavorable attitudes compared with 41% of the females.

An overview of the percentages shown in Table XV revealed that all delinquents, except urban females, were inclined to have unfavorable, rather than favorable, attitudes toward parental authority. Examination of the partials contained in Table XV revealed that the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority weakened for rural and metropolitan delinquents and strengthened for urban delinquents. These findings suggested that the size and location of the delinquents' place of residence specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority becomes more or less pronounced.

Because the type of home from which a delinquent comes appears to be related to his delinquency, as was indicated in the literature review,

the attitudes of male and female delinquents were analyzed controlling for family structure. Table XVI contains the data used in this analysis.

TABLE XVI  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
PARENTAL AUTHORITY BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Family Structure</u>			
	<u>Intact</u>		<u>Broken</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	21 (44)*	11 (33)	32 (36)	52 (55)
Unfavorable	<u>27</u> (56)	<u>22</u> (67)	<u>57</u> (64)	<u>42</u> (45)
Total	48	33	89	94
	$X^2 = .89; p > .05;$ Phi = .11; N = 81		$X^2 = 6.90; p < .01;$ Phi = .19; N = 183	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the intact family was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority. A Phi of .11 indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. In percentages 56% of the males and 67% of the females from intact homes expressed unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

The Chi-Square result for the broken family was statistically significant ( $p < .01$ ) and indicated that males and females from broken homes were different in their attitudes toward parental authority. A Phi of .19 indicated a low positive relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority with 64% of the males and 45% of the females indicating unfavorable attitudes.

Percentage comparisons revealed that all delinquents, except females from broken homes, were more likely to express unfavorable, rather than favorable attitudes toward parental authority. Males from intact homes were less likely than females to have unfavorable attitudes while males from broken homes were more likely than females to express unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

Examination of the Phi values for the partials contained in Table XVI revealed that the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority remained the same as in the original data for the intact family and strengthened for the broken family. For homes that were intact there was no relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority although females tended to regard parental authority unfavorably slightly more often than males. For broken homes the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority was significant with females being more likely to have favorable attitudes and males being more likely to hold unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority. The change in the original relationship was slight, however, and indicated that family structure had no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority.

Table XVII presents the data used to analyze whether the delinquent's attitudes toward parental authority were affected by his perception of

whether or not his family cares for him. Because delinquents often come from backgrounds that are deficient socially, economically and emotionally, this factor could possibly have an effect on his attitudes.

TABLE XVII  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL  
AUTHORITY BY PERCEPTION OF FAMILY AFFECTION

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Type of Family</u>			
	<u>Affectionate</u>		<u>Non-Affectionate</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	42 (43)*	51 (60)	1 ( 9)	7 (23)
Unfavorable	<u>56 (57)</u>	<u>34 (40)</u>	<u>10 (91)</u>	<u>23 (76)</u>
Total	98	85	11	30
		$X^2 = 5.35; p < .05;$ $\Phi = .17; N = 183$		
			$\text{Fisher's } P = .30;$ $\Phi = .16; N = 41$	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the affectionate family was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and indicated a difference in the attitudes of male and female delinquents toward parental authority. The Phi value of .17 indicated a slight, positive relationship with 57% of the males and 40% of the females perceiving affection from their families and indicating unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

For the non-affectionate family Fisher's Exact yielded a P value of .30 which was indicative of no difference between male and female delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority. A Phi of .16 was indicative of a slight relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. Percentage comparisons showed that 91% of the males and 76% of the females from homes in which no affection was perceived indicated unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

An overall view of the percentages in Table XVII revealed that all delinquents, except females who perceived affection from their families, were more likely to express unfavorable, rather than favorable, attitudes toward parental authority. Males were more likely than females to have unfavorable attitudes in both groups.

Examination of the partials showed that the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority strengthened for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups when compared with the original relationship. The tendency to hold unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority appeared to be greater for those who perceived no affection from their families than for those who did.

To determine if the number of times the juvenile had been committed to a training school affected his attitudes toward parental authority, the data, relevant to this point, were analyzed controlling for the number of times the juvenile had experienced commitment. The data used in this analysis are presented in Table XVIII.

Chi-Square analysis of those with one commitment was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between male and female delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority. A Phi of .16 for this group was indicative of a very weak, positive relation-



TABLE XVIII

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY BY  
NUMBER OF COMMITMENTS TO A JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOL

Attitude Toward Parental Authority	<u>Number of Commitments</u>					
	<u>One</u>		<u>Two or Three</u>		<u>Four or More</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	18 (39)*	19 (56)	21 (40)	31 (46)	14 (37)	13 (48)
Unfavorable	<u>28</u> (61)	<u>15</u> (44)	<u>32</u> (60)	<u>37</u> (54)	<u>24</u> (63)	<u>14</u> (52)
Total	46	34	53	68	38	27
	$X^2 = 2.21; p > .05$ $\Phi = .16; N = 80$		$X^2 = .43; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .06; N = 121$		$X^2 = .83; p > .05$ $\Phi = .11; N = 65$	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

ship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority with 61% of the males responding unfavorably compared with 44% of the females.

For those with two or three commitments and those with four or more commitments, Chi-Square results were statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between the sexes in their attitudes toward parental authority for either group. The Phi values were .06 for those with two or three commitments and .11 for the four or more commitment group. Both Phi values indicated a negligible relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. In percentages 60% of the males in the two or three commitment category regarded parental authority unfavorably compared with 54% of the females. Among those with four or more commitments 63% of the males and 52% of the females reported unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority.

Comparison of the percentages across the partials showed that all delinquents, except females with one commitment, were more likely to view parental authority unfavorably, and that males in all three groups indicated unfavorable attitudes more frequently than their respective female counterparts. There were some changes in the original relationship which occurred in the data controlling for the number of commitments in that the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority strengthened for those with one commitment and weakened for those with two or three commitments. For those with four or more commitments the relationship remained unchanged from that found in the original data. These findings suggested that the number of commitments experienced by the juvenile specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and parental authority becomes more or less pronounced.

### Attitudes Toward the Opposite Sex

The data used to test the null form of Hypothesis 5, that there is no significant difference between male and female delinquents' attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex, are presented in Table XIX. A comparison of the percentages indicated that 89% of the males and 83% of the females have permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

TABLE XIX  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
RELATIONS WITH THE OPPOSITE SEX

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	15 (11)*	20 (17)
Permissive	<u>127</u> (89)	<u>108</u> (83)
Total	142	128

$$\chi^2 = 1.54; p > .05; \Phi = .08; N = 270$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data indicated that the difference between males and females in their attitudes toward the opposite sex was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference between sex and attitudes toward relations with the

opposite sex was accepted. The Phi of .08 for this data was indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. Thus, the alternative hypothesis, which predicted that female delinquents would have more permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex than male delinquents, was rejected.

The data regarding sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex were further analyzed controlling for the variable of age. The data relevant to this analysis is shown in Table XX.

TABLE XX  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
RELATIONS WITH THE OPPOSITE SEX BY AGE

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	<u>Age</u>			
	<u>13-15</u>		<u>16-18</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	1 ( 8)*	8 (12)	14 (11)	12 (19)
Permissive	<u>12</u> (92)	<u>58</u> (88)	<u>115</u> (89)	<u>50</u> (81)
Total	13	66	129	62

Fisher's P = .22;  
Phi = .05; N = 79

$X^2 = 2.54$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  
Phi = .12; N = 191

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Fisher's Exact yielded a statistically non-significant P value of .22 for the 13-15 year old age group, and Chi-Square analysis of the data for the 16-18 year old age group was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ). The results for both age groups indicated no difference between males and females in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. The Phi values of .05 for the 13-15 year old age group and .12 for the 16-18 year old age group were indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex for either age group. Males in both groups were slightly more likely to indicate permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex with 92% of the males and 88% of the females in the 13-15 year old group expressing permissive attitudes and 89% of the males compared with 81% of the females in the 16-18 year old group indicating permissiveness in their attitudes.

An overview of the table revealed a very slight change from the original relationship. The relationship weakened slightly from that found in the original data for the 13-15 year old age group and strengthened slightly for the 16-18 year old age group. The change, however, was slight and indicated that age had no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

The attitudes of male and female delinquents were further compared controlling for the variable of race. Table XXI contains the data relevant to this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for white males and females was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ), and Fisher's P of .62 for the black group and .35 for the Indian group were not statistically significant. The results in all three cases, black, white and Indian, indicated no

TABLE XXI  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS WITH  
THE OPPOSITE SEX BY RACE

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	Race					
	<u>White</u>		<u>Black</u>		<u>Indian</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	12 (12)*	15 (17)	2 ( 8)	2 (10)	1 ( 6)	3 (16)
Permissive	<u>89</u> (88)	<u>73</u> (83)	<u>22</u> (92)	<u>18</u> (90)	<u>16</u> (94)	<u>16</u> (84)
Total	101	88	24	20	17	19
	$\chi^2 = 1.02; p > .05;$ Phi = .07; N = 189		Fisher's P = .62; Phi = .03; N = 44		Fisher's P = .35; Phi = .16; N = 36	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

differences between the sexes in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex with race held constant.

The Phi values of .07 for the white group and .03 for the black group were indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. For the Indian group, the Phi of .16 indicated a weak, positive relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

An overview of Table XXI revealed that all delinquents, regardless of sex or race, tended to express permissive attitudes more often than non-permissive ones, and that males were slightly more permissive than their female counterparts in all three groups.

A comparison of the partials with the original data showed that the original relationship weakened slightly for the white and black groups and strengthened for the Indian group. This finding suggested that race specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex becomes more or less pronounced.

Male and female delinquents were further compared on the basis of whether they came from rural, urban or metropolitan residential areas to determine if the size and location of their places of residence had an effect on their attitudes toward the opposite sex. The data used in this analysis is presented in Table XXII.

No significant difference between males and females in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex was found for any of the three groups. Fisher's P of .48 for the rural group was statistically non-significant, and the Phi value of .14 for this group indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite

TABLE XXII

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS WITH  
THE OPPOSITE SEX BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	<u>Place of Residence</u>					
	<u>Rural</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Metropolitan</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	1 ( 5)*	1 (12)	7 (15)	7 (14)	7 (10)	12 (17)
Permissive	<u>20</u> (95)	<u>7</u> (88)	<u>49</u> (85)	<u>42</u> (86)	<u>65</u> (90)	<u>59</u> (83)
Total	21	8	47	49	72	71
	Fisher's P = .48; Phi = .14; N = 29		$\chi^2 = .01$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .01; N = 96		$\chi^2 = 1.60$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .11; N = 143	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.



sex. Chi-Square results for the urban and metropolitan area delinquents were not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and were indicative of no difference between males and females in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex for either group. The Phi values for the urban and metropolitan delinquents were .01 and .11, respectively, and indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex for either group.

