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DELINQUENCY AND VICTIMIZATION AMONG ADOLESCENTS: AN
EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP AND LIFESTYLE INFLUENCES

by

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B.S. December 1993, Old Dominion University

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculties of
Old Dominion University and Norfolk State University
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ABSTRACT

DELINQUENCY AND VICTIMIZATION AMONG ADOLESCENTS: AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP AND LIFESTYLE INFLUENCES

Joy Eileen Livergood
Old Dominion University and Norfolk State University, 2000
Director: Dr. James A. Nolan

This research examines the correlation between delinquency and victimization. Consideration is given to the lifestyle influences including the routine activities and demographic factors. Data from the 1997 Monitoring the Future data set are analyzed in an attempt to understand the extent of the relationship as well as the impact of various lifestyle activities and demographic factors. The study was guided by previous research examining the correlation between delinquency and victimization as well as the impact of lifestyle elements. SPSS 9.0 for Windows was used to analyze the data. Overall, the findings suggest that there is a correlation between delinquency and victimization. Lifestyle activities and demographic factors are found to influence the correlation between delinquency and victimization.

This thesis is dedicated to the proposition that "all great achievements require time." -

David Joseph Schwartz

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"... America should brace itself for a new surge of youthful violence"
(Gest and Friedman 1994:26).

According to the *Uniform Crime Report*, in 1996, approximately a third of all victims of violent crime were 12 to 19 years old. Overall, adolescents continue to be a significant part of the national crime picture – both as perpetrators and as victims. Recently, disproportionately high crime and victimization rates have been attributed to this population. For example, in 1992, one in four Americans was under the age of 18 (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1993), yet, the 1991 National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) found that juveniles were offenders in 28 percent of personal crimes (U.S. Department of Justice 1995). In another study, juveniles were responsible for 19 percent of all violent crimes (U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics 1992). Analysis of the 1991 National Crime Survey (NCS) indicates that the risk of violent victimization for youths is higher than the risk of victimization for persons over the age of 24 years (U.S. Department of Justice 1995). That youngsters continue to be more involved in criminal activities, both as perpetrators and as victims, creates a precarious situation for society.

The increasing involvement of youth in the national crime picture has become the focus of many Americans, including legislators and social scientists. In response to

The format of this thesis follows current style requirements of the *American Sociological Review*.

public demand, many states have enacted laws to reform the way juveniles are dealt with by juvenile justice systems. Most of the reforms have implemented punitive measures; however, a few have attempted to strengthen rehabilitative measures. From 1992 through 1995 all but 10 states modified their statutes, making it easier to prosecute juveniles in criminal courts (U.S. Department of Justice 1998). For example, Virginia enacted a Juvenile Justice Reform Act that represented an effort to reduce juvenile crime by punishing serious juvenile offenders and rehabilitating those who can be reformed (Earley 1999). Despite the various attempts, the legislated changes have had only a slight impact on the involvement of youths in crime.

Similarly, extensive examination of the criminal involvement of youths by social scientists has provided mixed observations. Compounding the outcomes may be the fact that for generations various perspectives have been employed to examine delinquency among youth. Among the most common perspectives are the examinations of personal and social predisposition and affiliation or subculture influences. The impact of these perspectives is reflected in positive criminological theories (Glueck and Glueck 1956; Hooton 1939), such as the theory of differential association (Sutherland 1939), Merton's (1957) theory of anomie, the theory of blocked opportunity (Cloward and Ohlin 1960), and other theories of delinquency. Few theorists, outside of those employing the lifestyle and routine activity theories, have examined a composite of personal and social predisposition and affiliation or subculture influences. For this reason, theories of delinquency have not provided a clear understanding of the causes of delinquency.

The victimization of adolescents has not yet been clearly understood either. Despite extensive examinations of the victimization of youths from different disciplines and perspectives, the subject remains ambiguous. However, a few facts are known. For

example, youths are at significantly high risk to be victimized, and family members, friends, or acquaintances most often victimize them (U.S. Department of Justice 1995). Much of the ambiguity of the subject is a result of a lack of sound empirical data. Most victimization surveys emphasize the experiences of adults. For example, the NCVS, which employs a nationally representative sample of households and asks about criminal victimization experienced by family members, has two notable limitations. First, the NCVS does not capture information pertaining to victimization from youths under the age of 12 years. Secondly, the survey has limited ability to address the sensitive issues of interfamily violence and child abuse. Such lack of data could clearly contribute to the inadequacy of current theories of youthful victimization and crime.

Studies that have attempted to understand explicitly the relationship between victimization and delinquency have also yielded vague understanding. Often studies examining this relationship employ the routine activities or lifestyles theories. Similar in nature, both theories consider individuals' daily activities and their proximity to others as factors influencing victimization and delinquency. When applying these theories, recent studies have found that a relationship between victimization and delinquency does exist. These findings support the routine activity theory's prediction that there is a relationship between involvement in delinquent activities and the risk of victimization. However, as a result of limited research, the exact magnitude of the relationship remains unclear.

Of the few studies considering the relationship between victimization and delinquency among youths, differences in operational definitions and methodology have contributed to the nebulous understanding. For example, Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) and Lauritsen, Sampson and Laub (1991) differ in their operational definitions. Both studies use a composite measure of similar items to define victimization and delinquency.

However, there are differences in their identification of lifestyle variables. Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) examine birth year, race, family structure, gender, and neighborhood descriptors. Lauritsen et al. (1991) consider the following variables to be part of the lifestyle influence: age, gender, family structure and income, and ecological proximity to crime. The inclusion of the variable of race in one study and of income in the other demonstrates the disparity in the operational definition of lifestyle variables.

In addition to disparities in operational definitions, Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) and Lauritsen et al. (1991) used different methodologies. Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) analyze specific data from a survey of youths 11-15 years old residing in a high-risk neighborhood who provided self-reported measures of victimization and delinquency. In contrast, Lauritsen et al. (1991), analyze data from the National Youth Survey (NYS) for "the effects of delinquent lifestyles on the criminal victimization of teenagers and young adults" (Lauritsen et al. 1991: 265). That a limited group of youths is interviewed for one particular study and national survey data is used for the other study is an example of how methodological differences may contribute to variations in the impact of variables.

Also contributing to the uncertainty of the relationship between victimization and delinquency are limitations of data. Baker, Mednick, and Carothers (1989: 338), explain this limitation as a "lack of hard data permitting a more definitive study." Lauritsen et al. (1991: 287) acknowledge the lack of "better measures and/or additional variables." Others complain that data are "sporadic and incomplete" (Garofalo, Siegel, and Laub 1987: 337). Inadequate data, together with the methodological and conceptual discrepancies, have provided a limited understanding of the importance of the relationship between victimization and delinquency among youths.

This study replicates and expands upon the model proposed by Jensen and

Brownfield (1986). Although Jensen and Brownfield use data from both the 1981 Monitoring the Future (MTF) study and self reported data, this research will analyze only data from the 1997 MTF study and a greater number of delinquency variables will be considered. Specifically, in contrast to Jensen and Brownfield (1986), survey items addressing drug use will be considered as part of the delinquency factor. There is evidence that the use of illegal substances impacts the relationship between victimization and delinquency among youths (Esbensen and Huizinga 1991). Despite the limitations of their study, Jensen and Brownfield (1986) provide an overall design and methodology that are commendable for the examination of the relationship between offending and victimization among adolescents. Therefore, with the exception of a more inclusive consideration of delinquency elements, this study will parallel Jensen and Brownfield (1986).

In addition to examining the relationship between delinquency and victimization among youths, this research explores the "inadequate measurement of explanatory variables" (Sampson & Lauritsen 1993:14) prevalent in previous research. Empirical research often employs social demographics to imply lifestyle activities. For example, among the lifestyles variables considered by Cohen, Cantor, and Kluegel (1981) are age, race, income, and household size. A common assumption is that these "demographic variables are indirect indicators of various aspects of lifestyle" (Garofalo 1987: 31). Seldom are genuine activities such as school attendance, employment, community involvement, and church attendance considered in the determination of routine lifestyle involvement. This research examines these specific activities, as well as social demographics in an attempt to determine which characteristics impact the relationship between victimization and delinquency among juveniles.

The following questions will be addressed in this study:

- 1.) What is the extent of the correlation between delinquent behavior and being victimized among adolescents?
- 2.) What type of lifestyle impacts the involvement of adolescents in delinquency and victimization?
- 3.) Which demographic elements impact the involvement of adolescents in delinquency and victimization?

