

AN EVALUATION OF A COMMUNITY BASED
DELINQUENCY PREVENTION PROGRAM
ON THE BASIS OF GROUP AND
INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYMENT

Dissertation for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
WILBUR MONTGOMERY WHITNEY, JR.
1974



3 1293 10373 5100



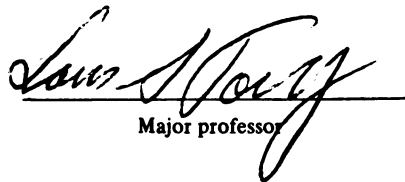
This is to certify that the
thesis entitled
AN EVALUATION OF A COMMUNITY BASED
DELINQUENCY PREVENTION PROGRAM
ON THE BASIS OF GROUP AND
INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYMENT

presented by

Wilbur Montgomery Whitney, Jr.

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Psychology


Major professor

Date 8-9-74

Q-7639



~~DEL 05 04 08 2~~

~~1045~~

~~2110 08 17~~

~~JUL 17 66~~

~~15 18 00~~

~~15 18 00~~

~~_____~~

~~2011~~

~~_____~~

~~_____~~

~~300 11~~

~~_____~~

~~_____~~

~~300 11~~

~~1045~~

~~MY 01 03 1~~

~~SEP 2 1966~~

~~R 2 73~~

~~SEP 18 1966~~

~~DEL 12 09 08~~

~~JUL 2 66~~

~~1045~~

ABSTRACT

AN EVALUATION OF A COMMUNITY BASED DELINQUENCY PREVENTION PROGRAM ON THE BASIS OF GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYMENT

By

Wilbur Montgomery Whitney, Jr.

Juvenile delinquency is a multivariate problem involving numerous social and economic characteristics in our society. There is a deficit of systematic evaluative research in the natural environment of delinquents and a need for the development of community-based programs encompassing social and economic variables in order to prevent and reduce delinquent behavior. The present study examined the effects of developing a community-based, peer-operated automotive repair business on the reduction of delinquency.

The results indicate that participation in the peer-operated business seems to have its major effect in reducing the occurrence of arrest relative to the control

Wilbur Montgomery Whitney, Jr.

treatment during the initial part of the experiment. The experimental groups superiority is largely due to inducing socially acceptable behavior in its participants through an intensive small group dynamics experience and structured vocational training.

Various programmatic procedures were discussed. Recommendations for future research and the need for community-based delinquency prevention programs were made.

AN EVALUATION OF A COMMUNITY BASED
DELINQUENCY PREVENTION PROGRAM
ON THE BASIS OF GROUP AND
INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYMENT

By

Wilbur Montgomery Whitney, Jr.

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology

1974

To
Vannie, Erika & Michelle

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

An innovative community longitudinal research project could not be accomplished without the help of many people dedicated to finding solutions to problems of our society. I would first like to thank my beautiful parents for without them I wouldn't be writing this acknowledgment. I would also like to thank all my brothers and sisters for without their sweat and blood, the educational opportunity afforded me would not have happened.

I would like to express my great appreciation to my committee chairman, Dr. Louis G. Tornatzky, whose friendship, patience, guidance, understanding, and faithful support have made this research possible. Working with Lou T. has made my educational experience at Michigan State University an appreciative and rewarding experience. My special thanks go to Dr. George W. Fairweather, whose sense of humor, advice and understanding has helped me cope with the problems and frustrations encountered in

this research. I would also like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Robert Calsyn and Dr. George Logan. And thanks also to Mrs. Marjorie Curtis for her patience and secretarial skills.

Special thanks to the entire staff of Youth Development Corporation for providing me a unique opportunity to utilize my skills for the people. Especially, I thank Bill Leavell and Walker Beverly for their continuous support in helping me overcome numerous frustrations, as well as all the beautiful young people of Community Automotive Corporation who served as participants for this study.

I thank my friends and fellow associates for being interested in my research and providing moral support, especially my friend and companions Garret Payne and Lonnie Anderson.

Finally, and most important, my deepest thanks go to my loving wife, Vannie, for her unwavering support, assistance and companionship throughout.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The Problem	1
Small Group Dynamics	7
Employment and Delinquency	14
Purpose	19
Experimental Hypothesis	20
II. METHOD AND PROCEDURE	21
Experimental Design	21
Participants	22
Experimental Subsystem	23
Control Subsystem	32
Measurement of Dependent Variables	35
Measurement of Internal Group Processes	39
III. RESULTS	42
Intake Results	42
Follow-up Results: Self-Reports	45
Follow-up Results: Police Data	52
Follow-up Results: School Data	57
Internal Analysis on Basis of Police Data	62
Group Process Results	75

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont'd.)

CHAPTER	Page
IV. DISCUSSION.	85
REFERENCES.	97
APPENDIX.	104

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1.0. Experimental Design of Study.	21
2.0. Matching Procedure of Participants.	24
3.0. Entry Dates and Follow-Up Periods for Participants.	37
1.1. Comparison of Participants on Age Upon Entrance into Experiment	43
1.2. Comparison of Participants on Educa- tional Status Upon Entrance in the Experiment.	43
1.3. Comparison of Participants on Y.D.C. Module Classification Upon Entrance in the Experiment	44
1.4. Comparison of Participants on Race Upon Entrance in the Experiment.	44
2.1. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Cumulative Arrests for 90 Days of Follow-Up.	46
2.2. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 90 Days of Follow-Up.	46
2.3. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 90 Days of Follow-Up.	47

LIST OF TABLES (cont'd.)

TABLE	Page
3.1. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Cumulative Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up	47
3.2. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 180 Days of Follow-Up	48
3.3. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 180 Days of Follow-Up	48
4.1. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Cumulative Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up	50
4.2. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 270 Days of Follow-Up	50
4.3. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 270 Days of Follow-Up	51
5.1. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Cumulative Arrest for 360 Days of Follow-Up	51
5.2. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 360 Days of Follow-Up	52
5.3. Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 360 Days of Follow-Up	52

LIST OF TABLES (cont'd.)

TABLE	Page
6.1. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 90 Days of Follow-Up.	54
6.2. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up	55
6.3. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up	56
6.4. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 360 Days of Follow-Up	57
7.1. Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on School Absences (1/2 days) from School Data. .	59
7.2. Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on School Suspensions from School Data.	60
7.3. Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on Mean Grades from School Data	61
8.1. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the <u>First</u> Six Months, for 90 Days of Follow-Up. . . .	64
8.2. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who Entered the Experiment During the <u>Second</u> Six Months, for 90 Days of Follow-Up. . . .	65

LIST OF TABLES (cont'd.)

TABLE	Page
8.3. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the <u>First</u> Six Months, for 180 Days of Follow-Up . . .	66
8.4. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the <u>Second</u> Six Months, for 180 Days of Follow-Up . . .	66
9.1. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who were in Experiment <u>More</u> Than Three Months for 90 Days of Follow-Up.	69
9.2. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who were in Experiment <u>More</u> Than Three Months for 180 Days of Follow-Up	69
9.3. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest Who were in Experiment <u>More</u> Than Three Months, for 270 Days of Follow-Up	70
9.4. Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who were in Experiment <u>More</u> Than Three Months, on 360 Days of Follow-Up.	70
10.1. Comparison of Participants in Experiment <u>Less</u> Than Three Months on Police Data Arrests for 90 Days of Follow-Up. . . .	71
10.2. Comparison of Participants in Experiment <u>Less</u> Than Three Months on Police Data Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up . . .	71

LIST OF TABLES (cont'd.)

TABLE	Page
10.3. Comparison of Participants in Experiment <u>Less</u> Than Three Months on Police Data Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up . . .	72
10.4. Comparison of Participants in Experiment <u>Less</u> Than Three Months on Police Data Arrests for 360 Days of Follow-Up . . .	72
11.1. Comparison of Participants on Self Report Explanations for Leaving the Experiment.	74
12.1. Matched Pairs on 5/15 Sociometric Rat- ings Done <u>Before</u> Some Participants Self Reported Arrests	77
12.2. Matched Pairs on 2/15 Sociometric Rat- ings Done <u>After</u> Some Participants Self Reported Arrests	78
12.3. Matched Pairs on 2/15 Sociometric Rat- ings Done <u>Before</u> Police Reported Arrests	79
12.4. Matched Pairs on 5/15 Sociometric Rat- ings Done <u>After</u> Police Reported Arrests	81
13.1. Comparison of Participants Mean Ratings on Morale	83
14.1. Comparison of Participants Mean Ratings on the Job Behavior Scale	84

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	Page
A. JOB EVALUATION FORM	104
B. CONTROL PARTICIPANT'S JOB PLACEMENTS. . .	105
C. PARTICIPANTS INTAKE FORM.	106
D. PARTICIPANTS FOLLOW-UP FORM	108
E. SOCIOMETRIC RATING SCALE.	110
F. MORALE RATING SCALE	111
G. JOB BEHAVIOR SCALE.	113
H. ADMINISTRATIVE AGREEMENT.	115

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Juvenile delinquency is a multivariate problem and has been related to numerous social and economic characteristics in our society, i.e. the family (Glueck and Glueck, 1968), social class (Empey and Erickson, 1970), education (Coleman, 1966), and socio-economic status (Shaw and McKay, 1970). In general, researchers have been concerned with why some children become delinquent and how delinquency can be prevented, controlled and treated. While many delinquency programs have been conducted in institutional settings, there is a great need for systematic and evaluative research and the development of programs encompassing social and economic variables in the natural environment of delinquents.

There are many factors which seem to contribute to the development of delinquency and most have been

thoroughly documented. Many theorists consider the family the most significant factor in the development of juvenile delinquency (Glueck and Glueck, 1968; Monahan, 1957; Browning, 1960; Gold, 1963; Slocum and Stone 1963; Peterson and Becker, 1965). In general, these studies indicate that delinquents are exposed to broken or disorganized homes and family environments. It has also been shown that delinquency is related to family structure (Rubin and Hill, 1970) as well as socialization in the family (Shafer and Knudten, 1970).

Another variable which has been related to delinquency is social status. Empey and Erickson (1970) did a rather comprehensive analysis of the relationship of delinquency to social status. They found that middle class boys in contrast to lower and upper class boys commit the most serious offenses. On the other hand, Gold (1966) and Dell (1963) have indicated that one of the factors appearing to facilitate delinquency was a low level of socioeconomic status; while Pine (1965) found no significant relationship between social status and delinquency.

The contradiction in the aforementioned results indicate one of the prevalent problems in delinquency

research; that different conclusions can be drawn depending upon the variable studied, sample used and method of data collection. For example, those youth whose anti-social behavior brings them into court are more likely to be from a lower socioeconomic level, than those released by police to their parents. Therefore, if a researcher is interested in the relation of delinquency to socioeconomic status, results will vary depending upon the source of collecting the data.

In addition to the characteristics of the family and socioeconomic status a number of other characteristics have been shown to be related to delinquent behavior, such as delinquent behavior is directly influenced by urban areas (Spergel, 1966; Gordon, Short, Cartwright and Stroddack, 1963), education status of delinquents tends to be lower than non-delinquents (Coleman, 1966; Cloward and Jones, 1963; Elliot, 1962) and delinquency often develops from identification with delinquent peers (Geiss, 1967; Empey, 1966).

As shown from the preceding literature review, delinquency has been related to a number of characteristics. However, the exact relationship between

delinquency and these characteristics is still relatively unknown and has made the development of prevention, control and treatment programs a difficult task. Wheeler et al (1969) has adequately summarized the difficulty of developing delinquency research by stating the following:

The field of delinquency touches a wide variety of social institutions. Its causes are still incompletely understood. Indeed, the number of proposed solutions is as great as the number of occupations, professions and organizations that have a stake in delinquency prevention and control.

