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Characteristics Of Student Judicial Offenders

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the characteristics of student judicial offenders. The sample was composed of 1,179 college students who were found guilty of violating rules and standards at a Midwestern university over a ten year period, 1985-1994. Nineteen demographic characteristics were examined. These variables were: alcohol use, maternal education and occupation, paternal education and occupation, a measure of socio-economic status, hometown size, affiliation in a Greek letter organization, major, semester and cumulative grade point average, class standing, ethnicity, gender, residence, and verbal, math and total SAT scores. Also, the characteristics of offenders who were repeat offenders and those students who were involved in serious offenses were examined.

Two null hypotheses were examined. The first investigated the variables or any subset of variables that would predict level of offense utilizing a multiple discriminant analysis. The second investigated the variables or any subset of variables that would predict recidivism utilizing a multiple discriminant analysis.

A stepwise multiple discriminant analyses provided insight into offenders who were involved in serious offenses and those who were repeat offenders. Five predictor variables were determined for offenders involved in serious offenses. These included: alcohol use, gender, residence, major, and Greek affiliation. Three predictor variables were determined for repeat offenders which included: class standing, cumulative grade point average, and ethnicity. Demographic data provided a profile of the average student judicial offender.

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INTRODUCTION

In the history of higher education, student conduct and university discipline processes have been an integral part of the moral and ethical training and control of students. Public confessions, fines, corporal punishment and expulsion from the institution were examples of penalties for violations of conduct rules. Before the 1900s discipline was administered routinely by the president of the college (Leonard, 1956). With the separation of church and state and the expansion of colleges' missions and objectives, the processes of conduct changed. Faculty members on campuses were assigned as conduct specialists using counseling and guidance in their dealings with offenders, and corporal punishment diminished as an intervention (Scheltin, 1967).

By the 20th century, conduct responsibilities were assigned to deans of women and deans of men. Student personnel deans were selected based on their ability to communicate and develop rapport with students. The dean's

role was to assist in the holistic and humanistic development of their students. Counseling became a form of corrective action (Fley, 1964).

In the 1960s there was an increased concern for the legal implications of student rights and discipline, reflected in a shift from an "in loco parentis" doctrine to an individual responsibility doctrine (Dannells, 1990). The increasing conservatism in institutional practices and students, the continuing concern for legalism in the disciplinary process, and the increase in the number of students from dysfunctional families stimulated college student personnel professionals at institutions of higher education to reexamine disciplinary policies, procedures, interventions, and structures (Dannells, 1990). The question became, and is still, the following: Are institutions' conduct policies and procedures meeting students' needs, while remaining true to the institutional mission (Dannells, 1990)?

Statement of Problem

Dannells (1990) surveyed the student conduct systems of 400 baccalaureate degree-granting institutions and noted that a majority of them were in the process of evaluating their conduct process structures. Dannells' survey was an examination of the structure and processes of the conduct systems at colleges and universities at that time. The student populations covered by these conduct systems were

not described in his study; Dannells was concerned with the nature and operation of conduct systems. The student offender populations, who are an integral part of the process and system, need to be studied in addition to a system's structure and processes in order to present a comprehensive picture of the contemporary conduct system (Dannells, 1990).

In this study, answers were sought to the following questions:

1. What are the demographic and personal characteristics of the student judicial offender?

2. What is the relation of offender characteristics to students' level of judicial offenses?

3. What is the relation of offender characteristics to students' status as repeat offenders?

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to describe a population of students who were involved in the disciplinary process and determine which factors contributed to the level of offense and status as a repeat offender. The characteristics of the repeat offender population and the serious case offender population (Level II offenses) were examined. The secondary purpose of the study was to describe the population of students who have been involved in the formal discipline process at Indiana State University from 1985-1994. Resulting descriptive information would provide a

profile of the student judicial offender on several variables.

Delimitations

The following aspects affect the scope of this study:

1. The sample is delimited to judicial offenders at Indiana State University and may or may not be applicable to offenders at other institutions.

2. The sample is delimited to misbehaviors that have been adjudicated formally through the Office of Student Judicial Programs. Misbehaviors such as unreported offenses, academic dishonesty, and those mediated or handled by residence hall staff and faculty not in accordance with standard University procedure were not examined.

Definition of Terms

To facilitate a better understanding of the terms used in this study, operational definitions are presented.

1. Offender: A student who has violated portions of the Indiana State University Code of Student Conduct. The violation resulted in formal charges and adjudication through the Office of Student Judicial Programs. The student must have been found guilty of the violation and charges filed.

2. Ethnicity (ETHN): The self-reported ethnic grouping as recorded on the student's admissions application. These

categories include: Caucasian, African American, Hispanic, Asian American, Native American, and International.

3. Hometown size (HTSZ): The population of the town or city that the students list as their primary or permanent residence upon admission to the university. Hometown size was categorized and categories include hometowns with populations of: <5000, 5,000-10,000, 10,000-50,000, 50,000-500,000, 500,000-2,000,000, and >2,000,000.

4. Offense type: Offenses were classified according to the specific subsections of the Code of Student Conduct (1997) that were violated. These included: (a) 2.01 A, Disturbing the peace, (b) 2.01 C, Engaging in acts dangerous to self and others or misuse of safety equipment, (c) 2.01 D, Unauthorized use, possession, theft, damage of property other than one's own, (d) 2.01 E, Failure to comply with the requests of an University official, (e) 2.01 F, Possession, use, sale or transfer of drugs, (f) 2.01 G, Possession or use of alcoholic beverages, (g) 2.01 H, Mental or physical abuse or threat of physical abuse, (h) 2.01 I, Possession, use or transfer of firearms, weapons, fireworks or explosives, and (i) 2.01 O, Violation of visitation policy.

5. Level of Offense (LEV): The different offenses were assigned levels of severity. Level I offenses included: 2.01 A, 2.01 E, 2.01 G and 2.01 O were minor offenses, much like misdemeanors. Level II offenses, which included: 2.01 C, 2.01 D, 2.01 F, 2.01 H, 2.01 I were classified by the

Indiana State University conduct system as serious and warranting of suspension or expulsion.

6. Parental education: Students reported the educational level of each parent, mother (MED) and father (FED), on the Student Information Questionnaire administered to students during university orientation and registration. Parental education was divided into the following classifications: partial high school or less, high school graduate, partial college, college degree, graduate training, graduate degree and professional degree.

7. Parental occupation: Students reported the occupational level of their fathers (FOCC) and mothers (MOCC) on the Student Information Questionnaire administered at university orientation and registration. Parental occupations were divided into the following categories: unemployed, unskilled worker, semiskilled worker, service worker, skilled worker, lower-level owner/manager, middle-level manager/owner, higher-level owner/manager, and professional requiring an advanced degree.

8. Repeat offender (REP): Any student who was adjudicated through the formal conduct system in the Office of Student Judicial Programs and who was found guilty two or more times.

9. Residence (RES): The local address of the offender during the student's attendance at the University and at the time of the violation. Residence was divided into three categories: commuter students who do not live in university

residence halls; students living in single gender residence halls; and students who lived in mixed gender residence hall.

10. School/College (MAJ): The school or college of reported major: Arts and Sciences; Nursing; Education; Technology; Business; Health and Human Performance; and Non-Preference (no major declared).

11. Socio-economic status (SES): A Hollingshead Two Factor Social Status Index was computed for each offender based on paternal occupation and education. Index scores range from 8-66 with higher scores indicating higher socio-economic status (Hollingshead, 1975).

Assumptions

The following assumptions are inherent in this proposed study:

1. Offenders were guilty of the documented charge(s).

2. Data in the case files were correct and complete.

3. Information obtained from University data bases were accurate.

4. Students responded candidly to the Student Information Questionnaire administered at new student orientation and registration.

5. Information from the case file and University data bases was properly keyed.

Limitations

The following may limit or affect the validity of this study:

1. Guilt was determined by a hearing officer. This determination or judgement may not have accurately reflected the actual violations.

2. Alcohol use may not have been accurately reflected in each case. Alcohol use was noted by the complainants, witnesses, or by the admission of the offender. Admission of alcohol use may have lead to self-incrimination, or the offender may have felt it would negatively affect the hearing officer's decision if they admitted to alcohol use. Consequently, alcohol use may be underrepresented.

3. The levels of offenses were established by the staff in the Office of Student Judicial Programs in accordance with Indiana State University's stance on such violations. These were judgements that may change with the perspectives and values of the particular administration.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Judicial systems and conduct codes exist essentially for the same purpose as institutions of higher education: "the transmission of knowledge, the pursuit of truth, the development of students and the greater well-being of society" (Ardaiolo & Walker, 1987, p.47). An educational component of student conduct is considered an essential element for judicial systems. The two major objectives of student judicial systems are: (a) to educate students and (b) to protect the community from inappropriate behaviors (Ardaiolo & Walker, 1987)

A search of literature and research was conducted using primary and secondary sources. There is a paucity of research on student conduct particularly in the area of judicial offenders (LeMay, 1968; Bazik & Meyering, 1965; Dannells, 1990 and 1991; Janosik et al., 1985). Dannells (1990) noted that research in the area of student conduct focused on process and the administration of that process

and recommended and encouraged future research be conducted to provide a broader base in the area of student conduct.

Williamson and Joley (1949) set guidelines for deans and staff who handled discipline. They advocated a disciplinary counseling technique, which included: (a) identifying discipline situations and students involved; (b) reporting and charging the student; (c) case investigation and interview of the student; (d) assessment of causes of behavior and potential rehabilitation; (e) an informal "face to face" (p. 61) discussion with the student; (f) review, deliberation and action taken by a staff member or committee; and (g) "rehabilitative counseling as long as necessary or profitable" (p. 62).

