

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DIFFERENTIALS AND
SIMILARITIES BETWEEN RURAL AND
URBAN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY
RECIDIVISM

By

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PREFACE

This study is concerned with the degree of recidivism among juvenile delinquents who have been released from juvenile correctional training schools. The study focuses especially on rates of recidivism among juvenile delinquents from urban areas as compared to juvenile delinquents from rural areas. The study seeks to identify those factors which speak to the properties which are similar to, as well as those which differentiate between, the two populations.

The subjects are 172 youths, male and female, blacks, whites, and Indians of varied socio-economic backgrounds from rural and urban communities in the state of Oklahoma. These children have been adjudicated delinquent and committed to a state training school at least once by an Oklahoma court of proper jurisdiction. Certain factors were selected to be utilized as key variables as a basis upon which the two populations might be compared. While the results of this study are limited to the subjects considered, these results may be useful in future efforts in planning programs of treatment of juvenile delinquency recidivism.

I would like to take this opportunity to express my sincere appreciation to the members of my committee for their assistance and encouragement in the preparation of this dissertation. Their genuine interest was demonstrated repeatedly, not only in the preparation of the dissertation, but also in my total program of study.

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CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of recidivism among urban and rural juvenile delinquents. The juvenile delinquents considered are those persons who have been released from juvenile correctional institutions on after-care (juvenile parole) or on direct release. The primary focus of the study is on the comparative nature of recidivism between juvenile delinquents from urban areas and juvenile delinquents from rural areas.

This study is exploratory in nature and the information used is taken from case records of the Oklahoma State Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services for the years 1964 through 1972 of children* who have been adjudicated delinquent by a court of proper jurisdiction, committed to a training school at least one time, and returned to the community. The records are divided into four groups as follows: Group I, Recidivists as compared to Non-Recidivists; Group II, Urban Recidivists and Urban Non-Recidivists as compared to Rural Recidivists and Rural Non-Recidivists; Group III, Urban Black Delinquency and Rural

*The term child or children is used here as it is used in the legal definition of a juvenile delinquent in the Oklahoma Children's Code 1969, sec. 1101, art I, para b.

Black Delinquency as compared to Urban White Delinquency and Rural White Delinquency; and Group IV, Black Recidivists and Black Non-Recidivists as compared to White Recidivists and White Non-Recidivists.

Significance of the Problem

There is a dearth of literature in the sociology of rural delinquency and recidivism. Recidivism and delinquency have received considerable attention; however, the urban bias of the literature is overwhelming. Lentz (1956, p. 331) points this out as follows in his considerations on the subject of rural urban differentials:

Despite these attempts to explain rural-urban differences there has been little or no application of this knowledge in the field of delinquency. Research which has been mainly urban in character has produced nearly all current sociological explanations of juvenile delinquency. Attention has been focused primarily upon the importance of gangs, delinquency areas, differential association, and the criminal culture as a result of many urban studies. While some studies have mixed rural-urban samples, the findings have not always been clearly labeled as applying to such groups. The impression is gained that the findings apply to all delinquents.

In pointing out the peculiarities of some of these rural-urban differentials Lentz (1956, p. 331) suggests the following:

Although rural and urban boys were guilty of having sexual intercourse with teenagers both groups also committed offenses which were exclusively theirs; some urban boys frequented houses of prostitution and held "gang shags" while some of the rural boys raped or attempted to rape small girls; others were guilty of indecent exposure, or committed sodomy with animals.

A further indication of the urban bias in research and literature seems to be reflected in a recent survey report (Oklahoma Council on Juvenile Delinquency, 1970-71, p. 226) made in Oklahoma. The following observations are made:

In general, urban areas reflected a treatment oriented-approach toward the delinquency problem, with specialized personnel, facilities and programs being recommended. Rural areas, on the other hand, reflected a recreation and job orientation toward solving problems of juvenile delinquency.

There are several possible reasons for these differences. First, the incidence of delinquency is much higher in urban areas. Second, there is more of a delinquent subculture in urban areas which reinforces delinquent behavior and counteracts the influence of prevailing social norms, the influence of nondelinquent peer groups, and the influence of adult authority. And third, in large urban areas there are fewer close relationships between youths and adults in roles of authority or guidance. Thus, with more delinquents, more isolation of the delinquent subculture from the larger society, and more alienation of delinquent youths from adults who function as models, it is understandable that there are pressures to see juvenile delinquency as a special problem requiring separate, specialized, treatment-oriented personnel, facilities, and programs for its solution.

Rural and rural and semi-rural areas on the other hand, have a much lower incidence of delinquency. Delinquency subcultures are virtually non-existent in most rural areas. And there is much more close, informal contact between youths and responsible adults in small communities. Consequently, there is no great pressure to maintain special programs and personnel for coping with delinquent behavior.

While this bias and the attitude that there is not a delinquent subculture in rural areas is, as shown above, quite prevalent, Empey and Rabow (1966, p. 679) appear to offer evidence to the contrary as follows:

Despite the fact that Utah County is not a highly urbanized area, when compared to a large metropolitan center, the concept of a 'parent' delinquent subculture has real meaning for it. While there are no clear cut gangs per se, it is surprising to observe the extent to which the boys from the entire county who have never met, know each other by reputation, go with the same girls, use the same language, or can seek each other out when they change high schools. About half of them are permanently out of school, do not participate in any regular institutional activities, and are reliant almost entirely upon the delinquent system for social acceptance and participation.

Some sociological literature, however, would tend to suggest significant differences in an urban-rural comparison as in other socio-demographic comparisons. For example, Lentz (1956) observes that rural boys prefer to steal from relatives while urban boys steal from strangers. Companionship theories and association theories have not documented to Lentz' satisfaction such geographically identified behavior. Although Lentz does not purport to offer a theory as Cavan (1969) or Haskell and Yablonsky (1970) do, his specification of a typical delinquency problem (theft) suggests that the nature of juvenile delinquency may be quite different in rural and urban areas. Hence, a greater specificity on theory would be needed to explain rural delinquency. From other quarters the attitude is still prevalent that problems of delinquency are negligible in rural areas to the extent that no specialized efforts are needed to combat them. A recent report (Oklahoma Council on Juvenile Delinquency Planning, 1970-71, p. 226) on statewide juvenile delinquency in Oklahoma relates the following:

. . . the emphasis in rural areas upon recreation and jobs would seem to be applicable not only to delinquents but to all children and youth in a community. One conclusion might be that the tendency in rural and semi-rural areas is to 'treat' the delinquent youth within the context of the total community without isolation of the offender and without specialized approaches.

Here again is what appears to be evidence of urban bias in research attitudes concerning the urban-rural differential on delinquency. However, perhaps the final and most important purpose of this study may be attained if empirical evidence differs substantially from theories and observations reflecting urban bias. If the findings of this preliminary study warrant it, research attention may be focused more intensely upon the problems of rural delinquency and thus aid in the

development of specialized programs to combat delinquency problems which may be peculiar to rural areas.

The previous observations indicate that this study may achieve added significance by offering empirical evidence that there is a lack of proper treatment modes for rural delinquency.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter I gives a statement of the problem and the focus of the study. This is accomplished through a discussion of the purpose and significance of the study.

Chapter II offers a review of the literature pertinent to the study. The literature review is divided into four parts consisting of the following areas: (1) Recidivists as compared to Non-Recidivists, (2) Urban Recidivists and Urban Non-Recidivists as compared to Rural Recidivists and Rural Non-Recidivists, (3) Urban Black Delinquents and Urban White Delinquents as compared to Rural Black Delinquents and Rural White Delinquents, (4) Black Recidivists and Black Non-Recidivists as compared to White Recidivists and White Non-Recidivists.

Chapter III, Study Design and Methodology, deals with four areas of the study which include: (1) specification of variables through a descriptive discussion of the nature of the variables, (2) sample and data collection which discusses how the sample was drawn and how the data were collected for the study, (3) statistical analysis of the data which deals with analyzing the data and discussion of findings, and (4) limitations of the study.

Chapter IV entails a discussion of the findings on the differentials of urban and rural recidivism, black and white recidivism, and urban-rural black and white delinquency. The final chapter is a summary statement of the study which deals with significant findings, conclusions, and recommendations. An attempt is made, utilizing information collected, to illustrate a degree of continuity among the several chapters.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In keeping with the purpose of this study, an exploratory approach was used to investigate and identify rural-urban differentials in juvenile delinquency recidivism. The objective of the present chapter is to survey the related literature with the intention of bringing into focus earlier research efforts which were established as being related to problems investigated in this study.

We find, however, that there is very little material written about recidivism. This is true of literature concerning the adult offender who is a recidivist, and is apparently true, but to a greater degree, of the literature on the juvenile offender who is a recidivist. Although there is a lack of literature, this has not meant that authorities in the field of corrections have not been aware of the problem; on the contrary, there has been a variety of approaches and attempts to offer more understanding of the problem. The various approaches seem to fall primarily into four problem areas.

The first problem area is that of defining recidivism. Norman Vaughn (1964) points up this problem. He feels that because there is a vagueness about the concept of recidivism, it is extremely difficult to reach a consensus as to what is to be studied. This need for definitional consensus is pointed up by recent research (e.g., Mandel et al.,

1969). This research points out that meaningful studies of comparative recidivism must await a definition of what constitutes recidivism. In carrying the problem of definition of recidivism further, some authorities define the concept simply as an individual persistently engaging in crimes (Mannering, 1958). Others would question strongly any definition of the concept that did not pin point a specific time in a career of crime or delinquency. For example, they ask if the individual should be labeled recidivistic after his second arrest, his second appearance in a court of law, or his second commitment to an institution (Rector, 1958). The literature thus presents the need for a relatively unified definition for the concept of recidivism.

The second approach or problem area identified in the literature focuses on the characteristics of the recidivist. John Mannering, for example, points out that "criminological literature is replete with descriptions of the personality and background characteristics of recidivists and hypotheses as to why they persist in crime" (1958, p. 211). He feels that sociological correlates should be examined along with any significant relationships between recidivism and such variables as age, frequency of offense, nature of offense, sex, race, and education. Thorsten Sellin (1958) studies the recidivist's characteristics from the point of view of the offender's level of maturity, both chronologically and emotionally. This latter work also includes studies made on individuals in Austria who displayed recidivistic tendencies. Sellin was thus able to provide a comparative study of recidivism in the American and European cultures. There is a suggestion in this phase of the literature that the most prominent characteristic of the recidivist might be

immaturity. Other authorities build on the immaturity theme and portray the recidivist as being compulsive, unstable, and moody (Kaskoff, 1968).

The problem of "causality" identifies a third major concern in recidivism literature. That is, various explanations attempt to determine the etiology of recidivism. Parental deprivation, separation from family and other "primary group" members is one of the most frequently cited causality theories according to Alan Little (1965). Other writers point out the ease with which one can oversimplify a theory such as causality (Bowlby and Andry, 1946-1962). However, it is still felt that family relations, socialization experiences, and discontinuities in the life cycle are pertinent in any efforts to explain factors which may be related to recidivism. Others look at significant "alters" rather than "ego" as the focal point. For example, some literature suggests that a factor related to the encouragement of recidivism is the initial and cursory attitude that is often taken by agency officials with first offenders (Turnbladh, 1958). The nature of this first encounter is regarded as crucial by many perceptive judges, clinicians, probation and parole officers, institutional counselors, juvenile police officers, parole board members, and administrators of correctional agencies. Many corrections professionals think that anything less than meaningful communication with a first offender may relate to the problem of recidivism.

A final category of emphasis in the literature is on methods of measuring the extent of recidivism among both adults and juveniles. Some authorities, Sol Rubin (1958) particularly, have expressed the feeling that since crime and delinquency are products of the total social existence and therefore difficult to prevent, recidivism should be within administrative control of the service agency or authority because the

problem of recidivism is the hub of the whole treatment machinery. Rubin explains further that treatment techniques such as probation, imprisonment, and parole would be considered successful if no offender who had been treated under this definition recidivated. Another authority expresses the feeling that if we would measure the rate of recidivism comparatively, between persons placed on probation and those returning before courts for committing multiple offenses, we would find that, statistically, the rate of recidivism would not be sufficiently high to warrant a feeling of danger. Consequently, expanded probation would be preferred as a prime method of treatment for recidivism in which both society and the individual would be helped (Bates, 1958). Milton G. Rector (1958, p. 219) disagrees with Bates in that Rector feels that there is already too much "juggling" of statistics at all levels of government for records to be accurate. He expresses the feeling that there is a great exaggeration of success in reports of treatment of offenders because there has not been any real effort put forth to develop accurate or honest means of measurement. As an example of this he says: "By relating probation success to the size of the probation officer's work load and reporting ten percent recidivism, the Rome, Georgia, juvenile court leads the reader to assume the case loads were too ideal."

Again Rector (1958, p. 219) points out the fallacy of inaccurate and perhaps even dishonest methods of measuring recidivism: "The Honolulu juvenile court measures its success over a ten year period by the dramatic reduction in training school population." Rector feels that this type of measuring and reporting does a disservice by keeping from responsible public officials such as legislators the true story of crime and delinquency and its needs.

Other writers such as William Lentz (1956) call attention to the fact that measurements of rates of delinquency and recidivism for juveniles should always reflect a clear differential between rural and urban populations because the preponderant number of urban studies does not reflect a true picture of rural crime and delinquency. Mandel and his associates (1965, p. 66) make the point that regardless of the research there is a great need for careful design for accurate measurement in trying to understand recidivism:

Only through carefully planned research design and exhaustive inquiry will researchers be able to identify and measure those variables which can shed light on the etiology and subsequent understanding of the phenomenon of recidivism.

In related literature, Paul R. Miller (1967) identifies a multiple system theory of delinquency in an effort to illuminate the subject. For Miller, the problem of developing an adequate theory for juvenile delinquency is that there are too many separate ideas and too few unifying concepts. Concerning juvenile recidivist rates, he agrees with Rector and others that methods of measuring rates are grossly inadequate and reflect the failure of prevention and treatment methods. His basic concept, however, is summed up in his feeling that until we can devise an adequate theory to explain why we have delinquency, failure in prevention and treatment reflected in the high rate of recidivism will continue.

The review of literature on juvenile recidivism has pinpointed four major gaps in our present understanding: the definitional problem, the ambiguity of various attempts to identify characteristics of the recidivist, the parameters of the etiological and causality problem, and finally the criteria of measurement.

Literature is scant which is more directly concerned with the variables of this study as they relate to differentials of recidivism as compared to non-recidivism, rural as compared to urban, and black as compared to white. Some writers, however, do investigate these variables in studies on the general theme of juvenile delinquency.

In a comparison of recidivism and non-recidivism, Maude Craig and Laila Budd (1967) investigate the dimensions of delinquency, recidivism and companions. They analyzed the records of 102 boys and find that the boys had committed 276 offenses which were reported to the police. Their findings show that property theft is the most serious and most prevalent among these offenses, and is most often committed by recidivists over 13 years old who have companions with them while performing the offense. Conversely, the less serious offenses are more frequently committed by boys under fourteen who are not recidivists. From these findings it is concluded that any preventive treatment or managerial problem must be guided by knowledge of the differential character of the two types of juveniles. Daniel Glaser (1964), in commenting on the age differential of juvenile recidivists, supports the contention of the Craig and Budd study in speaking of institutional placement for delinquents. His contention is that while only the worst risks among juveniles are committed to institutions, higher recidivism rates may be expected for juveniles than for adult offenders. The reason for this is that the earlier the age at which an individual is first committed for criminal behavior, the more likely is he to continue in that behavior.

In the area of rural-urban differentials, William P. Lentz (1956) calls attention to the fact that very few studies initiated in the last few decades have analyzed factors involved in rural delinquency. He

points out that more recent literature on many rural counties found welfare facilities for children to be lacking. He calls attention to this in the following quotation:

Some counties are so poor and their tax base so overburdened that they have been unable to develop anything comparable to the social services found in cities. Child guidance clinics, group work agencies and frequently probation services may not be found within the system of rural social welfare.

Lack of rural welfare facilities means more than merely failure to provide certain services; it also means differential handling of rural delinquents. . . . A recent study in Wisconsin confirms the fact that differential handling does take place. Juvenile courts were classified as to whether they provided broad or limited services. Those providing limited services committed, upon their first appearance, a higher percentage of boys to a correctional school. This was particularly true for non-property offenses, juvenile behavior problems, and violations. Courts with limited services were more frequently found in non-urban areas and such courts committed proportionately more boys to correctional schools regardless of the ages of the offenders. . . . The rural boy who committed a rather simple, appeared in court once or twice, was usually not granted probation, and was then summarily committed to a correctional institution. The administrators of such an institution were then faced with the problem of providing treatment for such a boy as well as for the relatively crime-wise boys who had also been committed to their care. These problems might well have been avoided if treatment services had been offered earlier. (Lentz, 1970, p. 198).

Lentz also points to another important consideration that becomes apparent in the rural-urban differential; and that is the tendency for a child's family to be identified as being deviant, thus causing the differential handling of the child. Lentz (1970, p. 332) observes the following:

There was also evidence that the rural boy was more likely to come from a family which was known for serious deviant behavior. This is in one sense a reflection of the reputation of the family since the rural family which was noted for serious-deviant behavior was usually under surveillance.

The latter quote from Lentz is akin to observations made by Hermann Mannheim (1967, p. 596). Mannheim observes that poor "country" people have their "conduct attended to" by others and may be obliged to "attend to it [themselves]."

Other literature appears to espouse the traditional attitudes about rural delinquency and how it is handled. Clinard (1969), for instance, observes that most rural delinquency is still handled informally. In a recent report of a statewide survey done in Oklahoma observations were made much along the lines of those cited by Clinard in that there was the feeling that there was not a great need for specialized services because the problem of delinquency was negligible in rural areas (Oklahoma Council on Juvenile Delinquency Planning, 1970-1971). The Oklahoma Council, as referred to earlier in this study, described similar findings on rural delinquency needs.

Literature making observations on rural needs in the state of Montana, which is itself predominantly rural, sees the situation in much the same light as does Lentz, thus moving away from traditional attitudes on problems of delinquency in the rural community. Hence a proposal by the state of Montana (Colorado Bureau of Sociological Research, Document No. 34, 1971, p. 19), which later became a national model for rural America, saw its delinquency problems in the following light:

The problems of youth in rural Montana are caused by many more factors than just the under development of this geographic area. The problems seem to be a result of many deficiencies and imbalances in the accessibility of socially acceptable channels for the young to become first class citizens and integrated human beings. In many cases their frustrations and consequent behavior are the result of 'push' factors. The existing institutional practices tend to 'push' the youngsters out of the communities and/or into socially undesirable roles which label them as trouble makers and block alternative routes which are socially acceptable and desirable.