However, in recent years a wide variety of community, state and federal agencies have become involved in delinquency prevention, control and treatment. The major criticisms of these efforts are the lack of experimental evaluation, inappropriate testing, the inability to control important variables and the difficulty in determining their impact on reducing crime and delinquency.

Several community-based delinquency prevention programs have been initiated, such as, the Fuld Neighborhood House, Carson Pirie Scott EE Program and the Los Angeles Youth Project (Trojanowicz, 1973). These programs localized neighborhood efforts and attempted to work with socially and economically "disadvantaged" area residents.

Unfortunately, these programs have not been subjected to appropriate testing and it is difficult to evaluate them objectively. Upon evaluation of these programs it was felt that although most did influence the youngsters in the area and did help reduce rates of delinquency, the evaluations were not rigorous and many of the variables used were not controlled. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate their success realistically and to definitely state that they did have a major impact on reducing crime and delinquency.

In addition to community-based preventive programs, a number of juvenile rehabilitative programs have been initiated in recent years. The Provo Experiment (Empey and Rabow, 1961); the Highfields Project (McCorkle, Elias and Bixby, 1958); and the Fremont Experience (Seckel, 1967) provide a sampling of innovative approaches to the problem of delinquency. However, these three programs are concerned with rehabilitation of delinquents once they have come in contact with the formal criminal justice system. But these very institutions often reinforce the youths negative attitudes toward authority and make it increasingly difficult to work out personal problems.

This coupled with the artificial atmosphere of the institution, does not create a situation conducive to personal growth, rehabilitation and increased social functioning (Trojanowicz, 1973). The present study, therefore, is concerned primarily with prevention in a community setting.

In summary, there is a great need to develop programs which not only prevent youth from being institutionalized, but which also allow for the development of social and personal growth and individual autonomy in their community environment. Further there is a need for programs which can be systematically evaluated through experimental research and which can provide measurable quantitative results of their impact on reducing crime and delinquency.

The present study will attempt to meet these needs through the development of an innovative delinquency prevention program which:

1. Includes a longitudinal naturalistic experiment.
2. Provides built-in methods for systematic program evaluation.
3. Is based within the community of the delinquent youths.

More specifically, the present investigation will provide an experimental study utilizing small group dynamics and employment as a means of preventing juvenile delinquency. The major concern here is developing a program in which delinquents can achieve personal independence and autonomy through peer support.

Small Group Dynamics

One of the purposes of the present study is to investigate whether or not the formation of small task-oriented groups will affect the reduction in delinquent behavior. For this reason, groups will be defined and some of the paramount features of small groups and related research will be discussed.

There is no single definition of "group" that is generally accepted by all students of small group behavior. Most researchers have defined small groups in terms of specific characteristics rather than a single definition. Groups have been defined on the basis of a number of characteristics, such as perception of members (Bales and Slater, 1955), motivation and need satisfaction (Bass,

1960; Cattell, 1951), organization (McDavid and Harari, 1968), and interdependency (Cartwright and Zander, 1968).

While many of the previously mentioned characteristics are involved in the formation, perception and consequences of group processes, none of these factors is either necessary or sufficient to define "group." Hare (1962) has summarized several characteristics which differentiate the group from a collection of individuals.

These are:

1. The members of the group are in interaction with one another.
2. They share a common goal and set of norms, which give direction and limits to their activity.
3. They develop a set of roles and a network of interpersonal attraction, which serve to differentiate them from other groups.

The definition of group by Shaw (1971) will be used in the present study. He states that

a group is defined as two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person.

Utilizing the preceding definition of a group, several salient parameters of small groups will be discussed in relation to the development of small, informal, task-oriented groups. Although there are several

conceptions of group principles pertinent to the development of groups in this investigation, empirical data relative to these factors and their effect is sparse. Those principles to be discussed are: 1) group goals; 2) communication; 3) cooperation; and 4) group support.

In the typical group, there exists at least one goal, which is acceptable to a majority of the group and can be properly identified as the group goal. Zander and Newcomb (1967) have shown that group members who accept the group goals are motivated to enact activities that are expected to aid in the achievement of this goal and they are pleased (experience tension reduction) when there is movement toward the goal and when the goal is achieved. These findings might be relevant to the development of task-oriented groups in the present investigation.

Group communication is the second group principle pertinent to this study. The studies of Maier (1950) and Shaw and Blum (1965) show that on difficult tasks group performance is facilitated by the extent to which group members can freely communicate their feelings to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to these researchers effective group functioning can be facilitated by providing

the opportunity for group members to express their feelings and opinions in an uninhibited manner. There are several ways in which this opportunity for expression can be provided--through a group leader, who encourages the expression of minority opinion, or by some device which permits an indication of satisfaction or dissatisfaction without focusing attention on the group member.

The third group principle to be discussed is the relationship between cooperation and competition and group performance. Cooperation can be defined as a situation in which the goals of the group are homogenous, and competition as a situation in which the goals are heterogenous. Several studies have shown that groups perform more efficiently when they are cooperative (Blau, 1954; Hammond and Goldman, 1961; Raven and Eachus, 1963; Deutsch, 1949). This effect is produced largely through the specialization of individual contributions and through helpful actions of each member vis-a-vis other members in the cooperative situation. Motivational factors are also important. Even though the competitive situation may arouse greater motivation than the cooperative situation, this increased motivation does not always increase group performance.

It has also been shown that group support is important in sustaining group activity (Hollander, 1967). The approval of others often provides a significant reinforcement function in lending support to individuals' actions. Such support can also play a vital preservative role and often acts as a gauge for the individual to know how he is doing in the group (Kelly, 1952). Group support is closely tied to the motivation to take part in functional group tasks. Thus, whenever individuals come together to achieve some function, they often rely on one another for adequate performance. Wyer (1966) has shown that to the extent that individuals find the achievement of the group's goals rewarding, they will act in consonance with its achievement and be supported by the positive response of others.

On the basis of the preceding literature review on group goals, communication, cooperation and group support, it was decided to investigate these principles as they relate to task-oriented groups in this study. In addition, since delinquents often manifest their behavior as a part of a group or gang (Thrasher, 1936; Cohen, 1955; Ohlin and Cloward, 1960; Miller, 1958), it is felt that

the incorporation of group dynamics would be a natural vehicle through which to view how delinquent behavior may be reduced.

Many approaches and methods incorporating small group dynamics have been used in treating delinquents and other types of "social deviant" behavior. Parole and probation agencies have been experimenting with group treatment in recent years. However, rather loose and ambiguous terminology has resulted as well as the lack of experimental evidence which shows the effects of these methods.

One group treatment method used with delinquents is guided group interaction. This is based upon the assumption that through the group and its processes the delinquent can solve his problems. According to McCorkle (1954), guided group interaction assumes that delinquents will benefit from the freedom to discuss their problems and their own roles and relationships within the group. While guided group interaction has been used primarily for rehabilitation purposes within institutional settings (i.e. Highfield Project), it has not been proven to be effective in deterring delinquency in the natural environment of delinquent youths.

A number of other group treatment methods have been used with delinquents, such as group counseling (Sharp, 1959; Sarri and Vinter, 1965; Walker, 1959), group therapy (Gazda, 1968; Shellow, Ward and Rubenfield, 1958; Allen, 1970), and group psychotherapy (Hesko, 1962; Schulman, 1957). Some of the deficiencies of these methods were noted by Slaikau (1973), who reviewed twenty-three studies evaluating group treatment of juvenile delinquents. The major criticism drawn from the review is that, although the evaluation studies report a variety of positive results, as a whole the investigations fall short of meeting the criteria of scientific research. This makes it impossible to determine if these group treatment methods are effective modes for rehabilitation of delinquents.

In a somewhat different approach, Fairweather et al (1964) has shown that, compared to traditional treatment programs of schizophrenic patients, a small group program demonstrated a heightened social activity in all situations and patients more frequently perceived their fellows as socially desirable. In exploring group processes of these problem solving task groups, they also

discovered that they adequately solved complex interpersonal problems and they frequently considered their own task group and members as helpful in their recovery.

In a later study, Fairweather et al (1969) incorporated small group dynamics in developing a community treatment program of mental health patients. They found that in the community the activated groups resulted in excellence of group leadership and group performance. Although the findings of Fairweather (1964, 1969) did not deal directly with delinquents, they do indicate the usefulness of incorporating small group dynamics in a community treatment program.

Employment and Delinquency

In addition to utilizing small group dynamics, the present study will also provide employment opportunities to delinquent youths. Income and employment are areas so fundamental to our society that they become a natural setting for efforts designed to reduce delinquency. The ability to find a suitable job or occupation is one of the

basic means our society provides for the legitimate achievement of common success goals.

Fairweather et al (1969) derived a series of principles for the operation of a community treatment program which should be relevant to the present investigation. These principles involve the employment of mental patients in their own business. They noted that as the members developed a greater stake in the social system, they became more responsible; pride came with personal independence and the ownership of a business. Their results further indicate that community treatment programs need to provide as much autonomy to their members as possible, as well as meaningful work (as society defines it). These findings suggest that for both the mental patient and other marginal individuals there is an urgent need to create new and more participative social statuses and roles.

There are a number of investigators who believe economics and employment are closely related to delinquency. Cloward and Ohlin (1960) hypothesize that:

Delinquency represents not the lack of motivation to conform but quite the opposite; the desire to meet social expectations itself becomes the source of delinquent behavior, if the

possibility of meeting these expectations are limited or nonexistent.

According to Shaw and McKay (1970) there is a precise relationship between economic status and delinquent behavior. They believe the greater the economic deprivation the greater the delinquency; the lesser the economic deprivation the less the delinquency.

Although there are many other variables which contribute to delinquent behavior, economic factors clearly do have some criminogenic importance. The exact etiological importance and independent effects of economics and employment on the shape and incidence of delinquency are still unclear (Schafer and Knudten, 1970). In other words, merely providing an employment opportunity to a delinquent youth does not mean the automatic disappearance of delinquent behavior.

The relationship between employment and delinquency is evidenced by the comprehensive study of Fleisher (1966), who has shown that both income and employment can be correlated with delinquency rates. He found that increases in the unemployment rates were associated with increased delinquency rates in several large cities over a period of years. Estimates of this study indicate that

a ten percent rise in employment might produce a twenty percent drop in delinquency. Singell (1966) has also concluded that delinquency is significantly and positively correlated with unemployment.

The use of employment as a means of reducing delinquency is neither new nor innovative. Since 1962, Congress has passed many laws dealing with manpower, unemployment, and related problems of "disadvantaged" and delinquent youth (i.e. Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962). At least thirty-five federal financed programs for youth have been developed, such as Jobs Corps, Neighborhood Youths Corps, On the Job Training, etc. However, these programs have encountered a multitude of programmatic and evaluative problems and little is known concerning their effectiveness in reducing delinquent behavior.

Probably the most serious problems of employment programs for delinquent and "disadvantaged" youth is their inability to obtain jobs that provide youth with marketable skills and lead to a higher social status, once they have completed the program. Unskilled youth are often given low-paying, "dead end" jobs characterized by high turnover, not necessarily because they are filled with

marginal workers, but because the jobs themselves are marginal (Cohen, 1966).

Another programmatic problem is placing delinquents on jobs because of the opinions of employers about delinquent youths. Recent studies (Moed, 1967; Cohen, 1965) of employer's opinion have revealed general dissatisfaction with the motivation and attitudes of delinquent youth. Many employers complained that these youths are irresponsible, shortsighted and unstable. In addition, employers abuse arrest records on a large scale and are unwilling to hire youth who are "hard core" delinquents. These factors can be easily perceived by delinquent youth in search of employment and may partially account for the difficulty of federal employment programs to maintain youth over a long period of time.

