A Measure of State-Trait Anger with Adolescent Sex Offenders, Adolescent Delinquents, and a Normal Adolescent Population

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A MEASURE OF STATE-TRAIT ANGER WITH ADOLESCENT
SEX OFFENDERS, ADOLESCENT DELINQUENTS, AND
A NORMAL ADOLESCENT POPULATION

by

Brett D. Lincoln

A Dissertation
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in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
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Research indicates that sexual offending juveniles are angry. Furthermore, sexual offending is seen as a primary means to reduce anger by these youth. However, there is little empirical support of these positions. Few comparative studies of sexual offenders with other experimental or control groups exist.

The purpose of this study was to assess differences of anger among three adolescent groups: juvenile delinquent, sexual offender and a control. Assessment of anger was across six subscales of Spielberger's (1988) State Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI). The subscales of interest were: State, Trait, Trait Anger Temperament, Trait Anger Repressed, Anger Expression/In and Anger Expression/Out.

A total sample of 85 youth participated and were assessed using the STAXI. When 28 delinquent, 30 sexual offender and 27 control youth were compared through six subscales of the STAXI the only significant difference was between the juvenile delinquent and controls on the state anger subscale. No other significant differences
were found between groups or across any other anger subscales.

This study found comparable levels of anger among sexual offenders, delinquents and controls. Significant State anger (the ongoing experience of relatively elevated angry feelings) differences between juvenile delinquent and control youth were also found. Future research needs to be directed toward assessing other personality characteristic differences among these three groups.
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A measure of state-trait anger with adolescent sex offenders, adolescent delinquents, and a normal adolescent population

Lincoln, Brett D., Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1992

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Brett D. Lincoln
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

While interest in adolescent sexual offenders has increased steadily during the past few years, Becker (1990) indicates that the recent increase in attention to this population has developed without a corresponding increase in our understanding of these individuals. She further states that no empirically validated model exists that addresses the evolution of deviant sexual behavior in adolescents. Fehrenbach, Smith, Monastersky and Deisher (1986) indicate that "the clinical and data-based literature on adolescents who commit sexual crimes is scarce" (P. 225). This lack of knowledge of the basic personality variables of sexual offenders extends to both diagnostic and treatment issues. Therefore, much of the assessment and treatment are based on clinical observation unsupported by empirical research.

Background of the Problem

Lanyon (1986) states that little clinical psychological data exist on adolescent sexual offenders. Davis
and Leitenberg (1987) indicate that clinical observations have been the major source of information about the adolescent sexual offender population with little research and statistical data to corroborate these observations and to support these assumptions about sexual offenders. Davis and Leitenberg (1987) and Lanyon (1986) further state that existing knowledge is more "clinical lore" than reliable statistical data derived from scientific or empirical investigation. In support of this statement, only two studies were located that empirically investigated the psychological composite or profile of juvenile sex offenders. Davis and Leitenberg (1987) summarize their literature review of sexual offenders with the following:

1. Studies involving matched comparison groups are almost entirely lacking. There is little knowledge as to whether sexual offenders differ from normal adolescents or other delinquents that have never committed a sexual offense.

2. Categories of offenders need to be separated and analyzed; i.e. adolescents that offend against younger children as compared to those that offend against those their own age, for example.

3. Analogous treatment methodology needs to be completed across a variety of population and the results reliably measured. (p.425)

Davis and Leitenberg (1987) disclose that 20% of all sexual rape and 30% to 50% of all child sexual abuse can be attributed to the adolescent sexual offender population. These authors state extensive social and psycho-
logical problems are present within the adolescent offender population, including a poor ability to establish and maintain close friendships, inability to be assertive and fear of rejection leading to social isolation with low self-esteem. Gender-identity confusion and poor sex role stereotypes, hostility towards girls and women, feelings of powerlessness, poor anger and impulse control, a lack of moral development and a belief in rape myths may also be identified within the adolescent sexual offender population.

Becker (1990) indicates that the population of adolescent sexual offenders has a heterogeneous composition, i.e., it evolves from all socioeconomic and racial backgrounds with varied antecedents of their deviant sexual behavior. Becker further indicates that some adolescent sexual offenders have developed true sexual paraphilias.

Davis and Leitenberg (1987) report that 63% of adolescent sexual offenders vs. 26% of incarcerated adolescent delinquents scored below average in a measure of skill in controlling anger. They further indicate that it is not clear whether the sexual offenders had greater levels of anger initially or just less skill in anger control. Becker (1990) stressed that one aspect of effective assessment of a sexual offender should include a measure of ability to deal with both stress and anger.

Many of the character traits that are attributed to
the adolescent sexual offender population have evolved from investigation of the adult offender population (Longo & Groth, 1980). Work with adult offenders has provided information that many adult offenders initiated their deviant behavior as adolescents (Longo & Groth, 1980). Retrospective studies of adults indicate that the majority of sexual offenders initiated aberrant behavior as adolescents and that this deviant behavior went undetected or was simply dismissed as unimportant (Abel, Mittleman, & Becker, 1984; Dwyer, 1989; Groth, Hobson, Lucey, & St. Pierre, 1981; Longo, 1982).

Research concerning rehabilitation suggests that much of the literature on adult and adolescent sexual offenders addresses anger and anger control as important components of treatment (Breer, 1987). Steen and Monnette (1989) state that anger is clearly evident within this population and can be a key factor in determining the extent of success or failure in response to sex offender treatment. However, few attempts have been made to assess rigorously the presence of anger, or in particular, anger control skills. Similarly, few treatment outcome studies exist.

Hence, while research findings indirectly suggest a high state of anger in adolescents sexual offenders and theoretical and speculative writings acknowledge anger as a component or predisposing element and treatment regimes
assume the importance of anger in therapy, little is known directly and explicitly about the extent and place of anger in this phenomenon. These indirect and speculative understandings are confounded by questions of comparative degrees of anger in this population and widespread adolescent populations and in general about adolescent delinquent populations. This literature does not begin to address anger components or types, or distinctions of potential understanding and in the prevention of adolescent sexual offenses.

Overview of the Study

Review of the literature found limited empirical research within the majority of reported personality constructs of adolescent sexual offenders and delinquents. As indicated, even fewer studies have been completed with control or normative group comparisons. It is felt by the author that a difference may exist among these three populations because the sexual offenders appear to have social affective expression difficulty leading to higher levels of withdrawal than the juvenile delinquent or a control population of adolescents. An evaluation of anger, as independent variables with these three personality groups, was unique because the measured or studied aspects of anger referred to had not been specifically measured across these three populations. This study
hoped to discover empirically what, if any, anger personality relationships were unique to each of the above two experimental groups relative to a control group.