The percentages showed that 95% of the rural males expressed permissiveness toward relations with the opposite sex compared with 88% of the rural females. For those from urban areas males and females indicated similar attitudes with 85% of the males and 86% of the females having permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. Of metropolitan area delinquents 90% of the males held permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex compared with 83% of the females. Thus, all delinquents, regardless of sex or place of residence, were more inclined to be permissive, rather than non-permissive, in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

An overview of Table XXII indicated a change from the relationship found in the original data. The relationship for urban delinquents declined while the relationship for the rural and metropolitan delinquents, though remaining negligible in both cases, strengthened slightly. Thus, place of residence specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex becomes more or less apparent.

Table XXIII presents data used to analyze whether family structure had an effect on the attitudes of male and female delinquents toward relations with the opposite sex.

TABLE XXIII

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS  
WITH THE OPPOSITE SEX BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	<u>Family Structure</u>			
	<u>Intact</u>		<u>Broken</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	6 (12)*	2 ( 6)	9 (10)	18 (19)
Permissive	<u>43</u> (88)	<u>31</u> (94)	<u>83</u> (90)	<u>75</u> (81)
Total	49	33	92	93
Fisher's P = .30 Phi = .10; N = 82			$\chi^2 = 3.40$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .14; N = 185	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

For delinquents whose homes were intact Fisher's P of .30 indicated no statistically significant difference between males and females in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex, and a Phi of .10 indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. The percentages for those from intact homes showed that females were slightly more permissive than males with 94% of the females and 88% of the males indicating permissiveness in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

Chi-Square analysis of the attitudes of delinquents from homes that were broken indicated no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) difference between the sexes in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite

sex. The Phi of .14 indicated a negligible relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. In percentages 90% of the males and 81% of the females expressed permissiveness in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

An overview of Table XXIII revealed that all delinquents were more likely to be permissive than not in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. For those from intact homes, the direction of the relationship was negative with females indicating permissive attitudes slightly more often than males. For homes that were broken, males were slightly more likely than females to be permissive in their attitudes. Females from broken homes were less likely than females from intact homes to hold permissive attitudes while males were similar in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex regardless of intactness of homes. The difference in the Phi values for these two groups was not substantial as compared with the original Phi value, however, and family structure appears to have no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

The original data were further analyzed using the delinquent's perception of family affection as a control variable. The data relevant to this analysis is presented in Table XXIV.

Fisher's Exact P of .70 for the non-affectionate family group and Chi-Square analysis of the data for the affectionate family group were statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ). The results for both groups were indicative of no difference between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex regardless of perceived family affection. The Phi values for the non-affectionate family and the affectionate family groups were .02 and .05, respectively, both of which indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

TABLE XXIV  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS  
WITH THE OPPOSITE SEX BY PERCEIVED FAMILY AFFECTION

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	<u>Type of Family</u>			
	<u>Affectionate</u>		<u>Non-Affectionate</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	9 ( 9)*	10 (12)	2 (15)	5 (17)
Permissive	<u>91</u> (91)	<u>73</u> (88)	<u>11</u> (85)	<u>25</u> (83)
Total	100	83	13	30
$\chi^2 = .45; p > .05;$		Fisher's P = .70;		
Phi = .05; N = 183		Phi = .02; N = 43		

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

For those from non-affectionate homes 85% of the males and 83% of the females indicated permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. For the affectionate family group 91% of the males indicated permissive attitudes compared with 88% of the females. Males in both groups tended to have permissive attitudes toward the opposite sex more often than females although this tendency was slight. Moreover, those from affectionate homes tended to be slightly more permissive than those from non-affectionate homes. All delinquents, regardless of sex or intactness of home, were more likely to be permissive than non-permissive in their attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

There was a slight change from the original relationship in that the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex weakened for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups. The decline in Phi values for the two groups was slight, however, and indicated that perception of family affection has no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex.

The data were further analyzed controlling for the number of commitments experienced by the delinquent. This data is presented in Table XXV.

An inspection of the partials for one, two or three and four or more commitments showed no statistically significant difference between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex for any of the three groups. Fisher's Exact P was .64 for those who had been committed one time and .42 for those with four or more commitments. Chi-Square analysis of the data for those with two or three commitments was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ). Phi values were .01 for one commitment and .07 for four or more commitments. Both Phi values indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex for either group. A Phi value of .14 for those who had been committed two or three times indicated a stronger, though negligible, relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex.

Percentage comparisons in each commitment category revealed that for those with one commitment males and females were similar in their attitudes toward the opposite sex with 85% of the males and 85% of the females expressing permissiveness. For those with two or three commitments 93% of the males expressed permissive attitudes compared with 84% of the females. In the four or more commitments group 90% of the males

TABLE XXV

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD RELATIONS WITH THE OPPOSITE  
SEX BY NUMBER OF COMMITMENTS TO A JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOL

Attitudes Toward The Opposite Sex	<u>Number of Commitments</u>					
	<u>One</u>		<u>Two or Three</u>		<u>Four or More</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Non-Permissive	7 (15)*	5 (15)	4 ( 7)	11 (16)	4 (10)	4 (15)
Permissive	<u>39</u> (85)	<u>29</u> (85)	<u>52</u> (93)	<u>56</u> (84)	<u>35</u> (90)	<u>23</u> (85)
Total	46	34	56	67	39	27
	Fisher's P = .64; Phi = .01; N = 80		$\chi^2 = 2.45$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .14; N = 123		Fisher's P = .42; Phi = .07; N = 66	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

and 85% of the females held permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. Again, all delinquents, regardless of sex, tended to regard relations with the opposite sex permissively more often than not.

A slight change from the original relationship was noted in the data controlling for number of commitments. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex weakened for those with one commitment, remained relatively unchanged for those with four or more commitments, and strengthened for those with two or three commitments. Although the relationship between sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex remained negligible regardless of number of commitments, the findings suggested that the number of commitments specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex becomes more or less pronounced.

#### Attitudes Toward Family Life

Data utilized in the testing of the null form of Hypothesis 6 is presented in Table XXVI. The null hypothesis was: male and female delinquents do not differ significantly in their attitudes toward family life.

Chi-Square analysis of the data was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and indicated a significant difference between sex and attitudes toward family life. Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between the sexes in terms of their attitudes toward family life was rejected.

The Phi value for this data was .14 and indicated a negligible relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. The percentages showed that 58% of the males expressed favorable attitudes toward family life compared with 44% of the females. Thus, males were more likely to

TABLE XXVI  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES  
TOWARD FAMILY LIFE

Attitude Toward Family Life	Males	Females
Favorable	80 (58)*	56 (44)
Unfavorable	<u>59</u> (42)	<u>72</u> (56)
Total	139	128

$$\chi^2 = 5.10; p < .05; \Phi = .14; N = 267$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

hold favorable attitudes while females were more likely to indicate unfavorable attitudes toward family life. Since the relationship was not in the direction predicted by the alternative hypothesis that female delinquents would have more favorable attitudes toward family life than male delinquents, the original hypothesis was rejected.

Because age may have an effect on attitudes, the data for sex and attitudes toward family life were analyzed taking this variable into account. Table XXVII presents the data relevant to this analysis.

The Chi-Square result for the 13-15 year old group was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between males and females in their attitudes toward family life. The Phi of .13 for this data indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward the family. In percentages 64% of the males expressed favorable attitudes toward family life compared with 47% of the females.



TABLE XXVII  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
FAMILY LIFE BY AGE

Attitudes Toward Family Life	Age			
	<u>13-15</u>		<u>16-18</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	9 (64)*	31 (47)	71 (57)	25 (40)
Unfavorable	<u>5</u> (36)	<u>35</u> (53)	<u>54</u> (43)	<u>37</u> (60)
Total	14	66	125	62
	$\chi^2 = 1.39; p > .05;$ Phi = .13; N = 80		$\chi^2 = 4.51; p < .05;$ Phi = .16; N = 187	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

For delinquents in the 16-18 year old group, Chi-Square analysis was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and was indicative of a significant difference between the sexes in their attitudes toward family life. A Phi of .16 indicated a weak relationship in the negative direction with 57% of the males and 40% of the females expressing favorable attitudes toward family life.

An overview of the percentages in Table XXVII revealed that males in both age groups were more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward family life, and females were more likely to have unfavorable ones. Of the two age groups younger males and females were more likely to be favorable in their attitudes than their older male and female counterparts.

A very slight change in the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life with age held constant was indicated. Although Chi-Square results for both age groups declined from that found in the original data, the Chi-Square value for the 16-18 year old group remained statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ), and the Phi value for this group increased slightly to .16. The Phi for the 13-15 year old group remained relatively unchanged from that found in the original data. The changes from the original relationship were very slight and indicated that age has no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life, however.

To determine if one's race had an effect on his attitudes toward family life, the data were further analyzed controlling for race. Table XXVIII presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of each of the three racial categories was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) in each case and indicated no difference between sex and attitudes toward family life. The Phi values were .13 for the white group and .11 for the Indian group both of which were indicative of no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for either group. For the black group the Phi value was .24 and indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life with males being more likely to hold favorable attitudes and females being more likely to indicate unfavorable attitudes.

Percentage comparisons of males and females in each racial group revealed that 57% of the white males held favorable attitudes toward family life compared with 44% of the white females. For the black group 64% of the males and 40% of the females expressed favorable attitudes toward family life. Among Indian delinquents 53% of the males and 42% of

TABLE XXVIII

## MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD FAMILY LIFE BY RACE

Attitudes Toward Family Life	<u>Race</u>					
	<u>White</u>		<u>Black</u>		<u>Indian</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	57 (57)*	39 (44)	14 (64)	8 (40)	9 (53)	8 (42)
Unfavorable	<u>43</u> (43)	<u>49</u> (56)	<u>8</u> (36)	<u>12</u> (60)	<u>8</u> (47)	<u>11</u> (58)
Total	100	88	22	20	17	19
	$\chi^2 = 3.01; p > .05;$ Phi = .13; N = 188		$\chi^2 = 2.34; p > .05;$ Phi = .24; N = 42		$\chi^2 = .42; p > .05;$ Phi = .11; N = 36	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

the females held favorable attitudes toward family life. Again, males were more likely to have favorable attitudes and females were more likely to hold unfavorable attitudes toward family life regardless of race.

An examination of the partials for race revealed a change from the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. The relationship for the white group remained relatively unchanged from that found in the original data while it weakened slightly for the Indian group. For the black group the Phi value increased to .24. These findings indicated that race is a factor which specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life becomes more or less evident.

The data presented in Table XXIX were used to determine if place of residence affected the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. For delinquents from rural areas Fisher's P was .34 and indicated no significant difference between sex and attitudes toward family life. Chi-Square results for the urban and metropolitan groups were not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and were indicative of no difference between sex and attitudes toward family life for either group.