There is research that provides insight into answers for these questions. However, the application of the available knowledge to the adolescent population is difficult because much of the obtained knowledge has been with adult subjects or with consideration of single lifestyle elements. There is only sparse literature defining this relationship with adolescents as the subjects (Jensen and Brownfield 1986; Riley 1986; Baker et al. 1989; Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen et al. 1991). This current research does suggest that there is a relationship between deviant behavior and being victimized (Sampson and Lauritsen 1990; Esbensen and Huizinga 1991). Yet, of the research employing lifestyle routines there is little agreement on specific activities that impact the relationship between delinquency and victimization. Various activities, singled out or considered in arbitrary combinations with others, have been suggested to be of influence by single researchers. For example, Cohen and Felson (1979) acknowledge that the risk of personal victimization was greater when alone than when in a group and Maxfield (1987) found that those members of a single-parent household experienced more victimization. This disagreement may be attributed to the lack of a clear understanding and availability of lifestyle variables. In examining the variety of routine activities available in the MTF data set this research will attempt to address such

shortcomings. The following chapters of this thesis examine several theories of delinquency and victimization among youths, the methodology of this study, analysis of the data, and a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The extent of the relationship between delinquency and victimization among youths remains ambiguous as a result of limited comprehensive examination. Although juvenile delinquency has been extensively examined, much of the research on victimization has focused on adults, ignoring young people and the potential link between delinquency and victimization. The few studies that have examined the delinquency and victimization of youths have provided incomplete understanding, often as a result of theories employing a limited number of variables. This chapter examines the theories and research associated with the relationship between delinquency and victimization. The next section of this chapter develops a theoretical framework for examining the relationship.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Many theories have been applied to the understanding of the relationship between delinquency and victimization. However, subculture and lifestyle/routine activity theories have guided the limited empirical research examining the relationship between victimization and delinquency among youths. Generally, the subculture theories are found in early research examining the delinquency - victimization relationship, whereas, the lifestyle/routine activities theory has only recently emerged. The hypotheses in this study are based on theoretical arguments supported by the subculture theories and the lifestyle/routine activity theory.

Subculture theories hypothesize that delinquent behaviors emerge from within lower class groups, based on economic and social factors, in response to special problems that the members of mainstream society do not face. Among the subculture theories are Cohen's Subculture of Delinquency (1955), Cloward and Ohlin's Differential Opportunity (1960), Wolfgang and Ferracuti's Subculture of Violence (1967), Miller's Lower-Class Focal Concerns (1958), Sykes and Matza's Subterranean Values (1957), Short and Strodtbeck's Group Dynamics (1965), and Sherif and Sherif's Reference Group Theory (1964).

The subculture theory formulated by Cohen (1955) proposes that a shared system of aberrant beliefs provides a group solution for "status frustration" typical among lower class youths. Cohen assumes that delinquency is found disproportionately among lower class boys as a result of their constant exposure to middle class values and their failed attempt to escape the working class. The deviant behaviors are learned in interaction with others and become an outlet for release of frustrations. The lower class boys resort to these behaviors to fulfill goals that are otherwise unattainable by them.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) stress that differential access to legitimate as well as illegitimate means of success exist for various classes. They assert that from these differences come feelings of frustration and poor self-concepts. As a result, three types of subcultures evolve 1) criminal type, 2) conflict type, and 3) retreatist. A criminal subculture produces a gang in which the members are involved in essentially theft type behaviors. A conflict subculture is one in which the members are involved primarily in violent behaviors. A retreatist subculture is characterized by drug related activity. Development of a particular subculture type is influenced by the legal and illegal social structures of the communities where youths live.

Strodtbeck (1965) theorize that adolescents in general form gangs. From within the gangs, specialized criminal activity may occur as a result of the youth's concern for development and maintenance of their reputations. However, instead of the massive criminal subcultures previously identified, Short and Strodtbeck find that the major themes among lower-class gangs is fighting and sexual activity for developing a "rep" or reputation. The criminal subculture is a result of a smaller group from within the gang specializing in this activity.

From the general subculture theory, Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) propose that within society a subcultural value system advocates the use of violence and other criminal behaviors not condoned in the dominant culture. According to this theory, a person can coexist in different subcultures as long as the tension between the values is tolerable to the individual. Subcultures reinforce violence by emphasizing the low probability of sanctions and promising high status to those able to conform to the shared aberrant system of beliefs.

Walter Miller (1958) proposed the Lower Class Focal Concerns Theory as an explanation for juvenile delinquency based upon his study of the lower class area of Boston in 1955. Contrary to other subculture theorists, he concluded that juvenile delinquency was not rooted in the middle-class value system, but in values or "focal concerns" specific to a lower-class social group. Specifically, Miller found that female-headed households, which are more common in lower-class neighborhoods, are a primary reason for the emergence of adolescent male street gangs. Adolescent males, who lack a stable adult role model, join gangs that follow the focal concerns prevalent in their lower class communities.

Sykes and Matza (1957) theorize that delinquents possess subterranean adult value

systems that allowed them to drift between seeking thrills and behaving irresponsibly to conformity. Thus, delinquency is “the result of vacillation within a juvenile between the conforming expectations of adults and the peer-dominated, situational demands and opportunities that encourage delinquency” (Shoemaker, 1996:147). Adolescents justify delinquent acts through techniques of neutralization. Sykes and Matza (1957) detail the five techniques of neutralization used to rationalize delinquency before or after it is committed; 1) denial of responsibility, in which delinquents fail or refuse to take blame for the offensive behaviors; 2) denial of injury, in which the offenders deny that their behaviors caused physical or economical injury or harm to anyone; 3) denial of a victim, in which the offenders explain that the injury or harm caused by their behavior was deserved; 4) condemnation of condemners, in which others are disapproved as hypocrites or deviants and therefore acceptable victims; and 5) appeal to a higher authority, which suggests that the delinquent acts are committed in compliance with the norms and values of a salient subcultural group are more binding than societal norms.

Sherif and Sherif (1964) examine the behaviors of adolescent boys in relation to their reference group or the peer group that they belong to or aspire to belong. They find that adolescent boys are inclined to form groups with others who share their values. The attitudes and behaviors of the group members are reinforced or condoned by the other members based upon the recognized value system of the group. With this feedback from group members, individuals derive their sense of belonging to the group. Furthermore, delinquent events are most prevalent in situations when youths lack adult supervision.

Overall, subculture theorists believe that it is this sense of belonging that prompts delinquent subculture to influence youths. In response to economic and social factors, adolescents find themselves isolated from mainstream society. As a result, they form

alliances with others who possess the same norms, values and belief systems.

Subcultural ideas, along with the lifestyles/routine activities theory, will be employed in this study to examine the relationship between delinquency and victimization.

Lifestyle / Routine Activities Theory

The lifestyle/routine activities theory has only recently emerged as a major theory examining the relationship between victimization and delinquency. The theory, a result of two separate but very similar perspectives, Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo's (1978) Lifestyle Theory and Cohen and Felson's (1979) Routine Activities Theory, suggests that crime is a result of rational choices made by actors in particular social situations.

A foundation for the lifestyle/routine activity theory was formed when Hindelang examined lifestyles in the context of *Criminal Victimization in Eight American Cities* (1976). In this examination, Hindelang examined the relationship between criminal victimization and an individual's lifestyle. Then in 1978, Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo detailed a theory that hypothesizes that there is a relationship between the lifestyles of individuals and their vulnerability to victimization. They focus on time spent in public places, interactions with offenders, and other characteristics affecting the convenience, desirability, and vincibility of people as targets. By analyzing survey data, they identify demographic characteristics as influencing the lifestyles associated with victimization. Although not identified as having a direct causal link, demographic factors were recognized as "indicators of the structural constraints and role expectations that shape lifestyle" (Garofalo 1987: 26) and criminal involvement.

Cohen and Felson (1979) propose a similar theory, a routine activity approach. Through an analysis of crime rate trends from 1947 to 1974 and the interaction with

changes in routine activities of Americans, they conceptually define routine as

any recurrent and prevalent activities which provide for basic population and individual needs, whatever their biological or cultural origins. Thus routine activities would include formalized work, as well as the provision of standard food, shelter, sexual outlet, leisure, social interaction, learning, and child rearing (593).

