

INDUCTIVE THEORETICAL INTEGRATION:  
APPROACHING A GENERAL THEORY  
OF CRIME

by

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ABSTRACT

INDUCTIVE THEORETICAL INTEGRATION:  
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The purpose of this study is to discuss and use theoretical integration in an attempt to better explain criminal behavior. Data for this study was obtained through a random power sample of undergraduate college students enrolled in criminology and criminal justice classes. Respondents chose a criminal behavior from a typology of drug, property, or violent criminal acts, and then chose theories which could aid in the explanation of that criminal behavior. The respondents were also asked the same concerning self-reported criminal activity. Analysis of the data showed that theoretical integration was used, by the respondents, to explain drug-related crimes committed by a third person. Through this inductive process, the respondents, used the following

theories to potentially better understand drug-related crimes: rational choice theory, hedonistic calculus, and differential opportunity theory. The author integrated these theories using Hirschi's up-and-down method. Furthermore, this study found that when explaining self-reported activity theoretical integration was not required. In this case, a single theory was used to explain property crimes, rational choice theory. Additional analysis was completed based on gender and major. This analysis included inductive theoretical integration, t-test, and the reporting of nominal data.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Problem

“Criminological theory is important because most of what is done in criminal justice is based on criminological theory...” (Bohm & Haley, 2002, p. 70). Unfortunately, most theory-testing has been single theory testing. Since the late 1970’s, and into the early 1980’s, theory integration has been used in an attempt to better explain criminal behavior. Usually, theories are selected prior to the implementation of the study. The study then is used to show support or to discount the combined theoretical model.

Theories have seemed to evolve over time. One cause of this evolution relates to changes in the way of thinking (Bohm & Haley, 2002). Also, changes in science have caused the creation of a new paradigm, as can be seen with the emergence of the positivist paradigm (Bohm & Haley, 2002). Furthermore, changes in society resulting from conflict have also been the catalyst for a theoretical shift, as was the case with the emergence of the conflict paradigm in criminology (Bohm & Haley, 2002). While a new paradigm might emerge, the theories of the previous paradigm do not disappear (Elliot, 1985). In fact, the theories once discarded may even return when the newer paradigm is unable to explain more criminal behavior than those before it.

The result of the emergence of new theories and the failure to fully discard older theories has resulted in the presence of numerous different theories available for the study of crime. In fact, some criminologists feel there are too many theories, and call for a reduction in their sheer number (Bernard & Snipes, 1996; Bernard, 2001; Vold, Bernard, & Snipes, 2002). Theoretical integration might allow for the number of existing theories to be reduced to a more manageable and meaningful level. Since integration of criminological theories might also allow for a better and more accurate explanation of criminal behavior (Brown, Esbensen, & Geis, 2001).

As already stated criminological theory and policies dealing with criminal justice are related. It is important for a study to use college students enrolled in criminology and criminal justice classes to determine their perceptions concerning the causes of crime. These students may perhaps one day be in charge of making and implementing criminal justice policy. Campbell and Muncer (1990) study explored the perceptions held by students concerning the causes of crime. From a sample of 29 the researchers received 182 different responses (Campbell & Muncer, 1990). Miller, Tewksbury, and Hensley (2004) wanted to explore perceptions of college students to better determine policy implications. This study maintained that if the perceptions were different from reality then poor policies would be created (Miller, et al., 2004). The current study will not view the perceptions held by college students in terms of differences from reality, but as reality itself.

## 1.2 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to discuss and use theoretical integration in an attempt to better explain criminal behavior. Respondents in this study will choose the types of criminal behavior to be explained as well as the theories to be used. The results of this data collection process will be used to create an inductive theoretical integration model.

## 1.3 Presentation of Paper

In Chapter Two, the author will present a literature review introducing the criminological paradigms elaborated by Bohm and Haley (2002). After this introduction, the focus will shift to theoretical integration. This will include a definition of theoretical integration, some ideas as to how to attain it, and a discussion of studies that have been conducted using some kind of theoretical integration. Thereafter, the literature review will change focus, addressing the lay theories the respondents used to explain criminal behavior.

In Chapter Three, Methods, the author will discuss how this study was conducted. This chapter will include a discussion concerning the sample population, sampling procedure, and analysis. The results of this study will be presented in Chapter Four. Included, in Chapter Four, will be the inductive theoretical integration for the data as a whole and filters of gender and major. Also, results of the 2-tailed t-tests will be reported for the filtered data. Survey questions not analyzed with a t-test or inductive theoretical integration will be presented as nominal data, according to gender

and major. This section will conclude with demographic information obtained by this study.

In the Discussion (Chapter Five), inductive theoretical integration will be presented. This discussion will center on the integration of theories attempted by the author for the purpose of enhancing our ability to explain criminal behavior. This chapter will also discuss whether support was found for theoretical integration or whether single theory explanations were used. Furthermore, the discussion will address the issue of the feasibility of creating a general theory, as well as policy implications emerging there from. The author will also propose a direction for future research. This discussion will include how this study was originally conceived and whether this method should be used by other researchers. This section will also recommend replication of this study and ways to move beyond. The limitations of the study will also be briefly discussed. Since, the survey, asked nine knowledge questions a brief discussion concerning the respondents' knowledge of theoretical integration will also be addressed. Finally, this chapter will end with a brief conclusion and a proposal for criminologists.



## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The author, in the literature review, will discuss the criminological paradigms as presented by Bohm and Haley (2002). After this brief discussion the focus of the review will turn to theoretical integration. Included in this discussion will be the beginnings of theoretical integration and the procedures followed in the attempts at integration. The discussion will then consider studies conducted using integrated theoretical models. The focus will first be on studies now viewed as integrative, but conducted before integration became its own paradigm. Next will be a section discussing major studies which have used integrated theory. This section will be followed by a further discussion which will concern studies that have used theoretical integration carried out since 1979. Finally the literature review will discuss the theories used by the respondents in this study to explain drug-related criminal behavior.

#### 2.1 Criminological Paradigms

According to Bohm and Haley (2002), there are three major paradigms of criminological theory these paradigms are: classical, positivist, and critical (see Appendix A; Figures A.1 & A.2). The next sections will briefly elaborate on the criminological paradigms as presented by Bohm and Haley.

### *2.1.1. Classical Paradigm*

The Classical School emerged during the Enlightenment and was viewed as a way to bring civility to punishment (Bohm & Haley, 2002). This way of thinking "...was the first systematic effort to explain crime and criminal behavior" (Moyer, 2001, p. 13). Free will, rational choice and the hedonistic calculus were seen as the cause of deviant or criminal behavior (Roberson & Wallace, 1998; Bohm & Haley, 2002). The response to criminal activity was to blame the individual, in so far as he or she is seen as freely choosing to engage in criminal behavior. The assumption of free will places the responsibility for the criminal act on the individual and no one else (Shoemaker, 1996; Roberson & Wallace, 1998; Brown et al., 2001; Bohm & Haley, 2002). Rational choice assumes that the individuals think out and actually plan their actions (Shoemaker, 1996).

How could laws be established which would reflect the assumptions of the classical paradigm? Cesare Beccaria, viewed as the founder of the Classical School, felt that punishment had to be swift, certain, and serve to counter the hedonistic nature of the individual (Trevino, 2005). Jeremy Bentham's hedonistic calculus stated that an individual would act in a way to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Brown et al., 2001). Imprisonment was an attempt to deter criminal acts by increasing the 'pain' of that act. Harsh prison terms would cause the individual to think twice before choosing to break the law again.

The classical paradigm "...served as the dominant explanation of crime from the late eighteenth to the late nineteenth century" (Brown et al., 2001, p. 177). It did not,

however, account for all of the crime observed. Thus time was right for another paradigm to emerge, the positivist paradigm.

### *2.1.2. Positivist Paradigm*

The positivist paradigm views crime as a disease and the criminal as ill (Brown et al., 2001). Emerging during a time of scientific advancement, this paradigm asserted that science was the best way to find an objective answer to the question concerning the causes of criminal behavior (Brown et al., 2001; Moyer, 2001; Bohm & Haley, 2002). As a result, of the emergence of this paradigm and its assumptions, this paradigm called for treatment of criminals and their eventual return to society.

The answers to why people commit crimes could be discovered by identifying the differences between the criminal and non-criminal. Cesare Lombroso described the criminal using the term atavism (Brown et al., 2001; Moyer, 2001). This is "...a view of criminals as a throwback to an earlier and more primitive evolutionary stage" (Brown et al., 2001, p. 237). Lombroso believed society could identify the atavists in so far as they would be physically different from the non-criminal population (Moyer, 2001). If this was true, then it might be possible to identify those who would eventually become criminal, who could then be isolated and thus protecting society.

Lombroso and other biological positivist were not alone in their thinking that something other than free will caused criminal behavior. Other positivists' focused on psychological, sociological, anomie/strain, learning, and control as factors leading to criminal behavior (Bohm & Haley, 2002). What separated this paradigm from the

classical paradigm was the feeling that other factors not controlled by the individual would aid in the commission of a criminal act.

Much like the classical paradigm, the positivist paradigm, could not explain all forms of crime. While both paradigms did have a common goal, namely, to remove the individual from society, their reasons and goals were different. Society was once again changing. The next paradigm would counter the assumptions of those that came before it.

### *2.1.3. Critical Paradigm*

The critical paradigm, according to Bohm and Haley (2002), saw people as dominated and constrained by institutions. Moreover conflict in society was seen as normal. This paradigm emerged in the 1960s and, according to Bohm and Haley (2002), includes labeling theory, conflict theory, radical criminology, left realism, peacemaking, feminist theory, and postmodernism.

Labeling theory is concerned with how an individual is labeled as criminal, as well as the reactions to that label, both by the individual and by society (Bohm & Haley, 2002). When an individual is given a label the resulting interaction with society and the individual's reaction might lead to more criminal behavior. Conflict theory concerns itself with groups in society and the differential control of limited resources (Roberson & Wallace, 1998). Radical theories, according to Bohm and Haley (2002, p. 100) are "[t]heories of crime causation that are generally based on [the] Marxist theory of class struggle." This kind of conflict will most likely always occur in a capitalist society and

cannot be stopped until private property has been eliminated. Those without power will attempt to gain power. Those with power will not want to give it up – hence conflict.

Left realism assumes that “...poor and working-class people are those most likely to be victimized not only by the policies of the rich and powerful, but also by their similarly situated neighbor” (Brown et al., 2001, p. 394). Policies should focus on substantial reductions of social inequality and individual deprivation (Brown et al., 2001). Improving social and economic conditions might be the solution, since, if everyone was socially equal and individual deprivation did not exist, then crime may decrease. Peacemaking calls for a reduction in suffering (Bohm & Haley, 2002). This suffering not only occurs by the criminal act, but also by the infliction of punishment on the offender. In the end, the criminal justice system deals with suffering and by reducing this suffering, crime should then be lowered. “[T]he peace model requires openness, trust and cooperative learning” (Moyer, 2001, p. 296).

Feminist theory “[focuses]...on women’s experiences and ways of knowing because, in the past, men’s experiences have been taken as the norm and generalized to the population” (Bohm & Haley, 2002, p. 104). Moyer (1985, p. 198) also called for criminologists to focus on women because “...the exclusion of women has resulted in inadequate theories of crime and deviance...” In the past, theories, have explained the criminal activities of males, but these “all male” findings were then used to explain female criminal behavior. Feminist theorists feel that better explanations of criminal behavior will only occur if and when women and gender become the focus of theories and not just grouped with men (Moyer, 1985; Bohm & Haley, 2002).

Postmodernism, according to Bohm and Haley (2002, p. 105), "...attempts to understand the creation of knowledge, and how knowledge and language create hierarchy and domination." Once this is understood, action can be taken to reduce crime. Theories under the critical paradigm, like the classical and positivist theories before them, were unable to account for all forms of crime. When it is realized that a paradigm does not explain all the actual form of crime that are observed, the time is ripe for a new theoretical construct to emerge.

### 2.2 Theoretical Integration: The Beginning

"The idea of theory integration on its surface appears to be a logical stage in the evolution of theoretical development" (Anderson & Dyson, 2002, p. 244). During the 1950s and 1960s statistics became more robust thereby enabling criminologists to start addressing causality (Brown et al., 2001). Enhanced statistics now allow researchers to evaluate more variables than before (Brown et al., 2001). Furthermore, there was a growing feeling that a multiplicity of causes were responsible for criminal activity (Elliot, 1985; Cordella & Siegel, 1996; Brown et al., 2001).

The availability of better statistics and a feeling for multiple causes were however, not the only factors leading to the attempts at theoretical integration. According to Anderson and Dyson (2002), there was a feeling that criminology had peaked in the 1970s. This feeling might have been caused, at least in part, by the struggle during this time to demonstrate the superiority of one theory over the others (Brown et al., 2001). In any case, scholars came to feel, during the 1980's that nothing new was being done in the field of criminological theory (Wellford, 1989; Anderson &

Dyson, 2002). This feeling could have perhaps been a reaction to the absence of a clear “winner” in the theoretical struggle of the previous decade. (Williams & McShane, 2004). Thus it would appear as though theoretical integration as its own paradigm might have been born out of a period of theoretical fatigue plus improved statistical capabilities.

According to Bernard and Snipes (1996), criminologist came to believe that there were far too many theories. Further, “[m]ost criminologists would also agree that the abundance of theories does not enrich the field but impedes scientific progress...it would [thus] be desirable to reduce the number of theories...” (Bernard & Snipes, 1996, p. 302). One way to obtain this reduction has been falsification. According to Paternoster and Bachman (2001, p. 303), when “...theories [that]...cannot account for known facts or whose predictions are not borne out, lack empirical validity...” are considered to be falsified. This is to say that, if the predictions based upon a theory’s assumptions are not borne by the available data, that theory has been falsified and must be discarded.

In this connection, Bernard (1990, p. 327) argues falsification has failed insofar as “...no theoretical approach to crime has ever been falsified in the history of criminology.” Apparently not much progress in this regard occurred during the 1990s, because Bernard again referred, a decade later (Bernard, 2001), to the failure of falsification. According to Weatherburn (1993) and Dunham and Wilson (2001), a goal of many criminologists is to continue to reduce the number of existing theories until there is one general theory. This reduction could perhaps occur through theoretical

integration. Through the integrating of theories, it is also hoped that a general theory will emerge (Dunham & Wilson). However, Tittle (1985) feels a general theory is not possible because of many factors, one of them being that past attempts have failed. “Although general theory is the preeminent goal of scientific criminology, not all agree that it is possible or desirable” (Tittle, 1985, p. 118).

According to Bernard (2001, p. 343), “[i]ntegration, then is an alternative to falsification as a way to reduce the number of theories in criminology, and has risen as a result of the perceived inability of theoretical competition and falsification to accomplish this goal.” Consequently, Bernard (2001), and those like him, argue that a reduction in the number of extant theories needs to occur, and, since the individual paradigms have failed to accomplish this goal, theoretical integration might yield the desired results.

According to Vold et al. (2002) theoretical integration becomes an attempt at theoretical reduction. Theoretical integration is thought to accomplish this goal by removing the competition between individual theories thus obtaining a better explanation of criminal behavior (Brown et al., 2001). Since competition and falsification seems to have failed, theoretical integration might be the paradigm of choice to reduce the multiplicity of theories.

### 2.3 Theoretical Integration

“Theoretical integration...[is] the act of combining two or more sets of logically interrelated propositions into one larger set of interrelated propositions, in order to provide a more comprehensive explanation of a particular phenomenon” (Thornberry,



1989, p. 52). Furthermore, other definitions seem to carry the same meaning, regardless of the variations of language. Brown et al., (2001, p. 27) defined integration as combining “...two or more theoretical perspectives...” However, how to go about integrating theories to accomplish this goal is still open to debate (Dodson, 2001).

### *2.3.1. How to Integrate Theories*

Hirschi (1979) suggests three ways to approach theoretical integration: end-to-end, side-by-side, and up-and-down. The three approaches are still cited today as ways to conduct theoretical integration. Each of these three methods will be discussed below. Also, a quick discussion of cross-level integration will be presented.

#### *2.3.1.1. End-to-End Theoretical Integration*

End-to-end integration is also referred to as sequential integration (Liska, Krohn, & Messner, 1989; Dodson, 2001; Paternoster & Bachman, 2001). In this method, the dependent variable of one theory becomes the independent variable of another (Hirschi, 1979; Liska et al., 1989; Barak, 1998; Dodson, 2001; Paternoster & Bachman, 2001). This form of integration is concerned with the causal order, meaning the variable in the first theory comes before the variables of the second theory (Bernard & Snipes, 1996). Theory one comes first and effects theory two, which causes or effects criminal behavior. According to Brown et al. (2001), this type of theoretical integration is the most common approach.

Hirschi (1979) criticized this form of integration for potentially explaining less than what would occur if the theories in question were not integrated. The point then becomes why to integrate when the individual theories can explain more separately.

Dodson's (2001, p. 49) criticism of this type stated that "...when variables are placed in sequential fashion...the last factor examined may appear to be the only correct one."

#### 2.3.1.2. Side-by-Side Theoretical Integration

Side-by-side integration is also known as horizontal integration and is the simplest approach to take when integrating theories (Dodson, 2001). "One theory is assumed to explain one component, and one or more other theories explain other components. The integrated theory is simply the sum of different components" (Paternoster & Bachman, 2001, p. 307). However, a shortcoming of this approach is that "[a]s the number of theories to be integrated side-by-side increases, this results in much confusion" (Bernard & Snipes, 1996, p. 308). To ensure the research does not end up with many theories explaining many different observed occurrences, this type of integration will rely on typologies (Dodson, 2001; Paternoster & Bachman, 2001).

Hirschi (1979) felt this form of integration should be utilized insofar as it appears to have no apparent defects. Furthermore, Hirschi (1979, p. 35) stated that "This approach does not allow a single definition tailored to the needs of a particular theory...it leaves each subtheory free to define delinquency in its own terms." One reason why Hirschi likes this approach might be because it leaves the individual theories in their pre-integrated form. "Everyone wants to defend their own theories to their death..." (Bernard & Snipes, 1996, p. 305). This form of integration might just allow this to occur.

Criticism of this type of integration concerns the inconsistent nature of the theories selected for integration (Anderson & Dyson, 2002). While Hirschi (1979)

seems to support this approach to integration, he also criticizes it. His criticism focuses on the way the cases are segregated and he argues no one has been able to do this operation effectively (Hirschi, 1979).

#### 2.3.1.3. Up-and-Down Theoretical Integration

Also known as deductive integration, up-and-down integration appears to be the least common approach to theoretical integration (Paternoster & Bachman, 2001). This form of integration raises the level of abstraction (Hirschi, 1979; Bernard & Snipes, 1996). Put another way, up-and-down integration "...is accomplished by identifying a level of abstraction or generality that will incorporate some of the conceptualization of the constituent theories" (Liska et al., 1989, p. 10).

Hirschi's (1979, p. 36) criticism of this type of theoretical integration lies in "...the part of the integrationists to accept without question the truth of any partial theory their general theory subsumes." This goes back to the concern with the theories being integrated having different terms, characteristics, and conceptions (Liska et al., 1989). If theories are completely opposite, Hirschi and others like him worry whether integration is at all possible.

#### 2.3.1.4. Cross-Level Theoretical Integration

Cross-level integration is very complex, it attempts to combine macro and micro theories (Liska et al., 1989; Dodson, 2001). While the combining of macro and micro theories might be hard for the criminologist, it is viewed as probably the best approach to take (Liska et al., 1989). The goal of this type of integration, as well as the basis behind theoretical integration, is to increase the explanatory power of theory (Dodson,

2001). By including both macro and micro theories, this form attempts to combine individual and social factors. Insofar as the causes of crime are complex, integration of individual and group theories might produce the most effective tool for the explanation of criminal behavior in a satisfactory manner.

### *2.3.2. Cons of Integration*

Hirschi (1979, p. 37) sums up the concerns about theoretical integration:

I think we should be pleased to find that attainment of the integrationist's goal is so difficult. A "successful" integration would destroy the healthy competition among ideas that has made the field of delinquency one of the most interesting and exciting fields in sociology for some time.

Theoretical integration is then viewed as a method that will reduce theoretical competition, in the end hurting criminology. Paternoster and Bachman (2001, p. 310) feel that theoretical competition will allow, "...each theory...to develop its strengths and strengthen its weaknesses...in theoretical competition each theory tries to make a distinctive name for itself by emphasizing its differences from other theories."

Further, the same authors feel "...that in the rush to combine theories, integrationists have ignored crucial differences and distinctions among them so that the combined integrated theory is unfaithful to its parts" (Paternoster & Bachman, 2001, p. 310). If integration is in fact rushed and pushed too hard, the result might be theoretical mush (Thornberry, 1989). Any explanation received will not be meaningful and testing will have to be done all over again. Hirschi (1989, p. 41-42) once again stated his opposition to theoretical integration, "[i]ntegrated theories are merely oppositional

theories in disguise...” While those who oppose theoretical integration have been very vocal, those who support it have not been entirely passive.

### *2.3.3. Pros of Theoretical Integration*

The arguments for theoretical integration revert back to the belief that there are too many theories and that a reduction of their number is indispensable. The perceived failures of falsification and competition were discussed by Bernard and Snipes (1996). Theoretical integration might accomplish the reduction of existing theories that some feel is desperately needed. Not only will theoretical reduction take place, but theoretical integration perhaps will produce better explanations as to the causes of crime (Brown et al., 2001).

According to Anderson and Dyson (2002), integration is the next logical stage of theoretical development and should be given a fair chance. Paradigms before integration were given a chance to prove themselves, and integration should be treated in an equal manner. In each case, the new paradigm was criticized by those of the other ‘older’ paradigm, perhaps out of a fear of being falsified and discarded. Why would theorists want to prevent theoretical integration from becoming a paradigm? “Perhaps fearful of diluting his own approach, each scientist sometimes becomes more tenaciously attached to his original framework” (Wolfgang & Ferracuti, 1982, p. 2). This point of view is also espoused by Bernard and Snipes (1996), who feel that theorists will attempt to defend their theoretical offspring to the very end. Perhaps the biggest fear of those who are against theoretical integration is that their single theory will not be integrated into a new and perhaps successful theory.

#### *2.3.4. Middle Ground: Theoretical Elaboration*

Theoretical elaboration calls for the full development of existing theories (Liska et al., 1989). “Rather than starting with multiple theories...elaboration explicitly starts with a particular theoretical model [and]...attempts to build a more and more comprehensive model by logical extension of the basic propositions contained in the model” (Thornberry, 1989, p. 56). Theoretical elaboration perceives full integration as being premature because current theories have not been fully tested (Liska et al., 1989). Once elaboration is completed, theoretical integration might enhance the explanation of criminal behavior.

### 2.4 Theoretical Integration by a Different Name

While the term *theoretical integration* did not emerge until the 1970s, it did in fact begin considerably earlier (Brown et al., 2001). This section will discuss earlier attempts of theoretical integration as represented by the work of Shaw and McKay (1942), and Cloward and Ohlin (1960).