The Phi for delinquents from rural areas was .16 which indicated a very weak relationship in the negative direction with 55% of the males and 37% of the females indicating favorable attitudes toward family life. For delinquents from urban areas a Phi value of .19 was indicative of a low negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life with 66% of the males and 47% of the females expressing favorable attitudes. A Phi of .11 for metropolitan delinquents indicated a negligible relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. For this group 53% of the males and 42% of the females held favorable attitudes

TABLE XXIX  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD FAMILY LIFE  
BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Attitudes Toward Family Life	Place of Residence					
	<u>Rural</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Metropolitan</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	11 (55)*	3 (37)	31 (66)	23 (47)	37 (53)	30 (42)
Unfavorable	<u>9</u> (45)	<u>5</u> (63)	<u>16</u> (34)	<u>26</u> (53)	<u>33</u> (47)	<u>41</u> (58)
Total	20	8	47	49	70	71
	Fisher's P = .34; Phi = .16; N = 28		$X^2 = 3.53$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .19; N = 96		$X^2 = 1.58$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .11; N = 141	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

toward family life. Thus, as indicated by the percentages, males in all three categories were more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward family life while females were more likely to indicate unfavorable ones.

Inspection of the partials shown in Table XXIX revealed a change from the original data. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life strengthened for both the rural and urban groups and weakened for the metropolitan group. The increase in the Phi values for the rural and urban groups was small, however, and it appears that place of residence had no effect on the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life.

Male and female delinquents' attitudes toward family life were further analyzed according to whether their homes were intact or broken. The data pertinent to this analysis are presented in Table XXX.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for intact families was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between males and females attitudes toward family life. The Phi of .04 for this data indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. A comparison of the percentages revealed that both male and female delinquents regarded family life more favorably than unfavorably, and that males tended to have favorable attitudes slightly more often than females with 55% of the males expressing favorable attitudes compared with 52% of the females.

For those from broken homes Chi-Square analysis was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) which was indicative of a significant difference between males and females in their attitudes toward family life. The Phi of .18 indicated a low negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life with 59% of the males and 41% of the females indicating favorable attitudes.

TABLE XXX  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
FAMILY LIFE BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

Attitude Toward Family Life	<u>Family Structure</u>			
	<u>Intact</u>		<u>Broken</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	27 (55)*	17 (52)	53 (59)	38 (41)
Unfavorable	<u>22 (45)</u>	<u>16 (48)</u>	<u>37 (41)</u>	<u>55 (59)</u>
Total	49	33	90	93
$X^2 = .10$ ; $p = .05$ ; $\Phi = .04$ ; $N = 82$		$X^2 = 5.94$ ; $p < .05$ ; $\Phi = .18$ ; $N = 183$		

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

An overview of the percentages in Table XXX revealed that all delinquents, except females from broken homes, indicated favorable attitudes toward family life more often than unfavorable ones. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life weakened considerably for intact homes and strengthened slightly for those from broken homes. This finding suggested that the type of home from which one comes specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life becomes more or less apparent. The influence that it seems to have on attitudes seems to be greatest for the delinquent girl in that the female from the intact home tended to regard family life favorably slightly more often than not while females from broken homes

were inclined to express unfavorable attitudes toward family life more often than not.

The data concerning sex and attitudes toward family life were further analyzed controlling for perceived family affection. Table XXXI presents the data relevant to this analysis.

TABLE XXXI  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD  
FAMILY LIFE BY PERCEIVED FAMILY AFFECTION

Attitudes Toward Family Life	<u>Type of Family</u>			
	<u>Affectionate</u>		<u>Non-Affectionate</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Favorable	64 (65)*	41 (49)	4 (33)	9 (30)
Unfavorable	<u>35</u> (35)	<u>43</u> (51)	<u>8</u> (67)	<u>21</u> (70)
Total	99	84	12	30
$X^2 = 4.66; p < .05;$ $\Phi = .16; N = 183$		$X^2 = .05; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .03; N = 42$		

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for the affectionate family was statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and indicated a difference between males and females regarding their attitudes toward family life. The Phi of .16 for this data indicated a slight relationship in the negative



direction between sex and attitudes toward family life. Of the males in this group 65% indicated favorable attitudes toward family life compared with 49% of the females.

For the non-affectionate family group Chi-Square analysis was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ), and no difference between males and female in their attitudes toward family life was indicated. A Phi of .03 for this data indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life. Of those in the non-affectionate family group 33% of the males expressed favorable attitudes compared with 30% of the females. Thus, both males and females were more likely to hold unfavorable rather than favorable attitudes toward family life when they perceived no affection from their families.

An overview of Table XXXI revealed that all delinquents, except for males from affectionate families, were more inclined to hold unfavorable attitudes toward family life than favorable ones; and females from affectionate families were less likely than either males or females from non-affectionate families to hold unfavorable attitudes toward the family.

There was a change from the original data in the partials controlling for perceived affection in that Chi-Square results for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups decreased from that found in the original data although the Chi-Square result for the affectionate family remained statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ). The relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life strengthened slightly for those from affectionate families, while it became considerably weaker for those from non-affectionate families. Thus, whether the delinquent has favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward family life appears to be influenced by his perception of family affection. Thus,

perceived family affection specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life becomes more or less pronounced.

To determine if the number of commitments experienced by the delinquent affected his attitudes, the data regarding sex and attitudes toward family life were analyzed controlling for this variable. Table XXXII presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of each of the three commitment groups yielded no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) results. This indicated that there were no differences between males and females in their attitudes toward family life for any of the three commitment groups.

The Phi Coefficients were .13 for the one commitment group and .08 for those with two or three commitments. Both Phi values indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for either of these two commitment groups. The Phi Coefficient for those with four or more commitments was .24 and indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for this group.

In percentages 68% of the males and 56% of the females with one commitment indicated favorable attitudes toward family life. For those with two or three commitments 50% of the males compared with 42% of the females held favorable attitudes. Of the delinquents with four or more commitments 58% of the males and 33% of the females expressed favorable attitudes. For all three groups, regardless of number of commitments, males were more likely than females to regard family life favorably. For the one commitment group both males and females tended to express favorable attitudes more often than not. For those with two or three commitments males were similar in their attitudes and females indicated

perceived family affection specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life becomes more or less pronounced.

To determine if the number of commitments experienced by the delinquent affected his attitudes, the data regarding sex and attitudes toward family life were analyzed controlling for this variable. Table XXXII presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of each of the three commitment groups yielded no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) results. This indicated that there were no differences between males and females in their attitudes toward family life for any of the three commitment groups.

The Phi Coefficients were .13 for the one commitment group and .08 for those with two or three commitments. Both Phi values indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for either of these two commitment groups. The Phi Coefficient for those with four or more commitments was .24 and indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for this group.

In percentages 68% of the males and 56% of the females with one commitment indicated favorable attitudes toward family life. For those with two or three commitments 50% of the males compared with 42% of the females held favorable attitudes. Of the delinquents with four or more commitments 58% of the males and 33% of the females expressed favorable attitudes. For all three groups, regardless of number of commitments, males were more likely than females to regard family life favorably. For the one commitment group both males and females tended to express favorable attitudes more often than not. For those with two or three commitments males were similar in their attitudes and females indicated

perceived family affection specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life becomes more or less pronounced.

To determine if the number of commitments experienced by the delinquent affected his attitudes, the data regarding sex and attitudes toward family life were analyzed controlling for this variable. Table XXXII presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of each of the three commitment groups yielded no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) results. This indicated that there were no differences between males and females in their attitudes toward family life for any of the three commitment groups.

The Phi Coefficients were .13 for the one commitment group and .08 for those with two or three commitments. Both Phi values indicated no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for either of these two commitment groups. The Phi Coefficient for those with four or more commitments was .24 and indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for this group.

In percentages 68% of the males and 56% of the females with one commitment indicated favorable attitudes toward family life. For those with two or three commitments 50% of the males compared with 42% of the females held favorable attitudes. Of the delinquents with four or more commitments 58% of the males and 33% of the females expressed favorable attitudes. For all three groups, regardless of number of commitments, males were more likely than females to regard family life favorably. For the one commitment group both males and females tended to express favorable attitudes more often than not. For those with two or three commitments males were similar in their attitudes and females indicated

TABLE XXXIII  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION  
OF THE LIKELIHOOD OF REFORMING

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	Males	Females
Positive	109 (77)*	92 (73)
Negative	<u>32</u> (23)	<u>34</u> (27)
Total	141	126

$$\chi^2 = .66; p > .05; \Phi = .05; N = 267$$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

and no difference between the sexes with regard to reforming was indicated, the alternative hypothesis, which predicted that female delinquent offenders would think of themselves as "someone who will straighten out" more often than male delinquents, was rejected.

Since delinquents' perception of the likelihood of their reforming may be affected by other factors, the data concerning this were analyzed controlling for the variable of age. The data used in this analysis are presented in Table XXXIV.

The two age groups were analyzed separately. Chi-Square results for both the 13-15 year old and the 16-18 year old groups were statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) and were indicative of no difference between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming regardless of age. The Phis of .02 for the 13-15 and .001 for the 16-18 year old groups indicated no relationship between sex and perceived

likelihood of reforming for either age group. Percentages indicated that all delinquents, regardless of sex or age, tended to view themselves as persons who would reform. For the 13-15 year old group 72% of the males and 69% of the females responded positively. For those in the 16-18 year old group 78% of the males indicated positive responses compared with 77% of the females. Thus, older delinquents were slightly more likely than younger ones to respond positively to the idea of reforming.

TABLE XXXIV  
MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION  
OF THE LIKELIHOOD OF REFORMING BY AGE

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Age</u>			
	<u>13-15</u>		<u>16-18</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	10 (72)*	44 (69)	99 (78)	48 (77)
Negative	<u>4</u> (28)	<u>20</u> (31)	<u>28</u> (22)	<u>14</u> (23)
Total	14	64	127	62
	$\chi^2 = .039; p > .05;$ Phi = .02; N = 78		$\chi^2 = .008; p > .05;$ Phi = .001; N = 189	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

An overview of Table XXXIV showed that the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming weakened from that found in the

original data for the 13-15 year old group and almost disappeared for the 16-18 year old group. The trend was slight, however, and indicated that age had no effect on the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming.

Another variable considered to have possible influence on perception of the likelihood of reforming was race. Table XXXV presents the data used in the analysis concerning sex and perceived likelihood of reforming with race held constant.

For white delinquents Chi-Square analysis was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between white males and females in their perception of the likelihood of reforming. Fisher's P was .39 for the black group and .11 for the Indian group both of which indicated no difference between males and females in their perception of the likelihood of reforming.

The Phi values for the white and black groups were .01 and .11, respectively, both of which were indicative of no relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming for either group. For the Indian group a Phi of .27 indicated a low, negative relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming with males being more likely than females to perceive themselves as persons who would reform.

