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**FAMILY STRUCTURE AND ATTACHMENT AND  
THEIR ROLE IN REDUCING DELINQUENCY  
IN THE AFRICAN AMERICAN FAMILY**

**by**

**Kiesha Warren**

**A Dissertation  
Submitted to the  
Faculty of The Graduate College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
Department of Sociology**

**Western Michigan University  
Kalamazoo, Michigan  
August 2002**

**FAMILY STRUCTURE AND ATTACHMENT AND  
THEIR ROLE IN REDUCING DELINQUENCY  
IN THE AFRICAN AMERICAN FAMILY**

**Kiesha Warren, Ph.D.**

**Western Michigan University, 2002**

**The study uses data from the over sampling of African American youth (4,808) from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health to explore the relationship between family structure, attachment and their role in reducing delinquency. Using the element of attachment from Hirschi's (1969) social control theory, this study examines the historical development of the various family structures and the role attachment plays in reducing delinquency in those family structures. The study uses structural equation modeling to test this hypothesis. This study shows that when attachment is present regardless of the family structure delinquency will be reduced.**

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Most often we are told of situations in our schools where a teacher spends most of his or her work day dealing with one student who has a chronic discipline problem. When discussing the root cause of this child's behavior, the need for discipline is usually wrongly identified as a flaw in the household structure. Mrs. Jones has expelled Johnny from school twice this semester because he has stolen Jennifer's lunch money. When a discussion occurs as to why Johnny is stealing, it is immediately associated with the fact that he lives with his mother and aunt. The fact the Johnny has no contact with his father is wrongly labeled as the cause of his delinquency. When discussing the root cause of delinquency among African American youth, scholars often use the lack of two parent family structure as the cause (Matsueda & Heimer, 1987).

This study will call such perceptions into question through an investigation of the relationship among structures of African American families, delinquency, and attachment. This will be accomplished by first examining which of the variety of African American family structures have evolved from slavery to the structures that exist today. Secondly, I will argue that these structures have been mislabeled and devalued. From there, I will review the role of the various family structures, as well as discuss the historical development of the different family structures. The role that

attachment plays in reducing delinquency, regardless of family structure, will also be examined.

During the period of slavery, slave owners quickly recognized that a key mechanism to keeping slaves in line was the manipulation of family structures. This took place by allowing marriages for slaves who were obedient and hard working, and by selling of the family members of those who were not (Gutman, 1976). When slaves were allowed to marry individuals of their choice, most often the marriages took place between individuals who lived on different slave plantations (Martin & Martin, 1978). Often the married couple only spent time together when it was allowed by their overseers. To the slave owner, the children produced by these unions represented more wealth, both in their ability to help with the work or to be sold. Consequently, to have a structured household where the child was in daily contact with both parents was difficult, and there is no evidence that the children were likely to have an emotional connection to the parent (most cases the father) who was not living in the household.

After the Civil War, African Americans migrated from the South to the North (Stevenson, 1996). Because of the economic collapse of the South, a second wave migration occurred. However, this involved efforts of ex-slaves to solidify their families (Billingsley, 1992). In many cases, they searched for relatives with whom they had been separated by slavery or the war (Stevenson, 1996). The first major migration, labeled "the Great Exodus," saw 60,000 African Americans move northward to Kansas, Missouri, and Ohio (Billingsley, 1992). During this time, ex-slaves attempted

to establish various family structures despite adverse conditions (Billingsley, 1992).

Maintaining an intact family structure and attempting to establish economic stability after slavery were major concerns for ex-slaves. The migration to the North and West presented challenges for the family structure and family system in the African American community. Geographic mobility had an impact on the families left behind, as well as the Northern African American communities that they helped to develop. The African American family has endured disruptions of its structure since its arrival in the United States and at the same time the family has been able to survive in a positive manner both during and after slavery (Gutman, 1976).

Since the post-civil war period, the family structures have not changed significantly nor have many of the societal conditions associated with those family structures (Billingsley, 1968). One issue present in the post-war era that can be seen today is the lack of available African American men for marriage (Staples, 1985). While African American women may select a mate on the basis of a number of attributes, a minimum prerequisite is gainful and regular employment (Staples, 1985). The 2000 census showed that 34% of working age black males were unemployed (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). Among the major causes of male unemployment are the changes in the workforce; automation and foreign competition have eliminated a large number of jobs in the industrial communities.

In 1997 there were 2,149,900 African American men under some type of correctional supervision (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002). In the 1980s the government began to put into place mandatory sentencing guidelines. Most often these

guidelines were meant to deal with drug crimes resulting in the highest number of incarcerated African American men in this nation's history (Hill, 1998). Most of the African American men in this category are serving sentences that require them to spend most of their adult lives in prison, in effect, taking them out of the marriageable pool.

During the 1960s, the sexual revolution set in place a new set of standards with regard to sexual morals. This highly sexualized period-via media, clothing, alternative life-styles such as communes and living with sexual partners without the legal/moral sanctions of marriage served notice to most U.S. youth that nonmarital sexual relations were acceptable (Staples, 1985). The consequences of these young people's sexual behavior was often pregnancy. This trend has continued today with a high number of teenage and out-of-wedlock births. In fact, single-mother households increased from 3 million in 1970 to 10 million in 2000, while the number of single-fathers has grown from 393,000 to 2 million (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000).

The literature on the relationship between family structure and delinquency tends to examine family structure in terms of a dichotomy between the nuclear family and all other family types (Skol-Katz, 1993). Little attention is given to individuals who live in the various other family structures and the roles that they can play in keeping youth from taking part in delinquent acts. Few examine the role that familial attachment plays in reducing delinquency regardless of family structure (Hirschi, 1969).

Much of the attention that is given to the African American family emphasizes its lack of intact (two parent) structure in comparison to nuclear European American



families that are presented as the norm in U.S society. Taylor, Jackson and Chatters (1997) state:

A tradition of research focusing on simple race differences in family structure and function characterized African American families as deviant from European American, middle-class norms. The basic unquestioned assumption was that there was a model form that was preferred and regarded as ideal. The major contribution of African American scholars of the family has been to question key assumptions of what is normative for families across cultural groups and to offer new paradigms and models for understanding the nature of African American family life. (p. 3)

There are two explicit purposes of this research. One is to re-assess the family structures that exist within the African American community as distinct social constructs apart from a comparison to the idealized of the European American family norm. I will argue that the family structures that exist within the African American community are functional and serve the needs of the family in significant ways. The second purpose of the study deals with the link between the family structure and delinquency. Much attention has been given to the lack of intact African American families as the cause of delinquency among African American youths (e.g., Hill, 1998). My purpose is to demonstrate empirically that, when youth are attached to an individual in the household, regardless of who that individual is or their particular family structure, they will be less likely to take part in delinquent acts.

### Significance of the Study

Sociological studies of the African American family are often complicated by the fact that comparative analysis frequently produces an unfortunate end result in terms of labeling; one of the comparison groups becomes categorized as deviant while

the other is classified as normal (Matsueda & Heimer, 1987). A tradition of research focusing on simple racial differences in family structure and function has characterized African American families as deviant compared to the white, middle class norm (McAdoo, 1997). Most often the group that is labeled deviant is the minority group. Using a sample of one cultural group with variations results in the elimination of the tendency to label in terms of race.

This study will also permit extensive study of the African American family allowing for the diversity (i.e., family structure, SES, etc.) within this diverse group. This will be accomplished by using a theoretical perspective that allows for various African American family structures to be examined from a holistic perspective as opposed to the pathology perspective taken by most social scientists (Hill, 1998). The holistic perspective will also allow for the African American family to be studied in a manner that recognizes that not all families operate and function in the same manner. The holistic perspective suggests that alternative family structures serve a positive role in African American families (Hill, 1998).

This study will also challenge the historical statistical analyses that have focused only on race as a salient issue, and not acknowledged other socio-cultural issues (e.g., education, and class, and so on). By studying the socio-cultural issues that contribute to the African American family structure and delinquency, the root causes of delinquency can be detected.

## Overview of the Study

The goals previously described will be accomplished in this project in five chapters. Chapter I has been an introduction to the literature related to African American family structure and delinquency. Chapter II includes a review of the literature related to perspectives of the African American family, family structure, social control, and delinquency, and concludes with research questions and hypotheses. Chapter III defines the methods and analytic techniques used in this study. Specifically, this chapter begins with a description of the data set used along with a specific discussion of how that data are organized and analyzed. Chapter IV offers an analysis of the Structural Equation Models to answer the research questions and hypotheses identified in Chapter II. Finally, Chapter V concludes by providing a summary and discussion of the findings of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature reveals a need to examine the various African American family structures and how they impact delinquency. In Travis Hirschi's (1969) *Causes of Delinquency*, he examines the role that social bonds play in reducing delinquency. According to Hirschi (1969), family structure has no impact on the relationship between social bond and its role in reducing delinquency. This literature review explores Hirschi's study as it relates to the development of African American family structures and attachment to individuals who exist within the family structure. I will also review studies which challenge Hirschi's (1969) findings when his theory is applied to African American families.

#### Perspective on the African American Family

The unique features of African American families have been interpreted and evaluated in two primary ways. Through the first perspective, the African American family is viewed as deviant. Researchers in this tradition describe African American families as being plagued by "disorganization and pathology" (Frazier, 1932, p. 32; Moynihan, 1965). Researchers who use the second approach describe the African American family as an expression of cultural resilience and strength that has survived

and coped despite the social, political, and economic hardships in the U.S. studies representing each of these perspective-- the pathological and the resilient--will be reviewed and summarized.

### Pathology

E. Franklin Frazier adopted a perspective of pathology. As one of the first sociologists to study the African American family, *The Negro Family* (1932), he identified the African American family as disorganized and unstable, conditions resulting from slavery. He argued that slavery was the cause of certain dysfunctional family features that continue to undermine the stability and well-being of African American families. The feature that Frazier identified as the most detrimental is the African American matriarchal family system, where a female is the head of household. According to Frazier (1932), “ the matriarchal family system resulted from slavery and the living conditions of rural Southern life, which weakened the economic position of African American men and their authority in the family” (p. 45). Frazier felt that this family structure produced pathological outcomes within the family unit such as high rates of poverty, illegitimacy, crime, delinquency, and other problems associated with the socialization of African American children. Because Frazier perceived a direct relationship between economic resources and the matriarchal family system, he felt that there was a strong need for African American men to become leaders in the household. He suggested that improvements in the economic position of African American men would allow them to take the lead in the household, resulting in the

family conforming to the normative (i.e., European American) family pattern.

Frazier's (1932, 1940, 1962) studies of the African American family served as the mark for comparison for much of the later work on the African American family (Staples, 1971).

The next large-scale study that situated the African American family as pathological was conducted by Daniel Patrick Moynihan (1965), former U.S. Assistant Secretary of Labor. Moynihan wrote a report for President Lyndon Johnson on the African American family entitled, *The Negro Family: The Case for National Action* in 1965. Known as the *Moynihan Report*, the document used 1950 census data to test Frazier's theory and further extend Frazier's study by analyzing the Post-World War II migration patterns of Southern poor African Americans to the North. Like Frazier, Moynihan described the African American family as unstable and marked by high levels of unemployment among urban African American males and severely strained adaptive capacities of men and women (i.e., high numbers of single-parent households) (Gutman, 1976). Moynihan asserted that the inability of the African American male to gain and maintain employment strained his ability to be a productive father and husband, and as a result, often retreated from the household and family unit. This retreat often took one of two forms-- complete abandonment or leaving the household to secure gainful employment in other parts of the country (Stevenson, 1996). The absence of African American males in the household led to the loss of family stability which, in turn, resulted in social problems for the African American community. In this sense, social problems were defined as delinquency, welfare dependency, and

poor scholastic achievement. He concluded that a “tangle of pathology” existed in the African American community.

### Resilience of the African American Family

The Moynihan Report generated objection from many scholars who felt that the African American family was unjustly examined and criticized (Hill, 1972; Mcadoo, 1997). These scholars noted that many African American families do not share the same core set of values as do European American families; consequently, when this is not acknowledged the African American family is not accurately interpreted (Blake & Darling, 1993). The major difference that exists in the core values of European Americans and African Americans is that African American families are more willing to show an interdependence or communal cooperation born out of the necessity of providing a living (Blake & Darling, 1993).

The majority of the researchers who tested the pathology hypotheses either argued for modifications or rejected it altogether. Billingsley (1968) and others (Hill, 1972; Guttman, 1976) found little support for this hypothesis, regarding disorganization and dysfunctional African American families with matriarchal tendencies. In contrast, these researchers suggested that (a) lack of access to economic resources led to greater role flexibility among African American men and women, (b) egalitarian families (all family members share equally in the maintenance of the family), and (c) other alternative family structures are common in this cultural group (Taylor, Chatters, Tucker & Lewis, 1989). These researchers concluded that the African

American family is not pathological or deviant, but resilient (Blake & Darling, 1993; Hill, 1972; Mcadoo, 1978).

Part of the effort to define the African American family as resilient included recognizing the characteristics of strong African American families. Family strengths, defined as those relationship patterns, interpersonal competencies, and social psychological characteristics that create a sense of positive family identity, were seen to be present in African American families (Blake & Darling, 1993). This definition of family strengths allows flexibility so that when certain emotional components are in place, the family is seen as having the capacity to survive.

*Black Families in White America* (1968), written by Andrew Billingsley, *The Strengths of Black Families* (1972) by Robert Hill, and *The Black Family in Slavery and Freedom* (1976), written by Herbert Gutman, all represent studies reflecting the strength and resilience of African American families. In these books, using census data from 1960 and 1970, the authors present family histories and anecdotal examples as evidence to demonstrate that the African American family was a strong functioning organization that not only survived slavery, but was able to adapt and maintain some of its values from its African origins.

Billingsley (1968) identified three features of pre-slavery African family life that survived the disruptive effects of slavery. The first was that marriage was the unity of two families and not just two individuals. In this context, marriage united two families within a network of extended kin who had considerable influence on the family as well as responsibility for the development and well-being of children.



Marriage could not be entered into, or ended, without the support of both families.

