

**An Examination of Personality Type Preferences
of Male and Female Juvenile Delinquents**

by

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Abstract

Each year, over two million youth are adjudicated through American juvenile courts (Snyder, 2006). Delinquency is a problem that has a negative impact on families, communities, and society. Annual juvenile delinquency expenditures including law enforcement, incarceration, treatment and prevention programs exceed 2.3 billion dollars (Cohen, 1998). Furthermore, the costs associated with juvenile delinquency are not all monetary. Academically, delinquent students read below grade level, score lower on standardized tests than non-delinquents, and are one to several years behind (Foley, 2001). Unfortunately, for many troubled youth, the challenges to succeed become too great, and criminal behavior well into adulthood is often the result. In an attempt to gain a better insight into the delinquency phenomenon, research has tended to focus primarily on external factors such as family, education, socioeconomic, etc. Research which highlights personality as a possible correlate to delinquency among juvenile males and females has largely been ignored.

The purpose of this study was to examine the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents, compare and contrast the personality types of male and female juvenile delinquents, and determine if there are significant differences among the respective groups as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). Examining the personality type preferences among male and female delinquents may provide information that could lead to better preventive, intervention and rehabilitative programs that are gender prescriptive and better suited to curtail delinquency. The MMTIC was administered to 35 male

and 35 female juvenile delinquents who were being held in two separate custodial facilities in Alabama. According to the analyzed data, no statistically significant difference existed among the personality types of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the four dichotomous scales (*Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving*) of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Moreover, the results of this study also revealed a relationship between the four letter personality type of male juvenile delinquents and the four letter personality type of female juvenile delinquents.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

“Juveniles in the U.S. today live in a world very different from that of their parents and grandparents; problems experienced by children at the turn of the century are the products of multiple and sometimes complex causes” (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006, p. 1). As a result, many American adolescents become overwhelmed and eventually succumb to the various formidable challenges they face. Unfortunately, a childhood marred by habitual delinquent behavior is often unavoidable, and many youth never successfully recover.

Historically, the family, church and community were all effective mechanisms used to control delinquent adolescent behavior (Johnson, 2007). Today, those once effective mechanisms used in past years are now being replaced by complaints and petitions to the juvenile courts (Yablonsky, 2000). When families and social service agencies fail to remedy delinquent behavior, juvenile courts are compelled to intervene (Loeber, Farrington, & Petechuk, 2003). Consequently, the juvenile court system has become a “dumping ground” for children with problem behaviors (Loeber, Farrington, & Petechuk, 2003, p. 11).

Frustrated parents who seek help for their troubled children and the continued escalation of delinquency have impacted the juvenile justice system significantly. In 2005, law enforcement agencies in the United States made an estimated 2.1 million arrests of person under age 18. In 2008, U.S. law enforcement agencies arrested an estimated 2.11 million persons younger than 18. The fact that this represents a 2% decrease from the previous year is encouraging (see Figure 1). However, each year millions of dollars are spent and countless juvenile delinquency

prevention, intervention, and rehabilitative programs are created to address this persistent dilemma. As a result, law makers, juvenile behavior experts, local, state, and federal authorities are baffled by the continuous high number of youth adjudicated into the juvenile justice system annually. Figure 1 illustrates the millions of juveniles who become products of the juvenile justice system each year.

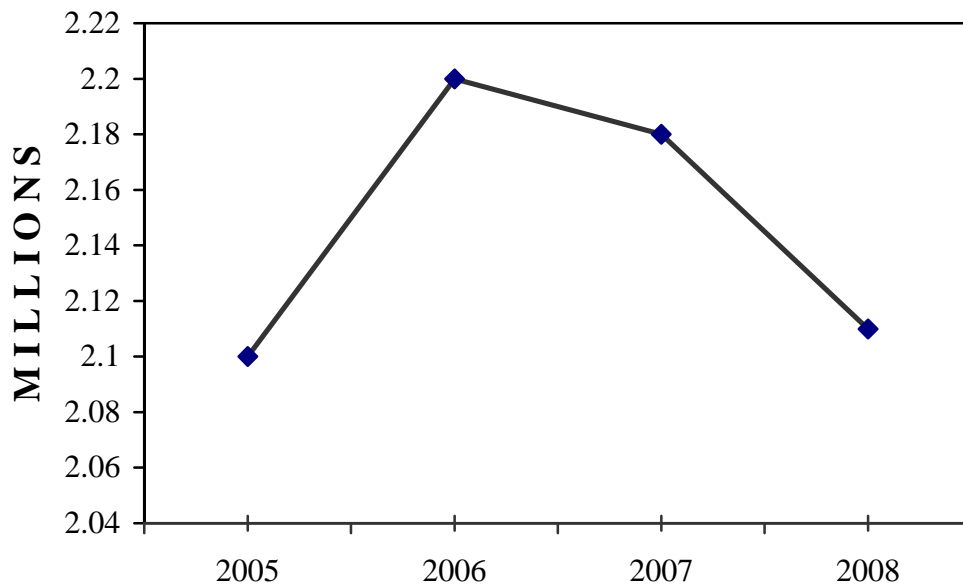


Figure 1. Number of Juvenile Arrests Nationally (2005-2008)

More troubling is the exorbitant rise of delinquent behavior being demonstrated by juvenile girls. Sherman (2005) explained that during the past decade, juvenile justice systems throughout the country saw a dramatic increase in the number of girls being detained, and although they represented only 19% of all detained youth in 2001, more girls are entering detention facilities than in previous years. In 2008, females accounted for 30% of all juvenile arrests (Snyder, 2009). Of greater concern is the fact that official state reports show that female arrests for more violent offenses such as simple assault and aggravated assault have either risen substantially or have decreased to a lesser degree than their male counterparts. Murders

committed by female offenders grew 64% in the last decade (Weiler, 1999). However, despite this alarming trend, there is little knowledge about the causes of girls' violence, and few studies have been conducted on young women's crime and delinquency (Weiler, 1999).

Background of the Study

Participants for this study were male and female juvenile delinquents committed to a detention facility operated by the Alabama Department of Youth Services. The Alabama Department of Youth Services (DYS) is the state agency charged with the supervision of delinquent youth (Corwin, Parks, Williamson, Anderson, Mitchell, & Pope, 2005). Within the last ten years, the number of juveniles served by the Alabama Department of Youth Services has increased by 100 percent. The mission of DHS is to enhance public safety by holding juvenile offenders accountable through the use of institutional, educational, and community services that balance the rights and needs of the victims, communities, courts, and offenders (Alabama Department of Youth Services, 2007). DHS' primary goals consist of the following:

- Provide juvenile services within the framework of professional juvenile justice standards, legislative intent and available resources
- Hold juveniles accountable and responsible for their actions and teach them the consequences of their behavior
- Provide juvenile offenders opportunities to change behaviors based on an assessment of individual needs
- Place all juvenile offenders in a clean and safe environment that promotes dignity, responsibility, self-esteem, respect and a positive educational experience
- Promote the efficient use of resources by providing the least restrictive environment for the juvenile while protecting the community

The Alabama Department of Youth Services operates six detention facilities throughout the state. Juveniles are committed to DYS for various offenses including child in need of supervision (CHINS), drugs, person offenses (assault, homicide, rape, or robbery) property offenses (vandalism, burglary, theft or arson) and public order offenses (disorderly conduct, obstruction of justice, weapons or liquor violations). While detained, juveniles receive educational services comparable to the traditional public school setting. Also, eligible students can receive GED and vocational training.

From 2005 to 2008 (Crime in Alabama, 2008), there were a total of 54,088 juvenile arrests (see Figure 2). During that span, 12,351 juveniles (2,380 females, 9,971 males) were committed to DYS detention facilities (see Figure 3).

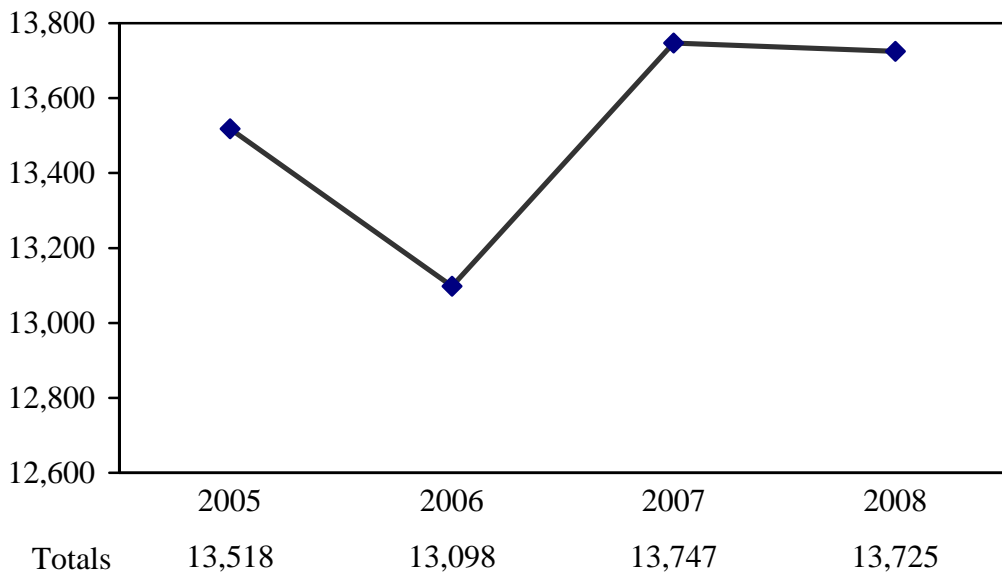


Figure 2. Number of Juvenile Arrests in Alabama (2005- 2008)

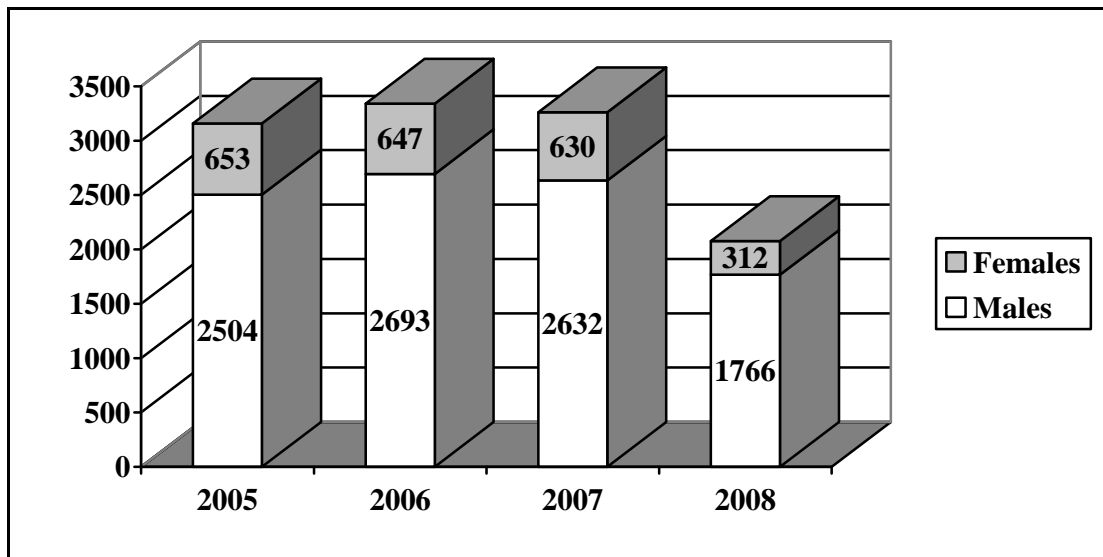


Figure 3. *Number of Juveniles Committed to DYS (2005 -2008)*

Statement of Problem

According to the most recent figures available (Smith, 2008), overall, there continues to be a modest downward trend in juvenile delinquency in the last 15 years. However, given its association with aggression, substance abuse, mental health problems, and generally disrupted development, juvenile delinquency receives high levels of public policy and media attention, as well as attention from professions located within multiple disciplines (e.g. public health, sociology, criminology social work, psychology, psychiatry, and law) (Smith, 2008). Moreover, increased delinquency and higher arrest rates among girls have become a serious concern in recent years (Zahn, Hawkins, Chiancone, & Whitworth, 2008). Scelfo (2005) characterizes the significant rise in violent behavior among girls and their heightened arrest rate as a “burgeoning national crisis” (p. 2).

Whether this reflects a change in girls’ behavior or changes in arrest patterns is unknown and is the basis for much debate. However, what is definitely certain is that the juvenile justice system has and continues to struggle to understand how to best respond to the needs of girls

entering the system (Zahn, Hawkins, Chiancone, & Whitworth, 2008). According to Zahn, Agnew, and Brown (2009), this is due largely in part to the fact that “despite extensive involvement of girls in delinquency, for many years criminologists neglected the topic of female delinquency; theories of delinquency were often developed with males in mind and there was little effort to conduct research on females” (p. 2). Additionally, “the juvenile justice system primarily focused its efforts on male offenders” (Zahn, Agnew, & Brown, 2009, p. 2).

Zahn, Agnew, and Brown (2009) also found that “with some exceptions, extensive recent scholarship focusing on gender and crime has tended to concentrate on women, not on girls” (p. 1). The authors further revealed that “although several longitudinal studies have been conducted with great impact on fields of knowledge (Farrington, 1994; Loeber, Keenan, and Zhang, 1997; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005), most of these did not focus on girls” (p. 1). Consequently, “while existing studies have provided important windows into girls’ involvement in delinquency (Chesney-Lind & Pasko 2004), no comprehensive review exists of empirical evidence for the causes and correlates of girls’ delinquency” (Zahn, Agnew, & Browne, 2009, p. 1).

Although delinquency among juvenile girls continues to escalate at an alarming pace, the overwhelming majority of youth who enter the juvenile justice system are males (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Boys’ arrests represent 70% of all juvenile arrests (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Nearly three quarters of all juvenile court prosecutions are males (Stahl et al., 2004). Furthermore, 85% of juvenile offenders held in custodial or residential placement facilities are boys (Stahl et al., 2007). Chesney-Lind & Shelden (2004) revealed that juvenile boys are far more likely to commit a violent crime (homicide, forcible rape, aggravated assault). Consequently, even with a modest decline over the past decade, juvenile males continue to

outnumber juvenile females in nearly every major/minor offense category reported (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

Despite these dire statistics, research which attempts to explain male and female delinquency has narrowly focused on external factors such as family, socioeconomic class, and educational experiences (Martin, 2005). However, “Within the area of personality psychology, trait-theorists link personality characteristics with behavior” (van Dam, De Bruyn, & Janssens 2007, p. 763). Yet, delinquency research has neglected the significance of the personality traits (Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002) As a result, there continues to be a lack of research which examines personality as a causal explanation or possible correlate to male and female juvenile delinquency. If the juvenile justice system is to gain better insight and adequately address delinquency, the urgent need to have research which examines the personality type of both male and female delinquents, must be met accordingly.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to: (a) examine the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents; (b) compare and contrast the personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents; and (c) determine if there are significant differences among the respective groups as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). “Males and females in the juvenile justice system are similar in some respects, but also tend to differ in a number of ways” (Cooney, Small, & O’Connor, 2008, p. 2). More or less, the needs and strengths of incarcerated boys and girls are different (Gavazzi & Yarcheck, 2006). Sherman (2005) further explained, “Adolescent girls who are in the justice system differ from boys developmentally and psychologically” (p. 16). Moreover, subtle differences in personality

traits may contribute to delinquent boys' and girls' dissimilar response to certain environmental conditions (Klein & Corwin, 2002). Furthermore, these personality differences may partially account for the contrast that exists among boys' and girls' delinquency (Zahn et al., 2010). Nonetheless, by understanding the attributes of the confined youth population and combining this knowledge with accurate population projections, juvenile correctional agencies can better evaluate their program needs and structure facilities and programs to meet the needs of confined youth (Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer, 2005).

Research Questions

This study investigated the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

5. Overall, is there any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

Theoretical Framework

Over the years, Jungian *Type Theory* has proven to be a sound theoretical basis for identifying existing attitudes and motivation patterns in people (Lawrence, 1993). “The essence of the theory is that the much seemingly random variation in human behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent, being due to certain basic differences in the way people prefer to use their perception and judgment” (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 1). According to Cavin (2000), *Type Theory* assumes that humans have preferences for how information is received and ultimately, how that information is then processed. Moreover, *Type Theory* holds that the attitudes, assumptions, and most importantly, the actions of individuals are the direct result of those preferences.

