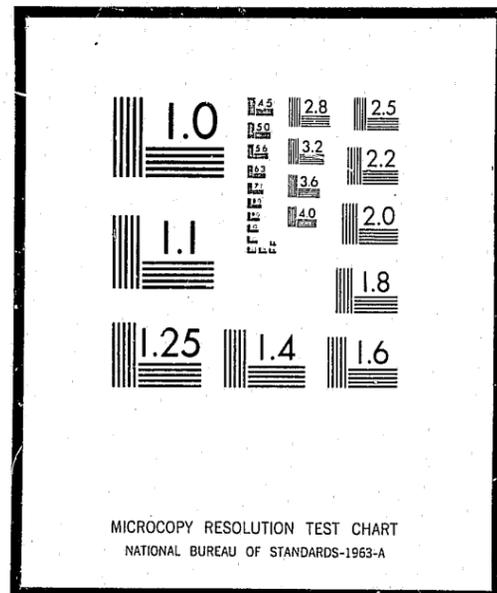


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A STUDY OF ISSUES RELATING TO RUNAWAY BEHAVIOR

PREPARED FOR
OFFICE OF YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

BY

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April 12, 1974



DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20201

April 1974

Dear Reader:

The following study was commissioned by the Office of Youth Development to examine the relationship between runaway behavior and selected variables (alienation, denial of access to social roles and negative labeling) in the generation of asocial behavior in adolescents. Through this study, some progress has been made in clarifying the role of these variables in the areas of the home, the school and peers regarding the generation of runaway behavior.

The main body of the work is an examination of data which could provide evidence of relationships between runaway activity and other social and psychological variables.

Also included in this report is a review of the social, psychological, and correctional literature regarding the problems of runaway youth. An examination of the annotated bibliography should provide the reader with a rapid summary of this literature.

This study will be a useful tool for all of us concerned with understanding the runaway.

Sincerely,

James A. Hart

James A. Hart
Commissioner
Office of Youth Development

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INTRODUCTION

The present report is submitted to the Office of Youth Development from the Behavioral Research and Evaluation Corporation (BREC) Boulder, Colorado.

The primary objectives of this report are twofold. Firstly, to provide thorough and up-to-date review of the social, psychological, and correctional literature regarding the problems of runaway youth. This proved to be a rewarding and at the same time extensive task. Although the number of articles and books in this field is relatively small in comparison to other topics, there is still an extensive literature. An examination of the annotated bibliography will hopefully provide the reader with a rapid summary of this literature. The full bibliography included at the end of the report includes almost everything that we could find that was clearly related to the runaway problem. However, a great deal of more general family, delinquency, dropout, and school related material was excluded. The constraints of energy and time did not allow the full exploration of all of these topics. A second major objective of this work was to thoroughly examine data which had been collected during other research exercises and which included questions related to the runaway act and which therefore could provide evidence of the relationships between runaway activity and other social and psychological variables which were included in these earlier (and ongoing) research projects. This experience has been particularly rewarding for the researchers involved in this exercise. A number of new insights, we believe, have been drawn from the data regarding the runaway behavior of certain youth. These are presented in the body of the report. An important issue was the exact role of the various National Strategy variables (Alienation, Denial of Access to Social Roles, and Negative Labeling) which the Office of Youth Development has focused on as important causal factors in the generation of delinquent and deviant behavior. We believe that some

progress may have been made in clarifying the role of these variables in the areas of the home, the school and peers regarding the generation of runaway behavior.

INCIDENCE AND TRENDS IN THE EXTENT OF RUNAWAY BEHAVIOR

The actual incidence of runaway behavior in terms of single acts of runaway per 100 youth is difficult to pin down exactly. This is due to the fact that most data stem from the numbers of youth passing through police records or the numbers passing through runaway shelters. The data from both of these sources reflect a perhaps atypical subset of the total set of youth who run away. From the few studies involving more general samples of youth, the following figures have been found regarding self-reported incidence of "ever running away at least once." There is some variation in the precise wording of the runaway question, however, in all of the studies the item asked reflects leaving home overnight without parental knowledge or permission. Kupfer (1967) found that in a Canadian high school sample, 17% of the youth reported such behavior. The survey of youth in Denver (1973) on which some of the later empirical analyses are based supports this estimate indicating that approximately 17% of the sample had runaway at least once. Other studies, e.g. Mobley and Swanson (1973), Elliott and Voss (1974), using large probability samples, suggest that the incidence of "ever running away" is nearer to 10% of all youth.

A further difficulty in estimating incidence of runaway behavior is the definitional problem, i.e., the incidence of "what kind of runaway behavior." The later sections of this report will indicate that the act of running away can be broken down into a number of distinctly different

classes depending on such criteria as motives for running away, length (in days) of absence, frequency, how far did the runaway travel, with whom, and so on. The generalized "incidence" percentage will tend to disguise the relative importance of each of these categories. The various figures presented above reflect ALL classes of runaway behavior. The hard-core runner who leaves frequently and for long duration will form only a fragment of the total runaway scene as reflected by the above figures. The later typological analyses in the empirical section of this report attempt to clarify the relative sizes of the various types of runners.

In regard to general trends in runaway behavior, the figures stemming from police sources and runaway shelters are, however, probably worth taking seriously. Several sources attest to an increase in the runaway phenomenon. Nearly seven years ago Time magazine reported an increase in the frequency of runaways, based upon an almost 10% increase in the number of runaway arrests in 1966 as compared to the previous year (Time, September 15, 1967). In 1970 police in Chicago and New York reported that the number of warrants for the return of runaways had doubled in the past seven years (Newsweek, Oct. 26, 1972). There were an estimated million runaway youth in 1972, most of whom were not reported missing. (Time, Aug. 27, 1973). The weekly intake of runaways by Huckleberry House in Columbus, Ohio, which has increased in each of the last three years, is also indicative of an upward trend in the incidence of running away.

The increase in number of runaways reported is so great that in some cities police report an inability to maintain a thorough and continuing search for all of them.

It appears that suburban areas and small cities may be experiencing an even faster rate of increase in runaway youth than large urban areas such as New York City, which reports a slight decline (Newsweek, Oct. 26, 1970, U.S. News and World Report, April 24, 1972). It would appear that the U.S.A. is not the only country showing a large increase in the number of youthful runaways. Tsunts (1971) reports a substantial yearly increase in the number of runaways passing through Russian Police Juvenile Delinquent departments.

Age and Runaway Behavior

It is reported that the average age of runaways is declining. In New York City, 43% of recent runaways are found to be between 11 and 14 years of age. (Newsweek, Oct. 26, 1970; U.S. News and World Report, Sept. 3, 1973). Ambrosino (1971) reports that the average age for runaways has been 15 for several years. According to Tobias, the peak age of runaway youth is between 15 and 16 years. In the "Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969," 50% of all runaways are 15 or 16 years old. This study further notes that the number of male runaways increases from age 10 to 16 and then drops at age 17, while females are generally found to begin running at age 13, peak at 15, and then decrease at age 16 and 17. On the other hand, in an earlier study, Hildebrand (1963) finds that at age 12 both males and females rapidly increase their runaway rate until a peak is reached for ages 14 to 15, after which there is a decrease in the male rate, contrasted by a sharp upward trend for females at age 17.

Sex of Runaways

Several sources report an equal number of runaway males and females (Ambrosino, 1971; Tobias, 1970; Time September 15, 1967). However, Ambrosino notes a trend for the female runaway rate to increase faster than that of the males, while another source reports that the runaway population is more female than male (Newsweek, October 26, 1970). In the "Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969," 53% of the runaways reported were female. Since most of these figures are based upon reported runaways, they may reflect a greater tendency to report runaway daughters than sons, thus tending to exaggerate the number of female runaways.

Home Factors

Several authors suggest that neither socioeconomic position of the family nor number and ordinal position of children in the family is related to running away behavior (Goldmeier 1973; Leventhal, 1964; Shellow, 1967). Shellow stresses that he did not find low income families to have more than their share of runaways. He suggests that structural and socioeconomic characteristics of the family are probably only indirectly associated with a youth's decision to run away, while family conflict may have a more direct relationship. In contrast to these authors, D'Angelo reports that fathers of runaways are employed in low skilled jobs at a rate 20% above the non-runaway control group.

Family breakdown is often cited as a characteristic of the runaway population. D'Angelo (1974) finds that, with the exception of blacks, twice as many runaways come from one-parent families as the controls.

Goldmeier (1973) also reports that runaways are more likely than others to come from homes where one of the parents is absent. Foster (1962) finds a positive correlation between parent-child separations and running away. The presence of step- or adoptive parents is also seen as a factor. Similarly, Shellow reports that runaways are more likely than other youth to come from a broken or reconstituted family, although he stresses that half of the runaways are from intact families. Gold's study of delinquency among youth (1970) generally supports these findings. Both D'Angelo and Shellow have found that the mother's employment status is not significant with regard to running away.

It has been suggested that parental relationship may be a factor in runaway behavior. D'Angelo (1974) finds that runaways report a failure

by their parents to "get along with each other" more than twice as often as the controls. In addition, runaways are three times as likely as controls to indicate that their parents argue more than the parents of other youth. Finally, for all sex and ethnic groupings in D'Angelo's study, two thirds of the runaways report their parents use indirect means (avoidance, silence, walking out, stereotypical roles, etc) of settling disputes (as opposed to a frank exchange of words), while only half the control group reports use of indirect means.

With regard to parental-child relationships, there is evidence to support the belief that such relationships are characterized by tension, conflict and dissatisfaction in the case of runaway youth. Compared to non-runaways, runaways may tend to feel less at ease in their homes and less "warm" toward their parents (Goldmeier, 1967). In addition, runaways may be more likely to feel that neither parent is "warm" toward them, that they are excessively and undeservedly punished, and that their relationship with their parents is unhappy. D'Angelo presents similar results based on an examination of five variables related to parent-child relationships. In D'Angelo's study, it is found that runaways are less likely than the controls to indicate willingness to consult parents when in trouble; they are more likely to report not being given a chance to explain themselves in disputes with parents; they experience physical abuse by parents three times as much as controls; they perceive their fathers as unfair twice as often and their mothers as unfair three times as often as the controls; and finally, runaways indicate poor relationships with mothers twice as often as controls, and poor relationships with fathers three times as often as controls. Shellow, in contrast,

reports that the majority of both runaways and non-runaways perceive their family settings as characterized by conflict.

Both Robey (1964) and to some extent Foster (1962) examine the fear of incest as a cause of running away. It is suggested that the mother may pressure the daughter to take over the maternal role. As a result, tensions and unconscious fears in the family may lead the daughter to run away from "dangerous impulses."

In a study by Tsubouchi and Jenkins it is suggested that inadequate mothering is a factor in the development of frustrated maladaptive delinquents.

School

Problems at school may be a major reason for running away, especially among males (Gold, 1970; Shellow, 1967). According to Gold, academic performance is a strong factor in the delinquency of male youth, but is not significant for females. He maintains that loss of self esteem at school is equated with loss of esteem at home and may result in an attempt by the male youth to gain the esteem of his peers by means of delinquent behavior. The study by Shellow reports that runaways, in contrast to other youth, are absent from school more often, have lower grades, and are more likely to have been retained at a grade level; these characteristics are found to be more true of runaway males than females, supporting the authors' impression that boys are more likely than girls to run away because of school problems.

Findings by D'Angelo show that runaways, compared to a control group, more frequently perceive themselves to be in the lowest academic stratum, are less likely to strive for more than a high school education, and are much less likely to participate in extra-curricular activities. (The latter finding is also supported by Shellow). In this study virtually the same proportion of runaways and controls identify themselves as having problems with teachers.

Goldmeier's study contrasting runaways with non-runaways finds that runaways tend to have poorer grades, less interest in a college education, more difficulty in getting along with school counselors, and less interest in school. In contrast to Gold, he reports that runaways have more difficulty than non-runaways in getting along with teachers, whom they tend to see as being uninterested in them.

Shellow notes that runaways in his study had no higher dropout rate than the school population as a whole. He suggests that running away and dropping out of school may be alternate ways of avoiding daily confrontation with problems at school.

Peer Relationships Among Runaways

Goldmeier (1973) suggests that runaways have a greater tendency than non-runaways to turn to their peers for help when in trouble. Runaways in his study report having many friends.

A more extensive study by D'Angelo (1974) presents different findings. According to this study, runaways are less likely to consult peers in time of trouble than are the non-runaway controls. With regard to friendships, D'Angelo finds that the nonrunaway controls tend to report having only a moderate number of close friendships. They do not spend an excessively large or small amount of time with their friends. Runaways, on the other hand, tend to fall at the two extremes of these variables. They are more likely than non-runaways to report having "no friends" or "over 20" friends. Similarly, they are ten times as likely as non-runaways to spend no time with peers, but also more likely than non-runaways to spend more than half their time with peers. However, since D'Angelo also finds that runaways report a lower degree of leisure time activity with peers than do controls, the greater proportion of "close" friendships reported by runaways may be misleading. D'Angelo suggests that the concept of intimacy may be conceptualized differently by runaways and controls.

A further indication of the quality of peer relationships of runaways is revealed in D'Angelo's finding that runaways are more than twice as likely as non-runaway controls to report being troubled by problems with peers. D'Angelo suggests that the runaway's negative experience with his family may fail to prepare him for the negotiation of relationships in the outside world.

The common parental assumption that runaway behavior is the result of peer influence is also examined by D'Angelo. He reports that runaways more

frequently had made the acquaintance of other runaways than had the non-runaway controls. However, even in the control group half of the respondents claimed they had previously known runaways.

In a study of self-concepts among runaway youth, Levinson (1970) suggests that the lack of self-acceptance reported by these youth usually indicates a lack of acceptance by others, and consequently, some difficulty in interpersonal relationships.

A study of three delinquent types characterizes runaways as youth who feel isolation, lack of loyalty, lack of popularity, timidity, and lack of acceptance by their siblings (Shinohara and Jenkins, 1967). This underlines the findings of Levinson (1970) and D'Angelo (1974) in suggesting that runaways have less satisfactory relationships with peers than non-runaways.

In examining the feelings of control as opposed to loss of control Leventhal (1963) finds that runaways express a number of very negative viewpoints in regard to their peer relationships to a much greater extent than non-runaways. The runaways indicate much higher frequencies of "being picked on", "coerced", "falsely accused", "ridiculed, duped, humiliated," "used by others," and "criticized." They also complained more than non-runaways of being "punished in humiliating ways." The author concludes that "it is evident that runaways feel much more humbled and even mortified by others." Leventhal associates these aspects of the runaways' interpersonal relationships with an overconcern with "loss of control" and with "ego surrender." He suggests that the apparently benign nature of the runaway act may disguise serious reality distortion, and "prepsychotic functioning." This fits well with the long-term follow-up studies conducted by O'Neal and Robins (1958), and also the findings of Shinohara and Jenkins (1967) who suggest that runaways are highly disturbed.

Leventhal (1964) further amplifies the problems of the social relationships of runaways in relation to non-runaways. They find that runaways have higher levels of "needs for affection, demanding-ness, and jealousy", and that they more frequently are found to "steal, be irresponsible," and "have poor manners." This writer suggests that there are indications of "bad" social habits and of a deficient social sense.

Self-Concepts of Runaways

Most of the research papers received suggest that runaway youth have lower self-concepts than non-runaway youth (Levinson and Mezei, 1970, Leventhal, 1964, Jenkins, 1971, D'Angelo 1974).

In regard to evaluative characteristics Levinson and Mezei have found that runaways feel "dull, sad, weak, and not as handsome as they wish." Dividing self-concept into three general dimensions of Evaluation (Good-Bad), Potency (Strong-Weak) and Activity (Active-Passive) these authors find that runaways fall most below their ideal self-concepts on the Evaluation and Activity dimensions. They also indicate that runaway youth are found to be "lonely, isolated and detached". The authors suggest that the lack of self-acceptance shown by the runaway youth is related to difficulties in interpersonal relationships and reflective of "a lack of acceptance by others." Consequently, they suggest that counseling should be aimed at increasing the youth's self-acceptance. Jenkins (1971), through measuring a group of delinquent youth classified as having a "flight tendency" or "runaway reaction," finds that such youth are "immature, timid, and feel rejected at home, inadequate, and friendless." He sees the runaway reaction as a response of the hurt child to "...the conviction that he is not wanted at home." Jenkins suggests that the runaway delinquent "typically reflects a bad self-image, a sense of worthlessness, self-discouragement, and fear.

D'Angelo (1974) applied a 10 item self-concept scale to matched groups of runaways and non-runaways. The runners had significantly lower self-concept scores than the non-runners. This finding was repeated when boys and girls were examined separately. However, when Black youth were examined it was found that the runners had "higher" self-concepts than the non-runners. This suggests that the psychological dynamics of the runaway reaction might be different for youth from different ethnic groups. D'Angelo also reports that the low self-esteem of the overall runaway group was related to low academic performance and low scores for "perceived physical well-being", i.e., the runners generally reported that they were in poorer health than the non-runners.

Goldmeier and Dean (1973) cast some doubt on the above findings by suggesting that "the adolescent runaways who participated in this study did not reveal evidence of severe psychopathology." Both runaways and non-runaways seemed to have reasonably high self-concepts. However, it might be noted that the sample of youth studied by these authors was from a relatively affluent suburban area, and might be atypical. The same authors, however, note that there is an inability to "relate to adults," a lack of access to adults, and a lack of adult role models. They suggest that this might affect the runaway's developing sense of identity.

The bulk of the work reviewed, notwithstanding the findings of Goldmeier and Dean, suggest strongly that there are problems of adequate self-concept and self-acceptance among runaway youth. The findings presented in the later empirical analysis section also give support to the contention that runaways have lower self-concepts than non-runaway youth.

Loss of Control (vs. Control) Frustration Tolerance, Impulsivity, and Aggression in Relation to Runaway Behavior

One aspect of self-concept which appears in the literature is that dealing with the degree to which the individual feels that he/she has some "control" over factors in his/her life. These factors might be external environmental features, or internal, more subjective moods/emotions etc. Leventhal (1963) in comparing runaway youth with non-runaways suggests that runaways give significantly more evidence of "being influenced, of trying to counteract such influences, and of having little influence or effect upon others." He suggests that the runaway act is one strategy which such individuals resort to when they feel high levels of loss of control. Leventhal explores this perceived lack of control or influence in various aspects of the runaway's life. Particularly in the area of peer relationships, Leventhal indicates a generally low level of control on the part of runaways in contrast to a non-runaway control group. Leventhal (1964) replicates and expands on this study to reconfirm the low levels of both external and internal control of runaways in comparison to non-runaways. Inner uncontrol is manifested in higher levels of "impulsivity" and more frequent incidence of "direct behavioral expressions of aggression." He finds that certain self-destructive acts (e.g. suicide) are more frequent among runaways. Leventhal (1964) suggests that these traits are indications of insufficient mechanisms for delaying or modifying internal forces.

A second aspect of loss of control is simply the "ability to cope." Hiatt and Spurlock (1970) suggest that a large number of transients use "flight" as a means of coping. Goldberg (1972) similarly in studying both youthful and adult "persons in flight" finds that such persons can be characterized by: excessive and chronic dependency, demanding behavior, difficulties in tolerating

or sustaining any close interpersonal relationships, very low frustration tolerance, marked impulsivity, and a strong tendency to misrepresent themselves (through attempting to maintain anonymity or false identity, exaggeration of skills, social status, etc.). Goldberg draws a profile of the "flight person" as a "loner," as being impulsive and as becoming excessively aggressive when frustrated. He finds, however, that a second type of "flight person" can be characterized at the opposite extreme, i.e., timid, extremely non-aggressive, with a tendency to be unable to stick up for their rights and to be unable to express themselves spontaneously. These differences strongly suggest a high level of heterogeneity and reinforce the belief that runners should not be regarded as a single homogeneous group with one general pattern of defining characteristics. Goldberg concludes:

There is a tremendous sense of immediacy in the flight-person, which contributes to his high impulsivity and marked inability to tolerate frustration or postpone gratifications. Relationships with other people are generally unsatisfactory and dependent in nature. Because of this dependent base, the flight person tends to react to other people by manipulations, attempting to gain satisfaction of dependent needs while still maintaining distancing mechanisms that prevent any meaningful emotional contact. Such a process is self-defeating, of course, and consequently becomes repetitive and cyclic.

Religious Orientation Among Runaways

The only source of empirical study of religious orientation among runaways is provided by D'Angelo (1974). He finds that runaways have an equally positive attitude toward religion as do non-runaways. However, with the exception of blacks, runaways are much more likely than other youth to deny that religion had any influence on their upbringing. Runaways are found to attend church with their parents less frequently than non-runaways. Here again, blacks are an exception, with both runaways and controls reporting a low level of non-attendance.

Church involvement and religiosity of parents are also examined by D'Angelo, in an attempt to identify the religious environment of the runaway. Findings show that the parents of runaways are less active in non-worship church activities than are the parents of non-runaways. Among blacks, however, both runaways and non-runaways describe their parents as being active. Both runaways and non-runaways report that their parents are religious.

White and male runaway groups in D'Angelo's study report reading religious works less frequently than their nonrunaway counterparts. For females equal proportions are observed, while for blacks the trend is reversed.

While the majority of non-runaways is found to perceive itself as doing the same amount of religious thinking as peers, a higher proportion of runaways perceive themselves as falling into the extremes of more or less thinking about religion than their peers.

D'Angelo points out that while runaways express the same positive attitudes toward religion as their peers, both they and their parents are less involved in church-related activities than non-runaway families. This behavior, D'Angelo suggests, may be indicative of the inclination of runaways to withdraw.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RUNAWAY ACT

In this section we have summarized some information regarding the actual runaway episode. The references given will contain more detail regarding specific events during any runaway episode. These sometimes include exhaustive details of various adventures, mishaps, tragedies, etc.

Timing of the Episode

Shellow (1967) reports little seasonal variation in the frequency of runaway episodes, although his findings indicate a slightly higher incidence in spring. Tobias (1970) on the other hand, reports that September is the month of highest runaway incidence, while the study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969) reports more runs in October than any other month.

Runaway episodes are found to be fairly evenly distributed over the week for boys. They appear to be more frequent for girls on Friday and Saturday, possibly indicating use of the dating situation as a starting point for running away. Similarly, Shellow's findings show that girls are more likely than boys to leave between 6 pm and midnight (the dating hours).

Planning of the Episode

Runaway episodes are reported as generally impulsive and poorly planned, as evidenced by the fact that many leave without food, money,

or extra clothing and have made no arrangements for shelter. (Shellow, 1967; D'Angelo, 1974)

Companionship in Running Away

Shellow's study finds that youth are just as likely to run away with companions as alone. Girls may be slightly more likely than boys to leave with a companion. The study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969) reports that 57% run alone, 26% run with someone of the same sex, and 10% run with someone of the opposite sex. Older youth are found to be more likely than younger youth to run with someone of the opposite sex.

Distance Traveled and Destination

It has been reported that the majority of runaways remains close to home (Shellow, 1967; Tobias, 1970). In a study by Gold (1970) boys appear more likely than girls to leave their home town. Similarly, boys are reported more likely to leave town than girls by the study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969).

The trend toward running away to large cities may be declining, while more runaways are finding refuge in the nearby homes of friends or in smaller cities close to home. Many youth are reported to find shelter in communal "crashpads," or in runaway houses. (US. News and World Report, April 24, 1972).

Duration of Runaway Episodes

The tendency to stay away from home for more than one day begins at age 13 and increases with each succeeding age group. Episodes of longer duration are said to be characteristic of recidivists. (Hildebrand, 1963) Shellow reports that most runaway episodes are brief. A study by Tobias

(1970) shows that 41% of the runaways return home within one day.

The study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969) reports that females tend to run either 1-3 days or over a month, while males tend to run 1-7 days. Furthermore, older youth tend to run for longer periods of time than the younger youth.

Problems and Dangers away from Home

An immediate problem for the runaway is food and shelter. These may be obtained from halfway houses, churches and other organizations, or as handouts from strangers. (Ambrosino, 1971). Misfits infest runaway areas with the intention of taking advantage of these youth. In return for food or a crashpad likely to be dirty and crowded, the runaway may be forced into shoplifting, drug addiction, prostitution, or gang sex. (Surface, 1970; Newsweek, October 26, 1970).

Finding work may be difficult, especially for the young runaways who do not have the skills, maturity, or legal papers required by most employers (Ambrosino).

The runaway experience may differ for different types of runaways (English 1973). Those who runaway for a day or two with the intention of returning usually have little contact with the street culture. In contrast, those who stay away from home more frequently may have dealt with hustlers and learned to survive by stealing, dealing drugs, or exploiting younger runaways. (English, 1973).

The Decision to Return Home

Both Gold (1970) and Shellow (1967) find that half of the runaways return home of their own volition. Others are apprehended by the police

or contacted in other ways, while some never return. The study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969) finds that the majority of younger runaways return home on their own, while the majority of older runaways are apprehended.

Recidivism

According to a study by Hildebrand (1963), the peak of recidivism for boys is reached between the ages of 13 and 15, thereafter declining. He suggests that the recidivism rate for female runaways steadily increases after age 14. In the study of missing juveniles in Minneapolis (1969) it is found that the majority of multiple runners are females, and that there is a tendency for the number of days missing to increase as the number of runs increases.

PARENTAL RESPONSE AND EFFORTS TO LOCATE RUNAWAYS

Parental response to the runaway behavior of the child is explored in some detail by D'Angelo (1974). Feelings of shock at "being rejected" might be the initial reaction, feelings of inadequacy as parents and/or guilt feelings. They may then feel embarrassment vis-a-vis their neighbors when the news of the runaway spreads around the neighborhood. D'Angelo suggests that these responses may lead the parent to rationalizations which may effectively block any reconciliation attempts. They may construct rationalizations to vindicate their position. This process could lead to excessive dogmatism on the part of the parent, and ruthlessness in dealing with the child to force complete submission. In relation to the OYD National Strategy, there seems to be an interesting interaction between the usual community biases and parental motivations. It appears that most traditional treatment agencies operate on the assumption that the youth is sick. Parents appear to be more than ready to agree with this assumption rather than to subject their own behavior to any close examination. Individual counseling for the child is less expensive and less threatening than family therapy and the latter is apparently less frequently offered by many traditional agencies. D'Angelo feels strongly that the emphasis on psychiatric treatment of the child is a "misallocation" of community resources. The OYD National Strategy would similarly suggest that the focus of effort should be the family institution as such and the negative or pathological interactions

that take place within the institution. An alternative parental response is complete capitulation on the part of the parents to every whim and demand of the runaway child. D'Angelo suggests that this is an equally maladaptive response on the part of the parents. Other sources suggest that some parents adopt a "couldn't care less" approach, with a completely apathetic attitude regarding the recovery of a runaway child. This latter response appears to be less frequent than the two responses described initially.

Parents of the runaway child may try a number of strategies to locate him. They may contact the metropolitan newspapers (which have increasingly begun to run pictures of runaways) or the Missing Persons Bureau. The hippie communities, to which many youth run, may contain grapevines like the Haight-Ashbury switchboard, or bulletin boards where information is passed and personal messages left. As a last resort, some desperate parents may invade hippie gathering areas to personally search for their missing children ("The Runaways," Time, September 15, 1967.)

Bock and English (Got Me on the Run, 1973) note that there is a difference between merely notifying the Missing Persons Bureau and swearing out a warrant for a runaway child's arrest. When the Missing Persons Bureau is contacted, police voluntarily search for the runaways with the usual goal of returning them home without legal action. If a warrant is issued, however, the police are obligated to search for the runaways and arrest them when they are found. A court hearing must then take place. Bock and English feel that many parents are confused about the difference in the mechanics of each of these two circumstances. They therefore swear out a warrant, not intending to put into motion the judicial process to which both they and their child are then subjected.

MOTIVES AND REASONS FOR RUNNING AWAY

Two General Approaches in Research

R. Shellow et. al. in "Suburban Runaways of the 1960's" state that most earlier studies of runaways have adopted one of two approaches. The first is that running away points up individual psychopathology. The other is that running away is an adaptive response to situational pressures. They feel the differences in these viewpoints are mainly due to the populations from which the different samples are drawn. Studies of runaways sent to juvenile courts, to clinics used by courts and police, or to correctional institutions, for instance, consistently report findings of delinquent and psychologically disturbed runaways. Those earlier studies on the other hand, which based their conclusions on non-correctional institution samples of runaways more frequently see the act as a healthy way of responding to intolerable situations.