This study proposed that differences exist among adolescent controls, sexual offenders and juvenile delinquents on the traits of anger and the expression of anger. Differences in anger and anger control across three adolescent populations, controls, delinquents, and sexual offenders were assessed.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

Research is reviewed first in terms of the general history of anger; second, the knowledge of sexual offenders; third, the specifics of anger and anger control variables under study in the offenders and delinquent populations.

Anger Definitions

Biaggio, (1980), Spielberger (1988), Tarvis (1989), and Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell and Crane (1983) state prior research of anger has been difficult because the definition has not been succinct. Simply defined, by Webster's dictionary, anger means rage or passionate displeasure (Cayne, 1989). In an attempt to clarify the definition of anger, Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1971) state that anger is a response to prevention of goal-seeking behavior, or the perceived insult to one's self esteem. "Emotional health is present when there is a balance between the expression of emotionally charged impulses, i.e., anger or aggression, without anxiety or guilt" (p. 348). Biaggio (1980) gives the
following definition of anger:

A strong emotion or experiential state that oc­
curs in response to a real or imagined frustra­
tion, threat, or injustice and is accompanied
by cognitions related to the desire to termi­
nate the negative stimulus.... Thus anger is a
reactive stimulus that is a reactive emotion
that has a clear antecedent. (p. 103)

Anger is frequently confused with hostility and ag­
gression and often is treated as if there is a linear re­
relationship between the above variables. Thus anger,
hostility and aggression are frequently investigated in­
terchangeably (Spielberger, 1988). In their research
however Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, and Crane (1983)
considered hostility to be a manifestation of anger and
of a product of higher cognitive thought process. Pape
(1986) conveys that the constructs of anger, aggression
and hostility need clarification, as well as various mea­
sures of the anger experience, its expression and the
situational variables in the research on anger. Biaggio
(1980) also indicates the importance of differentiating
between the emotional experience of anger and anger ex­
pression. As with any research, anger must be investi­
gated from a precise and clear model.

Tavris (1989) indicates that anger is a basic emo­
tion that is seen in lower phylogenic ordered animals.
In humans, the expression and management of anger is cul­
turally conditioned with a tendency to believe that the
simple release of anger is beneficial. Tavris expressed
caution concerning the inclination to ignore the social context and immediate consequences of the release of anger and suggests there is usually a negative relationship in the ability to express one's anger and how one feels about this anger. Tavris (1989) further found the expression of anger is reinforcing, thereby sustaining any behavior that is associated with the affective discharge. The expression of anger does not necessarily lead to its reduction, but can actually exacerbates it. Tavris (1989) further states that the aggressive catharsis of anger is not innate and therefore is a learned behavior. It was suggested that the purpose of anger is to make a grievance known and, if the grievance is not confronted, it will not matter if the anger is released or retained. In either case, the anger will continue to be present and if aggression is applied with anger, more aggression and anger will develop.

Spielberger (1988) and Spielberger et al. (1983) help clarify the anger concept by subdividing anger into separate dimensions such as State Anger, Trait Anger, and Anger Expression. State Anger (Spielberger, 1988) is described as:

an emotional state or condition that includes feelings of tension, annoyance, irritation, fury and rage, with concomitant activities of arousal of the autonomic nervous system which varies in intensity and fluctuates over time as a function of perceived injustice or frustra-
tion and resulting from the blocking of goal-directed behavior. (p. 6)

Trait Anger, (Spielberger, 1988) is defined in terms of individual differences in the frequency that state anger is experienced over time and assumes that those high in trait anger are more likely to perceive a wide range of situations as anger provoking and respond to such situations with elevations in state anger. (p. 7)

Spielberger (1988) subdivides Trait Anger further into two levels of temperament or how well individuals differ in their ability to tolerate or resist frustration or anger. Individuals with low levels of temperament tend to be quick tempered, ready to express their anger with little provocation, and are impulsive with poor anger controls. High temperament individuals are said to have a higher level of tolerance or resistance for frustration and thus do not discharge their emotions as readily as the former. Spielberger (1988) states that those individuals that bear these traits have low ego strength, are generally felt to be non assertive, highly sensitive to criticism, easily perceive affronts and negative evaluations by or from others and experience intense feelings of anger under such circumstances. The coping style of these individuals is best described as angry temperament-reaction type. This describes an angry reaction to situations that involve frustrations, negative evaluation or being treated unfairly. The angry temperament-reaction types are situationally determined by external stimuli.
Schill and Thompson (1987) supported and extended the definition of Trait anger and found that the higher one’s ego strength the lower the score on Trait Anger, but only if the individuals were from stable backgrounds, suggesting social learning factors are important aspects in learning to deal with anger.

The method of anger expression, as well as the amount and duration of anger, is a critical variable in anger assessment (Spielberger, 1988). Spielberger defined Anger-out as a term used to describe individuals who express themselves toward other persons or objects in their environment. This involves both the "experience of State Anger and manifestations of aggressive behavior which may be displayed in physical acts such as assaulting other persons or slamming doors or verbally expressing anger" (p. 5). According to Spielberger, Anger-in people, "repress angry feelings and deal with them only when they reach significant proportions; then, they express such emotions in a physical or verbal manner" (p.5). Spielberger’s definitions of Anger-in/out are a measure of the individual’s capacity of "anger retention," or threshold prior to the similar means of anger expression. Emotional and physiological complications can be a factor with excessive anger control, Anger/in (Spielberger, 1988). He indicates those individuals that invest a high level energy in monitoring and preventing
the experience and expression of anger may develop complications such as excessive passivity, withdrawal or depression.

The Role of Anger in Adult Sex Offenders

Scientific knowledge of the personality characteristics of juvenile sexual offenders is limited (Davis & Leitenberg, 1977). Therefore, much is taken from historical and longitudinal studies of adult offenders. Longitudinal studies of adult sexual offenders have indicated that as adolescents, they had been responsible for an estimated 18% of all sexual offenses and 19% of all forcible rapes (Blaske, Borduin, Heneggeler, & Mann, 1989; Groth & Loredo 1977; Longo & Groth, 1980; Longo & McFadin, 1981)

Longo and McFadin (1981) found that many adult sexual offenders were themselves victims of sexual abuse. These authors hypothesized that this may be the means by which many offenders learn to act out sexually. Their findings supported the premise that the majority of adult sexual offenders committed their first offense prior to, or during, adolescence. It was also noted that as the adolescent offenders matured, their offenses escalated to sexual violations of greater magnitude. The study indicated that offensive behavior is reinforcing. Research with adult offenders has suggested a positive correlation
between the amount of perceived stimulation by the of­
fender and the degree of aggression displayed toward the
victim during the sexual offense (Groth & Loredo, 1977).
It appears that as sexual behaviors become satiated or
less reinforcing, other behaviors may be substituted in
order for the offending behaviors to continue; sexual
misconduct may then gradually increase to more violent
forms of sexual acting out (Longo, 1982).

