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Self-Complexity and Crime: Extending General Strain Theory

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Self-Complexity and Crime: Extending General Strain Theory

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An abstract of
A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Emory University
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Abstract

Self-Complexity and Crime: Extending General Strain Theory

By Shelley Keith Matthews

General strain theorists propose that people are pressured into crime because of the various strains or negative events or conditions they experience (Agnew 2006). These strains lead to negative emotions which may be resolved through crime. Most people do not respond to strain with crime, however. Researchers have failed to find consistent support for the conditioning factors hypothesized to affect this relationship. This study introduces a previously neglected conditioning variable from the social psychology literature, self-complexity, which may help explain who is more likely to respond to strain with crime. Self-complexity refers to 1) the number of social roles or identities a person perceives him/herself occupying; and 2) the varied characteristics s/he ascribes to him/herself in each role or identity. The central argument of this study is that those who are lower in self-complexity, or those with fewer roles and more overlap among these roles, should be more susceptible to the negative emotional and behavioral effects of strain. These arguments were tested through a vignette study of undergraduates examining four types of crime/deviant outcomes. Results indicate that in the scenario resulting in assault, those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to experience negative emotions in response to strain than those who are higher in self-complexity. In addition, those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to intend to offend than those who are higher in self-complexity for the scenario resulting in assault. Finally, in the situation leading to drinking, those who described more overlap in their roles and identities were less vulnerable to the negative effects of stress contrary to expectations.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Why people offend is a complicated question. Crime has been attributed to individual traits such as low constraint and negative emotionality (Caspi et al. 1994), characteristics of the family such as family criminality, family conflict, and poor parenting practices (Agnew 2005), association with delinquent peers (Agnew 1991, 2005; Akers and Sellers 2004; Haynie 2002; Matsueda and Anderson 1998; Warr 2002), negative school experiences such as school failure (Agnew 2005; Maguin and Loeber 1996), and characteristics of the community (Bursik and Grasmick 1993).

Criminologists explain how these factors cause crime in a number of ways. Some argue that these factors create strain or stress (Agnew 2006). As a result of these strains, people experience anger which may be alleviated through crime. Others argue that crime is caused by weak social bonds (Hirschi 1969). When people are not attached to conventional others, not committed to or involved in conventional institutions, and do not believe that crime is wrong, then they are free to engage in crime which is viewed as the easiest way to get what is desired. In addition, some criminologists argue that crime results when individuals are exposed to others who model crime, teach beliefs favorable to crime, and differentially reinforce crime (Akers and Sellers 2004). Finally, still others look more to the reactions evoked by offending to explain why people continue to engage in crime and delinquency. Specifically, people form their self-concept based on how others perceive and treat them. When individuals are viewed and treated as criminals, they will come to accept this label and change their self-concept to match this portrayal

of themselves, and therefore engage in further illegal behavior (Becker 1963; Lemert 1951, 1972; Matsueda 1992).[1]

General strain theory (GST) will be the primary focus of this study. General strain theorists propose that people are pressured into crime because of the various strains or negative events or conditions they experience (Agnew 2006). The social psychological consequences of experiencing strain include a variety of emotions such as frustration, anger, and depression. Agnew argues that people want to alleviate these negative emotions. One possible way to reduce strain and the negative emotions associated with strain is through crime. Conditioning variables are central in GST because most people do not cope with strain through crime. If they lack the resources to cope with strain, are low in social control, and/or have a predisposition towards crime, then they will be more likely to respond to strain and the resulting emotions with crime. In particular, individuals are less likely to cope through crime if they have the social and problem-solving skills, financial resources, or social support from family and/or friends to alleviate strain (Agnew 2006). In addition, if the costs of committing crime are high then individuals will be less likely to cope with strain in this manner. For example, people who have a lot to lose such as getting fired from their job or jeopardizing important relationships are less likely to alleviate negative emotions through crime. If, however, people are disposed to crime through believing that crime is justified in certain circumstances, having personality characteristics conducive to crime, and associating with criminal others, then crime will be more likely to result from strain. Researchers have explored a number of these conditioning factors, such as personality characteristics,

[1] The above theories do not represent an exhaustive list. Social disorganization theory and opportunity theories are excluded, to name a few. However, the mentioned theories provide the most relevance because this study focuses on the social-psychological causes of crime.

family income, self-efficacy, self-esteem, social support, attachment to others, moral beliefs, and association with delinquent peers; with many of these studies failing to support this part of the theory (Aseltine et al. 2000; Capowich et al. 2001; Hoffman and Cerbone 1999; Hoffman and Miller 1998; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Paternoster and Mazerolle 1994). These mixed findings signify a fundamental weakness in general strain theory because it is still unclear why some people respond to strain and negative emotions with crime while others do not.

This study introduces a previously neglected conditioning variable from the social psychology literature, self-complexity (S-C), which may help explain who is more likely to respond to strain with crime. The central argument of this study is that those who are higher in self-complexity should be less susceptible to the negative emotional and behavioral effects of strain. Specifically, I draw upon the work of Linville (1985; 1987) who focuses on the complexity of the self-concept, or self-complexity (S-C). Self-concept refers to how people view themselves, particularly the personality traits they ascribe to themselves such as friendliness, intelligence, and impulsivity. These traits are grouped into general categories or aspects of self, often organized around life domains such as roles, e.g., student, daughter, and sorority sister. Individuals who have a more complex self-concept describe themselves as having numerous important aspects of self, with little overlap in how they view themselves across these aspects. For example, an individual who is higher in self-complexity may view being a daughter, an athlete, and a volunteer as important aspects of her self-concept. Within these self-aspects, she may view herself uniquely; she may see herself as insecure as a daughter, passive when playing sports, and serious when volunteering. On the other hand, individuals who

describe fewer aspects of self and view themselves similarly within these roles are lower in self-complexity (See Appendix 1 for examples from my sample depicting someone lower in self-complexity compared to someone higher in self-complexity). It is important to note that self-complexity is determined by both the number of self-aspects meaningful to the individual and the similarity or differences between these aspects.[2] Also, while most people occupy a number of social roles, not all of these roles will be defined as a self-aspect because not all of these roles will be important to them.

Linville argues that individuals who are high in self-complexity may be advantaged over individuals lower in self-complexity when faced with stressful life events. This is because when a negative event occurs in one area of life, such as academic failure, the negative feelings associated with this event are unlikely to spill over into other areas of one's life. In this case, the academic role is unique from other parts of the self-concept. If the individual has few self-aspects and views him or herself similarly in his/her self-aspects, then when something negative occurs, the thoughts and feelings associated with one area of life will be closely associated in memory and will spill over into other areas of life. Because those who are higher in self-complexity are less susceptible to negative emotions spilling over to other aspects of the self, then only a small portion of the self is affected when faced with a negative event (Cohen et al. 1997; Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Linville 1985; Niedenthal et al. 1992; Renaud and McConnell 2002). An individual high in self-complexity will be able to maintain a positive mood if the feedback received on a test is mentally separated from a job evaluation, for example.

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[2] Individuals may not perceive of their self-concept in terms of social roles. Therefore, a self-aspect may be a role such as daughter or student but not necessarily.

When negative events affect more aspects of the self, then these stressful events should be more likely to lead to negative outcomes in response to this stress including depression, physical illness, and maladaptive health-related behaviors such as drug and alcohol use (Linville 1987). Therefore, high self-complexity buffers the effect of stress on negative outcomes such as depression, illness, and low self-esteem, because negative emotions are less likely to spill over to other aspects of self (Linville 1987). In other words, when faced with stressful situations, it is advantageous not to place all of one's eggs in the same cognitive basket (Linville 1985).

Given self-complexity's unique relationship with strain, there is good reason to believe that self-complexity will play a key role in general strain theory. Research shows that self-complexity buffers the effects of negative life events on outcomes such as illness, perceived stress, self-evaluations, and quality of written work (Cohen et al. 1997, Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Linville 1987; Ryan et al. 2005; Smith and Cohen 1993; Steinberg et al. 2003). In general, after stressful events, those who are higher in self-complexity have fewer illnesses, less perceived stress, higher self-esteem, and write better quality essays than those who are lower in self-complexity, because negative emotions are less likely to spill over into other self-aspects. These negative life events correspond to the types of strain that Agnew (2006) discusses such as school failure and relationship problems. Therefore, it is likely that self-complexity lessens the emotional effect of stressful events, and in doing so moderates the relationship between strain and negative affective states, which should influence behavioral outcomes like crime.

Specifically, I hypothesize that those lower in self-complexity will be more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those higher in S-C. Self-complexity should

condition the effect of strain on crime because those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to perceive strain as severe. Strain is perceived as more severe when it affects someone's central identity. Those who are higher in self-complexity will not have a central identity but will feel that a number of identities are important to the self. On the other hand, someone who is lower in self-complexity will be likely to perceive strain as more severe because negative events will be more likely to affect his or her core identity. In addition, those who are lower in self-complexity will be more likely to experience stronger negative emotions including anger, frustration, and depressed mood than those who are higher in self-complexity because negative emotions will be more likely to spill over into other related self-aspects. Recall Linville's argument that when someone low in self-complexity (i.e., someone with more overlap among few aspects of self) experiences a stressful event, the negative feelings associated with one aspect will spill over into other parts of the self because these different aspects are closely related or associated in memory. The same spill over process will likely occur with anger. In other words, when someone lower in self-complexity experiences strains, they will perceive these strains as more severe and feel more anger as a result of these strains than if this person was higher in S-C. As explicated in general strain theory, anger may be alleviated through crime.

Finally, self-complexity should further buffer the effect of negative events on crime given that self-complexity is related to coping skills and resources (Conway and White-Dysart 1999; Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Renaud and McConnell 2002). Specifically, those who are higher in self-complexity are more constructive thinkers, can perform better on a subsequent academic task after failing on a test, are better able to

suppress undesired thoughts, and are less likely to give up when frustrated (Conway and White-Dysart 1999; Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Gramzow et al. 2000; Renaud and McConnell 2002). Those who are higher in self-complexity will have more unique aspects (or self-aspects in which individuals view themselves in dissimilar ways) and experiences to draw upon than those who are lower in self-complexity, thus providing the higher self-complexity individual with more alternatives to cope with strain. Therefore, those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to cope with strain through crime than those who are higher in self-complexity.

This paper is divided into six parts including this introduction. In the second chapter, I describe Linville's theoretical model, the empirical evidence on it, and the critiques of various measurements of S-C. In chapter 3, I present general strain theory, evidence of the conditions under which strain leads to crime, and my hypotheses regarding how self-complexity contributes to GST. In the fourth part, I describe my sample and methods along with my data analysis strategies. Next, I present my results, followed by my conclusion and directions for future research in chapter 6.

II. SELF AND SELF-COMPLEXITY

Researchers use a variety of terms to describe how people view themselves such as self, self-concept, identity, and personality (Gecas and Burke 1995). The self refers to a social object that is created and changed through social interaction (Charon 1985; Mead 1934). Self-concept refers to ideas about the self (Charon 1985). In other words, self-concept is an individual's perception of his or herself including how he or she views self and how he or she wants to view self, or an idealized self. It "… is composed of various identities, attitudes, beliefs, values, motives, and experiences, along with their evaluative and affective components (e.g., self-efficacy, self-esteem) in terms of which individuals define themselves" (Gecas and Burke 1995: 42). Psychologists emphasize the cognitive facets of self-concept. Specifically, the self-concept "interprets and organizes self-relevant actions and experiences; it has motivational consequences, providing the incentives, standards, plans, rules, and scripts for behavior; and it adjusts in response to challenges from the social environment" (Markus and Wurf 1987: 299-300). Historically, sociologists and psychologists viewed the self as unitary and stable but both have converged in their understanding of the self as multifaceted and dynamic (Markus and Wurf 1987; Stryker 1980).

A. What is Self-Complexity?

Linville (1985; 1987) focuses on how people organize their self-concept, arguing that complexity of the self-concept influences how people respond to negative and positive events. She asserts that people vary in terms of the complexity of their cognitive representations of self. Specifically, the self is multifaceted and made up of multiple self-aspects or cognitive structures (1985; 1987). "A 'self-aspect' may be considered a self-

relevant category, concept, or schema" (Linville 1985: 97). These self-aspects include roles (e.g., graduate student), relationships (e.g., wife/husband relationship), events and behavior (e.g., attending Braves games), and the traits associated with these experiences (e.g. playing competitive sports). While these types of self-aspects seem diverse, ultimately it depends on how individuals organize knowledge about themselves. For example, one person may define a meaningful self-aspect as being a "sports fan" (a role) while another person may define a meaningful aspect as "myself at the Braves game" (an event or behavior). The sports fan self-aspect may apply to the person at all sporting events whereas the other individual may not identify as a sports fan but may view an important domain (or aspect) of self as taking part in a specific sporting event.

Linville (1985) indicates that the level of self-complexity is partially a function of the number of roles someone occupies and is likely to increase as a person encounters a variety of experiences within each of these roles. Not all roles or self-aspects will be salient to the individual and thus not all will factor into the level of self-complexity. Linville asserts that,

> "Increased experience in varied roles, relationships, and situations leads to increased differentiation of self-aspects. With an increase in the range of experience relevant to the self (e.g., social, family, professional, aesthetic, physical), one not only has the opportunity to generalize or to differentiate more nonredundant self-aspects, but has a functional incentive for doing so" (99).

To my knowledge, very few studies have examined the factors that influence self-complexity. The studies that do examine how level of self-complexity may change over time find that self-complexity increases with age, indicating that increased experiences may lead to higher S-C (Abela and Veronneau-McArdle 2002).

People occupy multiple social roles such as student or parent. Yet within each role, people have role-specific relationships, engage in role-specific activities, and develop role-specific goals. Self-aspects may be defined as a role or as relationships, activities, or goals. Self-aspects also include superordinate traits such as hardworking or nurturing. These traits are the adjectives we use to describe our self-aspects. Trait terms "function as summaries that organize similar behavioral information and thus are assumed to be significant components of our knowledge structures about ourselves and other people" (Markus 1980: 115). Therefore, people vary in their level of self-complexity depending on "the number of aspects that one uses to cognitively organize knowledge about the self, and the degree of relatedness of these aspects" (Linville 1985: 97).

Degree of relatedness of aspects depends on the extent to which activating one self-aspect activates others. For example, when two individuals identify the same number of self-aspects as important to them, self-complexity will be higher for the person whose trait terms describing self-aspects overlap less. Positive and negative feelings or affect associated with these self-aspects vary depending on which aspect is activated and the context of the situation. Linville explains that when self-aspects are similar, a spill over process will occur when one aspect is activated. "When people experience a negative event, the self-aspect most relevant to the immediate context is activated, and negative thoughts and feelings evoked by the experience tend to become associated with the activated self-aspect" (Linville 1987: 664). When people view themselves in a similar way within two or more aspects, thoughts and feelings activated in one aspect will become associated in memory with other closely related aspects. Those who have a more

complex self-concept will be less affected by events that affect one part or aspect of the self because these thoughts and feelings will not spill over into other aspects of the self.[3] If a person has more distinct non-overlapping self-aspects, then these negative or positive thoughts and feelings will be confined to that domain.

Others, including sociologists, have made similar arguments regarding the benefits of occupying numerous roles. For example, Steele (1997) argues that when women and minorities feel threatened in areas where they are stereotyped to perform poorly, they will emphasize other activities in order to avoid negative feelings in the threatened domain. Also, sociologists have shown that having multiple identities serves as a protective factor (Sieber 1974; Thoits 1983). Thoits (1983) argues that someone who has numerous identities is less committed to any one identity. Therefore, when a person with many identities experiences an identity loss, the effect on psychological well-being will be less than for the person who has few identities. Sieber (1974) argues that someone who has numerous roles can more easily recover from failure because they have relationships in other roles that can provide moral support and other resources. In addition, individuals can choose to emphasize and engage in other role activities to buffer the effects of stress. One example would be "losing oneself in work" in response to stress at home.

In contrast to these other perspectives, self-complexity theorists would argue that not only are the number of roles or identities important for reducing the impact of stress, but also the degree of overlap between them. For example, a salesperson who plays competitive sports may take a loss of a game harder if being successful and winning is

[3] Referring to someone as more "complex" is not meant to be evaluative but rather signifies the number of self-aspects and the degree of differentiation between them.

important for both aspects. In other words, when this person thinks of him or herself as either a salesperson or athlete, the other aspect of self is closely associated in memory. Therefore a success or failure in one aspect of self becomes associated with other parts of the self. In this example, the individual's mood will be affected more than if he or she had a more complex self-concept, or in other words, viewed self differently within these two aspects.

It is important to note that many situations exist where self-aspects are interrelated and events in one domain will affect emotional reactions to these events in other domains regardless of the level of self-complexity. Linville (1985) provides the example of a woman whose aspects consist of her profession and her relationship with her husband (99). If her husband's respect and admiration depends on the woman's professional success, then when she fails at her job, that failure at work will lead to negative feelings at work and at home because of her husband's reaction. This study focuses primarily on the individual's perceived cognitive relationship of self-aspects rather than the actual correlations between roles. If the woman viewed herself as caring within both roles and she angered a coworker, then these negative feelings at work will likely spread into her role as a wife regardless of her husband's perceptions of her. Self-complexity is not intended to capture how others view the individual or how roles are correlated but rather how overlap in how one views his or her self-aspects leads to the spill over of negative emotions.

Self-complexity can be compared to making investments in the stock market. When individuals diversify their portfolio and buy different kinds of stock in different industries, then if one area of the market crashes, their investments will only be affected

in one small area. If, however, people have all of their stock invested in one company or one type of industry and that company goes out of business or the industry as a whole declines in value, then all of their investments will be affected. If, on the other hand, individuals have invested in only one company and the stocks do well, they will experience a much larger increase in their investments than if they had diversified their portfolio. Similarly, if someone views few aspects of himself as important describing self as a son, brother, boyfriend, and friend (see Appendix 2), and if how these aspects are viewed substantially overlap in personality traits in each domain, then a failure in one aspect will have a much stronger impact on his emotions and well-being than if he views these aspects of self as independent. In contrast, if something positive occurs that affects one aspect of self, this positive mood will likely spill over into other aspects of self increasing the individual's overall mood more than if he were higher in self-complexity.

Linville (1987) further asserts that because these negative events elicit negative thoughts and feelings, mental and physical well-being may be affected depending on the level of self-complexity. As described above, someone who is higher in self-complexity will be less affected emotionally by stressful events because only a small portion of the self will be impacted. More aspects of self will be affected by negative events for someone who is lower in self-complexity because these negative thoughts and feelings will spill over into related aspects. These negative thoughts and feelings will then affect mental health and physical health outcomes because these emotions affect the immune system, health-related behaviors such as smoking, drinking, drug use, and poor diet, and failure to seek medical care (Linville 1987: 665). Therefore, Linville argues that self-complexity should buffer the effect of stress on mental and physical well-being. It is

important to note that higher self-complexity may not always be advantageous, especially in the absence of stressful life events. Previous research has shown that higher S-C may lead directly to negative outcomes possibly because of the underlying stress of maintaining numerous demanding roles (Linville 1987; Rafaeli-Mor and Steinberg 2002; Woolfolk et al. 1995), although not all studies have found this (Lutz and Ross 2003). Linville focuses specifically on the buffering effect of self-complexity on depression and physical health after stressful events are experienced, however.