Jung (1923) revealed that the four basic mental processes, or preferences are *Sensing*, *Intuition*, *Thinking*, and *Feeling*. Jung further asserted that there are also two basic attitudes toward the world: *Extraversion* and *Introversion*. Jung (1971) held that the *Extraversion/Introversion* preferences combine with the *Sensing/Intuition* preferences and the *Thinking/Feeling* preferences to yield eight possible combinations. The *Judging/Perceiving* preferences were implicitly present in Jung’s work as well (Myers, 1962). Accordingly, these four dichotomous scales combine to generate a total of sixteen personality types. Each of these offers its own unique set of characteristics and gifts as well as its own set of potential dangers (McCaulley, 1981). Over the years, the escalation of juvenile delinquency has continued to perplex the minds of those who seek practical solutions to this persistent problem. Understanding

Type Theory could provide a significant breakthrough in addressing delinquency. If in fact the responses and actions of delinquents are the immediate result of an identifiable set of mental processes, or preferences (extraversion, introversion, etc.) identifying them and determining if they differ among gender could signal a need for immediate changes in delinquency research and the practical solutions implemented to resolve this persistent problem.

Significance of the Study

Each year, over two million youth are arrested and adjudicated through U.S. juvenile courts (Snyder, 2006). As a result, the negative effects of juvenile delinquency on society, families, and youth are substantial (Holmes, Slaughter, & Kashani, 2001). For example, estimated delinquency expenditures (law enforcement, incarceration, treatment and preventive programs, juvenile justice, etc.) exceed 2.3 billion dollars annually (Cohen, 1998).

In addition, the negative effects of juvenile delinquency extend well beyond economics. Research indicates that delinquent youth fail to meet academic standards. Specifically, delinquents demonstrate substantial reading, math, and language deficits (Baltodano, Harris, & Rutherford, 2005). Furthermore, delinquent youth have lower standardized test scores and grades than non- delinquents (Wang, Blomberg, & Li, 2005). One out of every three juvenile delinquents at some point during his/her educational experience has received special education services (Quinn, Rutherford, Leone, Osher, & Poirer, 2005).

Perhaps, the most significant impact of juvenile delinquency is its correlation to adult criminal behavior. Farrington (1995) revealed that adolescent delinquency is the most accurate predictor of adulthood criminal behavior. Lahey et al., (1995) added that over half of all juvenile offenders will continue offending well beyond their teens.

In order to strengthen efforts aimed at providing effective services for adjudicated youth, an understanding of their resiliency is important (Todis, et al. 2001). As juvenile detention facilities work to meet the needs of delinquents through rehabilitation, “one manner of achieving a better understanding of self and others is through type theory or typology” (Cavin, 2000, p. 6). Moreover, Steiner, Cauffman and Duxbury (1999) added that an understanding of how personality affects criminal activity and recidivism can be enhanced by assessing delinquents’ personality traits. Personality classification is essential to behavioral sciences and fundamental to juvenile justice (Jones & Harris, 1999). Yet, most juvenile delinquency programs fail to differentiate among its clients (Palmer, 1992). Examining the personality type preferences among male and female juvenile delinquents may provide information that could lead to better education, policy making, counseling, and intervention programs that are gender prescriptive and better suited to curtail delinquency, thus lessening its negative impact on society, families, and youth.

Limitations

The following limitations were noted for this research study:

1. The results may not be representative of juvenile delinquents at other detention facilities since the sample for this study was obtained from one male and one female detention facility operated by the Alabama Department of Youth Services.
2. This study was limited to male and females juvenile delinquents who were at least 14 and not older than 18 years old.
3. The population sample was limited to total of 70 (35 male & 35 female) juvenile delinquents who volunteered anonymously to have their personality type measured.

4. This study was limited by the information gained from the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made when conducting this research study:

1. Type as described by Jung, Myers, and Briggs can be measured.
2. The MMTIC provides a reasonable construct of type dimensions.
3. Participants answered the MMTIC consistently and honestly.

Definition of Terms

Adjudicate: is the legal process of finding allegations against a child to be true.

Adjudicated Youth: is a child who has been found delinquent by the juvenile court and is under the supervision of the juvenile court.

Aftercare: is the period after a juvenile is released from confinement or incarceration, and is the final component of a youth's sentence (Gordon, 2003).

Child In Need of Supervision (CHINS): is defined by the state of Alabama as an individual, under the age of 18 who violates the compulsory school attendance policy: disobeys reasonable demands of his/her parent(s), guardian or other custodian and is beyond their control; has committed an offense as defined by the law, but is not classified as criminal and only applies to children; is in need of care or rehabilitation (Alabama Juvenile Justice Act).

Crime Index: includes all eight crimes in the Violent Crime Index and Property Crime Index

Delinquent Act: is an act committed by a child that is a violation of a state or municipal ordinance, misdemeanor or felony. The term does not include youth who are transferred to criminal court.

Delinquent Youth: is a youth who has been formerly adjudicated by a juvenile court.

Department of Youth Services: is the state agency charged with the supervision of delinquent youth (Corwin, Parks, Williamson, Anderson, Mitchell, & Pope, 2005).

Detention Center: is the temporary confinement of juveniles who are accused of illegal conduct and are in need of a restricted environment while legal actions are pending (Reconnecting, n.d.)

Disposition: is the action taken by a juvenile court in response to a child who is found delinquent or in violation of a court order.

Juvenile Court: is a court that has a special jurisdiction over delinquent, dependent or neglected children (Corwin, Parks, Williamson, Anderton, Mitchell, & Pope, 2005).

Petition: is a legal document against a child alleging that he/she has committed a delinquent act. A petition is the equivalent of a warrant for an adult.

Property Crime Index: includes burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

Recidivism: is the act of committing a new violation, being incarcerated or attending an additional court referral after the initial offense (Dolny, 2003).

Status Offense: are behaviors that are law violations only if committed by a person of juvenile status. Such behaviors include running away from home, ungovernability (being beyond the control of parents or guardians), truancy, and underage drinking. A number of other offenses may be considered status offenses (e.g., curfew violations, tobacco offenses) (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

Type: The description of the individual's preferred method of perceiving and processing information and relating to the world.

Violent Crime Index: Includes all eight crimes in the Violent Crime Index and Property Crime Index.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 presents the background of the study, research questions, statement of the problem, significance of the study, and definition of terms. Chapter 2, the literature review, highlights and details prominent delinquency causation theories, presents a historical perspective of juvenile courts, identifies phases in the juvenile justice process, and offers an examination of type theory and its correlation to delinquency and criminality. Chapter 3 presents the procedures used in the study. It also includes a description of the population sample, description of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, and it details research and data collection procedures, as well as the data analysis. Also, the chapter contains relevant information pertaining to the reliability and validity of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. In Chapter 4, the results in accordance to each research question are analyzed and presented. Chapter 5 summarizes the study, discusses the conclusions and implications of the results, and presents recommendations future research and practice.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature reviewed in this chapter focuses on the following aspects: (1) juvenile delinquency, including but not limited to associated terminology, risk factors, causation theories, the extent of delinquency in the U.S., and the correlation of delinquency to academic achievement, (2) the juvenile justice system, including but not limited to a historical overview, juvenile courts, phases in the juvenile justice process and recidivism, and (3) personality types and delinquency, including but not limited to type theory, Jung's psychological types, and personality types as predictors of delinquency, and relevant studies.

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Juvenile Delinquency

“For as long as there have been young people, there has been a problem with youthful crime and misbehavior, and although the names for this misbehavior have changed, the perception of a youth crime problem has persisted over centuries” (Weisheit & Culbertson, 2000, p. 1). Consequently, concern over increasing delinquent behavior among American juveniles heightened during the early 70’s. In 1974, juvenile crime was recognized by the United States

Congress as a national problem. As a result, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act was enacted, and most recently reauthorized in 2002. Despite these legislative measures, juvenile delinquency has continued to be a serious concern of policymakers, the general public, social workers and other treatment specialists (Flash, 2003). As a result, Snyder (2005), estimated that nearly 2.2 million juveniles were arrested, accounting for 16% of all arrests and 15% of all violent criminal offenses in 2003. Of those arrests, 20% were handled by law enforcement agencies, 71% were referred to juvenile court, and 7% were referred to criminal court. Recent studies also indicate that while the arrest rate for older youth was 23% above its 1980 level, it has more than doubled for preteens (Snyder, 2005).

“The identification, monitoring and management of behaviors contributing to delinquency is an extremely complicated process. In order to address the issue of delinquency, an awareness of the characteristics of delinquency, as well as its potential influences and deterrence are needed” (Johnson, 2007, p. 14). Gaining knowledge of youthful behaviors in school, in the community, and at home may help schools, families and community agencies understand patterns of delinquent behavior and aid in developing interventions (Sprague, Walker, Stieber, Simonsen, Nishioka, & Wagner, 2001). Ultimately, the control of delinquency depends on society’s ability to rehabilitate adjudicated youth, to treat pre-delinquents, and to reform communities (Cavan & Ferdinand, 1975).

Associated Terminology

As lawmakers, adolescent psychologists, behavior theorists, etc., all work vigorously to resolve the continued escalation of delinquency among juveniles, little dissension exists over an acceptable definition of juvenile delinquency. By definition, juvenile delinquency is a legal term

that refers to a single or multiple acts that violate the law by persons who are minors, generally under age 18 (Agnew, 2005). Moreover, juvenile delinquency is often associated with other behavioral terms. The most common behavioral terms are antisocial behavior, conduct disorder, and oppositional defiant disorder (Smith, 2008).

Antisocial Behavior

Smith (2008) explained that juvenile delinquency involves behavior that is considered antisocial. However, (Stoff, Breiling, & Maser, 1997) pointed out that the term antisocial has a broader meaning and refers to a “spectrum of disruptive behaviors, most often aggressive, that have in common transgressions against societal norms” (p. xiii). Defiance of authority figures, deceitfulness, and rule breaking are examples of antisocial behavior that are not “delinquent” in that they do not necessarily break the law (Smith, 2008). Nonetheless, the American Psychiatric Association (APA) (1994) warned that antisocial behavior should not be confused with Antisocial Personality Disorder. This mental health diagnosis applies to adults who display longstanding patterns of antisocial behavior, impulsivity, and disregard for the rights and feelings of others. As with delinquency, antisocial behavior frequently co-occurs with other risk behaviors like sexual activity, suicidal behavior, and substance use that together disrupts and compromises normal development, with detrimental consequences far into adulthood (Loeber et al., 1998).

Conduct Disorder (CD)

This mental disorder is most prevalent during childhood, and it involves a “repetitive and persistent pattern of behavior in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated (APA, 1994, p. 85). Unlike delinquency which can involve a single

act, conduct disorder is characterized by a pattern of behavior over time (Smith, 2008).

Delinquents who have been court adjudicated, particularly those who are severe and persistent offenders, are likely to meet a diagnosis of Conduct Disorder (Vermeiren, 2003).

Attention Deficit-Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is a significantly prevalent developmental/conduct disorder that affects 3% to 9% of children (Barkley, 1998). According to the American Psychiatric Association (1994), ADHD core features are symptoms of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity. The most current criteria for a diagnosis of ADHD include either inattentive only (IA), hyperactive/impulsive only (HI), or combined hyperactive/impulsive and inattentive (HIA) (1994). As with most other conduct disorders, male ADHD diagnoses outnumber females by a 3 to 1 ratio (Barbarese et al., 2002). Whether or not ADHD is a precursor to girls' delinquency is not known because the study of ADHD has focused primarily on males. However, ADHD has been identified as a likely risk factor for boys conduct and delinquent behavior (Loeber et al., 2001).

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD)

Smith (2008) asserted that this diagnosis applies predominantly to younger children who do not meet conduct disorder criteria. Oppositional Defiant Disorder is typified by a series of antisocial behaviors (Maughan, 2004). Moreover, it refers to age-inappropriate and persistent angry and irritable, defiant and confrontational behavior. Losing one's temper frequently, deliberately annoying others, angering easily, and blaming others for misbehavior are behaviors that fall within this category. Experts estimate that nearly 50% of children with ADHD are also likely to be diagnosed as ODD (Kutcher, 2004). Experts further assert that ODD could be a developmental precursor to CD (2004). Similar to Conduct Disorder, males account for the majority of all Oppositional Defiant Disorder cases (Barbarese et al., 2002). Finally, all of these

childhood disorders, anti-social, conduct, and oppositional defiant are often seen in combination with other mental health disorders and conditions such as Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder (Smith, 2008).

Risk Factors

Identifying risk factors can be useful when attempting to curtail and/or prevent delinquency. Britt and Gottfredson (2003) reported that significant delinquency indicators are frequently identified 10 to 15 years before a juvenile is ever adjudicated. As a result, the efforts of authorities, parents, and educational leaders to curtail delinquency during adolescence are weakened because delinquent youth often exhibit troublesome behavior prior to their initial arrest (Britt & Gottfredson, 2003; Loeber & Farrington, 2001). Furthermore, the emphasis by many programs and policies is often on treatment or punishment; consequently, the underlying delinquency risk factor is never specifically addressed (Jenson & Howard, 1998).

Wright (2007) identified risk factors as being an aspect of a person's life that may arise from within the individual, their family, friends, school, or community environments. Risk factors increase the likelihood of an individual engaging in delinquent behavior. There is no single path to delinquency; risk factors only increase the probability, not the certainty (Shader, 2003). Krisberg (2005) identified problems in the home, poor school performance, perpetual antisocial behavior, and academic failures as formidable risk factors for most delinquent behavior.

Noncompliance with adults, temper tantrums, truancy and refusing authority are behaviors exhibited by children at risk for becoming delinquents. (Loeber & Farrington, 2001; Thornberry, Huizinga, & Loeber, 2004). Children differ in their capacity and willingness to make a positive accommodation (Emler & Reicher, 1995). How a child responds to those

demands reveal socially acceptable behavior that researchers regard as antisocial or prosocial behavior (Johnson, 2007). Antisocial, aggressive behavior is closely linked to delinquency, particularly among juvenile males (Caeti & Fritsh, 2003). Actions prompted by empathy, moral values and a sense of personal responsibility are considered prosocial behaviors (Kidron & Fleishman, 2006). Prosocial behaviors such as sharing, helping others and cooperating are a direct contrast of oppositional and aggressive behaviors (Tremblay & LeMarquand, 2001).

At some point during their adolescences, nearly all youth will engage in delinquent behavior. However, the legal definition of delinquency entails persistent, defiant and maladaptive behaviors (Angenent & de Man, 1996; Gibbons, 1976). Poor social skills, which lead to disturbance in social relationships initially begins with relatives, peers, and teachers and later with employers and co-workers, are definite risk factors warning signs (Loeber & Farrington, 2001). Rarely are delinquents involved in serious acts of violence. However, many delinquents will engage in crimes less serious in nature such as occasional drug and alcohol abuse (Sprague, Walker, Steiber, Simonsen, & Nishioka, 2001). Identifying risk factors is essential to predicting delinquent behavior (Johnson, 2007).

Causation Theories

Why some youth become delinquent and others do not remains a mystery. What is increasingly clear is that simple explanations are inadequate. The causes of human behavior, including delinquency, are complex, and predicting whether any one child will become delinquent is nearly impossible. (Weisheit & Culbertson, 2000, p. 33)

“Many theories have been advanced to explain the cause of juvenile delinquency. Some are quite sophisticated, whereas others are predicated on rather basic instinctive conclusions that may not have a basis in fact” (Martin, 2005, p. 61). Nonetheless, “practitioners and researchers

have sought for generations to explain why juveniles engage in criminal deviance” (p. 62). As a result, several theories have been purposed as a causal explanation for juvenile delinquency.

Among those are *General Strain Theory*, *Social Learning Theory*; *Control Theory*, and *Labeling Theory*.

General Strain Theory

One prevailing theory that offers insight and seeks to explain juvenile delinquency is *General Strain Theory* (GST). According to Agnew (2009), these strains are grouped accordingly: failure to achieve positively valued goals (e.g., autonomy, masculine status, monetary success), the loss of positive stimuli (e.g., property, romantic partners), and the presentation of negative stimuli (e.g., verbal and physical abuse). Anger and frustration are negative emotions that often follow such strains. As a result, delinquency allows individuals to cope by providing a manner in which to reduce or escape the strains (e.g., theft to achieve monetary goals, running away to escape from abusive parents) (Agnew, 2009).

Agnew (2009) further added, “GST also argues that some individuals are more likely to cope with strain through crime” (p. 9). According to the author, the likelihood of criminal coping is advanced by five characteristics: (a) poor coping skills and resources (e.g. poor social and problem-solving skills, the personality trait of low self-control); (b) low levels of conventional social support: (c) low social control: (d) association with criminal others and beliefs favorable to crime; and (e) exposure to situations where the costs of crime are low and the benefits are high. “These factors increase the likelihood of criminal coping since they reduce the ability to cope in a legal manner, reduce the costs of crime, and increase the disposition for crime” (p. 9). Chesney-Lind and Shelden (2004) conveyed one final point to strain theory. “Our culture contributes to crime because the opportunities to achieve success goals are not equally

distributed. Consequently, people confronted with this contradiction face pressures or strains to seek alternatives” (p. 111).