They acknowledge that routine activities have moved from the home since World War II and with this shift there has been a "significant increase in the direct-contact predatory crime rates" (1979: 594). Cohen and Felson hypothesize, and their findings support, that an increase in crime can be attributed to the convergence of motivated offenders and suitable targets and the absence of capable guardians. They conclude "routine activities may indeed provide the opportunity for many illegal activities to occur" (1979: 604).

The Lifestyle/Routine Activities theory has evolved since the early formulation of Hindelang et al. (1978) and Cohen and Felson (1979). The two models, lifestyle theory and routine activities theory, are very similar: both associate routine lifestyle activities with criminal behavior, are sociological in nature and emphasize the "impact of variations in availability of suitable targets and capable guardians" (Jensen and Brownfield, 1986: 86) to predict criminal involvement. The motivation of the individual is ignored in both models. As a result of their similarities, the lifestyle and routine activities models are often used interchangeably as the lifestyle/routine activities theory, as will be done in this research.

Together the components of subcultural theories and lifestyle/routine activities theories are the foundation for this research. As previously described, both theories consider a combination of individuals' daily activities and their proximity to others as factors influencing victimization and delinquency. However, the lifestyle/routine activities theory emphasizes an individual's exposure to crime as a result of various daily

activities while the subcultural theories emphasizes affiliation and proximity to others. In this examination of the relationship between victimization and delinquency among adolescents, both perspectives are equally enlightening. The elements of the theories will be used to understand and explain the relationship. The next sections of this chapter discuss previous applications of the theories, pertinent concepts, obstacles to empirical understanding, and the hypotheses of this research.

EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

The relationship between delinquency and victimization among adolescents has only recently received significant attention. Criminologists have traditionally studied crime and victimization as two separate subjects. However, in the last two decades researchers have begun to examine the relationship between criminality and victimization. Consequently, the research examining this relationship is scant, the operational concepts are vague, and obstacles to understanding remain.

Historical Foundation

Wolfgang conducted the first systematic studies of victim involvement in crime in the late 1950s. By analyzing victim-precipitated homicides over a 4-year period, Wolfgang (1957, 1958) theorizes that victims play a role in their own victimization. Wolfgang finds that 37 percent of homicides are a result of trivial arguments, 13 percent followed domestic arguments, and 11 percent involved disputes among lovers. Clearly, Wolfgang concludes, victims contribute to their victimization by participating in aggressive events.

After Wolfgang's studies, research examining the link between victims, their involvement in the victimization and their relationship with the offender faded in the

1960s. Thornberry and Figlio (1974) next examine the relationship between delinquency and victimization by analyzing self-reported measures of victimization and delinquency and arrest data. Although they do not find a relationship between the types of offending and the types of victimization, their findings do suggest that the behaviors of juveniles can be "typified by both commission of and victimization by various kinds of mild assaults and property offenses" (Thornberry and Figlio 1974: 109).

Employing the subculture of violence theory, Singer (1980), under Wolfgang's supervision, examines the relationship between criminality and victimization. Singer hypothesizes that the presence of a subcultural normative system that advocates retaliation increases the likelihood that an individual will alternate between being a victim and an offender. He tests this hypothesis by reexamining the birth cohort data originally analyzed by Wolfgang, Figlio, and Sellin (1972). After controlling for various lifestyle factors, Singer concludes that the "subculture theory should not be confined to looking at criminal conduct as simply a product of frustration with dominant culture values" (1981: 133). Instead, Singer suggests that the so called "subcultures" that form among lower class youths "may not be just a means for confronting their difficulties with middle-class life, but may be for the simple protection and security that the gangs afford against the hazards of lower-class life" (1981: 134). Members in the subcultures, according to Singer (1981), alternate between being offenders and victims.

Singer (1986), in a later test of the subculture theory, supports a reciprocal pattern of victimization and criminal behavior. An analysis was conducted of self-reported data, official offense, and victimization records which were originally collected in the follow-up to the study "Delinquency In A Birth Cohort" (Wolfgang et al. 1972). Victimization involving "serious assault with a weapon" (Singer 1986: 63) and "serious assault or theft

with injury" (Singer 1986: 63) are measured. Despite controlling various demographic and offense characteristics, Singer (1986) finds that of those subjects who report being victims of serious violence, more than two-thirds also report being involved in serious offense. Singer summarizes that the "best predictor of committing an act of violence is being the victim of serious violence" (1986: 66). In conclusion, he suggests that the possession of violent values facilitate the individual's oscillation between criminality and victimization.

Jensen and Brownfield (1986) use self-report data and the 1981 MTF survey to examine the relationship between delinquency and victimization. They find that "those activities that are most strongly associated with victimization involve the recreational and social pursuit of fun" (1986: 92). They also note that delinquent activity is positively related to victimization.

Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) examine the relationship between delinquency and victimization among youths aged 11-15 years old who reside in high-risk neighborhoods. Like Thornberry and Figlio (1974) and Jensen and Brownfield (1986), Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) use self-reported measures of victimization and delinquency to evaluate the relationship. Census, police, and demographic data describe the neighborhood. From their analysis, the researchers note that rates of victimization varied significantly by gender, age and family living arrangements. Males report more victimization than females. Younger children are least likely to report personal victimization as are children living in two parent households. Family living arrangements have little impact on reports of property victimization, however. Further examination reveals a relationship between delinquent activities and victimization. Juveniles who experienced high levels of victimization are involved in more delinquency and those adolescents who reported no

involvement in delinquent behavior report less victimization. Alcohol and drug uses are also considered to be a criminal activity that contributes to victimization. Youths who drink alcohol and use marijuana experience higher rates of victimization. In conclusion, Esbensen and Huizinga (1991: 215) suggest "that the probability of being victimized is substantially greater if one engages in delinquent behaviors."

Sampson and Lauritsen (1990) apply the lifestyles/routine activity theory to explain the connection between victimization and offending. The data originate from the British Crime Survey (BCS) and provide geographic, demographic, lifestyle, personal behaviors, and victimization information. From these data, Sampson and Lauritsen (1990) identify a strong relationship between criminal behavior and victimization. Risk of victimization is also found to increase when alcohol is involved.

Lauritsen et al. (1991) examine the relationship between delinquent lifestyles and criminal victimization by a longitudinal study using the first five waves of the National Crime Survey (NCS). Variables such as delinquent involvement, geographic proximity to crime and demographic factors such as age, race, gender, family structure, and income are considered. From these data, delinquents are almost four times as likely to be assaulted than non-delinquents. Lauritsen et al. (1991) also examined the effects of adolescent involvement in pro-social activities and alcohol and drug use. They conclude that adolescents involved in pro-social activities are less likely to be involved in delinquency. The research found little effect of alcohol and drugs use on victimization risk, contrary to previous research.

Lauritsen, Laub and Sampson revisit the relationship between adolescent lifestyles and victimization in a 1992 study. Realizing that one of the weaknesses in this field of study has been the use of "indirect indicators (i.e., sociodemographic

characteristics)" (1992:93) of lifestyles, Lauritsen et al. (1992) employ the National Youth Survey (NYS) and the Monitoring The Future (MTF) series to obtain more relevant variables. From these data sets, variables are extracted which directly address delinquency, victimization, and a variety of adolescent activities. Generally, the analysis of NYS and MTF data supports previous findings, that delinquents are more than three times as likely to be victimized than non-delinquents. Further analysis describes how delinquent behaviors correlate with assault victimization and how those who engage in non-delinquent activities are less likely to be victimized. However, when background characteristics and delinquency measures are controlled, Lauritsen et al. (1992) do not find an association between drugs and alcohol use with assault risk. In concluding their research, Lauritsen et al. (1992) suggest that "lifestyle/routine activity theories which were originally developed to explain patterns of victimization need to be explicitly connected with theories of offending in order to provide a more complete explanatory model of victimization risk among youth" (1992: 101).

Obstacles to Empirical Understanding

Victimization research among youths has been limited because most of the assumptions are drawn from victimization research conducted with adults. This discrepancy presents a dilemma in that there are obvious differences between the routine activities of adults and young people as indicated by their responsibilities within society. Adults must maintain employment for the purpose of obtaining subsistence as well as recreation for themselves and their dependents. Often their routines become regimented with a regular schedule that permits few diversions. For example, a single mother may see her children off to school in the morning before rushing to her job. She reverses the

activities in the evening. On the other hand, adolescents, although they are relegated to school attendance, are not usually required to be employed full time. Additionally, the typical youngster is able to divert from his/her routine without much notice. For example, there is often unstructured time before, during, and after a school day for many youths when they may be tempted into various activities. During the weekends, adolescents are often provided only general boundaries for determining the extent of the activities they will pursue while their parents tend to the tasks of being caregivers. These differences in the routine activities of adults and young people foretell the problem with borrowing assumptions from one population to another. Another obstacle in the examination of the relationship between victimization and delinquency is the lack of adequate data measuring victimization, delinquency and lifestyles variables. Prior to the development of large-scale victimization surveys in the early 1970s, such as the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) and the British Crime Survey (BCS), few data were available for the analysis of victimization. Thus, the NCVS and the BCS, despite their limitations, have become main sources of victimization data.