The second feature was that African marriages and family life consisted of tradition, rituals and customs. According to Billingsley (1968), these features of the African family have survived through slavery and can be seen in the African American families today. The third and most striking feature of the African family and community was the strong and dominant place in family and society assigned to and assumed by men:

*This strong, masculine dominance, however, far from being capricious authoritarianism, was supported, guided, and limited by custom and tradition, which also provided a substantial role for the women. The children were provided a quality of care and protection not common in modern societies, for they belonged not alone to their father and mother, but also, and principally, to the wider kinship group. (Billingsley, 1968, p. 40)*

Billingsley's conclusion is a direct contradiction of both Frazier's and Moynihan's, studies who had argued that the African American family had no traditions and was labeled as a matriarchy because all vestiges of the African past had been destroyed by slavery. Billingsley (1968) (and later Gutman, 1976) proved that marriage among slaves was not altogether absent in the United States. Although many slave marriages were at the discretion of the slave masters, some slaves were able to marry the mate they selected.

*In The Strengths of Black Families*, Hill (1972) posed these questions:

1. What are the historical, contemporary and emerging structures of African American family life in America?
2. What are the patterns of functioning which these families have evolved?

In an examination of the literature and 1960 census data on African American families, Hill found that a number of characteristics have been functional for their survival, development and stability. These include strong achievement orientation, strong kinship bonds, strong work orientation, adaptability of family roles, and strong religious orientation. Furthermore, he noted that, “although these traits can be found among European American families, they are manifested quite differently in the lives of African American families because of the unique history of racial oppression experienced by African Americans in America” (p. 36). He argued that the particular forms that these characteristics take among African American families should be viewed as adaptations necessary for survival and advancement in a hostile environment. Hill (1998) also found that kinship relations tend to be stronger among African Americans than European American families as evidenced by the higher frequency in which African American families take relatives into their household. In most cases, these additional relatives are likely to be children rather than adults, but they can be adult relatives as well.

Like Billingsley (1968) and Hill (1972), Herbert Gutman (1976) also set out to disprove the notion that the black family was pathological. His main objective was to argue that during and after the period of slavery the African American family, although disrupted, did adapt by developing alternative family structures as well as maintaining when possible traditional family forms. In his study of three southern counties (Montgomery, York, and Princess Anne in the state of Virginia) which used census data for the years, 1865-1866, Gutman (1976) found that over half of the

compositions of black families consisted of husband, wife, and children. Often the married couple only spent time together when it was allowed by their overseers. It is also important to recognize that, to the slave owner, the children produced by these unions represented more wealth, both because of their ability to help with the work and/or to be sold. Due to this fact, it would be very difficult to have a structured household where the child is in daily contact with both parents, yet there is no evidence that indicates that the child would not have an emotional connection to the parent (most cases the father) who was not living in the household.

### Family Structure

An in-depth understanding of the African American family must begin with a conception and definition of the family. Billingsley (1992) defined the African American family as:

an intimate association of persons of African descent who are related to one another by a variety of means, including blood marriage, formal adoption, informal adoption, or by appropriation; sustained by a history of common residence in America; and deeply embedded in a network of social structures both internal and external to itself. Numerous interlocking elements come together, forming an extraordinarily resilient institution. (p. 28)

Billingsley (1992) identified three family categories, and various family structure types within them, as constitutive of a standard typology of families. Nuclear families, extended families and augmented families constitute the primary family categories, which is shown in Table 1. Within the nuclear family, there are three different family structures (Billingsley, 1968). The first, incipient nuclear family, is

Table 1  
Family Structures

		Mother	Father	Mother & Father	Other Relatives	Friends	Children
Nuclear	incipient			X			
	simple			X			X
	attenuated	X	X				X
Extended	incipient	X	X		X		
	simple	X	X		X		
	attenuated	X	X		X		X
Augmented		X	X			X	X

composed of a husband and wife living in a household with no children. The second is the simple nuclear family which is composed of a husband, wife, and children. This is the family structure that is often considered the ideal family structure and used as a model for comparison with other family types (Billingsley, 1992; Skol-Katz, 1993). It is the traditional family structure for both European and African America families (Billingsley, 1968). This family type also includes blended families or those where one or both spouses bring children from previous marriages into the household. The third nuclear family structure type is the attenuated nuclear family. This family structure consists of a mother or father and children with no other persons residing in the household. This family type is often classified as a broken home, but that term is very misleading when discussing attenuated nuclear family structures because included in the category are persons who never have been married and those who are

widowed. The term *attenuated families* was designed to minimize some of the negative connotations associated with terms such as *broken home*, which suggest that someone important to the family constellation is missing. In all three types of nuclear families, all members in the household are related, either through marriage, birth, or legal adoption.

The second category of family structures is the extended family which is constituted of three family types. The first type of extended family is the incipient extended family. This family has no children of their own and allows other family members to live in the household. The second is the simple extended family, which consists of a married couple with their own children and other relatives. The third family type in the category is the attenuated extended family, which consists of a single, abandoned, legally separated, divorced, or widowed mother or father living with his or her children who also takes in other relatives. Within this category of extended family members, Billingsley (1968) identifies four classes which constitute extended family members: (1) minor relatives, including grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and young siblings under the age of eighteen; (2) peers of parents, including siblings, cousins, and other relatives; (3) elders of the primary parents, including aunts and uncles; and finally, (4) parents who act as the primary heads.

The third category of family structures is the augmented family, which consists of groups of individuals who live in the same household and consider themselves a family but who have no legal or biological relations. This group consists of individuals that make up kin networks. This structure usually begins as a temporary way

of living, but, depending on circumstances, can become more permanent. Typically consisting of single mothers who develop support structures by living together, this structure consists of what Stack (1974) and others call kinship or kin networks. Kin networks, and other forms of familial support, have allowed ethnographic researchers and political activists to argue that the high rates of single parenthood among African Americans are less problematic because intergenerational ties in African American families are strong, and because kin and friend networks as well as family are ready sources of social and economic support (Angle & Tienda, 1982; Stack, 1974).

An examination of the different family structures proves that the African American family is not characterized by one particular family type. In 1999, there were 567,000 augmented African American families in the United States. This accounts for 14% of African American households structures (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). According to 1999 census data, 47% of all African American family structures consisted of a type of nuclear family structure. The data also reported that 39% of African Americans live in some type of extended family household (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000).

Adaptability of family roles in African American families probably developed in response to economic conditions affecting such families (Billingsley, 1992). Due to African Americans' generally lower economic position in society, their families have developed alternative family forms as mechanisms for survival (Durant & Loudon, 1986). One form is in the development of kin networks (Aschenbrenner, 1997; Hill, 1972; Martin & Martin, 1978; McAdoo, 1982; Stack, 1974). Kinship develops when

the primary caregiver seeks support in the emotional and financial support of the family. Persons who are designated as fictive (or pseudo-and para-) kin are unrelated by either blood or marriage but regard one another in kinship terms (Sussman, 1976) and employ a standard cultural topology (likened to blood-ties, sociolegal or marriage ties, and parenthood) to describe these non-kin associations (Rubenstein, 1991). These networks are important sources of informal social support in that extension of kinship status to friend relationship is a means to expand one's social network (Chatters, Taylor, & Jayakody, 1994). This notion is confirmed by the work of Carol Stack (1974) in her book, *All Our Kin*. Stack recognizes that young African American children are born into a network of kin, which is primarily the personal kinship network of those adults responsible for them.

According to Rodney and Mupier (1999), 90% of the black children in 1993 spent part of their childhood in a single-parent, female-headed household. They go on to describe the living arrangements of African American youth by stating that 40% of African American youth lived in a dual-parent family, 41% lived in a single-parent family, and the remaining 18% lived with a parent and an extended family member. This phenomenon is explained by the extended and multigenerational family, which is a family structure that does not limit the membership of the nuclear family (father, mother, and children) to one household. In this extended family setting, often aunts, uncles, or grandparents live together or maintain a strong network of social and economic support among family members (Rodney & Mupier, 1999).

In Rodney and Mupiers' (1999) study of 433 African American youth, half of

the sample reported their father as being absent from the household. In a chi-square analysis they found that there was no statistical significant difference between the sample of father-absence adolescents' and father-present African American adolescents' delinquent behavior. Some researchers (Miller, 1958) suggest that parental absence can contribute to juvenile crime because of inadequate parental supervision. In McCord's (1991) study, consisting of home interviews of 232 boys in Boston, logistic regression was used in the analysis of family structure and delinquency. In her analysis of family structure, the absence of a father in the home was found to have a non-detrimental effect on delinquency. Many researchers (e.g., Schiltz, 1969) also argue that fathers living in the household play a very important role in the development of positive self-esteem.

Despite the many claims that the lack of nuclear family structures in the African American community leads to delinquency, there are also reports that there is a lack of empirical support for the link between father absence and criminal behavior (Rodenry & Mupier, 1999). In her study of African American youth, McCord (1991) found that there was no criminogenic difference in activity based on different family structures. She also found that the possibility of single parenthood causing a negative effect was reduced because of the social and economic support of the extended family. According to Rodeny and Mupier (1999), potential detrimental effects of rearing children in single-parent homes were reportedly minimized by the support from the extended family (Heiss, 1977; Peters & deFord, 1978; Rubin, 1979; Savage, Adair & Friedman, 1978). More important, male adult family members, such as uncles and



grandfathers, served as role models for children whose fathers were not present in the home. What has been viewed by some as a dysfunction is viewed by other researchers in terms of the protective role that these other male adult family members serve in discouraging African American youth from taking part in delinquent acts. The quality of the family relationship is what can serve to protect the youth from being delinquent-- not having a particular individual or structure in the family household (Brown, Hutchinson, Valutis, & White, 1989). Examination of the different family structures that exist and with whom youth report having a close relationship (i.e., attachment) is imperative in understanding the role family plays in African American youth who engage in delinquency.

The African American family has been able to develop the appropriate coping skills to survive and flourish regardless of family structure and class. Parson's (1955) classic analysis of the family as a social system describes the ability of the family to provide the necessary functions to members and nonmembers, as basic to a viable family unit. He states: "Which therefore, operationally defines as family strengths as those traits which facilitate the ability of the family to meet the needs of its members and the demands made upon it by systems outside the family unit" (p. 11). Coping skills are necessary for the survival and maintenance of effective family networks (Billingsley, 1968). Billingsley argues that the traditional two parent family structure is not the only family structure and can offer the social control mechanisms that will keep the family functioning in a positive manner.

## Social Control

Social control theory suggests that human beings engage in deviant behavior because norm violation is attractive and exciting. Individuals are free to engage in deviant behavior because social controls are ineffective (Skol-Katz, 1993). Social control serves to regulate behavior and restrain impulses to take part in deviance. When a family member acts as a social control agent, youths will be less likely to take part in delinquent acts.

The work of Emile Durkheim, the progenitor of social control theory, has had a lasting influence on the theory (Skol-Katz, 1993). It is rooted in the notion of anomie, a term used by Durkheim to describe a “state of normlessness” or a lack of social regulation in a modern society (Skol-Katz, 1993). Anomie in a society is defined as a lack of regulatory constraints necessary for the adequate social control of its members. Durkheim developed his idea in his book *Suicide* (1897), a culmination of nearly 10 years of research and reflection of the use of sociological perspectives to explain human problems. When control can be established and maintained over individuals’ goals and desires, Durkheim (1897) suggests that an anomic condition will result ( see also Sokol-Katz, 1993). Under these conditions, crime can be considered a “normal” response to existing social conditions. When clear rules are not present to guide individuals, they cannot find their place in society and have difficulty adjusting to the changing conditions in life. According to Durkheim (1897), deviance is a normal phenomenon when there is normlessness, and society will always have a certain

number of deviants based on this premise.

Control theorists, like Durkheim, believe that people are basically antisocial and that antisociality is part of the natural order in society (Traub & Little, 1985). Control theorists argue that the most important way to exercise control is through socialization. They assert that deviance helps to preserve social order because the reaction to others' deviance helps to determine what people should or should not do. Solidarity is critical in society; the more integrated people are into society, the more they will feel a part of that society and less likely they are to deviate. Durkheim (1897) went on to use his theory as the basis for his theory of modernization, the progression of societies from the mechanical to the organic form. In the mechanical form, society derives its solidarity from pressure to conformity. To maintain social solidarity, the society must enforce uniformity. The organic society function of law is to regulate the interactions of the parts of the whole society. Inadequate regulations result in social disorder, including crime or anomie.

Durkheim (1897) used his theory to predict that certain things would happen in mechanical and organic societies. First, he believed that punishment of crime would remain fairly stable in mechanical societies, independent of changes in the extent of criminal behavior. Second, as societies made the transition to organic societies in the process of modernization, a greater variety of behaviors would be tolerated, and there would be a vast expansion of functional law to regulate the interactions of the emerging organic society, with punishment becoming less violent as the purpose

changed from repression to restitution. Third, in organic societies, the extent of criminal behavior would increase during rapid social change (Durkheim, 1897).

During the 1950s, theorists such as Toby (1957) and Nye (1958) began to use social control as an explanation for delinquency. Concepts of socialization and personality were incorporated into the theory of social control to provide these explanations. Theorists such as Reiss (1951) suggested that ineffective socialization and missing controls resulted in deviance. According to Reiss, there are two types of control: (1) personal, an internal control where the individual internalizes the values of the group, and (2) external where the group controls the individual's behavior. In addition, Reiss (1951) views deterrence as a type of external social control. According to his framework, people get both personal and social control from their primary groups; consequently, people who commit deviance can only be stopped by using both external social and internal control. Reiss (1951) claimed that delinquency would result from a lack of internal controls developed during childhood and a breakdown of internal controls; as well as an absence of, or conflict with, social rules provided by important social groups as the family, close others, and the school (Reiss, 1951). Reiss's theory provided one of the earliest applications of the concepts of social control to criminology by attributing the cause of delinquency to the failure of personal and social control (Akers, 2000).

Vold, Bernard, and Snipes (1998) suggest that although Reiss's theory influenced later theories of social control, his findings in support of his theory are weak. They argue that a variety of factors related to family and community controls over

juveniles do not predict probation revocation. In fact, the strongest associations were found between probation revocation and the diagnoses and recommendations of the psychiatrists. The association of probation revocation with truancy and school problems was much weaker and can be explained from other perspectives besides control theory. Although Reiss did not find significant empirical support for his theory, his findings provided the basis for continuation for those who wanted to develop the theory of social control.

Social control theory further evolved in its application to deviance with Jackson Toby's (1957) concept of stakes in conformity which is how much a person has to lose when he or she breaks the law. Toby questioned how the theory of social disorganization explained why only a few slum youth actually commit crimes (Toby, 1957). Toby contended that youth take part in delinquent acts because of weak external controls. He introduced the concept of commitment as a determining force in social control. All youth are tempted to break the law, Reiss (1951) asserted, but some youth risk much more than others when they give in to those temptations. Youth who do well in school will not risk being punished by breaking the law. Youth who do poorly in school risk only being punished for breaking the law for their offense because their future prospects are already dim. Thus, they have less to lose when they break the law-- they have a lower stake in conformity (Toby, 1957).