In the 1960s, students insisted on due process (Greenleaf, 1978). Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961) and The Joint Statement of Rights and Freedoms of Students (1968) were cited by Greenleaf (1978) as the two greatest influences on judicial affairs staff members. Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961) addressed the issue of due process for students in public colleges and universities. Students had a right to remain in college and could be dismissed only after due process. This changed the tenor of the disciplinary counseling relationship that had been advocated by Williamson and Foley (1949).

The Joint Statement of Rights and Freedoms of Students (1968) was developed by the faculty representatives of the American Association of University Professors and supported

by student personnel organizations such as the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators. The statement, which was not a legal document, addressed students rights and the obligations of administrators to protect student rights. In the statement, procedures for handling student conduct and addressing students' rights as they relate to student records, student newspapers and publications, student activities and activism, and classroom and off-campus behavior were proscribed.

Judicial affairs staff members attempted to work within legal guidelines and standards, as well as, balancing students' personal development. Community welfare and development were also essential in the conduct process (Ardaiolo & Walker, 1987).

Student Development Theory

The judicial educational philosophy is embedded in student development theory and philosophy. From the student development perspective, students are evolving individuals progressing through identifiable stages that unfold in a specific and chronological sequence. The student development professional understands the need for students to be challenged and supported. A judicial affairs officer has an opportunity to challenge and support behaviors, attitudes, development and to operationalize developmental theories and interventions (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991).

The theories of Chickering (1969), Kohlberg (1963), Gilligan (1982) and Kegan (1982) have been cited as the principal theories that apply to student development as it relates to judicial affairs. However, no developmental theory specifically considers the judicial offender (Boots, 1987).

Chickering's (1969) text is considered a landmark publication in student development. He expanded the work of Eric Erickson (1963) and applied developmental constructs to traditional age college students. Chickering cited seven areas or vectors through which college students must develop. These vectors include: (a) developing competence, (b) managing emotions, (c) establishing identity, (d) acquiring autonomy, (e) freeing interpersonal relationships, (f) creating purpose, and (g) and achieving integrity.

Kegan (1982) examined developmental theories and identified a common unifying factor. In his theory, this factor is "lifetime tension between the yearnings for inclusion and distinctness" (p. 108). Yearnings are of equal value, thus creating the tension. As students develop or encounter new situations, students attempt to resolve this tension between inclusion and distinctiveness in a new and different way. Student grow and adapt through integration and differentiation. Kegan's model uses a helix as a physical metaphor, where students continually reexamine issues, but with new and more complex levels of understanding.

Boots (1979) stated that moral development and reasoning theories were naturally linked to discipline processes. These theories provide a foundation and rationale for why a student behaves in a certain manner and breaks a moral code or a community standard.

Most research concerning moral reasoning has been based on the work of Kohlberg (1971). Kohlberg states that moral development is characterized by a progression through six hierarchial patterns or stages of moral reasoning. These six stages form three general levels: Level I: Preconventional; Level II: Conventional; and Level III Postconventional.

Level I, Preconventional, includes Stage 1, Obedience and Punishment Orientation, and Stage 2, Relative Hedonism Orientation. An individual at Stage 1 is concerned about the physical consequences of a behavior. The student defers to a superior to avoid consequences. At Stage 2, actions are seen as "right" if they satisfy the individual's needs.

Level II, Conventional, includes Stage 3, "Good Boy" Orientation and Stage 4, Authority and Social Order. In Stage 3, the student recognizes another's expectations are valuable and behavior is focused on a need for approval from those close to the student (family or peers). Intent of the behavior is seen as important. In Stage 4, a social obligation and sense of social order appears. Rules and laws are seen as necessity to maintain order and the community as a whole.

Level III, Postconventional, includes Stage 5, Contractual Legalistic Orientation and Stage 6, Principled Orientation. The social contract as a duty is the crux of Stage 5. Equality and the respect of rights of others are also important components of this stage. Stage 6 is the highest level of development. Laws and social rules do not guide this individual's moral reasoning, but logical and ethical principles such as dignity, integrity, and respect for human life guide action.

Gilligan's (1982) model for moral reasoning is a critique and response to the work of Kohlberg. Gilligan found discrepancies between women and men in moral reasoning and differences in women's experiences and sense of self. Gilligan suggested that these differences may not be in the women studied, but that Kohlberg's theory is biased conceptually.

Women's moral reasoning comes from a different voice than males. The women's voice is a voice of care and morality of responsibility and men's voice is the voice of justice and the morality of rights. Though the focus is on women, Gilligan notes that everyone listens to and reasons with both voices. Like Kohlberg, Gilligan's model has developmental movement. Movement goes from an egocentric to a societal and universal perspective (Gilligan, 1982).

William Perry's (1980) scheme of intellectual and ethical development asserts that students go through a progressive and logical sequence as they develop

cognitively. This is an orderly sequence of differentiation and reorganization that provides meaning for the increasingly complex experiences of the individual. There are nine positions that are grouped into three clusters. These three clusters are: Dualism, Relativism and Commitment to Relativism. The Dualism cluster is characteristic of a world that is seen in absolute and dualistic categories. Differing views provide confusion. By Position 3, Multiplicity, there is a shift from the dualistic point of view to a the realization that multiple views exist and these views are no longer wrong. These are another's point of view and may be correct. Cluster 2, Relativism, is typified by the realization that views and knowledge are contextual and analytic thinking emerges. Perry states many students' development is delayed in this stage as a result of the inability or resistance of students to choose among alternatives. Cluster 3, Commitment to Relativism includes the stages of affirmation and commitment to values, behaviors, other people and careers. The movement through these positions and clusters is described by Perry as a lifelong process and does not end upon matriculation from college (Perry, 1980).

Student development theory provides judicial affairs professionals with a broader understanding of their students. Though these theories focus on cognitive development and not directly on behavior, they do provide insight into possible developmental interventions. By

listening to students, professionals can identify developmental levels and issues and moral reasoning. After that identification additional dialogue can take place to enable the offender to understand alternative views. The professional can challenge offenders' thought processes and stimulate developed reasoning approaches and behavioral alternatives while supporting the student emotionally. This moral dialogue is most appropriately framed at the developmental level of the offender and not from the level of the professional or process (Boots 1987).

The Judicial Offender

The literature revealed a paucity of studies that report on the development of the judicial offender; however, there were some descriptive studies of offenders. Tracey et al. (1979); Cummins, (1966); Bazik and Meyering, (1965); Tisdale and Brown, (1965); Williamson, Jorve and Lagerstedt-Knudson, (1952) indicated that offenders were more likely to be younger students on campus and disproportionately likely to be male. Students who have been disciplined have been shown to have scholastic ability similar to that of other students (Bazik & Meyering, 1965), but have lower grade point averages (Bazik & Meyering, 1965 and Tisdale & Brown, 1965). Lenning, (1970) and Tisdale and Brown, (1965) reported that offenders were more likely to have been affiliated with a fraternity or sorority.

Conduct practitioners, Williamson, Jorve and Lagerstedt-Knudson (1952) began keeping conduct statistics in 1941 and became curious about the characteristics of student offenders. Williamson et al. analyzed 1570 cases for the seven year period of 1941-1948, and found that males were disproportionately represented in the offender sample: "The ratio was about two to one" (p. 611). Offenders were more likely to be enrolled in the College of Agriculture, Forestry, and Home Economics and the School of Dentistry. The average offenders possessed a "C" or higher grade point average, were non-resident students from outside the state of Minnesota, and lived in private rooming houses. Williamson et al. found no differences between offenders and non-offenders in class standing and veteran status.

The campus' view of male offenders was investigated by Murphy and Hanna (1964). They surveyed randomly selected students, faculty-staff, resident assistants, and student court justices as to their reaction to the following student offenses: academic dishonesty, misuse of alcohol, property destruction, mass demonstrations, and sexual promiscuity. All groups saw academic dishonesty or premeditated cheating, destruction of books from the library, theft of another student's or staff's property and mass demonstrations as serious offenses and warranting suspension. Alcohol use and sexual promiscuity were seen by students and faculty to be minor offenses warranting "lenient" probations or warnings. Misbehavior of offenders was viewed as more offensive or

serious if the behavior was directed at individuals or groups rather than institutionally directed.

Bazik and Meyering (1965) were concerned with the lack of objective research in the area of disciplinary action and the conduct offender and compiled characteristics of college students involved in the disciplinary process. Bazik and Meyering compared two groups. The first group consisted of 105 students who had disciplinary records and the second group was a randomly stratified group of 105 non-offenders. Offenders were younger with a mean age of 19.0 as compared with the non-offender group which had a mean age of 20.8. The non-offender group was composed primarily of underclassmen. Approximately 55 percent of the offender group were freshmen as opposed to 38 percent of the non-offender group. A disproportionately percentage of the offenders were health and physical education majors. A significant gender difference was found with 70 percent of the offender sample being male. Paternal occupation of offenders as measured by the Hieronymus scale was significantly lower than non-offenders. No significant relationships were found for the variables of housing and scholastic ability as measured by the School and College Ability Test, Level I.

A comprehensive study of judicial offenders conducted by Tracey et al. (1979) involved 113 judicial offenders and several variables were examined with reference to a baseline group. No differences in offense rates among the

undergraduate classes were noted; however, differences between the general student body and offenders were observed as a function of gender, place of residence, and the academic major of offenders. Men were significantly overrepresented in the offender sample, as were students residing in large residence halls (500+ residents). Those who were Agriculture/Life Science and Allied Health academic majors were found to be overrepresented among offenders.

Lenning (1970) studied male judicial offenders at a large state University. Forty judicial offenders were randomly selected from the offender case files. Forty male undergraduates with no disciplinary records were matched on the following variables: ACT composite score, age, year in college, marital status and major field of study. Questionnaires developed by the American College Testing Program (ACT) were administered to each subject. The questionnaire and student record data were analyzed. Of the statistical significant differences between groups, Lenning found that the offender group placed less emphasis on intellectual goals, cultural-intellectual hobbies and recreational activities, had greater interest and participation in social activities, dated more frequently, were more likely to be involved in student organizations including social fraternities and less likely to be involved in ROTC. No differences were found for high school and college grades, vocational goals, perceived interest or

concern of faculty and staff, involvement in part-time work, father's occupation and reasons for attending college.