An overview of the table revealed that of the three groups, black males and females viewed themselves as persons who would reform more often than white or Indian males and females. For the white group, males and females were similar in the perceptions of the likelihood of reforming with 74% of the males and 75% of the females indicating positive responses. Of the blacks, 87% of the males and 79% of the females responded positively toward reforming. The Indian group showed the

TABLE XXXV

## MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE LIKELIHOOD OF REFORMING BY RACE

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Race</u>					
	<u>White</u>		<u>Black</u>		<u>Indian</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	75 (74)*	65 (75)	20 (87)	15 (79)	14 (82)	11 (58)
Negative	<u>26</u> (26)	<u>22</u> (25)	<u>3</u> (13)	<u>4</u> (21)	<u>3</u> (18)	<u>8</u> (42)
Total	101	87	23	19	17	19
$X^2 = .01; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .01; N = 188$						
Fisher's P = .39; $\Phi = .11; N = 42$						
Fisher's P = .11; $\Phi = .27; N = 36$						

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.



greatest percentage disparity between the sexes with 82% of the males responding positively toward reforming compared with 58% of the females who indicated positive responses.

A change in the original relationship between sex and perception of the likelihood of reforming in the data controlling for race was indicated. The relationship almost disappeared for the white group and strengthened for both the black and Indian groups. Race, therefore, appears to be a factor which specifies the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming.

The data regarding sex and perceived likelihood of reforming were further analyzed controlling for the delinquents' places of residence. The data relevant to this analysis are presented in Table XXXVI.

For delinquents from rural areas Fisher's Exact yielded a statistically significant P value of .02 which indicated a significant difference between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming. A Phi of .50 for this group was indicative of a moderate relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming. Percentages revealed that 90% of the males and 43% of the females responded positively toward the idea of reforming.

Chi-Square analysis of urban and metropolitan delinquents was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) in both cases and indicated no difference between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming. Phi values of .10 for the urban group and .08 for the metropolitan group signified no relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming. In percentages 70% of the males and 79% of the females from urban areas thought of themselves as persons who would reform while 79% of the males and 72% of the females from metropolitan

TABLE XXXVI

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE LIKELIHOOD  
OF REFORMING BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Place of Residence</u>					
	<u>Rural</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Metropolitan</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	19 (90)*	3 (43)	33 (70)	38 (79)	56 (79)	51 (72)
Negative	<u>2</u> (10)	<u>4</u> (57)	<u>14</u> (30)	<u>10</u> (21)	<u>15</u> (21)	<u>20</u> (28)
Total	21	7	47	48	71	71
Fisher's P = .02; Phi = .50; N = 28		$X^2 = 1.01$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .10; N = 95		$X^2 = .95$ ; $p > .05$ ; Phi = .08; N = 142		

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

residences perceived themselves as persons who would be likely to reform. An overview of Table XXXVI revealed that the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming strengthened for all three residential categories. For delinquents from urban and metropolitan areas the relationship remained negligible and reversed direction for urban delinquents while for rural delinquents the relationship strengthened substantially. Thus, place of residence specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming becomes more or less pronounced.

Controlling for whether the delinquents' homes were intact or broken the data concerning sex and perceived likelihood of reforming were analyzed. Table XXXVII presents the data used in this analysis.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for both the intact and broken family groups was statistically non-significant ( $p > .05$ ) and indicated no difference between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming. Phi values of .14 for the intact family and .01 for the broken family indicated that the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming was negligible in both cases.

Percentage comparisons of those from intact homes showed that 84% of the males and 73% of the females perceived the likelihood of reforming positively. Males and females from broken homes were similar in their perceptions of reforming with 74% of the males and 73% of the females indicating positive responses toward reforming.

An overview of the data in Table XXXVII revealed that all delinquents were more likely to respond positively toward reforming than not. The relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming strengthened for those from intact homes and almost disappeared for those

from homes that were broken. Although the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming for those from intact homes was negligible, it showed a slight tendency for males to respond positively toward reforming more often than females. Thus, family structure specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming becomes more or less pronounced.

TABLE XXXVII

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE  
LIKELIHOOD OF REFORMING BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Family Structure</u>			
	<u>Intact</u>		<u>Broken</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	42 (84)*	24 (73)	67 (74)	66 (73)
Negative	<u>8</u> (16)	<u>9</u> (27)	<u>24</u> (26)	<u>25</u> (27)
Total	50	33	91	91
	$\chi^2 = 1.55; p > .05;$ Phi = .14; N = 83		$\chi^2 = .03; p > .05;$ Phi = .01; N = 182	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

To determine if perceived affection from the family affected delinquents' perception of the likelihood of reforming, the data were analyzed further. Table XXXVIII presents the data used in this analysis.

TABLE XXXVIII

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE LIKELIHOOD  
OF REFORMING BY PERCEIVED FAMILY AFFECTION

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Type of Family</u>			
	<u>Affectionate</u>		<u>Non-Affectionate</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>			
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	83 (83)*	62 (74)	7 (54)	20 (69)
Negative	<u>17</u> (17)	<u>22</u> (26)	<u>6</u> (46)	<u>9</u> (31)
Total	100	84	13	29
$\chi^2 = 2.31; p .05;$ $\Phi = .11; N = 184$		$\chi^2 = .89; p > .05;$ $\Phi = .15; N = 42$		

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

Chi-Square analysis of the data for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups yielded no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) results. This indicated no difference between male and female delinquents in their perception of the likelihood of reforming with perceived affection from the family held constant. A Phi of .11 for the affectionate family group was indicative of no relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming while a Phi of .15 for the non-affectionate family group indicated a very weak positive relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming for those who perceived no affection from their families. For the affectionate family group 83% of the males and 74% of the females indicated positive responses toward

reforming. For delinquents who perceived no affection from their families 54% of the males expressed positive responses toward reforming compared with 69% of the females.

An overview of the percentages shown in Table XXXVIII revealed that all delinquents perceived themselves as persons who would reform more often than not. Males and females from affectionate families indicated positive responses toward reforming more frequently than those from non-affectionate families.

There was a slight change in the data controlling for perceived family affection as compared with the original data in that the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming strengthened for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups. The negligible relationship for the affectionate family was in the negative direction with males being more likely than females to regard reforming positively. For the non-affectionate family the relationship was in the positive direction with females being more likely than males to think of themselves as persons who would reform. These findings suggest that whether the delinquent believed that his family cared for him determined to some extent his perception of the likelihood of reforming. Perceived family affection appears to be more important for males than for females in that 83% of the males from affectionate families responded positively toward reforming compared with 54% of the males from non-affectionate families. For females the percentage discrepancy between partials was less than that for males with 74% of the females from affectionate families and 69% of the females from non-affectionate families indicating positive responses toward reforming.

Because the number of times the juvenile had been committed to a juvenile training school could conceivably influence his perception of

the likelihood of his reforming, the data concerning delinquents' perceptions of the likelihood of reforming were analyzed taking the number of commitments into account. The data are presented in Table XXXIX.

Chi-Square analysis of each of the three groups yielded no statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ) results which was indicative of no difference between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming for any of the commitment categories. The Phi values for the two or three and four or more commitment groups were .04 and .05, respectively, indicating that the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming for these two groups was negligible. For the group with one commitment a very weak, negative relationship between sex and attitudes toward reforming was indicated by a Phi value of .16.

Percentage comparisons among partials indicated that all delinquents were more likely to respond positively rather than negatively toward reforming regardless of sex or number of commitments. Of those with one commitment 87% of the males responded positively compared with 75% of the females. In the two or three commitment group 76% of the males and 73% of the females indicated positive responses regarding reforming. For those with four or more commitments 66% of the males thought of themselves as persons who would reform compared with 70% of the females.

An overview of Table XXXIX revealed a change in the original relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming. For those with one commitment the relationship became stronger. For those with two or three commitments the relationship weakened slightly. For those with four or more commitments the relationship reversed direction and females became slightly more likely than males to respond positively toward reforming. Thus, the number of times committed seems to influence

TABLE XXXIX

MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE LIKELIHOOD OF REFORMING  
BY NUMBER OF COMMITMENTS TO A JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOL

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	<u>Number of Commitments</u>					
	<u>One</u>		<u>Two or Three</u>		<u>Four or More</u>	
	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Sex</u>	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Positive	41 (87)*	24 (75)	42 (76)	49 (73)	25 (66)	19 (70)
Negative	<u>6</u> (13)	<u>8</u> (25)	<u>13</u> (24)	<u>18</u> (27)	<u>13</u> (34)	<u>8</u> (30)
Total	47	32	55	67	38	27
	$\chi^2 = 1.95; p > .05;$ Phi = .16; N = 79		$\chi^2 = .17; p > .05;$ Phi = .04; N = 122		$\chi^2 = .15; p > .05;$ Phi = .05; N = 65	

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.



perceptions of the likelihood of reforming and specifies the conditions under which the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming becomes more or less pronounced.

In addition to the findings already presented more information concerning male and female delinquents was obtained from the open-ended response section of the questionnaire. Although no specific hypotheses were tested using the data from this section of the questionnaire, male and female delinquents were compared on the basis of their responses.

For the purpose of statistical comparison, responses were first grouped into conventional and non-conventional response categories. No significant differences ( $p > .05$ ) between males and females were found and no relationship between sex and type of response was indicated (see Tables XLI-XLV, Appendix A). Delinquents, both male and female, reflected conventionally held values in their responses to all open-ended questions. Whether this reflected seeking of approval by responding in a way in which they believed the researcher wanted them to respond is not known. Because much of the information and the flavor of the actual responses were lost due to grouping them into two rigid categories, an elaboration on the variety of responses that were made is included.

Delinquents' responses to the questions concerning priorities, interests and goals for happiness generally reflected role-relatedness. Some of the most frequent responses among males were getting a good job, finishing school, being independent, taking responsibility and having a family in that order. Males who specified the type of job which they sought generally named one characterized by minimal formal educational requirements such as that of carpenter, mechanic, oilfield laborer (roughneck) or welder. Some planned to make a career of the military,

and a few hoped to become professionals of some kind. Although females also often specified getting a good job or finishing school as a primary goal, their responses, for the most part, tended to reflect a dominant concern with marriage and family life. Most of the girls expressed a desire to get married and be happy as either a priority or a goal that would make them happy in life. Many of the girls seemed to have a need to help others in some way. Most of those who specified an occupation which they would like to pursue wanted to be involved in a service-oriented profession such as that of nurse or social worker. No such concern with the welfare of others, apart from their own immediate families or future families, was apparent in the responses among males.

Most delinquents, both male and female, were concerned with their families and frequently expressed a desire for parental approval. Many stated that they wanted to get out of the institution and show their parents and communities that they could "make it on the outside." Many expressed regret over having hurt their parents in the past and indicated a desire to "get along better" with them when they returned homes.

Getting out of the institution and "straightening up" was another dominant concern among the delinquents. Many said they hoped "never to have to come back here again!" Others simply stated that they "just wanted to be free." A few, however, indicated that they fully intended to pursue delinquent activities when they were released. Most of the deviant activities named were associated with traffic in drugs.