Alternative routes may be developed by changing locally identified critical institutions, such as education, juvenile justice, health, and social rehabilitation services. For example, education in most rural areas provides only for a smoother out-migration or 'pushout' for the young people. It doesn't seem to do much to help better the quality of life, public or private, in the rural area itself.

Finally, whatever a person's income in rural areas, the quality of life is affected by the fact that there are few and poor services and dynamically conservative institutions. The quality of services is not a matter of individual choice. If the community is not able to offer a good school, health facilities, welfare services, and an adequate juvenile justice system, the members of the community cannot utilize them.

The above quote indicates that problems of delinquency are a reality factor and children who are delinquents or predelinquents should have specialized services made available to them.

Services would be difficult to offer in a rural county with a low tax base. One writer points out the low income level of a typical rural Oklahoma county (Taylor, 1967). As late as 1967 Okfuskee county in Oklahoma showed that the median family income was \$2,396, which was about one half that of the state as a whole. A rural area with this type of tax base would have difficulty offering adequate services to children who are delinquents or predelinquents. Although past literature has overwhelmingly presented an attitude that rural problems of delinquency are negligible, in more recent writings researchers are attempting to deal with the fact that there are problems of delinquency in rural areas. This is seen in the fact that more recent literature is suggesting specialized services.

Other literature related to the rural-urban continuum is that of the black delinquent as compared to the white delinquent. In recent years much has been written concerning racial difficulties in our society but little on racial difficulties in the area of delinquency until very

recently. Recent literature on minority groups in Oklahoma has called attention to the fact that minority groups comprise 11.1 percent of Oklahoma's population. However, in this state's training schools they make up 30 percent of the population. In other juvenile institutions across the nation they make up 33 percent. For the year 1970 all youths who were adjudicated delinquent or in need of supervision, 31.3 percent were from minority groups with a majority of that percentage being black (Oklahoma Council of Juvenile Delinquency Planning, 1971-1972). In related literature from the adult perspective, it is pointed out that much of the fuel behind the friction in adult prisons is the widening racial gap between the keepers and the kept (Newsweek, September 21, 1971). Attention is called to the fact that while white prison populations generally have decreased in the last ten years, the proportion of non-whites has risen sharply. At Attica State Prison in New York, for example, 85 percent of the inmates were black or Puerto Rican. A similar situation exists at Soledad in California, Raiford in Florida, and the Maryland Correctional Institution in Hagerstown, Maryland. Apparently then the writings in the Oklahoma report have merit in pointing out the need to look into the problems of delinquency among minority youth. It is this writer's feeling that many of the adult problems may be solved by preventing the delinquents in these minority groups from becoming a part of the juvenile justice system. In speaking of the racial differential, Haskell and Yablonsky (1970) express the belief that many black youngsters who are apprehended and processed in the juvenile justice system are fighting for liberation rather than being confirmed delinquents. James E. Starrs (1967) relates that many blacks who come before the juvenile courts, especially in the South, find

that the courts are used as an arm to maintain a segregated, discriminatory social system. Other writers such as Lemert (1951) have pointed out that "members of minority groups, migrants, and persons with limited economic means are often the salient objectives, if not the scapegoats, of frustrated police in our local communities." Other writers, in looking at the attitude of public agencies, call attention to the observation that official agencies take a more punitive attitude toward misbehavior by youths from lower classes than toward upper class youths for the same behavior (Glaser, 1964).

Clyde Vedder (1970, p. 251), writing on this same perspective, relates the following:

As in adult delinquency, members of minority groups of juveniles suffer. The problem of delinquency before 1930 was the native born child of foreign parents. . . . but the new migrants are Negro, Puerto Rican, and Mexican. Negro rates have risen, as they contribute 18 percent of the total delinquency or almost twice the number of their incidence in the general population would indicate.

Several writers support Vedder's position. Richard Quinney (1970, p. 129) states:

Negroes are arrested between three and four times as frequently as whites. Although they compose about one-tenth of the population in the United States, they account for nearly a third of arrests for all offenses. Similarly, drawing from judicial and prison statistics, Negroes have higher rates of conviction and imprisonment than whites. Hence the status of being a Negro, in comparison to being white involves a much greater risk of being arrested, convicted, and imprisoned. The probability of being defined as a criminal thus varies according to one's location in the racial structure.

From the above writings it can be concluded that a review of the literature pertaining to racial background in relation to juvenile delinquency reveals a variety of factors relating to focusing on the

need of more equitable services for minority groups as well as rural-urban differentials in juvenile delinquency recidivism.

Summary

The literature review on juvenile delinquency recidivism has pinpointed several major gaps in present understandings. The review was divided into two sections. Section one dealt with (1) definitional problems of the term, (2) the ambiguity of various attempts to identify characteristics of the recidivists, (3) the parameters of the etiological and causality problem and (4) the criteria of measurement of recidivism. Section two dealt with the additional areas of (1) recidivism as compared to non-recidivism, (2) the rural-urban continuum or differential and (3) the black-white differential or the relationship of racial background to delinquency and recidivism. This portion of the study attempts to bring together various sociological literature, concepts, and approaches which might help to identify the differentials in juvenile delinquency recidivism.

CHAPTER III

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In keeping with the purpose of this study an exploratory approach is being used in seeking to identify similarities and differences between urban and rural juvenile delinquency recidivism. The results of this study will help to determine if recommendations for specialized treatment and services are justified in a program of delinquency prevention in rural communities. The study is concerned with the degree of recidivism among juvenile delinquents from rural and urban areas who have been released from juvenile correctional institutions. Data for this empirical study were collected from institutional case records located in the Oklahoma State office of the Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services.

This chapter contains a description of the sample population and identification of appropriate instruments to define the variables involved. Also, the methods of data collection and statistical treatment used are discussed.

Definition of Terms

There are certain key terms and concepts used in this study. A list of operational definitions of the several terms and concepts are presented below.

Recidivism

There are many definitions of recidivism, which often causes difficulty because of a lack of uniformity (Mandel et al., 1965). However, careful examination of the literature leads one to note that there tends to be a greater consensus toward the definition offered by Sol Rubin (1958, p. 233) that "A recidivist is a person who, having been convicted and subject to correctional treatment, again commits a crime." Based on the above definition, an operational definition of recidivism for this study is as follows: A child who has been adjudicated a delinquent by a court of proper jurisdiction, committed to a juvenile correctional institution and after release on parole or release without qualification again commits a delinquent act for which he may subsequently be recommitted.

Juvenile Delinquent

Juvenile delinquency, according to Haskell and Yablonsky, is a concept difficult to define, especially since it is based on behavior that would be applicable to persons in any state or city of the United States. However, one definition is clear: "A youth is defined a juvenile delinquent when that status is conferred upon him by a court" (Haskell and Yablonsky, 1970, p. 255). For this study a delinquent child, a juvenile delinquent child, or a juvenile delinquent will be defined according to Oklahoma law (Oklahoma Children's Code, 1969). Section 1101, Article I, paragraph b, of that code defines a delinquent child as follows:

- (1) Any child who has violated a Federal or State law or municipal ordinance or any lawful order of the court made under

this Act; or (2) A child who has habitually violated traffic laws or ordinances.

Urban Area

Urban refers to urbanism as a way of life. It is often characterized by extensive conflicts of norms and values, by rapid social change, by increased mobility of population, by emphasis on material goods and individualism, and by marked decline in intimate communication. Prior to the 1960 census, the term urban was applied to areas with 2,500 or more population (Fairchild, 1966). Since the 1960 census, however, because of rapid growth in population, an urban area is a city of 50,000 or more persons, and includes contiguous areas which are not part of the city (Clinard, 1969). In this study the term urban area will refer to communities with a population of 75,000 or more.

Training School

A juvenile training school is normally part of a system separate from other state and local juvenile correctional services. The role of the training school is to provide a specialized program for children who must be held to be treated. Accordingly, such facilities should normally house more hardened or unstable youngsters than should be placed, for example, under probation supervision (Winslow and Dickenson, 1969).

Juvenile Aftercare

Juvenile aftercare is defined as the release of a child from an institution at the time when he can best benefit from release and from life in the community under the supervision of a counselor. Use of the term "aftercare" rather than "parole," though not yet fully accepted

even within the field of juvenile correction, has been encouraged by persons interested in social service in order to separate juvenile programs from legalistic language and concepts of adult parole (Winslow and Dickenson, 1969). For this study the terms aftercare and juvenile parole will be used interchangeably.

Rural

Some authorities have noted that the term rural can no longer be identified by the physical boundaries or population size of a community. Many communities with small physical boundaries may have a high population density. Communities of small populations may be contiguous to large urban centers (100,000 or more) and may be urbanized though they are separate entities as defined by boundaries such as town or city limits (Clinard, 1969). Therefore the definition of rural in this study will coincide with Lentz' definition (1956). A rural area will be defined as a small town, village or farm community of less than 50,000 population not contiguous to an urban center.

Commitment (Institutional)

Commitment refers to a warrant or order by which a court or magistrate directs an administrative officer to take a person to some type of custodial institution, a prison or reformatory, a mental hospital, a correctional institution for juveniles, or a training school for defectives (Fairchild, 1966).

Social Class

Fairchild (1966) defines social class as a totality of persons having one or more common characteristics; a homogeneous unit within a population. For purposes of this study socio-economic status will be defined on the basis of W. Lloyd Warner's classifications (Warner et al., 1963). Warner designates the classes as upper class, middle class, and lower class, with each designation divided into an upper and lower strata.

The Sample

The subjects of this study are 172 youths, male and female, blacks, whites, and Indians, and from rural and urban communities, who have been committed to a state training school at least one time by a court of proper jurisdiction in the state of Oklahoma. The case records used were furnished by the Oklahoma State Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services. This is the parent agency of all state training schools in Oklahoma and it holds the complete records of all children who have been adjudicated delinquent in Oklahoma and subsequently committed to a training school in the last ten years. The records examined were those of youths released from the following four schools: The State Training School for Boys at Boley, Oklahoma, which was until 1964 an institution for black male students; the State Training School for Boys at Helena, Oklahoma, which was formerly an institution for white males; the State Training School for Girls at Tecumseh, Oklahoma, whose student body was formerly white; and the State Training School for Negro Girls at Taft, Oklahoma. The school at Taft was discontinued as a training school in 1969 and used as a diagnostic center for delinquent children. Identification of these institutions seems important in that

the method of operation, composition of treatment staff, and geographical location may reflect some light on the relationship between the institution to which the individual was committed and the degree and continuance of delinquency. Perhaps a note of clarification is in order as to the Indian children who are committed to these institutions. Indian children in all cases were identified as "white" for classification purposes until the latter part of the 1960's.

The subjects of this study were separated into four groups: (1) Recidivist - Non-Recidivist, (2) Urban Recidivist - Rural Recidivist as compared to Urban Non-Recidivist - Rural Non-Recidivist, (3) Urban Black Delinquents as compared to Rural Black Delinquents, (4) Black Recidivists and White Recidivists as compared to Black Non-Recidivists and White Non-Recidivists.

Method of Random Selection

A systematic sample of 500 case records of delinquent children was selected by the researcher from the institutional record files of the Oklahoma State Department of Institutions and Rehabilitation Services Offices. These records are the master files of each child committed to the four state juvenile correctional institutions and are kept in the offices of the Division of State Homes and Schools. The researcher was given special permission by the Department Director to use whatever records were necessary and available to conduct this study. The files contained over 2,000 case records of children who have been adjudicated as delinquents and placed in one of the four institutions. They are filed according to institution and institutional number. The records used were all closed cases, but were cases of delinquent

children committed to these institutions within the last ten years, specifically in this case from the years 1964 to 1971. The records were studied in 1972. Thus at least one year was allowed for those among the most recently adjudicated who might have recidivated.

To obtain the necessary number of case records and insure an equal number of cases from each of the four institutions every third case was selected. Where a particular third case record could not be used the next case was selected. Often a case might not be usable because of incompleteness of content. An additional ten percent was selected to replace those records which might have contents intact but whose data were incomplete in all of the details desired for this study. The 500 records were again equally divided according to rural or urban origins of subjects and examined for completeness of data in record content. The final number of records selected from the 500 was 172 which were found to be most nearly complete in all details. Of these final records selected there was an equal number from each of the four institutions which resulted in 43 case records for each institution, with a total of 172. Until the process of final selection of case records was completed, no study of case records was made to determine if the subjects were recidivists or non-recidivists.

The following factors were selected from the case records as variables:

1. Institutions. Comparisons were made as to the institution in which the child was placed upon first commitment. The institutions referred to in this study are state training schools for juvenile delinquent children. A training school is defined as part of a system separate from other state and local juvenile correctional services

(Winslow and Dickenson, 1969). The four schools referred to in this study are specified in Appendix A.

2. Sex. Comparisons were made by sex of the delinquents, as to whether they were male or female.

3. Race. Comparisons were made as to racial or ethnic groups to which the subjects belonged. Race of the subjects is described by designations of black, white, Indian, and other. "Others" as used in this study refers to Mexican-Americans, persons of Spanish descent, Orientals, and persons of racial and ethnic grouping not included in the three major racial and ethnic groups found in Oklahoma.

4. Length of Stay in Institution During First Commitment. Each group was compared on the basis of the number of weeks, months, or years spent in the institution during the first commitment.

5. Age at First Commitment. Each group was compared by age at last birthday before commitment.

6. Education. Each group was compared by total number of years of schooling completed at time of last birthday.

7. Socio-Economic Status. Each group was compared by socio-economic status. Class designations used were:

- a. upper class,
- b. upper middle class,
- c. middle class,
- d. lower middle class.
- e. lower class.

These social class designations are similar to those utilized by other writers (Clinard, 1969; Hollingshead, 1949; Warner, 1963).

8. Intelligence Quotient. Each group was compared by I.Q. scores with test scores ranging in ten point intervals of 80 to 90, 90 to 100, 100 to 110, 110 to 120, 120 to 130, 130 to 140, and above 140.

9. Child's Family Status. Each group was compared by family status of child at time of first commitment (whether family was complete and stable with mother, father, and siblings). (See Appendix A for specifications.)

10. Female Siblings. Comparisons were made as to the number of sisters in the child's home at time of first commitment (see Appendix A for specification).

11. Male Siblings. Comparisons were made as to the number of brothers in the home at time of first commitment (see Appendix A for specifications).

12. Total Siblings. Comparisons were made as to the total number of siblings in the home at the time of child's first commitment (see Appendix A for specification).

13. Birth Order. Comparisons were made as to the order of birth of the child; i.e., first, second, third, and so forth.

14. Rural-Urban. Comparisons were made as to the percentage of children who were committed from rural and/or urban areas.

15. Satellite. Comparisons were made as to the percentage of delinquents committed from communities that are contiguous to large urban communities.

16. Types of Offenses That Led to First Commitment. Sex, property, and behavioral offenses were described by this variable (see Appendix A).

17. Type of Second Offense. Sex, property, and behavioral offenses are generally the same as those described above (see Appendix A).

18. Disposition of Second Offense. Comparisons were made as to how second offense was handled by official agencies.
19. School Relatedness of Second Offense. Comparisons were made as to whether second offenses were school related or not.
20. Place of Residence Between Release From First Commitment and Second Offense. Comparisons were made as to the number of children who live with their parents and whether they lived in the community from which they were committed.
21. Place of Residence Between Release From First Commitment and Second Offense. Comparisons were made by place of residence according to demographic designation.
22. Time Lapse Between Release From First Commitment and Second Offense. Comparisons were made as to length of time spent on release before second offense such as:
- a. less than two weeks,
 - b. two weeks to one month,
 - c. one month to six months,
 - d. six months to one year.
23. How Often Seen While on Aftercare Status (Parole). Group comparisons were made as to whether the child on parole was seen by a counselor on a regular basis or on an irregular basis.
24. Institutional Adjustment During First Commitment. Group comparisons were made by child's adjustment in institution on first commitment.
25. Institutional Adjustment on Second Commitment. Group comparisons were made on the basis of child's adjustment in the institution during second commitment.

Method of Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected from case records onto precoded data sheets consisting of 25 major headings and 76 subheadings or categories. A separate data sheet was used for each of the 172 case records with each record and data sheet carefully reviewed and compared, to ascertain completeness and accuracy of information. The coded information was then transferred to computer cards, sorted by counter-sorter, and tabulated by computer for analysis. The relationships between the variables and delinquency recidivism will be examined primarily by a computation of percentages, frequency count, and, in some cases by the computation of the statistical test of Chi square.

Limitations of the Study

In an exploratory study of the nature which deals with records, many of the same limitations are encountered which are pointed out by authorities in the field (Riley, 1963). There is the possibility that the person or persons recording the information may put his own interpretation on the data and record it with this bias, thus raising the question of reliability. Another possibility is that of error in the data shown in the records (Webb et al., 1966).

Another limitation is that some of the information is dated. Many changes have occurred in the Oklahoma juvenile justice system in the last ten years. For example, there are no institutions designated for individual racial or ethnic groups. A new children's code has been legislated.

The study is also limited in the area of finding suitable alternative definitions for recidivism. Some authorities feel that it

will be difficult to do research on comparative recidivism until the definitional problems which concern recidivism are solved (Mandel et al., 1969). In addition there is a lack of literature on the topic of recidivism generally and in the area of recidivism as it relates to juvenile delinquency.

Since this is an exploratory study, so many variables pertinent to the subject seem to be meaningful to make it difficult to select the most important variables. Even when one is selecting there is always the question whether those selected are the ones most vitally needed to fulfill the purpose of the study.

A final limitation of this particular study is the difficulty arising out of the racial designations of the subjects. This is especially true in the case of subjects who are of Indian or Mexican-American descent, who for purposes of convenience were at earlier dates designated as white by public agencies. In many cases, unless one is able to determine from the record specific indications that the subject is of a certain racial group, vital information is missed. Sometimes the only indication might be that an Indian, for instance, was later transferred to a school under the auspices of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Such culling for this information, though vital, is often laborious and extremely time consuming.

Despite the limitations, however, considerable material was gathered, and several historically important factors identified and isolated to provide a basis for preliminary interpretations and for offering tentative conclusions that in some measure may help to illuminate the problems of the urban-rural differentials of juvenile delinquency recidivism.

It is recommended that further research in this area be continued in order to provide deeper insight to the problems of delinquency recidivism. Specific attention in this regard should be given to the definitional problem.