The family was introduced into the relationship between social control and delinquency by Ivan Nye (1958) who suggested that the family is the single most important source of social control for adolescents. Nye (1958) developed the notion

that multiple control factors operate at the same time to determine human behavior. Although there are many types of control factors, Nye emphasizes four. The first type of control factor is direct control which is “imposed from without by means of restriction and punishment” (Nye, 1958, p. 58) and is unlike Reiss’ concept of social control. The second type is internalized control, which is “exercised from within through conscience” (Nye, 1958, p. 60) and is similar to Reiss’ concept of personal control. The third type of control factor is indirect control, which is “related to affectional identification with parents and other non-criminal persons” (Nye, 1958, p. 60). This type of control emphasizes one’s affectional identification, making deviation difficult because it would upset others. This control factor is similar to Toby’s stake in conformity (Skol-Katz, 1993). The final type of control factor which resembles strain theory is goal and need satisfaction, which refers to the availability of alternative means to goals and values (Nye, 1958).

During the time that Nye was developing his theory, Walter Reckless (1962) was beginning to develop his own theory of social control which he referred to as *containment theory*. Reckless’ (1962) containment theory is built on the concept of internal and external control, which he termed *inner* and *outer* containment. The basic proposition in containment theory is that these inner and outer pushes and pulls will produce delinquent behavior unless they are counteracted by inner and outer containment (Reckless, 1962). The outer containment consists of: (a) a role structure which provides scope for the individual; (b) a set of reasonable limits and responsibilities for members; (c) an opportunity for the individual to achieve a status; (d) cohesion

among members, including joint activity and togetherness; (e) sense of belongingness; (f) identification with one or more persons within the group; and (g) provision for supplying alternative ways and means of satisfaction (Reckless, 1962). Reckless described the inner containment as one consisting of “self” components which is composed of: (a) a favorable self image in relation to others, (b) an awareness of being a goal oriented person, (c) a high level of frustration tolerance, (d) strongly internalized morals and ethics, and (e) a strong ego (Reckless, 1962).

According to Reckless (1962), the components of the two containing systems are not causes of deviance but instead act as buffers against deviance. The internal containment is the most important because if the self-concept is bad, outer social controls have little effect on the individual. If the self-concept is good, the individual can withstand weak external control and resist committing delinquent acts.

David Matza (1964) extended the theoretical conversation concerning social control with his contribution of a social control theory that explains why some youth drift in and out of delinquency. He suggests that adolescents sense a feeling of a “bond to the moral order,” which is actually the connection between the person and the law which creates feelings of responsibility and control (Matza, 1964). When this control is missing or weak, adolescents go through a period of drift. Drift occurs when control has been loosened in areas of the social structure, freeing the delinquent to respond to whatever conventional or criminal forces happen to come along. Like Durkheim and other control theorists who study delinquency, Matza (1964) assumes that delinquent acts result when an individual’s bond to society is weakened or

broken. Control theorists assume that the motivation for delinquent behavior is a part of human nature, and that all individuals naturally would commit deviant acts if left to their own devices.

Travis Hirschi's (1969) *Causes of Delinquency* has most fully developed the link among social control, deviance, and bonding. He proposed a comprehensive control theory which asserts that individuals who are tightly bonded to social groups such as family, the school, and peers would be less likely to commit delinquent acts. For Hirschi (1969), the internalization of accepted norms and sensitivity to the needs of others are the central elements in explaining conformity in society (Hirschi, 1969). According to Hirschi (1969), in order for an individual to be bonded to society there needed to be four elements present: attachment, commitment, involvement and belief. The four elements of social bond have a direct impact on an individual's connection to society. If any of the four elements are weakened, so will the bond that keeps the youth from taking part in deviant acts. At the same time Hirschi and others (Matsueda & Heimer, 1987; Skol-Katz, 1996) recognize that the four elements can act as independent agents in reducing delinquency. In other words, it is not necessary for all four elements to be present in order to reduce delinquency.

One of the most important elements of social bond is attachment, which is defined as affection for and sensitivity to others (Hirschi, 1969). Attachment is the basic element or bond that is necessary for the internalization of values and norms. This is the extent to which youth feel they have close affectional ties to others, admire them, and care about the expectations that are set for them (Akers, 2000). For Hirschi



(1969), attachment to parents and parental figures is important in controlling delinquency and maintaining conformity. In fact, Hirschi (1969) states that, “If the bond to the parents is weakened, the probability of delinquent behavior increases; if the bond is strengthened, the probability of delinquent behaviors declines” (p.88). Although Hirschi (1969) emphasizes the attachment between parents (parental figures) and youth as the basic internal bond in attachment, he also recognized that youth can be attached to friends and that institutions such as churches and schools also can act to inhibit deviance.

A second element of social bond commitment is the rational investment an individual has in conventional society and the risk one takes when engaging in deviant behavior. According to Skol-Katz (1993), this form of commitment is similar to Toby’s concept of commitment and can be viewed as the rational component to Hirschi’s theory because the ramifications of deviant acts discourage the behavior. According to Akers (2000), investment in conventional educational and occupational endeavors builds up this commitment. The greater the commitment, the more one risks losing by non-conformity.

The third element of the social bond is involvement in conventional activities. For Hirschi (1969), this variable is based on the common sense observation that “idle hands are the devil’s workshop.” Keeping busy will restrict the amount of time an individual has for delinquent activities. Those involved in conforming activities, such as school, sports, or religion, will have less time for unconventional behavior and thus will be less likely to be deviant (Hirschi, 1969).

The final element of the social bond is belief, or the extent to which people believe they should obey the rules of society. The less individuals believe in conventional norms, the more likely they are to violate them. This element is comparable to Matza's concept of a bond to a moral order. In other words, there is a law-abiding mentality which has respect for the law. Hirschi (1969) tested his theory of social bond with a self-report survey completed by 4,000 high school boys. The questionnaire contained a variety of items related to family, school, and peer relations, as well as six items that served as an index of delinquency. The six questions ranged from stealing money to taking a car without the owner's permission to physically harming a person. Hirschi also used school records and official police records as data for the study. Hirschi found that, in general, there was no relationship between reported delinquent acts and social class. The exception was that children from the poorest families were slightly more likely to be delinquent. He also found only minimal racial differences in self-reported delinquency, although the official arrest rates differed substantially across racial groups. When Hirschi (1969) analyzed the effects of attachment to parents, schools, and peers on reported delinquent acts, he found that, regardless of race, class, or delinquency of friends, boys who were more closely attached to their parents were less likely to report committing delinquent acts than those who were less closely attached. He also found that boys who reported more delinquent acts were less attached to their peers than boys who reported fewer delinquent acts.

Hirschi's (1969) examination of the effects of the other three elements of the

social bond revealed that the educational and occupational aspirations of delinquents were lower than nondelinquents, as were the educational and occupational exceptions (p. 191). These findings are consistent with control theory in that a youth with low aspirations and low expectations has little commitment to conformity. Hirschi (1969) also found that youths who worked, dated, spent time watching TV, reading books, or playing games were more likely to report delinquencies (p. 229). This finding was the opposite of what was expected from Hirschi's theory. He offers no rationale for the unexpected difference. Finally, Hirschi found a strong correlation between reported delinquent activities and statements of agreement, i.e., recognizing that the delinquent act is deemed wrong in the eyes of society.

Of particular relevance to this study was Hirschi's element of attachment. According to Hirschi (1969), family structure has no impact on parental (or parental figure) attachment (p. 96). Regardless of the nature of family structure, if a child is attached to a parent or a parental figure the social bond can be strong and reduce the likelihood of deviance. Rodney and Mupier (1999) state:

It is argued that a child raised in these [various family structures] settings may turn out to be as good, if not even better in some cases, as the child raised in a setting of a nuclear family where both biological parent are presents. This is because it is not the structure itself that causes maladaptive behavior but the relationships within the structure. Thus, the quality of family relationship, including factors such as adequate nurturing, love and support rather than the composition concept. These and other protective factors whether in two-parent or single-parent families, seem to enhance and facilitate children's ability to resist criminal activity. (p. 47)

Three studies have examined the relationship between race and Hirschi's notion of social bond. The first, Covington (1988), examined the relationship between race and

social bonding among adults, controlling in the study for employment status, income, age, and race. She determined that involvement in delinquent activities differed for African American and European American females from that of African American and European American males. She concludes that the difference was due to females' placing a higher value on relational ties than males.

Second, Gardner and Shoemaker (1989) investigated the relationship between race and rural and urban differences in delinquency. In their regression analysis of social bond theory and delinquency they interviewed 733 school age youth (8-17) in Virginia. The investigators found that, regardless of region, the social bonding scale for African Americans was lower than for European Americans. Also, attachment to peers was positively associated with delinquency, while the conventionality of peers was inversely related to delinquent behavior. They also found that components of the social bond had a stronger influence on delinquency for African American than for European Americans.

Weber, Miracle and Skehan (1995) conducted the third study. They examined the relationship between social bonding and race of children in grades 6 and 8. Reliability and validity of social bonding constructs across racial groups were compared. Specifically, this line of research found that indicators of social bond were equally applicable to diverse groups and that family attachment and family belief were the most significant indicators of delinquent actions. Those with a stronger attachment to family and family beliefs were less likely to be delinquent.

Attachment refers to the bonds created between an individual and other

significant people such as peers, teachers, and parents. According to social control theorists (Hirschi, 1969; Nye, 1958), those youth who are strongly attached to parents are less likely to take part in delinquency. Hirschi (1969) posited three major dimensions of parent-child attachment: (1) affectional identification--the love and respect that children have for their parents; (2) intimacy of communication--the child's sharing of personal concerns and opinions with parents; and (3) supervision--the psychological presence of parents when opportunities for delinquency arise. Attachment has been measured in a variety of other ways as indicators of affection and love, interest and concern, support and help, and the like (Rankin & Kern, 1994). Although there is disagreement over the exact number and types of family interaction (Rankin & Kern, 1994), studies commonly find that close ties to parents (no matter how they are measured) are moderately and inversely related to self-reported delinquency (Hindeland, 1973; Krohn & Massey, 1980; Nye, 1958).

In examining Hirschi's (1969) theory of attachment and its relationship with delinquency, the question arises as to whether or not it matters to whom the youth is attached. According to Hirschi (1969), the person (parental figure) to whom the youth is attached does not matter; it can be the mother or father or both. In his study, he found an increase in the multiple correlation coefficient  $R$  (from .35 to .36) in comparing attachment from two-parent family to one-parent families. As a result, he argues that broken homes should have no impact on delinquency as long as the child has strong attachment to the custodial parent. Regardless of family structure a healthy family creates a strong bond between parent(s) and children that provides the child

with a basis of unity, security, affection, and structure (Hirschi, 1969). Troubled families lack attachment, direction, and structure, and this can lead to delinquency.

### Hypotheses

A review of the literature reveals a need for the examination of African American family structure and attachment, and the affect they have on delinquency. These research questions and hypotheses reflect the need for an understanding of the role that attachment can play in reducing delinquency, regardless of the family structure. The issues addressed in these question will add to the literature in the area of family structure and delinquency by recognizing that there is more than one family structure that exist and can play a role in reducing delinquency. The following research questions were developed to expand our understanding of these issues.

RQ1 - Will adolescents who have strong parental attachment report less deviant behavior than those with weak parental attachment?

RQ2 - Do various family structures have an impact on delinquent behavior?

RQ3 - Do the sex of the youth and family structure have an impact on delinquency?

### Hypotheses

H1. Adolescents who have strong parental attachment will report less deviant behavior than those with weak parental attachment.

H2. Family structure will have no statistically significant impact on deviant

behavior.

H2a. Two parent family structures will have no statistically significant impact on deviant behavior.

H2b. Single parent family structures will have no statistically significant impact on deviant behavior.

H2c. Family structures consisting of a single parent and extended family members will have no statistically significant impact on deviant behavior.

H2d. Family structures consisting of two parents and extended family members will have no statistically significant impact on deviant behavior.

H3. There will be no statistically significant correlation between family structure and attachment.

H3a. There will be no statistically significant difference between family structure, attachment, and delinquency for boys and girls.

## CHAPTER III

### STUDY DESIGN AND METHODS

In this chapter, the methods used to test the research questions previously established are explained. The National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health is used as the source of data for the analysis of this study. The different family structures are the independent variables. The variable of family structure is based on the family constructs that are developed in Chapter II and confirmed in the work of Andrew Billingsley's (1992). The five family structures are established by combining the household composition variables. The attachment variable is constructed by utilizing variables that represent attachment based on Hirschi's (1969) social control model. The dependent variable, delinquency, is established by a combination of variables that represent delinquent and deviant acts. Two observed variables are also used as measures of delinquency: "lie to parents" and "run away from home." Structural equation modeling is used as the statistical tool to test the hypotheses.

#### Data

The design of this study is a secondary data analysis of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health). Add Health is a school-based study of the health-related behaviors of adolescents in grades 7-12. It was designed to explore the causes of these behaviors, with an emphasis on the influence of social



context. Add Health postulates that families, friends, schools, and communities play an important role in the lives of adolescents; in fact, they may encourage healthy choices of activities or may lead to unhealthy, self-destructive behaviors (Udry, 1998).

The Add Health study was funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) and 17 other federal agencies. The fieldwork was conducted by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago. The study surveyed students in grades 7-12 in a pair of schools in 80 communities in the United States. Informational letters were sent to parents prior to the administration date via students and postcards. In-school questionnaires were administered by teachers at the schools from September, 1994, through April, 1995. In each school, one 45-60 minute class period was devoted to completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire included topics such as the social and demographic characteristics of respondents, the education and occupation of parents, household structure, risk behaviors, expectations for the future, self-esteem, health status, friendships, and school-year extracurricular activities. According to the study's principal investigator, "Add Health will provide a powerful impact on adolescent health research. It's the first study designed to measure key aspects of the adolescents' social world that influence health and behavior" (Udry, 1998, p.1).

All students who completed the in-school questionnaire, and those who did not but who were listed on a school roster, were eligible for selection in the core in-home sample. The in-home sample consisted of youth who took part in interviews in their homes. Students in each school were stratified by grade and sex, and about 17

students were randomly chosen from each strata so that a total of approximately 200 adolescents were selected from each of the 80 pairs of schools. A total core sample of 20,745 adolescents were ultimately interviewed.