Responses to the questions regarding what they planned to do upon release from the institution to achieve their goals were generally related to the responses which they had made concerning priorities, interests and goals for happiness. Males tended to list getting a job most often

followed closely by finishing school and staying out of trouble. Many said that they planned to marry and raise a family. A few wanted to get completely out of the State so they could start over while others expressed a desire to leave the United States altogether. Females were similar to males in their responses concerning their future plans with most of them responding in terms of finishing school, finding a job and getting married.

Some preoccupation with the opposite sex was noted in some of the responses to the open-ended questions, particularly among females. However, references to non-conventional sexual involvement were indicated in only a few cases. Most delinquents, both male and female, referred to an anticipation of relations with the opposite sex by indicating that they hoped to get married, raise a family and live a normal, happy life.

Responses to the question concerning what they expected to learn from the institution were especially revealing. Nowhere did aggression, hostility and loneliness become more apparent than in these responses. Responses of the males to this question seemed to reflect a more positive view of the institution than the responses of females. The response which appeared most often among males was that they had learned to "stay out of trouble." This response was usually qualified in some way by a phrase such as by having learned respect for self or others, by having developed an ability to discipline oneself, by cooperating, or by being patient. Others cited specific things such as having learned a skill or "how to do better in school." Although several of the females reflected having learned something from the institution that would help them in the future, such as a skill or trade or some personal quality which could help improve their personal relations, they did so less often than males.

Many responses of both males and females tended to be negative. The most frequent response in a negative vein was that they expected to learn "nothing" from the institution. This response, if qualified, was usually followed by a phrase such as "except hate," "loneliness," "except how to be cold-blooded and to hate everyone about me," "all it is is really a drag," or that "you can't beat the law." Female respondents seemed to reflect feelings of despair, loneliness and hostility more frequently and with greater intensity than males. This may indicate that the incarceration process is more traumatizing for the female than for the male. Some respondents seemed to have acquiesced to the demands of the institution while others seemed to be hostile and rebellious toward its rules and regulations. Despair and frustration were very apparent, particularly among females.

## CHAPTER V

### FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Findings and Conclusions

Consistent with past findings indicated in the research literature, female delinquents in this study came from broken homes more often than male delinquents. However, because the difference between them was not statistically significant, and no relationship between sex and family structure was indicated, Hypothesis 1, which predicted that institutionalized female delinquents will come from broken homes more often than institutionalized male delinquents, was rejected. All delinquents in this study, regardless of sex, were more likely to come from broken than intact homes.

Males and females were found to differ significantly in their perception of family affection, and a weak, negative relationship was indicated between sex and perceived family affection. Although both sexes were more likely to perceive affection from their families than not, males tended to perceive affection significantly more often than females; thus, Hypothesis 2, which predicted that institutionalized female delinquents will perceive affection from their families more often than institutionalized male delinquents, was rejected. Although this could not be verified in the present research, the difference between the sexes regarding perceived family affection may be a function of the differential values which they place upon family ties. Whereas girls have

a tendency to look to the family to fulfill their emotional needs, boys may rely more heavily upon their peer groups. Thus, when these needs are not met by the family, females, who have few other satisfactory alternatives, may come to believe that their families, on whom they depend most, do not care for them. Another possible factor that may account in part for the difference is that parents, rather than legal authorities, usually assume the responsibility for bringing deviant females to the attention of the courts. This may have the effect of causing delinquent girls to feel that their parents do not care about them or they would not subject them to such an ordeal.

Hypothesis 3 which predicted that institutionalized male delinquents would have a greater number of prior commitments to juvenile training schools than institutionalized female delinquents was rejected since no significant difference was found between males and females regarding the number of commitments they had experienced, and no relation between sex and number of commitments was indicated. Most delinquents had been committed two or three times with the majority of the females being in this category. More males than females had been committed one time and four or more times.

Some interesting, though non-significant, findings were observed in the data concerning delinquents' attitudes toward parental authority. No relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority was indicated. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 which predicted that institutionalized male delinquents will have more favorable attitudes toward parental authority than institutionalized female delinquents was rejected. Females were similar in their attitudes while males tended to respond unfavorably toward parental authority more often. However, analysis of

this data controlling for specific third order variables produced some changes in the original data. Age was found to have an effect in that the original relationship became weaker for both age groups. Delinquents in the 16-18 year old group tended to indicate unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority while those in the 13-15 year old group were more inclined to have favorable attitudes toward parental authority. Age, thus, appeared to be more importantly related to attitudes toward parental authority than sex. Another variable which seemed to affect the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority was race. With race held constant the original relationship was specified in that it became weaker and remained negligible for the white group, much stronger for the black group and slightly stronger for the Indian group. No difference was found between males and females for either the white or Indian groups, but a significant difference between black males and females was noted. Of all the delinquents, only black females were more likely to indicate favorable, rather than unfavorable, attitudes toward parental authority; and black males were more likely than delinquents of the other two racial groups to respond unfavorably toward parental authority. Perhaps the difference between black males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority is a function of child-rearing practices and/or parent-child relations characteristics of the black subculture though this could not be confirmed in this research.

Specification occurred in the data relating to sex and attitudes toward parental authority when it was analyzed controlling for the place of residence. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority became stronger for the urban group, weaker for the metropolitan group and reversed direction for the rural group with rural females

being more likely than rural males to have unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority. A significant difference was found between urban males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority while differences between males and females in the rural and metropolitan groups remained non-significant. All delinquents were more likely to have unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority than favorable ones with the exception of urban females. The variable of family structure was shown to have no effect on the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority although there were some slight changes in the original findings. While differences between males and females in their attitudes became significant for those from broken homes, they remained non-significant for those from intact homes. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority became stronger for those from broken homes and reversed direction for those from intact homes with females being more likely than males to view parental authority unfavorably. Perhaps the reason female delinquents from broken homes express favorable attitudes toward parental authority more often than females from intact homes is that they experience less control by their parents, and, therefore, feel less restricted in their behavior than those from intact homes.

The number of commitments experienced by the juvenile was found to have an effect on the original relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority. It seemed that there was some specification in this data. The original relationship strengthened for those with one commitment, weakened for the two or three commitment group and remained unchanged for the four or more commitment group. Only females with one commitment were more likely to have favorable than unfavorable attitudes



toward parental authority. Differences between males and females remained non-significant for all three commitment groups. The impact that the number of commitments had on delinquents seemed to be greater for females than for males in that females became less likely to hold favorable attitudes toward parental authority as their number of commitments increased while males remained fairly stable in their attitudes regardless of number of commitments. Perhaps females have a greater tendency to blame their trouble on their families than males so that they become more resentful toward the authority of their parents with each successive commitment. However, this could not be verified in this research.

Controlling for perceived family affection caused little change in the original relationship although low positive relationships were indicated for both the affectionate and non-affectionate family groups with males being more likely than females to have unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority. While differences between males and females remained non-significant for delinquents from non-affectionate families, a significant difference was observed between males and females from affectionate families. Of the delinquents only females from affectionate homes were more likely to have favorable than unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority, and delinquents who perceived no affection from their families were more likely to have unfavorable attitudes than those who did. Perceived family affection, therefore, appears to be an important factor in influencing the attitudes of delinquents, in general, toward the authority of their parents but has no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority.

The relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority seems to be primarily a function of other variables. The basic differ-

ence between males and females seemed to be that males, with the exception of those who were 13-15 years of age, those from rural areas, and those from intact homes, tended to view parental authority unfavorably more often than females. Delinquents generally tended to regard parental authority unfavorably more often than not although some shifts in attitudes when controlling for certain third order variables did occur. Attitude shifts from unfavorable to favorable seemed to occur more frequently among females than males. Only males in the 13-15 year old age group were more likely to have favorable attitudes than not. Among the females those who were 13-15 years old, those who were black, those from urban areas, broken homes, affectionate families and those with one commitment were more apt to view parental authority favorably than not. Perhaps males, in general, perceive a greater threat to their autonomy than do females, and, as a result, tend to view any restriction imposed upon them by their parents as a threat to their independence. This may account for their general tendency to regard parental authority negatively more often than females with the exception of the cases which were previously mentioned.

Hypothesis 5 which predicted that institutionalized female delinquents would have more permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex than institutionalized male delinquents was rejected since no difference and no relationship was found between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. While both males and females were more permissive than not, males tended to be slightly more permissive than females in their attitudes. The variable of age was found to have no effect on the original data with the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex remaining relatively

unchanged from that found in the original data regardless of age. Family structure was also found to have no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex. The original relationship became stronger for both those from broken homes and intact homes but reversed direction for those from intact homes with females tending to be more permissive than males. Males were similar in their attitudes regardless of type of family structure while females from intact homes indicated permissiveness more often than females from broken homes. The variable of family affection was also found to have no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex. Males remained slightly more permissive than females for both the affectionate and non-affectionate family groups.

There was some specification in the data concerning sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex when it was analyzed controlling for race. The original relationship weakened slightly and remained negligible for the white and black racial categories and strengthened for the Indian group. No difference between males and females in their attitudes toward the opposite sex was indicated for any of the three racial groups. Analysis of the data by place of residence caused some changes in the original relationship, and specification was indicated. The relationship remained negligible for all three residential groups but reversed direction and weakened slightly for the urban group while it strengthened slightly for the rural and metropolitan groups. Rural and metropolitan males and females were similar in terms of permissiveness. Rural delinquents, as compared with urban and metropolitan delinquents, tended to be more permissive. Specification was again found in the data analysis of sex and attitudes toward the opposite sex with number of commitments

held constant. The original relationship weakened for the one commitment group and the four or more commitment group while it strengthened for the category of two or three commitments. The relationship in all three cases remained negligible. Males and females with one commitment were similar in terms of permissive attitudes while males with two or three and four or more commitments tended to be more permissive than females. Females held similar attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex regardless of number of commitments. The number of commitments seemed to have a greater impact on the attitudes of males than on females with percentage discrepancies between commitment groups being greater between males than between females.

Males generally tended to be slightly more permissive than females. Only females from urban areas and from broken homes were more permissive than males, but this tendency was slight. No difference between males and females in their attitudes toward the opposite sex was indicated for any of the groups considered, and percentage comparisons of males and females remained fairly stable in all cases with delinquents of both sexes tending to regard relations with the opposite sex permissively more often than not.

A significant difference was found between males and females in their attitudes toward family life. Males were more inclined to view family life favorably while females tended to hold unfavorable attitudes toward their families more often. Because the findings were not in the direction predicted by Hypothesis 6 that institutionalized female delinquents would have more favorable attitudes toward family life than institutionalized male delinquents, the hypothesis was rejected. No relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life was indicated.