Running as an Adaptive Response

Girl Runaways from Suburbia

Rosenwald and Mayer (1967) suggest that running away is an unsuccessful attempt at resolving family conflict. It is seen as an attempt to achieve independence which these authors feel is more self-destructive than other possible means. However, other adaptive responses by girls to family strains appear to be limited, and girls' outlets and activities are very restricted. This is seen as compounded by rigid middle class, future-

oriented goals seen as imposed upon such girls.

Runaway as a reaction to Middle Class Affluence

Margetts ("Why Executives' Children Run Away," 1968) also subscribes to the adaptive response viewpoint. She believes that children of executives today reject their parents' affluent, materialistic way of life. Such youth may feel a sense of futility because affluence does not solve their problems. They appear to see their parents as dishonest and hypocritical. The Runaway Act is one form of rebellion against this type of family situation. It has also been reported in Time magazine (Sept. 15, 1967) that youth may be running from the values and life-style of their parents, i.e. the materialistic competition rat-race, and lack of human values. These hypotheses have been criticized by some recent authors, e.g. Homer (1973) who sees such explanations of the runaway act as a "myth" stemming from the Haight-Ashbury era.

Runaway as stemming from a general crisis of the "American Family"

The U.S. News and World Report (April 24, 1972) attributes much running away to the current condition of the American family. It is stated that many youth today are separated from parental love by external pressures to get ahead, pressures to spend more time working and consequently less time with the family. Family mobility, which also seems to be generic to many American families, strips the family of its secondary ties and peripheral relatives so that only the nuclear family unit remains. Poor family situations, high divorce rates, and broken homes are seen to be important causal factors relating to the runaway behavior of youth in America.

Runaway from a Tense Family: A Psychoanalytic Theory of the Runaway Motive

Robey et. al. ("The Runaway Girl: A Reaction to Family Stress," 1964) offers a family situation causing stress for girls. They suggest that tension rises in a family as fear of incest comes close to the consciousness of all family members. The father becomes too restrictive because he fears incest. The mother appears to reinforce and push the daughter into an incestuous relationship with the father. Such stresses are seen as important motivating factors in the decision of the daughter to run away.

Additional Family-Related motives for Running Away

Peters' interviews five runaways ("The Riddle of the Teenage Runaways," 1968) to get their reasons for running. Four of the five clearly left homes, he feels, because of bad relationships with one or both parents. Three of the five had been beaten.

Baer mentions briefly ("Taxonomic Classification of Male Delinquents from Autobiographical Data and Subsequent Recidivism," 1970) that because of conditions within the home, "stubborn-child runaways" may be motivated by feelings of worthlessness, disappointment, or not belonging anywhere.

Ambrosino (Runaways, 1971) suggests that some children run from a home "torn by" divorce, desertion, promiscuity, or alcoholism. She also suggests that exploration might be a motive, especially since it is intrinsic to adolescence.

D'Angelo (1974) similarly presents evidence to contrast the much poorer home situation of the runaway in contrast to the non-runners.

Running as a Search for Adventure

Wattenberg's ("Boys who Ran Away From Home," 1956) study yields a single major conclusion. It suggests that the main motivation for boys'

running away from home is a search for adventure and an effort to exercise independence. Homer (1973) discusses a class of runaway girls whom she sees as essentially in search of freedom, pleasure, etc. These are known as "running to" type runaways. It appears that their family situation is not especially critical, but simply too constrained for such girls.

Typologies and Differential Motivations of Runaways

Robins ("Mental Illness and the Runaway..." 1958) offers three motivational patterns for his psychologically defined types of runaways. Among those children later diagnosed "sociopathic personalities," running away seemed to be a response to a desire for adventure. In those later diagnosed as "psychotic" running away seemed unrelated to any external events but was described as wandering off without reason or destination. Those children labelled "psychiatrically normal" as adults, ran away to escape punishment.

English ("Leaving Home: A Typology of Runaways," 1973) also presents several motivational patterns for his development of typology of runaways. The "floaters" use running away to release home tension. "Runaways" remain away much longer than do floaters, either to get out of a destructive family situation, to call attention and maybe bring help to an unhappy family situation, or to escape discovery of a pregnancy. The "splitters" find their new deviant identity and the preferred treatment they receive (upon returning home) appealing so they stay at home until boredom and routine encourage them to try leaving again. Each time this group leaves, their desire to cope with school and family problems is thought to grow weaker, making it easier to keep splitting. The "hard road freak" has completely rejected the straight life and the streets have become his way of life.

Berger and Schmidt ("Results of Child Psychiatric and Psychological Investigations of Spontaneous and Reactive Runaways," 1958), divide runaways into two groups. "Spontaneous runners", they state, have an urge for a change of environment, for flight, and for motor activity. "Reactive runners," on the other hand, reject their parents and school situations, and run away in response to a need to be considered an adult. This also seems to reduce to Homer's "Running from" and "Running to" categories of motives.

Levy (1972) outlines categories of girls running away from a residential treatment center. The groups are classified according to those who run in angry defiance, out of "psychotic disorganization," desire for escape, and out of need for fusion with parents.

Tsunts divides ("Dropouts on the Run," 1971) runaways in the Soviet Union into two groups. The first group, the "romantics" imagine themselves as young adventurers. The second group is more vaguely those "with a tendency toward vagrancy." He suggests that the latter group begins running in protest of some harsh domestic conflict.

Miscellaneous Papers dealing with Reasons and Motives for Running Away

Chamberlin suggests there are four types of motivation for running away ("Running Away During Psychotherapy," 1960), which runaway patients exhibit. One motivation is the need to show independence in relationships characterized by high levels of dependence. Another is the need to express hostility. The need to be loved and to test this love and the need to raise self-esteem are also present. The patient, by running away, asks, "How much effort am I worth?"

Foster states that the most frequently verbalized reason he found

for running away is a fear of returning home because of anticipated punishment for misbehavior at school or for staying out too late at night ("Intrapsychic and Environmental Factors in Running Away from Home," 1962).

Tobias cites thirty different reasons for leaving home ("The Affluent Suburban Runaway," 1970). Among them are escaping family and school problems, adventure, drugs and "other anti-social behavior," mental illness, and pregnancy.

Hildebrand ("Why Runaways Leave Home," 1963) suggests several motivations for running away. One is a poor home environment--broken homes, neglected home, immoral conditions. Another family-related problem is discipline regarding topics such as late hours, disobedience and stubbornness, selection of friends and hangouts and family prejudices. School, mental illness, sex, pregnancy, wishing to live with a member of the opposite sex are also included among reasons for running away.

RUNAWAY YOUTH AND THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

We now turn to the actual patterning of events within the juvenile justice system as they relate to runaway youth. Police practices, court and correctional institution practices are examined in turn. The relationships of other social institutions to the legal institutions and the law are then briefly discussed. Some suggestions for modifications of current legal practices as they relate to youthful runaways are then examined.

Police Action

If a warrant of arrest is requested by the parents, responsibility is handed to the authorities. The arresting officer can be a policeman, probation officer, constable, or any official legally authorized to make arrests. These persons have considerable leeway in handling the minor. Ambrosino (Runaways, 1971) suggests that youth over 18 are rarely bothered by police, but runaway suspects under 17 are particularly subject to detention by police. Laws against disorderly conduct, hitchhiking, and drug and alcohol use are among those commonly brought to bear on runaways (Ambrosino, 1971).

If the parents or other responsible adults cannot be located or if a youth will not reveal his identity, he will be held in detention until court is in session. At the time of arrest or detention, the runaway has the right to know whether he is being arrested or detained and on what grounds. By law, minors and juveniles should not be held in adult jails with older offenders. This law is not always observed (Ambrosino, 1971).

An Example of Police Action in Other Countries (Russia)

According to Tsunts ("Dropouts on the Run," 1971) police are the major authorities involved in handling runaways in Russia. Much effort goes

into arresting and detaining runaways in juvenile delinquent quarters and then in reception and placement centers for up to two to three weeks. Finally, the children are sent home under escort, where the officers receive signed receipts for the runaways. Little effort is spent in investigating the children's motives for running, the family situations, or in intervening if the situation should warrant it.

Court Procedures

In cities with heavy court dockets, juvenile runaway cases may be settled in a court intake section staffed by social workers and other professionals (Ambrosino, 1971). Many runaways who have been arrested, however, must go through a court hearing before a judge. D'Angelo suggests in Families of Sand, 1974, that the juvenile courts are "hopelessly ill-equipped" to consider the health, education, and personal needs of these children in the 10 to 15 minutes allotted to most juvenile court hearings.

Not only is the time insufficient to handle runaways carefully and individually, but some authors feel the juvenile court system is geared to deprive juveniles of their legal rights in a trial situation. Bock and English, for instance, point to the first Juvenile Court Act which changed the procedures for handling young offenders in 1899. They note that although the intent of the Act was to initiate a corrective rather than a punitive approach in dealing with juveniles, it deprived juveniles of the right to a lawyer, it allowed the judge to consider offenses for which there was no prohibitive law, and also cast aside the required establishment of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. The Act granted extensive power to the judge which may or may not be used wisely or kindly.

Bock and English feel that children in court today are at the mercy of officials. The interaction between judge and runaway appears to depend

as much on personal factors as on laws and procedures. The judge's actions may well depend on the child's attitude--repentant or not. To make the child feel even more impotent, those who are bringing charges against him, i.e., his parents, are the very ones who must decide whether he may have legal representation.

Sentencing

The judge in a runaway case has several sentencing options. The case may be dismissed. The case may be continued with no finding, and the child may be placed on probation with the understanding that the judge may either dismiss or make a finding at a later date. The judge may make a finding on the spot, and assign probation, which may be withdrawn at any time leaving only an unofficial record on the youth. Lastly, the judge might make a finding and sentence the child to a correctional institution, effective immediately or suspended depending on the child's behavior. Whatever the outcome, some authors, e.g., Bock and English believe that runaways who are actually taken to court cannot escape the stigma of "a record." It is felt by such authors that these youth, whether judged delinquent or not, may see themselves as "illegal persons" and may also be subjected to such labeling by others.

Correctional Institutions

A number of authors view juvenile correctional institutions negatively. Bock and English (1973) suggest that any semblance of moral treatment in state supported correctional institutions has degenerated into mere custodial care. They hold that children of wealthy families can avoid the "degradation" of these institutions through payment for alternative forms of treatment. This leaves the children of poor families to be the majority in the institutions. Ambrosino (1971) suggests that some children are sent to state institutions only because there is no available alternative for them.

Runaways and the Legal System Practices

Ambrosino (1971) notes that because there are cruel, incapable, and irresponsible parents and difficult children, the state through law theoretically provides protection for each from the possible excesses of the other. This suggests, however, that in actuality, the present practices are inadequate, inappropriate, and expensive. In 1967, for instance, it is reported that each San Francisco runaway cost the city taxpayers \$100 to \$150. The total spent on runaways who were not even brought to trial was \$100,000. She sees a current tendency to let the police play middlemen between runaway and their families. This kind of responsibility, she feels, should not lie with the police.

Social Agencies Difficulties

The law can complicate the problems of social agencies in dealing with runaways. For instance, harboring a runaway minor is technically a criminal offense. The Assistant Prosecutor for the First District Circuit Court of Westpoint has pointed out that any person voluntarily aiding runaways, particularly very young ones, can be liable for criminal prosecution with a maximum of five years imprisonment and a \$500 fine. In addition, D'Angelo (1974) notes that parents have the legal right of custody and control by law. Because of the law, the child is not permitted to seek or initiate a treatment program for a personal problem. Consequently, most runaway centers have rules demanding that the runaways call their parents before accepting help. (Even then, the home situation can be so disastrous that the phone call is of little use and parents are often angry at outside interference into family problems, Newsweek, October 26, 1970).

Desires for Change

Ambrosino (1971) reports that some agencies are working to overcome

this problem. A few have worked out 24-hour agreements with the police, giving some time to counsel the runaway. Other agencies favor a provision in the law allowing licensed or authorized professionals a 24-to-48-hour period during which the runaway youth can be given shelter, food and some efforts can be directed towards solving the problems which lead to the runaway episode.

A View of Runaway Laws

Green ("Runaways on the Legal Leash", 1971) offers the view that runaway laws violate several American concepts of civil liberty. He feels that it is a "serious infringement of personal freedom" to be compelled to live in "undesired company". This author proposed that the "prohibition of involuntary servitude" under the Thirteenth Amendment might be employed today to end "Fugitive Child Laws" as it did the Fugitive Slave Laws. He also suggests that runaway laws can be construed as violations of the constitutionally established "right to travel." Green does not favor a child leaving home; he opposes the use of state machinery to track down runaways, give them a police record, and forcefully return them to their homes.

Predicting Legal Trouble As Adults

Robins and O'Neal ("The Adult Prognosis for Runaway Children", 1959) report that they found running away as a child to be an offense which did prognosticate a "poor adult outcome." Runaways, they say, have an adult arrest rate almost twice that of other Child Guidance Clinic patients, an adult incarceration rate four times that of other clinic patients, and a 50% higher divorce rate. They suggest that a runaway has a high probability of becoming involved in further serious antisocial behavior in childhood. This in turn frequently leads to appearance before juvenile court and in some cases to commitment to a juvenile correctional institution.

Suggestions

D'Angelo (Families of Sand, 1974) points to some areas of need in the juvenile justice system. He feels the public needs to be better informed about conditions and operating procedures in detention facilities. The Juvenile Court should take more advantage of community facilities. He suggests decentralization of the administration of the juvenile justice system and staffing the different branches with well-trained officers who know how to use community resources. He calls for more follow-up contact with youth on probation and parole, and consultation with human relations experts in dealing with matters of responsibility within families. He feels the news media should provide more support and public exposure to positive results obtained through the system and its related programs. D'Angelo also offers suggestions specific to detention homes. The detention home should be oriented to rehabilitation rather than to disciplinary action and should have salaries and standards for hiring high enough to attract capable people. Human relations professionals should be hired to work regularly with staff and inmates. Some form of inmate self-government should be worked out jointly by staff and inmates. More resourceful educational programming including arts and crafts and physical exercise should be implemented. The interiors of the detention homes should be made pleasant. More volunteers need to be recruited to work with youth in the juvenile justice system. Laws need to be changed so that youth may receive assistance from mental health clinics, family counseling agencies, and legal aid independent of their parents. A Bill of Rights for youth is recommended with youth participating in drafting it.

THE TREATMENT AND COUNSELING OF RUNAWAYS

Treatment and Aid Institutions for Runaways

In dealing with the "services and treatments" that are available for runaway youth, it has seemed appropriate to deal with three general categories of services. The division is not clear-cut and there is obviously some blurring and overlap. However, one general class of services might be regarded as "Runaway homes, shelters, and Half-way Houses" which in a fundamental sense lie outside of the formal Juvenile Justice System. They represent alternatives to this system. There might be innumerable differences between such runaway shelters, yet, they have the important feature in common that they are not associated with the Justice System and may have the profound advantage that they do not "stigmatize" youth to the same degree. The second major class of "treatment" possibilities are those which lie within the Justice System. Detention centers and correctional institutions, for instance, fall into this category. Finally we have isolated the various forms of "Counseling" for special discussion. After presenting descriptions of these three classes in relation to runaway youth, we present a section of criticism of each class. All three have been criticized by different authors. These criticisms have been collected and presented in this section. Finally we gather together some of the various suggestions and proposals which have appeared in the literature regarding the treatment of runaways.

Social Service Organizations and Volunteer Programs for Runaways

Temporary homes for runaways or "halfway houses" are now in operation in many large U.S. cities. They are frequently manned by volunteers, surviving on limited funds with varying degrees of community support. These houses generally provide some counseling and referral services to the runaway, in addition to food and shelter for a period ranging from one or two days to two weeks. According to law, they must insist that runaways under 17 years of age obtain parental permission to stay at the house. House rules usually include a curfew, a ban on sex, drugs and theft. (Ambrosino, 1971, Bock 1973; U.S. News and World Report, April 24, 1972).

The aims of half-way houses and similar institutions are to meet the immediate needs of the runaway--needs which include food, shelter, clothing, medical care, a sympathetic atmosphere, and frequently counseling. Reconciliation with the family is usually the ultimate goal.

In order to gain the confidence and trust of runaways, these houses approach youth on their own terms with regard to dress, language, style and spirit. This stems from a belief that a more formal organization may be associated with the same "straight," "demanding," "establishment" authority from which the youth is trying to escape. (Ambrosino, 1971). Although many of the personnel are volunteers, some professionals are also available. Individual counseling may be provided for the runaway. In some cases family counseling and therapy is given with continued individual counseling after the youth has returned home.

The Travelers Aid is a nationwide organization located in most large cities, providing various services such as emergency financial aid,

referrals to agencies, and other information. (Ambrosino, 1971)

"Hotlines" or "crisis lines" operate in many areas to provide information and some counseling over the phone to youth and others in trouble (Ambrosino, 1971).

A runaway service may be a combination of hotline, half-way house, and counseling. In Westport, Connecticut, for example, a call to Phone-a-Home will provide a runaway with counseling and possible placement in a volunteer foster home for one or two days while an attempt is made to help the youth resolve his problem (Brooks, 1972).

A new concept in prevention is illustrated in "Operation Eye-Opener" which is run by St. John's Lutheran Church in New York City's Greenwich Village. Busloads of youth from out of town are taken on tours of the runaway haunts, jails, and courtrooms, with the goal of destroying the myth of a runaway "haven" in this area (Surface, 1970).

Juvenile Justice System Institutions

A runaway may be sent to a detention center if held in custody after arraignment. If the disposition of the hearing requires commitment to an institution, the youth may again be placed in a detention center to await final placement in an institution. Bock (1973) describes a detention center in Massachusetts, reporting a dilapidated and depressing building, lack of privacy, lack of recreational facilities, and a jail-like atmosphere. This description would appear to be typical.

Correctional institutions in Massachusetts are similar to the detention centers. They tend to lack stimulating activities (which acts to channel all constructive energy into restlessness and boredom). They are seen to impose a dehumanizing routine with harsh punishment for running

away. (Bock, 1973).

Counseling as Part of Runaway Treatment

According to Bock (1971) an ideology of "treatment" is replacing that of "reform" and "punishment." Similarly, D'Angelo (1974) reports that "runaways are increasingly being thought of as kids with emotional problems... Running away is seen as a self-destructive form of acting out." Thus, either the youth or his family is deemed disturbed and in need of treatment. This trend toward treating running away as a sickness has led to the development of alternatives to the juvenile justice system; for example in 1972 the Blue Hills Program of the Boston Juvenile Court gave 'first time offenders the option of participating in a diversion program including such treatment alternatives as individual psychotherapy, group or family therapy, and academic or vocational counseling (Bock).

Such therapy is available in most areas through the courts, youth or family guidance clinics, and private agencies.

Several studies discuss individual therapy for runaways. Homer (1973) reports that different types of runaways respond differently to therapy, thus necessitating flexible methods of treatment. Having presented evidence that runaways tend to have a low self-concept, Levinson and Mezei (1970) maintain that the goals of counseling should be the development of self-esteem, and self-acceptance. In a study of impulsivity in adolescents, Weinreb (1960) emphasizes the need for a therapist who will acknowledge and accept the runaway's impulses, and at the same time, help the youth develop the idea of postponement of gratification.

Family counseling is reportedly useful in several ways (Bock, 1971).

It stimulates intra-family communication in time of crisis. By involving the whole family, it lessens the focus on the youth alone as "the problem." It may clarify hidden perceptions and expectations parents have of a youth, resulting in "liberation" and more realistic mutual expectations by both parents and youth. Family counseling may be especially helpful in the case of a runaway whose aim is not to leave his parents, but rather to set the basis of a new kind of relationship with them.

There has been special emphasis in the literature on involvement of the mother when treating a runaway girl. Simultaneous treatment of mother and daughter, with a focus on improving their relationship, is seen as essential in resolving the problems leading to the runaway episode (Robey, 1964; Rosenwald and Mayer, 1967).

Bock reports that some runaways are sent to mental hospitals or similar treatment centers. Temporary commitment for diagnosis or evaluation may sometimes extend to several months.

Criticisms of Treatment Programs

Runaway Homes, etc. and Non-Juvenile Justice System Institutions

Although runaways are generally positive in their feelings toward runaway houses, parental criticism may include a feeling that the houses are too permissive and are aligned against the parent. (Follow-up Study of Runaway Youth Served by the Bridge, 1972; Marks, 1973). The literature contains little critical comment on this type of non-justice system alternative for runaways.

Juvenile Justice System Institutions

It has been suggested (D'Angelo, 1974) that criminal detention may

hinder rehabilitation since it frequently ignores issues basic to runaways' problems, while at the same time confinement may instill anger in the youth. In order to achieve the goal of rehabilitation, humane and individual treatment is seen as being fundamental in detention policy. Bock also mentions the dehumanization and lack of stimulating activities in detention centers. D'Angelo believes that the detention strategy is a "dead end street," "too simple to be effective and more likely to perpetuate the problem."

Bock criticizes the class prejudice of juvenile correctional institutions in Massachusetts. Of the youth committed to the Department of Youth Services (which runs the institutions), 90% are from families receiving some kind of welfare. According to Bock, wealthy families are able to arrange for cases to be dismissed, or obtain and pay for alternate forms of treatment.

Counseling Approaches

Several sources criticize the current excessive use of psychiatric treatments. Homer (1973) warns that counseling may be an imposition of values on those who neither want nor need such help at the time. Bock (1973) also criticizes the trend to impose therapy on the youth or his family "in the interest of social conformity." He claims that such treatment denies people the right to responsibility for themselves. In addition, he criticizes the assumption that families must be maintained even at the cost of the individual. Finally, the label of "sick" or "disturbed" which many runaways are given, can be just as detrimental to the youth as the stigma of a police record.

The therapy itself is criticized for its tendency to focus on negative attributes of the youth rather than on strengths. (Bock). Therapy may not always be advantageous because of the tendency by many counselors to act in loco parentis and impose solutions on the youth.

D'Angelo (1973) points out that since family counseling as such is not covered by medical insurance agencies, families are motivated to contact clinical psychologists or psychiatrists for individual therapy, thus furthering a tendency to treat the child as "sick" rather than dealing with the family situation.

Current Suggestions and Proposals Regarding Treatment of Runaways

It has been suggested that there is a lack of preventive programs dealing with the problem of runaways. Few resources exist to help the youth or family resolve interpersonal conflicts before the runaway episode. Furthermore, these resources are not fully exploited since by law social agencies cannot serve a youth without his parents' consent (D'Angelo, 1973). There is a need for studies of psychological and sociological factors as a foundation for establishing programs with a preventive focus, as opposed to the current custodial focus. (D'Angelo).

Given the belief that runaways tend to perform poorly at school, one type of preventive program might aim to increase the ability of the school system to tolerate students who are not academically oriented. (Shellow, 1967).

A study by Goldmeier (1973) reports that runaways tend to avoid adults and instead turn to peers for aid. Consequently, it is suggested that greater use be made of peers in treatment programs.

Shellow (1967) also suggests the establishment of an emergency aid service to help families during the crisis of a runaway episode.

D'Angelo believes that whenever possible, responsibility for resolving differences should be given to the family members themselves, rather than being handled by the courts. He suggests the establishment of a locally appointed Human Resources Panel, consisting of clergymen, human relations specialists, and lawyers, whose function would be to review complaints of a non-criminal nature against family members. Such a panel would have the authority to assign probation and to recommend dispositions and follow-up services, including referral to the courts as a last resort.

With regard to the humanization of juvenile correctional institutions, D'Angelo suggests that volunteer workers in these institutions provide alternative activities and a greater link with the community. Citizens advisory councils can be influential in liberalizing the "rigid administrative orientation" of many justice institutions. (Further recommendations can be found in the section on the juvenile justice system).

D'Angelo maintains that basic institutional programs need to be changed; too much emphasis on "alternate" programs may result in a failure to deal with the core of the problem. Thus, innovative programs should be incorporated into existing institutions (schools, courts, social agencies, etc.).

Two bills currently being considered by Congress would provide additional services for runaways. A bill proposed by Senator Mondale would spend thirty million dollars for hotlines, neighborhood centers, and other youth services. Another bill, the Runaway Youth Act, incorporates a

two-step procedure: 1) a short stay at a temporary shelter, followed by return home and 2) family counseling. Bock claims that this plan is not flexible enough because 1) some youth may legitimately need to stay away from home for a long time, 2) some should perhaps return home without therapy, 3) for others, individual counseling might be more appropriate than family counseling, and 4) some runaways should not return home at all but require an alternative home.

APPROACHES TO THE EXPLANATION OF RUNAWAY BEHAVIOR
THROUGH CREATING TYPOLOGIES OF RUNAWAYS

There are obviously a number of competing theories and variables regarding the "explanation" of runaway behavior among youth. The creation of a small number of explanatory categories or processes represents one approach to the integration of all of these competing variables. Order and conceptual clarity can be gained through the accurate delineation of a few fundamental processes which lie behind the innumerable variations which have been outlined in the previous section. The runaway literature contains numerous attempts to cut through the mass of evidence and create such explanatory classes through the delineation of a typology of runaways (Chamberlin 1960, Levy 1972, Tsunts 1971, Rosenwald 1967, Shinohara and Jenkins 1967, English 1973, Berger et. al. 1958, Homes 1973, Shellow 1967).

The studies quoted above are valuable in the sense that they do provide considerable conceptual simplification of the runaway phenomenon. They may be criticized, however, on the grounds of inadequate validation, undue limitations of the classificatory "frame of reference," inadequate methodology, and considerable lack of generality regarding many of the samples used. The following table provides some basic information to clarify the different focus and methodologies of the above typological analyses of runaways. A word of explanation may be necessary regarding the meaning of the "Classification frame of reference." We use this term to denote the specific variables which were used to create the categories or classes of runaways. Typological research can sometimes involve numerous classification

variables more or less covering some "substantive domain." An important and crucial step in most typological exercises is to specify the exact "domain" to which the typology should be relevant. Disagreements between the typologies of different authors may quite legitimately be expected if the focus, and frame of reference, differ between the typologies.

Table (1.0) Typologies of Runaways offered by Different Authors

Author	Data Source	Classificatory Domain	No. of Types and Abbreviated Labels of each Type	Method of Creating the Typology
Homer (1973)	20 girl runaways obtained from Probation Division	Motives, reasons for Leaving	Two Types: 1) Running to (pleasures, freedom from constraint) 2) Running from (bad home situation, etc)	Conceptual development following intensive case studies.
Shellow et. al. (1967)	Missing Person records through police department Adolescent Section. Family and Child Interviews plus record searches. Large control samples obtained.	1. Numerous social and personal characteristics 2. Related Delinquent Behavior	Two Types: 1) Non-disturbed (infrequent) runners--similar to most ordinary youth. 2) Disturbed runaways: Individual or family pathology	Intensive case study and data analysis allowed conceptual development of this typology.
Tsunts (1971)	Not given	Motives for running	Two Types: 1) Adventurers, Romantics, seeking new experiences 2) Running from bad family situations, domestic conflicts, etc.	Conceptual
Berger et. al. (1958)	Psychiatric and Psychological studies of 36 runaways	Motives and personality characteristics	Two Types: 1) Spontaneous runaways (inherent urge for change, and new environments) 2) Reactive runaways (conflicts with and rejection of family and school)	Conceptual development following intensive case studies
English (1973)	Extensive counseling of 300+ runaways in a Runaway Center	Motives and street experience	Four Types: 1) Floaters (multiple motives, inexperienced) 2) Runaways (multiple motives, more frequent runaway episodes) 3) Splitters (more delinquent, "enjoys" the street experience) 4) Hard Road Freaks (older, totally committed to the "street" way of life, hustlers)	Conceptual, following the author's intensive counseling experience

Table (1.1) continued

Author	Data Source	Classificatory Domain	No. of Types and Abbreviated Labels of each Type	Method of Creating the Typology
Rosenwald (1967)	Suburban Female Adolescent Offenders	Psychological Characteristics	<p>Four Types:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The Hyper-Mature (seductive, provocative, physically mature, plus other psychological motives) 2) The Hypo-Mature. (depressed, immature, frightened) 3) Impulse-ridden (immature, provocative, acting-out) 4) Unclassifiable (mixed characteristics) 	Method not given in the available review--would appear to be theoretically developed from a psychoanalytic perspective
Shinohara and Jenkins (1967)	300 Training School Boys	Delinquent Behavior and Personality Characteristics	Three general Delinquent types are postulated, only one of which is a Runaway type	Quantitative classification through cluster analysis was followed by a validation study using the MMPI
Levy (1972)	Patients (girls) running away from a Treatment Center	Motives and Psychological Characteristics	<p>Five types:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Running out of angry defiance 2) Psychotic disorganization 3) Desire for escape 4) Desire to be on one's own 5) Desire to be with parents 	Inferences from data on follow-up of cases of runaway girls
Chamberlin (1960)	Psychotherapy patient who runs away	Motivation	<p>Four Types of Motivation:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) To show independence, to express hostility 2) From fear of being hurt 3) From a need to be loved 4) From a need to express self-esteem and to raise self-esteem. <p>The author shows how these interact with one another.</p>	Conceptual statement based on extensive counseling

Two General Classes of Runaways

In summarizing all of the above typologies, it is clear that the first four bear a high similarity to one another i.e. the studies by Homer (1973), Shellow et. al. (1967), Tsunts (1971) and Berger et. al. (1958). These studies all suggest that there are two general classes of runners. Although each article uses different samples, different data collection procedures and different terminology, it would appear that they are all referring to a similar dichotomy related to whether the runaway act is a reaction to an extremely pathological home (peer) school situation, or, on the other hand, a search for freedom, enjoyment of new pleasures, and a breaking of constraints. Berger's "spontaneous runner", Homer's "Running to" group, Tsunt's "Romantic adventurers" and Shellow's "non-disturbed" type all seem to have in common an absence of any serious pathology. If this is so, then the psychological treatment of this type would seem to be pointless. Homer, in fact, finds that the treatment and counseling of this type is simply not effective. The second, or more disturbed pathological type also appears to have much in common across the four typologies.