In sum, Linville (1987) proposes that those who are characterized by greater self-complexity and who are exposed to negative or positive events will experience less change in their mood than those who experience the same event but who are lower in S-C. When a negative or positive event occurs in someone's life who is high in self-complexity, the effect on his or her well-being will be small because the event only affects a small proportion of self. However, someone who is low in complexity will be affected much more by negative or positive events because a larger proportion of his or herself, or more self-aspects, will be affected (See Linville's model of self-complexity in Appendix 2).

B. Measurement of Self-Complexity

Self-complexity has typically been measured by having subjects describe their self-aspects with trait adjectives. Traits provide a good measure of self-aspects because they "…represent consistent characteristics of individuals that are relevant to a wide variety of behavior domains, including criminality" (Cullen and Agnew 2006: 34). The trait list used in S-C studies comes primarily from two sources: (1) from a pretest where typically a small sample describe themselves in a free format, or (2) from a list created by

researchers to depict common personality traits.[4] In order to measure self-complexity, respondents sort adjectives, which are listed on individual cards, into groups representing their self-aspects. Subjects are given extra cards so that they may reuse traits as many times as necessary. After sorting these adjectives into self-aspects, subjects can provide a label for the groups, but not every study requires them to do so.

In order to quantify self-complexity, researchers have most often relied on a statistical measure termed H for each subject, which is purported to measure differentiation among self-aspects. The H statistic, derived from information theory, is "a measure of nominal-scale dispersion" (Scott 1969: 265) and is claimed to combine information on the distinctiveness of aspects and the traits included within these aspects (Attneave 1959; Locke 2003; Scott 1969; Scott et al. 1979). Unfortunately, the interpretation of H is problematic due to its confounding of within-aspect and across-aspects distinctiveness.

The H statistic appears attractive for the typical study design involving a set of possible trait-adjectives grouped into a number of self-aspect collections, as it effectively reduces these responses to a single numerical value. Mathematically, this statistic assesses a matrix of the respondent's choices. One dimension of the matrix is determined by the total number of available trait adjectives. The other dimension varies depending on the number of self-aspects described. For example, if someone describes 10 aspects, for each column or aspect, a 1 will be assigned for each adjective selected and a 0 if not selected (thus all available traits are mathematically accounted for in every aspect).

[4] It is important to conduct these pretests or select adjectives from common personality traits in order to ensure that respondents have an adequate selection of traits to choose from to describe their self-aspects.

With its roots in information theory, H is a computed measure of the amount of distinct information in the matrix. H is calculated with the following formula:

$$H = \log_2 n - (\Sigma_i n_i \log_2 n_i)/n$$

In this formula, n refers to the number of attributes available to sort and n_i refers to the number of traits that fall into possible group combinations "(e.g., the number of adjectives that appear in only one subself, those that appear in two subselves, etc.)" (Lutz and Ross 2003: 545).

The H statistic will be highest when the overall (i.e. across all described self-aspects) probability of selecting a trait is equal to the probability of not selecting a trait (Locke 2003).[5] Both the number of aspects and the distinction among them are taken into account in the H statistic (Please see Appendix 2 for an example of how to calculate H). When someone either selects all of the traits for all of the aspects or does not select any of the traits for any of the aspects, then the H statistic will be at its lowest or be equal to 0. If someone describes all of their aspects with the same adjectives then the columns will be redundant (conveying less information – recall that H is a measure of distinct information content) and the self-complexity score as measured by H will be lower compared to a person who selected unique traits associated with different self-aspects (conveying more information, and thus resulting in a higher H statistic).

Recently researchers have critiqued the use of the H statistic because it confounds the number of self-aspects and the overlapping use of adjectives. Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999) recommend examining the buffering effect of the number of self-aspects and overlap separately and then including a three-way interaction with the number of self-

[5] Because the possible 'distinct information content' is bounded by the number of adjectives available from which to select, the mathematical maximum H can be easily calculated. For my sample, the theoretical maximum for H would be $\log_2 42 = 5.392$.

aspects, the amount of overlap in these self-aspects, and the total strain experienced during a specified time period. Overlap refers to the average amount of similarity between pairs of aspects or the "average communality between all pairs of self-aspects" (Rafaeli-Mor et al. 1999: 354). This statistic is calculated with the following formula:

$$OL = \sum_i(\sum_j C_{ij})T_i/n*(n-1).$$

In order to calculate the statistic, the subject must have at least two self-aspects that are important to him or her, as overlap is undefined for subjects with only a single aspect. In this formula, C refers to the number of common traits endorsed in the two aspects that are being compared, while T refers to the total number of traits endorsed in the referent aspect and n denotes the total number of aspects the person listed. Overlap ranges from 0 to 1 (or equivalently 0 to 100%) with 0 indicating no overlap in aspects and 1 indicating perfect overlap (100%). (Please see Appendix 2 for an example of how to calculate overlap).

The overlap statistic provides a better means than H of capturing the spill over process theorized in the self-complexity literature. In studies such as mine, with a variable number of roles, the calculated H value can be numerically similar for two conceptually different individuals - one with a few distinctly described roles (identities, etc.) and another with more numerous, but more similarly described roles. One would expect very different spill over processes between these two individuals; thus H is not an acceptable mathematical proxy for self complexity.

Further, H accounts for all traits in a role as either endorsed or non-endorsed traits and reduces this to a measure of distinct information content. Mathematically, when someone selects very few traits or very many (equivalent to non-selection of very few)

traits, the H statistic will be similar. The H statistic cannot show whether someone is low in overlap (selects very few of the same traits to describe self-aspects), or high in overlap (selects many of the same traits, i.e. avoids very few trait adjectives). However, the overlap statistic will be higher for someone who selects many of the same traits in each of his or her aspects, which would indicate lower complexity of self. Someone who selects more unique traits across self-aspects will have less overlap indicating higher S-C. Because the spill over of negative emotions is more likely to occur when individuals view themselves similarly, the overlap statistic is better able to capture this process than the H statistic. Therefore, examining the overlap statistic, the number of aspects listed, and the interaction between the two should adequately capture the spill over process.

C. Other Conceptualizations of the Organization of Self-Concept

A variety of researchers have theorized about how people organize their self-concept and the consequences of such organizations for well-being. Self-complexity refers to how people organize these thoughts about the self. In particular, self-complexity is determined by the number of domains or aspects that people view as important to self in addition to how they view themselves within these domains. Level of self-complexity is important when someone experiences positive or negative events, but is not hypothesized to predict well-being directly in the absence of events. In contrast, Campbell (1990) focuses on self-concept clarity, arguing that being sure of who you are leads to higher self-esteem. Higher confidence and certainty are shown through subjects rating self-descriptive traits at the end of the continuum when asked to rate how many bipolar traits applied to themselves. Those with higher confidence and certainty of self

were less likely to change the descriptions of themselves over time than those lower in self-esteem.

Showers (1992) argues that having self-aspects that are either completely negative or completely positive will lead to benefits, such as higher self-esteem and lower depression scores among those who value their positive self-aspects more than their negative self-aspects. For example, individuals who view themselves completely negatively as a student but completely positively as an athlete can avoid negative feelings through focusing on the athletic self and avoiding thoughts about school activities. She finds that this compartmentalization does not benefit those who view their negative self-aspects as important, or more important than positive self-aspects. For example, if it is very important to someone to be a good student but this person views him or herself negatively within this domain, then lower self-esteem and depression is more likely to result. Finally, Donahue et al. (1993) propose that the degree to which someone's self is variable or consistent across roles, or self-concept differentiation, directly affects well-being.

While these alternative ways of examining the self-concept seem similar in some ways to self-complexity, they are measured very differently from S-C and also focus on the direct relationship between self-concept organization and well-being rather than looking at the buffering effect of S-C on stress. For example, Linville allows respondents to self-identify self-aspects that are important to the individual while other studies on the self-concept provide a predetermined list to respondents even though some of these aspects may not be important to them.

In sum, people may organize their self-concept with varying benefits. Research shows, however, that self-concept clarity and consistency are distinct concepts from self-complexity and its individual components, the number of aspects and degree of overlap (Constantino et al. 2006; Koch and Shepperd 2004). Specifically, Campbell and colleagues (1990; 1991) argue that self-concept clarity may be positively related to self-complexity, although the two concepts are distinct. In addition, while self-concept clarity is directly related to self-esteem, self-complexity is usually not directly related but does buffer the effect of stress on self-esteem (Koch and Shepperd 2004: 731; Campbell et al. 1991).

Self-complexity is also distinct from self-concept differentiation (SCD) proposed by Donahue et al. (1993) who argue that people who are high in self-concept differentiation have a fragmented view of themselves (Donahue et al. 1993; Koch and Shepperd 2004; Lutz and Ross 2003). Self-concept differentiation is measured by examining differences between prescribed roles, whereas S-C is measured through allowing respondents to choose personally meaningful aspects, beyond roles. In addition, SCD focuses only on the direct relationship between the organization of self-concept and outcomes. Therefore, these constructs differ in both measurement and intent. Lutz and Ross (2003) find that these two concepts are negatively associated with each other and have opposite effects on psychological adjustment. Self-complexity is also dissimilar from evaluative integration, or how positively or negatively people view themselves within each aspect (Koch and Shepperd 2004; Showers 1992; Campbell et al. 1991). Finally, Gramzow et al. (2000) confirmed through factor analysis that self-complexity is an empirically distinct construct from other self-structure variables.

This study focuses on self-complexity (Linville 1985; 1987) because of its special relevance to general strain theory and because it is one of the most influential models on self-concept organization (Rafaeli-Mor and Steinberg 2002; Schleicher and McConnell 2005). Future studies may want to focus on these other conceptualizations of the self-concept to determine if they directly affect crime or if they buffer the effect of strain on crime as is expected for self-complexity.

D. Evidence on Self-Complexity

Studies on the moderating effect of self-complexity typically focus on the spill over of emotions or the buffering effect of self-complexity on mental and physical health outcomes such as depression, perceived stress, self-esteem, and physical symptoms. Most studies that focus on emotions rely on an experimental design where individuals, typically undergraduates, are subjected to some sort of stressor such as receiving negative or positive feedback from a test (Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Linville 1985; Niedenthal et al. 1992) or being rejected or accepted by a partner (Cohen et al. 1997). Numerous studies have found that self-complexity buffers the effect of these stressors on emotions, with those higher in self-complexity experiencing fewer mood changes than those lower in self-complexity (Cohen et al. 1997; Dixon and Baumeister 1991; Linville 1985; Niedenthal et al. 1992; Renaud and McConnell 2002).

Other studies focus on whether self-complexity buffers the effect of naturally occurring stressors for undergraduates, typically examining reactions to stress commonly faced by college students such as academic, family, financial, or relationship stress after usually a two week period. During the initial interview, researchers typically measure self-complexity, outcome variables such as depression and physical symptoms, and the

total number of stressful life events that have occurred in the prior two weeks. Subjects respond to approximately 115 negative events that might have occurred. The researchers will then re-interview subjects, usually two weeks later, again measuring self-complexity, the outcome variables of interest, and stressful life events experienced between time 1 and time 2. According to Linville's model, self-complexity should buffer the effect of negative events on outcomes such as depression, illness, physical symptoms, self-esteem, and perceived stress partly because those who are higher in S-C should be less affected emotionally by negative events. The research in this area is more mixed. A number of studies find support for this proposition (Cohen et al. 1997; Linville 1987; Ryan et al. 2005; Smith and Cohen 1993; Schleicher and McConnell 2005; Steinberg et al. 2003), although many studies fail to support the theory or find mixed support (Brown and Rafaeli 2007; Constantino et al. 2006; Hershberger 1990; Kalthoff and Neimeyer 1993; McConnell et al. 2005; Rothermund and Meiniger 2004; Solomon and Haaga 2003; Woolfolk et al. 1995).[6]

Finally, studies that require subjects to maintain a diary for a couple of weeks to record daily events and emotions find that those higher in self-complexity are less likely to experience mood changes than those lower in S-C. Only one study, however, asked about positive and negative events during this time period (Linville 1985; Campbell et al. 1991).

While Linville's model has a fair degree of support, especially in experimental studies, recent research has tried to make sense of the mixed results (Koch and Shepperd 2004; Locke 2003; Rafaeli-Mor et al. 1999; Rafaeli-Mor and Steinberg 2002). Parker et

[6]Schleicher and McConnell (2005) do not find support for the buffering effect of self-complexity when measured with H. They find support for the buffering effect when measuring self-complexity with a Euclidean-dimension index, however.

al. (2006) argue that previous studies have shown mixed support for the buffering hypothesis because they find that different types of stress lead to different types of emotion, such as feeling agitated and dejected (Parker et al. 2006).

Also, McClelland and Judd (1993) argue that it is much more difficult to detect interaction effects in field studies than in experimental tests. They show that it is much easier to detect interactions when the key variables are at their extremes, which is easy to manipulate in experiments. In addition, for survey research to be as efficient as experiments, the researcher needs a much larger sample. Finally, survey based-studies have more measurement error than experiments do.

Another major line of argument states that the H statistic does not adequately measure self-complexity. The H statistic should be higher for someone who is higher in self-complexity, i.e., someone who describes more aspects of self and more unique attributes within these aspects. Researchers find that the number of aspects is positively correlated with the H statistic, but contrary to expectations, the overlap statistic is also positively associated with S-C as measured by H (Brown and Rafaeli 2007; Constantino et al. 2006; Rafaeli-Mor et al. 1999).[7] In order for H to be a valid measure of both the number of aspects and the distinctiveness, H should be higher when there are more aspects and lower when there is large overlap between them.

Some researchers have found that the H statistic is unreliable (Constantino et al. 2006; Locke 2003; Rafaeli-Mor et al. 1999; Woolfolk et al. 1995). Specifically, according to Linville's model, the composition of the aspects should not matter; only the uniqueness of the traits between aspects is important. Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999) test this assumption through analyzing the internal consistency of self-complexity as measured by

[7] The current study demonstrates this as well (r=0.328).

H. These researchers find that when conducting a split-half reliability test, the valence, or whether the attributes are more positive or more negative, affect the level of reliability of self-complexity (or the H statistic). Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999) explain that self-complexity as measured by H reveals low internal consistency because it is sensitive to the valence of the traits. The phenomenon demonstrates that self-complexity does not represent one latent factor but two: positive and negative S-C.

A few studies have used alternatives to the H statistic, but it is too early to tell if these new measurements are more valid and reliable. For example, Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999) suggest dividing self-complexity into its two components, number of aspects and overlap of aspects. They find these measures to be more reliable regardless of the valence of the traits. Therefore, Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999) conclude that the theory of the model is not flawed but the measurement of self-complexity should be modified. They suggest that rather than utilizing the H statistic to create one measure of S-C, researchers should examine the number of aspects and a measure of overlap separately.

Following suggestions by Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999), Constantino et al. (2006) examine the number of aspects created by subjects and overlap of aspects separately, treating both components equally. When examining the interaction between the overlap of aspects and stressful life events, they find that, as predicted, those with less overlap in the traits they endorse in their self-aspects were less likely to be depressed after experiencing negative events. They did not find evidence that both low overlap and more aspects are equally necessary for complexity to buffer stress. Finally, Constantino et al. (2006) find that number of self-aspects reduces the extent to which one views situations

in life as stressful but does not condition the effect of negative events on perceived stress, as Linville would predict.

Rothermund and Meiniger (2004) find that the number of aspects moderates the relationship between stressful life events and depression with depression only increasing as a result of negative life events when the number of self-aspects (roles, identities, etc) is low. Contrary to the Constantino et al. (2006) study, no interactions were found for the amount of overlap between self-aspects. In addition, overlap between self-aspects does not appear to be an important buffer of stress.

Brown and Rafaeli (2007) also examine the components of self-complexity separately. They find that having more roles may make one vulnerable to mild stress but having more roles with less overlap between them buffers the effect of severe stress on depression.

In sum, most experimental studies and some non-experimental studies using the H statistic find support for the benefits of self-complexity when experiencing stressful events. Yet, some studies fail to find support. Several factors may contribute to the mixed findings. For example, the H statistic does not distinguish between actual complexity and the probability of an individual selecting traits. This is best explained by examining positive versus negative S-C. Individuals with low self-esteem who view themselves negatively will likely select negative traits to describe their self-aspects. If they have a bias towards choosing negative traits, the researcher cannot tell if these individuals have a negative self-concept in general or are truly more complex. "Therefore, we cannot know if the results of previous research were due to differences in the complexity of patterns of trait endorsement across roles or simply differences in the

number of traits endorsed within the role" (Locke 2003: 275). If prior studies differ in the probability distribution of selecting traits, then H will be influenced by more than complexity across studies, which would explain the mixed findings. In addition, the H statistic does not allow researchers to disentangle the effect of the number of aspects and the overlap between them. Therefore, it is not possible to determine if both elements are necessary for the buffering effect to occur.

This study will build on prior work by measuring self-complexity with the overlap statistic and the number of aspects separately. Exploring overlap and the number of self-aspects can help to disentangle the effects of these two components in order to determine if both parts of complexity are important. Also, the overlap statistic is better able to capture whether spill over of emotions is more likely, because it assesses how similarly individuals view themselves between their roles. In addition, this study will expand prior work through examining the relationship between self-complexity and other emotions beyond depressed moods and looking beyond mental and physical health to criminal outcomes. Through examining these alternative measures and outcomes, this study will extend the self-complexity literature showing its relevance to other areas of inquiry. Finally, this study hopes to clarify the mixed findings of previous studies.

E. What's in the Self-Concept: Does Content Matter?

While Linville's original theory of self-complexity argued that the structure of the self-concept rather than the content is important for buffering stress, other researchers have begun to examine how the content of the self-concept may affect such things as perceived stress and depression (Koch and Shepperd 2004; Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999). Researchers have begun looking at a variety of dimensions but the

majority of the work examines valence of the attributes, which separates out negative and positive complexity.[8]

One major argument is that the valence of traits within the self-concept should differentially affect outcomes. Researchers have begun to calculate a negative and positive self-complexity arguing that the uniqueness of positive or negative traits endorsed between self-aspects may be important for outcomes. Morgan and Janoff-Bulman (1994) provide evidence that complexity may operate differently based on whether the complexity of a person's self-representations are more positive or more negative. In particular, they find that positive self-complexity is more beneficial to those who have experienced a traumatic event than negative S-C or total S-C, suggesting that having a more complex view of self is more beneficial when the traits endorsed are positive rather than negative. Those who were higher in positive S-C experienced fewer symptoms of emotional and psychological distress and better coping ability in the form of constructive thinking when they had experienced a traumatic event. Positive self-complexity did not make a difference for outcomes among the group of students who had not experienced an extremely traumatic event.

Of course, causal order may be an issue in this cross-sectional study because mood may affect level of self-complexity (i.e., those experiencing a traumatic event are likely to be in a sad mood). Salovey (1992) finds that those who are in a sad or happy mood describe themselves in a more complex way because these extreme moods lead

[8] Although beyond the scope of this study, researchers have examined other facets of the content of the self-structure as they relate directly with outcomes. For example, Niedenthal et al. (1992) found that individuals have a distinct actual and possible self-complexity, or how they see themselves in the future, and that these complexities uniquely affect mood after receiving feedback in experimental situations. Ryan et al. (2005) examined the direct relationship between authenticity of self-aspects (or how authentic the respondent felt in that role) and depression and well-being. Finally, McConnell et al. (2005) found that having less control over aspects leads to negative outcomes.

individuals to focus on the self. Individuals who are in a neutral mood are lower in self-complexity. When individuals are in a sad or happy mood, a larger amount of information about the self is available which serves to increase self-complexity.

In addition, Abela and Veronneau-McArdle (2002) find that seventh graders who are higher in negative self-complexity are more likely to be depressed after experiencing a negative event than those who are lower in negative self-complexity.