Social Learning Theory

Ormrod (1999) revealed that social learning theory involves learning that occurs within a context whereby people learn from each other such concepts as observational learning, imitation, and modeling. Akers and Sellers (2004) and Akers (1998) added that under social learning theory, individuals are taught to be delinquent from family members, friends, neighborhood residents, and media figures. Agnew (2009) explained that delinquency is taught from these individuals in three major ways: First, these individuals model delinquent behavior which is then imitated. The likelihood increases if close individuals (e.g. relatives) are the ones modeling the delinquent behavior. “Having criminal parents and siblings is a relatively strong predictor of delinquency” (p. 12). Secondly, the individual’s delinquency is reinforced in certain circumstances. Consequently, the individual now anticipates additional reinforcement in similar situations. Lastly, they (family members, friends, neighborhood residents) teach beliefs that favor delinquency (e.g. delinquency is desirable, justifiable or excusable in certain conditions). For example, violence may be presented as a just and reasonable counter action to various provocations (Anderson, 1999).

Social Bond Theory

In examining theoretical explanations for delinquency, one must seriously consider the significant findings of Travis Hirschi. According to Hirschi (1969), delinquent acts occur when an individual’s bond to society is weak or broken. Hirschi theory of juvenile delinquency entails an explanation of why youth obey the law, not why they break it (Schram, 2003). Furthermore, Hirschi maintained that delinquency is influenced by the social bond an individual has to others

(Johnson, 2007). “The weaker the individual’s social bond, the greater the chances the individual commits a crime” (Britt, 2003, p. 173). The significance of social bonds is its ability to constrain people from acting in their own self interest. Instead, they are forced to recognize how their own actions have consequences for themselves and others (Britt, 2003). The importance of these bonds is that they create restraints and obligations that impose dire costs for translating criminal propensities into action (MacKenzie, Wilson, Armstrong, & Gover, 2004).

Hirschi’s (1969) social bond theory is similar to control theory. However, under control theory, how a person feels about the person or persons making the rule, dictates the level of control (Baker, 1991). Hirschi’s model focuses on the relationship and interactions an individual has with others; at the heart of these relationships are an individual’s attachment to parents and school, commitment to societal goals, involvement in conventional activities, and belief in legitimate values (Schram, 2003).

Labeling Theory

Rather than asking why a person committed a deviant act, labeling theory emphasizes the response to the act (Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2004). Agnew (2009) held that both the formal reaction by the juvenile justice system and the informal reaction by parents, friends, teachers, and community residents are primary focuses of labeling theory. “The key insight of labeling theory is that others often react to the individual’s delinquency in ways that increase the likelihood of further delinquency” (p. 17). Agnew further held that labeled delinquents are often treated in a harsh rejecting manner, and the punishment that they may encounter from parents, school officials, and the justice system will come often in the form of suspicion and mistrust.

As a result, these reactions increase the likelihood of delinquency for four reasons: First, because the labeled individual experiences negative treatment, their strain is increased. Secondly,

the labeled individual's control is decreased because their bond to others such as parents and teachers are weakened. Next, since others do not want to associate with them, labeled individuals will often associate with other delinquents. Thus, the social learning of crime is fostered. Finally, labeled individuals may eventually see themselves as delinquent and begin to act accordingly (Agnew, 2009).

Extent of Juvenile Delinquency

“Even when juvenile arrest rates were what we now consider low, people still were concerned about how much crime juveniles committed” (Weisheit & Culbertson, 2000, p. 15). Smith (2008) argued “It is difficult to estimate the true extent of a behavior which is subject to sanction and social rejection and is often undetected.” (p. 4) Nonetheless, estimates detailing the extent of juvenile delinquency are derived from two main sources: official and self-report data. A third, but far less used source for compiling juvenile data is the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). The NCVS is an annual assessment of crime victims conducted with approximately 50,000 individuals age 12 and older (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2000). Data obtained from the NCVS only indicate who is most likely to be victimized by crime in the U.S. (Jensen, Potter & Howard, 2001).

Steffensmeir and Schwartz (2009) admitted that each source of data (official and self report) has its strengths and weaknesses, and each offers a slightly different picture of juvenile crime. Official data on delinquency are collected by local government agencies and disseminated by state and national organizations. Arrest data, collected from local police agencies and disseminated by the FBI, is one of the main sources of official data. By contrast, self-report data are collected independently of the criminal justice system (Steffensmeier & Schwartz, 2009).

Both official and self-report data are subject to various biases, and there is substantial discrepancy that exists between the two. For example, arrest data only reflect a small amount of delinquent behavior identified in self-report surveys. This prompted early criticism because it was argued that this method inflated the extent of delinquency because trivial offenses were included (Smith, 2008). More contemporary self-report surveys include the whole range of offenses in terms of severity (Agnew, 2005; Siegel, Welsh, & Senna, 2006). Major sources of self-report data are national surveys of youth in school such as the Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (CDC, 2006) and Monitoring the Future (Johnson et al., 2007). “Combining all sources of information is important for understanding the extent and development of delinquency” (Smith, 2008, p. 4). According to Snyder and Sickmund (2006), every year, the Federal Bureau of Investigation’s (FBI) Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program receives information from thousands of police agencies across the nation reporting the following data:

- Number of index crimes reported to law enforcement
- Number of arrests and the most serious charge involved in each arrest
- Age, gender, and race of arrestees
- Proportion of reported Index crimes cleared by arrest and the proportion of these Index crimes cleared by the arrest of persons under 18
- Police disposition of juvenile arrests
- Detailed victim, assailant, and circumstance information in murder cases

Recent crime statistics (Puzzanchera, 2009) reveal a modest change in delinquent juvenile crime. While some juvenile crime categories saw an increase (e.g., burglary, robbery, larceny-theft) there was a decrease in most categories. Overall, juvenile arrests fell 3% in 2008 from the previous year. A closer look into juvenile crime data reveals the following:

- Juveniles accounted for 16% of all violent crime arrests and 26% of all property crime arrests in 2008.
- Juveniles were involved in 12% of violent crimes in 2008 and 18% of property crimes.
- The juvenile murder arrest rate in 2008 was 3.8 arrests per 100,000 juveniles ages 10 through 17. This was 17% more than the 2004 low of 3.3, but 74% less than the 1993 peak of 14.4 (Puzzanchera, 1999).

Gender, Race, and Delinquency

During the early stages of childhood, boys and girls show comparable behavior problems; however, by mid childhood, boys demonstrate much higher rates of delinquency (Keenan, Loeber, & Green, 2004; Silverthorn & Frick, 1999). With respect to adolescent delinquency, males are more extensively involved as identified by both official and self report sources (Silverthorn & Frick, 1999). Chesney-Lind and Shelden (2004) reported that boys are far more likely than girls to be arrested for violent crimes and serious property offenses. The authors further noted that the male to female ratio for violent index crimes (homicide, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault) is about 5:1, and the ratio for the most serious index property crimes (burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson) is 2.5:1.

Possession of stolen property, vandalism, weapons offenses, and other assaults garner higher arrest rates for male juveniles. By contrast, girls are more likely to be arrested for running away and prostitution (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). However, Weiler (1999) revealed that there is growing change in the arrest pattern of juvenile girls. While their offenses continue to occur far more infrequently than boys, girls' involvement in delinquency and crime has increased significantly in the last two decades (Weiler, 1999).

Most notably, girls are involved in more violent crime than they were a decade ago. Girls' involvement in aggravated assault, simple assault, burglary, and vandalism increased substantially from 1980 to 2003 (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). According to Puzzanchera (2009), between 1999 and 2008, juvenile arrests for aggravated assault decreased more for males than females, 22% to 17% respectively. During that same time frame, juvenile males' simple assault arrests decreased by 12%; female arrests for simple assault increased by 12%. There is some agreement among juvenile justice officials that the recent spike in female delinquency can be attributed to the fact that girls' are charged differently than they were twenty years ago. However, changes in the way girls are charged may only partially explain the reason why an increase in girls' arrest is occurring and why violence perpetrated by girls has increased (Weiler, 1999).

Disparities in rates of juvenile offending among racial and ethnic groups in the United States have long triggered theoretical assumptions and public policy debates. While self-report data show fewer racial & ethnic differences in juvenile delinquency than official data, delinquency for all races tended to decline from 1991 to 2005 (Smith, 2008). In addition, for the past several decades, juvenile involvement in crime by race has been consistent (LaFree, 1995). Nonetheless, when examining official data reports, it is revealed that black youth are disproportionately affected. Black youth are far more likely to be arrested than their white counterparts. For example, in 2004, murders committed by juvenile offenders were at their lowest level since 1980; however, Black youth accounted for 50% of all murder arrests (Snyder, 2006). Moreover in 2004, only 17% of all juveniles in the U.S. were Black, yet nearly 46% of all violent crime arrests and 28% of all property crime arrests were Black (Snyder 2006).

McNulty and Bellair (2003) argued that the higher levels of delinquency among Blacks and Hispanics, particularly violent offenses, are attributed to higher levels of risk factors in the backgrounds of Black and Hispanic youth. Consequently, the disproportionate nature among Black and White juveniles is not solely limited to delinquency involvement and arrests. Black youth are far more likely to receive tougher sanctions including incarceration (Siegal et al., 2006). Of every 100,000 black youth, 754 are in custodial facilities. By contrast, only 190 per 100,000 white youth are in custody (Snyder & Sigmund, 2006). Furthermore, there is continued debate over whether racial bias also exists in policing and juvenile justice processing (Agnew, 2005).

Delinquency and Academic Achievement

A number of juvenile behavioral studies such as Brunner (1993); Coleman and Vaughn (2000); Drakeford (2002); Hoyt and Scherer (1999); Lawrence (1985), and Malmgren and Leon (2000) suggest that there is a significant correlation between juvenile delinquency and academic failure. As a result, a better understanding of the relationship between juvenile delinquency and academic achievement has been a primary focus of juvenile behavioral researchers for more than a century (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008). Thus, many prominent theories have been developed to further explain how academic performance and delinquency relate, including *Differential Association Theory*, *School Failure Theory*, and *Susceptibility Theory* (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008).

According to Lynam, Moffit, and Stouthamer-Loeber (1993), *Differential Association Theory* argues that the likelihood of delinquency increases when the number of factors favorable to its occurrence (e.g., academic failure) outweigh the number of factors unfavorable for delinquency to take place (e.g., academic success). *School Failure Theory* offers a slightly contrasting view in

that it characterizes delinquency as a product of a negative self-image that develops from numerous damaging experiences related to school (Malmgren, Abbott, & Hawkins, 1999). Lastly, the *Susceptibility Theory* contends that delinquency occurs when there are neurological and/or intellectual differences in personality attributes of youth with learning disabilities (Malmgren et al., 1999; Zamora, 2005).

While there are various existing theoretical explanations regarding this dilemma, reports indicate that delinquent youth are more apt to experience significant intellectual and/or academic deficiencies than those youth considered to be non-delinquent (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008). For example, delinquent youth score eight to twelve points lower on measures of intelligence than their non-delinquent peers (Lynam et al., 1993). Foley (2001) revealed that academically, incarcerated youth were at least one to several years below grade level. Furthermore, research indicates that delinquents are out performed by non-delinquents in reading, mathematics, spelling, and writing (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008).

Nearly three quarters (70%) of all incarcerated population are believed to be functionally illiterate or read below a 4th grade level (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997). Consequently, “Of the approximately 150,000 youth offenders incarcerated in juvenile facilities in the United States, it is estimated that nearly 75% are high school dropouts” (Risler & O’Rourke, 2009, p. 225). Nonetheless, poor academic skills, particularly poor reading skills, do not directly cause delinquency; however, there is certainly a vastly disproportionate number of academically deficient youth found in the juvenile justice system (Center on Crime, Communities, & Culture, 1997).

Socio-Economics and Delinquency

“Juvenile delinquency is a serious and growing problem that adversely affects communities of all socioeconomic statuses across the United States” (Katsiyannis et al. 2008, p. 178). In 2000, 11.6 million juveniles in the United States lived below the poverty level (OJJDP, 2002). The number of Black and Hispanic juveniles living in poverty is nearly twice as many as the number of Whites and Asians (OJJDP, 2002). Thirteen states attributed the occurrence of delinquent behaviors to poverty, substance abuse, job opportunities, and crime in neighborhoods in which people lived in poverty (Hsia, Bridges, & McHale, & 2004).

Ironically, more arrests of children from impoverished communities are made than arrests of children from middle or upper class communities (Hsia et al., 2004). Statistics from eleven states report that a larger number of children in the Juvenile Justice System came from single-parent homes (particularly those run by females), low income households, and homes in which parents worked multiple jobs or changed jobs frequently (Hsia et al.). Lastly, there are fewer support programs located in impoverished communities that help deter children from crime and delinquency (Hsia et. al.).

Juvenile Justice System

Historical Perspective

Today, the laws which separate juvenile and adult offenders are irrefutably defined. However, this was not always the case. Until the late 18th century, children and adult offenders were treated the same. Although children under the age of 7 were presumed to be incapable of criminal intent, thus, exempt from corrective sanctions, children as young as 7 could face trial in a criminal court and if found guilty, could be sentenced to prison or even death (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). The guiding principle of juvenile justice in America derived from English

Common Law. Under English Common Law, children were held to a lower standard of criminal responsibility because they were not considered to be fully developed morally or emotionally (Butts & Mitchell, 2000).

In 1825, the first special facilities for troubled juveniles were created. Established by the Society for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency, the New York House of Refuge was the first of its kind to house juvenile delinquents. It was later followed by the Chicago Reform School in 1855. These institutions were supported by reformers who sought to protect juvenile offenders by separating them from adult offenders. In addition, reformers began to focus their efforts on rehabilitation which they believed could help young offenders avoid a future life of crime (Butts & Mitchell, 2000).

In 1899, the state of Illinois passed the *Juvenile Court Act of 1899*; this led to the establishment of the Juvenile Justice System and the nation's first juvenile court. The rationale behind states intervening in the lives of children differently from adults was largely rooted in the British doctrine, *Parens Patriae* (the state as parent). Additionally, the prevailing philosophy of the time was that youth should be protected from the punishment that criminal courts place on adult offenders (McCord, Windom, & Crowell, 2001).

As a result, by 1910, juvenile courts and/or probation services were firmly established in 32 states. By 1925, all but two states (Wyoming & Maine) had followed suit (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). During the 1950's and 60's, public confidence in the juvenile justice system began to wane. Persistent doubt was cast over the ability of the juvenile justice system to rehabilitate delinquent youth. Consequently, a new era of juvenile justice began. The advent of this new era of juvenile justice was prompted by several key legal challenges that would eventually seek redress from the United States Supreme Court. Through many of its landmark

rulings, the United States Supreme Court helped to shape and distinguish juvenile court from adult criminal court.

In 1968, Congress authorized the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention and Control Act which recommended that children charged with non-criminal, or status offenses, be handled outside the court system. Shortly afterwards, Congress passed the Juvenile Justice and Prevention Act of 1974, which was later amended in 1980. During the 1980's, public discord grew out the belief that juvenile crime was spiraling out of control, and the juvenile justice system was too lenient on young offenders. As a result, states began to enact tougher legislation and take more punitive measures. For example, some states eliminated certain offender classes from the juvenile justice system. Essentially, this meant that juvenile offenders would now be treated as adult criminals in juvenile courts (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Throughout the 90's and into the turn of the new century, the escalation of juvenile crime and delinquency continued to reach unfathomable heights. Consequently, 47 states changed laws that expanded sentencing options for juvenile offenders. In addition, each of these states created and implemented new juvenile corrections programs (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

Landmark Cases in Juvenile Justice

Kent v. United States 383 U.S. 541, 86. Ct. 1045 (1960)

In 1966, 16 year old Morris Kent was charged with rape and robbery. He immediately confessed to the crime as well as other offenses. Subsequently, the juvenile court waived its jurisdiction of the matter, and Kent was found guilty in an adult criminal court. He was sentenced to 30 to 90 years in prison. Kent's attorney challenged the waiver arguing that it violated and denied his client's constitutional rights. The United States Supreme Court agreed. The Court rejected the waiver, and it further held that Kent was entitled to a hearing. Essentially,

the Court's ruling led to the establishment of due process for delinquent juveniles (Champion, 2009).

In re Gault 387 U.S. 1, 875. Ct. 1428 (1967)

In 1964, 15 year Gerald Gault and a friend were detained for making an obscene call to a neighbor. The alleged victim never appeared in court for the hearing, and the issue of whether or not Gault made the obscene call was never resolved. As punishment, Gault was committed to a training facility for the remainder of his childhood years. By contrast, the maximum sentence for an adult would have been a fine of fifty dollars or two years in jail. Gault's attorney argued that the constitutional rights of his client to receive a notice of charges, counsel, questioning of witnesses, protection against self incrimination, a transcript of the proceedings, and an appellate review were denied.

The case was eventually heard by the U.S. Supreme Court. The Court ruled that in cases where commitment to an institution is a possible outcome, juveniles are afforded the rights to a notice outlining charges, counsel, to question a witness, and protection against self-incrimination. The Court did not render a ruling on a juvenile's right to a transcript of the proceedings and appellate review. However, the Court did encourage states to extend those rights to juveniles (Champion, 2009).