#### *2.4.1. Shaw & McKay*

Using the Park and Burgess concentric zone model of city development, Shaw and McKay attempted to provide an explanation for delinquency (Brown et al., 2001). These researchers used social disorganization and social learning to explain lower class deviants (Brown et al., 2001; Anderson & Dyson, 2002). When the above model and theories were combined the result was believed to be a more complete understanding of crime and the locations where it occurs (Brown et al., 2001; Anderson & Dyson, 2002). Thus it seems that researchers in the 1940s were fully aware that crime was a

phenomenon better explained through the combination, or integration, of two or more extant theories.

#### *2.4.2. Cloward & Ohlin*

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) used what was to become known as theoretical integration in their effort to describe and explain the dynamics of gang formation. This combination of theories was given a new name, namely, differential opportunity theory (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960). Their theory attempted to combine strain theory and social learning into a single conceptual construct (Brown et al., 2001; Anderson & Dyson, 2002).

The reason for the attempts to integrate extant theories was "...that the milieu in which actors find themselves has a crucial impact upon the types of adaptation which develop in response to pressures toward deviance" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960, p. x). The environment affects the individual and cannot possibly be discounted. These two researchers, like Shaw and McKay, suspected that there might be a multiplicity of causes for criminal behavior.

### 2.5 Major Studies Using Theoretical Integration

This section will discuss some of the best known integration studies. This selection of integrated theories has been partly borrowed from a review of criminological texts (Brown et al., 2001; Vold et al., 2002; Cullen & Agnew, 2003).

#### *2.5.1. Elliot, Ageton, & Canter: Theory of Delinquency & Drug Use (1979)*

This group of researchers went about the task of integrating strain, social control, and social learning theories (Elliott, Ageton, & Canter, 1979; Bernard &

Snipes, 1996; Vold et al., 2002). Elliott et al. (1979, p. 21) justified their endeavor by stating that "...a satisfactory explanation of delinquent behavior requires multiple variables and a broader conceptualization than has been used to date...using this paradigm should result in a more precise set of variables." Integration was also required in lieu of the vast supply of theories already in existence, and a feeling that nothing new was occurring in the field (Elliott et al., 1979), as pointed to before (p. 10). These are the major reasons leading to theoretical integration becoming a paradigm.

This study led some scholars to react negatively to the entire effort at theoretical integration. Hirschi wrote the article *Separate and Unequal is Better* in 1979. This article seems to have been an attempt to end theoretical integration or at the very least guide its future. The study conducted by Elliott et al, seemed to start theoretical integration, in its current form. While this study occurred at the being of the theoretical integration paradigm, it is still viewed as the best known integration of strain, control, and social learning (Akers, 1997).

#### 2.5.2. Braithwaite: *Reintegrative Shaming* (1989)

Reintegrative shaming "...draws on labeling, subcultural, opportunity, control, differential association, and social learning theories" (Bernard & Snipes, 1996, p. 316). Braithwaite (1989a, p. 152) considered that; "[a] theory must not only explain the facts we know; it must also generate fresh predictions, of which policy predictions are the most useful sort; the theory must help us account for what we know and understand what we do not know." Braithwaite is of the opinion that reintegrative shaming achieves precisely this goal. "The theory of reintegrative shaming contends that we can sensibly



talk about criminal subcultures” (Braithwaite, 1989a, p. 13). This study was different than other integration studies insofar as it created a new theory that successfully integrated several established theories (Bernard & Snipes, 1996). In this manner, it is hoped that a substantial reduction in the number of theories could occur. Instead of competing, theories used to create reintegrative shaming would work together to attain a better explanation of criminal behavior.

### *2.5.3. Tittle: Control Balance Theory (1995)*

Tittle (1995) would integrate the following theoretical conceptualizations: differential association, Merton’s anomie, Marxian conflict theory, social control, labeling, utilitarian/deterrence, and routine activities theory. This was done because “...each theory is defensible in its own terms, but that each is incomplete in that it does not answer questions which the other theories are designed to answer” (Vold et al., 2002, p. 307). This is one of the main reasons given to support theoretical integration, namely, better explanatory power of the combined theories.

“Since theoretical work is best pursued as a collective activity, control balance theory should be no more than an intellectual bridge for further advancement” (Tittle, 1995, p. 290). This statement seems to counter Bernard and Snipes (1996) claim that theorists will stand by their theories to the bitter end, insofar as it would seem that Tittle does not care whether the next person comes along and introduces changes to his control balance theory.

Control balance, like any other criminological theory, has its critics. Jensen (1999) feels that the construction of control balance is so general that criticism will be

viewed as trivial. Further, Jensen's (1999) criticism focuses on the typology assigned to gender variations. "The typology was created with little or no attention to providing a clear and precise conceptual or theoretical foundation..." (Jensen, 1999, p. 343). Savelsberg (1999, p. 333) asserts that "[t]he Achilles' heel of Tittle's theory is his definition of deviance – or phenomenon under consideration...appears to be elusive and its definitions seems too vague, entails contradictions, and refers to too many distinct phenomena." However, while criticizing the alleged weaknesses of control balance theory, Savelsberg (1999) also feels it is a worthy model of theory construction.

Tittle (1999, p. 344) has responded to the criticism by Savelsberg (1999) and Jensen (1999) by saying that "...I am especially pleased that these fine scholars found the theory interesting enough to warrant serious critiques." Addressing Savelsberg's (1999) criticism, Tittle states that control balance is a complex theory, perhaps implying that those criticizing control balance do not quite understand it. Furthermore, Tittle (1999) feels that the concern over definitions is misplaced. "Any theory must define the things it is trying to explain if there is to be effective communication between the author and consumer...if it did not, the arguments would make no sense" (Tittle, 1999, p. 344). It may be that Tittle's definition responded to his desire to facilitate the expansion of the model by others, something that would be more difficult if the definitions were overly strict.

Furthermore, Tittle defends the correctness of the definitions and asserts that what Savelsberg (1999) perceives as weakness are actually strengths. Tittle (1999) goes on to state that if control balance is to be criticized, it should be because the theory is

not general enough. Concerning Jensen's (1999) criticism of control balance as being very general so it may dismiss criticism as trivial, Tittle (1999, p. 347) states that "...[Jensen] is absolutely wrong...[control balance] was formulated to explain a wide range of behaviors and grew to complexity because such complications seemed necessary for that explanatory purpose...the theory was formulated to be precise – that is, to yield specific, detailed predictions." At first, it seemed Tittle (1999) did not desire to protect his theory at all cost. Upon further review perhaps the author is attempting to protect his brainchild to death as Bernard and Snipes (1996) claimed that theorists would.

#### *2.5.4. Vila: General Paradigm (1994)*

"According to [the general paradigm], humans are complex, dynamic, and self-reinforcing systems" (Vila, 1994, p. 16). To explain this reality, a theory must "...be general enough to explain all criminal behavior, it must be ecological, integrative, developmental, and must include micro-level and macro-level explanations" (Vold et al., 2002, p. 311). Vila's (1994) paradigm builds on the work of Cohen and Machalek's (1988) theory of evolutionary ecological theory, but is expanded to account for all criminal behavior. This expansion is done by utilizing macro and micro level explanations in an attempt to better explain criminal behavior (Vila, 1994).

Bernard and Snipes (1996) believe that to accomplish a better explanation of crime, biological factors must be included. It is on this point that Vila (1994) criticizes other theorists and their theories. Two years later, Vila, would again state the intentions of the general paradigm, "[t]his paradigm and the general theory that it is hoped will

one day follow from it are intended to guide both research and policy” (Vila, 1996, p. 278). This new paradigm seems to maintain the goal embraced by many criminologists, namely, the quest for a general theory (Vila, 1994).

The general paradigm also seems to call for advance planning in dealing with potential criminal activity. “We routinely plan cities, highways, and military weapons systems 20 years or more into the future” (Vila, 1994, p. 17). A logical question then is why does society not take this action when it comes to criminal activity? Vila (1994) calls for society to lose its impulsiveness, meaning, society should not just react without thinking concerning criminal justice policy. When policies are created based on an impulsive emotional reaction to crime, bad policy and theory may be the result. This paradigm seems to do more than other integrative theories before it. It is perhaps because of this that Vold et al. (2002, p. 311) calls this paradigm “[o]ne of the broadest and most complex approaches to integration...”

#### *2.5.5. Major Studies Conclusion*

A major trend in the discussion above concerned the selection of theories for integration. Primarily, the theories for integration are selected based on current trends of testing within criminology. The integrated theoretical models are often assembled prior to data collection, testing is then done to support or discount the new theoretical model. This seems to be a common theme of theoretical integration. When integrated, the new theories, or models, seem to become the object of critical analysis. Often, this criticism will emphasize how little, in the opinion of the critics, the new integrated theory truly explains.

## 2.6 Integration Studies

This section of the literature review will continue looking at studies that have used theoretical integration in a quest to better explain the phenomenon of crime. Unlike the previous section, the studies in this section were not found through a review of theoretical text. This quest has two main goals, namely, reducing the number of existing theories, and creating a general theory of crime.

### *2.6.1. Integration Studies: 1979 - 1985*

Aultman and Wellford (1979) reported on their attempt at integrating anomie, labeling, and control theories, along with variables which measured alienation and self-esteem. This study had a sample of about 1500 students, selected randomly from junior and senior high schools and included roughly the same number of male and female students (Aultman & Wellford, 1979). In the words of its authors, “[t]he model assumes that labeling cannot result in delinquency directly, but that there must be some consequences of the application of a negative label that results in delinquency” (Aultman & Wellford, 1979, p. 322). Aultman and Wellford (1979) came to the conclusion the concept of control was important in explaining delinquency. By using subjects that were attending school, this study, attempted to show that what occurs in this environment may contribute to delinquent behavior. Aultman and Wellford (1979) argued that a model which included multiple theories: anomie, labeling, and control might provide more insight concerning delinquency.

Colvin and Pauly (1983, p. 516) on the other hand claim that:

[a]ny theory must be judged by its internal consistency and by its ability to explain a broad range of empirical phenomena. The current theories provide a limited range of explanation and insight on which we attempt to expand by means of our approach.

This statement seems to support the main objective of integration, namely, a better explanation of criminal behavior. To accomplish this goal, Colvin and Pauly (1983) developed an integrative structural-Marxist theory. Thus they claim that “[o]ur theory focuses on the structures of control in several locations in the production and social reproduction processes” (Colvin & Pauly, 1983, p. 542).

One such control structure is peer group, and in this theory, it is based on ideological bonds, socialization based on parents’ location in the structure, school, and family (Colvin & Pauly, 1983). The listing of multiple factors, above, supports the notion that many factors lead to delinquency and no one theory can explain the entire phenomenon. If single-theory testing could explain delinquency, integration would not have been seen as an indispensable endeavor in criminology.

Simpson and Elis (1994) attempted to test Colvin and Pauly’s (1983) structural Marxist theory. Support for the theory was found concerning the school in which a child attended (Simpson & Elis, 1994). Simpson and Elis furthermore, state that “[a] refinement of Colvin and Pauly’s [1983] theory should yield stronger models and more consistent relationships between social class and crime” (1994, p. 464). The reason for this statement is because, when tested strictly, Simpson and Elis (1994) found some, but not an overwhelming amount of support for the predictions generated by the theory.

While the testing of this theory did not yield fully convincing results, it nonetheless failed to falsify the theory. This has been another reason why theoretical integration has been called for, because falsification has failed (Bernard & Snipes, 1996).

A further attempt to provide a unified conceptualization was undertaken by Pearson and Weiner (1985, p. 116), an initiative motivated by their beliefs that “[t]heoretical diversity has proven, however, to be an embarrassment of riches. Despite all the theory and research in criminology, the field lacks a unified conceptual framework.” The framework they elaborated shows how a theory can be reformulated as an integrative structure. Pearson and Weiner (1985) map out the following; differential association, negative labeling, social control, economic, deterrence, routine activity, neutralization, relative deprivation, strain, normative (culture) conflict, generalized strain and normative (culture) conflict, and Marxist-critical/group conflict theories.

Their map indicates what is to be integrated into the theory, the items being selected in order to achieve a better explanation of the observed phenomena. They believe, however that their list is incomplete, thus requiring some additions (Pearson & Weiner, 1985). “Most efforts to integrate criminological theories suffer from the absence of a systematic integrative framework and from including too few of the prominent theories” (Pearson & Weiner, 1985, p. 148). Unlike other theorists Pearson and Weiner (1985), provided a model and left the testing to future researchers.

### *2.6.2. Integration Studies: 1986 - 1989*

While most studies using theoretical integration focus on violent criminal behavior, Massey and Krohn (1986) used theoretical integration in an attempt to better explain adolescent cigarette smoking. To achieve a more comprehensive understanding of this deviant behavior, social bonding and differential association were integrated (Massey & Krohn, 1986). While this study might just be one in a series of integration studies, these authors begin by criticizing past integration models. “Research oriented toward tests of integrated causal models of control and differential association theories has suffered from the exclusion of some principal elements of the theories and from limitations of cross-sectional designs” (Massey & Krohn, 1986, p. 107). In order not to continue the perceived failures of the past, this study would be conducted over three years and include main conceptual elements of the theories being tested (Massey & Krohn, 1986).

The authors chose these theories because they were “...the two dominant social psychological perspectives on deviant behavior found in contemporary sociological literature” (Massey & Krohn, 1986, p. 106). They found these two theories, combined into one model, did predict the deviant behavior of smoking, by adolescents in their data (Massey & Krohn, 1986). “The inclusion of most of the theoretical constructs identified by social bonding and differential association theories...enabled us to examine a mixed social process model more thoroughly than previous studies...” (Massey & Krohn, 1986, p. 126-127).



Like Pearson and Weiner (1985), Braithwaite (1989b), would propose a model attempting to explain organized crime for others to test. This model of theoretical integration was elaborated in response to criticisms concerning the focus of individual behavior in criminological theories and the failure to account for behavior by organizations (Braithwaite, 1989b). This is to say that, basically, corporations and other organizations were not being studied. It was felt by Braithwaite (1989b) that, without the inclusion of this sector of society, a more complete explanation of criminal activity could not be achieved.

Braithwaite (1989b) claimed that, through integration of strain, labeling, subcultural, and control theories a better explanation of organizational crime could be obtained. While other authors focused their criticisms on the failure of theories to explain all aspects of criminal behavior, Braithwaite chose to elaborate an integrative model that would facilitate an explanation of the phenomena.

### *2.6.3. Integration Studies: 1994 – 1995*

Makkai and Braithwaite (1994) attempted to establish whether Braithwaite (1989a) theory of reintegrative shaming would predict compliance with the law. As explained before, reintegrative shaming integrates "...labeling, subcultural, opportunity, control, differential association, and social learning theories" (Bernard & Snipes, 1996, p. 316). The sample for this study was 242 nursing homes located in Australia (Makkai & Braithwaite, 1994).

Inspections were carried out on these nursing homes in order to determine if they were in compliance with the laws (Makkai & Braithwaite, 1994). To answer their

question concerning compliance, Makkai and Braithwaite (1994, p. 371) wanted the subjects to answer the following question: “[d]o teams [inspectors] with a reintegrative shaming philosophy improve the compliance of the homes they visit, while teams with a more stigmatizing philosophy actually worsen compliance?”

Makkai and Braithwaite (1994) discovered that inspectors who followed reintegrative philosophy did have an effect on compliance. “As the theory predicts, the effectiveness of reintegrative shaming is observed most clearly in situations of interdependency” (Makkai & Braithwaite, 1994, p. 379). For this reason, an inspector should not be moved or rotated out because a relationship between the inspector and those being inspected created more compliance with the law (Makkai & Braithwaite, 1994).

Rountree, Land, and Miethe (1994) would use theoretical integration to attempt to better explain crime in neighborhoods in Seattle. Social disorganization and routine activities would be combined into a hierarchical model (Rountree et al., 1994). “An important motivation for multilevel analyses is their potential for progress towards the goal of theoretical integration...This type of integration places causal significance on both large-scale social forces and individual-level adaptations that result in criminal events” (Rountree et al., 1994, p. 1). These large-scale and individual-level environments were seen as influences on the individual which might lead to delinquency. Rountree et al. (1994) found that routine activity along with social disorganization addressed the chances of an individual becoming victimized.

Furthermore, Rountree et al. (1994, p. 12), believed that "...hierarchical models have the greatest potential for improving our understanding of crime and victimization."

This last study supports the use of theoretical integration. Separately, the individual theories would not have been able to fully explain the observed facts. "The basic premises of multilevel analysis--that both individual-level and aggregate neighborhood factors may contribute to explaining variations in criminal victimization...are soundly affirmed by our analyses..." (Rountree et al., 1994, p. 11). This statement also gives support for those who wish for micro and macro influences to be combined into one model. Both environments are believed to affect the individual and therefore some theorists feel that both levels need to be included in integrated theories.

Many instances of single theory testing have used men as their subjects. This was an issue for Ogle, Maier-Katkin, and Bernard (1995). These authors wanted to develop a theory which could explain homicidal behavior engaged in by women. To explain this phenomenon, their new theory would include; "...individual, situational, and structural variables, including the tendency for offenders to be traditional rather than liberated women..." (Ogle et al., 1995, p. 2). These researchers adopt the feminist view that women have basically been forgotten by criminology and therefore agree that a new theory was needed that would account for the behavior of women. In the past, findings based on samples of males have been generalized to the entire population (Bohm & Haley, 2002).

This new theory takes the construct of overcontrolled personality, from general strain theory and the theory of angry aggression among the truly disadvantaged (Ogle et al., 1995). This theory aspires to become the only theory of female homicidal behavior, thus replacing previous generalized theories based on the behavior of men (Ogle et al., 1995). While this theory does in one way reduce the number of existing theories, by combining, three theories into one, having it only apply to women may be worrisome. If the acquiring of a general theory is a goal, then having integrated theories apply to one group will not aid in this endeavor.

#### *2.6.4. Integration Studies: 1996-1997*

Bankston and Caldas (1996) used theoretical integration to explain delinquency among Vietnamese-American adolescents. Social learning and labeling were combined with social integration to better explain delinquency among members of this group (Bankston & Caldas, 1996). Much like Ogle et al. (1995), it was felt that theories need to be applied to groups other than those commonly done so in the past. The researchers concluded, "...delinquency among Vietnamese American young people is not a direct product of minority subculture with socioeconomic disadvantages...it appears to be a result of problems in families produced by resettlement or by pressures of adjustment to a new environment" (Bankston & Caldas, 1996, p. 178). While this integrated theory was only tested on Vietnamese-Americans, the authors believe that generalization is possible to the activities of other racial and ethnic groups (Bankston & Caldas, 1996). While Ogle et al. (1995) only wanted their theory to apply to women, Bankston and

Caldas (1996) attempt to show that their integrated theory is broad enough to be applied to multiple racial and ethnic groups.

Theoretical integration was used by Hayes (1997) in an attempt to better explain juvenile delinquency. Hayes (1997, p. 162) claims that "...reliance on a single theoretical orientation in the study of the delinquency process is less useful than employment of more integrated strategies." Hayes (1997) reached this conclusion because prior research that only tested one theory failed to fully explain juvenile delinquency. The theories integrated in this study included labeling, differential association, social learning, and social control theories (Hayes, 1997). This study concluded that while each single-theory used in this integration scheme does explain some juvenile behavior, on its own when combined with the other a more complete picture is obtained (Hayes, 1997).

Hayes (1997, p. 179) also touts theoretical integration as the way for theory development: "...criminological research should move toward further development of integrated theoretical models...this research...[can be viewed] as an example of the potential benefits of such an exercise." Consequently, this researcher feels that single theory testing has not yielded the desired results, and therefore calls on others to use theoretical integration as an avenue best fitted to obtain better explanatory schemes.

In an attempt at opening up minds, and at finding some middle ground, Brannigan (1997) feels integrating Gottfredson and Hirschi's General Theory of Crime, life cycle theory, power-control theory and further, including some evolutionary views,

will result in a better explanation of crime. This researcher offers a model on what to combine and why, much like Pearson and Weiner (1985), and Braithwaite (1989b).

Brannigan (1997, p. 428) states that the model given "...could advance the field of criminology..." This might be because he believes, as others do, that theoretical integration will allow for a better explanation of crime. Brannigan (1997, p. 428) states that "[m]y objective in this report has been to open up the common ground between control theories and the other notable contributions to this field to provide the basis for an integrated perspective on crime."

#### *2.6.5. Integration Studies: 1998-1999*

Henry and Lanier (1998) claimed that, while integration is the way to achieve a better understanding of criminal behavior, the definition of crime poses a problem to the attainment of that goal. Since theoretical integration involves the fusing of theories, Henry and Lanier (1998) feel that an integrated definition of crime is needed. "Effective integration requires a comprehensive incorporation of the multiple definitions of crime" (Henry & Lanier, 1998, p. 609).

To achieve an integrative definition, an expansion of Hagan's Pyramid of Crime (see Appendix B: Figure B.1) is needed (Henry & Lanier, 1998). These researchers attempt to improve on the pyramid by adding a supplemental pyramid at the bottom, transforming it into The Prism of Crime (see Appendix B: Figure B.2) (Henry & Lanier, 1998).

The prism (see Appendix B: Figure B.2) will allow integrationists to locate their crime, and adding therewith to the understanding of the behavior their theory attempts

to explain (Henry & Lanier, 1998). In other words, Henry and Lanier (1998) feel that integration is without doubt the way to conduct research; they are however, concerned that the failure to develop an integrated definition of crime may impede the success of that endeavor. An integrative definition of crime might allow for theoretical integration to achieve what other paradigms have failed to accomplish, namely, to better identify the causes of criminal or deviant behavior.

According to Katz (1999), A General Theory of Crime and the age-graded life-course theory by themselves fail to provide a sufficient explanation of criminal behavior. In this opinion, the explanatory power of a theory might be increased if side-by-side integration is used, with the addition of the theory of attachment (Katz, 1999). Thus, she concludes that “[c]learly, these perspectives are capable of being linked in a side-by-side fashion through the use of the common construction of attachment” (Katz, 1999, p. 16). Further, while giving support to the side-by-side method of theoretical integration, Katz (1999) also gives support to the notion that integration will lead to a better explanation of criminal behavior.

The next study presented, namely, Veysey and Messner (1999), was the result of earlier work by Sampson and Groves (1989). These authors tested social disorganization theory and found factual support for it. Nonetheless, Veysey and Messner (1999) decided that further testing was required in order to confirm Sampson and Groves’ results. Furthermore, they felt that advancement in statistics would allow a more detailed analysis of the data (Veysey & Messner, 1999). This study concluded that social disorganization by itself does not provide a complete answer to what causes

crime, but might nonetheless maybe part of an integrated explanation (Veysey & Messner, 1999). Veysey and Messner (1999) suggest that other theories might be involved and therefore include peer affiliation theories in addition to social disorganization.