Lenning (1970) reported that involvement in social fraternities and alcohol played an important role in students becoming offenders. Lenning also concluded that the offenders were not "abnormal or maladjusted" (p.67). He concluded that students involved in discipline were experiencing developmental issues and were attempting to make statements concerning their independence or objection to perceived unjust and illogical rules. Future studies with larger sample sizes and students of different types of violations were recommended.

Kaiser and Britton (1967) were housing officials at Kansas State University and wanted to empirically substantiate their casual observations of offenders in the residence halls. A group of 59 disciplinary students and 59 randomly selected residence hall students were compared on 30 intellective and non-intellective characteristics. Judicial offenders scored lower on ACT Composite Scores and had lower grade point averages compared to non-offenders. Offenders tended to be over-represented in the following majors: physical education, non-preference, biological and social sciences. A disproportionate number of offenders came from hometowns categorized by the researchers as "large towns" of 25,000 or more. No significance differences were found between groups on the factors of: age, parent education, operation of a car, religion, siblings, and

involvement in athletics. Interest in joining a fraternity was significantly higher among members of the disciplinary group.

On personality characteristics of offenders, Work (1969) administered the California Personality Inventory (CPI) to 66 matched pairs of male offenders and resident assistants. Statistically significant results were found on four subscales of the CPI. The most significant differences occurred on the Class 2 scales of socialization, maturity and responsibility and Class 3 measures of achievement potential and intellectual efficiency. Offenders were reported to have "spontaneous, expressive, and ebullient natures" (p. 225), to show deficits in socialization, responsibility and maturity, to exhibit difficulty in interpersonal relationships, and to be impulsive, aggressive, and lacking in insight and understanding. Offenders reported being pessimistic about the future of their career choices. Offenders' greatest concerns were for diversion and personal pleasure. Resident Assistants were described as "compliant, industrious, moderate and quiet" (p. 226).

LeMay and Murphy (1967) administered the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) to 70 male judicial offenders and a matched control group. Offenders scored significantly higher than non-offenders on the Psychopathic Deviate (Pd) and Hypomania (Ma) scales. Offenders had more father conflict, were more aggressive, and belligerent.

Males involved in alcohol and disorderly conduct offenses used more rationalization. Concerning the level of offense, no differences were found between offenders classified as minor offenders and non-offenders on any of the subscales of the MMPI.

Osborne, Sanders, and Young (1956) compared 40 repeat female offenders and a control group of non-offenders. Women dealt with life situations in an animated way which led to antisocial actions and misbehavior. Female offenders reported that they were more sensitive than others and reported feeling more "controlled, limited, and mistreated" (p.87) by others. They also had significantly lower masculine scores than did non-offenders.

Cummins and Lindblade (1967) examined personality characteristics and gender differences of judicial offenders using four measures: Test of Critical Thinking; Inventory of Beliefs, Form I; Differential Values Inventory; Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E. The sample consisted of 95 males and 49 females. No differences were reported between females and males on the Test of Critical Thinking or the Inventory of Beliefs. Female offenders scored significantly higher (less dogmatic) than male offenders on the Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale and females scored significantly lower on the Differential Values Inventory indicating less adherence to traditional values. Female offenders had less traditional and more emergent value orientations than offender males.

Gossett (1993) examined academic and co-curricular involvement that would discriminate between judicial offenders and non-offenders. Gossett used group facility and the scholarly/intellectual factors of the College Student Experience Questionnaire, as well as 184 involvement factors. Significant variables that discriminate between offenders and non-offenders were class standing, gender and current residence. Freshmen males living in a single sexed residence hall were more likely to be offenders.

Coons, Howard-Hamilton and Waryold (1995) were concerned with the observed increase of residence hall discipline during football weekends. Six hundred eight six disciplinary files for a four year period (1988-1993) were examined. Though football games were played on only 33.8 percentof the weekends in an academic year, 46.4 percent of all recorded violations took place during these weekends. A larger number of violations happened on football weekends where the school's team played at home. Coons et al. (1995) noted that alcohol violations accounted for 47.5% of the total violations. On football weekends, 51.8% of the violations where alcohol related. Coons et al. (1995) concluded that alcohol and fan aggression were factors in disciplinary offenses.

College student use of alcohol is a fact of life on campuses; however, there is a paucity of empirical evidence, direct observation, or documentation of the effects of alcohol and misbehavior. Anderson and Gadaleto (1984)

surveyed administrators in 165 colleges and universities. Only 10 percent of the surveyed institutions compiled information about the relationship of alcohol and problem behaviors. Respondents who compiled information indicated that alcohol was associated with 20-60 percent of judicial problems on their campus. Fifty percent of the offenses categorized as sexual offenses or breaking and entering were reported as being alcohol related. Gonzalez and Wiles (1982) in a study of 50 alcohol related offenses reported that there were categories of misbehavior that were more prone to be affected by alcohol usage such as: violations of liquor laws, trespassing, malicious mischief, and breaking and entering. Thirty-four percent of the judicial cases were alcohol related. It was recommended that judicial affairs officers implement educational sanctions or interventions to address alcohol as a factor in student misbehaviors.

Alcohol use and abuse on college campuses was described as a challenge for disciplinary processes and administrators (LeMay, 1968 and Dannells, 1991). LeMay expressed concern about the lack of research addressing alcohol and its relationship with student conduct violations. He noted that the "immoderate use of alcohol by undergraduates appears to be a common problem on college and university campuses" (p. 181). However, empirical research to substantiate this conclusion was not provided.

A longitudinal study of the conduct systems of 277 randomly selected baccalaureate-granting institutions was

conducted over the ten year period of 1977-1988 (Dannells, 1991). Though offenders were not studied, offenses were examined. The significant increase in reported case type was alcohol related. Drug, sexual assault, gambling and proscribed sexual behavior cases decreased significantly over the ten year period. Dannells expressed concern that the increase in alcohol related violations was not being addressed by present conduct systems and recommended additional research to study alcohol related violations.

Research in the area of disciplinary affairs as a function of college student personnel work has been devoted "almost exclusively to describing the nature of disciplinary systems or investigating the protection of student rights in the adjudication of misconduct" (Dannells, 1991, p. 165). In a longitudinal study based on two identical surveys conducted in 1978 and 1988, Dannells (1991) examined changes in student misconduct and adjudication response from 293 higher education institutions. In 1988, there were fewer disciplinary cases involving gambling, sexual assault, and organized demonstrations. There were no significant differences noted in incidences of cases in the areas of drugs. However, incidences of disciplinary cases involving alcohol more than doubled during the ten year period.

Gallagher, Harmon and Lingenfelter-Knudson (1994) surveyed chief student affairs officers (CSAOs) concerning changing incidents of student problems. CSAOs from 504 institutions expressed concern about the increase in sexual

abuse and assault, harassment, dating violence, stalking, drug and alcohol abuse. Though the CSAOs surveyed did not believe that illicit drug use was increasing, 40 percent reported that the use of alcohol is on the rise. Alcohol use and abuse figured prominently into instances of sexual aggression, physical violence, traffic accidents and damage to campus property. CSAOs reported an increase in severe emotional and psychological problems. This could be a reflection of future trends and concerns for judicial affairs.

Repeat Offenders

Janosik, Davis, and Spencer (1979) found little research in the area of college judicial offenders and found that "...few, if any studies have dealt effectively with the habitual or repeat offender" (p. 410). A 6-year study on judicial recidivists was launched. The case files of 340 repeat undergraduate offenders at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University were examined. Males were significantly overrepresented in the repeat offender sample. Repeat offenders tended to live in large residence halls (600+), be sophomores, major in business or arts and sciences, and have significantly lower grade point averages (2.25) compared to the general population (2.6). Social violations were found to be the most common violation for repeat offenders. Alcohol and other drugs accounted for nine percent of violations committed by repeat offenders.

The Janosik et al. (1985) study involved follow up of 100 repeat and 100 first time offenders on general student characteristics. They were interested in determining how repeat offenders differ from the general student population and if there were any similarities between first and repeat offenders. Males were overrepresented among both first time and repeat offenders. Sophomores were overrepresented in the repeat offender sample. Repeat offenders resided in large residence halls (600+ residents). Repeat offenders tended to major in departments in the colleges of business and arts and sciences. The two groups appear to engage in different types of student misconduct. Both groups had lower grade point averages in comparison to the general student body, but there were no differences in respect to grade point between the two offenders groups. The cumulative grade point average of repeat offenders was 2.25 while the general student population grade point average was 2.60. Repeat offenders tended to have been involved in more serious offenses. These violations included endangerment, damage and destruction, forgery and fraud, and disruptive and abusive conduct.

Janosik et al. (1985) noted that their study in comparison to other research in the area of judicial offenders had some important strengths. They stated that the use of a population baseline and a study that covered a six year span were factors in the power of this study. They stated that the implications for their study were great.

Repeat offenders with lower grade point averages and from the colleges of business and arts and sciences needed additional attention and special programs from faculty and administrators. Alternative housing patterns should be considered. Students should be placed in smaller residence halls or large housing units should be divided physically and psychologically to promote a sense of community and "smallness within largeness" (p. 413).

Kern and Rentz (1991) administered the Real Form of the University Residence Environment Scale to 38 male repeat offenders and 38 non-offenders. Repeat offenders perceived less emotional support from their environment and perceived more opportunity for independence. Repeat offenders perceived a greater amount of nonconformist behavior being tolerated without sanctions and perceived less opportunities or programs within the environment that were academically oriented. The repeat offender saw the environment having less formal structure and being without formal definition.

