

Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality
and Loneliness in
Female Juvenile Delinquents

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Abstract

The importance of peer influence on juvenile crime is a well researched topic, however, few studies have explored the relationship between female juvenile crime and their attachment style. In order to examine the interpersonal relationships of female young offenders, this study investigated female young offenders and their attachments to their friends. Forty-six female young offenders incarcerated at four youth correctional centers in British Columbia and Alberta participated in the study. Participants completed the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA - Peer Scale), the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), the Friendship Quality Questionnaire (FQQ; Parker & Asher, 1993), and the UCLA Loneliness Scale Revised (UCLA –R). Female young offenders were also asked both to complete a demographic interview and to answer open-ended questions regarding friends and friendship. The results of the study indicated that female young offenders were more likely to identify themselves with insecure attachment styles, with the greatest number of females reporting a Fearful-Avoidant attachment style. Dismissive-Avoidant female young offenders experienced the lowest quality attachments and friendships. Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders experienced similar positive attachment quality and friendship quality characteristics as Secure female young offenders, however, Fearful-Avoidant females experienced the significantly higher loneliness and alienation when compared to both Secure and Dismissive-Avoidant participants. The results of this study suggest intervention

strategies with female young offenders should focus on improving attachment to friends in order to improve friendship quality and decrease involvement in the criminal justice system.

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Attachment Style, Friendship Quality and Loneliness in Female Juvenile Delinquents

Chapter 1

Introduction

In the past, female juvenile delinquents were examined frequently in order to ascertain why they were less delinquent than their male counterparts. Constructs such as moral reasoning (Mears, Ploeger & Warr, 1998) and gender role socialization (Heimer, 1996) of female juvenile offenders have been examined in order to determine potential deficiencies in delinquent males which may be the cause of delinquency. The research focus on female delinquency is slowly changing, and more researchers have begun to search for the causes of juvenile delinquency for females. Until fairly recently, research on female juvenile delinquency has been relatively meager when compared to research work conducted on male delinquents. This increased interest in female delinquency may partially be attributed the recent media coverage of violent attacks involving juvenile females, which have resulted in massive public shock. The statistics support the media's anecdotal evidence that female juvenile delinquency is on the rise. From 1986 to 1993, the number of female youths charged with assault in British Columbia increased by 250% (Artz, 1998). Canada mirrors this increase and reports 190% increase in the number of female youths charged with assault between 1986 and 1993 (Artz, 1998). The number of male youth charged with assault in this same time period from 1986-1993 also showed an increase, 118% in British Columbia and 117%

in Canada (Artz, 1998). Although these reports still raise serious questions, perhaps the notion that juvenile females are becoming increasingly involved in, and charged with, violent attacks at a higher rate than their male counterparts is socially alarming. Statistics Canada (1999) reports 39 juvenile females were charged with homicide between 1994 and 1998 – a crime once thought to belong solely to male offenders. Although these increases do not reach the proportions of male juvenile delinquency, the rise is quite alarming and demands attention.

The importance of social relationships in the lives of young women suggest that, a reasonable place to begin the examination of female delinquency might be through the inspection of their close relationships. John Bowlby (1982) noted that attachment provides a strong predictor of quality of close personal relationships throughout the life cycle. The formation of an attachment occurs in infancy with the primary caregiver's consistency in responding to the infant. This responsiveness allows the infant to feel safe and protected which, in turn, invites the infant to explore the environment while continuing to feel secure. An infant who feels unable to rely on their primary caregiver for protection and support, due to unresponsive or neglectful parenting, will not form a secure attachment to their primary caregiver. This may cause a disruption in the ability to form secure close relationships throughout the life span.

Bowlby (1982) noted that those parent-child relationships characterized by abuse, violence, or chaos lead to disruptions in the formation of primary attachment. Juvenile delinquents, particularly females, report higher levels of abuse, physical or sexual, and violence in the home (Artz, 1998). This makes female delinquents a unique

group to study. The determined effect of disrupted early parent-child attachments as an internal working model for interpersonal relationships across the life span predicts problems for female delinquents with turbulent family histories. One would predict this population to have an increased problem with interpersonal relationships with their peers and in their romantic relationships. The end result of this is that female juvenile delinquents would form friendships with other delinquent youths that would lack the characteristics of a secure attachment. Early disrupted attachments reduce the individual's ability to form or restructure their attachment behaviors, which in turn, leads to the formation and maintenance of low quality friendships (Bukowski, Hoza, & Boivin, 1994). Given the extensive research which correlates peer influence and delinquency, female young offenders may be more susceptible to delinquent peer influence, thus contributing to the rise in female involvement in criminal activity.

Research on early attachment of female juvenile delinquents may have important implications for therapeutic practice, particularly as it may serve to highlight the need for early family intervention. This may also lead to the examination of techniques which would focus interventions on improving the personal relationships, in particular the peer relationships, of female young offenders. A focus on improving attachment related behaviors may provide female young offenders with the resources and self assurance to form close friendships and other relationships based on secure attachment which would, in turn, promote positive relationships and decrease involvement with delinquent peers. It is, therefore, important to determine the causes and contributors of female juvenile delinquency.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Understanding youth crime rests on discovering what factors contribute to adolescents becoming involved in acts of delinquency. Juvenile delinquent and young offender (used interchangeably throughout this study) are terms used to refer to an adolescent between the ages of 13-17 who has been arrested and charged with an offense under the Young Offenders Act. As delinquency is an important social concern, much research has been conducted focusing on male young offenders. From this research, many factors have been consistently identified as correlates of delinquency. Two of the most important, and well researched of these factors have been family and peer relationships. Recently, there has been a move away from focusing on these as independent factors examining the interaction between family and peer relationships as a potential mediator of juvenile delinquency (Brendgen, Vitaro, & Bukowski, 1998; Dukes, Martinez & Stein, 1997; Jang & Thornberry, 1998). One way in which this relationship has been examined is through attachment theory, which considers the primary relationship between infant and caregiver as a predictor of interpersonal relationships across the life span. More specifically, how does a youth's relationship with their family or primary caregiver affect their relationships with their peers?

Attachment theory has been used to explain many developmental differences in children, adolescents and adults. Attachment in the infant-caregiver relationship is assumed to provide a "secure base" for the infant to explore their environment

(Ainsworth, 1989; Bowlby, 1982). The attachment is formed on the basis of the caregiver's ability to provide protection and support in situations that provoke anxiety and fear. The predictability (or lack of predictability) of protection and support in such situations is assumed to lead to the formation of the internal "working models" on which individuals base their expectations for interpersonal relationships across the life span. Those individuals whose history with their primary caregiver is riddled with chaos and unpredictability would be assumed to have difficulty in their interpersonal relationships across the life span. In other words, their attachment to others would be disrupted as female young offenders would have decreased expectations of support and security from others in their interpersonal relationships.

Attachment theory. Recently, a revised theoretical framework has been proposed to describe and to explain the attachment styles which develop in infancy and childhood and translate across the life span. Bowlby's (1973) research determined that attachment formation was affected by two important aspects: (a) by the individual's view of the availability and responsiveness of others and; (b) the individual's perception of the self as being able to respond to such support from others. Based on this assumption, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a model in which attachment styles were divided into four categories. This model combines two levels of conceptions of the self (positive and negative) with two levels of the conception of others (positive and negative).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) describe their categories as: (a) **Secure:** this person possesses a positive sense of self-worth and an expectation that others

would be accepting and responsive to them; (b) **Preoccupied**: this individual experiences a sense of unworthiness of the self yet maintains a positive expectation of the responsiveness and acceptance of others. This person attempts to gain self acceptance through obtaining the acceptance of others; (c) **Fearful-Avoidant**: this individual also experiences a sense of unworthiness of the self in combination with an expectation that other will be unresponsive and rejecting. This person will avoid close relationships in order to avoid rejection by others; (d) **Dismissive-Avoidant**: this person experiences a sense of self as positive yet experiences a negative disposition towards other people. In order to maintain a sense of independence and invulnerability, these people will avoid close relationships as a form of self protection. The difference between the final two attachment styles is the need of others in order to maintain a positive self-image (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Extensive examination of interviews, self-reports, and relationships with friends has provided support for this model. Ratings of an individual's attachment style by these various sources has shown that attachment styles are correlated highly with the individuals rating of their self image (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) studied university students from an introductory class and compared their responses on attachment measures to the responses of their friends and family. They found that young adults that were rated as secure displayed high correlation with the ratings of their friends. They were more likely to be rated as having healthy levels of intimacy in their relationships and high levels of warmth and balance of control in their friendships. The dismissing group scored high on self-

confidence and low on emotional expressiveness and warmth. They scored lower than secure and preoccupied participants on closeness, self-disclosure, intimacy, level of romantic involvement, capacity to rely on others, and use of others as a secure base. The preoccupied group was opposite the dismissing group and scored highly on self-disclosure, emotional expressiveness, frequency of crying, reliance on others, use of others as a secure base, and care-giving. Balance of control in friendships and self-confidence suffered in the preoccupied group. The fearful group was rated lower than the secure and preoccupied groups on intimacy, reliance on others, and use of others as a secure base when upset. They were also rated low on self-confidence and balance of control in their friendships. They were indicated as demonstrating a subservient role in close relationships.

Priel and colleagues' (1996) findings supported Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) model. Their study showed both that fearful individuals were perceived by others as distant and non-supportive and that preoccupied and dismissing individuals displayed a non-reciprocated view of others; as well, dismissing individuals downplayed the importance of others and their rejections in order to maintain self-esteem.

Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model is not without its limitations. The inability of this study to prove the superiority of the four-category model over a three-category model limits its usefulness over more parsimonious models; nevertheless, as Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) suggest their model may be of particular importance when applied to specific populations to avoid minimizing the effects of attachment. Its

usefulness, therefore, may be supported in studying a specific at-risk population as female juvenile delinquents.

Broad vs. Narrow Definition of Attachment. Recently there has been a discussion among attachment researchers concerning the definition of attachment (Goldberg, Grusec, & Jenkins, 1999). The concern has arisen from the association of attachment formation with constructs that directly define good parenting. If this is so, attachment theory loses its unique defining principles and importance to the examination of simply those behaviors that define good parenting. Both those who endorse a broad definition or a narrow definition of attachment agree that the formation of attachment should not be reduced to simply good parenting. They differ, however, in their belief as to how attachment should be measured and defined.

Those who endorse a narrow definition of attachment suggest that the examination of attachment should be restricted to confidence in protection in order to differentiate attachment from other aspects of the parent-child relationship (Goldberg, Grusec & Jenkins, 1999). The narrow definition of attachment allows attachment to be distinguished from those aspects that define good versus bad parenting. Therefore, only aspects of protection will be examined when defining and measuring attachment. In this respect, confidence in protection is restricted to the child's ability to depend on a parent or caregiver in moments of danger, illness and distress. This allows the child to see the parent as a protector or buffer (Goldberg et al.). The narrow definition of attachment indicates that attachment is not defined by general responsiveness of

caregivers to infant signals, instead, it is responsiveness to situations that require protection.

This narrow definition allows for what Ainsworth (1989) defined and Bowlby (1982) affirmed as the "secure base" in which the child's confidence in the caregiver's ability to protect the infant from harm allows the child to use the parent as a base to explore and develop. This theory in which the child uses the caregiver as a "secure base" is measured in the Ainsworth Strange Situation experiments in which situations are created in which the infant may require protection. Although Goldberg and colleagues (1999) applaud this research, they point out that the laboratory research design of the strange situation was unable to simulate natural observation research conditions in which situations requiring care-giver protection were more likely to arise. It was, therefore, much more likely that the strange situation would measure general aspects of caregiver behavior such as sensitivity, responsiveness, acceptance and accessibility (Goldberg et al.).

Goldberg and colleagues (1999) highlight two advantages of a narrow definition of attachment. First, if confidence in protection singularly defines attachment, this offers an important focal point for both research and practical purposes. Dickstein (1999) supports this argument from a developmental psychopathology perspective and suggests that a focus on "confidence in protection system may have significant predictive power for the child's ultimate adaptation" (Dickstein, p. 486) when considering children who experience significant threat or danger.

Second, the narrow definition restricts the excessive overlap of attachment theory with other aspects of the parent-child relationship and therefore ensures the uniqueness of the theory of attachment. This also limits what attachment influences or predicts, including aggression, and self-esteem (Goldberg et al., 1999). MacDonald (1999) indicates that characteristics that define "good parenting" are separate from those that define protection in that each has different underlying attributions and functions.

Those who argue for a broad definition of attachment indicate that it is not only more consistent with the direction of current attachment research, but it also allows for an explanation for the formation of a stable relationship (Pederson & Moran, 1999). Isabella (1999) highlights some other problematic issues for those who argue for a narrow definition of attachment. Isabella questions how confidence in protection can be operationalized or observed adequately. Bowlby did not exclusively focus on protection in attachment formation; constructs such as love were addressed (Isabella). This indicates that protection is not sufficient to predict attachment and there is more included in attachment. Thirdly, Isabella comments on the fact that the first year of an infant's life may be characterized by situations that require protection. What, therefore, is most relevant beyond the first year?

Finally and, perhaps, the most important question for the current study is attachment as a lifespan construct. This is the idea discussed in the previous section as attachment as forming an internal working model, which maintains influence across the lifespan. Isabella (1999) criticizes Goldberg et al. (1999) for failing to address

adequately this issue in their argument for a narrow definition of attachment. This argument for attachment as a basis for attachment as a life span construct explains "how attachment theory differs from other theories by providing empirically supported explanations of the process and mechanisms by which early experiences are linked to development beyond infancy" (Isabella, p.502).

Attachment to Family. There is little disagreement that family is influential in every aspect of our development. Early attachment to family is important in adolescent development due to the effect early attachment has in shaping close relationships throughout the life span. Adolescents' attachment styles are shaped by their early attachment experiences, in particular, the attachment relationship with their primary caregivers. As a result, relationship formation in later life is modeled after early relationships with the primary caregiver. For example, families of delinquent youths are often characterized by poor parental supervision, harsh and inconsistent discipline, inadequate parental monitoring, parental rejection, alcoholism and drug abuse in the family as well as sibling involvement in delinquency (Goldstein 1991). It is precisely this form of parenting that leads to the formation of insecure attachment styles, which disrupt close relationship formation across the life span.

Carlson (1998) reported that insensitive/intrusive parenting as well as a variety of forms of maltreatment in the first year of life lead to a disorganized attachment style. This style is characterized as having no coherent organization of attachment behavior as is reflected by the inconsistent and often conflicting behavior of the infant in the Strange Situation experiment (Carlson, 1998).

What perhaps is most important for the current study is the effect that early parent-child attachment can have on the formation of friendships of adolescents. For example, factors such as parental involvement and parental supervision have often been investigated as a mediating variable in both victimization and delinquency (Flannery, Williams and Vazsonyi, 1999; Warr, 1993). Lack of parental involvement with adolescents directs adolescents to spend a majority of time with peers. Low involvement, closeness and supervision have been shown to lead adolescents to spend more time with peers (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997). The reverse of this finding has also been shown in that adolescents whose relationship with their parents are characterized by positive features such as increased involvement with their adolescents, particularly with being aware of their adolescents' whereabouts, are more likely to report more positive peer relationships (Dekovic & Meeus).