Showers et al. (1998) find that self-complexity buffers the effect of stress on depression but only when individuals view themselves more positively within their aspects. When individuals view themselves more negatively, then lower self-complexity may be advantageous.

Locke (2003) cautions that findings that report the benefits of positive self-complexity and the drawbacks of negative self-complexity may be misleading. He demonstrates that negative and positive complexity mostly reflects whether individuals are more likely to choose negative or positive traits to describe themselves rather than complexity of the self-concept. In particular, he found that once he controlled for the probability of respondents choosing negative or positive traits, positive and negative self-complexity as measured by the H statistic could not explain changes in depression and self-esteem. This is because people who are lower in self-esteem and higher in depression are more likely to choose negative traits to describe themselves (Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999). In other words, these individuals are not more negatively complex, they are just more likely to describe themselves more negatively (Locke 2003). The H statistic alone cannot capture this important nuance. In sum, some studies have found strong support for Linville's model while others have found weak support. The

mixed findings may be explained primarily by the different ways that self-complexity has been measured, especially the possible problems of using H and the use of cross-sectional designs (Constantino et al. 2006; Koch and Shepperd 2004; Locke 2003).

Researchers have begun to explore how the content of self-complexity is important for outcomes such as depression, primarily by examining the valence of attributes, but with a few exceptions. As Locke (2003) demonstrates, these studies may be flawed because researchers have not shown whether being more positively or negatively complex is related to outcomes or whether being more likely to describe the self positively or negatively explains outcomes. In other words, someone may appear to be high in negative self-complexity as measured by H because they select a variety of negative traits. It may be that they have a high probability of selecting all of the negative traits because they are depressed, which will affect the level of H. Those who describe themselves negatively are more likely to be depressed, have lower self-esteem, and have a more difficult time coping with stress than those who describe themselves positively (Kendall and Hollon 1981; Schwartz 1986; Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999). Those who have a negative view of self may also be more likely to cope with strain through crime.

To overcome these problems, this study will not rely on H. Rather, I examine the effect of the number of aspects and the degree of overlap between them separately and then analyze the interaction between both components as suggested by Locke (2003) and Rafaeli-Mor et al. (1999), controlling for the proportion of positive and negative responses endorsed. Therefore, I will have the ability to determine if self-complexity

explains my results or whether having a positive or negative view of self in general explains my results.

III. GENERAL STRAIN THEORY

According to Agnew's general strain theory (GST), people are pressured into crime through strain. "Strains refer to events or conditions that are disliked by individuals" (Agnew 2006: 4). Agnew distinguishes between three types of strain including the failure to achieve positively valued goals, the removal of positively valued stimuli, and the presentation of negatively valued stimuli (Agnew 1992; Agnew 2006). Failure to achieve positively valued goals may include having less money, status, or autonomy than is desired. The loss of something valued may include property or money that is stolen, death of someone close to the individual, or break up of a romantic relationship. Finally, negative stimuli include victimization, negative relationships with parents, teachers, and friends, and other stressful life events (Agnew and White 1992; Agnew 2006). It is important to note that strains that are viewed as more severe, those that violate a justice norm, and those that are associated with low social control are most readily resolved through criminal coping, and are therefore more relevant for explaining crime.

A. The Role of Negative Emotions

Agnew (1992; 2006) asserts that strain produces negative emotions such as anger, disappointment, frustration, depression, fear, or hopelessness. Negative emotions, especially anger, create pressure in the individual that needs to be alleviated. Anger leads to crime because people perceive lower costs of committing crime, they justify criminal acts and feel less guilt, and they are unable to discuss and resolve the problems calmly and rationally. Moreover, anger creates a sense of power and desire for revenge (Agnew 1992; Agnew 2001). Agnew argues that state anger is more likely to lead to crime than

trait anger. State anger refers to anger that results from experiencing a specific strain while trait anger refers to a trait-based disposition towards anger. Researchers who examine the role of trait-based anger argue that it increases the likelihood that someone will respond with anger in a stressful situation (Hay 2003; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Mazerolle and Piquero 1998; Mazerolle et al. 2000).

Research on the relationship between strain and anger shows that strain does lead to anger (Agnew 1985; Aseltine et al. 2000; Bao et al. 2004; Baron 2004; Brezina 1996; Brezina 1998; Broidy 2001; Ganem 2007; Hay 2003; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Mazerolle and Piquero 1998; Piquero and Sealock 2004; Sigfusdottir et al. 2004), and situational anger is a stronger predictor of crime than trait anger (Mazerolle et al. 2003). In addition, anger does appear to mediate the relationship between strain and crime as the theory predicts (Agnew 1985; Aseltine et al. 2000; Bao et al. 2004; Brezina 1998; Broidy 2001; Capowich et al. 2001; Hay 2003; Jang and Johnson 2003; Jang and Lyons 2006; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Sigfusdottir et al. 2004), although not all studies find this relationship (Baron and Hartnagel 2002; Capowich et al. 2001; Mazerolle et al. 2000; Piquero and Sealock 2000). Anger has been found to be a more important predictor of aggressive crimes than non-aggressive crimes and deviance such as drug use, shoplifting, driving while drunk, or truancy (Aseltine et al. 2000; Capowich et al. 2001; Ganem 2007; Jang and Johnson 2003; Piquero and Sealock 2000).

In Agnew's original conceptualization of general strain theory, he highlighted the central importance of anger in producing crime (Agnew 1992). Strain also leads to other negative emotions, however, such as alienation, depression, frustration, anxiety, resentment, guilt, and fear (Aseltine et al. 2000; Bao et al. 2004; Benda and Corwyn

2002; Brezina 1996; Broidy 2001; De Coster and Heimer 2001; Ellwanger 2007; Ganem 2007; Hay 2003; Jang and Johnson 2003; Jang and Lyons 2006; Ostrowsky and Messner 2005; Peirce et al. 1994; Piquero and Sealock 2004; Sharp et al. 2001; Sigfusdottir et al. 2004; Van Gundy 2002). Recent research has begun to explore the relationship between these other emotions and crime. In particular, researchers have paid special attention to the relationship between strain and depression and the relationship between depression and crime especially as an explanation for gender differences in crime (Broidy and Agnew 1997; Jang and Johnson 2003; Ostrowsky and Messner 2005; Peirce et al. 1994; Piquero and Sealock 2004; Sigfusdottir et al. 2004; Van Gundy 2002). The relationship between depression and crime is less strong than that of anger and crime, however. Some research shows that depression mediates the relationship between strain and crime (Bao et al. 2004; Jang and Johnson 2003), while most studies fail to find this effect (De Coster 2005; Ostrowsky and Messner 2005; Sigfusdottir et al. 2004). Still other studies show that depression interacts with anger to produce crime (Sharp et al. 2001; Smith and Thomas 2000). In contrast, additional studies find that when high levels of anger and depression coexist as a result of strain, depression serves to inhibit criminal behavior (Sigfusdottir et al. 2004). Finally, some studies find that strain leads directly to depression for females but not for males, while strain leads directly to crime among males and not females (De Coster 2005).

While classic strain theorists examined how strain leads to frustration, most recent research on GST focuses on anger and treats frustration as simply a type of anger (Cohen 1955; Merton 1938). For example, Benda and Corwyn (1996; 2002) find that frustration leads to sexual activity and violent behavior although their measure of frustration is

similar to items used in anger scales, such as holding grudges and losing temper easily (Brezina 1996; 1998; Brezina et al. 2001). Brezina et al. (2001) use the terms interchangeably. This treatment of frustration as similar to anger may be justified in that studies on emotions find that frustration may be a weakened form of anger (Shaver et al. 1987). Ellwanger (2007) finds that frustration with other drivers lead individuals to cope through speeding, aggressive driving, and risk taking. Liu and Lin (2007) find that higher levels of frustration lead to delinquency among Chinese youth. Ngai and Cheung (2005) find that frustration, which is measured with items such as doing badly despite effort, having a general feeling of frustration, no reward even after completing tasks, working more but getting less than others, feeling of inadequate ability, and being a failure was associated with reduced delinquency among Chinese youth. I suspect that these opposite findings may be a function of the operationalization of frustration which may lead to withdrawing behaviors rather than crime. Finally, Ganem (2007) finds that when important goals are blocked, individuals are more likely to experience frustration whereas behavior that is viewed as intentional and personal leads to anger.

In sum, recent research suggests strain leads to a variety of emotions resulting in a host of criminal and deviant outcomes, sometimes differing by gender. As predicted by GST, anger generally mediates the relationship between strain and crime, especially aggressive crimes. In addition, frustration generally leads to more crime. The relationship between depression and crime is less clear. This study focuses on anger and frustration because these two emotions have been found to lead to criminal coping. In addition, this study examines the role of depression because of this emotion's possible influence on certain types of crime and also because of its importance in the self-

complexity literature. Future studies should examine the role of other emotions although anger/frustration and depression denote a good starting point because they represent prototypical emotions (Shaver et al. 1987).

Because research suggests that different emotions may lead to different types of crimes such as depression leading to alcohol use in order to provide "psychological relief" (Peirce et al. 1994: 294), this study examines a variety of criminal and deviant behaviors including assault, shoplifting, drinking alcohol, drug use, and cheating on an exam. For example, Jang and Johnson (2003) ascertain that depression is more strongly related to drug use than fighting, while anger is more strongly related to fighting than drug use. Also, Jang and Lyons (2006) present further evidence that inner-directed emotions such as depression and anxiety have a stronger effect on withdrawing behaviors than anger. In addition, Bao et al. (2004) discover that the type of crime committed depends on the emotion experienced. For example, they find that anger leads to violent, property, and school crime, resentment leads only to property and school crime, and both anxiety and depression lead to school crime. Capowich et al. (2001) determine that anger mediates the relationship between strain and fighting while other negative emotions such as feeling depressed mediate the relationship between strain and shoplifting. Finally, Ganem (2007) finds that certain types of strain such as events that are intentional and personal lead to anger and anger itself is more likely to lead to hitting another person. In addition, experiencing blocked goals leads to frustration and threats lead to fear. Finally, she finds that fear leads to escaping behavior such as cutting class (Ganem 2007).

B. What Types of Strain Lead to Crime?

Not all strains lead to crime and not all people will respond to strain with crime. Because practically any negative event can be classified as strain, Agnew specifies when strain is likely to result in crime (2001; 2006). In particular, strains that are seen as high in magnitude or severity, unjust, associated with low social control, and create some incentive for criminal coping are more likely to result in crime (Cullen and Agnew 2006: 166).

According to Agnew (2001; 2006), strain that is high in magnitude or severity is more likely to lead to crime because it affects the individual to a higher degree. For example, someone who is seriously hurt by another or loses a lot of money experiences more severe strain. In particular, strains are severe when they occur frequently, to a higher degree (i.e. more physical injury or money loss), more recently, and are anticipated to continue in the future (Agnew 2001, 2006). Finally, strain that is high in magnitude threatens the "core goals, needs, values, activities, and/or identities of the individual" (Cullen and Agnew 2006: 204). Anderson (1999) provides a good example of this where youth in an impoverished urban community maintain a masculine identity through violence. Threats to masculine identity are more severe because they threaten the core goals, needs, values, activities, and identities of these individuals. In addition, strains that are expected to continue in the future are higher in magnitude. For example, males in this neighborhood anticipate violent affronts to their masculinity from peers to continue over time and so they engage in preemptive violence as a way to deter victimization and induce fear or gain status. Severe strain also affects the ability to cope in a legal manner. For example, if someone loses a large amount of money then it is

more difficult to replace this legally. Severe strain is more likely to lead to anger and/or depression reducing the perceived costs of crime.

Second, strains that are seen as unjust are also more likely to lead to crime because such strains produce an angry emotional state. An unjust strain is one that is voluntary and intentionally inflicted on someone and violates a "justice norm." For example, intentionally shoving someone to the ground will be more likely to produce anger followed by crime, than would accidentally bumping into someone.

Third, strains are more likely to lead to crime when they are associated with low social control (Agnew 2006). Social control includes direct control, or the extent to which behavior is monitored and sanctioned, moral beliefs, and bonds with conventional others. For example, abused and neglected children will experience less supervision and be less likely to be attached to their parents. Therefore, the costs of crime will be reduced. Those low in social control lack social support from conventional others such as parents and financial resources that may facilitate noncriminal coping (Agnew 2001; 2006). On the other hand, strain resulting from a demanding prestigious job will be less likely to lead to crime because the individual will be bonded to conventional society, have much more to lose if caught, and will have greater financial resources which can help alleviate strain.

Fourth, strains are more likely to result in criminal coping when some sort of pressure or incentive is exerted such as when the strain involves others who model, reinforce, teach, and/or pressure someone into crime. In addition, strains that are more easily resolved through crime provide more incentives and/or rewards. An example of this is stealing in order to acquire money when one desperately needs money. It is much

easier to steal money than it is to steal educational success. Once again, Anderson's (1999) work on the subculture of violence in the inner city provides a prime example of this wherein the method of coping with strain through violence is modeled and reinforced by parents and peers. Youth in the inner city neighborhood learn that they gain status through being tough and engaging in violence. Incentives or positive reinforcements for crime will increase the probability that people will choose to alleviate negative emotions through crime.

In sum, strains that are perceived as high in magnitude or severe, unjust, associated with low social control, and create some incentive for criminal coping are more likely to result in crime.

C. Why are Some People More Likely to Respond to Strains With Crime?

Agnew (2006) notes that not everyone will respond to strain with crime. Most people find noncriminal ways to cope with strain, such as exercise or discounting the importance of the strain. Therefore, coping with strain through crime depends on a variety of characteristics of the individual and the environment. Agnew (2006) focuses on five different factors that may condition the effect of strain on crime including (1) poor coping skills and resources, (2) low levels of conventional social support, (3) low social control, (4) association with criminal others and beliefs favorable to crime, and (5) exposure to situations where the costs of criminal coping are low and the benefits are high (92). Researchers have examined a few of the conditioning factors that should increase the likelihood of engaging in crime as a result of strain finding some significant interactions.[9]

[9] Overall, a number of studies have failed to find significant conditioning effects. It may be that these factors are not as important as previously thought, although McClelland and Judd (1993) do note that

Poor Coping Skills and Resources

First, those with poor coping skills and resources should be more likely to respond to strain with crime. Agnew lists several types of coping skills and resources which may reinforce criminal coping such as poor problem solving and social skills, low constraint and negative emotionality, low socioeconomic status, and low self-efficacy. For example, someone who has poor problem solving and social skills may be unable to generate noncriminal solutions to strain because they are more likely to believe they are being treated with hostility and they fail to recognize the negative consequences of crime. Piquero and Sealock (2000) found some limited support for the conditioning effects of emotional and spiritual coping skills. Specifically, they found that the effect of depression on property crime was reduced for those higher in these coping skills.

Similarly, those low in constraint and high in negative emotionality, or those low in self-control are also more likely to believe others are treating them with hostility, even if they are not. Also, they have less empathy for others, are attracted to risky activities, and act without thinking. Paternoster and Mazerolle (1994) found that those low in self-control were no more likely to respond to strain with crime. In support of this conditioning effect, Mazerolle and Maahs (2000) and Agnew et al. (2002) found that those who are low in self-control are more likely to commit crime as a result of strain.

In addition, those with fewer financial and educational resources will be less able to cope with strain legally. For example, someone with a college degree and a savings account can adapt to unemployment easier than someone who dropped out of high school

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detecting interaction effects are much more difficult in survey research than experimental research because of the nonoptimal distribution of the interaction terms which ultimately leads to lower statistical power than experiments (McClelland and Judd 1993). Much of criminology research is non-experimental, however, and significant interactions have been identified.

and has no savings. The educated person will be able to more easily find another job and will be more likely to have other financial resources. The person low in socioeconomic status will be unlikely to have resources to fall back on when facing strain such as unemployment. Little research has been conducted in this area with one study showing that family income does not condition the effect of strain on crime (Hoffman and Cerbone 1999).

Agnew (2006) argues that those high in self-efficacy are more likely to feel they can master their problems. Therefore, when faced with strain, these individuals will be more likely to engage in behavioral strategies to counteract the strain and be less likely to blame others for their strain than those who do not feel they can do anything, or those low in self-efficacy (Agnew and White 1992). Little evidence supports that self-efficacy conditions the relationship between strain and crime (Agnew and White 1992; Baron 2004), with the majority of the studies failing to support this part of the theory (Aseltine et al. 2000; Baron 2004; Baron and Hartnagel 2002; Eitle and Turner 2003; Hoffman and Cerbone 1999; Hoffman and Miller 1998; Paternoster and Mazerolle 1994).

Finally, Agnew (1992) argues that those who are higher in self-esteem should be better able to resist the negative effects of stress because they will be able to engage in non-criminal coping strategies. Most research finds that contrary to expectations, self-esteem does not reduce the likelihood of strain leading to crime (Aseltine et al. 2000; Baron 2004; Eitle and Turner 2003; Hoffman and Cerbone 1999; Hoffman and Miller 1998).

Low Levels of Conventional Social Support

Second, Agnew argues that those who lack conventional social supports will be more likely to respond to strain with crime. This is because those who have conventional social supports can rely on a variety of people to help them cope with strain such as parents, teachers, friends, romantic partners, neighborhood residents, and church members. Once again, the evidence for this conditioning effect is mixed with one study showing that having family one is close to and friends that one feels he or she can talk to conditions the effect of strain on negative emotions and withdrawing behaviors (Jang and Lyons 2006) while other studies do not find a conditioning effect for social support (Capowich et al. 2001; Eitle and Turner 2003; Paternoster and Mazerolle 1994), or find mixed support (Robbers 2004).

Low Social Control

Third, Agnew (2006) asserts that those low in social control, or those who do not believe crime is wrong, have few emotional bonds with conventional others, and those who are not invested in conventional activities will be more likely to cope with strain through crime. Strain will likely lead to crime when an individual's social control is weak because the individual has little to fear if caught and the individual is less likely to feel guilty when engaging in crime compared to those who are higher in social control. In addition, because of weak attachments to conventional others and investments in conventional institutions, those low in social control will be unlikely to have the social support or resources to facilitate noncriminal coping. Evidence shows that those with strong attachments are less likely to commit crime after experiencing strain (Agnew et al. 2000; Agnew et al. 2002; Aseltine et al. 2000; Mazerolle et al. 2000) although job commitment does not condition this relationship (Baron and Hartnagel 2002). Strain is

also more likely to lead to crime in communities characterized by a higher percentage of male joblessness (Hoffman 2002). Researchers have also examined whether strong moral beliefs decreases the likelihood of strain resulting in crime. Some have found this relationship (Baron 2004; Baron and Hartnagel 2002; Mazerolle and Maahs 2000), while others have not found support for this conditioning effect (Eitle and Turner 2003; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Paternoster and Mazerolle 1994).

Association With Criminal Others

Fourth, strain will also likely lead to crime among those who associate with criminal others because friends will model delinquent behavioral responses to strain and reinforce this behavior among their peers. In addition, delinquent or criminal peers may serve as a reminder to individuals of stressful events, making it difficult for them to minimize the impact (Agnew and White 1992). Some evidence supports that those with delinquent/criminal peers will be more likely to commit at least some types of crime when strained than those with fewer delinquent/criminal peers (Agnew and White 1992; Aseltine et al. 2000; Baron 2004; Baron and Hartnagel 2002; Mazerolle and Maahs 2000; and Mazerolle et al. 2000), although not all studies find this relationship (Agnew et al. 2002; Eitle and Turner 2002; Eitle and Turner 2003; Hoffman and Miller 1998; Mazerolle and Piquero 1997; Paternoster and Mazerolle 1994).

