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AN INVESTIGATION OF PREDISPOSITIONAL FACTORS
TOWARD DELINQUENCY AND EXTENT OF DELINQUENT
BEHAVIOR AMONG NONDELINQUENTS

By

LARRY JOSEPH HALFORD

B.A. - Idaho State University - 1963

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of

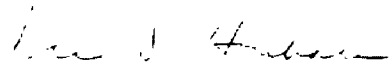
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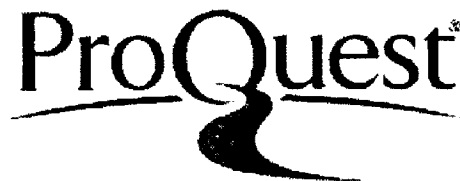


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L.J.H.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although reliable comparative statistics are not available, American criminologists and sociologists generally concede that the United States has a very large amount of adult crime and juvenile delinquency, perhaps the highest volume of crime and delinquency of any advanced country in the world. It has also been conclusively demonstrated by several reseachers that the general population of American citizens have participated widely in delinquent and criminal behavior.¹ Before proceeding into the specific area of this research, a description of certain aspects of American culture is appropriate as an introduction to this investigation.

A noted criminologist, Walter C. Reckless, has pointed out that people in America have much less respect for law than do the citizens of other Western nations. He also believes that the law-abiding tradition in America is not as strong as that in other countries, but that "on the contrary, America has a sort of lawless tradition . . .

¹Austin L. Porterfield, Youth In Trouble (Fort Worth: Leo Potishman Foundation, 1946), pp. 37-51; James S. Wallerstein and Clement J. Wyle, "Our Law-abiding Lawbreakers," Probation, 25: 107-12, April, 1947.

which came with the settlement of a new country and the pushing out to new frontiers."² Proceeding further into history, it has been observed that "through the Revolution which made the United States independent of England, Americans recognized values more basic than respect for law."³ No doubt tradition has been an important factor contributing to the general attitude held by the public, but what is there about American culture that permits selective obedience to law? Donald R. Taft has provided part of the answer. He describes American culture as "dynamic, complex, materialistic, individualistic, and impersonal," characteristics which seem to lend themselves well to lawlessness. He further states that the American people have faith in law without expecting or even approving obedience to all laws.⁴

Marshall B. Clinard points out that "although American culture professes obedience to law, there is extensive flaunting of these taboos on the part of the general adult population."⁵ The adults in a society cannot escape being

²Walter C. Reckless, The Crime Problem (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1961), p. 2.

³Donald R. Taft, Criminology (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956), p. 42.

⁴Ibid., p. 174.

⁵Marshall B. Clinard, Sociology of Deviant Behavior (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963), p. 168.

examples of conduct for the youth; in a country such as the United States, with its multiple systems of social values, the adult examples may not always be consistent with the law. Thus, "the inconsistent value patterns of the adult world constitute one of the chief moral hazards to the juvenile in the modern world."⁶

Regardless of how important the general culture may be to the presence of delinquent attitudes, and despite the probable influence of inconsistent adult behavior patterns on adolescent behavior, it should not be construed that these are the only sources of delinquent attitudes. To a great extent, a person is a product of the culture in which he is raised; therefore, the neighborhood that a youth is reared in and the consequent companions he chooses, certainly can be significant sources of deviant attitudes. The values and norms prevalent in a neighborhood, whether law-abiding or deviant, are transmitted to the juvenile primarily through the companions with which he associates. Hence, the popular notion that "bad companions" play an important role in the incidence of crime and delinquency may often be correct.

Other media that may transmit deviant norms include all facets of the mass media, especially television, motion pictures, newspapers, and comic books. Although it

⁶Ibid., p. 174.

is generally accepted by authorities that these media do not cause a person to become delinquent, it is likewise felt that their influence as stimulants on those who already possess deviant norms may be considerable.

In short, the process by which delinquent attitudes are inculcated in an individual is a complex one; contemporary American society seems to provide many conditions that might produce lack of respect for law and concomitant delinquent behavior. In fact, several investigations have proposed that few if any juveniles or adults avoid breaking the law from time to time and that behavior patterns of those classified as delinquent and nondelinquent are frequently more a matter of degree and frequency rather than kind.⁷

The central problem of this study flows directly from this proposition.

The Problem

The problem in this research is to ascertain the extent of delinquent tendencies and behavior among a sample of male nondelinquents. Answers to the following questions should help in the solution of this problem:

⁷These investigations will be discussed in the following chapter.

What is the predisposition towards delinquency of the typical nondelinquent?

How many specific delinquent acts has the typical nondelinquent committed? How frequently?

How does the predisposition towards delinquency of nondelinquents, as well as their participation in the specified delinquent acts, compare with that of incarcerated delinquents of comparable age?

What is the relation between selected background factors and delinquent tendencies and behavior?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Ecological studies of crime, delinquency, and other forms of social disorganization, all by well-trained disciples of the Park and Burgess school, appeared in great abundance in this country during the 1920's and 30's. One of the best known researchers in this group was Clifford Shaw, who, by searching official records, discovered that the incidence of delinquency in the city of Chicago was very unevenly distributed, that in fact certain areas of the city had, over a period of decades, accounted for the greater share of reported delinquent behavior. Since it was the congested and disorganized sections lying near the central business and warehouse areas that exhibited the most delinquency, Shaw concluded that the delinquency rate in a metropolitan area declines proportionate to the distance away from such areas. Thus, the concept of the "delinquency area" was born.⁸ Further research in cities other than Chicago tended to substantiate the findings of Shaw and his colleagues with reference to the "delinquency area" concept.

⁸Clifford R. Shaw, Delinquency Areas (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929).

Two Pioneer Studies of Unrecorded Delinquent Behavior

Although the ecological approach to delinquency and crime did contribute to an understanding of these problems, there have been very few studies utilizing this approach over the past twenty-five years. The decline of this once popular approach was due in large part to the impact created by the research of Sophia Robison in the middle 1930's.⁹ Dr. Robison was convinced that previous studies, especially the work of Shaw, which showed high concentrations of delinquency in slum areas and almost none in more well-to-do areas, did not represent the true picture of delinquency. As she states:

Although the delinquency area technique of study, developed in Chicago and later extended to an examination of the locus of delinquency in other cities, has received official recognition, the suspicion persists that this method is not only essentially invalid to indicate the extent of juvenile delinquent behavior but that it does not furnish any very useful approach to the problem of understanding or preventing delinquent behavior.¹⁰

Dr. Robison contended that many cases of delinquency in the more well-to-do sections of a city never reached the official police and court records, on which the earlier ecological studies were based. In order to test her thesis, Miss Robison obtained detailed records on delinquent be-

⁹Sophia Robison, Can Delinquency Be Measured? (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936).

¹⁰Ibid., p. 4.

havior of children referred to three public and forty private agencies in New York City. The results of her study indicated that when official court records alone were used as the criterion for extent of delinquency, a third of the actual cases of delinquent behavior was completely overlooked. She also discovered that many of the adolescents referred to the private agencies were from upper-middle and upper class families, youth who were supposed to be immune to delinquent tendencies according to the ecological studies.

Miss Robison's study was followed by a similar investigation conducted by Edward E. Schwartz in Washington, D.C.¹¹ Mr. Schwartz compared the official records of the juvenile court with those of various juvenile divisions of the police department, as well as those of two public welfare agencies and a department of the Board of Education. He discovered that when the count of juvenile delinquency was limited to official court records, only 43 per cent of the actual total of known delinquent behavior was included. The remaining 57 per cent of known delinquent behavior was handled by agencies other than the juvenile court, consequently was not included in the official statistics. Curiously enough, the department of the Board of Education

¹¹Edward E. Schwartz, "A Community Experiment in the Measurement of Juvenile Delinquency," Yearbook, 1945 National Probation Association, New York, 1945.

had handled almost one-third of all known cases.

In conclusion, although Robison and Schwartz have conclusively proven that the ecological approach to delinquency is inadequate, it should not be assumed that the ecological studies are completely invalid. Delinquency areas do exist; but it must be remembered that they do not have a monopoly on delinquent behavior. As the authors of a well-known criminology text state it:

Although no one can deny that the great bulk of delinquency comes from the blighted areas of our large cities, this fact cannot obscure the existence of much delinquency in the homes of the economically favored. It is just not recorded so frequently.¹²

Volume of Unreported Delinquency

The pioneer work of Robison and Schwartz provided the impetus to two later studies which were directed toward obtaining a measure of the volume of unrecorded crime and delinquency. One of these, conducted by Wallerstein and Wyle, sampled adults living in the metropolitan area of New York City.¹³ Questionnaires containing forty-nine specific offenses, all serious enough to draw a maximum of one year in jail under the New York penal code, were received from 1698 individuals, including 1020 men and 678 women. The

¹²Harry E. Barnes and Negley K. Teeters, New Horizons in Criminology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959), p. 157.

Wallerstein and Wyle, loc. cit.

respondents were requested to indicate which of the forty-nine offenses they had committed in adult life (that is, over sixteen years of age when juvenile court jurisdiction ceases in New York state). 99 per cent of all respondents admitted the commission of at least one offense. The mean number of offenses committed by all male respondents was 18, with a range of 8.2 for ministers to 20.2 for laborers; whereas the average for all female respondents was 11, with a range of 9.8 for laborers to 14.4 for those in government and military work. Fourteen of the forty-nine listed offenses were felonies; 69 per cent of the men and 29 per cent of the women admitted the commission of at least one felony.

The significance of these figures is well-stated by the authors of the study:

With all due allowance, the figures in this study indicate, however, that the number of acts legally constituting crimes are far in excess of those officially reported. Unlawful behavior, far from being an abnormal social or psychological manifestation, is in truth a very common phenomenon.¹⁴

The primary conclusion deriving from this investigation, according to the authors, is the revelation that lawlessness among respectable people is widespread.

The second study aimed at determining the extent of

¹⁴Ibid., p. 112.

unrecorded delinquency was undertaken by Murphy, Shirley, and Witmer in connection with the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study.¹⁵ The case histories of 114 boys from the lower and lower-middle classes, who had shown signs of delinquent behavior, provided the information for the study. A sheet of more than fifty specific offenses divided into three categories was drawn up and included: (1) violations of city ordinances, (2) minor offenses, and (3) more serious offenses. The results indicated that only thirteen of the 114 boys had never committed an act that could be classified as legal delinquency. Of the remaining 101 boys, forty had court records, thus were classified as official delinquents, whereas sixty-one had "gotten by" without court complaints even though they had actually committed serious acts. These 101 boys, who had committed an infraction serious enough to warrant a court complaint, had, over a five year period, accounted for a total of 6,416 specific offenses. Of this total, only ninety-five offenses had become a matter of official complaint; official action had been taken in less than one and a half per cent of cases.