In re Winship 397 U.S. 358, 90. Ct 1068 (1970)

Twelve year old Samuel Winship was adjudicated and committed to a juvenile training school. Prior to this action being taken, he was charged and arrested for allegedly stealing \$112 from a woman's purse in a store. A store employee saw Winship running from the scene moments before the woman noticed her money had been taken. This claim was contradicted by

other customers who stated that the store employee was not in a position to see whether or not it was Winship who had stolen the money.

Similar to civil court proceedings, New York juvenile courts operated under the standard of a “preponderance of evidence.” However, in his appeal to the Supreme Court, Winship’s attorney argued that since there were legitimate questions surrounding his client’s involvement in the crime, “the preponderance of evidence” standard should be removed and replaced with the adult criminal standard of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt.” The ruling from the Court was that in all matters involving juvenile adjudications, the “reasonable doubt” standard should and must be applied (Champion, 2009).

Breed v. Jones 421 U.S. 519 S.Ct. 1779 (1975)

In 1970, seventeen year old Gary Jones was charged with armed robbery. At his appearance in a Los Angeles juvenile court, Jones was adjudicated delinquent on the robbery charge as well as two other robberies. At Jones’s dispositional hearing, the judge waived jurisdiction over the case to criminal court. In doing so, Jones’s attorney believed the judge had violated the double jeopardy clause of the Fifth Amendment which prohibits a defendant to be tried and punished twice for the same offense. Jones’s attorney filed an appeal.

Jones’s appeal was denied. The lower court based its ruling on its belief that adjudication is not a trial. Thus, the double jeopardy clause should not be applied. However, upon appeal to the U.S. Supreme Court, the lower court’s decision was overturned. The high court ruled that adjudication in juvenile court, where a juvenile is found to have broken the law, is in fact equivalent to a trial. Thus, jeopardy, or first trial, began with the presentation of evidence during the adjudication phase. As a result, waiver to criminal court cannot occur after the adjudication phase (Champion, 2009).

From 1966 (*Kent v. United States*) to 2005 (*Roper v. Simmons*), rulings from the United States Supreme Court defined the essentials of due process for juveniles, detailed trial rights of juveniles, and determined the extent to which juveniles could be punished. Figure 5 illustrates several monumental Supreme Court rulings that forever changed juvenile justice in America.

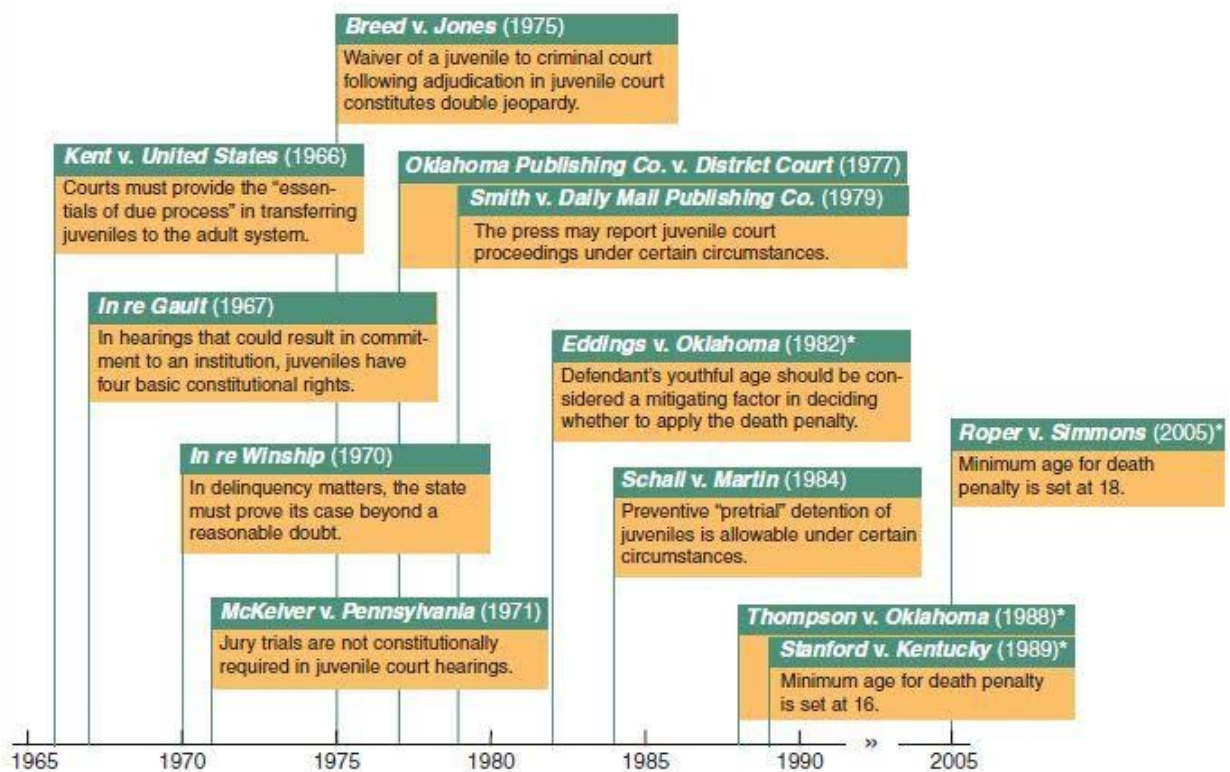


Figure 4: Series of United States' Supreme Court Decisions (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006)

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act

Established in 1974, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDP), creates a partnership between the federal government, states and territories to protect youth in the juvenile and criminal justice system, adequately address delinquent behavior, and improve community safety by preventing juvenile crime and delinquency. JJDP provides for:

- A juvenile justice planning and advisory system in all U.S. states, territories and the District of Columbia
- Federal funding for delinquency prevention and improvements in state and local juvenile justice programs
- Operation of a federal agency-the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention-dedicated to training, technical assistance, model programs, and research and evaluation to support state and local efforts

Under the JJDP, each state must establish a State Advisory Group on Juvenile Justice (SAG), submit a three year state plan for carrying out the purposes of the Act and implement the Act's four core requirements/protections at the state and local level:

Deinstitutionalization of Status Offense (DSO)- This requirement specifies that status offenders-children under the age of 18 who commit acts that if done by an adult would not be considered crimes (i.e. skipping school., running away, breaking curfews and possession or use of tobacco and/or alcohol) may not be held in secure detention or confinement, with a few exceptions. Status offenders may be held in juvenile lock-ups under the Valid Court Order (VCO) exception, which allows judges to issue detention orders. The DSO provision seeks to ensure that status offenders who have not committed a criminal offense are not held in secure juvenile facilities for extended periods of time or in secure adult facilities at all.

Adult Jail and Lock-up Removal- This requirement stipulates that youth under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court may not be detained or confined in any adult jail or lock-up with limited exceptions (i.e. a few hours right before or after a trial). However, the “Jail Removal” provision does not apply to children who are tried or sentenced in adult criminal court. This provision is designed to protect children from psychological abuse, physical assault and isolation.

Sight and Sound Separation- When children are placed in an adult jail under the aforementioned limited circumstance, “sight and sound” contact is prohibited. The “Separation” provision requires that children not be housed next to adult cells, share dining halls, recreation areas or any other common spaces with adults, or be placed in any circumstances that could expose them to threats or abuse from adult inmates.

Disproportionate Minority Contact (DMC)- This requirement requires states to assess and address the disproportionately high representation of youth of color with the juvenile justice system at all points of contact—from arrest to detention to confinement. The DMC provision requires states and local jurisdictions to gather data and address the reasons for disproportionate minority representation and racial/ethnic disparities (Coalition for Juvenile Justice Government Relations Committee, 2007).

Juvenile Courts

The belief that adjudicated youth are in need of education and guidance, not punishment is the guiding premise for juvenile courts (Hinmon, 2000). Moreover, care rather than custody has become the staple of juvenile courts nationwide (Patenaud, 2003). Juveniles are less responsible for their delinquency, and since their behavior has not developed into a permanent criminal pattern, they are more capable of behavioral adjustments than adult criminals (Yablonsky, 2000).

According to Baker (1991) the differences between juvenile court and adult criminal court are as follow:

- Juveniles are not found guilty because they are presumed to be too young to be legally responsible for their acts. Petitions (or allegations) against juveniles are found to be true.
- Dispositions of the court are made under the guise of therapy and rehabilitation and not punishment.
- Since rehabilitation is the goal, the needs of the individual juvenile, not the act itself, determine the length and severity of the disposition.
- Adjudicatory hearings are closed to the public.
- No one incident determines adjudication; other factors, such as family history and academic record are presented at the hearing.

The Alabama Juvenile Justice Act (§ 12-15-1.1) differentiates Alabama's juvenile court system from adult criminal court. In accordance with this act, the goals of the juvenile court are defined as follow:

- To preserve and strengthen the child's family or reunite children with their families as quickly as possible when the child has been removed from the home
- To promote the use of community-based alternatives as deterrents to acts of juvenile delinquency and as least restrictive dispositional alternatives
- To achieve goals in the least restrictive setting necessary with a preference for the preservation of family and the integration of parental accountability
- To hold a child found to be delinquent accountable for his or her actions to the extent of the child's age, education, mental and physical condition, background and all other relevant factors, and to provide a program of supervision, care and rehabilitation

- To promote a continuum of services of services for the child and his/her family from delinquency prevention to aftercare

The Juvenile Justice Process

The initial phase of the juvenile justice process is prompted by an arrest and/or petition of a juvenile. Similar to adult warrants, petitions involve an accusation made against a juvenile and a follow-up by a respective law enforcement agency. The path of the juvenile justice system as well as the juvenile justice process are detailed below. Figure 5 depicts the juvenile justice structure and process in its entirety, from initial contact to release.

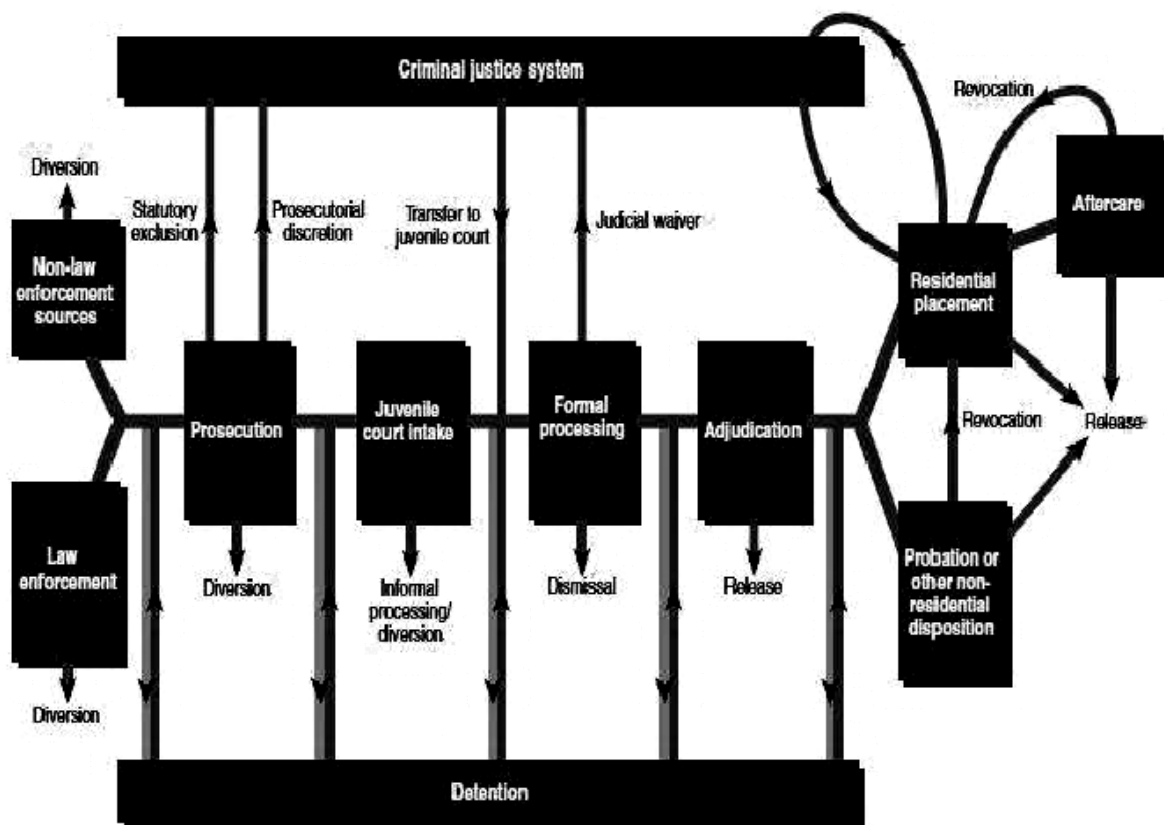


Figure 5. Structure and Process of the Juvenile Justice System (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention)

Entry into the system for juveniles can either be through a law enforcement agency, or a non-law enforcement agency. Juvenile courts oversee delinquent and status offense cases that are referred to them by law enforcement, social service agencies, probation officers, schools and parents (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). It is not uncommon for a social service agency to have prior involvement with delinquent youth and their families (Reconnecting, n.d.). Once a case is adjudicated, a decision to process the case further into the justice system, to divert the case out of the system, or to transfer the case to adult criminal court must be made (Mazzotti & Higgins, 2006). Court intake is the responsibility of the juvenile probation department (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). It is here where the decision to dismiss the case, handle the matter informally, request intervention by the juvenile court, or waive the case to criminal court:

Formal case handling involves the filing of a petition requesting that the court hold an adjudicatory or waiver hearing. Decision makers (police, probation, intake, prosecutor or other screening officer) may consider informal case handling, if they believe that accountability can be achieved without formal court intervention. Compared with informally handled (nonpetitioned) cases, formally processed (petitioned) delinquency cases tend to involve more serious offenses, older juveniles and juveniles with longer court histories. If the court decides to handle the matter informally, the offender agrees to comply with one or more sanctions such as community service, victim restitution, or voluntary probation supervision. Informal cases are generally held open pending successful completion of the disposition. If the court's conditions are met, the charges are dismissed. If however, the offender does not fulfill the conditions, the case is likely to be petitioned for formal processing. (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006, p. 171)

At any point during the juvenile justice process, a juvenile may be detained or referred to the criminal justice system as an adult. If a juvenile is tried as an adult, he or she can no longer be subject to the authority of the juvenile court. Juveniles may also enter into a diversion track at the discretion of the intake or probation officer in the early phases of the process. Successful completion of a diversion program averts an adolescent out of the juvenile justice system. (Johnson, 2007, p. 32)

If there is a demonstrated risk, an intake officer may decide to hold the youth in a detention facility before processing the case. At any point during the processing of the case, a youth may be placed in a secure juvenile detention facility (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Austin, Johnson, and Weitzer (2005) explained that secure detention involves the holding of a juvenile in a facility for two reasons: to make certain the juvenile shows up for court proceedings and to protect the juvenile and community from further delinquent acts. Status offenses or technical violations of probation account for one-third of all youth being held in juvenile detention facilities (Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer, 2005). Usually, detaining a juvenile in a detention facility is a last effort measure generally reserved for serious, violent, or habitual status offenders (Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer, 2005). Parents of detained juveniles may retain custody once they have demonstrated control of the child (Information Guide, n.d.) When a juvenile is taken out of his home, the court feels reasonably certain that the parents are incapable of controlling the child. (Information Guide, n.d.). According to Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer (2005), risk assessment factors include the following:

- Number and severity of the current charges
- Record and history with juvenile court
- History of success or failure while under previous community programs

- Age, school attendance, and achievement and family structure

Probation, non custodial placement, or placement in a custodial setting are dispositions that a juvenile may receive in the final phase of the juvenile justice process (see Fig 5).

Alternatives are made possible if one disposition does not meet the intended outcome of the court (Johnson, 2007). The purpose of dispositions is to meet the social, psychological, and other needs of the juvenile (Krisberg, 2005). For juvenile offenders, probation, secure detention and secure confinement are dispositions that are imposed by the courts (Johnson, 2007). A tri-level system of sanctions and interventions described as immediate, intermediate and secure are implemented by the juvenile justice system (Krisberg, 2005) As further explained by the author, immediate sanctions include diversion, mentoring, teen court and day treatment; intermediate sanctions are restitution, boot camps, community service, and intensive supervision; secure sanctions entail electronic monitoring, community-based residential or community confinement, training schools and incarceration.

Adjudicated Youth

Status offenses account for the majority of law violations committed by juvenile offenders (Johnson, 2007). Underage drinking running away from home, and truancy are all considered to be minor status offenses; these behaviors are considered unhealthy for juveniles because of their age. However, these acts would not be considered a crime if they were committed by adults (DeLisi, 2003). The juvenile justice system was established to address status offenders who refused to attend school regularly or behave their parents (Ferndinand, 1992).

Baker (1991) contended that a growing number of status offenders are the result of poor parenting, failing schools and community detachment. When juveniles persists to be

uncooperative with parents, teachers, or social service professionals, they reach an advanced status offender stage (Barlow & Ferdinand, 1992). Even so, the number of juveniles who commit serious crimes is considerably low (Mays, 2003). For many status offenders, their delinquent behavior often goes unnoticed, or it is never properly addressed (DeLisi, 2003).