Costs of Crime Are Low – Benefits Are High

Finally, Agnew argues that criminal coping will be more likely when individuals encounter situations where the costs of crime are low and the benefits are high. For example, individuals will be more likely to engage in crime when they are unlikely to get

caught and if the target of the crime is valuable such as expensive property. To my knowledge, there is little research that directly tests this relationship.

Summary

In sum, Agnew (2006) posits that youth and adults are pressured into crime through strains that they experience. As a result of these strains, people will experience negative emotions such as anger, frustration, or depression. If they lack the resources to cope with strain through legal means or are predisposed to engage in crime, then people will be more likely to alleviate negative emotions through crime (See a model of Agnew's general strain theory in Appendix 3). The evidence shows strong support for strain leading to crime through negative emotions such as anger, frustration, and depression. The evidence is mixed for the conditions under which strain is more likely to lead to crime.

D. How Can Self-Complexity Inform General Strain Theory?

As described above, general strain theory suggests a host of potentially important conditioning variables although many have received little empirical support. However, GST has perhaps overlooked a key variable, self-complexity. Self-complexity has received a substantial amount of attention in the psychology literature but has received little to no discussion in the sociology and criminology literature. The psychology literature suggests that self-complexity may play an important role in influencing reactions to strain/stress. The relationship between strain and crime should be strongest for those who are lower in self-complexity because S-C affects perceptions of strain (subjective strain), emotional reactions to strain, as well as coping resources and outcomes beyond crime.

The central prediction of this study is that those lower in self-complexity should be more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity. In other words, those who have more aspects of self such as roles or identities and less overlap between them will be less susceptible to the negative emotional and behavior effects of stress for a variety of reasons outlined below.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals who are lower in self-complexity will be more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity.

Why Will Those Who are Lower in S-C be More Likely to Engage in Crime?

Those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to respond to strain with crime for a variety of reasons. In particular, those who are lower in self-complexity should experience stronger negative emotions than those who are higher in self-complexity for two reasons: (1) They should perceive strain as more severe; and (2) Negative emotions should be more likely to spill over into other self-aspects. First, those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to perceive strain as severe or higher in magnitude. Previous research supports this proposition showing that the level of self-complexity moderates the relationship between strain and perceptions of stress (Linville 1987). Strain is perceived as higher in magnitude when it threatens someone's core identity. Those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to perceive strain as severe because when something negative happens in one area, it will affect more of the individual's central identity. The individual will be reminded of the negative event in other self-aspects because of the overlap between them. Someone who is higher in self-complexity will not have a single core identity but rather will have numerous non-overlapping self-aspects that are important to the individual (Linville 1985; Linville

1987). Individuals high in self-complexity may be better protected from the impact of strains because they do not place all of their eggs in one cognitive basket, that is, they have more than one meaningful or important identity and do not focus on a single representation of self. Someone higher in self-complexity does not have one "master status" but has many less related roles that are meaningful to them. For example, the importance of school success may only comprise a small part of self for someone high in self-complexity. This person should perceive the strain of significant school failure as less severe because he or she has more self-aspects that overlap less than someone lower in S-C. Or, someone who is intentionally insulted by another person may not take the insult as personally if he or she has other unrelated parts of the self-concept that do not remind the individual of the strain and which he or she can emphasize. Individuals who perceive strain as less severe are less likely to experience negative emotions (Ganem 2007). Therefore, I predict that because strains are not perceived as severe for those higher in self-complexity, the emotions associated with strain should not be as strong because they will be contained within fewer self-aspects. Those who are lower in self-complexity will perceive strain as more severe leading to stronger negative emotions.

Sub-Hypothesis 1a: Individuals who are lower in self-complexity will perceive strain as being more severe than individuals who are higher in self-complexity.

Those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to resort to crime because negative emotions will be more likely to spill over into other self-aspects. When a negative event occurs in one domain, negative feelings in one aspect will spill over into another because self-aspects are closely associated. As noted earlier, the majority of the research on self-complexity has focused on depressed moods, finding that those high in

self-complexity are less likely to feel depressed when faced with strain. Linville (1985) finds that those lower in self-complexity experienced more fluctuations in their level of happiness, sadness, depression, and anxiety over a two week period. She argues that when those who are lower in self-complexity experience positive and negative events, the emotions are more likely to spill over into other aspects of self because similar aspects are associated in memory. In addition, Gramzow et al. (2000) find evidence that those who are higher in self-complexity will be less susceptible to frustration. Specifically, respondents who were higher in self-complexity reported that they are less likely to "give up and withdraw where possible in the face of frustration or adversity" (pg. 200). Therefore, it seems likely that self-complexity buffers the effects of strain on anger and frustration as well as depression. It is important to examine a variety of emotions because certain types of strain are more likely to lead to specific emotions (Ganem 2007). Someone who is higher in self-complexity should have a variety of positively valued goals associated with different aspects of self that are unrelated to each other. Therefore, when someone higher in S-C is unable to achieve a positively valued goal such as obtaining good grades or status, then it will not anger, frustrate, or depress them as much as someone who is lower in self-complexity who has fewer aspects of self with more overlap in self-aspects.

Sub-Hypothesis 1b: Individuals who are lower in self-complexity will experience higher levels of anger, frustration, and depressed mood as a result of strain than individuals higher in self-complexity.

Individuals who are lower in S-C should be more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain because they will likely have fewer coping resources than those who are

higher in self-complexity. Because those high in self-complexity have more diverse self-aspects, it is likely that these individuals acquire better coping skills such as problem solving and social skills. Morgan and Janoff-Bulman (1994) find some support for this proposition. They find that those who are higher in positive self-complexity have better coping ability in the form of constructive thinking. In addition, Dixon and Baumeister (1991) show that those who are higher in S-C write higher quality essays after receiving negative feedback on an anagrams test than those lower in self-complexity. Presumably, those higher in self-complexity are better able to cope with failing the test because they experienced less spill over of negative emotions. Individuals who are lower in self-complexity will be reminded of the negative event even when they try to focus their attention on other self-aspects because they view themselves similarly among them. Individuals who are higher in self-complexity may also learn of ways to cope with stress through having more non-overlapping self-aspects. Another indication that those who are higher in self-complexity may have better coping resources is that they are less likely to report they give up and withdraw when faced with frustration or adversity (Gramzow et al. 2000). Finally, Renaud and McConnell (2002) find that those who are higher in self-complexity are better able to suppress undesired thoughts than those lower in S-C. In sum, those who are higher in self-complexity should be better equipped to handle strain because they have more non-overlapping aspects which serve as coping resources.

Sub-Hypothesis 1c: Individuals who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity controlling for perceptions of strain and negative emotions.

Content of Self-Concept and Causes of Crime: Control Variables

Self-complexity may be correlated with a number of causes of crime. Below, I discuss in detail how self-complexity is most likely related to other theories. Because the aspects that people list and the traits that describe them may resemble major criminological processes, I take social control theory, labeling theory, social learning theory, and personality theories into account when examining the relationship between self-complexity and crime.

Self-Complexity and Social Control

Social control theory assumes that delinquency will result when bonds with conventional others and activities are weakened or broken (Hirschi 1969). When bonds are weak, then the benefits of crime will outweigh the costs and people will be free to commit crime. Hirschi (1969) focuses on four bonds or constraints including attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief.

Attachment refers to how much individuals like, respect, or care about conventional others. Commitment refers to how much people have to lose if they commit a delinquent act. For example, someone who has invested time and energy into work and education and has established a virtuous reputation will have a lot to lose if caught committing crime. Commitment also refers to anticipated investments such as ambition or aspirations in school or work. A measure of commitment may include grades in school or aspirations of getting a good job or graduating from college.

Involvement refers to how much time someone invests in conventional activities. For example, involvement includes how much time a person devotes to homework. People have less time to be delinquent when they devote more time to conventional activities such as work, school, or hobbies. Involvement and delinquency are usually

found to be related because being involved in conventional activities increases levels of attachment and commitment. For example, investing time and energy in school will enhance performance which will serve to increase attachment and commitment to school. Finally, belief refers to how much people believe that laws should be obeyed and how much people can excuse or justify lawbreaking (Akers and Sellers 2004).

Self-complexity is distinct from social control theory although complexity of self-concept may overlap with social control mechanisms. For example, people may describe self-aspects that overlap with important social bonds. Within these self-aspects such as student, daughter, or sorority sister, individuals may describe their selves as being attached and committed to these roles. For example, within the student self, someone may believe he or she is conscientious, studious, dedicated, and hardworking, all indicators of strong bonds to conventional school. A daughter may view herself as affectionate, comfortable, and giving which indicates that she likely has strong attachment towards her parents. In addition, involvement in activities and organizations will likely be related to self-complexity because self-complexity should increase as experiences increase (Linville 1985). Linville (1987) found that the traditional measure of self-complexity moderated the relationship between stress and physical and mental outcomes but a count of activities that students engaged in during the school year did not moderate the relationship. Therefore, it would appear that involvement in conventional activities is a distinct construct from self-complexity even though the two were correlated. Because of the possible overlap between self-complexity and social control mechanisms, it is important to control for these social bonds.

Controlling for social control variables is also important because social control processes may increase self-complexity. Linville (1985) speculates that as a result of increased diverse experiences in various roles and relationships, self-complexity should increase. As a result of involvement in conventional activities, not only should bonds be strengthened but also self-complexity should likely be increased. Being involved in more activities may reduce crime because individuals have little time to engage in crime and also because they become more attached and committed to conventional others and institutions. Another possible important advantage to being involved in a variety of conventional activities is that the individual develops more self-aspects that are important to them with less overlap between them. Therefore, individuals who participate in more activities should be less likely to engage in crime because of traditional social control explanations as well as because they are higher in self-complexity.

For example, someone who is employed in a low paying, dead-end job will likely have a lower stake in conformity feeling less attached and committed to the job. In addition, someone in such a job should have less opportunity to develop a complex self-concept because of the monotony of low-paying jobs. Someone in this situation will likely not mention this job as being an important or meaningful aspect of the self, which will reduce his/her self-complexity. Because this person will be more likely to live in an impoverished community with few resources, conditions at home should be very similar to conditions at work. Due to the similarities in these two aspects of life, how this person views him or herself at work will likely spill over into how he or she views him or herself at home. As a result, when faced with a negative life event in one domain, negative thoughts and feelings should also affect other aspects of the self. Therefore, being

involved in conventional activities, attached to conventional others, and having a high commitment to conventional activities not only reduces crime because of these strong bonds with society but also should reduce crime because being involved, committed, and attached to others should increase the available experiences of the individual increasing self-complexity.

Regardless of whether these experiences are all prosocial, they should contribute to the individual's level of self-complexity and buffer the effect of stress. It is possible that someone may be high in self-complexity but be low in social control, however. This study cannot fully explore how higher levels of attachment, commitment, and involvement can serve to increase self-complexity. I do argue, however, that self-complexity should be correlated with these elements but should still lead to a higher likelihood of engaging in crime even when controlling for social control variables.

Self-Complexity and Labeling Theory

The content of the self-concept as opposed to the organization of the self-concept (self-complexity) may also be important for reasons related to labeling theory (Becker 1963; Lemert 1951, 1972; Matsueda 1992). Specifically, when someone is labeled as a criminal, others treat this person in a harsh and rejecting manner. As a result of this treatment, the person may come to accept the deviant label because individuals base their self-concept on how others view them. As the person comes to accept this label, his or her self-concept will change. If, as a result of the labeling process, the individual views him or herself as deviant then he or she may engage in crime regardless of the level of self-complexity. Of course, someone who is higher in self-complexity may be better able to resist this labeling process because the negative emotions experienced after being

rejected will be less likely to spill over into other self-aspects. Therefore, self-complexity and deviant labeling are likely correlated because those who are lower in self-complexity may be more susceptible to successful labeling. I control for having a negative label of self to determine the independent effects of self-complexity.

Self-Complexity and Personality Traits

Personality characteristics associated with low self-control such as impulsivity, irritability, and sensation seeking have been shown to be important predictors of crime (Caspi et al. 1994; 2001; Gottfredson and Hirschi 1990; Kenna and Burstein 2005; Miller and Lynam 2001). Many of the trait lists used in prior self-complexity studies have included characteristics such as anxious, disagreeable, impulsive, irritable, self-centered, shallow, and aggressive that respondents may use to describe their self-aspects. Because these traits have been shown to indicate a disposition towards crime, I control for personality characteristics known to lead to crime when examining the effect of self-complexity.

Self-Complexity and Social Supports

Agnew argues that those who lack conventional social supports will be more likely to respond to strain with crime. "Social support is defined as the delivery (or perceived delivery) of assistance from communities, social networks, and confiding partners in meeting the instrumental and expressive needs of individuals" (Colvin et al. 2002). Social support may either be problem-oriented (instrumental) through seeking help from family or friends or nonproblem-directed (expressive) where the individual talks to others to receive sympathy without actually seeking advice (Colvin et al. 2002; Stone et al. 1988). The benefits of social support after experiencing stress have been long

noted in the mental health literature (Barrera 1983). Recently, criminologists have begun to examine the possible benefits of social support (MacNeil et al. 2000). Social support reduces crime because it reduces the impact of strain and anger providing individuals alternatives to criminal coping (Colvin et al. 2002). This is because those who have conventional social supports can rely on a variety of people to help them cope with strain such as parents, teachers, friends, romantic partners, neighborhood residents, and church members. Increased social supports may also increase social control of crime because individuals develop strong bonds with others through contacts (Colvin et al. 2002). Social support also can directly reduce crime even without the presence of stress (MacNeil et al. 2000; Robbers 2004).

Research indicates that having more roles and social attachments provides individuals with more social support and resources (Barnett 1999; Moen et al. 1995; Stalker 2008). Individuals with a large network of social support will also likely be higher in self-complexity because they occupy multiple social roles or self-aspects and depending on the variety of networks they occupy, individuals will be likely to view themselves differently in these different contexts. Individuals with few social support networks will likely be lower in self-complexity because they will likely define themselves with fewer self-aspects and, depending on how interrelated these aspects are, may view themselves very similarly. Therefore, individuals may gain a dual benefit from having a large support network. They may be higher in self-complexity which will reduce the likelihood of emotional spill over after strain and they will have more individuals to help them cope with strain when it does occur. In some cases in fact, it may not be necessary for people with a large support network to seek comfort from

others. This is because strain will not affect them as much emotionally as those who are involved with very few people who have little opportunity to develop a complex self-concept.

Self-Complexity and the Role of Peers

Strains are more likely to result in criminal coping when some sort of pressure or incentive is exerted such as when others model, reinforce, teach, and/or pressure someone into crime (Agnew 2006; Akers 1998; Warr 2002). For example, those who have more criminal peers are more likely to be reminded of strains they experience and to be encouraged by these peers to cope with strain through crime. Level of self-complexity may also affect this conditional relationship. Presumably, deviant peers will ridicule their friends when they do not respond to strain in an appropriate way. Anderson (1999) shows that individuals will fight with others in order to appear tough in front of their peers and to avoid being disparaged. The ridicule received from peers or expulsion from the group when individuals do not go along with the group may also represent a form of strain (Anderson 1999; Warr 2002). Individuals who are higher in self-complexity may be better able to resist the peer pressure that results in crime. Specifically, someone higher in self-complexity who views him or herself in a variety of deviant and non-deviant ways should be less susceptible to inducements to engage in crime because friendships with deviant others represent only one important aspect of self among many. They will also likely have less overlap between their self-aspects due to the variety of their relationships. Individuals may learn that crime is acceptable from criminal models but if they have a complex view of themselves, then they should be more resistant to pressure to engage in crime. While individuals may be taught that crime is desirable and

justifiable, they should have other non-criminal aspects in which to draw upon when deciding to engage in crime.

Individuals lower in complexity may learn that crime is acceptable and view a large part of their identity as a criminal. For these individuals, rejection from peers may affect them more than those who are higher in self-complexity because those who are lower in self-complexity should experience more negative emotions than those who have more unique self-aspects.

On the other hand, prosocial peers who pressure lower self-complexity individuals to refrain from crime may also have a stronger effect on emotions and behavior than they would on higher self-complexity individuals. For those who are lower in self-complexity, prosocial peers would likely make up a larger portion of the total self. When these peers pressure individuals to conform, they will be more likely to experience negative emotions and go along with their friends in order to alleviate these emotions.

In sum, peer disapproval whether is it encouraging or discouraging of crime should have a stronger effect on those who have fewer self-aspects with more overlap between them. Because of the likely correlation between criminal peer associations and self-complexity, I control for the number of criminal peers as well as peer beliefs regarding crime.

Self-Complexity and Demographics

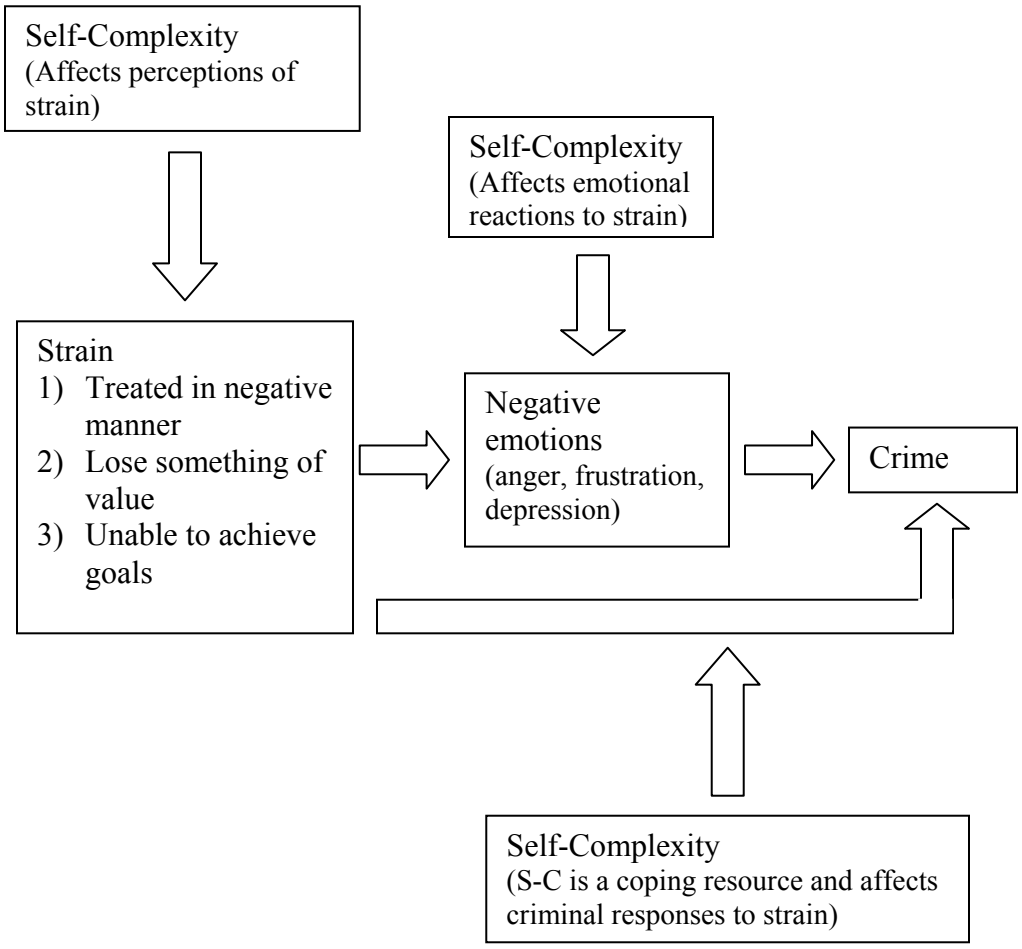
Finally, age and social class may also be related to self-complexity and will need to be taken into account. For example, Abela and Veronneau-McArdle (2002) find that older youth have a more complex self-concept. While no research that I know of has examined the relationship between social class and self-complexity, those who are higher

in social class will likely have additional experiences that lead to greater self-complexity. Linville (1987) speculates that self-complexity should increase when individuals have the opportunity to participate in a variety of activities. Individuals higher in social class may have more opportunities to participate in more activities and organizations than those lower in social class and as a result increase their self-complexity. Prior research has shown that gender is not related to self-complexity (Linville 1985; Solomon and Haaga 2003). Gender will be included as a control variable, however, because of known gender differences in criminal involvement.