Employment problems of delinquent youth are further complicated because it is often assumed that once the youth have been trained, they are prepared to compete in the labor market, meet the qualifications for jobs, and are able to find employment. Often youth are left on their own to find themselves a job (Levitan, 1967). Ferman (1967) has also noted that if young people do obtain a

suitable job, they often find themselves with additional pressures and responsibilities in the form of being the only young person employed under the provisions that they must prove themselves capable, perform in an environment perceived as hostile and threatening, and without any supportive services (i.e. counseling).

Purpose

The present study represents an experimental test of the two issues discussed above. The purpose is to examine the effectiveness of small group dynamics and employment on the prevention and reduction of delinquent behavior. In an effort to test the effect of these variables, the experimenter developed informal task-oriented groups of delinquent youths, who were employed and operated a service-oriented business. The delinquent behavior of these individuals was compared to the delinquent behavior of youth employed in individual employment situations.

Experimental Hypothesis

The specific hypothesis tested in this study is stated as follows:

Participants in the experimental group will show significant improvement as compared to the control group on three dependent measures:

- a. Occurrence of delinquent offenses
- b. Educational status
- c. Length of employment

In addition to testing the above hypothesis, the secondary goal of the present study is to explore the relationship between internal group processes and the reduction of delinquent behavior as measured by these three dependent outcomes.

CHAPTER II
METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Experimental Design

The conditions and experimental design for the present study are shown below in Table 1.0. The experiment consists of a posttest only-control group design (Cambell and Stanley, 1963).

Table 1.0.--Experimental Design of Study

Conditions	Treatments
Experimental Subsystem N = 31	Group Employment
Control Subsystem N = 30	Individual Employment

Participants

The participants of the present study were sixty-one delinquent youths between the ages of 14 and 19. All participants were clients of Youth Development Corporation (Y.D.C.), which is a Model Cities delinquency prevention program in Lansing, Michigan. All participants volunteered to take part in the present experiment. Participants were referred to the experimenter from the Outreach Staff of Y.D.C.

Delinquency was defined by the modular classifications used by Y.D.C. which were:

1. Youth who have not displayed behavior resulting in official police or school action, but who have been identified as in danger of becoming delinquents.
2. Youth who have been arrested or suspended but who, as yet, have not come under the official jurisdiction of the court.
3. Youth who are under the official jurisdiction of the court, but who have not been institutionalized.
4. Youth currently in public or private institutions for juvenile offenses.
5. Youth once institutionalized and now re-entering the community.

These five classifications were collapsed into a dichotomous scale, either classifications 1 and 2 (low delinquency) or modules 3, 4 and 5 (high delinquency). Participants were assessed for classification on the basis of a personal interview with the experimenter and case records from Y.D.C.

Participants were matched on the basis of past delinquent behavior (modular classifications) and past experience in automotive mechanics, which was determined as either high or low from the personal interview with the experimenter. The matching procedures are shown below in Table 2.0. After each participant was classified according to the four matching categories, he (she) was then randomly assigned to participate in the automotive repair center (experimental subsystem) or given employment as Y.D.C. work interns (control subsystem).

Experimental Subsystem

The experimental subsystem consisted of a service oriented business (automotive repair center) operated as a non-profit cooperative and located in the community of

Table 2.0.--Matching Procedure of Participants.

Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
High-Delinquency	High-Delinquency	Low -Delinquency	Low -Delinquency
High-Automotive	Low -Automotive	High-Automotive	Low -Automotive
N = 13	N = 10	N = 12	N = 26

Lansing. The subsystem provided delinquent youth with training in automotive mechanics and skills in business management. It also was a service to the community and offered rates to its members on minor repairs.

The participants selected to take part in the experimental subsystem were given stipends by Y.D.C. at two dollars per hour for ten hours per week. These stipends covered their participation in automotive training and operating the business.

The experimental subsystem was developed in three distinct phases: 1) Training in business management skills and the purpose of cooperatives; 2) Training in automotive mechanics; and 3) The application of training in operating the business. However, all participants were not involved in all three phases of the subsystem. Only the initial twenty participants selected participated in the first two phases, while new participants entered the subsystem during the third phase.

Phase 1

During the first phase, participants in the experimental subsystem were required to attend an extensive

training seminar on business management and the purpose of cooperatives. These seminars were held three times per week and lasted approximately six weeks. A consultant with forty years of experience in operating cooperatives was hired by Y.D.C. to conduct these seminars. This training included a weekend retreat to discuss the progress and problems of establishing the automotive cooperative. Sessions were devoted to the history of cooperatives, the current economic system in the United States, community organization and bookkeeping procedures.

Participants were formed into three small groups (six to seven members) after the second meeting during this phase. Selection of group members made by the experimenter on the basis of the two matching variables. This procedure was followed to insure an equal distribution of talent and delinquent behavior.

Since Fairweather (1964) has shown that groups of patients worked best in the absence of staff, it was decided that the experimenter would serve as a participant observer. That is, the experimenter indicated to group members that they had the decision-making power on issues affecting the group and the experimenter would intervene

only when they could not reach decisions, when asked for advice and when their decisions would not be in the best interest of the project.

During this phase each group was given a specific task related to making the automotive cooperative operational. Each group decided to elect a chairman, who would be responsible for assigning tasks to individuals and making progress reports to the experimenter. Some of the tasks accomplished by groups during this time included finding a business location, obtaining possible members for the Board of Directors, and searching for a qualified mechanic to train and supervise their work.

Phase 2

Once participants completed Phase 1, they began to receive additional training in minor automotive repair skills. An agreement was made with Lansing Community College to run a ten week seminar in basic automotive mechanics. The seminar was geared to the type of skills necessary to operate the repair center and included

training in handling of tools and equipment, garage safety, basic engine theory, tune-ups, brakes, etc.

Sessions were held fifteen hours per week, which included a five hour session on Saturdays devoted to working on customers' cars. The seminar was operated as a regular college course, which meant reading assignments, homework and exams.

The three small groups developed during the first phase remained intact. However, since training sessions had to include all twenty participants, it was more difficult to develop distinct groups than it would have been if training was done by groups. Yet, a number of procedures were developed to maintain the independence of the groups.

First, all participants were informed that the group with the best attendance and work performance (measured by class grades) during training would have their choice of work shifts in the automotive repair center. At this point, each group decided to elect one member to keep attendance and another to make sure members of their group had rides to class. This procedure helped to develop a sense of concern for group members.

Secondly, groups were given specific tasks to accomplish, such as determining what equipment would be necessary, obtaining bids on equipment and searching for means of advertisement. Also, during this time a business location was found and participants spent their spare time in the renovation of the garage, i.e. cleaning, painting, etc. These tasks helped to maintain and increase the interest for the participants in the program.

Phase 3

Thirteen of the twenty participants completed the course at Lansing Community College and began operating the automotive repair center. During this time the business was established as a non-profit corporation in the State of Michigan.

The first month was used as an adjustment period. At this time equipment was installed and a trained mechanic was hired to supervise the training of participants. Participants immediately began to apply the skills learned during the first two phases. Automobiles of the Y.D.C. staff were repaired in order to develop working schedules,

garage operating procedures and to measure the abilities of each participant.

The repair center, known as Community Automotive Corporation was open for business to the general public on March 26, 1973. The project director (experimenter) and the head mechanic assumed the responsibility for the daily business operation.

Participants were divided into two working shifts per day--the first from 8 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. and the second from 12:30 p.m. to 5:00 p.m. Work roles, such as assistant manager, secretary, and workers, were assigned to each participant. These roles were assigned by the project director on the basis of individual performance during the first two phases of the program.

In addition to the stipends from Y.D.C. participants also received financial reimbursements from the profits of the business. Individual pay rates were determined on the basis of individual work evaluations (Appendix A), which were completed on each job the participants worked on by the head mechanic. Participants also received high school credit for working in the garage.

During this phase all participants met collectively for the first month to decide basic operating procedures, such as hours of business, the types of services to be offered, membership fees for the co-op, and how to advertise the business. It was also decided to hold weekly meetings with all the participants as well as weekly meetings with each group.

The problem arose as to the working hours of participants still going to school and what would be done with individuals in the "best" group, who decided to work from 8 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. At this point, it was decided to rearrange the groups according to school commitments and work schedules, which reduced the participants into two groups. The participants decided to develop a system of shift rotation, once school was out for the summer.

Throughout the remainder of the experiment each group met at least once a week. These meetings were used to discuss operating procedures, work performance, orientation of new members, and pay rates. Each group decided to elect its assistant manager, who would be responsible for the work performance of the group.

Control Subsystem

Participants not selected by random assignment to take part in the experimental subsystem were given employment as Y.D.C. work interns. As part of its regular program, Y.D.C. provides employment and skill training for young people between the ages of 14 and 20, that have some delinquent problems. The work intern program is Y.D.C.'s private employment component, because private businesses and agencies serve as placements for youth.

The work intern supervisor and vocational counselor assist youth with any employment problems concerning the performance or non-performance, problems of adaptation, tardiness, etc. This team's primary function is to insure that youth are remaining employed. In addition, they screen applicants, locate jobs, match youth to employers' requirements and provide written agreements between employers and youths. These agreements describe the type of training the youth will obtain, hours of employment and any supplemental salary or hours.

With each placement, Y.D.C. attempts to seek a financial supportive match. As work interns participants earn two dollars an hour for working ten hours per week.

Some businesses and agencies have been able either to match the ten hours or increase the employee's hourly wage.

Twenty employment positions were set aside for control participants and they received priority over other Y.D.C. clients in selecting employment. The control participants' positions ranged from technical and skills training to recreational and community services. Each participant was interviewed by the work intern supervisor to determine his employment interest, educational background and training, and the types of positions Y.D.C. had available.

Most of the control participants received placements in positions involving technical and skill training, such as radio technicians for local stations, printer apprentices in a Y.D.C. project, sales clerk at local businesses, janitorial workers, training in construction, etc. However, some participants were employed through local service agencies and neighborhood centers, such as Young Adult Program, Indian Center, Garvey Institute, Boys Club and YMCA (Appendix B lists these placements).

Each employer was responsible for training youth in the specific skills necessary to function in their business. In addition, employers were responsible for determining each intern's working hours, establishing the rules and regulations they would have to follow, and submitting attendance records to the Y.D.C. office every week. Monthly meetings were held with each employer and the work intern supervisor to assess the status of work interns.

Y.D.C. was responsible for providing supportive services to work interns in the form of counseling, recreational activities and relevant cultural experiences. Work interns were notified of these activities and most of the youth participated in such activities as attending sporting events, movies, lectures, etc. In addition, each work intern was assigned an outreach worker, whose basic responsibilities included individual counseling, making youth aware of existing agencies for specific problems (i.e. legal aid) and, in general, being a big brother or sister. Outreach workers were required to contact their clients at least twice a month to insure that they were not encountering any difficulties on the job, in school or

at home. A confidential file was kept on the progress of each client and contained follow-up information. These files on control participants were then made available to the experimenter for data collection purposes and to assess the status of control participants.

Measurement of Dependent Variables

Three dependent variables were measured in the present study: 1) Occurrence of juvenile offenses; 2) Educational status; and 3) Length of employment. Data on these three variables were obtained from three sources-- participants' self reports, the Lansing Police Department and the Lansing School District. In addition, background data were obtained at intake.

Intake Data

Prior to randomization of participants to either experimental or control subsystems, data were collected on demographic characteristics of participants. The characteristics of age, race, educational status, modular

classifications, parental income, previous work experience, and previous arrest records were recorded during a personal interview with the experimenter (see Appendix C).

Self Report Data

Data on the experimental and control participants status on arrests, education and employment were recorded on the self report follow-up form (Appendix C). These data were collected at ninety day intervals. The number and dates of follow-up periods for each participant was dependent upon the entry points of participants into the subsystem. Table 3.0 indicates the number and dates of follow-up periods as they relate to the entry points of participants.