Warr (1993) examined a population of adolescents age 11-17 and concluded that parents have an indirect effect on delinquent behaviors of their adolescents. The reason for this indirect effect was that attachment to parents affected the kind of friends that adolescents have. The quantity of time spent with parents counteracts negative peer influences (Warr, 1993). Attachment to a primary caregiver is instrumental to the infants development of friendships and other relationships throughout the life-span. For example, Shulman and colleagues (1994) found that friendship formation in preadolescence resembled the infant-caregiver attachment formation. Those individuals with a secure attachment history developed highly interdependent relationships with their friends whereas anxious and avoidant children display a lack of interdependence

characterized by a clinging or hovering dependence with a friend (Shulman et al., 1994).

The Effect of Maltreatment on Attachment. Unhealthy behaviors of parents result in a disruption of adolescent relationships with their parents. Bowlby (1977) lists parental behaviors which interrupt the parent-child bond as: being unresponsive or rejecting of the child, discontinuous parenting, threats of removal of love for the child, threats to abandon the family, evoking guilt in a child by blaming them for family troubles. Parental behaviors such as abuse, alcoholism and depression are a few examples of observable behaviors that may lead to the behaviors listed by Bowlby (1977). These behaviors significantly affect the parent child relationship and as a result, significantly affect the healthy development of the child (Bowlby, 1977).

Once again, attachment theory is useful in examining how these behaviors affect the parent-child relationship. Maladaptive parental behaviors, such as those listed above, can lead to deviations in the formation of the attachment bond or, more rarely, to a failure to develop attachment (Bowlby, 1977). Inconsistent treatment of a child can reduce the child's ability to perceive the caregiver as a secure base from which to explore their environment and thus reduce the fostering of autonomy in the child (Bowlby, 1982; 1977). The child will not be able to depend on their caregiver for protection and support in the face of anxiety or fear. Undoubtedly, this will disrupt the parent-child attachment and will further lead the child to display an insecure attachment style characterized by lack of confidence in the self or others, throughout their interpersonal relationships.

Egeland and Sroufe (1981) conducted a study which included a proportion of women who were identified as seriously abusing or neglecting their children. They examined attachment at 12 months and 18 months. This research was conducted using Ainsworth's (1978) "Strange Situation" measurement and classification in which the mother-infant interaction, and separation, is observed in a laboratory setting. They confirmed their hypothesis that the excellent care group contained a significantly larger percentage of securely attached infants at both 12 and 18 months. Also as predicted, early maltreatment was associated with predominantly anxious patterns of attachment in which the infant seeks the mother, however, simultaneously displays anger and resistant behavior (Ainsworth, 1989).

Warmth and support of a caregiver is very important in the development of healthy attachment formation in children. Maternal coldness was found to increase maternal dissatisfaction with a daughter, which reinforced the lack of maternal warmth. The result of this caregiver behavior is an insecure attachment style, an increase in self-criticism and a decrease in self-worth in the daughter (Thompson & Zuroff, 1999).

Similar to these findings, Walker and Ehrenberg (1998) examined reasons for parental divorce as reported by the adolescents in the family. Perceived reasons for parental divorce such as overt anger, reasons involving children in the family and extramarital affairs were the factors that were most related to insecure attachment styles (Walker & Ehrenberg). Secure adolescents were less likely to report a single important reason for their parents' divorce (Walker & Ehrenberg). Another finding in this study on divorce was that adolescents who perceived themselves to be in some

way involved in or responsible for their parents' divorce were more likely to report insecure attachment styles in their own romantic relationships (Walker & Ehrenberg).

Attachment and Adolescent Functioning. Early adversity in relationships with parents has been shown to mediate adolescent functioning in a number of important domains. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that the attachment to family and to peers were correlated significantly. Most studies confirm the existence of this link between parent-child attachment and adolescent competence, particularly social competence (Carlson, 1998; Cooper, Shaver & Collins, 1998; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kenney, Lomax, Brabeck & Fife, 1998). Adolescents who are characterized by a secure attachment style report functioning on a significantly higher level than those adolescents who are characterized by an insecure attachment styles. Secure adolescents were found to possess a capacity for maintenance and expression of their feelings and emotions surrounding attachment experiences which was responsible for the adolescents' broader psychosocial functioning (Allen, Moore, Kuperminc & Bell, 1998). In other words, secure adolescents were better able to organize and explain their attachment experiences. Insecure adolescents display a wide range of inept coping strategies in their interpersonal relationships. They report the lowest levels of social competence, intellectual competence, and the highest levels of risky or problematic behavior (Cooper et al., 1998).

It has also been shown that children in secure child-mother relationships may learn a set of expectations, attitudes and behaviors that foster their peer relationships (Kerns, Klepac & Cole, 1996). Secure children report an increased number of

reciprocated friendships and received higher peer ratings than insecurely attached children (Kerns et al.). Securely attached adolescents have been found to function better on all domains of functioning. This holds true for hazardous behaviors such as substance abuse where insecure adolescents reported a higher level of drug involvement than securely attached adolescents (Claes & Simard, 1992; Cooper et al., 1998). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that the fearful and preoccupied groups who are identified as having a negative self-image reported higher levels of interpersonal problems and distress than the secure and dismissing groups which maintain a positive self-image.

Attachment and Loneliness. Another important aspect of adolescent functioning is the amount of loneliness youth experience with respect to their interpersonal relationships. Loneliness is defined by Cassidy and Berlin (1999, p.34) as "a negative feeling, resulting from a belief that others are unavailable when desired". Loneliness itself can be a useful and also a very normal developmental experience. For instance, loneliness can serve a biological function which will alert the individual that social interaction is necessary (Cassidy & Berlin). In adolescence, in which there is a transfer of attachment relationships from the primary caregiver to peers, loneliness may serve as a prompt or push for the individual to seek social interaction with peers (Cassidy & Berlin; Larson, 1999). Loneliness, however, can also indicate a significant maladaptive response and can indicate social isolation. Childhood and adolescent loneliness has been found to relate to aspects of peer relationships such as quality and quantity of peer relationships and acceptance (Cassidy & Berlin).

Goosens, Marcoen, van-Hees, and van-de-Woestijne (1998) examined the relationship between attachment style and feelings of loneliness with respect to parents and peers. Once again, it was found that adolescents' relationship with their parents affected their relationship with peers. This was measured by examining attachment style and the degree of loneliness adolescents experience in their interpersonal relationships. The result of this examination was that attachment style and loneliness were highly related (Goosens et al.). Consistent with other research presented in this paper, secure adolescents fared better than the insecure adolescents in this study. Adolescents who reported a secure attachment style reported lower levels of parent-related loneliness which translated into their decreased loneliness in relationships with their peers (Goosens et al.). Dependent adolescents in this same study reported a higher aversion to being alone and anxious-avoidant and ambivalent adolescents felt more positive about being alone. Dependent adolescents would, therefore, be more affected by loneliness in their peer group, potentially suffering very negative effects.

Attachment and Gender. Some gender differences have also been discovered through research on attachment styles. Males were found to report secure attachment styles at a significantly higher level than were females (Cooper et al., 1998). Females were also found to display higher levels of anxiety and greatly elevated levels of psychosocial distress than males across all attachment styles (Cooper et al.). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) reported females as receiving higher ratings in the preoccupied group and males rating higher on the dismissing group. This suggests that girls are more likely to become over-involved in close relationships, depend on other

people's perceptions for a sense of self-worth, self-disclose more information, idealize others and exaggerate emotionality when discussing close relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz). Boys, on the other hand, are more likely to down play the importance of close relationships, restrict emotionality and to emphasize independence or self-reliance, and lack clarity or credibility when discussing relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). These differences may all be the result of the increased importance that females place on interpersonal relationships (Priel et al., 1996). As Kenney, Lomax, Brabeck, and Fife (1998) note, it is important to examine how males and females perceive their relationships with their mothers and fathers. Females place more importance on their relationships and also on different qualities in their relationships (Priel, Mitrany, Shahar, 1998; Raja, McGee & Stanton, 1992).

Attachment to Peers. Peers have been the primary focus in studies of the causes of juvenile delinquency. Negative friendships are characteristic of delinquent youth. An interesting finding throughout the literature is that youths who are involved in delinquent behaviors reported less attachment to their friends (Brownfield et al., 1991; Yablonsky, 1962). Those youth who do not respect friends report an increase in self-reported juvenile delinquency and those youth who feel friends can be trusted are less likely to self-report delinquency (Brownfield et al.).

Peers relationships are important factor in adolescent delinquency. This concept of peers as a mediating variable in adolescent delinquency has been researched extensively. What has not been researched is how and why the relationship with delinquent peers is formed. One such explanation for this is attachment to parents as a

predictor for attachment to peers. Adolescence is an interesting time as a transition occurs from the reliance on primarily parents to an interdependence on peers. As this occurs, demands on friendships change. Preadolescents' friendships merely require their friends participate in activities of mutual interest (Clark & Ayers, 1993).

Friendships grow in adolescence to include intrinsic values such as loyalty, commitment and empathy (Clark & Ayers). There is an increasing expectation from friends as their role becomes increasingly central in the lives of adolescents.

With respect to attachment style, in interactions with their friends, anxious-ambivalent adolescents are rather "clingy" or isolating (in the sense of high distrust and low initiative) whereas avoidant adolescents are somewhat distant or self-concerned (in the sense of being highly distrustful while still taking the initiative) in their friendships (Goosens et al., 1998). Securely attached adolescents display more competent and reciprocated friendships (Clark & Ayers, 1993).

Clark and Ayers (1993) explored the effects of adolescent friendship focusing on expectations, reciprocity and gender. They found significant effects on all three variables examined. Both male and female friendships fell short of the level of expected conventional morality. Non-reciprocated friendships did not provide a level of understanding that approximates adolescents' expectations. Adolescents in reciprocated friendships were involved in more activities together and spent more time together throughout the week. With respect to gender, they found that females expected more conventional morality, loyalty, commitment, and empathetic understanding than males. Yet these expectations were also very difficult to satisfy, as

their friendships often did not meet their expectation. Males expect less from their friendships, and, therefore, they find that their friendship coincide with their expectations; as such, they may find their friendships more satisfying. Females also reported having kinder and more understanding friendships than did their male counterparts.

Male juvenile delinquents have also been shown to portray significantly different friendships from normative populations of males. Some researchers have failed to find differences in juvenile delinquents' friendships, but this is often subject to the researchers operational definition of delinquency. Researchers who require adolescents to self-report delinquency often find no effect of delinquency on friendship. The differences arise when adjudicated delinquents (those youth who have been charged on a crime and have experienced criminal court proceedings) are examined (Marcus, 1996). It has been found that juvenile delinquent friendships mirror their experiences within their families. They experience greater conflict and lower cohesion within their families, which has been found to extend to their friendships (Marcus, 1996).

Claes and Simard (1992) explain that this notion of increased conflict in juvenile delinquent friendships is the most important distinguishing feature in comparisons of delinquent and nondelinquent friendships. Conflict in relationships decreases the amount of relationship satisfaction and increases feelings of rejection (Claes & Simard). It is not the lack of positive aspects of friendship that disrupts delinquent friendships; rather, it is the saliency of the negative aspects that disrupt the relationships of young offenders. Their friendships are shorter in duration. They report a larger number of

friends, but fewer intimate friends and more unstable friendships than youth that are not involved in delinquency (Claes & Simard; Marcus, 1996). This may be a result of their tendency to congregate in larger groups giving them less opportunity to form close friendships. This large group responds to needs for approval, social status and belongingness as opposed to the more threatening aspects of close relationships such as intimacy, affection and self-disclosure (Claes & Simard). In accordance with the friendships formed in large groups, delinquents are more likely to report more opposite sex friendships and friendship formation outside of school than youth that are not involved in delinquency (Claes & Simard).

The Current Study. Nicholson (1999) studied the attachment styles of both male and female juvenile offenders. When males and females in this study were examined as a group, the distribution of attachment styles was similar to that found in samples with undergraduates (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazen & Shaver, 1987). In other words, approximately 50% of the participants indicated a secure attachment, while the remaining 50% of the participants were divided equally among the other 3 attachment styles. When females were examined separately, the categorization differed from the distribution identified in past research. Nicholson found females were distributed as follows: 24% secure, 41% fearful, 24% preoccupied and 10% dismissing. This distribution is significantly different from the male young offender whose distribution was similar to the distribution found in the Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) study of undergraduate students.

Despite this tendency for female young offenders to rate themselves as more insecurely attached, they rated themselves as more securely attached to their peers (Nicholson, 1999). Nicholson noted that the small number of females (n=29) that were included in this study limited the conclusions that can be drawn from these findings. As a result of this, the current study sought to include only female juvenile delinquents in order to examine these findings further. In particular, female juvenile delinquents' self-reported attachment styles and their relationships with their friends will be examined.

The purpose of this study is to address the lack of research on female juvenile delinquency through the examination of attachment to peers. Although this study does

not address the direct causes of female juvenile delinquency, it will, hopefully, increase the understanding of the relationships of female juvenile delinquents.

The first objective is to examine female juvenile delinquents' attachment to their peers. The second objective is to examine associations between the quality of their friendships and the degree of loneliness experienced by female young offenders with respect to the attachment style which characterizes them. The measurement of loneliness was included due to the inconsistency in self-reported attachment style and ratings of attachment to peers for female young offenders (Nicholson, 1999), as well as the tendency for females to exaggerate their relationships with their friends (Clark & Ayers, 1993). The measurement of loneliness was included as an additional measure of friendship quality of females in this study.

There is considerable evidence that attachment styles remain constant throughout the life span (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1990; Bowlby, 1982; Hazan & Shaver, 1994); it makes sense, therefore, to suggest attachment to peers will be affected by attachment to parents. In relation to this, the increased amount of conflict in the lives of juvenile offenders is assumed to disrupt attachment (Claes & Simard, 1992). Attachment style is, therefore, expected to mediate the quality of friendships female juvenile delinquents form. A measurement of loneliness is included to examine further the quality of friendships. Despite their ability to form friendships, the quality of these friendships may cause female offenders to continue to experience feelings of loneliness and to further engage in criminal behavior.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between adversity experienced by female young offenders and their reported attachment style?

This question seeks to determine the relationship between adverse experiences, as defined by abuse, disruption in care, incarcerated siblings, and school history and "general attachment style," or the way in which the youth perceives themselves to act and feel in their relationships with people.

The literature suggests that early adversity can result in a disruption of appropriate attachment formation and, in turn, a disruption in attachment across the lifespan. This disruption in attachment formation may lead youth to form inappropriate or inadequate friendships, which in turn, could influence their criminal behavior.