According to LeMay (1968) and Dannells (1990), methodological flaws restrict the amount of generalization and relevance of the data in the area of judicial offenders. Research conducted to indicate the nature and extent of student conduct problems were limited and suffered from a variety of methodological problems. LeMay (1968) offered several suggestions to help over come the methodological flaws of his research. These included: (a) that studies separate male and female samples in the analysis of student

offenders, (b) that as many variables as possible be included in the design, and (c) that studies on recidivism cover at least five to six academic years. Tracey et al., (1979) concurred with LeMay and noted the majority of the studies on student judicial offenders were conducted between 1952 and 1979 and are now outdated. Most studies did not separate males and females in the analyses of offenders. Typically, only a few variables have been investigated and these variables were not compared to any baseline or control group data. Sample sizes have been small. They also encourage conduct practitioners to become involved in empirical research endeavors to add to the field and to add credibility to their interventions. Dannells (1990) states that research appears to be limited to conduct processes and the legal aspect of the field. He goes on to criticizes practitioners for not conducting research and encourages student affairs professionals to go beyond investigating process and empirically examine areas such as interventions, moral and ethical education, and offenders.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the general methodology and procedures utilized in this study. It includes a description of the sample, procedures, null hypotheses, and data analysis.

Sample

The population consisted of 1,693 judicial cases that were formally adjudicated and found guilty of a subsection of a university's code of conduct from 1984-1994. Case files that were incomplete or for which supplemental information was not available were omitted. A total of 1,179 participants or 69.7 percent of the population was used in this study. The sample consisted of 898 males and 281 females. Eight hundred and sixty-nine of the subjects were Level I (minor) offenders and 282 were Level II (serious) offenders. The sample included 927 first time offenders and 252 repeat offenders. The final sample was self identified

as 73.7 percent Caucasian (869), 23 percent African American (273), 1.6 percent Asian American (19), 1.2 percent International (14), .3 percent Hispanic (3), and .1 percent Native American (1).

Procedures

The study was archival in nature, and used a retrospective approach. Data for offenders were collected from student judicial case files in the Office of Student Judicial Programs. Information about grade point averages, SAT scores, ethnicity, and major was obtained through academic records in the university registrar's and admissions offices. Information concerning hometown size and parental occupation and education was obtained from offenders' responses to the Student Information Questionnaire administered at new student orientation and registration. Greek affiliation information was obtained from Student Life Programs. Student identification numbers of offenders were cross referenced with student identification numbers listed on Greek rosters. The offender must have been affiliated with a Greek organization at the time of the offense to have been classified as a Greek. Offenders who were affiliated after the offense were listed as independents.

The information in these files was strictly confidential and access to the information was protected. Permission for access to these files was obtained from the

Vice President for Student Affairs, the Vice President for Budget and Planning and Director of Institutional Research and Testing. To insure confidentiality, each case was coded by the actual case number which ensured anonymity, but allowed for cross referencing. Case files and student records are protected by the Buckley Amendment, Family Educational Rights and Protection Act (1974).

All information and data were hand entered into a data file. Each case was checked by an independent individual to ensure accuracy.

A single socio-economic status index, a Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Socio-economic status, for each subject was calculated. Using the education and occupation levels of the student's father as reported by the student on the Student Information Questionnaire, an instrument that the University administered to new student and registration, each level was ranked. Level of education was rated on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = partial high school education or less, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = partial college or trade school, 4 = college degree, 5 = graduate training, 6 = graduate degree, 7 = professional degree) and the occupational level was scored on a scale of 1 to 9 (1 = unemployed, 2 = unskilled worker, 3 = semiskilled worker, 4 = service worker, 5 = skilled worker, 6 = lower-level manager/owner, 7 = middle-level manager/owner, 8 = higher-level/manager/ owner, 9 = professional). To calculate a Hollingshead Two-factor Index of Socio-economic Status

(1975), the paternal education rating was then weighted by 3, the occupation rating was weighted by 5 and the two weighed ratings were added. The resulting index (with a possible range of 8 to 66) provided a single Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Socio-economic Status. The actual range for indexes for the offenders was 11-66.

Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis One: None of the following variables or any subset of variables will predict level of offense: (a) alcohol, (b) class standing, (c) cumulative grade point average, (d) ethnicity, (e) gender, (f) father's education, (g) father's occupation, (h) hometown size, (i) major, (j) mother's education, (k) mother's occupation, (l) repeat offender, (m) residence, (n) SAT math scores, (o) SAT total scores, (p) SAT verbal scores, (q) semester grade point average, (r) socio-economic status, and (s) Greek affiliation.

Null Hypothesis Two: None of the following variables or any subset of variables will predict recidivism: (a) alcohol, (b) class standing, (c) cumulative Grade point average, (d) ethnicity, (e) gender, (f) father's education, (g) father's occupation, (h) hometown size, (i) major, (j) mother's education, (k) mother's occupation, (l) level of offense, (m) residence, (n) SAT math scores, (o) SAT total scores, (p) SAT verbal scores, (q) semester Grade point

average, (r) socio-economic status, and (s) Greek affiliation.

Data Analysis

Two stepwise multiple discriminant analyses were conducted to analyze the data to determine whether judicial offender characteristics could differentiate (a) level of offense (Level I or Level II) and (b) first-time or repeat offender status. The discriminant analysis was selected to study differences between the groups with respect to several variables simultaneously and to identify variables that are the most discriminating (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The two dependent variables were: level of offense--Level I or Level II, and recidivism--repeat offender versus first-time offender. Independent variables were selected based on past offender research and practitioner experiences. The variables selected provide family, academic, peer, and personal contexts for each offender. Ethnicity, and maternal education and occupation were variables not studied in past research. These three independent variables were selected based on informal observation of the researcher, who noted while serving as hearing officer an overrepresentation of first generation college students and students of color. The independent variables for each of these analyses were: (a) alcohol use, (b) class standing, (c) cumulative grade point average, (d) ethnicity, (e) father's education, (f) father's occupation,

(g) gender, (h) Greek affiliation, (i) hometown size, (j) major, (k) mother's education, (l) mother's occupation, (m) residence, (n) SAT scores, and (o) socio-economic status as measured by the Hollingshead Two-factor Index. All statistical analyses were conducted using a .05 level of significance, based on the consequences of a Type I error, on common research practice, and on sample size.

Information was also collected and summarized to provide a profile of the judicial offender, descriptive statistics were compiled to summarize data on the following variables: residence, alcohol use, school/college affiliation, ethnicity, gender, grade point averages, Greek affiliation, parental occupation and education, socio-economic status and recidivism.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to describe a population and to determine if any variables or any subset of variables predict level of offense and recidivism. A multiple discriminant analysis was used to identify the subset of variables that would best predict first, level of offense and second, type of offenders. The independent variables selected for this study were: grade point average, class standing, hometown size, ethnicity, Greek affiliation, SAT scores, alcohol usage, major, residence, maternal and paternal occupation and education, and socio-economic status.

This chapter reports the results of the quantitative statistical analysis and discusses these results as they are related to the following null hypotheses:

Null Hypothesis One: None of the 19 offender variables or any subset of variables will predict level of offense.

Null Hypothesis Two: None of the 19 offender variables or any subset of variables will predict recidivism.

General Offender Profile

The descriptive results of the study are presented in Appendix A. Examination of these tables gives an overall profile of the judicial offender.

The typical conduct offender is a Caucasian male. He is a first semester sophomore enrolled with a major in the College of Arts and Sciences. He has a semester grade point average of 1.75 and a cumulative grade point average of 1.83. He has an SAT total score of 893. He lives in a single gender residence hall, comes from a town with a population of 10,000-50,000, and comes from the mid socio-economic strata. His mother is a semi-skilled worker with a high school degree, and his father is a service worker with a high school degree. This would make him a first generation college student. He is not in a Greek letter organization, and his offense was Level I (minor) and did not involve alcohol.

The discriminant function provided a matrix of within group correlations among the variables (Appendix B). This matrix determines relationships of the variables. Several variables were significantly related. Greek affiliation was positively related to alcohol use, grade point average, and SAT scores and negatively correlated with gender, hometown size, and major. Alcohol use was positively correlated with

paternal education and occupation, maternal education, socio-economic status, ethnicity, Verbal, Math and Total SAT scores, and semester and cumulative grade point averages. Alcohol use was negatively correlated to level of the offense. Males were more likely to use alcohol. Caucasian males from higher socio-economic status with higher grade point averages and SAT scores were more likely to use alcohol. Place of residence was positively related to grade point average, SAT scores, Greek affiliation, and level of the offense. Residence was negatively related to socio-economic status. Students living in co-ed environments or off campus had higher grade point averages, were more likely to be affiliated with a Greek organization and to be involved in more serious offenses.

Null Hypothesis One

It was hypothesized that none of the offender variables or any subset of variables would predict level of offense. A discriminant analysis was conducted on the level of the offense. The level of significance selected for the analysis was $p < .05$. Group means for level of offenses are reported in Appendix C.

The multiple discriminant function analysis included the 19 independent offender variables and level of offense variable. The statistical procedures yielded a Wilks' lambda an univariate F-ratio, and a level of probability for each

variable in the discriminant function. Table 1 presents this information.

The univariate F-ratio statistic provided a measure of each variable's ability to predict group membership. Table 1 indicates that five of the 19 variables are significant predictors of serious offenders. The five variables were alcohol use ($p = .000$), major ($p = .008$), residence ($p = .002$, father's occupation ($p = .042$) and gender ($p = .000$). Null hypothesis One was therefore rejected.

The remaining variables were not found to be significant predictors of level of offense. However, two variables were very close to the significance level of .05. Though the level of significance was set at .05 to prevent a Type I error, the large sample size decreases the likelihood of making such an error and level of significance can be lowered in these cases. For this reason, the variable of Greek affiliation ($p = .055$) and socio-economic status ($p = .056$) may be considered possible predictors of level of offense.