Each of the three dependent measures (arrests, educational, and employment status) were recorded as dichotomous data, i.e. arrested or not, in school or out, employed or unemployed. The status of the experimental participants was collected through personal interviews and telephone conversations by the experimenter. The data on the control participants' status were collected by their respective outreach worker and given to the experimenter.

Table 3.0.--Entry Dates and Follow-up Periods for Participants.

Participants Entry Date	<u>Follow-up Periods</u>			
	90 Days	180 Days	270 Days	360 Days
11/22/72	2/15	5/15	8/15	11/15
11/23 to 2/14	5/15	8/15	11/15	---
2/16 to 5/14	8/15	11/15	---	---
5/16 to 8/14	11/15	---	---	---

In addition to the data collected via individual follow-up forms a daily diary was kept by the experimenter. The daily diary contained information concerning any critical events occurring in the experimental subsystem.

Police Data

Data were collected on the number of arrests for all experimental and control participants. These statistics were obtained directly from the files of the Lansing Police Department. The Y.D.C. data specialist, who had access to police files, was responsible for collecting these statistics.

The arrests of participants were recorded according to the follow-up periods. All information was kept confidential by removing individuals names once the statistics were collected.

School Data

Arrangements were made with the administration office of the Lansing School District to obtain statistics on the absences, suspensions and grades for all participants attending school. The names and schools of participants were given to the secretary, who was responsible for collecting the data. The experimenter could not obtain permission to personally inspect the files.

Statistics on the absences, suspensions and grades were to correspond to the follow-up periods of this study; however, due to the schools' recording systems it was not possible to get the data to correspond to the follow-up periods of the present study. Therefore, the only data used were statistics from the beginning of school (9/18/73) to 11/15/73.

Measurement of Internal Group Processes

In addition to the data collected on the three dependent measures, data were also collected on three internal processes in the experimental subsystem:

1) Sociometric choice ratings; 2) Morale ratings; and 3) Job behavior ratings. The instruments used for data collections of these ratings can be found in Appendices E to G.

Sociometric Ratings

A sociometric rating scale (Fairweather, 1964) was used as an index to determine how experimental participants felt about their group members. Each group member was asked to rate individuals in their group on the sociometric rating scale. Since participants dropped out or had to change groups, ratings were completed on the current group members at the time the ratings were completed. The names of group members were entered on the rating form by the experimenter. The scale was administered at three follow-up periods--2/15, 5/15 and 8/15.

Morale Ratings

The morale scale, developed by Fairweather (1964), was used as an index of participants disposition to act toward the goals of the group. Each participant was asked to complete this scale at two follow-up periods--5/15 and 8/15. Ratings were completed by participants in the experimental subsystem during these time periods.

Job Behavior Ratings

The job behavior scale, developed by Fairweather (1964), was used as a means of accessing how participants were performing on the job. The head mechanic, who supervised and trained the participants, was responsible for completing this scale. The scale was completed on all participants employed at the garage at the time of its administration. The scale was administered at two follow-up periods--5/15 and 8/15.

Scoring of Process Measures

The responses of the three process measures were scored as follows: Each response to an item was given a numerical value corresponding to the scale value for the

response category. For items in the sociometric scale each response was given a numerical value from 1 (do not like at all) to 7 (like very much). The means of each participant's rating were then calculated.

For items on the morale scale each response was given a numerical value from 1 (most favorable response) to 4 (least favorable response). The means were then calculated for each participant.

The job behavior scale consisted of 26 items. Each item had either a positive or negative response. Each negative response counted as 1. These values were totaled and the mean score for each participant was calculated.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Intake Results

All subjects were randomly assigned to conditions and matched on two variables--past delinquency behavior and automotive mechanic experience; however, it was decided to investigate possible differences between the experimental and control groups on the matched variable (past delinquency) and other relevant variables--age, educational status and race--which might have influenced the dependent measures. The t test (Hays, 1963) was used to determine any significant differences between conditions on age, while the chi square test (Hays, 1963) was used to determine any significant differences between conditions on the other three variables. The results are displayed in Tables 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4.

The comparisons between conditions, as presented in these tables, indicates that there were no significant

Table 1.1.--Comparison of Participants on Age upon Entrance into Experiment.

Mean Age	Experimental	Control
	<u>Group</u>	<u>Group</u>
	Mean N	Mean N
17	6.2	6.0
$t = 0.20$ (4 df)		
(one-tailed)		

Table 1.2.--Comparison of Participants on Educational Status upon Entrance in the Experiment.

Educational Status	Experimental		Control	
	<u>Group</u>		<u>Group</u>	
	N	%	N	%
In School	19	(61)	22	(73)
Out of School	12	(39)	8	(27)
$\chi^2 = 1.00$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 1.3.--Comparison of Participants on Y.D.C. Module Classification upon Entrance in the Experiment.

Y.D.C. Module	<u>Experimental Group</u>		<u>Control Group</u>	
	N	%	N	%
One	9	(29)	13	(43)
Two	10	(32)	6	(20)
Three & Four	12	(39)	11	(37)

$\chi^2 = 1.76$ (2 df)

(one-tailed)

Table 1.4.--Comparison of Participants on Race upon Entrance in the Experiment.

Race	<u>Experiment Group</u>		<u>Control Group</u>	
	N	%	N	%
Black	23	(74)	22	(73)
Non-Black	8	(26)	8	(27)

$\chi^2 = 0.005$ (1 df)

(one-tailed)

differences on the basis of age, educational status, Y.D.C. modular classification and race. Therefore, the process of randomization was successful in equating the two conditions on these four relevant variables.

Follow-Up Results: Self-Reports

Self reported follow-up data on arrests and educational and employment status was collected on subjects in both the experimental and control conditions every ninety days. There were no participant attrition for self-report data. The chi square test (Hays, 1963) was computed to test for any significant differences between conditions on the dependent variables.

Tables 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 reveal that there were no statistically significant differences after ninety days of follow-up on self reports of arrests, educational status and employment status.

Tables 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 indicate the self reported status of participants on arrests, education and employment after one-hundred and eighty days of follow-up. These comparisons between conditions on these variables

**Table 2.1.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports
on Cumulative Arrests for 90 Days of
Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	5	(16)	3	(10)
No Arrest	26	(84)	27	(90)
$\chi^2 = 0.05$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

**Table 2.2.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on
Educational Status for 90 Days of Follow-Up.**

Educational Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
In School	22	(76)	21	(70)
Out of School	7	(24)	9	(30)
$\chi^2 = 0.08$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

**Table 2.3.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on
Employment Status for 90 Days of Follow-Up.**

Employment Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Employed	21	(68)	26	(87)
Unemployed	10	(32)	4	(13)
$\chi^2 = 3.08$ (1 df)				
(One-tailed)				

**Table 3.1.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on
Cumulative Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	6	(22)	3	(11)
No Arrest	21	(78)	24	(84)
$\chi^2 = 1.20$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 3.2.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Educational Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
In School	12	(57)	19	(70)
Out of School	9	(43)	8	(30)
$\chi^2 = 0.89$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 3.3.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Employment Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Employed	15	(60)	15	(56)
Unemployed	10	(40)	12	(44)
$\chi^2 = 0.20$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

show no significant differences, as evidenced in Tables 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3.

After two-hundred and seventy days of follow-up there were no significant differences of self report comparisons between conditions on arrests, education and employment, as shown in Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3.

No significant differences were found when comparing conditions on the basis of arrests, educational and employment status after three-hundred and sixty days of follow-up. These results are presented in Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. Table 5.3 shows a non-significant trend ($p < .10$) in employment status and reveals that more experimental participants tended to remain employed after one year of follow-up, as compared to control participants.

Due to the daily contact of the experimenter with experimental participants and lack of contact with control participants, these self reported data are probably not completely informative. The experimenter depended on the outreach staff of Y.D.C. to collect follow-up data on control participants, which might have affected these data. Another variable affecting the self reported arrests is the fact that many youth consider being stopped or

Table 4.1.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Cumulative Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	6	(25)	4	(17)
No Arrests	18	(75)	19	(83)
$\chi^2 = 0.15$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 4.2.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 270 Days of Follow-Up.

Educational Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
In School	9	(50)	15	(79)
Out of School	9	(50)	4	(21)
$\chi^2 = 3.397$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed).				

**Table 4.3.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on
Employment Status for 270 Days of Follow-up.**

Employment Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Employed	12	(55)	10	(45)
Unemployed	10	(45)	12	(55)
$\chi^2 = 0.36$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

**Table 5.1.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on
Cumulative Arrest for 360 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	7	(35)	4	(20)
No Arrest	13	(65)	16	(80)
$\chi^2 = 1.32$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 5.2.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Educational Status for 360 Days of Follow-Up.

Educational Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
In School	9	(56)	13	(76)
Out of School	7	(44)	4	(24)
$\chi^2 = 1.51$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 5.3.--Comparison of Participants on Self Reports on Employment Status for 360 Days of Follow-Up.

Employment Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Employed	14	(74)	9	(45)
Unemployed	5	(26)	11	(55)
$\chi^2 = 3.309$ (1 df)				
$p < .10$ (one-tailed)				

questioned by police as an arrest. Also, many clients of Y.D.C. have expressed that they wouldn't get on a Y.D.C. program unless they displayed delinquent behavior. Therefore, participants might have exaggerated their arrest status.

In summary, the comparisons between conditions on the self reported follow-up data did not indicate any statistically significant differences to support the experimental hypothesis of this study which is that experimental participants would be significantly different on three dependent measures as compared to control participants.

Follow-Up Results: Police Data

Since the self reported follow-up data on arrests may be less than accurate, it was decided to investigate arrest records of participants from a more reliable source. Arrests records were obtained from the files of the Lansing Police Department and tabulated for all participants according to the four specified follow-up periods. There were no participant attrition for police

data. The chi-square test (Hays, 1963) was used to calculate any significant differences between conditions on arrests.

Table 6.1 indicates that there was a significant difference ($p < .02$) between conditions on arrests after ninety days of follow-up. This difference is in the predicted direction. According to the police data, there were no arrests of experimental participants, while five or seventeen percent of the control participants showed being arrested. These results substantiate the inaccuracy of self-reported arrest data and support the experimental hypothesis of the present study.

Table 6.1.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 90 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	5	(17)
No Arrest	31	(100)	25	(83)

$$\chi^2 = 5.62^{**} (1 \text{ df})$$

****p** < .02 (one-tailed)

After one-hundred and eighty days of follow-up, a significant difference ($p < .05$) was found between conditions on arrest status, as evidenced in Table 6.2. Table 6.2 further reveals that only one participant (4%) in the experimental subsystem was arrested during this period as compared to six or twenty two percent of the control participants.

Table 6.2.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	1	(4)	6	(22)
No Arrest	26	(96)	21	(78)

$$\chi^2 = 4.08^* (1 \text{ df})$$

* $p < .05$ (one-tailed)

Table 6.3 shows the comparisons between conditions on arrests after two-hundred and seventy days of follow-up. As evidenced in this table there were no significant differences between conditions.

Table 6.3.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Cumulative Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	3	(12)	7	(30)
No Arrest	21	(88)	16	(70)
$\chi^2 = 2.56 \text{ (1 df)}$				
(one-tailed)				

Table 6.4 indicates that there were no significant differences between conditions on arrests after three-hundred and sixty days of follow-up.

The results of the analysis of police reported arrests provides significant evidence that the experiment had an effect on reducing the arrest rates. This evidence was used as an indicator of occurrence of delinquent offenses, for participants in the experimental subsystem. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 reveal that there were more arrest of control participants and the differences were significant during the ninety and one-hundred and eighty day follow-up periods. These results, which support the experimental

Table 6.4.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on
Cumulative Arrests for 360 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	6	(30)	7	(35)
No Arrest	14	(70)	13	(65)
$\chi^2 = 0.04$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

hypothesis of the present study, also point to the specificity of treatment outcomes. When juxtaposed against the self-report data described above, there is a clear lack of correspondence. This is congruent with previous work (Fairweather et al, 1969) that has found a lack of agreement between verbal and behavioral outcomes.