While providing an integrated theory, Veysey and Messner (1999) contend that theory testing should either involve competing single theories or use integration. This call for theoretical competition might cause alarm for some supporters of integration. Since, the perceived failure of theoretical competition is one of many reasons why theoretical integration is used today. Veysey and Messner (1999), in the end, might just have wanted the field of criminology to include more explanations pertaining to the cause of criminal behavior. They believe this goal can only be obtained through theoretical competition or theoretical integration.

#### *2.6.6. Integration Studies: 2000-2001*

Colvin's (2000) goal was to explain chronic criminal offending using theoretical integration. The theories integrated in his model included strain, control, social learning, social support, and control balance, theories to which coercion has to be added, by the author (Colvin, 2000). In response, Alexander and Bernard (2002) critiqued this integrated theory, concluding that it was not an integrated theory at all. They argued that Colvin's combined model was not more general than the single theories (Alexander & Bernard, 2002).

These authors feel that the rationale for theoretical integration is to reduce the number of existing theories, and believe that Colvin (2000) does not accomplish this



objective. Furthermore, they assert that Colvin's attempted integration "...essentially is a new theory that uses earlier theories to focus on a very specific and relatively small portion of the variance – chronic criminality" (Alexander & Bernard, 2002, p. 391). This same argument could be applied to the integrated theories of Ogle et al. (1995) and Bankston and Caldas (1996).

Smith, Frazee, and Davison (2000) wanted to study the cause of street robbery. This study attempts to integrate social disorganization and routine activities theories in order to obtain a better explanation of the behavior in question (Smith et al., 2000). These researchers seem to follow a primary notion of integration, according to which multiple theories are better at explaining criminal activity than a single theory. "Successful integration of social disorganization and routine activity theories can be built on an empirical basis of interaction effect between individual risk factors (as specified by routine activity theory) and type of neighborhood (as specified in social disorganization theory)" (Smith et al., 2000, p. 491).

The study concluded that both theories played a role in street robberies; this study also showed support for the conclusions of Shaw and McKay's (1942) study, that "...[d]istance from downtown is a key variable in the prediction of street robberies" (Smith et al., 2000, p. 515). A street robber, in determining where to commit the criminal act, apparently relies on both social disorganization and routine activity (Smith et al., 2000). "Street robbers commit their crimes in socially disorganized neighborhoods proximate to where they live or are routinely active" (Smith et al., 2000, p. 514).

Dodson (2001), for her part, uses theoretical integration to study juvenile delinquency and victimization. She proposes a model integrating social control, differential association, routine activities, and lifestyle-exposure theories (Dodson, 2001). Dodson (2001, p. 14) states that, "...integration of theories of victimization and offending have the potential to substantially improve current understanding of crime and delinquency."

Dodson (2001, p. 146) concluded that this study "...yielded consistent support for the integrated model used." By integrating victimization and offending theories this study found a connection between the offenders and victims. According to Dodson (2001, p. 146), "[t]he current study also found support for the idea that offender and victim populations overlap substantially." That is, she found that criminals commit crimes against other criminals. If only using victimization or offending theories separately, perhaps this "overlap" would not have been discovered.

#### *2.6.7. Integration Studies: 2001 - 2002*

In an attempt to achieve a better understanding of paraphilias and lust murder, Arrigo and Purcell (2001) chose to use theoretical integration. This integration involved combining ideas from the motivational model proposed by Burgess et al (1986), from Hickey (1997) trauma-control model and concerning sadistic behavior of sex offenders by MacCaulloch et al (1983) (Arrigo & Purcell, 2001). Arrigo and Purcell (2001, p. 29) concluded:

...the model was important not only in the context of demonstrating where and how the motivational and trauma-control schemes were assimilable, but also it

was significant for explaining how paraphilia, as a coordinated system of complex behaviors, functioned as a catalyst in lust murder.

Alone, the single explanations probably would not have been able to obtain the explanation that integration allowed. Once again, the potential power of theoretical integration is seen as a better avenue for the understanding of criminal behavior.

Colvin, Cullen, and Ven (2002) have proposed a model that integrates coercion and social support theories into a differential social support and coercion theory of crime. While they did not test their model, these researchers do suggest some policy recommendations following from their integrated model: “The clear implication of the theory...is that to reduce crime, societies must enhance the legitimate sources of social support and reduce the forces of coercion” (Colvin et al., 2002, p. 33).

Furthermore, Colvin et al. (2002) feel this theory calls for radical changes in our criminal justice system. “Our reactions to crime are based largely on coercion...A less coercive approach to crime control and criminal rehabilitation is clearly implied by the theory...” (Colvin et al., 2002, p. 34). In this case, the researchers proposed a model and provided policy implications. This study is an attempt to show that theoretical integration will allow for a better understanding of criminal behavior and thus lead to better policy decisions.

Spinks (2002) has used theoretical integration as a means to explain the 1992 Bosnian conflict. He claims that “[t]he study serves as an example of how criminologists can go outside the field to explain criminal behavior” (Spinks, 2002, p. iv). This study integrated social disorganization and cultural conflict theories, along

with aspects from history, political science, and international law (Spinks, 2002). Spinks felt integration was necessary in order to obtain a better understanding of the Bosnian conflict. In so doing, however, the author had to venture outside of a purely criminological explanatory endeavor.

#### *2.6.8. Integration Studies: 2003 - 2004*

For his part, Schneider (2003) attempted the combination of critical race theory and postmodernism. The problem for this researcher was that the two theories often criticize each other. Thus, the author asserted that "...collaboration is imperative as postmodernism may actually serve to advance the critical race theory vision" (Schneider, 2003, p. 96). This attempt at ending the competition between the two points of view is also a goal of theoretical integration (Brown et al., 2001). By bringing these two sometimes opposing viewpoints together, the researcher is practicing criminological reductionism (see pages 10-12). "Race, class, and gender based differences often create unnecessary harms" (Schneider, 2003, p. 101). It is these harms that this combination of view-points attempts to reduce. In the end, the harm might not be criminal in nature, but if groups of people are left out or discriminated against in society, criminal activity might result.

Bellair, Roscigno, and McNulty (2003) believed that integration may be able to explain criminal behavior better than a single theory. However, they thought that a major factor had been left out of previous explanations, namely, consideration of the labor market. Their model aspires to show how social disorganization and social control theories do not account for the direct cause of delinquent behavior (Bellair et al.,

2003). That behavior is, in their opinion, caused by another factor, namely, the local labor market (Bellair et al., 2003). Integration of theories might be seen as an attempt to improve validity, but these researchers think that an additional factor, the labor market, must be included, if the theoretical explanation pretends to attain completeness (Bellair et al., 2003). Thus, the authors are convinced that if labor markets are not considered, any theoretical explanation used is incomplete.

For his part, Woo (2004) has integrated cultural “anomalies” and cultural defense in order to obtain a better explanation of homicide and suicide amongst Asian immigrants and Asian Americans. This researcher believes that testing or looking at these theories individually might not yield a robust explanation for the phenomenon in question. Furthermore, the author believes that integration might allow for what would have been considered nothing or not relevant, using single-theory testing, to now be considered important, because integrated, the theories will work together (Woo, 2004). The researcher concludes that, through integration of cultural “anomalies” and cultural defense, a better explanation of the above-mentioned behaviors is achieved (Woo, 2004).

### 2.7 Literature Review Conclusions

“Old theories never die, they just fade away, only to reemerge in slightly modified form at more opportune times” (Elliot, 1985, p. 123). This seems obvious when reviewing studies concerning theoretical integration. All of the theories selected for integration seem able to be traced back to earlier paradigms. They have just come back in what integrationists would consider a better form.

As Farrington puts it, “[t]he modern trend is to try to achieve increased explanatory power by integrating propositions derived from several theories” (1996, p. 261). While integration might have started out of boredom, today some theorists speak of the ability of integrated theory to provide a better explanation, reduce the number of theories, and promote critical thought in the field (Elliot, 1985; Wellford, 1989; Bernard & Snipes, 1996; Cordella & Siegel, 1996; Bernard, 2001; Brown et al., 2001; Anderson & Dyson, 2002; Vold et al., 2002). Nonetheless, exactly how to go about integrating theories is still a subject of lively debate. Thus, a common theme observed in this review of integration studies concerns the selection of theories to be integrated. As seen in the above literature review, often, single theories are combined into an integrative model prior to data collection. The present study will not combine individual theories prior to data collection. The integrated model for this study will be presented in Chapter Five.

## 2.8 Inductive Literature Review

This section of the literature review is based on the findings concerning the theories used to explain drug-related crimes of a third person (see Chapter Four). The theories to be reviewed for inductive integration are: Rational Choice Theory, Hedonistic Calculus, and Differential Opportunity. The actual integration of the theories to be reviewed can be found in Chapter Five.

### *2.8.1. Rational Choice Theory*

This theory came into existence during a conference held in Cambridge, England in 1985 (Cornish & Clarke, 1986; Trasler, 2005). Cornish and Clarke (1986)

would build on the outcome of this conference and in 1986 present the assumptions of rational choice theory [RCT]. According to Akers (1990, p. 663) “[t]he most frequent cited source on rational choice and crime is *The Reasoning Criminal*, edited by Cornish and Clarke.” This assertion is supported when looking up the term *rational choice* in the *Encyclopedia of Criminology and Deviant Behavior* and the *Encyclopedia of Criminology*.

The main assumptions of this theory, according to Cornish and Clarke (1986, p. 1) are that:

...offenders seek to benefit themselves by their criminal behavior; that this involves the making of decisions and of choices, however rudimentary on occasion these processes might be; and that these processes exhibit a measure of rationality, albeit constrained by limits of time and ability and the availability of relevant information.

The authors went on to point out that behavior “...that seemed to be pathologically motivated or impulsively executed...”, still maintained a measure of rationality which could be analyzed with RCT (Cornish & Clarke, 1986, p. 2).

Furthermore, Cornish and Clarke (1986) felt their theory needed more crime specific focus and decision making distinction. The crime focus was to distinguish between types of crimes (e.g. robberies and burglaries), but also location of the crime (e.g. middle class or upper class areas) (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). The distinction concerning the decision making area would be broken down into the criminal involvement and the criminal event decisions (Cornish & Clarke, 1986).

“Criminal involvement refers to the processes through which individuals choose to become initially involved in particular forms of crime, to continue, and to desist” (Cornish & Clarke, 1986, p. 2). This process of involvement is not short term and can involve the gathering and processing of information not all of which is specific for the criminal act (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). The other decision concerns the criminal event. While the involvement process is long term, the event process is shorter and will relate to the criminal act (Cornish & Clarke, 1986).

The following year, the authors would attempt to expand their theory by adding choice structuring (Cornish & Clarke, 1987). This method attempts to understand why individuals attempt a criminal act, by listing the reasons and the results of the criminal behavior. Furthermore, this could allow for crimes committed for monetary reward to be grouped together (Cornish & Clarke, 1987). The authors also hope that this method would address the displacement of criminal activity, insofar as the same types of criminal activity could be grouped together (Cornish & Clarke, 1987).

#### 2.8.1.1. Reaction to Rational Choice Theory

While Akers (1990) admitted that Cornish and Clarke’s (1986) theory-building effort is cited most often, he is of the opinion that the construct has been over praised. Akers (1990) asserted that this ‘new’ theory was not new at all and that it might just be a reinvention of what already existed. According to Akers (1990, p. 675-676):

[b]y the time that rational choice models began to take hold in criminology, there already had developed a rich body of theory and research on crime and deviance within the social behaviorist tradition, a tradition which already had



incorporated the central proposition of rational choice theory...[Therefore] [r]einvention of the wheel should be avoided even in criminological theory.

The main difference of RCT as compared to other choice theories, according to Akers (1990), was that it was a theoretical construct elaborated by economists rather than criminologist attempting to understand criminal behavior.

In any case, Akers's critical stance *vis-à-vis* RCT would not end in 1990. In 1997 he again launched an attack on the theory, focusing this time on the definition of *rational*. "Although rational choice theorists often refer to the 'reasoning criminal' and the 'rational component' in crime, they go to great length to point out how limited and circumscribed reasoning and rationality are" (Akers, 1997, p. 25). He is further concerned with attempts to expand RCT. If the theory is expanded this could perhaps produce a completely new theory disguising itself as RCT (Akers, 1997).

While Akers (1990; 1997) seemed not to care much for RCT, others disagreed and believe it could be used fruitfully to explain criminal behavior. Tibbetts (1997) not only felt RCT was supported by other research, but also held the possibility of expansion to incorporate shaming. His study incorporated three types of shaming: proneness, anticipated due to exposure, and anticipated without exposure (Tibbetts, 1997). The criminal behaviors this study dealt with were drunk driving and shoplifting and the results appear to support an expansion of RCT and the need for theories like rational choice. (Tibbetts, 1997).

Bouffard (2002) believed that, while other studies have asked subjects about hypothetical situations, something different was needed. Consequently, this researcher would add subject generated consequences, meaning that the subjects would determine what the potential cost of committing such criminal acts as drunk driving and sexual crimes would be (Bouffard, 2002). The findings of this study did support RCT, but also showed that adding what the subject perceived as the cost of the criminal actions, was important (Bouffard, 2002). While Akers (1997) felt expanding and changing RCT would create something different, Tibbetts (1997) and Bouffard (2002) argued that adding to the theory would expand its explanatory powers.

#### 2.8.1.2. Studies Included in The Reasoning Criminal

Cornish and Clarke (1986) did not just list the assumptions of their theory. They also presented the findings of several studies which lend support to RCT. These studies attempted to explain different criminal behaviors, including shoplifting, victim selection, robberies, giving up crime, and addiction (Cornish & Clarke, 1986).

Carroll and Weaver (1986) explored the decision process of novice and experienced shoplifters. According to Cornish and Clarke (1986, p. 19), the results of this study, "...provide further evidence for the viability of the general rational choice perspective outlined in [*The Reasoning Criminal*]." Carroll and Weaver (1986, p. 32) found, "...that it is rational for expert shoplifters to be more likely to shoplift than novices because they are more skilled and therefore face less risk." This finding seems to provide support for the assumptions of RCT pertaining to benefit to the offender,

ability of the offender, and availability of information for the offender (Cornish & Clarke, 1986).

The next study included in *The Reasoning Criminal*, concerned victim selection. The author of this study wanted to explore selection of targets by robbers and burglars (Walsh, 1986). He found that the subjects of his study did use rationality to determine their targets, although at times, this rationality was limited, at best. “Not all these men are highly intelligent, and few are equipped to calculate Bentham-style, even supposing the information were available. Yet it is very common for rationality to be used” (Walsh, 1986, p. 50). This finding concerning rationality does seem to support RCT as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986). Walsh (1986) does note, however, that albeit a calculation of sorts is occurring concerning benefits versus cost, this calculus remains somewhat rudimentary.

Feeney (1986) interviewed subjects who were convicted or charged with robbery in an attempt to gain insight into their decision making process. For this study to show support for RCT, those being interviewed would have to show some type of thought process, based on ability and available information. This study found there was enough rationality occurring to support RCT, but, like Walsh (1986) it found that the rational calculus involved did not rise to the Bentham level (Feeney, 1986).

Cusson and Pinsonneault (1986) did not attempt to explain a certain criminal activity or behavior, but instead used RCT to explore why individuals desist from crime. Cornish and Clarke (1986) feel this study shows how RCT can be improved upon, which might then make this theory more relevant. This study found that the

decisions made by offenders in order to put an end to their criminal behavior were based on rational thought processes (Cusson & Pinsonneault, 1986).

The subjects' cost/benefit analysis, this study found, was based on shock, delayed deterrence, potential punishment, and prison life (Cusson & Pinsonneault, 1986). These factors, which influenced the offenders' cost/benefit analysis, also added to the availability of information, as defined in RCT's assumptions, the offender used to reach a decision to terminate their criminal activity (Cusson & Pinsonneault, 1986). The calculation of choices and the decision-making based on available information, are cornerstones of the assumptions of RCT, as presented by Cornish and Clarke (1986).

The last study which was presented in *The Reasoning Criminal*, focused upon opioid addiction. Bennett (1986) found support for RCT concerning the beginning of use, as well as the decision to put an end to using this drug. According to Bennett (1986, p. 97):

[o]ur own research findings showed that users often consciously decided to begin taking opioids before they had an opportunity to do so.... There was also evidence that, for some individuals, both their becoming addicted and their abstaining from addiction were intentional and planned

These findings seem to show support for RCT as promoted by Cornish and Clarke (1986).

All the studies concerning RCT, so far presented seemed to support the theory, and showed RCT can be used to explain a wide variety of criminal behavior. Perhaps

these studies were included precisely because they gave support for this new theory. It is possible that there exist studies, that were not included, that fail to support RCT.

### 2.8.1.3. Rational Choice & Criminal Behavior

This section will examine some studies included in *Rational Choice and Criminal Behavior: Recent Research and Future Challenges* (2002). These studies were compiled in 2002, in order to illustrate to what extent the sixteen years that had elapsed, had weakened or reinforced support for RCT.

Simpson, Piquero, and Paternoster (2002) used RCT to better understand corporate crimes. The connection between RCT and corporate crimes is made in the assumption that offenders conduct a cost/benefit analysis, and, if the benefits outweigh the perceived cost, criminal behavior becomes more likely (Cornish & Clarke, 1986; Simpson et al., 2002). The conclusions of this study lent some support for RCT as a valid tool for better understanding corporate crimes (Simpson et al., 2002).

While offering their support, this study also addressed issues that emerge when using RCT. “Where rational choice theory gets it wrong is the assumption that A (thinking) produces B (action). Instead, research indicates that action can occur absent thinking (SOPs or Habit)” (Simpson et al., 2002, p. 34). For some this might mean the end to RCT, but for Simpson et al. (2002, p. 35), “[e]ven with its deficiencies, we believe that a rational choice perspective illuminates how illegal decisions can occur in some corporate settings within particular decision types.”

While the above study explored corporate crimes, Cornish and Clarke (2002) would explore organized crimes. The reason for exploring this type of criminal

behavior was to limit criticism concerning RCT's planning and rationality components (Cornish & Clarke, 2002). According to Cornish and Clarke (2002, p. 41) organized crimes are "...rational crime par excellence: it is highly planned and organized, directed and committed by older, more determined offenders, usually with strong economic motivations." Their findings were that if a better understanding of organized crime was to occur, RCT needed to be enhanced with script concept (Cornish & Clarke, 2002). This concept would present the criminal activity and its different stages, basically presenting a map of the criminal activity. Furthermore, what this does is to show how criminal acts develop over time, basically conforming to the assumptions of RCT, as proposed by Cornish & Clarke (1986) in their original publication.

Assaad and Exum (2002) explored intoxicated violence using RCT. This study focuses on RCT's assumption concerning the cost and benefits of the criminal act. Cornish and Clarke (1986, p. 1) state that "...offenders seek to benefit themselves by their criminal behavior..." Assaad and Exum (2002) contend that this cost-benefit analysis is still being conducted by the intoxicated individual, but at a diminished level. In other words, diminished rationality still complies with RCT as theorized by Cornish and Clarke (1986).

The next study explored the differences between the sexes and RCT. Blackwell and Eschholz (2002, p. 129) stated that "[a]ssuming that rationality is the same for all individuals is a gross misrepresentation of reality and denies the fact that groups differ in their conceptions of opportunities, costs, and rewards." Their study did find support for RCT concerning certain crimes over others, namely, economic versus violence

(Blackwell & Eschholz, 2002). Furthermore, Blackwell and Eschholz (2002) found that women not only used the cost-benefit analysis to not commit a criminal act, but also that benefits offered to them by legitimate means, pulled them away from criminal behavior.

Wright (2002) conducted a study aimed at expanding RCT by focusing on the economic influence of adolescents, or the effects that societal emphasis on obtaining money influences the adolescent. “From a rational choice viewpoint, affluence likely reshaped adolescent society in ways that have fundamentally altered youths’ rudimentary calculations of the benefits and costs associated with certain choices” (Wright, 2002, p. 140). It is the effect of economic influence, pertaining to alterations in the rational calculation among the adolescent, which Wright (2002) believes should be examined by other studies.

Brezina (2002) focuses upon the actual utility, rather than on the decision making process often explored in other studies using RCT. In this study actual utility referred to what actually happened to the offender, than what the offender expected to occur if they were caught (Brezina, 2002). The question now becomes why should a study look at the actual outcome of the criminal act? According to Brezina (2002, p. 246), decision-based studies “...tend to examine the nature and extent of planning and deliberation leading up to the criminal event, thus, focus predominantly on the expected rather than actual utility of offending behavior.”

Brezina (2002) felt this study did not only support RCT, but, by discovering the actual utilities of criminal behavior, it could better aid in the explanation of that

behavior. Thus according to Brezina, the actual benefits were “...positive emotional sensations, self-enhancement, pain-avoidance, the alleviation of negative affective states, and the maintenance of real or perceived control over social environment” (2002, p. 256). This study further found that RCT is best used when exploring the short term utility of criminal behavior (Brezina, 2002).

#### 2.8.1.4. Summary of RCT Studies

The studies that have used RCT, as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986), seem to provide strong support for the theory. But, more importantly, such support appears to have survived the test of time. The studies included in *Rational Choice and Criminal Behavior* that were briefly reviewed in the above pages, also supported RCT, but perhaps not as forcefully. Once again, the present study will use Cornish and Clarke’s (1986) RCT theory for theoretical integration. However, it is important to mention that RCT was not the only explanation provided by the subjects of the study in order to explain drug-related crimes.

#### 2.8.2. Hedonistic Calculus

“The business of government is to promote the happiness of the society, by punishing and rewarding” (Bentham, 1780/1988, p. 70). This is so because, according to Bentham (1780/1988, p. 1):

[n]ature has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign masters, *pain* and *pleasure*. It is for them alone to point out what we ought to do, as well as to determine what we shall do...They govern us in all we do, in all we say, in all we think...



According to Brown et al. (2001, p. 188):

[t]his weighing of pleasure versus pain, which Bentham called felicity or hedonistic calculus, can allow the legal system to function as a deterrent of criminal behavior. By manipulating the pain of punishment, the pleasure stemming from criminal behavior can be outweighed.

The hedonistic calculus is then defined as the balance between pain and pleasure (Bentham, 1780/1988; Brown et al., 2001). A criminal act, according to this calculus, will occur when the pleasure from the action outweighs the pain or potential punishment (Brown et al., 2001).

When attempting to counter the pleasures of a criminal activity, a government needs to understand what factors influence pain and pleasure. According to Bentham (1780/1988, p. 29), the value of pleasure and pain can be measured by its “intensity, duration, certainty/uncertainty, or propinquity/remoteness.” “This theory of behavior became the basis for the concept of deterrence. Bentham’s elaboration on deterrence is the essence of today’s rational perspectives” (Williams & McShane, 2004, p. 17).

#### 2.8.2.1. Studies Using Hedonism

All of the studies examining the role of RCT which were discussed above, have a component based on hedonism. Those studies seem to support some type of calculation by the offender, most often this calculation seems to be rudimentary at best. Walsh (1986) acknowledges a calculation, but concludes it is not to the level of the hedonistic calculus. Cornish and Clarke (2002), used their script concept to focus on

the benefit analysis conducted by those involved in organized crime. The benefit analysis as stated in RCT is again based on the hedonistic calculus.