Attachment formation was measured by the Relationship Questionnaire as "general attachment style". General attachment style is defined as the way a person behaves or feels in their relationships with other people. I predicted that a history of adverse experiences, such as those experienced within the family of female young offenders, would be associated with insecure peer attachments. As well, I predicted that a history of caring and stability in the family would be associated with secure attachments in other personal relationships such as peer attachments.

2. Are attachment styles of female young offenders distributed differently than those found in a normative population?

This question seeks to compare the distribution of self-reported attachment styles of the female young offenders with the distribution of attachment styles reported in samples drawn from other populations (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

An increased number of female juvenile offenders were predicted to be characterized by the insecure attachment styles; defined as Dismissive-avoidant, Preoccupied and Fearful-avoidant. This prediction is derived from the comparison of female young offenders to research by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) which indicated that the distribution of attachment styles is characterized by approximately 50% of individuals describing secure attachments while the remaining individuals are dispersed among the other 3 insecure attachment styles. It is likely, thus, that the percentage of female young offenders characterized by the secure attachment style will be significantly less than 50% of participants, which also indicates an increase in the number of female young offenders characterized by the insecure attachment styles.

3. What is the relationship between friendship quality of female young offenders with particular attachment styles?

The four attachment styles, measured by the Relationship Questionnaire (attachment to friends), will be compared to the overall Friendship Quality Questionnaire (FQQ) score (as well as to the 6 sub-scales of the FQQ) to determine the relationship between attachment style and friendship quality of participants in this study. It is predicted that female juvenile offenders will report an increase in difficulty forming intimate, stable, trusting and honest friendships. Female young offenders who

report an insecure attachment style will, therefore, also report a lower score on the Friendship Quality Questionnaire, where as those female young offenders who report a secure attachment style will report a higher score on the Friendship Quality Questionnaire. Differences in secure versus insecure attachment styles is predicted in responses to the 6 subscales of the FQQ. Quality of friendships will be defined by the Friendship Quality Questionnaire which is comprised of six subscales; (a) companionship and recreation; (b) help and guidance; (c) validation an caring; (d) intimate exchange; (e) conflict and betrayal; and (f) conflict resolution.

4. What is the relationship between female young offenders' ratings of loneliness and their attachment styles?

Attachment styles as reported by female young offenders on the Relationship Questionnaire was examined for their association with the UCLA-R Loneliness scale. This will be used to predict whether or not there are differences in ratings of loneliness with particular attachment styles. The predicted outcome is that female young offenders who report insecure attachment styles will have higher scores on the loneliness scale (UCLA-R), than those who report a secure attachment style.

5. What is the relationship between female young offenders' reports of friendship quality and their reports of loneliness?

The association between friendship quality (as measured by the FQQ) and loneliness (as measured by the UCLA-R Loneliness Scale was examined. The Friendship Quality

Questionnaire scores will be compared to the UCLA –R loneliness scale to determine the relationship between friendship quality and loneliness. Despite the quality of female juvenile offenders friendships, rating of loneliness experienced is predicted to be high.

Chapter 3

Method

Participants. Forty-six female young offenders between the ages of 13 and 18 ($M=15.8$, $SD=1.1$) participated in the study. Participants were juvenile females charged, or convicted, of committing crimes outlined by the Young Offenders Act. These individuals had been remanded (meaning they are not yet convicted of a crime - only charged) or sentenced, and they were all in custody in Youth Custody or Young Offenders Centers. Participants were incarcerated in one of four youth correctional centers: two in British Columbia and two in Alberta. Data for this study were collected between December 2000 and May 2001. Participants were incarcerated for sentence lengths varying from 5 days to 1800 days ($Mdn = 90$ days) at the time of the study.

Procedures. Participants were chosen from those charged or convicted of a crime to ensure delinquency was measured by arrest, and not by self-reported behavior such as smoking, cutting class or staying out late as is frequently the case in self-report scales. This facilitated access to a larger population of delinquent females than would have been found among a sample of middle or high-school students. A comparison group of non-incarcerated female youth was not used due to this study's focus on juvenile offenders and the availability of normative results published by the measures used in the study.

Permission to conduct this study was sought and received from Alberta Justice for the two participating correctional centers in Alberta and from the Ministry of Children

and Families for the two participating young offender centers in British Columbia, and from the University of Victoria Ethics committee. Full cooperation and assistance was then received from each young offender center involved in this study. Alberta Justice and the Ministry of Children and Families chose the four centers involved in this study as they provided access to the greatest number of incarcerated girls.

Participants were recruited by verbal requests from the researcher in face-to-face meetings as well as through the use of posters placed on female living units within the correctional center, which briefly explained the study. The youth were permitted either to read the posters at their leisure or to listen to the researcher briefly explain the study. The youth were then requested to indicate to the researcher whether or not they would volunteer to participate in the study. Based on the information they had been given, the females were able to choose whether or not they would like to participate in the study. The females were also informed that they would not be punished in any manner or refused services of any kind for choosing not to participate in this study. This was emphasized to the participants in order to ensure voluntary participation of the females in the research study. The females were also informed that if they decided to participate in this study they could refuse to answer any questions they did not want to answer and could cease participation at any time without repercussion. None of the youth who participated in this study requested to cease participation or refused to answer any question.

During this meeting with the researcher, the participants were given a copy of the consent form to read and sign and a copy of the consent form for their records.

The consent form was also read to the group of participants to ensure comprehension. Participants then provided the researcher with their names (in order to contact them for interview) as well as the names, phone numbers and addresses of their parent or guardian. This information was obtained in order to provide the researcher with a dual method to contact the parent or guardian to gain their consent. Due to the transient nature of this population, the parent or guardian was contacted by telephone in order to obtain verbal consent, and a consent form was sent immediately to obtain written consent. Both Alberta Justice and the Ministry of Children and Families permitted verbal consent from the parent or guardian, as movement of the females occurred frequently and would have increased participant attrition in the study. It is important to note that written consent was obtained as soon as was possible. Two parents and one guardian refused to allow their child to participate in this study. Data, therefore, were collected on 94% (47 out of 50) of the girls who chose to participate.

Prior to the introduction of the methods used in the study, the girls who chose to participate in the study were interviewed individually and provided with an explanation of the study along with a participant consent form (Appendix F). In order to ensure their comprehension, the consent form was read to the youth. At this time, the girls were once again informed that they would not be punished in any manner or refused services of any kind for choosing not to participate in this study. The youth were also informed that if they do decide to participate in this study they can refuse to answer any questions they do not want to answer (or feel they cannot answer) and can cease participation at any time without repercussion.

The youth were also informed that their name would not appear on any of the documents they completed. All participants in this study were assigned a random, meaningless number, which replaced their names. This number in no way identified the youth; instead, the number was used to match the completed questionnaires. Signed consent forms were also kept separate from the completed questionnaires to ensure that no association between them could be made. The participants were also informed that the researcher is the only person who will have access any information or data collected for this study. Members of the institutions housing the participants, as well as parents or guardians, were not permitted to see the individual results of the participants. They will, however, have access to the overall results of the study, which in no way will identify the individual participants. All data for this study were analyzed as a group to ensure that no individual youth could be identified by their responses. All data for this study have been kept in a locked filing cabinet with only the researcher having access to the information. The data will be kept for seven years as per APA guidelines.

Participants in the study were interviewed individually. The rationale for the individual rather than group interview is as follows: First, the one-on-one format permitted the participants to ask the researchers questions as needed without the judgment of their peers. Secondly, this ensured anonymity of responses to what may be sensitive and difficult questions for the participants.

Female young offenders who provided informed consent and, therefore, agreed to participate in the study then proceeded to a structured interview with the researcher

which focused on demographic information. Several open-ended questions were asked along with the other measures. These questions focused on the youth's perception of friendship such as; "can you describe in your own words what a friend is?". At the conclusion of this interview the participants were asked to fill out the Relationship Questionnaire, the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (peer scale only), the Friendship Quality Questionnaire and the UCLA-R Loneliness Scale.

Once the interview and the questionnaires were complete, the youth received a debriefing form (Appendix H). The debriefing provided further information regarding the study as well as providing resources for the participants if any of the questions had caused them any distress. At this time, the youth were given an opportunity to ask any questions they had and were reminded that they could contact the researcher or her supervisor if they had any question that arose in the future.

Measures

Demographic Interview. The interview was developed to gain information about the young offender such as age, family of origin, ethnic origin, offense type, history of incarceration, and education level. This information also served to identify early adversity experienced by the youth. Self-report was used for this, as opposed to a file review, in order to obtain the youth's own perception of their early adversity. In other words, the adversity that the youth experienced as described by the youth.

This interview also included some open-ended questions regarding the youth's concept of friends and friendships. These questions were formulated in order to provide the youth with a framework for examining their friendships. The youth were

asked to questions regarding their group of friends that they “hang out” with on a regular basis. This required them to focus on their group of friends in order to complete the questionnaires with their group of friends in mind, as opposed to just one friend. This information will be useful in forming a profile of the youth within the study (see Appendix A).

Adversity Index. An index of adversity was created from participant responses to questions regarding their adversity experiences. Gaining the participant perception of their adverse experiences is important as their perception may affect their attachment style. It is important to remember that the measurement of adversity is limited by the minimal rapport that is established between researcher/participant as well as the recall of the participants. Each question regarding adversity was dichotomously coded (0 = not present and 1 = present). For questions which were not defined by yes / no answers, a median split was used to determine the cut off point. There were two questions in which a median split was not reasonably possible and therefore a cut off point was derived from age of first possible incarceration and age at which the adversity occurred. See Appendix J for the adversity index and further explanation of the cut off points for each question.

Relationship Questionnaire (RQ): This self-report questionnaire was adapted by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) from Hazen and Shaver’s (1987) attachment measure. This measure asks the respondent to read four short paragraphs describing each of the attachment styles (secure, fearful, preoccupied and dismissing). The participants are then asked to select the attachment style they feel best describes “the

way they act and feel in their relationships with other people” (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). A modified version of this scale was used (Nicholson, 1999) in order to make the wording age-appropriate (see Appendix B).

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA): This is a self-report measure used with adolescents to examine the quality of their attachments to both parents and peers (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). The parents and peer responses are on two separate scales and only the peer scale of this measure will be used for this study. Armsden and Greenberg (1987) indicate the scale displays acceptable reliability and validity. The peer scale displayed a three-week test-retest reliability of .86 and an internal consistency coefficient of .92. The peer scale consists of 3 subscales: degree of mutual trust (alpha = .91), quality of communication (alpha = .87), and the extent of anger and alienation (alpha = .72) (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). The trust and the communication subscales were highly correlated ($r = .76$) and the alienation subscale was negatively correlated with the trust and communication subscales ($r = .46$ and $r = .40$ respectively). The IPPA (peer scale) will be used in accordance with self-reported attachment styles of the RQ. The peer questionnaire is a 25 item scale in which participants report their attachments to their friends on a 5 point scale (1=always true and 5=never true) (see Appendix C).

The IPPA (Peer Scale) was used to test the assumption that female young offenders were able to reliably report their attachment style. The assumption that was tested was; are female young offenders able to reliably self-report their attachment to friends? This question compared the self-report measure of attachment to friends, the

Relationship Questionnaire, to a more comprehensive measure of quality of attachment to friends, the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA – Peer Scale) in order to validate the self-report measure. This provided support for the assumption that female young offenders are able to reliably report their attachment to friends, which is necessary for all other research questions to be examined in the study.

The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) is well researched, however, due to a tendency for females to exaggerate friendships, the self-report measure may not be a valid measure with this group. A questionnaire such as the IPPA may provide information as to female young offender's ability to reliably report their attachment style. It was predicted that the comparison of the RQ and the IPPA will indicate an increase in quality of attachment to peers, measured by the three scales of the IPPA; trust, communication and alienation, with those participants who report a secure attachment style. Conversely, those participants who report an insecure attachment style would display a decrease in quality of attachment to peers as measured by the three subscales of the IPPA (Peer Scale).

A one-way analysis of variance was used to compare mean differences between the self-report measure of attachment, the Relationship Questionnaire, to a more comprehensive measure of quality of attachment to friends, the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. This analysis was conducted in order to determine the differences in quality of attachment among the three attachment styles reported by female young offenders.

An analysis of variance was completed using attachment style; Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant, as the grouping variable (see explanation for using three of the four attachment styles – Main Results pg 59). The dependent variable was the participant's score on the IPPA (Peer Scale). The results of the ANOVA indicated a significant difference between the means of the three attachment styles dependent on reported quality of attachment [$F(2,40) = 7.93, p < .001$].

Post-hoc analysis of the results was conducted to determine where the difference between the groups exists. Results of the Bonferroni Adjustment indicated significant mean differences occurred between the Secure attachment style and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style, $F(2,40) = 11.24, p < .05$, with respect to their quality of attachment. A significant difference was also found between the Secure attachment style and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, $F(2,40) = 20.26, p < .001$. No significant difference was found between the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style, $F(2,40) = 9.02, p < .26$.

A one-way ANOVA was used to compare mean differences among the self-reported attachment styles (measured by the Relationship Questionnaire) on the three subscales of the IPPA (peer trust, peer communication and peer alienation). Each of the three subscales was separately entered as the dependent variable, and an analysis of variance was performed on the data. This would determine mean group differences for the grouping variable, attachment style. Results for the following three one-way ANOVA's are described in Table 9.

The first subscale, peer trust, was entered as the dependent variable and resulted in significant difference by attachment style $F(2,40) = 6.78, p = 0.01$. Further examination of this result was conducted using a Bonferroni adjustment. This indicated that only the Dismissive-Avoidant group differed significantly from the securely attached group, at $p < .01$. There were, therefore, no significant differences between the secure attachment style and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style or the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style.

The second subscale, peer communication, was entered as the dependent variable and resulted in significant mean difference between the three attachment styles, $F(2,40) = 9.49, p < .01$. Further analysis of this result was performed using a Bonferroni adjustment post-hoc analysis. A significant difference was found between the secure attachment style and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, at $p < .01$. Differences between the secure attachment style and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style, as well as the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, approached a significant level of $p < .05$, $p < .07$ and $p < .08$, respectively.

The third subscale labeled peer alienation was entered as the dependent variable and resulted in significance at $p < .05$. Post-hoc analysis using a Bonferroni adjustment indicated a significant difference between the secure attachment style and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style. No other mean comparison reached significance.

Dismissive-Avoidant individuals, therefore, reported the lowest levels of peer trust and peer communication, and they are significantly different from both secure and

Fearful-Avoidant attachment styles on these subscales. The Fearful-Avoidant individuals reported the highest level of alienation compared to the secure attachment style.

It was also hypothesized that, despite the quality of female juvenile offenders' friendships, their rating of loneliness experienced was predicted to be high. In other words, it was possible that female young offenders were exaggerating the quality of their relationship with their friends. If this is true, it was expected that their loneliness scores would be significantly higher than those of the normative population. In fact, this hypothesis was not confirmed in the present data. The mean score of female young offenders ratings of loneliness on the UCLA-R was 36.37 (range = 20 - 40, $SD = 9.86$). The normative data for the UCLA-R as reported by Russell, Peplau and Cutrona (1980) indicate that the mean score of 128 female college students is 36.06 (range = 20 - 66, $SD = 10.11$). No significant difference exists between female young offenders scores on the UCLA-R in this study and female college students scores on the UCLA-R.