The NCVS and the BCS have several significant limitations although they are routinely used to examine victimization and occasionally the relationship between victimization and criminality. One important limitation of the surveys is that they focus on adults, so relatively little data pertaining to youths is available. The NCVS does gather information for any person 12 years and older. However, the validity of these data is questionable because of the proxy interview method used to obtain the information. Furthermore, the survey fails to acknowledge variations between the activities of youths and adults (Lauritsen et al. 1991). Additionally, the data collected only addressed victimization and basic demographic issues such as age, gender, marital status, and

income. Attention was seldom given to data pertaining to lifestyle activities. These limitations restrict the application of the data sets to the examination of the relationship between victimization and delinquency among youths.

Despite the limitations of the BCS, Sampson and Lauritsen (1990) suggest that this survey has advantages over the previously mentioned surveys and, therefore, has been employed in victimization studies. The primary advantage of the BCS for testing the lifestyle/routine activity theory is the comprehensiveness of the personal and lifestyle data. In addition to questioning the respondent's involvement in criminal activities and victimization, daily activities and alcohol and drug use are measured.

Although several studies have employed the BCS and the NCVS to examine the relationship between adult criminality and victimization (Hindelang 1976; Hindelang et al. 1978; Cohen et al. 1981; Gottfredson 1986; Laub 1990), the NYS and the MTF study are the data sources of choice for the examination of youths (Jensen and Brownfield 1986; Lauritsen et al. 1991; Menard and Elliott 1993). Both the NYS and MTF surveys were originally designed to measure drug use and delinquency among adolescents. In addition to demographic information, both question the respondents about involvement in conventional and adventuresome activities. Yet, despite their similarities in content, the NYS and the MTF are "regarded as complementary sources of information" (Menard and Elliott 1993) because of differences in sampling design, questionnaire structure, and method of administration.

HYPOTHESES

Based on the theoretical framework and the relevant literature review (Wolfgang 1957,1958; Thornberry and Figlio 1974; Singer 1980; Jensen and Brownfield 1986;

Sampson and Lauritsen 1990; Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen, et al. 1991; Lauritsen, et al. 1992), the following hypotheses will be tested:

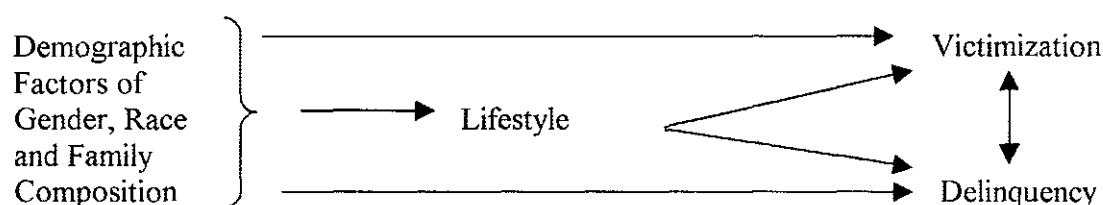
1. Delinquency and victimization are positively related. According to the above-mentioned studies, there is positive correlation between delinquency and victimization.
2. Among adolescents there is a positive correlation between participation in adventuresome lifestyles and the rate of delinquency, which in turn positively correlates with victimization. Based on the lifestyle theory, an adolescent who does not participate in structured activities reduces their guardianship and increases their exposure and opportunities of victimization.
3. Among adolescents, there is an inverse correlation between participation in conventional lifestyles and delinquency, which in turn positively correlates with victimization. The lifestyle theory predicts that a person's risk of victimization is directly related to the types of activities one routinely follows. Adolescents who routinely participate in activities at home, school, church or other organizations experience increased guardianship as well as reduce their contact with offenders. Therefore, these adolescents decrease their participation in delinquent behaviors and thus their vulnerability for victimization.
4. Males, more than females, will have higher rates of delinquency and thus victimization. According to U.S. Department of Justice (1991) and the subcultural theories, adolescent males are at a higher risk of violent victimization. Therefore, if a positive correlation exists between delinquency and victimization, males will have higher rates of correlation between delinquency and victimization.
5. Black, more than White adolescents, will have higher rates of delinquency and in turn victimization. Black males, being at high risk among juveniles for violent victimization

(U.S. Department of Justice 1991), will have a corresponding high rate of delinquency.

6. Adolescents from single-parent households, when compared to adolescents from two-parent households, will have higher delinquency which in turn positively correlates with victimization. The impact of family living arrangements on delinquency and victimization has been examined extensively. Some research, Esbensen and Huizinga (1991) for example, has found that household composition does impact a youth's involvement in delinquency and victimization.

A model of the theoretical argument is presented in Figure 1. The model proposes a positive correlation between delinquency and victimization that may be explained by the lifestyle activities of youth. Demographic variables of gender, race, family composition are introduced as controls that influence lifestyles and the offender-victim relationship.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



This chapter examined the theoretical basis, the relevant literature exploring the relationship between delinquency and victimization, the obstacles to understanding this subject that remain, and the hypotheses of this study. The following chapter describes the methodology for this study, including a description of the data set, operational definitions for all variables, and the statistical procedures employed in this research.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The focus of this research is the correlation between delinquency and victimization among adolescents. Specifically, this research explores the link between delinquent behaviors and victimization among high school seniors. Lifestyle activities, controlling for selected demographic characteristics, will be considered in an attempt to examine the relationship between delinquency and victimization among adolescents. This chapter contains a description of the data set, definitions and measures of the dependent, independent, and control variables, as well as the statistical procedures to be employed in this research.

DATA SET

Data from the Monitoring the Future (MTF) Project 1997 was employed in the examination of the research hypotheses. The MTF project, initiated to evaluate drug use and related attitudes among youths, is an annual national survey of adolescents which also explores changes in many important values, behaviors, and lifestyle orientations from one group of students to another. This longitudinal survey, begun in 1975 and conducted by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research, gathers information on a broad range of subjects from a random sample of high school students in the United States. Initially, the survey was conducted with 12th-grade students only. In 1991, 8th and 10th-grade students were added. Survey participants are selected through a multi-stage, area, probability sample design involving three selection stages: 1) geographic areas or primary sampling units (PSUs), 2) schools within PSUs, and 3) students within sampled schools.

Approximately eighty PSUs are used. Local field representatives are assigned according to each PSU to administer the data collection. In major metropolitan areas more than one high school is included in the sample; in most other areas a single high school is sampled. Within the selected schools, random samples of seniors are drawn in schools with more than 400 seniors. In schools with less than 400 seniors, all seniors are asked to participate. Students are asked to provide self reported responses to survey items. In 1997, the MTF data set yielded 15,963 respondents with an overall response rate of 83 percent. All respondents answered the "core" questions pertaining to drug use and demographic variables (Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley 1995). However, the survey was divided into six forms, each addressing different issues. The survey items employed in this study, those addressing deviant behaviors and victimization, were presented on only one form of the survey and, therefore, answered by one-sixth or 2,684 of the respondents.

Limitations of the Data

There are limitations in the design of the MTF survey that may prevent full representation of the population. Most apparent are the self-report style questionnaire and the exclusion of a portion of the targeted population as noted below. Intrinsically, the self-report style questionnaire is limiting and may be biased if respondents are not candid. In the MTF survey, the respondent is asked a question and provided with possible answers. Responses, outside of the parameters of the answers provided, are left undetected. Additionally, interpretation of the questions and answers are left to the respondent's interpretation and if the purpose of the study is not understood the questions may be threatening and possibly answered inaccurately or left unanswered. The latter

point is particularly disconcerting with regards to questions pertaining to illegal acts. Of course, it is also possible that some persons lie.

The exclusion of a portion of the targeted population is a limitation acknowledged by the sociologists conducting the MTF study (Johnston et al. 1995). The biggest part of the population that is excluded consists of those student who have dropped out of or are not attending school. The survey directors estimate that over the duration of the study between 15 and 20 percent of the age cohort has been excluded annually for this reason. They acknowledge that this segment of the cohort tends to have higher rates of drug use and delinquency. However, they comment that the observed changes from one year to the next are likely to parallel those of students not included. They go on to argue that the inclusion of this segment of the cohort would be costly.