Based on the self-report data from the in-school questionnaire, four supplementary ethnic-group samples were drawn. Out of a sub-sample of African Americans consisting of 4,807 participants, 1,001 cases reported that one parent who lived in the household had a four-year college degree. Other oversampled ethnic groups were 334 Chinese adolescents, 450 Cuban adolescents, and 437 Puerto Rican adolescents.

The in-home interviews were conducted between April and December of 1995. All respondents were given the same interview, which took from one to two hours. All data were recorded on a lap-top computer. For the less sensitive sections, the interviewer read the questions and entered the respondent's answers. For more sensitive sections, the respondent listened to pre-recorded questions through earphones and entered the answers directly. Some of the topics covered by the in-home interview included: health status, health-facility utilization, nutrition, peer networks, decision-making processes, family composition and dynamics, educational aspirations and expectations, employment experience, the ordering of events in the formation of romantic partnerships, sexual partnerships, substance use, and criminal activities. Because this study focuses on African American youth, the sub-sample of African American youth will be utilized with variables from both their school and in-home interviews used in the analysis.

## Measures

The measures used in the study to test the hypotheses that were outlined in Chapter II are ones that have been tested in the past by other researchers. Family structure and sex are the independent variables used, and the dependent variable is delinquency, while attachment is both an intervening and dependent variable.

### Independent Variables

#### Family Structure

The independent variables consist of the various family structures. Each youth was asked to list the names of all the individuals who live in their household. The youth were then asked “What is {Name’s} relationship to you?” Family structure is measured through the use of the previous question (see Appendix A). Based on this information, five family structure types were created. Parent is defined as an individual who, either by biological or legal means, is recognized as being responsible for the youth. Two-parent family households were defined as households in which both a mother and a father were in the household. This family type was labeled *nucfam*. This category includes households where a step-parent or a parent’s live-in partner was present. A single parent family household was defined as where only the mother or father lived in the household; this was identified as *single*. The attenuated extended family consist of a single parent household where other relatives also reside was labeled *exsing*. Family structures where there were two parents and extended

family, also known as simple nuclear were labeled *exnuc*. The final family structure, *other*, consists of youth who live with an individual who is not a parent. Frequency tables were ran across all the family structures (see Table 2). All the family structures except *other* consisted of frequencies high enough to proceed with the analysis. The *other* variable consisted of ten cases, and as a result was not included in the analysis. A crosstab for each of the family structures was to ensure the integrity of the individual category (see Appendix B). The family structure variables have been coded as dummy variables. The reason for this is that categorical data does not have measurements that represents intervals. Coding enables us to apply regression to categorical variables. When using dummy coding the researcher can utilize a reference group that can be determined from all of the groups that are examined. In this case the reference group is the nuclear family (*nucfam*) because based on previous research it is the nuclear family to which all other family types are compared to (McAdoo,1997).

Table 2  
Frequencies of Family Structures

	Yes	%	No
Nuclear Family	1013	21.1	3795
Extended Family	450	9.4	4358
Single Family	2254	46.9	2554
Other Family	374	7.8	4434
Extended Single Family	717	14.9	4091
Total	4808	100.1	

## Sex

In an effort to clearly understand the role that family plays in delinquency, the sex of the youth was also examined. In the past, studies have found differences in the type of delinquency committed based on an individual's sex. For example, Simpson and Elis (1995) state that, "Findings from most studies generally show that gender and race exert strong influences (either directly or indirectly) on criminality" (p. 50). Most studies report that the quantity and quality of parental socialization and family ties differentially affect males and females (Farnworth, 1984; Hill, 1972) and blacks and whites (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1987). Positive relations with parents and attachment to them generally inhibit delinquency; yet the mechanisms of attachment and control vary across gender and racial subgroups. This data set consists of 2,533 female cases and 2,274 males (see Table 3).

Table 3

### Frequencies of Biological Sex

	Frequency	Percent
Males	2274	47.3
Females	2533	52.7
Total	4807	100

### Intervening/Dependent Variable

## Attachment

It has become common practice to survey children about attachment to a

parent rather than to their mother or father separately. Hirschi (1969) states, “the one parent family is virtually as efficient a delinquent controlling institution as the two parent family” (p. 95). After conducting an examination of the data set, it was determined that there were variables that capture the affectional/ intimacy aspects of attachment. Because this research is focused on the relationship between the youth and their parents and significant family members, attachment is only examined in terms of the youth and his or her relationship to parents and family. The factor analysis of the family attachment variables derived from the work of Ollson, Troye, and Howell (1985). Three variables were combined to create the variable that represents attachment (*Attach\_1*). The variables that were used to create the scale are as follows: (a) How much do you feel your family understands you? (*HIPR5*); (b) Your family has fun together? (*HIPR7*); and (c) Your family pays attention to you? (*HIPR8*). A factor analysis was conducted to insure the reliability of the latent variable *Attach*. The KMO was .683, which shows the matrix is suitable for factor analysis. The eigenvalues show that 68.% of the variance in the matrix was explained by one component; this is confirmed by the scree plot. Next varimax rotation was conducted and all three variables were in an acceptable range. The chronbach alpha level was acceptable for this set of variables (.7623). A summated scale was created and the variable was created and labeled *Attach\_1*.

## Dependent Variables

### Delinquent Behavior

The dependent variables is *delin\_1* behavior which is broken down into three variables: (1) lie to parents about whereabouts, (2) run away from home, and (3) a larger variable labeled *Delin\_1* which represents various delinquent acts (e.g., stealing, fighting, painting graffiti, etc.). Juvenile delinquency refers to the violation of law or the commission of an offense by a young person (Hirschi, 1969). Based on this definition, a number of variables were chosen to represent delinquency. All questions refer to the past year:

1. How often did you paint graffiti? (*HIDS1*)
2. How often did you damage property? (*HIDS2*)
3. How often did you shoplift? (*HIDS4*)
4. How often did you seriously injure someone? (*HIDS6*)
5. How often did you use or threaten someone with a weapon? (*HIDS11*)
6. How often did you sell drugs? (*HIDS12*)
7. How often did you steal something worth less than \$50? (*HIDS13*)
8. How often did you take part in a group fight? (*HIDS14*)
9. How often did you steal a car? (*HIDS18*)
10. How often did you steal something worth more than \$50? (*HIDS9*)
11. How often did you burglarize a building? (*HIDS10*)
12. Have you shot or stabbed someone? (*H1FV8*)

13. How often have you carried a weapon to school? (*H1FV9*)

14. How often did you run away from home? (*H1ds7\_1*)

15. How often did you lie to your parents? (*H1ds3\_1*)

The variables listed above all represent different types of delinquency. According to Hirischi (1969), the type of delinquency does not matter if the social bond is present—they are still less likely to participate in the act. For the variable delinquency, *delin\_1* were used in the factor analysis. Appendix C offers an examination of the factor scores of all the variables. The KMO was .959, which shows the matrix is suitable for factor analysis. The eigenvalue shows 56.5046% of the variance in the matrix was explained by one component. The scree plot confirms the one component. Next varimax rotation was conducted. Two variables did not have acceptable scores in the rotation: “How often did you lie to your parents?” (*H1ds3\_1*) and “How often did you run away from home?” (*H1ds7\_1*). As a result they were taken out and were used as observed variables. The cronbach alpha reliability test was conducted to ensure consistency among all the other variables. The alpha level was acceptable for this set of variables (.9551). A summated scale was created and the variable was labeled *Delin\_1*.

### Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a multivariate technique combining aspects of multiple regression (examining casual relationships among variables) and factor analysis (using multiple indicators to measure theoretical constructs) to estimate a



series of interrelated casual relationships (Klein, 1998). SEM can be used in three distinct ways. The first is strictly confirmatory when it is used to analyze a single model that is accepted or rejected based on its correspondence to the data. The second is when competing models are tested against each other. The third is model building that begins with an initial model that is modified because it originally did not fit the data.

All three of these models contain the same characteristics. First, SEM is a priori and requires researchers to think in terms of models. Second, SEM allows the explicit representation of a distinction between observed and latent variables, which makes it possible for the researcher to test a variety of hypotheses. Third, the basic statistic in SEM is covariance. It is possible, however, to analyze other types of data such as means. Many standard statistical procedures like multiple regression, factor analysis and ANOVA can be viewed as special cases of SEM. It is possible to test many different types of effects for statistical significance in SEM, but the role of significance testing in the overall analysis may be less important than for more standard techniques. Finally, SEM requires the same assumptions as multiple regression analysis. SEM also allows for two types of hypotheses tests to be conducted: a test of overall model fit and a test of significance of individual parameter estimates values (Klein, 1998).

In working with SEM first, normality is checked. SEM assumes a normal distribution of variables. Non-normality can occur on two levels. The first is univariate, which concerns the distributions of the individual variables (Klein, 1998). Skewness

and kurtosis are two ways that a distribution can be non-normal; they can occur either separately or together in a single variable. Unlike normal distributions, which are symmetrical about their means, those that are skewed are asymmetrical because they have most of the cases either below the mean or above it (Klein, 1998).

In the study of the African American family structure and *delin\_1*, SEM is a very appropriate model. This statistical technique will allow the investigator to accomplish the goal of examining if there is a relationship between *Attach\_1*, family structure, and *delin\_1*. This can be done because SEM allows for the evaluation of an entire model (Klein, 1998). This allows for a more macro-level perspective in that the researcher can draw conclusions about the overall correlation between attachment, family structure, and delinquency. At the same time it allows for the investigation of the significance of the individual relationship. For example, the relationship between the various family structures and attachment can be thoroughly examined. SEM also will be effective in working with this data due to the large sample size (4,807). It is generally known the SEM is a technique that works well with large samples (Klein, 1998).

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

#### Introduction

Chapter IV discusses the findings of the SEM analyses. As previously discussed SEM allowed for two types of hypotheses tests to be conducted: (1) a test of overall model fit, and (2) a test of significance of individual parameter estimate values (Klein, 1998). Two models were created for each of the three dependent variables. The first model allowed for all parameters to be free (saturated model). The second model was the hypothesized model (all the paths from the family types are set equal to zero). Thus, the only effect in this model was from attachment to the dependent variable (*Delin\_1*, *HIDS3\_1*, *HIDS7\_1*). This model allowed for the testing of the hypotheses regarding various family structures and their relationship to attachment and delinquency. Family structure had no impact on delinquency. A third model was developed when modifications indices dictated.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section is the preliminary analysis and the normality check. The second section discusses the goodness of fit of the models. The third is the analysis of models. The fourth section includes the results from the hypothesis, "There will be no significant difference between family structure, attachment, and delinquency for boys and girls". The fifth section is a

summary of hypotheses.

### Preliminary Analysis

An examination of the mean scores of attachment by family structure shows very little variation (see Table 4). The mean scores for family structures range from 11.473 to 11.680. The range for the mean scores of *delin\_1* by family structure varies considerably. The mean score for youth who lived in *exnuc* was 2.79, for youth who lived in *nucfam*, 2.85, for youth who lived in *exsing*, 3.57, those who lived in *single* family structures, 3.26 and those who lived in *other*, 4.03. For both variables, run away from home and lie to parents, by family structure there was very little variation in the mean scores. For run away from home, the mean score by family structure ranged from .870 to .907; for lie to parents, the range was .136 to .226. Appendix D offers a complete examination of the range of means for attachment and the three dependent variables.

A check of normal distribution of the data was first conducted. The examination showed that the data was non-normal. Non-normality can be detected by examining univariate and multivariate critical ratios. Univariate critical ratios that exceed two indicate non-normality. Multivariate kurtosis critical ratios values that exceed ten indicate non-normality (Statistical Services, 2000). The multivariate kurtosis critical ratio for *HIDS7\_1* = 61.306, for *HIDS\_3* = 42.654, and for *Delin\_1* = 274.788. All of these were indications of severe multivariate non-normality. Univariate non-normality was an issue for all the variables except for *Attach\_1* (1.298). Table 5

Table 4  
Means and Standard Deviations

		<i>Other</i>	<i>Exnuc</i>	<i>Exsing</i>	<i>Nucfam</i>	<i>Single</i>	<i>HIDS3_1</i>	<i>SHIDS7_1</i>	<i>Delin_1</i>	<i>Attach_1</i>
N	Valid	4808	4808	4808	4808	4808	4808	4808	4808	4808
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		0.07779	0.09359	0.1491	0.2107	0.4688	0.899	0.17	3.2427	3.68
Std. Deviation		0.2679	0.2913	0.3563	0.4078	0.4991	1.185	0.75	9.3709	1.3409

Table 5

## Normality Check of All Cases

	Kurtosis	CR
<i>Other</i>	7.94	112.382
<i>Exmuc</i>	5.788	81.919
<i>Exsing</i>	1.881	26.623
<i>Single</i>	-1.984	-28.087
<i>Attach_1</i>	-0.092	-1.298
<i>Delin_1</i>	73.22	1036.35
<i>HIDS3_1</i>	7.064	99.981
<i>HIDS7_1</i>	56.334	797.353
Multivariate <i>Delin_1</i>	77.657	274.788
<i>HIDS3_1</i>	12.054	42.654
<i>HIDS7_1</i>	61.036	216.931

offers an examination of the normality values. To correct for non-normality, bootstrapping was used. Bootstrapping is a resampling procedure in which the data set is treated as the population (Klein, 1998). Bootstrapping allowed for the AdHealth data set to be treated as the population and as a result a new value was created that addressed the overall fit of the data.

This was done by creating a new critical value of the chi-square test of overall model fit by computing a new critical chi-square value. The original obtained chi-square statistic for the fitted model is then compared to the bootstrap critical value rather than the original model DF (Degree of Freedom ) value. A p-value based on the comparison of the obtained chi-square value to the bootstrap generated critical chi-square value is then computed. (Statistical Services, 2000, p.3)

Bootstrapping provides an estimate of the variability of a sample mean; this allowed for the bootstrap results to be used in place of the regression weights.

### Evaluation of Goodness of Fit

There are two issues in assessing model fit:

1. How closely does the model reproduce the variance/covariance matrix?
2. To what extent is the variance in the dependent variable explained by the model?