Follow-Up Results: School Data

Data were obtained from the Lansing School District on absences, suspensions and grades for all

participants enrolled in school from 9/18/73 to 11/15/73. The statistics collected only reflect those participants whose records were available during this time period. The Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test (Wilcoxon and Wilcox, 1964) was used to obtain any significant differences between conditions on absences, suspensions and grades.

The comparison between conditions on the number of absences of experimental and control participants is contained in Table 7.1. No significant differences were found from these comparisons. The table further indicates that the mean number of absences for experimental participants was 13.9 as compared to the mean of 18.0 for control participants. Absences were recorded for half days.

Table 7.2 reveals that there were no significant differences between conditions on the basis of school suspensions. The table also indicates that the mean suspension rate for both conditions is less than one and only three participants were suspended during this time period.

On the basis of mean grades no significant differences were found between conditions, as evidenced in Table 7.3. Table 7.3 also indicates that the mean grades for both conditions was less than 2.00 and the mean grades

Table 7.1.--Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on School Absences
(1/2 days) from School Data.

<u>Experimental Group</u>		<u>Control Group</u>	
Number of Absences	Rank	Number of Absences	Rank
17	13	16	12
26	16.5	32	18
10	10	23	14
25	15	2	3
26	16.5	3	4.5
5	7	0	1.5
6	8	4	6
12	11	0	1.5
3	4.5	--	--
9	9	--	--
<hr/>		<hr/>	
$\bar{X} = 13.4$		$\bar{X} = 18.0$	

$$T = 60.5$$

Table 7.2.--Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on School Suspensions
from School Data.

Experimental <u>Group</u>		Control <u>Group</u>	
Number of Suspensions	Rank	Number of Suspensions	Rank
0	8.5	0	8.5
0	8.5	1	17.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
2	19.0	0	8.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
1	17.5	0	8.5
0	8.5	0	8.5
<hr/>		<hr/>	
$\bar{X} = .30$		$\bar{X} = .11$	
 $T = 85.5$			

Table 7.3.--Wilcoxon Sum Rank Test on Mean Grades from School Data.

<u>Experimental Group</u>		<u>Control Group</u>	
Mean Grades	Rank	Mean Grades	Rank
1.60	9.0	.80	4.5
0.75	2.5	.20	1.0
1.50	8.0	.75	2.5
0.80	4.5	2.60	13.0
1.30	6.5	2.20	11.0
2.50	12.0	1.30	6.5
3.00	14.5	3.10	16.0
3.00	14.5	2.00	10.0
<hr/>		<hr/>	
$\bar{X} = 1.81$		$\bar{X} = 1.62$	
$T = 64.5$			

for experimental participants was .20 points higher than control participants.

The comparisons between conditions on the basis of mean absences, suspensions and grades yielded no significant evidence to support the experimental hypothesis of this study. The difficulties in obtaining statistics on all participants school records did hinder the accurate analysis of these data.

Internal Analysis on Basis of Police Data

Since significant differences were found on comparisons between conditions on the basis of police reported arrests, it was decided to investigate the specific relationship between experimental and control subsystems and the individuals arrested. Therefore, an internal analysis of police reported arrests was completed to better determine what aspects of the program produced the experimental effect.

Furthermore, since more experimental participants were arrested after 270 and 360 days of follow-up than during 90 and 180 days of follow-up (Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3

and 6.4), it was felt that at least two possible intervening variables might have effected these results; when participants entered the subsystem and how long participants remained in the subsystem. Therefore, the internal analysis was completed and based upon two parameters:

a) The entry point of the participant in the experiment, and b) The amount of time the participants remained in the experiment. The chi-square test (Hays, 1963) was used to compute any significant differences between conditions on these two parameters.

a. For the first internal analysis (based upon the entry point of the participants) a median split was performed on the participants. Participants were grouped on the basis of whether their entry points occurred during the first or second six months of the experiment. Since all the participants included in the 270 and 360 follow-up periods entered the experiment during the first six months; comparisons between conditions were only made for 90 and 180 days of follow-up.

Table 8.1 indicates a significant difference ($p < .05$) on a comparison of arrests between conditions after 90 days of follow-up for participants whose entry

Table 8.1.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the First Six Months, for 90 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	4	(15)
No Arrest	24	(100)	23	(85)

$$\chi^2 = 3.86^* (1 \text{ df})$$

*p < .05 (one-tailed)

points occurred during the first six months. These results are in the predicted direction.

After 90 days of follow-up, Table 8.2 indicates no significant difference on arrests between conditions for participants whose entry points occurred during the second six months. The table (8.2) further shows that only fourteen participants had entry points during the second six months. Since the expected cell frequency was less than five, it was necessary to use Yates correction (Hays, 1963) in the calculation of the chi-square test.

Table 8.2.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who Entered the Experiment During the Second Six Months, for 90 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	1	(14)
No Arrest	7	(100)	6	(86)
$\chi^2 = 0.00$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 8.3 shows a significant difference ($p < .05$) on arrests between conditions for participants whose entry points occurred during the first six months. These results are after 180 days of follow-up and are in the predicted direction. Table 8.3 also reveals that only one experimental participant was arrested as compared to six control participants.

As evidenced in Table 8.4, there were no significant differences between conditions on arrests for participants whose entry points occurred during the second six months. Due to the small sample size (three experimental

Table 8.3.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the First Six Months, for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	1	(4)	6	(26)
No Arrest	23	(96)	17	(74)
$\chi^2 = 4.45^* (1 \text{ df})$				

*p < .05 (one-tailed)

Table 8.4.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Entered the Experiment During the Second Six Months, for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	0	(0)
No Arrest	3	(100)	4	(100)
$\chi^2 = 0.00 (1 \text{ df})$				

(one-tailed)

and four control participants) Yates correction was used in the calculation of the chi-square.

In summary, the results of the first internal analysis, based upon police data, indicated that experimental participants were less likely to display delinquent behavior (in terms of getting arrested) than control participants, when their entry points occurred during the first six months of the experiment. In other words, participation in the experimental subsystem in its initial stage (first six months) had a significant effect in decreasing the occurrence of delinquent behavior (measured in terms of police arrests).

b. The second internal analysis of police arrests, based upon the amount of time participants remained in the experiment, was completed for each follow-up period. Each participant was categorized in terms of either remaining in the experiment for more than three months or less than three months.

No significant differences were found between conditions for participants, who remained in the experiment for more than three months, on the basis of arrests after 90, 180, 270 and 360 days of follow-up. These results

are evidenced in Table 9.1, 9.2, 9.3 and 9.4. Therefore, no evidence was found to show that remaining in the experiment for more than three months had any significant effect upon decreasing the arrest rates of experimental and control participants.

A significant difference ($p < .01$) was found by comparing participants in both conditions who remained in the experiment less than three months after 90 days of follow-up. These results are evidenced in Table 10.1 and are in the predicted direction.

After 180 days of follow-up on arrests, the difference between conditions was significant ($p < .05$) for participants who remained in the experiment less than three months. Table 10.2 shows these results, which are in the predicted direction.

Table 10.3 shows no significant differences between conditions on arrests after 270 days of follow-up for participants who remained in the experiment less than three months.

Table 10.4 shows no significant difference between conditions in arrests after 360 days of follow-up. These results are for participants who remained in the experiment less than three months.

Table 9.1.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrests, Who Were in Experiment More than Three Months for 90 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	0	(0)
No Arrest	12	(100)	14	(100)
$\chi^2 = 0.00$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 9.2.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who Were in Experiment More Than Three Months for 180 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	1	(9)	2	(14)
No Arrest	10	(90)	12	(86)
$\chi^2 = 0.12$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 9.3.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who Were in Experiment More Than Three Months, for 270 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	1	(10)	2	(17)
No Arrest	9	(90)	10	(83)
$\chi^2 = 0.20$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

Table 9.4.--Comparison of Participants on Police Data on Arrest, Who Were in Experiment More Than Three Months, on 360 Days of Follow-Up.

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	1	(9)	2	(17)
No Arrest	10	(91)	10	(83)
$\chi^2 = 0.29$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

**Table 10.1.--Comparison of Participants in Experiment
Less Than Three Months on Police Data
 Arrests for 90 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	5	(29)
No Arrest	19	(100)	11	(71)

$$\chi^2 = 6.91^{***} (1 \text{ df})$$

***p < .01 (one-tailed)

**Table 10.2.--Comparison of Participants in Experiment
Less Than Three Months on Police Data
 Arrests for 180 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	0	(0)	4	(29)
No Arrest	16	(100)	10	(71)

$$\chi^2 = 5.25^* (1 \text{ df})$$

*p < .05 (one-tailed)

**Table 10.3.--Comparison of Participants in Experiment
Less Than Three Months on Police Data
 Arrests for 270 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	2	(15)	5	(50)
No Arrest	11	(85)	5	(50)
$\chi^2 = 3.19$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

**Table 10.4.--Comparison of Participants in Experiment
Less Than Three Months on Police Data
 Arrests for 360 Days of Follow-Up.**

Arrest Status	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Arrested	5	(45)	5	(56)
No Arrest	6	(55)	4	(44)
$\chi^2 = 0.20$ (1 df)				
(one-tailed)				

The second internal analysis, based upon the amount of time participants remained in the experiment, revealed no significant differences between conditions for participants who remained in the experiment more than three months. The analysis did show that most of the experimental and control participants who were arrested were in the experiment less than three months.

Since most of the participants who were arrested left the experiment, and since an experimental effect was found in the internal analysis of police arrests, it was decided to further explore these differences. A comparison was completed between conditions on the basis of the reasons participants gave for leaving the experiment. Participants were categorized according to their reasons for leaving the experiment as either leaving for full-time employment or other reasons, such as moving or termination. The chi-square test (Hays, 1963) was used to compute any statistical difference between conditions.

Table 11.1 indicates that there was a significant difference ($p < .05$) when comparing conditions on the basis of reason for leaving the experiment. The table (11.1) shows that a greater number of experimental participants (68%) left the experiment because they obtained

Table 11.1.--Comparison of Participants on Self Report
Explanation for Leaving the Experiment.

Reason for Leaving	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Full-time Employment	13	(68)	5	(33)
Other Reasons	6	(32)	11	(67)

$$\chi^2 = 4.74^* (1 \text{ df})$$

*p < .05 (one-tailed)

full-time employment, as compared to the control participants (33%) who left for the same reasons. These results suggest that the experimental effect on arrests of participants was partly due to the fact that experimental participants remained employed after leaving the experiment.

In summary, the experimental treatment seems to have its effect on those participants who were part of the initial sample and remained in the experiment more than three months. This also seems to be related to obtaining future employment after leaving the experimental subsystem.

Group Process Results

Sociometric Rating

In an effort to determine the effect of sociometric ratings of participants on the experimental effect of the present study (occurrence of juvenile offenses), it was decided to investigate the relationship between sociometric ratings of experimental participants arrested and those not arrested. The mean sociometric ratings of each participant not arrested were calculated. These ratings were then matched against each participants rating of their group members arrested. The t test for matched pairs (Walker and Lev, 1953) was used to analyze these comparisons.

The purpose of this analysis was to determine the amount of group acceptance or rejection of arrested participants by their peers. Therefore, each participant acted as their own control and matched pairs were made on the basis of the groups in the present study. Comparisons were first analyzed according to sociometric ratings, which occurred before the group participants were arrested. Two separate analyses were calculated for participants

arrested on the basis of police data and self reported data.

Table 12.1 indicates a significant difference ($p < .10$) between matched pairs on mean sociometric ratings done before some participants self-reported arrests. The difference shown in Table 12.1 shows a trend toward group rejection of arrested participants, before they were arrested. Therefore, participants who got arrested were not getting along with their group peers prior to their arrests.