The authors of the study stated:

The chief contribution of this study is that we have been able to arrive at a minimal estimate of the

¹⁵Fred J. Murphy, Mary M. Shirley, and Helen L. Witmer, "The Incidence of Hidden Delinquency," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 16: 686-96, 1946.

amount of unofficial delinquency that takes place among a sizable group of underprivileged boys. Both official and unofficial delinquents commit numerous infractions of juvenile laws which do not become a matter of public record.¹⁶

Comparison of Student and Officially Delinquent Samples

In one of their many treatises on delinquency, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck emphasized that unless delinquents are measured against a yardstick of nondelinquents, researchers bent on understanding delinquency are going to be led astray in their conclusions.¹⁷ The studies that have just been outlined, though convincingly showing that the individual who has never committed an act of delinquency is a rarity, did not incorporate into their research design the advice of the Glueck's.

One of the first studies that did utilize the comparison of official delinquents to nondelinquents was conducted by Austin L. Porterfield in the early 1940's.¹⁸ His data were secured from the study of 2,049 alleged delinquents taken from the records of the local juvenile court; and from the investigation of 337 college students, alleged

¹⁶Ibid., p. 695.

¹⁷Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1950), p. 9.

¹⁸Porterfield, loc. cit.

not to be delinquent, enrolled in three northern Texas schools. Questionnaires containing a check-list of fifty-five specific delinquent acts, ranging in seriousness from spitwad shooting in public to homicide, were distributed to the students, after which the results were compared with the juvenile court data.

Porterfield discovered that each student had committed a mean of 17.6 offenses; he concluded that these student infractions had been just as serious, although probably not as frequent, as those of the official delinquents. Nevertheless, there was a wide difference in the extent to which the two groups had been brought to court for the same offenses.

The research of Porterfield had considerable influence on later studies, including one by F. Ivan Nye and James F. Short, Jr.¹⁹ Utilizing the basic research design employed by Porterfield, Nye and Short probed the backgrounds of high school students and training school inmates. Anonymous questionnaires, containing twenty-one items of legal delinquency, were filled out by 2,946 students enrolled in six different high schools; information was likewise gathered from 320 institutionalized delinquents residing in a state training school. The

¹⁹James F. Short, Jr. and F. Ivan Nye, "Extent of Juvenile Delinquency," Journal of Criminal Law, and Police Science, 49: 296-302, 1958.

items composing the delinquency scale ranged in seriousness from truancy to the use of narcotics.

Although a much larger percentage of the training school inmates admitted commission of the offenses, the findings indicated that every one of the infractions on the list had been committed by at least a few of the high school students. Nye and Short concluded that delinquent behavior among the noninstitutionalized population was extensive and variable; delinquent behavior among high school students differed from that of institutionalized delinquents only in that the latter had participated more widely, more frequently, and thus had become more seriously involved in delinquent behavior.

Justification For Further Research

This researcher is greatly indebted to the prior study of Austin L. Porterfield; his research provided the basic idea for the present investigation.

However, there were several apparant weaknesses in the research design utilized by Porterfield which will be mentioned. He compared the delinquent acts of alleged delinquents, as found in the court records, with the responses of college students to a fifty-five item scale of delinquent acts. He came up with a mean of 17.6 offenses committed by each student and compared this with the offenses of the alleged delinquents found in the court records.

The court records included only the offenses that had brought the youth into court in the first place; in other words, Porterfield did not determine the extent of delinquent acts committed by the alleged delinquents as he did with the college students. Therefore, the mean of 17.6 offenses is really not comparable to any other data which he presented and must be seen in its true light.

Another weakness in Porterfield's study was the assignment of equal weight to the fifty-five items when they varied so greatly in seriousness. It seems highly inappropriate to assign the same weight to the "shooting of spitwads in public" as to the commission of homicide. Also, Porterfield did nothing to determine how frequently his nondelinquent sample had participated in delinquent behavior, a factor he nonetheless admitted was important.

Albert K. Cohen has similarly criticized the work of Porterfield, adding that:

The study was not designed to reveal that portion of the iceberg which lay below the surface. Comparison between the college students and the court cases is, therefore, meaningless.²⁰

The research design employed by Nye and Short improved greatly upon that utilized by Porterfield. This researcher has drawn heavily upon the prior work of Nye and Short; in essence the present investigation is a

²⁰Albert K. Cohen, Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955), p. 40.

replication of their study. However, an additional dimension was incorporated into this study: a measure of the predisposition of nondelinquents to become delinquent. This dimension was measured through utilization of the Socialization Scale, a part of the California Psychological Inventory, and will be thoroughly discussed in the following chapter.

Concluding Statement

Although the present status of research utilizing reported behavior is felt to be still in a pioneer stage, it does provide an alternative to the use of institutionalized populations and court records only. Nye and Short have commented:

That concern with unrecorded delinquency is high is indicated by the great interest shown in the pioneer studies of Robison, Schwartz, Porterfield, and the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, in texts and in recent papers by the writers. Cohen has called for an extension of such studies, and a number of other investigators are pursuing research projects dealing with unrecorded delinquency.²¹

Use of this research approach in future studies in the area of juvenile delinquency could be very productive.

²¹Short and Nye, op. cit., p. 296.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

This chapter will deal primarily with the theoretical orientation behind the Socialization Scale and the Delinquency Scale utilized in the gathering of data for this research. Later in the chapter, a statement of hypotheses to be investigated and a definition of terms used in this study will be listed.

Role Theory and the Socialization Scale

The Socialization Scale is one of eighteen separate scales that make up the California Psychological Inventory, a personality assessment device based on role-taking theory. Since the concepts of "self" and "role" are basic to an understanding of how this scale performs its designed function, a brief review of these concepts follows, after which the scale itself will be discussed.

The self is something which has a development; it is not initially there, at birth, but arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relations to that process as a whole, and to other individuals within that process.²²

²²George H. Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934), p. 135.

It is widely accepted by social scientists that a person develops a social self only when he attains the realization that other people expect certain behavior from him. Consequently, he learns to behave as he thinks others want him to behave (Cooley's "looking-glass self concept").

As two well-known behavioral scientists state it:

The self is social and arises out of interaction with an awareness of others. To develop a sense of self, the individual must learn to view himself as an object. He must in popular parlance 'see himself as others see him.'²³

It is this development of a sense of self that enables a person to occupy a position in the social structure, to expect approval when he conforms and disapproval when he deviates.

The concept of self is relevant to the study of role expectations. A person's behavior, based on his own estimate of how he should behave, is called role playing; the correlate of role playing consists of the individual's conception of the other person's behavior, or role taking.

Through role taking, or assuming the attitudes of others toward ourselves, we not only gain an idea of what kinds of persons we are, but also of what other persons expect of us. When we direct our actions according to these expectations we are, in effect, engaging in self-control. Social control, on the other hand becomes possible through the fact that

²³Raymond Mack and Kimball Young, Systematic Sociology (New York: American Book Co., 1962), p. 130.

persons acquire the ability to behave in a manner consistent with the expectations of others.²⁴

Most people develop a healthy concept of self, understand their various roles in life, and play them according to the expectations of society. They are aware of societal approval or disapproval for certain behavior and thus endeavor to stay within the bounds of approval. However, there is

the kind of person who seems insensitive to social demands, who refuses to or cannot co-operate, who is untrustworthy, impulsive, and improvident, who shows poor judgment and shallow emotionality, and who seems unable to appreciate the reactions of others to his behavior. . . .²⁵

In the past, there have been many psychiatric terms applied to a person fitting this description; at present, the most widely accepted designation is "psychopath." Although such a person does exhibit role playing deficiencies,

it is not contended that the psychopath (as specified by role taking theory), is deficient in role playing ability, in the sense of being unable to dissimulate, to feign, and to deceive others On the contrary, what the theory asserts is that the capacity to build up, to sustain, to integrate, and to organize the residuals which normally accrue as a consequence of interactional experience is lacking.²⁶

²⁴Clinard, op. cit., p. 50.

²⁵Harrison G. Gough, "A Sociological Theory of Psychopathy," American Journal of Sociology, 53: 365-6, March, 1948.

²⁶Harrison G. Gough and Donald R. Peterson, "The Identification and Measurement of Predispositional Factors and Delinquency," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 20, 1952.

Simply put,

the psychopath is unable to foresee the consequences of his own acts, especially their social implications, because he does not know how to judge his own behavior from another's standpoint.²⁷

Originally, the task that faced the developer of the Socialization Scale was to find application of role-taking theory to the problems of delinquent and criminal behavior.²⁸ He did not assume that the terms delinquency and psychopathy were synonymous or that all delinquents were psychopaths; however, he did assume that "the total delinquent and criminal population includes enough proportion of psychopathic types to make feasible the application of role-taking theory."²⁹ His assumption seems to have been borne out by several investigations.

In the development of this scale, a pool of personality items which would accomplish two objectives was compiled. These objectives were: (1) incorporate the

²⁷Gough, op. cit., pp. 364-5.

²⁸Since the scale was originally applied to distinguishing between delinquency and nondelinquency, it was first known as the Delinquency Scale; later, "because the purpose of the scale is to position either individuals or groups along the basic underlying socialization continuum, it has been designated 'SO' for socialization." (Gough, Journal of Consulting Psychology, 24: 24, February, 1960).

²⁹Gough and Peterson, op. cit., p. 208.

salient features of role-taking theory, and (2) differentiate delinquents from nondelinquents. Out of a total of over two hundred statements, fifty-four items exhibited high enough discriminating power to merit inclusion in the final scale. These fifty-four items tend to fall into four rather distinctive clusters:³⁰

1. Role-taking deficiencies, insensitivity to interactional cues and the effects of one's behavior on others.
2. Resentment against family, feelings of having been victimized and exploited in childhood.
3. Feelings of despondency and alienation, lack of confidence in self and others.
4. Poor scholastic adjustment, rebelliousness.

Most of the items on the scale are actually unrelated to specific criminal and delinquent behavior. That is, most items do not refer directly to legal or illegal acts, rules, acceptance of authority, and the like.

Yet in spite of this phenotypical irrelevance, items such as these did, in fact, turn out under empirical analysis to relate to delinquency in the manner specified by this theory.³¹

The Socialization Scale was found to be valid in both the original and the later cross-validated samples. In the former, the scale was administered to high school students, students with behavior problems, young delinquents, and reformatory inmates: the results were in the

³⁰Ibid., p. 209. See Appendix for a list of these fifty-four items.