Before accepting these typologies it might be wise to consider some criticisms:

1. All of these appear to be conceptually derived statements, either based on extensive experience, interviewing, or on bivariate data analysis. None of the four appear to have used quantitative typological procedures in generating their typologies. This leaves an urgent need for validation

studies based on objective reliable quantitative methods and good reliable data.

2. There appears to be a somewhat narrow focus to all of the above studies. Three of them (Homer 1973, Tsunts 1971, and Berger 1958) focus largely on motives; while Shellow in fact acknowledges that there is more than one reason for being "disturbed." This raises the possibility that the "two-type runaway classification" is perhaps an oversimplification. A typology which is more broad-based in its classificatory domain might be considerably more useful in revealing more of the different causal processes related to the runaway act. Although the general typology as presented by these authors has considerable appeal due to its conceptual simplification, an expansion of the typology through additional differentiation of the two basic types would appear to be a much more accurate representation of the world and perhaps, as a result, a more useful tool on which to base programs, etc.

More Specific Typologies of Runaways

Aside from the first four typologies which suggest that there are two generalized types of runners, each of the remaining typologies mentioned in the above table appears to focus on a partial aspect of the runaway phenomenon and so cannot be taken as a reflection of a general runaway typology.

1. A developmental typology: Four stages of experience

The typology by English (1973) is limited to motivational and behavioral descriptive material. The author suggests four, apparently successive, stages in the development of runaways. The study is based essentially

on the author's experience as a counselor. However, there may be much general validity in the four categories of runners that are described. Descriptions of these four categories are also provided later in the Bibliographic Summary of English's article. The inexperienced "Floater" group appears to be the youngest, most vulnerable, and most ready to return home after one or two days. It is implied that if they have an unsuccessful or unpleasant experience, they may not return to the streets. However, if they meet persons who are helpful, or if they survive easily, then the reinforcement provided could stimulate them to try the experience again if the "Runaway" group is seen as having a number of more compelling reasons for running away. Serious or pathological family situations, pregnancy, etc., are given as such reasons. The runaway act is seen as a "healthy psychological response" to some of these situations. Runaways appear to "run" more frequently and for longer duration. They become, therefore, somewhat more "street-wise" than Floaters. The "Splitter" appears to be the next stage in this developmental sequence. This type has run away and returned much more frequently. He probably has been assigned to a social worker and is in this sense "labelled." His major characteristic seems to be that he has greatly enlarged the number of problems that pre-dispose him to "split", and secondly that he has been "away" often enough and is sufficiently "street-wise" that he (or she) can look after himself (herself) very well and appears to thoroughly enjoy the runaway escapade and find excitement in it. The description given by English appears similar to that given by Homer (1973) for the "Running to" type of female runaway. Finally the "Hard Road Freak" is seen as an older hustler, probably deeply involved in various delinquent or criminal acts, who has more or less given up conventional values

and who finds his major reality and "Status" among the "street people."

Psychological Typologies of Runaways

Rosenwald's (1967) classification of young suburban female runaways contrasts sharply with Homer's classification of female runners in the sense that a completely different classificatory domain of variables is used. Thus whereas Homer's two motivationally-defined types appear to be readily related to the different runaway styles, Rosenwald's psychologically defined types do not have such immediate and understandable relationships to the runaway act. The Hyper-mature, Hypo-mature, and the Impulse-ridden female runners are all presented as differing patterns of psycho-analytic pathologies, each displaying various troublesome symptoms (e.g. sexual provocativeness, depressive features, denial and acting-out, fixation at the oral stage of development, etc.) which are seen to disrupt their relationships with parents, thus leading to the runaway act. Shinohara and Jenkins' (1967) study, although more general in that it aims to generate an overall delinquent typology and is not therefore specifically related to runaways, reveals a very interesting configuration of personality features which are associated with a "Runaway delinquent" type. These have been described previously in the section dealing with characteristics of runaways.

The major issue stemming from this above work is that the psychological features of the runaway, although having some explanatory importance, appear to be too narrow to allow for a full typological development. They represent only a partial aspect of the situation, and a typology based purely on such psychological variables would therefore, in all probability, be only partially representative of the full range and complexity of an

adequate typology of the runaway phenomenon. It would appear that BOTH social (home, peer, school relationships, etc) and psychological (self-concept, personality, motivational, etc.) variables would be minimally required for a good explanatory typology. A criticism of many of the earlier mentioned typological studies, with the possible exception of Shellow et. al. (1967) is that a rather narrow set of variables is abstracted from the much more extensive set of explanatory variables as the basis for typology construction. In the empirical section of this report, we attempt to construct a typology of runaways based on such a wide-ranging classificatory domain.

Repeaters

It has been suggested that youth who run away repeatedly are a distinctive group and must be dealt with separately (Shellow, 1967). Among the repeaters there is evidence of personal and family disorganization, serious difficulties in school, and consistent involvement with law-enforcement agencies. In contrast to the one-timers, Shellow finds that repeaters stay away from home longer, are less likely to return home voluntarily, are less likely to come from middle and upper income families, have lower grades at school, are more often absent from school, are more likely to have been in trouble with the police and courts, and are more likely to drop out of school after running away.

English (1973) has developed a typology of runaways in which the types, "splitters" and "hard road freaks," are recidivists. English maintains that once a youth has run away and returned, "he defines an increasing number of situations as ones that warrant running away"; each time he runs away his tolerance for coping with home and school tensions is reduced. Eventually these youth may become "hard road freaks," runaways who

have broken all ties with home and adopted the streets as a way of life.

Another typology of runaways (Homer, 1973) dichotomizes runaway girls into those who are "running from" and those who are "running to." The latter category is made up of recidivists who run away to find freedom from constraints. Homer finds that these recidivists do not need or respond to therapy focused on home problems; instead, they appear to require external controls to restrict their behavior.

A further comment regarding repeaters is found in the "Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969". This study finds that the majority of multiple runners are females, and that there is a tendency for the number of days missing to increase as the number of runs increases.

Runaways from Institutions

It has been suggested that running away from institutions is a function of the character of the correctional institution as well as personality of the inmates (Lubeck and Empey, 1968). It is shown that organizational changes in both a mediatory and a total organization may result in an increase in the predictive power of personality factors in relation to runaway behavior and a simultaneous decrease in the effects of peer influence. It may be that in the case of inmates with psychological problems these difficulties can be expected to surface under the duress of structural change in the institution. The authors suggest that there may be no uniform sets of personal variables consistently predictive of runaway behavior since correctional institutions differ and may undergo structural changes which appear to have disruptive effects on the inmates.

In a study at the Illinois State Training School for Boys, findings show that white boys, returnees, and rural boys are far more likely to run

away than Black boys, boys committed for the first time, and boys of urban origin. Reduction in the rate of runaways has been attained in this school by the initiation of a program to familiarize the newcomer with the institution and to provide him with supportive contacts, in addition to a program of home visits for which all inmates could readily qualify.

A comparison of male and female runaways from a residential treatment center shows that male runners have experienced a greater number of foster home placements and experiential hardships than male non-runners, while the opposite is found for females (Haupt, 1972). Boys are found to run more than expected by chance in the fall and winter and less in the spring and summer while for females this pattern is reversed. Green and Martin (1973) examine the problem of whether running from a correctional institution reflects a social learning model or whether marked differences in running tendency are prior to social learning. These authors find no evidence to strongly support the learning model.

In a case study of a runaway from a state hospital, Chamberlin (1960) suggests that the real threat of the home situation may be transferred to the institution or therapist, resulting in a distortion of the reality of the current situation.

Selected Summaries of Runaway Articles and Books

To augment the above material and to provide the reader with ready access to the focus and content of much of the literature on runaways, the following abstracts have been prepared. The abstracts are a subset of the full bibliography which can be found at the end of this report. The articles which were chosen to be summarized represent those which appeared to have the most direct relevance to the runaway problem. Some articles, especially recent evaluation reports of runaway houses, were received late and have been included at the end of this list as "late references."

Ambrosino, L. Runaways. Boston: Beacon, 1971

A discussion of the reasons for escape is combined with a description of the problems runaways face, methods of survival, medical and legal consideration, and places where help can be found. An appendix lists by state and city all facilities to aid runaways. The author advocates ways of legitimizing escape since in some cases running away may be healthy and necessary.

Ambrosino, L. "Runaways," Today's Education. 1971
60, 26-28

The author defines the term runaway and gives a few statistics on the problem. She lists several reasons for running away, some of the more popular destinations, and the conditions awaiting runaways in these locations. She touches on the facilities available to help runaways and offers suggestions to teachers and parents of potential runaways. The main approach given is to find out the reasons for running.

Baer, Daniel J., "Taxonomic Classification of Male Delinquents from Autobiographical Data and Subsequent Recidivism," Journal of Psychology. Vol. 76, No. 1, 1970

From a taxonomic analysis of a 75-item biographical questionnaire administered to 60 male delinquents aged 15 1/2 to 17 in Massachusetts, three groups were identified. Chi square analysis showed no significant association between taxonomic classification and subsequent recidivism. One of the types identified was a runaway group.

Berachyahu, M. "Runaway of Children from Home and Educational Institutions," Hahinuh. 1952/53, 25, 438-441. (Psych. Abs. 1955: 585)

The author hypothesizes that an "atavistic nomadism drive", assisted by guilt feelings and feeble-mindedness, is the cause of children running away.

Berger, I., and Schmidt, R. M., "Results of Child Psychiatric and Psychological Investigations of Spontaneous and Reactive Runaways," Prax. Kinderpsychol. Kinderpsychiat. 1958, 7, 206-210. (Psych. Abs. 1959:10482) Foreign Abstract

This article reports on a study of ten boys and two girls classified as "spontaneous runaways" and 20 boys and 4 girls labeled "reactive runaways." The personality dynamics of the conflicts causing the running away seem to vary between the two groups. The author states that the spontaneous runaways had an "inherent urge" for "change of environment, flight, and motor activity" while the reactive group seem to be affected by their rejection of their parents and their need to be considered as adults in addition to their rejection of their school situation.

Bergeron, M. "Juvenile Running Away and Vagrancy," Bulletin Graduate Etud. Psychol., U. Paris, 1952, 6, 309-310. (Psych. Abs. 1954:1279) Foreign Abstract

The article distinguishes between the runaway and the vagrant. The author suggests that it has been proven that juvenile runaways and vagrants

are at the same time the most abandoned and most curable of misadapted youth. It is suggested that public opinion must be alerted so that public agencies can help these youth.

Bock, Richard D. and Abigail English, Got Me on the Run: A Study of Runaways. Boston: Beacon Press, 1973

This book contains a wealth of information on runaway youth. The authors conducted 60 extended interviews with runaway youth and worked as part-time counselors at two runaway houses (in the Boston area). To augment the runaway interviews, many additional interviews were conducted with adults who were involved, e. g., parents, teachers, counselors, legal officials, etc. Motives, backgrounds, and a variety of perceptions of twelve runaway episodes are presented in detail. The experiences of young people on the run, on the street, in juvenile detention centers, and in runaway houses are described. Finally, there is a discussion of the social institutions which have the greatest impact on youth, e. g., family, school, and legal system. There is a discussion of the alternatives that are open to young people who have run away. The authors are generally sympathetic to runaway youth, suggesting that the decision to run away is based on "sound personal reasons."

Brooks, Patricia. "They Can Go Home Again," McCalls, 1972 (January), 99, 57

The article describes "Phone-a-Home," a service for runaways in Westport, Connecticut. A youth may call the organization, speak to a volunteer about his problems, and be placed with a volunteer family for one or two days. Counseling is available for both the youth and his family.

Chamberlin, Cecil R., "Running Away During Psychotherapy," Bulletin of the Meninger Clinic, Vol. 24, 1960

The study examines the case of a 14 year old boy sent to the state hospital from the industrial school because of depression

and self-destructive acts. His interaction with a psychotherapist and various incidences of running away from the institution are discussed. The analysis indicates that running away meets four needs: (1) to seek independence, (2) to express aggression toward authority, (3) to be loved, and (4) to bolster self-esteem.

English, C. J. "Leaving Home: A Typology of Runaways," Society, 1973, 10.

The author proposes a developmental typology of runaways. Floaters, Runaways, Splitters, and Hard Road Freaks represent four successive stages in this development. The author bases this theoretical typology on extensive counseling experience at a drop-in center during 1970 and 1971. The largest and most inexperienced type is called the Floater. These youth toy with running away, test it out, and return home usually within a day or two. They are not confirmed in their running away habits. The Runaway is seen as indulging more frequently in running, has more serious problems at home, and stays away for a longer time, i.e., weeks and even months. Splitters are seen as being much more "turned on" by street culture, being more able to look after themselves without trauma, and more knowledgeable regarding the dangers. Legitimate social rewards such as those gained in school or family are less valued than the excitement of the "street." Finally, Hard Road Freaks are seen as being much fewer in number, much more experienced, older, and of much "higher street status". They tend to be regarded as role models with the street culture. They tend to be more exploitative, and physically aggressive.

Foster, R. M. "Intrapsychic and Environmental Factors in Running Away from Home." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1962, 32

A group of 175 children brought before the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court was divided into runaway and non-runaway delinquents. Each

group was questioned as to parent-child separations, presence of step- or adoptive parents, incidence of physical aggression, and open sexual activity in the home, family mobility, type of delinquency associated with running away, and circumstances surrounding running away. Chi square analyses showed significant differences between the two groups for each of the descriptive variables.

Gold, Martin, Delinquent Behavior in an American City. Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1970

The study is based on interviews of a random sample of 500 youth in Flint, Michigan. The author finds that no typology of offenses can be determined. Instead, delinquency is treated as a matter of degree measured by indexes of frequency and seriousness of offenses for each youth. Various offenses including running away are discussed with regard to their frequency, sex of the offender, circumstances surrounding the offense, and the likelihood and consequences of apprehension. Factors such as social strata, race, age, and sex are discussed in depth. A chapter on delinquent companions suggests that a youth's perception of his peers' delinquency is a potent force in his own delinquency. Findings show that neither official action nor the threat of such action are effective restraints on delinquency. The roles of the home and the school are discussed, especially with respect to the difference in types and frequency of offenses by males and females.

Goldberg, Martin. "Runaway American," Mental Hygiene Vol. 56, Winter 1972

This paper deals with the results of a study of "people in flight," 16 years of age and older, who have recently made several unplanned or poorly planned geographical moves. They are compared to a control group and a group of first-flight individuals. Sociological and background infor-

mation is presented for the sample. Five characteristics are noted as being strongly evident in the flight people: (1) excessive chronic dependency, (2) difficulty with close interpersonal relationships, (3) low frustration tolerance, (4) marked impulsivity, and (5) a tendency to misrepresent themselves involving attempts to maintain anonymity or false identity. Recommendations are made for improving facilities to help these people, especially by means of "half-way houses" which would provide a sense of community.

Goldmeier, John and Robert D. Dean. "The Runaway: Person, Problem, or Situation?" Crime and Delinquency. October, 1973

A questionnaire was administered to a runaway and a non-runaway group with the purpose of comparing these two groups' perceptions of their particular personal and situational circumstances. In contrast to the non-runaways, runaways are reported to have more difficulty getting along with school counselors and teachers, less interest in school, and poorer grades; at home they are more likely to have an unhappy relationship with their parents and to feel that they are unfairly punished. However, both groups are found to have reasonably high self-concepts. It is suggested that running away may be a situational response and a positive aspect of coping where support is sought from peers rather than adults.

Gothberg, L. C. "A Comparison of the Personality of Runaway Girls with a Control Group as Expressed in the Themes of Murray's Thematic Apperception Test," American Journal of Mental Deficiency 1947, 51

Ten girls who had run away at least twice from a school were matched in age, intelligence, and body build with ten girls who had never run away. They were seen individually and asked to interpret certain pictures. The two groups were compared and it was found that runaways (1) have a strong ego and resent being curbed, (2) are more keenly sensitive to their environment and react emotionally to restrictions, and (3) project their anxieties onto people

in authority. They fear to express aggression and so turn it inward to themselves.

Green, J. K., D. N. Martin, "Absconding from Approved Schools as Learned Behavior: A Statistical Study," Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency. Hackensack, New Jersey, 10 (1), 1973

This study focuses on incarcerated youth absconding from approved schools and is not specifically related to the general runaway problem. The methodology used, however, may be relevant to runaway research in terms of understanding the development and distribution of the runaway response. The object of the study is to examine whether absconding could reflect learning rather than individual differences, i.e. if the boys have initial uniform absconding tendencies, the practice of the behavior has rewarding consequences which lead to habituation. The main conclusion was that the sample was significantly heterogeneous at the start of their training. There was no evidence of learning.

Green, Mark J., "Runaways on the Legal Leash," Trial Cambridge, Massachusetts 7 (5), 1971

Runaway laws violate several American concepts of civil liberty. The "right to be left alone" and "the right to travel" are not extended to runaways. Compelling a person to live with undesired company is an infringement of personal freedom. Although the article does not favor children's leaving home, it does oppose the use of state machinery to track them down, give them a police record, and bring them home.

Haupt, Donald N., David B. Offord (Penn. State University Melton S. Hershey Medical Center) "Runaways from a Residential Treatment Center: A Preliminary Report," Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Social Therapy. Vol. 18 (3), 1972

A brief review of the existing literature is presented, offering several definitions of a runaway. The author concludes that the existing

literature shows little agreement on methodology or conclusions. The study looks at groups of male runaways and non-runaways and female runaways and non-runaways from a residential treatment center for emotionally disturbed and delinquent children and adolescents. It reports that runaways averaged three runs each; the average run was for approximately two days; about one-third ran to what they considered their home; about one-third of both sexes ran alone, but more boys than girls were leaders in the action; boys ran more than would be expected by chance in fall and winter, and less in spring and summer; and the reverse pattern appeared for girls. Male runaways scored higher on the hardship scale (social dislocation, physical and sexual abuse), economic status, race, I.Q., and physical appearance than did male non-runners, while the opposite relationship existed between females and female non-runners.

Hetherington, E. Mavis, Roger J. Stouwie, and E. H. Ridberg "Patterns of Family Interaction and Child-Parent Attitudes Related to Three Dimensions of Juvenile Delinquency," Journal of Abnormal Psychology Vol. 78, No. 2, 1971

The sample studied is divided into neurotic delinquent, psychopathic delinquent, social delinquent and non-delinquent groups for which findings regarding differences in family interaction patterns and parental attitudes are presented. "Different configurations of parent interaction and attitudes emerged for the four groups...." The most striking sex differences are interpreted in terms of "consequence with conventional standards of sex-role behavior involving assertiveness and decision making in males and passivity and conformity in females." The authors stress the importance of conceptualizing delinquency as a heterogeneous class of psychopathology and of studying the correlates of dimensions of delinquency separately for males and females. There is no specific mention of runaways as delinquents.

Hiatt, Catherine C. and Ruth E. Spurlock, "Geographical Flight and Its Relation to Crisis Theory," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 40, January, 1970

This article defines the concept of "crisis-flight" as coined by workers in a travelers aid society. They see crisis-flight as a definite pattern of travel in which geographical fleeing has become a habitual way of coping. The author differentiates between groups experiencing a crisis (for whom she feels crisis studies have provided effective intervention techniques) and groups involved in crisis-flight, for whom she feels additional research is urgently needed.

Hildebrand, James A. "Why Runaways Leave Home," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science. 1963, 54 (2)

The author suggests that the runaway "is often the seed of the future felon." He stresses that parents should recognize this predelinquent indicator and accept more responsibility to help their children rather than relying so heavily on community services as is now the trend. His findings suggest that at age 12 both males and females rapidly increase their runaway rate until a peak is reached at age 14 to 15; thereafter, the number of runaway boys decreases while there is a sharp upward trend for girls at 17. Recidivism is highest for boys between the ages of 13 to 15 and then declines, while it steadily increases for girls after age 14. The tendency to remain away from home for more than a day is characteristic of the recidivists and begins with the 13 year olds, increasing with each succeeding group. The article discusses motives for running away such as poor home environment, school difficulties, family discipline and sex.

Homer, L. E. "Community-Based Resource for Runaway Girls," Social Casework. Vol. 54, No. 8, 1973

It is claimed that the runaway problem in America has reached

crisis proportions. Numerous agencies dealing with runaways have sprung up in the last decade and have become institutionalized. The whole "youth subculture" has emerged as a support system for youth and young adults who leave home. There is confusion and much myth regarding the kind of help runaways require; even whether they need help at all. Intervention has generally been of two kinds. Family counseling and therapy to resolve home problems, or the search for good alternatives such as foster homes, represent these main strategies. Twenty young female runaways, aged 13-16, who passed through a probation department were studied. Each girl had a record of multiple runaways. Three types of therapeutic interventions were given. Individual therapy, co-ed counseling group therapy, and family therapy. It is claimed that there is a dearth of documentation on effective therapy for runaways. The author proposes two types of runaway: running to, and running from. "Running from" consists of those whose interpersonal and family conflicts had surpassed their tolerance levels. They were unable to deal with or express their unresolved anger. "Running to" includes those girls who were pleasure seekers. They seek experiences that are forbidden in the home: sex, drugs, liquor, truancy and peer groups, etc. Grievances with parents were minor and there is an inability to internalize controls. The running-from type more frequently goes to a friend's family home, whereas the running-to type goes to peer established shelters. They are more involved in the runaway subculture. Reasons for running similarly differentiated the two types. "Running-from" girls mentioned their poor family situations, whereas the "Running-to" group mentioned their enjoyment of their experiences while running. Most of the runners in both types had broken homes. Recidivism rates were higher in the "Running-to" type than in the "Running-from" type. Running-from respond well to therapy and insight counseling. Running-to show poor or no response to such therapy. These

runaways are seen as not wanting "help," but as wanting to be free from constraints. It is perhaps a waste of energy providing counseling for these girls. An extensive discussion of the differential treatment of the two runaway girl types is given.

Jenkins, Richard L. "The Runaway Reaction," American Journal of Psychiatry 1971

The author discusses the "runaway reaction" as a new diagnostic category, a type of childhood and adolescent behavior disorder. He discusses three major groupings of boys derived through a cluster analysis of the behavioral traits of 300 boys committed to the New York State Training School for Boys. He contrasts a runaway reaction with a delinquent reaction and an "unsocialized aggressive" reaction as to circumstances leading to these different reactions and behaviors. He presents a brief discussion of the treatment recommended for the runaway group which he feels is harder to work with than the other two groups.

Kaufman, J., J. K. Allen and L. J. West. "Runaways, Hippies and Marijuana," American Journal of Psychiatry, November, 1969

The authors discuss runaways who went to Haight-Ashbury in the summer of 1967. These runaways did not exhibit the delinquent characteristics observed by earlier authors, with the exception of drug use. The motivation to use marijuana is explored.

Kessler, Clemm C. and Joan Wieland, "Experimental Study of Risk-Taking Behavior in Runaway Girls," Psychological Reports, Vol. 26, No. 3, June 1970

The hypothesis that runaways take greater risks was tested but not confirmed. Non-runaway girls were greater risk-takers than the runaways. Two possible interpretations are given: --the act of running away could represent a desire to find stability rather than a willingness to gamble; the runaways

could in reality be risk-takers but become wary and conservative when faced with an "establishment game."

Klimesrud, J. "Where Runaways Can Find a Haven,"
The New York Times. May 1, 1972, 38

The services of Project YES (Youth Emergency Service) in New York City are described; this shelter provides a home and counseling for runaways for up to two weeks. Several of the runaways are interviewed and descriptions of their personal backgrounds are presented.

Koller, K. M. "Parental Deprivation, Family Background and Female Delinquency," British Journal of Psychiatry, Vol. 118, No. 544, 1971.

The article reports findings of tests run on 121 delinquent girls in a special Australian Training School. It states that 61.5% of the subjects had experienced the absence of one or both natural parents for at least twelve months before age 15. Over a quarter of the deprived delinquents from broken homes were sent to institutions. It seems that the delinquent girls came from large families and that the intermediate female children of these families were most likely of all the siblings to have become delinquent.

Larsen, Rebecca "Runaways", PTA Magazine. November, 1972, 67

The life style of runaways in California is described. Directors of "crash pads" and the youth themselves are interviewed, providing their personal perceptions of the reasons for running away.

Leventhal, T., "Control Problems in Runaway Children."
Archives of General Psychiatry, 1963, 9, 122-126

The research focuses on the self-regard of the child vis-a-vis his control of external forces. On the basis of ratings of interview data of runaways and non-runaways, it is suggested that deficiencies in external

control (control of one's environment) probably relate to running away. Marked overconcern with loss of control and ego surrender, and some reality distortion by runaways are taken to suggest prepsychotic functioning in this group.

Leventhal, T., "Inner Control Deficiencies in Runaway Children," Archives of General Psychiatry. Vol. 11, 1964

A scale was developed for rating degree of inner control-uncontrol and applied to the descriptive interview data of a runaway and comparable non-runaway group. Findings show that runaways manifest significantly more inner uncontrol: they give more indications of discharge-type behavior (impulsivity, temper tantrums, excessive masturbation, enuresis) of deficient regulatory mechanisms (poor judgement, insufficiencies in cognition and motility) and of a "helpless" self-image. A significant relationship is reported to exist between inner uncontrol and outer uncontrol (control of one's environment).

Levine, Stanley, "Runaways and Research in the Training School", Crime and Delinquency, 8 (January 1962) 40-45

The director of the Illinois State Training School for Boys describes a study using 74 of the school's boys who had run away in the prior 16 months. The group was compared with the overall institutional population.

Levinson, Boris M. and Harry Mezei, "Self-Concepts and Ideal-Self-Concepts of Runaway Youths: Counseling Implications," Psychological Reports. Vol. 26, No. 3, 1970

In this article, 25 boys (16-20 years old) who had run to an Emergency Shelter in New York were studied. They were asked to rate themselves on 19 pairs of Osgood's (1957) Semantic Differential Scales measuring self-concept and ideal-self-concept. It was found that runaways feel a lack

of self-acceptance which (usually indicating a lack of acceptance by others and suggesting difficulty in interpersonal relationships). The authors suggest that the aims in counseling the children would be the development of self-esteem and self-acceptance as well as the establishment of meaning in their lives.