Even in the study conducted by Assaad and Exum (2002), which wanted to understand intoxicated violence, the calculus was utilized, although acknowledging its reduced effect. Blackwell and Eschholz (2002) also showed that when using RCT and sex difference, females are using a cost-benefit analysis. Brezina (2002) discussed the issue of pain avoidance when discussing offending. Once again, it seems that research findings concerning RCT, while lessening the impact of the hedonistic calculus as proposed by Bentham (1780/1988), nonetheless use the concept. As is well known, the avoidance of pain and maximization of pleasure is the key construct of the hedonistic calculus (Bentham 1780/1988). While current studies might not focus exclusively on the hedonistic calculus, if they discuss pain, pleasure, or benefits to the offender, it is based on the work of Bentham.

### *2.8.3. Differential Opportunity Theory*

This section will deal with Differential Opportunity Theory as proposed by Cloward and Ohlin (1960). In particular, this discussion will primarily focus on the portion of the theory which describes the retreatist gang. The reason for this narrow focus lies with the findings of the present study, as will be spelled out in chapter four.

The basic assumptions of this theory are “...(1) limited and blocked economic aspirations generate frustration and negative self-esteem, and (2) these frustrations prompt youth to form gangs that vary in type” (Miller, 2005, p. 1602). These types of gangs or subcultures are three in number, namely, criminal, conflict, and retreatist

(Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Curran & Renzetti, 1994; Akers, 1997; Bohm & Haley, 2002; Miller, 2005). Further, this theory is primarily focused on the actions of "...adolescent males in lower-class areas of large urban centers" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960, p. 1).

#### 2.8.3.1. Types of Subcultures

*Criminal Subculture:* "A type of gang which is devoted to theft, extortion, and other illegal means of securing income" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960, p. 1). This type of gang will have community support and operate in the open, "...providing criminal role models and opportunities as alternatives to legitimate ones" (Akers, 1997, p. 123).

*Conflict Subculture:* "A type of gang in which manipulation of violence predominates as a way of winning status" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960, p. 1). According to Akers (1997, p. 124) this type of gang is "...found in the socially disorganized lower-class neighborhoods with very few illegal opportunities to replace the legal opportunities that are denied them." The turning to the conflict subculture is the outcome of frustration (Akers, 1997).

*Retreatist Subculture:* "A type of gang in which the consumption of drugs is stressed" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960, p. 1). The retreatist gang/subculture is formed by adolescents who have not only failed in legitimate society, but also in illegitimate society (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960). These individuals then come together and turn to drugs because of their "double failure" (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Curran & Renzetti, 1994; Akers, 1997). This gang's primary focus is "...on the consumption of drugs and alcohol...[and] most sustain themselves by one type or another of a non-violent "hustle," status and admiration can only be gained within the gang by getting high and

maintaining a drug habit” (Akers, 1997, p. 124). In the last analysis, the turn towards the retreatist gang can be seen as an attempt to escape reality caused by frustration because of their “double failure” (Akers, 1997; Miller, Schreck, & Tewksbury, 2006).

#### 2.8.3.2. Differential Opportunity Studies: Sweden & Taiwan

The following studies tested differential opportunity with youth in Sweden and Taiwan. Friday (1970) explored youth crime in Sweden using differential opportunity theory and differential association. The primary focus of differential opportunity theory is on the actions of adolescent males in lower class areas (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Friday, 1970).

This study found that social background did not account for delinquent activity (Friday, 1970). Differential opportunity also looks at status as having an effect on the availability of legitimate means. Those of the lower class should then have less legitimate means available to them. This study found that in Sweden, education status, not family status, was related to deviance (Friday, 1970). When it came to blockage of opportunities, Friday (1970) found perceived blockage was a more important factor than actual blockage. In other words, if the youth in question perceived that economic means were blocked, then delinquency might ensure. While differential opportunity views the area in which a person lives in as being related to potential deviance (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960), Friday (1970) found that in Sweden, the most important factor determining future success was academic accomplishment rather than location. While not fully supporting Cloward and Ohlin’s (1960) theory, Friday (1970) still found

support when certain modifications were introduced, such as the perception of blockage and the importance of academic status rather than social rank.

As for Taiwan, Wang (1983) took differential opportunity, as stated by Cloward and Ohlin (1960), and attempted to use it as a construct for the explanation of delinquent behavior. The findings of the study supported two of the three subcultures discussed by Cloward and Ohlin (1960), namely, criminal and conflict. In Taiwan, existence of the retreatist gang was not found (Wang, 1983). Concerning the location of delinquent gangs, Wang (1983) did find support for their location in lower class areas. According to Wang (1983, p. 114):

...both the official and field data in Taiwan support Cloward and Ohlin's assumption that delinquent acts are mostly found among lower class adolescent males in large cities...[furthermore] we confirmed the hypothesized relationship between perceived limited opportunity of lower class youth and delinquent involvement.

Both of these studies seem to lend some support to differential opportunity theory, the study by Wang more so than Friday's. However, both studies saw a need to modify the existing theory in order to better understand the phenomena being observed (Friday, 1970; Wang, 1983). Furthermore, these studies both call for cross-cultural examinations to be conducted, hoping this would help in developing a better theory and a more accurate understanding of youth crime (Friday, 1970; Wang, 1983).

### 2.8.3.3. Differential Opportunity Reviews

Shortly after this theory was proposed, two individuals, Toby (1961) and Bordua (1961), reviewed it and discussed what this theory had to offer. The article by Toby (1961) was a book review. In this review, he felt that this new theory "...systematically considers the crucial question about gang delinquency" (Toby, 1961, p. 282). Furthermore, he reviewed the assumptions and concluded that differential opportunity cannot be ignored by those who want to understand delinquency.

The second article by Bordua (1961), not only reviews Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) theory, but other delinquency theories created and in use at the time. Unlike the review conducted by Toby (1961), Bordua (1961) criticizes this new theoretical approach to gang delinquency. According to Bordua (1961, p. 133-134) the following are areas to be concerned about when applying differential opportunity:

[f]irst, Cloward and Ohlin seem to be confusing the justificatory function of delinquent subcultures with their causation...[they] ignore the life histories of their delinquents...[also the] problem of assessing the degree to which these gang boys are in fact prepared to meet the formal criteria for success...In short, Cloward and Ohlin run the risk of confusing justification and causation and of equating the end with the beginning.

While offering criticism, Bordua (1961) nonetheless also offers praise for the innovations which differential opportunity makes to a theoretical understanding. "The major innovation here is the concept of illegitimate opportunities..." (Bordua, 1961, p.

135). Further, this innovation is not, in his opinion, the only reason for positively evaluating this theory. According to Bordua (1961, p. 135):

In addition...it is the description, or speculation, concerning historical changes in the social organization of slums. Changes in urban life in the United States have truly produced the disorganized slum devoid of the social links...[meaning] the new condition of life seems to have created new problems of growing up...

#### 2.8.3.4. Differential Opportunity Studies

While other studies were directed at gang behavior as found in other countries, Short, Rivera, and Tennyson (1965), explored the gangs of Chicago. Their study attempted to focus on the legitimate and illegitimate opportunities as perceived by African American and white lower class gang members (Short et al., 1965). This study did find that those in gangs were more positive in their beliefs toward deviant behavior (Short et al., 1965). This finding suggests that members of a gang are more likely to support criminal activity than those youths which are not members of a delinquent subculture.

During their exploration of gangs, Short et al. (1965, p. 59) found that, "...gang boys are more likely to perceive illegitimate opportunities as open than are other boys, and these perceptions are held by more Negro than white boys..." Furthermore, the authors found that when looking into delinquent white middle class boys, their criminal focus was towards white-collar crimes (Short et al., 1965).

Concerning the issue of legitimate opportunities, this study found that gang members perceived those opportunities less available than non-gang members or equivalent youth with no membership in gangs (Short et al., 1965). This study does find some support for differential opportunity theory, but Short et al. (1965) felt that it was necessary to expand the theory so as to include personality level variables, namely, the interaction of different personalities within the gang.

Originally, Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) theory was aimed at exploring the behavior of boys. Women were therefore not included in the conceptualization of the theory. For their part, Shoham and Rahav (1968), aimed at changing the focus of this theory by expanding it so as to include female prostitutes in their study. Thus, their study built upon the limited access to legitimate opportunities that led the criminals to choose illegitimate activities.

Their conclusion was that young women away from home would tend to 'underperceive' legitimate opportunities for success and might then be drawn into prostitution, an illegitimate opportunity that, was readily available in their socio-economic environment (Shoham & Rahav, 1968). The organization the prostitute becomes part of seems to resemble the profit-orientated criminal gang, identified in Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) theoretical scheme.

This next study focused on who the subjects blame for their failures or diminished opportunities – themselves or society. Quicker (1973) would refer to this subject blame technique as punitiveness, whereas those who blame others would be more inclined to choose criminal means. Following the assumptions of differential



opportunity theory, the greatest delinquency should then occur in areas where individuals blame society for their failures to achieve success through legitimate opportunities (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Quicker, 1973). The goal of this study according to Quicker (1973, p. 338) "...was to operationalize that variable [punitiveness] which Cloward and Ohlin stated induced the juveniles to accept delinquency as an alternative once they become frustrated..." This study found support for the relationship between punitiveness and delinquency, but also found support for the use of self-reported data concerning delinquency research (Quicker, 1973).

Bennett and Basiotis (1991) conducted cross-national research aimed at building upon Cloward and Ohlin's (1960) theoretical model. Their study explored property crimes based on blocked access to legitimate means (Bennett & Basiotis, 1991). This blockage was further based on industrialization, education, and adult involvement in criminal activity (Bennett & Basiotis, 1991). They found that education and industrialization were not the main factors in property crimes, but adult involvement was (Bennett & Basiotis, 1991).

This study also found that blockage of opportunities was seen more in developing societies than in established industrial nations (Bennett & Basiotis, 1991). What would cause people in societies that are developing to perceive more blockage than their counterparts in the developed world? Bennett and Basiotis (1991) found that their subjects, in the developing world, held higher expectations while their satisfaction levels were lower. It would seem that when someone expects a lot, and receives less, this might cause them to perceive legitimate opportunities as being blocked.

#### *2.8.4. Inductive Literature Review Conclusions*

The above sections have reviewed theories which the respondents of the present study used to explain drug-related crimes. Let's recall that each theory had its own assumptions as to why criminal activity occurs. Thus, Cornish and Clarke (1986) based their assumptions on the benefits to the criminal, decisions and choices made, and rationality. Bentham (1780/1988), on his part, based his hedonistic calculus on the assumption that individuals seek maximum pleasure and minimum pain. Finally, Cloward and Ohlin (1960) based their theory on the assumption that blocked legitimate means will pull the individual towards crime.

Each theory has been tested since their original elaboration and the results are mixed, at best. This study will take rational choice theory as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986), the hedonistic calculus by Bentham (1780/1988), and differential opportunity theory, focusing on the retreatist subculture, offered by Cloward and Ohlin (1960) in order to explain the criminal behavior.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODS

Since the purpose of this study is to use theoretical integration, the author, in the following chapter, will discuss how the necessary data for completion of this task was obtained and analyzed. This chapter contains sections concerning population selection, sampling technique, measuring instrument, and analysis.

#### 3.1 Population Selection

College students enrolled in Criminology and Criminal Justice classes during the Spring semester of 2006 were selected as the population of this study. Classes at the 2000 level were excluded from this study. This exclusion was to remove potential bias concerning any ideology stemming from the high school environment. An assumption of this study is that those enrolled in 3000 to 4000 level classes are more established college students.

Further, students were excluded if the 3000 to 4000 level class were distant education classes, or independent study classes. This exclusion was pragmatic partially based upon the ability to contact the individual student. Concerning the exclusion of independent study classes, having classes which had one or two students would not allow for anonymity or confidentiality. The respondents were assured that their responses were confidential and their anonymity was to be carefully protected.

### 3.1.1. Creating a Random Number Table

The following section discusses how the random number table used to obtain the sample was created. In order to maintain anonymity and confidentiality, the actual random number table used will not be disclosed. After the exclusion process, the remaining classes were assigned a cardinal number based on their placement on the Departmental Registration Summary. This summary was provided by the Criminology and Criminal Justice Office. The registration summary, not only provided the author with class numbers and section, but with enrollment figures. This cardinal number, assigned to the class, was then placed in column A of the MS Excel worksheet (see Figure 3.1). Table 3.1 is an example of how classes and their sections were numbered for the purposes of creating a random number table. All class, section, and cardinal numbers located in Table 3.1 are for example only.

Table 3.1 Creation of Numbers for Column A of Random Number Table

<b>Class Number</b>	<b>Section</b>	<b>Cardinal Number</b>
3301	001	1
	002	2
	003	3
3310	501	4
4305	210	5

After all classes were inputted, random numbers were created using the random number generator within MS Excel. Random numbers are obtained, in MS Excel, by selecting the *Insert* menu and then selecting *fx/Function* menu. Once in the Function menu, select RAND and then ok, the result is a random number. The first random number appeared in column B row one (see Figure 3.1). Using the left mouse button,

the author dragged the random number to cover the entire listing of classes. Once this step was accomplished, the classes were organized according to the random numbers. This organization was accomplished by highlighting columns A and B and then using the *sort* function in the *data* menu of MS Excel. The next step is to sort the columns according to column B. The end result was the creation of a random number unique for this study. Figure 3.1 provides an example of how the random number table was created using MS Excel.

	A	B
1	1	0.123~
2	2	0.817~
3	3	0.235~
4	4	0.567~
5	5	0.273~

Figure 3.1 Creating a Random Number Table with MS Excel

### 3.1.2. Using a Random Number Table

Once the random number table was created, the first four classes were selected. See Figure 3.2 concerning use of the MS Excel random number table. Using column A the first four classes were selected. The cardinal number in column A was compared with the class number on the Registration Summary provided by the Criminology and Criminal Justice Office (see Table 3.1). The primary investigator then requested permission from the professor to survey that class. The creation and use of the random number table using MS Excel was done by following the instructions and examples

provided by McIntyre (2005). Once again it is important to note that the tables and figures presented in this section are only for illustration.

Excel Column Letter	Class Number (Cardinal Number)	
	A	B
1	3	0.235~
2	4	0.567~
3	5	0.273~
4	1	0.123~
5	2	0.817~

Figure 3.2 Using the Random Number Table Created

### 3.2 Sampling Technique

This study followed Cohen’s power sampling procedure. Based on this sampling technique, a total of 44 subjects are necessary when the study is using one treatment (Cohen, 1988; Keppel, William, & Tokunaga, 1992). Although, as stated, only 44 subjects were needed, a target sample population of 100 was set. This would allow for the total number of 44 subjects to be reached with no further sampling.

Figure 3.3, taken from Keppel et al. (1992) shows the power sample. The figure shows the numbers of subjects needed for one treatment based on a .05 and .01 level of significance and the corresponding power levels. By following this sampling technique, the findings of the study can be generalized while maintaining a manageable population. A total of 162 surveys were handed out, in the end 89 students were surveyed resulting in 88 usable surveys. The unusable survey was turned in, but not completed. Based on the number of usable surveys (88), this study had a 54% response

rate. According to Cohen (1988) this study's power level would be .99. This means, that if this study was to be replicated, there is a 99% chance that the findings would be confirmed (Keppel et al., 1992).

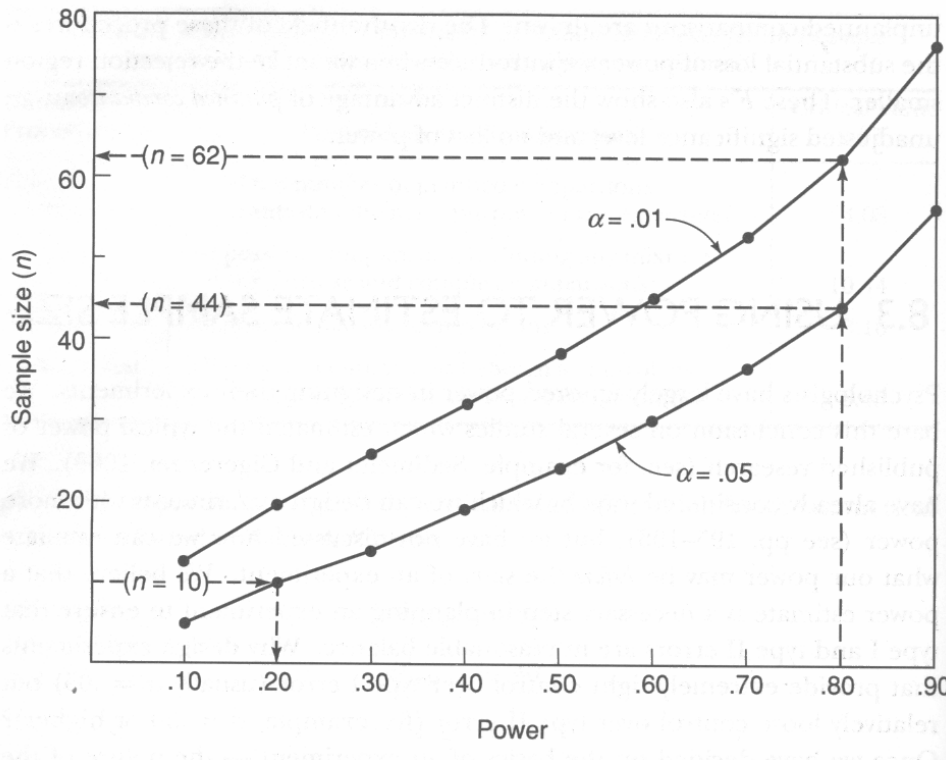


Figure 3.3 Cohen's Power Sample

### 3.3 Measuring Instrument

The measuring instrument utilized (see Appendix C) was a survey consisting of 39 questions which dealt with areas such as: knowledge of theoretical integration, perception as pertaining to prevalent criminal behavior and theoretical reasoning for. Furthermore, the respondents were asked for information concerning their criminal activity and theoretical reasoning for. In an attempt to avoid 182 different responses concerning the causes of crime as encountered by Campbell and Muncer (1990), closed

ended questions were utilized. The measuring instrument also requested demographic information.

Nine of these questions concerned the subjects' knowledge of theoretical integration. Ten questions concerned the subjects' perception involving criminal activity of a third person and theoretical reasons given to better understand the criminal activity. This section was followed by two contingent questions, which asked if the subject ever committed a criminal act that was either detected or undetected. If the response was positive to either of the two contingent questions, the subject, was then instructed to answer questions concerning theoretical explanations applying to such criminal activity.

The ten questions, concerning self-reported criminal activity, were basically a repeat of the ten questions concerning criminal activity of a third person. This section was followed by three questions asked of all subjects concerning their philosophy of punishment and two perception questions. These two perception questions attempted to discover the perception held by respondents concerning: how different a criminal is from them, and if they would commit a criminal offense. The next six questions were demographic in nature. The demographic questions in this section were primarily based on the evaluation form given to every CRCJ class at the end of the semester.

### *3.3.1. Integration Built In*

The questions pertaining to theoretical explanations for criminal behavior were created to allow for integration using all methods of theoretical integration presented previously. Asking the respondent to identify the primary, secondary, and third reason



would allow for end-to-end integration (Hirschi, 1979). Side-by-side integration could perhaps be allowed to occur because this method allows the individual theories to be applied to one criminal activity (Hirschi, 1979). Up-and-down integration, could occur by raising the level of abstraction and linking the theories (Hirschi, 1979). Further, cross-level integration could possibly occur, provided the theories chosen included both micro and macro level explanations.

When it came time for this study to integrate theories in order to explain a criminal behavior, the method applied was explicitly identified (see Chapter Five). This decision concerning integration method was based on the theories used to explain the criminal behavior. This decision was also justified, based on the method used.

### 3.4 Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 12.0, was used for analysis. The analysis of data collected included the following; inductive theoretical integration, two-tailed t-tests, presentation of data not analyzed using the t-tests (nominal data), and reporting of demographic information.

#### *3.4.1. Inductive Theoretical Integration*

The first step in inductive theoretical integration was to identify what type of criminal behavior is most often selected by the respondents, to explain criminal activity of a third person. Once this was accomplished, those sets of data were isolated to determine the theories used to explain that criminal behavior. This technique will allow for the theories used to explain that criminal behavior that was identified. The theory that receives the highest frequency/percentage as the primary explanation, was used as

the primary explanation, this was repeated for the secondary and third explanations. This method was also applied to self-reported criminal activity.

Presentation of this information was in the form of tables. In case multiple theories have the same percentage and frequencies, they were all reported. That is to say that, if theories A, B, and C have a frequency of five and a percentage of 20, they were reported as the reason for the criminal behavior. The only exception, to this method, was in relation to like theories (see section 3.4.2. *Combining Like Theories*). All tables concerning inductive integration are located in Chapter Four. Actual integration is located in Chapter Five.

#### 3.4.2. *Combining Like Theories*

Figure 3.4 illustrates how like single-theory explanations were combined. For the purpose of this study, like theories were defined as: single theory explanations used multiple times. The combination of like theories only occurred if the single theoretical explanation occurred as in Figure 3.4. This was done to simplify the inductive integration tables, which are located in Chapter Four.

The combination of like theories, not only provided for simplified integration tables, but aided in the integration of the theories (see Chapter Four and Five). During the analysis phase of this study, the author, decided to use Hirschi's up-and-down integration method. This method was selected because it allowed the author to raise the level of abstraction therefore connecting the theories together (Hirschi, 1979). A discussion concerning this integration technique as it applies to this study is located in

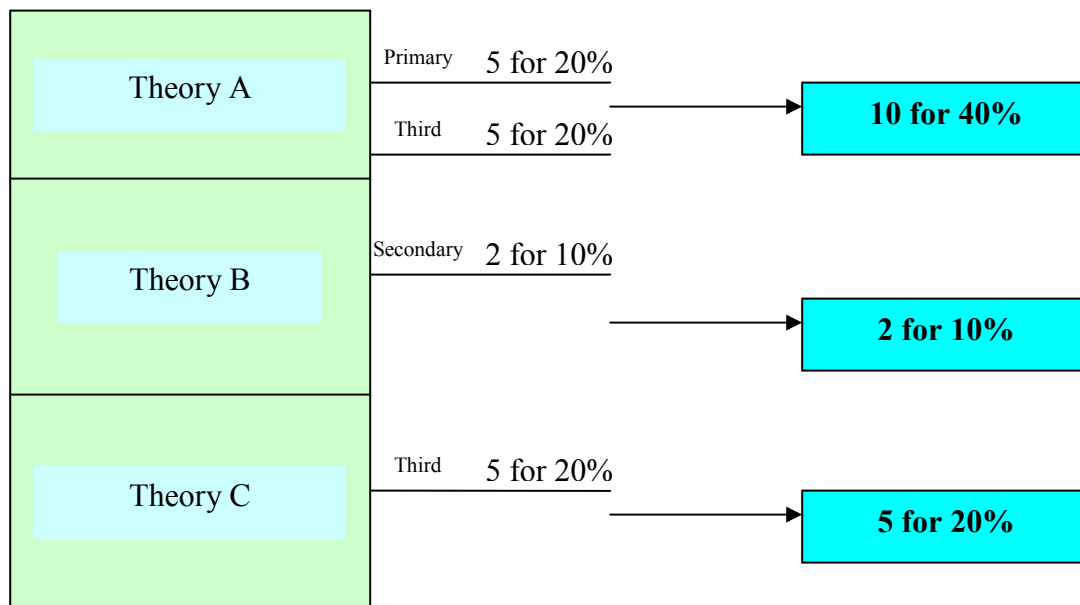


Figure 3.4 Combining Like Theories

Chapter Five. Once again, the combination of single-theory explanations must be as illustrated in Figure 3.4 otherwise no combination occurred. If the combining of like theories was used, it will be indicated in the explanation of the table.

