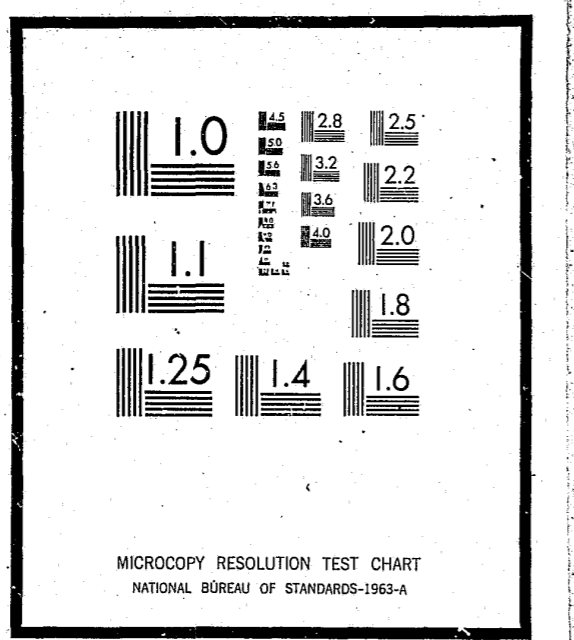


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FOREWORD

Social scientists estimate that between 600,000 and 1,000,000 young people left their homes last year. These youth are not from any one social class or section of the country. Rather, they represent a cross section of socio-economic and geographical characteristics.

Currently, the American people are going through a critical examination of the issues related to runaway youth. National attention is being focused on who they are, why they leave home and what they are seeking. In response, the Federal government is allocating additional funds to explore this problem. The ultimate goal is to understand the causal factors of the runaway problem in order to prevent youth from leaving home and to develop more effective services for those who do.

This publication is designed to provide an overview of the current literature addressing the runaway problem. It is divided into two sections: (1) an annotated bibliography of selected books and articles related to runaways and (2) a general bibliography of social, psychological and correctional literature relating to issues identified with runaway youth.

Neither bibliography should be viewed as constituting an exhaustive survey of the current literature and research. Rather, each was compiled to provide the framework for a general study of issues relating to runaway youth. It is being published at this time by the Office of Youth Development to present to as wide an audience as possible current information about this crucial problem.

James A. Hart
Commissioner
Office of Youth Development
Office of Human Development

Selected Summaries of Runaway Articles and Books

Ambrosino, L. Runaways. Boston: Beacon, 1971.

A discussion of the reasons for running is combined with a description of the problems runaways face, methods of survival, medical and legal considerations, and places where help can be found. An appendix contains a comprehensive listing of facilities to aid runaways by State and city. The author advocates ways of legitimizing running away, which in some cases may be healthy and necessary.

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

The author defines the term "runaway" and provides selected statistics on the problem. Several reasons for running away, some of the more popular destinations, and the conditions awaiting runaways in these locations are discussed. The author describes the facilities available to help runaways and offers suggestions to teachers and parents of potential runaways. The main approach advocated is to determine the reasons for running.

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

From a taxonomic analysis of a 75-item biographical questionnaire administered to 60 male delinquents aged 15½ to 17 in Massachusetts, three groups were identified - one of them being runaways. Chi square analyses showed no significant association between taxonomic classification and subsequent recidivism.

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

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

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

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

Bergeron, M. "Juvenile Running Away and Vagrancy." Bulletin Graduate Etud. Psychology, U. Paris, 1952, 6, 309-310. (Psychological Abstracts. 1958: 1279).

The article distinguishes between the runaway and the vagrant. The author suggests that it has been proven that both juvenile runaways and vagrants constitute the most abandoned and most curable of misadapted youth. It is suggested that public opinion must be alerted so that public agencies can help these youth.