Age was found to have no effect on the original relationship although differences between males and females in their attitudes toward family life diminished and became non-significant for those in the 13-15 year old group. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life for both the 13-15 and 16-18 year old age groups remained substantially unchanged from that of the original data. Place of residence was also found to have no effect on attitudes toward family life. Although differences between the sexes diminished in all three residential categories, the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life showed little change from the original relationship.

Race was found to have an effect on the attitudes of delinquents toward family life in that there was some specification in the data when it was analyzed controlling for race. The original relationship became slightly weaker for the white and Indian groups and stronger for the black group. Black males were more inclined than white or Indian males to hold favorable attitudes while black females were slightly more inclined than white or Indian females to hold unfavorable attitudes. No significant differences between males and females in their attitudes toward family life was indicated for any of the three racial categories. The variable of family structure was also found to have an effect on the attitudes of delinquents toward family life in that the original relationship was specified. The original relationship weakened considerably for the intact home and became stronger for those from broken homes. The difference between males and females diminished for delinquents from intact homes and increased for those from broken homes. Delinquents of both sexes from intact homes were similar in their attitudes toward family life with both males and females being more likely to hold favorable

than unfavorable attitudes. Differences between male and female delinquents remained significant for those from broken homes with males being more likely to hold favorable attitudes and females being more likely to have unfavorable attitudes toward family life. The difference between males and females from broken homes in their attitudes toward family life may be a function of both their relationship with the one parent and their varying perceptions of their obligations and responsibilities to their families. However, this could not be verified in this research.

Specification occurred in the data relating to sex and attitudes toward family life when it was analyzed controlling for perceived family affection. The original relationship became slightly stronger for those from affectionate families and weakened considerably for those from non-affectionate homes. Differences between males and females remained significant for those from affectionate homes and became almost nonexistent between those from non-affectionate homes. Delinquents who perceived affection from their families were more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward family life than delinquents who perceived no affection from their families. Only males from affectionate homes were more likely to view family life favorably while females from affectionate homes were very similar in terms of favorable and unfavorable attitudes. Perceived family affection, therefore, appeared to be a factor which influenced the attitudes of delinquents toward family life and seemed to have a greater bearing on the attitudes of males than on females.

The number of commitments experienced by the juvenile was found to affect the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life by specifying the conditions under which it became more or less pronounced. The original relationship weakened slightly for those with one commitment

and for those with two or three commitments while it strengthened for the four or more commitment group. Differences between males and females in all three commitment groups diminished from that found in the original data and became non-significant. Males tended to be more favorable in their attitudes toward family life than females in all three commitment groups, and females, except those with one commitment, were more likely to view family life unfavorably than favorably. The number of commitments seemed to have a greater effect on females than males in that as the number of commitments for females increased, the more likely they were to view family life unfavorably. Perhaps this is a function of the tendency for females to rely more heavily on their families than males, and increasing numbers of commitments for females may be indicative of a growing void between the girl and her family so that she may eventually feel less obligated to it. This could not, however, be verified in the present research.

Examination of the findings in all groups considered showed that males, in all cases, viewed family life more favorably than their female counterparts, and that males tended to be favorable, rather than unfavorable, in their attitudes except for males who perceived no affection from their families and those with two or three commitments. In the case of the two or three commitment group males tended to be similar in terms of favorable and unfavorable attitudes. Females, on the other hand, with the exception of those from intact families and those with one commitment, were inclined to view family life negatively more often. Perhaps males tend to have more favorable attitudes toward family life than females because they are less dependent on, and therefore, less tied to their families than females. There may also be greater concern with

family life among females than among males. In addition, parent-child communications may not be as important for males as for females, so that a breakdown in communication would not have as great an effect on males. However, this could not be verified in the present study.

There were no significant differences between males and females in their perceptions of the likelihood of reforming, and no relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming was indicated. Thus, Hypothesis 7 which predicted that female delinquents would think of themselves as "someone who will straighten out" more often than institutionalized male delinquents was rejected. Most delinquents, regardless of sex, indicated that they thought of themselves as persons who would reform, and males responded positively slightly more often than females.

There was little change in the original data when it was analyzed controlling for the variable of age. The original relationship became slightly weaker for both the 13-15 and 16-18 year old age groups. Thus, age appeared to have no effect on the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming.

Race was found to affect the original relationship by specifying the conditions under which it became more or less pronounced. The original relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming weakened and reversed direction for the white group, strengthened slightly for the black group and strengthened considerably for the Indian group. Indian females were much less likely to view themselves as persons who would reform than other delinquents, both male and female.

Place of residence was shown to have an effect on the original findings. Specification was indicated in the data for sex and perceived likelihood of reforming with place of residence held constant. Rural



males and females were found to differ significantly while no difference between males and females was found for either urban or metropolitan area delinquents. The original relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming strengthened considerably for rural delinquents, reversed direction for urban delinquents, and strengthened slightly for metropolitan delinquents. Rural males were more likely to perceive themselves as persons who would reform than urban or metropolitan males and females, while rural females were least likely to do so. The difference between rural males and females could possibly be a consequence of the higher degree of primary group control typically exercised by rural communities over its youth as compared to communities with larger population. Females may feel the stigma of having been defined as delinquent to a greater extent than males and may react by seeing themselves as persons who, once defined officially delinquent, will continue to view themselves as delinquent. Rural males, on the other hand, may be determined to prove to the communities that they can straighten up and "make it," since they seemed to be less sensitive to rejection and criticism than females. This could not be confirmed in this research, however.

Controlling for family affection produced some changes in the original data. Differences between males and females remained statistically non-significant for both those from affectionate homes and those from non-affectionate homes. The original relationship became stronger for the affectionate family group and reversed direction for the non-affectionate family group. Delinquents from non-affectionate families were less likely to view reforming positively than those from affectionate families. Of all the delinquents males from affectionate homes were most likely to regard reforming positively while males from homes that

that were non-affectionate were less likely than the other delinquents to view themselves as persons who would reform. Females tended to be similar in the perceptions of the likelihood of reforming regardless of perceived family affection. Thus, the variable of perceived family affection seemed to have a greater impact on male delinquents' attitudes than on the attitudes of female delinquents.

The relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming was affected by the number of commitments the delinquent had experienced. The original relationship strengthened for the one commitment group, weakened slightly for the two or three commitment group and reversed direction for the four or more commitment group. Percentage comparisons among commitment categories showed that as the number of commitments increased, the percentage of males and females who perceived themselves as persons who would reform decreased. This may be a reflection of the loss of confidence in one's ability to reform with each successive commitment. The number of commitments appeared to have a greater impact on males than on females, however, with percentage disparities between commitment categories being greater among males than among females.

Specification occurred in the data concerning sex and perceived likelihood of reforming when it was analyzed controlling for family structure. Comparison of males and females by intactness of home showed that the original relationship strengthened for the intact home and weakened for the broken home. The relationship, however, remained negligible for both groups and differences between males and females were not significant. Females were similar in their responses regardless of type of home while males from intact homes were more likely than males from broken homes to view themselves as persons who would reform.

Thus, the relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming appears to be affected by other factors. With the exception of rural females, delinquents in all cases considered tended to be positive in their perceptions of themselves as persons who would reform. Whether or not the fact that rural females responded negatively to the idea of reforming more often than positively is a consequence of interpersonal relations characteristic of rural communities is not known. Family structure, perceived family affection and number of commitments seemed to have greater impact on males than on females. Just how these variables affect males' perceptions of themselves as persons who will reform is not known.

For the purpose of clarification, the findings relative to the differences between males and females and the various relationships between sex and attitudes which have been discussed in this paper were combined and are presented in Table XL.

The data regarding age presented in Table XL revealed a relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life in the 16-18 year old group. However, change in the relationship from that found in the original data was slight and indicated that age had no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life.

Race appeared to be an important factor in specifying the relationship between sex and attitudes in all cases considered. Relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority and family life appeared for black delinquents, and differences between black males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority were significant. Black males and females seemed to reverse their positions regarding attitudes toward parental authority and family life in that females tended to

TABLE XL

EFFECTS OF THIRD VARIABLES ON SEXUAL DIFFERENCES AND ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SEX AND ATTITUDES TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY, OPPOSITE SEX, FAMILY LIFE AND REFORMING

Variable	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		Significance of $\chi^2$ or Fisher's Exact P	Level of Significance	Phi	Relationship	Effect of Control Variable
	Favorable	Unfavorable	Favorable	Unfavorable					
Attitudes Toward Parental Authority		X*		X-**	NS***	>.05	.11	None	
By Age:									
13-15	X		X		NS	>.05	.01	None	None
16-18		X		X-	NS	>.05	.08	None	
By Race:									
White		X		X-	NS	>.05	.03	None	
Black		X	X		S ***	<.02	.37	moderate	Specification
Indian		X		X-	NS	>.05	.16	Weak	
By Residence:									
Rural		X		X+**	NS	.47=	.09	None <sup>r</sup>	
Urban		X	X		S	<.05	.23	Weak	Specification
Metropolitan		X		X-	NS	>.05	.06	None	
By Family Structure:									
Intact		X		X+	NS	>.05	.11	None <sup>r</sup>	None
Broken		X	X		S	<.01	.19	Weak	
By Family Affection:									
Affectionate		X	X		S	<.05	.17	Weak	None
Non-Affection		X		X-	NS	.30=	.16	Weak	

By Commitments:								
One	X	X		NS	>.05	.16	Weak	
Two or Three	X		X-	NS	>.05	.06	None	Specifi-
Four or More	X		X-	NS	>.05	.11	None	cation
Attitudes Toward The								
Opposite Sex	X <sup>p</sup>		X-	NS	>.05	.08	None	
By Age:								
13-15	X		X-	NS	.22=	.05	None	None
16-18	X		X-	NS	>.05	.12	None	
By Race:								
White	X		X-	NS	>.05	.07	None	
Black	X		X	NS	.62=	.03	None	Specifi-
Indian	X		X-	NS	.35=	.16	Weak	cation
By Residence:								
Rural	X		X-	NS	.48=	.14	None <sup>r</sup>	
Urban	X		X	NS	>.05	.01	None	Specifi-
Metropolitan	X		X-	NS	>.05	.11	None	cation
By Family Structure:								
Intact	X		X+	NS	.30=	.10	None <sup>r</sup>	None
Broken	X		X-	NS	>.05	.14	None	
By Family Affection:								
Affectionate	X		X	NS	.70=	.05	None	None
Non-Affection	X		X	NS	>.05	.02	None	
By Commitments:								
One	X		X	NS	.64=	.01	None	
Two or Three	X		X-	NS	>.05	.14	None	Specifi-
Four or More	X		X-	NS	.42=	.07	None	cation

TABLE XL (CONTINUED)