Other limitations include the refusal of schools to participate and failure to obtain 100 percent response rate from sampled students. Schools, when invited, agree to participate in the survey 66 percent to 80 percent of the time. When schools refuse to participate, other schools similar in size, geographic area and urbanicity are invited to participate, to counteract biases in these areas. However, a school's refusal to participate may present other biases. For example, Johnston et al. (1995) explain that if most schools with big drug problem refuse to participate, the estimates of drug use are biased.

To substantiate the validity of the data, Johnston et al. (1995) offer that a number of factors provide them confidence. Among these factors are the consistently low or high response rates on sensitive questions such as those addressing illicit drug use, the consistency of findings across the years, strong evidence of construct validity, a close match between data, the findings from other studies using other methods, and the findings

from several methodological studies which have used objective validation methods. There is also validation in the data in that some of the questions have been presented for years and an ongoing process of question writing, pilot testing, pre-testing, revision and elimination has been used.

VARIABLES: DEFINITIONS AND MEASUREMENTS

There are two dependent variables, delinquency and victimization with the focus of this research examining the correlation between these two variables. The independent variable consists of two lifestyles scales. The control variables are the demographic characteristics of gender, ethnicity, and family composition.

Dependent Variables

Delinquency is operationalized by a composite measure of 24 items pertaining to an adolescent's involvement in theft, assault, vandalism and traffic violations (Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen et al. 1992). Additionally, 14 items addressing the use of a variety of illegal drugs (Esbensen and Huizinga, 1991) serves as part of the delinquency measure. Survey items included in the delinquency factor are presented in the Appendix, Section A.

Similarly, victimization is a composite measure of 7 items which describe how often during the last 12 months respondents had experienced robbery, property damage, and assault (Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen et al. 1992). Survey items included in the victimization factor are presented in the Appendix, Section B.

To establish scales for delinquency and victimization, each survey item was re-coded into two values, no involvement = 0 and any involvement = 1. For each respondent, the delinquency and victimization items, respectively, were summed to form Likert scales. The possible range, for the delinquency scale is 0 to 38, and the possible range for the victimization scale is 0 to 7.

Independent Variables

Routine activity/lifestyle theory suggests that youth act within a web of forces compromising lifestyles that propel them to commit delinquency or experience victimization or impede them from doing so. Two lifestyle scales, conventional and adventuresome, were created to be consistent with the routine activity perspective as stated by Cohen and Felson (1979). A conventional lifestyle consists of activities that reduce offending motives, prevent a person from becoming a suitable target, and occur under the supervision of a capable guardian. The conventional lifestyle scale was formed by summing the values given to the responses for survey items 1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, and 18 as detailed in Table 1 as well as in Section C of the Appendix.

Although the absolute values of each item varied depending on the particular activity, a low value indicated less participation and a high value more participation. All of the items in the conventional lifestyle range from 1 to 5 except for items 1 and 18 which range from 1 to 4 and 1 to 7 respectively. A total scale score is obtained by summing the scores of each of the 10 items. The conventional lifestyle scale ranges from 10 to 51.

Table 1 Conventional Lifestyle Scale

Item #	Survey Item	Low Value	High Value
1	How often do you attend religious services?	1	4
6	How often do you participate in community affairs or volunteer work?	1	5
7	How often do you play a musical instrument?	1	5
8	How often do you do creative writing?	1	5
9	How often do you actively participate in sports, athletics, or exercising?	1	5
10	How often do you do art or craft work?	1	5
11	How often do you work around the house, yard, garden, car, etc.?	1	5
14	How often do you spend at least an hour of leisure time alone?	1	5
15	How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers?	1	5
18	About how many hours do you spend in an average week on all your homework including both in school and out of school?	1	7
Total of Scale Range		10	51

A similar process was followed to construct an adventuresome lifestyle scale based upon the activities that increase the likelihood of becoming an offender or victim and occur outside the supervision of capable guardians. An adventuresome lifestyle consists of activities that increase offending motives, increase a person's likelihood of becoming a suitable target, and generally occur with minimal or no supervision of a capable guardian. The adventuresome lifestyle scale was formed by summing the values given to the responses for survey items 2, 3, 4, 5, 12, 13, 16, 17, and 19 as detailed in Table 2 as well as in Section C of the Appendix. The absolute values of the survey items varied depending on the particular activity, however, a low value indicated less participation and a high value more participation. All of the items in the adventuresome lifestyle range from 1 to 5 except for item 2, which ranges from 1 to 6. A total score is obtained by summing the scores of each of the 9 items. The adventuresome lifestyle ranges from 9 to 46.

Table 2 Adventuresome Lifestyle Scale

Item #	Survey Item	Low Value	High Value
2	During a typical week, on how many evenings do you go out for fun and recreation?	1	6
3	How often do you go to rock concert?	1	5
4	How often do you go to the movies?	1	5
5	How often do you ride around in a car (or motorcycle) just for fun?	1	5
12	How often do you get together with friends, informally?	1	5
13	How often do you go shopping or window- shopping?	1	5
16	How often do you go to tavern, bars, or nightclubs?	1	5
17	How often do you go to parties or social affairs?	1	5
19	How often do you go to video arcades?	1	5
Total of Scale Range		9	46

Scale Reliability

Computing coefficient alpha assessed scale reliability. Reliability estimates were .78, .68, .59, and .69 for the delinquency, victimization, conventional lifestyle, and adventuresome lifestyle, respectively. These data suggest that each of the scales is adequately reliable in measuring the variables.

Control Variables

The control variables of gender, ethnicity, and family composition were examined to determine their impact on lifestyle as well as the relationship between delinquency and victimization. Gender is defined as male or female and coded as male = 0 and female = 1. Ethnicity is defined and coded, in terms of the respondent's self-description, as White = 0 or Black = 1. Family composition was evaluated in consideration of the social impact on the relationship between delinquency and victimization, with the primary emphasis on the presence or absence of two-parents. For this study, family composition is coded as two-parents = 1 and single-parent/other = 0 (Esbensen & Huizinga 1991).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical package SPSS is used to analyze the data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics examine the correlation between delinquency and victimization. Specifically, analysis included measures of central tendency, standard deviations, scale reliability, correlation, and linear regression. The next chapter examines the results of the study examining the relationship between delinquency and victimization of youth. The final chapter contains a discussion of the implications of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The subcultural and the lifestyle/routine activity theories as well as the previous research cited in Chapter 2 predict a positive correlation between delinquency and victimization. Furthermore, it is expected that an individual's lifestyle and demographic factors influence the relationship. The results of the analysis of the Monitoring the Future data presented in this chapter lend support to this understanding.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

The Monitoring the Future project gathered information from a broad range of persons. The persons who comprise the sample of respondents whose information is analyzed in this thesis are described by the data in Table 3. Forty-eight percent is male and 80 percent is white. Most of the respondents, 70 percent, are from two-parent households; 23 percent is from single parent households, and 7 percent is from households with neither a female or male guardian. Fifty-three percent is 18 years-old and older.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of the Respondents

Variable		Percent of Population
GENDER	Male	48
	Female	52
RACE	White	80
	Non-White	20
FAMILY COMPOSITION	Two-parent	70
	Single-parent	23
	No guardians	7

HYPOTHESES TESTING

The next section of this chapter examines the data to test the research hypotheses. The statistics concern both delinquency and victimization. Initially, the focus will be on the delinquency and victimization scales with a closer examination of specific items following.

Delinquency and Victimization

Hypothesis 1 states that delinquency and victimization are positively related. Consistent with this hypothesis, the data shown in Table 4 show a positive and statistically significant relationship between delinquency and victimization with a Pearson correlation coefficient of .341. Approximately 12 percent of the variance in victimization is accounted for by delinquent behaviors. The relevant data are not shown, but they are available upon request.

Pursuing an adventuresome lifestyle shows a slightly higher correlation with delinquency of .357. This association supports Hypothesis 2, which predicts that among adolescents there is a positive correlation between participation in adventuresome lifestyles and the rate of delinquency. While the relationship between victimization and adventuresome lifestyle and delinquency are positive, leading a conventional lifestyle is inversely related to delinquency as expected from Hypothesis 3. The correlation coefficient is -.163. In other words, participating in a conventional lifestyle may slightly inhibit delinquency, but a more important influence on engaging in delinquency is following an adventuresome lifestyle.