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

The authors who worked as part-time counselors in two Boston runaway houses, conducted 60 extended interviews with runaway youth. To augment these interviews, additional interviews were conducted with involved adults, e.g., parents, teachers, counselors, and legal officials. The motives, backgrounds, and perceptions of twelve runaways are presented in detail. The experiences of young people on the run, on the street, in juvenile detention centers, and in runaway houses are described. There is also a discussion of the social institutions which have the greatest impact on youth, i.e., family, school, and legal system, and of the alternatives that are available to young people who have run. The authors are generally sympathetic to runaway youth, suggesting that the decision to run is based on "sound personal reasons."

Brooks, Patricia. "They Can Go Home Again!" McCalls, January, 1972, 99, p. 57.

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

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

The study examines the case of a 14 year old boy sent to a State

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

English, C.J. "Leaving Home: A Typology of Runaways." Society, 1973, 10, p. 22-24.

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

Foster, R.M. "Intrapsychic and Environmental Factors in Running Away from Home." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1962, 32, 486-491.

A group of 175 children brought before the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court was divided into runaway and non-runaway delinquents. Each group was questioned as to parent-child separations, presence of step or adoptive parents, incidence of physical aggression, open sexual activity in the home, family mobility, type of delinquency associated with running away, and circumstances surrounding running away. Chi square analyses showed significant differences between the two groups for each of the descriptive variables.

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

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

Goldberg, Martin. "Runaway American." Mental Hygiene, LVI (Winter, 1972).

This paper discusses the results of a study of "people in flight," 16 years of age and older, who made several unplanned or poorly planned geographical moves. They are compared to a control group and group of first-flight individuals. Sociological and background information is presented for the sample. Five characteristics are noted as being strongly evident in the flight people: (1) excessive chronic dependency, (2) difficulty with close interpersonal relationships, (3) low frustration tolerance, (4) marked impulsivity, and (5) a tendency to misrepresent themselves involving attempts to maintain anonymity or false identify. Recommendations are made for improving facilities to help these people, especially by means of "half-way houses" which would provide a sense of community.

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

A questionnaire was administered to a runaway and a non-runaway group to compare the two groups' perceptions of their personal and situational circumstances. In contrast to the non-runaways, runaways are reported to have more difficulty getting along with school counselors and teachers, have less interest in school, have poorer grades, and have more unhappy relationships with their parents and feel they are unfairly punished. Both groups, however, are found to have reasonably high self-concepts. It is suggested that running may be a situational response and a positive aspect of coping when support is sought from peers rather than from adults.

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

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

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

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

Green, Mark J. "Runaways on the Legal Leash," Trial, (1971), 7(5), 28-29.

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

Haupt, Donald N. and Offerd, David B. "Runaways from a Residential Treatment Center: A Preliminary Report!" Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Social Therapy, XVIII, (1972). (3), 1972.

A brief review of the existing literature is presented, offering several definitions of a runaway. The author concludes that the existing literature shows little agreement on methodology or conclusions. The study describes groups of male runaways and non-runaways and female runaways and non-runaways from a residential treatment center for emotionally disturbed and delinquent children and adolescents. The runaways averaged three runs each; the average run was approximately two days; about one-third ran to what they considered their home; about one-third of both sexes ran alone, but more boys than girls were leaders in the action; boys ran more than would be expected by chance in fall and winter, and less in spring and summer while the reverse pattern appeared for girls, and male runaways scored higher on the hardship scale (social dislocation,

physical and sexual abuse) economic status, race, I.Q., and physical appearance than did male non-runners, while the opposite relationship existed between female runners and female non-runners.

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

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

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

The article defines the concept of "crisis-flight" as coined by

workers in a travelers' society. They see crisis-flight as a definite pattern of travel in which geographical fleeing becomes an habitual way of coping. The author differentiates between youth experiencing a crisis (for whom crisis studies have provided effective intervention techniques) and youth involved in crisis-flight about whom additional research is urgently needed.

Hildebrand, James A. "Why Runaways Leave Home." Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 54 (2), (1963), 211-216.