Table 12.2 indicates a significant difference ($p < .025$) between matched pairs on sociometric ratings done after some participants self reported arrests. The results in Table 12.2 reveal that arrested participants were rejected by their peers after being arrested. Therefore, not only were arrested participants rejected by their peers prior to being arrested, but they were also rejected by their peers after being arrested.

Table 12.3 indicates a significant difference ($p < .05$) between matched pairs on sociometric ratings done before police data indices. These findings are consistent with the results shown in Table 12.1 and provide

**Table 12.1.--Matched Pairs on 5/15 Sociometric Ratings
Done Before Some Participants Self Reported
Arrests.**

Mean Ratings of All Participants Except Those Arrested	Mean Ratings of Those Arrested
3.82	4.50
6.00	6.00
5.50	3.50
6.50	4.00
4.00	3.50
7.00	7.00
5.80	4.50
$\bar{X} = 5.52$	$\bar{X} = 4.71$
$t = 1.825^* \text{ (6 df)}$	

*p < .10 (one-tailed)

Table 12.2.--Matched Pairs on 2/15 Sociometric Ratings
Done After Some Participants Self Reported
Arrests.

Mean Ratings of All Participants Except Those Arrested	Mean Ratings of Those Arrested
5.00	4.00
5.53	4.50
5.83	5.50
5.43	3.00
4.33	3.50
4.00	4.00
$\bar{X} = 5.02$	$\bar{X} = 4.08$
$t = 2.755^{**} \text{ (5 df)}$	
$^{**}p < .025 \text{ (one-tailed)}$	

Table 12.3.--Matched Pairs on 2/15 Sociometric Ratings
Done Before Police Reported Arrests.

Mean Ratings of All Participants Except Those Arrested	Mean Ratings of Those Arrested
- 4.50	5.00
7.00	7.00
5.83	6.00
3.66	3.00
6.00	4.00
6.00	5.00
5.00	2.00
$\bar{X} = 5.43$	$\bar{X} = 4.52$
$t = 2.21^* (6 \text{ df})$	
*p < .05 (one-tailed)	

sufficient evidence to indicate that peer rejection might be a useful indicator of recidivism of delinquent behavior.

Table 12.4 shows no significant difference between matched pairs on sociometric ratings after police data indices. These results are inconsistent with the previous findings shown in Table 12.2; however, the data was based on the police reported arrest of one experimental participant.

In summary, the results of the analysis of sociometric ratings provide significant evidence that group processes are useful in evaluating recidivism of delinquent offenses. The fact that significant differences were obtained between ratings of participants arrested and those not arrested, both prior and after arrest occurred, suggests that sociometric ratings are beneficial in predicting juvenile delinquent behavior.

Morale Ratings

In an effort to determine the effect of morale on the significant dependent variable (occurrence of juvenile offenses), it was decided to investigate the relationship between ratings on morale between participants arrested

**Table 12.4.--Matched Pairs on 5/15 Sociometric Ratings
Done After Police Reported Arrests.**

Mean Ratings of All Participants Except Those Arrested	Mean Ratings of Those Arrested
5.00	5.00
6.00	7.00
6.50	6.00
7.00	4.00
5.80	5.00
6.00	5.00
6.00	6.00
<hr/>	<hr/>
$\bar{X} = 6.04$	$\bar{X} = 5.42$
$\underline{t} = 1.31 \text{ (6 df)}$	
<hr/> (one-tailed) <hr/>	

and those not arrested. Since morale ratings were completed at two follow-up periods (5/15 and 8/15) and since most experimental participants were also arrested during these periods, it was decided to combine the morale ratings of participants. The mean morale ratings of participants, excluding those participants arrested, were computed and compared to the mean morale ratings of participants arrested. The t test (Hays, 1963) was used to analyze these comparisons.

Table 13.1 shows no significant difference when comparing the mean morale ratings of experimental participants not arrested with the mean ratings of participants arrested. Therefore, morale ratings were not useful in determining any differences on recidivism of juvenile offenses.

Job Behavior Ratings

In an effort to determine the relationship between behavior on the job and the significant dependent variable (occurrence of juvenile offenses), it was decided to analyze the mean ratings, on the job behavior scale, of experimental participants not arrested as compared to the

Table 13.1.--Comparison of Participants Mean Ratings on Morale.

Ratings of All Participants for 5/15 and 8/15 Follow-Up Except Those Arrested	Ratings of Arrested Participants on 5/15 and 8/15 Follow-Up
$\bar{X} = 2.73$	$\bar{X} = 2.92$
$t = 0.663$ (16,4 df)	
(one-tailed)	

mean ratings of those participants arrested. Since job behavior ratings were completed at two follow-up periods (5/15 and 8/15) and since most experimental participants were arrested during these periods, it was decided to combine these ratings. The mean job behavior ratings of participants not arrested were calculated excluding the ratings of participants arrested and compared to the ratings of participants arrested. The t test (Hays, 1963) was used to compute this analysis.

Table 13.1 reveals no significant difference when comparing the mean job behavior ratings of participants not arrested with the mean ratings of participants arrested.

Table 14.1.--Comparison of Participants Mean Ratings on
the Job Behavior Scale.

Ratings of All Participants for 5/15 and 8/15 Follow-Up Except Those Arrested	Ratings of Arrested Participants for 5/15 and 8/15 Follow-Up
$\bar{X} = 0.77$	$\bar{X} = 0.76$
$t = 0.32$ (16,4 df)	
(one-tailed)	

Therefore, behavior on the job had no significant effect
upon the participants getting arrested.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

In the introduction it was pointed out that juvenile delinquency is a multivariate problem and there is a deficit of systematic evaluative research in the natural environment of delinquents. In this study, the development of a peer-operated, service-oriented business operated by delinquent youths, with emphasis on group dynamics and self-management concepts, provided an opportunity to explore the effect of a community treatment program on the reduction of delinquent behavior. The results of this experiment revealed evidence to support the hypothesis that, on the basis of police data, participation in the experimental subsystem significantly reduced the occurrence of delinquent offenses as compared to control participants. However, conflicting results were found on the basis of self-reported data. No evidence was found to indicate any differences between conditions on occurrence of offenses, educational status, and length of employment.

There are several possible reasons for the failure of the self-reported data collection procedure to produce the desired experimental effect. First, the lack of personal contact with control participants as compared to the daily contact with experimental participants and the experimenter yielded differences in the degree of reliability of self-reported information. In other words, the experimenter was relying on the honesty and integrity of control participants' reports to their respective Y.D.C. outreach worker as well as telephonic conversations with the experimenter, whom they hardly knew. The experimental participants, on the other hand, generally reported directly to the experimenter and often consulted with the experimenter concerning their school status, contact with police, and future employment possibilities. Secondly, in order to get preferential or top priority program placement as a Y.D.C. client, youth must display severe delinquent behavior, i.e. the higher the Y.D.C. modular classification, the higher the probability of program placement. Therefore, in order to remain in a program, many clients would often exaggerate their delinquent behavior in terms of contact with police and problems in school.

A recent Y.D.C. evaluation (Anderson and Whitney, 1973) pointed out these findings as well as the fact that the outreach staff was negligent in contacting clients and verifying self-reported information obtained from their clients.

Another important consideration as to the lack of significant differences between conditions on self-reported data was the fact that both experimental and control participants did receive employment, and this factor might have contributed to the improvement of both conditions on the dependent measures. The inclusion of the employment variable in both conditions may partly explain the lack of significant differences between conditions. In order to determine the effects of being employed as opposed to the type of employment, the present experiment might have improved if another control group was incorporated into the experimental design, which did not receive employment.

Because of the aforementioned deficiencies of the self-reported data collection procedure, verification of the dependent measures was obtained from sources independent of the participants and the Y.D.C. organization--the

police department and the school system. The results indicate that on the basis of data obtained from the schools on participants' absences, suspensions, and grades, no differences occurred between conditions, as evidenced in Tables 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3. Several factors did contribute to the lack of success in obtaining the desired experimental effect on school behavior. First, there was a problem in obtaining data from the school administration to correspond to the specific time frame of the present study. Secondly, many participants who were no longer clients of Y.D.C. or who left the experiment transferred from one school to another periodically. Because of this, it was almost impossible for the school system to collect data on these individuals without contacting each individual school to inquire about the participant's enrollment and having them forward the necessary statistics. Since the school administration was not willing to do the necessary work and permission could not be obtained for the experimenter to have access to the files of participants, many of the statistics on participant's school behavior could not be obtained.

The results of the data from the police department provided the experimenter with significant evidence as to the differences between conditions on occurrence of delinquent offenses. As displayed in Table 6.1 ($p < .02$) and 6.2 ($p < .05$), the results indicate that on the basis of police arrests there were significantly less experimental participants arrested as compared to control participants after 90 and 180 days of follow-up. However, the police data also indicated an increase in the arrest of experimental participants during the 270 and 360 follow-up periods (see Tables 6.3 and 6.4), thus indicating the presence of some intervening variables which may have reduced the experimental effect during these periods.

On the basis of the internal analysis of police-reported arrests a more accurate picture of the variables affecting the experimental findings was obtained. First, less arrests occurred for experimental participants as compared to control participants, if they entered the experiment during its initial stages (first six months), as evidenced in Tables 8.1 and 8.3. However, as described in Tables 8.2 and 8.4, there were no significant differences between conditions for those participants who

entered the sample during the second six months. Secondly, significantly less experimental participants as compared to control participants were arrested, if they remained in the experiment less than three months, as evidenced in Tables 10.1 and 10.2. However, as evidenced by Tables 9.1 and 9.2 these differences disappeared for those subjects who were in the experiment for more than three months. And finally, these findings are related to the fact that significantly more experimental participants, who left the experiment, obtained full-time employment, as evidenced in Table 11.1.

As a summary statement, the experimental treatment seems to be having its major effect relative to the control treatment during the initial part of the experiment and for those subjects who remained less than three months. Examination of the appropriate Tables indicates that this experimental superiority is largely due to the control subsystem's performance decrement in inducing socially acceptable behavior in its participants. This may be due in no small degree to the experimental subsystem's ability to marshall peer group influence particularly for those participants in the initial sample who were involved in

an intensive group dynamics experience and in structured vocational training. During the first six months experimental group participants received formal training, while in contrast, during the second six months training was primarily on-the-job (OJT). Formal training included structured sessions on the purpose of cooperatives and a seminar in automotive mechanics from Lansing Community College. On the other hand, OJT included repairing cars in the garage and learning by doing under some supervision.

The formal training sessions were conducted by a specialist in the fields of co-operative enterprises and automotive mechanics. These sessions were held independent of the regular Y.D.C. program, which allowed the instructors to initiate rules and regulations different from the normal Y.D.C. procedures. Participants were expected to attend class regularly, complete daily assignments and direct their energies toward the establishment of their business.

These activities were in sharp contrast to the regular Y.D.C. work intern activities, which usually consisted of youth merely putting in time at an agency or

business and getting a check every Friday. Therefore, many participants developed the feeling that they were a select group of youth, who either displayed special skills or potential talents necessary to initiate the auto co-op project. The formal training seemed to give participants a special status in the Y.D.C. program and also seemed to develop feelings of achievement and pride. Training during the initial phases of the project also seemed to provide participants with some security and assurance of having a job in the future.

During the latter phases of the experiment training was primarily on-the-job. Participants were expected to have gained knowledge and skills from the formal training, which could be immediately transferred to the OJT situation. Although those subjects who entered the sample after the formal training period did not benefit from this experience, there was a general concern among participants that they were not adequately prepared to assume the responsibilities of operating a "real" business. Also, the trainer hired was not formal, but more "street-oriented" and expected participants to have more skills than they acquired. At this point participants were not

assured of their success and tended to become skeptical of the business succeeding. OJT actually meant learning by doing, often under stressful conditions from the trainer, and working on "real" customers' cars. Individual roles and expectations were less structured, confidence in the trainer was low, and individuals were often performing under stress during the OJT as compared to the formal training. Conceivably, the OJT period of the experiment did not instill as much confidence and achievement in participants as did the formal training. These differences in the type of training could help account for the experimental effect found in the present study.