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 state that delinquency is related to gender, race, and family structure. Males commit more delinquency than females, Blacks adolescents more than Whites and youths from single-parent families are more delinquent than youths from two-parent families. The data do support these hypotheses, as the correlation between gender and delinquency is in the direction predicted. While gender, race, and family composition are significantly inversely related to delinquency, the associations are weak with correlations of -.115, -.053, and -.063 respectively. Thus, the data indicate that adolescent males do commit crimes more than adolescent females, Black adolescents commit more than Whites and youths from single-parent families are more delinquent than youths from two-parent families. The data support the hypotheses. The relationships between gender, race, and family composition will be explored more in depth, later in this chapter.

Table 4 Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Selected Variables and Delinquency

	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
VICTIMIZATION	.341**	.000	1844
CONVENTIONAL LIFESTYLE	-.163**	.000	1423
ADVENTURESOME LIFESTYLE	.357**	.000	1811
GENDER	-.115**	.000	1833
RACE	-.053*	.037	1517
FAMILY COMPOSITION	-.063*	.006	1856

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Victimization

As noted above, there is a significant, moderate relationship between delinquency and victimization. Persons who are victims are also more likely to commit delinquent acts. Victimization is also positively related to leading an adventuresome lifestyle. The

correlation, .222, is statistically significant. However, while the conventional lifestyle variable is inversely associated with being a victim as predicted by Hypothesis 3, the value of -.039 is very weak and not statistically significant. It seems that becoming a victim requires one to be in public, “risky” situations. Additionally, the factors of being a male or from a single-parent household are significantly associated with victimization but the correlation coefficients are inverse. This correlation suggests that adolescent males are less likely the victims of crimes than adolescent females and adolescents from single-parent families are not victims of crimes more than persons from two-parent families. Race has a weak positive correlation with victimization but is not significant suggesting that this is not associated with victimization for these respondents. The data are in Table 5.

Table 5 Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Selected Variables and Victimization

	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
DELINQUENCY	.341**	.000	1844
CONVENTIONAL LIFESTYLE	-.039	.109	1667
ADVENTURESOME LIFESTYLE	.222**	.000	2337
GENDER	-.219**	.000	2461
RACE	.016	.483	1977
FAMILY COMPOSITION	-.062**	.002	2495

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In further examining the relationship between delinquency and victimization, two additional bi-variate correlation analyses were performed. The first analysis was of the specific survey items comprising the victimization scale and total delinquency scale. The second analysis was of the specific survey items comprising the delinquency scale and the total victimization scale. All of the survey items comprising the victimization scale proved to be statistically significant and positively associated with delinquency, although the

correlations are not high, as shown by the data in Table 6. For these juveniles being delinquent is associated with being a victim regardless of the type of victimization. The survey items measuring direct personal victimization provide higher coefficients. That is, when the crime situation brings the offender and victim into confrontation the correlation between delinquency and victimization is greater.

Table 6 Survey Items of the Victimization Scale Correlation with Delinquency

Victimization Scale Item	Pearson Correlation
During the last 12 months, how often has something of yours (worth under \$50) been stolen?	.189**
During the last 12 months, how often has something of yours (worth over \$50) been stolen?	.121**
During the last 12 months, how often has someone deliberately damaged your property?	.139**
During the last 12 months, how often has someone injured you with a weapon (like a knife, gun, or club)?	.283**
During the last 12 months, how often has someone threatened you with a weapon, but not actually injured you?	.293**
During the last 12 months, how often has someone injured you on purpose without using a weapon?	.247**
During the last 12 months, how often has an unarmed person threatened you with injury, but not actually injured you?	.223**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

All of the survey items comprising the delinquency scale were statistically significantly correlated with victimization. As shown by the data in Table 7, the survey items measuring violent delinquency show the highest correlation with victimization. The three offenses involving “a serious fight,” “a gang fight,” and hurting “someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor” have the highest correlation coefficients of .311, .302, and .351 respectively. Offenses involving theft also tend to be greater than .200. Additionally, although there is a direct correlation between victimization and receiving a ticket for driving behaviors, all of the survey items pertaining to receiving tickets or warnings after using various illegal substances are inversely related to victimization.

These data imply that illegal driving behaviors are associated with being victimized, however, in combination with the use of illegal substances they are not associated with victimization. The relevant data are not shown, but they are available upon request.

Table 7 Select Survey Items of the Delinquency Scale Correlation with Victimization

Delinquency Scale Item	Pearson Correlation
During the last 12 months, how often have you gotten into a serious fight in school or at work?	.311**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken part in a gang fight where a group of your friends were against the other group?	.302**
During the last 12 months, how often have you hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor?	.351**
During the last 12 months, how often have you used a knife or gun or some other thing (like a club) to get something from a person?	.236**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something not belonging to you worth under \$50?	.277**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something not belonging to you worth over \$50?	.241**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something from a store without paying for it?	.229**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken a car that doesn't belong to someone in your family without permission from the owner?	.191**
During the last 12 months, how often have you taken part of a car without permission from the owner?	.230**
During the last 12 months, how often have you gone into some house or building when you weren't supposed to be there?	.278**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Adventuresome Lifestyle and Delinquency

The finding of a statistically significant positive correlation between adventuresome lifestyle and delinquency (.357) is consistent with Hypothesis 2 which states that among adolescents there is a positive correlation between participation in adventuresome lifestyles and the rate of delinquency, which in turn positively correlates with victimization.

A statistically significant positive correlation between adventuresome lifestyle and victimization (.222) is also found. Multiple regression was performed to examine the simultaneous and relative influence of the several independent variables on delinquency.

The variable victimization was not included. The inclusion of victimization implies causality between delinquency and victimization and the Lifestyle/Routine Activity Theory recognizes that the correlation need not imply causality. The results of an OLS analysis to explain delinquency, presented in Table 8, also support Hypothesis 2. In the multiple regression model of delinquency, the adventuresome lifestyle provides the highest beta (.288) when all variables are considered indicating it is the most influential on delinquency. Another significant beta is also found for conventional lifestyle, (-.150) indicating that it is inversely related to delinquency.

Table 8 Linear Regression Model – Coefficients of Delinquency*

Model 1	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	5.370	.938		5.724	.000
Conventional Lifestyle	-.111	.019	-.150	-5.803	.000
Adventuresome Lifestyle	.266	.024	.288	10.894	.000
Family Composition	-.271	.200	-.036	-1.351	.177
Gender	-.180	.224	-.002	-.080	.936
Race	-.322	.308	-.028	-1.044	.297

*R²= .222

The correlation of the various activities comprising the adventuresome lifestyle with delinquency is examined by the data in Table 9. All of the survey items comprising the adventuresome lifestyle are statistically significant relationships, except the following item: “How often do you go to the movies?” Those activities where reduced guardianship is inherent, and even considered desirable, provide higher correlation. For example, attending parties or social affairs (.333), frequenting taverns, bars, or nightclubs (.287), going out for fun and recreation (.269), and attending rock concerts (.204) show the

highest coefficients. These findings support the lifestyle/routine activity theory and Hypothesis 2.

Table 9 Adventuresome Lifestyle Elements Pearson Correlation with Delinquency

Adventuresome Lifestyle Scale Items	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
During a typical week, on how many evenings do you go out for fun and recreation?	.269**	.000	1854
How often do you go to rock concert?	.204**	.000	1853
How often do you go to the movies?	-.035	.131	1858
How often do you ride around in a car (or motorcycle) just for fun?	.187**	.000	1857
How often do you get together with friends, informally?	.194**	.000	1852
How often do you go shopping or window- shopping?	.060*	.010	1852
How often do you go to tavern, bars, or nightclubs?	.287**	.000	1854
How often do you go to parties or social affairs?	.333**	.000	1858
How often do you go to video arcades?	.138**	.000	1860

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Conventional Lifestyles and Delinquency

The data in Table 4 and 8 above, and Table 10 to follow also support Hypothesis 3, which states that among adolescents, there is an inverse correlation between participation in conventional lifestyles and delinquency, which in turn positively correlates with victimization. A statistically significant inverse correlation is found to exist between conventional lifestyles and victimization (-.163) as shown in Table 4. Also supporting an inverse relation between delinquency and a conventional lifestyle is the linear regression model in Table 8 providing a beta of -.150. The correlation of the various activities comprising conventional lifestyle and the delinquency variable is presented in Table 10. Overall, the majority of the activities comprising conventional lifestyle are statistically significant and inversely correlated with delinquency. Activities that do not involve youth with other persons do not appear to be related to delinquency. These items: 1) "How

often do you do creative writing?” 2) “How often do you do art or craft work?”, and 3) “How often do you spend time at least an hour of leisure time alone?” have extremely low and non-significant coefficients with delinquency. Consistent with the lifestyle/routine activity theory, the conventional lifestyle items with the highest possible associations with delinquency are activities in which adolescents would experience increased integration with guardians as well as reduced contact with offenders. These items include the following: 1) “How often do you attend religious services?”, 2) “How often do you participate in community affairs or volunteer work?”, 3) “About how many hours do you spend in an average week on all your homework including both in school and out of school?” Although the last activity may be a solitary activity the nature of the act is to tie the youth to a stable community institution. The correlation of these items in conjunction with the lifestyle/routine activity theory supports Hypothesis 3.