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

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

The article asserts that the runaway problem in America has reached crisis proportions. Numerous agencies dealing with runaways have sprung up in the last decade and have become institutionalized. The whole "youth subculture" has emerged as a support system for youth and young adults who leave home. There is confusion and much myth regarding the kind of help runaways require; and whether they ever need help at all. Intervention is generally of two kinds -- family counseling and therapy to resolve home problems or the search for good alternatives, such as foster homes. Twenty young females, with a record of multiple runaways, aged 13-16, who passed through a probation department were studied. Three types of therapeutic interventions were provided: individual therapy, co-ed counseling group therapy, and family therapy. It is claimed that there is a dearth of documentation on effective therapy for runaways. The author proposes two types of running---"running to" and "running from." The "running from" type consists of those whose interpersonal and family conflicts had surpassed their tolerance levels. They were unable to deal with or express their unresolved anger. The "running to" type includes those girls who were pleasure seekers. They seek experiences that are forbidden in the home: sex, drugs, liquor, truancy, peer groups, etc. Grievances with parents were minor, and there is an inability to internalize controls. The "running from" type more frequently goes to a friend's home, whereas the "running to" type goes to peer-established shelters and is more involved in the runaway subculture. Reasons for running similarly differentiated the two types. "Running from" girls mentioned their poor family situations, whereas the "running to" group mentioned enjoyment of

their experiences while running. Most of the runners in both types had broken homes. Recidivism rates were higher in the "running to" type than in the "running from" type. The "running from" type responded well to therapy and insight counseling, while the "running to" type showed poor or no response to such therapy. These runaways are seen as not wanting "help," but as wanting to be free from constraints. It is perhaps a waste of energy to provide counseling for these girls. An extensive discussion of the differential treatment of the two runaway girl types is given.

Jenkins, Richard L. "The Runaway Reaction!" American Journal of Psychiatry, 1971, (128(2)), 158-173.

The author discusses the "runaway reaction" as a new diagnostic category, a type of childhood and adolescent behavior disorder. Three major groupings of boys, derived through a cluster analysis of the behavioral traits of 300 boys committed to the New York State Training School for Boys, are discussed. A runaway reaction is contrasted with a delinquent reaction and an "unsocialized aggressive" reaction in terms of the circumstances leading to these different reactions and behaviors. A brief discussion of the treatment recommended for the runaway group -- which constitutes the most difficult to work with -- is also presented.

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

The authors discuss runaways who went to Haight-Ashbury in the summer

of 1967. With the exception of drug use, these runaways did not exhibit the delinquent characteristics observed by earlier authors. The motivation to use marijuana is also explored.

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

The hypothesis that runaways take greater risks than non-runaways was tested but not confirmed. Two possible interpretations are given for the finding that non-runaway girls are greater risk-takers than are runaways. The act of running could represent a desire to find stability rather than a willingness to gamble and, the runaways could in reality be risk-takers, but become wary and conservative when faced with an "establishment game."

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

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

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

The article reports findings on 121 delinquent girls in a special Australian training school. It states that 61.5% of the subjects had experienced the absence of one or both natural parents for at least

twelve months before age 15, and that more than one fourth of the deprived delinquents from broken homes were sent to institutions. It appears that the delinquent girls came from large families, and that the intermediate female children of these families were the most likely siblings to become delinquent.

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

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

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

The research focuses on the child's self regard vis-a-vis his control over external forces. On the basis of data derived from interviews with runaways and non-runaways, it is suggested that deficiencies in external control (control of one's environment) relate to running away. Marked overconcern with loss of control and ego surrender as well as some reality distortion by runaways are taken to suggest prepsychotic functioning in this group.

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

A scale was developed for rating degrees of inner control-uncontrol and was applied to the descriptive interview data for a runaway and a comparable non-runaway group. Findings show that runaways manifest

significantly more inner uncontrol. They give more indications of discharge-type behavior (impulsivity, temper tantrums, excessive masturbation, enuresis), of deficient regulatory mechanisms (poor judgement, insufficiencies in cognition and motility) and of a "helpless" self-image. A significant relationship is reported to exist between inner uncontrol and outer uncontrol (control of one's environment).

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

The director of the Illinois State Training School for Boys describes a study comparing 74 boys who had runaway in the prior 16 months with the overall institutional population.