Therefore, the results of both the analysis of quality of attachment and scores on the UCLA-R loneliness scale indicate that female young offenders are able to reliably report their attachment style and have not exaggerated their friendships as reported in this study.

Friendship Quality Questionnaire (FQQ) (see Appendix D): This is a 40 item questionnaire designed to measure friendship quality using a 5 point likert scale (1 = not at all true to 5 = really true). This measure of friendship was developed by Parker and Asher (1993) to assess 6 features of friendship: (a) companionship and recreation

(alpha = .75); (b) help and guidance (alpha = .90); (c) validation and caring (alpha = .90); (d) intimate exchange (alpha = .86); (e) conflict and betrayal (alpha = .84); and (f) conflict resolution (alpha = .73). The subscale conflict and betrayal correlated negatively with all other subscales and all other subscales were moderately to highly positively correlated ($r = .16$ to $.75$).

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (see Appendix E): This is a 20- item self-report questionnaire designed to measure loneliness reflected in satisfaction with social relationships (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980). Participants respond on a 4-point scale (1=Never to 4=Often). The possible range of scores is 20-80 with higher scores revealing higher ratings of loneliness. This scale was revised by its original authors (Russell et al., 1978) for two reasons: first to include items which reflect satisfaction and dissatisfaction with social relationships, as the original scale merely reported dissatisfaction creating a response bias toward high and low scores, and secondly, to increase in the discriminant validity of the scale.

The internal consistency of the revised scale is high (alpha coefficient = .91).

Concurrent validity showed that lonely individuals report experiencing emotions linked to loneliness significantly more than experiencing emotions unrelated to loneliness (Russell et al., 1980). The discriminant validity of the test show that the criteria examined was independent of the influence of the other mood and personality variables on loneliness (Russell et al., 1980). The test displayed high reliability and validity, and results of other research supported its usefulness for adolescents (Mahon, Yarcheski & Yarcheski, 1995).

Chapter 4

Results

The following chapter describes the results found in the study. First, demographic findings are reported, which includes psychosocial variables such as school history, family history and friendship patterns. Second, reliabilities of the IPPA (Peer Scale), the FQQ and the UCLA-R are reported. Third, the assumption that female young offenders are able to reliably report their attachment style is explored and reported by comparing the overall and subscale scores of the IPPA (Peer Scale) with the Relationship Questionnaire. Following this is the main results section in which results of the five research questions are described.

Sample Characteristics

Demographics. Female young offenders who participated in this study were between the ages of 13 and 18. The mean age of the participants was 15.8 (SD=1.1), with a median value of 16 years of age. The majority of the participants were white (59%) and native (37%), while black and Hispanic participants contributed 2% each.

Thirty-three percent of the girls in this study were convicted of a crime and were serving a sentence at one of the young offender centers. The remaining 67% of participants were remanded to one of the young offender centers and were awaiting court proceedings. Thirty-nine percent of the girls were charged or convicted of a violent crime (i.e., murder, assault, and armed robbery) whereas, the remaining 61% were charged or convicted of a non-violent crime (i.e., breach of probation, theft, and

break and enter). Of the 46 participants, only 8 (17%) had not been previously charged or convicted of a crime.

Psychosocial Variables

School History. The range of grades completed in school was from grades 6-11 ($M = 8.39$, $SD = 1.36$). Seventy-eight per cent of the participants were currently in school, either within their respective institution or in the community prior to their arrest.

Family History. Fifty-two percent of the participants currently lived with, or will return to live with, either their biological mother or their biological father. This group included all those who live with a biological parent and a step-parent. Eleven percent live with both their biological mother and biological father. Of the 46 participants, 11% live in foster or group homes. Those girls who live on their own (including those who maintain housing on their own as well as those who live on the streets) make up 22% of the participants, and those who live with a family member (other than their biological parent) make up 4% of the participants. Of the 46 participants, 41% had been apprehended by child welfare, and 17% had been turned over to child welfare by their parent(s). Of those girls who had been apprehended or turned over to child welfare, Ninety-three percent had returned to live with their biological parent(s), and 93% of these girls were separated from their families again after returning home, either by running away, getting "kicked out," or being removed by child welfare. Those girls who had reported being apprehended or turned over to child welfare returned to live with their family and then separated again, reported their

number of times separating and returning to their families as ranging from one to fifteen times (Mdn = 5.00). Four girls, whose report of their number of times separated from their family were identified as exceedingly higher than others, were not included in this analysis. Two of these four girls reported separating and returning to their families 25 times, and the remaining two girls reported separating and returning to their families 50 times.

Friendship Patterns. Participants in the study were asked both qualitative and quantitative questions regarding their friendships. These questions were used as induction questions in order to provide the participants with a framework for examining their current friendships. These questions pertained to their friendship group outside of the institution; in other words, these were the friends which they normally “hang around” with while not incarcerated. The data from these questions are presented below.

Female young offenders in this study were asked to report on the number of friends that they have. These would be general friendships, not necessarily the people that they associate with on a daily basis. The responses ranged from 1 participant reporting no friends to 4 participants reporting 200 friends (Mdn = 50.0); however, these 4 responses were considered high and the majority of participants reported a range of 10 friends to 100 friends.

Next the participants were asked questions regarding the group of friends that they normally associated with when not in jail. This would be the group of friends that they would say they spent the most time with. Nine percent of the girls indicated that

they did not identify a group of friends that they would normally hang out with. Ninety-one percent of the participants reported having a group of friends that they normally hang out with when not incarcerated. Two of the girls indicated that they normally hung around with groups larger than 100. These girls were considered outliers and were eliminated from this analysis. The number of people the participants reported that they normally hung out with ranged from two to fifty ($M = 18.88$, $SD = 14.53$). Ninety-five percent of the participants reported this group of friends was made up of both male and female friends, and 74% of the participants reported their friend group consisted of more guys than girls. The mean number of girls in these groups was 5.67 (range = 0 to 20, $SD = 5.32$), and the mean number of guys in these groups was 13.4 (range = 2 to 47, $SD = 10.92$). Sixty percent of participants reported that their group of friends often changed, in that the people who make up their friendship group often change.

When asked to indicate whether or not the participants believed that their group of friends that they normally hang out with has influenced their criminal behavior, 69% indicated that they had. Only 31% of the participants reported believing that their friends had little or no influence over their criminal behavior. Those participants who indicated their friends had influenced their criminal behavior were asked to explain how they felt their friends have influenced their criminal behavior. The responses to this question were examined in order to identify common themes. Three common themes emerged from examining female young offenders' responses. The three common themes can be labeled; peer pressure, criminal behavior and substance abuse and are further explained below.

Those participants who reported that friends had pressured them into delinquent behavior either indicated that their friends would not hang out with them if they did not participate in delinquent behavior or that friends pressured them to perform criminal behavior with enticements of being cool and being accepted as a reward. For example, one participant reported, "my friends would push me to do things (criminal things) and if I don't, they won't talk to me or hang out with me."

Those participants who indicated that friends had influenced them through their criminal behavior explained that friends had introduced them to criminal behavior that they had not previously been involved in or they met while incarcerated, or their friends are the people they perform criminal acts with. For example, one participant reported that "they would bring me along when they did bad things and it seemed exciting. At first I wanted to be like them, then I decided that I liked it." Another participant reported, "I don't blame them, but the opportunities are there, they introduce the opportunities and then I take it or leave it. It's not peer pressure."

Finally, some participants reported that their friends have influenced their criminal behavior through an introduction to substance use. For instance, one participant indicated that "one group has introduced me to drugs. I wasn't aware of it or involved in it. Then I needed money (for drugs) so they taught me how to break into a house or a car". Peer pressure is also involved in this theme, as participants indicated that friends would pressure them to get involved in using drugs or alcohol. In response to using a substance or abusing a substance, many of the participants reported becoming involved in crime to support their habit.

Ninety-three percent of the participants reported having a best friend.

Participants were asked to explain "what about this person makes them your best friend?". The responses were examined by the researcher to identify common themes or patterns in responding. A majority of the participants identified internal traits that characterized their best friend, such as honesty, caring, sweet, kind, nice, and understanding. For example, one participant described her best friend as "beautiful, creative, talented – many good qualities...". Another participant reported her best friend as: " she is the funniest person to be with, she makes bad situations hilarious and fun; knows how to solve problems; doesn't accuse or judge; always feel like I have someone to talk to". Most of the participants also identified qualities or characteristics of a best friend that include trusting the person by being able to tell them anything and similar in personality and life experiences. Female young offenders also indicated that their best friend has always been there for them, and they have known each other for a long time (length of time not necessarily described by participants). One participant described her best friend as "she has always been there for me. We have the same problems, and we can have fun together. She lets me stay with her when I need to".

Instrument Reliabilities

Four questionnaires were used in the current study. Reliabilities of three of these scales as tested on non-incarcerated adolescents were reported in the methodology section. Reliability of each of these scales, reliability of subscales and subscale intercorrelations for the current sample of incarcerated female young offenders is presented below.

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachments (IPPA – Peer Scale). The IPPA (peer scale) as reported in the methodology section is a 25 item self-report measure of the quality of attachment to peers. It consists of 3 subscales which are labeled trust; communication and alienation. Analysis of the data in the present study showed that the Cronbach's alpha was .87 for the trust subscale (10 items); .86 for the communication subscale (8 variables); .62 for the alienation subscale (7 variables). These reliabilities were comparable to those reported by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) in their study of 179 students age 16-20. See Table 1 for comparison of reliabilities.

Table 1

Cronbach's Alpha for Subscales of IPPA (Peer Scale)

Subscale:	Items:	Non-Incarcerated Adolescents (N=179)	Current Sample (N = 46)
Trust	10	.91	.88
Communication	8	.87	.84
Alienation	7	.72	.62
Total	25	.92	.92

Table 2

Intercorrelations of Subscales for the IPPA (Peer Scale)

Subscales	Non-Incarcerated Adolescents (N=179)	Current Sample (N = 46)
Trust * Communication	.76	.86
Trust * Alienation	-.46	-.60
Communication * Alienation	-.40	-.41

Friendship Quality Questionnaire (FQQ). The FQQ is a 40 item self-report questionnaire that measures the quality of friendship in adolescents. This scale consists of 6 subscales: Validation and Caring, Conflict Resolution, Conflict and Betrayal, Help and Guidance, Companionship and Recreation and Intimate Exchange. Analysis of the data in the present study showed that the Cronbach's alpha for the FQQ was .92. For each of the subscales, the Cronbach's alpha was as follows; .89 for Validation and Caring (10 items), .73 for Conflict Resolution (3 items), .74 for Conflict and Betrayal (7 variables), .87 for Help and Guidance (9 items), .81 for Companionship and Recreation (5 items), .84 for Intimate Exchange (6 items). The Cronbach's alpha found for the current sample are comparable to those reported by Parker and Asher (1993). See Table 3 for comparison of Cronbach's alpha scores.

The intercorrelation of subscales reported by Parker and Asher (1993) ranged from .16 to .75. Intercorrelations of the subscales for the current sample were slightly higher than those reported in the research and ranged from .28 to .78 (See Table 4 for comparison of intercorrelations). These researchers also reported a negative correlation between the Conflict and Betrayal subscale and all other subscales (Parker & Asher, 1993). This negative correlation was also found with the current sample as the Conflict and Betrayal subscale was moderately negatively correlated with all other subscales (range = -.28 - .48).

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha for the FQQ

Subscale	Items	Non-incarcerated Adolescents (N=881)	Current Sample N = 46
Validation & Caring	10	.90	.89
Conflict Resolution	3	.73	.73
Conflict & Betrayal	7	.84	.74
Help & Guidance	9	.90	.87
Companionship & Recreation	5	.75	.81
Intimate Exchange	6	.86	.84
Total	40		.92

Table 4

Intercorrelations for Subscales of the FQQ

	Validation & Caring	Conflict Resolution	Conflict & Betrayal	Help & Guidance	Companionship & Recreation	Intimate Exchange
Validation & Caring	1.00					
Conflict Resolution	.75*	1.00				
Conflict & Betrayal	-.48*	-.39*	1.00			
Help & Guidance	.77*	.74*	-.32**	1.00		
Companionship & Recreation	.63*	.53*	-.35**	.67*	1.00	
Intimate Exchange	.78*	.75*	-.28	.73*	.46*	1.00

*p < .01

**p < .05

UCLA Loneliness Scale Revised (UCLA – R). The revised UCLA Loneliness scale is a 20- item self-report questionnaire designed to measure loneliness reflected in satisfaction with social relationships (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980). Analysis of the current data show a Cronbach's alpha of .88 for the current sample of incarcerated female young offenders. The reliability reported here is comparable to the alpha coefficient of .91 reported by Russell, Peplau and Cutrona (1980).

Table 5:

Bonferroni Adjustment – Post-hoc Analysis of Attachment Style and the Subscales of the IPPA (Peer Scale)

Subscale	Secure * Fearful-Avoidant		Secure * Dismissive-Avoidant		Dismissive-Avoidant * Fearful-Avoidant	
	Mean Difference	p	Mean Difference	p	Mean Difference	p
Peer Trust	3.74	.26	9.06	.01	5.32	.10
Peer Communication	4.37	.07	9.31	.01	4.94	.08
Peer Alienation	3.13	.03	1.89	.52	-1.24	1.0

df = 40 for all scales

Main Results

The following section examines the five main research questions of this study. Throughout the analysis of the following five research questions (excluding question 2), participants who indicated they were most like the Preoccupied attachment style were eliminated from the analysis. The reason for this deletion is that the cell size of the Preoccupied attachment style is only three individuals, which is too small to permit any conclusive analysis using analysis of variance and will increase Type I error (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The following analyses, therefore, were completed with 3 attachment styles: Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant.

Question 1:

What is the relationship between adversity experienced by female young offenders and their reported attachment style?