³¹Ibid., p. 211.

expected direction. Since the original samples were taken, there have been numerous cross-validational samples drawn by the author of the scale, all of which have further substantiated the validity of the device. Also, since its publication, the Socialization Scale has been used extensively by other researchers (most notably, perhaps, by a team at The Ohio State University) and found to be reliable.

All things considered, it was felt by this researcher that the Socialization Scale was both adequate and appropriate for the task at hand: measurement of delinquency vulnerability among nondelinquents. To this writer's knowledge, no other study dealing specifically with the extent of unrecorded delinquency has utilized a device to also measure delinquency proneness among nondelinquents.

The Delinquency Scale

Determination of the predisposition towards delinquency of the typical nondelinquent was only one objective of the present research. And, as has been pointed out, confidence was placed in the Socialization Scale to accomplish this objective. The other primary aspect of this research was to determine the extent and frequency of participation of nondelinquents in delinquent behavior.

In accomplishing the latter objective, past research utilizing reported behavior as a research procedure (instead of court records, etcetra) has generally employed a check-list containing specific delinquent acts, to which respondents were asked to reply. In the present study, such a check-list was also employed.

Most of the items included in the present check-list were taken from a similar scale utilized in a recent investigation by Nye and Short.³² After extensive study of law violations and anti-social behavior, Nye and Short constructed a list of twenty-three items. Of these twenty-three, fourteen were selected for inclusion in the present check-list; an additional six items were developed by this researcher, and also included.³³ These twenty items that make up the present scale, with one possible exception, are all violations of the law, though there is a wide range of seriousness involved.

Regarding the validity of their scale, Nye and Short have remarked:

It would appear that the scale has some claim to face

³²Short and Nye, loc. cit. See also, F. Ivan Nye and James F. Short, Jr., "Scaling Delinquent Behavior," American Sociological Review, 22: 326-31, 1957.

³³This writer actually began independently to compose a delinquency scale, but abandoned the effort in favor of the one developed by Nye and Short; it seemed fitting to do this, since the present study was largely a replication of their earlier work. See Appendix for list of these twenty items.

validity, that is, that which is measured is delinquent behavior. . . . The scale can, therefore, be said to adequately distinguish between groups 'known to be different,'

groups such as institutionalized delinquents and high school students.³⁴

Statement of Hypotheses

From the past studies on unrecorded delinquency, and from the research done by the developer of the Socialization Scale, the following hypotheses were derived.

1. The predisposition of nondelinquents to become delinquent will not be as high as that of incarcerated delinquents.
2. The typical nondelinquent has participated widely in delinquent behavior, but not as extensively as the incarcerated delinquent.
3. The type of delinquent act committed by the nondelinquent has not been as serious, as defined by law, as that of the incarcerated delinquent.
4. The typical nondelinquent has not engaged in delinquent behavior as frequently as the incarcerated delinquent.

Twenty-four sub-hypotheses concerning the relationship among predisposition towards delinquency and extent of delinquent behavior and selected variables were also developed. These sub-hypotheses were stated in the null

³⁴F. Ivan Nye, Family Relationships and Delinquent Behavior (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958), p. 15.

form.

Null Hypotheses For Predisposition Towards Delinquency

1. Age is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
2. Occupation of father is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
3. Income of parents is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
4. Marital status of parents is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
5. Whom juvenile lives with is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
6. Birth order is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
7. Number of children in family is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
8. Religious preference is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
9. Church attendance over the past five years is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
10. Present church attendance is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
11. Urban-rural background is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.
12. Geographical mobility is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

Null Hypotheses For Participation in Delinquent Behavior

1. Age is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
2. Occupation of father is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
3. Income of parents is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
4. Marital status of parents is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
5. Whom juvenile lives with is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
6. Birth order is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
7. Number of children in the family is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

8. Religious preference is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
9. Church attendance over the past five years is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
10. Present church attendance is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
11. Urban-rural background is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.
12. Geographical mobility is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

Definition of Terms Used In This Study

Delinquent - A male youth between the ages of fourteen and nineteen who is incarcerated in a correctional institution; also referred to as an incarcerated delinquent.

Nondelinquent - A male youth between the ages of fourteen and nineteen who is not incarcerated, but rather is attending high school.

Delinquent Behavior - Infractions of the Montana Penal Code; specifically, the offenses composing the Delinquency Scale utilized in this study.

Industrial Training School - The reformatory for delinquent boys located at St. Anthony, Idaho.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study is primarily concerned with the non-delinquent--his predisposition to become deviant and his actual participation in delinquent behavior. Several past investigations in this area of research have matched a group from the general population with one taken from a state reformatory, a procedure which permits direct comparison between scale scores and yields information regarding the influence of background factors in delinquent behavior. This matching procedure was incorporated into the present research design.

Samples and Sampling Procedures

A sample of 109 male highschool students was drawn from the total population attending Pocatello High School, Pocatello, Idaho on April 24, 1964. Students were selected at random from attendance lists and requested to report to a central room to participate in a research project. The nature of the research was not revealed until all students were assembled at the central location. This researcher felt that students from various classrooms gathered into one large room would permit a more representative sample than could be obtained by entering selected classrooms during instructions periods.

After the students were assembled, the Vice-Principal of the school greeted them, briefly explained the research project, asked for their full cooperation, then introduced this researcher. The latter explained the project in more detail, especially the instructions for properly filling out the questionnaire, after which the schedules were distributed to the respondents. Anonymity was stressed verbally as well as being guaranteed within the context of the questionnaire itself.

The following day, April 25, 1964, a sample was taken of one hundred inmates confined in the Industrial Training School at St. Anthony, Idaho. The data gathering procedure in this instance was similar to that employed with the high school sample: inmates were assembled in a central location for administration of the questionnaires, an explanation of the project was given, and a request for full cooperation was made. Anonymity was again stressed verbally.

All respondents were able to complete the questionnaire within forty minutes. After completion, each respondent was allowed to deposit his schedule into a large box provided for that purpose. This procedure permitted the respondent to place his completed schedule in the middle of the pile if he so desired.

Considering the entire sample of 109 students,

seventeen questionnaires were eliminated; correspondingly, of the one hundred incarcerated inmates, twelve questionnaires were likewise eliminated. The reasons for non-inclusion of questionnaires included: (1) failure to respond to two or more items, (2) obvious boasting on the part of the respondent, (3) "halo effect" on respondent's part, and (4) inconsistency of response as revealed by check questions. In the final analysis, ninety-two high school students and eighty-eight training school delinquents provided the data for this investigation.

A pretest, primarily for the purpose of testing the construction of the questionnaire and the gathering of data in a classroom situation, was conducted seven weeks prior to the larger study.

In the pretest, questionnaires were given to forty male students attending Missoula County High School, Missoula, Montana. These students were drawn from a study hall and brought to a single classroom for administration of the schedules. The nature of the research was not revealed until all were assembled, after which the project was explained and their cooperation solicited. According to the teacher assisting with the project, these respondents provided a good cross-section of the total population.

As a result of the pretest, only minor adjustments

to the construction of the questionnaire were made necessary.

Composition of the Questionnaire

In addition to the Socialization Scale and the Delinquency Scale, the questionnaire contained a background information section consisting of thirteen items. Most of these items (they will be thoroughly described in the following chapter) have previously been tested for relationship to delinquent behavior. They included occupation of father, income of parents, extent of religious attendance, spatial mobility, and others. Most of these items were derived from the earlier work of Nye and Short previously discussed.

In summary, the questionnaire utilized in this research was composed of: (1) the fifty-four items of the Socialization Scale, (2) the twenty items of the Delinquency Scale, and (3) the thirteen items of background information.

Statistical Procedures Utilized

Every subject in this study received a score for each of the two scales included in the questionnaire.

Each of the fifty-four items of the Socialization Scale was potentially worth one point, depending on how the statement was answered by the respondent. For exam-

ple, the statement, "A person is better off if he doesn't trust anyone," is framed so that a "false" reply indicated no tendency towards delinquency; a respondent who answered in this manner received one point, and so on for all fifty-four statements. Thus, the higher the total score on this scale, the less the tendency to become involved in delinquent behavior.

The scoring of the Delinquency Scale was somewhat more complicated. This scale attempted to measure the extent and frequency of participation in delinquent acts. Unlike the two-fold choice of the Socialization Scale items, the Delinquency Scale statements offered the respondent four alternatives in describing the extent of his participation in deviant behavior: (1) very often, (2) several times, (3) once or twice, and (4) no. Each of these choices was assigned a weight of three, two, one, and zero respectively. Therefore, the more extensive the participation in each delinquent act, the greater the score for that particular item.

Every one of the twenty specific delinquent acts was also weighted, in this case according to seriousness as defined by law (according to the Montana Penal Code). That is, each act of delinquency was placed into one of four categories: (1) not very serious, (2) moderately serious, (3) serious, and (4) very serious. Weights of one, two, three, and four were assigned accordingly. By

multiplying the weight assigned each possible response times the weight given to the specific infraction, a score for every item was obtained. An example may make this scoring procedure more clear. "Taking a car without the owner's permission," or auto theft, was rated as a serious act, thus received the weight of three. A respondent who had once committed this infraction indicated such by checking the choice "once or twice" which was assigned the weight of one. Therefore, the weight for seriousness, three, times the weight for the frequency of participation, one, equaled a score of three for that item. All of the twenty items composing the scale were scored in this manner; the total scale score was arrived at simply by adding up individual item scores. Obviously, the higher the scale score the greater the participation in delinquent behavior.

A box containing spaces for the sample number, the schedule number, and the two scale scores was inserted in the questionnaire just preceding the section on background information. These data, plus the precoded background information were punched on I.B.M. data cards for easy sorting. The information on the I.B.M. data cards was then programmed into the 1620 computer for calculation of Chi-squares. The level of significance for acceptance of Chi-squares was set at the .05 level or less. A later

chapter will deal extensively with the results of these Chi-square calculations, as well as other statistical computations.

CHAPTER V

THE CHARACTER OF THE SAMPLES

The data for this research were drawn from samples consisting of ninety-two male high school students and eighty-eight male incarcerated delinquents. This chapter will present a statistical description of these samples.