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

Twenty-five boys, aged 16-20 who had run to an emergency shelter in New York were asked to rate themselves on 19 pairs of Osgood's (1957) Semantic Differential Scales measuring self-concept and ideal-self-concept. It was found that runaways feel a lack of self-acceptance which usually is indicative of a lack of acceptance by others and suggests difficulty in interpersonal relationships. The authors suggest that objectives in counseling these children should be the development of self-esteem and self-acceptance as well as the establishment of meaning in their lives.

Levy, Edwin Z. "Some Thoughts About Patients Who Run Away From Residential Treatment and the Staff They Leave Behind." Psychiatric Quarterly, 1972, Vol. 46, (1), 1-21.

The abstract presents an overview of relevant literature including data and inferences from a follow-up study on runaway patients. Several categories of runaway girls are described: those who are defiant, those who run because of psychotic disorganization, those who desire to be independent, and those who need fusion with parents.

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

This article examines runaways with respect to measures of 30 personal and background characteristics in two correctional institutions for boys, in an effort to predict and control runaway behavior. The analyses of events in both a mediatory institution in an urban community and in a total institution suggest a complex reaction among organizational characteristics of the inmates and the incidence of runaways. When dramatic alterations occurred in the two institutions, the measures of personality characteristics assumed greater power as behavior predictors. This interaction with the correctional system is stressed as a more reliable predictor of running than are isolated personality factors. For example, the psychological problems of offenders may be expected to surface under the stress of structural changes. Offenders in the mediatory institution seemed to run away

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

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

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

National Directory of Runaway Centers. San Francisco, California: By the Staff, 3820 Judah Street, August, 1972.

This directory provides information on over 70 runaway centers operational in 1972 through the country. Names and addresses of the centers are provided by State, together with brief descriptions of staffing patterns, funding levels and sources, services provided, and clients served.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Peters, W. "Riddle of Teenage Runaways." Good Housekeeping, June, 1968, p. 88.

Based on interviews with five runaways and several police officers, the article purports to refute several runaway "myths." It concludes that the majority of runaways do not come from the middle class but rather from city slums and ghettos and are largely members of minority groups; that most runaways do not head for hippie centers; and, that the number of runaways is not as high as recently reported by some

uninformed magazines. Motivations for running are presented through interviews with the runaways.

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

The article describes the Phone-a-Home program in Westport, Connecticut. Runaway youth who call in receive counselling and placement in a volunteer foster family for one or two days when necessary. The program maintains contacts with school counselors, the police, counselling services, and other agencies.

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

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

Regel, H. and Parnitzke, K.H. Entstehungsbedingungen des fortlaufens bei Kindern. ("Causative Conditions of Running Away in Children.") Psychiatrie, Neurologie and Medizinische Psychologie. 1967, 19(8). 281-290. (Psych. Abstracts 1968: 2722).

Social, psychic and somatic causes are cited for running away. Disturbed parent-child relations, conflicts at school and frequent changes in residence were among the social factors. Based upon the specific sample studied, the article claims that many of the runaways suffered some brain damage during early childhood.

Rennert, Helmut. Das fortlaufen der Kinder und die Porionomanie. Eine diagnostische Betrachtung. ("The Running Away of Children and Porionomania; A Diagnostic Consideration.") Psychiat. Neurol. ned. Psychol. Leipzig. 1954, 6, 139-151. (Psych. Abstracts. 1955: 2704).

The study differentiates "psychologically understandable forms" of running away in children and adolescents.

Robey, Ames and Rosewald, R. E. "The Runaway Girl: A Reaction to Family Stress." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 34, No. 4, (1964) 762-767.

Based on the evaluation and treatment of 42 runaway girls at a court clinic, the most frequently "observed" cause of running away is described as the unconscious threat of an incestuous relationship with the father, the fear of resultant family dissolution, and concurrent depression. A consistent pattern of family interaction is described, including a disturbed marital relationship, lack of affection for the daughter by the mother, and subtle pressure on the daughter by the mother to assume the maternal role. The authors interpret the daughter's running away as being positive and emphasize that treatment of the girl necessitates simultaneous treatment of the mother.