A one-way analysis of variance was used to determine the mean differences between adverse experiences, as defined by abuse, disruption in care, incarcerated siblings, and school history and "general attachment style", or the way in which the youth perceives themselves to act and feel in their relationships with people. Adverse experiences were derived from the self-report of participants on questions relating to adversity. From this, an adversity index was created (see Appendix I) and used as the dependent variable compared among the three attachment styles: Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant. See Table 6 for mean and standard deviation for the adversity index.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables for Secure, Fearful-avoidant and Dismissive-avoidant Attachment Styles

	Secure (n=16)		Fearful-Avoidant (n=17)		Dismissive-Avoidant (n=10)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Adversity Variable	4.63	2.78	6.53	2.67	5.90	2.77
IPPA (Peer Scale)	45.94	12.20	57.18	11.88	66.20	15.58
Communication	14.44	5.15	18.18	5.77	23.50	7.91
Trust	16.69	5.00	21.06	5.58	26.00	5.42
Alienation	14.81	3.53	17.94	3.01	16.70	3.77
FQQ (Total)	151.94	19.57	140.12	15.94	128.10	21.63
Companionship & Recreation	22.25	3.36	21.29	2.49	18.10	4.38
Help & Guidance	36.38	4.94	33.29	5.42	29.40	7.65
Validation & Caring	42.25	6.02	39.18	6.46	36.00	8.15
Intimate Exchange	24.5	4.43	19.24	5.02	18.00	4.32
Conflict & Betrayal	14.44	3.90	16.71	5.14	16.30	4.42
Conflict Resolution	12.13	2.63	10.41	2.55	10.30	2.83
UCLA - R	31.81	9.11	39.76	9.26	37.90	10.09

No significant differences were found between the three attachment styles based on the Adversity Index. Results of the analysis of variance for the adversity index yielded $F(2,40) = 2.045, p < .1$. There are, therefore, no mean differences between the three attachment styles with respect to adversity experienced (as measured by the adversity index) by female young offenders.

Question 2:

Are attachment styles of female young offenders distributed differently than those found in a normative population?

This question compares the distribution of self-reported attachment styles of the female young offenders to the normal distribution of attachment styles reported in research conducted by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) on a sample of undergraduates. To determine if female young offenders' distribution of attachment styles was significantly different from that of the normal population, the data were subjected to a chi-square analysis.

The distribution of attachment styles in the current sample of female young offenders was 35% Secure, 37% Fearful-Avoidant, 7% Preoccupied, and 21% Dismissive-Avoidant. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found a sample of 77 college students (both males and females) to be distributed among the four attachment styles as follows: 57% Secure, 18% Dismissive-Avoidant, 10% preoccupied and 15% Fearful-Avoidant. A chi-square test was applied to these data to determine whether the female young offender distribution of attachment styles differed significantly from that found by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991).

The expected values used in the chi-square analysis were determined using the percentage of each attachment style found by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). The results of the chi-square analysis showed a significant difference between female young offenders' attachment style distribution and that of a normative college sample (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), $X^2(3) = 15.11, p < .01$. Female young offenders, therefore, report significantly different attachment styles than those reported by a normative sample of college students as reported by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991).

Attachment styles of participants in the study were also compared to female young offenders distribution of attachment styles in the study conducted by Nicholson (1999). Nicholson (1999) found that female young offenders reported attachment styles were distributed as follows: 24% Secure, 41% Fearful-Avoidant, 24% Preoccupied and 10% Dismissing. Results of a chi-square analysis using this data indicate no significant difference between reported attachment styles of the female young offenders from this study and the study conducted by Nicholson (1999).

Question 3:

What is the relationship between friendship quality of female young offenders with particular attachment styles?

This question compared the three attachment styles: Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant, measured by the Relationship Questionnaire, to the overall Friendship Quality Questionnaire (FQQ) score, as well as to the 6 sub-scales of the FQQ, to determine the relationship between attachment style and friendship quality in female young offenders. It was predicted that female young offenders, who reported an

insecure attachment style, would report more difficulty forming intimate, stable, trusting and honest friendships. The largest between group differences, therefore, would be apparent between the Secure attachment style and the two insecure attachment styles; Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant.

A one-way analysis of variance was computed to compare group means, where the dependent variable was Friendship Quality and the grouping variable was attachment style. The results indicated a significant difference between the three attachment styles; Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant, $F(2,40) = 5.09$, $p < .01$. A post-hoc test, the Bonferroni Adjustment, indicated a significant difference existed between the Secure attachment style and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, $p < .01$, with the securely attached individuals reporting a better level of friendship quality. All other multiple comparisons resulted in no significant differences.

Differences in secure versus insecure attachment styles were also expected to occur when scores on the six subscales of the FQQ were examined. The six subscales of the Friendship Quality Questionnaire are: (a) companionship and recreation; (b) help and guidance; (c) validation and caring; (d) intimate exchange; (e) conflict and betrayal; and (f) conflict resolution. Each of the six subscales was separately entered as the dependent variable, and an analysis of variance was performed on the data. This would determine mean group differences for the grouping variable, attachment style.

The Companionship and Recreation subscale scores served as the dependent variable in the first analysis of variance. The mean group differences were significant, F

(2,40) = 4.99, $p < .01$. At least one of the attachment styles, therefore, differed significantly from the others with respect to their score on the companionship and recreation subscale. A Bonferroni Adjustment was conducted as the post-hoc analysis to determine where the significant mean group differences exist. A significant difference was found between the secure and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles, at $p < .01$. This difference indicated that securely attached female young offenders reported more companionship and recreation in their friendship groups than the Dismissive-Avoidant group. Differences between the Dismissive-Avoidant and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style approached significance, at $p < .06$, with the Fearful-Avoidant group reporting a higher level of companionship and recreation in their friendship group. No significant differences existed between the Secure and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment styles.

The second subscale, Help and Guidance, was the dependent variable in the next analysis. The results indicated a significant mean group difference between the three attachment styles, $F(2,40) = 4.42$, $p < .05$. A post-hoc analysis using the Bonferroni Adjustment indicated a significant difference between the Secure attachment style of the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, at $p < .02$. An analysis of differences among these groups showed that Help and Guidance was reported as statistically significant for those youth who report being securely attached. Mean differences among all other multiple comparisons did not reach significance.

The Validation and Caring subscale was then used as the dependent variable in a one-way ANOVA. The mean group differences were found to be non significant, F

(2,40) = 2.71, $p < .08$. A post-hoc multiple comparison of the three groups indicated that the comparison between the Secure and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles approached significance with a $p < .08$. No other group comparisons were significant.

The fourth subscale, Intimate Exchange, was entered as the dependent variable, and a one-way ANOVA was computed. Results of the ANOVA indicated a significant difference among group means of the three attachment styles based on their level of intimate exchange, $F(2,40) = 7.83, p < .001$. A post-hoc comparison using the Bonferroni Adjustment was conducted, and significant differences were found between the Secure and the Fearful-avoidant attachment style and the Secure and the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, $p < .01$. In other words, the securely attached young offenders reported a higher level of intimate exchange within their friendship groups than both the Dismissive-Avoidant and Fearful-Avoidant young offenders. No significant differences were found between the Dismissive-Avoidant and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment styles.

On the fifth subscale, Conflict and Betrayal, the results of the ANOVA indicated there were no significant mean group differences among the three attachment styles, $F(2,40) = 1.11, p < .34$.

Finally, the Conflict Resolution subscale scores were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA. No significant mean group differences were found among the three attachment styles, $F(2,40) = 2.22, p < .12$.

In summary, significant group differences for the three attachment styles, Secure, Fearful-avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant, were found on three of the six

subscales of the Friendship Quality Questionnaire. These three subscales were, Companionship and Recreation, Help and Guidance and Intimate Exchange. Of the three subscales that identified significant group differences, a comparison between the Securely attached young offenders and Dismissive-Avoidant young offenders showed the largest group differences. With the exception of the Intimate Exchange subscale, in which the Securely attached young offenders reported a significantly higher level of intimate exchange over both Dismissive-Avoidant and Fearful-Avoidant young offenders, only difference between Secure and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles were significant with respect to the six subscales of the FQQ. This group difference was found when comparing Secure and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles on the overall friendship quality score as well.

Question 4:

What is the relationship between female young offenders rating of loneliness and their attachment styles?

Attachment styles, as reported by female young offenders on the Relationship Questionnaire, were compared to the UCLA-R Loneliness scale. It was hypothesized that female young offenders who reported an insecure attachment style would have higher scores on the loneliness scale (UCLA-R), whereas those who reported a secure attachment style would have lower scores on the loneliness scale (UCLA-R).

Results of a one-way ANOVA indicated a significant mean group difference among each of the three attachment styles used in this analysis based on their scores on the UCLA-R Loneliness Scale, $F(2,40) = 3.12, p < .05$. No significant differences

were found when a post-hoc test, the Bonferroni adjustment, was performed.

However, a less conservative post-hoc test, the Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons, did yield a significant difference between the Secure and the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style, $p < .05$. No other multiple comparison yielded significant results.

In summary, there is a significant difference between female young offenders who report being securely attached and those who reported being Fearful-Avoidant on their ratings of loneliness. Those female young offenders who report being Fearful-Avoidant also report being significantly more lonely than female young offenders who report being securely attached. Differences between the secure and the Dismissive-Avoidant group, as well as between the fearful-avoidant group and the Dismissive-Avoidant were not found to be significant.

Question 5:

What is the relationship between female young offenders reports of friendship quality and their reports of loneliness?

The relationship between friendship quality (as measured by the FQQ) and loneliness (as measured by the UCLA-R Loneliness Scale) in female young offenders was examined. Correlation coefficients were calculated between the Friendship Quality Questionnaire total score, as well as scores on each of the six sub-tests, and scores on the UCLA –R loneliness scale. The hypothesized relationship was that, as reported quality of friendship increases, reported loneliness should decrease. This relationship should hold true for each of the six subscales, with the exception of the Conflict and

Betrayal subscale, which should be correlated positively with loneliness. In other words, as reported conflict and betrayal increases, loneliness should increase as well.

Results of the relationship between female young offender's reports of the quality of their friendships (total FQQ score) and their ratings of loneliness (total UCLA-R score) show a moderate negative correlation, $r = -.37$ which is significant at $p < .05$ [$r(43) = -.37, p < .05$]. A moderate to strong negative correlation was found when each of the five subscales which characterized positive qualities of friendships were compared to the total scores on the UCLA-R. The correlation between the Help and Guidance subscale and the UCLA-R was $r = -.33$, between the Validation and Caring subscale and the UCLA-R was $r = -.50$, between the Companionship and Recreation subscale and the UCLA-R was $r = -.37$, between the Conflict resolution subscale and the UCLA-R was $r = -.38$, and finally between the Intimate Exchange subscale and the UCLA-R was $r = -.42$. With respect to the sixth subscale, the Conflict and Betrayal subscale, which describes a negative quality of friendship, a strong positive correlation was found when it was correlated with the UCLA-R, $r = .57$. This indicates that, as Conflict and Betrayal increase in the friendships of female young offenders, loneliness increases. Table 6 shows the correlation coefficients for the relationship between each of the six subscales of the FQQ and the UCLA-R.

In summary, loneliness is shown to decrease as overall friendship quality increases. The five out of the six subscales of the FQQ which describe positive aspects of quality of friendships also mirror this pattern in that as these positive qualities increase, loneliness decreases. One of the six subscales of the FQQ that identifies a

negative quality of friendship (conflict and betrayal) displays the opposite relationship in that as conflict and betrayal increases, loneliness increases.

Table 7

Pearson Correlation Matrix Comparison of Friendship Quality (FQQ - total score and subscales) and Loneliness (UCLA-R)

	UCLA-R Total	FQQ Total	FQQVC	FQQCR	FQQCB	FQQHG	FQQCO MPR	FQQIE
UCLA-R Total	1.00							
FQQ Total	-.37*	1.00						
FQQVC	-.50*	.89*	1.00					
FQQCR	-.38*	.85*	.75*	1.00				
FQQCB	.57*	-.21	-.47*	-.31**	1.00			
FQQHG	-.33**	.91*	.76*	.76*	-.30**	1.00		
FQQCO MPR	-.37*	.70*	.62*	.54*	-.35**	.66*	1.00	
FQQIE	-.42*	.87*	.78*	.78*	-.28**	.73*	.44*	1.00

FQQVC = Validation and Caring

FQQCR = Conflict Resolution

FQQCB = Conflict and Betrayal

FQQHG = Help and Guidance

FQQCOMPR = Companionship and Recreation

FQQIE = Intimate Exchange

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

Chapter 5

Discussion

Overview

This chapter is organized into eight sections. The first section examines the female young offenders in the current study. The second section examines the attachment styles of the current sample. The third section describes attachment and its relationship to adversity within this population. The fourth section examines the quality of attachment to friends for the female young offenders in this study. The fifth section outlines the friendship characteristics that describe the current sample of female young offenders as well as friendship quality and how it relates to attachment style. The sixth section of this chapter explains loneliness and how it relates to attachment style for the population in the current study. The seventh section draws conclusions from the findings of the previous six sections, and the final section describes the limitations of the current study and offers suggestions for further research.

Female Young Offenders. The characteristics of the female young offenders in this study were consistent with previous research on female young offenders. The majority of offenders were white, with an average age of 16 years; this is similar to the work of Leonard (1993). The length of incarceration, however, was difficult to compare to other research, as only a small number of girls in this study were convicted of a crime and sentenced to serve a disposition. Many of the girls were remanded to custody and were awaiting further court proceedings.

Female young offenders have often been compared to male young offenders on their level of aggressive behavior. It is uncommon for studies to report higher levels of overt aggression of females over males. Often females compare to males on levels of covert or non-aggressive antisocial behaviors and not on overt aggressive behaviors (Marcus & Betzer, 1996). The females in the current study were not directly compared to male young offenders; the females level of violent crime, however, indicates a high level of overt aggression. Of the female young offenders in this study, 39% were currently charged or convicted of violent crimes. This percentage is high in comparison to Canadian statistics from 1988 which indicate that, of all women charged in Canada in that year, 13% were charged with violent crimes (Hartnagel, 1992).

There are a number of explanations for this increase in violent crimes reported by the females in this study. First, it is possible that females, particularly juveniles, are committing more violent crime. Female crime has, perhaps, increased in severity; as well, it may be that, due to increased media attention, female violence has become less likely to be minimized by the media. It is also possible that this sample is not representative of the population of female young offenders. This may also be due to the fact that this study was conducted with young offenders who have been charged with a crime and have experienced criminal court proceeding and not with self-reported levels of delinquency among high school students. Leonard (1993), however, reported that female violent crime has increased more rapidly than male young offender crime from 1986 to 1990. Leonard (1993) suggests that this increase in female young

offender arrests after 1986 is a result of the Young Offenders Act which, due to alternatives in sentencing, permitted police to make a larger number of arrests.

Attachment Style. Female young offenders in this study were more likely to identify themselves by one of the three insecure attachment styles. The greatest number of participants were characterized by the Fearful-avoidant attachment style which identifies participants as having a sense of unworthiness of the self; this sense of self is combined with a negative view of others, which leads individuals to seek out others to obtain self-acceptance (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). However, these individuals will avoid forming close relationships as a result of their fear that others will be untrustworthy or rejecting (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). These findings are inconsistent with previous attachment research, which indicates that in normative populations, the four attachment styles are found to be distributed approximately 50% secure and 50% divided approximately evenly over the three insecure attachment styles (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). The current sample was distributed as follows; 35% Secure, 37% Fearful-Avoidant, 7% Preoccupied and 21% Dismissive-Avoidant.