Table 10 Conventional Lifestyle Elements Correlation with Delinquency

Conventional Lifestyle Scale Item	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
How often do you attend religious services?	-.199**	.000	1537
How often do you participate in community affairs or volunteer work?	-.143**	.000	1857
How often do you play a musical instrument?	-.058*	.012	1853
How often do you do creative writing?	-.011	.626	1851
How often do you actively participate in sports, athletics, or exercising?	-.048*	.039	1857
How often do you do art or craft work?	.021	.361	1853
How often do you work around the house, yard, garden, car, etc.?	-.077**	.001	1858
How often do you spend at least an hour of leisure time alone?	.024	.308	1858
How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers?	-.050*	.032	1858
About how many hours do you spend in an average week on all your homework including both in school and out of school?	-.176*	.000	1768

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Gender and Delinquency

The bivariate statistically significant correlation of gender and delinquency presented in Table 4 as well as the linear regression models of delinquency summarized in Table 8 support Hypothesis 4, which states that male, more than females, will have higher correlation of delinquency and thus victimization. The bi-variate correlation between gender and delinquency is $-.115$ and the linear regression models of delinquency provides $b = -.002$. These low outcomes of analysis support a weak inverse relationship between gender and delinquency suggesting that being a male does correlate higher with delinquency and victimization. Hypothesis 4 is support by these analyses.

However, because a statistically significant correlation exists between adventuresome lifestyle and delinquency and victimization, this finding of an inverse relationship between gender and delinquency was further examined. Linear regression analyses were performed for males and females, to examine their participation in particular lifestyles, related to delinquency as shown in Table 11 and 12. These models predict that males who participate in adventuresome lifestyles have a slightly higher coefficient with delinquency ($b = .360$) than females who participate in adventuresome lifestyles ($b = .332$). These data support Hypothesis 4.

Table 11 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of Males

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	4.117	1.383		2.977	.003
LADVENT	.357	.037	.360	9.611	.000
LCONVENT	-.120	.031	-.145	-3.882	.000

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which GENDER = .00

Table 12 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of Females

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	5.413	.970		5.582	.000
LADVENT	.273	.028	.332	9.854	.000
LCONVENT	-.101	.021	-.160	-4.738	.000

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which GENDER = 1.00

Race and Delinquency

The findings of the correlation and a linear regression model support Hypothesis 5, which states that Black, more than White adolescents, will have the higher rates of delinquency and thus victimization. Due to the limitation of the data set, Black youths could only be compared to White youths. In this comparison a statistically significant negative correlation ($-.053$) between delinquency and race was found, as shown in Table 4. These data suggest that White youths were less delinquent than Black youths. Data in Table 5 suggest that White youths have a positive correlation with victimization ($.016$), although not statistically significant. The linear regression models, as shown in Table 13 and 14, expound upon this relationship. These data indicate that White youths who participate in adventuresome lifestyles have the highest rate of delinquent behaviors even when compared to Black youths who participate in adventuresome lifestyles, $b = .357$ to $b = .234$, respectively. Participation in conventional lifestyles by both White and Black youths produces low standardized coefficients, $b = -.190$ and $b = .063$, respectively. These data partially support Hypothesis 5.

Table 13 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of White Youths

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	(Constant)	B		Beta			
	(Constant)	5.099	.997			5.115	.000
	LADVENT	.339	.027	.357		12.609	.000
	LCONVENT	-.142	.021	-.190		-6.722	.000

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which RACE = .00

Table 14 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of Black Youths

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	(Constant)	B		Beta			
	(Constant)	2.947	1.882			1.566	.119
	LADVENT	.189	.057	.234		3.304	.001
	LCONVENT	4.205E-02	.047	.063		.886	.377

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which RACE = 1.00

Family Composition and Delinquency

Hypothesis 6 states that adolescents from single-parents households, when compared to adolescents from two-parent households, will have higher delinquency, which in turn positively correlates with victimization. The data shown in Table 4 and Table 8 above do not support this hypothesis. The correlation between single parent (-.063) in Table 4 and the beta (-.036) in Table 8 suggest that being an adolescents from a single-parent households has a significant inverse correlation with delinquency. These finding contradict Hypothesis 6 and suggests that there is not relation between family composition and lifestyle and delinquency.

Because a statistically significant correlation exists between adventuresome lifestyle and delinquency and victimization, this finding of an inverse relationship between household composition and delinquency was further examined. Linear regression analyses

were performed examining delinquency and the predictability of respondents from various household compositions and their participation in particular lifestyles, as shown in Table 15 and 16. These models predict that adolescents from single-parent households will have an increased involvement in adventuresome lifestyles and delinquency ($b = .349$) as compared to conventional lifestyle and delinquency ($b = -.110$). Adolescents from two-parent households will have similar involvement in conventional lifestyle and delinquency ($b = .352$) as compared to adventuresome lifestyle and delinquency ($b = .330$). These findings indirectly support Hypothesis 4 in that a statistically significant correlation between adventuresome lifestyles and delinquency is evident.

Table 15 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of Single-Parent Households

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.667	1.714		2.140	.033
LADVENT	.322	.051	.349	6.334	.000
LCONVENT	-7.272E-02	.039	-.102	-1.851	.065

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which FMLYCOMP = 1.00

Table 16 A Linear Regression Model for Delinquency Examining Standardized Coefficients of Two-Parent Households

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	5.211	.986		5.285	.000
LADVENT	.301	.027	.330	11.356	.000
LCONVENT	-.117	.021	-.162	-5.552	.000

a Dependent Variable: DELNQNT

b Selecting only cases for which FMLYCOMP = 2.00

In sum, analysis of the Monitoring the Future data has supported the several hypotheses examined in this thesis. A positive significant relationship between delinquency

and victimization is found. It can be concluded that adolescents with higher degrees of participation in conventional lifestyles have less involvement in delinquent activities and, thus, victimization. Adolescents with high degrees of participation in adventuresome lifestyles have increased delinquency and, thus, victimization. The impact of demographic elements is also observed; gender, race and family composition influence the involvement of delinquency and victimization.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This research examines the relationship between delinquency and victimization among adolescents with consideration for lifestyle and demographic influences. Employed in this examination are the subcultural and lifestyle/routine activities theories. This chapter elaborates the findings presented in the previous chapter. Additionally, the implications of the research as well as recommendations for future examinations are presented.

FINDINGS

The study was designed to answer three broad questions and test six hypotheses. The first question “What is the extent of the correlation between delinquent behavior and being victimized among adolescents?” is addressed in detail in Chapter 4 (Table 4 through Table7). This research agrees with previous findings (Jensen and Brownfield 1986; Singer 1986; Sampson and Lauritsen 1990; Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen et al. 1992). Analysis of the 1997 MTF data set supported the existence of a statistically significant correlation between delinquency and victimization with a Pearson correlation coefficient of .341. Those adolescents who participate in delinquency are likely to have increased risk of being victimized. For example, those respondents who answered that they had “hurt someone badly enough to need a bandage or a doctor” were likely to be the same adolescents who responded positively to the survey item addressing the frequency that “someone has injured you on purpose without using a weapon.” Enhancing this finding of a correlation between delinquency and victimization was the fact that all of the items used

to comprise the opposing scales were statistically significant correlates. This fact suggests that even single acts of delinquency increase the likelihood of victimization.