A stepwise discriminant analysis was performed to determine which variables most efficiently discriminate between Level I and Level II offenders. Table 2 is a summary of the stepwise discriminant analysis which yielded five variables, among the 19 offender characteristics, which most efficiently discriminate between the criterion groups.

Table 1

Tests of Significance for Group Means for Offender Characteristics

Variable	Wilks' Lambda	F	P
Alcohol	.9784	25.8723	.0000*
Cumulative GPA	.9998	.2319	.6302
Class standing	.9988	1.3606	.2437
Ethnicity	.9994	.6421	.4231
Father's education	.9992	.8735	.3502
Father's occupation	.9965	4.1290	.0424*
Greek affiliation	.9968	3.6642	.0558
Gender	.9826	20.6906	.0000*
Hometown size	.9979	2.3966	.1219
Major	.9940	7.0251	.0081*
Math SAT scores	.9998	.1291	.7195
Mother's education	.9994	.6469	.4214
Mother's occupation	.9988	1.3057	.2534
Repeat offender	.9977	2.6344	.1048
Residence	.9919	9.5381	.0021*
Semester GPA	.9998	.1819	.6699
Total SAT	.9996	.4087	.5227
Verbal SAT scores	.99959	.4853	.4862
SES	.99691	.4853	.0568

* $p < .05$, df = (1,1174)

Table 2

Summary of Stepwise Discriminant Analyses of Offender Characteristics Used to Compare Level I and Level II Offenders

Step	Variable Entered	Wilks' Lambda	df	Equivalent F
1	Alcohol	.9784	(1,1174)	25.8723*
2	Gender	.9542	(2,1173)	28.1270*
3	Residence	.9454	(3,1172)	22.5414*
4	Major	.9407	(4,1171)	18.4233*
5	Greek	.9374	(5,1170)	15.6057*

* $p < .05$

Analysis of the Discriminant Function

Since the stepwise discriminant analysis was statistically significant, the null hypothesis was tested by the analysis of the canonical discriminant function. Validation of the canonical discriminant function was obtained by use of a Chi-square statistic and this is reported in Table 3. The discrimnant function is significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Table 3

Significance of the Discriminant Function Using Offender Characteristics

Wilks' Lambda	Chi Square	df	Significance
0.9374	75.634	5	.000*

*$p < .001$

The conversion of the canonical correlation to an eigenvalue was conducted. As shown in Table 4, the amount of shared variance is 25 percent. The difference did not account for 75 percent of the unexplained variance in the dependent variable.

Table 4

Canonical Discriminant Functions for Level of Offense

Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance	Canonical Correlation
.0667	100.00	.25

Validation of the Discriminant Function

To determine the usefulness of the discriminant function in prediction of criterion group membership, consideration of the relative importance of the contribution of each of the discriminating variables to the analysis is important. The canonical discrimnant loadings of the function provided information about the contribution of each variable. The standardized coefficient is a conversion of the unstandardized form with a standard deviation of 1.0. The standardized coefficients determine the relative importance of variables and which variable contributes most to determining scores of the discriminant function (Klecka, 1980). Table 5 reports standardized and unstandardized coefficients used in this discriminant analysis.

Table 5

Unstandardized and Standardized Coefficients Used to Determine Contribution of the Remaining Variables of the Discrimnant Analysis Using All 19 Variables for the Level of Offense Analysis

Variable	Unstandardized	Standardized
Alcohol	.5748	.6946
Greek Affiliation	.2163	.2399
Major	-.2995	-.2656
Residence	-.3490	-.4066
Gender	.5748	.6366

Canonical correlation coefficients for each variable were provided through statistical analysis. This information is present in Table 6. The variables are listed in ranked order of importance to the discriminant function.

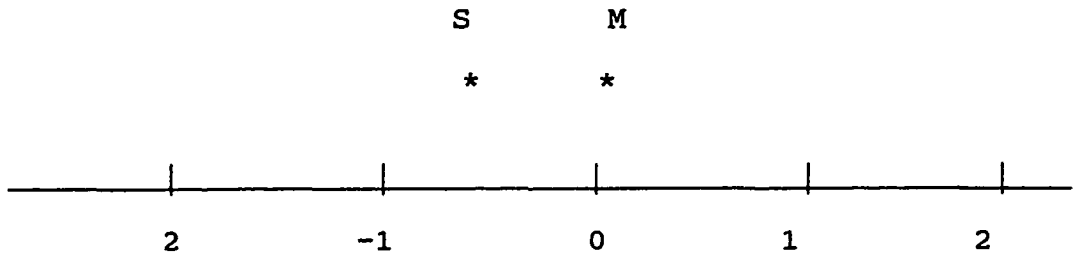
Group centroids for the two offender groups are presented in Figure 1. This measures the amount of distinction between the two offenders groups. Classification procedures and functions provide a method of prediction. Classification function coefficients were calculated for both groups. Fisher's linear functions and constants are displayed in Table 7. Fisher's linear functions are a linear combination that maximizes the group differences while minimizing within group variance (Klecka, 1980). All variables passing the tolerance test were

entered. The tolerance test preserves computational accuracy.

Table 6

Pooled Within-Group Correlations of Judicial Offender Characteristic Variables Used to Compare Level I and Level II Offenders

Variable	Function 1	Ranking
Alcohol	.5387	1
Gender	.4817	2
Residence	-.3271	3
Major	-.2807	4
Father's occupation	.2152	5
Greek affiliation	.2027	6
SES	.2019	7
Repeat Offender	-.1719	8
Hometown Size	.1639	9
Class Standing	-.1235	10
Mother's occupation	.1210	11
Father's education	.0989	12
Mother's education	.0851	13
Ethnicity	-.0848	14
Verbal SAT score	-.0737	15
Total SAT score	-.0677	16
Cumulative GPA	-.0510	17
Semester GPA	-.0451	18
Math SAT score	-.0380	19



S= Serious (Level II) offenders (-.49135)

M= Minor (Level I) offenders (.15427)

Figure 1. Comparison of criterion group centroids for level of offense

The Hollingshead Two Factor measure of socio-economic status variable had a within groups variance of 285.84 and a tolerance of .0000. This variable failed the tolerance test and therefore was not included in the classification function coefficients. This suggests that this variable may be a linear combination of one or more variables already entered. This is true in this particular case. The socio-economic status variable was a combination of paternal education and occupation.

The discriminant function was found to be statistically significant. The predictive accuracy of the discriminant function, using the offender samples, is described in Table 8. Grouped cases correctly classified was 67.21 percent. The results indicate that discriminant the function provides more accurate classification ability than that which could be expected by random assignment.

Table 7

Classification of Function Coefficients (Fisher's Linear Discriminant Functions) for Level of Offense

Level	1	2
Alcohol	1.7087	.8157
Greek affiliation	1.2341	.8596
Major	.2621	.2954
Residence	3.2789	3.6360
Gender	2.2008	1.2903
(Constant)	-4.2832	-6.6984

Hair et al. (1987) recommended that an analysis of the classification data be conducted to determine whether the total proportion of cases accurately classified for each comparison exceeded the proportion that would be correctly classified without using the discrimninant function. The following formula was used to compute the proportional chance criterion for unequal group sizes:

$$Cpro=p2+(1-p)2$$

The symbol p was the proportion of Level I offenders and 1-p was the proportion of Level II offenders in the student offender sample. A 63.56 percent proportional chance criterion was determined. The discriminant function classified cases more accurately than would be expected by chance; however, the magnitude of classification improvement was small.

Table 8

Classification of Level I and Level II Offenders Based on Discriminant Function

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Level I	Level II
Level I Offense	896	894 (99.8%)	2 (.2%)
Level II Offense	281	278 (98.9%)	3 (1.1%)

Total Proportion of Cases Correctly Classified: 67.21%

Null Hypothesis Two

A second multiple discriminant analysis was used to determine any of the offender variables or any subset of variables would predict recidivism. It was hypothesized that there were no differences between repeat offenders and first-time offenders. The level of significance selected for the analysis was $p < .05$. Group means for repeat and single time offenders are reported in Appendix D.

The multiple discriminant function analysis included the 19 independent offender variables and the repeat offender variable. The statistical procedures yielded a Wilks' lambda, an univariate F-ratio and a level of probability for each independent variable in the discrimnant function. This information is presented in Table 9.

The univariate F statistic is a measure of the importance of each of the variables in predicting group membership. An examination of Table 9 indicates that six of

the 19 variables are significant predictors of repeat offenders. Using the univariate F ratio and a Wilks' lambda statistic, the six variables were identified to be significant predictors, in order of significance as predictors, were cumulative grade point average ($p = .000$), class standing ($p = .000$), semester grade point average ($p = .000$), ethnicity ($p = .001$), hometown size ($p = .012$) and maternal occupation ($p = .038$). The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

The remaining variables were not found to be significant predictors of repeat offenders. The variables that were insignificant predictors were: paternal education ($p = .646$), paternal occupation ($p = .050$), maternal education ($p = .223$) Greek affiliation ($p = .375$), level of offense ($p = .158$), major ($p = .352$), alcohol ($p = .339$), SAT math score ($p = .084$), SAT verbal score ($p = .624$), SAT total score ($p = .235$) and socio-economic status ($p = .091$). These variables do not discriminate between first-time and repeat offender group membership in this study.

A stepwise discriminant analysis was performed to determine which variables most efficiently discriminate between single time and repeat offenders. Table 10 is a summary of the stepwise discriminant analysis which yielded three variables among the 19 offender characteristics, which most efficiently discriminate between the criterion groups. These variables are: class standing, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point.