The distribution of attachment styles found in the current study is consistent with recent research involving female young offenders. Nicholson (1999) also found that female young offenders in her study were more likely to identify themselves as Fearful-Avoidant. Nicholson (1999) reported the females in her study to be distributed as; 24% Secure, 41% Fearful-Avoidant, 24% Preoccupied and 10% Dismissive-Avoidant. The majority of female young offenders in the current study also identified themselves as

Fearful-Avoidant, and a large number also identified themselves as Dismissive-Avoidant. The difference between these two studies, which is not statistically significant, may, perhaps, be more reflective of the small number of females included in the Nicholson (1999) study. With a larger sample, the results may have been similar. Both the Nicholson (1999) study and the current study found that female young offenders were more likely to identify themselves as insecurely attached. Male young offenders were more likely to identify themselves as securely attached (Nicholson, 1999). A very small number of female young offenders reported being Preoccupied attached, which is inconsistent with findings from Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) who reported that females were significantly more likely than males to report a preoccupied attachment to both family and peers. Cooper, Collins and Shaver (1998) also found that Preoccupied (or anxious-ambivalent) adolescents in their study were more likely to report truant or problematic behavior as well as more property offenses than Secure or Fearful-Avoidant adolescents. These findings evoke questions regarding the small number of adolescents represented by the Preoccupied attachment style in the current study. However, the difference may be that the current study measured delinquency by youth who were charged with a crime under the Young Offenders Act and the study conducted by Cooper, Collins and Shaver (1998) required youth to self-report their delinquent behavior. Truancy and problematic behavior are not criminal code violations and therefore, Preoccupied youth may be more likely to commit status offenses to gain social acceptance, they may be less likely to commit crimes which are punishable according to the Young Offenders Act.

The dominance of the Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles, as well as the minimal number of Preoccupied attached female young offenders in this study, is an important finding. Both Avoidant attachment styles experience others as untrustworthy and rejecting and, therefore, avoid becoming involved in close interpersonal relationships with their peers which, in turn, may also serve to cause them to become involved with their delinquent peers (Priel et al., 1998). Preoccupied individuals have been found to be opposite Dismissive-Avoidant individuals in all respects; as preoccupied individuals seek closeness in interpersonal relationships, they engage in intimacy and self-disclosure, and they rely on others to confirm their self-worth (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Preoccupied individuals are more similar to Fearful-Avoidant individual in their need of others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), however, Preoccupied individuals devote a great deal of emotional energy and effort to maintain relationships with others (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Therefore, Preoccupied individuals seek close relationships which, may buffer them against forming delinquent friendships. Avoidant individuals resist forming close personal relationships and may therefore be more susceptible to forming delinquent friendships which are more likely to be characterized by relationships that are not close (Marcus, 1996).

Fearful-Avoidant individuals experience a lack of trust in others, an inability to communicate effectively and a reduction in the closeness of a relationship which, can lead to unsatisfying and short-term relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Their capacity to engage in interpersonal relationships combined with their socially inadequate "clingy" or dependent behavior may increase their susceptibility to the

influence of delinquent friends. Fearful-Avoidant individuals struggle with both self-worth and reliance on others. They have difficulty with self-confidence, autonomy and intimacy in their relationship (Bartholomew, 1990). These individuals have been found to have a tendency to assume a subservient role in their relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Hazan and Shaver (1994) reported that the Fearful-avoidant individual is more likely to engage in nonsocial activities due to their history of frequent peer rejections and avoidance of close relationships. These individuals are also more likely to use alcohol and other substances to reduce tension (Brennan, Shaver & Tobey, 1991).

Dismissive-Avoidant and Fearful-Avoidant adolescents are similar in that they both avoid close relationships. However, these two attachment styles differ in that the Fearful-Avoidant adolescents will reach out to others in an attempt to validate their self-worth (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Dismissive-avoidant adolescents avoid close relationship in order to maintain their perception of the self as independent and adequate (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). This avoidance of close relationships leads to the formation of lower quality friendship and may lead to the formation of delinquent friendships.

Attachment Style and Adversity. An examination of adversity experienced by the participants is central to examining the reported insecure attachment styles. For instance, research has consistently shown that insecure attachment is the result of the primary caregiver behavior. An unresponsive, unavailable, avoidant or abusive primary caregiver can lead to the formation of an insecure attachment (Ainsworth, 1989;

Egeland & Sroufe, 1981; Hazen & Shaver, 1994). Bartholomew (1990) wrote "it is continuity in the quality of the family environment that appears to be largely responsible for continuity in attachment-related behaviors" (p. 165). Female young offenders in past research (Artz, 1998), as well as a large number of young offenders in this study, reported being separated from their family a number of times. They also reported being apprehended by child welfare and experiencing a history of abuse by a family member. Despite the adversity reported by the females in this study, there was no significant difference between attachment styles and adversity experienced. A number of important explanations can be provided for this finding.

First, self-report was used to create an adversity index (or a cumulative measure of adversity) of the young offenders in this study. This provides several methodological implications. Questions probing self-reports of early adversity can provide a bias in recall. In other words, the young offenders may have found it difficult to accurately report their history of adversity. For example, Stein and Lewis (1992) found that using closed ended questions when asking delinquents about their histories of abuse restricted the flow of information, and, therefore, the accuracy of information they received. They found that, only with probing exhaustive questioning, they were able to achieve information that was consistent with file review information. The questions asked in the current study regarding the adversity experienced by the young offenders were closed ended questions that did not allow the young offender the opportunity to probe their memory.

Secondly, the formation of attachment occurs very early in the development of an infant. The adversity that was measured in this study did not explore early attachment formation. Instead, the adversity experienced by the young offenders in this study may have served both to maintain an insecure attachment style and to prevent the modification of an attachment style. In other words, the developmental context of the individual serves an important function of reinforcing the individual's attachment behavior (Sroufe, Carlson, Levy & Egeland, 1999). Ongoing adversity, as experienced by the youth in this study, supports the maintenance of the individual's current attachment style. This can occur through two ways. Individuals with different attachment styles can illicit different responses from people or they can interpret circumstances and relationships based on their attachment style (Priel et al., 1998; Sroufe et al., 1999). For example, dismissing individuals expect others to be untrustworthy and passively avoid developing close relationships (Bartholomew, 1990). They feel it is important to maintain the self as independent, therefore, limiting their ability to form secure relationships.

Thirdly, certain aspects of the adversity included as part of the adversity index experienced by the young offenders may have served a protective function for the young offenders. For example, young offenders who were removed from their primary caregiver at a very young age and placed in foster care may have been placed in a loving and supportive home. Separation from primary caregivers and placement in foster care may, therefore, not have been an adverse experience.

Quality of Attachment. The dominance of insecure attachment styles reported by female young offenders indicates that the female young offenders in this study have the lowest level of psychosocial functioning. Securely attached individuals report the lowest level of anxiety and depression, and, as well, reported the highest level of adjustment (Cooper et al., 1998). This is consistent with finding of the current study in which Secure individuals reported the highest level of quality of attachment when compared to the Fearful- and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles.

Conversely, the Dismissive-Avoidant individuals in the study reported the lowest level of peer trust and communication, with regards to quality of attachment, when compared to Secure and Fearful-Avoidant attachment styles. Dismissing also reported no significant differences when compared to the Securely attached on the alienation subscale. This is consistent with previous research on Dismissive-Avoidant individuals attachment behavior, in which they expect others to be untrustworthy and unresponsive, and, therefore, in order to maintain their view of the self as adequate and independent, these individuals do not experience the feeling of alienation. Dismissive-Avoidant individuals protect themselves from experiencing alienation by viewing the self as adequate. According to a recent study conducted by Cooper, Collins and Shaver (1998), adolescents who are identified as Preoccupied (or anxious-ambivalent, as labeled in their study) have the lowest level of intellectual competence, as well as, the poorest self-concepts and the highest level of problematic behavior. However, Preoccupied individuals have been identified as having the most relationship experience (Cooper et al., 1998). This is not surprising as these individuals maintain a

positive evaluation of others, and therefore, seek close relationship. Fearful-Avoidant individuals, on the other hand, were found to be more common among those without relationship experience and reported the lowest level of social competence (Cooper et al., 1998). This suggests that the negative evaluation of others combined with relationship seeking, which characterized this attachment style, would encourage the individual to attempt to become involved in social relationships; however, their low level of social competence and fear of close relationships would constrain the effectiveness of these relationships, leading them to form low quality attachments with others who engage in delinquent behavior. Shulman, Elicker and Sroufe (1994) found Fearful-Avoidant preadolescents showed low peer and social competence, however, they spent more than half of their available time with their peers (significantly more than Secure preadolescents) and they are less likely to have a close friend and did not achieve meaningful or longstanding relationships. In the current study, Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders identified significantly lower quality relationships than Securely attached female young offenders. A further examination of the quality of attachments of Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders indicates that these individuals do not significantly differ from Secure individuals on their reports of trust or communication in their attachments to their friends. Instead, the difference between Secure and Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders is apparent in their reports of alienation in their friendship. Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders' expectation that others will be unresponsive to their needs and desires is, therefore, inconsistent with their reports of trust and communication in their friendships. However, they may be reporting based on

their desire for others or they may experience trust and communication, however, their fear of intimacy with others may lead to the experience of alienation. These individuals, in fact, experience a high level of alienation in their attachment to their friends. This may be due to the threatened or actual disruption that characterizes an insecure attachment style (Armsden & Greenberg, 1993).

Friendship Characteristics of Female Young Offenders. Female young offenders in the current study reported having a large group of friends, made up of significantly more males than females. Clark & Ayers, (1993) studied the differences between male and female friendships and found that females expected more conventional morality and empathetic understanding, loyalty and commitment, whereas males, expectations of these qualities in their friendships is much lower. Females expectations will exceed what is present in their friendships particularly with males. Past research has also indicated that a large peer group is less satisfying for females than for males as males require a large peer group to enhance autonomy and provide resistance to authority (Marcus, 1996). Male juvenile delinquents have decreased expectations for friendships than females, they do not require closeness or emotional support and intimacy (Marcus, 1996). This low expectation of intimacy or closeness is consistent with both avoidant attachment styles, which a large number of the female young offenders in the current study identified with. However, when characteristics of best friends were reported, the findings were more consistent with previous friendship research conducted with females (Clark & Ayers, 1993; Marcus, 1996). Female young offenders who identified having a

best friend indicated this person was honest, caring, kind, understanding and trustworthy.

Despite a few participants who reported having the same friendship group throughout their development, the majority of participants reported the duration of their involvement with their current friendship group as relatively short. The short duration of their friendships compromises stability, which, in turn, compromises friendship quality. Bukowski, Hoza, and Boivin (1994) found that individuals who experience difficulty establishing high quality friendships will experience friendship instability. Having a large friendship group may also compromise friendship quality in that adolescents who are found to have a high involvement with peers are more likely to have a negative self-concept and lower degree of well-being (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997). Large friendship groups compromise intimacy and also provide an individual with a large group of "objective" people who establish opinions of the individual which is difficult for the person to discount (Giordano, Cernkovich, Groat, Pugh & Swinford, 1998). Lack of friendship quality can result in a cycle of the individual being unable to establish and maintain quality friendships. These two aspects may lead to decreased quality in their friendships and perhaps increased involvement in juvenile delinquency. For example, a large majority of female young offenders in this study reported believing their friends had influenced their criminal behavior through peer pressure, introduction to substance use or introducing them to crime.

Dismissive-Avoidant female young offenders in the current study report the lowest quality friendships compared to Securely attached and Fearful-Avoidant female

young offenders. No significant difference in friendship quality was found when Securely attached female young offenders were compared to Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders. The fact that Dismissive-Avoidant individuals have an expectation that others will be negative and rejecting (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) explains low friendship quality reported by these females. Similarly, Fearful-Avoidant individuals have a negative view of others, however, they seek others, and, therefore, they rated their friendship quality higher. These results were more consistent with those reported by Securely attached individuals who have a positive view of others.

Six characteristics of friendship quality (i.e., companionship and recreation, help and guidance, validation and caring, intimate exchange, conflict and betrayal and conflict resolution) were further examined in the current study. When these six aspects of friendship quality were examined, differences between the Secure, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant attachment styles were found for three of the characteristics. Securely attached, Fearful-Avoidant and Dismissive-Avoidant female young offenders did not differ on their scores for the subscales labeled validation and caring, conflict and betrayal, and conflict resolution.

Both the securely attached and Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders had higher ratings of companionship and recreation than did the Dismissive-Avoidant female young offenders. Fearful-Avoidant participants' ratings on companionship and recreation did not differ from securely attached female young offenders. When the friendship characteristic of help and guidance was examined, Dismissive-Avoidant

individuals provided the lowest rating when compared to Securely attached and Fearful-Avoidant individuals.

With respect to intimate exchange, both the Dismissive-Avoidant and the Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders differed from the Securely attached female young offenders. Both Dismissive-Avoidant and Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders report lower levels of intimate exchange than the Securely attached females.

Female young offenders, characterized by both avoidant attachment styles, report similar ratings in friendship quality to those of male young offenders. Research with delinquent boys indicates that they report lower quality, unstable friendships of convenience (Haas, 1999). For example, Dishion, Andrews and Crosby (1995) found that antisocial boys found their friendships to be of low quality, low satisfaction and relatively short in duration. These friendship characteristics were attributed to an increase of negative behaviors within the friendship and not a deficit in positive behaviors (Dishion et al., 1995). Negative friendship features have been shown to lower an individual's self-perception of conduct and self-esteem (Keefe & Berndt, 1996).

Results from the current study show that female young offenders do not exactly replicate this pattern of increased negative characteristics within their friendships. Although the current study did not compare the friendship quality of female young offenders to non-offenders, comparison of three of the four attachment styles indicate differences in positive features of friendship quality as opposed to negative features of friendship quality. It is possible that when compared to non-offenders, female young offenders may display higher levels of negative friendship characteristics. However, a

comparison of friendship quality within female young offenders, based on attachment style, indicated differences in positive friendship characteristics such as; help and guidance, companionship and recreation and intimate exchange.

Attachment Style and Loneliness. Female young offenders in the current study who reported being Fearful-Avoidant attached differed significantly from the Securely attached female young offenders in this study on their ratings of loneliness. The female young offenders in the Dismissive-Avoidant group reported no significant differences in their ratings of loneliness than those in the secure group. This is consistent with the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style who avoid experiencing loneliness through their sense of the self as adequate, combined with their belief that others will be unresponsive (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Bartholomew (1990) found that those individuals who identify themselves as Fearful-Avoidant are at an increased risk for experiencing loneliness and depression. This is due to the fact that although they fear close relationships, they place a significant importance on other's acceptance in order to validate their self-worth. However, their fear of close relationships and of peer rejection causes them to develop low quality friendships, which serve to increase loneliness. They require others to be constantly available, and they are prone to self-blame when they are unable to establish such relationships. The Fearful-Avoidant individuals have devalued the need for close relationships in order to avoid rejection, however, they have not reached the confidence in the self or autonomy that the Dismissive-Avoidant group has achieved, the latter of whom are, therefore, more immune to loneliness. Loneliness has been found to relate to self-esteem. For example, in a study conducted

by Inderbitzen-Pisaruk and colleagues(1992) low self-esteem, poor social skills and high social anxiety, which are all characteristics that define the Fearful-Avoidant group, correlate highly with loneliness. Another important factor relating to loneliness is the individual's tendency to attribute interpersonal successes and failure to uncontrollable factors (Inderbitzen-Pisaruk, 1992). These findings are consistent with those characteristics of the Fearful-Avoidant group who require interpersonal relationships to validate the self, however, they find others untrustworthy.