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

In the follow-up study of persons treated in a child guidance

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

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

The author states that the purpose of studying psychiatric diagnoses and childhood problems in adults is to determine uniformities among them which may be used to establish criteria for recognizing "psychiatric syndromes in their early states." A group of adult males who were runaways as children was compared by psychiatric status with a group of males who had other childhood behavior problems and with a group of normal male control subjects. The author states that running away is predictive of later psychiatric disease even when the high rate of delinquency and reformatory experience among runaways is taken into account. Whether the reformatory experience is a factor in initiating psychiatric disease or whether the reformatory receives a large proportion of boys with psychiatric disease remains an unanswered question.

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

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

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

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

"Runaways--Teenagers who Run Away to the Hippies." Time, September 15, 1967, p. 46.

The article states that though many teenagers run away for a brief

adventure, it is a "desperately serious act" for an increasing number of youth. Statistics are provided which suggest that the number of youth running away between 1961 and 1966 is dramatically increasing. One reason cited for running away is to escape "the system" rather than maladjusted homes. Dangers of street life are mentioned, as are the efforts made by parents to locate their children. Runaway homes are briefly discussed.

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

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

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

While the parents of children murdered in Houston in August, 1973 accuse the police of incompetence, the article reports that police

in large cities solve at least 90% of the runaway cases they process each year. The number of runaways appears to be increasing across the nation, although most runaways are not reported as being missing. The report also states that runaway centers face a funding crisis if Congress fails to pass the Runaway Youth Act.

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

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

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

An analysis of existing runaway literature reveals that the focus on either individual psychopathology or an adaptive response to situational pressures derives mainly from sample selection. The interpretation placed on the runaway act depends largely on whether the runaway sample is caught in the legal-correctional net, the mental health

net or the welfare services net. The study attempts to avoid such a bias by using both a broad-sweeping survey and clinical investigations. Based upon agency records, parent interviews, and student questionnaires two analytically separate groups of runaways are identified: 1) a small group for whom running is closely related to individual or family pathology, and whose members are frequent runaways, and 2) a much larger group consisting primarily of those who ran once, but which also includes many repeaters whose members more closely resemble the non-runaways than they do the seriously disturbed minority. Structural and socio-economic characteristics of the family are only indirectly associated with running away, while family conflict has a more direct bearing. Evidence shows that runaways have more difficulties at school than do non-runaways and are less likely to belong to clubs. Interview data suggests that runaway episodes are impulsive and poorly planned and rarely involve long distance travel or of a long duration. Recommendations are made with regard to problems confronting all adolescents, whether runaway or not. The appendix includes the intensive interview guide and the questionnaire.

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

Three delinquent types are delineated among 300 training school boys using computer clustering. These are termed: 1) Socialized Delinquents, 2) Unsocialized Appressive boys and 3) Runaway boys. Socialized

Delinquents exhibit behavior such as cooperative stealing and gang activity, and appear well integrated socially in the sense of having high levels of popularity, loyalty, and friendliness. Unsocialized Appressive boys exhibit behavior such as fighting, bullying, defiance of authority, destructiveness, isolation, lack of loyalty, and "meanness." Runaway delinquents exhibit behavior such as stealing in the home, staying out late at night or overnight, isolation, lack of loyalty, timidity, lack of popularity, lack of will to stand up for themselves and "meanness!" The MMPI was applied to the three types. It was found that the Socialized Delinquents were more "normal" than the other two types. They had better family relations, and were more mature, domesticated, frank and less fearful. The Unsocialized Appressive boys were more suspicious, grandiose, and had little tolerance of tension. The Runaways were especially unhappy in their home life, felt less accepted by their siblings, lacked good masculine identification, were less decisive, less frank and had poorer self-image. The authors claim that the results support the hypothesis that the Socialized Delinquent represents adaptive goal-oriented behavior while the Unsocialized Appressive and Runaway response represents maladaptive frustration responses. One response is "fight" and the other is "flight."