Summary

Based on a systematically selected sample of 172 subjects who had been adjudicated delinquent and committed to one of the four state training schools in Oklahoma, data were collected on precoded information sheets. The information was gathered from subjects who were divided into groups according to ethnic or racial background and sex. They were further divided into recidivists and non-recidivists from urban or rural areas. The data sheets included necessary instruments which allowed variables to be selected from the data available and utilized to identify urban-rural differentials and similarities in juvenile delinquency recidivism.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data and evidence that were collected in an exploratory effort to investigate the nature of recidivism among urban and rural juvenile delinquents. The results are divided into four groups or sections paralleling the four groups of delinquents studied. Each of the four groups is compared on the basis of all or part of the 25 selected variables divided into 76 categories in an effort to determine delineations of urban-rural differentials of delinquency recidivism. It is hoped that these delineations might be a basis for indicating a need for the development of specialized treatment of rural delinquency problems. The first group compares recidivists and non-recidivists on 18 variables. The second group examines urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists by 14 variables. The third group studies urban black delinquents and urban white delinquents as compared to rural white delinquents and rural black delinquents on 18 variables. The fourth group presents information on black recidivists and black non-recidivists as compared to white recidivists and white non-recidivists on four variables. The data are presented in the form of frequencies and percentages for each division within the four groupings.

TABLE I
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY INSTITUTION
 IN WHICH SUBJECT WAS PLACED UPON FIRST COMMITMENT

Response	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
<u>Institution</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response	0	0	1	1
Helena	25	27	15	18
Boley	26	28	16	20
Tecumseh	22	23	27	33
Taft	19	20	21	26

Table I presents findings on recidivism as compared to non-recidivism according to the correctional institution in which delinquent children were placed upon first commitment. For recidivists it is shown that the institution at Boley had the highest percentage with 28%. The State Training School at Helena had the second highest figure with 27%. The table shows 23% for the State Training School for Girls at Tecumseh and 20% for the Girls Training School at Taft. For non-recidivists it is shown that the Girls School at Tecumseh had the highest figure with 33%. The second highest was the Girls School at Taft with 26%. Boley had 20% and Helena was lowest with 18%.

Table II below presents information on recidivism as compared to non-recidivism by sex. Among recidivists 55% were males and 45% were females.

Table III below presents information on recidivists and non-recidivists by the length of stay of the delinquent child during his first

TABLE II
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY SEX

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80		
	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response		0	0	1	1
Male		51	55	32	40
Female		41	44	47	58

TABLE III
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY
 LENGTH OF STAY DURING FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80		
	<u>Number of Months</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response		0	3	1	1
Less than one month		1	1	5	6
Two months		0	0	2	2
Three months		3	3	1	1
Four months		1	1	5	6
Five months		5	5	6	7
Six months		11	11	9	11
Seven months		7	7	9	11
Eight months		7	7	6	7
Nine months		9	9	8	10
Ten months		3	3	2	2
Eleven months		6	6	2	2
Twelve months		2	2	2	2
Thirteen months		3	3	2	2
Fourteen months		1	1	3	3
Fifteen months		7	7	2	2
Sixteen months		4	4	2	2
Seventeen months		0	0	2	2
Eighteen months		2	2	2	2
Nineteen months		3	3	0	0
Twenty months		14	15	9	11

commitment to a correctional training school. For the recidivist it is shown that one percent stay less than one month while three percent stay three months. Among the higher rates it is shown that 11% stay six months, while nine percent stay nine months. The highest rate, 15%, is for those who stay 20 months or more. For non-recidivists we find the figures are similar to those of recidivists until we get to the eleventh month. From this point, generally, the rate for non-recidivists is only half that of recidivists until the twentieth month and beyond. Here we find that 11% of the non-recidivists stay at least 20 months. It must therefore be concluded that recidivists spend a greater length of time in the institution upon first commitment.

Table IV below presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists by age at first commitment. For recidivists it is shown that for age nine there is a commitment rate of one percent. At age 11 there is a commitment rate of three percent. From the ages 12 through 15 there is a steady increase. For age 12 there is a commitment rate of eight percent. For age 13 there is a commitment rate of 17%. For age 14 there is a commitment rate of 28%, and for age 15 there is a commitment rate of 33%. At age 16 the rate declines with only seven percent having been committed at that age. In comparing the age at commitment for non-recidivists we find that the highest percentages for these children begin at age 14. It is shown that 21% are committed at age 14 for the first time; 27% are committed at age 15; and 25% are committed at age 16. For another 13% the age at first commitment is 17 years. In looking at the percentages it must be concluded that recidivists are committed to the institution at an earlier age than are non-recidivists.

TABLE IV

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY AGE AT FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Years Old</u>				
No response	0	0	1	1
1 year	0	0	0	0
2 years	0	0	0	0
3 years	0	0	0	0
4 years	0	0	0	0
5 years	0	0	0	0
6 years	0	0	0	0
7 years	0	0	0	0
8 years	0	0	0	0
9 years	1	1	0	0
10 years	0	0	0	0
11 years	3	3	1	1
12 years	8	8	2	2
13 years	16	17	6	7
14 years	26	28	17	21
15 years	31	33	22	27
16 years	7	7	20	25
17 years	0	0	11	13
18 years	0	0	0	0
19 years	0	0	0	0
20 years	0	0	0	0

Table V below presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists according to level of education at time of first commitment. For the recidivist it is shown that two percent had fourth grade education, three percent had a fifth grade education, and eight percent had received education to the sixth grade level. The highest rates are shown from the seventh grade level to the tenth grade level. It is shown that 16% had a seventh grade education, 25% had an eighth grade education, 27% had a ninth grade education, and 11% had a tenth grade

TABLE V
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY EDUCATION

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	1	1	2	2
1st	0	0	1	1
2nd	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0
4th	2	2	0	0
5th	3	3	2	2
6th	8	8	2	2
7th	15	16	8	10
8th	23	25	16	20
9th	25	27	20	25
10th	11	11	21	26
11th	2	2	8	10
12th	2	2	0	0

education. Another two percent had an eleventh and a twelfth grade level attainment. For the non-recidivist it is shown that two percent had attained the sixth grade level. Higher rates are shown from grades eight through eleven. Here it is shown that 20% attained an eighth grade level, 25% attained a ninth grade level, 26% a tenth grade level, and 10% attained an eleventh grade level of education. Recidivists generally have less education than non-recidivists.

Table VI presents information on the socio-economic status of the recidivists and non-recidivists. For the recidivists we find that one percent are from the upper socio-economic class, and one percent are from the upper middle socio-economic class. From the middle socio-economic class a figure of 10% is shown. Some 31% are from the lower

middle socio-economic class, and 53% from the lower socio-economic class. For the non-recidivist it is shown that two percent are from the middle class, 36% are from the lower middle class, and 41% are from the lower class. Thus it is shown that for both recidivists and non-recidivists the highest percentages are from the lower middle and lower income groups. The majority, or 53%, however, are recidivists of lower class status.

TABLE VI

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response	0	2	2	2
Upper	1	1	0	0
Upper Middle	1	1	0	0
Middle	10	10	16	20
Lower Middle	29	30	29	36
Lower	49	53	33	41

Table VII presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists according to I.Q. For the recidivist it is shown that 18% had I.Q. scores of less than 80. For 22% a score in the 80 to 90 range was shown. Fifteen percent had scores in the 90-100 range, six per cent scored in the 100 to 110 range, while another two percent scored in the 110 to 120 range. For the non-recidivists it was shown that 20% had scores of less than 80. For 11%, scores ranged from 80 to 90, and for

15% the scores ranged from 90 to 100. For another 12% the scores ranged from 100 to 110. From the information presented in Table VII it is concluded that I.Q. scores for recidivists and non-recidivists are similar, although 75% of the total sample did not have I.Q. scores recorded.

TABLE VII
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT OF SUBJECT

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 92	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	32	34	33	41
Less than 80	17	18	16	20
80 - 90	21	22	9	11
90 - 100	14	15	12	15
100 - 110	6	6	10	12
110 - 140	2	2	0	0

Table VIII presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists by child's family status. For the recidivists the table shows that 25% were living with both natural parents when committed. Another eight percent were living with their mother who was married to a man other than their natural father. For 20% it is shown that they were living with their divorced mother who had not remarried. Some four percent lived with a widowed mother, two percent lived with their father who was married to someone other than natural mother. Five percent lived with divorced father while one percent lived with widowed father,

TABLE VIII

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY CHILD'S FAMILY STATUS

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	2	2
With both parents	23	25	21	26
With married mother	8	8	10	12
With divorced mother	19	20	15	18
With mother (widowed)	4	4	3	3
With married father	2	2	4	5
With divorced father	5	5	2	2
With father (widowed)	1	1	2	2
In foster home	5	5	9	11
In orphanage	16	17	6	7
With relatives (2 sexes)	2	2	2	2
With relatives (1 only)	7	7	4	5

TABLE IX

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
BY NUMBER OF FEMALE SIBLINGS

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	16	17	12	15
1	20	21	15	18
2	24	26	22	27
3	8	8	9	11
4	9	9	3	3
5	7	7	11	13
6	5	5	8	10
7	2	2	0	0
8	0	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	0

five percent lived in foster homes when committed, 17% were from orphanages or homes for dependent and neglected children, seven percent lived with a relative where only one parent surrogate was present. In comparing the non-recidivist it is shown that 26% lived in homes with both natural parents present, 12% lived with mother who was married but not married to natural father, 18% were living with divorced mother. Three percent were living with widowed mother, five percent were living with father who was married to other than child's natural mother, two percent were living with divorced father, two percent were living with widowed father, 11% were living in foster homes, seven percent were living in orphanages, two percent lived in a home with relations who were parent surrogates, and five percent lived in a home with relatives who served as parental surrogates but with only one person. From this it is concluded that similar family structures exist for recidivists and non-recidivists whether the home is broken or intact. An important finding on this variable is noted in that three times more children committed from orphanages become recidivists than do those committed from foster homes.

Table IX presents information on the recidivist as compared to the non-recidivist according to the number of female siblings in the family. For the recidivist it is shown that 21% had one sister, 26% had two sisters, eight percent had three sisters, and nine percent had four sisters. Seven percent had five sisters, two percent had seven, while only one percent had nine sisters. For the non-recidivists it is shown that 18% had one sister, 27% had two sisters, and 11% had three sisters. Non-recidivists have more sisters than recidivists have. For three percent there were four sisters. Thirteen percent had five sisters, and another 10% had six sisters. It is concluded that number of sisters in the

family does not appear to have any relationship to whether a subject is a recidivist or a non-recidivist.

TABLE X
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY NUMBER OF MALE SIBLINGS

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	13	14	11	13
1	19	20	21	26
2	18	19	17	21
3	16	17	14	17
4	16	17	7	8
5	6	6	5	6
6	2	2	3	3
7	1	1	2	2
8	0	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	0

Table X presents information on the recidivist as compared to the non-recidivist by the number of male siblings in the home. For the recidivist it is shown that 20% came from families with one brother, 19% came from families with two brothers, 17% came from families with three brothers and another 17% had four brothers while six percent had five brothers and two percent had six brothers. Another one percent had seven and nine brothers respectively. For the non-recidivist the highest figures are grouped about categories one, two, three, and four respectively. Thus it is shown that 26% of the non-recidivists came from

families with one male sibling. Some 21% came from families with two male siblings while 17% had three male siblings and another eight percent had four male siblings. For non-recidivists the male sibling percentages were very similar to those for recidivists. Since there appears to be a great degree of similarity in the findings for recidivists and non-recidivists on this variable, it is concluded that the number of male siblings in subject's family does not influence recidivistic or non-recidivistic tendencies. Generally, non-recidivists have fewer brothers.

TABLE XI
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY TOTAL SIBLINGS

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
<u>Number of Siblings</u>	<u>Frequency Percent</u>		<u>Frequency Percent</u>	
No response	7	7	7	8
1	6	6	5	6
2	15	16	7	8
3	10	10	10	12
4	13	14	9	11
5	11	11	14	17
6	2	2	3	3
7	11	11	6	7
8	5	5	9	11
9	12	13	10	12

Table XI presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists by total number of siblings in the home. For the recidivists

it is shown that six percent had one sibling in the home, while 16% had two siblings in the home and 14% had four. Another 11% had five siblings, two percent had six, 11% had seven, 13% had nine siblings, and five percent had nine siblings. For the non-recidivists it is shown that the percentages and number of siblings are very similar to those of the recidivists.

TABLE XII
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY BIRTH ORDER

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Born</u>				
Only child	5	5	5	6
First born	18	19	16	20
Second born	20	21	14	17
Third born	35	38	22	27
Fourth born	4	4	11	13
Fifth born	4	4	6	7
Sixth born	2	2	4	5
Seventh born	0	0	2	2
Eighth born	0	0	0	0
Ninth born	4	4	0	0

Table XII presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists by order of birth into family. For the recidivist it is shown that five percent were an only child. For 19% it is shown that they were first born children, 21% were second born and the highest percentage, 38%, were born third in their family. Another four percent

were born fifth and ninth respectively while two percent were born sixth. In comparing the birth order of the non-recidivists it is shown that six percent were an only child, 20% were first born, 17% were second born, and 27% were third born. For another 13% it is shown that they were fourth in the birth order. Other figures in the categories are similar to those found in the same categories for recidivists. The only appreciable difference was that those children who were born third in the family were more likely to become recidivists.

TABLE XIII
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY RURAL OR URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No response	0	0	3	3
Farm (Simple)	5	5	0	0
Less than 5,000	5	5	5	6
5,000 to 9,999	15	16	15	18
10,000 to 24,999	15	16	14	17
25,000 to 99,999	9	9	9	11
100,000 and over	43	46	34	42

Table XIII presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists according to whether they live in rural or urban communities. For the recidivists it is shown that five percent lived on farms in rural areas while five percent lived in rural communities of less than 5,000. For 16% their areas of residence were communities of 5,000 to

9,999. For another 16% their living areas were communities of 10,000 to 24,000. Some nine percent were from rural urban communities of 25,000 to 99,999. The highest rate is 46% which represents those who were committed from large urban centers of 100,000 population and beyond. For the non-recidivist the table shows six percent were from communities of less than 5,000, 18% were from communities between 5,000 and 9,000 population. For 17% their places of residence were communities of from 10,000 to 24,999, and 11% were from rural urban areas of 25,000 to 99,999. The highest percentage, 42% of non-recidivists were committed from large urban centers of 100,000 or more. From this it is shown that some 51% of all recidivists in the sample were from communities with populations of less than 100,000.

TABLE XIV

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY SATELLITE
COMMUNITY CONTIGUOUS TO LARGE URBAN CENTER

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<u>Distance From</u> <u>Large Urban Center</u>				
No response	67	72	62	77
Part of center	5	5	9	11
Within 30 miles	1	1	5	6
31 to 80 miles	10	10	4	5
81 to 150 miles	9	9	0	0

Table XIV presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists on the basis of percentages committed from communities which are satellites to large urban centers or are dominated by them. For the recidivist it is shown that five percent came from communities that are part of large metropolitan centers. The residence of one percent was within 30 miles of a large urban center. Some 10% were from communities within 31 to 80 miles of urban centers, and nine percent were from communities that were 81 to 150 miles from large urban centers. For the non-recidivist it is found that 11% were committed from communities which were part of large urban centers, six percent were from communities within 30 miles of urban centers and five percent came from communities within 31 to 80 miles of urban centers. Because of the similarity of findings for both recidivists and non-recidivists, it may be concluded that the distance of a community from a large urban center has little influence on the tendency to recidivate.

Table XV presents information on recidivists as compared to non-recidivists by the type of offense committed that led to the child's first placement in a correctional institution. For the recidivist, one percent committed the act of rape, one percent committed fornication (group sex activity), and one percent committed fornication (only two persons involved). Under property offenses six percent committed car theft, 18% committed breaking and entering offenses, and seven percent committed theft by shoplifting. Armed robbery was committed by one percent, and another one percent committed major theft. For truancy seven percent were sent to institutions while 21% were placed in institutions for runaway. Runaway is usually included here. Another 28% are in institutions from child-parent conflict, or being unruly in the home.

TABLE XV
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY TYPE OF OFFENSE
 WHICH PRECIPITATED FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
<u>Type of offense*</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	1	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	1	1	1	1
5	1	1	6	7
6	6	6	4	5
7	17	18	8	10
8	7	7	7	8
9	1	1	0	0
10	1	1	0	0
11	0	0	0	0
12	7	7	9	11
13	20	21	16	20
14	26	28	23	28
15	0	0	2	2
16	2	2	2	2
17	2	2	1	1

*See Appendix A for category listings.

For committing the act of fighting (peer group problems), two percent were placed in institutions, while another two percent were placed in institutions for acts of extreme violence (murder, assault). For the non-recidivists the findings show that one percent were committed for fornication (group sex), seven percent for fornication (two individuals involved), and five percent for car theft. For the act of breaking and entering 10% were placed in institutions, with eight percent for theft by shoplifting. For the act of truancy 11% were placed in correctional institutions for the first time, 20% were placed for runaway, 28% for being unruly in the home, two percent for peer problems (fighting), two percent for extreme violence and one percent for drug offenses. From this it is concluded that the highest percentage of recidivists were committed for offenses which for adults would not bring about incarceration. Recidivists and non-recidivists also show extremely similar offense patterns.

Table XVI is designed to show the type of offenses committed which could lead to a second placement in an institution. However, since we can only show figures for the recidivists, they are as follows: one percent for the act of rape, three percent for the act of fornication (group sex) and three percent for the act of fornication (two individuals). For car theft the figure is six percent, and for breaking and entering the figure is 15%. One percent committed shoplifting, one percent armed robbery and one percent major theft. For runaway 23% were committed and 28% were committed for child-parent conflict. Four percent were committed for peer problems, six percent for extreme violence and four percent for drug use. Although other category percentages are similar, the percentage of second offenses in 15 and 16 doubled.

TABLE XVI

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM BY TYPE OF OFFENSE
WHICH PRECIPITATED SECOND COMMITMENT

Recidivist N = 92			Recidivist N = 92		
Variable			Variable		
<u>Type of offense*</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Type of offense*</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response	0	0	9	1	1
1	0	0	10	1	1
2	1	1	11	0	0
3	0	0	12	0	0
4	3	3	13	22	23
5	3	3	14	26	28
6	6	6	15	4	4
7	14	15	16	6	6
8	1	1	17	4	4

*See Appendix A for category listings.