The elements of anger, aggression and sexual fantasy
appear to be significantly related for adult sex offend­
ers in social learning and maintaining sexual misconduct.
Beit-Halliahmi’s (1971) study advanced the position that
sexual and aggressive fantasies are positively corre­
lated. Dwyer (1989) also found that adult offenders have
problems with assertiveness and therefore are unable to
express anger in socially acceptable ways, thus leading
to aggressive acting out behaviors. Sadoff (1975) indi­
cated violent sexual offenders display a mixture of per­
sonality traits and behaviors, and that a common aspect
was the expression of hostility and aggression through
sexual behavior.

Other research, however, has suggested that the ma­
majority of sexual offenders are non-violent, fairly pas­
sive individuals who do not physically attack others, but
are involved in the expression of their emotions through
their deviant sexual urges (Daily, 1988). They tend to
take advantage of or manipulate people and situations to fulfill their emotional and sexual needs. Generally, they appear clever enough to fill their needs without violence.

Comparative studies between violent non-sexual and non-violent sexual offenders have indicated the following similar characteristics: (a) an inability to control anger and hostility, (b) a lack of intimacy, (c) poor sexual identity, (d) a devalued self-esteem, (e) and unassertiveness (Daily, 1988; Lang, Lloyd, & Fiquia, 1985). In a comparative study, Fiquia, Lang, Plutchik, and Holden (1986) found adult sexual offenders were more preoccupied with social standards and had more ability to accurately interpret social situations, but had higher levels of social anxiety from fear of social judgment than violent, non-sexual offenders. Adult sexual offenders were also found to express their emotions in a more indirect manner than the violent nonsexual offenders.

The indirect emotional expression and hypersensitivity to social opinion among sexual offenders appears to develop in their family of origination. Cushman (1987/1988) found that adult sexual offenders indicated they had poor interpersonal relationships in their families of origination, therefore increasing the probability of developing poor emotional communication skills.
Literature suggests that adult sexual offenders evolve from environments where poor communication is commonplace. Thus the development of poor social skills may result in deficits in securing basic social needs. Sexual offending may develop in response to such deficits, of which manipulation, anger and aggression appear to be an integral part. The research does suggest that the majority of sexual offenders are not violent but acting out their emotional needs.

The Role of Anger in Adolescent Sex Offenders

Davis and Leitenberg’s (1987) review of the literature suggested few studies exist on adolescent sexual offenders, the etiology of the disorder, or the personality characteristics of this population. Chewning (1990/1991) found the following to be the most salient psychosocial and psychosexual features of adolescent sexual offenders:

- have parents who use ignoring or excusing misbehavior as the primary method of discipline,
- are in special education classes, have been sexually abused, have engaged in a number of sexual experiences at an earlier age, spend more time thinking about sex than other adolescents, have more male friends and fewer female friends, maintain a much lower level of intimacy with their friends, relative to delinquents and nonreferred adolescents and closest friend tends to be not the same age. (p. 85)

In a study of personality traits, Kunke (1988/1989) found that juvenile sexual offenders had lower scaled
scores on the clinical scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) than other juvenile delinquents. In particular, the psychopathic deviate's scaled scores were significantly lower for sexual offenders than for delinquents. This scale of the MMPI was developed to identify patients diagnosed with psychopathic personality, asocial or amoral type (Graham, 1980). Inflated scores suggested undersocialized aggression with little depth of conscience, impulsiveness as well as poor anger control ability. Based on the limited research of sexual offenders and delinquents, relatively lower scores from the sexual offenders would not be surprising, in that scores on the MMPI would suggest an individual with "more passive, submissive, unassertive, and critical self identity" (Graham, 1980, p. 43). These characteristics are typical of juvenile sexual offenders.

In further investigation of juvenile sexual offenders, Chewning (1990/1991) concluded that sexual offenders display interpersonal behaviors which are closest to the avoidant or compulsive personality disorders. This research indicated the juvenile sexual offenders display an inhibited, detached, "submissive hostile" or passive aggressive means of relating to others. Chewning's research suggested that these traits were measurably higher for juvenile sexual offenders than for delinquents, who tend to be more extraverted.
The basis for these inhibited, detached, avoidant personality types may stem from the dysfunctional families of origin, in which sexual offenders are reared. Diffuse boundaries, family enmeshment and social isolation are common and many authors such as Fehrenbach et al. (1986), Groth (1977), and Shoor, Speed, and Bartlet (1965) suggest juvenile sexual offenders have little opportunity to develop and master the social skills necessary to properly establish and maintain appropriate social relationships. These impairments are said to lower peer bonding and impair the ability to establish relationships, especially with the opposite sex. Thus, social isolation of the offender is maintained, as well as familial isolation reinforcing and preserving enmeshed, symbiotic boundaries, or codependency within the family structure. Such interpersonal mistrust and social ineptness appear to be important factors in sexual offending. These factors help lead the offender to satisfy their sexual needs through secretive "guiltless" ways which reinforce the offending behaviors. Personal shame also develops from this social ineptness and may be a central component of sexual assault which then is validated by anger, projection and blame.

Mussack and Stickrod (1989) indicated that cognitive distortions or "thinking errors," are used by sex offenders to justify their destructive and sadistic actions.
towards others. Other personality defenses commonly include denial, repression, projection, passive-aggressiveness and anger. These thinking errors allow the offenders to dissociate their negative behaviors from reality and thus reinforce the avoidance of responsibility of their actions. Anger is seen as a primary defense, allowing facilitation of abusive behaviors toward others, and as a means of projecting blame. Minimization is another powerful defense used by offenders to reduce and deny the seriousness of the sexual offense (Fehrenbach et al., 1986). These defenses are not unique with sexual offenders and are shared with the non-sexual offending delinquent population.

Although empirical anger studies with this population do not exist, Breer (1987) states:

There is no denying that adolescents who molest are angry. Information taken is from personal accounts of adolescents that stated that often times anger is the only emotion that the adolescent is able to express and that anger is the only reason for the sexual aggression. (p. 59)

Steen and Monnette (1989) support this position and indicate that the crimes of sexual offenders are often crimes of displaced anger which are used to compensate for social ineptness, and is the one feeling they have learned to express openly.

Finkelhor (1990) stated that many sexual abusers have been victims and present a variety of emotional
symptoms, the most common of which are fear, anxiety, depression, anger and aggression. He also indicated that long-term effects from the child sexual abuse can include poor self-esteem, difficulty in trusting others, inability to be assertive and sexual maladjustment. These traits are also prevalent with sexual offenders. The combination of these factors and the emotional impact of modeling on adolescents is reflected in a study by Zwemer (1985). He found no difference between two groups of early- and middle-aged adolescent males in their ability to handle anger. He noted, however, that exposure to provoking stimuli in both age groups led to proportional increases of anger in each group.