Levy, Edwin Z. (Meninger Foundation, Children's Division Topeka, Kansas) "Some Thoughts About Patients Who Run Away from Residential Treatment and the Staff They Leave Behind," Psychiatric Quarterly, 1972, Vol. 46 (1), 1-21

This article presents an overview of the relevant literature with data and inferences from a follow-up study on runaway patients. The author outlines several categories of runaway girls: those who run out of defiance; out of "psychotic disorganization; desire to be on one's own, and out of need for fusion with parents. (Abstract only)

Lubeck, Steven G. and L. T. Empey, "Mediatory vs. Total Institution: The Case of the Runaway," Social Problems Vol. 16, No. 2, Fall 1968

This article looks at runaways on 30 measures of personal and background characteristics in two correctional institutions for boys, with an eye to predicting and controlling runaway behavior. Events in both a mediatory institution in an urban community and in a total institution were compared. Analyses suggest a complex interaction among organizational characteristics of the inmates, and the incidence of runaways. When dramatic alterations occurred in the two institutions, the measures of personality characteristics took on greater power as behavior predictors. This interaction with the correctional systems is stressed as a more reliable predictor than isolated personality factors. For example, where offenders have psychological problems, those problems may be expected to come to the surface under the stress of structural changes. Offenders in the mediatory institution seemed to run

away because "non-conformists" tended to be forced out of the very cohesive atmosphere. In the total institution, however, structural conditions appeared to have created an anomic condition with a variety of disrupting effects.

Margetts, S., and Feinburg, M. R., "Why do Executives' Children Run Away?" Duns Review, 1968 (January), 91, 40

The article consists of an interview with Dr. Mortimer Feinburg, professor of psychology at the Baruch School of the City College of New York. Dr. Feinburg claims that corporate families are less closely knit than most others and exert tremendous pressure on their children for academic achievement. Other reasons cited for running away are the declining influence of religion, the sense of futility, and youths' feeling that their parents are dishonest and too materialistic. Dr. Feinburg believes that because runaways have a nihilistic attitude--that nobody matters and nobody is honest--they cop out. He suggests that executives should spend more time with their families, set realistic rules for their children, and check up on their children's activities outside the home.

National Directory of Runaway Centers (August 13, 1972)
Huckleberry House, 3830 Judah Street, San Francisco, California 94112

This directory has brought together information on over 70 runaway centers throughout the country. Names and addresses are provided for centers in each state. Brief descriptions are given of each runaway center, its staffing, funding levels and sources, services, and clients. In early March 1974 all of these were contacted regarding the availability of evaluation reports. Only 20% of the centers had replied to this request at the time that the present report has been finalized (i.e., four weeks since mailing). Further, about 20% of the requests were returned unanswered since the Runaway house could not be located at the given address. These two findings

suggest either a high rate of transience among the runaway houses or a short life span.

Ogard, Ernest M. (Oregon State University) "The Relationship Between Self-Concept and School Attendance." Dissertation Abstracts International, 1972 (Dec.), Vol. 33 (6-A), 2833-2834

In an attempt to find evidence which would suggest ways of handling truancy, a study was conducted to determine self-concept in truants vs. that in non-truants. Fifty-eight truant students (defined as those having ten unexcused absences in a four-week period during one academic year) and 58 non-truant students were tested with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. It was concluded that there is no difference at the .05 statistical significance level between the two populations.

O'Neal, Patricia and Robin, Lee, "Childhood Patterns Predictive of Adult Schizophrenia: 30-Year Follow-up," American Journal of Psychiatry. 115 (1959) 385-391

The childhood history of former child guidance clinic patients who are now schizophrenic is compared with that of a group from the same clinic who are now psychiatrically normal adults. Findings show that as children, the pre-schizophrenics had more anti-social behavior of many kinds, including physical aggression, incorrigibility, vandalism and pathological lying. They more frequently had simultaneous difficulties at home, school and in social relationships. More than one-third were runaways.

O'Neal, Patricia and Robins, L.N., "The Relation of Childhood Behavior Problems to Adult Psychic Status: A 30-Year Follow-up of 150 Subjects," American Journal of Psychiatry. 114 (1958) 961-969

Both the persons who had been interviewed as children in a child guidance clinic and the original control subjects were part of a follow-up study as adults. The patients were originally divided into

three groups as children for comparison: delinquent; non-delinquent, with aggressive anti-social behavior (including truancy and running away); and neurotic. Those referred for truancy, incorrigibility and running away were reportedly the ones most likely to show psychotic reactions as adults, while child delinquents committing more serious offenses are most likely to have sociopathic personalities as adults. Furthermore, "while some children in every category of the presenting behavior problems had no psychiatric disease as adults, those who were seen as runaways had the lowest rate of adult psychiatric health." The paper discusses findings concerning 1) how many of the patients are sick or well at the time of follow-up, 2) how their adult psychiatric status relates to their type of childhood behavior problem, 3) how their adult psychiatric status is related to childhood home environment, and 4) how much psychiatric treatment they have received since their referral to the clinic.

Peters, W., "Riddle of Teenage Runaways," Good Housekeeping. 1968 (June), 166, 88

Based on interviews with five runaways and several police officers, the article purports to refute several "myths" behind sensational headlines. The majority of runaways do not come from the middle class but from city slums and ghettos, and are mostly members of minority groups. It is not true that most runaways head for hippie centers. The number of runaways is not as high as recently reported by some uninformed magazines. Motivations for running away are presented through recorded interviews with the runaways.

"Phone-a-Home Program Gives Runaways a Place to Run To," The New York Times. November 25, 1972, 18

The article describes the Phone-a-Home program in Westport, Connecticut. Runaway youth who call in receive counseling and often

placement in a volunteer foster family for one or two days. The program has contacts with school counselors, the police, counseling services, and other agencies.

"Police Unit to Seek Runaways," New York Times. June 21, 1972

It is reported that a special Runaway Unit has been established by the New York City Police Department to cope with the large number of local and out of town runaway youths. The goal of the program is to intercept these youth before they commit crimes or become victims of crime.

Regel, H., and Parnitzke, K.H., "Causative Conditions of Running Away in Children." 1967, 19(8), 281-290. (Psych. Ab 1968:2722) Foreign Abstract

Social, psychic and somatic causes are cited for running away. Disturbed parent-child relations, conflicts at school and frequent changes in residence were among the social factors. It is claimed that many of the runaways suffered some brain damage during early childhood. This appears to relate to the specific sample being studied.

Rennert, Helmut. "The Running Away of Children and Poriomania; A Diagnostic Consideration," Psychiat. Neurol. ned. Psychol. Leipzig, 1954, 6, 139-151. Foreign Abstract

The study differentiates "psychologically understandable forms" of running away in children and adolescents. The article is heavily psycho-analytically oriented.

Robey, Ames, and Rosewald, R.E. "The Runaway Girl: A Reaction to Family Stress," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 34, No. 4, 1964

In evaluating and treating 42 runaway girls at a Court Clinic, it is claimed that the most frequently "observed" cause of running away was the unconscious threat of an incestuous relationship with the father,

the fear of the resultant family dissolution, and the concurrent depression. A consistent pattern of family interaction is described, including a disturbed marital relationship, lack of affection for the daughter by the mother, and subtle pressure on the daughter by the mother to take over the maternal role. The authors see it as a strength of the daughter that she runs away rather than taking over the mother's role and fulfilling the unconscious incestuous wishes of the entire family. The authors emphasize that treatment of the girl necessitates simultaneous treatment of the mother.

Robins, L.N., and Patricia O'Neal, "Adult Prognostication for Runaway Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 29 (1959) 752-761

In the follow-up study of persons seen in a child guidance clinic thirty years ago, the rate of adult deviance among patients whose childhood offense was running away is compared with the rate among other patients. Findings show that runaways have a higher arrest, incarceration, and divorce rate and more frequent diagnoses as sociopaths than other clinic patients. Running away was not found to be a predictor of adult adjustment when juvenile offense history was controlled, but when taken as a single index of adult adjustment, it was found to be an excellent prognostic tool.

Robins, L.N. "Mental Illness and the Runaway: 30-Year Follow-up," Human Organization. 16 (1958) 11-15

The author states that the object of studying psychiatric diagnoses and childhood problems in adults is to determine uniformities among them which may be used to establish criteria for recognizing "psychiatric syndromes in their early stages. A group of adult males who were runaways as children were compared according to their psychiatric status with a group of males who had other childhood behavior problems

and a group of normal male control subjects. The author feels that running away appears to be predictive of later psychiatric disease even when the high rate of delinquency and reformatory experience among runaways is taken into account. He admits the fact that it remains unanswered whether the reformatory experience is a factor in initiating psychiatric disease or if the reformatory receives a large proportion of boys with psychiatric disease.

Rosenwald, R.J. and Mayer, J., "Runaway Girls from Suburbia," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 37 (2) (1967) 402-403

Comparisons between suburban runaways, suburban delinquent non-runaways, and urban runaways reveal a consistent pattern in which suburban runaways appear more disturbed than suburban nonrunaways, but less disturbed than urban runaways. The girls are classified into the following groups: hyper-mature, hypo-mature, impulse-ridden, and unclassifiable. Motivations for running away and treatment are discussed.

"Runaway Children" U.S. News and World Report. 1972 (April 24) 72, 38-42

This article presents a general outline of runaway trends across the country, some suggested reasons for running away and a glimpse of what is being done about the problem in cities around the country. The trends seem to be toward more girl runaways, toward smaller cities close to home and toward runaway houses as opposed to crash pads. The breakdown of the traditional American family is presented as a large contributing factor to the increase in runaways. The cities highlighted in their efforts to deal with runaways are San Francisco, Los Angeles, Chicago, Detroit, Atlanta, Houston and New York City.

"Runaways-Teenagers who Run Away to the Hippies," Time, 1967 (September 15), 90, 46

This article states that though many teenagers run away for a brief adventure, it is a "desperately serious act" for an increasing number of them. The article gives some statistics which suggest that the number of youth running away between 1961 and 1966 is dramatically increasing. One reason given for running away is escaping "the system" rather than just maladjusted homes. Some dangers of street life are mentioned as well as the efforts parents make to locate their children. Runaway homes are discussed briefly as an effort to help.

"Runaways: A Million Bad Trips. How Youth Agencies Try to Help," Newsweek. 1970 (October 26), 76, 67-68

This article presents an overview of the runaway situation across the country. It touches briefly on current characteristics of the runaway population (more female than male and younger every year), some of the experiences runaways encounter, some of the facilities to help them and the ways of trying to help. The article pinpoints some of the difficulties runaway centers face i.e. runaways' distrust of public agencies, the illegality of harboring runaway minors, parents' anger, and runaways' medical problems. Examples of "half-way houses" and rap lines are discussed. There is mention of the idea of negotiating "contracts" between the runaway and his parents.

"The Runaways: A National Problem," U. S. News and World Report. August 27, 1973

Parents of the children murdered in Houston in August, 1973, accuse the police of incompetence. However, it is reported that police in large U.S. cities solve at least 90% of the many runaway cases that they process each year. The number of runaways seems to be going up

across the nation, although most runaways are not reported missing. The report states that runaway centers face a crisis of funding if Congress fails to pass the Runaway Youth Act.

"Runaways: Rising U.S. Worry," U.S. News and World Report, 1973 (September 3), 75, 34

Worry over the problem of runaways has recently increased due to crimes against these youth, such as the teenage mass murders in Houston. It is reported that numbers of runaways are so great that the police are unable to maintain a thorough search for them. Existing aid for runaways reaches only a small fraction of these youth. The Youth Runaway Act, currently pending in Congress, would provide 30 million dollars in Federal funds over the next three years for adding many more shelter facilities. Another bill, introduced by Senator Mondale, would provide 30 million dollars for telephone "hot lines," neighborhood centers, and other youth services.

Shellow, Robert, et. al., Suburban Runaways of the 1960's. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967

An analysis of existing runaway literature reveals that its focus on either 1) individual psychopathology or 2) adaptive response to situational pressures, derives mainly from its sample selection. How the runaway act is interpreted depends largely on whether the runaway sample is caught in the legal-correctional net, the mental health net, or the welfare services net. This study attempts to avoid such bias by using both a broad-sweeping survey and clinical investigations. Based on agency records, parent interviews, and student questionnaires, two analytically separate groups of runaways are identified: 1) a small group for whom running away is closely related to individual or family pathology,

and whose members are almost exclusively frequent runaways, 2) a much larger group consisting mainly of those who ran away only once, but also including many repeaters, whose members more closely resemble the non-runaways than they do the seriously disturbed minority. It is reported that structural and socio-economic characteristic of the family are probably only indirectly associated with running away, while family conflict has a more direct bearing. Evidence shows that runaways have more difficulties at school than non-runaways and are less likely to belong to clubs. Interview data suggests that runaway episodes are impulsive and poorly planned, and rarely involve long distance travel or long duration. Recommendations are made with regard to problems confronting all adolescents whether runaway or not. The appendix includes the intensive interview guide and the questionnaire.

Shinohara, M. and Jenkins, R .L, "MMPI Study of Three Types of Delinquents," Journal of Clinical Psychology. 23 (1967) 156-163

Three delinquent types are delineated among 300 training school boys using computer clustering. These are termed: 1) Socialized delinquents (SD) 2) Unsocialized Appressive boys (UA) and 3) Runaway (RA) boys. Socialized delinquents exhibit behavior such as cooperative stealing, gang activity, and appear well integrated socially in the sense of having high levels of popularity, loyalty, friendliness, etc. Unsocialized Appressive boys exhibit behavior such as fighting, bullying, defiance of authority, destructiveness, isolation, lack of loyalty, "meanness" etc. Runaway delinquents exhibit behavior such as stealing in the home, staying out late at night or overnight, isolation, lack of loyalty, timidity, lack of popularity, lack of will to stand up for themselves and "meanness." The MMPI was applied to the three types.

It was found that the SD were more "normal" than the other two types. They had better family relations, and were more mature, domesticated, frank and less fearful. The UA boys were more suspicious, grandiose, and had little tolerance of tension. The Runaways were especially unhappy in their home life, felt less accepted by their siblings, lacked good masculine identification, were less decisive, less frank and had poor self-image. The authors claim that the results support the hypothesis that the SD represents adaptive goal-oriented behavior while the UA and Runaway response represents maladaptive frustration responses. One response is "fight" the other is "flight."

Straube, W. "The Psychopathology of Young Female Runaways," Prax. Kinderpsychol. Kinderpsychiatr., 1957, 6, 167-170.
Foreign Abstract

The author reports on three cases of 12 to 16 year old girls who are "compulsive runaways". All three girls seem to have run away initially after the beginning of their first menstrual period, and subsequently when their periods did not occur. No external incidents could be found for running away. The author suggests there is a close relationship between biological changes when menstruation is due and disruptive behaviors such as running away.

"Students Discuss Runaway Youths," The New York Times. May 28, 1972, 39

A psychology class of a dozen students from the Adams school, a private school in Manhattan for exceptional students, discusses the problems of runaways. Following a conference at St. John's Lutheran Church they conclude that youth feel and respond to the same pressures as their parents, and that family problems can make parents as well as children want to leave home.

Surface, Bill, "Case of the Runaway Teenager," Reader's Digest. 1970 (May), 96, 143-146

Dangers facing runaways, especially in large cities, are described. These youth are often forced into shoplifting, drug addiction, prostitution and gang sex by the "vicious misfits" who infest runaway areas. Work is hard to find and crash pads are usually crowded and filthy. The article mentions agencies such as Huckleberry House in San Francisco which help runaways. A preventive program, Operation Eye-Opener, takes busloads of teenagers on tours of the delapidated runaway areas.

Tobias, Jerry J., "The Affluent Suburban Male Delinquent," Crime and Delinquency. Vol. 16, No. 3, 1970

This study reports sex, age, religious preferences, destinations, reasons for leaving, and reasons for returning of runaways in an affluent suburb in England in 1969. It states that the number of males and females is about equal, most are 15 and 16 years old; the largest percentage is Protestant and over 50 percent remained close to home. Family-related and school associated problems are among the reasons for leaving. Police apprehension, encouragement of a friend and lack of money are some reasons for returning home.

Tsubouchi, K. and Jenkins, R.L., "Three Types of Delinquents: Their Performance on the MMPI and PCR," Journal of Clinical Psychology. 1969, 25, 353, 358

Three delinquent types are presented: The Socialized Delinquent, the Unsocialized Aggressive boy, and the Runaway delinquent. These are also outlined briefly in the review of Shinohara and Jenkins. The present study is essentially a validation of the earlier study, it further examines the differences between the Unsocialized Aggressive

type and the Runaway type using the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire. Only one out of the ten dimensions of this scale was found to significantly differentiate between the three types. This was the Parental Neglect sub-scale. It is suggested that inadequate mothering is a factor in the development of frustrated, maladaptive delinquents.

Tsunts, M., "Dropouts on the Run," Atlas. Vol. 11, pp. 158-160, 1971

In this article, the author takes a brief look at some of the factors involved in youth running away from home in Russia. In defining the runners as romantics who see themselves as young adventurers or as vagrants, he recounts stories of several runaways. These show some of the problems they encounter on the road and of their aversion to going home because of harsh parental reactions and apathetic treatment in school. The author believes that society should take action other than merely returning the runners time and again to their parents. This latter action is seen as forcing the conflict within families to become a conflict with society, increasing the chances of runners turning to crime.

Van Niekerk, P.A. (U. Pretoria, South Africa Faculty of Education, South Africa), "The Experiential World of the Truant," Opvoedkundigs Studies, 1970, No. 64, 86-108

This South African study suggests that families of truants do not adequately supply the requirements of a home, while the teachers do not always respond to their needs for support. Thus, the truant feels "blocked," insecure, and frustrated. Four truants are discussed and recommendations are made for recognizing and assisting the truant.

Wattenberg, William W., "Boys Who Run Away from Home," Journal of Educational Psychology. 47 (October 1956) 335-43

An investigation was made of five hundred and seventy-five boys reported missing from their homes. Findings are presented regarding

the age, family background, and school situation of the runaways. The boys' motives and their parents' reactions are examined.

Weinreb, J., and Counts, R., "Impulsivity in Adolescents and its Therapeutic Management," Archives of General Psychiatry, 1960, 2, 548-558

The authors discuss initial encounters between two different runaways and therapists at a Youth Guidance Center. The two examples illustrate the author's conviction that the therapist needs to present himself as a competent, strong and authoritative person, interested in helping the "impulsive adolescent." In the case of runaways especially, the authors feel that therapist interpretation must be made early in contact so as not to lose the child.

Wylie, D.C. and Weinreb, J., "The Treatment of a Runaway Adolescent Girl Through Treatment of the Mother," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 1958, 28, 188-195

The case is presented as an illustration of successful short-term treatment made possible by early recognition of the dynamics of a case at intake. The process of therapy involving the mother of a runaway girl is described in detail. In this particular case the mother was the main cause of family trouble due to the reactivation of her own adolescent oedipal feelings, which included both uncontrollable guilt and jealousy.

RECENT EVALUATION STUDIES AND LATE REFERENCES

During the course of this research, efforts were made to collect recent evaluation studies wherever possible. Using the 1972 National Directory of Runaway Centers, over 70 requests for available studies were sent to Runaway houses and Shelter homes throughout the country. Although the directory had been compiled fairly recently, this process brought forth the finding that many runaway shelter homes are short lived. A substantial number of these letters were returned as "not known at this address." Secondly, it would appear that there are only a few evaluation studies of these houses which specifically study the runaway problem. At the time of completing this report, the following represent the evaluation studies and other descriptive materials that had been made available as a result of the mailed requests.

D'Angelo, R. Families of Sand: A Report Concerning the Flight of Adolescents from Their Families, School of Social Work, Ohio State University, 1974

This publication presents both a theoretical and empirical perspective on the runaway problem. A variety of issues are reviewed including treatment approaches, reasons for running away, family responses, juvenile justice system practices, and so on. In the empirical study, 82 runaways were matched with 82 non-runaways on sex, race, age and area of residence (urban or suburban). Most of the runaways were obtained from institutional sources, and the control sample was obtained from the schools in Franklin County, Ohio. Information was obtained from the two groups covering topics such as home life, alienation from parents, religious behavior, school adjustment, self-concept, peer relationships. Numerous differences were found to discriminate the runners from the control sample. Poor home life, higher alienation, conflicts with parents, academic failure, low participation in school activities, few close friends, low church attendance, lower self-concept,

more health problems were all found to be associated with the runaway sub-sample. An excellent bibliography is provided and the author makes a series of recommendations regarding the treatment and prevention of runaway behavior.

Hennepin County Research Department, "Follow-Up Study of Runaway Youth Served by the Bridge" Research Department Community Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota

The report includes a description of The Bridge, opinions held by parents and youth toward the project, a description of runaways served, and follow-up information. The majority of the runaways served are found to be female, white, 14 or 15 years old, and local residents. Most come from intact families, identify parent-child relationships as their problem, and stay at The Bridge for three days or less. Almost 50% eventually return home. Both youth and parents generally report a positive attitude toward the project.

Marks, Alvin. "Two Year Follow-Up Evaluation of Project Oz", Project Oz, 3304 Idlewild Way, San Diego, California 92117, p. 33

Project Oz is described, and on the basis of interviews of parents and youth, an evaluation is presented. Findings show a positive increase in self-concept, a reduction in feelings of alienation, and a reduction of self-destructive behavior as a result of participation in the project. The attitude of both parents and youth toward the project is reported to be positive.

"Runaway Youth in Minneapolis" Research Department Community Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County, Inc. Minneapolis, Minnesota

On the basis of the "Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969", supplemented by visits to all of the runaway houses in the area, the evaluation committee determined that there

was a serious problem in Minneapolis with regard to runaway youth. There is a brief discussion of recent historical evidence in U. S. culture which has led to the phenomenon of running away. It is suggested that motives for running away are no longer economic, as in the thirties and forties, but are related to a recent upheaval of mores, values, and philosophy of life. Following a description of runaway houses and crash pads already operating in Minneapolis, the committee recommends the broadening of these services by the designation and funding of The Bridge as a Youth Service House. Suggestions are made with regard to sponsorship, policies, staff, programs, funding, etc.

"Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969" Appendix to "Runaway Youth in Minneapolis" (Address as above)

This study was done to determine the nature and extent of the runaway problem in Minneapolis. Findings are based on police department records and include characteristics of both the runaway youth and the runaway episode. Age, sex, residential origin, court involvement, length and number of runs, destination, companions, etc. are cross-classified. (Most of these findings are reported in the literature review.)

"Selected Characteristics of Residents and Visitors in the Agape House in Minneapolis", Research Department, Community Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County, Inc. (November, 1970)

The study is based on House records and questionnaires administered to overnight visitors and house residents. Overnight visitors are generally males in transit to another city. The majority of "residents" are found to be 14 to 17 years old. They stay at the House less than a week. Most residents had not run before, however. Females are found to have run more than males. Much of the data on characteristics of the runaways is reported to be quite similar to that of the Minneapolis Police Department.

Several runaway shelter homes which were not able to provide progress reports or evaluation reports responded instead with annual reports, brochures, etc. A brief description of these projects follows:

1. Comitis Crisis Center, Inc., Aurora, Colorado. This project consists of two 24 hour "help" lines; a referral system (medical, psychiatric, legal, and other); individual, family, group, and runaway counseling, and emergency housing for 48 hours.

2. Diogenes House, Davis, California. This project is a crisis intervention, counseling, assistance, information, and education center for the entire community, although services are primarily intended for youth. Services include a 24-hour crisis line; a 24-hour walk-in service for counseling, information, and referral services; an "on-location" crisis intervention program; professional counseling service; drug education presentations in schools; a diversion program of counseling and drug education in lieu of prosecution for minor drug related offenses; group counseling; recreation; and discussion groups.

3. Focus, Las Vegas, Nevada. Upon the receipt of a grant from the Office of Youth Development, Focus became a temporary residential youth shelter in addition to a drop in center. It also provides counseling, referral services, and a follow-up program.

4. Huckleberry House, Columbus, Ohio. Huckleberry House provides crisis intervention services to youth, individual and family counseling, referral services, temporary shelter, and a new self-help, non-residential group program as a follow-up to youth seen during the runaway crisis. Huckleberry House was one of the sponsors of the Teen age Flight Project directed by Dr. Rocco D'Angelo of the Ohio State University School of Social Work.

5. Number Nine, New Haven, Connecticut. Number Nine operates as a referral and counseling agency.

6. Second Mile, Hyattsville, Maryland. This project provides phone counseling, a drop-in counseling center, emergency housing, family conferences, information and referral services, speaking engagements, and community education workshops.

7. Shelter Action (SHAC), Burlington, Vermont. SHAC provides crisis counseling, temporary shelter, referral services, and follow-up counseling.

8. Youth Eastside Services, Bellevue, Washington. This project provides counseling and referral services to the runaway (Heads Up Center), a hotline, jobline, family services, and services to parents.

9. Youth Service Center, Carlisle, Pennsylvania. The Center provides counseling and emergency housing to runaway youth.

CONTINUED

1 OF 3

PART II

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RELATED TO THE
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF RUNAWAYS

INTRODUCTION

In this section of the report we have analyzed four different data sets with a view to extracting relevant information regarding runaway behavior. The data sets available to the study consisted, first of the National Evaluation of Youth Service Systems, 1973 Study (BREC). This provided information on over 300 youth who were either in YSS diversion projects or had been placed on probation. Many of these youth had indulged in multiple runaway behavior. The second set of data consisted of the current National Evaluation of Youth Service Systems (1974), again conducted by BREC. This project provided information on 260 youth who once again were in a Youth Service System diversion project. It might be noted that these youth were drawn from extremely different geographical localities. The cities involved in the sampling process included: Kansas City, Las Vegas, Philadelphia, Syracuse, Boise, and San Antonio. The third set of data available for secondary analysis was a larger more representative sample of Denver youth. Using all of these data sets, runaway youth were extracted from the total samples and comparisons were then made between the runners and the non-runners. The fourth data set consisted of information stemming from one single runaway shelter, The Freeway Station, Lincoln, Nebraska. We analyzed this data primarily for the purpose of examining the kinds of youth and the dispositional and referral patterns which are found in such a runaway shelter. The earlier data analysis, on the other hand, aimed to clarify some of the social and psychological traits of runaway youth in contrast to non-runaway youth.

CHARACTERISTICS OF RUNAWAY YOUTH

In this section we will describe the empirical findings related to the characteristics which differentiate runaway youth from non-runaway youth as found within the three different samples.

1. Home and Family Conditions

All data sets suggest that the runaway has a much poorer home situation than the non-runaway. The following might be noted:

Attitudes towards
parents

Runaways more than non-runaways indicate that they do not feel they could always rely on their parents in times of trouble (Table 2.1). Runaways more than non-runaways feel that their parents "find fault" with them (Table 2.2).

Runaway behavior is associated with a feeling that parents may "not really care" (Table 2.3). Runaways feel that parents "blame them" for their (parental) problems (Table 2.7).

Parental Rejection

On the scale of "Parental Rejection" it is found that runaways have much higher "rejection" scores than non-runaways (Table 2.5).

Broken Home
Divorce/Separation

Where parents are married and living together, there is a significantly lower proportion of runaway youth (Table 2.6). Absence of the father more so than absence of the mother appears to be associated with runaway behavior (Tables 5.3 and 5.4).

Negative Labeling by Parents

Positive labeling by parents is significantly associated with lower levels of runaway behavior

(Table 2.12 for OYD Sample and Table 4.21 for Denver sample).

Kind of Home

Families living in mobile homes have higher levels of runaway behavior than those living in apartments or houses (Table 4.22).

Mother and Father Working or Not Working

Runaway behavior is more prevalent where the father or mother is unemployed (Table 4.23).

There are some considerable differences within the runaway typology, however. It can be seen that in certain broken home situations where the father is absent or deceased, high runaway rates are associated with higher levels of mother's employment (Table 5.5). This would be a situation resulting in minimal supervision of the youth.

(Runaway type 3 - see typology section)

Parental Attitude to Dropping Out of High School

Higher runaway levels are seen in those situations where the youth acknowledges that parents would be unconcerned if he/she dropped out of high school (Table 4.24).

Access to Parents

Runaways to a greater extent than non-runners indicate that their parents are "dissatisfied" with them, that their parents (both mother and father) are "not interested" in what they have to say, and that it may "not help to talk to their parents" (Table 3.1).

Beaten by Parents

Runaways of all types are twice as likely to claim that they are "beaten and hassled" by parents than non-runaways (Table 5.6).

Youth Problems Regarding Parents and Adults

Runaways are twice as likely (34% as against 16%) to have difficulty in communicating with adults. Similarly, they are three times as likely to feel that there is a serious need for family counseling, and twice as likely to agree that their parents and guardians do not understand, nor care about their problems (Table 5.6).

2. Social and Peer Relationships of Runaway Youth

Negative Labeling by friends

Negative labeling by friends is found to be associated with higher levels of runaway behavior (Table 4.18). In the more delinquent sample (OYD 1974), this association is again found but at a weaker level (Table 2.16).