TABLE XVII

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
BY DISPOSITION OF SECOND OFFENSE

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	1	1	79	98
Returned to institution	54	58	0	0
Placed in foster home	2	2	0	0
Placed in ranch setting	0	0	0	0
Placed with parents	15	16	0	0
Placed in mental institution	2	2	0	0
Other	18	19	1	1

Table XVII presents information on the disposition for the offender upon second offense. For 58%, the disposition was to return him to the institution. For two percent placement was made in a foster home. For 16% a return to parents' home was granted with provisions for intensive supervision. For two percent a commitment was made to a mental hospital, and for 19% placements were made other than those listed above, which includes Indian Boarding School, adult prison, and placement outside of the state. From this it is shown that the highest percentage of recidivists were returned to a state correctional institution.

TABLE XVIII
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY RACE OF SUBJECT

Variable	Recidivist N = 92		Non-Recidivist N = 80	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Race</u>				
No response	0	0	1	1
Black	51	55	34	42
White	31	33	38	47
Indian	10	10	7	8

Table XVIII presents information on recidivism as compared to non-recidivism by race. For blacks it was shown that 55% were recidivists. For whites 33% were recidivists. Indians comprised 10% of those recidivists listed. In comparing non-recidivists it was shown that blacks comprised 42% and whites 47%. The percentage for Indians was five percent.

Table XIX shows that for urban recidivists, Helena had 25%, Boley had 31%, Tecumseh had 15%, and Taft had 27%. For rural recidivists it is shown that Helena had 29%, Boley had 25%, Girlstown at Tecumseh had 31%, and Taft had 14%.

For urban non-recidivists Helena had 20%, Boley had 16%, Tecumseh had 37% and Taft had 25%. For rural non-recidivists Helena had 16%, Boley had 24%, Tecumseh had 29% and Taft had 27%. From this information it may be concluded that recidivism by institution for rural and urban children was similar. The training school at Tecumseh (Girlstown) has the best treatment record of the four schools. This perhaps may be due to the fact that Tecumseh has consistently had more and better qualified professional staff than the other schools.

Table XX presents information on urban and rural recidivism compared to urban and rural non-recidivism according to sex. Among the urban recidivists, 56% were male and 43% were female. Among the rural recidivists 54% were males and 45% were females. For urban non-recidivists, 37% were male and 62% were female. Thus we find that for both urban and rural recidivists the number of males is higher than females. As may be expected when looking at urban and rural non-recidivists, we find that the percentages of females in this category were much higher than that for males.

Table XXI presents information as to the length of stay during first commitment. This includes information on recidivists who come from urban areas and those who are from rural areas. It also includes information on non-recidivists from urban and rural areas. For the urban recidivists by length of stay, a heavy concentration, varying from one month to twenty months, is shown at the six and nine month period

TABLE XIX

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM BY INSTITUTION IN WHICH SUBJECT WAS PLACED UPON FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No Response	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Helena	11	25	14	29	9	20	6	16
Boley	14	31	12	25	7	16	9	24
Tecumseh	7	15	15	31	16	37	11	29
Taft	12	27	7	14	11	25	10	27

TABLE XX

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY SEX

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
<u>Sex</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Males	25	56	26	54	16	37	16	43
Females	19	43	22	45	27	62	20	54

TABLE XXI

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM
BY LENGTH OF STAY DURING FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Number of Months in Institution								
No response	1	2	2	4	0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0	0	3	6	2	5
2	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
3	2	4	1	2	1	2	1	2
4	0	0	1	2	3	6	2	5
5	3	6	2	4	4	9	2	5
6	4	9	7	14	5	11	4	10
7	2	4	5	10	5	11	4	10
8	3	6	4	8	3	6	3	8
9	4	9	5	10	5	11	3	8
10	1	2	2	4	2	4	0	0
11	3	6	3	6	0	0	2	5
12	0	0	2	4	1	2	1	2
13	2	4	1	2	1	2	1	2
14	1	2	0	0	2	4	1	2
15	2	4	5	10	1	2	1	2
16	2	4	2	4	1	2	1	2
17	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
18	1	2	1	2	0	0	2	5
19	2	4	1	2	0	0	2	5
20	10	22	4	8	4	9	5	13

with nine percent of the total at these levels for both periods respectively. However, for those persons who stayed in the institutions for twenty months or more, there was some 22% of the total urban recidivists at this level. For the rural recidivist the highest percentage is concentrated at the sixth month, ninth month and sixteenth month period. However, at no point does the percentage exceed 14% which was concentrated at the seventh month period. For non-recidivists from the urban areas, the highest concentration appeared at the seventh month, the eighth month and the tenth month. For these three periods the percentage was 11% respectively. For the rural non-recidivist the highest concentration appears at the fifth, sixth, and twentieth months. Some 10% of the rural recidivists stayed five months, 10% six months, and 13% twenty months. From this it would appear that from the groups of persons who stayed longest in the institutions came the highest concentration of recidivists, i.e., length of stay seems to be positively related to recidivism.

Information presented in Table XXII has to do with the age at first commitment for urban and rural recidivists compared to urban and rural non-recidivists. For recidivists the highest occurrence is among persons whose age at first commitment was 12, 13, 14 or 15 years. This age group's highest percentage was at the age 15 level, with 31% for urban recidivists and 35% for rural recidivists. The highest percentage of non-recidivists, both urban and rural, is concentrated around those persons whose age at first commitment was 14, 15, 16 and 17 years. It appears from this study that the earlier the age at which a person is committed the first time, the greater his chance of becoming a recidivist.

TABLE XXII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM
BY AGE OF SUBJECT AT FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable:	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
Age	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	2	4	1	2	0	0	1	2
12	4	9	4	8	1	2	1	2
13	7	15	9	18	3	6	3	8
14	14	31	12	25	11	25	6	16
15	14	31	17	35	9	20	13	35
16	3	6	4	8	14	32	6	16
17	0	0	0	0	5	11	6	16

Table XXIII presents information on the educational level of recidivists of both urban and rural as well as non-recidivists from urban and rural areas. The educational levels for urban recidivists seem to center primarily around the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth grades. Some 11% of all recidivists listed had attained a seventh grade education. For 34% of the recidivists, eighth grade was the highest level attained. For 20% ninth grade was the highest, and for 18% tenth grade was the highest attained. The educational level for the rural recidivist was similar to that of the urban recidivist except that the highest percentage, or 33%, were at the ninth grade level. At the seventh grade level there was a high of 20% or almost double that for urban recidivists at the same level. It may therefore be concluded that while educational levels were similar for rural and urban recidivists and non-recidivists it appears that recidivists generally have less education than non-recidivists at time of first commitment.

Table XXIV presents information on the socio-economic status of urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists. For the urban recidivists we find that recidivists from the upper and upper middle class were relatively low making up two percent, respectively, for both classes. We find this percentage expanding, however, when we look at the middle class where the percentage increases to 15%. The bulk, however, fell into the lower middle class and lower class. Here we find that 27% of the recidivists came from the lower middle class. When we look at the lower class group we find that of urban recidivists 52% of those studied came from this group. For the urban non-recidivists, no non-recidivists were listed from the first two class groups of upper and upper middle class.

TABLE XXIII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM BY
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF SUBJECT AT TIME OF FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	2
1st	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4th	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0
5th	2	4	1	2	1	2	1	2
6th	4	9	4	8	0	0	2	5
7th	5	11	10	20	5	11	3	8
8th	15	34	8	16	7	16	9	24
9th	9	20	16	33	13	30	7	18
10th	8	18	3	6	11	25	10	27
11th	1	2	1	2	4	9	4	10
12th	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0

TABLE XXIV

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM
BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	2	4	0	0	2	5
Upper class	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Upper-Middle class	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Middle class	7	15	3	6	12	27	4	10
Lower-Middle class	12	27	17	35	17	39	12	32
Lower class	23	52	26	54	14	32	19	51

For the middle class 27% of the non-recidivists were found. The lower middle class group contained the highest number of non-recidivists, or 27%. For the non-recidivists 32% were from the lower class. In studying the rural recidivists we find that none was listed from the first two classes, and from the middle class only six percent. The lower middle class rural recidivists showed 35%. The lower class rural recidivist is shown to have 54%, which is a high for both urban and rural recidivists. For the rural non-recidivists we find that from the first two classes there were no listings. From the middle class there is 10%, which is 17% less than that for urban non-recidivists. From the lower class there is shown an increase to 51% of the total number of rural non-recidivists. From the information it appears that for recidivists and non-recidivists, a majority of subjects were from the two lower classes. However, this appears to be overwhelmingly true for the rural recidivists, where 89% were from the lower class.

Table XXV presents the figures on the I.Q. scores of recidivists and non-recidivists, both urban and rural. For the urban recidivists listed, some 20% had I.Q. scores of less than 80 while 22% had I.Q. scores ranging between 80 and 90 and six percent had scores ranging from 90 to 100. For another six percent scores ranged from 110 to 120. Only four percent were in the 120 to 130 range. For another 38% no I.Q. scores were listed at all. For the rural recidivists the figures are similar to those of recidivists from urban areas except in category three where some 22% of rural recidivists had I.Q. scores of 90 to 100 while this is true for only six percent of the recidivists from urban areas. Of all rural recidivists listed there was some 31% whose I.Q. scores were not recorded. For urban non-recidivists the highest

TABLE XXV

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM
BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	17	38	15	31	14	32	19	51
Less than 80	9	20	8	16	9	20	7	18
80 - 90	10	22	11	22	7	16	2	5
90 - 100	3	6	11	22	6	13	6	16
100 - 110	3	6	3	6	7	16	3	8
110 - 120	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0

percentage, or 20% of the I.Q. scores fell in the less than 80 category. The next highest percentage, 48%, fell in the range of 90 to 110. For 32% no I.Q. scores were listed. Since such a high percentage of subjects did not have I.Q. scores listed, it would appear that proper importance has not been attached to this factor by concerned agencies.

Table XXVI shows information on urban and rural recidivists compared to urban and rural non-recidivists by family status of the child. Considering first the family status of the urban recidivist child, it is shown that 22% of such recidivists were from homes where both parents were present. Eleven percent were from homes where children were living with the mother who was married to a man other than the natural father. The table shows that children whose mothers were divorced comprise 25% of all urban recidivists in this study. In category nine, recidivists who previously lived in orphanages, we find that there were 20%. For the child who has had foster care, only two percent. Other categories looked at on the variable of the child's family status showed low percentages of around two and four percent. For the rural recidivists the figures were similar to those of the urban recidivists except in category one, where it is shown that 27% of the former came from homes with both parents, which is five percent more than for the latter. The rate of recidivism was 16% for rural children living with divorced mothers. For rural recidivists who lived in an orphanage (an institution for dependent and neglected children), the percentage was 14%. While this is not as high as for recidivists from urban areas, it is high enough to have its significance noted. The table shows that there was a high degree of similarity between urban and rural non-recidivists.

TABLE XXVI

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY CHILD'S FAMILY STATUS

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
With both parents	10	22	13	27	13	30	8	21
With married mother	5	11	3	6	8	18	2	5
With divorced mother	11	25	8	16	7	16	8	21
With mother (widowed)	2	4	2	4	3	6	0	0
With married father	1	2	1	2	0	0	4	10
With divorced father	2	4	3	6	0	0	2	5
With father (widowed)	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	5
In foster home	1	2	4	8	5	11	4	10
In orphanage	9	20	7	14	4	9	2	5
With relatives (2 sexes)	0	0	2	4	1	2	1	2
With relatives (1 only)	3	6	4	8	1	2	3	8

Table XXVII presents information on urban and rural recidivism and non-recidivism according to race. For this study we looked at blacks, Caucasians, Indians, and others which would include Mexican-Americans, Japanese, Chinese, etc. For urban recidivists who are blacks, we find they made up a majority, or 68% of all urban recidivists. White urban recidivists comprised 29%, with 2% being Indians. Other racial groups were not shown in this category of urban recidivists. For rural recidivists, blacks made up 43% of the total while whites made up 37%. Indians in this category comprised 18%. For racial groups other than those listed above, there was no figure shown among rural recidivists. For urban non-recidivists, blacks comprised 39%. White urban non-recidivists comprised two percent.

In the category of rural non-recidivists blacks comprised 45% while whites comprised 37%. Indians made up eight percent of the total with no listings for racial groups other than those cited above. From this it is indicated that a disproportionate number of recidivists from rural and urban areas were from minority racial groups.

Table XXVIII shows information comparing urban-rural recidivism and urban-rural non-recidivism according to the number of siblings in the recidivist's family constellation. Nine percent of the urban recidivists were from families with one sibling, 13% had two siblings, and 15% had had three siblings. The highest percentage for urban recidivists was families with seven siblings. For rural recidivists we find a pattern similar to that for urban recidivists. Examining urban non-recidivists and rural non-recidivists we also find patterns which were very similar. Generally, however, a larger percentage of rural and urban recidivists came from families of large sibling constellations.

TABLE XXVII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY RACE OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
<u>Race</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Black	30	68	21	43	17	39	17	45
White	13	29	18	37	24	55	14	37
Indian	1	2	9	18	1	2	3	8
Other	0	0	0	0	1	2	2	4

TABLE XXVIII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM
BY TOTAL NUMBER OF SIBLINGS IN SUBJECT'S FAMILY

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
0	2	4	5	10	2	4	5	13
1	4	9	2	4	5	11	0	0
2	6	13	9	18	3	6	4	10
3	7	15	3	6	6	13	4	10
4	5	11	8	16	5	11	4	10
5	4	9	7	14	9	20	5	13
6	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	5
7	8	18	3	6	5	11	1	2
8	1	2	4	8	3	6	6	16
9	6	13	6	12	4	9	6	16

Table XXIX presents information and offers an examination of the birth order of the recidivist in his family structure. Urban recidivists who were only children in the family comprised 20% of all the urban recidivists listed. Those who were second born comprised 25% of the total and those who were third born made up 38%. Those who were fourth, fifth or later made up only two and four percent, respectively, of the total. Findings on birth order of the rural recidivists were very similar to those on urban recidivists. This is shown by the fact that rural recidivists who were first born comprised 18% of the total. Those who were second born comprised 18%, and those who were third born comprised 37% of the total. The number of persons born in each of the orders of birth cited above was similar for both urban and rural. Examining urban and rural recidivists together, we find that children born third or later in the birth order comprised 75% of the recidivists listed in this study. In comparing urban non-recidivists and rural non-recidivists we find the pattern between the two categories more dissimilar than that presented for urban and rural recidivism. For those persons who were first born we find that they comprised 25% of the total urban non-recidivists. For the rural non-recidivists they comprised 13% of the total. For those who are second born among the urban non-recidivists it is shown that they comprised 13% while for the rural non-recidivist they comprised 21% of the total. It is shown that third born comprised 25% for urban non-recidivists and 29% for rural non-recidivists. Other figures for births beyond this point show a trend of similarity.

Table XXX presents information on a comparison of rates of recidivism for persons from urban communities and persons from rural communities. For the urban recidivist we find that 97% were from urban centers

TABLE XXIX

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY BIRTH ORDER OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Only child	2	4	3	6	2	4	3	8
First born	9	20	9	18	11	25	5	13
Second born	11	25	9	18	6	13	9	21
Third born	17	38	18	37	11	25	11	29
Fourth born	1	2	3	6	7	16	4	10
Fifth born	2	4	2	4	4	9	2	5
Sixth born	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	8
Seventh born	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
Eighth born	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ninth born	1	2	3	6	0	0	0	0

TABLE XXX

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY RURAL OR URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
<u>Community Size</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	2	4	1	2
Individual farm	1	2	4	8	0	0	0	0
Less than 5,000	0	0	5	10	1	2	4	10
5,000 - 9,999	0	0	15	31	2	4	13	35
10,000 - 24,999	0	0	15	31	4	9	10	27
25,000 - 99,999	0	0	9	18	0	0	9	24
Over 100,000	43	97	0	00	34	79	0	0

with populations over 100,000. Some two percent were from individual farms which were near an urban setting, but rural in lifestyle. For the rural recidivist eight percent were from individual isolated farms, 10% were from communities of less than 5,000 and 31% were from communities which range in size from 5,000 to 9,999. Another 31% were from communities which ranged in size from 10,000 to 24,999, while 18% were from communities ranging in size from 25,000 to 99,999, thus referred to as rural-urban dwellers (Clinard, 1969). For the urban non-recidivist the heavy concentration, 79%, was from the large urban centers with populations of above 100,000. For the rural non-recidivist we find that 10% were from communities of less than 5,000. Some 35% were from communities of from 5,000 to 9,999, 27% from communities of 10,000 to 24,999 and 24% from communities of 25,000 to 99,999. From this it may be concluded that the highest percentage of recidivists in this sample were from rural communities of Oklahoma.

Table XXXI presents information on the types of offenses committed that resulted in first commitment for recidivists and non-recidivists from rural and urban areas. For rural recidivists it is shown that the heaviest percentages committed were for such offenses as car theft, which had 11% in this category, breaking and entering along with shoplifting each had nine percent. For truancy there was 11%, for runaway 22% and for child-parent conflict (being unruly in the home) 27%. For the rural recidivist it is shown that the percentages were very similar for similar offenses in most cases. However, we find that in the category of breaking and entering, the percentage for the rural recidivist was 27%, or three times greater than that for the urban recidivist committing the same offense. The figures for the urban non-recidivist were

TABLE XXXI

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM BY
TYPE OF OFFENSE WHICH PRECIPITATED FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	2
5	0	0	1	2	3	6	3	8
6	5	11	1	2	3	6	1	2
7	4	9	13	27	2	4	6	16
8	4	9	3	6	2	4	5	13
9	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	5	11	2	4	6	13	3	8
13	10	22	10	20	11	25	5	13
14	12	27	14	29	11	25	12	32
15	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	0
16	2	4	0	0	2	4	0	0
17	0	0	2	4	1	2	0	0

*See Appendix A for category listings.

very similar except in categories seven and eight, breaking and entering and theft by shop lifting. Here the percentage of rural non-recidivists committed for breaking and entering was four times greater than that of the urban non-recidivists first committed for the same offense. For shop lifting the percentage of rural non-recidivists was more than twice that of urban non-recidivists first committed for the same offense. Though there is a high degree of similarity of offenses for both groups, the highest percentage of first commitments were for runaway and child-parent conflict.