In treatment of these concerns, Breer (1987), Lang et al. (1985), and Steen and Monnette (1989) indicate anger resolution, with proper expression, is a key factor in the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents as well as adult and juvenile sexual offenders. Although there are no empirical studies which support this position, they note positive treatment outcomes from clinical records.

Self-report assessments have yielded varying results with sexual offenders. Hall (1986) stated that hostility and anger may be critical components of sexual aggression and there is little research in this area. He found self-report inventories with adult offenders tended to be defensive and felt that further research was needed for
clarification for the use of self-reported anger inventories and response styles within sexual offender populations. Hall (1986) and Maiuro and Hall (1986) state that minimization and denial are prevalent personality traits of adult and adolescent sexual offenders which may effect results of such self-report inventories. However, Johnson and Anderson (1985) concluded that sexual pathology can be reliably and validly measured using a self-report questionnaire, Thorn's Sex Inventory, and that self-report questionnaires can differentiate between sexual aggressives and normals. This suggests that self-report evaluation measures with sexual offenders do yield valid results and can allow personality trait discrimination between sexually aggressive and normal adult males. By implication, this would suggest that self-report evaluation techniques can be successfully applied to the populations of interest (sexual offenders, juvenile delinquents and controls).

A review of the research on the issues of anger with juvenile delinquents and juvenile sexual offenders has found that discrepancies over the actual definition of anger from study to study have precluded the development of a central core of research findings. Spielberger (1988) defines anger in such a way as to provide a basic delineation of the relevant components of this concept; namely, State Anger, Trait Anger, Trait Anger Temperament.
and Trait Anger Repressed and Anger Expression In and Anger Expression Out. These concepts and the definitions were adhered to during this study. Such definitions allow the comparison of specific concepts of anger differences among the juvenile delinquents, sexual offenders and controls. In addition, the empirical study, as defined by Sykes (1978) is relying on observation, measurement, or experimentation, in contrast to theoretical or explanatory.

Review of research and clinical investigation of the personality characteristics as presented by adolescent juvenile delinquents and adolescent sexual perpetrators reveals a substantial lack of information in this area. It is also clear that there is very little research designed to assess the components of anger especially as it relates to these two populations. This gap in research is based on a history which is characterized by a lack of valid and reliable means of assessing anger which, as cited by Steen and Monnette (1989) is a key emotion in the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents and adolescent sexual perpetrators. Defining anger reliably is very important to a furtherance of our understanding and treatment in this area. Breer (1987) cites anger of sexual offenders to be of chronic proportions and a key factor in the exhibition of sexual aggression which gradually increases as the sexual offender matures. This supports
Tavris’ (1989) perspective suggesting the release of anger to be reinforcing and thus self perpetuating.

Many references are made to anger as a central determining variable in the presence of sexually acting-out behavior in both adults and juveniles. However, these references are of an anecdotal nature and there is little reliable and valid research to support the hypothesis of elevated levels of anger within these populations. Therefore, the importance of resolving anger issues during treatment or as a prerequisite to successful treatment has been questioned.

This research intended to assess the role of anger, and its various components, in the populations of juvenile delinquents and juvenile sexual offenders, thus enhancing the understanding of the determinants of anger in these two populations. While the clinical lore of the treatment of adolescent sexual offenders clearly indicates the necessity of the reduction of anger as an aspect of successful therapy, there is a significant lack of research supporting this proposition.

The main focus of the study was to assess the difference in anger levels among juvenile delinquent and sexual offender groups relative to a control group of non adjudicated adolescents. The study followed Spielberger’s (1988) concepts and definitions of anger.
due to theoretical and logical relevance to the etiology of anger in these populations.

A review of the literature indicates both the juvenile delinquents and sexual offenders, would have elevated levels of State Anger (Hall 1986; Longo & Groth, 1980) relative to a control group. This position is based on the literature review which is indicative of this population's inclination to deny and minimize their emotional problems. There are also suggestions that, relative to a normal adolescent population, the sexual offender and the delinquent would show elevated levels of "State and Trait Anger" or have a tendency to be chronically angry.

This conclusion is based upon a variety of factors which include a dysfunctional family structure, low self-esteem, and low ego strength. In comparison to juvenile delinquents, the above research suggests sexual offenders will have a higher frustration tolerance, but their tolerance is still probably lower than that of the normal population. Sexual offenders also appear to invest more time and energy into monitoring and preventing the experience of the release of anger than juvenile delinquents.

Application of Spielberger's (1988) definitions to the foregoing data suggests that juvenile delinquents have higher levels of Trait Anger and lower Anger-Expression controls than the sexual offender population. Con-
versely, sexual offenders may have greater skills, compensating for anger and frustration, than do the juvenile delinquents.

Spielberger's (1988) results and findings also support the idea that sexual offenders and juvenile delinquents tend frequently to experience intense anger, but the sexual offenders would be "Anger-In" individuals, (i.e., not readily expressing it) and that delinquents tend to be "Anger-Out" individuals (i.e., expressing in an aggressive manner).

The research question was to what extent do sex offenders differ from juvenile delinquents and "normal" adolescents in regards to specific anger variables? Review of pertinent literature led to hypotheses as to how these three groups of adolescents may differ across the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) variables.

Research Objectives and Questions

To assess possible differences in anger constructs among juvenile delinquents, juvenile sexual offenders and a control group, the following six research hypotheses were therefore formulated.

1. The mean raw score on the State Anger scale (S-anger) will be highest for the delinquent group, with the sexual offender next and lowest for the control group.
2. The mean raw score on the Trait Anger scale (T-anger) will be highest for the delinquent group, with the sexual offender next and lowest for the control group.

3. The mean raw score on the Trait Anger Temperament scale (T-anger/T) will be highest for the delinquent group, with control group next and lowest for the sexual offender group.

4. The mean raw score on the Trait Anger Repression scale (T-anger/R) will be highest for the sexual offender group, with juvenile delinquent next and lowest for the control group.

5. The mean raw score on the Anger/In Expression scale (AX/In) will be highest for the sexual offender group, with control group next and lowest for the delinquent group.

6. The mean raw score on the Anger/Out Expression scale (AX/Out) raw scores will be highest for the delinquent group, with control group next and lowest for the sexual offender group.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The experimental subjects in this study were formally charged, incarcerated and detained male youth offenders in the Michigan Juvenile Court system. To control for gender, males were used exclusively in the study. Experimental subjects consisted of 28 juvenile delinquents and 30 sexual offenders. There were 27 control subjects from one area middle school and high school.

For the purposes of this study the operational definition of juvenile youth included those 9 through 17 year old males who had been charged, incarcerated and detained by the court system. Both delinquents and sexual offenders were included. The juvenile delinquents were considered status offenders who were detained on court orders for stealing, assault, truancy, being a runaway or ungovernable.