Membership in a Delinquent Peer Group

The data suggest that many runaways are associated with delinquent peer groups (Tables 2.8 and 2.9). Some caution should be applied to this finding since the same question was not examined in the other samples.

Extra-curricular Activities

Runaways appear to take part in such activities to a lesser degree than non-runaways (Table 4.11).

Popularity

Runaways see themselves to a lesser extent than non-runaways as being "popular" with friends (Table 4.12).

Access to Social Roles Among Friends

High access to social roles among friends is less associated with runaway behavior than is low access (Table 4.17). These findings suggest

Desire to have more friends
and a better social life

that many runners are, in fact, "loners."
Runaways appear less interested in extending
and improving their social contacts than
most non-runners (Table 4.36).

3. The School Situation of Runaways

Popularity at School

Runners appear to be "less popular among
their teachers", not seen to the same extent
as a "regular guy/girl", more inclined not to
"get along" with teachers, and to have significantly
lower levels of access to social roles among
teachers (see Tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.16).

Enjoyment of School

Runaways have lower enjoyment of school, in
general, than non-runners. It should be clear,
however, that these are differences in percentages,
and that a large proportion of runners do in fact
enjoy school (Table 4.8).

Rejection of Educational Values

More runners than non-runners have low scores
on the educational desires scale, suggesting
that many of them have little desire to succeed
academically (significant beyond $p = .001$).
Runners are more critical of both their schools
and their teachers than non-runners (Tables 4.5
and 4.7).

Truancy

Runners to a significantly greater extent than
non-runners play truant from school (Table 4.6).

Access to Educational
Opportunities

Runners appear to have significantly higher
denial of access to educational opportunities

than non-runners. This finding is also
replicated across two samples. (Tables
2.13 and 4.15).

Negative Labeling by Teachers

Runners to a significantly greater extent
than non-runners are negatively labeled by
their teachers. This finding is replicated
in two separate samples (Tables 2.17 and
4.18).

Possibility of "dropping out"
or "graduating"

Runaways to a greater extent than non-
runners agree that there are advantages
in dropping-out, they show more disagreement
with the possibility that they will graduate,
and slightly more agreement that it is hard
to stay in school (Table 3.2).

4. Delinquent Behavior and Interaction with the Juvenile Justice System

The following results indicate that running away should not be
seen as an isolated phenomenon, but that it is closely linked with a general
pattern of delinquent behavior.

Status Offense
sub-scale

Runaways report significantly larger numbers
of status offenses than do non-runners
(Table 4.27).

Self-Reported Misdemeanors,
felonies, and total delinquency
scale

Similarly, on both the misdemeanor and felony
sub-scales, the runaways are seen to be more
frequent offenders than non-runaways (Tables
4.31 and 4.32). For both the OYD 1974 and
Denver 1973 samples, it can be seen that runners
have higher total delinquency scores than non-
runners (Table 2.11 and 4.33).

Trouble with the Law,
arrests, court appearance and
probation

On all questions indicating level of contact with police, actual arrests, being placed on probation, it can be seen that runners have significantly higher scores than non-runners. This appears to be consistent with their much higher delinquency levels. It should be remembered that this is self-reported data. (Tables 4.25, 4.26, 4.28, 4.29, and 4.30).

Attitude towards the
police

Runners tend to have a more negative attitude towards the police than non-runners (Table 4.34).

All of the above differences have, in fact, been found to differentiate runners as a group from non-runners. However, in studying the later typological section, it will be apparent that different "types" of runaways have very different levels of delinquent behaviors and different kinds of interaction with the juvenile justice system. This warning, in fact, applies to all remarks about "runner" as a general group. It is now clear that the runner group contains some very different kinds of persons who should not be equated with each other simply because they have all run away (at least once).

5. Psychological Characteristics

Self-Concept of Runaways

All of the available data suggest that runners have a lower self-concept in general than other youth. The OYD 1974 and the Denver 1973 data both indicate that runners fall significantly below non-runners in regard to this variable. In studying the later typological section, it will be found that all runners with the exception of type 4 have low self-esteem (Tables 2.4, 4.46,

Social Alienation

and 5.1).

In regard to "Normlessness" of the OYD 1974 and the Denver 1973 data, indications are that runners have significantly higher levels of this aspect of alienation than non-runners (Tables 2.15. and Table 4.43).

Similarly, on the "powerlessness/futility" subscale, significant differences are found in the Denver data (Table 4.35). The OYD data, however, does not indicate such differences. This may be due to the fact that the OYD data is more homogeneously delinquent, hence levels of alienation might be high for both the runner and non-runners group.

Regarding "Social Estrangement and Lack of Trust in Others" again both OYD 1974 and Denver 1973 suggest that runners are more socially alienated than other youth. However, whereas the Denver table reaches the significance, the OYD does not (Tables 2.10 and 4.38). The same explanation for this difference in results would again be applicable.

Need for Self-Autonomy

Although the overall comparison between runners and non-runners does not reach significance on this variable, it can be seen that some of the runaway types exhibit high levels of this kind of motive for self-autonomy (Table 5.1).

6. Characterising Runaways on the OYD National Strategy Variables

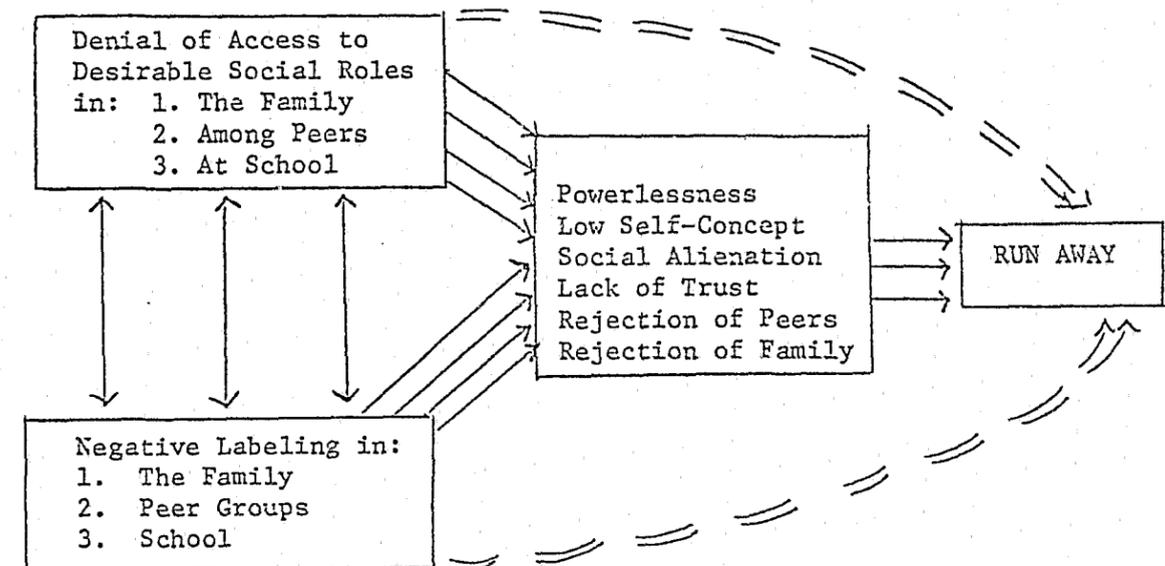
A great many findings have established that the OYD National Strategy variables are important differentiating features between runaways and non-runaways. These variables: Alienation, Denial of Access to Desirable Social Roles, and Negative Labeling, in a variety of different contexts, have been shown to be significantly different for the runaway and non-runaway samples. Many of these differences have been replicated in both the OYD 1974 analysis and the Denver City analysis. The tables and variables which establish these are as follows: Tables 2.11 (Total Delinquency), 2.12 (Labeling by Parents), 2.13 (Access to Educational Opportunity), 2.14 (Access to Occupational Roles), 2.15 (Normlessness), 2.16 (Labeling by Friends) and 2.17 (Labeling by teachers). Within the Denver Study, a similarly high number of significant differences can be found.

Regarding the National Strategy, it appears that there is considerable Denial of Access to Social Roles to the runaway youth in the major social arenas of Home, School and Peers. This appears to be accompanied by high levels of Negative Labeling. The runaway youth appear to respond to this by lowered social expectations and lowered social desires. They reject any need to interact with those persons who are both labeling and rejecting them. Given this set of pre-conditions, high levels of alienation (especially social estrangement and lack of trust in others) might be expected. Such higher levels of alienation are, in fact, found to be the case. Similarly, given such higher levels of Negative Labeling and Denial of Access to Roles, it is little wonder that such youth suffer from lack of self-esteem. It is found that most runners have a clear lack of self-esteem. Having been rejected, and in turn rejecting the rejectors, it is not unexpected that many such youth run away. Many of the types in the later typological analysis fully explicate this process as described

in the present section.

We will not reiterate the findings regarding the National Strategy variables. They have been briefly described in Sections 2.1 to 2.5 above, and are also presented in detail in the various tables that have been referenced. Additional information dealing with the National Strategy variables and runaway behavior can be found in the Typological Analysis section. To clarify the operation of the National Strategy variables regarding runaway behavior, the schematic model as it relates to the runaway act might look like this:

Figure (I) National Strategy Variables Model of the Runaway Process



It might be pointed out that using the X^2 approach, significant relationships have been found between most of these above predictor variables and runaway behavior (see earlier sections).

7. Runaway Response to YSS or Probation

The OYD 1973 and 1974 Evaluation Studies allow some comment to be made on the responses of youth who have run away to the YSS diversion projects. It should be acknowledged that there is considerable difficulty in separating out

a homogeneous "runaway" group from a "non-runaway" group for these comparisons. Most of the "runner" group has also indulged in numerous other offenses, and the actual "presenting offense" seems to be almost arbitrary in terms of the youth's total delinquent involvement. However, some computations have been made with the following results:

Voluntary or Forced entry into the diversion project

When comparing runaways and non-runaways on this aspect of entry into the diversion project, no significant differences are found. The majority of youth enter the YSS project voluntarily (Table 2.23).

Parental Encouragement

Although most parents provide encouragement to the youth entering the YSS project, the data suggest that levels of parental encouragement are lower for the runaway group than for the non-runaway group (Table 3.4). This is true for both youth samples entering probation and those entering the YSS.

Attitude of Youth towards YSS staff or probation officers

Most youth entering YSS or probation appear to think that the staff or probation officers "care about them." Similarly, most youth have high levels of "trust" in these persons. The data suggest that runaways more than most youth have positive trusting attitudes to the YSS staff and probation officers. In the case of probation, however, these differences are marginal. The generally more relaxed, informal, peer-oriented YSS diversion projects would appear

to be (from the earlier theoretical section) more appealing to runaway youth in particular (see Table 3.4).

Improvements due to Treatment in YSS or probation

More YSS than probation youth agree that there has been some positive change as a result of their contact with this mode of treatment. However, there is no clear indication to suggest that runaways show more or less improvement than non-runners (Table 3.4).

TYPES OF RUNAWAYS

Development and Testing of a Multifaceted Typology of Runaways

The theoretical section of this document contains an examination of a number of typological views regarding runaway youth. Various criticisms were leveled at these studies. Firstly, it was clear that many of the typological studies were essentially conceptual statements observed by the author on the basis of extensive clinical or counseling experience with runaways. Such conceptual statements clearly require validation on objectively measured variables with larger samples. Secondly, most of these typologies were based on a limited set of variables, i.e., the focus of the typology was on a certain limited domain of variables such as reasons or motives for running away. Thirdly, none of the typological studies that were reviewed used objective quantitative methods to create a well-defined typology of runaways. The closest in this sense were the studies by Shinohara and Jenkins (1967), Tsubouchi and Jenkins (1969) and Baer (1970). Yet all of these studies were not specifically concerned with developing a typology specifically of runaways but of juvenile offenders in a more general sense. The objective of the present section is to meet these various objections. Firstly, we will develop the runaway typology on a firm empirical base. Secondly, we will employ a rather wide range of variables including information pertaining to social, psychological and behavioral characteristics of the runaway youth and covering such areas as the school, the home, peer relationships, other delinquent behavior, race, sex, and so on. Thirdly, we will employ objective quantitative computer methods to create the typology. Fourthly, the typology will be tested with a view to examine the degree of separation of the types and the ease of accurately classifying any new runaway youth into his appropriate type.

The Classificatory Domain: Variables used in Constructing the Typology

To allow for a broad rather than narrow "classificatory frame of reference", a very large number of variables were included within the typological analysis. These covered areas such as: school, home, peer relationships, other kinds of delinquent behavior, e.g., drug use, truancy, joyriding, theft, aggressive violence, etc., attitudes towards the police, penetration into the juvenile justice system and so on. In all, over 50 variables were included in the analysis. Tables (5.1) and (5.2) indicate the variables used in creating the typology. It is important to note that the full set of National Strategy variables from the OYD Theory of Youth Development have been included within this typology. Tables (5.1) and (5.2) also include the comparisons between the total runaway sample and those youth who have never run away. Variables such as self-concept are also included to help clarify some of the earlier issues from the literature review regarding the self-concept of runners. Descriptions of most of these variables can be found in the National Evaluation Study of Youth Service Systems (BREC, 1973). The questionnaire for the survey from which this data was obtained is based on the BREC questionnaire.

The Sample

The sample of runaways was drawn from a larger sample of Denver youth who were interviewed during the summer of 1973. A total of 132 youth indicated that they had run away at least once. These were extracted from the larger sample for special analysis.

Statistical Methods

The typological analysis proceeded by means of the Ward Hierarchical grouping methods (Ward 1963). This provides a sequential grouping together or

agglomeration of those persons who have a very high level of mutual similarity on the overall profile of variables which have been included as classificatory variables. In this way runners who have a high level of mutual similarity will be grouped together according to certain mathematically defined rules of similarity. The Ward method in fact proceeds according to the criterion of minimization of the within-type error (E). This is simply expressed mathematically as the within-cluster sum of squares. The program implicitly uses the Euclidean distance (unweighted) as a measure of profile similarity. Various comparative studies of clustering methods (Wishart 1969, Brennan 1972, and Blashfield, 1974) have found that the Ward method is one of the better classificatory techniques. A full mathematical exposition of the method is available in Ward's original paper.

RESULTS OF THE CLUSTERING ANALYSIS USING WARD'S METHOD

The Correct Number of Runner Types

The graph of the error-sum (E) can usually be taken as an indication of the correct or natural number of types in the data. It can be seen from this graph that there are two sharp breaks (or elbows) in the curve. These suggest that there is a fairly strong clustering at the 5-type level and at the 3-type level. Since the 5 level involves less information loss than the three level, it was decided to examine the 5 types initially.

Social and Psychological Descriptions of the Runaway Types

Tables (5.1) and (5.2) contain the full profile descriptions of each type, all runaways and all non-runaways. The following brief descriptions are based on these tables.

Runaway Type 1. Minority Males (A): Violent Delinquents, Multiple Runaway

Demographic Variables

Most members of this type are male, minority, and of lower social status.

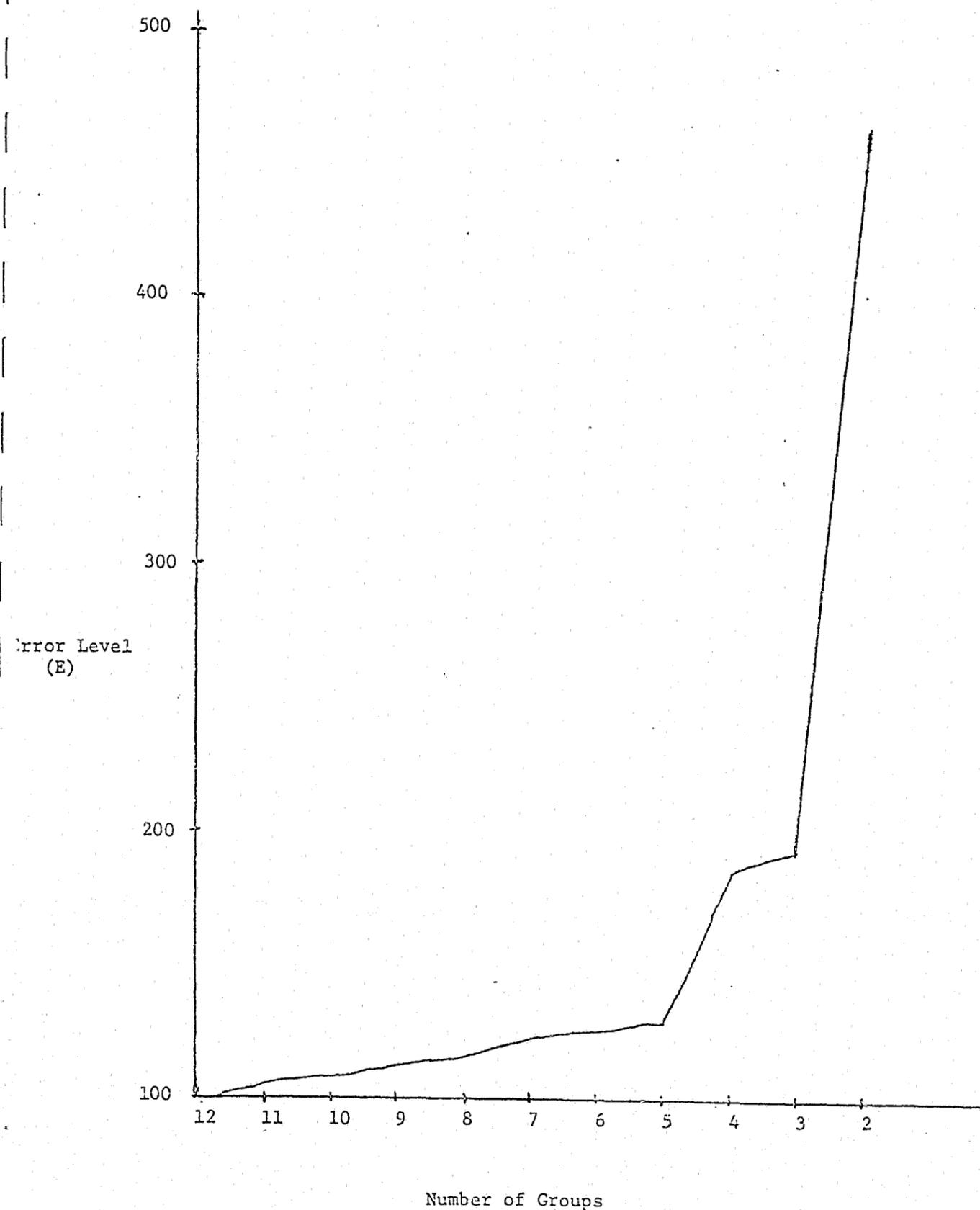
Related Delinquent Behavior

These youth are extremely delinquent. They have the highest levels of breaking and entering, property destruction, beating up on other kids, \$50 theft, using violence to get money, and other felonies. All of the youth in this type are above the sample mean for the felony scale. They have higher scores on the felony scale than any of the other runaway types. Surprisingly, they do not have the highest levels of penetration into the juvenile justice system. Runner types 3 and 5 are slightly ahead of type 1 in this respect. These differences in penetration, however, are not especially marked.

Social Variables

Although this type falls below average on the three variables reflecting

Figure (5.1) Error Levels from Ward Analysis to Identify
A Typology of Runaways



peer relationships, it is only on negative labeling by friends that they are markedly low. They appear to have reasonable access to friends, and only a slightly lower than average desire to have more friends, and more interaction with their peers. In school these youth are denied access to acceptable roles, and at the same time, negatively labeled by teachers. Although they fall below the average for most youth regarding their enjoyment of school and their will to succeed educationally, their scores do not fall markedly lower than average. Similarly, parental negative labeling, although lower than that of most non-runaways, is not significantly lower.

Psychological Variables

As is the case with all of the runaway types, these youth desire to have more "autonomy" and "freedom." Self-concept, on the other hand, is very low. This is also held in common with other runaways, with the exception of the runners in type 2. These youth appear to feel more powerless and normless than most youth, yet at the same time, hold average or above average levels on the Trust Scale.

Runaway Type 2. Middle Class Females: Not Alienated, Good Self-Concept, Occasional Runaway

Demographic Variables

This type is initially distinguishable from the others in that a majority of members are females and Anglo. A majority are from a higher than average social status.

Related Delinquent Behavior

Although these youth have a considerably higher level of self-reported delinquent behavior than most non-runaways, they are considerably lower in their general levels of delinquent behavior than the other runaway types 1, 3, and 5. They have about the same level of delinquent behavior as

type 4. Their status offense score is high. They do not indulge in certain more violent activities such as gang fighting, beating up on other kids, using violence to get money, or property destruction. They have a relatively low level of penetration into the juvenile justice system (lower than other runaways, but higher than non-runaways).

Social Variables

While social desires are near average, it would appear that these youth have slightly lower than average access to friends, and at the same time are frequently negatively labeled by friends. Their peer situation does not appear to be as serious as most of the other runaway types. Their school situation similarly appears to be very near the non-runaway profile. They enjoy school and appear to have average levels of access to both teachers and general educational opportunities. However, they fall below the non-runners regarding their levels of desire to do well educationally. Similarly, the family situation does not appear to be very negative, judging by the absence of negative labeling in the part of the parents of these youth.

Psychological Variables

These youth are not alienated according to their scores on the three alienation sub-scales, and they appear to have a fairly high level of self-concept. On all of these variables, they are clearly differentiated from type 4.

Runaway Type 3. Minority Males (B): Extreme Negative Labeling and Denial of Access, Highly Delinquent, Multiple Runaway

Demographic Variables

Most members of this type are males and members of the two main minority groups in Denver (either Black or Chicano). Social status is lower than the sample average.

Related Delinquent Behavior

This type is also extremely delinquent. They have especially high levels of scores for beating up on other kids, indulging in gang fights, marijuana use and glue sniffing, and school theft. They are not quite as delinquent as those youth in type 1. Surprisingly, they have a slightly higher level of penetration into the juvenile justice system, and at the same time a much more negative attitude towards the police.

Social Variables

The peer relationships of these youth appear to be dreadful. They have low access to peers, are highly negatively labeled by peers, and at the same time, appear uninterested in improving these relationships.

School experiences appear to be equally dismal. They do not enjoy school, they do not appear to value education, and they appear to have high levels of denial of access to educational roles.

Psychological Variables

These youth share a characteristic of runners in wishing to have a greater degree of personal autonomy over their life. This is combined with a very low self-concept. Levels of alienation are extremely high.

Runaway Type 4. One-Time Runaways: Similar in Many Ways to Non-Delinquents, But of Low Self-Concept and Alienated

Demographic Variables

This is a mixed type containing both males and females in about equal proportions. It also contains all three ethnic groups, although there are less Chicanos in this group than Anglos and Blacks. Social class is lower than that of type 2, but higher than that of the other runaway types.

Related Delinquent Behavior

This type is much less delinquent than the other delinquent types

but at the same time much more delinquent than non-runaways. In this sense it is similar to type 2. Additionally, it is clear that these youth are not multiple runners but have only indulged in the runaway act once or twice. This contrasts with types 1 and 3, the majority of whom are "repeaters." Many of these youth have not penetrated into the juvenile justice system. This again indicates their general similarity to the members of type 2.

Social Variables

This group appears almost better off than most youth in terms of peer relationships. Access to friends is high, labeling by friends is generally positive, and these youth appear to care to improve and expand their relationships with peers.

Similarly, the school situation of these youth appears to be healthy. They desire educational success. Access to teachers is generally high and labeling by teachers is positive. They fall slightly below the non-runners only in enjoyment of school and in access to educational opportunities. The latter score suggests that they are probably not very high in terms of grade point average and other indicators of academic success. The home situation appears to be reasonably good, judging by the score on parental labeling.

Psychological Variables

Desire for personal autonomy is again fairly high and is combined with a lower than average level of self-concept. Again all of the alienation sub-scale scores suggest a higher than average level of alienation.

Runaway Type 5. Lower Status (Females): High Levels of Alienation, Negative Labeling, Denial of Access, Delinquency

Demographic Variables

Lower social status females form the major membership of this

runaway type. There is no clear tendency for any ethnicity to predominate within this type.

Related Delinquent Behavior

As is the case of types 1 and 3, the youth in this type indulge to a large degree in various delinquent activities. This is so especially for the various status and misdemeanor offenses, but not so for the felonies. This group has low scores for joyriding, gang fighting, property destruction, and violence to get money. On the other hand, they have high scores for marijuana use. They do not indulge in repeated runaway behavior as is the case of groups 1 and 3.

Social Variables

Peer relationships are poor, especially in the case of access to roles among peers. These youth for some reason perceive very high levels of negative labeling to be imposed upon them by their peers.

The school situation of these runners also appears to be very poor. They fall far below non-runners and below most of the other runaways, with the exception of type 3, in their school situations. They are denied access, negatively labeled, and they do not enjoy school. Parental labeling appears to be neutral or negative.

Psychological Variables

These youth have a very low self-concept and a higher than average desire to be more autonomous in their lives. All aspects of alienation are very high.

Table (5.1) Profiles of Intra Runaway Types Across Scaled Variables

	X ²	Sig. Level	TYPES					Total Runaway %	Total Non-Runaway %
			1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %		
N=			18	27	13	27	19	104	
Sex (% Male)	10.2	.05	74	37	77	56	42	54	51
% Anglo	21.9	ns	16	59	8	33	32	33	52
% Chicano	21.9	ns	47	11	46	19	47	30	21
% Black	21.9	ns	37	30	46	48	21	36	27
Social Class									
% High	16.2	.01	15	63	36	46	0	38	51
Access to Social Organization	12.7	.02	63	81	31	78	56	66	61
Concern with Ecology	16.3	.01	50	70	15	74	42	56	49
Access Friends	23.5	.001	47	48	0	63	6	39	54
Access Teachers	27.9	.001	42	52	0	70	6	41	56
Enjoy School	22.7	.001	58	78	0	52	39	51	60
Social Desires (more friends)	14.2	.01	47	59	8	70	42	51	58
Educ. Desires (higher grades)	24.6	.001	58	50	8	85	32	52	64
Self autonomy Labeling by friends % positive	4.59	ns	63	56	58	81	63	65	53
Powerlessness/futility % High	22.5	.001	84	38	100	74	84	72	52
Normlessness	35.3	.001	47	12	100	63	78	54	31
Lack of Trust	30.2	.001	37	33	92	89	78	63	45
Self-Concept	22.1	.001	5	63	23	37	12	32	61
Access to Jobs	16.2	.01	58	63	0	59	53	51	68
Attitude to police % neg.	12.3	.02	37	52	85	78	53	60	50
Access Educ. Opp.	21.7	.001	26	67	0	59	33	43	68
Attitude to school % Pos.	17.8	.01	39	54	0	58	18	39	57
Labeling by Parents % Pos.	19.8	.001	58	70	15	85	53	62	69
Labeling by teachers % Pos.	14.0	.01	47	44	15	74	37	48	60
General Alienation % High	51.4	.001	47	15	100	89	94	65	41
Access to Roles % high	28.4	.001	42	48	0	67	0	38	55
Labeling % Pos.	22.9	.001	16	48	0	63	21	35	61

Table (5.2) Profiles of Intra Runaway Types in Terms of Delinquent Behavior

	X ²	sig. level	T Y P E S					Total Runaway %	Total Non-runaway %
			1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %		
N =			18	27	13	27	19	104	388
Sex (% Male)	10.0	.05	74	37	77	56	42	54	51
% Anglo	21.9	ns	16	59	8	33	32	33	52
% Chicano	21.9	ns	47	11	46	19	47	30	21
% Black	21.9	ns	37	30	46	48	21	36	27
Fake excuse to teacher never	37.5	.001	11	22	0	22	15	16	42
3 or more X			55	33	100	18	47	44	21
Stolen \$5 or less never	37.3	.001	17	56	0	30	37	32	67
3 or more X			61	18	69	18	26	34	11
Break & enter never	57.8	.001	17	89	31	92	74	67	89
3 or more X			50	4	8	0	10	12	4
Joyride never	28.8	.01	39	92	77	81	79	76	89
3 or more X			22	0	0	0	0	4	4
School theft never	45.8	.001	10	74	0	70	53	48	82
3 or more X			42	0	23	7	5	13	5
Property destruction never	35.0	.001	26	59	38	56	42	47	77
3 or more X			52	4	8	4	5	13	6
Beat up other kids never	52.9	.001	16	93	23	81	74	64	83
3 or more X			52	4	23	4	5	15	5
Gang fights never	41.7	.001	16	73	8	59	67	50	79
3 or more X			47	7	46	11	0	19	6
\$50 theft never	61.9	.001	10	92	69	85	79	70	89
3 or more X			63	0	0	4	5	13	3
Runaway never	39.9	.001	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
3 or more X			63	22	89	4	37	36	0
Violence to get money never	43.5	.001	21	89	46	78	95	70	94
3 or more X			42	7	8	7	0	12	2
Marijuana use never	16.5	ns	6	30	8	37	16	22	61
3 or more X			61	44	77	41	63	53	24
Marijuana sale never	29.2	.01	21	70	46	74	84	62	83
3 or more X			58	7	23	15	5	20	7
Skipped school never	37.6	.001	5	41	8	35	16	24	53
3 or more X			63	26	84	27	63	47	18
Glue sniffing never	26.1	.02	37	93	54	74	79	70	92
3 or more X			47	4	38	15	5	19	1
Hard drugs use never	36.6	.001	21	81	54	89	84	70	89
3 or more X			37	15	15	0	10	14	5
Hard drug sale never	33.8	.001	42	85	100	92	95	82	96
3 or more X			42	8	0	0	0	9	2
Status Offense scale % high	15.0	.01	95	81	100	67	100	86	30
Misdemeanor scale % high	36.5	.001	100	30	100	44	74	63	25
Felony scale % high	36.2	.001	100	22	69	41	21	47	16
Total delinquency scale % high	31.3	.001	100	44	100	41	84	67	19
Penetration into JJS % high	6.1	ns	74	52	77	56	79	65	34

THE FAMILY SITUATION OF EACH TYPE OF RUNAWAY

The following tables (5.3 to 5.8) provide additional information regarding the characteristics of each runner type, and the features which again distinguish runners from non-runners.