Another difference between the initial and latter phases of the experiment, which may partly explain the major findings of this study, was the differences in the emphasis on small group dynamics. During the formal training period, there was a strong emphasis on peer group dynamics, while during the OJT period this was less so. Because of the structure and organization of the formal training the experimenter was free to manipulate and develop small group dynamics. More time was spent on developing specific group tasks, involving groups in the

decision-making process, and meeting with groups as autonomous units with independent leadership.

However, during the OJT period the development of small group dynamics tended to dissipate. This was partly due to the increased responsibilities of the experimenter as well as the training structure. At this time more emphasis was placed upon operating the business as opposed to group tasks, group decisions and group autonomy. The nature of the business limited the development of small groups, for example, it became necessary to transfer individuals from one group to another, because of school commitments and the original three groups had to be condensed into two groups for more efficient business operation. Also, groups became more dependent upon members of the other group in order to complete repairs on customers' cars.

The results of the analysis of the sociometric data clearly indicate the need and importance of small group dynamics and peer support in operating a community treatment program. The results indicate that there was a definite relationship between the group's sociometric ratings and the rejection of participants arrested. The

results show that arrested participants not only were rejected by their peers before being arrested (see Tables 12.1 and 12.3), but that arrested participants were also rejected after being arrested (see Table 12.2). These findings indicate that peer-influence and group support can be very important in maintaining non-delinquent behavior. It seems that by utilizing sociometric ratings one may predict the reoccurrence of delinquent behavior, intervene at this point, and provide special treatment or attention to the rejected individuals.

Since the experimental effect occurred for participants who were involved in the experiment during its initial development, and since the type of training and emphasis on small group dynamics were different for the initial phase and the latter phases of the experiment, recommendations can be made for future research of delinquency prevention on these bases. Accordingly, a more comprehensive experimental design, which can determine the effects of formal training and small group dynamics on the dependent measures, might be developed. Such a design might include the following conditions: 1) Participants receive formal training with a heavy emphasis on

small group dynamics; 2) Participants receive formal training and no group dynamics; 3) Participants receive on-the-job training with a heavy emphasis on small group dynamics; and 4) Participants receive on-the-job training and no group dynamics. The inclusion of the aforementioned conditions would allow the experimenter to better determine why the experimental effects of the present study occurred as well as providing useful information in creating other community-based delinquency prevention programs.

In summary, the present experiment had a significant effect on the reduction of delinquent offenses for initial participants who remained in the experiment less than three months. The experiment also provided participants with confidence and desire to search and obtain gainful employment. The results further suggested that sociometric ratings are good predictors of delinquent behavior and that formal training and small group dynamics may be beneficial in maintaining a community-based delinquency prevention program.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Allen, J. E. "The Silent Observer: A New Approach to Group Therapy," Crime and Delinquency, 16, 1970.
- Anderson, A. and Whitney, W. "An Evaluation of Youth Development Corp.," Unpublished, 1973.
- Bales, R. F. and Slater, P. E. "Role Differentiation in Small Decision-Making Groups" in T. Parsons et al. (eds.) Family, Socialization, and Interaction, Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1955.
- Bass, B. M. Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior, New York: Harper and Row, 1960.
- Blau, P. M. "Co-Operation and Competition in a Bureaucracy," American Journal of Sociology, 59, 1954, pp. 530-535.
- Browning, C. J. "Differential Impact of Family Disorganization in Male Adolescents," Social Problems, 8, 1960.
- Cambell, D. T. and Stanley, J. C. Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research, Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963.
- Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (third edition), New York: Harper and Row, 1968.
- Cattell, R. B. "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership, in Terms of Group Syntality," Human Relations, 4, 1951, pp. 161-184.

- Cloward, R. A. and Jones, R. "Social Class, Education, Attitude, and Participation," in Passow (ed.) Education of Depressed Areas, 1963.
- Cohen, A. K. Deviance and Control, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1960.
- Cohen, A. K. Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang, Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1955.
- Cohen, E. E. "Getting Hired, Getting Trained," U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare Publication, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965.
- Coleman, J. S. "Equality in Education Opportunity," Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C., 1966.
- Dell, G. A. "Social Factors and School Influence in Juvenile Delinquents: An Analysis of Police Cases in the Belfast Juvenile Court," British Journal of Educational Psychology, 33, 1963, pp. 312-333.
- Deutsch, M. D. "Theory of Co-Operation and Competition," Human Relations, 2, 1949, pp. 129-152.
- Elliott, D. S. "Delinquency and Perceived Opportunity," Sociological Inquiry, 1962, pp. 216-222.
- Empey, L. T. "Delinquency Theory and Recent Research," Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 3, 1966, pp. 28-41.
- Empey, L. T. and Erikson, E. H. "Delinquency Theory" in H. Voss (ed.) Society, Delinquency and Delinquent Behavior, Boston: Little Brown, 1970.
- Empey, L. T. and Rabow, J. "The Provo Experiment in Delinquency Rehabilitation," American Sociological Review, 26, 1961, pp. 679-694.

- Fairweather, G. W. Social Psychology in Treating Mental Illness, New York: John Wiley and Son, 1964.
- Fairweather, G. W., Sanders, D. H., Cressler, D. L. and Beck, D. S. Community Life for the Mentally Ill: An Alternative to Institutional Care, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1969.
- Ferman, L. A. "Disadvantaged Youth: The Problem of Placement, Job Creation and Job Development," Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor Publications, 1967.
- Fleisher, B. The Economics of Delinquency, Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1966.
- Gazda, G. M. (ed.). Basic Approaches to Group Psychotherapy and Group Counseling, Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1968.
- Geiss, G. "Juvenile Gangs" in President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967.
- Gleuck, S. and Gleuck, Eleanor. Delinquents and Non-delinquents in Perspective, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1968.
- Gold, M. "Undetected Delinquent Behavior," Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 3, 1966, pp. 27-46.
- Gold, M. Status Forces in Delinquent Boys, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1963.
- Gordon, R. A., Short, J. F., Cartwright, D. S. and Stroddack, F. L. "Values and Gang Delinquency: A Study of Street Corner Groups," American Journal of Sociology, 69, 1963, pp. 109-128.
- Hammond, L. K. and Goldman, M. "Competition and Noncompetition and Its Relationship to Individual and Group Productivity," Sociometry, 24, 1961, pp. 46-60.

- Hare, A. P. Handbook of Small Group Research, New York: The Free Press, 1962.
- Hayes, W. L. Statistics for Psychologists, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963.
- Hersko, M. "Group Psychotherapy with Delinquent Adolescent Girls," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 32, 1962.
- Hollander, E. P. Leaders, Groups, and Influence, New York: Oxford University Press, 1967.
- Kelly, H. H. "Attitudes and Judgements as Influenced by Reference Groups: Two Functions of Reference Groups," in G. Swanson, T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Harley (eds.) Readings in Social Psychology (2nd edition), New York: Holt, 1952, pp. 410-420.
- Levitan, S. A. "Anti-Poverty Work and Training Efforts: Goals and Reality," The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations and National Management Policy Task Force, Washington, D.C., 1967.
- McDavid, J. W. and Harari, H. Social Psychology: Individuals, Groups and Society, New York: Harper and Row, 1968.
- McCorkle, L. W. "Guided Group Interaction in a Correctional Setting," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 4, 1954.
- McCorkle, L. W., Elias, A. and Bixby, F. L. The Highfields Story, New York: Holt, 1958.
- Maier, N. R. F. "The Quality of Group Decisions as Influenced by the Discussion Leader," Human Relations, 3, 1950, pp. 155-174.
- Miller, W. B. "Lower Class Culture as a Generating Milieu of Gang Delinquency," Journal of Social Issues 14, 1958.

- Moed, M. "Increasing the Employability of Youth: The Role of Work Training," Task Force Report on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967.
- Monahan, T. P. "Family Status and the Delinquent Child," Social Forces, 35, 1957.
- Peterson, D. R. and Becker, W. C. "Family Interaction and Delinquency," in Quay, H. D. (ed.) Juvenile Delinquency: Research and Theory, Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand, 1965, pp. 36-39.
- Ohlin, L. E. and Cloward, R. A. Delinquency and Opportunity, Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1960.
- Raven, B. H. and Eachus, H. T. "Cooperation and Competition in Mean-Interdependent Triads," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 67, 1963, pp. 307-316.
- Rubin, L. N. and Hill, Shirley. "Assessing the Contributions of Family Structure, Class and Peer Groups in Juvenile Delinquency," in Glasser, D. (ed.) Crime in the City, New York: Harper and Row, 1970.
- Salaikeu, K. A. "Group Treatment of Juvenile and Adult Offender," Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 10, 1973.
- Sarri, R. C. and Vinter, R. D. "Group Treatment Strategies in Juvenile Correctional Programs," Crime and Delinquency, 11, 1965.
- Schulman, I. "Modification of Group Therapy with Anti-Social Adolescence," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 7, 1957.
- Seckel, J. P. "The Freemont Experiment: Assessment of Residential Treatment at a Youth Authority Reception Center," Department of Youth Authority, Sacramento, California, 1967.

- Shafer, S. and Knudten, R. G. "The Family and Home" in Juvenile Delinquency: An Introduction, Shafer (ed.), New York: Random House, 1970.
- Sharp, E. P. "Group Counseling in a Short-Term Institution," Federal Probation, 23, 1959.
- Shaw, M. E. Group Dynamics: The Psychology of Small Group Behavior, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.
- Shaw, M. E. and Blum, J. M. "Group Performance as a Function of Task Difficulty and the Group's Awareness of Member Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 4, 1965, pp. 151-154.
- Shaw, C. R. and McKay, H. D. "Cultural Transmission," in Wolfgang, M. (ed.) The Sociology of Crime and Delinquency (2nd edition), New York: John Wylie and Son, 1970, pp. 225-232.
- Shellow, R. S., Ward, J. L., and Rubenfield, S. "Group Therapy and the Institutionalized Delinquent," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 8, 1958.
- Singell, L. "The Economic Opportunity in Juvenile Delinquency," in Fleisher, B. (ed.) The Economics of Delinquents, 1966.
- Slocum, W. and Stone, Carol. "Family, Culture Patterns and Delinquent-Type Behavior," Marriage and Family Living, 25, 1963.
- Spergel, I. Street Gang Work: Theory and Practice, New York: Doubleday, 1966.
- Thrasher, F. M. The Gang (1313 Chicago Gangs), Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936.
- Trojanowicz, R. C. Juvenile Delinquency: Concepts and Controls, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Walker, G. J. "Group Counseling in Juvenile Probation," Federal Probation, 22, 1959.

Walker, Helen and Lev, J. Statistical Inferences, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953, p. 151.

Wheeler, S., Cottrell, L. and Ramasco, Ann. Juvenile Delinquency: Its Prevention and Control, Task Force Report, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1969.

Wilcoxon, F. and Wilcox, Roberta. Some Rapid, Approximate, Statistical Procedures, Lederle Laboratories, New York, New York, 1964.

Wyer, R. S. "Effects of Incentives to Perform Well, Group Attraction and Group Acceptance to Conformity in a Judgement Trial," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 4, 1966, pp. 21-26.

Zander, A. and Newcomb, T. "Group Levels of Aspiration in United Fund Campaigns," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 6, 1967, pp. 157-162.