The legal offenses of the juvenile delinquent subjects were as follows: 40% incorrigible, 40% truant or probation violations, 2% dealing with stolen property, and 18% assault and battery.

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The sexual offenders had been formally charged and/or prosecuted by the prosecuting attorney's office for criminal seriousness of the offense to the victim (Clemencia & DeLen, 1982). A summation of this law is presented in Appendix A. Participating sex offenders had been charged by the county with criminal sexual conduct in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd or 4th degree. The composition of the sexual offender group was as follows: 60% first degree, 16% second degree, 4% third degree and 20% fourth degree.

To increase the possibility that experimental subjects were functioning in an emotionally stable fashion at the time of evaluation, all incarcerated youth in the sample had at least 96 hours to acquaint themselves with the detention center to give them time to "settle-in," as recommended by Dembo, Dertke, Borders, Washburn, and Schmeidler (1986). Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the director of the juvenile court and juvenile home superintendent in a county of southwest Michigan.

Subjects for the control group were recruited from area public middle and high schools from a list of the population of students provided by each school. Subjects were randomly chosen from each list. In addition, the Western Michigan University Human Subjects Institutional Review Board Committee attested that the protection of
the subjects in the study was in accordance with Federal law and University policy (Appendix C).

**Measures**

The State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (see Appendix D) (STAXI) (Spielberger, 1988) is a self-report measure, containing 44 items using Likert-type response categories (1 = almost never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = almost always). The STAXI was originally standardized on a population of 1,264 male junior high and high school students. The median age of adolescent males in the normative group was 14 years with a range of 12 to 18. The inventory items can be readily understood by someone with a fifth grade reading level.

The STAXI measures anger on two primary dimensions: State Anger (S-anger), 10 items, which measure the intensity of angry feelings at a particular time, and Trait Anger (T-anger), 10 items, which assesses individual's disposition to experience anger. The Trait Anger dimension has two independent subscales: Angry Temperament (T-anger/T), a subscale of 4 items assessing a general propensity to experience and express anger without specific provocation, and Angry Reaction, (T-Anger/R), with 4 items which measure individual differences in the disposition to express anger when criticized or treated unfairly by another individual.
Two other subscales of the STAXI are Anger-In (AX/In), an 8-item scale measuring the frequency with which angry feelings are suppressed, and Anger-Out (AX/Out) an 8-item anger scale assessing the frequency with which an individual expresses anger toward other people or objects in the environment.

Although the inventory received high levels of scrutiny during its construction, Spielberger (1988) cautioned that the STAXI is a research edition, and that local norms for the scales should be developed for interpretation. Some of the participants in this study were outside the age range of adolescent males in the original standardization group (normative group had median age of 14 years with a range of 12 to 18). Therefore, raw scores of the STAXI subscales were used to compare groups in this study. Standardized scores are available but were not utilized due to these factors.

Spielberger (1988) reported internal consistency coefficients of .93 and .87 obtained on the State and Trait anger dimensions, respectively. T-anger/T and T-anger/R, had alpha coefficients of .73 and .50 respectively (Spielberger, 1988). Knight, Chisholm, Paulin, and Waal-Manning (1988) replicated and confirmed the independence of Spielberger’s anger expression sub-scales and found them to have satisfactory levels of reliability.
In terms of convergent validity, the T-Anger scale has been compared with the Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory (BDHI) and the Hostility and Overt Hostility scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The resulting correlations were in the moderate ranges of .59 to .71.

Spielberger (1988) also provides correlations of reliability of T-Anger and S-Anger scales with the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), and specifically with the Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism, and Lie subscales, as well as Trait Anxiety (T-Anxiety), Trait Curiosity (T-Curiosity), State Anxiety (S-Anxiety), and State Curiosity (S-Curiosity) of the State-Trait Personality Inventory (STPI). Moderate correlations were found between the T-Anger scale and EPQ Neuroticism, .50, and the STPI T-anxiety scales, .37. A low positive correlation .27, between T-Anger scale and the EPQ Psychoticism scale was found.

Procedures

Guardians of participants were individually contacted by the researcher and all aspects of the study were explained. Guardians signed and completed a consent form; they also provided information on their educational levels. Participation was voluntary and results were confidential, as names were not used on protocols. The
incarcerated youth were also asked to volunteer information about previous legal charges, out-of-home placements, and length of previous treatment.

The incarcerated youth were informed that their individual test scores would be available to them if they desired. Each incarcerated subject was given a protocol number which the researcher used to report results to those subjects who made a request for their scores. Three of the 58 experimental subjects made a request and were informed of their individual scores.

Instructions for the inventory were read to participants. They were encouraged to respond truthfully and to ask the researcher questions about the inventory instructions or items. Each subject was administered the State Trait Anger Expression Inventory with the researcher present. If any emotional discomfort resulted from their participation, the researcher was available to help address these concerns. No requests were made for this service.

Comparability of Groups

An attempt was made to match the control group by age and socioeconomic status to the sexual offender and delinquent groups. To assess comparability, an analysis of variance was conducted on each of the following variables: age of subjects, length of treatment and
educational level of the parents (socioeconomic status was determined by parental education).

A ratio scale was formed to measure the amount of previous treatment (in units) for each experimental subject. This unit was determined by the length of treatment (months), multiplied by a weight in accordance with the intensity of treatment. Hospitalization and/or institutionalization were assigned a weight of 5. This treatment option was weighed heavily because medication, milieu, group and individual therapies are traditionally available to patients in these environments. Placement out of the home weighed 2, and outpatient treatment 1. Incarceration in the juvenile home was not considered treatment for purposes of this study because no treatment is available for the youth.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Subject Demographics

The demographic characteristics of the three groups (delinquent, sex offender and controls) in this study are summarized in Table 1.

In Table 1, a one-way ANOVA failed to show any significant difference in the average age of the subjects in the three groups. A t test revealed that the mean length of treatment did not differ significantly for the delinquent and sex offender groups. Parent's average years of education differed significantly in the three groups, as shown in separate ANOVAs. Post-hoc Scheffe' analyses indicated that mothers and fathers of the control subjects had reliably higher education levels than the parents of sex offenders or delinquents. No significant difference in parental education level was found between the sexual offender and delinquent groups.

To further investigate this finding, a series of zero-order correlations were run to determine if significant relationships existed between parental educational level and the STAXI dependent variables. Results indicated weak to no correlations (see Appendices J and K),
Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Controls, Juvenile Delinquents and Sexual Offenders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Delinquent</th>
<th>Sex Offender</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14.94</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tx.(^a)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>33.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME(^b)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11.33</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FE(^c)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Treatment expressed in units
\(^b\) Mother's education expressed in years \(p < .05\)
\(^c\) Father's education expressed in years \(p < .05\)
thereby suggesting a lack of association between these variables.

Data Analysis

Means and standard deviations for the three groups on all scales of the State Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) are presented in Table 2.