Broken Homes

It can be seen from Table (5.3) that runners have a much higher incidence of the father being separated from the family than the non-runners. In examining the data for each type, however, some striking differences can be seen. Fully 70% of the cases in type 3 do not have their father living at home. Type 1 on the other hand is near to the non-runner average in this regard. This difference between types 1 and 3 represents an additional differentiating feature to separate these two rather similar types.

In regard to the mother being absent from home, there do not appear to be very striking differences between the runners and the non-runners. Types 1, 3 and 4, however, are twice or three times as likely as non-runners to have the mother separated from the home.

Parents Working or Unemployed

For both mother and father it can be seen that the runaway group has a lower level of parental employment than the non-runaway group. Types 3 and 5 in particular have low levels of paternal employment. These two types, it should be remembered, were lower socio-economic status minority youth.

Relationships to Adults and Parents

Table (5.6) provides indications of the poor relationships between the runners and their parents. Runners are twice as likely to claim that communications with adults represents a "serious difficulty" for them. Again on the question of "being beaten and hassled by parents," parents not understanding your problems, and parents not caring about your problems, it can be

seen that runners are twice as likely to claim that these issues represent "serious problems" for them in comparison to non-runners.

Churchgoing Behavior of Runners

Table (5.7) indicates that runners attend church less frequently than non-runners. This is only of types 1, 3, and 5. Types 2 and 4 appear to have about the same level of church attendance as non-runners.

Table (5.3) Father Living at Home in Relation to Runaway Behavior

	Runaway Types					All Runners	Non-Runners
	1	2	3	4	5	N=105	N=385
Father living at home	74	63	23	59	53	57	71.4
Father not living at home	21	30	70	37	32	35	22.3
Father Deceased	5	7	8	4	15	7	6.2

Table (5.4) Mother Living at Home in Relation to Runaway Behavior

	Runaway Types					All Runners	Non-Runners
	1	2	3	4	5		
Mother living at home	84	96	84	88	95	90	93
Mother not living at home	10	0	15	11	5	8	4
Mother Deceased	5	4	0	0	0	2	2

Table (5.5) Father and Mother Working in Relation to Runaway Behavior

	Runner Types					All Runners	Non-Runners
	1	2	3	4	5	%	%
Father Working	94	100	66	87	71	87	92
Mother Working	44	46	69	50	44	49	60

Table (5.6) Some General Social Problems of Runaways in Relation to Non-Runaways

	Runner Types					All Runners	Non-Runners
	1	2	3	4	5		
	% Very Serious						
Difficulty in Communicating with Adults	44	30	38	24	39	34	16
Being beaten and hassled by parents	10	15	15	11	10	12	5
Parents/Guardians not understanding your problems	33	26	38	15	11	23	10
Parents/Guardians not caring about your problems	21	22	30	4	11	16	6
Need counseling for family problems	21	18	23	8	32	19	5

Table (5.7) Churchgoing Behavior of Runaways and Non-Runaways

	Types of Runaways					All Runners	Non-Runners
	1	2	3	4	5		
How many times have you gone to church in the last six months?	%	%	%	%	%		
Never	35	29	69	22	42	36	28
10-15 Times	6	15	0	30	10	14	22

Table (5.8) Ages of Each Runaway Type

	Types of Runaways				
	1	2	3	4	5
Average Age in Years	14.7	14.9	14.1	15.2	15.8

TESTING THE TYPOLOGY

1. External Criterion Variables

A number of variables which were NOT included in the creation of the typology were cross-classified against the types. Such variables include: Sex, Ethnicity, the actual number of times that each youth has run away, and other variables. The fact that significant differences were found between the types on these external variables (i.e., on sex and run-away level) indicates that the types are different on additional variables, thus suggesting a degree of concurrent validity (see Tables (5.1) and (5.2)).

2. Stepwise Discriminant Analysis to Clarify Type Separation and to Indicate the Relative Power of the Classificatory Variables

The Stepwise Discriminant Function analysis is useful in providing an indication of the relative discriminatory power of different variables, in suggesting how readily new cases can be classified into the typology, and in providing a visual plot of the typology in discriminant space. This plot may sometimes lead to a revision of the typology since it can indicate non-separation between certain types.

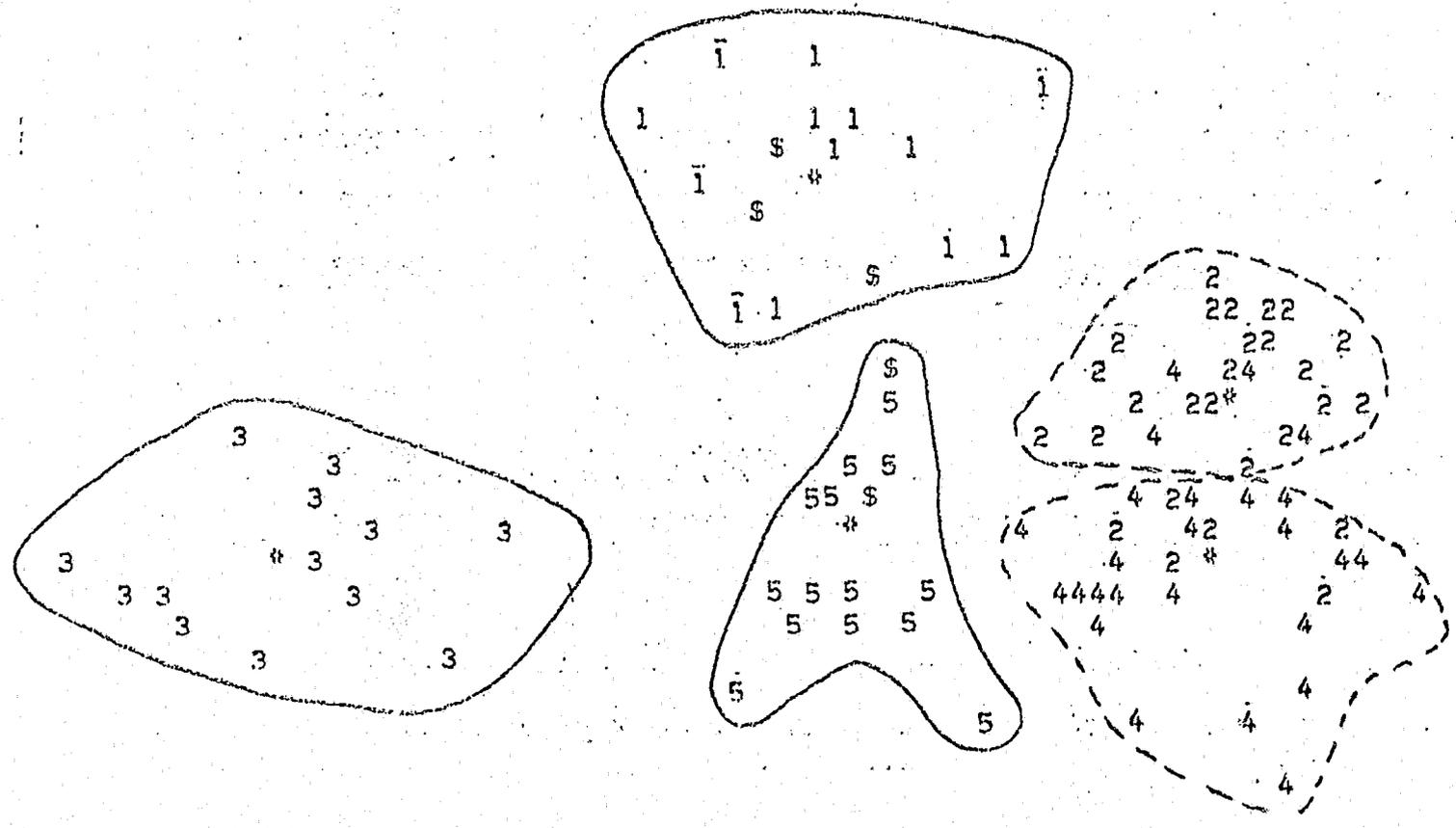
Figures (5.2) and (5.3) indicate the plots of the five runaway types stemming from two such discriminant analyses (see Dixon, 1973). In the first analysis, all of the scaled variables were used (e.g., access to roles, scales, alienation scales, etc.). In the second analysis, only the specific home, school, and peer items were used. Both of these analyses indicate a high level of separation between types 1, 3, and 5. There is, however, no clear division between types 2 and 4. This suggests that there might be an advantage in collapsing these into one larger type. To test their degree of separation, an extra discriminant analysis has been run. Figure (5.4) indicates that there

is virtually complete separation between these two classes of runaways. The tables given to accompany these scatter diagrams indicate that the discriminant function approach can provide a very accurate "hit rate," i.e., a high level of accuracy in predicting the correct type membership on the basis of knowledge of only a few predictor variables. Using only 7 "predictor" variables, the stepwise analysis (scaled variables) reaches a 90.4% accuracy. In discriminating between types 2 and 4, the ten variables chosen as discriminators provided a 96.3% level of accuracy in the classification.

It might be noted that the basic differentiating features between types 2 and 4 are the levels of alienation and enjoyment of school. Type 4 runners are much more alienated than type 2 runners.

-11.200 -9.200 -7.200 -5.200 -3.200 -1.200 .800 2.800 4.800 6.800

Figure (5.2) Scatter Plot in Discriminant Space of the First Two Discriminant Functions Illustrating Spatial Separation of the Runaway Typology (Analysis based on scale variables)



800 . 6.80
 467 . 6.46
 133 . 6.13
 800 . 5.80
 467 . 5.46
 133 . 5.13
 800 . 4.80
 467 . 4.46
 133 . 4.13
 800 . 3.80
 467 . 3.46
 133 . 3.13
 800 . 2.80
 467 . 2.46
 133 . 2.13
 800 . 1.80
 467 . 1.46
 133 . 1.13
 800 . .80
 467 . .46
 133 . .13
 200 . -.20
 533 . -.53
 867 . -.86
 200 . -1.20
 533 . -1.53
 867 . -1.86
 200 . -2.20
 533 . -2.53
 867 . -2.86
 200 . -3.20
 533 . -3.53
 867 . -3.86

Table (5.9) Stepwise Discriminant Analysis to Predict "Runaway Type" on the Basis of Runaway Characteristics

Step Number	Variable Added	F Value	V-Statistic	% Correctly Classified
1	Misdemeanor Scale	47.7	.34	45.7
2	Access to Roles Among Teachers	17.0	.20	63.8
3	Felony Scale	13.5	.13	68.5
4	Educational Desires	13.0	.08	75.2
5	Alienation Scale	8.6	.06	81.9
6	Self-Concept Scale	4.2	.05	84.7
7	Enjoyment of School	3.7	.05	90.4

Classification Matrix at Seventh Step in the Analysis

	1	2	3	4	5
Type 1	19	0	0	0	0
Type 2	0	22	0	2	3
Type 3	0	0	13	0	0
Type 4	0	0	1	25	1
Type 5	1	1	1	0	16

Total % correctly classified = $95/105 = 90.4\%$

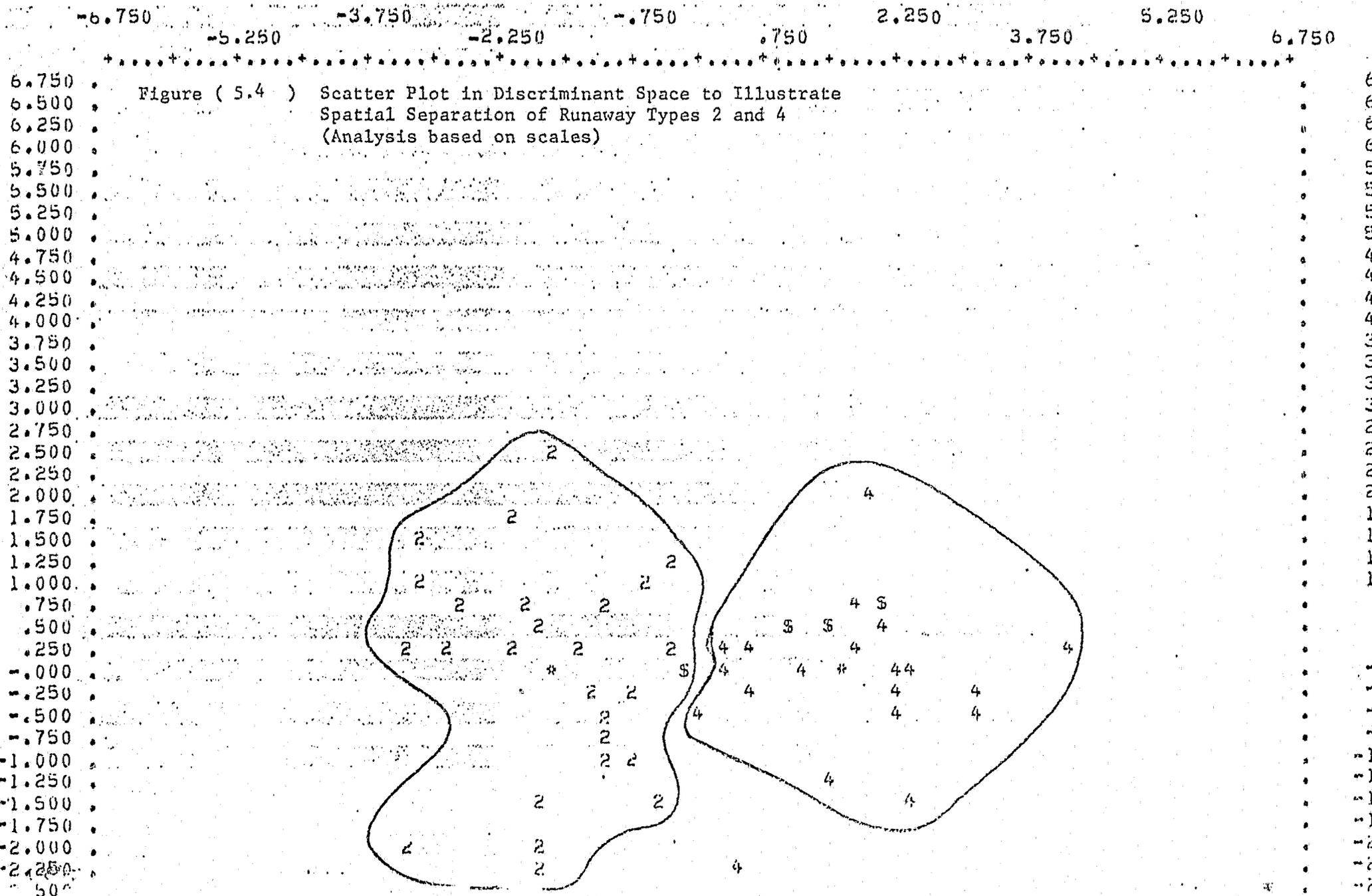


Table (5.10) Stepwise Discriminant Analysis to Clarify Differences
Between Runaway Types 2 and 4

Step Number	Variable	F Value	V Statistic	% Correctly Classified
1	Perceived Indifference/ Lack of Trust	34.6	.60	77.7
2	Powerlessness	13.8	.47	79.6
3	Enjoyment of School	7.2	.41	87.0
4	Access to Roles (Teachers)	6.7	.36	90.7
5	Self-Concept Scale	2.7	.34	90.7
6	Negative Labelling (Composite)	1.7	.33	90.7
7	Normlessness	1.1	.32	94.4
8	Social Desires	1.1	.32	92.3
9	Penetration into Juvenile Justice System	1.0	.31	98.1
10	Felony Scale	.7	.30	96.3

Classification Matrix After Tenth Step of Analysis

Type 2	2	4
	26	1
Type 4	1	26

% Correct Classification = $52/54 = 96.3$

FURTHER DEVELOPMENT AND CLARIFICATION OF THIS TYPOLOGY

Further development of this typology can proceed through the clarification of additional differences between the basic types. The typology appears to provide a clear set of social and psychological features which differentiate between each type. The profiles of each describe the social and psychological setting which relates to runaway behavior and from which the youth runs away. Additionally, the whole pattern of concomitant delinquent behavior of each type is clarified. Additional information could clearly improve the descriptive power of the typology specifically in reference to the immediate motives surrounding the runaway episode and the types of experiences and so on that each runner has during the runaway episode. The typology obviously needs validation on other samples. Through "type-matching" across different samples, we might be in a position to gradually add and accumulate much more information about each type, and establish which of the types have high levels of replicability. This process would appear to be very valuable in clarifying the stability and explanatory power of the typology.

NOTES ON ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN RELATION TO RUNNING AWAY

Ethnic differences are probably best clarified through a study of the ethnic characteristics of the typology of runners. Tables (5.1) and (5.2) indicate that each of the five types of runners has a different ethnic breakdown and family situation. Types 1 and 3, for instance, are predominantly minority males from lower social status families. Both of these types have extremely high levels of delinquent behavior. Yet a study of the family situation indicates that there are very clear differences in the extent of "broken homes" between the two types. The additional set of extreme differences between these two types on such variables as Access to Roles, Enjoyment of School, etc., can be seen against these ethnic similarities and family differences. Type 4, on the other hand, primarily reflects the runaway profile of white females.

To augment the ethnic differences that are seen in the typology, Tables (4.47) and (4.48) have been prepared. These simply give the means of the runaways of each different ethnic and sex breakdown against all of the scaled variables included in this study. These are given for descriptive purposes.

Table (4.48) indicates that runaways of all ethnic groups have high scores in regard to poor relationships with parents. This is especially the case for Chicano female runaways. Problems of "boredom" are higher than average for both males and females in the Black and Chicano groups, but not apparently a problem for Anglo runaways. Chicano male runaways, in particular, have very high scores regarding problems with police.

We will not further elaborate on ethnic differences, and the reader with special interest in this topic can consult the different tables and the typological analysis for more information.

Table (4.47) Profiles of Runaways of Different Sex and Ethnicity
(Denver '73)

Variable	Anglo Runaways		Chicano Runaways		Black Runaways		Total Runaways	Total Sample
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
	N=23	N=21	N=20	N=27	N=19	N=22	N=142	
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Penetration into Juvenile Justice System	5.09	5.48	5.60	6.15	5.00	5.18	5.44	4.85
Social Class	21.46	21.17	12.78	13.41	15.39	18.37	17.47	18.91
Ecology concern	16.13	13.10	15.58	13.77	15.84	15.45	14.94	14.89
Access to roles (Friend)	15.48	14.96	12.75	12.87	15.13	14.90	14.31	15.49
Access to roles (teachers)	15.27	15.45	12.06	12.48	15.21	14.59	14.15	15.49
Enjoyment of school	9.30	9.62	7.71	8.07	8.68	9.14	8.75	9.80
Status Offenses	8.57	8.90	9.95	10.63	8.05	9.11	9.26	6.93
Misdemeanors	13.09	12.46	15.25	18.16	12.73	14.79	14.58	11.74
Felonies	7.78	6.67	7.80	9.07	6.67	7.92	7.73	6.49
Total delinquency	29.43	28.04	33.00	37.85	27.40	31.86	31.59	25.13
Social desires	9.48	10.62	8.95	9.30	9.68	8.43	9.40	9.98
Educational desires	10.36	9.33	8.79	9.44	11.32	8.24	9.56	10.59
Self autonomy	9.70	9.38	9.60	9.48	11.34	10.86	10.01	9.75
Labeling by friends	6.78	6.29	5.00	5.22	6.16	6.45	5.98	6.83
Powerlessness/futility	7.95	8.49	8.93	8.79	7.95	8.63	8.47	7.94
Normlessness	4.20	4.40	4.39	4.81	4.68	4.86	4.56	4.29
Perceived indifference/lack of trust	8.92	9.78	9.86	9.87	10.11	9.82	9.71	9.37
Self concept	16.87	15.90	16.04	15.81	17.87	17.67	16.65	17.95
Access to jobs	7.84	7.60	6.75	6.59	7.07	7.38	7.19	7.92
Attitudes toward police	16.91	18.52	19.25	20.22	18.74	18.27	18.68	18.01
Access to education	8.34	8.37	7.53	7.28	8.11	8.17	7.94	8.62
Critical appraisal of school	7.32	6.90	5.67	5.78	5.94	6.38	6.33	7.06
Labeling by parents	11.83	12.71	10.79	10.92	12.58	11.54	11.70	12.04
Labeling by teachers	7.27	6.90	6.63	6.67	7.16	6.82	6.90	7.49
Alienation	21.07	22.62	23.21	23.47	22.74	23.33	22.74	21.59
Roles	47.40	46.70	40.26	40.35	46.18	45.66	44.34	47.59
Labeling	32.32	32.57	28.95	28.15	31.86	31.46	30.80	33.84

Table (4.48) Social Needs and Problems of Denver Runaways of Differing Ethnicity and Sex *

	Anglo Runaways		Chicano Runaways		Black Runaways	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Need for Counseling	-.25	.01	.46	-.13	.20	-.05
Poor Relations with Parents	.39	+.58	1.04	.72	.55	.20
Level of Boredom	-.44	-.33	.43	.02	.34	.60
Racial Tensions	-.16	-.08	.21	.39	.15	-.17
Police/Legal Hassles	.47	.34	-.13	1.16	.35	-.30
Need for Community Facilities	.10	-.08	.12	.54	.06	.44

* All scores in this table are standardized against the overall population mean. This latter set of means were set to zero, therefore, all scores vary around an overall mean of zero. These scores are in fact simple factor scores since these six social needs dimensions were developed through factor analysis of a much larger battery of needs items. Significance tests have not been conducted on this set of scores and the data should be regarded essentially as giving descriptive information about each class of runaways.

THE PREDICTION OF RUNAWAY BEHAVIOR

In this section we study the problem of how to predict who will run away on the basis of various home, peer, and personal variables. On the basis of the earlier studies, it is clearly established that there are many features which differentiate runners from non-runners as groups. A problem is how to combine these different bits of information in such a way that good predictions can be made regarding what kind of youth will run away. Two techniques have been used in this exercise. First, the Stepwise Discriminant Approach has been used to clarify the sets of variables that maximally differentiate between three classes of youth: repeater runners, occasional runners, and non-runners. Using both the Denver City sample and the OYD 1974 data, these three classes of youth were subjected to this kind of analysis. Second, a set of analyses were run using the multiple regression approach with a view to developing prediction equations to predict runaway behavior.

Stepwise Discriminant Analyses

Different sets of variables were used in the two analyses that have been conducted. In the Denver analysis the misdemeanor scale was included along with the scale assessing penetration into the juvenile justice system. The analysis shows that the concomitant delinquent behavior of the runaway is an extremely powerful predictor. It is clear that the more generally delinquent a youth is, the more likely he will be to indulge in runaway behavior. The typological work and the earlier X^2 analyses confirmed these findings. Therefore, the misdemeanor scale and penetration scales contribute largely to the separation of repeaters from occasional runners and non-runners. It is clear that estrangement from the educational system also contributes largely to separating runners from non-runners. At the base of Table (6.1) it can be seen that high levels of accuracy are achieved in correctly classifying repeaters and non-runners.

Table (6.1) Stepwise Discriminant Analysis to Predict Three Levels of Runaway Behavior (City Sample, 1973)

Step Number	Variable Added	F Value	V-Statistic
1	Misdemeanor Scale	89.1	.748
2	Access to Educational Opportunity	7.3	.728
3	Educational Desires Scale	3.3	.719
4	Penetration into Juvenile Justice System	2.7	.712
5	Access to Job	2.3	.706
6	Use of Social Organizations	2.0	.701
7	Normlessness Scale	1.7	.696
8	Self-Concept Scale	1.7	.692
9	Enjoy School Scale	1.7	.687
10	Alienation (Lack of Trust and Social Estrangement)	1.7	.682

Final Classification Matrix

	Never	Seldom	Repeaters
Never Run Away	288	76	35
Seldom Run Away (once/twice)	22	46	14
Repeaters	8	8	37

Total Correctly Classified = 371/534 = 69.5%
 Repeaters Correctly Classified = 37/53 = 69.8%
 Occasional Runners Correctly Classified = 46/82 = 56.1%

The accuracy falls, however, to 56% correct classification in the case of occasional runners. These differences might be expected since it would generally be easier to differentiate between the two extremes than to differentiate the intermediate cases. The scatter plot (Figure 6.1) indicates that most of the non-runners appear in the right hand side of the plot whereas the repeaters and occasional runners are plotted on the left hand side of the plot. Turning to the second set of data all of the delinquent activities of the youth were omitted from the analysis. This prevented such variables from dominating the other factors which operate to differentiate between runners and non-runners. Again a three-way breakdown of repeaters, occasional runners, and non-runners was used.

Table (6.2) indicates the results of this analysis. As was expected, the parental rejection scale emerged as the most powerful discriminator. The second variable chosen indicated the influence of a poor school situation (Negative Labeling by Teachers). The presence of Normlessness and Self-concept again suggest that runners are more alienated and of a lower self-concept than non-runners. The earlier X^2 analyses had suggested these conclusions, and the emergence of the same variables in the discriminant analysis underlines such differences. However, in examining the F-values and the changes in the U-statistic it can be seen that the most important variable by far in this analysis is the parental rejection scale. The absence of all of the delinquency variables, and the more general homogeneity of the OYD 1974 sample have jointly led to a lower level of predictive accuracy. It can be seen from the classification matrix at the base of Table (6.2) that only 55% of the sample are correctly classified. However, as might be expected, the confusion and error related more to differentiating between the non-runners and the occasional runners. The accuracy figure for classifying repeaters is 62%.