Summary

In sum, the relationship between strain and crime should be strongest for those who are lower in self-complexity. Those who are higher in self-complexity should perceive strain as less severe and should therefore experience less severe emotions. Negative emotions, especially anger, resulting from strain should be less likely to spill over into other aspects of self for those higher in self-complexity. Finally, those who are higher in self-complexity should be less likely to cope with strain through crime because S-C serves as a coping resource. A number of factors such as social controls, deviant labels, personality traits, social support, criminal peers, social class, and age need to be taken into account because these variables are likely correlated with self-complexity. See Figure 1 below for an integrated model of S-C and GST.

Figure 1: Integration of Self-Complexity and General Strain Theory



E. How Can General Strain Theory Inform the Measurement of Self-Complexity?

General strain theory can inform the concept of self-complexity through expanding the types of self-aspects that can be measured. Specifically, aspects are not limited to the roles that people occupy. Rather, self-aspects include relationships, values, activities, identities, and goals of the individual. Therefore, in this study, respondents are instructed to think not only of roles but also meaningful ways they view themselves in terms of relationships, values, activities, identities, and goals. Individuals who describe more of these self-aspects are predicted to be less susceptible to strain because they will be less likely to experience strain that threatens their core goals, needs, values, activities, and identities. For example, strains can occur in any of these areas. Strain may threaten someone's goal of obtaining status, or result in the loss of a basic need such as being homeless. In addition, strain in the form of harsh discipline by parents may inhibit important values or activities of youth. Finally, strains may affect identities of individuals such as the masculine identity described in Anderson's (1999) work.

In sum, the concept of self-complexity will make important contributions to the field of criminology and general strain theory in particular. Specifically, self-complexity should make important contributions to several theoretical parts of GST. Self-complexity should affect the magnitude of emotional reactions that occur after individuals experience strain because the level of self-complexity should affect both perceptions of the severity of strain and whether negative emotions spill over into other aspects of self. Finally, self-complexity represents a distinct factor that should affect whether individuals will be more or less likely to cope with strain through legal or illegal means because S-C serves as a coping resource. Those who are higher in self-complexity should not be as susceptible to

strains that provide incentives to cope through crime because their complex self-concept provides a resource that people can draw upon.

IV. METHODS

A. Data Collection Method

The present study employed a web based survey of undergraduates from Emory University. Respondents were recruited in 44 social science classes including sociology, psychology, economics, anthropology, and political science during a three week period in March 2008.[10] Despite my focus on social science classes, I obtained participants in a variety of courses in the hard sciences and humanities because many of these courses were cross-listed in other departments such as Physics, Chemistry, Linguistics, African American Studies, and Women's Studies. Social science classes were chosen as an avenue of recruitment because it is likely that social science professors are more receptive to allowing class time for recruitment of respondents for a sociology study.[11] Very few professors refused to allow me to recruit in their classes. A few professors did not respond to my email or responded after I had already scheduled other recruitments during their class time. During recruitment, I briefly explained the purpose of the survey to the students and also that participation was completely voluntary and the decision to participate would not affect their grades or class standing in any way. I collected 777 email addresses of students interested in participating in the study.

At the end of the recruitment period, I emailed the students a link to the survey which was created using Qualtrics Survey Software. Each student received a unique link to the web-based consent form that could only be accessed one time. This procedure

[10] I targeted all sociology courses regardless of size. Sociology classes ranged from 5 students to close to 60. For the other social science departments, I initially targeted classes that had 45 students or more as a maximum enrollment although in some cases, I recruited in slightly smaller courses because most of the courses were smaller. I had no way of knowing actual enrollment or class attendance.

[11] It was not feasible to recruit in all subject areas because I needed to finish data collection during the first two weeks of April in order to avoid conflicting with end of the semester exams and papers.

prohibited students from completing the survey more than one time.[12] At the end of the survey, students were routed to another survey in which they provided their student identification numbers and email addresses. I collected this information so that I could compensate students $8 on their student cards in appreciation of their time participating and inform them when the money would appear on their card via email. Of the 777 who were emailed, 357 completed the survey. An additional 26 completed part of the survey and 83 respondents accessed the consent form but did not answer any questions. A total of 466 students either answered all or some part of the survey, or accessed it. It is unclear why respondents would click on the link but not answer any questions or why some would only answer part of the survey. It is likely that some students were interrupted when taking the survey or decided the survey was too long. Questions regarding prior criminal behavior appeared toward the end of the survey so it is unlikely that students quit taking the survey due to the serious nature of these questions.[13]

While this sample is not representative of the general population, undergraduates at Emory likely engage in a variety of offenses probed in this study (e.g., assault, shoplifting, alcohol/drug use, and cheating). For example, between 2005 and 2007, 814 liquor law violations and 70 drug violations were reported on the Emory University

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[12] Because the survey link was tied to individuals' email addresses, I was able to email the group that needed to complete the survey a reminder and the group who had already completed the survey a thank you email. After the students clicked the link and read the consent form and indicated they agreed to participate, they were routed to the main survey. Through routing respondents to a separate survey, I was able to collect data without being able to identify any individual. In other words, the survey software tracked respondents' email addresses when they accessed the consent form portion, but no identifying information was tracked in the main survey. The software program creates separate data files with no way to link them.

[13] Because the survey link could only be accessed once, students were required to complete the survey in one session. Based on email correspondence, at least 4 of the 26 students who started wanted to complete the survey at a later time but experienced technical issues with their internet browser, were interrupted, or accidentally closed out of the survey and were unable to reenter. Therefore, other students may have experienced similar problems, but neglected to contact me.

campus. The Emory Police Department reported 8 incidences of aggravated assaults and 135 burglaries between 2005 and 2007.[14] Most offenses are likely not reported to the Emory police department, especially ones that occur off campus such as fighting at a local bar or shoplifting and victimless crimes such as drug and alcohol use. Self-report data from this study indicate that the crimes examined in this study are somewhat common. In my sample, approximately 17% of Emory students admit to hitting another person, 21% report shoplifting, 58% say they have drank more than 4 beverages in a two hour period, 34% used marijuana, and 27% admit to cheating on an exam in the past year. In addition, general strain theory is applicable to a wide variety of crimes and deviance, including the relatively minor ones investigated in this study. College students also encounter a substantial amount of strain (Hamilton and Fagot 1988). Finally, nationally representative samples on criminal behavior do not include measures of self-complexity because most studies on S-C have been conducted on college samples. A college sample represents an ideal initial test of the relationship between strain, self-complexity, and crime because this sample experiences a fair amount of strain, engages in a variety of crimes and deviant acts, and prior studies show that students vary substantially on self-complexity. Future studies using nationally representative samples should include measures of self-complexity.

B. Sample

Data analysis is based on 357 respondents who completed the survey, although listwise deletion reduces this number. Students range from 18 to 25 years of age with a mean of 19.89 years (SD = 1.43). Females comprised 70.6% of the sample (n=252)

[14] The Emory Police Department does not report statistics on larceny which would be a better indicator of property crimes Emory students commit.

while males comprised 29.4% of the sample (n=105). Males and females were equally likely to finish the survey based on a difference of means t-test. Males are underrepresented in this sample compared to the Emory population as a whole. As of October 2007, females comprised 56.7% of the Emory undergraduate population while males comprised 43.3% of the population (Office of the Provost, Emory University, 2007). In this sample, whites made up 52.9% of the sample (n=189) compared to the Emory population of 53.3%. African Americans made up 10.9% of the sample (n=39) compared to 9.9% of the Emory undergraduate population. Asians are overrepresented in this sample comprising 26.6% of the sample compared to 18.2% of the Emory population. Other races including Native American, multiracial, and other include 26 respondents or 7.5% of the sample. This proportion is close to the Emory undergraduate population where 7.3% of the sample is classified as nonresident aliens or American Indian.[15] Finally, 5.7% of the sample identified themselves as Hispanic matching closely to the 5.6% Hispanic Emory population. Eight respondents did not answer the race question (2.2%).

The majority of the sample are freshman (34.2%). Sophomores comprise 21.0% of the sample, juniors comprise 23.8% of the sample, and seniors comprise 18.8% of the sample.[16] Finally, 45 unique majors were represented among the sample with psychology, sociology, and economics comprising the highest proportion with roughly

[15] Emory University does not report on other races beyond African American, Asian, Caucasian, and American Indian. While nonresident alien is not a race-based measure, it provides an imperfect approximation of how my sample may compare to the other category in the university population.
[16] Although undergraduates were specifically recruited for this study, a few students indicated that they were in graduate school. Because some of the questions, possibly in the strain measure for example, would not be as relevant to graduate students, I ran the models with and without these students to check for possible bias. These 3 students were retained in the analyses because no differences were detected.

11% in each major. Approximately 7% of the sample indicated that their major was political science and 7% of the sample indicated that they were undecided in their choice.

C. Measures

Because I am interested in situational emotional reactions to strain and perceptions of strain, I presented respondents with hypothetical scenarios. Based on these scenarios, I had students answer on a likert type scale how angry, frustrated, and depressed they would feel if they were the protagonist in each of the situations presented. In addition, I asked respondents whether they would behave in the same way as the main character in the scenario, i.e., would they be likely to offend in this situation. A scenario methodology is advantageous because I can address situational emotional and behavior reactions to specific strains that are not easily measured in cross-sectional and longitudinal studies (Agnew 1985; Agnew 1989).

Respondents also answered questions regarding prior levels of crime committed during the past year and prior strain experienced during the same time period. I also include variables that have been hypothesized to condition the relationship between strain and crime such as level of social support, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. Finally, I control for demographic variables, social control variables, labeling variables, social learning variables, and personality characteristics conducive to crime.

Self-Complexity: Operationalization and Measurement

In order to determine the adjectives provided in the survey to create the self-complexity measure, I conducted two pretests. In the first pretest, I asked a group of students from a medium size class to describe themselves in an open format.[17] The

[17] One possible critique of the measure of self-complexity is that intelligence affects the words that are chosen in pretests as well as how people describe themselves and the words they endorse in the self-

majority of the students in the class were female, which is typical of sociology courses at Emory (31 females and 7 males). The second pretest determined how positive or negative the words generated from the first pretest were viewed by a different group of students.

For the first pretest, I handed out a sheet of paper with the following instructions at the top:

"People may use different adjectives to describe themselves. I am interested in the words that you feel best describe you. Please think about yourself in different contexts such as a student, with friends, at home, etc… when you describe yourself. Also, consider both positive and negative adjectives. Please write one word in each box. You can write as many words as you like."

Students had space to list up to 48 words. Only 2 students chose to list a full 48 adjectives to describe themselves. Overall, the pretest yielded 422 words. After grouping the words, I matched up the synonyms to avoid redundancies.[18] Because this list of words was overwhelmingly positive, I also included three additional negative words mentioned by students that have been used by other major self-complexity studies. This yielded a list comprised of approximately 2 positive words for every 1 negative

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complexity task. However, prior research indicates that verbal and abstract intelligence and American College Testing (ACT) scores are not related to self-complexity (Kalthoff and Neimeyer 1993; Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999).

[18] In order to determine whether words were synonyms I relied on an internet dictionary (www.yourdictionary.com), a web-based thesaurus (www.thesaurus.com), and Roget's 21st Century Thesaurus in Dictionary Form (1992). After matching up synonyms, I totaled the frequencies for each word and their synonyms. I chose to include the most frequently mentioned words in my second pretest. Words and/or their synonyms had to be mentioned at least 3 times in order to be included. In the case where words had several synonyms, I chose the most frequently used word. The only exception to this rule was when the most frequently used words might cause confusion such as words that sounded similar or had multiple meanings. For example, fun and funny were frequently used. Even though the word humorous was not used quite as often, I chose to include it instead of funny in the list to avoid any confusion in words that sounded similar. Also, humorous was derived in other pretests from other self-complexity studies (Linville 1985; 1987).

word, with 93 words total.[19] Typically, psychologically healthy individuals are more likely to use positive rather than negative words to describe themselves compared to individuals with psychological problems, with a roughly 1.7 to 1 ratio of positive to negative self-statements (Kendall and Hollon 1981; Schwartz 1986). Linville has been critiqued for providing a disproportionate number of positive words to choose from in the sort task (Morgan and Janoff-Bulman 1994) because depressed individuals can more easily describe themselves when they have more negative words to choose from (Showers 1992). My pretest of Emory students revealed that they are more likely to list positive words than negative words to describe themselves. Also, the Emory population does not appear to be dysfunctional in terms of being clinically depressed or low in self-esteem. Emory students reported being depressed for approximately 2.13 days on average during the past 7 days (S.D. = 1.55), whereas one symptom of a major depressive disorder is being in a depressed mood for most of the day, nearly every day for a minimum of two weeks according to the Diagnostics and Statistical Manual IV. While this is not a direct comparison, it seems likely that more Emory students would report being depressed for most of the week if they were clinically depressed. Emory students also appear to be "functional" in self-esteem with an average of 3.088 on a scale ranging from 1 to 4 with 4 indicating the highest level of self-esteem.

In the second pretest, I had a small (11 students) and medium size class (32 students) rate the 93 words on how positive or negative they viewed them.[20] Specifically, students read the following directions for this task, "Please rate the following adjectives

[19] Before matching on synonyms, the 422 words generated in the first pretest appeared to be roughly 2 to 1 positive to negative.

[20] One outlier was removed because this student described most of the words in opposition to the majority of the sample. For example, this respondent rated "confused" as an extremely positive trait and "hardworking" as an extremely negative trait.

on how negative or positive you view them. Please circle your choice." They rated words on a scale from 1 to 7 with 1 indicating extremely negative and 7 indicating extremely positive.[21]

In order to determine the final word list, I utilized information from the first pretest and this second pretest. I examined all words that were mentioned at least 5 times in the open description pretest. A total of 55 words met this criterion. I then compared this list to the 55 words that had the lowest standard deviation on adjective valence. This resulted in a total of 30 words. Next, I examined the top 55 words with the lowest standard deviations and selected any words that had been used in Linville's study resulting in 5 more words. Words used in Linville's study were preferred because her list has been used in numerous self-complexity studies on college samples. Because these words were overwhelmingly positive, I chose 6 additional negative words with frequencies of 5 and above. The word was included if the standard deviation was below 1.2 and the word remained negative at one standard deviation below the mean.[22] The final word list included 42 words (28 or 66.7% positive, 13 or 31.0% negative, and 1 or 2.4% neutral) (For the final word list and valence see Appendix 4).

Numerous studies including Linville's pioneering study measure S-C through having undergraduates sort cards with traits listed on them into groups while in a laboratory setting. The subjects then write the numbers associated with the traits on a coding sheet labeling these groups if they wish. Not all studies follow this format

[21] When analyzing the valence of adjectives I recoded responses so that 0 indicated the word is viewed as neutral, 3 indicated the word was viewed extremely positively, and -3 indicated the word was viewed extremely negatively.

[22] Because I wanted to obtain close to a 2 to 1 ratio, I chose one additional negative word which met the standard deviation criteria but did not reach the frequency threshold. This word was chosen over two similar words because it has been used in the Linville studies and numerous other S-C studies.

however. A number of more recent studies implement a paper and pencil task where subjects first list all aspects of themselves such as roles and identities that they feel are meaningful to them (Abela and Veronneau-McArdle 2002; Brown and Rafaeli 2007; Cohen et al. 1997: Morgan and Janoff-Bulman 1994). Students then check off which adjectives describe each aspect.

McConnell and colleagues (2005) measured S-C on the computer requiring respondents to choose relevant traits from one column of the screen and move them to the other column if relevant for the aspect in question. Following McConnell and colleagues, I had respondents complete the S-C task on the computer. Similar to Abela and Veronneau-McArdle (2002), Brown and Rafaeli (2007), and Morgan and Janoff-Bulman (1994), I instructed students to list all self-aspects first. Drawing on insights from general strain theory, students were instructed that aspects can include personally meaningful roles, identities, relationships, values, goals, and/or activities. Once they felt they had created all of the important aspects of themselves, students were then prompted by the computer to check all relevant adjectives that describe each aspect they listed. Adjectives were presented in random order for each respondent to prevent potential biases with word order (Jones 1990). The instructions differ slightly from Linville's and others who require students to sort cards with adjectives listed on them into meaningful groups. Listing aspects first and then checking the adjectives that describe these aspects should facilitate a computer survey and large scale administration, however. The exact instructions which were based on Linville (1985; 1987) and Morgan and Janoff-Bulman (1994) are listed below:

"All of us have ways of thinking about ourselves in different situations. I am studying the ways people describe different aspects or "subselves" of themselves. For example,

aspects are ways that you think of yourself and might be a role that you play, an identity, a relationship, a value, a goal, and/or an activity you engage in.

Below, please list all aspects (roles, identities, etc) that you feel are important to you. YOU DO NOT NEED TO FILL IN EVERY BLANK. I realize that this task could be endless but I want only what you feel is meaningful to you. When you are straining to list more, it is probably a good time to stop.

After you have identified all of your aspects, click the arrow button. You will then be asked to choose adjectives to describe each aspect that you listed."

Self-complexity is made up of two important components, the number of aspects that are important to the individual and the degree of overlap between these self-aspects. Linville (1985; 1987) argues that self-complexity refers to both components operating together. I measure self-complexity through including an interaction between the number of aspects a person identified and the amount of overlap in adjectives used to describe them. While Linville attempted to capture the combined influence of aspects and overlap through the H statistic, a number of scholars have found that the H statistic in unreliable and invalid. The most serious critique of the H statistic is that it cannot definitively assess the spill over effect (Locke 2003). The spill over effect refers to the process where negative thoughts and feelings in one self-aspect will spill over into other closely related aspects. Someone who views him or herself very similarly or very differently in his or her self-aspects would have a similar value of self-complexity if measured by H (See Appendix 1 for examples of the calculation of H). I argue that self-complexity should buffer the effect of stress on negative emotions and crime. I do examine aspects and overlap separately, so that I can determine if both components operate together or if the number of self-aspects matter in one situation while overlap matters in another (Constantino et al. 2006; Locke 2003; Rafaeli-Mor et al. 1999). I do not make any specific hypotheses regarding the individual effects of these components. The H statistic

has been used to measure self-complexity in the vast majority of studies and continues to be used in contemporary studies (Showers et al. 2006; Steinberg et al. 2003). Therefore, I will also run analyses with this statistic although I make no hypotheses regarding its effect because it is questionable as to whether a higher H score truly represents someone who is higher in self-complexity.