Variable	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		Significance X <sup>2</sup> of Fisher's Exact P	Signifi- cance	Phi	Rela- tionship	Effect of Control Variable
	Favor- able	Unfavor- able	Favor- able	Unfavor- able					
Attitudes Toward Family Life	X			X	S	<.05	.14	None	
By Age:									
13-15	X			X	NS	>.05	.13	None	None
16-18	X			X	S	<.05	.16	Weak	
By Race:									
White	X			X	NS	>.05	.13	None	
Black	X			X	NS	>.05	.24	Weak	Specifi-
Indian	X			X	NS	>.05	.11	None	cation
By Residence:									
Rural	X			X	NS	.34=	.16	Weak	
Urban	X			X	NS	>.05	.19	Weak	None
Metropolitan	X			X	NS	>.05	.11	None	
By Family Structure:									
Intact:	X		X <sup>s</sup>		NS	>.05	.04	None	Specifi-
Broken	X			X	S	<.05	.18	Weak	cation
By Family Affection:									
Affectionate	X			X	S	<.05	.16	Weak	Specifi-
Non-Affection		X		X	NS	>.05	.03	None	cation
By Commitments:									
One	X <sub>d</sub>		X		NS	>.05	.13	None	
Two or Three	X <sub>d</sub>	X <sup>d</sup>		X	NS	>.05	.08	None	Specifi-
Four or More	X			X	NS	>.05	.24	Weak	cation

Perceived Likelihood of Reforming	X	X	NS	>.05	.05	None	
By Age:							
13-15	X	X	NS	>.05	.02	None	None
16-18	X	X	NS	>.05	.16	None	
By Race:							
White	X	X	NS	>.05	.01	None	
Black	X	X-	NS	.39=	.11	None	Specifi-
Indian	X	X-	NS	.11=	.27	Weak	cation
By Residence:							
Rural	X		S	.02=	.50	moderate	
Urban	X	X+	NS	>.05	.10	None <sup>r</sup>	Specifi-
Metropolitan	X	X	NS	>.05	.08	None	cation
By Family Structure:							
Intact	X	X-	NS	>.05	.14	None	Specifi-
Broken	X	X	NS	>.05	.01	None	cation
By Family Affection:							
Affectionate	X	X-	NS	>.05	.11	None	Some
Non-Affection	X	X+	NS	>.05	.15	Weak <sup>r</sup>	Effect
By Commitments:							
One	X	X-	NS	>.05	.16	Weak	
Two or Three	X	X	NS	>.05	.04	None <sup>r</sup>	Specifi-
Four or More	X	X	NS	>.05	.05	None	cation

\*X indicates responses of majority of males or females.  
 \*\*X- indicates females were less favorable or unfavorable  
 in their attitudes than males; X+ indicates females  
 were more favorable or unfavorable than males.  
 \*\*\*NS indicates no significance; S indicates significance.  
 = indicates Fisher's Exact P  
<sup>r</sup> indicates reversed direction

<sup>P</sup> indicates permissiveness rather than unfavor-  
 able attitudes.  
<sup>S</sup> indicates similarities in attitudes although  
 there is a tendency to respond more favor-  
 ably or unfavorably.  
<sup>d</sup> indicates a 50-50 division in attitudes.

view parental authority more favorably than males while family life was regarded by females much less favorably than males. This may indicate that black females desire a structured situation in which parental restrictions are required but, at the same time, experience greater difficulties than boys with the responsibilities and obligations connected with family life. This may be further complicated by a breakdown in parent-child communications between the black girl and her parents and her perception of a lack of parental understanding. Just what factor, or combination of factors, affect black females' attitudes toward family life, however, is not known. Relationships, with race held constant, also appeared for Indian delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority, the opposite sex and perceived likelihood of reforming.

Indian females, as compared with Indian males, were less likely to regard parental authority unfavorably, less likely to be sexually permissive and less likely to regard themselves as persons who would reform. The relationships between sex and attitudes regarding parental authority, sexual permissiveness and perceived likelihood of reforming were relatively weak. Conclusions drawn from this data should be regarded cautiously due to the relatively small number of Indians represented in the total sample, and the possibility that there may have been a linguistic problem encountered in connection with the questionnaire with which these attitudes were measured. Regarding perceptions of the likelihood of reforming, however, the fact that Indian females were much less likely than Indian males to respond positively, aside from any sub-cultural influence which might have been present, may have been a function of the rural types of backgrounds from which Indians frequently come. The process of stigmatization may operate for Indian females in much the same way as it appears



to occur for females in general. However, as was previously indicated, this possible conclusion could not be confirmed in the present study.

Relationships between sex and attitudes became clearer when they were analyzed controlling for place of residence. For rural delinquents relationships between sex and attitudes toward family life and perceptions of reforming became apparent. Rural females were less likely than rural males to view themselves as persons who would reform and less likely than males to regard family life favorably. For urban delinquents relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority and family life appeared, and the difference between males and females in their attitudes toward parental authority was significant. While urban males were more likely to regard parental authority unfavorably, urban females were more likely to view parental authority favorably. It should be noted that no relationship appeared between sex and attitudes toward parental authority for either the rural or metropolitan delinquents, and that rural and metropolitan females were more likely to be unfavorable in their attitudes than not. Why urban females were more likely to indicate favorable attitudes toward parental authority while rural and metropolitan females indicated unfavorable attitudes more often is not known. Regarding the relationship which appeared between sex and attitudes toward family life for urban delinquents, it should be noted that the change from the original relationship was slight and indicated that place of residence had no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life although urban females were less likely than urban males to regard family life favorably.

With family structure held constant relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority and family life became apparent for

delinquents from broken homes, and differences between males and females in their attitudes were significant. Females were less likely than males to view parental authority unfavorably and more likely to view family life unfavorably.

With family affection held constant relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority appeared for both the affectionate and the non-affectionate family groups. However, the changes from the original relationship were not substantial, and perceived family affection seemed to have no effect on the relationship between sex and attitudes toward parental authority for either group, although differences between males and females were significant for the affectionate family group with females indicating favorable attitudes toward parental authority more often and males indicating unfavorable attitudes more often. The relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life was specified with family affection held constant. A significant difference was indicated for males and females in their attitudes toward family life for the affectionate family group, and a weak relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life became apparent. Males tended to regard family life unfavorably more often. Although no relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life appeared for the non-affectionate group, it should be noted that delinquents, both male and female, from this group were much less likely than delinquents from affectionate homes to regard family life unfavorably. Thus, perceived non-affection may have serious consequences for both males and females regarding their relationships with their families. A weak relationship between sex and perceived likelihood of reforming was indicated for the non-affectionate family group with females being more likely than males to think of themselves as

persons who would reform. Perceived affection seemed to be of greater consequence for the male than for the female regarding their intention to reform in that females were relatively similar regarding reforming regardless of perceived family affection while males who perceived no affection from their families were much less likely than males who did to think of themselves as persons who would reform.

Considering the relationships between sex and attitudes with the number of commitments held constant revealed relationships between sex and attitudes toward parental authority and perceptions of reforming for those with one commitment. Females with one commitment were more likely than males to indicate favorable attitudes toward parental authority and were less likely than males to regard themselves as persons who would reform. For the four or more commitment group a relationship between sex and attitudes toward family life was indicated, with females being more likely to indicate unfavorable attitudes toward family life than males. It seemed that, in this case, as the number of commitments for females increased, their attitudes toward family life became less and less favorable, while no such pattern was apparent among males. This may be an indication of further breakdown in parent-child relations as the girl becomes more involved in difficulties with legal authority.

To further clarify the findings of this research, the information which has been discussed in this section was summarized in the following statements.

1. Age was found to be more importantly related to attitudes toward parental authority than sex. Older delinquents, ages 16-18 were more likely to regard parental authority unfavorably than younger delinquents, ages 13-15, regardless of sex.
2. Black females were more inclined to indicate favorable attitudes toward parental authority while white and Indian males and females tended to have unfavorable attitudes more often.

3. Of the residential groups urban females were the only group more likely to view parental authority favorably.
4. Females from broken homes were more likely to regard parental authority favorably while males from broken homes and males and females from intact homes were more likely to indicate unfavorable attitudes.
5. Females from affectionate homes were more likely to regard parental authority favorably while females from non-affectionate homes and males, regardless of perceived family affection, tended to indicate unfavorable attitudes toward parental authority more often.
6. Females with one commitment were more likely to view parental authority favorably while males with one commitment and males and females with more than one commitment tended to regard parental authority unfavorably.
7. Males and females tended to be relatively similar in terms of permissive attitudes toward relations with the opposite sex although males generally indicated permissiveness slightly more often than females.
8. Females were generally found to be less favorable than males in their attitudes toward family life.
9. Females with delinquent histories became progressively more unfavorable in their attitudes toward family life as the number of commitments they had experienced increased.
10. Rural females were much less likely than rural males or urban and metropolitan delinquents to regard themselves as persons who would be likely to reform.
11. Indian females were less likely than Indian males and white or black males and females to regard themselves as persons who would be likely to reform.
12. Females from non-affectionate homes were more likely than males from such homes to regard themselves as persons who would be likely to reform.
13. Females with one commitment were less likely to regard reforming positively than males with one commitment. When the number of commitments exceeded two, no relationships between sex and perceptions of reforming were indicated, although females with four or more commitments were slightly more likely than males in that group to regard reforming positively.
14. Perceived family affection seemed to have important consequences for both male and female delinquents in their attitudes toward parental authority and family life and seemed to affect males more than females in their perceptions regarding reforming.

15. Males tended to perceive family affection significantly more often than females.

### Recommendations

Further study into the area of male and female delinquency which takes into account and compensates for the limitations previously noted in this paper seems to be indicated. A broader, more extensive research instrument which includes a self-concept scale would help to reduce some of the difficulties encountered in this study particularly with regard to interpretations of some of the relationships which appeared between sex and attitudes. Moreover, efforts should be made to secure a more representative sample of the institutionalized delinquent population than the one that was used in this research to determine if delinquent populations in other State training schools are significantly different from the group of delinquents that were considered in this study.

A more thorough knowledge and understanding of male and female behavior seems to be needed in order to determine if sexually differentiated treatment programs are indeed needed in rehabilitation programs designed for delinquents. However, the findings of this study do seem to indicate that delinquent girls are in need of some form of family therapy since family life appeared to be an area of difficulty for them as compared with boys. The delinquent child should be treated within the context of his family, and treatment should focus on the entire family and the interrelations among family members in an effort to help the delinquent child identify and deal with his problems. Difficulties with family life seemed to be particularly apparent for females from rural areas, broken homes and those with more than one commitment. Both males and females from non-affectionate homes appeared to have rather serious

problems with family life as reflected by the unfavorableness of their attitudes. A program designed to reduce the estrangement between parents and children and to improve the communication process among family members might help to bring about more favorable attitudes.

Since rural females seemed to have the most difficulty in perception of themselves as persons who would be likely to reform, a program designed to help ease them back into their communities seems to be indicated. A resocialization process seems to be needed for both male and female delinquents especially in the case of those with more than one commitment.