The Preoccupied attached, which was not explored in this study, would presumably experience the greatest aversion to loneliness as this group seeks close relationships to validate the self. Goosens and colleagues (1998) supports this assumption as they reported that the preoccupied group (or dependently attached as labeled in their study) was found to be more aversive to being alone than the Securely attached group. The Preoccupied group has also been shown to be opposite the Dismissive-Avoidant group in all respects (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Consistent with this, Goosens and colleagues (1998) findings showed that Dismissive-Avoidant individuals were distant and self-concerned, and, therefore, experienced decreased loneliness. Similarly, the Fearful-Avoidant group was identified as being isolating, in that they had a high level of distrust and did not take the initiative to engage their peers. This may serve to increase loneliness as Fearful-Avoidant individuals are unlikely to alleviate loneliness by seeking others and developing close relationship.

Conclusions. The differences in friendship quality between juvenile delinquent males and females may be their perceived support, investment and expectation of

friends that is important. Females place a significant amount of importance on their relationships with their friends (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1996), and secure attachment to peers has been shown to decrease the severity of delinquency among females (Anderson, Holmes & Ostresh, 1999). In this respect, females may be more susceptible to both decreased friendship quality and, concomitantly, peer influence from delinquent friends. Girls have a higher understanding of friendship than do boys (Walsh & Kurdek, 1984), and females experience a greater sense of partnership in their relationships. Compared to males, females experience more anger and have greater expectations of their friends, and they also engage in more angry interactions (West et al., 1998). As Poulin, Dishion and Haas (1999) suggest, those adolescents with characteristics that identify low quality friendships may use deviance as a means to establish new friendship. Basing a friendship on delinquent behaviors in turn serves to reinforce low quality friendships; research shows that these friendships are short in duration, unsatisfactory, and low quality relationships of convenience (Dishion et al., 1995). This is consistent with attachment research which states that those individuals with preoccupied or avoidant histories of attachment are less likely to develop any long-standing or meaningful relationships (Shulman et al., 1994).

What is also important for female young offenders, with particular importance for those who identify themselves by the Fearful-Avoidant attachment style, is that peer group influence is most influential for those who engage in the peer group process. In general, females, tend to seek more support amongst their peers (Priel et al, 1998). Poulin et al. (1999) found both that non-delinquent boys who had poor quality

friendships but did not engage in the peer group process and that they were at a low risk for involvement in delinquency. This has particular importance for the Fearful-Avoidant female young offenders, as those who engage in the peer process, however, do not establish high quality friendship in order to obtain self-acceptance.

Fearful- and Dismissive-Avoidant female young offenders with low quality friendships may also serve a function to reinforce their attachment behaviors. Keefe and Berndt (1996) found that low quality friendships between close friends leads individuals to perceive their own conduct towards others as less appropriate. In other words, Fearful-Avoidant individuals are likely to blame themselves for their poor quality relationships. Delinquent females are more likely to engage in internalized behavior and covert hostility which is associated with a higher level of deviance (Windle, 1994). Research has also shown those individuals with different attachment histories illicit different responses from people (Sroufe, et al., 1999; Kenny, et al., 1998). This is quite important, especially for Fearful-Avoidant individuals whose covert hostility may serve to sabotage friendships and further internalize blame for friendship failure. Dismissive-Avoidant adolescents, instead, blame others for low quality friendships in order to protect the self; further serving to entrench avoidance behavior.

Another important aspect of the females in this study is that their friendship group tended to consist mostly of males. The results of many studies indicate that males place less importance and invest less emotion into their friendships (Jones & Costin, 1995; Priel et al., 1998; Windle, 1994). Research has shown that adolescent girls are more likely than boys to report higher quality friendships, describe more

positive friendship characteristics (Jones & Costin, 1995; Walsh & Kurdek, 1984) and identify higher levels of emotional sharing (Windle, 1994). Females are also more likely both to rate their same-sex and opposite-sex friendship higher and to attach more emotional importance to them than do males (Lempers & Lempers, 1993). Research has shown that females' expectations of friendship (including variables such as morality, loyalty and commitment and empathic understanding) are higher than are males (Clark & Ayers, 1993). As well, these expectations of friendship exceed what is actually present in their current friendships (Clark & Ayers, 1993). In other words, females' expectations of friendship far exceed their ability to achieve these friendship characteristics. Females are more likely to be frustrated by the absence of their expected levels of morality, loyalty and commitment and empathic understanding when they engage in friendships with males. In the end, the females are less likely to obtain a desired emotional closeness.

Many of the females in this study reported that their friends are involved in delinquency. This conclusion is inferred from their statements, which indicated that their friends had considerable influence on their delinquency. In other words, these female young offenders are more likely to develop friendships with delinquent boys whose friendships are characterized by greater conflict, by little emotional support, and by short duration (Claes & Simard, 1992). Females who seek emotional closeness, support and stability from friends are, therefore, unable to develop this in their friendships with delinquent males. However, this may serve avoidant individuals as they either fear or avoid close relationships. Friendships which are of lower quality are

also found to be less stable. What is important about this is that those who engage in low quality friendships are likely to experience a high amount of turnover in their friendships (Bukowski, Hoza & Boivin, 1994). If the attachment relationship is modified throughout the lifespan, those with decreased friendship quality will, thus, not be able to engage in high quality friendships that would modify the individuals' attachment style. This may lead individuals to repeat their previous relationship behaviors, a pattern which will likely again find the self or others non-responsive.

Once again, this perpetuates the cycle for female young offenders with an insecure attachment style to further invest in their style of attachment. For example, those with a preoccupied attachment style will continue to see the self as unlovable and will continue to seek acceptance from others. Those female young offenders characterized by the avoidant attachment styles will continue to avoid forming close relationships to protect the self. As Priel, Mitrany and Shahar (1998) found, the model of others may directly affect present interaction behaviors with others. They found that Fearful-Avoidant individuals saw others as distant and non-supportive, whereas preoccupied and dismissing individuals maintained a non-reciprocated view of others (Priel et al., 1998). In other words, individuals will continue both to react to and to evoke in others behaviors which are consistent with their attachment style. Fearful-Avoidant adolescents, therefore, will evoke a negative perception among peers, which will, in turn, diminish the possibility of adjusting their working models of others.

These findings are relevant to the findings of the current study, as Dismissive-Avoidant individuals described the lowest quality friendships. They characterized others

as unable to provide companionship and recreation, help and guidance. Their friends did not engage in intimate exchange with them, and, as well, they rated their friends higher on conflict and betrayal. Fearful-Avoidant individuals maintained their view of others unresponsive however, they attempt to participate in the friendship process, and, therefore, their ratings of friendship quality closely resembled the securely attached individuals. They, however, did not rate their level of intimate exchange in the same manner, and, indeed, they did not experience close reciprocal relationships characterized by the exchange of intimacy.

With respect to loneliness, another consistent finding of the current study is that the Fearful-Avoidant group was the only group that differed significantly from the securely attached group. Due both to their expectation that others will not be responsive to their needs, their fear of close relationships and to the reality that they are unable to find this relationship, they blame the self, and, thus, they experience increased loneliness. Dismissive-Avoidant individuals expect others to be unresponsive and view the self as adequate. This expectation of others merely confirms others' behavior, and it does not function to heighten their loneliness within their relationships with their friends.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research. Several limitations for this study need to be considered. First, although significant results were found with the small number of participants in this study, increasing the number of participants would

be beneficial. Female young offenders are a transient population which move quickly in and out of young offenders' centers. It may be beneficial for future researchers to focus on one correctional center for an extended period of time rather than, in the case of this study, to conduct research at four separate correctional centers.

Secondly, it may have been fruitful to include a comparison population of same-age females who have had no involvement with the criminal justice system.

In the future, it may be worthwhile for research to include interviews either with friendship groups or with the best friends of female young offenders. Most of the female young offenders in the current study reported having a best friend. They also described being a member of a larger group of friends. Perhaps attachment to a best friend would be different than to a larger group of friends.

Examining these separate friendships would be important for a number of reasons. Firstly, it may be that female young offenders are over reporting their friendship quality. Brendgen, Markiewicz, Doyle and Bukowski (2001) found that, with their best friends, girls were more responsive and boys were more critical the higher they ranked their relationships. Secondly, the influence of friends of female young offenders may vary according to each of the four attachment styles. For example, Kerns and colleagues (1996) found that secure-secure dyads were less critical and more responsive and reported higher levels of companionship than did secure-insecure dyads. Such research may further identify how friendship quality is affected by attachment style. This may also help to identify further qualities of secure individuals who become involved in the criminal justice system and how their friends influence their behavior.

Related to this is the research conducted by Vitaro, Tremblay, Kerr, Pagani and Bukowski (1997) who found that highly disruptive boys did not need to be influenced by deviant peers to become delinquent. As well, they found that moderately disruptive boys might engage in delinquency under the influence of deviant friends, as they were found to be as delinquent as highly disruptive boys are when they were identified as having delinquent friends. Friendship quality, attachment style and delinquency may, therefore, be mediated by the child's own behaviors.

Thirdly, as Poulin, Dishion and Haas (1999) found, deviant boys' and their friends' perceptions of each other did not correlate strongly, suggesting that friendship dyads may have varying expectations, opinions and investments in their friendships. Female young offenders are, perhaps, not able to report accurately their friendship quality. This may be due both to their varying attachment styles, their expectations and investments and to the possibility that their friendship needs are incongruent with their friends' needs.

It would also be beneficial to examine how delinquent friends influence individuals from each of the four attachment styles in order to further research on the development and maintenance of such friendships. Marcus and Betzer (1996) found in their research with antisocial boys and girls that girls were able to maintain secure attachment relationships with best friends despite having an insecure attachment relationship with parents. Boys in this study had attachment relationships with friends that resembled their attachment relationship with their parents.

The finding that female young offender's ratings of loneliness was similar to that of a comparison population of college students may also have been confounded by the peer group dynamics of the correctional centers. The girls in this study were able to engage in peer relationships with the other female young offenders in the correctional centers, and this may serve to decrease loneliness experienced by female young offenders at the time of the study.

Finally, the self-report measure used in this study may have limited the conclusions of the study. It may have been beneficial to triangulate the measures used in this study with an attachment interview, which, may have increased the conclusions found in this study.

The current study and previous work lead to a very practical conclusion. The research on the friendships of adolescent females provides a basis for considering an intervention strategy. The intervention could focus on modifying the attachment relationship in order to help female young offenders to develop and maintain secure friendships, particularly with non-delinquent adolescents.

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APPENDICIES

Appendix A

Code Number: _____

Demographic Interview

Date of Birth: ___/___/___ (day/month/year) Age: ___/___ (years/months)

Ethnicity: Caucasian Native East Indian Black Oriental

Other: _____

1. Have you ever been seen by a psychologist (counselor) or psychiatrist?:

yes ___ no ___

2. If yes: Do you know why you were seen?:

3. Were you put on medication as a result of seeing a psychologist (counselor) or psychiatrist?:

yes ___ no ___

4. If yes: Are you on the medication (or something for the same reason) right now?:

yes ___ no ___

5. If no: Why did you stop the medication?: I wanted to: ___ I was told to: ___

It didn't work: ___ Other: _____

History of Incarceration:

6. Which of the following are you currently charged with:

1. Breach of probation or undertaking 3. Offense against a person
2. Property offense (such as Break and Enter or mischief)

7. Is the charge: Violent Non-violent

8. Are you remanded or convicted of the offense?: Remanded Convicted

9. If not in remanded:, How long is your sentence: _____

10. Have you ever been convicted of a crime (not just charged) before?: yes ___ no ___

If yes: How many times: _____

How old were you when you were first charged: _____

11. Have you ever been charged with a violent crime?: yes ___ no ___

School History:

12. What was the last grade you completed in school?: _____

13. Are you currently in school?: yes ___ no ___

14. If yes: What grade are you in?: _____

Family History:

15. Who do you live with when not incarcerated?: _____

16. How long have you lived there?: _____

17. If not living with a biological parent:, How long did you live with your mother or father (biological parent) prior to moving out: _____

18. Was it your decision to leave or were you taken away by child welfare?:

19. Did you ever return to live with your family?: yes ___ no ___

If yes: Did you continue to live with them or did you separate again?:

yes ___ no ___

If yes: How many times did you leave and return to your family?:

20. Were you ever in foster care: yes ___ no ___

If yes:, How old were you?: _____ How long were you in foster care?: _____

Disclaimer: In the next question I will be asking you about your history of abuse. All I want to know about is any history of abuse that has already been reported to the appropriate authorities. In other words, do not disclose abuse which has not been previously reported to someone else. If you do disclose abuse, and tell me it is not currently known by the appropriate authorities, I will be required to inform them of this information and the confidentiality and anonymity of this research will have to be broken.

21. Have you ever reported being subjected to the following abuses from a family member?:

physical emotional sexual neglect

yes___ no___ refuses to say___

22. Has any member of your family died violently?: yes___ no___

If yes: Who? _____

How? _____

23. Do you have any brothers or sisters?: yes ___ no ___

How many: brothers: _____ sisters: _____

half-brothers: _____ half-sisters: _____

step-brothers: _____ step-sisters: _____

24. Have any of your brothers or sisters ever been involved with the criminal justice system?: yes ___ no ___

25. Do you have any children of your own?: yes ___ no ___

If yes:, How many?: _____ How old are they?: _____

Do you have custody of your children?: yes ___ no ___

If no:, Whose custody are they in?: _____

Friendship Information:

26. Can you describe in your own words what a friend is?

27. How do friends influence your life?

28. What do you look for in a friend?

29. How many friends would you say you have?: _____

30. Do you have a best friend? yes___ no___

If yes: What about this person makes them your best friend?

30. Do you have a group of friends that you normally hang around with when not in jail?
yes___ no___

If yes: How large is this group (how many people are in the group)?: _____

Are there guys and girls in the group?: yes___ no___

How many of each?: Girls___ Guys___

Do the people in this group change (people come and go) or is it usually the same people that always hang around together?: Changes___ Stays the same___

How long have you been friends with this group of people?: _____

31. Do you think your friends have influenced your delinquent behavior?:
yes___ no___

If yes: How do you think they have influenced your delinquent behavior?:

Appendix B

Code Number: _____

Relationship Questionnaire

The following are descriptions of four **general relationship styles** that people often report. “General relationship style” simply refers to how you act and feel in your relationships with people.

1) Please read each description carefully and circle the letter beside the style that best describes you or is closest to the way you generally are in your close relationships. Please read all four descriptions before making your choice.