In analyzing the interactions, I vary the number of self-aspects to determine the effect of the amount of overlap on the outcome at different levels of self-aspects. While I have no theoretical reasons to calculate the effect of overlap at different numbers of aspects, varying the number of aspects makes more intuitive sense. Also, I do not have to choose arbitrary values to examine the effect for aspects as I would for overlap.

Self-aspects refer to the number of roles, identities, relationships, goals, values, or activities the respondents felt were meaningful or important to them. They could list up to 25 self-aspects. The average number of self-aspects listed is 8.27. As mentioned earlier, overlap refers to the average amount of similarity between pairs of aspects. This statistic is calculated with the following formula: $OL = \sum_i(\sum_j C_{ij})T_i/n*(n-1)$. In this formula, C refers to the number of common traits endorsed in the two aspects that are being compared, while T refers to the total number of traits endorsed in the referent aspect and n denotes the total number of aspects the person listed (See Appendix 1 for an example of the calculation of overlap). Respondents who only listed one self-aspect were excluded from analyses since it was not possible to calculate overlap (this only applied to two respondents). For ease of interpretation, overlap was multiplied by 100 in order to convert it from a proportion to a percentage. The average percentage overlap among respondents is 37.31%.

Some researchers challenge the view that self-complexity is a single construct (Koch and Shepperd 2004; Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999). In particular, some researchers argue that positive self-complexity will buffer the effect of negative events while negative self-complexity will lead to negative outcomes directly (Morgan and Janoff-Bulman 1994; Woolfolk et al. 1995; Woolfolk et al. 1999). Locke (2003) has noted that the H statistic does not distinguish whether someone is more positively complex/negatively complex versus whether they are more likely to select positive/negative traits in general. People who view themselves negatively are less able to cope with negative events than those who describe themselves more positively (Kendall and Hollon 1981; Schwartz 1986). Therefore, I control for the probability of selecting negative and positive traits. The probability of selecting negative traits was calculated through summing all negative traits endorsed in aspects and dividing by 12 (the total number of negative traits available) times the number of self-aspects listed. The probability of selecting positive traits was calculated through summing all positive traits endorsed in aspects and dividing by 28 (the total number of positive traits available to select) times the number of aspects listed.

Scenarios

Respondents were presented with four hypothetical scenarios describing a stressful situation and the details of the crime committed by the character in the story. Respondents were then asked to indicate how angry, frustrated, and depressed they would feel if they were the main character in the scenario. In addition, respondents were asked about their perceptions of the severity and unfairness of the situation. They were then asked to indicate how likely it would be that they would engage in the criminal or deviant

act described. Finally, respondents answered how realistic they thought the scenario was and how confident they were in their answers.

The use of scenarios can be criticized because respondents' actual offending behavior may not be equivalent to intentions to offend. Numerous studies on deterrence research and general strain theory have corroborated findings from studies using actual offending (Bachman et al. 1992; Capowich et al. 2001; Mazerolle and Piquero 1998; Mazerolle et al. 2003; Morgan 2006; Nagin and Paternoster 1993; Nagin and Paternoster 1994; Paternoster and Simpson 1996; Piquero and Tibbetts 1996). These studies present a variety of crimes in hypothetical scenarios such as sexual assault, drunk driving, shoplifting, assault, drug and/or alcohol use, and corporate crime (Capowich et al. 2001; Mazerolle and Piquero 1998; Mazerolle et al. 2003; Morgan 2006). Green (1989) found that intentions to offend match quite closely with actual behavior. Also, recent meta-analysis reveals that attitudes, intention and behavior are strongly correlated (Kim and Hunter 1993). Finally, intentions to offend should match closely with actual offending behavior if efforts are made to present specific details of the situation such as the behavior, the target object of the behavior, and the location and time of the possible behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). For example, intentions to behave in a certain way should lead to a specific behavior when the respondent is aware of the important details of the situation. The scenarios were designed to describe the specific behavior, target of the behavior, and time and location of the behavior. Rather than asking the respondent if they would hit someone in general which may depend on a variety of factors, the scenarios describe the details of the situation so that the respondent can more accurately predict his or her own behavior.

In order to ensure that the scenarios were realistic for Emory students, I conducted a pretest where I asked students to read the scenarios and then provide feedback on the scenarios. I had a small class (N=11) read four scenarios describing the circumstances leading to different types of crimes/deviant acts including assault, shoplifting, drug and alcohol use, and cheating. Students answered open-ended questions regarding how realistic the characters were in the scenario, how realistic the situation was, and how realistic the locations in which the situations occurred. Students also were asked for suggestions to improve the scenario to make it more realistic for Emory students.[23]

Scenarios are advantageous over other methods because concrete details about the social context can be conveyed to respondents which may not be easily accomplished with regular survey questions (Finch 1987). In addition, the scenario method provides the advantage that no time lag exists between the measurement of strain, resulting emotions, and crime. Agnew (1985; 1989) argues that longitudinal data with a long lag time are not always appropriate when measuring the strain, emotion, and crime relationship because these factors should occur close together in time rather than over several years. For example, situational anger should be more likely to lead to crime than trait anger. Presenting scenarios represents an ideal way to measure situational anger because respondents can provide a reaction to a specific circumstance.

I drew upon the work of Capowich et al. (2001), Mazerolle and Piquero (1998), Mazerolle et al. (2003), and especially Morgan (2006) in the creation of the fighting, shoplifting, and drinking and drug use scenarios. The cheating scenario was based on the work of Murdock et al. (2007) and Burton et al. (2003). Because I wanted to explore the

[23] Three out of four scenarios including the ones that result in fighting, shoplifting, and drug/alcohol use were previously pretested with an Emory population (see Morgan 2006).

conditioning effect of self-complexity on a variety of emotions and crime, it was necessary to include several scenarios depicting several types of stressful situations. I include four scenarios that are likely to result in a variety of types of crime or deviance such as fighting, shoplifting, using drugs and/or alcohol, and cheating. These scenarios should lead to a variety of emotions including anger, frustration, and depression. Acts that are voluntary and unjustified are more likely to lead to anger (Averill 1983; Shaver et al. 1987). Therefore, the first scenario is likely to lead to anger and aggression because one person intentionally insults and threatens the other person physically (Shaver et al. 1987). Also, the protagonist is likely to view the situation as unfair and psychologically painful (Shaver et al. 1987). In addition, Shaver et al. (1987) find that individuals are likely to verbally and/or physically respond to a provocation when they are angry.

Frustration seems to be related to anger but may result from interference with a desired goal (Averill 1983; Shaver et al. 1987). The shoplifting situation is intended to evoke frustration because the main character experiences blockage in a desired goal (see Ganem 2006 for support).

The scenario that may result in drug and/or alcohol use should emit depressed emotions more than anger because the situation depicts an outcome that the protagonist is powerless to change (Shaver et al. 1987). Because individuals should be more likely to be depressed after falling short of their expectations, an active response is unlikely. However, someone may cope with these negative emotions through drug and/or alcohol use.

Finally, the cheating scenario presents a situation which will likely lead to feelings of frustration, perceptions of unfairness, and cheating behavior because the

individual is unable to do well in the class based on the professor's pedagogy (Murdock et al. 2007).

In sum, while I do not examine which types of strain are more likely to lead to different types of emotions in this study, there is good reason to believe that these scenarios will be more likely to lead to certain types of emotions than others and specific criminal/deviant behaviors (for a review of the literature and evidence on this topic see Morgan 2006).

Males and females were presented with the same scenarios with a couple of slight modifications in the fighting scenario. Also, I changed the names of the characters to match the sex of the respondent. Below, I present the scenarios for the male characters.

Fighting Scenario:

It's late Friday night. Doug and Jenny, who have been dating for almost a year, head to Maggie's after having a few beers in the Highlands.

After a while Doug leaves Jenny at the table to order another round of beers. At the bar he runs into some of his fraternity brothers and talks with them while waiting. While he is away, another guy, Brandon, who is with his friends at another table, comes over and starts talking to Jenny. Brandon sits next to her in the booth. Doug returns just as Brandon puts his arm around Jenny.

Doug recognizes Brandon. Brandon tried to flirt with Jenny a few weeks ago at a fraternity party. He even kept flirting after he found out that Doug and Jenny have been together for the past year. Doug is sure Brandon is hitting on Jenny just to make him jealous, though he doesn't know why. Doug has never done anything to antagonize Brandon in the past.

Doug asks, "What are you doing? You're hitting on my girlfriend." Brandon stands up and says, "She can talk to whoever she wants. Besides it was pretty obvious to me a couple of weeks ago at the party that she prefers talking to me." Brandon's friends openly laugh at Doug. Doug looks at Jenny and notices that she looks slightly guilty. Brandon then says, "See, you can tell that she doesn't want to be with a loser like you." Doug steps past Brandon, grabs Jenny's hand and says, "Come on, let's go." Brandon blocks

Doug's path and pushes him and says, "Now what are you going to do, cry to mommy?" Doug then swings at Brandon and hits him in the face.[24]

Shoplifting Scenario:

Chris was supposed to be at his physics final exam 15 minutes ago. He stayed up almost all night studying for the exam and as a result overslept. While rushing to class, he realizes that he has left his calculator on his desk at home which is more than a 10 minute walk away. He knows that without the calculator, he is sure to fail.

Chris also knows that it is unlikely the professor will have an extra calculator. The guy who sits next to him in class forgot his calculator for the last exam, and the professor made him take the exam without one.

Chris is right near the DUC so he decides to go to the bookstore to buy a calculator. However, the line for the register is ridiculously long, and no other check-out stations are open. When he asks one of the students if he can cut in line because he is in a hurry, the student replies, "So am I!" He can't find anyone else around to ring him up. It is clear that if he waits, he will be more than 25 minutes late to the exam, and most likely won't be able to finish.

Chris notices that the calculator is small enough to fit in his pocket, and he is sure that, since the bookstore is so busy, no one will see him take it. Also, he does not see any sort of security device on the calculator that may set off an alarm. Chris decides to take the calculator.

Drugs/Alcohol Scenario:

It's Friday afternoon and Mike is in class. The professor has just handed back their exams. Mike did very poorly on the exam because he thought that it was only going to be on the first 3 chapters of the book. In fact, the exam covered the first 5 chapters, and he missed 25 points because of it.

After class Mike goes up to the professor and says, "I thought the exam was only going to be on the first 3 chapters." The professor replies, "No, the syllabus said that it would be on the first 5." Mike then says, "Well, we didn't get to those sections in class, so I thought they weren't going to be on the exam." The professor replies, "I know we didn't get to them in class, but it states in the syllabus that material may be on the test that is not covered in class. Besides, I told the class that you were still responsible for that information."

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[24] Two slight modifications were made for the fighting scenario when the main character was a female. Rather than the antagonist placing an arm around the protagonist's boyfriend, she placed a hand on his leg. In addition, the protagonist swings her purse at the antagonist and hits her in the face rather than hitting the person in the face with a hand as is the case in the male scenario.

Mike didn't remember the professor saying that, but the person who sits next to him in class tells him the professor actually said it a few times.

Later that night, Mike retells the story to his friends when they ask about how he did on the exam. He then decides to forget about his grade by getting wasted with his friends. He stays up late drinking alcohol and smoking pot.

Cheating Scenario:

John is taking chemistry. He needs to do well in this course because he hopes to go to medical school after he graduates. John made a C on the first exam. He needs to make an A on his next exam to have any hope of pulling his grade up.

John is worried that he will not do well on the second exam because he does not understand a lot of the material. The professor is often disorganized and comes to class ill prepared to teach. The professor is usually unclear in presenting the material and is not adept at explaining difficult concepts. When students ask questions in class, they usually find the professor's answers do not help them to understand things any better. Students often remark how little they learn from the professor.

On the day of the second exam, the professor hands out the exams and says, "Go ahead and start working on the test. Please remember to keep your eyes on your own test." The professor then proceeds to grade papers for another class and is deep in concentration.

John begins the exam but quickly realizes that he is likely to fail because the professor could not answer questions during class or during office hours in a way that John could understand. John knows that the professor rarely looks up at the class while they take exams. He also knows that the guy who sits next to him aced the last exam. He decides to look on his neighbor's exam and copy some of his answers.

Emotions

After reading each scenario, respondents were asked what their emotional reactions would be if they were the main character in this situation. For example, respondents were asked if they were the main character, how angry they would be in this situation. In addition, respondents were also asked how frustrated and how depressed they would be if they were the main character in the situation (Morgan 2006). All emotions were coded so that 1 = not at all angry, frustrated, or depressed and 9 = very angry, frustrated, or depressed.

Intentions to Offend

After each scenario respondents were asked how likely they would be to engage in the same behavior as the main character. In the fighting scenarios, male respondents were asked, "If you were Doug, how likely would you be to hit Brandon?" In the shoplifting scenario, male respondents were asked, "If you were Chris, how likely would you be to take the calculator without paying for it?" In the drug and alcohol use scenario, males were asked, "If you were Mike, how likely would you be to get drunk with your friends if you experienced this situation?" A similar question was asked for drug use. Finally, in the cheating scenario male respondents were asked, "If you were John, how likely would you be to copy another student's answers during an exam." The same questions were asked of males and females with changes in the characters' names only. Answer choices range from 1 (not at all likely) to 10 (very likely).

Perceptions of Strain

After respondents read the fighting scenario, they were asked how personally they would take the antagonist's behavior (1=not at all personally to 9=very personally). In addition, respondents were asked how unjustified they viewed the antagonist's behavior (Brandon in the male vignette and Cindy in the female vignette). This variable was coded so that higher numbers indicate that the behavior is viewed as more unjustified (range 1-9).

In the shoplifting scenario, respondents were asked how unfair they view the professor's policy of not loaning out calculators with 1 rated as not at all unfair and 9 rated as very unfair. In the drinking and drug use scenario, perceptions of strain were

measured by asking how unfair the respondent views the professor's policy that material not covered in class can appear on the exam (1=not at all unfair, 9=very unfair).

Finally, in the cheating scenario, respondents were asked how unfair they view it that the professor is unable to answer questions that will be on the test with higher numbers indicating they believe it is very unfair.

After reading the shoplifting scenario, respondents answered how important it was to them to make the highest grades possible with a 9 referring to very important. This question applies to the drug/alcohol use and cheating scenario as well because all three deal with academic strain. Strains that threaten core goals of the individual are more likely to lead to negative emotions and crime. Therefore, this measure was included to tap how central the school identity is to the individual , and thus how severe this strain would be for them.

Believability of Scenarios

In order to determine if respondents felt that scenarios were believable, I asked after each scenario how realistic they found the scenario rated from not at all realistic (1) to very realistic (9), and how confident they are that their answers reflect what they would actually do if they were in this situation rated from not at all confident (1) to very confident (9).

Prior Crime

Respondents were asked to report how many times in the past 12 months they engaged in 33 criminal or deviant behaviors. Items were based on the National Youth Survey (NYS) and included minor and more serious property crimes and violent crimes, drug and alcohol related offenses, and deviant behaviors such as cheating and eating

disorder behaviors (Elliott et al. 1985; Elliott et al. 1989; Huizinga and Elliott 1986). I made some modifications to the NYS items, adding items that were more relevant to college students such as downloading music illegally, driving while under the influence, binge drinking, eating disorder behavior, and using prescription drugs inappropriately. I removed some items that are less relevant to Emory students such as getting paid for sex or being involved in gang fights. I also combined some items such as asking respondents if they had hit someone, rather than including items for hitting parents, teachers, or peers.

In the scenarios, I controlled for the offense in question because prior experiences with that behavior is most relevant to the specific situation.[25] For example, in the fighting scenario, I controlled for whether the respondent had ever hit someone in the past 12 months. For the shoplifting scenario, I created an additive scale controlling for the number of times the respondent stole something worth less than $5, between $5 and $50, and stole something worth more than $50. In the drug use scenario, I controlled for how many times in the past 12 months the respondent used marijuana and also how many times they had drunk 4 or more alcoholic beverages in less than 2 hours. Finally, for the cheating scenario, I controlled for how many times the respondent had cheated on a school test in the past 12 months.

I create crime scales for the cross-sectional analysis because prior research indicates that the effect of strain and negative emotions may depend on the type of crime (Aseltine et al. 2000; Bao et al. 2004; Capowich et al. 2001; Ganem 2007; Jang and Johnson 2003; Jang and Lyons 2006; Pierce et al. 1994; Piquero and Sealock 2000). These scales were based on principal factor analysis with oblique rotation. Although 5

[25] In supplemental analyses, I controlled for the total crime. For each model, the specific crime had a much stronger effect on intentions to offend than the total amount of crime.

factors had an eigenvalue over 1, only 4 appeared important in the scree plot. The first scale includes more serious crimes such as carrying a hidden weapon, selling hard drugs, selling items known to be worthless, taking a vehicle for a ride without the owner's permission, pressuring someone into doing more sexually than wanted, taking something by force, breaking into a building or vehicle, using other's credit cards without permission, and hitting or threatening to hit someone.[26] The item regarding carrying a hidden weapon also loaded highly with the property scale but theoretically fits better in this general category. In addition, hitting someone did not load highly with any category and was thus included in this scale given that this is a violent crime. The alpha reliability for the serious crime scale is 0.71.

The second scale included primarily property related offenses. This scale includes how many times the respondent damaged property, stole things worth under $5, between $5 and $50, and over $50, bought stolen goods, and used checks illegally. The alpha reliability for this scale is 0.82.

The third crime factor included minor drug and alcohol related offenses such as lying about age to purchase alcohol or get into a club, being disorderly in public, buying alcohol for a minor, being drunk in a public place, drinking more than 4 alcoholic beverages in less than 2 hours, using cigarettes, using marijuana, using hard drugs, using prescription drugs for other reasons than prescribed, and driving after drinking. Because of the large number of missing values for using cigarettes, this variable was excluded from the scale. In addition, smoking cigarettes is not illegal for individuals in my sample because they are over the age of 18. Because selling marijuana fits more theoretically

[26] Failing to return change loaded on this factor but was excluded due to the minor nature of this offense.

into this scale than the property crime scale where it more highly loaded, it is included here. The alpha reliability score for this scale is 0.83.

Finally, a scale focusing on cheating emerged. This scale includes how often respondents cheated on a school test, plagiarized a paper, and helped another student cheat on an exam during the past 12 months.[27] The alpha reliability for this scale is 0.56.

Strain

Respondents answered 54 questions regarding the number of times they experienced strain commonly faced by college students during the past 12 months. Answer categories include, "never", "once", "twice", "three times", and "four or more times". If they had experienced the particular strain, they then answered how much the event bothered them, either "not at all", "did not bother me very much", "somewhat bothered me", or "bothered me quite a lot". Because only those respondents who had experienced a particular strain answered this follow up question, I created an average amount of subjective strain for each individual. Individuals who had not experienced any strain were excluded.[28] The scale was based on the College Student Life Events Scale (CSLES) which was designed to capture stressful events specific to college students (Levine and Perkins 1980). The 137 events in the survey focused on a variety of domains of the students' lives such as school and academic life, living arrangements, finances, drugs, religious activities, political activities, sexual activities, parents, friends, male-female relationships, job employment, legal problems, accidents, illness, and

[27] The items regarding eating disorders, downloading music illegally, avoiding paying for things such as movies, etc. did not load highly on any factor and were thus excluded.