Straube, W. Zur psychopathologie jugendlicher weiblicher fortläufer. ("The Psychopathology of Young Female Runaways.") Prax. Kinderpsychol. Kinderpsychiater. 1957, 6, 167-170. (Psych. Abstracts 1959: 1716).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Three delinquent types are presented: The Socialized Delinquent, the Unsocialized Appressive boy, and the Runaway delinquent. The study is essentially a validation of the earlier study conducted by Shinshara and Jenkins, and further examines the differences between the Unsocialized Appressive type and the Runaway type using the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire. Only one of the ten dimensions of the scale--the Parental neglect sub-scale--was found to significantly differentiate between the three types. This study suggests that inadequate mothering is a factor in the development of frustrated, maladaptive delinquents.

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

The author discusses some of the factors involved in youth running away from home in Russia. The author defines the runners as romantics who see themselves as young adventurers or as vagrants. The description of several runaways discuss the problems they encounter on the road and their aversion to returning home because of harsh parental reactions and apathetic school treatment. The author believes that society should take action other than merely returning the runners to their parents as this forces the conflict within families to become a conflict with society, thereby increasing the chances of runners turning to crime.

Van Niekerk, P.A. "The Experiential World of the Truant." Opvoedkundigs Studies, 1970, No. 64, 86-108.

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

Wattenberg, William W. "Boys Who Run Away from Home." Journal of Educational Psychology, 47, (October, 1956), 353-43.

Findings regarding the age, family background, and school situation of 575 runaway boys are presented. The boys' motives and their parents' reactions are also examined.

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

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

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

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

RUNAWAY PROGRAM EVALUATION STUDIES

Using the 1972 National Directory of Runaway Centers, over 70 requests for studies were sent to runaway houses and shelter homes throughout the country. A substantial number of these letters were returned as "not known at this address," resulting in the conclusion that many runaway programs are short-lived. It would appear that only a few of these programs conduct evaluations which specifically study the runaway problem. The following represents the evaluation studies and other descriptive materials received as a result of the mailed requests.

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

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

Poor home life, higher alienation, conflicts with parents, academic failure, low participation in school activities, few close friends, low church attendance, lower self-concept, and more health problems were all found to be associated with the runaway sub-sample. An extensive bibliography is also provided, and the author makes a series of recommendations regarding the treatment and prevention of runaway behavior.

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

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

Marks, Alvin. Two Year Follow-up Evaluation of Project Oz. San Diego, California: By the Author, 3304 Idewild Way.

The program at Project Oz is described. Findings of an evaluation based on interviews with parents and youth show a positive increase in self-concept, a reduction in feelings of alienation,

and a reduction of self-destructive behavior as a result of participation in the project. The attitude of both parents and youth toward the project is positive.

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

On the basis of the "Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969" supplemented by visits to all of the runaway houses in the area, the evaluation committee concluded that a serious runaway problem existed in Minneapolis. Recent historical evidence in U.S. culture which has led to the phenomenon of running away is briefly discussed, and it is suggested that Motives for running away are no longer economic--as in the thirties and forties--but rather are related to a recent upheaval of mores, values, and philosophy of life. The committee recommended to broaden the runaway services in Minneapolis by designating and funding The Bridge as a Youth Service House. Suggestions were also made with regard to sponsorship, policies, staff, programs, and funding.

"Study of Missing Juveniles Reported to the Minneapolis Police Department in 1969" Appendix to "Runaway Youth in Minneapolis."

The study was conducted to determine the nature and extent of the runaway problem in Minneapolis. Findings are based on police department records and include characteristics of both

the runaway youth and the runaway episode. Age, sex, residential origin, court involvement, length and number of runs, destination, companions, etc., are cross-classified.

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

The study is based on records and questionnaires administered to overnight visitors and residents of Agape House. Overnight visitors are generally males in transit to another city. The majority of "residents" are 14 to 17 years old; stay at the House less than a week; and had not run before, although females had run more than males. Much of the data on characteristics of the runaways is similar to that of the Minneapolis Police Department.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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