Also, if multiple single-theory explanations are used, but not repeated (see Figure 3.4), they all will be reported in the integration table. Otherwise stated, if a single theory is used for all three causes, receiving the highest frequency/percentage, for each explanation (primary, secondary, third), combining of the single theory will not occur. This method was done to reduce repeated theories in an attempt to maintain three theories of explanations for the selected criminal behaviors.

### 3.4.3. *t-test*

A two-tailed t-test was utilized to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the means of males and females (gender), and CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors (major). The significance levels for the t-test were at the .05 and .01 levels. The results of the two-tailed t-tests are reported in two separate tables one based on gender and one based on major. The following items were analyzed using the two-tailed t-test: knowledge (survey items 1-9), items 14-17, items 26, 30, 32, and 33 (see t-test Tables 4.6 and 4.10).

### 3.4.4. *Conversion: Answers into Theories*

This study matched the responses with corresponding theories. Table 3.2 (see page 73) shows the responses to the survey questions and their corresponding theory. When theoretical explanations are presented in the tables (see Chapter Four), they will present the theories and not the responses given in the survey. The matching of the responses with the corresponding theories was, primarily, based on the theoretical text written by Roberson and Wallace (1998). Items one through 19 are the responses to survey questions 11-13, and 23 -25. Items 14, 15, 17, 26, 30, and 32 are items which were asked to respondents, these items unlike the above responses (1-19), were stand alone items.

Table 3.2 Survey Responses Converted to Theories

Possible Response	Theory
1. Free Will/they chose to	Rational Choice Theory
2. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	Hedonistic Calculus
3. Family History of criminal behavior	Positivist – Heredity
4. Committed criminal act during period of rapid change in my life	Anomie
5. Built up Aggression	Positivist – Chromosomal Abnormality
6. Grew up in a “bad” area	Sociological – Ecological
7. Taught by another “how to” commit crime	Differential Association
8. Wanted something but could not get it any other way	Strain – Goals & Means
9. Reaction to unjust laws	Conflict
10. The rich usually get away with it	Conflict
11. Pushed by others to commit/ pulled into criminal activity	Containment – Reckless
12. Imitated someone they knew	Tarde – Imitation
13. Could not mentally cope with what was going on	Emotional Problems (psychiatric) –psychological & psychiatric perspective
14. Fitting in with gang/group they “hung out” with	Differential Opportunity Theory
15. Was told it was “OK” to do	Differential Association
16. Someone else’s fault – would pass blame to others	Techniques of Neutralization
17. Always been involved in criminal activity	Life Course Persistent
18. There was a suitable target, offender was motivated, and there was a lack of capable guardians	Routine Activities
19. Other	Coded according to what individual stated
Item 14 – crime is normal	Durkheim
Item 15 – over time crimes become more violent (third person)	Life Course Persistent
Item 17 – future test to determine who is criminal	Positivist
Item 26 – afraid how others will label me	Labeling
Item 30 – over time crimes become more serious (self)	Life Course Persistent
Item 32 – difference between me and criminals	Control

In the following chapter, the author will present the findings of this study. The findings will be presented in reference to inductive theoretical integration, findings according to gender, findings according to major, and demographic data. The sections pertaining to gender and major will not only include inductive theoretical integration, but sections pertaining to the results of a two-tailed t-test.

## CHAPTER 4

### FINDINGS

The findings will be presented as follows: demographic, inductive theoretical integration, according to gender, and according to major. Results of the t-test (2-tailed) will be presented for the filters (gender and major). Furthermore, nominal responses concerning the filtered data will be presented in the form of a table, after the results of the t-tests. All percentages reported in this chapter have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

Appendix D, contains parts of the findings which are not reported in this chapter. This procedure was aimed at limiting the number of tables. There were three types of criminal behavior in the measuring instrument: drug-related, property, and violent criminal incidents. In other words, since the respondents selected drug-related crimes as the most prevalent criminal behavior in society, the findings for property and violent crimes will be located in Appendix D and not discussed in the text. This information is reported in the original SPSS tables for Un-Filtered and Filtered data.

#### 4.1 Demographic

This section presents the answers provided concerning demographic information. This section's data will be presented with frequency and percentages broken down by the demographic question (see Table 4.1, p. 75). This study chose to filter data by gender, since the sample population was almost split even. Males

Table 4.1 Demographics: Frequency & Percentage

Demographic		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	40	46
	Female	47	53
Race/Ethnicity	Caucasian	44	50
	African American	13	15
	Hispanic	17	19
	Middle Eastern	1	1
	Asian	5	6
	Other	5	6
Current Age	Less Than 18	1	1
	18 – 24	68	77
	25 – 31	10	11
	32 – 38	6	7
	39 +	3	3
Classification	Sophomore	9	10
	Junior	49	56
	Senior	28	32
Major	Criminology & Criminal Justice	66	75
	History	1	1
	Political Science	7	8
	Psychology	1	1
	Sociology	1	1
	Other	7	8
GPA	No GPA	2	2
	Less Than 2.0	1	1
	2.0 – 2.5	10	11
	2.6 – 3.0	30	34
	3.1 – 4.0	43	49

made up forty-six percent of the sample population, in other words there were forty male subjects, whereas, there were forty-seven female subjects, meaning they made up fifty-three percent of the sample population. The comparison between CRCJ majors and non-CRCJ majors was done due to the study's primary focus, theoretical criminology. CRCJ majors made up seventy-five percent of the sample population, in other words there were sixty-six CRCJ subjects. The category non-CRCJ major was the result of combining all non criminology and criminal justice majors into one group.

This combined group, non-CRCJ majors made up nineteen percent of the sample population, in other words there were seventeen non-CRCJ major subjects. Since demographic data was not used in analysis, beyond what was already stated, no further explanation will be presented.

#### 4.2 Inductive Theoretical Integration

Reported in this section are the findings for unfiltered data. Inductive theoretical integration findings for filtered data (gender and major) are located in their respective sections. Table 4.2 shows the criminal behavior found to be the most prevalent in society and theories used to explain that behavior.

Table 4.2 Primary Theoretical Integration Table: Prevalent Crime & Theories

<b>Prevalent Criminal Behavior (Society)</b>			<b>Integration for Prevalent Criminal Behavior</b>		
<b>Criminal Behavior</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Theories</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Drug-related crime	46	52	Rational Choice Theory	13	28
			Hedonistic Calculus	8	17
			Differential Opportunity	9	20

Drug-related crime was selected most frequently as the most prevalent in society. In fact, this type of behavior had a frequency of 46, which means that 52% of the respondents selected this type of criminal behavior as the most prevalent in society. Those respondents who selected drug-related crime as the most prevalent criminal behavior explained this activity committed by a third person by means of the following three theories: rational choice theory, hedonistic calculus, and differential opportunity.

Rational choice theory was selected as the primary reason by 13 of the 46 subjects, i.e., 28%. The secondary reason selected was hedonistic calculus. This was



chosen by eight respondents, i.e., 17%. The third reason chosen to explain drug-related crime was differential opportunity. This theory was selected by nine respondents or 20%.

Table 4.3 represents the findings for self-reported criminal behavior. Property Crimes were the most frequent criminal activity reported by the respondents. Fourteen respondents reported this type of criminal activity or 16%. While this study found that multiple theories were used to explain a third person’s criminal behavior, self-reported criminal behavior was explained in terms of a single theory, namely, rational choice theory.

Concerning the main explanation articulated by the respondents, rational choice theory was reported by three of the 14 respondents or 21%. The same theory was given for the secondary reason, it was reported by five respondents or 36%. Concerning the third reason, rational choice theory, was selected by three respondents or 21%. In this case, namely, self-reported criminal behavior, theoretical integration appears to be unnecessary. For the primary, secondary, and third causes rational choice theory was the most frequently chosen response therefore not allowing for combining of like theories in accordance with Figure 3.4 (see page 71).

Table 4.3 Primary Theoretical Integration Table: Self-Reported & Theories

Self-reported Criminal Behavior			Integration for Self-reported Criminal Behavior		
Criminal Behavior	Frequency	Percentage	Theories	Frequency	Percentage
Property	14	16	Rational Choice Theory	3	21
			Rational Choice Theory	5	36
			Rational Choice Theory	3	21

### 4.3 Findings According to Gender

The first filter used in the analysis of data was gender. This filter was used because the sample population was almost evenly split. Males constituted 40 subjects or 46%, while females constituted 47 or 53% of the sample population. Data using this filter were analyzed concerning inductive theoretical integration, 2-tailed t-tests, and nominal responses.

#### *4.3.1. Inductive Theoretical Integration*

Drug-related crimes (see Table 4.4) was the criminal behavior described as the most prevalent in society by both males and females. Males reported this type of criminal behavior with a frequency of 24 out of 40, or 60%. Females selected drug-related crimes as the most prevalent with a frequency of 22 out of 47, or 47%.

The results for males were combined, as stated in the previous chapter, in accordance with Figure 3.4. Concerning male respondents, this study found that the following theories were used to explain drug-related criminal behavior of a third person: rational choice theory, hedonistic calculus, and differential opportunity. Rational choice theory was found to be the primary explanation, selected by 12 of the 24 respondents, or 50%. The secondary reason, hedonistic calculus, was selected by four respondents, or 17%. The third theory used by male respondents was differential opportunity. This theory was selected by eight respondents or 33%.

Table 4.4 Theoretical Integration Table: Prevalent Criminal Behavior (Gender)

Prevalent Criminal Behavior				Theories for Integration		
Gender	Criminal Behavior	Frequency	Percentage	Theories	Frequency	Percentage
Males	Drug-Related	24	60	Rational Choice Theory	12	50
				Hedonistic Calculus	4	17
				Differential Opportunity	8	33
Females	Drug-Related	22	47	Rational Choice Theory	10	45
				Hedonistic Calculus	5	23
				Social Disorganization	5	23
				Differential Opportunity	5	23

Females selected only slightly different theories from those selected by male respondents. While males used three theories to explain this type of criminal behavior, females used four. The theories used by females to explain drug-related criminal behavior were rational choice theory, hedonistic calculus, social disorganization, and differential opportunity. Rational choice theory was selected by ten of the 22 females or by 45%. Hedonistic calculus, social disorganization, and differential opportunity were all selected by five out of the 22 females or by 23% each. This study found that female respondents used an additional theory not used by male respondents, social disorganization, to explain drug-related criminal behavior.

Table 4.5 shows the criminal behavior reported by males and females concerning their own criminal activity. For both, property crimes was the most frequently reported criminal activity. In this case, the findings reported in Table 4.5 were combined in accordance with Figure 3.4. Eight out of 40 males (20%) claimed property crimes for self-reported criminal activity, whereas six female respondents (13%) reported committing a property crime.

Table 4.5 Theoretical Integration Table: Self-reported (Gender)

Self-Reported Criminal Behavior				Theories for Integration		
Gender	Criminal Behavior	Frequency	Percentage	Theories	Frequency	Percent age
Males	Property	8	20	Rational Choice Theory	5	63
				Anomie	2	25
				Hedonistic Calculus	1	13
				Social Disorganization	1	13
				Strain	1	13
				Containment	1	13
				Differential Opportunity	1	13
				Techniques of Neutralization	1	13
				Routine Activities	1	13
Females	Property	6	13	Rational Choice Theory	5	83
				Strain	1	17
				Containment	1	17
				Differential Association	1	17
				Techniques of Neutralization	1	17
				Routine Activities	1	17

Males used nine theories to explain their self-reported criminal activity. Rational choice theory was used by five out of the eight males or by 63%. Anomie was selected by two out of the eight, or 25%. The next seven theories were selected by one each out of the eight males or 13%. These theories were hedonistic calculus, social disorganization, strain, containment, differential opportunity, techniques of neutralization, and routine activities.

This study found that females used six theories to explain their self-reported commission of property crimes. Rational choice theory was selected by five out of six or by 83%. The next five theories chosen were, strain, containment, differential association, techniques of neutralization, and routine activities. Each of these theories was selected by one respondent (17%).

#### *4.3.2. t-test Results*

The following are the results of the 2-tailed t-test, comparing the differences in means of male and female respondents (see Table 4.6, page 84). The t-test significant levels were .05 and .01. Table 4.6 shows the results for comparison by gender. The items compared were all knowledge questions (items 1-9), items 14 – 17, and items 26, 30, 32, and 33.

Item one concerned whether theories are used to better understand criminal behavior. There was no significant difference in the means for males (2.13) and females (2.00). Item two asked if theoretical integration was started by the work of Bentham. The means for this comparison were 2.82 (males) and 2.91 (females). This finding is not statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels.

Item three's focus was whether theoretical integration was the dominant paradigm from the late eighteenth to the late nineteenth century. The means for this comparison were 2.59 (males) and 2.91 (females). The analysis of this question resulted in a p-value of .003. This finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. The responses by males were the following: five agreed strongly (13%), ten agreed (25%), nineteen were neutral (48%), one disagreed (3%), and two disagreed strongly (5%). Females responded in the following manner: one agreed strongly (2%), nine agreed (19%), thirty-two were neutral (68%), three disagreed (6%), and two disagreed strongly (4%). While neutral responses were most frequent in both groups, females did so more often than males. Further, it should be noted that, if males did not respond neutral, they were found to be in agreement with the statement.

Item four resulted in a p-value of .074. This question pertained to a definition of theoretical integration. The means compared were 2.24 (males) and 2.45 (females). This finding was not statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels.

Item five asked if Hirschi (1979) proposed ways to approach theoretical integration. The resulting p-value was .002. This finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. The means for this comparison were 2.32 (males) and 2.65 (females). The following are the responses for males: eight agreed strongly (20%), eleven agreed (28%), sixteen were neutral (40%), and two disagreed (5%). Females responded in the following manner: two agreed strongly (4%), fifteen agreed (32%), twenty-six were neutral (55%), and three disagreed (6%). If not neutral, males were reported to be in agreement with this statement. This was the same with females, but they reported a higher neutral rate than males.

Items six through nine, the remaining knowledge questions, did not show statistically significant differences. Item six asked if Hirschi is known as the “father” of theoretical integration. The resulting p-value was .339, based means of 2.92 (males) and 2.78 (females). The p-value for Item Seven was .226. This was based on the comparison of means for males (2.68) and females (2.80). Item seven asked if Shaw & McKay’s (1942) scheme is now viewed as an integration study. Item eight was in reference to the work *An Essay on Crimes and Punishments*. The respondents were asked if this work is the first study using theoretical integration. The means for this comparison were 2.74 (males) and 2.96 (females), resulting in a p-value of .078. Item nine, the last knowledge question, asked if theoretical integration became part of

criminology during the 1980's in part as a reaction to a feeling that nothing new was being done. When analyzed using a t-test (2-tailed), the resulting p-value was .947. This result was based on the means of 3.03 (males) and 3.02 (females).

Item fourteen asked whether Crime is normal. The means were 2.30 (males) and 2.85 (females). The result of the 2-tailed t-test was a p-value of .004. This finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. Males responded in the following manner: eleven agreed strongly (28%), sixteen agreed (40%), six responded neutral (15%), four disagreed (10%), and three disagreed strongly (8%). Males were in general agreement with this statement. Females reported the following responses: five agreed strongly (11%), eighteen agreed (38%), nine were neutral (19%), nine disagreed (19%), and six disagreed strongly (13%). While females were also in general agreement with this statement, their agreement was not as strong as for the male respondents.

Item fifteen resulted in a p-value of .486. This item concerned if over the life of a criminal did their behavior become more violent. This was based on the means of 3.08 (males) and 2.98 (females). These results were not statistically significant. Item sixteen was whether those convicted of a criminal offense are no different from me. The mean for males were 3.40 and the mean for females was 3.85. This finding is statistically significant at the .05 level. Males responded in the following manner: four agreed strongly (10%), five agreed (13%), eleven were neutral (28%), eleven disagreed (28%), and nine disagreed strongly (23%). Males were in general disagreement with this statement, followed by neutral. Females' responded as follows: one agreed strongly (2%), eight agreed (17%), seven were neutral (15%), twelve disagreed (26%), and

Table 4.6 t-test Results: Males & Females

Survey Item Number	Statement	Means		p-value (2-tailed)
		Males	Females	
1	Criminological theories are used to better understand criminal behavior	2.13	2.00	.242
2	Criminological theoretical integration started with the work of Jeremy Bentham	2.82	2.91	.409
3	Theoretical integration served as the dominate paradigm (school of thought) during the late eighteenth to the late nineteenth century	2.59	2.91	.003**
4	Theoretical integration is defined (more or less) as the process of combining two or more theories to obtain a better understanding of criminal behavior	2.24	2.45	.074
5	Hirschi, in 1979, proposed ways to approach theoretical integration in criminology	2.32	2.65	.002**
6	Hirschi is known as the “father of theoretical integration” concerning criminology	2.92	2.78	.339
7	The study conducted by Shaw & McKay (1942) is now regarded as an early attempt at theoretical integration	2.68	2.80	.226
8	An essay on crimes and punishments was the first study completed using theoretical integration to better explain criminality	2.74	2.96	.078
9	One of the reasons why theoretical integration became part of criminology was due in part to a “feeling,” in the 1980’s, that nothing new was being created	3.03	3.02	.947
14	Crime is normal	2.30	2.85	.004**
15	Over the life of a “criminal” their behavior will become more violent	3.08	2.98	.486
16	Those convicted of a criminal offense are no different from me	3.40	3.85	.013*
17	In the future, we will likely have a test in place that will determine who will be/are the criminals in society	4.15	3.55	.001**
26	I am afraid how others will label me as a “criminal” if I am truthful about my criminal activity	3.33	4.00	.051
30	Over time the criminal acts, I committed, became more serious	4.61	4.50	.583
32	The only difference between me and “criminals” is that they were caught	3.33	4.09	.000**
33	If given the chance I would commit criminal acts	4.35	4.74	.000**

\* Statistically Significant at the .05 level

\*\*Statistically Significant at the .01 level



nineteen disagreed strongly (40%). Thus, females were in disagreement to this statement more so than males.

Item seventeen, asserting that a test would be available in the future to determine who might be/who are the criminals in society, resulted in a significant finding. The reported p-value for this statement was .001, highly statistically significant at the .01 level. The means used in this comparison were 4.15 (males) and 3.55 (females). The following are the responses given by males: four agreed (10%), six were neutral (15%), ten disagreed (25%), and twenty disagreed strongly (50%). Males were in general disagreement with this statement. Females reported the following responses: two agreed strongly (4%), seven agreed (15%), fourteen were neutral (30%), eleven disagreed (23%), and thirteen disagreed strongly (28%). Thus, females were also in general disagreement with this statement, but not as strongly as the males.

Item twenty-six and thirty were only asked to those who admitted past criminal activity. Item twenty-six concerned if the individual was afraid how others would label them as a criminal if they were honest about their criminal activity. This item had a p-value of .051, based on the means of 3.33 (males) and 4.00 (females). While close to the .05 level, this finding is not statistically significant. Item thirty asked if over time their criminal acts became more serious. This item had a p-value of .583, based on the means of 4.61 (males) and 4.50 (females). The analysis of these questions did not result in statistically significant findings.

Item thirty-two affirming that the only difference between the respondent and “criminals” is the latter were caught. This item was asked to all subjects. When

comparing the differences in means of males (3.33) and females (4.09), the resulting p-value was .000. This finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. Males responded as follows: seven agreed strongly (18%), five agreed (13%), nine were neutral (23%), six disagreed (15%), and thirteen disagreed strongly (33%). The following are the responses of female subjects: three agreed strongly (6%), five agreed (11%), two were neutral (4%), twelve disagreed (26%), and twenty-five disagreed strongly (53%). Females were in stronger disagreement with this statement than were males.

“If given a chance, I would commit criminal acts,” was item thirty-three. Once again, this item was asked to all subjects. This analysis was based on comparing the means of males (4.35) and females (4.74). The resulting p-value was .000, this finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. Males responded in the following manner: two agreed strongly (5%), one agreed (3%), four were neutral (10%), seven disagreed (18%), and twenty-six disagreed strongly (65%). The following responses given by the females to the same question: two were neutral (4%), eight disagreed (17%), and thirty-seven disagreed strongly (79%). Females were in general disagreement with this statement and did so strongly. Unlike the males, none of the female respondents were in agreement with this statement.

The findings of these t-tests suggest that knowledge concerning theoretical integration is lacking for both male and female respondents. The knowledge items had correct answers. Respondents should have responded with a one or five, but this was not the case. Furthermore, the means used to conduct these t-tests suggest that both

males and females lean towards believing that crime is normal. Finally, the means suggest that this group does not lean towards believing: that criminals are no different from them, future testing will aid in determining who is a criminal, criminals are only different from the respondents because they were caught, and that if given a chance the respondents would commit crimes.

#### *4.3.3. Nominal Responses*

This section will report the findings concerning nominal questions. Table 4.7 (see page 89) shows the question and the responses in percentages provided by the respondents. Questions 18 – 20, and 31 were asked to all respondents. Questions 22, 27, 28, and 29 were only asked to those respondents who reported criminal activity either discovered or undiscovered.

In answer to question eighteen which asked the age group in which most criminal activity occurs, this study found the following 14 – 25 years old was selected by 90% of the males and 83% of the females. Also, this study found those 26 – 37 years old was selected by 8% of the males and 13% of the females. This question was in reference to criminal activity in general, not self-reported acts and was asked to all respondents.

The first nominal question pertaining to self-reported criminal activity (question 19) asked whether the subject had been convicted of a criminal act. Ten percent of the males reported being convicted of a criminal act, 90% reported no convictions. Two percent of the females reported being convicted, 98% of the females reported no convictions.

The next question pertaining to self-reported criminal activity concerned undiscovered criminal activity (questions 20). Forty-five percent of the males reported they had committed criminal acts which remained undiscovered, 55% answered no to this question. Undiscovered criminal activity was reported by 21% of the females, whereas 75% of the females reported no undiscovered criminal activity.