[28] Even though only those who had experienced the strain should reply as to how much the event bothered them, some people answered this question with the most common answer is that the event did not bother them at all. When someone provided an answer to this question when they should not have, responses were coded as missing. Unfortunately there is no way to know if in some cases, respondents meant to indicate that they had experienced the strain but failed to select an answer.

extracurricular activities. Items in this scale were modified including additions and deletions to reflect strains more likely to lead to crime. For example, I deleted items not known to cause crime such as sickness and death of a family member and added any neglected items from existing articles on GST and suggestions made by Agnew (2006) such as criminal victimization. Also items that measured crime, such as questions involving drug use or legal problems were excluded. Finally, some items were reworded to ensure that questions referred to single events and also to make the format of the questions consistent.

Seven items were included to describe academic strain such as conflicts with professors or teaching assistants, receiving rejections on graduate school applications, and receiving unfair grades compared to others in a course (Levine and Perkins 1980; Mazerolle and Piquero 1998; Kohn et al. 1990).

Three items tap whether the respondent experienced discrimination because of their race, sex, sexual orientation, or cultural background such as being insulted, hassled by the police, or threatened physically (Agnew 2006; Simons et al. 2003).

Next, four items described stressful living arrangements such as having an argument with roommate(s) and being hassled by resident advisor, sophomore advisor, residence hall director, or landlord (Levine and Perkins 1980).

I also included five items that indicated whether the respondent was experiencing financial strain such as having problems paying for living expenses or experiencing an increase in debt (Levine and Perkins 1980)

Family strain included items from the CSLES as well as the Youth in Transition survey (Brezina 1996; 1998). Family strain included such items as divorce or separation

of parent, conflict with parent, experience parental pressure to marry, and experience parental pressure to break up with boyfriend or girlfriend. This scale was supplemented with items from the Youth in Transition survey to include parental abuse including being slapped, threatened, yelled at, or criticized by parents.

A number of items were included that represented relationship or romantic strain which included issues such as breaking up with partner, self or partner becoming pregnant out of wedlock, and being rejected when asking someone out (Levine and Perkins 1980).

The next group of items related to problems with peers and/or extracurricular activities at school. Some of the items included losing a friend due to conflict, being rejected from participation in a desired extracurricular activity such as a sorority, and causing an organization to get in trouble as a result of own personal action (Levine and Perkins 1980).

I also included a measure of victimization related strain. Items included being a victim of assault with and without a weapon, theft, property damage, and sexual acts. This scale was based on a similar scale used by Ostrowsky and Messner (2005) although the question regarding being a victim of unwanted sexual acts was based on wording from an item in the National Youth Survey.

Finally, respondents answered six questions regarding whether they had experienced strain related to work such as being denied a job, being fired, or experiencing hassles on the job (Levine and Perkins 1980).

Trait Anger

Trait anger included items adopted from the Youths in Transition Survey including, “I am likely to hold a grudge,” “I get irritated a lot more than people know about,” “I carry a chip on my shoulder,” “Even small things irritate me,” and “I feel like a powder keg ready to explode.” Items were coded so that a higher number indicates higher levels of trait anger. The alpha reliability for this scale is 0.84.

Depressed Mood

Because of the importance of depression in the self-complexity literature and increasingly in the general strain literature, I ask respondents about their level of depressed mood. Several common scales have been used including the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and the Center for Epidemiological Studies’ Scale of Depression (CES-D) in the self-complexity literature. The CES-D was created to focus on depressed moods in the general population rather than on clinical depression (Radloff 1977). Therefore I utilize the CES-D because it is an appropriate scale to give to an undergraduate sample, the CES-D is available in a shorter format, and has also been used in prior general strain studies (Morgan 2006). This scale has been validated in previous research and correlates highly with the full scale as well as feelings of anger and anxiety, and with a clinical diagnosis of depression (Mirowsky and Ross 2001). Items include trouble getting to sleep or staying asleep, feeling that everything is an effort, having trouble keeping your mind on what you were doing, feeling that you just couldn’t get going, feeling sad, feeling lonely, and feeling you couldn’t shake the blues. Respondents selected how many times in the past 7 days they experienced these feelings with 0 indicating no days and 7 indicating all of the days. The scale was averaged indicating the

average number of days respondents felt depressed symptoms. The alpha for this scale is 0.88.

Control Variables

Labeling

I control for labeling effects. Someone may score high in self-complexity but he or she may view him or herself as bad or a trouble maker. Therefore, I need to disentangle the effects of the content of the self-concept and labeling. I control for labeling through asking respondents a separate set of questions regarding how they label themselves and how others label them. I rely on items from the National Youth Survey which asks if respondents believe that their parents and peers believe they are a bad person and break the rules.[29] I also ask how the students view themselves. Because how one labels self is highly correlated with parent labeling (r=.58) and with peer labeling (r=0.69), I include self-labeling only in the models. In addition, crime and self-complexity should be most influenced by how the individual views him or herself.[30]

For each labeling item, respondents indicate that they either strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree that they are a bad person, break rules, get into trouble, and do things that are against the law. The items were summed and coded so that a higher number indicates a more negative view of self. The alpha reliability coefficient for self label is 0.79.

Low Constraint and Negative Emotionality

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[29] The National Youth Survey asks whether these individuals think the respondent is a bad kid. I change the word from kid to person in order to be relevant for young adults.

[30] I also measure formal labeling through asking respondents if they have ever been arrested. This measure was not included, however because only 3.4 percent of the sample reported being arrested in the past 12 months.

Recently, criminologists have begun to acknowledge that personality is an important predictor of crime (Miller and Lynam 2001) and crime type (Kenna and Burstein 2005). Although Linville's model focuses on the organization of self-concept and not the content, it is possible that the content of the self-concept may influence criminal behavior. Although no data indicate that the level of self-complexity correlates with personality measures, it is still important to control for personality characteristics known to lead to crime. For example, it may not be complexity of self-concept that affects crime but the composition of one's personality.

Negative emotionality and low constraint and similar personality constructs are moderately related to crime (Caspi et al. 1994; Miller and Lynam 2001) with some traits leading to violent crime while others lead to nonviolent crime (Kenna and Burstein 2005). Specifically, those who engage in crime are more likely to be hostile, self-centered, spiteful, jealous, indifferent to others, lack ambition, motivation and perseverance, be impulsive and hold unconventional values and beliefs (Miller and Lynam 2001: 780). These characteristics also describe individuals who are low in self-control or those who are risk-takers, impulsive, and insensitive to others (Gottfredson and Hirschi 1990).

Donnellan et al. (2005) validated a shortened version of the widely used Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) (Tellegen 1982). Their scale, the Iowa Personal Questionnaire (IPQ) provides a valid and reliable alternative to the 272 item MPQ. The IPQ includes 42 items which tap positive emotionality, constraint, and negative emotionality. Because low constraint and high negative emotionality have been found to be associated with crime, I focus on these two dimensions. Respondents were

asked to compare themselves to other people of their age and sex for each trait or characteristic selecting a number from 1 to 5 with 3 indicating about average. Individuals high in constraint avoid risks, carefully plan out acts, and are generally polite. Constraint includes 12 items and is coded so that a higher number indicates higher average levels of constraint.

Individuals who are higher in negative emotionality are generally anxious, feel others are out to get them, and are aggressive. Negative emotionality includes 15 items and is coded so that a higher number indicates higher average levels of negative emotionality.[31] The alpha reliability for constraint is 0.73 and the reliability statistic for negative emotionality is 0.77.

Social Control

As discussed above, respondents lower in social control will be more likely to engage in crime because of reasons related to attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief and because of the interrelationship between social control and self-complexity. Therefore, I include questions measuring Hirschi's four bonds (1969). Specifically, I ask respondents about how close they are to their family. Response categories included not close at all, not too close, fairly close, and very close.[32] A higher number indicates that respondents felt closer to their family. As a measure of commitment to school, respondents indicated how much they agreed or disagreed that they come close to doing their best in school, work much harder than their classmates, and want to go to graduate

[31] In order to maximize the sample size, both personality scales were averaged regardless of missing values. For example, 29 people did not answer one item in the negative emotionality scale and 18 did not answer one item in the constraint scale. For these individuals who did not answer an item, their score was averaged based on their other responses. The mean for constraint and negative emotionality is essentially the same when missing values are excluded.

[32] The survey also includes two items asking how close the respondent is to their mother and father but the closeness to family measure was chosen because it reduced the number of missing values.

or professional school after graduation. Responses were coded so that a higher number for each item refers to higher levels of commitment to school. The alpha is 0.65 for this scale. Grades was measured on a scale from 1 to 9 with a score of 9 indicating the individual made mostly A's and 1 indicating they made mostly F's in general.

Because of the possible influence that involvement in conventional activities may have on self-complexity, respondents were asked to indicate how many clubs, activities, and organizations they were involved in at Emory and outside of Emory. The response category was capped at 11 or more clubs. Only one person chose this response. The total number of Emory clubs was added to the total number of other clubs in order to create a variable indicating the total number of clubs, activities, or organizations the respondent took part in.

Finally, respondents answered how wrong they believe it is to hit someone if someone else started the fight, to take something from a store without paying for it if you really need something, to get drunk if you have had a bad day, to use marijuana if you have had a bad day, and to cheat on an exam if the professor is a poor teacher. Responses ranged from 1 (never wrong) to 5 (always wrong). I control for morals beliefs against the specific crime depicted in each scenario. For example, in the cheating scenario, respondents are asked how wrong they believe it is to cheat on an exam if the professor is a poor teacher.

Association with Criminal/Deviant Peers

Because of the large influence of delinquent peers on offending, I ask questions regarding the number of peers college students have who engaged in the crimes/deviant acts from the scenarios and the attitudes of their friends towards these acts (Agnew 1991,

2005; Akers and Sellers 2004; Haynie 2002; Matsueda and Anderson 1998; Warr 2002). Respondents indicated during the past 12 months how many of their friends have hit someone, taken something from a store without paying for it, gotten drunk, used marijuana or hashish (grass, pot, hash), and cheated on a school test. For each item, response categories include none of them (0), very few of them (1), some of them (2), many of them (3), and all of them (4). Don't know was coded as missing.

For peer beliefs, students indicated how wrong their friends think it is, "to hit someone if someone else started the fight", "to take something from a store without paying for it if they really need something", to get drunk if they have had a bad day", "to use marijuana or hashish (grass, pot, hash) if they have had a bad day", and "to cheat on an exam if the professor is a poor teacher." The scale is coded so that a higher number indicates that the respondent's friends have strong beliefs that the behaviors are wrong. Answer categories include never wrong (1), seldom wrong (2), sometimes wrong (3), usually wrong (4), and always wrong (5).

Demographics

Finally, respondents provided their age, sex, race, and family's socioeconomic status. Race was coded as a series of dummy variables including whites, Asians, other, and African American as the reference group. I measure SES through asking about family annual household income and mother's and father's educational attainment. Annual household income included 9 response categories in $25,000 increments with the 9th category referring to above $200,000. The variable was dichotomized so that a value of 1 refers to low household income (household income of $50,000 or less).

Approximately 14% of the sample reported their family's household income at or below $50,000.

Self-esteem

I utilize Rosenberg's (1965) 10 item self-esteem scale. Respondents were asked how strongly they agree with such statements as, "I feel that I'm a person of worth…" and "All in all, I am inclined to feel I am a failure." Responses were coded so that higher values indicate higher levels of self-esteem. The range of possible values is 10, indicating someone is always low in self-esteem on all ten items to 40, identifying someone who feels they are high on all self-esteem questions. The actual range of values is 16 to 40 with an alpha of 0.89.

Self-efficacy

The self-efficacy scale is based on the work of Pearlin and Schooler (1978) and Pearlin et al. (1981). Specifically, respondents are asked seven questions regarding how much control they feel over their lives. Higher numbers indicate that respondents feel that they can solve their problems, feel they are not being pushed around, feel they have control over things that happen to them, feel they can do anything they set their minds to, do not feel helpless in dealing with the problems in their life, the future depends on them, and the respondents do not agree that there is little they can do to change important things in their life**.** Responses could possibly range from 7 (low self-efficacy to 28 very high self-efficacy) but actually ranged from 12 to 28 with an alpha reliability of 0.76.

Social Support

Two measures of social support were included: potential support from friends and perceived help from the family (Jang and Lyons 2006). Potential social support

refers to the number of non-family members respondents feel they can talk to about their problems ranging from none (coded 1) to many (coded 4).[33] Perceived support refers to how often family members help out with problems. Responses included never needed, never, not too often, fairly often, and very often. If the respondent reported they never needed help or never received help, they were asked if the family would help out if needed. Of the 11 respondents who reported that help was never needed or never given, only 1 indicated that their family would not help out if help was needed. Therefore, the never needed and never categories were collapsed into the "not too often" category. The range of responses included (1=never needed, never, and not too often; 2 = fairly often; and 3=very often).

D. Analytical Strategy

First, I present descriptive statistics for my key variables. Second, I test for hypothesis 1, that self-complexity conditions the effect of strain on crime. I test the main hypothesis of this study through predicting crime in the scenarios and prior crime controlling for the major causes of crime, excluding perceptions of strain and emotions. I exclude trait emotions in the prior crime models because situational emotions for prior strain are unavailable. Initially, I include all possible control variables in these models such as prior crime, prior strain, trait emotions (in intentions to offend models only), negative label of self, and personality characteristics. I include social control variables such as feeling close to family, commitment to school, grades, involvement in conventional activities, and moral beliefs. Social learning variables are included such as peers' moral beliefs and criminal behavior. I also include demographic variables such as

[33] Jang and Lyons (2006) include how close family members are in their feelings toward each other as a measure of potential social support. Because of the overlap between this variable and social control variables, closeness to family was conceptualized as a form of attachment to family.

age, gender, race, and socioeconomic status. Finally, I control for self-efficacy, self-esteem, social support, and the probability of selecting negative traits in the self-complexity task.

I complete a series of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models when predicting intentions to offend. Ordinary least squares regression is appropriate for normally distributed categorical variables. I present two models for each dependent variable, one without the interaction term and one with the interaction term. In addition, I run two models including only those control variables that are significant. I do this because including a large number of variables reduces the sample size substantially. Also, the ability to detect significant interactions is highly dependent on sample size (McClelland and Judd (1993).

Prior crime was measured with a count of the number of crimes committed in the past year capped at 5 crimes or more. The serious crime and property crime scales approximate a true count variable because very few respondents indicated they had committed any of the crimes 5 or more times. Ordinary least squares regression is inappropriate to use because these variables violate the normality assumption. Count variables follow a poisson distribution which allows for the right skew typical of measures of crime. Regular Poisson regression assumes that the conditional mean equals the conditional variance. In this sample, the variance exceeds the mean, or is overdispersed. A negative binomial regression model allows the variance to be larger than the mean by adding an error term to the model. The Poisson model also underestimates the number of zeros or the number of times the event did not occur. If a Poisson model is used when a negative binomial model is more appropriate, then the

standard errors will be artificially deflated providing incorrect significance tests. Because every model in this sample showed evidence of overdispersion based on a series of log-likelihood ratio tests, the negative binomial regression model is the preferred model.[34]

I use tobit regression for the minor drug and alcohol scale since this variable is a censored count variable (Broidy 2001; Osgood et al. 2002a; Osgood et al. 2002b; Tobin 1958). Many of the respondents indicated that they had engaged in the offense at least five times.

Self-complexity is conceptualized as the interaction between the number of aspects and the amount of overlap between them. The interaction terms are centered at their mean to avoid potential problems with multicollinearity (Aiken and West 1991). In all analyses, I examine the effect of the number of aspects and overlap on the dependent variables separately in the first model and the interaction in the second model because some recent studies have found that the effect of stress on outcomes are sometimes conditioned by one component of self-complexity (Brown and Rafaeli 2007; Constantino et al. 2006; Rothermund and Meiniger 2004). If the t-test reveals a significant interaction, I calculate the standard errors and significance test at different levels of self-aspects because the effect of overlap on the dependent variable is conditional rather than additive.[35] "Adding a multiplicative term changes the t-test from a test of statistical

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[34] In order to determine the fit of the model, I compare the log-likelihoods across models. Specifically, I use the following formula:
(-2)*[(log-likelihood of Model A)-(log-likelihood of Model B)]
I then use a chi-square test to determine if the negative binomial regression model interaction significantly improves the fit of the baseline poisson model.

[35] Standard errors are calculated using the following formula:
Standard error(b1+b3X2) = ([(var(b1) + [(X2)^2 * var(b3)] + [2*(X2)*cov(b1,b3)])1/2.
I compute the test statistics with the following formula:
t = (b1+b3*X2)/S(b1+b3*X2).

significance of the general effect of one variable on another into a test of the statistical significance of the conditional effect of one variable on another at a particular value of a third variable" (Friedrich 1982, p. 818).

Self-complexity has traditionally been measured with the H statistic. Even though I do not make hypotheses regarding the effect of the H-statistic or display tables with this variable in it, I run the analyses with this statistic and report any significant findings. I calculate the H statistic using a computer program designed to calculate H, H-comp (Nielsen 1996).

Next I examine reasons for the possible conditioning effect. Specifically, I test sub-hypothesis 1a – that those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to perceive strain as severe. I run ordinary least square regression equations to determine the relationship between perceptions of the severity of crime and self-complexity. Perceptions of the severity of strain are ascertained in the fighting scenario through a question asking how personal the respondent would take the antagonist's behavior. Unfortunately, perceptions of the severity of strain were not asked for the other three scenarios. I also evaluate whether those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to perceive strain experienced in the past 12 months as more severe than those higher in S-C. Severity of past strain is determined by how much events bothered the respondent on average.

A number of factors may influence whether someone perceives strain as severe. For example, strains that occur more frequently should affect perceptions of the magnitude of strain (Agnew 2006). Therefore, I control for the number of strains

experienced during the prior year.[36] Those who have certain personality traits such as being angry or depressed in general and who are higher in negative emotionality should be more likely to perceive strain as severe (Agnew 2006).[37] I also control for level of constraint. Strains that interfere with core goals of the individual should lead to perceiving strain as more severe. A core goal of many Emory students is succeeding academically. Therefore, I control for feeling good grades are important and wanting to go to graduate/professional school. In addition, Thoits (1995) suggests that social structural characteristics such as gender, race, age, and socio-economic status should affect perceptions of the severity of strain. Perceptions of strain should also be affected by self-esteem, self-efficacy, and social support (Agnew 2001; Thoits 1995). Individuals high in self-esteem and efficacy should have more confidence in their ability to deal with problems and should therefore perceive stress as less severe (Thoits 1995). "These characteristics may influence people's appraisals of events and strains, perhaps rendering them perceptually less threatening" (Thoits 1995: 63). I also control for the probability of selecting negative traits because those who describe themselves negatively are likely to view strain as more severe.

Next, I test sub-hypothesis 1b, that those who are lower in self-complexity experience stronger negative emotions as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity. Because the dependent variables are normally distributed, I run these

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[36] I created two strain variables – one that excluded any respondents who did not answer any of the 54 items and one where responses were coded as 0 if he or she failed to answer one strain item. I was able to increase the N by 21 cases. If the respondent failed to answer more than one item, the case was excluded from analysis. Substantive results were the same when I excluded everyone who skipped an item, so I ran all analyses with the modified strain variable.