Probation

Probation is the oldest and most widely used disposition and community based corrections program; probation is used both for first-time, low risk offenders and as an alternative to institutional confinement for more serious offenders (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Furthermore, the court uses probation when it believes tighter supervision will remedy delinquent behavior (Information Guide, n.d.). Juveniles under court supervised probation must attend school regularly and are subject to random drug and alcohol testing (Davis, 2003). Probation can last for a specific period of time, or its length may be undetermined (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006).

Ferro (2003) stated that the goals of probation are as follow: (1) keep the community safe (2) instill accountability and responsibility into juveniles, (3) develop skills needed to become productive adults. “Good probation” has to be about behavior change rather than giving juveniles another chance (Coffey, 1974, p. 113). Krisberg (2005) agreed by stating probation involves the identification of clear expectations for behavioral change. Lastly, while under probation, juveniles must adhere to the imposed conditions that are designed to prevent repeat offenses, long-term delinquency, and assist juveniles at becoming good citizens (Coffey, 1974).

According to Yablonsky (2000), the workloads of probation officers are large and are usually divided based on the juvenile’s level of need. Juveniles with higher need levels are seen more often-two to three times a week where possible. Although these cases account for only 5%

of a probation officer's caseload, most probation officers have over one hundred clients.

Infrequent meetings between probation officers and clients lessen the therapeutic impact and overall effectiveness of probation (Yablonsky, 2000).

Residential Placement

Residential placement facilities and custodial institutions service juveniles when probation and other programs do not succeed at curtailing delinquent behavior (Davis, 2003; Yablonsky, 2000). From 2004 to 2006, there was a 3% decline in the number of juvenile offenders being held in custodial settings (Hockenberry, Sickmund, & Sladky, 2009). However, presently there are still more than 100,000 juveniles being detained in custodial/residential facilities throughout the country (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Juvenile facilities include detention centers, group homes, substance treatment centers, ranch wilderness camps, and shelters. Privately operated juvenile facilities outnumber publicly operated facilities by a 2 to 1 margin; however, more than half of all juvenile delinquents are held in public facilities (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). In order to make the best decision about the most appropriate program to place a juvenile offender, it is important that court officials consider the safety of the public as well as the needs of the child (Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer, 2005).

Boot Camps

The use of boot camps, otherwise known as shock incarceration, has developed into a possible tool for rehabilitation and punishment for juvenile offenders (Peter, Thomas & Zamberlain, 1997). Peters et al., (1997) revealed that the general public and the media regard boot camps as a favorable treatment option because they appear to provide structure and education to adolescents and are tough on crime as well. Boot camps were first opened in the United States for adults in 1983 (Peters et al., 1997). However, the military aspect of boot camps

has existed since the 1800's (Krisberg, 1994). Initially boot camps were intended to be a practical solution to the escalating delinquency cited by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnake, 2001).

Today boot camps are designed to be an intermediate sanction for non-violent adjudicated youth (Johnson, 2007). Boot camps are intermediate sanctions because the actions of offenders are not serious enough for incarceration; however, those actions cannot be excused without consequences (Anderson, Dyson, & Burns, 1999). Compared to long-term confinement, boot camps are generally regarded as less severe, but more severe than probation (Felker & Bourque, 1996). Public and political support for boot camps grew out of the belief that they could be used both as a deterrence and as a punishment; there is also interest in the rehabilitative aspects of boot camp programs (MacKenzie & Souryal, 2004) However, the main focus of juvenile justice programs is treatment and rehabilitation, not punishment and retribution (Armstrong & MacKenzie, 2003).

Whether boot camps are more effective than traditional incarceration at curtailing recidivism, remains questionable (Flash, 2003). Some researchers are skeptical about the success of boot camps and other similar programs. Furthermore, they argue that boot camps are less effective than what the public believes (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnaker, 2001). According to Krisberg (2005), boot camps have demonstrated an inability to be effective at curtailing negative behavior. Krisberg further contended that it defies logic that one single approach will be effective for the wide range of needs of juveniles who are adjudicated into the system.

MacKenzie, Gover, Armstrong and Mitchell (2001) found that boot camp environments were perceived to be ideally suited and more conducive to rehabilitation than other custodial settings. "Boot camp juveniles said they were better prepared for release, were given more

therapeutic programming, had more structure and control, and were more active than comparison facility youths” (MacKenzie, Gover, Armstrong, & Mitchell, 2001, p. 1). However, this study also found that few boot camps had documented evidence relative to what happens to youth after their release. As a result, the research on the effectiveness of boot camps is ambiguous and can be misleading; consequently, more research is necessary if boot camps are to remain a viable option for juveniles (Flash, 2003)

Aftercare

Invariably, the rehabilitation and success of juveniles released from secure facilities is contingent upon the existence of effective aftercare programs that emphasize effective individualized treatment services (Baltodano, Platt, & Roberts, 2005). During this phase of the custodial disposition, juveniles have specific requirements to complete (school attendance, random drug and alcohol testing, etc.) and are supervised by a probation officer; the aim of aftercare is to discourage and reduce recidivism for delinquent youth (Johnson, 2007). In addition, after care programs are created to promote positive attitudinal changes and help juveniles transition smoothly and successfully back into their environments (Anderson, Dyson & Burns, 1999; Gordon, 2003).

Despite some measurable success, aftercare has been criticized and frequently referred to as the weakest link in the juvenile justice process (Coffey, 1974). Little attention is given to the inefficiencies of aftercare because case managers and probation officers are usually overloaded (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnaker, 2001). Nonetheless, a number of states have initiated plans to place greater emphasis on monitoring aftercare programs and to make more resources available to them (Baker, 1991). Aftercare should be more meaningful than “perfunctory probation” (p.

321). Unfortunately, aftercare is currently nothing more than intensive supervision or probation, and many juveniles have not succeeded at either (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnaker, 2001).

This is due partly to the fact that upon completion of boot camp or other dispositions, many juveniles return to the same inadequacies that helped nurture their delinquent behavior (Anderson, Dyson, & Burns; Baker, 1991). “Upon release, these same youths are now required to reenter the real world in which they must confront many choices, some of which propel them back to criminal behavior” (Krisberg, 2005, p. 153). Some juvenile justice practitioners believe that recidivism rates are predicated upon factors that are beyond a juvenile’s control (MacKenzie, Styve, & Gover, 2004). Coffey (1974) added that a child has less control over his or her environment; consequently, it is unrealistic to change a child, his family, peers, and neighborhood “They are expected to avoid the same criminogenic factors that they were unable to avoid before being sentenced to boot camp” (Anderson, Dyson, & Burns, 1999, p. 99).

“When returning to an environment that lacks such regimentation and positive group activities, the juveniles may revert to their old ways of surviving and relating to the community in which they live” (MacKenzie, Gover, Armstrong, & Mitchell, 2001, p. 2). Many of the communities that juveniles are returning to are marked by family dysfunction, poverty, minimum employment opportunities, poor school adjustment, and unhealthy peer relationships (Baltodano, Platt, & Roberts, 2005). Anderson, Dyson, and Burns (1999) asserted that until probationers are given adequate supervision, counseling, monitoring and meaningful academic and vocational skills, successful aftercare remains an unrealistic expectation. Boot camps are far more likely to have a positive impact on juveniles when emphasis is placed on treatments such as counseling, vocational education, and aftercare transition (MacKenzie, Wilson, & Kider, 2004). Education,

counseling and supporting the needs for each juvenile should be the primary focuses of aftercare (Yablonsky, 2000).

According to Todis, et al., (2001), ineffective and inadequate post-correction support makes it extremely difficult for juveniles to transition smoothly back into their respective communities. As a result, the burden is placed on the adolescent-ignoring such important facts as: 1) adjudicated youth are still adolescents; 2) they do not use successful problem skills outside of the correctional setting; 3) many have drug addictions; and 4) few have positive adult role models. The court should mandate that a risk, needs or strengths assessment has been conducted before the scheduled release date so that an individualized reentry plan can be formulated (Reconnecting, n. d.).

School/Community Transition

“Transition is an essential component in the successful rehabilitation of juvenile offenders” (Hosp, Griller-Clark, & Rutherford, 2001, p. 126). While no concrete data currently exists, it is estimated that 88,000 youth are released from juvenile facilities back into society each year (Gupta, Kelleher, Pajer, Stevens, & Cuellar, 2005). “Long-term offender success is directly related to educational attainment and employment” (Reconnecting, n.d., p. 7). In order to meet satisfactory probation and aftercare progress, juveniles are expected to return to school immediately after leaving a custodial facility (Lawrence, 2003). Unfortunately, upon their return, many young offenders are alienated and are affected by the negative behavior they previously found difficult to avoid (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). Schools, as well as other agencies, must collaborate and provide sufficient support and structure for those juveniles who have been adjudicated (Stephens & Arnette, 2000).

If juveniles are to reintegrate properly, appropriate assessment and classification are vital. Furthermore, appropriate assessment and classification should be followed by an individualized case plan which includes family and community goals (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnaker, 2001). Successful reentry into a non-delinquent society requires cooperation and communication between schools, parole officers and community agencies (Coffey, 1974). If a lack of coordination and collaboration exists among schools, the juvenile justice system, and community agencies, the likelihood of a successful transition decreases (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). “We need to build effective partnerships between families, schools, social service systems, public safety departments, churches and other agencies to create the socializing experiences that will give all of our youth a chance to develop along a positive line” (Walker & Sprague, 1999, p. 72).

In order to ease the transition of an adjudicated child from a detention facility, the school must develop a relationship with the probation officer of the child involved in the JJS [juvenile justice system]. Providing probation officers access to an office or room at the school will enable students to visit their probation officer without leaving the school campus. (Mazzotti & Higgins, 2006, p. 299)

“Educators and juvenile probation officers share the common goal of helping young people acquire knowledge and develop skills that lead to positive and productive lifestyles” (Stephens & Arnette, 2000, p. 12). It is vital that local school districts and the juvenile justice system work together as partners (Reconnecting, n.d.). Unfortunately, this is not always the case; the two institutions are often not on one accord (Balfanz et al., 2003).

Proper monitoring requires the two agencies to share pertinent information (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). However, this process is often hindered by employees refusing to disclose information for fear of breach of confidentiality (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). The probation officer has to have knowledge of prior academic performance, and matters concerning treatment need to be available to the school (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). In fact, according to Lawrence (2003), “Probation officials are encouraged to inform school officials about the court status and disposition of students” (p. 338). Unfortunately, reintegration into the school setting is complicated by inefficient information sharing and lack of disclosure as indicated by Stephens and Arnette (2000):

A prime example of inadequate information sharing is the situation that often arises when a student returns to school after detention or confinement. Educators must often guess about vital information missing from the student’s file, such as information about treatment history, family problems, probationary status or court-ordered mandates of aftercare services (e.g., attendance and behavior requirements). (p. 3)

According to Lawrence (2003), this problem should have been resolved in 1994 when the Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) was enacted. Under FERPA, educators can disclose information to juvenile justice agencies without parental authorization when, 1) it is ordered by a court; 2) legal actions against a student are being pursued by the school; 3) a juvenile justice agency needs the information prior to adjudication; and 4) it is a law record created and maintained by the school. Lawrence (2003) further described how the relationship between court officials and educators has evolved:

The courts enforce truancy laws and adjudicate youth charged with more serious offenses. School officials are often called on to testify in court offering information on school attendance and behavior of juveniles being sentenced. Judges recognize the importance of education in the rehabilitation process and consistently order juveniles on probation to attend school regularly and obey school rules. Despite what seems to be a close and cooperative working relationship, however, the courts and schools until recently, had been reluctant to disclose information in records that are considered confidential. Teachers and juvenile court officers faced a real dilemma. Out of concern for their safety, teachers wanted to know about the delinquency records. However, juvenile policies generally forbade courts to disclose such information in the interest of maintaining privacy and confidentiality of juvenile offenders. In writing court reports and recommendations to the judge regarding youthful offenders, probation officers were expected to include youth's school attendance, behavior and achievement. But school officials refused to share those confidential records without a court order and/or parents' permission. (p. 337)

In order for a seamless transition to occur, interagency collaboration has to exist among all those involved, including the juvenile court, probation officers, schools, law enforcement and mental health agencies (Reconnecting, n.d.). The reintegration process is made easier when all those who come in contact with the juvenile take a committed and active role. (Tyler, Darville, & Stalnaker, 2001). "An important reason for coordinating transition services is to avoid problems that may arise from inadequate information sharing between correctional facilities and schools" (Stephens & Arnette, 2000, p. 5). Problems may also arise due to a lack of transition services. Ultimately, the primary intent of information sharing is to increase the favorability that he or she

will exit the juvenile justice system successfully, avoid future delinquency, and complete school and/or obtain employment (Stephens & Arnette, 2000). Briscoe and Doyle (1996) offer the following as a recommendation for students transitioning:

Successful reentry into school, employment, and the community when youth are released from residential programs is a multidimensional process. To be effective and long lasting, transitional services must focus on the critical elements of education, mental health, vocational education and training in social and community functional skills, as well as the residential care component. After-care cannot be thought of as purely a juvenile justice process. Coordination among service programs will allow better planning for service delivery and evaluation. It requires agencies to design and deliver services that are developmental, rather than fragmented and crisis oriented. Communication and coordination between residential programs and youths' aftercare services should begin at the entry into the residential program and continue until they have successfully completed the aftercare program. (p. 4)

Recidivism

Whether or not a child will continue down a dangerous path of delinquent and/or criminal behavior is an lingering question for those who work in the juvenile justice system (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). By definition, a recidivist is a youth whose second incarceration occurs within three years after the first incarceration (Katsiyannis & Archwamety, 1997). The majority of all incarcerated youth are repeat offenders, or recidivists (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008). In their report, *Juvenile Offenders and Victims 2006*, Snyder and Sickmund characterized recidivism as “a repetition of criminal behavior” (p. 234).

Furthermore the authors added:

A recidivism rate may reflect any number of possible measures of repeated offending arrest, court referral, conviction, correctional commitment, and correctional status within a given period of time. Typically, the only available statistical indicators of criminal behavior are official records of the events. For this reason, virtually all measures of recidivism underestimate reoffending since they only include offending that comes to the attention of the system. Consequently, there is no national recidivism rate for juveniles (p. 234).

Although no national recidivism numbers are known, the costs of recidivism are evident. According to Snyder and Sickmund (1999), recidivism significantly affects the economy. “An average chronic offender costs society between \$1.3 and \$1.5 million in victim and criminal costs, along with lost productivity over a 10-year period” (p. 186). Nonetheless, the key to curtailing recidivism and its associated costs may lie in the creation of effective intervention programs and longer incarceration for juvenile offenders. Lipsey and Wilson (1998) revealed that intervention programs resulted in a 12% reduction in recidivism. Also, chronic offenders who remained in a facility for less than 11 months had higher recidivism rates than those juveniles who stayed longer than 11 months (McMackin, Tansi, & LaFratta, 2004).

“In addition, waiver laws, which allow a case normally under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court to be heard in criminal court, may also be counterproductive in deterring future offending” (Katsiyannis, Ryan, Zhang, & Spann, 2008, p. 187). More often, these laws increase the seriousness and frequency of future offending by those youth who are excluded from juvenile court (Myers, 2003). Compared to youths in juvenile facilities, juveniles in adult prisons are

more likely to receive inferior treatment services and are more often exposed to violent victimization (Myers, 2001).

Personality Types and Delinquency

Throughout the years, personality has remained a construct that is difficult to define. Moreover, research involving personality reveals a “myriad of definitions, diverse in variety and multitudinous in number” (Cavin, 2000, p. 22). According to Allport (1973), the history of the concept of personality traces back to the early days of Greek drama. Allport also documented over fifty meanings for personality in fields including linguistics, psychology, theology, philosophy, and sociology. Hall and Lindzey (1978) added that “no substantive definition of personality can be applied with generality” (p. 9). However, despite an irrefutable understanding of the concept of personality, some theorists contend that delinquency and one’s personality characteristics are inextricably linked.

Sigmund Freud: The Id, Ego, & Superego

The early works of Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, attempted to explain human personality and its correlation to behavior. According to Freud (as cited in Strachey, 1960), there are three personality components that greatly affect human behavior:

- *Id*. Primal, selfish drives and desires. All persons are born with the basic desire for self-gratification, with no regard for others.
- *Ego*. The rational mind. As children mature, the ego places checks on the id’s desires and channels them into behavioral choices. Selfishness is suppressed, and consideration is given by youths to the welfare of others.

- *Superego*. The guiding moral conscience, which weighs the ego's choices and labels them according to the personality's definitions of right and wrong. Guilt, shame, and other emotions reflect the influence of the superego.