-5.300 -4.300 -3.300 -2.300 -1.300 -.300 .700 1.700 2.700 3.700

Figure (6.1) Scatter Plot of Non-Runaways (1), Occasional Runners (2), and Repeaters (3) in Discriminant Space

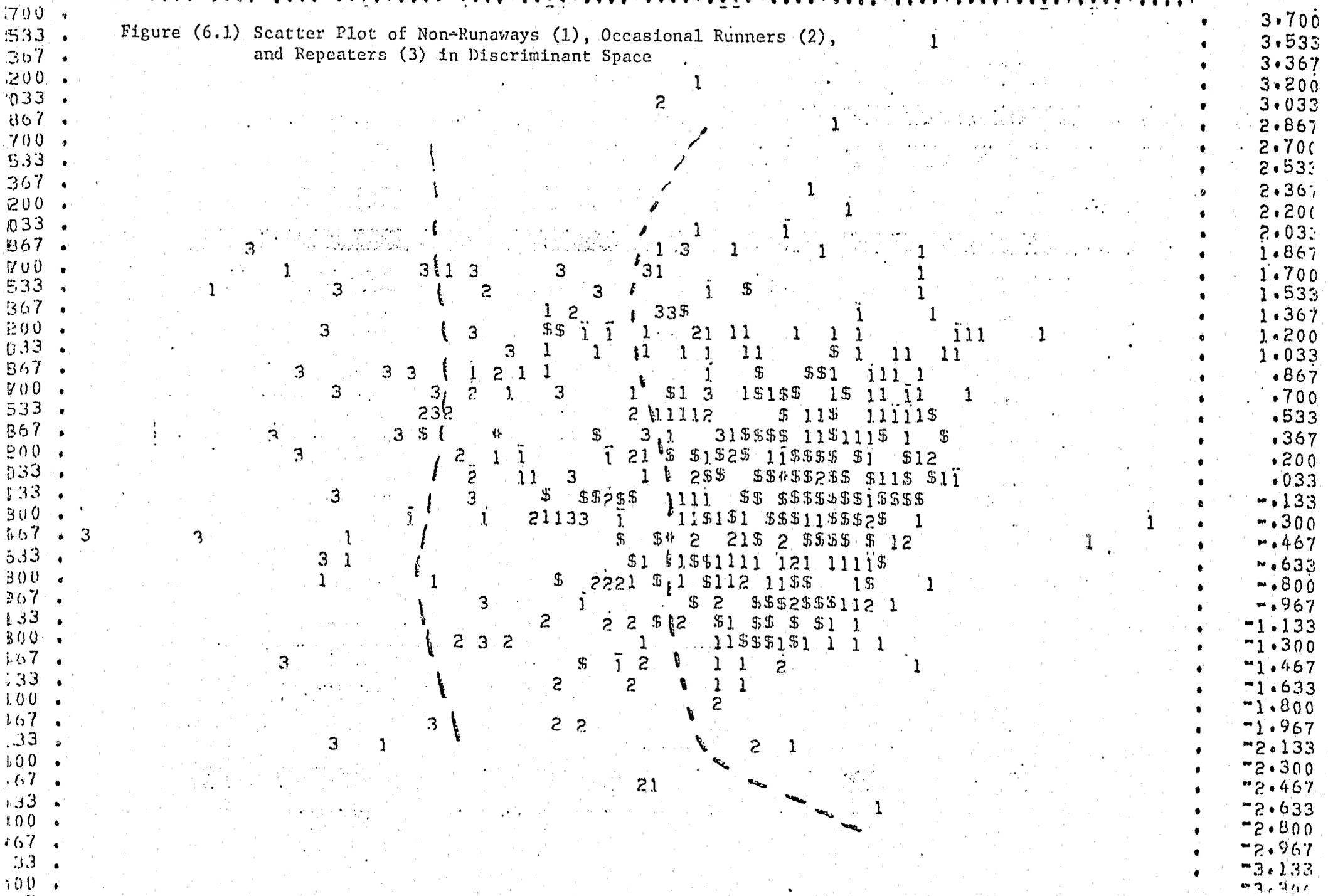


Table (6.2) Stepwise Discriminant Analysis to Predict Three Levels of Runaway Behavior (Never, One-timer, Repeater) Using OYD 1974 Data (N=260 youth)

Step Number	Variable Added	F-Value	U-Statistic
1	Parental Rejection	30.2	.81
2	Negative Labeling by teachers	5.7	.77
3	Normlessness Scale	1.8	.76
4	Self-Concept Scale	1.5	.75
5	Access to Jobs	0.8	.75
6	Access to Education	0.7	.74

Classification Matrix After 6th Step

	Never	Seldom	Repeaters
Never Runaway	99	31	24
Seldom Runaway	27	25	22
Repeater	6	6	20

% ALL youth correctly classified = 55%

% Repeaters correctly classified = 62%

Multiple Regression Analysis

This analysis provides similar results to those given by the discriminant analyses. Table (6.3) indicates that the parental rejection scale emerges as the most powerful predictor and that the addition of all of the other variables brings only a marginal increase in the predictive power of the regression line. Two regression models were run, one containing all of the scaled variables and the other containing only Parental Rejection, Parental Labeling, and Normlessness. The differences in the multiple regression values for these two analyses were marginal.

Table (6.3) Multiple Regression Analysis to Predict Levels of Runaway Behavior using OYD 1974 Data (N=260)

Model A

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta Weight</u>	<u>Standard Error</u>
Parental Rejection	-.39	.01
Labeling (Negative by teachers)	.09 -.08	.01 .01
Self-concept	-.07	.02
Access to Educational Roles	.06	.03
Powerlessness	.06	.03

Multiple Correlation R = 0.496

Multiple Correlation Squared = 0.25

Model B (This is a simpler model using only three predictor variables - Parental Rejection, Negative Labeling by parents, and Normlessness)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Beta Weight</u>
Parental Rejection	-.41
Negative Labeling (parents)	.07
Normlessness	.05

Multiple R = .467

R² = .2188

A SPECIAL ANALYSIS OF REFERRAL
DISPOSITION AND RECIDIVISM IN A RUNAWAY
SHELTER (FREEWAY STATION, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA)

Data collected during fiscal year 1973 allowed for an intensive analysis of the referral and dispositional patterns of over 200 vagrant and runaway youth who passed through the Freeway Station in Lincoln, Nebraska. Additional items of information provided for each client include sex, age, reasons for running, length of stay at the runaway house, and recidivism rate. The interrelationships between all of these variables are examined. To allow the reader a better appreciation of the meaning of the data, we include a brief description of the Freeway Station as it operated during the time that this data was collected. The objectives of this section are essentially to provide a full description of a Runaway Shelter (which is fairly typical) in terms of referral, dispositional patterns and client characteristics.

Description of the Freeway Station

The Lancaster Freeway Station (LFS) is a temporary shelter-care facility for youth under 18 years of age who have run away from home, who need help, who might be awaiting foster home placement or a court appearance, or are detained by the police. Previous to its establishment, runaways and youth awaiting a court appearance were placed in the county's detention facility which is located several miles outside of Lincoln. Although we did not visit the detention facility, we were given the impression that it was not a desirable place for runaway and detained youth.

The LFS has been housed in the Lincoln YMCA. The YSB rented living quarters from the YMCA (two suites each) for the two LFS supervisors and paid the YMCA \$5 per night for single rooms for youth who are housed therein. At least one of the supervisors is on duty at all times.

During the first year of operations all males were provided rooms on the ninth floor of the YMCA and all females were housed on the third floor. A change was necessitated this past summer when the YMCA rented the entire ninth floor. Males were then provided rooms wherever one was available, throughout the building. Youth in residence were given \$3 per day by the YSB for meals which were purchased through the vending machine in the YMCA or at a nearby restaurant.

Youth housed in the LFS were provided access to the total range of recreational facilities in the YMCA (while in residence) as payment for rooms always included YMCA membership for that day. The availability of such recreational opportunities as swimming, basketball, handball, pool, etc., was one important factor in the initial decision to locate the LFS in the YMCA. However, it appeared that the youth made limited use of the facilities.

Youth were received from a few general sources: 1) referral from a law enforcement agency, courts, schools and other community agencies; 2) parents; 3) drop-ins. When the youth arrived from any of the three sources mentioned above they were met by the resident supervisor and given immediate counseling when needed and checked into a room. A representative of the referral source, or the parent had to provide, where possible, a signed consent slip from the parent or guardian for the youth to stay at the Lancaster Freeway Station. Youth who wanted to use the Lancaster Freeway Station could do so only with parents' permission and had to agree for the supervisor to:

1. Call the parents and notify them that the youth was at the Lancaster Freeway Station at the YMCA and ask the parent to call the police department about removing the youths' name from the "missing persons" list. Parents also were notified that the supervisor at the Lancaster Freeway Station would call the police as a routine matter on all youth who came into the Lancaster Freeway Station.

2. Call the police department and report that the youth had checked in and his or her name should be taken off the "missing persons" list. This was a backup call in the event that the parents did not follow through with their responsibility.
3. The youth should agree to receive some further counseling in regard to their problems.
4. The youth must agree to be searched for drugs, alcohol or weapons.
5. All youth would be restricted to the YMCA except for meals, school and work. The youth would be accompanied by the supervisor for all meals except when at school and work. Additional restrictions and special privileges for the youth would be at the discretion of the supervisors.
6. The youth would not make unsupervised telephone calls and all incoming calls would be approved by the supervisor.
7. Arising time was 7:00 a.m. All youth must be in their rooms by 10:00 p.m. and lights must be turned out by 11:00 p.m.

The LFS supervisors worked closely with the police in runaway cases.

When the police were notified of the child's presence at the LFS, the determination was made as to whether the child was a sufficiently "low risk" case to allow LFS residence. Youth who had committed serious crimes, for example, were released to the police and placed in the detention facility. Also, a child was released to the police in the event that he became too difficult to handle.

Once a referral was made, the first procedure was that of determining whether the child's problem merited LFS residence. Many youth placed by the courts and police were awaiting a court appearance and thus were placed in the LFS in lieu of the detention facility. The supervisors immediately counseled youth regarding their problem and at the outset attempted to reopen communications with parents in an effort to work out a reconciliation so that the youth could return home. In the event that the youth could not be returned home arrangements were worked out for foster home placement. In some cases youth were referred to the LFS for temporary shelter while awaiting foster home placement. Throughout the duration of a youth's residence in the LFS,

the supervisors provided counseling on an as-needed basis. In many cases referrals were made to other agencies for needed services. This decision often was made in consultation with the YSB Director.

Community response to the LFS has been quite favorable. Police and Juvenile Court personnel in particular were extremely pleased with the availability of this alternative to their detention facility and used it frequently. The value of the facility to runaway youth was stressed, particularly in the sense that temporary shelter there provided youth with a "cooling-off" period during which they had the opportunity to reassess their situation and "regroup."

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM LINCOLN
FREEWAY STATION ANALYSIS

To protect the reader from the necessity of having to go through all of the following descriptions and tables, the following summary of major findings has been prepared.

Sex Differences

Age	56% of the Freeway Station clients are females. Age differences are marginal between boys and girls.
Source of Referral	Police and juvenile courts are the major referral sources for both sexes. There are no clear differences between the sexes with regard to sources of referral.
Reasons for Running Away	More than half of the male clients are non-runaways (vagrants, police referrals, over 18, etc.). Among the runaways, family problems are the predominant reason for running away.
Disposition	Twice as many boys as girls are released on their own, while more girls than boys are sent to foster homes. Nearly half of both sexes return to their parents. Only 3% of the total sample is sent to a juvenile justice system institution.
Length of Stay at Freeway Station	Three fourths of the clients leave within a week. Sex differences are insignificant.
Recidivism	Nearly 90% of the clients never return. Of the recidivists, there are twice as many girls as boys.

Patterns of Disposition from the Freeway Station

Source of Referral	Those youth referred by the Juvenile Court or other social service agencies have a much lower rate of return to their
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parents than do those referred by other sources.. The police refer the largest number of youth; of these, the majority return to their parents.

Length of Stay Clients tend to stay longer than the average week if their disposition is to a foster home or a non-juvenile justice institution, or if released on their own.

Recidivism Recidivism rates are highest for those who return to parents or are sent to foster homes, and for those sent to institutions. In all cases it is not much higher than 10%.

Referral Source in Relation to Length of Stay and Recidivism

Length of Stay Source of referral does not appear to affect the client's length of stay.

Recidivism Recidivism is highest for those referred by juvenile court or parole. It is lowest for those referred by social services, friends, or parents.

Reasons for Running Away in Relation to Dispositional and Referral Patterns

Length of Stay Those who have been kicked out of their house, have problems with their mothers, or have problems in an institution, stay slightly longer than the average week.

Recidivism Of the few who return to the Freeway Station, the majority have run away because of family problems.

Referral Sources Law enforcement institutions are the largest referral source, but they refer many non-runaways. The majority of self-referrals who have run away are "afraid to go home" or have parental problems.

Disposition The majority of youth with parental problems return to their

parents, although a substantial number are sent to foster homes.

Age Differences

Source of Referral Clients under 12 and over 18 are more likely to be referred by the police than from other sources.

Reasons for Running Away The majority of clients under 12 and over 18 are non-runaways. Family and parental problems are the main reason for running away by youth 13 to 18 years old.

Disposition and Referral As age increases, the likelihood of a client being returned to the parent decreases. Return to parent, however, is the major disposition category.

Length of Stay Most clients of all ages leave within a week,

Recidivism Recidivism levels decrease as age of the client increases.

FINDINGS RELATED TO CLIENT CHARACTERISTICS
AND REFERRALS AND DISPOSITION PATTERNS

Sex and Age of Freeway Station Clients

Table (1.1) indicates that there are clearly more females than males passing through the Freeway Station. Of the total of 255 clients, about 56% are girls. However, there are significant differences in the age distributions of these two groups. There are more boys in the 16-18 age group (56%) as compared to 44% for the girls. These differences, however, are only barely significant.

Sex in Relation to Source of Referral

Table (1.2), Police and Juvenile courts are the major sources of referral for both boys and girls, police accounting for 38% overall, and court accounting for 29% of all referrals. There are no clear differences between the sexes in regard to sources of referrals. Self-referrals account for only 13% of all clients.

Sex in Relation to Reasons for Running Away

Table (1.3) provides extremely interesting information regarding the client population of the Freeway Station. It is clear that a great many of the boys cannot be regarded as runaways. Fully 55% of the male clients fall into the non-runaway category, while only 27% of the females are so classified. An extremely large number of reasons fall into the category of "non-runaway." Many of these youth were over 18 and simply needed a place to stay for the night or had been referred by the police. Many were vagrants from other states. The difference between the sexes in this respect is highly significant. There are clearly more boys falling into this category of client. Examining the other reasons for running away it can be seen that most of the reasons in some sense relate to the presence of serious family

problems. Many runaways mentioned family problems, problems with either mother or father, being afraid to go home, being kicked out of the house. A further large class of clients gave no reason for leaving home.

Sex in Relation to Disposition

There are very large differences between the boys and girls in regard to final disposition from the Freeway Station. More boys are released on their own. Almost twice as many boys as girls are released in this way. Many more girls are released to Foster homes (23%) than boys (7%). The largest dispositional category, however, for both sexes is return to parents. This accounts for 48% of the sample overall. Only 3% of the overall sample are sent into some juvenile justice system institution. Five percent of the clients actually run away from the Freeway Station.

Sex in Relation to Length of Stay at the Freeway Station

There are no large differences between the boy and girl clients in regard to the number of days they spend at the runaway house. The majority of clients leaves within a week (75%). Only 7% of clients overall stay at the Freeway Station for longer than 3 weeks.

Sex in Relation to Recidivism

Nearly 90% of the clients do not return to the Freeway Station once they have gone. Of those who do return, however, many more are girls. The girls have twice the return rate that boys have, i.e., 14% as against 6%.

Age in Relation to Source of Referral

As mentioned previously, police are the major sources of referral. Table (1.7) indicates that the very young clients (under 12) and the older clients (over 18) are more likely to be referred from this source than from other sources. Other than this difference, there do not seem to be very large differences between the referral sources of clients in the different age

categories. All of the different age groups have about the same rates of self-referral.

Age in Relation to Reasons for Running Away

Table (1.10) indicates the breakdowns between the various reasons for running away and the different age groups. The most noticeable feature of the table, as might be expected, is that the majority of persons over 18 fall into the non-runaway group. Similarly, most of the clients under 12 are also not classed as runaways. The table indicates that problems in the family and with parents are given as the main reasons for running away by youth in the middle categories from 13 to 18.

Age in Relation to Disposition and Referral

Table (1.11) indicates a number of very interesting findings. Firstly, it can be seen that as the client age increases, there is a decreasing likelihood of the client being returned to the parent. At the same time being returned to parents still represents the major category of disposition. Most of the older clients are either sent to a foster home or released on their own.

Age in Relation to Length of Stay at the Freeway Station

Table (1.12) indicates that there are no clear differences between the different age groups in regard to the length of stay at the Freeway Station. Although all of the under age 12 clients are released within a week, this group contains very few clients (only 10 children) and consequently the table does not contain any significant differences. Most of the clients in all four of the age categories leave the Freeway house within a week.

Age in Relation to Recidivism

Table (1.13) indicates a clear pattern regarding whether the client will return to the Freeway Station. It can be noticed that recidivism levels

gradually fall with increasing age. None of the over 18 group who have left the Freeway Station are found to reappear, whereas both of the younger age groups have higher recidivism levels.

REASONS FOR RUNNING AWAY IN RELATION TO
DISPOSITIONAL AND REFERRAL PATTERNS

Whereas the above series of tables have examined the sex and age characteristics of the Freeway Station clients in relation to reasons for running and other referrals and dispositional patterns, we now examine in some depth the problems which led to the youth running away in relation to the manner in which the youth are processed through this kind of system.

Reasons for Running in Relation to Length of Stay at the Freeway Station

Table (1.14) again suggests that the majority of clients leave within one week. However, those who have been kicked out of their house, who have problems with their mothers, or who are having problems in the institution in which they live are seen to stay slightly longer than average.

Reasons for Running in Relation to Recidivism

Table (1.15) indicates that although the majority of clients does not return to the Freeway Station, of those who do return there is a disproportionate number who claim "problems with mother", "problems with father", or who are "afraid to go home", or have "been kicked out of the house." Some caution should be maintained regarding these data since the cell sizes in many cases are very small and the resulting proportions rather unstable.

Reasons for Running in Relation to Referral Sources

Table (1.16) and Table (1.17) indicate a very complex pattern of relationships between reasons for running and the source of referral. The second table is given in order to simplify the source of referral into four larger categories, thus increasing the cell sizes and simplifying the table. It can be seen that law enforcement institutions are the single largest source of referral. The largest single category of persons coming from this source, however, is the non-runaway. Most non-runaways would appear

to have been referred to the Freeway Station by law enforcement sources. The majority of self-referrals enter the Freeway Station because they are either "afraid to go home," or because of "parental problems." Many of the self-referrals are older non-runaways, perhaps transient youth.

Reasons for Running Against Disposition

Table (1.18) provides the patterns of disposition for the various categories of reasons for entering the Freeway Station. Of all those youth who give various parental problems it can be seen that the majority return to their parents. However, a substantial number are sent to foster homes. This is especially the case for those who fall into the ungovernable category or who are having problems with their mothers. Many of the non-runaways are sent to foster homes or are released on their own, although again a large number are persuaded to return to their parents (34%).

PATTERNS OF DISPOSITIONS FROM THE FREEWAY STATION

The above sections include a number of breakdowns providing information on dispositional patterns. To enlarge on the above information we have cross-classified dispositional options against a variety of other variables. Taken jointly with the information contained in the above sections these should further clarify the dispositional patterns among the clients of the Freeway Station.

Disposition in Relation to Source of Referral to the Freeway Station

Table (1.19) and Table (1.20) indicate two alternative bases for calculating the percentages relating disposition to source of referral. It is clear that referral from the police forms the largest single source of referral. The majority of youth who are referred to the Station by the police are seen to return to their parents (59%) or to go to foster homes (13%). School referrals and self-referrals also appear to largely return to their

parents. Those youth who enter the Freeway Station from the Juvenile Court or from other social service agencies have a much lower rate of return to their parents, 39% and 23%, respectively. About 11% of all clients are released on their own.

Disposition in Relation to Length of Stay at the Freeway Station

Table (1.21) indicates that the majority of clients (75%) leave within one week. Those dispositional categories which are seen to result in a longer stay at the Freeway Station are 1) when the youth is assigned to a foster home, 2) when the youth is assigned to some non-juvenile justice institution, or 3) when the youth is released on his own. The length of stay is shorter when the youth is referred back to his parents, to other relative, to the justice system, to psychiatric care, or when the youth moves on with no official disposition.

Disposition in Relation to Recidivism

Table (1.22) indicates that only a small number of about 10% of cases are seen again at the Freeway Station after leaving. However, slightly over one youth in ten is seen to return to the Freeway Station for each of the following categories of disposition: 1) those who are sent back to their parents, 2) those who are sent to foster homes, and 3) those who are sent to either a juvenile justice institution or a non-justice institution, such as welfare, etc.

Length of Stay in Relation to Referral Source

Table (1.23) indicates that those who enter the Freeway Station from different referral sources do not have clear differences in the lengths of time which they stay at the Station. In all cases a large proportion of clients leave the Freeway Station within one week, and only a relatively small number remain for more than three weeks.

Recidivism in Relation to Referral Source

Table (1.24) indicates that recidivism is highest in the case of those youth who enter the Freeway Station from the juvenile court or from parole. It is low in the case of those who enter from other social services such as hospitals or who are referred to the Freeway Station by friends or parents.

Table (1.1) Sex Cross-Classified Against Age (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Age	Male N=110 %	Female N=145 %	Total N=255
10-12	4	4	4
13-15	33	47	41
16-18	56	44	49
18 +	7	5	6

$X^2 = 5.647$
degrees of freedom 3
contingency coefficient .147
significant beyond .10

Table (1.2) Sex Cross-Classified Against Source of Referral (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	Male N=111 %	Female N=145 %	Total N=255
police	35	40	38
juvenile court/ state parole	27	30	29
welfare/social services	14	7	10
other help institutions	6	4	5
school	5	2	3
friends	2	1	1
parents	0	1	1
self	11	15	13

$X^2 = 8.680$
degrees of freedom 7
contingency coefficient .181
significance level = ns

Table (1.3) Sex Cross-Classified Against Reason for Runaway (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	Male N=111 %	Female N=145 %	Total N=255
kicked out of house	4	3	3
afraid to go home	0	3	2
parental problems, ungovernable	14	26	21
problems with father	4	10	7
problems with mother	4	7	6
problem in foster home	1	1	1
problem in institution	5	2	4
non-runaways	55	27	39
no reason given	13	21	17

$X^2 = 27.930$
degrees of freedom 8
contingency coefficient .314
significant beyond .005

Table (1.4) Sex Cross-Classified Against Disposition and Referrals (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	Male N=111	Female N=145	Total N=255
back to parents	41	52	48
back to other relatives	9	4	6
to foster home	7	23	16
to non-justice system juvenile institution	11	6	8
to juvenile justice system institution	4	3	3
released on own	17	6	10
counseling agency, psychiatric treatment	1	1	1
ran from runaway house	6	3	5
moved/couldn't follow rules/ no disposition	4	2	3

$X^2 = 24.931$
degrees of freedom 8
contingency coefficient .298
significant beyond .01

Table (1.5) Sex Cross-Classified Against Length of Stay as Runaway (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	Male N=111	Female N=145	Total N=255	
	%	%	%	
1 week	80	71	75	$\chi^2 = 3.012$ degrees of freedom 2 contingency coefficient .108 significance level = ns
1-2 weeks	14	21	18	
3 +	6	8	7	

Table (1.6) Sex Cross-Classified Against Recidivism (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	Male N=111	Female N=145	Total N=255	
	%	%	%	
no	97	86	89	$\chi^2 = 3.735$ degrees of freedom 1 contingency coefficient .120 significant beyond .10
yes	6	14	11	

Table (1.7) Age Cross-Classified Against Source of Referral (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	10-12 N=10	13-15 N=104	16-18 N=126	18+ N=15	Total N=255	
police	80	38	31	66	38	$\chi^2 = 32.154$ degrees of freedom 21 contingency coefficient .335 significant beyond .10
juvenile court/ state parole	0	33	32	0	29	
welfare/social services/hospitals	10	8	13	0	10	
other help institutions	0	2	7	7	5	
school	0	4	2	7	3	
friends	0	1	2	7	2	
parents	0	2	0	0	1	
self	10	12	13	13	12	

Table (1.8) Sex Cross-Classified Against Referral Source (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Referral Source	Male N=111	Female N=145
institution of law	40	60
social service institution	61	39
friends/parents/school	33	67
self	36	64
total	43	57

$\chi^2 = 7.276$
 degrees of freedom 3
 contingency coefficient .166
 significant beyond .10

Table (1.9) Age Cross-classified Against Referral Source (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Referral Source	10-12 N=10	13-15 N=104	16-18 N=126	18 + N=15	total N=255
institution of law	80	71	63	67	67
social service institution	10	13	23	13	18
friends/parents/school	0	3	1	7	2
self	10	13	13	13	13

$\chi^2 = 6.270$
 degrees of freedom 9
 contingency coefficient .155
 significance level = ns

Table (1.10) Age Cross-Classified Against Reason for Running Away (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73) 155

	10-12 N=10 %	13-15 N=104 %	16-18 N=126 %	18+ N=15 %	Total N=255 %	
kicked out of house	10	5	2	0	3	
afraid to go home	0	2	1	0	2	
parental problems, ungovernable	10	25	21	7	21	
problem with father	0	13	3	0	7	$\chi^2 = 42.999$ degrees of freedom 24 contingency coefficient .380 significant beyond .01
problem with mother	10	5	8	0	6	
problem in foster home	0	2	0	0	1	
problem in institution	10	3	4	0	4	
non-runaways	30	25	46	86	39	
no reason given	30	20	15	7	17	

Table (1.11) Age Cross-Classified Against Disposition and Referrals (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	10-12 N=10 %	13-15 N=104 %	16-18 N=126 %	18+ N=15 %	Total N=255 %	
back to parents	70	62	37	20	48	
back to other relatives	0	7	6	6	6	
to foster home	0	15	20	0	16	
to non-justice system juvenile institution	20	6	10	0	8	$\chi^2 = 93.87$ degrees of freedom 24 contingency coefficient .519 significant beyond .005
to juvenile justice system institution	0	6	1	7	3	
released on own	0	0	14	60	11	
counseling agency, psychiatric treatment	10	1	0	0	1	
ran from runaway house	0	2	6	7	4	
moved/couldn't follow rules/ no disposition	0	1	5	0	3	

Table (1.12) Age Cross-Classified Against Length of Stay as Runaway (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73) 156

	10-12 N=10 %	13-15 N=104 %	16-18 N=126 %	18 + N=15 %	Total N=255 %	
1 week	100	75	72	87	75	
2 weeks	0	20	18	13	18	
3 + weeks	0	5	10	0	7	

$\chi^2 = 7.986$
 degrees of freedom 6.
 contingency coefficient .174
 significance level = ns

Table (1.13) Age Cross-Classified Against Recidivism (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	10-12 N=10 %	13-15 N=104 %	16-18 N=126 %	18 + N=15 %	Total N=255 %	
no	80	85	93	100	89	
yes	20	15	7	0	11	

$\chi^2 = 6.819$
 degrees of freedom 3
 contingency coefficient .161
 significant beyond .10

Table (1.14) Length of Stay Cross-Classified Against Reason for 157
Running Away (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Reasons	1 week N=192	2 weeks N=46	3 + weeks N=18
kicked out of house	75	25	0
afraid to go home	100	0	0
ungovernable/ parental problems	68	26	6
problem with father	83	11	6
problem with mother	62	25	13
problem in foster home	100	0	0
problem in institution	56	33	11
non-runaways	76	14	10
no reason given	82	16	2
total	75	18	7

$X^2 = 13.097$
degrees of freedom 16
contingency coefficient .221
significance level = ns

Table (1.15) Recidivism Cross-Classified Against Reason for Running
Away (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Reasons	No Recidivism N=229	Recidivism N=27
kicked out of house	75	25
afraid to go home	75	25
ungovernable/parental problems	93	7
problem with father	78	22
problem with mother	69	31
problem in foster home	100	0
problem in institution	100	0
non-runaways	94	6
no reason given	89	11

$X^2 = 16.690$
degrees of freedom 8
contingency coefficient .247
significant beyond .05

Table (1.16) Reasons for Runaway Cross-Classified Against Referral Sources
(Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Referral Source	kicked out of house N=8 %	afraid to go home N=4 %	ungovernable/ parental problems N=54 %	problem with father N=18 %	problem with mother N=16 %	problem in fos- ter home N=2 %	problem in institution N=9 %	non- runaway N=101 %	no reason given N=44 %	total N=256 %
police	38	25	30	56	31	0	22	36	52	38
juvenile court/ parole	25	25	28	33	44	100	34	30	18	29
social services	12	0	7	0	6	0	22	13	12	10
other help institutions	0	0	0	0	6	0	11	8	5	4
school	25	0	7	0	0	0	0	2	0	3
friends	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	2	2
parents	0	0	2	0	6	0	0	0	0	1
self	0	50	24	11	6	0	11	9	11	13

$\chi^2 = 16.761$
degrees of freedom 56
contingency coefficient .455

Table (1.17) Referral Source Cross-Classified Against Reasons for Running Away (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Reasons	Institution of law N=171 %	Social Services Institution N=46 %	Friends Parents School N=6 %	Self N=33 %	Total N=256 %	
kicked out of house	3	7	0	0	3	
afraid to go home	1	0	0	6	2	
ungovernable/ parental problems	18	17	33	39	21	
problem with father	10	0	0	6	7	
problem with mother	7	4	17	3	6	
problem in foster home	1	0	0	0	1	
problem in institution	3	7	0	3	4	
non-runaways	39	50	33	27	39	
no reason given	18	15	17	15	17	