Subject’s responses to the STAXI were examined using a 3 (sex offender vs. delinquent vs. control) X 6 (S-anger vs. T-anger vs. T-anger/T vs. T-anger/R vs. AX/In vs. AX/Out) mixed-model analysis of variance with repeated measures on the second factor. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 3. Using raw scores as the unit of analysis, there was a significant interaction between group and scale; therefore post-hoc analyses were conducted (a one-way analysis of variance for each scale). The F ratio for the State Anger scale was significant (see Table 4). One-way ANOVAS were not significant on the other five scales (Appendices E through J).

Further post-hoc Scheffe’ analyses were performed to assess differences among the 3 groups on the State Anger (S-Anger) dimension. There was a significant difference between the delinquents (X = 18.35, SD 7.28) and controls (X =13.55, SD = 7.44) on State Anger, but no differences between the sex offenders and delinquents or controls.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delinquents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(n=28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Anger</td>
<td>18.35 7.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Anger</td>
<td>26.39 6.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Anger Temperament</td>
<td>10.50 3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Anger Repressed</td>
<td>9.76 2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger Expression\IN</td>
<td>18.32 5.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger Expression\OUT</td>
<td>19.74 11.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
Analysis of Variance, 3 by 6, on Anger Dimensions Raw Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>dF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between Subjects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group (A)</td>
<td>276.59</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>138.30</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error Between</td>
<td>18210.00</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>222.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Subjects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scales (B)</td>
<td>11620.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2324.00</td>
<td>112.19</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A X B</td>
<td>444.77</td>
<td>10&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>44.48</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Within</td>
<td>8493.16</td>
<td>410&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>20.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> The Mauchley sphericity Assumption was violated; consequently, the degrees of freedom were adjusted using the Greenhouse-Geisser formula.

Table 4
One-Way Analysis of Variance on State Anger Dimension Raw Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>dF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>316.99</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>158.49</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>4004.96</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>48.84</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

In this chapter, results were presented on differences among three groups (delinquent, sexual offender and controls) on six anger dimensions. Six research hypotheses were evaluated.

The mixed model ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between group and anger subscale. Follow-up analyses tested the six research hypotheses. A significant difference was noted between the control group and delinquent group on the State Anger dimension. Other differences were not statistically significant.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary

The intent of this study was to examine the difference in levels of self-reported anger and anger expression among three adolescent populations: (1) juvenile delinquent, (2) sexual offender and (3) non-offending adolescents. The study evaluated anger on six dimensions as presented in the State Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI; Spielberger, 1988).

Results indicated that the juvenile delinquent group reported more State Anger than the non-offending control group. There was no significant difference in State Anger between the sex offender and delinquent groups and between the sex offender and control groups. None of the research hypotheses were supported in their entirety.

Despite the lack of support of the initial hypotheses, the results of this study may have meaningful implications concerning the personality functioning, interpersonal social skills, etiology and treatment of sexual offenders. Also, two major explanations (i.e., other emotional factors and the nature of the measuring instrument) are suggested.
Emotional Factors

Breer (1987) is skeptical of the clinical emphasis placed on anger during sexual offending by adolescents. He states that offenders are comfortable only with anger expression, and therefore anger is frequently cited to rationalize aberrant behaviors. He also notes that during the treatment of sexual offenders, many clinicians rely too heavily on anger resolution in an attempt to help the offenders control their behaviors. This over-emphasis may reinforce the denial of responsibility and prevent the treatment of other important variables which assist the offender to further develop appropriate emotional coping skills. Findings from the present study failed to support the idea that sexual offenders are more angry than other youth. Therefore, consistent with Breer’s (1987) concerns, other factors should be considered to explain why some delinquents act out sexually and others do not.

As evidenced in the literature review, there is little agreement regarding what anger represents, and even less specificity when the aspects of anger are considered for different clinical groups. Therefore, when clinicians indicate that sexual offenders are angry and that anger is a key factor in sexual offending, they are perhaps speaking of emotions or conditions other than anger.
These emotions might include anxiety, frustration, shame, guilt and depression, (Breer, 1987; Kinsler, 1988/1989) all of which may be masked in behavioral and verbal aggression.

Kinsler (1988/1989) believes that shame and fear are the paramount emotions underlying sexual acting out in sexual offenders. Fear is experienced as a result of the offender's inadequate social interaction skills, and shame is felt for not being able to communicate and meet psychosocial needs. Therefore, it is possible that the internal emotional state of offenders may actually be fear or shame rather than anger. Kinsler also believes that narcissistic rage (internalized as a result of the offender's inability to meet their psychosocial needs) may be a factor in the etiology of offending. It is possible that the offender's inability to fulfill these needs, leads to anxiety and frustration which are followed by a need to reduce these uncomfortable emotions. The offender may then act out sexually and feel shame regarding this behavior. The sexual aggression is then reinforced through the reduction of anxiety. However, the sexual behavior may eventually lead to increased anxiety through the experience of guilt, and thus the cycle repeats itself in an obsessive pattern. Anger appears to play a minor role in this obsessive pattern. By contrast shame, guilt and anxiety are paramount.
The strong positive reinforcement of the offender's sexual behavior, paired with the powerful shame and fear experienced, provide the basis for the development of further defenses, such as rationalization, projection, and denial of the aberrant behavior.

Nature of Anger Measurement

A secondary area of concern is the nature of the assessment instrument. It may be that Spielberger's (1988) inventory, the STAXI, may have lacked the sensitivity to detect differences which are actually present. Since the STAXI is a self-report measure, problems may exist due to biased responding. In Biaggio and Maiuro's (1985) review of current anger assessment inventories, response distortions such as social desirability may compromise valid results. According to Biaggio and Maiuro's (1985) criteria, the STAXI may be less sensitive to detecting bias by respondents. Because of a strong need for social acceptance and fear of social isolation (Fehrenbach et al., 1986), sexual offenders, relative to delinquents or normals, may display a greater tendency to present themselves in a socially desirable fashion, thus artificially lowering STAXI scores.

Second, the ability of participants in different groups to perceive accurately and reflect on negative emotional states may have also affected results. It is
common knowledge that both experimental groups, sexual offenders and juvenile delinquents, are often reared in dysfunctional familial environments with poor communication. Also, these families are frequently characterized by a lack of cohesiveness and display elevated levels of aggression (Davis & Leitenberg, 1987). Downey and Walker (1989) indicate that parental maltreatment of the child can lead to poor social skills which is linked to aggression, and low emotional peer bonding (Blaske et al., 1989), thereby leading to social isolation. Slaby and Guerra (1988) found that adolescents with antisocial behavior held a code of beliefs supporting the use of aggression in social problem solving, ultimately increasing self-esteem. It is plausible that subjects of both of these offending populations may have developed strong defense mechanisms to protect from further self psychological degradation. This insensitivity would also yield lower scores on the STAXI overall.