Table 9

Wilks' Lambda, Univariate F-Ratio, and Significance Level of Each of the Offender Characteristics for Repeat Offenders

Variable	Wilks' Lambda	F	p
Alcohol use	.99922	.9146	.3391
Class standing	.98052	23.3026	.0000*
Cumulative GPA	.98052	23.3026	.0000*
Ethnicity	.99103	10.6159	.0012*
Father's occupation	.99675	3.8298	.0506
Father's education	.99982	.2111	.6460
Gender	.99997	.0410	.8396
Greek	.99933	.7863	.3754
Hometown size	.9947	6.1979	.0129*
Level of offense	.9983	1.9872	.1589
Major	.9996	.8659	.3523
Mother's occupation	.9963	4.2830	.0387*
Mother's education	.9987	1.4831	.2235
SAT Math	.9974	2.9830	.0844
SAT Total	.9988	1.4072	.2358
SAT Verbal	.9998	.2401	.6242
Semester GPA	.9889	13.1572	.0003*
SES	.9975	2.8522	.0915

* statistically significant at $p \leq 0.05$

Degrees of freedom = (1, 1173)

Table 10

Summary of Stepwise Discriminant Analyses of Judicial Offender Characteristics Used to Compare First-Time and Repeat Offenders

Step	Variable Entered	Wilks' Lambda	df	Equivalent F
1	Class Standing	.9800	(1,1173)	23.8691*
2	Ethnicity	.9720	(2,1172)	16.8686*
3	Cumulative Grade Point	.9656	(3,1171)	13.8926*

* $p < .001$

Analysis of the Discriminant Function

Since the stepwise discrimnant analysis was statistically significant, the null hypothesis was tested by the analysis of the canonical discriminant function. Validation of the canonical discriminant function was obtained with the use of the chi-square statistic and was reported in Table 11. The discriminant function was significant at the $p < .001$ level.

It is important to determine the practical significance or meaningfulness of the results. This was achieved by converting the canonical correlation to an eigenvalue or canonical root. This eigenvalue provided an estimate of the of the amount of shared variance between the weighed canonical variate to the criterion and the predictor.

Table 11

Significance of the Discriminant Function for Repeat Offenders Analysis

Wilks' Lambda	Chi-Square	df	Significance
0.9656	40.971	3	.000*

* $p < .001$

variables. As shown in Table 12, the amount of shared variance is 18.5 percent. The difference did not account for 81.5 percent of the variance in the dependent variable.

Table 12

Canonical Discriminant Functions for Repeat Offenders Analysis

Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance	Canonical Correlation
.0356	100.00	.1854

Validation of the Discriminant Function

To determine the usefulness of the discriminant function in the prediction of criterion group membership, the relative importance to the contribution of each of the discriminating variables was examined. Canonical discriminant loadings of the function provide information about the contribution of each variable. The standardized coefficients determine the relative importance of variables and which variables contribute the most to determining

scores of the discrimnant function (Klecka, 1980). Table 13 lists the unstandardized and standardized correlation coefficient and delineates the contribution of the variable.

Table 13

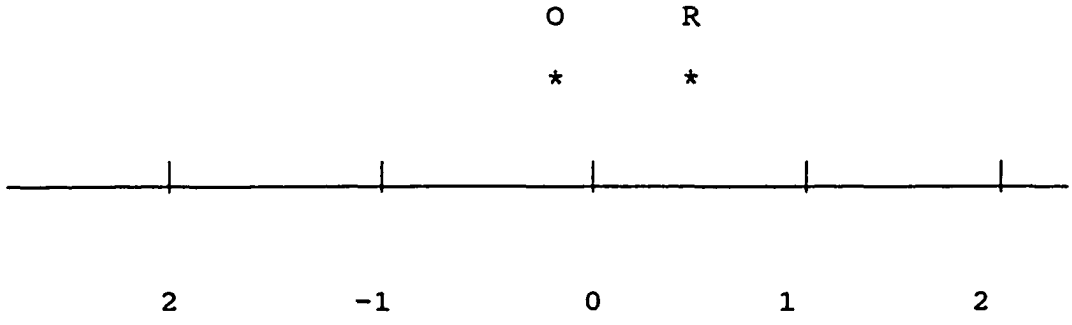
Unstandardized and Standardized Coefficients Used to Determine Contribution of the Remaining Variables Using all 19 Offender Variables for Repeat Offender Analysis

Variable	Unstandardized	Standardized
Ethnicity	-.5042	-.5429
Class Standing	.7561	.4203
Cumulative GPA	.7471	.5466

The statistical analysis provided canonical correlation coefficients for each of the variable. These coefficients are a measure of association which summarized the degree of relatedness between the groups and discriminant functions which indicates the importance of each variable in the discriminant ability. This information is present in Table 14. The variables are listed in ranked order of importance to the discriminant function.

The group centroids help in examining the results of the discriminant function from a broad perspective. Group centroids are developed from aggregate Z-scores and represents the amount of distinction between the two

offender groups (Hair et al., 1995). This group separation is represented in Figure 2.



O= One-time offenders (-.11704)

R= Repeat offenders (.43304)

Figure 2. Comparison of criterion group centroids for repeat and first-time offenders when using student offender characteristics.

Classification function coefficients were calculated for both groups of offenders on the variable of repeat and first-time offenders. Constants and Fisher's linear discriminant functions are displayed in Table 15. A stepwise multiple discriminant analysis was conducted. All variables passed the tolerance test except the socio-economic status variable. All variables passed the tolerance test except the socio-economic status variable which had a with-in group variance of 286.09 and tolerance of .000. The socio-economic

Table 14

Within Group Structure Coefficient for Repeat Offenders Analysis

Variable	Function 1	Ranking
Class standing	.6491	1
Cumulative GPA	.6414	2
Semester GPA	.4819	3
Ethnicity	-.4329	4
Hometown size	-.3307	5
Mother's occupation	-.2749	6
Father's occupation	-.2600	7
SAT Math Score	-.2294	8
Socio-economic Status	-.2243	9
Level of offense	-.3307	10
Mother's education	-.2749	11
Total SAT Score	-.1576	12
Residence	.1342	13
Alcohol use	-.1270	14
Major	-.1236	15
Greek affiliation	.1178	16
Verbal SAT Score	-.0651	17
Father's education	-.0610	18
Gender	.0269	19

status variable is a combination of two already existing variables and thus; would not provide any additional information for this analysis.

Table 15

Classification Function Coefficients for Repeat Offenders (Fisher's Linear Discriminant Functions)

Variable	First-time Offender	Repeat Offender
Ethnicity	3.0119	2.7454
Class Standing	2.1644	2.3662
Cumulative Grade Point Average	.2179	.4613
(Constant)	-6.6129	-8.1717

The discriminant functions for repeat offenders were found to be statistically significant. The predictive accuracy of the discriminat function, using the student offender sample, is described in Table 16. The percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified was 78.69%. Analysis of the classification data was conducted to determine the correct proportion of cases accurately classified. The formula used to compute the proportion of cases classified by chance is described on page 46. A 67.2 percent proportional chance criterion was determined. The results indicated that the discriminant functions provided more

accurate classification ability than what would be expected by random assignment.

Table 16

Classification of Repeat and First-Time Offenders Based on the Discriminant Function

Actual Group	Number of Cases	Predicted Group	
		First-time Offender	Repeat Offender
First-time Offender	927	927 (100%)	0 (0%)
Repeat Offender	252	278 (100%)	0 (0%)

Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified: 78.69%

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify a profile of the student judicial offender and determine which factors contributed to the level of offense and status as a repeat offender. The results also indicated five demographic variables that provided the best prediction of level of offense. The results indicate that six of the demographic variables under investigation provided the best prediction of repeat offenders. The significance of the variables identified in this study were unexpected since they were not predicted by previous research. Several of these variables were not previously studied the this context of student conduct and university discipline.

Prediction Variables for Level of Offense

Five variables were found to be significant predictors for level of offense. These variables were: alcohol, father's education, gender, residence, and major. A stepwise discriminant analysis was conducted to determine which variables more effectively predict level of offense. The stepwise discriminant analysis yielded five variables: alcohol, gender, residence, major and Greek affiliation.

The most significant predictor for level of offense was alcohol. The significance of this variable was expected though there is a paucity of research and information about the relationship between alcohol and conduct (Anderson & Gadaleto, 1984). Gonzalez and Wiles (1982) categorized misbehaviors that were more likely to be associated with alcohol use. They included trespassing, malicious behavior, and breaking and entering. These behaviors could be classified as Level II or serious offenses in this study. Alcohol impairs judgements, lowers inhibitions, and heightens emotional states; thus, leading to increased risk taking and involvement in more serious offenses.

Gender was the second most significant predictor in relation to level of offense. Males were more likely to be involved in serious offenses. This was an expected outcome. Males were overrepresented in research on judicial offenders (Tracey et al. 1979 and 1985; Cummins, 1966; Bazik & Meyering, 1965; Tisdale & Brown, 1965; Gossett, 1993; and Williamson et al., 1952). Males may be greater risk takers,

be more likely to use or abuse alcohol and other drugs, and engage in violent activities such as fighting, use of weapons, and sexual assaults.

The third most significant predictor variable for level of offense was residence. Past research examined the size of residence and its relationship to conduct. Tracey et al. (1979) noted that size of the residence hall is positively correlated to conduct involvement. Lifestyle was not examined in previous studies. Traditional thought was that single sexed residence halls, particularly all male halls, were associated with increased conduct activity (Gossett, 1993). The findings of this study supports this premise. An all male living environment may perpetuate and support a culture of misbehavior and limit testing. Peer pressure and the need to validate male identity may be also be factors in level of offense.

Major was the next predictive variable for level of offense. Major has been a variable found related to judicial offenders. Kaiser and Britton (1967) found offenders tended to be overrepresented in the following majors: physical education, non-preference, biological and social sciences. Bazik and Meyer (1965) found similar results with offenders being health and physical education majors. Williamson et al. (1952) found that offenders were more likely to be enrolled in agriculture, forestry, home economics and dentistry. The students involved in Level II offenses were more likely to be enrolled in major in the College of Arts

and Sciences and School of Business. Janosik et al. (1979, 1985) found the same majors to be overrepresented by offenders in comparison to non-offenders. In this study those students who were involved in lower level offenses were non-preference, no major declared.