There were three models for the dependent variable *HIDS7\_1* (run away from home). The first is the saturated model (Figure 1). The second is the hypothesized model (Figure 2). The third is a model based on the modification indices from the hypothesized model (Figure 3). This model frees the parameters from *exsing* and *other* to *HIDS7\_1*. The p-value for the saturated model was 0.0, .037 for the hypothesized

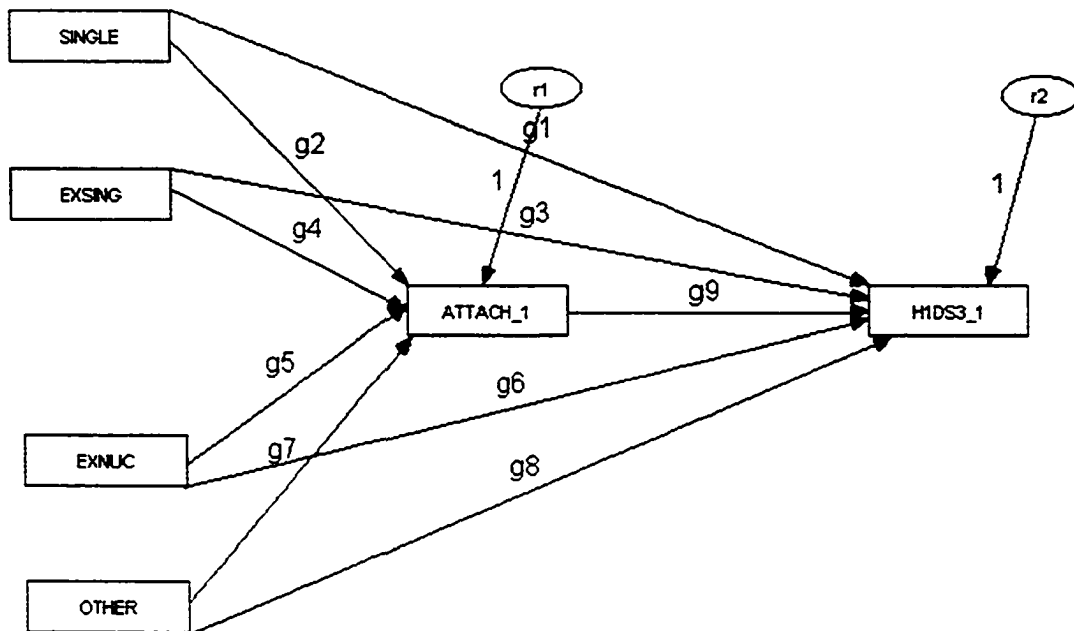


Figure 1. Saturated Model—Run Away From Home.

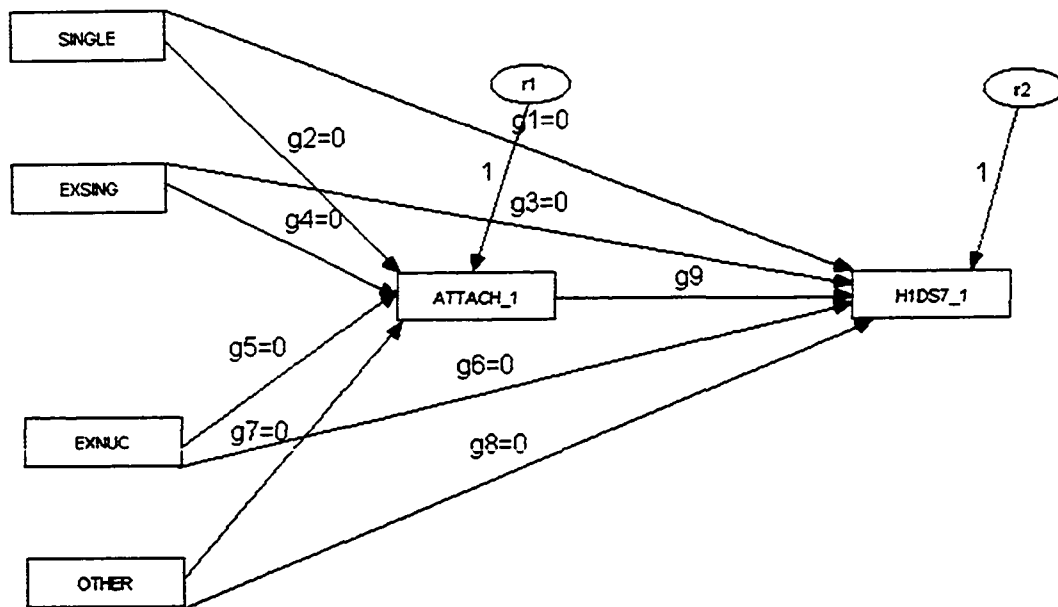


Figure 2. Hypothesized Model-Run Away From Home.

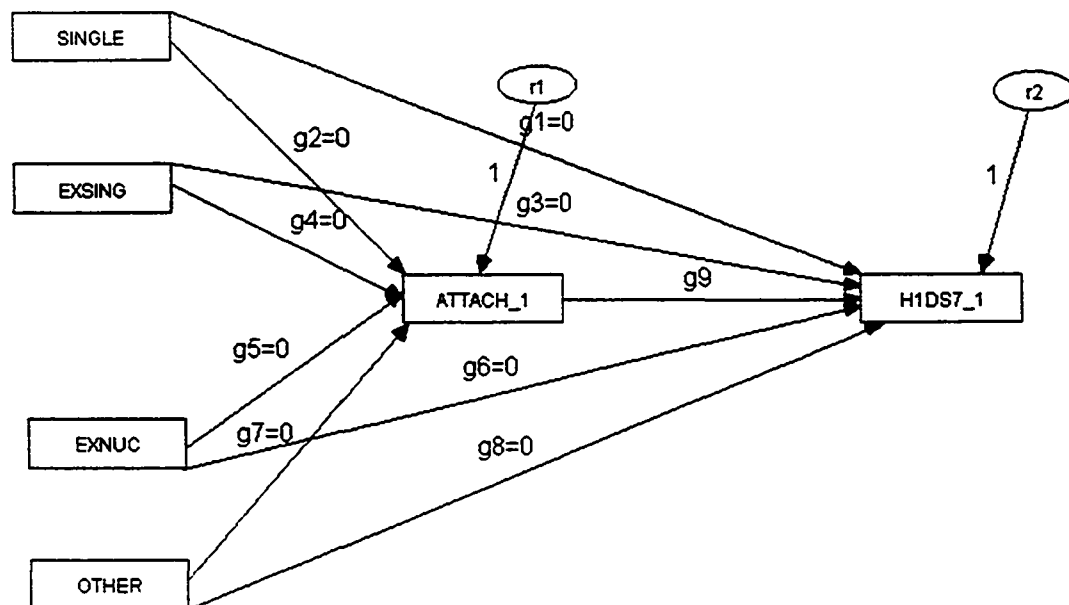


Figure 3. Modified Model-Run Away From Home *Exsing* and *Other* Free.



model for the *exsing*, and .544 for the *other* free model. The hypothesized model bootstrap p value was .059 using conventional significance level of 0.05. This model was not rejected; it was selected as the better fitting model. This model was chosen because it was the hypothesized model and it offered a better fit than models one and three. The Goodness of Fit for the hypothesized confirmed that it was a good fitting model. The Goodness of Fit index (GFI), which shows the proportion of the observed variance and covariance jointly accounted for by the implied covariance/variance from the model 1, indicates a perfect fit:  $GFI = 1.0$ . Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) adjusts the GFI downward for the number of model parameters,  $AGFI = .997$ . RMR (root square mean residual) is the square root of the mean squared difference between elements observed and implied matrices. A zero indicates perfect fit. Any value  $< .10$  is acceptable;  $RMR = 0$ . This measure often falls outside of 0-1 and therefore I examined it with caution. The CMIN/DF is the chi square divided by degrees of freedom. Any value less than 3 is an ideal fit while a value of 1 indicates a perfect fit. The  $CMIN/DF = 1.054$ .

The variable *HIDS3\_1* (lie to parents) required only the two original models to be created; the hypothesized model did not produce any modification indices. This indicates that there were no other parameters that need to be added to the model. As a result, there were only two models created (see Figures 4 & 5). The p-value for the satu-rated model was 0.0, for the hypothesized, .037. An examination of the bootstrap p-value for the hypothesized model shows the hypothesized model was a better fit ( $p = .869$ ). The examination of the goodness of fit shows that this model fit well with

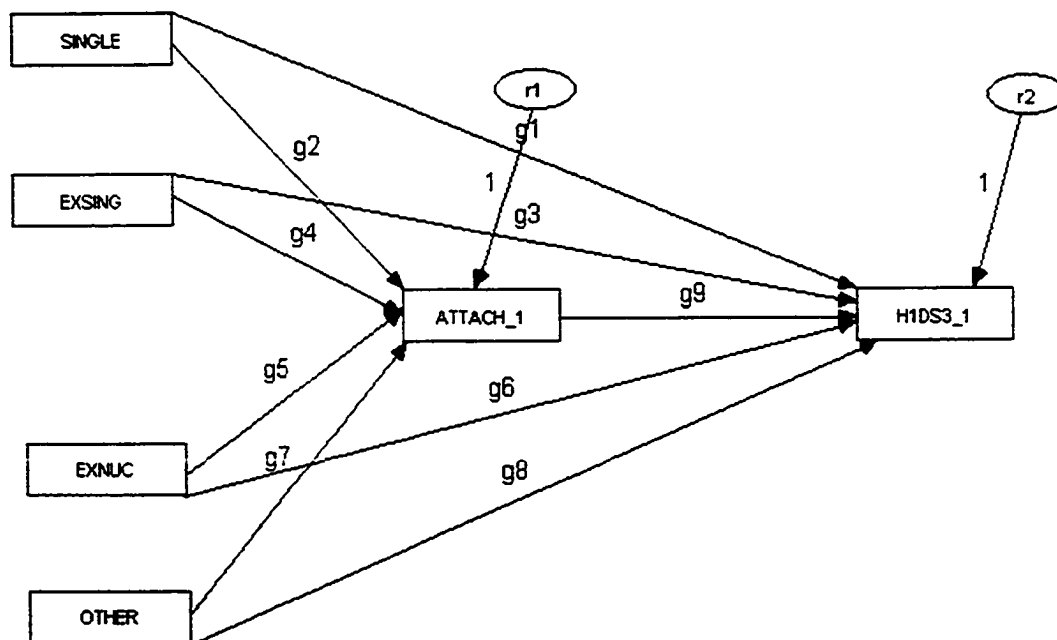


Figure 4. Saturated Model-Lie to Parents.

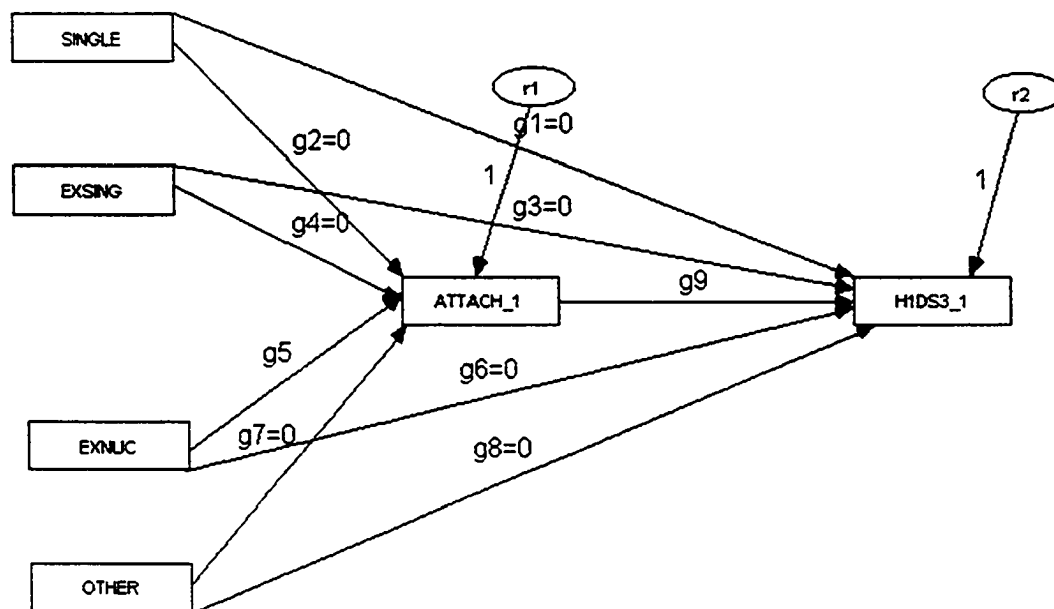


Figure 5. Hypothesized Model-Lie to Parents.

GFI =1.00, AGFI =.999, RMR=0, and CMIN/DF = 1.036. Table 6 offers an examination of the goodness of fit measures. Based on the goodness of fit, the hypothesized model will be used in the analysis.