The age distribution of these two groups can be seen in Table 1, which indicates that 45 of the high school students fell into the 17 year old category and 41 fell into the 18 year old or older group. The delinquent sample displayed a wider range of age, however 21 respondents were in the 16 year old group and 33 respondents were in the 17 year old category.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF AGE

AGE	HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS		INCARCERATED DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
14			3	3
15			11	12.5
16	6	6	21	24
17	45	49	33	37.5
18	41	45	20	23
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

The mean age for the two groups was 17.4 years for the high school sample and 16.9 years for the delinquents.

The occupation of each respondent's father was ranked into one of five categories, as revealed in Table 2.³⁵

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF FATHER'S OCCUPATION

OCC. RANK	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
1	3	3	3	3
2	24	26	6	7
3	36	39	31	35
4	11	12	24	27
5	1	1	4	5
6*	17	19	20	23
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

* Not enough information to be classified.

65% of the student sample father's were employed in occupations falling into the second or third rank, whereas 42% of the delinquent sample father's held occupations in these ranks. 13% of the former as compared with 32% of the latter possessed an occupation falling into the bottom two ranks.

The amount of annual parental income is closely related to the father's occupation. Table 3 reveals that among the high school respondents there were four cases

³⁵Each occupation was ranked into one of five categories according to the score given that occupation on an expanded version of the North-Hatt scale. Limits for each category were set somewhat arbitrarily by this writer.

of annual parental income below \$2,000. Corresponding data for the delinquent respondents indicate fifteen cases in this category. Also, while 14.5% of the parents in the student sample made less than \$5,000 annually, nearly half of the parents in the delinquent sample fell under this description.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL PARENTAL INCOME

INCOME	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
Under \$2,000	4	4.5	15	17
\$2-4,999	9	10	28	32
\$5-7,999	35	38	19	22
\$8-10,999	18	20	9	10
\$11-13,999	12	13	6	7
\$14-16,999	9	10	3	3
\$17,000 and over	4	4.5		
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

At the other extreme, 27.5% of the students reported an annual parental income exceeding \$11,000; in comparison, 10% of the delinquents reported similarly.

Regarding the parent's marital status, 75% of the student group parents and 40% of the delinquent group parents were living together. 16% of the former and 45% of the latter were either separated or legally divorced. The number of respondents whose father was not living was eight and eleven for the student and delinquent samples respectively.

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF PARENT'S MARITAL STATUS

MARITAL STATUS	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
Living together	69	75	35	40
Separated	3	3	17	19
Legally divorced	12	13	23	26
Fath. Dead	8	9	11	13
Moth. Dead			1	1
Both Dead			1	1
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

Very similar figures were found regarding who the respondent normally lives with. As Table 5 indicates, 74% of the students, as compared with 37% of the delinquents, normally live with their original parents.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO WHOM ADOLESCENT LIVES WITH

LIVES WITH	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
Original parents	68	74	33	37
Mother-st.-fath.	13	14	21	24
Father-st.-moth.	1	1	3	3
Moth. only	6	7	20	23
Fath. only	2	2		
Foster parents			5	6
Other*	2	2	6	7
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

* Grandparents, sister, or by himself.

The remaining percentages were distributed among several possibilities, including: (1) one original parent and a step-parent, (2) one original parent only, (3) foster parents, and (4) others.

Table 6 shows the distribution of family size in the present samples. The mean number of children in the student's family was 4.1, while that of the delinquent's family was 4.8. 39% of the students reported five or more children in their families; in comparison, 51% of the delinquents so reported. There were five student families and fifteen delinquent families that were made up of at least eight children.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF CHILDREN
IN FAMILY

NUMBER	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
1	1	1	5	6
2	14	15	9	10
3	28	30	11	13
4	14	15	18	20
5	14	15	15	17
6	11	12	7	8
7	5	6	8	9
8	5	6	15	17
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

Another dimension related to family composition is birth order. Nye found that the oldest and only children

in his sample showed less delinquent behavior than the intermediate or youngest.³⁶ The findings of the present research are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7
DISTRIBUTION OF BIRTH ORDER

YOUTH IS	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
The Oldest	26	28	25	28
In Be- tween	43	47	50	57
Young- est	22	24	8	9
Only Child	1	1	5	6
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

The religious preference breakdown of the samples is shown in Table 8. Southeastern Idaho has a large concentration of L.D.S. people (Mormons), and this fact is reflected in the data, especially that on the high school group, where 49% reported Mormonism as their religious preference. Although Protestantism was preferred by 32% of the delinquent group, 23% also listed Mormonism as their preference. Eight students and eighteen delinquents indicated no religious preference.

³⁶Nye, op. cit., p. 37.

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO
RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE

RELIG. PREF.	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
None	8	8	18	20
Cath.	7	8	18	20
Prot.	25	27	28	32
L.D.S.	45	49	20	23
Other	7	8	4	5
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

In the past, there have been several attempts to discover the relationship between church attendance and delinquent behavior.³⁷ Tables 9 and 10 indicate the present results in this regard. 4% of the high school group and 11% of the delinquent group indicated no church attendance over the past five years. At the other extreme, 32% and 17% of the two respective samples indicated attendance at church every Sunday.

³⁷See William C. Kvaraceus, "Delinquent Behavior and Church Attendance," Sociology and Social Research, 28: 284-89, March, 1944; also, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1950), p. 166.

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO CHURCH ATTENDENCE
OVER PAST FIVE YEARS

PAST ATTEND- ENCE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
Never	4	4	10	11
1-2 times a year	15	16	20	23
Once a month	15	16	13	15
2-3 times a month	29	32	30	34
Every Sunday	29	32	15	17
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

Regarding present church attendance, almost an equal number of students indicated attendance as "about the same as" and "less than" that of the past five years. A similar pattern was evident with delinquent group, although the actual percentages in these categories were less than those of the student sample.

TABLE 10

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO PRESENT
CHURCH ATTENDENCE

ATTEND- ENCE NOW IS	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
About the same	42	46	25	28
Attend more now	11	12	42	48
Attend less now	39	42	21	24
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

The 48% of the delinquent sample that reported present church attendance as greater than that over the past five years must be seen in its true light: while incarcerated, all inmates are required to attend church meetings every Sunday.

The number of communities each respondent had lived in is indicated in Table 11.

TABLE 11
DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO
GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES LIVED IN	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Total Sample
1	46	50	12	14
2	19	21	20	23
3	13	14	18	20
4	5	5	10	11
5	4	5	5	6
6 or more	5	5	23	26
TOTAL	92	100	88	100

Half of the high school sample reported that they had lived in the present community all of their lives; 14% of the delinquent sample reported similar information. At the opposite extreme, 5% of the students and 26% of the delinquents indicated that they had lived in at least six different communities.

Finally, regarding urban-rural background, 85% of

the students had spent most of their lives in a city of at least 10,000 population. In this regard, the delinquents were almost equally divided, with 46% reporting urban background and 54% reporting rural background.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A section in the first chapter of this thesis stated that the central problem under consideration was "to ascertain the extent of delinquent attitudes and behavior among a sample of nondelinquents." A subsequent chapter included a statement of specific hypotheses, including four general directional ones and twenty-four stated in the null form, which were to be tested in order to realize the objectives of this research. In this chapter, an analysis of the research findings in light of these hypotheses will be made.

Data On The General Hypotheses

The first general hypothesis dealt with the predisposition of nondelinquents to become involved in delinquent behavior. Measurement of this dimension was accomplished through utilization of the Socialization Scale, a valid and reliable device used extensively in delinquency research. The specific content of the hypothesis was as follows:

The predisposition of nondelinquents to become delinquent will not be as high as that of incarcerated delinquents.

The highest possible score attainable on the Socialization Scale is 54 (there are fifty-four items each

potentially worth one point). The nearer the respondent's score was to the possible total of 54, the less the pre-disposition to become delinquent.

As in other previous studies, nondelinquents in this investigation were represented by high school students; delinquents by those confined in a state training school. The mean score on the Socialization Scale for the high school sample was 35.18, as compared to 26.88 for the delinquent sample. The median score for the two samples was 36.00 and 27.00 respectively. The scores for the student group ranged from 18 to 48; and for the delinquent group the range was from 11 to 42. These data are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 12
PRESENT DATA ON THE
SOCIALIZATION SCALE SCORES

SAMPLE	N	MEAN	S.D.	MEDIAN	RANGE
Student	92	35.18	6.70	36.00	30 (18-48)
Delinquent	88	26.88	6.35	27.00	31 (11-42)

The above data show that if an arbitrary cutting point is set at the score of 30, nineteen students, compared to fifty-nine delinquents, would fall below this score.

The results obtained by the developer of the Socialization Scale, Harrison G. Gough, in his original and

cross-validational samples provide valuable comparative data to the present findings. Table 13 summarizes these earlier findings.³⁸

TABLE 13
PAST DATA ON THE
SOCIALIZATION SCALE SCORES

SAMPLE	N	MEAN	S.D.
Student*	43	35.30	5.11
Student**	125	31.33	6.13
Student#	4474	36.46	5.95
Delinquent	105	24.17	6.65
Delinquent	100	26.53	4.89

*Rural Minnesota High School
**Two Minneapolis High Schools
#Composition not known

In the present data, the critical ratio between sample means was 8.530 or significant at the .001 level.

All in all, the data appear to support the first general hypothesis: nondelinquents exhibit less predisposition to become involved in delinquent behavior than incarcerated delinquents.

The remaining three general hypotheses dealt with actual participation in delinquent behavior as measured by the Delinquency Scale. These three hypotheses can properly be considered at the same time. They were:

The typical nondelinquent has participated widely

³⁸Gough and Peterson, op. cit., p. 209.

in delinquent behavior, but not as extensively as the incarcerated delinquent.

The type of delinquent act committed by the nondelinquent has not been as serious, as defined by law, as that of the incarcerated delinquent.

The typical nondelinquent has not engaged in delinquent behavior as frequently as the incarcerated delinquent.

These hypotheses were concerned with the extent, seriousness, and frequency of participation in delinquent behavior. The scoring procedure for the Delinquency Scale, outlined in a previous chapter, incorporated all three of these dimensions into a single scale score. Therefore, the scale score assigned each respondent reflected not only the extent, but also the frequency and seriousness of his participation in delinquent behavior. In this instance, the higher the scale score, the greater the participation in delinquency. With these facts in mind, a comparison of the sample scale scores on the Delinquency Scale follows.

The mean score for the high school sample was 18.00, as compared to 37.37 for the delinquent sample. The median score for the two groups was 14.00 and 34.50 respectively. The student scores ranged from 0 to 60; the delinquent scores from 0 to 81. Table 14 shows these data.