$\chi^2 = 27.353$
degrees of freedom 24
contingency coefficient .311
significance level = ns

Table (1.18) Reason for Running Away Cross-Classified Against Disposition (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Disposition	kicked out of house N=8 %	afraid to go home N=14 %	ungovernable/parental problems N=54 %	problem with father N=18 %	problem with mother N=16 %	problem in foster home N=2 %	problem in institution N=9 %	non-runaway N=101 %	no reason given N=44 %	total N=256 %
back to parents	50	100	57	78	44	0	22	34	57	48
back to other relatives	12	0	4	6	13	0	22	5	7	6
to foster home	13	0	22	11	25	50	0	16	11	16
to non-justice system institution	0	0	9	0	6	0	3	8	9	8
to juvenile justice system institution	0	0	0	5	0	50	22	1	7	3
released on own	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	25	0	10
counseling agency/ psychiatric treatment	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	2	1
ran away	12	0	2	0	6	0	0	7	5	5
moved/ no disposition	13	0	2	0	0	0	0	4	2	3

$\chi^2 = 117.83$
degrees of freedom 63
contingency coefficient .561

Table (1.19) Referral Source Cross-Classified Against Disposition (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Disposition	Police N=97 %	Juvenile Court/ Parole N=74 %	Social Services N=26 %	Other Help Institution N=12 %	School N=8 %	Friends N=4 %	Parents N=2 %	Self N=33 %	Total N=256 %
back to parents	59	39	23	25	63	25	50	61	48
back to other relatives	7	6	4	17	13	0	50	0	6
to foster home	13	27	19	8	0	25	0	6	16
to non justice system institution	5	11	15	17	0	0	0	6	8
to justice system institution	1	5	4	8	0	0	0	3	3
released on own	10	5	12	25	12	25	0	15	11
counseling	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
ran away	1	3	15	0	12	25	0	9	4
moved/no disposition	2	4	8	0	0	0	0	0	3

$\chi^2 = 72.510$
 degrees of freedom 56
 contingency coefficient .470

Referral Source	back to parents N=122 %	back to other relatives N=16 %	to foster home N=41 %	to non- justice system institution N=21 %	to justice system institution N=8 %	released on own N=27 %	counseling psychiatric treatment N=2 %	ran away N=12 %	moved/ no dispo- sition N=7 %	total N=256 %
police	47	44	29	24	13	37	100	8	29	38
juvenile court/ parole	24	25	49	38	50	15	0	17	43	29
social services/ hospitals	5	6	12	19	12	11	0	34	28	10
other help institutions	2	13	3	10	13	11	0	0	0	5
school	4	6	0	0	0	4	0	8	0	3
friends	1	0	2	0	0	4	0	8	0	1
parents	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
self	16	0	5	9	12	18	0	25	0	13
$X^2 = 72.510$ degrees of freedom 56 contingency coefficient .470										

Table (1.21) Disposition Cross-Classified against Length of Stay (Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Length of Stay	back to parents N=122 %	back to other relatives N=16 %	to foster home N=41 %	to non- justice system institution N=21 %	to justice system institution N=8 %	released on own N=27 %	counseling psychiatric treatment N=2 %	ran away N=12 %	moved/ no dispo- sition N=7 %	total N=256 %
1 week	87	75	41	67	75	74	100	75	86	75
2 weeks	11	25	39	19	25	11	0	17	14	18
3 + weeks	2	0	20	14	0	15	0	8	0	7
$X^2 = 44.075$ degrees of freedom 16 contingency coefficient .383 significant beyond .005										

Table (1.22) Recidivism Cross-Classified Against Disposition
(Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

Disposition	No Recidivism N=229	Recidivism N=27
back to parents	89	11
back to other relatives	100	0
to foster home	85	15
to non-justice system institution	90	10
to juvenile justice system institution	88	12
released on own	96	4
counseling agency/ psychiatric treatment	0	100
ran away	92	8
moved/no disposition	100	0
total	89	11

$\chi^2 = 21.970$
degrees of freedom 8
contingency coefficient .281
significant beyond .01

Table (1.23) Length of Stay Cross-Classified Against Referral Source
(Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	1 week N=192 %	2 weeks N=46 %	3+ weeks N=18 %	total N=256 %
police	43	17	33	38
juvenile court/ parole	23	52	28	29
social services/ hospitals	9	13	11	10
other help institutions	4	7	11	4
school	3	7	0	3
friends	1	2	6	2
parents	1	0	0	1
self	16	2	11	13

$\chi^2 = 30.753$
degrees of freedom 14
contingency
coefficient .327
significant beyond .01

Table (1.24) Recidivism Cross-Classified Against Referral Source
(Lincoln Freeway Station FY '73)

	No Recidivism N=229	Recidivism N=27
Police	93	7
juvenile court/ parole	81	19
social services/ hospitals	100	0
other help institutions	92	8
school	88	12
friends	100	0
parents	100	0
self	88	12
total	89	11

$\chi^2 = 10.592$
degrees of freedom 7
contingency
coefficient .199
significance level = ns

Table (2.1) Parents Would Help in Serious Trouble Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Always	Most of the time	About Half of the Time	Seldom	Never	
N=	159	40	26	22	13	$\chi^2 = 31.321$ df = 8 Contingency Coefficient .328 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	69	55	36	8	59	
Sometimes	23	32	41	46	29	
Very Often	8	13	23	46	12	

Table (2.2) Parents Find Fault Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Always	Most of the time	About Half of the Time	Seldom	Never	
N=	28	49	68	81	34	$\chi^2 = 28.844$ df = 8 Contingency Coefficient .316 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	36	49	59	72	65	
Sometimes	25	39	32	21	26	
Very Often	39	12	9	7	9	

Table (2.3) Parents Really Care Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Always	Most of the Time	About Half of the Time	Seldom	Never	
N=	166	50	24	13	6	$\chi^2 = 34.661$ df = 8 Contingency Coefficient .344 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	71	44	38	31	17	
Sometimes	21	44	38	31	67	
Very Often	8	12	24	38	16	

Table (2.4) Self-Concept Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	High Self-Concept	Low Self-Concept	
N=	127	133	$\chi^2 = 12.139$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .211 Significant beyond .01
	%	%	
Often	9	16	
Once or twice	21	35	
Never Runaway	70	49	

Table (2.5) Parental Rejection Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Low Rejection	High Rejection	
N=	160	100	$\chi^2 = 31.441$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .328 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	
Often	5	24	
Once or twice	24	36	
Never Runaway	71	40	

Table (2.6) Parents' Marital Status Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Married Living Together	Divorced	Separated	Other	
N=	145	68	29	17	$\chi^2 = 18.78$ df = 6 Contingency Coefficient .01 Significant beyond .01
	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	61	46	76	71	
Sometimes	29	38	21	0	
Very Often	10	16	3	29	

Table (2.7) Parents Blame You for Their Problems Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Always	Most of the Time	About Half of the Time	Seldom	Never	
N=	15	22	34	59	129	$X^2 = 29.087$ df = 8 Contingency Coefficient .31 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	27	23	50	66	69	
Sometimes	47	50	32	22	25	
Very Often	26	27	18	12	6	

Table (2.8) Close Friends in Trouble in Last Two Months Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Yes	No	
N=	175	82	$X^2 = 14.766$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .233 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	
Runaway Never	52	73	
Sometimes	31	24	
Very Often	17	3	

Table (2.9) Member of Gang Which Often Breaks the Law Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Yes	No	
N=	31	225	$X^2 = 34.896$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .346 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	
Runaway Never	42	61	
Sometimes	13	31	
Very Often	45	8	

Table (2.10) Social Estrangement Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	High Estrangement	Low Estrangement	
N=	108	152	$X^2 = 3.516$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .116 Significance level=ns
	%	%	
Runaway			
Very Often	17	9	
Sometimes	29	28	
Never	54	63	

Table (2.11) Total Delinquency Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	High Delinquency	Low Delinquency	
N=	104	156	$X^2 = 36.706$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .352 Significant beyond .001
	%	%	
Runaway			
Very Often	26	3	
Sometimes	33	26	
Never	41	71	

Table (2.12) Labeling by Parents Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Negative Labeling	Positive Labeling	
N=	132	128	$X^2 = 10.014$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .192 Significant beyond .01
	%	%	
Runaway			
Very Often	17	7	
Sometimes	32	25	
Never	51	68	

Table (2.13) Access to Educational Opportunity Cross Classified
Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	High Access	Low Access	
N=	146	114	$X^2 = 15.017$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	5	21	Coefficient .234
Sometimes	29	28	Significant
Never	66	51	beyond .001

Table (2.14) Access to Job Opportunity Cross Classified
Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	High Access	Low Access	
N=	114	146	$X^2 = 6.059$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	9	15	Coefficient .151
Sometimes	24	32	Significant
Never	67	53	beyond .05

Table (2.15) Normlessness Cross Classified Against Runaway
(OYD '74)

	High Normlessness	Low Normlessness	
N=	124	136	$X^2 = 7.158$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	18	7	Coefficient .164
Sometimes	29	28	Significant
Never	53	65	beyond .05

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Table (2.16) Labeling by Friends Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Negative Labeling	Positive Labeling	
N=	129	131	$X^2 = 2.974$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	16	9	Coefficient .106
Sometimes	29	27	Significance
Never	55	63	level = ns

Table (2.17) Labeling by Teachers Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Negative Labeling	Positive Labeling	
N=	126	134	$X^2 = 13.475$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	20	5	Coefficient .222
Sometimes	24	33	Significant
Never	56	62	beyond .01

Table (2.18) Powerlessness Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Low Powerlessness	High Powerlessness	
N=	99	161	$X^2 = .201$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway			Contingency
Very Often	13	12	Coefficient .028
Sometimes	29	28	Significance
Never	58	60	level=ns

Table (2.21) Reason Involved with YSS Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Recom. by Self		Misde- meanor	Status Offense	School Home	Police/ Court	No Reason	Other	
	Friends	Ref. Felony							
N=	18	74	7	32	22	54	28	8	16
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	67	66	100	75	18	52	54	75	50
Sometimes	22	33	0	19	59	33	32	25	31
Very Often	11	11	0	6	23	15	14	0	19

Table (2.22) Source of Referral to YSS Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Police	Probation	Court	Parents	Friends	School	Welfare	Self	Other
	N=	61	7	13	32	56	40	0	13
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	59	43	62	66	63	63	0	46	50
Sometimes	30	43	23	25	30	22	0	31	33
Very Often	11	14	15	9	7	15	0	23	17

Table (2.23) Voluntary or Forced Involvement Cross Classified Against Runaway (OYD '74)

	Voluntary	Forced
N=	215	42
	%	%
Runaway Never	61	50
Sometimes	28	33
Very Often	11	17

$X^2 = 1.951$
 $df = 2$
 Contingency Coefficient .087
 Significance level = ns

Table (3.1) Runaway Behavior Cross-Classified Against Youth-Parent Relationship for OYD 1973 (YSS Sample and Probation Sample)

		YSS Runaway			Probation Runaway			
		Never	Some- times	Very Often	Never	Some times	Very Often	
Mother satisfied with you		%	%	%	%	%	%	
yes	n=69	68	26	6	n=69	61	26	13
no	n=67	48	33	19	n=42	60	19	21
don't know	n=12	50	42	8	n=16	44	31	25
Father satisfied with you								
yes	n=28	72	21	7	n=54	56	31	13
no	n=55	42	34	24	n=32	66	9	25
don't know	n=65	65	31	4	n=41	56	27	17
Mother interested in what you say								
yes	n=102	64	27	9	n=99	62	23	15
no	n=29	35	41	24	n=14	43	21	36
don't know	n=17	59	29	12	n=14	50	36	14
Father interested in what you say								
yes	n=50	60	26	14	n=60	60	25	15
no	n=27	33	37	30	n=23	52	17	31
don't know	n=71	65	31	4	n=44	59	27	14
It helps to talk to mother								
yes	n=46	74	22	4	n=57	63	23	14
no	n=53	43	36	21	n=36	47	28	25
don't know	n=48	58	31	11	n=33	61	24	15
It helps to talk to father								
yes	n=18	94	0	5	n=31	68	16	16
no	n=98	52	35	13	n=48	54	23	23
don't know	n=32	53	34	13	n=47	55	32	13

Table (3.2) Runaway Behavior Cross-Classified Against School Items 173
for OYD 1973 (YSS Sample and Probation Sample)

		YSS Runaway			
		Never	Some- times	Very Often	
		%	%	%	
Have you ever skipped school without an excuse?					
	very often	n=27	33	45	22
	several times	n=39	44	33	23
	1-2 times	n=45	69	29	2
	never	n=37	76	19	5
Have you ever given teacher a fake excuse?					
	very often	n=23	48	35	17
	several times	n=42	55	26	19
	1-2 times	n=58	57	36	7
	never	n=25	72	20	8
It's hard to stay in school					
	agree	n=76	53	35	12
	disagree	n=72	63	25	12
Most friends will graduate					
	agree	n=96	54	32	14
	disagree	n=52	63	27	10
You'll probably graduate					
	agree	n=27	67	26	7
	disagree	n=121	55	32	13
Advantages to dropping out					
	agree	n=26	50	31	19
	disagree	n=122	59	30	11
Get along well with teachers					
	agree	n=120	63	28	9
	disagree	n=28	32	43	25
Parents upset if you drop out					
	agree	n=136	58	30	12
	disagree	n=12	50	33	17
What are the chances your friends will remember you as a student body leader					
	very good	n=25	60	32	8
	good	n=23	78	17	5
	fair	n=39	67	26	7
	not very good	n=61	43	38	19
Active in extracurricular activities					
	very good	n=33	61	36	3
	good	n=48	67	29	4
	fair	n=29	62	24	14
	not very good	n=38	39	32	29

Table (3.2) continued-- Runaway Behavior Cross-Classified Against School 174
Items for OYD 1973 (YSS Sample and Probation Sample)

		YSS Runaway			
		Never	Some- times	Very Often	
What are the chances your teacher will remember you as a good student?					
	very good	n=21	43	43	14
	good	n=57	72	21	7
	fair	n=50	52	42	6
	not very good	n=20	45	15	40
Active in extra-curricular activities?					
	very good	n=27	56	44	0
	good	n=51	67	25	8
	fair	n=38	55	26	19
	not very good	n=32	47	31	22

Table (3.3) Runaway Behavior Cross-Classified Against Response to YSS/Probation for OYD 1973 (YSS Sample and Probation Sample)

		YSS Runaway			Probation Runaway			
		Never	Some- times	Very Often	Never	Some- times	Very Often	
		%	%	%	%	%	%	
Parents encourage your participation?								
yes	n=93	65	26	9	n=95	58	26	16
no/ don't know	n=54	44	37	19	n=32	59	19	22
Does the staff care?								
yes	n=121	57	30	13	n=86	56	28	16
no/ don't know	n=26	62	31	7	n=41	63	17	20
Do you trust the staff:								
yes	n=135	58	30	12	n=95	56	25	19
no/ don't know	n=13	46	19	15	n=32	66	22	12
Change in you due to contact?								
yes	n=121	57	31	12	n=79	58	27	15
no/ don't know	n=27	59	30	11	n=48	58	21	21
Change in circumstances due to contact?								
yes	n=83	52	36	12	n=33	40	36	24
no/ don't know	n=65	65	23	12	n=94	65	20	15
Referral source								
1. court	n=4	50	25	25	n=1	100	0	0
2. probation	n=5	20	40	40	n=51	67	21	12
3. police	n=44	52	37	11	n=50	64	16	20
4. welfare	n=1	100	0	0	n=3	0	67	33
5. school	n=16	69	19	12	n=5	20	60	20
6. parents	n=16	31	50	19	n=12	17	50	33
7. self/friends/ other	n=62	68	24	8	n=5	80	20	0

Table (4.1) Chances Friends See You as an Average Guy/Girl Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	
N=	129	202	141	30	$\chi^2 = 21.027$ df = 6
	%	%	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .200
Runaway Never	81	78	69	57	Significant beyond .01
Sometimes	14	16	17	17	
Very Often	5	6	14	26	

Table (4.2) Chances Teachers See You as Popular Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	
N=	55	149	185	119	$\chi^2 = 11.932$ df = 6
	%	%	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .151
Runaway Never	75	79	70	67	Significant beyond .10
Sometimes	14	14	20	13	
Very Often	11	7	10	20	

Table (4.3) Chances Teachers See you as an Average Guy/Girl Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	
N=	132	196	131	44	$\chi^2 = 32.415$ df = 6
	%	%	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .246
Runaway Never	80	81	64	57	Significant beyond .001
Sometimes	14	15	21	16	
Very Often	6	4	15	27	

Table (4.4) Get Along with Teachers Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Disagree	Agree	$X^2 = 35.986$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .257 Significant beyond .001
N=	122	387	
	%	%	
Runaway Never	58	79	
Sometimes	18	16	
Very Often	24	5	

Table (4.5) Your Teachers are Good at Teaching Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	$X^2 = 35.139$, df = 8 Contingency Coefficient .253 Significant beyond .001
N=	96	216	95	68	40	
	%	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	84	78	72	66	50	
Sometimes	11	16	17	18	18	
Very Often	4	6	11	16	32	

Table (4.6) Frequency Skipped School Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Very Often	Several Times	Once or Twice	Never	$X^2 = 88.258$ df = 6 Contingency Coefficient .382 Significant beyond .001
N=	51	86	148	231	
	%	%	%	%	
Runaway Never	51	51	74	87	
Sometimes	12	28	20	10	
Very Often	37	21	6	3	

Table (4.7) Critical Appraisal of School Scales Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Opinion	High Opinion	$X^2 = 23.034$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .208 Significant beyond .001
N=	247	263	
	%	%	
Runaway Never	66	82	
Sometimes	18	13	
Very Often	16	5	

Table (4.8) Enjoyment of School Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low enjoyment	High enjoyment	$X^2 = 10.931$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .143 Significant beyond .01
N=	226	294	
	%	%	
Runaway Never	69	78	
Sometimes	16	15	
Very Often	15	7	

Table (4.9) Educational Desires Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Desire	High Desire	$X^2 = 20.932$ df = 2 Contingency Coefficient .197 Significant beyond .001
N=	209	308	
	%	%	
Runaway Never	66	80	
Sometimes	17	14	
Very Often	17	6	

Table (4.10) Your Friends Expect You to Graduate Cross Classified Against Runaways (Denver '73)

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
N=	130	149	160	52	25
	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	85	77	72	52	56
Sometimes	12	17	14	27	12
Very Often	3	6	14	21	32

$X^2 = 40.420$
 $df = 8$
 Contingency Coefficient .270
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.11) Chances Friends See You as Active in Extracurricular Activities Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	<u>Very Good</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>	
N=	106	133	150	113	$X^2 = 18.718$
	%	%	%	%	$df = 6$
Runaway Never	78	75	82	61	Contingency Coefficient .190
Sometimes	12	19	11	22	Significant beyond .01
Very Often	10	6	7	17	

Table (4.12) Chances Friends See You as Popular Cross Classified Against Runaways (Denver '73)

	<u>Very Good</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>	
N=	117	186	159	48	$X^2 = 17.194$
	%	%	%	%	$df = 6$
Runaway Never	83	76	69	60	Contingency Coefficient .180
Sometimes	8	17	20	19	Significant beyond .01
Very Often	9	7	11	21	

Table (4.13) Access to Social Roles Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	<u>Low Access</u>	<u>High Access</u>	
N=	205	316	$X^2 = 6.734$
	%	%	$df = 2$
Runaway Never	74	74	Contingency Coefficient .113
Sometimes	12	18	Significant beyond .05
Very Often	14	8	

Table (4.14) Access to Job Opportunity Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	<u>Low Access</u>	<u>High Access</u>	
N=	195	321	$X^2 = 26.691$
	%	%	$df = 2$
Runaway Never	63	81	Contingency Coefficient .222
Sometimes	19	14	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	18	5	

Table (4.15) Access to Educational Opportunity Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	<u>Low Access</u>	<u>High Access</u>	
N=	204	317	$X^2 = 48.434$
	%	%	$df = 2$
Runaway Never	61	83	Contingency Coefficient .292
Sometimes	18	14	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	21	3	

Table (4.16) Access to Social Roles Among Teachers Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Access	High Access	
N=	244	264	$\chi^2 = 10.923$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency
			Coefficient .145
			Significant
			beyond .01
Runaway Never	68	80	
Sometimes	18	14	
Very Often	14	6	

Table (4.17) Access to Social Roles Among Friends Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Access	High Access	
N=	257	254	$\chi^2 = 12.884$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency
			Coefficient .157
			Significant
			beyond .01
Runaway Never	69	80	
Sometimes	17	14	
Very Often	14	6	

Table (4.18) Labeling by Teachers Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Negative Label	Positive Label	
N=	228	285	$\chi^2 = 14.429$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency
			Coefficient .165
			Significant
			beyond .001
Runaway Never	66	80	
Sometimes	19	13	
Very Often	15	7	

Table (4.19) Labeling by Friends Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Negative Label	Positive Label	
N=	231	282	$\chi^2 = 32.897$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency
			Coefficient .245
			Significant
			beyond .001
Runaway Never	64	82	
Sometimes	18	14	
Very Often	18	4	

Table (4.20) Combined Labeling Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Negative Label	Positive Label	
N=	242	278	$\chi^2 = 39.082$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency
			Coefficient .264
			Significant
			beyond .001
Runaway Never	62	84	
Sometimes	20	12	
Very Often	18	4	

Table (4.21) Labeling by Parents Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Negative Label	Postive Label	
N=	176	344	$X^2 = 10.625$ $df = 2$
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .142
			Significant beyond .01
Runaway Never	69	77	
Sometimes	15	16	
Very Often	16	7	

Table (4.22) Kind of Place You Live Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	House	Apartment	Trailer	Hotel	Institutions
N=	215	227	72	3	6
	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	76	77	63	100	33
Sometimes	15	16	15	0	50
Very Often	9	7	22	0	17

$X^2 = 21.197$, $df = 8$
Contingency Coefficient .197
Significant beyond .02

Table (4.23) Father Works Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	No	Yes	
N=	51	415	$X^2 = 18.629$ $df = 2$
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .196
			Significant beyond .001
Runaway Never	57	78	
Sometimes	18	14	
Very Often	25	8	

Table (4.24) Parents Upset if You'd Drop Out Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Disagree	Agree	
N=	65	436	$X^2 = 18.601$ $df = 2$
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .19
			Significant beyond .001
Runaway Never	58	77	
Sometimes	17	15	
Very Often	25	8	

Table (4.25) Placed on Probation in Last Year Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Probation	No	Yes
N=	469	50
	%	%
Runaway Never	77	44
Sometimes	15	26
Very Often	8	30

$X^2 = 30.720$
 $df = 4$
 Contingency Coefficient .236
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.26) Penetration into Justice System Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Penetration	High Penetration
N=	299	222
	%	%
Runaway Never	85	59
Sometimes	11	23
Very Often	4	18

$X^2 = 47.422$
 $df = 2$
 Contingency Coefficient .289
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.27) Self-Reported Status Offense Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Rare Offenders	Frequent Offenders
N=	288	235
	%	%
Runaway Never	95	49
Sometimes	5	29
Very Often	0	22

$X^2 = 142.838$
 $df = 2$
 Contingency Coefficient .463
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.28) Stopped and Warned in Last Year Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Number of Times Warned	1	2	3
N=	337	182	1
	%	%	%
Runaway Never	82	59	100
Sometimes	12	22	0
Very often	6	19	0

$X^2 = 33.560$
 $df = 4$
 Contingency Coefficient .25
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.29) Involved with Juvenile Court in Last Year Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Number of times involved	1	2	3
N=	435	86	0
	%	%	%
Runaway Never	79	48	0
Sometimes	15	22	0
Very Often	6	30	0

$X^2 = 51.454$
 $df = 4$
 Contingency Coefficient 0.300
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.30) Arrests in Last Year Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Number of Times Arrested	1	2	3
N=	432	89	0
	%	%	%
Runaway Never	79	48	0
Sometimes	14	24	0
Very Often	7	28	0

$X^2 = 46.252$
 $df = 4$
 Contingency Coefficient .286
 Significant beyond .001

Table (4.31) Misdemeanor Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Rare Offenders	Frequent Offenders	
N=	337	187	$X^2 = 88.547$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	87	51	Contingency Coefficient .380
Sometimes	11	25	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	2	24	

Table (4.32) Felony Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Rare Offenders	Frequent Offenders	
N=	393	131	$X^2 = 82.293$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	83	47	Contingency Coefficient .370
Sometimes	13	24	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	4	29	

Table (4.33) Total Delinquency Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Delinquency	High Delinquency	
N=	351	163	$X^2 = 128.283$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	89	45	Contingency Coefficient .447
Sometimes	10	29	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	1	26	

Table (4.34) Attitude Toward Police Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Opinion	High Opinion	
N=	279	244	$X^2 = 5.249$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	70	79	Contingency Coefficient .100
Sometimes	18	13	Significant beyond .10
Very Often	12	8	

Table (4.35) Powerlessness/Futility Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Futility/ Powerlessness	High Futility/ Powerlessness	
N=	221	293	$X^2 = 16.494$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	82	68	Contingency Coefficient .176
Sometimes	13	18	Significant beyond .001
Very Often	5	14	

Table (4.36) Social Desires Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Desire	High Desire	
N=	233	286	$X^2 = 7.002$
	%	%	df = 2
Runaway Never	69	78	Contingency Coefficient .115
Sometimes	17	15	Significant beyond .05
Very Often	14	7	

Table (4.37) Age Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Age	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
N=	32	26	41	41	77	102	86	64	55
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	94	88	78	78	73	67	67	72	80
Sometimes	6	4	12	10	14	20	20	17	18
Very Often	0	8	10	12	13	14	13	11	2

$X^2 = 22.340$
df = 16
Contingency Coefficient .20
Significance level=ns

Table (4.38) Perceived Indifference/Lack of Trust Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Lack of Trust	High Trust	
N=	254	262	$X^2 = 12.600$ df = 2
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .154
Runaway Never	67	81	Significant
Sometimes	19	12	beyond .01
Very Often	14	7	

Table (4.39) Social Group Membership Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

Number of groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
N=	9	84	105	50	116	153	7
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Runaway Never	78	63	74	86	82	71	71
Sometimes	22	17	17	10	10	19	29
Very Often	0	20	9	4	8	10	0

$X^2 = 23.951$
df = 12
Contingency Coefficient .209
Significant beyond .05

Table (4.40) Social Class Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Social Class	High Social Class	
N=	228	211	$X^2 = 8.517$ df = 2
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .138
Runaway Never	72	81	Significant
Sometimes	15	14	beyond .02
Very Often	13	5	

Table (4.41) Need for Self Autonomy Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Desire	High Desire	
N=	235	282	$X^2 = 1.672$ df = 2
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .057
Runaway Never	76	72	Significance
Sometimes	14	18	level=ns
Very Often	10	10	

Table (4.42) Alienation Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Not Alienated	Alienated	
N=	275	241	$X^2 = 20.727$ df = 2
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .196
Runaway Never	82	65	Significant
Sometimes	11	20	beyond .001
Very Often	7	15	

Table (4.43) Normlessness Scale Cross Classified Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Normlessness	High Normlessness	
N=	325	192	$X^2 = 28.316$ df = 2
	%	%	Contingency Coefficient .228
Runaway Never	81	62	Significant
Sometimes	13	20	beyond .001
Very Often	6	18	

Table (4.44) Combined Roles Scale Cross Classified
Against Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Access	High Access	
N=	256	260	$X^2 = 15.621$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency Coefficient .171
Runaway Never	68	81	Significant
Sometimes	17	14	beyond .001
Very Often	15	5	

Table (4.45) Concern for Ecology Cross Classified Against
Runaway (Denver '73)

	Low Concern	High Concern	
N=	254	265	$X^2 = 3.344$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency Coefficient .080
Runaway Never	78	71	Significance
Sometimes	13	18	level=ns
Very Often	9	11	

Table (4.46) Self-Concept Scale Cross Classified Against
Runaway (Denver '73)

	Negative Self-Concept	Positive Self-Concept	
N=	240	276	$X^2 = 32.485$
	%	%	df = 2
			Contingency Coefficient .243
Runaway Never	63	84	Significant
Sometimes	21	11	beyond .001
Very Often	16	5	

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