Table 6  
Goodness of Fit of All Cases

	X <sup>2</sup>	P-value	P-Value*	X <sup>2</sup> /DF	GFI	AGFI	RMR
Lie to Parents							
Saturated	0	0		0	1	0	0
Hypothesized	8.433	0.037	0.059	1.054	1	0.997	0
Modified**	4.966	0.544		4.966	1	0.999	0.007
Run Away							
Saturated	0	0		0	1	0.999	0
Hypothesized	8.288	0	0.869	1.04	1	1	0.021
Delin_1							
Saturated	0	0	0	0			
Hypothesized	8.329	0.244	0.268	1.04	1	1	0.021
Modified***	7.348	0.394		1.05	0.999	0.998	0.019

\*Bootstrap P-value

\*\**Exsing* and *other* free

\*\*\**Other* to *delin\_1* free

The dependent variable *Delin\_1* required a third model based on the modification indices from the hypothesized model (see Figures 6, 7, & 8). This model freed the parameter from *other* to *delin\_1*. The p-value for the saturated model was 0.0, hypothesized model, .244, modified model, .394. The bootstrap p-value, .268, for the hypothesized model suggested that the model was a good fit. The goodness of fit for the hypothesized model confirmed that data fits well with CMIN/DF=1.04, GFI=1.0,

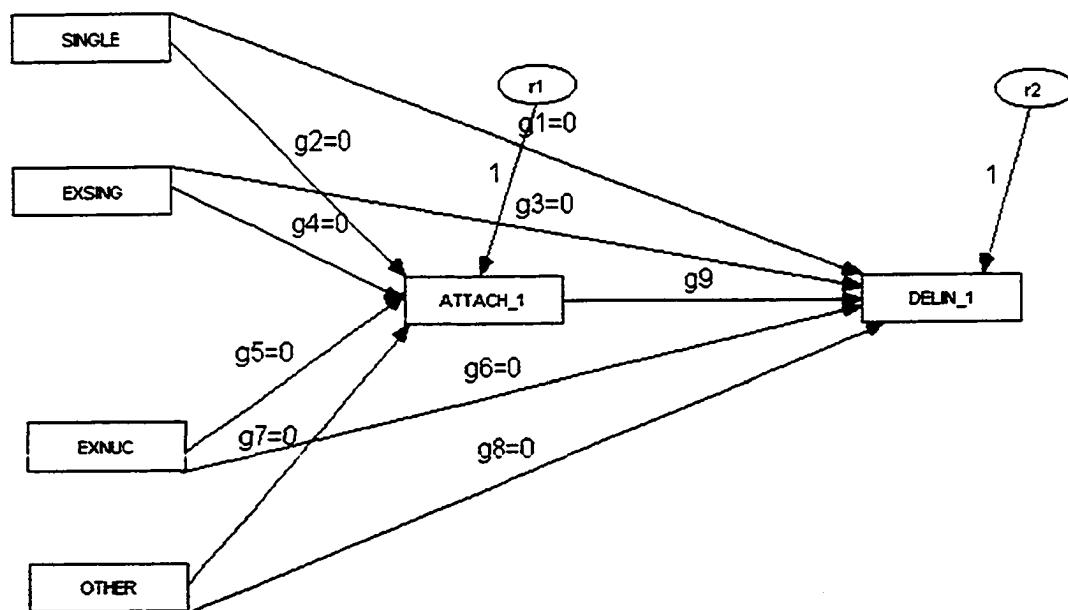


Figure 6. Hypothesized Model-Delinquency.

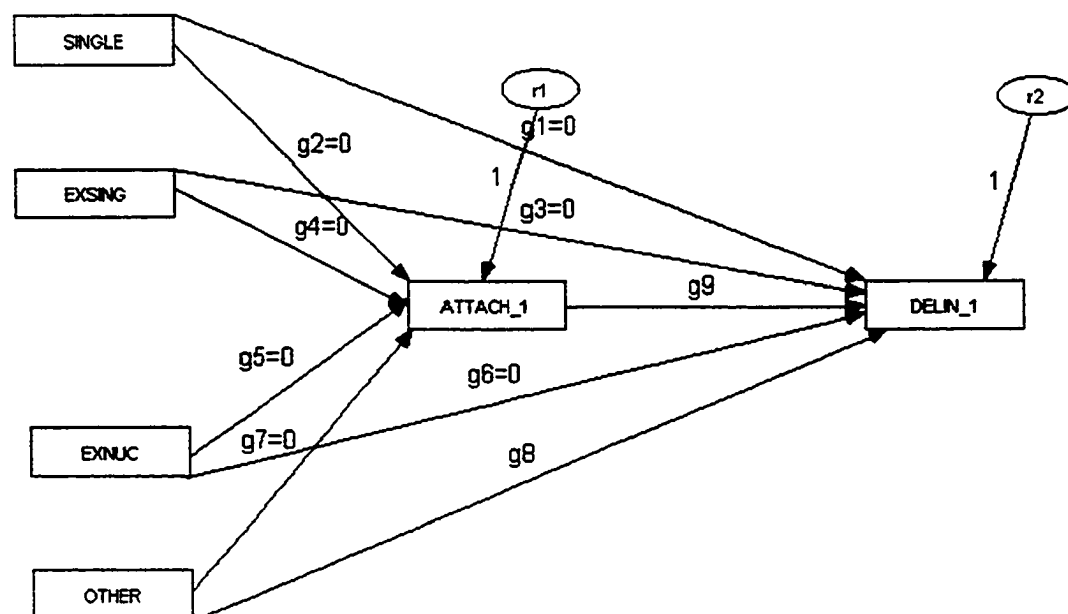


Figure 7. Modified Model-Delinquency.

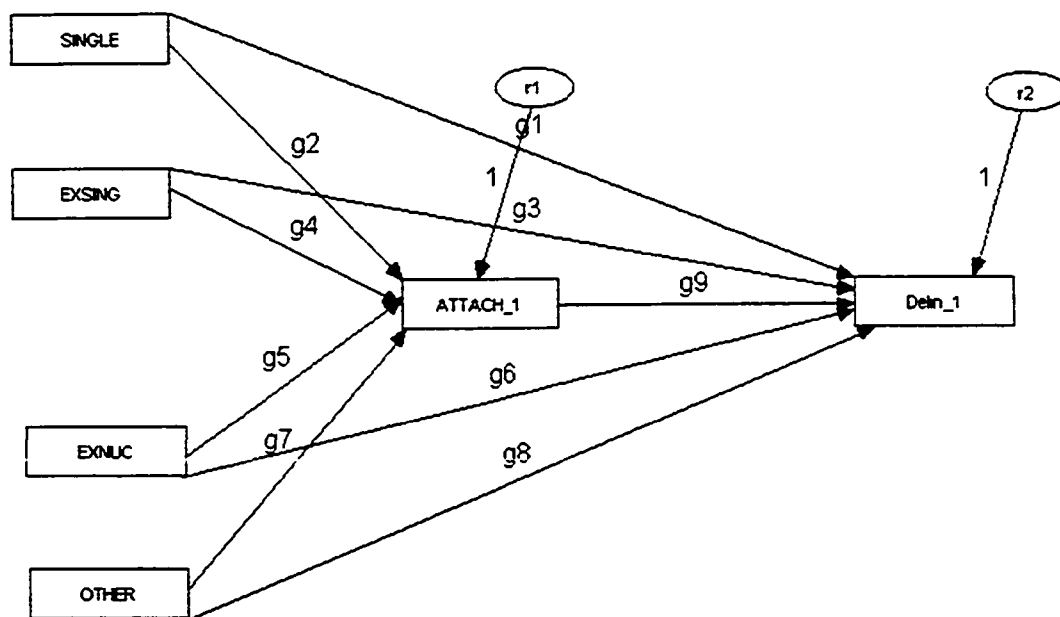


Figure 8. Saturated Model-Delinquency.

AGI=1.0, and RMR=.021. Again, because this is the hypothesized model fits the data, this model will be used in the analysis.

### Analysis of Models

For the three dependent variables the hypothesized models were chosen for the analyses. According to the hypothesized model family structure had no impact on delinquency as long as attachment was present. The examination of youth who run away from home (*HIDS7\_1*) found that youth who are attached were -.21 ( $p=.004$ ) less likely to run away from home than those who are not attached. Table 7 shows the analysis of the hypothesized, saturated, and modified models. The squared multiple correlation was .006 ( $p=.002$ ), indicating that very little of the variance could be

Table 7

## Run Away From Home

		Means	P-Value	S.E.
Hypothesized				
	<i>Attach_1</i>	-0.21	0.004*	0.0004
Saturated				
	<i>Other</i>	0.103	0.02	0.053
	<i>Exsing</i>	0.078	0.01	0.038
	<i>Exmuc</i>	-0.21	0.333	0.031
	<i>Single</i>	0.028	0.14	0.026
Modified				
	<i>Exsing</i>	0.078	0.014	0.076
	<i>Other</i>	0.103	0.021	0.055

Significant value  $p < .05$ 

explained by attachment. The relationship between *HIDS3\_1* and attachment shows that youth who are attached were -.190 ( $p = .004$ ) less likely to lie to parents than those who were not attached. Table 8 shows the values for the hypothesized and saturated models of lie to parents. The squared multiple correlation was .036 ( $p = .001$ ). This

Table 8

## Lie to Parents

		Means	P-Value	S.E.
Hypothesized				
	<i>Attach_1</i>	-0.19	0.004*	0.006
Saturated				
	<i>Exsing</i>	-0.041	0.23	0.057
	<i>Other</i>	-0.024	0.35	0.081
	<i>Single</i>	-0.018	0.24	0.044
	<i>Exmuc</i>	-0.018	0.39	0.06

Significant value  $p < .05$

shows that very little variance was explained by attachment. Youth who were attached were -.255 less likely to take part in delinquent acts; .006 ( $p=.002$ ) of the variance of *Delin\_1* is explained by attachment. Table 9 shows the values of *Delin\_1* for all three models. These findings support the hypotheses that family structure had no impact on delinquency when attachment was present.

Table 9  
Delinquency

		Means	P-Value	S.E.
Hypothesized				
	<i>Attach_1</i>	0.006	0.002	0.006
Saturated				
	<i>Exsing</i>	0.751	0.05	0.472
	<i>Other</i>	1.22	0.2	0.668
	<i>Single</i>	0.449	0.1	0.346
	<i>Exnuc</i>	-0.102	0.39	0.391
Modified	<i>Other</i>	0.881	0.074	0.003

Significant value  $p<.05$

### Saturated Models

Although the hypothesized model offers the best fit and significant results, the saturated models also offer interesting findings that should be discussed. Conducting an examination of the relationship between run away from home (*HIDS7\_1*) and family structure only youth who lived in *other* and *exsing* family structure types were significantly more likely to run away from home than those who lived in a nuclear family structure. Youth who lived in an *other* family structure were .103 ( $p=.02$ )

more likely to run away than youth who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Youth who lived in an *exsing* family structure were .078 ( $p=.01$ ) more likely to run away from home than youth who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Both *exnuc* and *single* yielded non-significant results. Youth who lived in a *single* family structure were .028 ( $p=.14$ ) more likely to run away than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Youth who lived in an *exnuc* family structure were -.21 ( $p=.333$ ) less likely to run away than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure.

The relationship between the various family structures and lie to parents (*HIDS3\_1*) did not yield any significant results. Youth who lived in *exsing* family structures were -.041 ( $p=.23$ ) less likely to lie to parents than those who lived in *nucfam* family structures. Youth who lived in an *other* family structure were -.024 ( $p=.35$ ) less likely to lie to their parents than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Youth who lived in a *single* ( $p=.24$ ) or an *exnuc* family structure were .18 ( $p=.39$ ) less likely to lie to their parents than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. An examination of this dependent variable and family structure should be interpreted with caution. Although this variable can be considered an indication of delinquency it can also be seen as an indicator of attachment.

The saturated model of *Delin\_1* produced one significant effect for the four family structures. Youth who lived in an *exsing* family structure were .751 ( $p=.05$ ) more likely to take part in a delinquent act than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Youth in *other* family structures were 1.220 ( $p=.20$ ) more likely to take part in delinquency than those who lived in *nucfam* family structures. Youth who



lived in *single* family structures were .449 ( $p=.10$ ) more likely to take part in delinquency than those who lived in *nucfam* family structures. Youth who lived in *exnuc* family structures were -.102 ( $p=.39$ ) less likely to take part in delinquency than those in *nucfam* family structures. Although these findings were interpreted with caution due to some of the non-significant results, the findings suggest that youth who lived in all the family structures, except those in extended nuclear family structures, were more likely to take part in delinquency than those who lived in *nucfam* family structures.

### Modified Models

There were two modified models created. The first was for the dependent variable, run away from home (*HIDS7\_1*). The modification suggest freeing the parameters from *exsing* and *other*. An examination of this models shows that youth who lived in an *exsing* family structure were .078 ( $p=.014$ ) more likely to run away from home than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. Youth who lived in an *other* family structure were .103 ( $p=.021$ ) more likely to run away from home than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. The squared multiple correlation was .009. This indicates that very little variance of run way from home could be explained by family structure. The findings suggest that youth who lived in *exsing* and *other* family structures were more likely to run away from home than those who lived in *nucfam* family structures.

The second modified model was for the variable *Delin\_1*. The modifications

suggest freeing the parameter from *other* to *delin\_1*. The modification indicates that youth who lived in an *other* family structure were .881 ( $p=.074$ ) more likely to take part in delinquency than youth who lived in a *nucfam* family structure. The squared multiple correlation was .007, indicating that very little of the variance of delinquency could be explained by *other* (family structure). Again, these non-significant findings suggest that youth who lived in an *other* family structure were more likely to take part in delinquency than those who lived in a *nucfam* family structure.

## Findings

### Preliminary Analysis

According to Klein (1998), the simplest way to conduct a multisample path analysis is to estimate the model separately for each group and then compare the unstandardized solutions. The method used in determining if there is a difference in family structure, attachment, and delinquency for boys and girl is very similar to the method used in the previous analyses. The same two models that were used in the original analysis were used in the hypothesized and saturated models. The test of normality for both boys and girls of the three dependent variables revealed non-normality. The multivariate kurtosis critical ratio for girls and the dependent variables were  $HIDS3\_1=27.579$ ,  $HIDS7\_1=172.262$ , and  $Delin\_1=362.535$ , all indicators of severe multivariate non-normality. Univariate non-normality was also present in all variables (see Table 10). The multivariate kurtosis critical ratio for boys and the

three dependent variables was also non-normal ( $HIDS3\_1 = 30.733$ ,  $HIDS7\_1 = 132.758$ ,  $Delin\_1 = 125.757$ ). The univariate kurtosis critical ratios were also non-normal (see Table 10). Bootstrapping was used to correct for this non-normality.

Table 10

## Normality Check by Sexes

		Kurtosis	CR
Boys	<i>Other</i>	7.93	777.208
	<i>Exnuc</i>	5.306	51.649
	<i>Exsing</i>	2.101	20.456
	<i>Single</i>	-1.978	-19.249
	<i>Attach-1</i>	0.013	-0.128
	<i>Delin_1</i>	48.245	469.616
	<i>HIDS3_1</i>	7.064	99.981
	<i>HIDS7_1</i>	56.334	797.353
	Multivariate	<i>Delin_1</i>	51.678
		<i>HIDS3_1</i>	12.646
		<i>HIDS7_1</i>	50.947
Girls	<i>Other</i>	8.007	82.262
	<i>Exnuc</i>	6.256	64.281
	<i>Exsing</i>	1.693	17.393
	<i>Single</i>	-1.99	-20.44
	<i>Attach-1</i>	-0.232	-2.386
	<i>Delin_1</i>	134.186	1378.543
	<i>HIDS3_1</i>	4.799	49.306
	<i>HIDS7_1</i>	60.102	617.454
	Multivariate	<i>Delin_1</i>	141.156
		<i>HIDS3_1</i>	10.738
		<i>HIDS7_1</i>	67.072

### Evaluation of Goodness of Fit

For both boys and girls there were two models (the hypothesized and saturated) for each dependent variable. No modification indices were suggested in the models. An examination of the Goodness of Fit shows that the bootstrap hypothesized models fit the data well for each of the dependent variables. As a result, the hypothesized bootstrap models for all of the dependent variables was used in the analyses of both boys and girls. Table 11 offer the goodness of fit for both boys and girls and the model comparison.