In the investigation of anger, numerous cognitive self-report rating scales such as the STAXI have been developed. The cognitive aspects of these measures are founded upon the experiential system of the individual. Biaggio and Maiuro (1985) have subdivided these cognitive measures into two areas: (1) cognitive questionnaires using forced-choice formats, such as the STAXI, and (2) projective measures.
Structured questionnaires are limited by providing a forced-choice response which can be influenced by social desirability. Therefore a basic assessment issue, internalization of anger which is typical of offenders, may not be addressed.

Projective measures may address such issues. These instruments are typically less structured. The subjects respond to hypothetical situations, and the responses are then rated by content. Thus the possibility for the measurement of internalization of emotion exists. The Rosenzweig-Picture-Frustration Study is an instrument which assesses a subject's ability to cope in frustrating situations. In this procedure, each subject is presented with 24 cartoon-like interpersonal frustrating pictures. Subjects are asked to complete a response to the presented frustrating event. Each response is then scored by the amount of frustration and aggression given in each answer. Projective measures may be a better technique with these populations and allow subjective responses which are unique to each individual and may also help to reduce interference from social desirability tendencies.

Aggressive cognitive mediation, fantasy and beliefs, are internalization factors which are highly correlated with aggression in delinquent youth (Breer, 1987). As previously discussed, Beit-Halliahmi's (1971) study resulted in a strong positive correlation between sexual
fantasy and sexual aggression. Dutton and Newlon (1988) investigated the role of cognitive mediation by studying early recollections and sexual fantasies of adolescent sexual offenders, and they found early recollections of fantasies and the development of sexual aggression were positively correlated. Such findings are consistent with other research (Ingersoll & Patton, 1990) which indicates that sexual offenders internalize and rehearse, via fantasy, the offending behaviors prior to the offense. Thus the possibility exists that sexual offending is a result of obsessive or ruminative, not impulsive, thinking, which leads to compulsive aggressive behaviors. Fantasy assessment may provide further insight regarding anxiety, frustration, and their relationship to sexual aggression.

The psychophysiological aspects of anger measurement have been investigated with limited success. As noted earlier, Tavris (1989) and Biaggio and Maiuro (1985) cite the work by Ax, which indicated that fear and anger arousal are similar physiologically but can be differentiated through physical measures. The most promising procedure is the measure of diastolic blood pressure in response to anger provoking situations. Anger expressive individuals appear to have lower diastolic blood pressure than anger suppressives. Previously it was noted that Spielberger (1988) found a significant negative correla-
tion between healthy anger expression and coronary heart disease.

Implications for Further Research

The use of raw scores, instead of standardized scores, for comparisons between groups limited the interpretation and generalization of the results of the study. Raw score comparisons are limited to between and within group factors only, providing no referent as to what constitutes typical (or normative) responses for adolescents. This study represents preliminary research with the STAXI as a means for assessing anger in selective adolescent populations. Spielberger (1988) recommended the collection of local norms for the comparison of subject scale scores; nevertheless, he developed a large standardization sample for this instrument. Clinical group comparisons using standard scores as the unit of analysis are left for future research.

Future research might circumvent the limitations of the current study by using multiple assessment techniques, thereby enhancing convergent validity. Such techniques may include having the experimental populations exposed to visual stimuli, such as video tape as in Zwemer's (1985) study, or to still pictures. A content analysis of the subjects' written or verbal responses could then be conducted. Such a procedure could be

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paired with a physiological, diastolic blood pressure measurement, and scores from standardized self-reports. Multi-method assessment may reduce the effects of response distortions and enhance the validity and reliability of anger assessment. Further information regarding sexual and aggressive fantasy could provide data on internalization of emotion, cognitive mediation of anger, and sexual aggression. These procedures may provide additional information regarding differences in the internalization and externalization of emotion within and between various clinical groups. Clearly, multi-method assessment on different clinical groups is a much needed addition to practice, and it would obviously enhance the knowledge base in this area.

Future research might also access multiple data sources. Parents, guardians, therapists, or child caretakers are valued sources of information. Use of multiple informants would not only allow clinical group comparisons to be strengthened, but it would also permit comparisons across different informants. For example, to what extent are perceptions of parents and a child's therapist consistent? Such analyses are desperately needed and enhance our knowledge base of sexual offenders and delinquents.

If assessments are completed in a controlled environment, it may be possible to compare physical and
verbal aggressive behavior with psychological assessment data such as an anger inventory. If parents are available, such ratings could also be compared to their ratings of the child. Such procedures may increase the validity and reliability of anger measurement with these clinical populations.

Treatment Implications

Lanyon (1986) indicates that treatment of adolescent offenders should be a primary concern. He bases this position on the data which indicate that most adult offenders initiated this behavior prior to or during the onset of adolescence. Many offenders as children were victims of adolescent offenders. According to Lanyon (1986) early intervention is paramount.

Some clinicians emphasize resolution of anger. Steen and Monnette (1989) have developed comprehensive methods of helping sexual offenders resolve anger and accompanying issues. They maintain that self anger for lack of control for overt behaviors and feelings of emotional worthlessness are frequently displaced on the victim during sexual acting out. Such displaced anger leads to "thinking errors" and inaccurate perceptions of reality, thereby leading to difficulty in social relationships.
Tavris (1989) states that the expression of anger is itself reinforcing. Thus, if one learns to sexually act out in order to reduce anger, then it would be reasonable to expect sexual acting out to proportionately increase or decrease with anger. Given that the results of the current study failed to reveal differential levels of anger between controls and sexual offenders, the notion of anger as an explanation for sexual offending behavior and as a major reinforcer for the continuance of such behavior is questionable.

Other clinical issues, therefore, should be addressed such as social interaction skills. When underdeveloped, such deficiencies may lead to anxiety and eventually obsessive thinking. Increasing social skills for the sexual offender is crucial (Breer, 1987). Many therapists of offenders emphasize the correction of "thinking errors" through the resolution of negative self perception in social interactions. A cognitive-behavioral approach through individual and group fantasy rehearsal is a potentially useful treatment (Ingersoll & Patton, 1990). Such interventions address the offender’s negative self-perceptions and social interactions. These interventions may also foster the introspective resolution of the etiology of their emotions (i.e., working through self doubt or feelings of helplessness) and thus reduce frustrations (Steen & Monnette, 1989). Cognitive
behavioral approaches could also be used in individual and group treatment of individual fantasies regarding negative social interaction.

Saunders and Awad (1988) stress the importance of establishing the exact nature of the sexual offense with the offender, the motivation behind the offending, as well as the fantasy preceding or accompanying the offense. Therefore the importance of the conditions prior to the offense helps to establish effective treatment interventions with the offender. Ingersoll and Patton (1990) state that offenders' sexually offensive fantasies are paired with, rehearsed, and reinforced during masturbation. Treatment interventions, with proper reflection, could help the offender recognize the cognitive distortions used to rationalize the perpetration of the offense. Rehearsal of appropriate, non-offending fantasy paired with masturbatory techniques and reinforcement, could be used to help offenders address obsessive thinking and establish healthy coping skills.