Although Freud's work focused primarily on a theoretically sound understanding of human behavior, Martin (1999) asserted the following:

Healthy development of the id, ego, and superego occurs early in life, so that early experiences are critical for future behavior. Troubling or traumatizing events during childhood can become catalysts for delinquency and criminality. Juvenile delinquents and adult criminals are, according to psychoanalytic theory, persons without sufficiently developed egos and superegos. If the moralistic superego is weak, a person can easily act out on his or her primal urges without remorse (an unchecked id), and mislabel deviance as acceptable behavior. When people without superegos act out on these urges, their behavior is socially unacceptable. Such behavior, if illegal, forces society to define the individuals as delinquents or criminals, and to deal with them accordingly. Thus, people who have poorly developed superegos are incapable of acting outside of their own interests and are roughly analogous to psychopaths. (p. 80)

Hans Eysenck: Personality Theory of Offending

Influenced by Carl Jung, Hans Eysenck proposed a theory of criminal behavior that he continued to develop throughout his career (Sammons, 2005). According to Eysenck, criminal behavior was the outcome of interactions between processes occurring at several different levels of explanation. Furthermore, Eysenck's theory asserts that personality and criminal behavior are linked via socialization processes (Sammons, 2005). More specifically, Eysenck believed that a set of particular personality traits (extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism) are directly related to

delinquent behavior (Eysenck, 1985). Compared to non-delinquents, delinquents were shown to be more extraverted, neurotic, and tough minded (psychoticism), demonstrating such characteristics as difficulty in controlling temper, a lack of empathy, guilt, and aggressiveness (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Eysenck and Gudjonsson (1989) showed that extraverts and introverts respond differently to different stimuli, and that extraverts have a higher threshold for pain than introverts. Lastly, adolescents who scored highly on Eysenck's extraversion and psychoticism scale were believed to be impulsive and more prone to take ill-advised risks (Eysenck, 1976).

Type Theory

Also known as trait psychology, Carl Jung's Type Theory is one approach to the theory and measurement of personality (Cavin, 2000). Traits have temporal consistency and cross-situational consistency (Lanyon & Goldstein, 1982). However, Jung's type theory holds that apparent random human behavior actually falls into specific patterns (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). Furthermore, these patterns explain how individuals get their energy (extraverted or introverted), how they perceive information (sensing or intuition), and how they arrive and make decisions (thinking or feeling) (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008).

According to Gibb (1989), type theory also assumes that individuals possess an inherent preference for some functions over others. Gibb (1989) further added that appropriate development allows the person to use and expand those functions which are most favored and trusted. However, Myers and Myers (1980) argued that just as the environment can foster development of the favored functions, it can also discourage this development by reinforcing activities that are less satisfying and motivating to the person. Thus, feelings of guilt and incompetence could become logical consequences of poor type development.

Invariably, type theory has provided the theoretical basis for a system of identifying attitudes and motivational patterns in people (Lawrence, 1993). Type theory explains how people unknowingly assume that others will perceive things the same as they do (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Moreover, it proposes that each individual's personality is innate and unchangeable (Lawrence, 1993).

Jung's type theory which was later extended by Isabel Myers, proposes sixteen psychological types resulting from combinations of four sets of preferences. Among these four sets are (1) orientation to the outer and inner world (*Extraversion E*, or *Introversion I*), (2) mental function of perception (*Sensing S*, or *Intuition N*), (3) mental function of judgment (*Thinking T*, or *Feeling F*), and (4) orientation to the outer world (*Judging J*, or *Perceiving P*). Resultantly, an individual's psychological type or personality preference reflects one of the 16 possible combinations, such as ISTJ (introversion, sensing, thinking, and judging) (Boozer, 2005). These preferences manifest during childhood, and they continue to develop throughout life (Murphy, 1992).

Jung's Psychological Types

Extraversion (E)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Extraversion* demonstrate an ease to communicate with others, develop a strong awareness of reliance upon the environment for stimulation, favor an action orientation when meeting new events, and have an outward focus toward people and objects in the environment (Jung, 1923).

Introversion (I)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Introversion* are thoughtful and interested in the clear conceptualization of ideas. Introverts prefer to limit socialization to family and close

friends. Introverts discount the importance of changes in outer situations because they are relatively unaware of them. Privacy and in-dept search are important to introverts (Jung, 1923).

Sensing (S)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Sensing* rely heavily on experience rather than theory. Sensing types perceive the immediate, real, and practical facts of experience and life. They show great trust for the conventional and traditional. Because they prefer to use their five senses, sensing types develop an expertise in observational skills and memory for facts and details. Again, theory and insight are less significant than practical application and tangibles (Jung, 1923).

Intuition (N)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Intuition* are more apt to deal with conceptual, theoretical, and symbolic relationships. Intuitive types often envision future possibilities and are quite creative. They are inspired by the new and unexplored and are prone to act spontaneously (Jung, 1923).

Thinking (T)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Thinking* make decisions and judgments objectively. They carefully analyze causes and consequences, have a strong sense of fairness and justice, and are attracted to areas where technical skills and objectivity are needed (Jung, 1923).

Feeling (F)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Feeling* base judgments and personal values on priorities that matter most to them. Subjectivity characterizes their decision making, and they

are empathetic and understanding of the feelings of others. They are more interested in the development of their communication and interpersonal skills rather than their technical skills (Jung, 1923).

Judging (J)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Judging* are organized and systematic. They are orderly and noted for being responsible, dependable, and decisive in their decision making (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Perceiving (P)

Individuals who indicate a preference for *Perceiving* exhibit a tendency to be open-minded and curious. Also, they adjust to changes and approach life with flexibility and spontaneity (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Personality Types as Predictors of Delinquency

One of the most severe handicaps to research in juvenile delinquency is the gross behavioral heterogeneity of individuals classified as delinquent. Subjects for research studies ordinarily have one common property-having been legally adjudicated as delinquent. Thus, the search for cause and consequence has been severely hampered by the lack of conceptual categories whose members have something more in common than adjudication in a court of law. (Quay & Peterson, 1960, p. 472)

In order to decrease and prevent juvenile delinquency, it is important to identify characteristics of juvenile offenders (Jensen, Potter, & Howard, 2001). Moreover, recognizing the personality differences in male and female juvenile offenders could produce more effective treatment programs (Martin, Martin, Dell, Davis, & Guerrieri, 2008). However, accomplishing this goal has been hindered by the fact that there is a lack of research which examines the

personality types of both male and female delinquents. This is largely due to the following: First, the juvenile justice system was initially established for delinquent males. Thus, much of the existing research reflects this fact. Secondly, although personality has long been identified as an important predictor of offending (Eysenck, 1977), studies have tended to focus on the personalities of adult criminals, rather than juveniles. Of those studies that targeted juveniles, male or female delinquents were compared to non-delinquents (normative group). Several instruments were created specifically to assess personality types within the delinquent population including the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), the Millon Adolescent Personality Inventory (MAPI), the Millon Adolescent Clinical Inventory (MACI), the Maudsley Personality Inventory, and the California Psychological Inventory. Yet, few studies have comparatively and/or collectively examined the personality types of male and female delinquents. As a result, the need for research which examines possible personality correlates among male and female delinquents has gone unmet.

Relevant Studies

Godbey (1975) compared a group of 138 male juvenile delinquents who were being held at a state detention facility in Florida with a group of 147 non-delinquents. Using the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Godbey found an overrepresentation of delinquents in two of the four dichotomous preference pairs. Specifically, Godbey found male delinquents indicated a preference for introversion over extraversion and sensing over intuition. Non-delinquents were not found to be overrepresented in any of the four dichotomous preference scales (*Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, Judging/Perceiving*) contained on the MBTI.

According to Eysenck (1977), there is an inextricable link between personality and criminality. Furthermore Eysenck believed that the personality of delinquents differs from non-delinquents in three dimensions, or fundamental factors: Psychoticism (P), Extraversion (E), and Neuroticism (N). Together, these dimensions or factors create the PEN model. When analyzed, Eysenck found that delinquents scored high on all three dimensions/factors. Moreover, Eysenck suggested that these factors are linked to criminality through the working of the central nervous system (CNS). Due to the working of their CNS, delinquents are less sensitive to punishment, which causes poor conditioning followed by conscience development.

In a 1981 study, Linton and Whitehead attempted to improve the self-understanding among inmates in an Illinois jail. To meet this objective, the Myers Briggs Type Indicator was administered to 108 incarcerated adult males. According to the preference pair scale of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (*Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving*), Linton and Whitehead found that the majority of the population indicated introversion over extraversion. Also, participants preferred sensing over intuition, thinking over feeling, and perception over judging.

Livernoise (1987) reported in his study of 123 adult male criminals an overrepresentation of ISFP and ISTP. Using the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, Livernoise analyzed the four letter type preference of each male participant. The four letter type preference is a combination of each single choice preference based on the following dichotomous preference scale of the MBTI: (*Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving*). Although, sixteen four letter type preferences are possible, Livernoise noted that ISFP and ISTP were the dominant four letter types indicated by male participants. By

contrast, Livernoise also reported that ENTJ, INTJ, and ESTJ were not indicated as the four letter type preference by any of the male participants.

Furnham and Thompson's (1991) study focused on how the *Big Five* personality traits correlate with crime and delinquency. According to the authors, the Big Five personality traits are *Extraversion, Neuroticism, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness*. In terms of delinquency, each trait is unique with its own set of characteristics. *Extraversion* is characterized by sensation seeking behavior. *Neuroticism* is characterized by a lack of initiative or being a follower. *Openness* is characterized by being uncritical and docile. *Agreeableness* is characterized by behavior that is considered to be domineering, demanding and arrogant. *Conscientiousness* is characterized by nonchalant, frivolous, and reckless behavior (Laak, et al., 2003). Furnham and Thompson concluded that there is a considerable link between delinquency and agreeableness. However, the authors found no correlation with respect to extraversion and neuroticism.

John, Caspi, Robins, Moffit, and Stouthamer-Loeber (1994) also studied delinquency and its correlation to the *Big Five* personalities. In their examination of 12 to 13 year old boys, the authors found that a high level of agreeableness and conscientiousness existed. Also, they found a high level of delinquency was also related to the sensation seeking characteristic of introversion. Lastly, the authors were able to exclude neuroticism as a personality trait linked to delinquency. Investigating the relationship between the *Big Five* and delinquency, Heaven (1996) found that neuroticism and conscientiousness correlated significantly with delinquent high school students; however, extraversion and openness did not. In a similar study of

incarcerated adolescent boys, Wit and Van Aken (1998) reported higher scores for delinquent males on the conscientiousness and neuroticism scales and lower scores on the agreeableness scale, than a group of non-delinquents.

Cavin (2000) examined the personality characteristics of 186 juvenile delinquents who were adjudicated into a Texas Youth Commission facility in North Texas. Participants were 14 to 20 years old. Using the dichotomous preference scale of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (*Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, Judging/Perceiving*) Cavin discovered when compared to 599 juveniles within the general population, male delinquents indicated a significant preference of introversion over extraversion, sensing over intuition, and thinking over feeling. No significant preference between judging and perceiving was indicated by male delinquents. By contrast, general population participants did not indicate a significant preference on any of dichotomous preference pairs.

Kanitz, Hanley and Kramer (2005) examined the personality types of 31 female and male adjudicated adolescents ages 14 to 18. Participants were court ordered into placement for various offenses ranging from truancy to assault and theft. The purpose of the study was to determine the personality type of adjudicated youth in residential treatment for substance abuse. Two instruments were selected for this investigation: the Personal Experience Inventory (PEI) and the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). The PEI is a self-report measure that gages adolescent substance abuse. The MMTIC assesses an individual's attitude and functions, and 16 four letter personality types result when all possible combinations are taken into account. In analyzing their personality types, Kanitz, Hanley and Kramer reported an overrepresentation of *Sensing* (S) types (85%) and a corresponding underrepresentation of *Intuitive* (N) types (15%). Thus, 85% of the participants being treated for substance abuse

process information through their *Sensing* preference and 15% through *Intuition*.

Overrepresentation was not found on any of the other dichotomous preference pairs.

Summary

“There is considerable public concern about the youth of today. There is a perception that juvenile crime is more frequent and more serious than ever and that our system of justice is slow to respond and generally ineffective” (Weisheit & Culbertson, 2000, p. vii). Thus, juvenile delinquency continues to garner the immediate attention of teachers, lawmakers, behavior experts, etc. However, the problematic factors contributing to delinquent behavior among youth are vastly different from years past. As a result, juvenile delinquency continues to be a perplexing phenomenon.

Chapter 2 highlights several significant aspects surrounding juvenile delinquency including associated terminology, the impact of delinquency on race, gender, academic achievement and socioeconomics, the history of the juvenile justice system, phases of the juvenile justice process, and the correlation between personality types and delinquency. Chapter 2 concludes with a chronological citing of relevant studies that have help advanced the belief that an inextricable link between personality and delinquency exists. It is somewhat evident that the personalities of delinquents are significantly different from the personalities of the normally adjusted (Durea, 1937). As a result, a study that distinguishes personality types among male and female delinquents is essential not only in that in contributes to the limited existing data, but it could aide those who seek to tailor delinquency intervention, rehabilitative, and transition services for all juveniles.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Introduction

Every year, according to Stephens and Arnette (2000), an estimated six percent of all of America's school children are adjudicated through juvenile courts. Consequently, many of those youths will be placed in a state operated or private custodial facility charged with the challenging responsibility of correcting delinquent behavior. Whether or not juvenile treatment programs are a viable option for managing and redirecting delinquent behavior is a valid question (MacKenzie, Gover, Armstrong, & Mitchell, 2001). Nonetheless, Hinmon (2000) asserted that the assessment of juveniles with common personality and behavior traits may be helpful in predicting who will recidivate.

The purpose of this research study was to: (a) examine the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents; (b) compare and contrast the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents; and (c) determine if there are significant differences among respective groups as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). This chapter provides a discussion of the research methods used in this study. Specifically, the following areas are discussed in this chapter: population of participants, instrumentation (including reliability and validity), the researcher's role, research and data collection procedures, protection of participants, and data analysis.

This study investigated the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
5. Overall, is there any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

Population of Participants

The population of participants consisted of two groups: (1) 35 male juvenile delinquents from Lurleen B. Wallace School who were at least 14 and not older than 18 years old, and (2) 35 female juvenile delinquents from Sequoyah School who were at least 14 and not older than 18 years old. During their stay, both male and female juvenile delinquents reside in a restrictive and

structured environment. While detained, juveniles are required to adhere to the following rules, policies, and procedures:

- Travel in lined formation at all times
- Wear state issued uniforms at all times
- Daily physical regiment and curfew
- Minimum contact with outsiders (family members excluded)
- Mandatory behavior intervention treatment
- Random property and/or body searches

Violations of any of the aforementioned rules, policies, and procedures set forth, could result in consequences including, but not limited to lost of privileges, isolated confinement, and/or revised rehabilitative/treatment plan.

Instrumentation

Today, there are many personality type and learning style instruments for children (Singer, 1996). Instruments that are geared toward gaining a better understanding of individual differences among children include the *Action Orientation Reflection Orientation (AORO)*, *Golay Learning Patterns and Temperament Styles*, and *Gregorc Style Delineator* (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). Understanding individual differences in children helps adults work with children more effectively, and it helps children understand themselves and others (Singer, 1996). Murphy and Meisgeier (1989) further added that “understanding differences in children advances their development in healthy, functional ways during the formative years” (p. 7).

Originally created in the early 1980’s and published through Consulting Psychologists Press in 1987, Elizabeth Murphy and Charles Meisgeier’s *Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC)*

is designed to identify psychological type in children (Singer, 1996). Data gathered from the MMTIC is also valuable for professionals who work with children (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). The MMTIC measures preferences along the same four bipolar dimensions as the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): *Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving* (Meisgeier & Murphy, 1987). However, the two instruments differ in the ages of their targeted groups. “The results from the MMTIC have been specifically developed to help children and young people understand their preferences in ways that are useful for their age” (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008, p. 4). “The availability of a children’s version of an adult personality test allow for the longitudinal study of type preferences and an examination of developmental patterns” (Parker & Mills, 1998, p. 20).

According to the *MMTIC Manual*, the original version of the MMTIC (1986) contained 64 items and was intended for children in grades two through eight. The current version (2008) contains 43 items and is intended for children in grades two through twelve. The MMTIC can be taken online or by paper and pencil (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). Participants for this study used the paper and pencil method.

Reliability

Murphy and Meisgeier (2008) explained that reliability refers to the extent to which a measurement yields consistent results. The authors further added that reliability is the first criterion that must be met by a psychometric instrument. It is possible to assess an instrument’s reliability in a variety of ways. Some of the more standard and familiar methods include:

Cronbach’s Alpha, Split-Half Reliability and Test-Retest Reliability.

The most widely used method for estimating reliability is *Cronbach’s Alpha*. Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) defined Cronbach’s Alpha as a function of the average intercorrelations

of items and the number of items in the scale. The process of splitting scales into two halves and correlating the score results based on the split of each half makes up the *Split-Half Reliability* method (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). *Test-Retest Reliability* occurs when scores remain consistent throughout repeated test administrations (Pagano, 2007).