TABLE 14

DATA ON THE DELINQUENCY SCALE SCORES

SAMPLE	N	MEAN	S.D.	MEDIAN	RANGE
Student	92	18.00	12.05	14.00	60 (0-60)
Delinquent	88	37.37	18.95	34.50	81 (0-81)

Again if an arbitrary cutting point is set at 30, seventy-five students would fall below this score; correspondingly, thirty-six delinquents would fall below the score of 30.

The critical ratio between the sample means was 8.138, which is significant at the .001 level.

In conclusion, the data seem to support the three hypotheses: nondelinquents have not engaged in delinquent behavior as extensively as incarcerated delinquents, nor have the former committed delinquent acts as serious under the law, or as frequently as the latter. Later in this chapter the extent of participation in delinquency will be considered in more detail. Specifically, the type of delinquent acts committed by each sample will be discussed.

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF DATA (PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY)

Introduction

The data in this section of the chapter were analyzed according to the stated order of hypotheses listed in Chapter Three. The basic analysis utilized was the Chi-square test of significance, which was applied to each question stated in a null hypothesis form in relationship to two breakdowns: nondelinquents, represented by male high school students, and male delinquents incarcerated in a state reformatory.

For each question analyzed, a contingency table was included which related, for example, church attendance or age as the independent variable and predisposition towards delinquency as the dependent variable. In the other major section of the chapter the dependent variable under consideration was actual participation in delinquent behavior. These contingency tables were broken down into the possible cell frequencies under one of two categories: least delinquent and most delinquent.

The significance levels for the Chi-squares, represented by the letter P, are listed under each of the major breakdowns.

Relationship of Age to Predisposition Towards Delinquency

In Table 15 it can be seen that neither sample achieved an acceptable significance level for the Chi-

square test. The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Age is not related to predisposition
towards delinquency

From this data, the null hypothesis was accepted for both samples. That is, age and predisposition towards delinquency were found to be independent in both samples.

TABLE 15

RELATIONSHIP OF AGE TO
PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

AGE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
14-15			9	5
16-17	28	23	31	23
18-up	20	21	9	11
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .70$

$P < .70$

Perhaps the above relationship would have been more significant had the samples included a greater extreme in age. That is, juvenile court statistics in 1957 for fifteen states indicated that 3% of the total cases reported involved boys under ten years of age and 10% of the total involved boys between ten and twelve.³⁹ The present data, especially that on the student sample, might have shown

³⁹Juvenile Court Statistics, 1957, Children's Bureau Statistical Series, No. 52, Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C., 1959, p. 6.

some relationship had it included respondents in these lower age groups.

Relationship of Father's Occupation and Predis. Towards Delin.

Occupation is probably the best single measure of socio-economic status that a researcher can utilize. It correlates highly with other criteria of class and status and is more easily obtained from adolescents than are other criteria with which the youth may not be familiar.

In the present study, the relationship between the occupation of the father and the sons predisposition to become delinquent is shown in Table 16. The null hypothesis for this question was stated as follows:

Occupation of father is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

TABLE 16

RELATIONSHIP OF FATHER'S OCCUPATION
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

FATHER'S OCC. RANK	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1-2	15	12	5	4
3	20	19	19	12
4-5	8	9	16	14
6	5	4	9	9
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .95$

$P < .90$

As Table 16 indicates, the number of students whose fathers held occupations in the first or second rank was three times as great, both for the least and most delinquent categories, as was true for the corresponding data on the delinquents. This is perhaps the

pattern one might expect from reports of previous research. Too, the delinquents had considerably more cases which fell into the fourth and fifth ranks, as also might be anticipated.

Nevertheless, the level of significance for both groups was far from the acceptable level, thus the null hypothesis was accepted for both samples. Occupation of father and son's predisposition towards delinquency were found to be independent in both groups.

Relationship of Parental Income and Predis. Towards Delin.

A variable closely associated with occupation is annual income. Table 17 shows the breakdown of parental income for both samples.

TABLE 17
RELATIONSHIP OF PARENTAL INCOME
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

IN- COME	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Under				
\$2,000	2	1	8	7
\$2-4,999	9	1	16	12
\$5-7,999	16	19	11	8
\$8-10,999	4	14	5	4
\$11,000 and over	17	8	5	4
Lack of info		1	4	4
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .01$

$P < .99$

The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Income of parents is not related to pre-disposition towards delinquency.

The student sample achieved a significance level of less than .01, therefore the null hypothesis was definitely rejected for that group. On the other hand, the data for the delinquent group was in the extreme opposite direction, indicating clear acceptance of the null hypothesis for that group. The extreme divergence of results with regards to these two groups may be due to many factors. The delinquent sample follows a pattern similar to that found regarding the occupation of the father, and one that might be anticipated from past research. That is, the greater proportion of delinquents, both in the least and most categories, were clustered in the low income ranks, with a trailing off as income increases. However, it is interesting to note that the least delinquent category of students was represented more by the two extremes of income, both low and high, while the most delinquent category was indisputably represented by the middle income ranks. In this regard, one would have expected the least delinquent category not to have had much representation in the lower income ranks and the most delinquent category not to have been so solidly represented in the middle income brackets.

A possible bias that may have influenced these results was the fact that the students probably had more accurate information about their parent's income than did the delinquents. This contention receives some support from Table 17 which reveals that eight delinquents, as compared to one student, did not have any idea how much their parents earned annually.

In conclusion, the foregoing seems to indicate that for the student sample parental income is highly related to predisposition towards delinquency.

Relationship of Marital Status of Parents and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

The relationship between broken homes and predisposition towards delinquency will be pursued in this and the following sub-division of this section. The null hypothesis for this first question was:

Marital status of parents is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

Table 18 indicates that neither sample achieved an acceptable significance level on the Chi-square test. The null hypothesis was accepted for both samples.

TABLE 18

RELATIONSHIP OF MARITAL STATUS OF PARENTS
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

PARENTS ARE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Living together	36	33	21	14
Separated, live apart	1	2	10	7
Legally divorced	8	4	12	11
Father dead	3	5	4	7
Other			2	0
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .70$

$P < .50$

The size of the samples may have been a factor in these particular results. For instance, sixty-nine of the student parents were living together, leaving only twenty-three students to be distributed throughout the other categories. This same observation applies to the delinquent data, though to a lesser degree. In an attempt to correct this sample size deficiency, the five choices in the above table were combined into two choices, "living together" and "not living together." Additional Chi-square calculations were computed on these revised breakdowns, but an acceptable level of significance was still not attained for either sample.

Relationship of Whom Adolescent Lives With and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

Other aspect of broken homes considered in

this research was whom the adolescent normally lived with. The null hypothesis specifically stated:

Whom juvenile lives with is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

Table 19, showing the present data, follows.

TABLE 19

RELATIONSHIP OF WHOM ADOLESCENT LIVES WITH
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

LIVES WITH	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Original parents	35	33	19	13
Mother- st-fath.	4	9	10	11
Mother only	4	2	12	9
Foster parents			3	2
Other	5		5	4
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .10$

$P < .95$

The Probability for the student group was less than .10, but not quite significant at the .05 level. However, it was so close to the acceptable level that the null hypothesis might be conditionally rejected for the student sample. The delinquent sample Chi-square was well away from the acceptable level, clearly indicating acceptance of the null hypothesis for that group.

With this question the size of the samples was clearly revealed as a deficiency. Categories such as "father-stepmother" and "father only" had to be lumped

into the "other" category due to lack of responses in these categories. Had the sample been larger, the theoretical frequency for all categories would have been increased, possibly leading to different results.

Relationship of Birth Order and Predis. Towards Delin.

This and the following sub-division of this section will deal with the family composition of each respondent. The age of the respondent in relation to his siblings will be considered in this sub-division. The null hypothesis for this question was phrased:

Birth order is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

TABLE 20

RELATIONSHIP OF BIRTH ORDER AND
PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

YOUTH WAS	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Oldest	10	16	14	11
In bet- ween	22	21	28	21
Young- est	15	7	5	4
Only child	1		2	3
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .20$

$P < .95$

As the above data indicate, the delinquent sample definitely did not achieve a high enough level of significance on the Chi-square test. The student sample

level of significance was closer to an acceptable level, but not high enough for the null hypothesis to be rejected. However, since the samples did not contain a sufficient number of "only children," a revision of the categories was made which included only three choices: "oldest," "youngest," and "other." After this revision was made, a Chi-square calculation was conducted resulting in a $P < .10$ (very near the .05 level) for the student group. On this basis the null hypothesis might conceivably be rejected for the student sample. The second Chi-square calculation for the delinquent sample yielded no change from that achieved on the first.

Relationship of Family Size and Predis. Towards Delin.

The second aspect of family composition investigated was number of children in each respondent's family. Table 21 shows the present data.

TABLE 21
RELATIONSHIP OF FAMILY SIZE TO
PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1 or 2	7	8	6	8
3 or 4	23	19	15	14
5 or 6	13	12	14	8
7-above	5	5	14	9
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .98$

$P < .70$

The null hypothesis for this question was:

Number of children in the family is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

It was accepted for both samples. According to the above data, number of children in the family and predisposition towards delinquency were shown to be independent. The responses of the delinquent group were widely dispersed throughout all choices, while the student responses were largely confined to the two middle choices.

Relationship of Religious Preference and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Religious preference is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

Table 22 shows the breakdown in this regard for the present samples.

TABLE 22

RELATIONSHIP OF RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE AND
PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

PREFER- ENCE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
None	6	2	12	6
Catholic	5	2	10	8
Prot.	10	16	12	16
L.D.S.	21	24	12	8
Other	6		3	1
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .05$

$P < .50$

According to the Chi-square calculation for the

student sample, religious preference and predisposition towards delinquency were shown to be dependent, a fact that permits rejection of the null hypothesis for that group. The opposite was true for the delinquent group.

As Table 22 indicates, almost half of the student sample were members of the Mormon Church, a factor which may have contributed to the level of significance attained on this question. That is, family and community control have traditionally been close among Mormons. This fact may make them somewhat comparable to Jews, who have had the lowest crime rate among the three major religious groups in America.

However, the fact that more L.D.S. students fell into the "most delinquent" category than in the "least delinquent" category appears to be contradictory to what has just been stated about Mormon control. Although alcoholism and delinquency are two separate phenomena, it may be informative to cite a study regarding alcoholism among Mormons. The Mormon doctrines strictly forbid drinking and the very act is a defiance of group norms. Thus, though drinking is rare among Mormons in general, those Mormons who do drink exhibit an exceedingly high rate of alcoholism.⁴⁰ The same pattern may be true re-

⁴⁰Seldon D. Bacon, "Social Settings Conducive to Alcoholism: A Sociological Approach to a Medical Problem," The Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol 164, No. 2 (May 11, 1957), pp. 177-81.

garding juvenile delinquency among Mormons. At least, the present data seem to indicate this.