TABLE XXXII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL NON-RECIDIVISM BY TYPE OF OFFENSE WHICH PRECIPITATED SECOND COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	2	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	2	4	1	2
5	1	2	2	4
6	3	6	3	6
7	5	11	9	18
8	1	2	0	0
9	1	2	0	0
10	0	0	1	2
11	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0
13	11	25	11	22
14	11	25	15	31
15	4	9	0	0
16	4	9	2	4
17	0	0	4	8

*See Appendix A for category listings.

Table XXXII presents information on urban and rural recidivists and urban and rural non-recidivists according to type of second offense. For the rural recidivist and the urban recidivist we find that their second offenses were very similar to the second offense on the basis of percentages. This is borne out by the fact that the highest percentages of second offenses involved categories seven, thirteen, and fourteen which looked at activities such as breaking and entering, runaway and child-parent conflict, respectively.

TABLE XXXIII

URBAN AND RURAL RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO URBAN AND RURAL
NON-RECIDIVISM BY TIME LAPSE BETWEEN RELEASE FROM
FIRST COMMITMENT AND SECOND OFFENSE

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 44		Rural Recidivist N = 48	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	1	2	2	4
Less than 1 week	1	2	2	4
2 weeks - 1 month	5	11	6	12
1 - 6 months	13	29	19	39
6 months - 1 year	16	36	11	22
1 - 2 years	5	11	5	10
More than 2 years	5	11	3	6

Table XXXIII presents information on urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists by time lapse between release from first commitment to second offense. For the

urban recidivist it is shown that two percent had a time lapse of less than two weeks. For those who were out from two weeks to one month, 11%. For those who were out from one to six months, 29%. For those who were out from six months to one year, 36%. For those who were out from one to two years, 21%. For those who were out for more than two years, 11%. For the rural recidivists four percent were out of the institution less than two weeks before committing a second offense, and 12% were out from two weeks to one month before committing their second offense. For those out from one month to six months the figure was 39%, 22% were out six months to one year, 10% were out from one to two years, and six percent were out for more than two years before another offense was committed. It is shown from the information that a higher percentage of rural recidivists remained out of the institution less time than did urban recidivists.

Table XXXIV presents information on urban black delinquents and urban white delinquents as compared to rural black delinquents and rural white delinquents by institution. For the urban black delinquent eight percent were committed to Helena, 29% were placed at Boley, 12% at Tecumseh, and 48% at Taft. For the urban white delinquent 40% were placed at Helena, 16% were sent to Boley, 43% were sent to Tecumseh, and none were sent to Taft.

For the rural black delinquent five percent were placed at Helena, 42% at Boley, seven percent at Tecumseh and 44% at Taft. For the rural white delinquent Helena received 24%, Boley received 16%, Tecumseh 38% and Taft 20%.

TABLE XXXIV

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY INSTITUTION IN WHICH SUBJECT WAS
PLACED UPON FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Helena	4	8	2	5	15	40	12	24
Boley	14	29	16	42	6	16	8	16
Tecumseh	6	12	3	7	16	43	19	38
Taft	23	48	17	44	0	0	10	20

Table XXXV presents information on black and white delinquent children from urban areas as compared to black and white children from rural areas according to sex. Of the black urban children studied 38% were male and 61% were female. Of the white children studied from urban areas 56% were male and 43% were female. Of the black rural children studied 47% were male and 52% were female. Of the white rural children studied 42% were male and 57% were female. From this we conclude that for urban delinquent children the percentage of males was highest, but for rural children more females have been adjudicated delinquent and placed in institutions.

Table XXXVI presents information on urban black delinquents and urban white delinquents as compared to rural black delinquents and rural white delinquents according to the length of stay in the institution during their first commitment. In looking at the length of stay in institutions for urban blacks during their first commitment it is shown that the length of stay ranged from two to twenty months and beyond. It is shown that two to eight percent stayed four months to fourteen months. In this range, the highest percentage stayed eight months with some eight percent having a length of stay not longer than eight months. However, when we look at urban blacks who stayed 20 months and beyond we find that the number is 27%. For the urban whites it is shown that the length of stay ranged from less than one month to twenty months. Some 10% were released after one month in the institution. Some 13% were released after the nine month period. The highest percentage stayed six months with some 21% ending their first commitment after six months. For those who stayed 20 months and beyond, only two percent were shown. Comparing the above findings for urban blacks and urban

TABLE XXXV

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY SEX OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Male	18	38	18	47	21	56	21	42
Female	29	61	20	52	16	43	28	57

TABLE XXXVI

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY LENGTH OF STAY DURING FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Number of Months in Institution								
No response	0	0	2	5	1	2	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	4	10	1	2
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	2	4	0	0	1	2	1	2
4	1	2	0	0	2	5	3	6
5	2	4	0	0	5	13	2	4
6	1	2	3	7	8	21	9	18
7	0	0	2	5	5	13	5	10
8	4	8	2	5	2	5	5	10
9	3	6	4	10	5	13	6	12
10	2	4	2	5	1	2	0	0
11	3	6	1	2	0	0	5	10
12	1	2	2	5	0	0	1	2
13	3	6	1	2	0	0	0	0
14	3	6	1	2	0	0	1	2
15	3	6	3	7	0	0	0	0
16	3	6	2	5	0	0	2	4
17	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	2
18	1	2	3	7	0	0	2	4
19	1	2	1	2	1	2	0	0
20	13	27	9	23	1	2	5	10

whites to findings for rural blacks and rural whites, this table shows a pattern for rural blacks similar to that of urban blacks in that the highest percentage remained in the institution twenty months or longer. It is shown, however, that there were no persons released before six months. Some 10% were released after nine months which was four percent more than for the urban blacks for this same period. For those staying 20 months and more the number is 23% which is similar to the 27% for urban blacks. For rural whites it is shown that the pattern is similar to urban whites with the greatest length of stay being from the periods of six months through nine months. For those who stayed twenty months or longer from the rural white population the percentage is 10% as compared to two percent for the urban white population. From this it is concluded that the highest percentage of blacks from rural and urban areas remained in institutions 20 months or more. In the case of rural whites and urban whites it is shown that rural whites generally stayed in institutions longer than did urban whites.

Table XXXVII presents information on black and white children from the urban areas as compared to black and white children from the rural areas according to their age at time of first commitment to an institution for delinquent children. For the urban black children the largest percentage of first commitments, 31%, occurred at age 14. For the urban white child the largest number of first commitments occurred at age 14 with 24%. For the rural black child, age 14 was also the age at which the largest number of first commitments were experienced with 31% being committed at this time. For the rural white child, age 15 was the age when the highest number of commitments, 36%, were experienced. While there were slight variations, there appears to be a similarity for both

TABLE XXXVII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY AGE OF SUBJECT AT FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Age								
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	2	4	1	2	0	0	2	4
12	2	4	3	7	3	8	0	0
13	6	12	7	18	3	8	6	12
14	15	31	12	31	9	24	9	18
15	12	25	12	31	10	27	18	36
16	8	17	1	2	9	24	8	16
17	2	4	2	5	3	8	5	10

urban and rural children from rural and urban areas with the highest percentage of all first commitments occurring around the ages of 14 through 16.

Table XXXVIII presents information on the urban black delinquent and the urban white delinquent as compared to the rural black delinquent and rural white delinquent according to levels of education at first commitment. It is shown that for black and white delinquents from both urban and rural areas, the levels of education attained at the time of first commitment was very similar. The highest percentage of commitments occurred at the eighth and ninth grade levels with the percentages ranging from 21% to 28%. However, it is shown generally that a slightly higher percentage of rural delinquents, black and white, had less education than did urban delinquents at the time of first commitment.

Table XXXIX presents information on black and white delinquent children from urban communities compared to black and white delinquent children from rural areas according to socio-economic status. Of the black children from urban areas six percent were from middle income homes. Some 29% were from lower middle income homes and 63% were from lower income homes. For the urban white children it is shown that two percent were from upper income homes, two percent were from upper middle income homes, 40% were from middle income homes, and 40% were from lower middle income homes. For urban whites from lower socio-economic levels, there was 13%. For rural whites it is shown that 12% were from the middle income level while 38% were from the lower middle socio-economic level. Those whites in the lower socio-economic level comprised 44%. For rural blacks it is shown that two percent were from the middle socio-economic level. Some 26% are from the lower middle socio-economic level

TABLE XXXVIII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF SUBJECT AT TIME OF FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0
1st	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4th	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
5th	2	4	1	2	1	2	1	2
6th	3	6	2	5	1	2	3	6
7th	6	12	5	13	4	10	8	16
8th	12	25	10	26	9	24	13	26
9th	13	27	11	28	8	21	11	22
10th	10	21	4	10	9	24	8	16
11th	1	2	2	5	3	8	4	8
12th	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0
14th	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15th	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16th	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0

TABLE XXXIX

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4
Upper	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Upper-Middle	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Middle	3	6	1	2	15	40	6	12
Lower-Middle	14	29	10	26	15	40	19	38
Lower	30	63	27	71	5	13	22	44

and 71% are from the lower socio-economic level. It is shown that a high percentage of both urban and rural delinquents were from lower socio-economic groups, but for the rural black delinquent this appeared to be overwhelmingly the case.

Table XL presents information on black and white delinquent children from urban areas and shows a comparison to black and white children from rural areas according to I.Q. scores recorded in case records at time of first commitment. Among urban blacks some 23% had I.Q. scores of less than 80, 14% had I.Q. scores in the 80 to 90 range, six percent had I.Q. scores in the 90 to 100 range and four percent had I.Q. scores ranging from 100 to 110. For some 51% no I.Q. scores were listed. For urban whites 18% showed I.Q. scores of less than 80, 24% showed I.Q. scores in the 80 to 90 range. For 16% scores were in the 90 to 100 range while 18% showed scores listed in the 100 to 110 range. For another five percent scores ranged from 110 to 120. For 16% no I.Q. scores were recorded. For rural whites 18% had I.Q. scores of less than 80. Another 14% had I.Q. scores in the 90 to 100 range while 12% had scores in the 100 to 110 range. For 10% scores were in the range from 110 to 120. For 44% no I.Q. scores were listed. For the rural black 23% had an I.Q. score of less than 80. For 10% I.Q. scores were in the 80 to 90 range, 13% ranged from 90 to 100, and seven percent were in the 100 to 110 range. For 44% no I.Q. scores were listed. In a comparison of I.Q. scores for black and white children from the standpoint of urban and rural areas of living it is noted that there was a similarity of scores in all categories. However, because of the high percentage of scores not listed there appears to be little concern for I.Q. scores for all children, but especially for those from rural areas.

TABLE XL

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT OF SUBJECT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
<u>Range</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	24	51	17	44	6	16	22	44
Less than 80	11	23	9	23	7	18	9	18
80 - 90	7	14	4	10	9	24	7	14
90 - 100	3	6	5	13	6	16	6	12
100 - 110	2	4	3	7	7	18	5	10
110 - 120	0	0	0	0	2	5	0	0

Table XLI presents information on the family status of black and white children and offers a comparison between the urban areas as compared to black and white children of rural areas according to the child's family status. For the black urban child it is shown that 14% were from homes in which they lived with both natural parents. Another 25% were from homes in which a divorced mother was head of the house. The next largest group is that of children who have lived in orphanages. For this group there were 19% while four percent are children who lived in foster homes. Another high percentage is that of 10% who lived with widowed mothers. For the urban white 37% were from homes where both natural parents were living. Some 21% were from homes with natural mother and stepfather, 16% were from homes where divorced mother was head of the household, 10% were from foster homes, and eight percent were from orphanages. For the rural black it is shown that 15% lived with both natural parents, 23% lived with divorced mother, and 13% lived in orphanages. For the rural white child 28% lived in homes with both parents, 20% lived with both parents, and 10% lived with natural father and stepmother. For the rural black it is shown that 15% lived with both natural parents, 23% lived with both natural parents, and 23% lived with divorced mothers. Other categories were similar for both rural and urban areas. From this it is shown that many of the problems thought to be endemic to urban areas are also a part of rural social structures.

Table XLII presents information on urban black delinquent children and urban white delinquent children in comparison to rural black children and rural white children according to the location and size of their community on a rural and urban scale. It is shown that for urban blacks and urban whites the findings are similar in that 91% of the

TABLE XLI

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY CHILD'S FAMILY STATUS

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
1	7	14	6	15	14	37	14	28
2	5	10	0	0	8	21	3	6
3	12	25	9	23	6	16	10	20
4	5	10	0	0	0	0	2	4
5	1	2	3	7	0	0	5	10
6	2	4	4	10	0	0	2	4
7	0	0	3	7	0	0	2	4
8	2	4	1	2	4	10	5	10
9	9	19	5	13	3	8	2	4
10	0	0	2	5	1	2	1	2
11	4	8	5	13	0	0	3	6

* See Appendix A for category listings.

TABLE XLII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY RURAL OR URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Community Size</u>								
No response	0	0	0	0	2	5	0	0
Individual farm	0	0	2	5	1	2	2	4
Less than 5,000	1	2	4	10	0	0	4	8
5,000 - 9,999	0	0	11	28	2	5	15	30
10,000 - 24,999	3	6	12	31	1	2	14	28
25,000 - 99,999	0	0	9	23	0	0	14	28
Over 100,000	43	91	0	0	31	83	0	0

urban blacks were from metropolitan centers of 100,000 or more population. For urban whites 83% were also from the same type of metropolitan centers. For the rural black we find that five percent were from individual farms, 10% were from communities of less than 5,000, and 28% were from communities of 5,000 to 9,999 population. Some 31% were from communities of 10,000 to 24,999. Another 23% were from rural urban communities which range from 25,000 to 99,999 in population. For the rural white the findings showed a similar trend to that of the rural black. From this it is shown that a high percentage of delinquents of both races were from rural areas.

Table XLIII presents information on urban black children and urban white children as compared to rural black children and rural white children according to type of offense which led to the first commitment. For the urban black child it is shown that the offense which most often led to the first commitment was a child-parent conflicts such as staying out late or being unruly in the home. Some 34% were committed to institutions for this offense, 17% were committed for runaway, 14% for truancy, and other 10% for breaking and entering. For the offense of fighting and extreme violence there was four and six percent respectively. For the urban white child the findings show that the offenses of child-parent conflict and runaway were also the most frequent causes for commitment; however, the order is just opposite to that of the urban black with 29% committed for runaway and 18% committed for child-parent conflict. The next highest figure for urban whites was 18% for car theft and only two percent for breaking and entering. For the rural black child 44% were committed for the offense of parent-child conflict. The next highest figure was 23% for breaking and entering. Figures for

TABLE XLIII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY TYPE OF OFFENSE WHICH PRECIPITATED FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4
5	1	2	2	5	2	5	4	8
6	1	2	1	2	7	18	1	2
7	5	10	9	23	1	2	11	22
8	2	4	3	7	4	10	5	10
9	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	7	14	1	2	3	8	1	2
13	8	17	5	13	11	29	9	18
14	16	34	17	44	7	18	15	30
15	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	3	6	0	0	1	2	0	0
17	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0

*See Appendix A for category listings.

other categories were similar to those for urban black children. For the rural white child the findings show that 30% were committed for the first time because of parent-child conflict. The next highest figure was 22% for breaking and entering. Figures for other categories listed were not dissimilar to the findings for urban white children. Thus it is shown that many of the offenses committed by rural delinquents were similar in nature to those committed by urban delinquents.

Table XLIV presents information on on urban black children and urban white children in comparison to rural black children and rural white children according to the type of second offense committed. For the urban black child the second offense for which the highest figures are shown is that of child-parent conflict with 19% being listed. The next highest figure was 14% for runaway. For the urban white child the second offense shows the highest figures for runaway at 10%, for breaking and entering eight percent, and child-parent conflict five percent. Figures for rural black children and rural white children are similar to those for urban black children and urban white children in that the highest figures centered around the offenses of child-parent conflict and runaway. Here again is shown a similarity between urban and rural delinquents in the nature of the type of offenses committed.

Table XLV presents information on the urban black child and the urban white child in comparison to the rural black child and the rural white child as to the disposition of the child upon second offense. For the urban black child 34% were returned to the institution, two percent were placed in foster homes, and 12% were returned to the parents' home with intensive supervision. Another 12% were disposed of in ways other than those listed above, such as adult authority or out of state

TABLE XLIV

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY TYPE OF OFFENSE WHICH PRECIPITATED SECOND COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
<u>Type of Offense*</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	17	36	17	44	24	64	31	63
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	2	5	1	2
5	1	2	2	5	0	0	0	0
6	1	2	0	0	1	2	1	2
7	2	4	6	15	3	8	3	6
8	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
9	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	7	14	4	10	4	10	4	8
14	9	19	6	15	2	5	8	16
15	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	4	8	1	2	0	0	1	2
17	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0

*See Appendix A for category listings.

TABLE XLV

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY DISPOSITION OF SECOND OFFENSE

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Disposition on Second Offense								
No response	18	38	17	44	23	62	31	63
Returned to institution	16	34	10	26	9	24	13	26
Foster home	1	2	0	0	1	2	0	0
Ranch	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Parents (with intensive supervision	6	12	4	10	0	0	4	8
Mental institu- tion	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0
Other	6	12	6	15	3	8	1	2

placement. For the urban white child, 24% were returned to the institution, two percent were placed in foster homes, and two percent were committed to mental institutions. For another eight percent, placements other than those listed were made. For the rural black child 26% were returned to the institution, 10% were placed in the parents' home with intensive supervision, and two percent were placed in mental institutions. Another 15% were disposed of through placements other than those listed above. For the rural white child 26% were returned to the institution and eight percent were returned to the parents' home with intensive supervision. Those disposed of in placements other than those listed above were two percent. It is shown that the rural delinquents in the sample were not handled in an informal manner.

Table XLVI presents information on the urban black child and the urban white child in comparison to the rural white child and the rural black child as to the degree of school relatedness of the second offense. For urban black children 17% of the second offenses were school related and 40% were non-school related. For the urban white child 13% were school related and 24% were non-school related. Findings show that for the rural black two percent of the second offenses were school related while 50% were non-school related. For the rural white child 10% of the second offenses were school related and 26% were non-school related. Similarity is shown in the findings for urban and rural children in that for all children the highest percentages of second offenses were non-school related.