Table 1 illustrates MMTIC reliability scores reported in the *Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children Manual* (2008). The range for reliability coefficients is 0.00 to 1.00. Higher coefficients indicate higher instrument reliability (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Furthermore, a coefficient score of .60 is generally regarded as an acceptable standard (2008). The combined reliability evidence suggests that the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children is a viable instrument capable of measuring personality preferences in children grades two through twelve (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008).

Table 1

MMTIC Reliability Scores

Scale	Alpha	Split-Half	Test-Retest
E-I	.62	.64	.78
S-N	.61	.62	.72
T-F	.71	.69	.71
J-P	.61	.57	.69

Note: The data in Table 1 are from *MMTIC Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children* (p. 33), by E. Murphy and C. Meisgeier, 2008, Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type. Copyright 2008 by the Center for Applications of Psychological Type. Adapted with permission.

Validity

The concept of validity denotes whether or not an instrument measures what it claims to measure (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Validity presupposes reliability because an instrument that yields inconsistent results should not be trusted to accurately measure anything (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008). There are different measures of validity including construct validity, content validity, and criterion-related validity. Determining whether or not an instrument measures what it claims to measure can be done in a variety of ways. Latent Class Analysis (LCA) is a method that has been used to measure validity for the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children

The process of Latent Class Analysis involves the assumption of an underlying classification, and all others are eliminated by probability estimates except for the “class” to which the respondent truly belongs (p. 35). “A particularly important benefit of LCA is that it provides a method for estimating test validity, by calculating a probability that a particular item response will sort respondents into the correct class (p. 26). “A successful LCA analysis will minimize decreases in reliabilities by accurate identification and prudent elimination of less valuable items” (p. 30). The authors expounded further on the use of Latent Class Analysis to affirm validity for the MMTIC stating that “A long and rich body of research supports the construct validity of the Jung-Myers concept of psychological type” (p. 35). The MMTIC was constructed in accordance with Jung and Myers theory of personality type. As a result, the authors contend that presenting evidence confirming validity for the four dichotomous domains (E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P) would be unnecessary because much of that evidence is already well documented (e.g., Myers et al. 1998). Instead, data showing the MMTIC produces results that are consistent with the four dichotomous domains, confirms its construct validity.

Table 2 illustrates data from an analysis of validity of the MMTIC performed by noted statistician and LCA expert, Jay Magidson, Ph. D. An acceptable threshold for the expected percentage classified correctly is 85% (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008).

Table 2

LCA Consistency of Correct Classification

Preference Indicated	Estimated Correct Classification from Model
E	90.0%
I	84.7%
Total E-I	87.7%
S	89.6%
N	85.1%
Total S-N	87.6%
T	88.9%
F	93.6%
Total T-F	91.6%
J	88.4%
P	87.1%
Total J-P	87.8%

Note: The data in Table 2 are from *MMTIC Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children* (p. 36), by E. Murphy and C. Meisgeier, 2008, Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type. Copyright 2008 by the Center for Applications of Psychological Type. Adapted with permission.

The Researcher's Role

The role of the researcher was to focus on the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents. As this study was being conducted, the researcher was employed as a history teacher in the Accountability Based Sex Offender Program (ABSOP) at the Department of Youth Services' Mt. Meigs facility. The Alabama Department of Youth Services and its school officials act in loco parentis for juveniles in their custody. According to the *School District 210 State of Alabama DYS Policy & Procedures Manual*, it is DYS School District Board policy "to cooperate with colleges, universities, and other agencies...[and to make] decisions in connections with research involving students, teachers, or other employees..." Board policy number 10.3.1.1 charges the Youth Services School District to maintain the right of privacy for adjudicated youth held within their custody. As a result, the following precautions were necessary to insure the anonymity of participants and to eliminate the probability of teacher/student coercion:

- The researcher did not allow students within ABSOP to participate in this study
- The survey document was altered to exclude any information that could directly or indirectly identify participants

Research and Data Collection Procedures

The procedures used for conducting research and collecting data for this study are detailed as follow:

Step 1: The researcher sent a letter to the Alabama Department of Youth Services' Executive Director requesting permission to conduct the study (see Appendix A).

Step 2: Upon receiving approval from DYS' Executive Director (see Appendix A), the researcher sent permission letters to the principals of Lurleen B. Wallace and Sequoyah School (see Appendix A).

Step 3: After obtaining permission to conduct the study from the principals of Lurleen B. Wallace and Sequoyah schools (see Appendix A), the researcher submitted a *Research Protocol Review Form* to the Office of Human Subjects Research at Auburn University and was granted permission to proceed with the study (see Appendix B).

Step 4: Afterwards, the researcher contacted the principals of each school and scheduled a date and time to meet with prospective participants.

Step 5: At the scheduled date and time, the researcher visited the male campus, read the recruitment script, read and distributed the letter of assent form (see Appendix C), and distributed MMTIC surveys to participants. These same procedures were repeated at the female campus by the researcher's designated representative.

Step 6: The researcher collected, compiled, and analyzed survey data of participants to see if there were significant differences among male and female juvenile delinquents.

Protection of Participants

The initial proposal, informed consent procedures, and survey instrument were carefully reviewed and approved by the researcher's chairperson, the principals of each school, and Auburn University's Institutional Review Board. All participants were provided a letter of assent form. The letter of assent form invited participation, explained the purpose of the study, and it further communicated and assured participants that the results from this study would remain anonymous.

Data Analysis

Exclusive rights of all matters pertaining to the MMTIC are held and reserved by The Center for Applications of Psychological Type (CAPT). As a result, the initial step in analyzing personality type preferences of participants involved entering their survey responses into the MMTIC Facilitator Interface. The Facilitator Interface is an on-line tool made available through CAPT to MMTIC subscribers who seek to attain administered survey results.

After entering all forty-three responses for each participant, the Facilitator Interface created a group profile (male/female) that included a four letter personality type preference for every male and female (e.g., Male 1= ISTJ, Female 1=ESFJ). Data from the group profile was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. These data were analyzed by the researcher using a Chi-square analysis to determine to what extent do the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents differ according to the *Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving* scales of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine whether significant differences exist among the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents. This chapter presented information relative to the population of participants, instrumentation (including reliability and validity), and an analysis of the data. Furthermore, this chapter communicated the role of the researcher and the specific measures taken to protect the anonymity of results and to eliminate probability of teacher/student coercion. The next chapter, Chapter 4, will offer a detailed presentation of the results of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

Historically, adolescent males have been the central focus of delinquency research (Carroll, Houghton, Wood, Perkins, & Bower, 2006). “Consequently, issues pertaining to female delinquency have largely been ignored” (Carroll, Houghton, Khan, & Tan, 2008, p. 778). Several studies have highlighted the problematic challenges confronting both male and female juvenile delinquency (Aalsma & Lapsley, 2001; Bell, 2005; Cohn, 2010; Froggio, 2007; Sherman, 2006). Moreover, various delinquency factors such as race, social class, school/home environment, etc. have also been widely researched (Anderson, 1999; Barkley, 1998; Bilchik, 1998; Blumstein, 1996; Bottcher, 1995; Colvin, 2000; Ehrensaft, 2005; Foley, 2001; Gabel & Johnston, 1995; Gottfredson, 2001; Ryan & Yang, 2005; Matherne & Thomas, 2001; Peters, 2001; Rowe, 2002; Stein, 1999). However, existing juvenile delinquency research has continued to neglect the most important variable, the personality type of the individual (Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2003).

The purpose of this study was to: (a) examine the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents; (b) compare and contrast the personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents; and (c) determine if there are significant differences among the respective groups as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Analyses for questions 1-4 are presented in two parts. First, the percentage scores in correlation with each of the four dichotomous scales and the responses indicated by male and female juvenile

delinquents on the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children are presented. Afterwards, scores from the Chi-square analysis are presented. Percentage scores are also presented for question five.

The following research questions were investigated for this study:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
5. Overall, is there a relationship between the four letter type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

Participants' Demographics

According to Tables 3 and 4, thirty-five males and thirty-five females participated in this study. Twenty-seven females (77%) identified themselves as Black, and eight females (23%) identified themselves as Caucasian. Sixteen (46%) females were 14-15 years old; twelve (34%) females were 16-17 years old, and seven (20%) females were 18 years old. Twenty-five (71%)

males identified themselves as Black; nine (26%) males identified themselves as Caucasian, and one (3%) male identified himself as Hispanic.

Table 3

Female Participants

Race /Age	<i>N</i>	%
African American	27	77
Caucasian	8	23
14-15 year olds	16	46
16-17 year olds	12	34
18 year olds	7	20

Table 4

Male Participants

Race/Age	<i>N</i>	%
African American	25	71
Caucasian	9	26
Hispanic	1	3
14-15 year olds	21	60
16-17 year olds	10	29
18 year olds	4	11

Presentation of Results

Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children? Analyzed data results from the Chi-square are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

According to the data cited in Table 5, a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent females showed a preference for introversion over extraversion. The percentage of delinquent females who indicated a preference for introversion over extraversion was 60% ($N = 21$) to 40% ($N = 14$). Also, data presented in Table 5 reveal that a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent males showed a preference for introversion over extraversion. The percentage of delinquent males indicating a preference for introversion over extraversion was 69% ($N = 24$) to 31% ($N = 11$).

Table 5

Extraversion/Introversion Type Preference

Gender	E	I	Total
Females	14 40%	21 60%	35 100%
Males	11 31%	24 69%	35 100%
Total	25 36%	45 64%	70 100%

Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to the Chi-square analysis, $\chi^2(1, N = 70) = 0.560, p = 0.454$. As a result, no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

This means that although the percentage of delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for introversion is higher than the percentage of delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for extraversion (see table 5), the extent to which male delinquents preferred introversion was not significantly greater than the extent to which female delinquents preferred introversion. Furthermore, results from the Chi-square analysis reveal that the extent to which male delinquents preferred extraversion was not significantly greater than the extent to which female delinquents preferred extraversion.

Table 6

Extraversion/Introversion Chi-square Analysis

Pearson Chi-square	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	.560	1	.454

Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children? Analyzed data results from the Chi-square are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

According to the data presented in Table 7, a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent females showed a preference for sensing over intuition. The percentage of delinquent females who indicated a preference for sensing over intuition was 94% ($N = 33$) to 6% ($N = 2$). Also, data presented in Table 7 reveal that a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent males also showed a preference for sensing over intuition. The percentage of delinquent males indicating a preference for sensing over intuition was 86% ($N = 30$) to 14% ($N = 5$).

Table 7

Sensing/Intuition Type Preference

Gender	S	N	Total
Females	33 94%	2 6%	35 100%
Males	30 86%	5 14%	35 100%
Total	63 90%	7 10%	70 100%

Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to the Chi-square analysis, $\chi^2(1, N = 70) = 1.429, p = 0.232$. As a result, no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

This means that although the percentage of delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for sensing was higher than those delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for intuition (see Table 7), the extent to which delinquent males preferred sensing was not significantly greater than the extent to which delinquent females preferred sensing. Furthermore, results from the Chi-square analysis reveal that the extent to which delinquent males preferred intuition was not significantly greater than the extent to which delinquent females preferred intuition.

Table 8

Sensing/Intuition Chi-square Analysis

Pearson Chi-square	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	1.429	1	.232

Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children? Analyzed data results from the Chi-square are presented in Tables 9 and 10.

According to the data presented in Table 9, a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent females showed a preference for feeling over thinking. The percentage of delinquent females who indicated a preference for feeling over thinking was 65% ($N = 23$) to 39% ($N = 12$). By contrast, data presented in Table 9 reveal that delinquent males showed a preference of thinking over feeling as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. The percentage of delinquent males indicating a preference for thinking over feeling was 54% ($N = 19$) to 46% ($N = 16$).

Table 9

Thinking/Feeling Type Preference

Gender	T	F	Total
Females	12 34%	23 66%	35 100%
Males	19 54%	16 46%	35 100%
Total	31 44%	39 56%	70 100%

Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to the Chi-square analysis, $\chi^2(1, N = 70) = 2.837, p = 0.92$. As a result, no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents.

This means that although a higher percentage of delinquent males indicated a preference for thinking, and a higher percentage of females indicated a preference for feeling (see Table 9), the extent to which male delinquents preferred feeling was not significantly greater than the extent to which female delinquents preferred feeling. Furthermore, results from the Chi-square analysis reveal that the extent to which delinquent males preferred thinking was not significantly greater than the extent to which delinquent females preferred thinking.

Table 10

Thinking/Feeling Chi-square Analysis

Pearson Chi-square	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	2.837	1	.092

Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children? Analyzed data results from the Chi-square are presented in Tables and 9 and 10.

According to the data presented in Table 11, a greater percentage of juvenile delinquent females showed a preference for judging over perceiving. The percentage of delinquent females who indicated a preference for judging over perceiving was 74% ($N = 26$) to 26% ($N = 9$). Also, data presented in Table 11 reveal that a greater percentage of delinquent males showed a preference for judging over perceiving as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. The percentage of delinquent males indicating a preference for judging over perceiving was 60% ($N = 21$) to 40% ($N = 14$).

Table 11

Judging/Perceiving Type Preference

Gender	J	P	Total
Females	26 74%	9 26%	35 100%
Males	21 60%	14 40%	35 100%
Total	47 67%	23 33%	70 100%

Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to the Chi-square analysis, $\chi^2(1, N = 70) = 1.619, p = .203$. As a result, no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

This means that although the percentage of delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for judging was higher than those delinquent males and females who indicated a preference for perceiving (see Table 11), the extent to which delinquent males preferred judging was not significantly greater than the extent to which delinquent females preferred judging. Furthermore, results from the Chi-square analysis reveal that the extent to which delinquent males preferred perceiving was not significantly greater than the extent to which delinquent females preferred perceiving.

Table 12

Chi-square Analysis

Pearson Chi-square	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	1.619	1	.203

Research Question 5

Overall, is there any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to Table 13, ISFJ was the most preferred four letter personality type indicated by female participants. Twenty-nine percent ($N = 10$) of female participants single choice preferences combined to result in the ISFJ four letter personality type. The second most preferred four letter personality type indicated by female participants was ISTJ. Seventeen percent ($N = 6$) of female participants indicated a preference for ISTJ. This was followed by ESFJ, ESFP, and ESTJ with 14% ($N = 5$), 11% ($N = 4$), and 11% ($N = 4$).

Table 13

Females' Four Letter Personality Type

Gender	Four Letter Type			
Females	ENFJ	ENTP	ENFP	ENTJ
	0	0	0	0
	0%	0%	0%	0%
	ESFJ	ESTP	ESFP	ESTJ
	5	1	4	4
	14%	3%	11%	11%
	INFJ	INTP	INFP	INTJ
	1	0	1	0
	3%	0%	3%	0%
	ISFJ	ISTP	ISFP	ISTJ
	10	1	2	6
	29%	3%	6%	17%

Research Question 5

Overall, is there any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

According to Table 14, ESFJ, ISTP, and ISTJ were indicated by male juvenile participants as their most preferred four letter personality type. Specifically, 20% ($N = 7$) of male participants indicated ESFJ as their four letter personality type, 20% ($N = 7$) of male participants indicated ISTP as their four letter personality type, and 20% ($N = 7$) of male participants indicated ISTJ as their four letter personality type. In addition, 17% of male participants' single choice type preferences combined to result in the ISFJ four letter personality type.

Table 14

Males' Four Letter Personality Type

Gender	Four Letter Type			
Males	ENFJ 1 3%	ENTP 2 6%	ENFP 0 0%	ENTJ 0 0%
	ESFJ 7 20%	ESTP 1 3%	ESFP 0 0%	ESTJ 0 0%
	INFJ 0 0%	INTP 2 6%	INFP 0 0%	INTJ 0 0%
	ISFJ 6 17%	ISTP 7 20%	ISFP 2 6%	ISTJ 7 20%

In determining if there is any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, three percentage scores are presented. According to Tables 11 and 12, ISFJ represented the highest four letter personality type percentage score indicated by females and the second highest four letter personality type percentage score indicated by males with 29% and 17% respectively. Also, ESFJ (20%), ISTP (20%), and ISTJ (20%) represented the highest four letter personality type percentage scores indicated by males. By comparison, ISTJ and ESFJ were the second and third highest percentage score among female participants with 17%, and 14% respectively. This means that the majority of male ($N = 20$) and female ($N = 21$) juvenile delinquents indicated either ISFJ, ISTJ, or ESFJ as their four letter personality type preference.

Summary

Chapter 4 detailed the results of this study. Results were presented in correlation with the responses indicated by male and female juvenile delinquents on the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Data were analyzed in accordance with the five questions investigated by the researcher. Results from the data revealed the following: (1) no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, (2) no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, (3) no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, (4) no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, and (5) the majority of male and female juvenile

delinquents who participated in this study indicated either ISFJ, ISTJ, or ESFJ as their four letter personality type preference according to the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. The next chapter, Chapter 5, will present the results, conclusions, and implications of this study. Also, recommendations for further research and practice will be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations. The purpose of this study was to: (a) examine the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents; (b) compare and contrast the personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents; and (c) determine if there are significant differences among the respective groups as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). Males and females in the juvenile justice system are similar in some respects, but also tend to differ in a number of ways” (Conney, Small, & O’Connor, 2008, p. 2). More or less, the needs and strengths of incarcerated boys and girls are different (Gavazzi & Yarcheck, 2006). Sherman (2005) further explained, “Adolescent girls who are in the justice system differ from boys developmentally and psychologically” (p. 16).