Relocation of State training schools in metropolitan areas might be beneficial since metropolitan areas have a greater capacity for providing the facilities and services which are needed in effective rehabilitation programs. For example, programs which utilized volunteer workers could be arranged in conjunction with education programs in the local colleges and universities which could provide student volunteers to the institution. Efforts should be made to link the institution with community activities to help reduce the isolation of delinquents. This could possibly make the transition from institutional life back into community life easier for them. In addition, programs for training in skills commensurate with the needs, abilities and desires of institutionalized youth should be employed. The delinquent, himself, should be consulted regarding his desires for his future. If the training school were located in a metropolitan area the institutionalized delinquent would have a greater range of choices available to him regarding what he wanted to learn.

## REFERENCES

- Allen, Donald E. and Harjit S. Sandhu  
1967 "A Comparative Study of Delinquents and Non-Delinquents: Family Affect, Religion, and Personal Income." *Social Forces* 46 (1967): 263-269.
- Bardis, P. D.  
1962 "A Dating Scale: A Technique for the Quantitative Measurement of Liberalism Concerning Selected Aspects of Dating." *Social Science* 37 (1962): 44-47 in Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright (eds.), *Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Barker, G. H. and W. T. Adams.  
1962 "Comparison of the Delinquencies of Boys and Girls." *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science* 53 (1962): 470-475.
- Bronfenbrenner, Urie.  
1961 "The Changing American Child: A Speculative Analysis." *Journal of Social Issues* 17 (1961): 6-18
- Cavan, Ruth Shonle.  
1961 "The Concepts of Tolerance and Contraculture as Applied to Delinquency." *Sociological Quarterly* 2 (1961): 243-258.
- Clark, Shirley Merritt.  
1965 "Similarities in Components of Female and Male Delinquency: Implications for Sex-Role Theory." Pp. 217-227 in Walter C. Reckless and Charles L. Newman (eds.), *Interdisciplinary Problems of Criminology: Papers of the American Society of Criminology, 1964*. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.
- Cohen, A. K.  
1955 *Delinquent Boys*. Chicago: The Free Press of Glencoe, Illinois.
- Friedman, Alfred S.  
1969 "The Family and the Female Delinquent: An Overview." Pp. 113-125 in Otto Pollack and Alfred S. Friedman (eds.), *Family Dynamics and Female Sexual Delinquency*. Palo Alto, Calif.: Science and Behavior Books, Inc.
- Gibbons, Don C.  
1970 *Delinquent Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

- Guthrie, Robert V. and Christopher D. Martin.  
1972 Research Report to the Advisory Council Juvenile Delinquency Planning Project Memphis Metropolitan Area. Memphis and Shelby County Youth Guidance Commission.
- Haskell, Martin R. and Lewis Yablonsky.  
1970 Crime and Delinquency. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co.
- Kay, Barbara A. and Christine G. Schultz.  
1965 "Divergence of Attitudes Toward Constituted Authorities Between Male and Female Felony Inmates." Pp. 209-216 in Walter C. Reckless and Charles L. Newman (eds.), *Interdisciplinary Problems of Criminology: Papers of the American Society of Criminology*, 1964. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.
- Konopka, Gisela.  
1966 *The Adolescent Girl in Conflict*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Monahan, Thomas P.  
1957 "Family Status and the Delinquent Child: A Reappraisal and Some New Findings." *Social Forces* 35 (January): 250-258.
- Morris, Ruth R.  
1964 "Female Delinquency and Relational Problems." *Social Forces* 43 (1964): 82-89.  
  
1965 "Attitudes Toward Delinquency by Delinquents, Non-Delinquents and Their Friends." *British Journal of Criminology* 5 (1965): 249-265.
- Murphy, Fred J., Mary M. Shirley and Helen Witmer.  
1946 "The Incidence of Hidden Criminality." *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 16 (October): 686-696.
- Neumeyer, Martin H.  
1961 *Juvenile Delinquency in Modern Society*. 3rd ed. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc.
- Nunnally, Jum.  
1967 *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.
- Reckless, Walter C. and Mapheus Smith.  
1932 *Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.
- Reckless, Walter C.  
1967 *The Crime Problem*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Rundquist, E. A. and R. F. Sletto.  
1936 *Personality in the Depression*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press in Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright (eds.), *Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.



Schafer, Stephen and Richard D. Knudten.

1970 Juvenile Delinquency: An Introduction. New York: Random House.

✓ Slater, Eliot, Valerie Cowie and John Cowie.

1968 Delinquency in Girls. Humanities Press, Inc.

Spiegel, Don and Patricia Keith-Spiegel.

1973 "The Minor." Pp. 38-74 in Don Spiegel and Patricia Keith-Spiegel (eds.), Outsiders USA. San Francisco: Rinehart Press.

Stott, L. H.

1940 "Parental Attitudes of Farm, Town and City in Relation to Certain Personality Adjustments in Their Children." Journal of Social Psychology 11 (1940): 325-339 in Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright (eds.), Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.

Tardif, Guy.

1965 "The Preventive Role of the Police in Juvenile Delinquency." Pp. 97-100 in Walter C. Reckless and Charles L. Newman (eds.), Interdisciplinary Problems of Criminology: Papers of the American Society of Criminology, 1964. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.

---

1967 The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

Veldman, Donald J.

1967 Fortran Programming for the Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

✓ Winslow, Robert W.

1968 Juvenile Delinquency in a Free Society: Selections from the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Belmont, Calif.: Dickenson Publishing Co., Inc.

---

1971 Youth in Trouble: A Shared Concern. A Report by the Oklahoma Council on Juvenile Delinquency Planning.

APPENDIX A

TABLES PRESENTING DELINQUENTS' RESPONSES  
TO THE OPEN-ENDED RESPONSE QUESTIONS

TABLE XLI

## DELINQUENTS' RESPONSES REGARDING THEIR PRIORITIES IN LIFE

Type of Response	Males	Females
Conventional	110 (86)*	111 (93)
Non-Conventional	<u>18</u> (14)	<u>9</u> ( 7)
Total	128	120

$\chi^2 = 2.81$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .11$ ;  $N = 248$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE XLII

## DELINQUENTS' RESPONSES REGARDING THEIR INTERESTS IN LIFE

Type of Response	Males	Females
Conventional	112 (88)*	112 (92)
Non-Conventional	<u>16</u> (12)	<u>10</u> ( 8)
Total	128	122

$\chi^2 = 1.29$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .08$ ;  $N = 250$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE XLIII  
DELINQUENTS' RESPONSES REGARDING THEIR GOALS FOR HAPPINESS

Type of Response	Males	Females
Conventional	108 (87)*	111 (92)
Non-Conventional	<u>16</u> (13)	<u>10</u> ( 8)
Total	124	121

$\chi^2 = 1.44$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .08$ ;  $N = 245$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE XLIV  
DELINQUENTS' PLANS TO ACHIEVE THEIR PRIORITIES,  
INTERESTS AND HAPPINESS

Type of Response	Males	Females
Conventional	113 (90)*	113 (93)
Non-Conventional	<u>13</u> (10)	<u>8</u> ( 7)
Total	126	121

$\chi^2 = 1.15$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .07$ ;  $N = 247$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

TABLE XLV

DELINQUENTS' RESPONSES REGARDING WHAT THEY HAD LEARNED FROM  
THE TRAINING SCHOOL IN WHICH THEY WERE CONFINED

Type of Response	Males	Females
Conventional	87 (69)*	84 (68)
Non-Conventional	<u>40</u> (31)	<u>40</u> (32)
Total	127	124

$\chi^2 = .03$ ;  $p > .05$ ;  $\Phi = .01$ ;  $N = 251$

\*The number in parentheses is the percentage.

## APPENDIX B

### THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Your cooperation in answering the following questions is requested. Please answer all questions. Feel free to express your true feelings. Be frank. We will not talk about your personal responses to anyone. This research, when completed, will help us design better programs for the students.

Indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by circling the appropriate letter according to the following code:

A — Strongly Agree

a — Agree

? — Undecided

d — Disagree

D — Strongly Disagree

1. Young people should be trained to recognize the authority of their parents.

A a ? d D

2. Young people should be allowed to use their leisure time as they please.

A a ? d D

3. If you don't listen to your parents, you get into trouble.

A a ? d D

4. Parents should allow their children of high school age to stay out at night as late as they wish.

A a ? d D

5. Parents today are allowing their children too much freedom.

A a ? d D

6. Girls should be allowed to choose their dating partners freely and independently.

A a ? d D

7. Girls and Boys of 13 and 14 should be allowed to go steady if they wish.

A a ? d D

8. It is not important to remain pure until marriage.

A a ? d D

9. One ought to discuss important plans with members of the family.

A a ? d D

10. One cannot find as much understanding at home as elsewhere.

A a ? d D

11. A person should be willing to sacrifice anything for his family.

A a ? d D

12. Obligations to one's family are a great handicap to a young person today.

A a ? d D

13. One's parents usually treat him fairly and sensibly.

A a ? d D

14. So far as ideas are concerned, parents and children live in different worlds.

A a ? d D

15. At the present time do you think of yourself as someone who will straighten out?

A a ? d D

What are your priorities in life? What are your interests in life? What will make you happy in life?

First, \_\_\_\_\_

Second, \_\_\_\_\_

Third, \_\_\_\_\_

What do you plan to do, after going out, to obtain these ambitions?

First, \_\_\_\_\_

Second, \_\_\_\_\_



What do you expect to learn from this institution?

First, \_\_\_\_\_

Second, \_\_\_\_\_

Please write your name here \_\_\_\_\_

DEMOGRAPHIC

Age

Race

Grade

Residence

FAMILY

Structure (intact or not)

Functioning (do you feel your family cares about you?)

Parents occupation

Other sources of family income

Number of commitments

Other institutions

Probation disposition (how many times?)

Period of stay at this institution

VITA

Carol Loftin Peek

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES OF MALE AND FEMALE  
DELINQUENTS TOWARD PARENTAL AUTHORITY, OPPOSITE SEX,  
FAMILY LIFE AND REFORMING

Major Field: Sociology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Alvin, Texas, February 26, 1940, the  
daughter of Mr. and Mrs. E. W. Loftin. Married, August,  
1966, to William A. Peek, Jr., Ada, Oklahoma.

Education: Graduated from Rush Springs High School, Rush  
Springs, Oklahoma, in May, 1958; enrolled at Oklahoma  
College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma, 1958-1960;  
enrolled at East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma,  
1960-1961; enrolled at Eastern Oklahoma A & M, Wilbur-  
ton, Oklahoma, 1962-1963; received Bachelor of Arts  
degree from East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma,  
May, 1968; enrolled in master's program at the Univer-  
sity of Oklahoma, summer, 1968; enrolled in master's  
program at Oklahoma State University, 1969-1973; com-  
pleted requirements for Master of Science degree at  
Oklahoma State University in December, 1973.

Professional Experience: Instructor, Department of Sociology,  
East Central State College, 1968-1971; graduate teaching  
assistant, Department of Sociology, Oklahoma State Uni-  
versity, 1972-1973.