Building on the previous two questions, the next nominal question asked the subject what type of punishment they received for their criminal activity (question 22). For both males and females, probation, deferred adjudication, and none-undiscovered were the only responses selected. Five percent of the males reported receiving probation and three percent reported deferred adjudication. Thirty-eight percent of the males reported no punishment because their actions went undiscovered. Two percent of the females convicted of a criminal offense reported receiving probation and deferred adjudication. Seventeen percent of females reported no punishment because their criminal actions went undiscovered.

The next question asked what age the respondent was when they committed their self-reported criminal behavior (question 27). The following percentages for both males and females are based on those who admitted being convicted and those whose criminal acts went undiscovered. Five percent of the males stated they were under 13 years old. The age group of 14 – 25 years old was selected by 38% of male respondents. Six percent of females reported they were under 13 years old and 17% reported they were between 14 – 25 years old.

The next nominal question asked how many prior convictions the subject had (question 28). Once again the following reported percentages are based on those who

Table 4.7 Nominal Responses: Gender

Question	Responses Given	Response Percentages	
		Males	Females
18. Most criminal activity occurs in what age group?	14 – 25 Years Old	90	83
	26 – 37 Years Old	8	13
19. Have you ever committed a criminal offense that resulted in a conviction?	Yes	10	2
	No	90	98
20. Have you ever committed a criminal offense that went undiscovered (never caught)?	Yes	40	21
	No	55	75
22. What was the punishment you received?	Probation	5	2
	Deferred Adjudication	3	2
	None – Undiscovered	38	17
27. What age were you when you committed the criminal offense in question 21?	Under 13 Years Old	5	6
	14 – 25 Years Old	38	17
28. How many prior convictions do you have?	None	40	21
	1	3	2
29. How many prior undiscovered criminal acts have you committed?	None	13	9
	1	3	9
	2 – 4	18	4
	5 – 7	5	2
	11 +	8	N/A
31. Which philosophy of punishment is most appropriate?	Incapacitation	10	19
	Rehabilitation	38	30
	Retribution	20	19
	Deterrence	23	23
	Restorative	10	9

admitted to criminal activity. The answer “none” was selected by 40% of males and 21% of females. This study also found that three percent of males reported one prior conviction and two percent of females reported the same.

The next nominal question asked, how many undiscovered crimes did the subject commit (question 29)? These percentages are based on those males and females which reported some type of criminal activity. Thirteen percent of males stated none, three percent stated one, 18% stated 2 - 4, five percent stated 5 - 7, and 11+ undiscovered criminal acts were reported by eight percent. Concerning females; nine percent stated none and one, four percent stated 2 - 4, and two percent stated 5 - 7. None of the females responded 11+ undiscovered criminal acts.

The final nominal question, concerning punishment philosophy, was asked of all subjects (question 31). Ten percent of males reported incapacitation was the most appropriate punishment philosophy, 38% selected rehabilitation, 20% retribution, deterrence was selected by 23%, and 10% selected restorative. Females responded in the following manner: 19% percent selected incapacitation, 30% rehabilitation, 19% retribution, 23% deterrence, and 9% selected restorative.

While this section just reported on the findings of questions which were nominal in nature and not used in additional analyses, a potential interesting issue was discovered. This concerns the punishment philosophy, the respondents selected rehabilitation as the most appropriate. This punishment philosophy is usually not associated with rational choice theories.

#### 4.4 Findings According to Major

The next filter used to analyze data collected during the course of this study was major, coded as CRCJ or Non-CRCJ. CRCJ students were all students who selected Criminology and Criminal Justice as their major. Non-CRCJ students were those who

selected any other response, including dual majors, where one major of the two is Criminology and Criminal Justice. The reason dual majors, where one was criminology and criminal justice, were classified as non-CRCJ majors was to ensure that only one discipline was potentially influencing CRCJ majors. This section will present the findings of inductive theoretical integration, t-tests, and nominal responses.

#### *4.4.1. Inductive Theoretical Integration*

CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors both selected drug-related crimes as the most prevalent in society. While both groups selected the same criminal behavior, different explanations were given to explain drug-related criminal behavior. Table 4.8 presents the findings for inductive theoretical integration concerning the criminal behavior of a third person. As shown in the table, 31 out of the 66 subjects (47%) who identified themselves as Criminology and Criminal Justice majors, identified drug-related crimes as the most prevalent in society. Of the 31 CRCJ subjects who selected drug-related crimes as the most prevalent, nine or 29% chose rational choice theory as the primary explanation. For the secondary explanation, eight of the 31 CRCJ or 26% chose hedonistic calculus. The third theory used to explain drug-related crimes was differential opportunity. This theory was selected by six of the 31 (19%) CRCJ subjects.

Non-CRCJ students also selected drug-related crimes as the most prevalent, with 11 out of 17 or 65% doing so. The explanations offered by non-CRCJ majors were, slightly different, however, than those offered by CRCJ majors. The primary reason for this behavior, according to the non-CRCJ subjects, was the hedonistic calculus. This

explanation was offered by five of the 11 (46%) subjects. The secondary and third reasons given by non-CRCJ subjects were both selected by three out of the 11 subjects, or 27% each. Routine activities was offered as the secondary reason for committing a drug-related crime. The third reason given to explain this criminal behavior was Differential association.

Table 4.8 Theoretical Integration Table: Prevalent Criminal Behavior (Major)

Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)				Integration for Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)		
Major	Criminal Behavior	Frequency	Percentage	Theories	Frequency	Percentage
CRCJ	Drug-Related	31	47	Rational Choice Theory	9	29
				Hedonistic Calculus	8	26
				Differential Opportunity	6	19
Non-CRCJ	Drug-Related	11	65	Hedonistic Calculus	5	46
				Routine Activities	3	27
				Differential Association	3	27

While drug-related crimes were reported to be the most prevalent criminal behavior in society, the most often selected self-reported criminal behavior was property crimes. Both CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors selected this type of criminal behavior (see Table 4.9). CRCJ majors selected this behavior 18% of the time, that is to say, 12 out of the 66 CRCJ subjects. Theoretical integration did not appear necessary when reviewing the findings provided by CRCJ majors. The primary, secondary, and third reason for committing a property crime identified was rational choice theory by CRCJ majors. Three out of the 12 or 25%, selected rational choice theory as the



primary reason. Four out of the 12 or 33% selected it again as the secondary reason. It was again selected as the third explanation by three out of the 12 or 25%.

Table 4.9 Theoretical Integration Table: Self-Reported (Majors)

Criminal Behavior (self-reported)				Theories for Integration							
Major	Criminal Behavior	Frequency	Percentage	Theories		Frequency	Percentage				
CRCJ	Property	12	18	Rational Choice Theory		3	25				
				Rational Choice Theory		4	33				
				Rational Choice Theory		3	25				
Non-CRCJ	Property	2	12	Subject A	Social Disorganization	1	50				
					Rational Choice Theory	1	50				
					Conflict	1	50				
								Subject B	Routine Activities	1	50
				Strain		1	50				
				Differential Opportunity		1	50				

Non-CRCJ majors also selected property crime as their most common self-reported criminal behavior. This was done by two out of the 17, or 12%. The two non-CRCJ majors did not agree with each other concerning the reasons why they committed a property crime. In this case, data were isolated for each of the non-CRCJ majors (see Table 4.9). Subject A selected the following theories: social disorganization, rational choice theory, and conflict to explain their criminal behavior. Subject B selected routine activities, strain, and differential opportunity.

#### 4.4.2. *t*-test Results

Table 4.10 (p. 97) presents the results of the 2-tailed *t*-test concerning the comparison for differences between the means of CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors. When reporting the findings of Table 4.10 only the item number will be referenced, since the

items were already detailed in the analysis concerning males and females. When the means of CRCJ and non-CRCJ were analyzed, there were no statically significant findings for items one through nine. While there were no statistically significant findings concerning the knowledge of theoretical integration, this study did find significant results when analyzing items not related to knowledge.

Item one resulted in a p-value of .189. This finding is not statistically significant. The means which were compared were, 2.14 (CRCJ) and 1.82 (non-CRCJ). Item two resulted in a p-value of .880, and thus there was not a significant difference observed when comparing the differences in means. The means compared were 2.87 (CRCJ) and 2.88 (non-CRCJ). Item three compared the means of 2.78 (CRCJ) and 2.82 (non-CRCJ). When conducting a t-test (2-tailed) the resulting p-value was .808. This finding is thus not statistically significant. Item four compared the means of, 2.36 (CRCJ) and 2.47 (non-CRCJ), the resulting p-value was .609. This finding was not statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels.

Item five's means for comparison were 2.51 (CRCJ) and 2.41 (non-CRCJ). The result was a p-value of .617 and, again, was not statistically significant. The means for comparison for item six were 2.92 (CRCJ) and 2.59 (non-CRCJ) resulting in a p-value of .192. Once again, there was no observed statistically significant difference by major.

The resulting p-value for item seven was .471. CRCJ majors had a mean of 2.79, while the mean for non-CRCJ majors was 2.71. The analysis of the question did not result in a statistically significant difference. Comparing the means for item eight resulted in a p-value of .410. The means used for this comparison were 2.88 (CRCJ)

and 2.76 (non-CRCJ). This item, like the other knowledge questions, did not show a statistically significant difference. Item nine's means for comparison were 3.03 (CRCJ) and 2.88 (non-CRCJ). This comparison resulted in a p-value of .228. This finding was thus not statistically significant.

Item fourteen resulted in a p-value of .025, which is statistically significant at the .05 level. The means for this comparison were 2.45 (CRCJ) and 3.12 (non-CRCJ). CRCJ majors were in general agreement with this statement. Fifteen CRCJ majors agreed strongly (23%), twenty-six agreed (39%), eleven responded neutral (17%), eight disagreed (12%), and six disagreed strongly (9%). Seven non-CRCJ majors agreed (41%) with this statement, none agreed strongly. Three non-CRCJ majors were neutral (18%), five disagreed (29%), and two disagreed strongly (12%). Non-CRCJ majors were in general disagreement with this statement. CRCJ majors were more likely to agree that crime is normal. Item fifteen's t-test compared the means of 3.11 (CRCJ) and 2.82 (non-CRCJ). This comparison resulted in a p-value of .288. This finding is not statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels.

Item sixteen's t-test resulted in a statistically significant finding at the .05 level. The resulting p-value was .012, the means were 3.52 (CRCJ) and 4.18 (non-CRCJ). CRCJ majors were in general disagreement with this statement. CRCJ majors responded in the following manner: twenty disagreed strongly (30%), fifteen disagreed (23%), fifteen were neutral (23%), eleven agreed (17%), and five agreed strongly (8%). Non-CRCJ majors were in general disagreement also, but more markedly so. There were a total of seventeen non-CRCJ majors, thirteen were in disagreement (76%) with

this statement. Eight non-CRCJ majors disagreed strongly (47%), five disagreed (29%), three were neutral (18%), and one agreed (6%). None of the non-CRCJ majors agreed strongly. Non-CRCJ majors were significantly more likely to disagree that criminals are no different from them.

Item seventeen's t-test (2-tailed) resulted in a p-value of .984, which was not statistically significant. The means for this comparison were 3.83 (CRCJ) and 3.82 (non-CRCJ). Item twenty-six was asked only to those respondents who admitted having engaged in criminal activity. CRCJ majors had a mean of 3.70, based on 27 respondents, whereas non-CRCJ majors had an observed mean of 3.00, based on three respondents. This comparison resulted in a p-value of .556, not statistically significant. The findings of this item twenty-six are limited since there were only three non-CRCJ major respondents.

Item thirty, was also only asked to those who responded that they engaged in criminal activity. When attempting to compare the means of CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors, SPSS, reported that it was unable to complete because the SD was zero. This was due to the limited number of non-CRCJ subjects responding to this item. Item thirty-two, asked to all subjects compared the means of 3.55 (CRCJ) and 4.41 (non-CRCJ). The result of the t-test was a p-value of .001. This result is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. CRCJ majors responded in general disagreement (58%) with this statement. Twenty-five disagreed strongly (38%), thirteen disagreed (20%), ten were neutral (15%), nine agreed (14%), and nine agreed strongly (14%). Non-CRCJ

Table 4.10 t-test Results: CRCJ & Non-CRCJ Majors

Survey Item Number	Statement	Means		p-value (2-tailed)
		CRCJ	Non-CRCJ	
1	Criminological theories are used to better understand criminal behavior	2.14	1.82	.189
2	Criminological theoretical integration started with the work of Jeremy Bentham	2.87	2.88	.880
3	Theoretical integration served as the dominate paradigm (school of thought) during the late eighteenth to the late nineteenth century	2.78	2.82	.808
4	Theoretical integration is defined (more or less) as the process of combining two or more theories to obtain a better understanding of criminal behavior	2.36	2.47	.609
5	Hirschi, in 1979, proposed ways to approach theoretical integration in criminology	2.51	2.41	.617
6	Hirschi is known as the “father of theoretical integration” concerning criminology	2.92	2.59	.192
7	The study conducted by Shaw & McKay (1942) is now regarded as an early attempt at theoretical integration	2.79	2.71	.471
8	An essay on crimes and punishments was the first study completed using theoretical integration to better explain criminality	2.88	2.76	.410
9	One of the reasons why theoretical integration became part of criminology was due in part to a “feeling,” in the 1980’s, that nothing new was being created	3.03	2.88	.228
14	Crime is normal	2.45	3.12	.025*
15	Over the life of a “criminal” their behavior will become more violent	3.11	2.82	.288
16	Those convicted of a criminal offense are no different from me	3.52	4.18	.012*
17	In the future, we will likely have a test in place that will determine who will be/are the criminals in society	3.83	3.82	.984
26	I am afraid how others will label me as a “criminal” if I am truthful about my criminal activity	3.70	3.00	.556
30	Over time the criminal acts, I committed, became more serious	4.54	5.00	***
32	The only difference between me and “criminals” is that they were caught	3.55	4.41	.001**
33	If given the chance I would commit criminal acts	4.45	4.88	.000**

\* Statistically Significant at the .05 level

\*\*Statistically Significant at the .01 level

\*\*\*Cannot be computed because SD is 0

majors were also in general disagreement (88%) with this statement. Ten disagreed strongly (59%), five disagreed (29%), one was neutral (6%), and one agreed (6%). None of the non-CRCJ majors agreed strongly. While both groups were in disagreement with this statement, the non-CRCJ majors did so more strongly. Similar to item sixteen, non-CRCJ majors are less likely to see criminal as similar to them when compared to CRCJ majors.

Item thirty-three's t-test compared the means of 4.45 (CRCJ) and 4.88 (non-CRCJ). When analyzed using a 2-tailed t-test, the resulting p-value was .000. This finding is highly statistically significant at the .01 level. CRCJ majors had the following responses: two agreed strongly (3%), one agreed (2%), seven were neutral (11%), eleven disagreed (17%), and forty-five disagreed strongly (68%). In general CRCJ majors were in disagreement (85%) with this statement. Non-CRCJ majors had the following responses: two disagreed (12%), and fifteen disagreed strongly (88%). Non-CRCJ majors were in disagreement (100%) with this statement. None of the non-CRCJ respondents were in agreement or neutral concerning this statement. While both CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors responded that they were not likely to commit crimes in the future, non-CRCJ majors were more likely to contend that they would not commit crimes.

Once again when reviewing the means in reference to the knowledge questions, there seems to be a lack of knowledge concerning theoretical integration. All knowledge items had a correct answer, they should have been a one or five. While this was also the case when reviewing the means according to gender, in this case the means

are for CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors. The means suggest that CRCJ majors will lean slightly towards believing crime is normal, while non-CRCJ majors will lean slightly the other way. Furthermore, both groups lean away from believing that those convicted are no different from themselves. Again, CRCJ and non-CRCJ majors lean away from the idea that a criminal is only different from them because the criminal was caught. Finally, both majors feel that they would not commit a criminal act even if given a chance.

#### *4.4.3. Nominal Responses*

This section will present the nominal responses offered by CRCJ majors and non-CRCJ majors (see Table 4.11, p. 102). All responses presented in this section are given in percentages. Concerning the age at which most criminal activity occurs (question 18), CRCJ majors selected 14 – 25 years old 88% of the time. Non-CRCJ majors also selected this age group most often, 82% of the time. The age group of 26 – 37 was selected by 8% of CRCJ majors and 18% of non-CRCJ majors.

When asked about self-reported criminal activity (question 19), eight percent of CRCJ majors reported being convicted of a criminal offense, while six percent of non-CRCJ majors reported the same. Ninety-two percent of CRCJ majors stated they were never convicted, while 94% of non-CRCJ majors reported no convictions. While this question concerned detected criminal acts, the next question (question 20) concerned undetected criminal acts. Thirty-eight percent of CRCJ majors reported undetected criminal activity. Twelve percent of non-CRCJ majors reported undetected criminal

activity. Fifty-nine percent of CRCJ majors reported no undetected criminal activity, while 82% of non-CRCJ majors reported the same.

The next nominal question (question 22) concerned the punishment those individuals who reported committing criminal activity, actually received. Five percent of CRCJ majors reported receiving probation. Another five percent reported receiving deferred adjudication. Thirty percent of CRCJ majors reported no punishment because their crime was undetected. The findings for non-CRCJ majors were different. The only answer selected by the subjects concerning punishment was “None – Undiscovered”; this answer was selected by 18% of non-CRCJ majors. No other answers were provided by non-CRCJ majors concerning punishment for self criminal activity.

The next question asked the age the respondent was when they committed their self-reported criminal activity (question 27). The following percentages are based on the 40% of CRCJ majors and 18% of non-CRCJ majors who reported criminal activity. Six percent of the CRCJ majors and non-CRCJ majors responded under 13 years old, as the age when their criminal activity occurred. Thirty-three percent of CRCJ majors responded 14 – 25 years old. This response was also selected by 12% of the non-CRCJ majors.

Concerning the respondents prior convictions (question 28), the following data were reported. These percentages refer, again, to those who reported having indulged in criminal activity. Thirty-five percent of the CRCJ majors reported no prior convictions, whereas eighteen percent of the non-CRCJ majors reported the same. One percent of



the CRCJ majors reported one prior conviction. None of the non-CRCJ majors reported any prior convictions.

The next nominal question concerned prior undetected criminal activity (question 29). CRCJ majors reported the following: 14% responded “None”, eight percent responded one, 14% responded 2 – 4, three percent was the response percentage for 5 -7 and 11+. Non-CRCJ majors reported as follows concerning undetected criminal activity: six percent responded 2 – 4, 5 – 7, and 11+. None of the non-CRCJ majors responded “None” or one.

The last nominal question in Table 4.11 asked what punishment philosophy the respondents believed to be the most adequate (question 31). This question was asked of all subjects. CRCJ majors reported the following responses; 11% incapacitation, 35% rehabilitation, 23% retribution, 21% deterrence, and 11% restorative. Non-CRCJ majors responded as follows: 29% incapacitation, 18% rehabilitation, 12% retribution, and 41% deterrence, while none of the non-CRCJ majors selected restorative as a response.

Much like the nominal finding according to gender, CRCJ majors felt that rehabilitation was the most appropriate punishment philosophy. This again does not traditionally go along with the theories that were chosen by this group to explain criminal behavior. The non-CRCJ majors selected deterrence as their punishment philosophy, in this case it does fit better with the theories this group used to explain criminal activity.

Table 4.11 Nominal Responses: Majors

Question	Responses Given	Response Percentages	
		CRCJ	Non-CRCJ
18. Most criminal activity occurs in what age group?	14 – 25 Years Old	88	82
	26 – 37 Years Old	8	18
19. Have you ever committed a criminal offense that resulted in a conviction?	Yes	8	6
	No	92	94
20. Have you ever committed a criminal offense that went undiscovered (never caught)?	Yes	38	12
	No	59	82
22. What was the punishment you received?	Probation	5	N/A
	Deferred Adjudication	5	N/A
	None – Undiscovered	30	18
27. What age were you when you committed the criminal offense in question 21?	Under 13 Years Old	6	6
	14 – 25 Years Old	33	12
28. How many prior convictions do you have?	None	35	18
	1	5	N/A
29. How many prior undiscovered criminal acts have you committed?	None	14	N/A
	1	8	N/A
	2 – 4	14	6
	5 – 7	3	6
	11 +	3	6
31. Which philosophy of punishment is most appropriate?	Incapacitation	11	29
	Rehabilitation	35	18
	Retribution	23	12
	Deterrence	21	41
	Restorative	11	N/A

In the next chapter the author will provide a discussion based on the findings reported in this chapter. This discussion will include: inductive theoretical integration, support for integration, approaching a general theory, implications, future research, and limitations of this study. This chapter will conclude with a brief conclusion

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

This chapter will present a discussion based on the author's reflections of the outcomes of this study. The primary focus of this discussion will concern the presentation of inductive theoretical integration, based on the findings presented in Table 4.2 (p. 76). Other areas this discussion will cover will include: support of theoretical integration, approaching a general theory, implications, future research, limitations of this study, and perceived knowledge of theoretical integration. This chapter will end with a brief conclusion.

#### 5.1 Inductive Theoretical Integration

This section builds upon the findings as reported in Table 4.2 (p. 76). The findings according to Table 4.2 are once again reported, in a more concise form in Table 5.1. The most prevalent criminal behavior was determined, by the respondents, to be drug-related crimes. It is important to note that this finding is from the data set as a whole. The following theories were used to explain that criminal behavior: rational

Table 5.1 Theoretical Explanations for Drug-Related Crimes

<b>Prevalent Criminal Behavior in Society</b>	<b>Theoretical Explanations</b>
Drug-related crime	Rational Choice Theory
	Hedonistic Calculus
	Differential Opportunity Theory

choice theory, hedonistic calculus, and differential opportunity. Using the up-and down theoretical integration method proposed by Hirschi (1979), the following is what the author believes inductive integration of these three theories should look like. The author chose to use Hirschi's (1979) up-and-down method because it allows for the raising of the level of abstraction in order to link the single theories together. Figure 5.1 illustrates the theoretical integration for this study.

### 5.1.1. A Story Concerning Drug-Related Crimes Using Theoretical Integration

Building off of Figure 5.1, this section will integrate the theories with the goal being to provide a more complete understanding of drug-related crimes, as compared to each what each single theory on its own could explain. Once again the theories being used are rational choice theory, as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986); hedonistic calculus, as articulated by Jeremy Bentham (1780/1988); and differential opportunity theory, as developed by Cloward and Ohlin (1960).