APPENDIX A

JOB EVALUATION FORM

JOB EVALUATION FORM

MECHANIC RESPONSIBLE _____ DATE _____

TYPE OF JOB _____

EVALUATOR _____

(CHECK EACH QUESTION)

1. AMBITION TO WORK AT JOB WAS: GOOD _____
AVERAGE _____
BELOW AVERAGE _____

2. INDIVIDUAL IS REALLY TRYING TO LEARN: YES _____
NO _____

3. JOB WAS COMPLETED IN A REASONABLE AMOUNT OF TIME:
YES _____
NO _____

4. QUALITY OF WORK WAS: GOOD _____
AVERAGE _____
BELOW AVERAGE _____

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX B
CONTROL PARTICIPANT'S
JOB PLACEMENTS

CONTROL PARTICIPANT'S JOB PLACEMENTS

Place of Employment	Type of Employment	Number of Participants
Garvey Institute	Black Cultural Awareness	4
Cristo Rey Community Center	Chicano Cultural Awareness	4
Northside Drug Center	Drug Counselors Aide	3
Eastside Drop-In Center	Recreational Supervisor	3
WJIM Radio	Radio Technician Trainee	2
Y.D.C. Printing Training Program	Printer Apprentices	5
Boys Club	Recreational Supervisor	2
Industrial Laundry	Laundry	1
Indian Center	Indian Cultural Awareness	2
Legal Aide	Legal Intern	3
Free Spirit	Sales Clerk	1

Total = 30

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANTS INTAKE FORM

PARTICIPANTS INTAKE FORM

Interviewer _____ Date: _____
(Month) (Day) (Year)

Name: _____

Address: _____

Telephone: _____

Sex: Male _____ Female _____

Age: (circle 14 15 16 17 18 over Birth Date: _____
(Month) (Day) (Year)

Ethnic Origin: Black _____
Mex-Amer. _____
Indian _____
White _____
Other (Specify) _____

Marital Status: Married _____ Dependents _____
Single _____
Separated _____

Family Income: Less than \$3,000 _____
\$3,000-4,999 _____
\$5,000-6,999 _____
\$7,000 or more _____

Nearest Relative: Relationship _____
Address _____

Referred From: Outreach Staff (Specify) _____
Agency (Specify) _____
Police _____
Court _____
Other (Specify) _____

Educational Status:
Highest Grade Completed: 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 +
In School, Full-time _____ Where? _____
In School, Part-time _____ Where? _____
Out of School _____ Reason _____
(truant, suspended, drop-out)

Number of Times Suspended or Expelled: 0 1 2 3 4 5 +

Correctional History:

Has not been Arrested _____
 Arrested, but not Adjudicated _____
 Arrested and Adjudicated _____
 Arrested, on Probation _____
 Arrested, on Parole _____
 Arrested, Institutionalized _____
 Institutionalized, Out _____
 Reason for Arrest: _____

Automotive Mechanic Experience: (List)

1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____

Employment History: (List jobs for past two years, where and immediate supervisor)

1. _____ How Long? _____
 2. _____ How Long? _____
 3. _____ How Long? _____

What do you plan to do for employment in the next two years?

How do you feel about owning and operating an auto repair shop in Lansing?

In addition to having a job would you be willing to spend one (1) night per week to improve your community? Yes _____ No _____

Comments by interviewer on individual's prospects:

Module: 1 2 3 4 5

Auto Experience: None _____ Low _____ High _____

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANTS FOLLOW-UP FORM

PARTICIPANTS FOLLOW-UP FORM

NAME: _____ DATE: _____
(Month) (Day) (Year)

OUTREACH WORKER: _____ MODULE: 0 1 2 3 4 5

Number of Weeks Client has been in Y.D.C. _____

School Status:

____ Continued in School--Full-Time
____ Name of School _____
____ Continued in School--Part-Time
____ Name of School _____
____ Truant (reason) _____
____ Suspended (reason) _____
____ Dropped Out (date and reason) _____
____ Graduated (date and school) _____
____ Other (specify) _____

Employment Status:

____ Unemployed
____ Employed (full-time and place) _____
____ Employed (part-time and place) _____
____ Y.D.C. Work-Intern (place) _____

Correctional Record:

____ Not been arrested
____ Apprehended, not arrested
____ Arrested, but not adjudicated
____ Arrested and adjudicated
____ Arrested, on parole
____ Arrested, on probation
____ Arrested, court ward
____ Other (specify) _____

If arrested, explain details of arrest and results of arrest:

RECOMMENDED SUPPORTIVE SERVICES:

- ☐ Psychological Counseling
- ☐ Psychological Testing
- ☐ Medical Treatment
- ☐ Social Counseling-Group
- ☐ Social Counseling-Individual
- ☐ Academic Training
- ☐ Vocational Training
- ☐ Other (Specify) _____

Referred to following source for services _____

Explain results of services (if possible):

Referred to other program:

- ☐ Police
- ☐ Court (on-going)
- ☐ School
- ☐ Family
- ☐ Social Agency (specify) _____
- ☐ Other (specify) _____

Explain results of referral (brief) _____

APPENDIX E
SOCIOMETRIC RATING SCALE

SOCIOMETRIC RATING SCALE

Directions: Below there are seven scales, one for each member of the group. Please rate each member, excluding yourself, on the scale as to how much you like or dislike them. (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER)

Names

- _____ A. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ B. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ C. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ D. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ E. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ F. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much
- _____ G. (1) Do not like at all (2) Mildly dislike
(3) Dislike just a little (4) Neither like
or dislike (5) Like just a little
(6) Mildly like (7) Like very much

APPENDIX F
MORALE RATING SCALE

MORALE RATING SCALE

Name _____ Shift _____ Date _____

Below are listed several statements with which you may agree or disagree. There are five possible ways you might react to each statement. Please put a check mark in front of the one response which most adequately expresses your feelings.

1. I would just as soon have my present job as any other job that I know about.
___ Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ Undecided ___ Disagree ___ Strongly disagree
2. I am perfectly happy with my present position in the group.
___ Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ Undecided ___ Disagree ___ Strongly disagree
3. I have a lot of training or skills that could be used better by the group.
___ Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ Undecided ___ Disagree ___ Strongly disagree
4. Even if it were not for matters of training and experience, I would rather be in my present position with this group than in any other position with any other group.
___ Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ Undecided ___ Disagree ___ Strongly disagree
5. Is your group manager good at figuring out easy ways to do things when the group has work?
___ Very good ___ Pretty good ___ Sometimes ___ Usually no ___ Not good
6. Does your group manager usually help to settle arguments among the men under him?
___ Almost always ___ Often ___ Sometimes ___ Rarely ___ Never
7. How often does your group manager help the members out in personal matters?
___ Almost always ___ Often ___ Sometimes ___ Rarely ___ Never
8. When the men or women in your group do something wrong, is your group manager able to handle the situation?
___ Almost always ___ Often ___ Sometimes ___ Rarely ___ Never
9. All of the members in my group work as hard as they can.
___ Almost always ___ Often ___ Sometimes ___ Rarely ___ Never

10. All of the members in my group cooperate with each other.
__Almost always__Often__Sometimes__Rarely__Never
11. So far as overall performance is concerned, I would rank my group as:
__One of the best
__One of the next best
__Somewhere between the best and worst
__As a poor group
__As the poorest group

APPENDIX G

JOB BEHAVIOR SCALE

JOB BEHAVIOR SCALE

Worker's Name _____ Group _____

Rater's Name _____ Date _____

1. _____ The worker makes few errors.
 _____ The worker makes many errors.
2. _____ The worker seldom needs prodding to get job done.
 _____ The worker usually needs prodding to get job done.
3. _____ The worker rarely needs help.
 _____ The worker often needs help.
4. _____ The worker follows directions on the job.
 _____ The worker does not follow directions on the job.
5. _____ The worker works for extended periods of time.
 _____ The worker fails to work on a task for any reasonable period
 of time.
6. _____ The worker abides by rules and regulations.
 _____ The worker violates job rules and regulations.
7. _____ The worker usually profits from constructive criticism.
 _____ The worker usually does not profit from constructive
 criticism.
8. _____ The worker seldom becomes upset by failure.
 _____ The worker usually becomes upset by failure.
9. _____ The worker usually does not complain about tasks that are
 given him.
 _____ The worker usually complains about tasks that are given him.
10. _____ The worker usually applies self to task.
 _____ The worker usually does not apply self to task.
11. _____ The worker works with average accuracy.
 _____ The worker's work is often inaccurate.
12. _____ The worker works constantly on task.
 _____ The worker rarely works on the task.
13. _____ The worker reports regularly to work.
 _____ The worker often fails to show up for work.

14. ☐ The worker usually profits by his mistakes.
☐ The worker repeats his mistakes over and over again.
15. ☐ The worker does not do or say anything which is disturbing to others.
☐ The worker sometimes says or does things that disturb others.
16. ☐ The worker is courteous and considerate, showing a normal concern for the feelings of others.
☐ The worker is discourteous and often shows no concern for the feelings of others.
17. ☐ The worker is reasonably friendly and agreeable.
☐ The worker is usually unfriendly and disagreeable.
18. ☐ The worker often speaks to others.
☐ The worker rarely speaks to others.
19. ☐ The worker is usually happy.
☐ The worker is usually sad.
20. ☐ The worker takes pride in the quality of his work; i.e., shows work or talks about work to others and/or supervisor.
☐ The worker does not take pride in the quality of his work.
21. ☐ The worker seldom finds fault with others and/or their work.
☐ The worker often finds fault with others and/or their work.
22. ☐ The worker pays attention to the work and activities of others.
☐ The worker does not pay attention to the work or activities of others--is in a world of his own.
23. ☐ The worker makes some worthwhile suggestions about tasks.
☐ The worker makes no worthwhile suggestions about tasks.
24. ☐ The worker usually accepts constructive suggestions from the supervisor.
☐ The worker seldom accepts constructive suggestions from the supervisor.
25. ☐ The worker is not usually disturbed by constructive criticism.
☐ The worker is usually disturbed by constructive criticism.
26. ☐ The worker seldom finds fault with his work.
☐ The worker often finds fault with his work.

APPENDIX H
ADMINISTRATIVE AGREEMENT

ADMINISTRATIVE AGREEMENT

The following agreement has been drawn up between all interested parties with regard to the automotive cooperative research project being conducted by Youth Development Corporation (Y.D.C.). The project is being carried out in an effort to determine the effect of delinquents working in group employment (automotive co-op) and individual employment (work-interns) on their rehabilitation and ability to become effective organizers in their community. In order that the responsibilities of all individuals involved in the project are not misunderstood, the following responsibilities of each are hereby agreed to:

ON THE PART OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF Y.D.C.:

1. Finance the project according to the specified budget and provide stipends for the project participants according to the work-intern criteria.
2. The utilization of Y.D.C. clients as participants of the project.
3. The random assignment of project participants either to the automotive cooperative or to work-intern positions.
4. That all data concerning project participants shall be made available to the project director.

5. That the outreach staff of Y.D.C. will participate by referring prospective project participants and assist the project director in collecting follow-up data on the project participants.
6. That the project director can administer questionnaires and interviews to the participants of the project upon their approval.
7. Individuals not selected to participant in the co-op will be given employment commensurate with their education and ability. If employment is not obtained in 30 days, the project director will then be notified.

ON THE PART OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT DIRECTOR:

1. Assume complete responsibility for the daily operation of the automotive cooperative project.
2. Keep the confidentiality of all data concerning the project participants.
3. Make available all reports on research evaluation and monitoring of project to Y.D.C.
4. Control project expenditures as specified in the budget.
5. Assign the project participants into small groups for community organizational purposes.
6. Be responsible for assigning the duties and responsibilities to members participating in the operation of the cooperative.
7. Will use the information collected from this project only to meet doctoral dissertation requirements.

These agreements shall be in effect during the eleven months the project is expected to run, beginning the week of October 30, 1972 and ending the week of October 1, 1973, subject to any changes or extensions by the granting agency--H.E.W.

Youth Development Corporation Administration

Project Research Director

Date

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293103735100