The last significant predictor variable for level of offense is Greek affiliation. Greek affiliation or interest in joining a Greek organization has been associated with judicial offenders (Lenning, 1970). Previous research did not examine this variable as a factor of level of offense. Greek organization are single gender affiliations. As in the previous predictors, the common factor was gender. An organizational culture based on stereotypical masculine behaviors and a culture that was entrenched in a history of members who engaged in glorified misbehaviors, may have provided an environment that further supported involvement in serious offenses. Membership selection may have focused on similarities and new members with the same values and behavioral patterns were selected; thus, perpetuating the relationship with Greek organizations and serious misbehaviors.

Prediction Variables for Repeat and First-Time Offenders

Six variables were identified as significant predictors of repeat offenders. These six variables were: ethnicity, class standing, cumulative grade point average, semester grade point average, mother's occupation, and hometown size.

A stepwise multiple discriminant analysis was conducted to determine which variables more effectively predict recidivism. Three variables were found to more effectively predict recidivism. These variables were: class standing, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point average.

Class standing was the strongest predictor of recidivism. This is consistent with research by Janosik et al. (1979 and 1985). Sophomores were overrepresented in both their offender samples. Time would be a factor in repeat offenses. Students who were found in violation their freshman year would be less likely to misbehave during their probation which would be for a semester or a year period of time.

The second significant predictor was ethnicity. Students of color, particularly African American students, were more likely to be repeat offenders. This variable was not used in any of the previous research published on judicial offenders. The reason for omission of this variable in previous research is unclear, perhaps political reasons prohibited this variable's examination. African American students comprised 8-11 percent of the student population from 1985-1995. Twenty-three percent of judicial offenders during the same time period were African American students. This further supported the relevance of the ethnicity factor for judicial offenders. These findings suggest that a cultural bias and ethnic stereotypes influence involvement in conduct violations and processes.

The third strongest predictors of recidivism was cumulative grade point average. Cumulative grade point averages of repeat offenders were studied by Janosik et al. (1985). They found that offenders had lower cumulative grade point averages in comparison to the general student body. This was also observed by Bazik and Meyering (1965) and Tisdale and Brown (1965). However, Janosik et al. (1985) found no difference between first-time offenders and repeat offenders on the variable of cumulative grade point average. In this study, repeat offenders were found to have significantly higher grade point averages than first-time offenders. Repeat offenders were more likely to be sophomores and upper-classmen. This time passage would have allowed the student to improve their grade point average. If a student did not make increased academic progress, their status at the University would have been in jeopardy or they were academically dismissed; thus, inflating cumulative grade points for upperclassmen.

Offender Profile

The average offender described in this study was a Caucasian male, a sophomore enrolled with a declared major in the College of Arts and Sciences and had a semester grade point average of 1.75 and a cumulative grade point average of 1.83. SAT scores were 893 Total, 447 Math, and 447 Verbal. The offenders lived in a single gender residence hall and came from towns with a population of 10,000-50,000.

The offender came from the mid socio-economic strata. His mother was a semi-skilled worker with high school degree and his father was a service worker with a high school degree. He was not in a Greek letter organization which was contrary to findings of Lenning (1970), who found that Greek affiliation was a contributing factor to conduct involvement. The offender's level of offense was minor and did not involve alcohol.

Power Analysis

A post hoc statistical power analysis was conducted on each discriminant analysis using Power Precision (1997) software. Cohen (1977) stated that power was a function of sample size, level of significance and effect size. Sample size was 1170 for this analysis. Level of significance was set at .05 and effect size was calculated using a R squared for each predictor variable and the two independent variables. Power for level of offense analysis was .99 and power for the repeat offender analysis was 1.00. A power value of .80 is conventionally considered as desirable. Power values of .95 and greater are considered high (Cohen, 1977). The statistical power analyses indicated that the power of these analyses were great and robust. This was due to the large sample size and significant effect sizes.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was based on the investigation of student offender characteristics and how they related to the level of offense and to recidivism. This chapter contains the summary, conclusion, implications, and recommendations of this research.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe a population of students who were involved in the disciplinary process and determine which factors contributed to the level of offense and status as a repeat offender. A profile of the judicial offender was developed based on 19 characteristics. The characteristics of repeat offenders and one time only offenders, as well as the level of offense, were investigated. Relationships with offender characteristics and the two dependent variables, level of offense and recidivism, were examined.

The population of offenders utilized in this study were students who were found in violation of the Code of Conduct of a mid-sized, Midwestern university for a ten year period, 1985-1994. Data were obtained from case files and student information obtained from university records. The total number of cases to draw from was 1,693. Of these 1,693 cases, 1,179 subjects or cases had complete information available and these complete cases were utilized for this study. An overall profile of these offenders using 19 demographic characteristics was developed. Two multiple discriminant analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between and among the 19 offender characteristics and the level of offense and repeat offender status. For the statistical analysis of data, alpha was set at $p < 0.05$ level.

Two null hypotheses were tested:

Null Hypothesis One: None of the 19 offender variables or any subset of variables will predict level of offense.

Null Hypothesis Two: None of the 19 offender variables or any subset of variables will predict recidivism.

Null Hypotheses One and Two were tested utilizing a stepwise multiple discriminant analysis. A summary of the results of the statistical analyses are presented as follows:

1. It was hypothesized that none of the 19 offender variables or any subset of these variable would predict level of offense. The result of the discriminant analysis

revealed that five characteristics that were significant predictors of level of offense which included: alcohol use, father's occupation, gender, major, and residence. The stepwise discriminant analysis provided a discriminant function which determines which variables most efficiently discriminate between Level I or Level II offenders. The discriminant function included the following five variables: alcohol use, gender, major, residence, and Greek affiliation. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Approximately 25 percent of the variance among level of offense could be explained by the factors of alcohol use, gender, major, residence and Greek affiliation. The predictive accuracy of the discriminant function to correctly classify cases into the criterion groups was 76.21 percent which exceeded the proportion that could expected by chance. The most accurately classified group was Level I offenders.

2. It was hypothesized that none of the 19 offender variables or any subset of these variables would predict recidivism. The result of the discriminant analysis revealed six offender characteristics that were significant predictors of level of offense which included: class standing, ethnicity, hometown size, mother's occupation, and semester grade point average. The stepwise discriminant analysis provided a discriminant function which determines which variables most efficiently discriminate between first-time and repeat offenders. The discrimnant function included

the following three variables: class standing, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point average. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Approximately 19 percent of the variance among the offender groups could be explained by the difference in the class standing, ethnicity, and cumulative grade point average. The predictive accuracy of the discriminant function to correctly classify cases into the criterion groups was 78.69 percent which exceed the proportion that could be expected by chance. The most accurately classified group was first-time offender.

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be made based on the results of the study within the scope of the limitations and assumptions of the study. The conclusions are as follows:

1. Offenders who were involved in Level II violations tended to: use alcohol; have declared a major in Arts and Sciences or Business; live in a co-ed residence hall environment; and be a male. Their father's occupation tended to less skilled than the father's of offenders who perpetrated minor offenses.

2. Alcohol use, gender, major, residence and Greek affiliation discriminated between Level I and Level II offenders.

3. Repeat offenders had higher semester and cumulative grade point averages than first-time offenders. Repeat

offenders came from smaller towns and their mothers' occupation was less skilled. Repeat offenders were more likely to be students of color and were generally in their sophomore year.

4. Ethnicity, class standing, and cumulative grade point average discriminated between first-time and repeat offenders.

Implications

The results from the present study suggest several implications for both theory and practice. The implications follow:

1. The typical offender was a first generation college student. As with any transition, structure and clear expectations are needed to ensure a smooth transition. Offenders may not have been exposed to college level behavioral expectations and processes. An effort to explain these expectations of behavior and process should be conducted early in a students academic career and in orientation. A segment on standards of behavior and conduct could also be conducted in an orientation course or a common first year course. Special programs for parents during registration or orientation could be developed to educate students and parents to the institution's behavioral expectations and the conduct system and process.

2. Conduct processes need to develop creative and developmental responses to alcohol use and abuse.

Professionals administering the disciplinary process need to be properly educated. Sanctions and rehabilitative actions should shift to consider alcohol and its affect on serious offenses. Education of students on the topic of alcohol, its use, and effects on behavior and the community need to be intensified (Gonzalez & Wiles, 1982). Proactive alcohol education and programs should focus on alcohol use, its affects and consequences of alcohol violations and alcohol related violations.

3. Practitioners could use these factors in considering interventions and sanctions as to be proactive and educational in their interaction with student offenders (Dannells, 1990). Practitioners can identify predictors on their own campus.

4. Males were overrepresented in all studies and the majority of the research focuses just on male offenders (Tracey et al., 1979; Cummins, 1966, Bazik & Meyering, 1965; Tisdale & Brown, 1965; Gossett, 1993, and Willamson et al., 1952). In this study, gender was not a factor in recidivism. Evaluation will need to be done to deal with women in the conduct process using such questions as: Are processes, sanctions and interventions gender neutral? Can they deal with the special developmental needs of women? Are misbehaviors of males viewed as more offensive and thus, more serious? Gender is a complicated factor in conduct that has been historically skewed. Further evaluation of

processes and standardization for institutional sexism is recommended.

5. Differences have been shown between first-time and repeat offenders and offenders involved in minor or serious offenses. However, sanctions and process are the same for all students. These data provide information that might make sanctions more creative and appropriate to the student and the behavior.

6. Ethnicity as a factor related to recidivism has implications for conduct systems and institutions. Do students of color actually perpetrate more offenses or does race play a part in the perception of the violations? Do the standards of behavior proscribed by the university have a cultural bias? Are staff members who report violations more sensitive to race when reporting cases? An evaluation of process, standards, environmental and cultural factors need to be conducted. The implications of institutional racism as a factor needs to be examined. Education and programs about behavioral expectations, consequences, and conduct processes should be conducted as part of campus mentoring programs and at cultural centers.