Relationship of Past Church Attendance and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

The results regarding the association between church attendance over the past five years and predisposition towards delinquency will be considered in this sub-section. Table 23 shows the present data in this regard.

TABLE 23

RELATIONSHIP OF PAST CHURCH ATTENDANCE
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

PAST CHUR. ATTEND.	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Never	4		5	5
1-2 times a year	8	7	14	6
Once a month	7	8	7	6
2-3 times a month	13	16	18	12
Every Sunday	16	13	5	10
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .50$

$P < .30$

The null hypothesis for this relationship was:

Church attendance over the past five years
is not related to predisposition towards
delinquency.

It was accepted for both samples. One interesting observation from Table 23 is the number of cases in the "most delinquent" category. in both samples. who indicated

their church attendance as either "2-3 times a month" or "every Sunday." Twenty-nine students and twenty-two delinquents fell under this description, which seems to further indicate that past church attendance per se has little bearing on a youths tendency to become involved in delinquent behavior.

Relationship of Present Church Attendance and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

Although the results regarding past church attendance and predisposition towards delinquency were not statistically significant, the opposite was true for present church attendance. The null hypothesis stated:

Present church attendance is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

The null hypothesis was conclusively rejected for the high school sample, as it achieved a level of significance less than .01. Although it appears that the null hypothesis should also be rejected for the delinquent sample, it must be remembered that the members of this sample were required to attend church services each Sunday. Because of this fact the result for the delinquent sample was highly questionable. Table 24 reveals the present data on this question.

TABLE 24

RELATIONSHIP OF PRESENT CHURCH ATTENDANCE
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

PRESENT ATTEND.	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
About the same	24	18	11	14
Attend more now	1	10	21	21
Attend less now	23	16	17	4
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .01$

$P < .05$

The Mormon bias should again be mentioned. There is great emphasis placed on church attendance by the Mormon Church, a fact that possibly helps account for the high level of significance for the student group. One interesting observation from Table 24 is the number of students who reported present church attendance as "more than" that over the past five years: one in the least delinquent category and ten in the most delinquent category.

Relationship of Geographical Mobility and Predisposition
Towards Delinquency

The null hypothesis for this question was:

Geographical mobility is not related to
predisposition towards delinquency.

It was accepted for the student sample as they did not achieve a high enough level of significance on the

Chi-square test to merit rejection. However, the level of significance for the delinquent sample was beyond the .01 level, clearly indicating rejection of the null hypothesis for that group. Table 25 follows.

TABLE 25

RELATIONSHIP OF GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

NO. OF COMM. LIVED IN	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1 or 2	33	32	16	16
3-5	14	8	11	17
6 or more	1	4	22	6
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .20$

$P < .01$

It is interesting to note that even though twenty-eight delinquents had lived in six or more communities, twenty-two of them fell into the least delinquent half of the breakdown. Perhaps the most apparent observation from Table 25 is the number of students who have lived in only one or two communities. Forty-five, or half of the entire sample, fell into this category.

Relationship of Urban-Rural Background and Predisposition Towards Delinquency

The null hypothesis stated:

Urban-rural background is not related to predisposition towards delinquency.

For purposes of this study, urban background was operationally defined as "having spent most of one's life

in a city of at least 10,000 population." Rural background was operationally defined as "having spent most of one's life on a farm, or in a community of less than 10,000 population." Table 26 shows the data obtained for this question.

TABLE 26

RELATIONSHIP OF URBAN-RURAL BACKGROUND
AND PREDISPOSITION TOWARDS DELINQUENCY

BACK- GROUND	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Urban	40	38	26	15
Rural	8	6	23	24
TOTAL	48	44	49	39

$P < .70$

$P < .20$

The null hypothesis was accepted for both samples. The data indicate the factors leading to a high predisposition towards delinquency can be acquired in both an urban and rural setting.

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF DATA
(PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR)

Introduction

The dependent variable under consideration in the second major section of this chapter is actual participation in delinquent behavior. The same independent variables of age, religious preference, occupation of father, etcetera, were again considered. It should be noted that much of the commentary included in the last section on these independent variables also applies to the relationships under consideration in this section.

Relationship of Age and Participation in Delin. Behavior

The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Age is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

It was accepted for both samples. Both groups were far from the acceptable .05 level as Table 27 indicates.

TABLE 27

RELATIONSHIP OF AGE AND PARTICIPATION
IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

AGE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
14-15			6	8
16-17	27	24	28	26
18-up	21	20	9	11
TOTAL	48	44	43	45

$P < .90$

$P < .80$

Relationship of Father's Occupation and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

There have been numerous attempts to determine the relationship between delinquent behavior and socio-economic level, usually with the conclusion that delinquency is a phenomenon most normally associated with lower economic means. At least, official arrest and court statistics tend to indicate such a relationship. The present findings, based on reported behavior instead of official statistics, are shown in Table 28.

TABLE 28

RELATIONSHIP OF FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

FATHER'S OCC. RANK	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1-2	14	13	6	3
3	21	18	12	19
4-5	10	7	18	12
6	3	6	8	10
TOTAL	48	44	44	44
	P < .70		P < .30	

The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Occupation of father is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

Since neither sample achieved an acceptable level on the Chi-square test, the null hypothesis was accepted for both samples. The pattern of response shown in the above Table is similar to that obtained when the relationship between father's occupation and predisposition was considered. See Table 16 on page 51.

Relationship of Parental Income and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

As was the case when we considered parental income and predisposition towards delinquency, extremely divergent results were obtained in the present consideration. The student sample attained a Probability less than .05, while the Probability for the delinquent sample was far from the acceptable level. The null hypothesis stated:

Annual parental income is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

It was rejected for the students and accepted for the delinquents. Table 29 follows.

TABLE 29

RELATIONSHIP OF PARENTAL INCOME AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

IN- COME	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Under \$2,000	1	2	9	6
\$2-4,999	2	8	16	12
\$5-7,999	22	13	9	10
\$8-10,999	13	5	3	6
\$11,000 and up	10	15	3	6
Lack of info		1	4	4
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .05$

$P < .70$

The pattern of response was what might be expected from past research. The bulk of the students in the least delinquent category fell between the \$5,000 and \$11,000

range. The same was generally true for the most delinquent category, though ten respondents did fall below the \$5,000 level. The results for the delinquents was also as might be anticipated; the bulk of both categories fell into the lower three levels of income.

Relationship of Marital Status of Parents and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis for this relationship stated:

Marital status of parents is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

Table 30 shows the data regarding this question.

TABLE 30

RELATIONSHIP OF MARITAL STATUS OF PARENTS
AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

PARENTS ARE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Living together	34	35	19	16
Separated, live apart	2	1	9	8
Legally divorced	8	4	10	13
Father dead	4	4	5	6
Other			1	1
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .70$

$P < .95$

Neither sample achieved a level of significance at the necessary .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted for both samples. These results are similar to those obtained with marital status and predisposition.

Relationship of Whom Adolescent Lives With and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The statement of the null hypothesis for this relationship was:

Whom adolescent lives with is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

TABLE 31

RELATIONSHIP OF WHOM ADOLESCENT LIVES WITH AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

LIVES WITH	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Original parents	34	34	17	15
Mother-st-fath.	10	3	13	8
Mother only	2	4	7	14
Foster parents			3	2
Other	2	3	4	5
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .30$

$P < .50$

Since neither sample attained an acceptable level of significance on the Chi-square test, the null hypothesis was accepted for both samples.

The results of the present research regarding the student sample were somewhat similar to those earlier attained by Nye and Short.⁴¹ Utilizing a very similar breakdown as that shown in Table 31, their data revealed a Probability less than .20. A chi-square calculation on their delinquent sample was not available for comparison.

⁴¹Nye, op. cit., p. 44.

Relationship of Birth Order and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis for this question was:

Birth order is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

Nye and Short, utilizing the same four-fold breakdown as shown in Table 32, and with a much larger sample, achieved a Probability less than .001 for their student sample.⁴² The present data revealed a Probability less than .10 for the student group and less than .50 for the delinquent group.

TABLE 32

RELATIONSHIP OF BIRTH ORDER AND PARTICIPATION
IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

YOUTH WAS	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Oldest	18	8	14	11
In between	22	21	25	24
Youngest	8	14	2	7
Only child		1	3	2
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

P < .10

P < .50

Although the null hypothesis must be accepted for both samples, it is conceivable that the present data for the student sample might have achieved a comparable Probability to that of Nye and Short had the present sample

⁴²Ibid., p. 37.

been as large as theirs.

Relationship of Family Size and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The earlier work of Nye and Short, in regards to this question, revealed a Probability less than .05 for their student sample.⁴³ The present result for the student sample was a Probability less than .50. Table 33 follows.

TABLE 33
RELATIONSHIP OF FAMILY SIZE AND PARTICIPATION
IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1 or 2	11	4	10	4
3 or 4	21	21	10	19
5 or 6	12	13	9	13
7-above	4	6	15	8
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .50$

$P < .05$

The null hypothesis stated:

Number of children in the family is not
related to participation in delinquent
behavior

It was accepted for the student group and rejected for the delinquent group. The difference in sample size between the present study and that of Nye and Short has previously been mentioned as a possible partial explanation for the divergence in results, though concerned

⁴³Ibid., p. 38.

with the same variables. Even though this may have been a factor, it is also true that a somewhat different pattern of response was evident. In the present data, the lowest number of respondents fell into the first and last categories, with the bulk coming in the middle two categories. In the previous research of Nye and Short, the respondents were very nearly equally distributed throughout all categories.

Whatever the explanation, the difference in results on this question is marked, perhaps indicating the need for further investigation in this area.

Relationship of Religious Preference and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis for this question stated:

Religious preference is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

On the Chi-square test, the student sample achieved a level of significance at the .05 level. The delinquent group was far from the acceptable level. Table 34 shows the complete breakdown of data for this question.

TABLE 34
RELATIONSHIP OF RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE AND
PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

PREF- ERENCE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
None	5	3	8	10
Catholic	2	5	7	11
Prot.	16	10	17	11
L.D.S.	25	20	11	9
Other		6	1	3
TOTAL	48	44	44	44
	P < .05		P < .50	

As was the case with predisposition towards delinquency and religious preference, participation in delinquent behavior and religious preference were shown to be dependent.