Table XLVII presents information on urban black children and rural white children in comparison to rural black children and rural white children according to home of residence between first commitment and

TABLE XLVI

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY SCHOOL RELATEDNESS OF SECOND OFFENSE

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
School Relatedness of Second Offense	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	20	42	18	47	23	62	31	63
School related	8	17	1	2	5	13	5	10
Not school related	19	40	19	50	9	24	13	26

TABLE XLVII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY HOME OF RESIDENCE BETWEEN FIRST COMMITMENT AND SECOND OFFENSE (WHETHER LIVING WITH PARENTS)

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Place of Residence*</u>								
No response	19	40	17	44	23	62	31	63
1	23	48	14	36	9	24	15	30
2	2	4	4	10	2	5	1	2
3	0	0	1	2	2	5	1	2
4	3	6	2	5	1	2	1	2

*See Appendix A for category listings.

second offense. For the urban black children 48% lived in their parent's home in the county of commitment, four percent lived in the county of commitment outside of their parent's home, and six percent resided outside of the county of commitment and not in the home of parents. For urban white children 24% lived in the county of commitment in the home of their parents, five percent lived in the county of commitment but not in the home of their parents, and another five percent lived outside the county of commitment and in the parent's home. Another two percent had residence outside of the county of commitment and not in the home of the parents. For rural black children 36% lived in the county of commitment with their parents. For 10% the place of residence was the county of commitment but not with their parents. For another two percent the place of residence was outside of the county of commitment with their parents, while five percent lived outside of the county of commitment but not with their parents. For the rural white child 30% lived in the county of commitment with the parents, two percent lived in the county of commitment but not with their parents. Two percent lived outside of the county of commitment with their parents and two percent lived outside of the county of commitment not with the parents. It is shown that there is not a great degree of dissimilarity concerning place of residence between urban and rural areas. However, for the black delinquent a differential is shown in all categories disproportionately to their numbers in the total population.

Table XLVIII presents information on the urban black child and urban white child as compared to rural black children and rural white children according to place of residence between first commitment and second offense from a demographic point of view. For the urban black

TABLE XLVIII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE (BY POPULATION SIZE)

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	18	38	17	44	23	62	31	63
Individual farm	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	2
Less than 5,000	1	2	4	10	0	0	1	2
5,000 - 9,999	0	0	5	13	1	2	4	8
10,000 - 24,999	0	0	5	13	0	0	6	12
25,000 - 99,999	0	0	2	5	0	0	4	8
Over 100,000	28	59	4	10	12	32	2	4

children two percent lived in a community with a population of less than 5,000 while 59% lived in urban centers of 100,000 or more. For the urban white two lived on individual farms in rural areas, two percent lived in communities of 5,000 to 9,999, and 32% lived in urban centers of at least 100,000. For rural black children the findings show that two percent lived on individual farms, 10% lived in communities of less than 5,000, 13% lived in communities of 5,000 to 9,999, and another 13% lived in communities of 10,000 to 24,999. The next highest percentage was 10% who lived in large urban areas of 100,000 or more population. For the rural white child two percent lived on individual farms in rural areas while another two percent lived in communities of less than 5,000. Some eight percent lived in communities of 5,000 to 9,999 while the highest figure, 12%, represented those who lived in communities of 10,000 to 24,999. Another eight percent lived in communities of 25,000 to 99,999 but four percent lived in urban centers of 100,000 and more. Although there is a similarity of findings for urban and rural areas it is shown that more than twice the number of rural black delinquents were placed in urban areas as were white delinquents. A "push out" of the rural community is suggested rather than treatment in the community.

Table II presents information on urban blacks and urban whites as compared to rural blacks and rural whites by time lapse between release from institution after first commitment and second offense. For the urban blacks six percent had been released two weeks to one month before second offense. Those who had been released one month to six months before second offense comprised 14%, while 27% had been released six months to one year. Those who had been released one to two years before second offense was committed were six percent. Another six percent were

TABLE II

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY TIME LAPSE BETWEEN RELEASE FROM FIRST COMMITMENT AND SECOND OFFENSE

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Less than 2 weeks	18	38	17	44	23	62	31	63
2 weeks to 1 month	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	2
1 to 6 months	3	6	2	5	2	5	2	4
6 months to 1 year	13	27	5	13	3	8	5	10
1 to 2 years	3	6	5	13	2	5	0	0
More than 2 years	3	6	1	2	0	0	2	4

out for more than two years before committing their second offense. For the rural black two percent had been released less than two weeks, five percent had been released two weeks to one month, and 18% had been released one month to six months before their second offense was committed. The six month to one year category contained 13%. Another 13% had been released from one to two years. For those in the category of more than two years between release and second offense there was two percent. For the urban white in the category of less than two weeks after release there was two percent and for those in the category of two weeks to one month, five percent. For the category of one to six months the percentage was 16% and eight percent for those released six months to one year before second offense. There was five percent for those released one to two years before a second offense. For the rural white delinquent two percent committed their second offense less than two weeks after having been released, four percent committed their second offense two weeks to one month after release and 16% committed their second offense one to six months after release. For 10% the second offense was committed six months to one year after release and for four percent two years or more had elapsed before a second offense. It is shown that for black and white delinquents from rural areas the percentages were similar to or higher than delinquents, indicating a shorter period before second commitment.

Table L presents information on urban black children and urban white children in comparison to rural black children and rural white children according to whether they were seen regularly or irregularly by an after-care counselor while on parole. For the urban black child 44% were seen on a regularly scheduled basis of once per week, six

TABLE L

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY HOW OFTEN SEEN WHILE ON PAROLE

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
<u>Regularity</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	23	48	19	50	25	67	29	59
Regularly	21	44	9	23	8	21	7	14
Irregularly	3	6	10	26	4	10	13	26

percent were seen irregularly or less than once every two weeks. For urban white children it is shown that 21% were seen on a regular basis of at least once per week and 10% were seen on an irregular basis. For rural black children on parole the table shows that 23% were seen on a regular basis but 26% were seen on an irregular basis. For the rural white child 14% were seen on a regular basis and 26% were seen on an irregular basis. From this it may be concluded that rural delinquents of both races who were on parole were seen on a much more irregular basis than urban delinquents who were on parole.

Table LI presents data on urban black children and urban white children as compared to rural black children and rural white children according to their adjustment in the institution during their first commitment. For urban black children 31% had a poor adjustment, 14% had a fair adjustment, and six percent had a good adjustment. For urban white children 10% had poor adjustment records, 18% had fair adjustment records, and two percent had good adjustment records. For rural black children 15% had an adjustment record of poor, 26% had an adjustment record of fair, and 10% had an adjustment record of good. For the rural white children eight percent had an adjustment rating of poor, 18% had an adjustment rating of fair, and 12% had an adjustment rating of good. Thus it is shown that rural delinquents, both black and white, tended to have better records of adjustment to institutional life than did urban delinquents.

Table LII presents information on urban black children and urban white children in comparison to rural black children and rural white children according to their adjustment in the institution during their second commitment. For black urban children 21% had a poor adjustment

TABLE LI

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY ADJUSTMENT IN INSTITUTION, FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	22	46	18	47	25	67	30	61
Poor	15	31	6	15	4	10	4	8
Fair	2	14	10	26	7	18	9	18
Good	3	6	4	10	1	2	6	12

TABLE LII

URBAN BLACK DELINQUENTS AND RURAL BLACK DELINQUENTS AS COMPARED TO URBAN WHITE DELINQUENTS
AND RURAL WHITE DELINQUENTS BY ADJUSTMENT IN INSTITUTION, SECOND COMMITMENT

Variable	Urban Black N = 47		Rural Black N = 38		Urban White N = 37		Rural White N = 49	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	29	61	24	63	29	78	36	73
Poor	10	21	5	13	1	2	3	6
Fair	6	12	6	15	5	13	10	20
Good	2	4	3	6	2	5	0	0

in the institution during the second commitment, 12% had a fair adjustment, and four percent had an adjustment rating of good. For the urban white child two percent had a rating of poor, 13% had a rating of fair, and five percent had a rating of good. For black rural children the table shows that 13% had a poor adjustment in the institution on the second commitment, 15% had a fair adjustment, and five percent had an adjustment rating of fair. For white rural children it is shown that six percent had an adjustment rating of poor on the second commitment, and 20% had a rating of fair. No percentages were listed for good among white rural children. Here again it may be concluded that rural delinquents generally adjusted to institutional life more readily than did urban delinquents.

Table LIII presents information on black recidivists and white recidivists as compared to black non-recidivists and white non-recidivists by sex. For the black recidivists it is shown that 50% were male and 49% were female. For the white recidivists it is shown that 58% were male and 41% were female. For the black non-recidivists it is shown that 23% were male and 76% were female. For white non-recidivists it is shown that 43% were male and 56% were female. Thus it is shown that there was only a slight difference in the percentage of black female recidivists and black male recidivists. For the white male recidivists and white female recidivists the difference was more pronounced. For non-recidivists of both sexes it is shown that for this sample there were fewer non-recidivists among blacks.

Table LIV presents information on black recidivists and white recidivists as compared to black non-recidivists and white non-recidivists by length of stay in the institution. For the black recidivists it is

TABLE LIII

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY SEX OF SUBJECT

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Urban Non-Recidivist N = 43		Rural Non-Recidivist N = 37	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Male	26	50	18	58	4	23	24	43
Female	25	49	13	41	13	76	31	56

TABLE LIV

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY LENGTH OF STAY DURING FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Black Non-Recidivist N = 17		White Non-Recidivist N = 55	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No response	2	3	1	3	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	3	0	0	4	7
2	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0
3	2	3	1	3	0	0	1	1
4	0	0	1	3	1	5	4	7
5	2	3	1	3	0	0	6	10
6	0	0	9	29	1	5	8	14
7	1	1	4	12	0	0	6	10
8	3	5	3	9	2	11	4	7
9	4	7	4	12	1	5	7	12
10	3	5	0	0	1	5	1	1
11	3	5	3	9	0	0	2	3
12	2	3	0	0	1	5	1	1
13	3	5	0	0	1	5	0	0
14	1	1	0	0	2	11	1	1
15	5	9	0	0	1	5	0	0
16	3	5	1	3	1	5	1	1
17	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3
18	2	3	0	0	0	0	2	3
19	2	3	1	3	0	0	0	0
20	13	25	1	3	4	23	5	9

shown that three percent stayed in the institution for five months, five percent stayed for eight months, and seven percent stayed nine months. The highest percentage, which was 25%, stayed in the institution 20 months. For the white recidivist it is shown the category with the highest percentage was six months with 29% staying in the institution that length of time. The next highest percentage was 12% for seven months, with 12% staying ten months. The remainder of the categories were similar to those for black recidivists. From this we may conclude that recidivists remained in the institutions longer than non-recidivists. It is also shown that black recidivists and non-recidivists remained in the institution longer than white recidivists and non-recidivists on first commitment.

Table LV presents information on black recidivists and white recidivists as compared to black non-recidivists and white non-recidivists by levels of education attained at first commitment. For the black recidivist it is shown that three percent had a fifth grade education at first commitment, nine percent had a sixth grade education, 13% had a seventh grade education, 17% had an eighth grade education, 33% had a ninth grade education, and 15% had a tenth grade education. Another three percent had attained the twelfth grade level. For the black non-recidivist it is shown that five percent attained the fifth grade level, 11% had attained the seventh grade level, 29% had attained the eighth grade level, 23% had attained the ninth grade level, and another 23% had attained the tenth grade level. Those attaining the eleventh grade level was five percent. For the white recidivist, three percent had attained the fourth grade level of education, another three percent had attained the fifth grade level, nine percent had attained the sixth

TABLE LV

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
 WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF SUBJECT
 AT TIME OF FIRST COMMITMENT

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Black Non-Recidivist N = 17		White Non-Recidivist N = 55	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No response	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
1st	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
2nd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3rd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4th	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
5th	2	3	1	3	1	5	1	1
6th	5	9	3	9	0	0	1	1
7th	7	13	6	19	2	11	6	10
8th	9	17	12	38	5	29	10	18
9th	17	33	5	16	4	23	14	25
10th	8	15	2	6	4	23	15	27
11th	0	0	1	3	1	5	6	10
12th	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0

grade level, 19% had attained the seventh grade level, 38% had attained the eighth grade level, 16% had attained the ninth grade level, and six percent had attained the tenth grade level. For another three percent the educational level attained was eleventh grade. For the white non-recidivist, one percent had attained the fifth grade level and another one percent had attained the sixth grade level. Those who had attained the seventh grade level comprised 10%. Eighteen percent attained the eighth grade level while 25%, 27%, and 10% had attained the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades, respectively. From this it may be concluded that a greater percentage of black recidivists and black non-recidivists had less education than white recidivists and non-recidivists at the time of their first commitment.

Table LVI presents information on black recidivists and white recidivists as compared to black non-recidivists and white non-recidivists by intelligence. For the black recidivist it is shown that 23% had I.Q. scores of less than 80, 17% had I.Q. scores ranging from 80 to 90, and 11% had I.Q. scores ranging from 90 to 100. For another three percent I.Q. scores ranged from 100 to 110. For the white recidivist it is shown that 12% had I.Q. scores of less than 80, 32% had scores ranging from 80 to 90, 12% scored in the range from 90 to 100, and another 12% scored in the range from 100 to 110. For six percent the scores ranged from 110 to 120. For the black non-recidivist it is shown that 23% had I.Q. scores of less than 80. Scores for 11% are shown to range from 80 to 90. For five percent the scores ranged from 90 to 100, and for another five percent the scores ranged from 100 to 110. The figures for white non-recidivists showed 21% scoring less than 80, 10% scoring in the range from 80 to 90, 14% scoring from 90 to 100 and another 14%

TABLE LVI

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT OF SUBJECT

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Black Non-Recidivist N = 17		White Non-Recidivist N = 55	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	22	43	7	22	9	52	21	38
Less than 80	12	23	4	12	4	23	12	21
80 - 90	9	17	10	32	2	11	6	10
90 - 100	6	11	4	12	1	5	8	14
100 - 110	2	3	4	12	1	5	8	14
110 - 120	0	0	2	6	0	0	0	0

scoring in the range of 100 to 110. From this it is shown that I.Q. scores for whites were generally higher than those for blacks among recidivists and non-recidivists. However, for all children there appeared to be a lack of concern with regard to I.Q. suggesting that many with low I.Q. scores who were adjudicated delinquent might have derived greater benefit from schools for mentally retarded children.

Table LVII presents information on the black recidivist and the white recidivist as compared to the black non-recidivist and the white non-recidivist by family status. For the black recidivist 17% came from a family intact with both natural parents in the home. It is shown that seven percent lived with a mother and stepfather, 23% lived with a divorced mother, three percent lived with a widowed mother, one percent lived with a married father, seven percent lived with a divorced father, and one percent lived with a widowed father. Another 21% lived in orphanages, while one percent lived with relatives where a man and woman were in the home. For 11%, home at the time of first commitment was in a home with relatives where only one adult was present. For the white recidivists, 41% were from homes intact with both parents present, six percent were from homes with mothers and stepfathers, 19% were from homes with divorced mothers as heads of the house, six percent lived with widowed mothers, and three percent lived with a married father and stepmother. The figures for those who lived in foster homes was nine percent. Another nine percent lived in orphanages and three percent lived with relatives where only one adult was present. For the black non-recidivist 17% were living with both parents when committed the first time, five percent were living with a mother and stepfather, 23% were living with divorced mothers, and 17% were living with widowed

TABLE LVII

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY CHILD'S FAMILY STATUS

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Black Non-Recidivist N = 17		White Non-Recidivist N = 55	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Family Status*</u>								
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	9	17	13	41	3	17	15	27
2	4	7	2	6	1	5	9	16
3	12	23	6	19	4	23	10	18
4	2	3	2	6	3	17	0	0
5	1	1	1	3	0	0	4	7
6	4	7	0	0	0	0	2	3
7	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	3
8	0	0	3	9	2	11	6	10
9	11	21	3	9	3	17	2	3
10	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	3
11	6	11	1	3	1	5	2	3

*See Appendix A for category listings.

mothers. Some 11% were living in foster homes and 17% were from orphanages. For those living with relatives where only one adult was in the home, the figure was five percent. Figures for white non-recidivists showed 27% living with both natural parents when committed, 16% living with mother and stepfather, 18% living with divorced mother, seven percent were living with widowed mothers, and three percent were living with a father and stepmother. Another three percent lived with a divorced father, 10% lived in foster homes, and three percent lived in orphanages. For those who lived in homes with relatives with two adults in the home the number was three percent. There were also three percent who lived with relatives with only one adult in the home. From this it is shown that the percentages of recidivists for both races were similar to those of non-recidivists except in the first category. Here it is shown that for white recidivists 41% lived in the home with both parents. It is also noted that a disproportionate number of children living in orphanages at the time of first commitment become recidivists as opposed to a far lesser number for those who lived in foster homes. This was especially true for black recidivists.

Table LVIII presents information on black recidivists and white recidivists as compared to black non-recidivists and white non-recidivists according to whether they were from rural or urban living areas. The table shows that for black recidivists, three percent lived on individual farms, five percent lived in communities of less than 5,000, 11% lived in communities of 5,000 to 9,999, and 13% lived in communities of 10,000 to 24,999. While another five percent were from communities of 25,000 to 99,999, the highest percentage, 58% were from the large urban centers of 100,000 and above. For the white recidivist nine percent

TABLE LVIII

BLACK RECIDIVISTS AND WHITE RECIDIVISTS AS COMPARED TO BLACK NON-RECIDIVISTS AND
WHITE NON-RECIDIVISTS BY RURAL OR URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE

Variable	Black Recidivist N = 51		White Recidivist N = 31		Black Non-Recidivist N = 17		White Non-Recidivist N = 55	
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3
Individual farm	2	3	3	9	0	0	0	0
Less than 5,000	3	5	0	0	1	5	4	7
5,000 - 9,999	6	11	4	12	0	0	13	23
10,000 - 24,999	7	13	7	22	3	17	8	14
25,000 - 99,999	3	5	5	16	0	0	9	16
Over 100,000	30	58	12	38	13	76	19	34

were from individual farm communities and 12% were from communities of 5,000 to 9,999. Some 22% were from communities of 10,000 to 24,999. Another 16% were from rural-urban communities of 25,000 to 99,999. For 38% the large urban area was their place of residence at the time of first commitment. From this it is shown that a large percentage of recidivists and non-recidivists of both races in the sample were from rural communities.