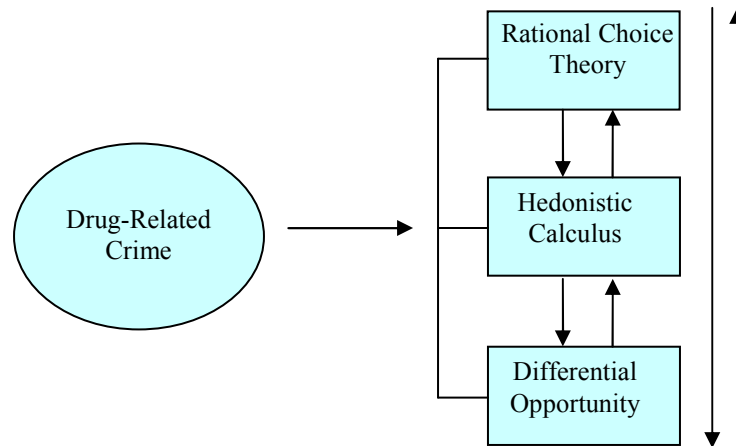


Figure 5.1 Inductive Theoretical Integration: Up-and-Down

The first theory is rational choice theory. It is important to review the assumptions of this theory before attempting to use it for an understanding of drug-related crimes. According to Cornish and Clarke (1986), the following are the assumptions of rational choice theory:

1. Benefit of Offending
2. Making of Decisions & Choices
  - a. Criminal Involvement
  - b. Criminal Event
3. Limits of Time, Ability, and Available Information

Drug-related crimes, then, are committed because the offenders see a potential benefit to committing these offenses. These benefits can be used to explain the actions of dealers, as well as users. The dealer perceives monetary reward through the sale of the drugs, whereas the user perceives the benefit drugs will directly have for them.

From this perspective, the benefits of the criminal activity are not the only factor causing a drug-related offense. The next step involves the making of rational choices with respect to the criminal act. Decisions and choices will be made prior, during, and, potentially, after committing the criminal offense. The decisions and choices made might at times seem rudimentary, but do still involve a measure of rationality (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). This means that, when using hindsight, the actions of the drug offender may seem to be irrational, but are in fact rational, because decisions and choices were made. This “diminished” level of rationality is in accordance with the assumptions of rational choice theory as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986).

The decisions can be broken down into two subsections criminal: involvement and event decisions (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). The planning and decision making engaged in during the criminal involvement phase might last for some time and will include all decisions up to the actual criminal event (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). This can include, but not limited to, dry runs to determine potential benefits and risk, or detailed planning which might aid in the successful completion of the crime. When it comes time to commit the actual crime, the criminal event stage comes into play (Cornish & Clarke, 1986). It is important to remember that decisions and choices made by the offender might not seem to be all that rational or to have been carried out with much planning. This is because rationality has some limits to it, namely, time, ability, and information (Cornish & Clarke, 1986).

The ability of the offender will limit what types of decisions and choices are made. An experienced drug dealer will be able to rely on past experiences when making choices concerning their dealing behaviors. This is also true of the user. Experienced users know where to buy drugs, or who to buy them from, thereby potentially limiting their chances of being caught. The novice user might not have the needed experience or knowledge to prevent arrest. Also, the decisions and choices concerning location to use may allow the more experienced user to escape detection.

In accordance with rational choice theory both the experienced and novice drug offender need to obtain information concerning their criminal activity. If the relevant information is not fast in coming, or is not available, then they may get caught. The offender will need all this information to make the decisions and choices needed to

commit a drug-related offense. This available information might not be all of the information needed to successfully complete a drug transaction, but it is all the offender has at the time.

When applying the assumptions of rational choice theory, as proposed by Cornish and Clarke (1986), to drug-related crimes a rational offender begins to emerge. This is potentially done by exploring the choice to commit, potential benefit to the offender, and the making of decisions and choices. This rational offender will have limits of time, ability, and information. Rational choice theory is not the only theory being used to explain drug offending in this study. The next perspective is Bentham's (1780/1988) hedonistic calculus.

Jeremy Bentham's hedonistic calculus was intended to be a tool for lawmakers to better understand why an individual commits criminal acts (Bentham, 1780/1988). The main concept of the hedonistic calculus is the pleasure/pain dyad (Bentham, 1780/1988). In other words, the theoretical assumption is that a person will want to maximize their pleasure and minimize their pain (Bentham, 1780/1988; Brown et al., 2001).

The drug offender will conduct a calculation which aids them in choosing to commit a drug crime. If the potential benefits outweigh the potential cost, then criminal activity is likely to occur. Perhaps the drug dealer sees the monetary profit of their criminal activity as outweighing any potential punishment. Similarly, the user may perceive the pleasure resulting from drug use as greater than any potential punishment. They may know, for example, that police presence in the area is low, hence leading to a

low risk of punishment. Also, the threatened punishment may not be enough to deter i.e., the pain inflicted by the punishment does not outweigh the pleasure obtained by the drug use. Furthermore, if the drug user uses the drug inside their home, the chances of being caught decrease. It might be that in the end, the benefit of drug use is pretty much certain, meaning that pleasure is guaranteed while punishment is not.

Although the drug offender uses rational choice theory and the hedonistic calculus to aid in their criminal activity, these theories once again, do not offer the whole story concerning the drug offense. The third theory used in this integration is differential opportunity theory, created by Cloward and Ohlin in 1960.

Differential opportunity theory, according to Cloward and Ohlin (1960), assumes the following:

1. Criminal activity will center upon the urban lower class;
2. Legitimate opportunities will be blocked;
3. Delinquents will then form subcultures

When the urban lower class individual attempts to better themselves via legitimate means they often find they are not available to them. All that remains are illegitimate means to survive or at least to make life bearable. In the case of the drug user, this means finding other users and grouping together.

The individuals in this situation form the retreatist subculture (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960). They group together because they have failed at finding other ways to make it in the world. Legitimate means are not all that is blocked for the members of the retreatist subculture. These individuals are further unable to join the criminal or conflict



subcultures, in other words, not only are legitimate means blocked, but also more desirable illegitimate means. In the end, their frustrations lead them to use drugs to escape from reality (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960).

The above helps to explain the drug user, but what about the drug dealer? This subculture has to survive and this might mean that some members will resort to selling drugs. Those who become dealers will bring in needed income. This in turn will allow the retreatist subculture to purchase more or better drugs which in the end promotes the main goal of this subculture, escape from reality. The selling of drugs will only be at a level to maintain the subculture and not to make a profit. Hence this activity will conform to the evolution in 'minor hustles' as stated by Cloward and Ohlin (1960).

The individual then acts in accordance with the assumptions of rational choice theory, hedonistic calculus, and differential opportunity theory to commit a drug-related crime. The offender will commit this offense by first planning it out and deciding then to go ahead. All of which might not seem wise, but is done with the goal of obtaining profit from selling, or pleasure from using the drugs. The fact is that a calculation will occur, pertaining to the pleasures and pains of committing a drug offense.

The offender takes part in this criminal offense as a consequence of being a member of a larger group dedicated to using and selling drugs. In fact, the use and sale of drugs are encouraged by other members of the group, insofar as they need to have a steady supply of drugs. This is done so that the members escape, or attempt to escape, what they perceive as the miserable situation of their lower class urban lives.

### *5.1.2. The Story of Drug-Related Crimes Conclusion*

The above story is obtained through up-and-down integration, as conceptualized by Hirschi (1979). While any of the approaches to theoretical integration could have been utilized, this was chosen because of the latitude it provided. This form of integration allows the theories to be combined, even if they do not seem to fit together. If the effort to integrate theory is to continue and get stronger, this form might have to be used more often.

### 5.2 Supporting Integration: Yes or No

This study supports both theoretical integration and single theory explanations. Integration was used by the respondents to explain drug crimes committed by a third person. At the same time a single theory was used, by the respondents, to explain their criminal activity. What does this possibly mean for theoretical criminology? In both cases, the findings indicate that, at most, a quarter of criminal behavior could be explained by either theoretical technique. Theories that seem old or based on assumptions of days past, might still be relevant today. Age by itself is no valid ground for the dismissal of a theoretical scheme.

The inductive techniques used by this study perhaps might allow for new and meaningful integration models to be created. These models might not have been created if the researcher pre-selected the theories used for integration. On the other hand, one should not rush to integrate theories merely for the sake of fashionable integration. If anything, this study showed that single theory explanations are still

fruitfully applied nowadays. For it was a single theory explanation which was used to explain the respondents' self-reported criminal behavior.

### 5.3 Approaching a General Theory of Crime

While this statement is included in the title of this thesis, this study does not add support or take away from the concept of having a general theory of crime. What this study shows are the potential problems of obtaining a general theory. First, if integration only covers twenty-five percent, how 'general' will a general theory be? The second issue concerns the concept of theoretical reductionism. How would criminologists know that enough testing has been completed on a single theory to justify reductionism? This study showed that theories based on concepts which helped establish the classical paradigm, may still be valid today.

Any general theory could have the problem of temporality. This is also an issue of this study. If major ways of thinking about criminality change, then the theories used to explain criminal behavior might also change. While this study found support for rational choice, if replicated ten years from now, different theories could be used by respondents to explain the same behavior. Instead of attempting to reduce the number of existing theories, perhaps all the theories need to be viewed as offering a piece of the greater puzzle.

### 5.4 Implications

In this section, the author will present the implications this study could possibly have concerning policy and education. These implications are based on the author's reflections concerning the findings of this study (see Chapter Four).

#### 5.4.1. Policy Implications

Policy implications based on this study would suggest the use of strong deterrence along with investment in opportunity. Figure 5.2 illustrates the application of the theories used in this study in creating a policy to combat drug-related crimes. RCT and the hedonistic calculus (HC) both call for deterrence. The use of deterrence would occur on two levels: pure and applied, hence *strong deterrence*.

Pure hedonistic calculus would be a tool available for lawmakers to ensure deterrence is written into the law. This is what hedonistic calculus was originally conceived to be, a guide for lawmakers (Bentham, 1780/1988). When the law is applied, it would have to be done so as to enforce the value of deterrence. Since RCT assumes that those committing crime do so because they are rational, policy makers need to ensure that deterrence is a key part of any action taken.

The next needed tool to aid in the prevention of drug-related crime is an investment in opportunity. Differential opportunity theory states that those who join the retreatist gang do so because they are *double failures* (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960). This means that investment in opportunity needs to occur on multiple levels. First, the retreatist gang individuals would have to be given the opportunity to leave drugs behind. At the same time, they would have to reject the opportunity to join a criminal or conflict gang. Members of the retreatist subculture would have opportunity to join the criminal or conflict gangs since investment in opportunity would also allow them to seek legitimate means. It is important to create ample opportunity so that retreatist

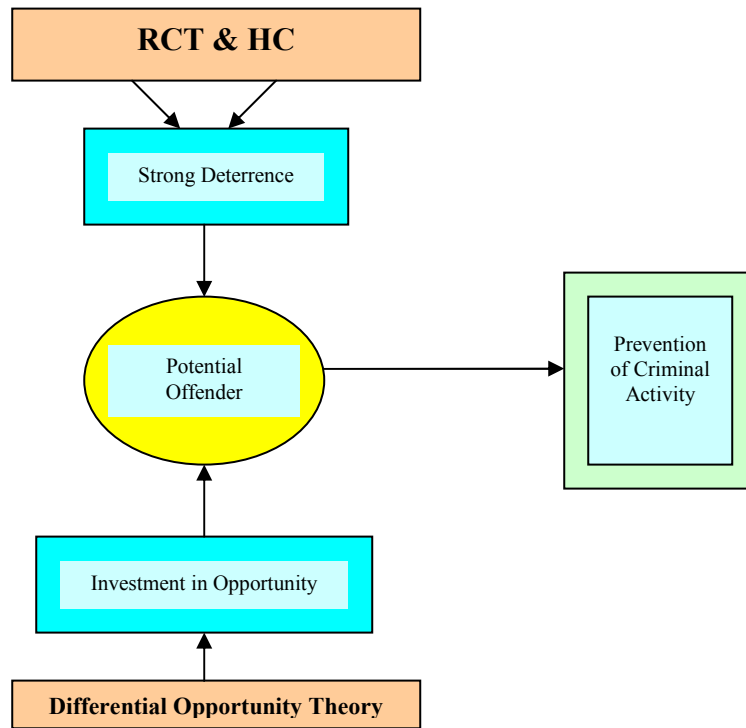


Figure 5.2 Crime Prevention Policy Using This Study

members would not fill the void with illegitimate opportunities. Legitimate opportunities would have to be implemented as to move those in the retreatist gang directly to social acceptable opportunities and not to allow drift into the criminal or conflict subcultures.

If and when the laws are made and applied with an emphasis on deterrence, along with investment in opportunities, the outcome could be a weakening of criminal tendencies. This, in the end, is in fact a major goal of criminal justice policy. A major issue concerning the implementation of Figure 5.2 is taking the pure and transforming it into the applied. If deterrence is not emphasized then half of the model would fail. The

same is true concerning investment in opportunities. This model shows there are multiple areas that have to be addressed in order to prevent criminal behavior.

#### *5.4.2. Education Implications*

Theoretical integration is often one of the last subjects discussed in criminology courses. Depending on the text used, the amount of attention this section gets varies. What this study does support is that knowledge concerning theoretical integration is not readily available. This study used Criminology and Criminal Justice classes and did not find a high level of knowledge of theoretical integration. Perhaps this subject should get more attention, since it was used to explain criminal behavior of a third person.

When teaching the techniques of integration, it may be wise to allow the students to choose the theories and manner of integration. This could promote integration and allow for a more rounded student. Also this method would promote knowledge concerning individual theories. The student would have to master the assumptions of each theory, and actually devise a procedure to fit them together. Theoretical integration has an unlimited potential and perhaps unlocking it begins in the classroom

#### 5.5 Future Research

The author, in this section, will suggest a direction for future research. First, the original conception of this study will be discussed. Next, ways will be suggested for other researchers to take this study and expand on it.

### *5.5.1. Original Conception*

This study ended up very differently from its original blueprint. Mostly, the difference was due to feasibility. As originally conceived, the subjects would have been prisoners and non-incarcerated individuals. Prisoners would be allowed to choose reasons explaining their criminal activity. The same type of questions used in this study could be used again. Once these data were obtained, another survey would be implemented, based on the criminal behavior and theories used by the prisoners. This survey would be given to a non-incarcerated sample thus allowing a comparison of rationalizations given of the criminal behavior engaged in by individuals.

Those not incarcerated make policy concerning those incarcerated. If these two groups are not in agreement concerning the reasons why a person commits a criminal act, a potential exists for poor treatment or programming which would be ineffective. If those making policy understood why those convicted of a crime committed that act, better policy could be enacted. These policies then might get closer to actually aiding the offender and preparing them for their release and reintegration in society.

### *5.5.2. This Study & Beyond*

First, this study should be replicated. This perhaps should occur on two levels. The first level should be the study as is, to determine if the theories used by college students are supported in another population. The next level would be to take the findings of this study and test them to determine if the theories and criminal behavior obtained are supported when tested alone. Basically, both the integrative findings and the single theory findings need to be further elaborated.

Beyond this study, other theoretical studies should also use inductive research for the purpose of discovering the theories laypersons apply to criminality. Why should criminologist care what the layperson feels about the causes of criminal behavior? The layperson is most likely not concerned with which theoretical perspectives are supported or reduced. Furthermore, the layperson might introduce integrative models which an experienced researcher would not. This perhaps could be due to biases which the theorist may have concerning which theories they want to test. This is almost certainly not true of the layperson. Since researchers have been unable to obtain a general theory on their own, perhaps bringing in outside assistance could provide a new perspective.

#### 5.6 Limitations

The first limitation of this study surrounds the form of integration used, namely, up-and-down. Hirschi (1979) offered criticisms for this form of integration and those criticisms apply to the present study (see page 15). By using college students, the findings cannot be generalized to the general population. The translation of survey responses into theories is also an area obviously vulnerable to criticism. However, for instance, until criminologists come together and make a list of theories and assumptions which all can agree to, it will fall upon researchers to translate their responses into theories.

#### 5.7 Conclusion

The author's aim was to provide a comprehensive review of theoretical integration. If only for a moment this study makes the reader think about theoretical



integration, then this study accomplished its goal. The most this study could hope for is that it will motivate others to test single and integrated theories, thus contributing to an improvement in the body of knowledge.

The author further recommends that criminology might have to split into two parts: 1) theory creators and, 2) theory testers. By separating criminologists into two groups, potentially un-biased theory testing could occur. This in turn might make theoretical falsification more practical, in the end reducing the number of existing theories.

This study unlike others before it did not choose which theories to integrate prior to testing. This caused a split, in the findings, both single theory and theoretical integration were used to explain criminal behavior. Single theory explanations and testing seem to be alive and well and should continue. At the same time, theoretical integration through induction should not be discounted. Instead of competing against each other, single-theory testing and theoretical integration should be used together to obtain a better understanding of criminal behavior in society. In the end, a better understanding of criminal behavior is what theoretical criminology is all about.

APPENDIX A

CRIMINOLOGICAL PARADIGMS: ACCORDING TO BOHM & HALEY

<b>Classical and Neoclassical</b>			
<b>Theories</b>	<b>Theorists</b>	<b>Causes</b>	<b>Policy Implications</b>
	Beccaria	Free-willed individuals commit crime because they rationally calculate that crime will give them more pleasure than pain.	Deterrence: Establish social contract. Enact laws that are clear, simple, unbiased, and reflect the consensus of the population. Impose punishments that are proportionate to the crime, prompt, certain, public, necessary, the least possible in the given circumstances, and dictated by law, not judges' discretion. Educate the public. Eliminate corruption from the administration of justice. Reward virtue.
<b>Positivist</b>			
<b>Theories</b>	<b>Theorists</b>	<b>Causes</b>	<b>Policy Implications</b>
<b>Biological</b>			
	Lombroso, Sheldon	Biological inferiority or biochemical processes cause people to commit crimes.	Isolate, sterilize, or execute offenders. For specific problems, brain surgery, chemical treatment, improved diets, and better mother and child health care.
<b>Psychological</b>			
Intelligence	Goddard	Mental inferiority (low IQ) causes people to commit crimes.	Isolate, sterilize, or execute offenders.
Psychoanalytic	Freud	Crime is a symptom of more deep-seated problems.	Provide psychotherapy or psychoanalysis.
Humanistic	Maslow Halleck	Crime is a means by which individuals can satisfy their basic human needs (Maslow). Crime is an adaptation to helplessness caused by oppression (Halleck).	Help people satisfy their basic needs legally (Maslow). Eliminate sources of oppression. Provide legal ways of coping with feelings of helplessness caused by oppression; psychotherapy (Halleck).
<b>Sociological</b>			
Durkheim	Durkheim	Crime is a social fact. It is a "normal" aspect of society, although different types of societies should have greater or lesser degrees of it. Crime is also functional for society.	Contain crime within reasonable boundaries.
Chicago School	Park, Burgess, Shaw, McKay	Delinquency is caused by detachment from conventional groups, which is caused by social disorganization.	Organize and empower neighborhood residents.

Figure A.1 Criminological Paradigms-Part One: Bohm and Haley (2002, p. 71)

Theories	Theorists	Causes	Policy Implications
Anomie or strain	Merton, Cohen	For Merton, it is the contradiction between cultural goals and the social structure's capacity to provide the institutionalized means to achieve those goals. For Cohen and gang delinquency, it is caused by an inability to conform to middle-class values and to achieve status among peers legally.	Reduce aspirations. Increase legitimate opportunities. Do both.
Learning	Tarde, Sutherland, Burgess, Akers, Jeffery	Crime is committed because it is positively reinforced, negatively reinforced, or imitated.	Provide law-abiding models. Regulate association. Eliminate crime's rewards. Reward law-abiding behavior. Punish criminal behavior effectively.
Control	Reiss, Toby, Nye, Reckless, Hirschi	Crime is a result of improper socialization.	Properly socialize children so that they develop self-control and a strong moral bond to society.
Critical			
Theories	Theorists	Causes	Policy Implications
Labeling	Lemert	Does not explain the initial cause of crime and delinquency (primary deviance); explains only secondary deviance with the acceptance of a criminal label.	Do not label. Employ radical nonintervention. Employ reintegrative shaming.
Conflict	Vold, Turk	Crime is caused by relative powerlessness.	Dominant groups give up power to subordinate groups. Dominant groups become more effective rulers and subordinate groups better subjects.
Radical	Quinney, Chambliss, Platt	Competition among wealthy people and among poor people as well as between rich and poor (the class struggle) and the practice of taking advantage of other people cause crime.	Define crime as a violation of basic human rights. Replace the criminal justice system with "popular" or "socialist" justice. Create a socialist society appreciative of human diversity.
British or Left Realism	Young	Directs attention to the fear and victimization experienced by working-class individuals.	Employ police power to protect people living in working-class communities.
Peacemaking	Quinney, Pepinsky	Same as radical (different prescription for change).	Transform human beings so that they are able to experience empathy with those less fortunate and respond to other people's needs. Reduce hierarchical structures. Create communities of caring people. Champion universal social justice.
Feminist theory	Daly, Chesney-Lind, Simpson	Patriarchy (men's control over women's labor and sexuality) is the cause of crime.	Abolish patriarchal structures and relationships. Champion greater equality for women in all areas.
Postmodernism	Henry, Milovanovic	The denial of responsibility for other people and to other people.	Similar to peacemaking criminal theory.