7. Though semester and cumulative grade point averages of offenders were not statistically compared to the general student population, grade point averages of 1.75 and 1.83 respectively are below the 2.0 standard of academic achievement. Lenning (1970) reported that offenders placed less emphasis on intellectual and academic goals and

recommended academic interventions for offenders. Implications for interventions and sanctions dealing with academic progress such as tutoring, study skills and special academic program are evident.

8. Greek affiliation was found to be a predictive factor for involvement in serious offenses. New members or rushees could be targeted and educated about behavioral expectations, responsible decision making, and alcohol use before becoming initiated members. Student affairs professionals can include information in rush and orientation materials and programs. Greek leadership and alumni could be targeted for education in the areas of alcohol, behavioral expectations, value and moral development and decision making. Leaders and alumni could positively influence organizational culture and new members and by modeling, redirect behavior.

Recommendations

Based on the results of the present study, the following recommendations for future research are offered:

1. To ascertain if differences among offenders are representative of the general student population or if the characteristics uniquely discriminate offenders from non-offenders, it is recommended that the offender population be compared to a randomly selected non-offender population on these 19 characteristics. Comparisons to the general student

population would enable further generalization of these findings.

2. Research into race and gender bias as it relates to the conduct system is recommended. Further investigation of the influence of institutional racism and sexism and the community perception of behavior as a factor of race and gender is also recommended.

3. Alcohol was a predictive factor for serious offenders. More descriptive and experimental research on alcohol and alcohol interventions as it relates to student problem behavior is recommended. Alcohol education is a sanction for alcohol and alcohol related violations. A study on the effectiveness of alcohol education and the impact of education on conduct violations is warranted.

4. It is recommended that continued research on these and expanded offender and student characteristics be conducted, especially student involvement variables such as employment, campus organization and athletic participation.

5. Because of the uniqueness of the offender sample and some of the differences between this study and the literature, it is recommended that a similar investigation be conducted with judicial offenders who attend other higher education institutions. A comparison to other institutions could yield valuable information and enhance generalization of results.

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APPENDIX A

MEANS, RANGES OF SCORES, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR OFFENDER CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristic	M	SD	Range
Cumulative GPA	1.838	1.044	0-4
Father's Occupation	4.190	3.318	1-9
Father's Education	2.170	1.871	1-7
Hometown Size	3.713	3.026	1-6
Mother's Occupation	3.525	3.146	1-6
Mother's Education	2.268	1.810	1-7
Class Standing	2.129	.969	1-5
SAT Math Score	447.970	88.263	200-690
SAT Total Score	893.188	153.760	430-1470
SAT Verbal Score	447.970	82.960	230-780
Semester GPA	1.751	1.138	0-4
Social Status (Hollingshead Two Factor Scale)	30.292	16.886	8-66

Note. n = 1,179

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF OFFENDER CHARACTERISTICS

Alcohol Use		
No	771	65.4
Yes	408	34.6
Ethnicity		
African American	273	23.0
Hispanic	3	.3
Caucasian	869	73.7
International	14	1.2
Asian American	19	1.6
Native American	1	0.1
Gender		
Male	898	76.2
Female	281	23.8
Greek Affiliation		
No	961	81.5
Yes	218	18.5
Major		
Arts and Science	339	28.8
Business	202	17.1
Education	58	3.2
Graduate Studies	21	1.8
Health and Human Performance	96	8.2
Non-Degree	3	.3
Non-Preference	254	22.4
Nursing	26	2.2
Technology	169	14.3

(Appendix continues)

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF OFFENDER CHARACTERISTICS (continued)

Level of Offense		
Level I	869	76.1
Level II	282	23.1
Repeat Offenders		
Single Time Offender	927	78.6
Repeat Offender	252	21.4
Residence		
Single Gender Hall	607	51.6
Co-ed Hall	433	36.8
Off-campus	138	11.7

Note: n = 1,179

APPENDIX B

POOLED WITHIN-GROUP CORRELATION MATRIX FOR OFFENDERS

	AL	CGPA	CS	ETHN	FED	FOCC
AL	1.000					
CGPA	.050	1.000				
CS	.059*	.599*	1.000			
ETHN	.165*	.073*	-.037	1.000		
FED	.056*	-.025	-.068*	.043	1.000	
FOCC	.116*	.006	-.105*	.246*	.521*	1.000
GEND	-.173*	.034	.034	-.161*	-.001	-.071*
GRK	.071*	.140*	.096*	.143*	.005	.009
HTSZ	.040	-.009	-.086*	.199*	.646*	.630*
MAJ	.030	-.129*	-.191*	.088*	.059*	.109*
MATH	.145*	.157*	.046	.404*	.031	.157*
MED	.063*	-.018	-.080*	.124*	.797*	.624*
	AL	CGPA	CS	ETHN	FED	FOCC
MOCC	.047	-.037	-.118*	.138*	.478*	.675*
REP	-.023	.138*	.136*	-.093*	-.012	-.049
RES	.044	.225*	.412*	.024	-.085*	-.106*
SGPA	.053	.905*	.512*	.072*	-.022	.012
SES	.110*	-.033	-.105*	.208*	.742*	.958*
TOT	.139*	.146*	.047	.400*	.002	.145*
VERB	.101*	.102*	.035	.315*	-.028	.107*
	GEND	GRK	HTSZ	MAJ	MATH	MED
GEND	1.000					
GRK	-.100*	1.000				
HTSZ	.018	.020	1.000			
MAJ	-.088	-.057*	.085*	1.000		
MATH	-.203*	.073*	.073*	-.017	1.000	
MED	.012	.021	.678*	.112*	.044	1.000

(table continues)

POOLED WITHIN-GROUP CORRELATION MATRIX FOR OFFENDERS
(continued)

	GEND	GRK	HTSZ	MAJ	MATH	MED
MOCC	-.012	-.037	.540*	.072*	.099*	.460*
REP	.010	.026	-.070*	-.023	-.047	-.032
RES	.003	.061*	-.080*	-.036	.027	-.082*
SGPA	.052	.138*	-.008	-.129*	.121*	-.015
SES	-.056*	.009	.710*	.105*	.133*	.754*
TOT	-.197*	.078*	.062*	-.051	.902*	.009
VERB	-.146*	.067*	.041	-.076*	.608*	-.023

	MOCC	REP	RES	SGPA	SES	TOT
MOCC	1.000					
REP	-.061*	1.000				
RES	-.080	.027	1.000			
SGPA	-.018	.105*	.189*	1.000		
SES	.869*	-.043	-.112*	.002	1.000	

	MOCC	REP	RES	SGPA	SES	TOT
TOT	.080*	-.029	.050	.116*	.115*	1.000
VERB	.048	-.007	.062*	.084*	.074*	.888*

	VERB
VERB	1.000

* statistically significant at $p \leq .05$. Of the 162 correlations, eight (8) should be significant just by chance. 106 were significant, indicating a strong intercorrelation among the variables in this study.

TABLE KEY

AL = Alcohol
CGPA = Cumulative Grade Point Average
CS = Class standing
ETHN = Ethnicity
FED = Father's education
FOCC = Father's occupation
GRK = Greek affiliation
HTSZ = Hometown size
LEV = Level of offense
MAJ = Major
MATH = Math SAT Scores
MED = Mother's education
MOCC = Mother's occupation
RES = Residence
REP = Repeat offender
SES = Socio-economic Status
SEX = Gender
SGPA = Semester Grade Point Average
TOT = Total SAT Score
VERB = Verbal SAT Score

APPENDIX C

GROUP MEANS OF OFFENDERS BY LEVEL OF OFFENSE

Level	AL	CGPA	CS	ETHN
I	.384	1.829	2.109	2.567
II	.220	1.864	2.187	2.619
Total	.345	1.838	2.128	2.579

Level	FED	TOTAL	GRK	HTSZ
I	2.208	891.486	.196	3.789
II	2.088	898.185	.145	3.469
Total	2.180	898.086	.184	3.713

Level	MAJ	MATH	MED	MOCC
I	5.299	447.553	2.288	3.569
II	6.174	449.715	2.188	3.323
Total	5.508	448.069	2.264	3.511

Level	REP	VERB	SEX	SGPA
I	.203	446.837	.270	1.743
II	.249	450.782	.138	1.776
Total	.214	447.780	.238	1.751

Level	RES	SES	FOCC
I	1.566	30.802	4.293
II	1.711	28.597	3.832
Total	1.601	30.275	4.183

Note: N = 1176. Level I n = 895. Level II n = 281.

Table key can be found on page 84.

APPENDIX D

GROUP MEANS OF REPEAT OFFENDER CHARACTERISTICS

Offender	AL	CGPA	CS	ETHN
Single	.352	1.765	2.057	2.625
Multiple	.320	2.117	2.392	2.408
Total	.345	1.837	2.128	2.57

Offender	FED	FOCC	GRK	HTSZ
Single	2.193	4.278	.179	3.828
Repeat	2.132	3.816	.204	3.292
Total	2.180	4.180	.184	3.714

Offender	LEV	MAJ	MATH	MED
Single	1.229	5.568	450.302	2.297
Repeat	1.272	5.248	439.480	2.140
Total	1.238	5.500	448.000	2.263

Offender	MOCC	RES	SEX	SGPA
Single	3.611	1.590	.237	1.688
Repeat	3.148	1.640	.244	1.981
Total	3.513	1.600	.239	1.750

Offender	TOT	SES	VERB
Single	895.621	30.696	448.248
Repeat	882.868	28.660	445.360
Total	892.868	30.262	447.634

n = 1,179. First-time n = 927. Repeat n = 252

Note: Table key found on page 84.