### Analysis of Models

For the dependent variable, *HIDS3\_1*, girls (-.086,  $p=.004$ ) who were attached were less likely to lie to parents than boys (-.076,  $p=.004$ ). The relationship between boys and girls (-.022,  $p=.004$ ) was the same for youth who run away from home (*HIDS7\_1*). Youth who were attached were -.022 less likely to run away from home. Boys (-0.409,  $p=.004$ ) who were attached were less likely to take part in delinquency (*Delin\_1*) than girls (-0.178,  $p=.004$ ). Table 12 shows all the means for the hypothesized and saturated models.

### Summary of Hypotheses and Research Questions

Hypothesis 1: Adolescents who have strong parental attachment will report less deviant behavior than those with weak parental attachment. ( RQ1- Will

Table 11  
Goodness of Fit by Sexes

Boys		X <sup>2</sup>	P-value	P-Value*	X <sup>2</sup> /DF	GFI	AGFI	RMR
	<i>HIDS7_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0		0	1	0	0
	Hypothesized	8.433	0.037	0.059	1.054	1	0.997	0
	<i>HIDS3_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0		0	1	0.999	0
	Hypothesized	8.288	0	0.869	1.04	1	1	0.021
	<i>Delin_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0	0	0			
	Hypothesized	8.329	0.244	0.268	1.04	1	1	0.021
Girls								
	<i>HIDS7_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	Hypothesized	8.231	0.146	0.17	1.054	1	0.995	0
	<i>HIDS3_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0		0	1	0	0
	Hypothesized	5.707	0.68	0.714	1.4	1	1	0.021
	<i>Delin_1</i>							
	Saturated	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	Hypothesized	8.329	0.244	0.31	1.04	1	1	0.021

Table 12  
Biological Sex

Hypothesized (measures attachment)			Mean	P-Value	S.E.
Lie to Parents					
	Boys		-0.086	0.004	0.009
	Girls		-0.076	0.004	0.009
Delinquency					
	Boys		-0.409	0.004	0.081
	Girls		-0.178	0.004	0.039
Runaway					
	Boys		-0.022	0.004	0.019
	Girls		-0.022	0.004	0.005
Saturated Model					
Lie to Parents					
	Boys	single	0.098	0.46	0.146
		exsing	0.186	0.392	0.188
		exnuc	0.078	0.237	0.224
		other	-0.1	0.196	0.265
	Girls	single	-0.11	0.41	0.058
		other	0.081	0.2	0.109
		exsing	0.038	0.003	0.078
		exnuc	0	0.47	0.009
Delinquency					
	Boys	single	0.759	0.554	0.665
		exsing	1.04	0.309	0.565
		exnuc	-0.551	0.25	1.01
		other	1.29	0.54	0.557
	Girls	single	0.272	0.275	0.358
		exsing	1.42	0.487	0.463
		exnuc	0.404	0.189	0.494
		other	0.579	0.073	0.823
Runaway					
	Boys	single	0.017	0.325	0.004
		exsing	0.12	0.043	0.068
		exnuc	-0.077	0.039	0.041
		other	0.124	0.03	0.04
	Girls	single	0.04	0.13	0.134
		exsing	0.067	0.037	0.022
		exnuc	0.026	0.106	0.019
		other	0.067	0.026	0.027

adolescents who have strong parental attachment report less deviant behavior than those with weak parental attachment?)

This hypothesis was supported, as strong parental attachment was shown to have a significant direct effect on delinquency, run away from home, and lie to parents. For each of the three delinquent behaviors, those with strong attachment had significantly less delinquent behavior. The answer to the research question is that youth who have strong parental attachment did report less delinquent behavior.

Hypothesis 2, 2A-D: Family structure will have no statistical significant impact on deviant behavior. (RQ2- Do various family structures have an impact on delinquent behavior?)

This hypothesis was supported, as there was no significant direct effect of family structure on delinquency. In the hypothesized model the various family structures were constrained to have no significant impact on any of the three dependent variables, which were the well fitting models. The saturated and modified models produced both significant and non-significant results relating to family structure and delinquency and as a result the findings, should be viewed with caution.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a statistical significant correlation between attachment and delinquency.

This hypothesis was supported, regardless of the family structure. When attachment was present, there was a significant reduction in the three dependent variables. This confirms both my hypothesis and Hirschi's (1969) findings that family structure has no impact on delinquency when attachment is present.

Hypothesis 3A: There will be no significant difference between family structure, attachment, and delinquency for boys and girls. (RQ3- Do the sex of the youth and family structure have an impact on delinquency?)

This hypothesis was supported for the dependent variable, run away from home (*HIDS7\_1*). There is no difference between girls and boys who run away from home when attachment is presents. For the other two dependent variables, girls were found less likely to lie to parents (*HIDS3\_3*) when attached than boys. Boys were found less likely to take part in delinquency (*Delin\_1*) when they were attached than girls. These findings suggest that acts of delinquency may be gender specific. The role attachment plays in reducing delinquency is based on the sex of the youth.



## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It is important to examine the relationship between family structure, delinquency, and attachment for various reasons. The role that family plays in explaining delinquency has been ignored by many researchers who study delinquency (Hirschi, 1969). The findings presented in this dissertation indicate that family structure has no impact on delinquency when attachment is present.

In addition, the study of family structure and delinquency is important inasmuch as they have implications for policy making decisions that are concerned with adolescent deviance. At the heart of the study is the question of whether attachment can reduce delinquency regardless of family structure. This final chapter discusses the results of this study. It will also discuss the limitations of this work and why future research can correct for these limitations. This chapter concludes by discussing future research in the area of African American family structure and delinquency.

#### Discussion of Results

The first significant finding of the study addresses whether or not family structure plays a role in delinquency. The findings support my theory that family structure does not play a role in delinquency when attachment is present. In this regard, the

hypothesis of attachment set forth by Hirschi (1969) was supported by this research. In the hypothesis model, youth who were attached were less likely to take part in delinquency. There was a reduction in all three dependent variables when attachment was present. The relationship between family structure and attachment is important since family attachment was found to have a significant direct impact on the three dependent variables. In other words, regardless of family structure, attachment will provide the needed social control to reduce delinquency.

The findings also suggest that it is not the structural or living arrangements of the family that should be a priority, but the time and quality of relationship that youth share with parental figures that reduce delinquency. Reckless (1962) and Hirschi (1969) both assert that it is the quality of family relationships that allows youth to internalize essential morals and beliefs which are more fundamental in preventing the adolescent from becoming deviant regardless of the family structure in which the youth lives.

This study supports the conclusions drawn in the work of Simon, Miller, and Aigner (1991) who reported that adolescents who are not able to identify with their parents often fail to develop prosocial skills. As a result, youths report having difficulty interacting with peers and teachers at school. The work of Simon et al. supports my hypothesis in that they found that a strong positive relationship with parents lowered the risk of adolescents becoming involved in deviant behavior.

Although these findings support the hypothesis that attachment does play a role in reducing delinquency of African American youth, it should be noted that due

to the low correlation between attachment and the three dependent variables, attachment is not the only variable that contributes to the reduction of delinquency.

### Effects of Sex on Attachment and Delinquency

Consistent with the literature, sex differences in the measure of delinquency were present in two of three dependent variables. There were no significant difference between boys and girls who run away from home. The fact that there were significant differences between males and females on both the delinquency and “lie to parents”, with males reporting less attachment and more delinquency, *Delin\_1* is appropriate because overall boys report more delinquent behavior (Hirschi, 1969). In fact, Hirschi (1969) contends that boys take part in more delinquency because parents selectively impose greater control on daughters than on sons.

### Limitations of the Study

Secondary data sources offer a useful starting tool for additional research. This is done by suggesting different problem formulations, new research hypotheses, and alternative research methods for analyzing the data. Secondary data may also provide a useful comparative tool. New data may be compared to existing data for purposes of examining differences or trends. They also may provide a basis for determining whether or not the new information is representative of a population, as in the case of sampling (Stewart & Kammin, 1993). Like other methods, there are also limitations to using this methods.

One major disadvantage of secondary data is the lack of consistency in the analysis. The data collected might be so extensive that the individual interpreting the data may potentially arrive at many different, even conflicting, conclusions that may be supported by some subset of the data. For example, the findings that I have concluded are based on the complete African-American sub-sample of this data set. It is likely that an analysis of the complete data set would arrive at different conclusions. It is also important to note that secondary data was collected originally for a particular purpose, and may not be the most appropriate for all research purposes. Category definitions, particular purposes, or treatment effects may not be the most appropriate for the purpose at hand. It is also important to note that secondary data, by definition, is old data and may not be particularly timely for all studies (Stewart & Kammin, 1993). While the AdHealth data set offers an oversampling of African American youth, it is a data set that is not primarily concerned with issues that relate solely to African American youth and as a result, it may not be culturally sensitive. For example, this data set does not acknowledge the role of attachment to other family members and the role it can play in reducing delinquency. There are no questions that inquire into the role that the various household members play in the life of the youth.

It is very important to recognize that the data used in this project were originally collected through the use of survey method. There are some problems with the use of survey data that must be discussed when preparing to do secondary data analysis. According to Dijkstra and VanderZouwen (1982), the popularity of the survey-interview is quite understandable. It is a relatively easy way to obtain data about

attitudes, opinions, motivations and other characteristics that are not directly observable. Indeed, in some cases of more factual data, like demographic or behavioral characteristics, the survey-interview is usually the least cumbersome method. According to sociologist, John DeLamater (1982), respondents' answers should not always be taken for granted as being accurate. There are four aspects of question content which are likely to affect respondents' behavior: (1) the degree to which the topic arouses anxiety, (2) the degree to which the topic arouses a concern with social desirability, (3) the salience of the topic, and (4) the wording of the question.

Anxiety arousing questions are those which are often most difficult to get valid answers from the respondent. These are questions, dealing with certain topics that are "sensitive" "embarrassing" or those with an "offensive potential." According to DeLamater (1982), specific topics which have been suggested as falling within this category include questions regarding income, sexual behavior, political or religious views, physical and mental health, and illegal or deviant behavior. Questions about these matters are thought to arouse anxiety in the respondent because of the respondents' awareness of social norms defining these topics as inappropriate matters for conversation. Also, admitting to certain illegal activities could lead to some type of legal repercussion (DeLamater, 1982).

When questions are asked about these topics, three things are likely to occur: respondents are considered more likely to refuse to participate, to refuse to answer the questions themselves, or to underreport deviant attitudes and behavior. Respondents refusing to participate affects the secondary researcher because the overall number of

participants of the study is decreased which results in fewer cases. Fewer cases cause a decrease in one's ability to generalize the findings. The second possible "effect" of topic is on response rate to individual questions. According to DeLamater (1982), such an effect is more plausible than refusal to participate in the complete survey. Johnson and DeLamater (1976) found that people are less likely to respond to questions that they found to be threatening in nature. In their study they asked 2486 respondents about their sexual activities and found that 208 respondents did not complete the questionnaires. They concluded that a possible reason that individuals did not respond to the questions was that they felt that the questions violated their privacy.

The primary concern has traditionally been related to the extent to which questions dealing with anxiety-arousing topics elicit false responses. DeLamater (1982) defined "threatening questions" as, "largely personal and directly threatening to respondents' self-esteem or are anxiety -provoking -for the most part, questions about illegal or deviant behavior, or about major health problems (p. 30)." According to DeLamater (1982), for questions that are seen as high threatening, the individual is likely not to admit to participating in the activity. This results in underreporting of certain activity.

Another potential influence on responses is the degree to which a question arouses within the respondent a concern with social desirability. Sudman and Bradburn (1974) found consistent effects of social desirability on responses. The stronger the possibility of a socially desirable response, the larger the response effect.

Response bias is a particular concern when social norms identify specific attitudes, feelings, or traits as desirable, but a substantial number of persons hold a different attitude or do not possess the trait. Under these circumstances, such persons may give the desirable response in answering questions (Shulman, 1973). An example of this can be seen when examining racial prejudice. If you ask a person if they dislike a particular race, they are likely to respond in a way that they feel is socially desirable. Social desirability can affect secondary data analysis because it can cause for the inflation of some variables. This can result in inaccurate conclusions. The AdHealth data set asks questions that can arouse social desirability issues. In the area of delinquency it is possible that the respondents did not feel that it would be appropriate to answer questions about delinquency truthfully. As a result, delinquency may be under reported in this data set.

The wording of questions can have a very important effect on the way respondents answer questions. There are three issues that the researcher must be aware of when writing research questions. The first is the effects of variations in wording. There are often multiple ways to tap into the same underlying attitude. This can be problematic because similar wording does not often assume the same themes. According to DeLamater (1982), it would be incorrect to think that it is possible to have alternative wordings of the “same” item.

The second issue dealing with wording is clarity. It is very important that questions are written clearly, unambiguous and self-exploratory. The wording of a question should be specific to the population for whom the survey is written.

According to Berdie and Anderson (1974), it is often appropriate to use slang terms if the population is familiar with the terminology. This type of language is likely to be clearer to respondents and its use will enhance the researcher's rapport with the respondents. The lack of clarity in an item will result in a response of "don't know" or "not applicable"

The final issue with wording is suggestive wording. Questions that fall in this category are often referred to as leading or loaded questions. According to DeLamater (1982), the evaluative tone of response language serves as a cue to respondents, and leads them to make polarized judgements of attitude statements. The problem of "wording" effects secondary data analysis in that the intended meanings and category definitions may not be appropriate for a particular analysis. The issue of wording is very important when surveying different cultural groups. It is important that instruments are worded that reflect the vocabulary of the cultural group that they are studying.

The final limitation of this study is the use of quantitative data over qualitative. There are some scholars (see Blake & Darling, 1993; Hill-Collins, 1999) that question the extent to which quantified data can convey an understanding of the way of life of a person. Qualitative designs facilitate an understanding of the subjects' point of view, provide the researcher with flexibility in studying social life, and are particularly suited to the discovery of new ideas. Patricia Hill-Collins (1999) discusses the use of qualitative methods as a must in conducting research on the black family. According to Hill-Collins (1999), when a group of individuals voice had been



silenced as long as black peoples have, it is a must to conduct research that will allow for their voices to be heard.