Summary

This chapter is an exploratory effort to investigate the nature of recidivism among urban and rural juvenile delinquents. Results were divided into four groups paralleling the four groups of delinquents studied. Each of the four groups was compared on the basis of all or part of the 25 selected variables divided into 76 categories. The first group compared recidivists and non-recidivists on 18 variables. The second group examined urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists on 14 variables. The third group studied urban black delinquents and urban white delinquents as compared to rural white delinquents and rural black delinquents on 18 variables. The fourth group presented information on black recidivists and black non-recidivists as compared to white recidivists and white non-recidivists on four variables. The statistics used were frequency count and percentages for each division within the four groupings. From this chapter the findings suggest that there were many similarities between urban and rural delinquency recidivism, such as low I.Q. of subjects, large families, low income and broken homes. On the other hand, there was the suggestion of pronounced differences between

delinquency recidivism in rural and urban areas such as an overwhelmingly higher percentage of rural children from lower income groups being committed to institutions. Another major difference was the high percentage of rural minority group children being committed to institutions in proportion to their incidence in the general population. In addition, rural delinquents on parole were seen less frequently than urban children on parole.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings

This study has been concerned with the degree of recidivism among juvenile delinquents who have been released from juvenile correctional institutions. Specifically, the institutions referred to in this study are state training schools for children who have been adjudicated delinquent. The study focused especially on the rates of recidivism among juvenile delinquents from urban areas as compared to the rates of recidivism among children from rural areas. The study has sought to identify those factors which speak to the properties which are common to as well as those which differentiate between the two populations. The subjects of this study were 172 youths, both male and female, blacks, whites, and Indians of varied socio-economic background from both rural and urban communities in the state of Oklahoma. These children had been committed to a state training school at least once as a result of legal process initiated in a court of proper jurisdiction.

The subjects were divided into four groups as follows: (1) Recidivists and Non-Recidivists; (2) Urban Recidivists and Rural Recidivists, Urban Non-Recidivists and Rural Non-Recidivists; (3) Urban Black Delinquents and Rural White Delinquents, Urban White Delinquents and Rural Black Delinquents; (4) Black Recidivists and White Recidivists, Black Non-Recidivists and White Non-Recidivists.

In order to avoid unnecessary redundancy in explanation, those findings which appear to have practical importance by representative variable were selected from each of the four groups above. Some of the variables were shown to have properties common to both rural and urban areas. These variables are: (1) Institution; (2) Sex; (3) Length of Stay in Institution; (4) Age at First Commitment; (5) Education; (6) Socio-Economic Status; (7) Intelligence; (8) Child's Family Status; (9) Rural-Urban; (10) Type of First Offense. Other representative variables selected are: (11) Type of Second Offense; (12) Disposition of Second Offense; (13) Place of Residence Between Release From First Commitment and Second Offense; (14) Place of Residence Between Release and Second Offense (Demographically); (15) Time Lapse Between Release and Second Commitment; (16) How Often Seen on Parole; (17) Race; (18) Adjustment in Institution During First Stay; (19) Adjustment in Institution During Second Stay. Incorporating these variables it was felt that the most representative information for the purpose of this study was that of the second group (Urban Recidivists and Rural Recidivists compared to Urban Non-Recidivists and Rural Non-Recidivists), which included the following:

(1) Institution. In examining urban recidivism and rural recidivism as compared to urban non-recidivism and rural non-recidivism by institution, it was shown that for urban recidivism Boley had the highest percentage with 31%. Taft was second with 27%, Helena was third with 25%, and Tecumseh was lowest with 15%. For rural recidivism Tecumseh had the highest percentage with 31%, Helena was second with 29%, Boley was third with 25%, and Taft had the lowest number with 14%. For urban non-recidivism Tecumseh and Taft had the highest percentages with 37%

and 25%, respectively; and for rural non-recidivists again Taft and Tecumseh had the highest percentages with 29% and 24%, respectively. The high rate of recidivism for rural as well as urban communities indicates that rural communities must do more work with children in the community rather than sending them to the institution.

(2) Sex. Urban recidivism and rural recidivism as compared to urban non-recidivism and rural non-recidivism by sex showed that for urban recidivists 56% were male and 44% were female. For rural recidivists 54% were male and 45% were female. For urban non-recidivists the highest percentage was among females with 62% shown. For rural non-recidivists the highest percentage was among females with 54%. Thus it is shown that urban recidivists who were male generally had a higher rate of recidivism than rural recidivists who were male, and urban recidivists who were female had a higher percentage than rural recidivists who were female. For the urban non-recidivist who was male the percentage was less than that for the rural non-recidivist who was male, and for the urban non-recidivist who was female the percentage was higher than that of the rural non-recidivist who was female.

(3) Length of Stay During First Commitment. Urban recidivists and rural recidivists as compared to urban non-recidivists and rural non-recidivists by length of stay in the institution during the first commitment showed that for urban recidivists the highest percentage, 22%, stayed 20 months or more. For the rural recidivists the highest percentage, 14%, stayed six months. For the urban non-recidivists the highest percentage, or 11%, were in for six months. Eleven percent stayed seven months and another 11% stayed nine months. For the rural non-recidivists the highest percentage, or 13%, stayed 20 months or more in the

institution. Thus it is shown that a higher percentage of urban recidivists spend a greater length of time in the institution than do urban non-recidivists. Rural recidivists spend a greater length of time in the institution than do rural non-recidivists.

(4) Age at First Commitment. In an examination of urban recidivism and urban non-recidivism as compared to rural recidivism and rural non-recidivism, it was shown that for both urban and rural recidivists the highest concentration of persons who recidivated was from the age range of 12 to 15 years. The rate of recidivism for both urban and rural delinquents was 86%. In looking at urban and rural non-recidivism we find that the highest percentages of non-recidivists were concentrated among those committed for the first time in the age range of 14 through 17 years. From this, two important implications were evident. First, in looking at recidivists and non-recidivists, rural and urban, the earlier the age at which a person is committed for the first time, the greater are his chances of becoming a recidivist. Secondly, since 86% of recidivists were children whose first commitment occurred between the ages of 12 and 15 years, for both urban and rural children, it seems mandatory that more intense and extensive delinquency prevention services and services for delinquency corrections other than institutions should be offered. This is especially true in rural areas where it has been the attitude that problems of delinquency were so few that they were unimportant. This shows from a percentage basis that the problems as manifested in rural areas are similar to those in the urban areas.

(5) Education. Urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists reveal that for urban recidivists 73% were concentrated in grades seven through ten.

Rural recidivists were concentrated in grades six through nine with 20% at the seventh grade level, or almost twice that of the urban recidivists at the seventh grade level. For urban non-recidivists and rural non-recidivists the educational levels at first commitment were generally higher. From this it would appear that in the school systems, especially in the rural areas, procedures for early identification of delinquency should be facilitated and acted upon in the lower grade levels. The relationship between delinquency and quality of education is shown in Table LIX.

TABLE LIX
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY EDUCATION (COLLAPSED DATA)

Variable	Recidivism* N = 91	Non-Recidivism N = 76
8th grade education or less	51 (56) [†]	28 (36)
9th grade education or more	40 (43)	48 (63)
	$\chi^2 = 6.13$	df = 1 p < .05

*The recidivism of three subjects is not known. Two additional subjects were eliminated for undetermined educational status.

[†]Numbers in parentheses in this and all tables are percentages.

Table LIX shows that a higher percentage of recidivists have less than a ninth grade education than do non-recidivists and that a lower percentage of recidivists have an education of ninth grade or above than

do non-recidivists. The findings are significant at the .05 level (Chi square = 6.13, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). From this it may be concluded that lack of education is a factor in precipitating recidivism.

(6) Socio-Economic Status. In studying urban recidivism and urban non-recidivism as compared to rural recidivism and rural non-recidivism it was shown that the highest percentages of urban recidivists were found in the lower middle and lower socio-economic groups with 27% and 52%, respectively, with 15% from the middle class. For rural recidivists the highest percentages were 35% from the lower middle class and 54% from the lower class groups. For urban non-recidivism and rural non-recidivism there was a reflection of the trend for the majority to come from the same class grouping. However, for the urban non-recidivists the percentage was 32% while there was 51% for rural non-recidivists. The conclusion we must reach from this trend is that more than half of the children who have difficulty with the law, rural and urban, will have trouble again. This again seems especially true in the rural areas where few counseling facilities are set up to deal with problems of those youths who have been defined as delinquent by their community. The relationship between social class and delinquency is shown in Tables LX and LXI, constructed by collapsing the data on social class.

Table LX looks at urban and rural delinquency by socio-economic status. For urban delinquency it is shown that while 24% were from the middle and upper classes, the highest percentage was from the lower class. For the rural delinquents, the differences between the percentages of the middle and lower class groups are much greater with nine percent and 55%, respectively. The Chi square value is 7.55 which indicates the significance at the .05 level. This suggests that social class is even

more strongly related to delinquency in rural areas; i.e., an even greater percentage of delinquents are from the lower class in rural communities.

TABLE LX

URBAN DELINQUENCY AS COMPARED TO RURAL DELINQUENCY
BY SOCIAL CLASS (COLLAPSED DATA)

Variable	Urban N = 87	Rural N = 81
Middle class and up	21 (24)	7 (9)
Lower middle class	29 (33)	29 (36)
Lower class	37 (43)	45 (56)
$\chi^2 = 7.55$ $df = 2$ $p < .05$		

TABLE LXI

RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
BY SOCIAL CLASS (COLLAPSED DATA)

Variable	Recidivist N = 90	Non-Recidivist N = 88
Middle class and up	12 (13)	16 (18)
Lower middle class	29 (32)	29 (33)
Lower class	49 (54)	33 (38)
$\chi^2 = 3.28$ $df = 2$ $p > .05$		

Table LXI looks at recidivism and non-recidivism by socio-economic status. The Chi square value is 3.28. While this is not significant at the .05 level, it is indicated that a high percentage (54%) of both recidivists and non-recidivists are from groups of low socio-economic status.

(7) Intelligence (I.Q.). Urban recidivists and rural recidivists compared to rural non-recidivists and urban non-recidivists by intelligence quotient reveals that of the urban recidivists listed, 48% had I.Q. scores of less than 100. For 38% no record was shown that I.Q. tests were ever administered. For rural recidivists 60% had I.Q. scores of less than 100. For 31% records show that no tests had been administered before or during their stay in the institution. For urban non-recidivists 49% had scores of 100 or less and 16% had scores ranging from 100 through 110. For rural non-recidivists 39% had scores of 100 or less and eight percent had scores in the range of 100 through 110. For 51% no scores were listed.

From the information given above there are two conclusions to be reached. First, because of the large percentage of persons with scores listed of less than 100 on a possible scale of 80 to 140, it might be assumed that many who were placed in training schools for delinquents should have been adjudged mentally retarded. This is especially true in the rural areas where 60% had scores of less than 100. Secondly, the high percentage of persons with no record of I.Q. tests having been administered (83% in the case of rural non-recidivists) suggests that no such service was rendered in the community. It must be concluded therefore that if more diligent efforts were put forth to make these services available and to utilize them, fewer children may enter the

juvenile justice system and be diverted therefore from embarking on a career of delinquency and recidivism. Many of these children who were legally defined as delinquents might have received treatment for problems incidental to mental retardation.

(8) Child's Family Status. In an examination of urban recidivism and urban non-recidivism as compared to rural recidivism and rural non-recidivism by the child's family status at the time of first commitment it is revealed that for urban recidivists and rural recidivists there was no substantial difference, percentage-wise, in family formation. It is revealed, however, when studying those who lived in foster homes and those who lived in orphanages at the time of first commitment that there was an important contrast. For urban recidivists, of those who lived in foster homes at first commitment, two percent recidivated but of those who lived in orphanages 20% recidivated. For rural recidivists, of those who lived in foster homes eight percent recidivated while of those who lived in orphanages 14% recidivated. From this it may be concluded that greater efforts should be explored to find foster homes in the community for children who come under the jurisdiction of the court rather than placement in an orphanage. Foster care appears to better prepare the child for a non-delinquent life style in the community and divert him from a life style of delinquency and recidivism.

(9) Rural-Urban. In an examination of urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists, it is revealed that for urban recidivists some 97% were from urban centers of 100,000 or more population. For urban non-recidivists 79% were from these same large communities. For rural or rural-urban communities 98% were from communities of less than 5,000 to communities

of 50,000. A similar percentage of 96% was the case for rural non-recidivists. On the basis of recidivists and non-recidivists, however, more recidivists of the sample were from the rural areas of Oklahoma at the time of their first commitment. From this it is evident that more should be done to implement more services aimed at delinquency prevention and juvenile corrections.

(10) Type of First Offense. In examining urban recidivists and urban non-recidivists as compared to rural recidivists and rural non-recidivists by type of first offense it is shown that for urban recidivists and rural recidivists there was in most cases a similarity in offenses committed and the percentages of persons committing them. This was true except in the category of car theft where for nine percent of the urban recidivists the offense was car theft and for 27% of the rural recidivists the offense was car theft. The trend for urban non-recidivists and rural non-recidivists by type of offense was similar to that of urban and rural recidivists. Thus it is suggested, on the basis of these similarities of offenses for both urban and rural areas, that more adequate services should be given in the rural areas to narrow the disparity between those services offered in urban areas and those services offered in rural areas.

(11) Type of Second Offense. In examining urban recidivists as compared to rural recidivists by second offense it is shown that there was a similarity in second offenses; however, for urban recidivists there was an increase in the percentage of persons committing these offenses especially in the area of school relatedness. For rural recidivists there was a similarity of offenses to those committed by urban recidivists, plus an increase in the number and kind of offenses such as

extreme violence and drug usage. From this it is shown that there appears to be a need for increased effort on the part of the community to work more intensely with youths in the community prior to first commitment, especially in rural areas, since institutions appear to be a training ground for unsophisticated rural delinquents.

(12) Disposition of Second Offense. In examining urban recidivists and rural recidivists on the basis of disposition of second offense it is shown that for urban recidivists 56% were returned to the institution and four percent were placed in foster homes, 13% were returned to parents' home with intensive supervision, and 20% were given other placements which include adult prisons and out of state residency. For the rural recidivist the pattern was similar except that a higher percentage, 60%, was returned to the institution and 18% were placed in a setting other than home and juvenile institutions. From this finding it is felt that rural communities need to put forth greater efforts to find placements for its returning youths in order to keep them out of further involvement with juvenile and adult criminal justice systems. This is especially true in Oklahoma under the new law which raises the age of juveniles from 16 to 18 years.

(13) Place of Residence Between Release from First Commitment and Second Offense. For urban recidivists as well as rural recidivists it is shown that the place of residence between first and second offense was the child's home in the community from which he was committed. For urban recidivists the rate was 75%. For rural recidivists the rate was 72%. Since it appears that a majority of children lived in their home communities upon release from institutions, counseling programs should be provided in the home community. Such services are available in the

urban areas with professionals who know how to work with juveniles. This is not usually the case in rural areas.

(14) Place of Residence Between Release from First Commitment and Second Offense (Demographically). In examining urban recidivists and rural recidivists by the population of the place of residence it is revealed that for urban recidivists 90% lived in large urban areas of 100,000 or more. For rural recidivists 70% lived in communities of less than 25,000. Here again, since such a large number of rural recidivists lived in small communities between first and second offenses and return to institutions in the same proportions as do urban recidivists regardless of community size, there appears to be a need for more services in the community to keep children out of institutions for the second time.

(15) Time Lapse Between Release and Second Offense. A study of urban recidivists as compared to rural recidivists by lapse of time between release and second offense shows that of urban recidivists the highest percentage, 36%, were on leave from the institution from six months to one year before second offense. For the rural recidivists the highest percentage, or 39%, had been released six months or less before the second offense was committed. From these figures one must conclude that there is a similarity between the time urban recidivists and rural recidivists stay on leave between release and second offense. It therefore appears that rural recidivists need help in their communities which would help a larger number stay on leave for a longer period of time.

(16) How Often Seen on Parole. In studying urban recidivists as compared to rural recidivists on the basis of how often the child was seen on parole, the findings for urban recidivists show that 63% were seen on a regular basis and only 15% were seen irregularly. For rural

recidivists the findings were reversed, with 29% being seen on a regular basis and 58% being seen irregularly. From this it may safely be concluded that there is a great need for better services for persons on parole from juvenile institutions who live in rural areas. This lack of regular counseling service appears to have a relationship to a high percentage of recidivism. Table LXII calls attention to this relationship.

TABLE LXII

URBAN RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO RURAL RECIDIVISM
BY HOW OFTEN SEEN WHILE ON PAROLE*

Variable	Urban Recidivist N = 35	Rural Recidivist N = 42
Regularly	28 (80)	14 (33)
Irregularly	7 (20)	28 (66)
$\chi^2 = 11.78$ $df = 1$ $p < .05$		

*Some 15 cases had no record of how often subjects were seen on after-care.

By considering only those cases which were seen on parole, we find that urban recidivists were seen more often on parole than rural recidivists. Urban recidivists were seen regularly while on parole while rural recidivists were seen irregularly. An examination of the relationship between the rate of recidivism and how often the subject was seen on parole is significant at the .05 level (Chi square = 11.78, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

(17) Race. In an examination of data on urban recidivism and urban non-recidivism as compared to rural recidivism and rural non-recidivism by race, it is shown that for urban recidivists who were black 68% recidivated. For urban recidivists who were white the rate was 29% and for Indians two percent. For urban non-recidivists it was shown that 39% were black, 55% were white, two percent were Indians and two percent belonged to racial or ethnic groups other than those listed above. For rural recidivists 43% were black, 37% were white, and 18% were Indian. For rural non-recidivists 45% were black, 37% were white, eight percent were Indian and two percent other. From the high percentage of blacks and Indians who were recidivists it would appear that special programs are needed to deal with problems which are unique to minority groups in order to keep them out of the juvenile justice system. This is especially true in the rural areas where there is a grossly disproportionate number of blacks being returned to the institutions. Black adults in the community need to be involved and made aware that efforts put forth on their part to divert these youths from the institutions is an area of proper responsibility. Tables LXIII and LXIV speak to this point.

Table LXIII examines urban and rural delinquency by race. It is indicated here that while the Chi square value is not significant at the .05 level, it is shown that for both urban and rural areas more blacks are committed than white (Chi square = .04, df = 1, $p > .05$).

Table LXIV looks at urban recidivism and non-recidivism among black and white children. Since Chi square is not quite significant at the .05 level, it is indicated that black and white children recidivate equally (Chi square = 3.48, df = 1, $p > .05$).