- A) It is easy for me to get close to others. I am comfortable trusting other people and having them trust me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.
- B) I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to count on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.
- C) I want to be completely close to others, but I often find that others don't want to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, and I sometimes worry that others don't care about me as much as I care about them.
- D) I am comfortable without close relationships. It is important to me to feel independent and like I can take care of myself, and I prefer not to count on others or have others count on me.

Please make sure that you have circled one of the choices above before going on to the next page.

Appendix C

Code Number: _____

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment

This questionnaire asks about your feeling about your relationships with your close friends. Please read each statement and circle the ONE number that tells how true the statement is for you now.

Peer Scale

Statement	always true	often true	sometimes true	seldom true	never true
1. I like to get my friend's point of view on things I am concerned about.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My friends can tell when I'm upset about something.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When we discuss things, my friends care about my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Talking over my problems with my friends makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I wish I had different friends.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My friends understand me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My friends encourage me to talk about my difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My friends accept me as I am.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel the need to be in touch with my friends more often.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My friends don't understand what I am going through these days.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel alone or apart when I am with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My friends listen to what I have to say.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel my friends are good friends.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My friends are fairly easy to talk to.	1	2	3	4	5
15. When I am angry about something, my friends try to be understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My friends help me to understand myself better.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My friends care about how I am feeling.	1	2	3	4	5

18. I feel angry with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I can count on my friends when I need to get something off my chest.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I trust my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My friends respect my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I get upset a lot more than my friends know about.	1	2	3	4	5
23. It seems as if my friends are irritated with me for no reason.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I tell my friends about my problems and troubles.	1	2	3	4	5
25. If my friends know something is bothering me, they ask me about it.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Code Number: _____

Friendship Quality Questionnaire

Statement	not true	a little true	somewhat true	pretty true	really true
1. My friends and I always hang out together in our free time.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My friends get mad a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My friends tell me I am good at things.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My friends stick up for me if others talk behind my back.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My friends make each other feel important and special.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My friends and I always include each other in the things we do.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My friends say they're sorry if they hurt my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My friends sometime say mean things about me to other people.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My friends have good ideas about things to do.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My friends and I talk about how to get over being mad at each other.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My friends would hang around me even if others don't.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My friends tell me I'm pretty smart.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My friends and I always tell each other our problems.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My friends make me feel good about my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I talk to my friends when I'm mad about something that happened to me.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My friends and I help each other with things that need to get done.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My friends and I do special favors for each other.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My friends and I do fun things together.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My friends and I argue a lot.	1	2	3	4	5

20. I can count on my friends to keep promises.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My friends and I go to each other's houses.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My friends and I spend our spare time together.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My friends give advice when I need to figure things out.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My friends and I talk about things that make us sad.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My friends and I make up easily when we have a fight.	1	2	3	4	5
26. My friends and I fight a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
27. My friends and I share things with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
28. My friends and I talk about how to make ourselves feel better if we are mad at each other.	1	2	3	4	5
29. My friends do not tell others my secrets.	1	2	3	4	5
30. My friends and I bug each other a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
31. My friends and I come up with good ideas on ways to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
32. My friends and I loan each other things all the time.	1	2	3	4	5
33. My friends help me so I can get done quicker.	1	2	3	4	5
34. My friends and I get over arguments really quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
35. My friends and I can count on each other for good ideas on how to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5
36. My friends don't listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5
37. My friends and I tell each other private things.	1	2	3	4	5
38. My friends and I help each other with schoolwork a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
39. My friends and I tell each other secrets.	1	2	3	4	5
40. My friends care about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E

Code Number: _____

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

Directions: Indicate how often you feel the way described in each of the following statements. Circle one number for each.

Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. I feel like I can relate to the people around me.*	1	2	3	4
2. I don't have companionship.	1	2	3	4
3. There is no one I can turn to.	1	2	3	4
4. I do not feel alone.*	1	2	3	4
5. I feel part of a group of friends.*	1	2	3	4
6. I have a lot in common with the people around me.*	1	2	3	4
7. I am no longer close to anyone.	1	2	3	4
8. My interests and ideas are not shared by those around me.	1	2	3	4
9. I am an outgoing person.*	1	2	3	4
10. There are people I feel close to.*	1	2	3	4
11. I feel left out.	1	2	3	4
12. My social relationships are superficial.	1	2	3	4
13. No one really knows me well.	1	2	3	4
14. I feel isolated from others.	1	2	3	4
15. I can find companionship when I want it.*	1	2	3	4
16. There are people who really understand me*	1	2	3	4
17. I am unhappy being so withdrawn.	1	2	3	4
18. People are around me but not with me.	1	2	3	4

19. There are people I can talk to.*	1	2	3	4
20. There are people I can turn to.*	1	2	3	4

Note: The total score is the sum of all 20 items

* Items should be reverse scored (e.g., 1=4, 2=3, 3=2, 4=1).

Appendix FParticipant Consent Form

I understand this research project entitled Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality and Loneliness, is concerned with young people who are involved in the criminal justice system and their relationship with their parents and friends. I understand that I will be asked questions about my family, early childhood experiences, my criminal activity and my friendships that will take about an hour and a half of my time. I understand that I will also be asked a question concerning my history of abuse that is **already known by the authorities**. I will be asked **not to disclose** any information on abuse that is not already known to the authorities. If I do disclose abuse, and tell the researcher it is not currently known by the appropriate authorities, the researcher will be required to inform the authorities of this information and the confidentiality and anonymity of this research will have to be broken.

The results will help to understand how the relationships of young females who are involved in the criminal justice system are the same or different from other young people. It is believed that this understanding can improve the help that female young offenders receive. Jill Nicol, a Masters student at the University of Victoria, is conducting this study.

I understand that my participation in this study is completely **voluntary**. That means that if I choose not to participate in this study, I will not be punished in any way. There will also be no privileges given to those who choose to participate. I am aware that I am able to withdraw my participation at any time throughout the study, without an explanation and with no negative consequences. If I do choose to withdraw from the study, the information I have provided will not be used included in the research study. I am also able to refuse to answer any questions that I feel I do not want to answer, without explanation.

The information I provide for this study will remain completely **anonymous and confidential** with only the researcher (Jill Nicol) and her supervisor (Brian Harvey) having access to it. Anonymity is limited only by the fact that I will be interviewed individually by the researcher, however, my identity will only be known by the researcher. My name will **not** be attached to any papers or published results because code numbers will be used instead of my name. My information will not be examined by itself, it will only be looked at along with the other participant's information. I understand that if I sign this consent form, it will be kept separate from my information so the two cannot be connected.

I will be asked to complete an interview with the researcher as well as 4 questionnaires. The most convenient time for my participation in this research project will be arranged between myself, the researcher and the correctional center. My agreement to participate or not to participate will not affect in any way, the services that I receive at my correctional center (health care, psychology, or programs). The results will **not** go on my file and no institutional personnel will have access to them. The researcher does not require access to my institutional file.

I understand that the results of this study will be used for Jill Nicol's Masters Thesis. All information collected for this study will be kept in a locked filing cabinet and only the researcher (Jill Nicol) and her supervisor (Dr. Brian Harvey) will have access to this information. The information will be destroyed after 7 years, in accordance with the Canadian Psychological Association guidelines.

I understand that I can reach Jill Nicol (780-405-2058) or her supervisor, Dr. Brian Harvey (250-721-7856) at any time throughout the study if I have questions or concerns about the study. I understand that I may also contact the Associate Vice President Research at the University of Victoria (250-721-7968) if I would like to verify ethical approval of this study, or raise any other concerns that I may have. By signing below, I consent to participate in the Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality and Loneliness research study.

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Witness: _____ Date: _____

A COPY OF THIS CONSENT WILL BE LEFT WITH YOU, AND A COPY WILL BE TAKEN BY THE RESEARCHER

Appendix G

Parental Consent Form

I understand that this research project entitled Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality and Loneliness is a study of my child/ ward's perception of their relationship with important people in their life, with a particular focus on friendship. I understand that the results may be helpful in understanding how the friendships of young people who are involved in the criminal justice system are the same or different from other young people. I understand the goal of the research is to help improve the help that female young offenders receive.

I understand that my child/ward will be interviewed individually by the researcher and then will be asked to complete 4 questionnaires. I understand that my child/ward will be asked a question concerning their history of abuse that is **already known by the authorities**. My child/ward will be asked **not to disclose** any information on abuse that is not already known to the authorities. If my child/ward discloses abuse, and informs the researcher it is not currently known by the appropriate authorities, the researcher will be required to inform the authorities of this information and the confidentiality and anonymity of this research will have to be broken.

I understand that my child/ward's involvement in this research project is completely voluntary and that my child/ward can withdraw their consent at any time without punishment. If my child/ward does decide to withdraw from this study, the information collected from her will not be included in the analysis. Anonymity is limited only by the fact that my child/ward will be interviewed individually by the researcher, however, my child/ward's identity will only be known by the researcher. I also understand that the **anonymity** and **confidentiality** of my child/ward's responses will be maintained, as her name will not appear on any of the documents she is asked to fill out or in any published documents. Code numbers will be used instead of names on all documents my child/ward is asked to complete. I understand that my child/ ward's results will not be examined individually, they will only be looked at as a group, along with the other participant's results. I understand that there are no known or anticipated risks associated with participation in this research study.

I understand that the results of this study will be used for Jill Nicol's Masters Thesis. All information collected for this study will be kept in a locked filing cabinet and only the researcher (Jill Nicol) and her supervisor (Dr. Brian Harvey) will have access to this information. The information will be destroyed after 7 years, in accordance with the Canadian Psychological Association guidelines.

I understand that I can reach Jill Nicol (780-405-2058) or her supervisor, Dr. Brian Harvey (250-721-7856) at any time throughout the study if I have questions or concerns about the study. I understand that I may also contact the Associate Vice President Research at the University of Victoria (250-721-7968) if I would like to verify ethical approval of this study, or raise any other concerns that I may have. By placing an X in the box beside the sentence which indicates that I allow my child to participate and signing below and returning this consent form, I consent to allow my child/ward to participate in the Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality and Loneliness research study. If I choose not to allow my child to participate in this study, I must place an X beside the sentence that indicates that I do not allow my child/ ward to participate in the research project, sign the consent form and return it to the researcher. If I do not return the consent form signed or unsigned, I will be considered informed of my child/ward's participation in the research study. In other words, to prevent my child/ward's participation in this research study, I MUST return the consent form or contact Jill Nicol.

Please indicate whether or not you will allow your child to participate by placing an X in the box beside the applicable sentence and signing below:

- I **Allow** my child/ward to participate in the above described research project.
- I **Do Not allow** my child/ward to participate in the above described research project.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

A COPY OF THIS CONSENT WILL BE LEFT WITH YOU, AND A COPY WILL BE TAKEN BY THE RESEARCHER

Appendix H**Participant Debriefing**

Dear Research Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. The information you provided in the questionnaires will help further research in relation to female young offenders. In this study, you were asked to fill out questionnaires on how you relate to others, with an emphasis on your relationship with your friends. This information will help us to learn how young people's relationships influence their criminal behavior.

I want to remind you once again that the information you provided for me is **anonymous** and **confidential**. In other words, your name will not appear on any of the questionnaires that you were asked to complete. A code number will be used instead of your name. Also, the information you provided will not be examined individually, instead it will be looked at as a group and a general conclusion will be made.

Sometimes being asked about your family history and your relationships with your friends can bring up questions or feelings that you may wish to discuss with someone. If you wish to speak with someone about these issues, you might consider talking with a friend or family member, or talking to one of the mental health workers at your Young Offenders Center. You may also wish to try the Victoria Needs Crisis and Information Line at 386-6323. You can call this number at anytime for further advice, information, and resources that may be useful to you.

If you have any further questions regarding the research study please feel free to ask them at this time. If you have question that come up in the future, you can contact Jill Nicol (780-405-2058) or her supervisor (Dr. Brian Harvey) at (250) 721-7856.

Once again, thank you for your time and effort!

Jill Nicol

Appendix I**Letter to Parents**

Jill Nicol
Educational Psychology
University of Victoria
PO Box 3010
Victoria, BC V8W 3N4

Dear Parent/Guardian:

Your child/ward has volunteered to participate in a research study which looks at young offenders' opinions of their relationship with important people in their life, with a particular focus on friendship. The results of this study may be helpful in understanding how the friendships of young people who are involved in the criminal justice system are the same or different from other young people. The goal of the research is to improve the help that female young offenders receive.

For your child/ward to participate in this study, they must provide their consent to participate. Along with their consent, it is important to get the parent/guardian's consent as well. I have included two consent forms with this letter. The consent forms are exactly the same. One is to be kept by you and the other is to be signed and returned to myself in the addressed and stamped envelope included with this letter. It is important that you understand that placing an "X" in the box indicating that you allow your child/ward to participate and by signing the form, you are giving your child/ward your permission to participate in this study. If after you read the consent form and you choose not to allow your child to be a part of this study, you must place an "X" in the box indicating that you DO NOT allow your child/ward to participate then sign and return the consent form (in the stamped and addressed envelope). You may also contact the researcher (Jill Nicol) by telephone at (780) 405-2058. If you do not return the consent form signed or unsigned it will be assumed that you know about your child/ward's participation in the study.

Thank-you,

Jill Nicol, B.A.
(Researcher)

Appendix JAdversity Index

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Abuse: | 0 = No reported abuse
1 = Participant indicates abuse was reported |
| 2. Violent Family Death | 0 = no reported violent death of a family member
1 = reported violent death of family member |
| 3. Early Separation from Biological Parent | 0 = Not separated from parent before age of 11
1 = Separated from parent before age of 11 |
| 4. Apprehended by Child Welfare | 0 = Not apprehended before age 6
1 = apprehended by child welfare before age 6 |
| 5. Number of times separated from biological parents | 0 = below 1
1 = above 1 |
| 6. Continued separation from family | 0 = No separations from family
1 = Continued separations from family |
| 7. Foster Care | 0 = Never in foster care
1 = Participant had been placed in foster care |
| 8. Length of time in Foster Care | 0 = None or less than 1 year
1 = 1 year and longer in Foster Care |
| 9. Sibling has been arrested | 0 = No
1 = Yes |
| 10. Any children of own | 0 = No
1 = pregnant or have a child |
| 11. Currently in School | 0 = yes
1 = no |
| 12. Grade Completed | 0 = Completed grade 9 and above
1 = Completed grade 8 or below |

Vita

Surname: Nicol

Given Names: Jill Suzanne

Place of Birth: Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Educational Institutions Attended:

University of Victoria	1999 to 2002
University of Alberta	1994 to 1999

Degrees Awarded:

B.A.	University of Alberta	1999
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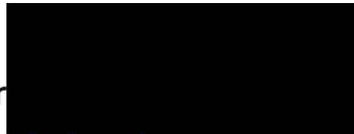
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Title of Thesis:

Attachment Styles, Friendship Quality and Loneliness in Female Juvenile Delinquents

Author



Jill Nicol

April 30, 2002