The second question, “What type of lifestyle impacts the involvement of juveniles in delinquency and victimization?”, is also addressed in Chapter 4. Two lifestyle types, conventional and adventuresome, are considered. Participation in a conventional lifestyle is found to be a statistically significant inverse correlate with delinquency ($-.163$) and participation in an adventuresome lifestyle is found to be a statistically significant positive correlate with delinquency ($.357$). These findings suggest that adolescents are less likely to participate in delinquency and, thus, victimization when they engage in conventional activities, or those activities in which a person is prevented from becoming a suitable target, the offending motive is reduced, and guardianship is increased. On the other hand, adolescents who participate in adventuresome activities, or those activities that increase offending motive, increase a person’s likelihood of becoming a suitable target, and occur with minimal supervision, have higher involvement in delinquent activities and thus victimization. Furthermore, those adventuresome activities in which reduced guardianship is inherent and desirable provide the highest correlation with delinquency.

The third question, “Which demographic elements impact the involvement of juveniles in delinquency and victimization?”, is considered and presented in Chapter 4. Mixed findings result from the analysis of the demographic variables. Previous findings suggest that gender, race, and family composition impact the relationship of delinquency and victimization (Esbensen and Huizinga 1991; Lauritsen et al. 1991). For the demographic element of gender this research finds that males have higher risk of delinquency and thus increased victimization. When race is examined, previous findings

suggest that black youths will have higher rates of delinquency and victimization. This analysis finds that White youths have lower rates of delinquency than Non-White youths. Yet, when race is examined in line with lifestyle, the findings suggest that participation in adventuresome lifestyles increase their risk of delinquent behaviors for both White ($b = .387$) and Black youths ($b = .233$). With regards to family composition, this research finds that adolescents from single-parent households will have increased involvement in adventuresome lifestyles and, thus, delinquency. Adolescents from two-parent families will have decreased involvement in adventuresome lifestyles and, thus, delinquency.

IMPLICATIONS

With these combined findings the impact of an adolescent's lifestyle is apparent. Youths who are involved in adventuresome activities also have high involvement in delinquency and victimization. As the subculture and lifestyle/routine activity theories predict, involvement in activities in which there is reduced guardianship and increased contact with offenders increases an individual's risk of delinquency and victimization. This understanding can be employed in the effort to reduce the involvement of adolescents in the national crime picture. A component of this effort should be to make available opportunities for conventional activities. According to the findings of this and previous research, this would likely reduce the involvement of youths in delinquency and thus victimization.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The research of the relationship between delinquency and victimization with consideration for lifestyle variables is in its relative infancy. This research contributes to development of the understanding of this subject. However, more research is needed to clearly understand the nature of the relationship between delinquency and victimization. Multiple recommendations are made with regards to future examinations of the relationship between delinquency and victimization among adolescents, including the following: 1) collect more inclusive data, 2) explore multiple levels of influence, and 3) continue to formalize the operational definitions of conventional and adventuresome.

Specifically, future research should include the collection of data addressing the issues surrounding this relationship as well as a more diverse consideration of lifestyle activities and individual and community demographic factors. This recommendation is grounded in the belief that multiple levels of factors influence the activities of an adolescent and to consider these factors inclusively would aid in identifying casual relationships. Also aiding in the search for exact causal relationships would be the continued tweaking of the operational definitions of lifestyle types. For example, specific qualifiers would aid in the categorizing of lifestyle activities. Perhaps addressing these recommendations will enhance the understanding of the relationship between delinquency and victimization among adolescents.

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APPENDIX

SURVEY ITEMS

Section A

The measure of delinquency includes the following items:

During the last 12 months,

1. How many times have you received a ticket (or been stopped and warned) for moving violations, such as speeding, running a stop light, or improper passing?
2. How many of these tickets or warnings occurred after you were drinking alcohol beverages?
3. How many of these tickets or warnings occurred after you were smoking marijuana or hashish?
4. How many of these tickets or warnings occurred after you were using other illegal drugs?
5. How many of these accidents occurred after you were drinking alcohol beverages?
6. How many of these accidents occurred after you were smoking marijuana or hashish?
7. How many these accidents occurred after you were using other illegal drugs?
8. During the last four weeks, how many whole days of school have you missed because you skipped or cut?
9. During the last four weeks, how often have you gone to school but skipped a class when you weren't supposed to?
10. During the last 12 months, how often have you argued or had a fight with either of your parents?
11. During the last 12 months, how often have you hit an instructor or supervisor?
12. During the last 12 months, how often have you gotten into a serious fight in school or at work?
13. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken part in a gang fight where a group of your friends were against the other group?

14. During the last 12 months, how often have you hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor?
15. During the last 12 months, how often have you used a knife or gun or some other thing (like a club) to get something from a person?
16. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something not belonging to you worth under \$50?
17. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something not belonging to you worth over \$50?
18. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken something from a store without paying for it?
19. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken a car that doesn't belong to someone in your family without permission from the owner?
20. During the last 12 months, how often have you taken part of a car without permission from the owner?
21. During the last 12 months, how often have you gone into some house or building when you weren't supposed to be there?
22. During the last 12 months, how often have you set fire to someone's property on purpose?
23. During the last 12 months, how often have you damaged school property on purpose?
24. During the last 12 months, how often have you damaged property at work on purpose?

The measures of alcohol / drug use include the following:

1. On how many occasions have you had alcoholic beverages to drink – more than just a few sips during the last 12 months?
2. On how many occasions (if any) have you used marijuana (grass, pot) or hashish (hash, hash oil) during the last 12 months?
3. On how many occasions (if any) have you used LSD (“acid”) during the last 12 months?

4. On how many occasions (if any) have you used psychedelics other than LSD (like mescaline, peyote, psilocybin, PCP) during the last 12 months?
5. On how many occasions (if any) have you used cocaine (sometimes called “coke”, “crack”, “rock”) during the last 12 months?
6. On how many occasions (if any) have you taken amphetamines on you own – that is, without a doctor telling you to take them during the last 12 months?
7. On how many occasions (if any) have you taken barbiturates on you own – that is, without a doctor telling you to take them during the last 12 months?
8. On how many occasions (if any) have you taken tranquilizers on your own – that is, without a doctor telling you to take them during the last 12 months?
9. How many times have you used heroin during the last 12 months?
10. On how many occasions (if any) have you taken narcotics other than heroin on your own – that is without a doctor telling you to take them during the last 12 months?
11. On how many occasions (if any) have you sniffed glue, or breathed the contents of aerosol spray cans, or inhaled any other gases or sprays in order to get high during the last 12 months?
12. On how many occasions (if any) have you smoked (or inhaled the fumes of) crystal meth (“ice”) during the last 12 months?
13. On how many occasions (if any) have you used PCP during the last 12 months?
14. On how many occasion (if any) have you taken steroids on your own – that is, without a doctor telling you to take tem during the last 12 months?

Section B

The measure of victimization includes the following items:

1. During the last 12 months, how often has something of yours (worth under \$50) been stolen?
2. During the last 12 months, how often has something of yours (worth over \$50) been stolen?

3. During the last 12 months, how often has someone deliberately damaged your property?
4. During the last 12 months, how often has someone injured you with a weapon (like a knife, gun or club)?
5. During the last 12 months, how often has someone threatened you with a weapon, but not actually injured you?
6. During the last 12 months, how often has someone injured you on purpose without using a weapon?
7. During the last 12 months, how often has an unarmed person threatened you with injury, but not actually injured you?

Section C

Lifestyle variables include the following items:

1. How often do you attend religious services?
2. During a typical week, on how many evenings do you go out for fun and recreation?
3. How often do you go to rock concerts?
4. How often do you go to the movies?
5. How often do you ride around in a car (or motorcycle) just for fun?
6. How often do you participate in community affairs or volunteer work?
7. How often do you play a musical instrument?
8. How often do you do creative writing?
9. How often do you actively participate in sports, athletics, or exercising?
10. How often do you do art or craft work?
11. How often do you work around the house, yard, garden, car, etc.?
12. How often do you get together with friends, informally?

13. How often do you go shopping or window-shopping?
14. How often do you spend at least an hour of leisure time alone?
15. How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers?
16. How often do you go to tavern, bars, or nightclubs?
17. How often do you go to parties or social affairs?
18. About how many hours do you spend in an average week on all your homework including both in school and out of school?
19. How often do you go to video arcades?

Section D

Demographic variables include the following items:

1. In what year were you born?
2. What is your sex?
3. How do you describe yourself?
4. Which of the following people live in the house with you?
 - a. Father (or male guardian)
 - b. Mother (or female guardian)

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