TABLE LXIII
 URBAN DELINQUENCY AS COMPARED TO RURAL DELINQUENCY
 BY BLACK-WHITE DESIGNATION

Race	Urban Delinquency N = 84	Rural Delinquency N = 70
Black	47 (56)	38 (54)
White	37 (44)	32 (46)
$\chi^2 = .04$ $df = 1$ $p > .05$		

TABLE LXIV
 RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO NON-RECIDIVISM
 BY BLACK-WHITE DESIGNATION

Race	Recidivists* N = 82	Non-Recidivists N = 72
Black	51 (62)	34 (72)
White	31 (37)	38 (52)
$\chi^2 = 3.48$ $df = 1$ $p > .05$		

*The recidivism of three subjects is unknown.

(18) Adjustment in Institution on First Commitment. An examination of urban recidivists and rural recidivists according to adjustment in institutions upon first commitment shows that for urban recidivists 40% had a poor adjustment, 31% had a fair adjustment, and six percent had a good adjustment. For rural recidivists it is shown that 27% adjusted

poorly, 43% had a fair adjustment, and 20% had what might be considered a good adjustment.

(19) Adjustment in Institution on Second Commitment. A study of urban recidivism as compared to rural recidivism on the basis of adjustment in the institution during the second commitment shows that for urban recidivists 25% had poor adjustments, 25% had fair adjustments, and nine percent had good adjustments. For rural recidivists 22% made poor adjustments, 37% made fair adjustments and six percent made good adjustments. For urban and rural recidivists, adjustment in institutions is not a clear indication of rehabilitation taking place in the individual but often an indication that the child has accepted the regulations in order to "do his time and get out" with a minimum of difficulty. This is often referred to as an "institutionalization" of the individual which is detrimental to the individual in most cases. Since it is shown that a higher percentage, or 43%, of rural recidivists made fair and good adjustments as opposed to 34% for urban recidivists, there seems to be a need to work more with these children to keep them out of the institution altogether. The above is illustrated by Tables LXV and LXVI, in which the data have been collapsed in order to portray the relationship more clearly.

Table LXV examines urban and rural delinquency by adjustment in the institution on the first commitment. It is indicated that rural delinquents adjust better in institutions on first commitment than urban recidivists. The Chi square value is significant at the .05 level (Chi square = 4.92, df = 1, $p < .05$).

TABLE LXV

URBAN DELINQUENCY AS COMPARED TO RURAL DELINQUENCY BY
ADJUSTMENT ON FIRST COMMITMENT (COLLAPSED DATA)

Adjustment on First Commitment*	Urban Delinquents N = 37	Rural Delinquents N = 39
Poor	19 (51)	10 (25)
At least fair	18 (48)	29 (74)
$\chi^2 = 4.92$ $df = 1$ $p < .05$		

*No record of adjustment is shown for 95 subjects.

TABLE LXVI

URBAN RECIDIVISM AS COMPARED TO RURAL RECIDIVISM BY
ADJUSTMENT ON SECOND COMMITMENT (COLLAPSED DATA)

Adjustment on Second Commitment*	Urban Recidivists N = 35	Rural Recidivists N = 44
Poor	18 (51)	13 (30)
At least fair	17 (49)	31 (70)
$\chi^2 = 3.92$ $df = 1$ $p < .05$		

*No record of adjustment is shown for 116 subjects.

Table LXVI indicates rural recidivists adjust better in institutions on first commitment than urban recidivists. The Chi square value is significant at the .05 level (Chi square = 3.92, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Conclusions

Many of the social problems which are endemic to the urban area and are seemingly important factors in causing problems of delinquency are also very much a part of the social setting of the rural community. It has been this writer's privilege to work in rural communities of Oklahoma for the past seven years and problems such as disruptive families, overcrowded and unsanitary living conditions, poverty, incomplete family constellations with absentee parents are not uncommon. Other problems also common are problems of loneliness, lack of recreational facilities, excessive drug usage, racial conflict and school related delinquency such as truancy and class room disruption by mentally or socially retarded students. This study, through empirical findings, has supported the contention that many of these factors do indeed exist. In the rural community, because of its very nature of not being an impersonal entity, children with these problems are readily identified and singled out and quickly isolated from the larger community. Acceptable activities of the larger community are often denied them. Perhaps, however, the most disturbing and widespread factor which precipitates a rural child on the road to delinquency and recidivism seems to be the pervasive attitude that problems of delinquency are negligible in the rural community and, therefore, specialized services for specialized treatment are not needed. However, such services plus the personal and informal handling of delinquency problems in rural communities may reduce rural delinquency.

Recommendations

In light of problems underlying this study and the findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. There is the common and widespread belief that juvenile delinquency is indigenous to large urban areas. This study has revealed that in the state of Oklahoma 51% of all recidivists from the sample used are from communities with populations other than those of 100,000 or above. at the time of their first institutional commitment. Because many of the problems could be eliminated through counseling, it is recommended that broadly based programs be established in rural areas which have the capability of promoting and effecting intensive counseling services for pre-delinquent, delinquent children and families of delinquents.

2. It is recommended that personnel who have been designated to work with delinquent children be increased in those rural areas in which delinquency appears to be increasing.

3. It is recommended that training of existing personnel be effected as part of an on going in-service program in order to work with all children in such a way as to divert them from the juvenile justice system. These persons would include police youth bureau personnel, court probation and parole personnel, and district court judges who sit as juvenile court judges.

4. It is recommended that programs be promoted to enhance community awareness of delinquency problems in rural areas. The purpose would be to effect alternate ways of dealing with delinquent youths rather than sending them to institutions. This seems particularly important since rural youths seem to be sent to the institutions at a rate greater than that of urban youths on a comparative basis. In addition, they appear to become more readily "institutionalized."

5. Since a large proportion of the problems which place children in the juvenile justice system and lead to identification as delinquents

and recidivists are school related, school administrators, counselors, and classroom teachers should be required to have special training in early identification and treatment of the pre-delinquent and delinquent child who is usually pushed out.

6. School teachers and counselors should be especially aware of the needs of the child in the rural community who returns to school in his home community from a training school setting.

7. It is recommended that better follow-up or after-care services be offered in the rural communities since 58% of all rural recidivists in this study are seen on an irregular and haphazard schedule.

8. Since such a large number, 54%, of rural recidivists are from the lower socio-economic groups it is recommended that expanded recreation programs be broadened to include all children and not just the rural middle class. Often rural organizations exclude those children who have been identified and adjudicated delinquent.

9. Since 61% of all rural recidivists are children of minority races, it is recommended that special programs be designed to fit their specific needs. Special efforts should be made to keep them out of juvenile correctional institutions. Many alternative placements are denied them because of race.

10. It is recommended that foster care be explored as an alternative placement for pre-delinquent children instead of orphanages and other children's institutions because three times as many recidivists lived in orphanages at first commitment than did recidivists who lived in foster homes at first commitment. For recidivists from rural areas twice as many who lived in orphanages eventually wound up as delinquents than did those who lived in foster homes.

11. It is recommended that continuing research be done on the total problem of juvenile delinquency recidivism. The dearth of material on this particular subject is appalling. This is especially true in the case of rural recidivists since there has been a tendency to relate findings of studies on urban delinquency to rural delinquency.

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APPENDIX A

CODED INFORMATION INSTRUMENTS SHEET

1, 2, 3,	_____ , _____ , _____	I.D.
4	_____	Institution 1=Helena 2=Boley 3=Tecumseh 4=Taft
5	_____	Sex 1=male 2=female
6	_____	Race 1=Black 2=White 3=Indian 4=Other
7,8	_____ , _____	Length of stay during first commitment (number of months)
9,10	_____ , _____	Date of first commitment (last two digits)
11,12	_____ , _____	Age at first commitment (last birthday)
13,14	_____ , _____	Education (total number of years)
15	_____	Socio-Economic Status 1=upper 2=upper middle 3=middle 4=lower middle 5=lower
16	_____	I.Q. 1=less than 80 2=80-90 3=90-100 4=100-110 5=110-120 6=120-130 7=130-140 8=over 140

17,18	_____	<p>Child's Family Status</p> <p>1=living with both parents</p> <p>2=living with married mother</p> <p>3=living with divorced mother</p> <p>4=living with mother (widowed, etc)</p> <p>5=living with married father</p> <p>6=living with divorced father</p> <p>7=father (widowed, etc.)</p> <p>8=foster home</p> <p>9=orphanage</p> <p>10=relations (man and woman)</p> <p>11=relations (one only)</p>
19	_____	<p>Female Siblings</p> <p>(number of sisters, 1-9)</p>
20	_____	<p>Male Siblings</p> <p>(number of brothers 1-9)</p>
21	_____	<p>Total Siblings</p> <p>(1-9 or more)</p>
22	_____	<p>Birth Order</p> <p>0=only child</p> <p>1=first child</p> <p>2=second child</p> <p>3=3rd or more</p>
23	_____	<p>Rural Urban</p> <p>1=farm</p> <p>2=less than 5,000</p> <p>3=5,000 - 9,999</p> <p>4=10,000 - 24,999</p> <p>5=25,000 - 99,999</p> <p>6=over 100,000 (Oklahoma City, Tulsa, Oklahoma, Lawton)</p>
24	_____	<p>Satellite</p> <p>1=part of metropolitan Oklahoma city, Tulsa, Lawton</p> <p>2=within 30 miles</p> <p>3=31-80 miles</p> <p>4=81-150 miles</p> <p>5=over 150 miles</p>

25,26

Type offense for first commitment

Sex

- 1=exposure
- 2=rape
- 3=animal
- 4=fornication (human) group
- 5=fornication (human) individual

Property

- 6=car theft
- 7=breaking & entering
- 8=theft (shoplifting, etc.)
- 9=armed robbery
- 10=major theft
- 11=arson

Behavioral

- 12=truancy
- 13=runaway
- 14=child=parent (staying out late, unruly in the home, etc.)
- 15=peer problems (fighting, etc.)
- 16=extreme violence (murder, assault)

27,28

Type of Second Offense
(same categories as above)

29

Disposition on Second Offense

- 1=returned to institution
- 2=foster home
- 3=ranch
- 4=parents (with intensive supervision)
- 5=mental institution
- 6=(other)

30

School Relatedness of Second Offense

- 1=school related
- 2=not school related

31

Place of residence between first and second offense

- County of commitment
 - 1=parents
 - 2=not with parents
- Not county of commitment
 - 3=parents
 - 4=not parents

32. _____ Place of residence between first
commitment and 2nd offense
1=farm
2=less than 5,000
3=5,000-9,999
4=10,000-24,999
5=25,000-99,999
6=over 100,000 (Okla. City, Tulsa,
Lawton)
-
33. _____ Time between release and 2nd
offense
1=less than 2 weeks
2=2 weeks = 1 month
3=1 - 6 months
4=6 months - 1 year
5=1 - 2 years
6=more than 2 years
-
34. _____ How often seen by counsel
1=regularly
2=irregularly
-
35. _____ Admstment - first commitment
1=poor
2=fair
3=good

APPENDIX B

LETTERS REQUESTING PERMISSION TO USE
STATE RECORDS AND FACILITIES



OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY • STILLWATER

Department of Sociology
 (405) 372-6211, Exts. 7020, 7021

74074

June 7, 1971

Mr. L.E. Rader, Director
 Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services
 Sequoyah Memorial State Office Building
 P.O. Box 25352
 Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73125

Attention: Theodore Baumberger, Ph.D.

Dear Sir:

As you know, since the Fall of 1969 I have been on leave of absence from the Department working toward a Ph.D. and teaching courses in Sociology here at the University in Stillwater. As I look back over the eight years since first coming to the Department of Public Welfare. I am more aware than ever of the debt of gratitude I owe to you, as Director, to my supervisors, friends and co-workers in the department. I am nearing completion of my course work and exploring the feasibility of research for a dissertation in the area recidivism among juvenile delinquents with emphasis directed specifically toward a comparison of rates of return between rural and urban communities with a look at the possible causes for any similarities or differences that might exist.

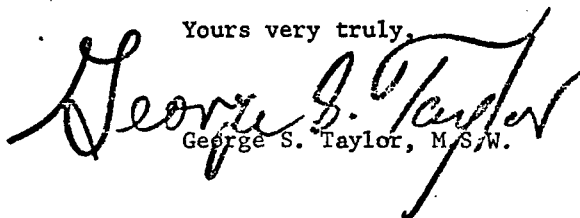
This research will involve primarily a study of case records (approximately 500) all of which may not be current, along with interviews with personnel of the probation, aftercare and institutional services who work with children. In this manner the individual child will be protected from the researcher. With this in mind I am requesting permission that I be allowed to work with such case records and/or personnel deemed necessary to adequately facilitate a competent research project in this area. In addition to the records of the Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services (Institutional Division), which will be the main core of my research material, I have requested, and been granted access to certain case information of the Tulsa Juvenile Court, the Oklahoma City Juvenile Court and Mr. Abe Novick, Executive Director, Berkshire Boy's Farm of Canaan, New York who helped us in our Juvenile Delinquency survey in 1967.

Page 2

My interest in a comparative study of delinquency between rural and urban communities has been heightened in recent months while doing weekend counseling sessions in three rural Oklahoma communities, it was realized more clearly by me at this time that many of the same dynamics that lead to delinquency in urban areas are present in rural areas. Therefore, I feel that this study maybe quite worthwhile in programs of delinquency prevention and correction.

Thank you for any information or suggestions you may have in this endeavor.

Yours very truly,



George S. Taylor, M.S.W.

GST/ap

STATE OF OKLAHOMA
DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL AND
REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

To: Committee on Research Date: June 8, 1971
From: Ted Baumberger, Ph.D. Attention:
Adm. Assistant, Children's Services
Subject: Research request by In Reply - Address to
George S. Taylor, M.S.W. Attention: _____

I have discussed the attached request with Mr. Taylor and believe this to be a very worthwhile research project, therefore, I recommend the authorization of Mr. Taylor's dissertation research.

Ted Baumberger
Ted Baumberger, Ph.D.

Attachment

COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH:

J. Harry Johnson, Legal Division
Dale Mitchell, Research
James Overfelt, State Homes and Schools
Phil Smith, Data Processing
Ted Baumberger, Ph.D.

TB:bl

APPROVED

JUN 15 1971
[Signature]
DIRECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL
AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

I recommend approval.
Phil J. Smith

JUN 9 1971

STATE OF OKLAHOMA
DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL AND
REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

To: Ted Baumberger, Ph.D.
Adm. Assistant, Children's Services

From: Dale L. Mitchell, Supervisor
Division of Research and Statistics

Subject: Research request by
George S. Taylor, M. S. W.

Date: June 9, 1971

Attention:

In Reply - Address to
Attention: Dale L. Mitchell, Supervisor
Div. of Research & Statistics

In reference to your memo of June 8, 1971 regarding request of George S. Taylor to conduct a research project using the institutional facilities of this department, you may consider this memo my recommendation for approval of this project.

Dale L. Mitchell

DLM:fg

APPROVED
JUN 11 1971
[Signature]
DIRECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL
AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

STATE OF OKLAHOMA
DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL AND
REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

To: Ted Baumberger, Ph.D. Date: June 9, 1971
Administrative Assistant
Consultant on Children's Services

From: J. Harry Johnson, Chief Counsel Attention: ,
Legal Division

Subject: Research request by In Reply - Address to
George S. Taylor, M.S.W. Attention: _____

I have reviewed the proposed research project of the above named individual, and recommend that authorization to conduct this project be granted, with the understanding that it is to be conducted subject to the rules and regulations of this Department.

Harry Johnson

JHJ:AB:tm

APPROVED
JUN 15 1971
DIRECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL
AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

STATE OF OKLAHOMA
DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL AND
REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

To: Committee on Research Date: June 11, 1971

From: James R. Overfelt, Adm. Asst. Attention:
Bureau of State Homes and Schools

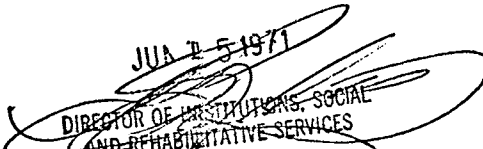
Subject: Research request by George S. Taylor In Reply - Address to
Attention: _____

I have discussed this with Mr. Taylor by telephone. From our discussion and his letter of request it is my recommendation that this project be approved.

JRO:dg


James R. Overfelt, Adm. Asst.
Bureau of State Homes and Schools

APPROVED

JUN 15 1971

DIRECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL
AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

STATE OF OKLAHOMA
DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL AND
REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

To: Mr. L. E. Rader
Director of Institutions,
Social and Rehabilitative Services

Date: June 11, 1971

From: Ted Baumberger, Ph.D.
Adm. Assistant, Children's Services

Attention:

Subject: Research Request Involving
Records of the Division of
State Homes and Schools by
George S. Taylor, M.S.W.

**In Reply - Address to
Attention:** _____

This is to recommend authorization and approval for the attached request for research involving the records of the Division of State Homes and Schools by George S. Taylor. This has been discussed with Mr. James Overfelt, Adm. Assistant, Bureau of State Homes and Schools, as stated in the attached memorandum.

Recommendations of approval have been made by the Research Committee with the understanding that the research project is to be conducted subject to the rules and regulations of the Department and that a copy of Mr. Taylor's thesis be furnished to the Department.

Ted Baumberger
Ted Baumberger, Ph.D.

Attachments

TB:bl

cc: File - Baumberger

6-18-71 Copy of approved memo to:

Executive office
Overfelt, State Homes & Schools
George Taylor
File - Baumberger

APPROVED
JUN 13 1971
[Signature]
DIRECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS, SOCIAL
AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES

VITA⁸

George Shedrick Taylor

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DIFFERENTIALS AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY RECIDIVISM

Major Field: Sociology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Sumter, South Carolina, January 3, 1927, the son of Rev. and Mrs. W. M. Taylor.

Education: Graduated from Lincoln High School, Sumter, South Carolina, in December, 1946; received Bachelor of Science degree in Sociology from the Agricultural and Technical State University of Greensboro, North Carolina, in 1950; received the Bachelor of Divinity degree in Theology from Howard University in 1958; received the Master of Social Work degree from the University of Oklahoma in 1967; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in July, 1972.

Professional Experience: Chaplain in the United States Army from 1959-1962; co-pastor of church in inner-city, interracial team Ministry, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, 1962-1963; joint appointment as Institutional Social Worker in State Training School (Correctional) and Juvenile After-Care Officer, Oklahoma Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services, 1963-1965; Supervisor of Juvenile After-Care, 1965-1968; correctional training specialist and coordinator for staff development and training for children's institutions, Oklahoma Department of Institutions and Rehabilitative Services, 1968-1969; graduate teaching associate, Oklahoma State University, Department of Sociology, 1969-1970; member of faculty as Assistant Professor of Sociology and Director of juvenile corrections training program, Oklahoma State University, 1970 to present.