Although there are limitations to quantitative studies, there are also benefits. One of the benefits of the AdHealth data set is its oversampling of African American youth from various regions in the U.S. This allows for the examination of African American youth that would be very difficult to do in a qualitative fashion. Time and finances would make it very difficult to conduct qualitative interviews in a national random sample. This data set will also allow others to address the same research questions that I have to confirm or disprove my hypotheses. Quantitative analysis will also allow for larger samples which will result in being able to make stronger statements of generalizations.

### Future Implications

Future studies that exam African American family structures should do so from a manner that recognizes them as resilient/protective adaptations; not as being pathological. This study has clearly shown that the various African American family structures can act as protective factors in reducing delinquency. The findings reported in this dissertation, which are based on a sample of youth, substantiate the basic principles of the family attachment aspect of the social control theory in the significant relationships between family attachment and various deviant behavior. Specifically, the findings substantiate the view that family attachment can reduce delinquency.

Although this study supported the hypothesized questions, future studies are

needed in this area. The findings of the study should be viewed as exploratory. Attachment does reduce delinquency, but it is clear that attachment alone does not account for the reduction of delinquency. Other variables need to be placed in the model that can help to account for the variation in the three delinquent variables. The role that soci-economic status (SES) plays in reducing delinquency among African American youth must also be examined. A study of SES and its impact on family structure and delinquency will offer depth to the examination of delinquency. Studying SES will also allow for the examination of various classes that exist in the African American community. According to Cernkovich and Giordano (1987), there is very little research on whether social bonding varies among the different classes in the African American community. The study of the variations that exist in the African American family needs to become a major research focus in the future research (McAdoo, 1997).

The role that attachment and family structure can play in reducing other forms of delinquency will also need to be examined. Drug, cigarette, alcohol use, teenage promiscuity, and violent acts need to be studied. This study did not offer a clear indication as to whether attachment can reduce all acts of delinquency. Because there are so many different types of deviance, there is a need for a variety of theories to explain each type. There is a need to appreciate the strengths and weaknesses of the various theories and concentrate on developing them in such a way that they will be able to specify which conditions and circumstances are most appropriate and best applicable for influencing social policy.

An examination of alternative theoretical explanation will also need to be conducted. As stated previously, the findings suggest that there is a relationship between attachment and delinquency. This relationship, although present, is weak. As a result, one must conclude that attachment itself can not completely deter delinquency. Theories, such as the routine activities theory developed by Cohen and Felson (1979), suggest that with formal and informal guardianship, delinquency is less likely to occur. This theory would allow the introduction of variables that address the active role parents play in a child's life. For example, the amount of time a parent spends with the child, is the child in formal after school activities, is the child a latchkey child or is a parent home when the youth gets out of school?

The purpose of this study was to examine African American family structure and the role attachment can play in reducing delinquency regardless of family structure. This study showed that in this sample, family structure did not have a significant impact on delinquency. These findings allow researchers to begin to ask other questions about African American families. For instance, questions that examine the attachment to other individuals in the family structure and peers. Which has a greater impact, attachment to peers or attachment to family members?

Other methods of studying the role that attachment plays in reducing African American delinquency should also be addressed. Blake and Darling (1993) suggest that qualitative methods can be used to facilitate an understanding of the subject's point of view and at the same time allow the researcher the flexibility of studying social life. In other words, qualitative approaches can provide data that is more richly

detailed than quantitative data. In this particular study a qualitative study would allow for a more detailed understanding of the role of all of the household members in maintaining the family. The roles of all the family members would be explained in-depth. A study of this nature would also alleviate many of the issues of wording and social desirability in the questions posed by the researcher during the interview or focus group because the researcher would be given the opportunity to establish trust with the subject.

The findings reported in this dissertation, which are based on the African American sub-sample of the AdHealth data set, substantiate the basic principles of the family attachment aspect of the social control theory set forth by Hirschi (1969). This is exemplified in the significant relationship between family attachment and the three dependent variables. The results of this research have implication for delinquency policies and interventions. Specifically, the findings substantiate the view that patterns of deviant behavior vary according to the degree of family attachment. With this in mind, interventions might focus on ways to enhance bonding within the various types of African American family structures.

There are no studies that explore the role attachment plays in reducing delinquency of African American girls. There is a need to study the role that attachment plays in the lives of African American females (Matsueda & Heimer, 1987). Does family structure play a role in the attachment of African American female? A study of African American females could address these issues. It could also allow for the exploration of cultural issues that might address attachment and to whom it is

developed with. A study of this nature could also allow for the exploration of gender specific types of delinquency among African American youth.

In closing, I must reiterate that studies that address delinquency in the African American family must begin to see African American family structures as a protective factor in reducing delinquency. As a result, when legislative decision are made concerning delinquency of African American youth, the family should be taken into consideration and questions should be raised to assess whether or not these decisions are going to weaken or strengthen family relationships.

**Appendix A**  
**Instrument for Measuring Family Structure**

## In Home Questionnaire Code Book, S.11

Frequency	Code	Response	Variable Name	Type/Length
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3. <i>[Hand R show card 10.]</i> What is {NAME}'s relationship to you?			<b>H1HR3B</b>	num 2
14	1	wife or husband <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
43	2	partner <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
43	3	son		
29	4	daughter		
2598	5	brother <i>[skip to Q.5]</i>		
11	6	brother's wife <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
6	7	brother's partner <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
2470	8	sister <i>[skip to Q.5]</i>		
26	9	sister's husband <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
9	10	sister's partner <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
5862	11	father <i>[skip to Q.6]</i>		
62	12	father's wife <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
44	13	father's partner <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
6060	14	mother <i>[skip to Q.6]</i>		
291	15	mother's husband <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
231	16	mother's partner <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
8	17	father-in-law <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
11	18	mother-in-law <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
182	19	grandfather <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		

INHOME.CBK.FEB99

6

## In Home Questionnaire Code Book, S.11

Frequency	Code	Response	Variable Name	Type/Length
346	20	grandmother <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
1	21	great-grandfather <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
10	22	great-grandmother <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
207	23	uncle <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
199	24	aunt <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
223	25	cousin <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
37	26	nephew <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
32	27	niece <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
79	28	other relative <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
465	29	other non-relative <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
23	96	refused <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
1109	97	legitimate skip		
13	98	don't know <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
2	99	not applicable <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		

If REL = "brother" or "sister," ask Q.5. 5. (Hand R show card 12m/f.) Which description best fits {NAME}'s relationship to you?			H1HR5B	num 2
2025	1	full brother <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
436	2	half-brother <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		
40	3	step brother <i>[skip to Q.7]</i>		

INHOMECBK/PES99



**Appendix B**  
**Crosstabs for Family Structures**

## Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
EXSING * SINGLE	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXSING * NUCFAM	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXSING * EXNUC	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXSING * OTHER	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%

## EXSING \* SINGLE Crosstabulation

Count

		SINGLE		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXSING	.00	1837	2254	4091
	1.00	717		717
Total		2554	2254	4808

## EXSING \* NUCFAM Crosstabulation

Count

		NUCFAM		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXSING	.00	3078	1013	4091
	1.00	717		717
Total		3795	1013	4808

## EXSING \* EXNUC Crosstabulation

Count

		EXNUC		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXSING	.00	3641	450	4091
	1.00	717		717
Total		4358	450	4808

## EXSING \* OTHER Crosstabulation

Count

		OTHER		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXSING	.00	3717	374	4091
	1.00	717		717
Total		4434	374	4808

## Crosstabs

## Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
OTHER * SINGLE	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
OTHER * NUCFAM	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
OTHER * EXNUC	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
OTHER * EXSING	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%

## OTHER \* SINGLE Crosstabulation

Count

		SINGLE		Total
		.00	1.00	
OTHER	.00	2180	2254	4434
	1.00	374		374
Total		2554	2254	4808

## OTHER \* NUCFAM Crosstabulation

Count

		NUCFAM		Total
		.00	1.00	
OTHER	.00	3421	1013	4434
	1.00	374		374
Total		3795	1013	4808

## OTHER \* EXNUC Crosstabulation

Count

		EXNUC		Total
		.00	1.00	
OTHER	.00	3984	450	4434
	1.00	374		374
Total		4358	450	4808

## OTHER \* EXSING Crosstabulation

Count

		EXSING		Total
		.00	1.00	
OTHER	.00	3717	717	4434
	1.00	374		374
Total		4091	717	4808

## Crosstabs

## Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
EXNUC * SINGLE	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXNUC * NUCFAM	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXNUC * EXSING	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
EXNUC * OTHER	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%

## EXNUC \* SINGLE Crosstabulation

Count

		SINGLE		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXNUC	.00	2104	2254	4358
	1.00	450		450
Total		2554	2254	4808

## EXNUC \* NUCFAM Crosstabulation

Count

		NUCFAM		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXNUC	.00	3345	1013	4358
	1.00	450		450
Total		3795	1013	4808

## EXNUC \* EXSING Crosstabulation

Count

		EXSING		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXNUC	.00	3641	717	4358
	1.00	450		450
Total		4091	717	4808

## EXNUC \* OTHER Crosstabulation

Count

		OTHER		Total
		.00	1.00	
EXNUC	.00	3984	374	4358
	1.00	450		450
Total		4434	374	4808

## Crosstabs

## Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
NUCFAM * SINGLE	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
NUCFAM * EXSING	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
NUCFAM * OTHER	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
NUCFAM * EXNUC	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%

## NUCFAM \* SINGLE Crosstabulation

Count

		SINGLE		Total
		.00	1.00	
NUCFAM	.00	1541	2254	3795
	1.00	1013		1013
Total		2554	2254	4808

## NUCFAM \* EXSING Crosstabulation

Count

		EXSING		Total
		.00	1.00	
NUCFAM	.00	3078	717	3795
	1.00	1013		1013
Total		4091	717	4808

## NUCFAM \* OTHER Crosstabulation

Count

		OTHER		Total
		.00	1.00	
NUCFAM	.00	3421	374	3795
	1.00	1013		1013
Total		4434	374	4808

## NUCFAM \* EXNUC Crosstabulation

Count

		EXNUC		Total
		.00	1.00	
NUCFAM	.00	3345	450	3795
	1.00	1013		1013
Total		4358	450	4808

## Crosstabs

## Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
SINGLE * EXSING	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
SINGLE * OTHER	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
SINGLE * EXNUC	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%
SINGLE * NUCFAM	4808	100.0%	0	.0%	4808	100.0%

## SINGLE \* EXSING Crosstabulation

Count

		EXSING		Total
		.00	1.00	
SINGLE	.00	1837	717	2554
	1.00	2254		2254
Total		4091	717	4808

## SINGLE \* OTHER Crosstabulation

Count

		OTHER		Total
		.00	1.00	
SINGLE	.00	2180	374	2554
	1.00	2254		2254
Total		4434	374	4808

## SINGLE \* EXNUC Crosstabulation

Count

		EXNUC		Total
		.00	1.00	
SINGLE	.00	2104	450	2554
	1.00	2254		2254
Total		4358	450	4808

## SINGLE \* NUCFAM Crosstabulation

Count

		NUCFAM		Total
		.00	1.00	
SINGLE	.00	1541	1013	2554
	1.00	2254		2254
Total		3795	1013	4808

**Appendix C**  
**Factor Analysis of All Variables**

## Factor Analysis of All Variables

	Communalities
How much do you feel your family understands you? (H1PR5);	0.73
Your family has fun together? (H1PR7); and	0.798
Your family pays attention to you? (H1PR8).	0.674
How often did you paint graffiti? (H1DS1)	0.738
How often did you damage property? (H1DS2);	0.766
How often did you shoplift? (H1DS4)	0.788
How often did you seriously injure someone? (H1DS6)	0.911
How often did you use or threaten someone with a weapon? (H1DS1)	0.917
How often did you sell drugs? (H1DS1)	0.855
How often did you steal something worth less than \$50? (H1DS13)	0.899
How often did you take part in a group fight? (H1DS14);	0.916
How often did you steal a car? (H1DS18)	0.913
How often did you steal something worth more than \$50? (H1DS9)	0.909
How often did you burglarize a building? (H1DS)	0.914
Have you shot or stabbed someone (H1FV8)	0.897
How often have you carried a weapon to school? (H1FV9)	0.808
How often did you run away from home? (H1ds7_1)	0.501
How often did you lie to your parents? (H1ds3_1)	0.293



## **Appendix D**

### **Means and Standard Deviations for Attachment and the Three Dependent Variables**

Means and Standard Deviations for Attachment  
and the Three Dependent Variables

	Mean	SD
<i>Exnuc</i>		
Attachment	11.47	2.72
Lie	0.907	1.017
Delinquency	2.79	5.93
Runaway	0.129	0.535
<i>Exsing</i>		
Attachment	11.65	2.78
Lie	0.87	1.2
Delinquency	3.57	10.85
Runaway	0.226	0.912
<i>Nucfam</i>		
Attachment	11.53	2.7
Lie	0.926	0.136
Delinquency	2.85	8.25
Runaway	0.136	0.625
<i>Single</i>		
Attachment	11.68	2.69
Lie	0.87	1.2
Delinquency	3.26	9.54
Runaway	0.226	0.912
<i>Other</i>		
Attachment	11.63	3.07
Lie	0.896	1.28
Delinquency	4.03	11.22
Runaway	0.254	0.907

**Appendix E**  
**Human Subjects Institutional Review**  
**Board Approval Letters**

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WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

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Date: February 20, 2001

To: Douglas Davidson, Principal Investigator  
Kiesha Warren, Student Investigator for dissertation

From: Michael S. Pritchard, Interim Chair *Michael S. Pritchard*

Re: HSIRB Project Number 01-02-02

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "Juvenile Delinquency In the African-American Middle Class Family: Fact or Fiction?" has been **approved** under the **exempt** category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may **only** conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: February 20, 2002

Date: April 18, 2002

To: Douglas Davidson, Principal Investigator  
Kiesha Warren, Student Investigator for thesis or dissertation

From: Mary Lagerwey, Chair

Re: Approval not needed

This letter will serve as confirmation that your project "Juvenile Delinquency in the African American Middle Class Family: Fact or Fiction" has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB). Based on that review, the HSIRB has determined that approval is not required for you to conduct this project because you are reanalyzing the same data set that was approved in protocol 01-02-02 and will not collect additional data. Thank you for your concerns about protecting the rights and welfare of human subjects.

A copy of your protocol and a copy of this letter will be maintained in the HSIRB files.

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