Moreover, subtle differences in personality traits may contribute to delinquent boys’ and girls’ dissimilar response to certain environmental conditions (Klein & Corwin, 2002). Furthermore, these personality differences may partially account for the contrast that exists among boys’ and girls’ delinquency (Zahn et al., 2010). Nonetheless, by understanding the attributes of the confined youth population and combining this knowledge with accurate population projections, juvenile correctional agencies can better evaluate their program needs and structure facilities and programs to meet the needs of confined youth (Austin, Johnson, & Weitzer, 2005).

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?
5. Overall, is there any relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents, as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children?

Summary

Participants used in this study were 14-18 year old male and female delinquents from two custodial facilities operated by the Alabama Department of Youth Services. A total of 70 juveniles participated in this study, 35 males and 35 females. Upon authorization to conduct the study, male and female participants were administered the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. The Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children is a 43 item adolescent personality inventory that measures a child's type based on the following four dichotomous preference pairs:

Extraversion /Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving. Each single choice preference combines to indicate a four letter personality type. All data, including single choice preference data, as well as four letter type preference data were analyzed using a Chi-square analysis.

The escalation of delinquency and parents who seek help for their troubled children has significantly impacted the juvenile justice system (Jensen & Howard, 1998). Each year, over 2 million male and female delinquents enter the juvenile justice system (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Their adjudication is the end result of a wide range of committed offenses including truancy and capital murder. The consistent spike in delinquency cases baffles experts as they continue to research root causes of juvenile delinquency.

Cavan and Ferdinand (1975) stated that the delinquent population has characteristics that differ from the general population. However, when compared to each other, the results of this study proved that no statistical significance exists between the personality types of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Moreover, analyzed data results also proved that there is a relationship between the four letter personality type of male and the four letter personality type of female delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Nonetheless, personality type remains a relatively untapped focal point in delinquency research. Thus, more studies are needed to add to the limited existing data.

Conclusions

Adolescent girls and boys who are in the justice system differ in their developmental paths to delinquency (Lederman, 2000). Moreover, the social expectations of girls and boys differ greatly and as a result, these social expectations influence their relationships with their

parents, peers, and with institutions such as schools, health care providers, social services and the justice system. The juvenile justice process has a different impact on girls and boys. Girls are more likely than boys to be detained for minor offenses and technical violations and are more likely than boys to be returned to detention for technical violations. However, boys still account for the majority of all delinquency cases (Sherman, 2005). “All of these differences demand particular attention in how we forecast and address delinquency among girls and boys” (p. 16).

Sherman (2005) highlights many of the identifiable differences that exist among delinquent boys and girls. Those differences include developmental progressions, how delinquents are treated within society and the juvenile justice system, as well as the type of offenses and the extent of which boys and girls engage in delinquent activity. However, results from this study suggest the contrary in that the personality types of male and female delinquents were not found to be dissimilar. In fact, analyzed data results revealed that the personality types of male and female juvenile delinquents are far more alike, than they are different.

Research Question 1 asked if there is a statistically significant difference between male and female delinquents as measured by the *Extraversion/Introversion* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Based on the analyzed data results, it can be concluded that male and female delinquents are not different with respect to their preference for extraversion or introversion.

Research Question 2 asked if there is a statistically significant difference between male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Sensing/Intuition* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Based on the analyzed data results, it can be concluded that male and female delinquents are not different with respect to their preference for sensing or intuition.

Research Question 3 asked if there is a statistically significant difference between male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the *Thinking/Feeling* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Based on the analyzed data results, it can be concluded that male and female delinquents are not different with respect to their preference for thinking or feeling.

Research Question 4 asked if there is a statistically significant difference between male and female delinquents as measured by the *Judging/Perceiving* scale of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Based on the analyzed data results, it can be concluded that male and female delinquents are not different with respect to their preference for judging or perceiving.

Research Question 5 asked if overall, is there a relationship between the four letter personality type of male and female juvenile delinquents as measured by the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Based on the analyzed data results, ISFJ, ISTJ, and ESFJ were the dominant four letter personality types indicated by male and female juvenile delinquents.

Implications

The results of this study revealed that the personality types of male and female delinquents are more comparable than they are different. Nonetheless, there are several implications that may be useful in the assessment, management, and treatment of personality types among male and female juvenile delinquents. In addition, the results of this study provide various implications for the juvenile justice system and juvenile care professionals.

As juvenile care professionals work to address the diverse needs of delinquents, an assessment of the personality types among those individuals they serve could provide meaningful

insight into the psychological progressions, mental processes, and actions that ultimately trigger delinquency. Furthermore, an understanding of type preferences could lead to a greater acceptance and tolerance among juvenile delinquents for individuals with different strengths and talents. Lastly, since personality characteristics demonstrated by juvenile delinquents often persist into adulthood, an understanding of those personality types could help juvenile care professionals tailor rehabilitative/treatment services that will help prevent juveniles from becoming adult offenders.

The fate of juvenile delinquents is often influenced by a myriad of social, economical, and societal factors. For confined youth, the values they learned while in custodial facilities are not permanent. Thus, the successes delinquents experienced while in secure placement can only be maintained with a continuum of child centered and individually prescriptive services.

Also highlighted in the review of literature is the fact that aftercare remains the most critical component of a youth's disposition. Consequently, improving counseling and education services provided during this phase should be a primary goal. In doing so, there must be a collaborative focus on the complete needs of juveniles by everyone involved. Furthermore, juveniles who return from the juvenile justice system often have social, academic, and emotional deficits. Support in these areas will increase the likelihood of a successful reentry into society.

Lastly, most school aged juveniles return to traditional educational settings. This fact suggests that a formal partnership should be established between educational and juvenile justice agencies. This collaborative partnership must entail reciprocated information sharing and mutual interagency communication.

Recommendations

Based on the limitations, review of literature, and analyzed data results of this study, the following recommendations are presented for further research and practice:

This study was limited to a total of 70 male and female juvenile delinquents from two custodial facilities in the state of Alabama. As a result, it is unclear whether or not male and female juvenile delinquents used in this study are representative of other male and female juvenile delinquents. A similar study with a larger sample population could add more clarity.

Although an abundance of research targeting other juvenile delinquency factors exists, research which focuses on the personality types of male and female delinquents remains limited. As a result, more studies targeting this specific population and subject matter are needed. For example, a comparative analysis of the personality types of male and female delinquents versus the personality types of non-delinquent males and females could provide substantive data.

The current version of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children has only been in existence since 2008. As a result, only a limited number of studies using this personality inventory are available. Consequently, more studies could further strengthen the reliability and validity of the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children.

In the review of literature, it is revealed that the number of violent offenses being committed by adolescent females is increasing steadily and rapidly. Specifically, girls are becoming more involved in aggravated assaults, sexual assaults, and murder. As a result, a study which focuses solely on the personality type of violent female juvenile offenders could provide valuable insight into the mindset of this growing population.

Seventy-four percent of male and female participants used in this study are Black. The racial demographics of this study closely resemble the fact that Black youth enter the juvenile

justice system at nearly a 4 to 1 ratio when compared to Caucasians (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Studies that focus on all variables influencing the overrepresentation of adjudicated minorities may prove beneficial in reducing the continued racial disparity that exists within the juvenile justice system.

Lastly, according to *Jungian Theory*, there are sixteen four letter personality types. Analyzed data results (see Tables 13 and 14) reveal that the majority of male and female juvenile delinquents indicated ISFJ, ISTJ, and ESFJ as their four letter personality type. Each four letter type has a distinguished and unique set of characteristics and behaviors. It is essential that juvenile care professionals become familiar with all sixteen four letter personality types as well as the characteristics and demonstrated behaviors of each four letter type so that they may adequately meet the formidable challenges presented with servicing today's troubled youth.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTION PERMISSION LETTERS

March 26, 2009

Mr. J. Water Wood Jr., Executive Director
Alabama Department of Youth Services
Mt. Meigs, Alabama 36057

Greetings Mr. Wood:

My name is Hosea Addison. I am a student enrolled in the doctoral program in Education Leadership at Auburn University. Also, I am a proud employee of the Alabama Department of Youth Services where I work as a history teacher on Mt. Meigs campus.

I am writing this letter to seek permission to conduct a study on DYS' Chalkville and Mt. Meigs campuses. The purpose of this study is to (a) gain a better understanding of the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents, (b) compare and contrast those preferences, and (c) determine if there are significant differences among the respective groups. Furthermore, examining the personality type of juvenile delinquents could provide relevant information that can be useful to all caretakers including teachers, residential staff, case managers, administrators, etc.

To complete this study entitled, **AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY TYPE PREFERENCES OF MALE AND FEMALE JUVENILE DELINQUENTS**, I would like to survey 30-35 high school age male juveniles, and 30-35 high school age female juveniles. Participants will be asked to complete a personality inventory which will take approximately fifteen to twenty minutes. The Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children is a forty-three item questionnaire that measures the following eight personality strands: extraversion/introversion, thinking/feeling, sensing/intuition, and judging/perceiving.

If permission is granted, I will need written notice stating approval. Any and all findings gained will be forwarded to your office once this study is completed. Should you require further information, please feel free to contact me at 334-294-4968, or at haddison@dys.k12.al.us. Thank you in advance for any consideration given to this endeavor.

ASSURANCE OF CONFIDENTIALITY:

UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES WILL THE IDENTITY OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS BE DISCLOSED PUBLICLY OR PRIVATELY. DATA GAINED FROM THIS STUDY WILL BE ANALYZED ANONYMOUSLY.

Regards,


Hosea Addison

STATE OF ALABAMA
DEPARTMENT OF YOUTH SERVICES

SCHOOL DISTRICT 210

Post Office Box 66
Mt. Meigs, Alabama 36057
Telephone: (334) 215-3850
Fax Number: (334) 215-3011

J. WALTER WOOD, JR.
Executive Director

April 3, 2009

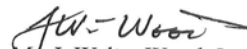
Dr. Maria Martinez Witte
Auburn University
College of Education
Educational Leadership Foundation and Technology
4012 Haley Center
Auburn University, AL 36849

Dear Dr. Witte:

SUBJECT: AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY TYPE PREFERENCES OF
MALE AND FEMALE JUNVENILE DELIQUENTS

Mr. Hosea Addision has approval from this office to conduct a study of the Alabama Department of Youth Services School District in his dissertation: AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY TYPE PREFERENCES OF MALE AND FEMALE JUNVENILE DELIQUENTS. A bound copy of his dissertation should be provided to the Superintendent's office upon completion of the study. This information will be beneficial in the long term decision making and planning of the DYS School District. I will provide him any assistance I can during this process.

Sincerely,


Mr. J. Walter Wood, Jr.
Executive Director

Cc: file

STATE OF ALABAMA

DEPARTMENT OF YOUTH SERVICES

C. B. GAVIN, Principal


L. B. WALLACE SCHOOL
Post Office Box 66
Mt. Meigs, Alabama 36057
Telephone (334) 215-6078
Fax Number (334) 215-6079

S. CROWELL, Asst. Principal

MEMORANDUM FOR RECORD

TO: Institutional Review Board

THRU: Hosea Addison, Student, Education Leadership at Auburn University

FROM: Cleveland B. Gavin, Principal, L. B. Wallace School, Mt. Meigs Campus 

RE: Approval for Student Survey at L. B. Wallace School

DATE: 9 April 2009

CC:

Hosea Addison is authorized to conduct a study/survey involving students of the L. B. Wallace School, Mt. Meigs, Alabama.

POC this memorandum is C. B. Gavin, ext. 334-215-6039.

STATE OF ALABAMA

DEPARTMENT OF YOUTH SERVICES

JOHN STEWART, Ed.D., Superintendent
School District 210

SCHOOL DISTRICT
Post Office Box 66
Mt. Meigs, Alabama 36057
Telephone (334) 215-3850
Fax Number (334) 215-3011

J. WALTER WOOD, JR.
Executive Director

April 14, 2009

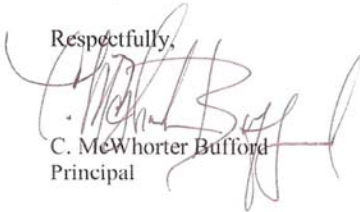
Hosea Addison
402 Dillard Lane
Montgomery, Alabama 36116

Mr. Addison:

I have received your permission request to survey students at the Sequoyah School in an effort to complete the study, **AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY TYPE PREFERENCES OF MALE AND FEMALE JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.**

I will gladly assist you in your endeavors by accommodating this request. However, please contact me regarding an agreement of dates, times, and specific procedures for which you would like to conduct the survey.

Respectfully,


C. McWhorter Bullford
Principal

APPENDIX B
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)
APPROVAL LETTER



Office of Human Subjects Research
307 Sanford Hall
Auburn University, AL 36849

Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
hsubjec@auburn.edu

August 24, 2009

MEMORANDUM TO: Hosea Addison
Education Foundation Leadership and Technology

PROTOCOL TITLE: "An Examination of Personality Type Preferences of Male and Female Juvenile Delinquents"

IRB AUTHORIZATION NO.: 09-157 MR 0906

APPROVAL DATE: June 10, 2009
EXPIRATION DATE: June 09, 2010

The referenced protocol was approved "Minimum Risk" at the IRB Meeting on June 10, 2009, pending revisions. (Final revisions were received on August 18, 2009.) Please reference the IRB authorization number in any correspondence regarding your project.

Please remember that any anticipated change in the approved procedures must be submitted to and approved by the IRB prior to implementation of the planned activity. Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or others require immediate suspension of the activity and an immediate written report to the IRB.

If you will be unable to file a Final Report on your project before June 9, 2010, you must submit a request for an extension of approval to the IRB no later than May 22, 2010 to be included on the agenda for the June 2010 IRB meeting. If your IRB authorization expires and/or you have not received written notice that a request for an extension has been approved prior to June 9, 2010, you must suspend the project immediately and contact the Office of Human Subjects Research.

A Final Report will be required to close your IRB project file. You are reminded that you must use only the IRB-approved, informed consents when you recruit participants. You are reminded that must retain signed consent forms for at least three years after completion of your study.

If you have any questions concerning IRB procedures or this Board action, please contact the OHSR at 844-5966.

Sincerely,

Kathy Jo Ellison, RN, DSN, CIP
Chair of the Institutional Review Board
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

cc: Dr. Sherida Downer
Dr. Maria Witte

APPENDIX C
LETTER OF ASSENT

Auburn University

Auburn University, Alabama 36849-5221

Educational Foundations
Leadership and Technology
4036 Haley Center

Telephone: (334) 844-4460
Fax: (334) 844-3072

LETTER OF ASSENT for a Research Study Entitled “An Examination of Personality Type Preferences of Male and Female Juvenile Delinquents”

You are invited to participate in a research study that examines the personality type preferences of male and female juvenile delinquents. This study is being conducted by Hosea Addison, a doctoral student in educational leadership at Auburn University, under the supervision of Dr. Maria Witte, Associate Professor, Auburn University. You are invited to take part because you are a male/female student currently being held at a youth facility within the Alabama Department of Youth Services (DYS). However, you must be at least 14, and not older than 18 years old to participate.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate and compare the various personality types of adjudicated youth. You may receive some benefit from this study as the results may be helpful in assisting teachers, counselors, and administrators with meeting your educational and behavioral needs.

Participation is voluntary. If you agree to participate, you will be required to complete a survey that asks you to indicate the responses you mostly prefer. After completing all items on the survey, you are to place it along with this document inside the envelope that has been provided for you. Please be sure to seal the envelope completely. The survey will take twenty minutes to complete.

Information collected through your participation will be used as data for a dissertation, may be presented at a professional meeting, or published in a professional journal. As a participant, you are able to withdraw at any time. To withdraw, please check the box at the end of the survey marked **DO NOT INCLUDE MY RESPONSES IN YOUR RESEARCH STUDY**.

No personal information, including your name will be collected. Thus, you will never be identified when data are analyzed. Your responses are anonymous. Lastly, your decision to participate will not jeopardize your relations with Auburn University or the Alabama Department of Youth Services. If you have further questions, please contact your principal.

Participant's initial _____

Page 1 of 2

The Auburn University
Institutional Review Board
has approved this document for use
from 6/10/09 to 6/9/10
Protocol # 09-157 MR 0906

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT YOU WISH TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE BELOW EXPRESSES YOUR WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE. YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS LETTER TO KEEP.

Participant's Signature Date

Investigator's Signature Date

Printed Name

Printed Name

Signature of DYS Representative Date
(Acting in loco parentis for Juvenile)

The Auburn University
Institutional Review Board
has approved this document for use
from 6/10/09 to 6/9/10
Protocol # 09-157 MR 09D6