The possible Mormon bias has previously been mentioned.

Relationship of Past Church Attendance and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis for this relationship stated:

Church attendance over the past five years is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

It was accepted for both samples. As Table 35 indicates, neither group had a level of significance high enough for rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE 35

RELATIONSHIP OF PAST CHURCH ATTENDANCE AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

PAST CHUR ATTENDANCE	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Never		4	5	5
1-2 times a year	9	6	6	14
Once a month	8	7	8	5
2-3 times a month	18	11	15	15
Every Sunday	13	16	10	5
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .20$

$P < .30$

There are some interesting observations to be gained from the above data. For instance, four times as many students in the most delinquent category fell into the "every Sunday" description than fell into the "never" category. Also, there were thirty delinquents (fifteen in each category) who reported past church attendance of "2-3 times a month."

The data seem to bear out past research regarding early church experience (although in the present study no probing was made beyond age nine or ten). That is, early church experience per se does not seem to be a vital deterrent, either to the inculcation of delinquent tendencies or to actual participation in delinquent behavior.

Relationship of Present Church Attendance and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

Neither sample achieved the .05 level of significance on the Chi-square test, though the Probability for the student sample was less than .10. Even with the mandatory attendance rules, the delinquent group was far from the acceptable level. The null hypothesis was framed.

Present church attendance is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

TABLE 36

RELATIONSHIP OF PRESENT CHURCH ATTENDENCE
AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

PRESENT ATTEND.	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
About the same	22	20	14	11
Attend more now	9	2	21	21
Attend less now	17	22	9	12
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .10$

$P < .70$

The data of Nye and Short provide a basis for comparison on this question. Using the same categories as listed in Table 35, their data revealed a Probability less than .01 for their student sample.⁴⁴ Although the level of significance for the present sample was not at the .05 level, it was close enough to show the similarity of results between this investigation and that of Nye and Short.

Relationship of Geographical Mobility and Participation
in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis stated:

Geographical mobility is not related to
participation in delinquent behavior.

The high school sample was far from the acceptable level on the Chi-square test, however, the delinquent group

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 36.

was at a level less than .05, indicating rejection of the null hypothesis for that group.

TABLE 37

RELATIONSHIP OF GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY AND PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

NO. OF COMM LIVED IN	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
1 or 2	34	31	22	10
3-5	10	12	11	17
6 or more	4	1	11	17
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

$P < .50$

$P < .05$

The data indicate clear acceptance of the null hypothesis for the student sample. This does not substantiate the earlier finding of Nye and Short. The Probability for their student sample was less than .001.

Relationship of Urban-Rural Background and Participation in Delinquent Behavior

The null hypothesis for this question was:

Urban-rural background is not related to participation in delinquent behavior.

As the data in Table 38 indicates, the null hypothesis was accepted for both samples.

TABLE 38

RELATIONSHIP OF URBAN-RURAL BACKGROUND AND
PARTICIPATION IN DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR

BACK- GROUND	STUDENTS		DELINQUENTS	
	Least Delin	Most Delin	Least Delin	Most Delin
Urban	42	36	18	23
Rural	6	8	26	21
TOTAL	48	44	44	44

P < .50

P < .30

It should be remembered that the above data were reported by the respondents themselves, and were not based on official records. Also, the question was not concerned with whether the present residence of the respondent was urban or rural, but rather in which area the respondent had spent most of his life.

Summary Comments on the Chi-Square Analysis

Of the Chi-square tests run on the twelve null hypotheses for predisposition towards delinquency, five were significant at the .05 level or better. This included three for the student sample and two for the delinquent group.

Regarding the Chi-square tests run on the twelve null hypotheses for participation in delinquent behavior, four were significant at the .05 level or less. This

included two each for the student and delinquent samples.

Of all Chi-squares calculated, 37.5% turned out to be significant.

For the items of "parental income" and "religious preference," the student sample achieved an acceptable level for both predisposition and participation. The same was true for the delinquent group on "geographical mobility."

Pattern of Delinquent Behavior For Both Samples

Table 39 shows the complete breakdown of participation in the twenty specific acts comprising the Delinquency Scale.

TABLE 39

PATTERN OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR FOR BOTH SAMPLES

	STUDENTS				DELINQUENTS			
	NO	1-2	ST	VO	NO	1-2	ST	VO
Driving with-out permit	21	35	25	11	12	25	28	23
Truancy	26	37	21	8	7	30	28	23
Defying parents	40	31	16	5	34	25	23	6
Petty theft	19	47	24	2	9	22	35	22
Petty theft	68	19	3	2	12	30	31	15
Grand theft	85	4	1	2	26	40	17	5
Liquor violations	19	30	30	13	17	15	24	32
Malacious mischief	44	38	9	1	25	35	22	6
Homosexuality	83	7	2		81	6	1	
Fornication	49	25	13	5	14	28	32	14
Fish and game violations	30	38	17	7	29	34	20	5
Narcotic violations	92				67	15	3	3
Auto theft	70	21		1	39	32	11	6
Drunken driving	56	19	12	5	39	17	24	8
Burglary	82	8		2	17	38	24	9
Bad checks	90	2			62	14	7	5
Rape or attempt to	87	4	1		77	11		12
Reckless driving	12	46	27	7	20	29	27	
Attempted murder	88	3	1		75	13		
Murder	91	1			87	1		

Of the twenty violations listed in Table 39, only nine will be considered in any detail. These nine represent those deemed either "serious" or "very serious" in the breakdown of seriousness according to law.

Grand Theft

89% of the students had never stolen anything over fifty dollars in value. Of the seven who had, only three had done so more than once or twice.

Correspondingly, 71% of the delinquents had committed an act of grand theft at least one time. Therefore, only 29% were free from commission of this offense.

Malicious Mischief

The main distinction between the two samples on this offense seemed to be one of frequency. That is, thirty-eight students, as compared to thirty-five delinquents had engaged in some form of malicious mischief at least once. However, while ten students admitted committing this offense more than "once or twice," twenty-eight delinquents likewise indicated.

Narcotics Violations

The results on this offense indicated that none of the students had ever possessed or used any form of illegal narcotics. On the other hand, twenty-one delinquents, or

24%, had committed a narcotics violation. Six of these twenty-one delinquents admitted narcotics violations more than "once or twice."

Auto Theft

Seventy students, as compared with thirty-nine delinquents, had never "taken a car without the owner's permission." Of the twenty-two who had committed this offense, only one had done so more than "once or twice." By comparison, of the forty-nine delinquents who had committed this infraction, seventeen had done so more than "once or twice."

Drunken Driving

The results of this infraction are quite similar for both groups. The main distinction again, is in the number of times the two groups had engaged in this behavior. That is, twice as many delinquents as students admitted the commission of this act "several times." General access to both cars and intoxicants for this age group probably was a factor in the somewhat similar results obtained.

Burglary

Burglary, like auto theft, grand theft, and narcotics use, appears to be a very discriminating offense, committed only by those well on their way towards becoming

serious delinquents. The data in Table 39 show that only ten students had ever committed this offense. Of this ten, eight were in the "one or twice" category.

Correspondingly, seventy-one delinquents admitted commission of this offense at least one time, and of this seventy-one, twenty-four fell into the "several times" category and nine into the "very often" category.

Rape or Attempt to Rape

The results for this infraction are not extremely different. 95% of the students and 88% of the delinquents were free from participation in this act. Of the five students who had admitted participation, four were in the "once or twice" category and one was in the "several times" category. All of the delinquents who admitted to this infraction fell into the "once or twice" category.⁴⁵

Attempted Murder

Four students and thirteen delinquents admitted participation in attempted murder. All of the latter fell into the "once or twice" category, while one of the former was in the "several times" category.

The exact circumstances surrounding each reported "attempt at homicide" was not probed.

⁴⁵Regarding other forms of sex behavior it is interesting to note the extent of fornication in both samples. 84% of the delinquents and 53% of the students had engaged in fornication at least one time. See Table 39.

Murder

One respondent from each sample admitted the commission of murder. Both fell into the "once or twice" category.

Again no probing beyond the information given by the respondent was made.

Summary Comments

There was only one infraction out of the twenty, in which the students had less "no" responses than the delinquents. This offense was reckless driving. Twelve students and twenty delinquents replied "no" regarding this infraction.

The responses acquired, as summarized in Table 39, were congruent with what one would expect from past studies. Infractions such as driving without a license, taking things worth less than two dollars, fish and game violations, truancy, and others were checked by more than half of the students (and even more of the delinquents). However, when the more serious acts were considered, as we have just done, the delinquents clearly showed a greater extent of and more frequent participation in such infractions. To the delinquents, the less serious acts seemed to be only incidental to other, more serious types of delinquency which eventually brought them to court conviction. On the

other hand, for the most part, the participation reported by the students seemed merely to represent the minor acts of deviation tolerated by society.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Results of the Study

Nondelinquents, whether represented by high school students, college students, or adults have been shown in past studies to rarely be free from some participation in delinquent behavior. In investigating the question, "how delinquent are nondelinquents," the present research has attained results very similar to those discovered in past studies.

In the present investigation, the first general directional hypothesis dealt with the predisposition of nondelinquents to become involved in delinquent behavior. This dimension was measured by the Socialization Scale, a device designed to measure an individual's tendency to become delinquent. Specifically, it was hypothesized that the predisposition of nondelinquents to become delinquent would not be as high as that of incarcerated delinquents. In this instance, the higher the scale score, the less the tendency to become involved in delinquent behavior. The mean score for the high school sample was 35.18, as compared to 26.88 for the delinquent sample. The critical ratio between these two means was significant at the .001 level.

Therefore, one major conclusion indicated by the present data is that nondelinquents, in general, exhibit less predisposition towards becoming delinquent than incarcerated delinquents of comparable age and background. This conclusion is compatible with those of past research in this specific area.

The three remaining general directional hypotheses were concerned with actual participation in delinquent behavior, specifically with the extent, seriousness, and frequency of such participation. The scoring procedure for the Delinquency Scale, which measured these three dimensions, incorporated all three of them into a single scale score. The higher the score, the greater the participation in delinquent behavior. The mean score for the high school sample was 18.00, as compared to 37.37 for the delinquent sample. The critical ratio between the two mean scores was significant at the .001 level.