Limitations of the Current Study

In examining the results of this study the following limitations were noted.

Notably, all sexual offenders were included in one group. More specific delineations of subjects' sexual acting out behaviors (such as the four levels of criminal
sexual conduct charges [appendix A] or classification of subjects by O'Brien and Bera's (1986) scheme, may have led to further refinement of the hypotheses.

Another limitation concerns the dependent measure, the STAXI. As previously discussed, sexual offenders tend to present themselves in a positive manner. A structured response instrument, such as the STAXI, may limit or distort the responses of the subject. This instrument may not be sufficiently sensitive to the internalization of emotion found in these adolescents.

Finally, other specific personality measures could have been paired with the STAXI. Such measurements may provide information which would enhance the efficacy of clinical intervention with these populations.
Appendix A

Criminal Sexual Contact Law Summary
Degrees of Criminal Sexual Conduct  
in Descending Order of Offense

1. First degree CSC must involve sexual penetration. One of the following circumstances must also be included to be charged with this offense: victim under the age of 13, force or coercion, a weapon or the appearance of a weapon.

2. Second degree CSC must involve sexual contact without penetration. One of the following circumstances must be included in order to be charged with this offense: victim under the age of 13, force or coercion, a weapon or the appearance of a weapon.

3. Third degree CSC involves sexual penetration. One of the following second circumstances must also exist: the victim was at least 13 and under 16 years of age, force or coercion was used or the perpetrator knew the victim to be mentally defective, incapacitated or physically helpless.

4. Fourth degree CSC involves sexual contact (touching). Other secondary circumstances include force or evidence that the perpetrator knew the victim to be mentally defective, incapacitated or physically helpless.
Appendix B

Approval Letter from the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Date: July 25, 1991
To: Brett Lincoln
From: Mary Anne Bunda, Chair
Re: HSIRB Project Number 91-05-10

This letter will serve as confirmation that the changes (as per your July 25, 1991 memo) in your research protocol, "A Measure of State-Trait Anger with Adolescent Sex Offenders and Adolescent Delinquent's and a Normal Adolescent Population" were received and approved by the HSIRB on July 25, 1991.

xc: Carlson, CECF
Appendix C

State Trait Anger Expression Inventory
**SELF-RATING QUESTIONNAIRE**

**STAXI**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IDENTIFICATION NUMBER</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>TODAY'S DATE</th>
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<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
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</thead>
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<td>A B C D E F G H I</td>
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<td>MO DAY YR</td>
<td>S8TH GRADE OR LESS</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>S G C O D A</td>
<td>S S</td>
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<td></td>
<td>S G C O D A</td>
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**DIRECTIONS FOR MARKING ANSWER SHEET**

- Use a No. 2 black lead pencil. Do NOT use ink or ball point pen.
- Make each mark heavy and black. Mark should fill circle completely.
- Erase clearly any answer you wish to change. Make no stray marks.

**IMPROPER**

- [ ]

**PROPER**

- [ ]

**Part 1 Directions:** A number of statements that people use to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken the appropriate space on the answer sheet to indicate how you feel right now. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement, but give the answer which seems to best describe your present feelings.

1. I am furious
2. I feel irritated
3. I feel angry
4. I feel like yelling at somebody
5. I feel like breaking things
6. I am mad
7. I feel like banging on the table
8. I feel like hitting someone
9. I am burned up
10. I feel like swearing

**Part 2 Directions:** A number of statements that people use to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken the appropriate space on the answer sheet to indicate how you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement, but give the answer which seems to best describe how you generally feel.

11. I am quick tempered
12. I have a fiery temper
13. I am a hotheaded person
14. I get angry when I'm slowed down by others' mistakes
15. I feel annoyed when I am not given recognition for doing good work
16. I fly off the handle
17. When I get mad, I say nasty things
18. It makes me furious when I am criticized in front of others
19. When I get frustrated, I feel like hitting someone
20. I feel infuriated when I do a good job and get a poor evaluation


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Part 3 Directions: Everyone feels angry or furious from time to time, but people differ in the ways that they react when they are angry. A number of statements are listed below which people use to describe their reactions when they feel angry or furious. Read each statement and then blacken the appropriate space on the answer sheet to indicate how often you generally react or behave in the manner described when you are feeling angry or furious. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement.

WHEN ANGRY OR FURIOUS...
21. I control my temper
22. I express my anger
23. I keep things in
24. I am patient with others
25. I pout or sulk
26. I withdraw from people
27. I make sarcastic remarks to others
28. I keep my cool
29. I do things like slam doors
30. I boil inside, but I don't show it
31. I control my behavior
32. I argue with others
33. I tend to harbor grudges that I don't tell anyone about
34. I strike out at whatever infuriates me
35. I can stop myself from losing my temper
36. I am secretly quite critical of others
37. I am angrier than I am willing to admit
38. I calm down faster than most other people
39. I say nasty things
40. I try to be tolerant and understanding
41. I'm irritated a great deal more than people are aware of
42. I lose my temper
43. If someone annoys me, I'm apt to tell him or her how I feel
44. I control my angry feelings

SELF-RATING QUESTIONNAIRE
STAXI

SPECIAL CODES

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

For Computer Use Only

Appendix D

Analysis of Variance on State Anger
One Way Analysis of Variance on State Anger Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix E

Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger
One Way Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix F

Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger/Temperament
One Way Analysis of Variance Trait Anger
Temperament Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix G

Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger Repression
### One Way Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger Repression Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix H

Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger Expression/In
One Way Analysis of Variance on Anger Expression In Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix I

Analysis of Variance on Trait Anger Expression/Out
### One Way Analysis of Variance on Anger Expression Out Dimension Raw Scores

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Appendix J

Correlations Between Parents Educational Level and Anger Scale Raw Scores for the Total Group
Correlations Between Parents Educational Level and Anger Scale Raw Scores for the Total Group

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<th>Father</th>
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Appendix K

Correlations Between Parent's Educational Level and Anger Scale Raw Scores
### Correlations Between Parent's Educational Level and Anger Scale Raw Scores

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<td>(24) (17)</td>
<td>(27) (27)</td>
<td>(54) (66)</td>
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<td>State Anger</td>
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<td>Trait Anger Temperament</td>
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<td>.30 .01</td>
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Mo. = Mother  
Fa. = Father
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Hall, G. (1986). *Self-reported hostility as a function of offense characteristics and response styles in sexual offenders*. Unpublished manuscript. Western State Hospital, Fort Stellacoom, WA.