Figure A.2 Criminological Paradigms-Part Two: Bohm and Haley (2002, p. 72)

APPENDIX B

THE PYRAMID & PRISM OF CRIME

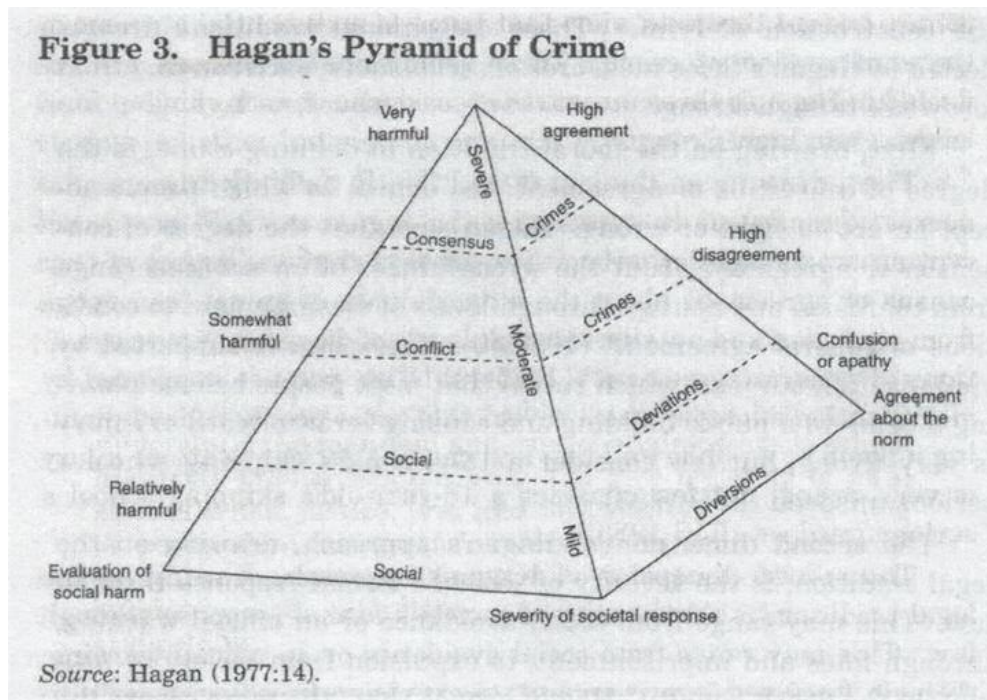


Figure B.1 Pyramid of Crime: Henry and Lanier (1998, p. 618)

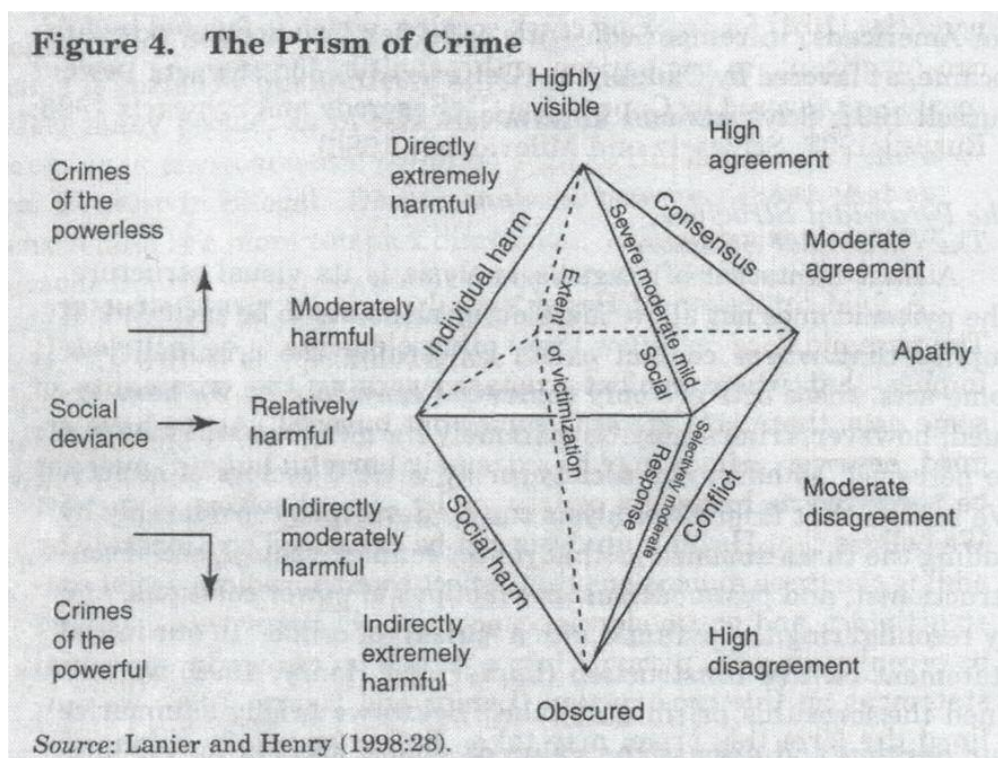


Figure B.2 Prism of Crime: Henry and Lanier (1998, p. 622)

APPENDIX C

MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Knowledge Questions

1. Criminological theories are used to better understand criminal behavior.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

2. Criminological theoretical integration started with the work of Jeremy Bentham.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

3. Theoretical integration served as the dominate paradigm (school of thought) during the late eighteenth to the late nineteenth century.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

4. Theoretical integration is defined (more or less) as the process of combining two or more theories to obtain a better understanding of criminal behavior.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

5. Hirschi, in 1979, proposed ways to approach theoretical integration in criminology.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

6. Hirschi is known as the “father of theoretical integration” concerning criminology.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

7. The study conducted by Shaw & McKay (1942) is now regarded as an early attempt at theoretical integration.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

8. *An essay on crimes and punishments* was the first study completed using theoretical integration to better explain criminality.





- a. Free will/they chose to
- b. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment
- c. Family history of criminal behavior
- d. Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life
- e. Built up aggression
- f. Grew up in a “bad” area
- g. Taught by another “how to” commit crime
- h. Wanted something but could not get it any other way
- i. Reaction to unjust laws
- j. The rich usually get away with it
- k. Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity
- l. Imitated someone they knew
- m. Could not mentally cope with what was going on
- n. Fitting in with gang/group they “hung out” with
- o. Was told that it was “OK” to do
- p. Someone else’s fault – would pass blame to others
- q. Always been involved in criminal activity
- r. There was a suitable target, offender was motivated, & there was a lack of capable guardians
- s. Other \_\_\_\_\_

13. What is a third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

- a. Free will/they chose to
- b. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment
- c. Family history of criminal behavior
- d. Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life
- e. Built up aggression
- f. Grew up in a “bad” area
- g. Taught by another “how to” commit crime
- h. Wanted something but could not get it any other way
- i. Reaction to unjust laws
- j. The rich usually get away with it
- k. Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity
- l. Imitated someone they knew
- m. Could not mentally cope with what was going on
- n. Fitting in with gang/group they “hung out” with
- o. Was told that it was “OK” to do
- p. Someone else’s fault – would pass blame to others
- q. Always been involved in criminal activity
- r. There was a suitable target, offender was motivated, & there was a lack of capable guardians
- s. Other \_\_\_\_\_



22. What was the punishment you received?

- a. Prison (Federal or State)
- b. Jail (State or Local)
- c. Probation
- d. Deferred Adjudication
- e. None – Crime not discovered
- f. Other \_\_\_\_\_

23. What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

- a. Free will/ I chose to
- b. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment
- c. Family history of criminal behavior
- d. Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life
- e. Built up aggression
- f. Grew up in a “bad” area
- g. Taught by another “how to” commit crime
- h. Wanted something but could not get it any other way
- i. Reaction to unjust laws
- j. The rich usually get away with it
- k. Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity
- l. Imitated someone I knew
- m. Could not mentally cope with what was going on
- n. Fitting in with gang/group I “hung out” with
- o. Was told that it was “OK” to do
- p. Someone else’s fault – Others are to blame/are responsible
- q. Always been involved in criminal activity
- r. There was a suitable target, I was motivated, & there was a lack of capable guardians
- s. Other \_\_\_\_\_

24. What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

- a. Free will/ I chose to
- b. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment
- c. Family history of criminal behavior
- d. Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life
- e. Built up aggression
- f. Grew up in a “bad” area
- g. Taught by another “how to” commit crime
- h. Wanted something but could not get it any other way
- i. Reaction to unjust laws
- j. The rich usually get away with it
- k. Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity
- l. Imitated someone I knew
- m. Could not mentally cope with what was going on
- n. Fitting in with gang/group I “hung out” with
- o. Was told that it was “OK” to do
- p. Someone else’s fault – Others are to blame/are responsible
- q. Always been involved in criminal activity
- r. There was a suitable target, I was motivated, & there was a lack of capable guardians
- s. Other \_\_\_\_\_

25. What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

- a. Free will/ I chose to
- b. Potential profit was greater than potential punishment
- c. Family history of criminal behavior
- d. Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life
- e. Built up aggression
- f. Grew up in a "bad" area
- g. Taught by another "how to" commit crime
- h. Wanted something but could not get it any other way
- i. Reaction to unjust laws
- j. The rich usually get away with it
- k. Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity
- l. Imitated someone I knew
- m. Could not mentally cope with what was going on
- n. Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with
- o. Was told that it was "OK" to do
- p. Someone else's fault – Others are to blame/are responsible
- q. Always been involved in criminal activity
- r. There was a suitable target, I was motivated, & there was a lack of capable guardians
- s. Other \_\_\_\_\_

26. I am afraid how others will label me as a "criminal" if I am truthful about my criminal activity.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

27. What age were you when you committed the criminal offense in question 21?

- a. Under 13
- b. 14 – 25
- c. 26 – 37
- d. 38 – 49
- e. 50+

28. How many prior convictions do you have?

- a. None
- b. 1
- c. 2 – 4
- d. 5 – 7
- e. 8 – 10
- f. 11+

29. How many prior undiscovered criminal acts have you committed?

- a. None
- b. 1
- c. 2 – 4
- d. 5 – 7
- e. 8 – 10
- f. 11+

30. Over time the criminal acts, I committed, became more serious.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

All Questions

31. Which philosophy of punishment is most appropriate?

- a. Incapacitation – lock'em up & throw away the key
- b. Rehabilitation – treatment and return to society
- c. Retribution – get even, eye for an eye
- d. Deterrence – keep the individual and others from doing
- e. Restorative – return situation to how is was prior

32. The only difference between me and “criminals” is that they were caught.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

33. If given the chance I would commit criminal acts.

Agree strongly Disagree strongly  
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Demographic Questions

34. Gender

- a. Male
- b. Female

35. Your racial/ethnic background

- a. Caucasian
- b. African American
- c. Hispanic
- d. Middle Eastern
- e. Asian
- f. Other

36. Current Age

- a. Less than 18
- b. 18 – 24
- c. 25 – 31
- d. 32 – 38
- e. 39+

37. What is your current classification at UTA?

- a. Freshman
- b. Sophomore
- c. Junior
- d. Senior
- e. Degreed-Undergraduate
- f. Graduate Student

38. What is your Major?

- a. Criminology & Criminal Justice
- b. History
- c. Political Science
- d. Biology
- e. Psychology
- f. Sociology
- g. Foreign Language
- h. Other \_\_\_\_\_

39. What is your GPA?

- a. No GPA
- b. Less than 2.0
- c. 2.0 - 2.5
- d. 2.6 - 3.0
- e. 3.1 - 4.0

APPENDIX D

SPSS DATA



**Un-Filtered Data:  
SPSS Tables: Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)**

Which type of criminal behavior is the most prevalent in society?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	46	52.3	54.1	54.1
	Property Crimes	30	34.1	35.3	89.4
	Violent Criminal Incidents	9	10.2	10.6	100.0
	Total	85	96.6	100.0	
Missing	-1	3	3.4		
Total		88	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Property Crimes**

What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	7	23.3	26.9	26.9
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	8	26.7	30.8	57.7
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	3.3	3.8	61.5
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	10	33.3	38.5	100.0
	Total	26	86.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	4	13.3		
Total		30	100.0		

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	5	16.7	18.5	18.5
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	3	10.0	11.1	29.6
	Built up aggression	1	3.3	3.7	33.3
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	3	10.0	11.1	44.4
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	5	16.7	18.5	63.0
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	2	6.7	7.4	70.4
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	3.3	3.7	74.1
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	2	6.7	7.4	81.5
	Always been involved in criminal activity	2	6.7	7.4	88.9
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	3	10.0	11.1	100.0
	Total	27	90.0	100.0	
Missing	-1	3	10.0		
Total		30	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	5	16.7	17.9	17.9
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	4	13.3	14.3	32.1
	Grew up in "bad" area	2	6.7	7.1	39.3
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	3.3	3.6	42.9
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	8	26.7	28.6	71.4
	Reaction to unjust laws	1	3.3	3.6	75.0
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	2	6.7	7.1	82.1
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	3	10.0	10.7	92.9
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	1	3.3	3.6	96.4
	Other	1	3.3	3.6	100.0
	Total	28	93.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	6.7		
Total		30	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents**

**What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	2	22.2	22.2	22.2
	Built up aggression	3	33.3	33.3	55.6
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	11.1	11.1	66.7
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	22.2	22.2	88.9
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	9	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	2	22.2	25.0	25.0
	Family history of criminal behavior	1	11.1	12.5	37.5
	Built up aggression	1	11.1	12.5	50.0
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	2	22.2	25.0	75.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	11.1	12.5	87.5
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	1	11.1	12.5	100.0
	Total	8	88.9	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	11.1		
Total		9	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	2	22.2	28.6	28.6
	Family history of criminal behavior	1	11.1	14.3	42.9
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	11.1	14.3	57.1
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	1	11.1	14.3	71.4
	Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	11.1	14.3	85.7
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	1	11.1	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	77.8	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	22.2		
Total		9	100.0		

## Self-Reported Criminal Behavior

What type of criminal offense did you commit?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	7	8.0	29.2	29.2
	Property Crime	14	15.9	58.3	87.5
	Violence Criminal Act	3	3.4	12.5	100.0
	Total	24	27.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	64	72.7		
Total		88	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Drug-Related Crime

What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	5	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	28.6	28.6	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	3	42.9	50.0	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	14.3	16.7	66.7
	Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	14.3	16.7	83.3
	Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with	1	14.3	16.7	100.0
	Total	6	85.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	14.3		
Total		7	100.0		

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	28.6	40.0	40.0
	Was told it was "OK" to do	1	14.3	20.0	60.0
	Someone else's fault - Others are to blame/are responsible	1	14.3	20.0	80.0
	Other	1	14.3	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	71.4	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	28.6		
Total		7	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Act**

**What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life	1	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Built up aggression	1	33.3	33.3	66.7
	Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	33.3	33.3	66.7
	Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**Filtered Data:  
SPSS Tables: Gender (Males)  
Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)**

**Which type of criminal behavior is the most prevalent in society?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	24	60.0	61.5	61.5
	Property Crimes	12	30.0	30.8	92.3
	Violent Criminal Incidents	3	7.5	7.7	100.0
	Total	39	97.5	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	2.5		
Total		40	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Property Crimes

What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	5	41.7	50.0	50.0
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	3	25.0	30.0	80.0
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	2	16.7	20.0	100.0
	Total	10	83.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	16.7		
Total		12	100.0		

What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	2	16.7	20.0	20.0
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	8.3	10.0	30.0
	Built up aggression	1	8.3	10.0	40.0
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	8.3	10.0	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	16.7	20.0	70.0
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	2	16.7	20.0	90.0
	Always been involved in criminal activity	1	8.3	10.0	100.0
	Total	10	83.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	16.7		
Total		12	100.0		



**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	3	25.0	27.3	27.3
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	8.3	9.1	36.4
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	4	33.3	36.4	72.7
	Reaction to unjust laws	1	8.3	9.1	81.8
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	2	16.7	18.2	100.0
	Total	11	91.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	8.3		
Total		12	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents**

**What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Grew up in "bad" area	1	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	66.7	66.7	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	2	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	1	33.3	50.0	50.0
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	1	33.3	50.0	100.0
	Total	2	66.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	33.3		
Total		3	100.0		

**SPSS Tables: Gender (Females)  
Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)**

**Which type of criminal behavior is the most prevalent in society?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	22	46.8	48.9	48.9
	Property Crimes	17	36.2	37.8	86.7
	Violent Criminal Incidents	6	12.8	13.3	100.0
	Total	45	95.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	4.3		
Total		47	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Property Crimes

What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	1	5.9	6.7	6.7
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	5	29.4	33.3	40.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	5.9	6.7	46.7
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	8	47.1	53.3	100.0
	Total	15	88.2	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	11.8		
Total		17	100.0		

What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	3	17.6	18.8	18.8
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	2	11.8	12.5	31.3
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	2	11.8	12.5	43.8
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	3	17.6	18.8	62.5
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	1	5.9	6.3	68.8
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	5.9	6.3	75.0
	Always been involved in criminal activity	1	5.9	6.3	81.3
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	3	17.6	18.8	100.0
	Total	16	94.1	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	5.9		
Total		17	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	5	29.4	31.3	31.3
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	5.9	6.3	37.5
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	5.9	6.3	43.8
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	5.9	6.3	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	3	17.6	18.8	68.8
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	2	11.8	12.5	81.3
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	1	5.9	6.3	87.5
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	1	5.9	6.3	93.8
	Other	1	5.9	6.3	100.0
	Total	16	94.1	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	5.9		
Total		17	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents**

**What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	2	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Built up aggression	3	50.0	50.0	83.3
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	6	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Family history of criminal behavior	1	16.7	20.0	20.0
	Built up aggression	1	16.7	20.0	40.0
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	16.7	20.0	60.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	16.7	20.0	80.0
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	1	16.7	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	83.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	16.7		
Total		6	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	1	16.7	20.0	20.0
	Family history of criminal behavior	1	16.7	20.0	40.0
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	16.7	20.0	60.0
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	1	16.7	20.0	80.0
	Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	16.7	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	83.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	16.7		
Total		6	100.0		

## Self-Reported Criminal Activity: Gender (Males)

What type of criminal offense did you commit?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	4	10.0	28.6	28.6
	Property Crime	8	20.0	57.1	85.7
	Violence Criminal Act	2	5.0	14.3	100.0
	Total	14	35.0	100.0	
Missing	-1	26	65.0		
Total		40	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Drug-Related Crimes Self-Reported: Gender (Males)

What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	4	100.0	100.0	

What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	25.0	25.0	75.0
	Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	1	25.0	33.3	33.3
	Was told it was "OK" to do	1	25.0	33.3	66.7
	Someone else's fault - Others are to blame/are responsible	1	25.0	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	75.0	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	25.0		
Total		4	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Act  
Self-Reported: Gender (Males)**

**What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	1	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	2	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life	1	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Built up aggression	1	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	2	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	2	100.0	100.0	

## Self-Reported Criminal Activity: Gender (Females)

What type of criminal offense did you commit?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	2	4.3	22.2	22.2
	Property Crime	6	12.8	66.7	88.9
	Violence Criminal Act	1	2.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	9	19.1	100.0	
Missing	-1	38	80.9		
Total		47	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Drug-Related Crime Self-Reported: Gender (Females)

What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	100.0	100.0	100.0

What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	1	50.0	100.0	100.0
Missing	-1	1	50.0		
Total		2	100.0		



**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will / I chose to	1	50.0	100.0	100.0
Missing -1	1	50.0		
Total	2	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents  
Self-Reported: Gender (Females)**

**What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will / I chose to	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**SPSS Tables**  
**Filtered Data: Major (CRCJ)**  
**Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)**

Which type of criminal behavior is the most prevalent in society?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	31	47.0	49.2	49.2
	Property Crimes	24	36.4	38.1	87.3
	Violent Criminal Incidents	8	12.1	12.7	100.0
	Total	63	95.5	100.0	
Missing	-1	3	4.5		
Total		66	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Property Crimes (CRCJ)**

What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	6	25.0	27.3	27.3
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	7	29.2	31.8	59.1
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	4.2	4.5	63.6
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	8	33.3	36.4	100.0
	Total	22	91.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	8.3		
Total		24	100.0		

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	5	20.8	22.7	22.7
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	3	12.5	13.6	36.4
	Built up aggression	1	4.2	4.5	40.9
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	2	8.3	9.1	50.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	4	16.7	18.2	68.2
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	2	8.3	9.1	77.3
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	4.2	4.5	81.8
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	1	4.2	4.5	86.4
	Always been involved in criminal activity	1	4.2	4.5	90.9
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	2	8.3	9.1	100.0
	Total	22	91.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	8.3		
Total		24	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	4	16.7	17.4	17.4
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	4	16.7	17.4	34.8
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	4.2	4.3	39.1
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	4.2	4.3	43.5
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	6	25.0	26.1	69.6
	Reaction to unjust laws	1	4.2	4.3	73.9
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	2	8.3	8.7	82.6
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	3	12.5	13.0	95.7
	Other	1	4.2	4.3	100.0
	Total	23	95.8	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	4.2		
Total		24	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents (CRCJ)**

**What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	1	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Built up aggression	3	37.5	37.5	50.0
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	12.5	12.5	62.5
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	25.0	25.0	87.5
	Was told that it was "OK" to do	1	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	8	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	2	25.0	33.3	33.3
	Grew up in "bad" area	1	12.5	16.7	50.0
	Pushed by others to commit pulled into criminal activity	1	12.5	16.7	66.7
	Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	12.5	16.7	83.3
	Fitting in with gang/group they "hung out" with	1	12.5	16.7	100.0
	Total	6	75.0	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	25.0		
Total		8	100.0		

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	2	25.0	28.6	28.6
	Family history of criminal behavior	1	12.5	14.3	42.9
	Taught by another "how to" commit crime	2	25.0	28.6	71.4
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	12.5	14.3	85.7
	suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	1	12.5	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	87.5	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	12.5		
Total		8	100.0		

## Filtered Data: Major (Non-CRCJ) Prevalent Criminal Behavior (society)

Which type of criminal behavior is the most prevalent in society?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Drug-Related Crime	11	64.7	64.7	64.7
Property Crimes	5	29.4	29.4	94.1
Violent Criminal Incidents	1	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	17	100.0	100.0	

## Theories Used to Explain Property Crimes (Non-CRCJ)

What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will/they chose to	1	20.0	33.3	33.3
Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	20.0	33.3	66.7
suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	1	20.0	33.3	100.0
Total	3	60.0	100.0	
Missing -1	2	40.0		
Total	5	100.0		

What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Taught by another "how to" commit crime	1	20.0	25.0	25.0
Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	20.0	25.0	50.0
Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	1	20.0	25.0	75.0
suitable target, offender motivated, & lack of capable guardians	1	20.0	25.0	100.0
Total	4	80.0	100.0	
Missing -1	1	20.0		
Total	5	100.0		

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Grew up in "bad" area	1	20.0	25.0	25.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	40.0	50.0	75.0
	Someone else's fault - would pass blame to others	1	20.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	80.0	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	20.0		
Total		5	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Incidents (Non-CRCJ)**

**What is the primary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will/they chose to	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**What is the secondary reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Built up aggression	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**What is the third reason a person commits the type of crime selected in question 10?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Family history of criminal behavior	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

**Filtered Data: Major (CRCJ)  
Self-Reported Criminal Activity**

**What type of criminal offense did you commit?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Drug-Related Crime	6	9.1	28.6	28.6
	Property Crime	12	18.2	57.1	85.7
	Violence Criminal Act	3	4.5	14.3	100.0
	Total	21	31.8	100.0	
Missing	-1	45	68.2		
Total		66	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Drug-Related Crime  
Self-Reported (CRCJ)**

**What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	4	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	2	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	6	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	33.3	40.0	40.0
	Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	16.7	20.0	60.0
	Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	16.7	20.0	80.0
	Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with	1	16.7	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	83.3	100.0	
Missing	-1	1	16.7		
Total		6	100.0		



**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	1	16.7	25.0	25.0
	Was told it was "OK" to do	1	16.7	25.0	50.0
	Someone else's fault - Others are to blame/are responsible	1	16.7	25.0	75.0
	Other	1	16.7	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	66.7	100.0	
Missing	-1	2	33.3		
Total		6	100.0		

**Theories Used to Explain Violent Criminal Act Self-Reported (CRCJ)**

**What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Free will / I chose to	2	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Potential profit was greater than potential punishment	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Committed criminal act during a period of rapid change in my life	1	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Built up aggression	1	33.3	33.3	66.7
	Pushed by others to commit or pulled into criminal activity	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Wanted something but could not get it any other way	1	33.3	33.3	33.3
Could not mentally cope with what was going on	1	33.3	33.3	66.7
Fitting in with gang/group I "hung out" with	1	33.3	33.3	100.0
Total	3	100.0	100.0	

**Filtered Data: Major (Non-CRCJ)  
Self-Reported Criminal Activity**

**What type of criminal offense did you commit?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Drug-Related Crime	1	5.9	33.3	33.3
Property Crime	2	11.8	66.7	100.0
Total	3	17.6	100.0	
Missing	-1	14	82.4	
Total	17	100.0		

## Theories Used to Explain Drug-Related Crime Self-Reported: Major (Non-CRCJ)

What is the primary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will / I chose to	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

What is the secondary reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will / I chose to	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

What is the third reason you committed the type of crime in question 21?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Free will / I chose to	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

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