Therefore, the primary conclusion derivable from the data in this investigation is that, in general, the participation of nondelinquents in delinquent behavior was less extensive, less frequent, and less serious than that of official delinquents. As has been previously mentioned, the delinquency reported by the nondelinquents appeared, for the most part, merely to represent the minor acts of deviation which society will tolerate. On the

other hand, for the official delinquents these same minor acts of deviation were only preparatory to more serious involvement with the law. Why the nondelinquents were able to stop short of serious infractions of the law, and the delinquents were not, was not explored in this investigation, though it is a vital question pertaining to the etiology of delinquent behavior.

Limitations of the Study

The main shortcomings of the present research can be summed up in one word: sampling. Specifically, during the course of the Chi-square analysis of data it was revealed that the samples were too small to obtain a good test with some variables. That is, when the samples were broken down into their various categories, some cells did not receive the minimum number of responses necessary for a proper Chi-square test. For this reason, some categories had to be combined or revised. In order to have obtained proper Chi-square tests, the present samples should have included closer to 175 respondents instead of the ninety that were utilized.

A second limitation, again in the area of sampling, was the number of respondents in the high school sample who claimed membership in the Mormon Church. Although the number of Mormons in the sample was representative of Pocatello, Idaho and other communities in Southeastern

Idaho or Utah, it is impossible to generalize the results obtained beyond predominant Mormon communities. To correct this shortcoming, the sample should have included either all Mormons or a lesser proportion of them. For the latter, a community outside the borders of the Mormon concentration should have been chosen.

Future Research

It was stated in an earlier chapter that the present study was designed basically as a replication of previous research. The specific problem under consideration in this thesis was first explored by Porterfield, and more recently by Nye and Short.

Replication of research, particularly in fields of study like sociology, has been sadly neglected in the past. Yet the fact remains that legitimate generalization, a primary goal of science, is impossible unless research is repeated under like conditions with closely similar results. Replication enables the scientist to state his conclusions with greater confidence, as well as increasing the precision of his experiment through diminishing the possible sources of error. Simply put, no proof and no conclusion can legitimately be accepted until the results of an investigation are confirmed by repetition of the experiment under like conditions.

Regarding the specific topic of this thesis--delinquent behavior among nondelinquents--it can be stated with considerable confidence that practically all nondelinquents have participated in some form of deviant behavior. This conclusion can be considered a strong and accurate one, simply because several separate investigations have similarly reached it.

In a word, replication of past research should be a vital area for future research. This writer also believes that specific emphasis now needs to be directed towards discovery of why one adolescent becomes seriously delinquent and another does not. Fortunately, some research in juvenile delinquency is already pointed in that direction.

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APPENDIX

There is a great deal written and said about your age group these days, but much of it is not based on fact. This study is intended to supply many important facts about what young people of your age really think and do

You need not put your name anywhere on this questionnaire. No attempt will be made to identify you through your answers.

Please answer all of the following questions as truthfully as you can. If you wish to comment on any item, write in the margin next to the item.

DIRECTIONS: Circle the T if the statement is true, and the F if it is false.

- T F 1. I often feel that I made a wrong choice in my occupation.
- T F 2. When I was going to school I played hooky quite often.
- T F 3. I think Lincoln was greater than Washington.
- T F 4. I would do most anything on a dare.
- T F 5. With things going as they are, it's pretty hard to keep up hope of amounting to something.
- T F 6. I think I am stricter about right and wrong than most people.
- T F 7. I am somewhat afraid of the dark.
- T F 8. I hardly ever get excited or thrilled.
- T F 9. My parents have often disapproved of my friends.
- T F 10. My home life was always happy.
- T F 11. I often act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think.
- T F 12. My parents have generally let me make my own decisions.
- T F 13. I would rather go without something than ask a favor.

- T F 14. I have had more than my share of things to worry about.
- T F 15. When I meet a stranger I often think that he is better than I am.
- T F 16. Before I do something I try to consider how my friends will react to it.
- T F 17. I have never been in trouble with the law.
- T F 18. In school I was sometimes sent to the principal for cutting up.
- T F 19. I keep out of trouble at all costs.
- T F 20. Most of the time I feel happy.
- T F 21. I often fell as though I have done something wrong or wicked.
- T F 22. It is hard for me to act natural when I am with new people.
- T F 23. I have often gone against my parent's wishes.
- T F 24. I often think about how I look and what impression I am making on others.
- T F 25. I have never done any heavy drinking.
- T F 26. I find it easy to "drop" or "break off with" a friend.
- T F 27. I get nervous when I have to ask someone for a job.
- T F 28. Sometimes I used to feel that I would like to leave home.
- T F 29. I never worry about my looks.
- T F 30. I have been in trouble one or more times because of my sex behavior.
- T F 31. I go out of my way to meet trouble rather than try to escape it.
- T F 32. My home life was always very pleasant.

- T F 33. My table manners are not quite as good at home as when I am out in company.
- T F 34. I seem to do things that I regret more often than other people do.
- T F 35. It is pretty easy for people to win arguments with me.
- T F 36. I know who is responsible for most of my troubles.
- T F 37. I get pretty discouraged with the law when a smart lawyer gets a criminal free.
- T F 38. I have used alcohol extensively.
- T F 39. Even when I have gotten into trouble I was usually trying to do the right thing.
- T F 40. It is important to me to have enough friends and social life.
- T F 41. I sometimes wanted to run away from home.
- T F 42. Life usually hands me a pretty raw deal.
- T F 43. People often talk about me behind my back.
- T F 44. I would never play cards (poker) with a stranger.
- T F 45. I don't think I'm quite as happy as others seem to be.
- T F 46. I used to steal sometimes when I was a youngster.
- T F 47. My home as a child was less peaceful and quiet than those of most other people.
- T F 48. Even the idea of giving a talk in public makes me afraid.
- T F 49. As a youngster in school I used to give the teachers lots of trouble.
- T F 50. If the pay was right I would like to travel with a circus or carnival.
- T F 51. I never cared much for school.
- T F 52. The members of my family were always very close to each other.

T F 53. My parents never really understood me.

T F 54. A person is better off if he doesn't trust anyone.

Recent research has found that everyone breaks some rules and regulations during his lifetime. Some break them regularly, others less often. Following are some that are frequently broken. Indicate those that you have broken since beginning grade school.

DIRECTIONS: Place an X squarely in the blank by your answer.

1. Driven a car without a driver's license or permit? (Do not include driver training courses).

(3) very often____	(2) several times____
(1) once or twice____	(0) no____

2. Skipped school without a legitimate excuse?

(0) no____	(1) once or twice____
(2) several times____	(3) very often____

3. Defied your parent's authority (to their face)?

(0) no____	(1) once or twice____
(2) several times____	(3) very often____

4. Taken little things (worth less than \$2) that did not belong to you?

(0) no____	(1) once or twice____
(2) several times____	(3) very often____

5. Taken things of medium value (between \$2 and 50)?

(3) very often____	(2) several times____
(1) once or twice____	(0) no____

6. Taken things of large value (over \$50)?

(0) no____	(1) once or twice____
(2) several times____	(3) very often____

7. Bought or drank beer, wine, or liquor? (include drinking at home)

(0) no____	(1) once or twice____
(2) several times____	(3) very often____

8. Purposely damaged or destroyed public or private property that did not belong to you?

(3) very often____ (2) several times____
(1) once or twice____ (0) no____

9. Had sex relations with another person of the same sex?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

10. Had sex relations with a person of the opposite sex?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

11. Gone hunting or fishing without a license (or violated other fish and game laws)?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

12. Used or sold narcotics (including marijuana)?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

13. Taken a car without the owner's permission?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

14. Driven a car while intoxicated?

(0) no____ (1) once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

15. Broken into a house, store, or other establishment to take money or items of property?

(3) very often____ (2) several times____
(1) once or twice____ (0) no____

16. Written checks without having sufficient funds in the bank to cover them?

(0) no____ (once or twice____
(2) several times____ (3) very often____

17. Made attempts to or had sex relations with a person of the opposite sex without her consent?

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (0) no_____ | (1) once or twice_____ |
| (2) several times_____ | (3) very often_____ |

18. Driven too fast or recklessly in an automobile?

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (3) very often_____ | (2) several times_____ |
| (1) once or twice_____ | (0) no_____ |

19. Attempted to take another persons life?

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (0) no_____ | (1) once or twice_____ |
| (2) several times_____ | (3) very often_____ |

20. Actually taken another persons life?

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (0) no_____ | (1) once or twice_____ |
| (2) several times_____ | (3) very often_____ |

The following information is necessary for the analysis of the data obtained from the preceeding questions. It will not be used in any other way. Please fill in all questions except those enclosed in the box.

(1-2)	Sample_____
(3-4-5)	Schedule number_____
(6-7)	SO scale_____
(8-9)	DE scale_____

10. What is your age to your nearest birthday?

- | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------|
| (1) 12 or under_____ | (2) 13_____ | (3) 14_____ |
| (4) 15_____ | (5) 16_____ | (6) 17_____ |
| (7) 18 or older_____ | | |

11. What occupation has your father held during most of his lifetime? (Be as specific as possible).

12. Please estimate the total income of your parents last year, considering all sources.

(0) Under \$2,000____ (1) \$2,000-4,999____ (2) \$5,000-7,999____
(3) \$8,000-10,999____ (4) \$11,000-13,999____
(5) \$14,000-16,999____ (6) \$17,000 and over____

13. Are your original parents (1) living together____
(2) separated, live apart____ (3) legally divorced____
(4) father not living____ (5) mother not living____

14. With whom do you ordinarily live?

(1) Original father and mother____ (2) mother and step-father____
(3) father and step-mother____ (4) mother only____
(5) father only____ (6) foster parents____
(7) if none of these, who_____

15. In your family are you (1) the youngest____ (2) in between____
(3) the youngest____ (4) an only child____

16. How many children are there in your family including yourself? (Don't count any who are not living)

(1) one____ (2) two____ (3) three____ (4) four____
(5) five____ (6) six____ (7) seven____ (8) eight or more____

17. What is your religious preference? (0) none____

(1) Catholic____ (2) Protestant____ (3) L.D.S.____
(4) other_____

18. Over the past five years, how often did you go to church, Sunday School, or young peoples religious meetings?

(1) never____ (2) once or twice a year____ (3) about once a month____
(4) 2-3 times a month____ (5) every Sunday____

19. How does your attendance at religious meetings now compare with that of the past five years?

(1) about the same____ (2) attend more now____
(3) attend less now____

20. Where have you lived during most of your life?

- (1) on a farm or in a small town or village____
(2) in a city, 10,000 or more____

21. In how many differnet communities or towns have you lived?

- (1) one____ (2) two____ (3) three____
(4) four____ (5) five____ (6) six or more____