[37] Trait anger and negative emotionality are positively correlated (r=0.65). I ran all models with both variables, with one variable, and with a combined measure of the two. No substantive differences were found. In addition, variance inflation factors were below standard thresholds. Therefore, all models include both of these variables.

analyses using OLS. Mirowsky and Ross (2003) suggest a number of factors that influence distress, or feelings of frustration and depression. Individuals who feel they have more control over their lives should be less likely to be distressed. Women, those of lower socioeconomic status, minorities, married people, those with children, those who have experienced undesired life events, young adults, those with less social support, and those who live in impoverished neighborhoods are more likely to feel distressed because these groups should feel more powerless to change their circumstances (Mirowsky and Ross 2003). While insufficient variation in a college sample prohibits me from controlling for all of these factors, I include sex, income, race, strain, age, social support, and self-efficacy as control variables. Self-efficacy directly taps control over one's life. Because self-esteem has been shown to directly affect depression, I include this as a control (Rosenberg 1965). I also expect that perceptions of strain such as feeling actions are intentional or unfair should affect emotional reactions to strain (Agnew 2006; Averill 1983; Morgan 2006; Shaver et al. 1987). Finally, I control for trait emotions and negative emotionality and constraint because these should influence situational emotions (Mazerolle et al. 2003). As with sub-hypothesis 1a, I also present the most parsimonious model including only those controls that are significant.

Finally, I test sub-hypothesis 1c, that those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to say they would engage in crime as a result of strain controlling for perceptions of strain and emotions. I present a table for each offense, intentions to hit, intentions to shoplift, intentions to use drugs, intentions to drink, and intentions to cheat. I complete a series of ordinary least squares regression models because skewness diagnostics reveal that with limited exception, intentions to offend variables are

distributed normally. In cases where some right skewness is present, I log the dependent variable. When the results are substantively the same, I present the unadjusted model.

Finally, I examine the interaction of prior strain and self-complexity predicting prior crime. Serious and property crime are examined with negative binomial regression. I use tobit regression to examine drug and alcohol related crime.

It is important to check for multicollinearity before running the regression analyses. I examine the correlation matrix as well as the variance inflation factors (VIF). A VIF above 10 indicates high collinearity (Gujarati 2003). For every regression model, all VIFs were well below this threshold, so multicollinearity does not appear to be a problem with these data.

V. RESULTS

The central argument of this study is that those who are higher in self-complexity should be less susceptible to the negative emotional and behavioral effects of strain. In order to test this, hypothetical stressful situations were presented to respondents. The first scenario presents a stressful situation involving relationship strain that leads one person to hit another person in the face. The second scenario presents a situation where the main character is unable to arrive at an exam on time and decides to steal a calculator to save time. The third scenario presents a stressful situation where the hypothetical student fails an exam because he/she did not study the right material and as a result copes with drug and alcohol use. Finally, the last scenario depicts a stressful situation where the student cheats on an exam because he/she was unable to learn the course material from the professor. After reading each vignette, respondents were asked to imagine what their emotional and behavioral reactions would be if they were in the same situation as the main character. Below, I present descriptive statistics for the variables from the scenarios and the major control variables.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and ranges of the key variables from the scenarios. Respondents reported how angry, frustrated, and depressed they would be if they were the main character in the scenario ranging from 1 to 9 with a 9 indicating stronger emotions. Individuals reported high levels of anger (Mean = 7.25) and frustration (Mean = 7.41) in the fighting scenario. Frustration was reported at the highest levels for the shoplifting scenario (Mean = 8.08) compared to a mean of 4.86 for anger and 4.54 for depressed mood. Frustration was also important in the drinking/drug

use scenario with respondents reporting a mean level of 7.16. As expected, respondents were more likely to say they would be depressed in the drug use/drinking scenario than they would in the other three situations (mean = 5.39 drug use/drinking; mean for fighting = 4.90; mean for shoplifting = 4.56; mean for cheating = 4.72). Finally, frustration was the strongest emotion reported in the cheating scenario (mean = 6.84). It is not surprising that individuals would feel frustrated in this situation because the scenario depicts someone who finds that his/her goal of achieving a high grade on an exam is blocked.

In general, females were more likely to report stronger emotions than males which support previous research findings of gender differences in emotions (Mirowsky and Ross 1995; Piquero and Sealock 2004). They were significantly more likely to report anger in the drug/alcohol use scenario (female mean = 5.97 versus male mean = 5.43) and the cheating scenario (female mean = 4.63 versus male mean = 4.18). No significant differences were found in anger levels in the fighting or shoplifting scenario. Females were significantly more likely to report frustration and a depressed mood than males in all of the scenarios (See Table 1).

Respondents indicated on a 9 point scale how likely they would be to offend if they were the main character in the situation. Students were most likely to say they would hit the other person (mean = 4.33) and least likely to say they would use drugs (mean = 2.40). While these means are low, the standard deviations ranged from 2.28 to 2.76 suggesting sufficient variation in intentions to offend.

Males were most likely to say they would hit someone in the fighting scenario (Mean = 5.19) followed by drinking in the drinking/drug use scenario (Mean = 4.19).

Females followed a similar pattern as males, with a mean of 3.96 for hitting and 3.82 for drinking alcohol. Males were significantly more likely to say they would engage in fighting, shoplifting, and drug use than females. The difference in the likelihood of intending to drink and cheat did not differ significantly by gender ($p<0.05$) although the differences in cheating came close ($p=0.056$).

Respondents also reported their perceptions of the strains presented in each scenario. They indicated on a 9 point scale how personal they would take the antagonist's behavior in the fighting scenario. Most would take this behavior personally (mean = 6.81). They also felt that the antagonist's behavior was unjustified (mean = 7.57). Males and females did not differ in how personal they would take the behavior or how unjustified they viewed the behavior.

The students in the sample reported how unfair they viewed the situation presented in the shoplifting, drug/alcohol use, and cheating scenario. They viewed the cheating scenario as more unfair than the other two (mean = 7.19 for the cheating scenario; mean = 5.11 for the shoplifting scenario; mean = 5.20 for the drug/alcohol use scenario). Females were more likely than males to view the strains presented in the shoplifting and cheating scenarios as unfair.

Manipulation Checks

Respondents were asked how confident they were that their answers reflected what they would actually do if they were in this situation and how realistic they found the scenario. Most respondents felt very confident that their answers reflected what they would actually do if they were in the situation described, ranging from a mean of 7.33 for fighting to a mean of 7.86 for using drugs and/or alcohol out of a 9 point scale.

Respondents felt the fighting scenario was the least realistic with a mean of 5.03 out of a scale of 1 to 9 (See Table 1). As the criminal/deviant acts decreased in seriousness, the belief that the situation was realistic increased. For example, the mean for the shoplifting scenario was 5.58, 6.35 for the drug and alcohol use scenario, and 7.15 for the cheating scenario. It is likely that Emory students felt that the situations that presented more serious crime were less realistic because they themselves are not very likely to commit serious crimes. When examining the Pearson's correlations, respondents who believed the scenarios were more realistic were also likely to report that they would offend if they experienced the situation, providing some support for this idea (See Appendix 5).

Males and females were equally confident in their answers for all scenarios. Males were significantly more likely to believe that the fighting scenario was realistic (Males mean = 5.62; Females mean = 4.79, $t=-3.41$, $p<0.001$). Males and females did not differ in how realistic they believed any of the other scenarios were.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Scenarios

	Total Sample					Males					Females					
	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	T-test
Situational Emotions																
Anger																
Fight	357	7.246	1.785	1	9	105	7.038	1.961	1	9	252	7.333	1.703	1	9	ns
Shoplift	353	4.861	2.380	1	9	105	4.724	2.432	1	9	248	4.919	2.361	1	9	ns
Drug/Alcohol	354	5.811	2.055	1	9	104	5.433	2.066	1	9	250	5.968	2.034	1	9	*
Cheat	354	4.494	2.389	1	9	105	4.181	2.269	1	9	249	4.627	2.430	1	9	*
Frustration																
Fight	357	7.406	1.742	1	9	105	7.143	1.842	1	9	252	7.516	1.690	1	9	*
Shoplift	352	8.080	1.410	1	9	101	7.653	1.584	1	9	251	8.251	1.298	1	9	***
Drug/Alcohol	357	7.160	1.734	1	9	105	6.790	1.920	1	9	252	7.313	1.629	1	9	**
Cheat	353	6.836	1.892	1	9	104	6.135	2.127	1	9	249	7.129	1.706	1	9	***
Depression																
Fight	355	4.896	2.343	1	9	104	4.433	2.310	1	9	251	5.088	2.334	1	9	**
Shoplift	353	4.538	2.464	1	9	103	4.058	2.425	1	9	250	4.736	2.458	1	9	**
Drug/Alcohol	353	5.391	2.339	1	9	104	4.933	2.403	1	9	249	5.582	2.290	1	9	**
Cheat	354	4.723	2.395	1	9	105	4.000	2.333	1	9	249	5.028	2.360	1	9	***
Intentions to Offend																
Fight	357	4.325	2.763	1	9	105	5.190	2.613	1	9	252	3.964	2.749	1	9	***
Shoplift	355	2.932	2.276	1	9	104	3.481	2.457	1	9	251	2.705	2.162	1	9	**
Drink	354	3.927	2.700	1	9	104	4.192	2.662	1	9	250	3.816	2.714	1	9	ns
Use Drugs	356	2.404	2.351	1	9	105	2.905	2.563	1	9	251	2.195	2.228	1	9	**
Cheat	355	3.780	2.518	1	9	105	4.124	2.608	1	9	250	3.636	2.471	1	9	ns

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Scenarios

	Total Sample					Males					Females					
	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Obs	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	T-test
Perceptions of Strain																
Fight																
Personal	354	6.811	2.280	1	9	104	6.817	2.409	1	9	250	6.808	2.229	1	9	ns
Unjustified	355	7.569	1.809	1	9	104	7.529	1.701	2	9	251	7.586	1.856	1	9	ns
Shoplift																
Unfair	352	5.108	2.340	1	9	104	4.769	2.466	1	9	248	5.250	2.275	1	9	*
Drug/Alcohol																
Unfair	355	5.189	2.520	1	9	105	5.381	2.555	1	9	250	5.108	2.506	1	9	ns
Cheat																
Unfair	353	7.193	2.076	1	9	104	6.817	2.284	1	9	249	7.349	1.966	1	9	*
Manipulation Checks																
Confident																
Fight	357	7.333	1.445	1	9	105	7.381	1.655	1	9	252	7.313	1.351	2	9	ns
Shoplift	354	7.718	1.400	2	9	105	7.610	1.632	2	9	249	7.763	1.291	4	9	ns
Drug/Alcohol	356	7.860	1.423	1	9	105	7.771	1.489	3	9	251	7.896	1.396	1	9	ns
Cheat	354	7.686	1.471	1	9	104	7.538	1.723	1	9	250	7.748	1.352	1	9	ns
Realistic																
Fight	355	5.034	2.128	1	9	105	5.619	2.091	1	9	250	4.788	2.100	1	9	***
Shoplift	356	5.579	2.086	1	9	105	5.448	2.139	1	9	251	5.633	2.065	1	9	ns
Drug/Alcohol	354	6.347	1.980	1	9	104	6.269	1.786	1	9	250	6.380	2.058	1	9	ns
Cheat	353	7.147	1.696	2	9	105	7.210	1.459	4	9	248	7.121	1.789	2	9	ns

Note: Variances assumed to be unequal

*p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Respondents listed a mean number of 8.23 self-aspects which is somewhat higher than the mean reported in other self-complexity studies that have ranged from 5.70 (Brown and Rafaeli 2007) to 6.95 (Niedenthal et al. 1992). The mean in this study is probably higher than other studies due to the ease of listing aspects on the computer as opposed to the card sorting task (See Table 2). The mean for overlap is 0.373 (37.3%) which is comparable to other studies (Brown and Rafaeli 2007). A number of respondents failed to describe all self-aspects that were listed with 24 respondents neglecting to describe one aspect and an additional 9 failing to describe 2 or more self-aspects. Regression analyses only include those who describe all of their self-aspects (N=324; 225 females, 99 males).

Respondents were asked how many times they had engaged in certain types of crime over the past year. They were unlikely to report that they had hit someone in the past year with an average of under one. The most common offenses reported were binge drinking (mean = 2.11) and using marijuana (mean = 1.45). Shoplifting and cheating were uncommon (mean = 0.68 for shoplifting; mean = 0.52 for cheating). As can be seen in Table 2, respondents engaged in less than one serious crime and about one property on average in the year prior to being surveyed. The average for minor drug and alcohol related crimes was much higher with individuals reporting slightly over 9 of these offenses.

In addition, respondents reported experiencing an average of 29.81 stressful events over the past 12 months. They reported an average of 13.68 unique stressful events that occurred from April 2007 to April 2008 on average. Two of the most commonly reported strains were finding a course uninteresting (mean = 2.11) and

receiving a much poorer grade than expected on a test or in a course (mean = 2.01). Respondents were also likely to realize that finances were increasingly inadequate for social and recreational needs (mean = 1.80) and to experience living arrangements that were unsatisfactory (mean = 1.80).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Non-Scenario Variables

# of Items	N	Mean	SD	Range
Self-Complexity				
Self-Aspects	324	8.269	4.338	0 - 25
Overlap	318	37.314	18.016	0 - 90.675
Prior Crime				
Hit	351	0.345	0.915	0 - 5
Shoplift	345	0.667	1.970	0 - 15
Binge Drink	351	2.111	2.186	0 - 5
Use Marijuana	349	1.146	1.895	0 - 5
Cheat on Exam	350	0.520	1.062	0 - 5
Serious Crime	331	0.731	2.237	0 - 24
Property Crime	340	1.094	2.966	0 - 30
Drug/Alcohol Crime	330	9.285	9.950	0 - 45
Strain				
Academic	341	6.196	3.493	0 - 18
Discrimination	353	0.677	1.328	0 - 7
Living Arrangements	350	4.846	3.422	0 - 16
Financial	347	4.308	4.596	0 - 20
Family	338	4.938	4.595	0 - 20
Romantic	345	4.104	4.118	0 - 29
Friend	342	1.193	1.628	0 - 12
Other	344	0.898	1.346	0 - 6
Victimization	348	1.333	1.934	0 - 10
Work	346	1.194	1.925	0 - 12
Total Strain	310	29.806	15.221	2 - 79
Total Strain Events	310	13.684	5.6170	1 - 29
Trait Emotions				-
Anger	350	13.803	4.100	5 - 25
Depression (Avg # days)	348	2.122	1.537	0 - 7
Labeling				
Negative label of self	354	8.912	3.596	4 - 20
Personality Characteristics				
Constraint	355	3.516	0.504	2 - 5
Negative Emotionality	355	2.704	0.496	1.2 - 4.133
Social Control				
Closeness to Family	353	3.198	0.754	1 - 4
Commitment to School	352	11.446	2.254	3 - 15
Grades	356	7.972	0.900	4 - 9
Involvement	347	3.409	2.083	0 - 15
Moral Beliefs				
Disapproval of Fighting	356	3.183	1.042	1 - 5

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Non-Scenario Variables

# of Items	N	Mean	SD	Range
Disapproval of Shoplifting	356	4.441	0.708	1 - 5
Disapproval of Getting Drunk	357	3.535	1.115	1 - 5
Disapproval of Drug Use	355	4.008	1.168	1 - 5
Disapproval of Cheating	356	4.292	0.875	1 - 5
Delinquent Peers crime				
Peers Hit	324	0.549	0.743	0 - 3
Peers Shoplift	307	0.463	0.742	0 - 3
Peers Use Drugs	346	2.832	1.130	0 - 4
Peers Drink	335	1.782	1.200	0 - 4
Peers Cheat	254	0.862	0.933	0 - 4
Peer's Morals				
Disapproval of Fighting	350	3.246	1.134	1 - 5
Disapproval of Shoplifting	352	4.165	0.848	2 - 5
Disapproval of Getting Drunk	352	2.824	1.214	1 - 5
Disapproval of Drug Use	352	3.259	1.313	1 - 5
Disapproval of Cheating	352	3.923	1.034	1 - 5
Demographics				
Age	356	19.893	1.434	18 - 25
Male	357	29.4%	0.456	0 - 1
Race				
White	349	54.2%	0.499	0 - 1
Black	349	11.2%	0.316	0 - 1
Asian	349	27.2%	0.446	0 - 1
Other	349	7.4%	0.263	0 - 1
SES				
Mother's Educ. Attainment	355	5.223	1.700	1 - 7
Father's Educ. Attainment	346	5.546	1.739	1 - 7
Family Low Household Income	346	14.5%	0.352	0 - 1
Conditioning Factors				
Self-esteem	343	31.073	5.106	16 - 40
Self-efficacy	355	20.704	3.365	12 - 28
Potential Social Support	353	2.737	0.833	1 - 4
Perceived Social Support	353	2.076	0.763	1 - 3

Hypothesis 1: Are those who are lower in self-complexity more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity?

To examine hypothesis 1, I test whether self-complexity affects intentions to offend and prior crime excluding emotions and perceptions of the severity of strain. I exclude these variables because I argue that self-complexity should affect perceptions of strain and situational emotions. Therefore, I test the central hypothesis first and then, below I explore the reasons for any effects found in the separate sub-hypotheses.

As shown in Table 3, Full and Reduced Model, the number of aspects and overlap do not directly affect intentions to hit in the fighting scenario. The interaction is significant and negative in the full model as well as in the reduced model. This indicates that for those with few self-aspects, a higher percentage of overlap increases the likelihood that individuals would hit the other person if they were in this situation. A higher percentage of overlap significantly increases the likelihood of intentions to hit the other person for individuals who have 7 self-aspects or fewer. When individuals have many self-aspects, the sign is negative although non-significant. As can be seen in Chart 1, the slope for individuals low in self-aspects is steeper than that of those who describe an average number of self-aspects. This demonstrates that that the effect of overlap on intentions to hit is stronger for those with few self-aspects.

Table 3: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.002 (0.003)	(0.037)	-0.017 (-0.026)	(0.038)	0.026 (0.041)	(0.031)	0.007 (0.011)	(0.032)
Percent Overlap	0.009 (0.060)	(0.010)	0.011 (0.069)	(0.010)	0.013 (0.086)	(0.008)	0.014 (0.094)	(0.008) +
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.004 (-0.115)	(0.002) +			-0.004 (-0.115)	(0.002) *
Unjustified	0.320 (0.195)	(0.089) ***	0.322 (0.196)	(0.088) ***	0.231 (0.156)	(0.072) ***	0.235 (0.159)	(0.071) ***
Hit	0.488 (0.156)	(0.181) **	0.504 (0.161)	(0.180) **	0.516 (0.155)	(0.169) **	0.529 (0.159)	(0.168) **
Relationship Strain	-0.025 (-0.036)	(0.041)	-0.030 (-0.043)	(0.040)				
Trait Anger	0.001 (0.002)	(0.055)	-0.015 (-0.021)	(0.056)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.197 (0.094)	(0.134)	0.184 (0.087)	(0.133)				
Self Label	0.131 (0.166)	(0.054) *	0.122 (0.154)	(0.054) *	0.088 (0.111)	(0.045) +	0.081 (0.102)	(0.045) +
Negative Emotionality	1.109 (0.191)	(0.503) *	1.192 (0.205)	(0.501) *	0.803 (0.140)	(0.316) *	0.778 (0.136)	(0.314) *
Constraint	-0.807 (-0.139)	(0.400) *	-0.841 (-0.145)	(0.398) *	-0.925 (-0.164)	(0.321) **	-0.958 (-0.170)	(0.319) **
Close to Family	0.250 (0.066)	(0.233)	0.276 (0.073)	(0.232)				
School Commitment	-0.007 (-0.005)	(0.089)	-0.010 (-0.007)	(0.088)				
Grades	-0.114 (-0.038)	(0.192)	-0.063 (-0.021)	(0.193)				

Table 3: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Involvement	-0.111 (-0.084)	(0.078)	-0.080 (-0.061)	(0.079)				
Situational Morals	-0.594 (-0.211)	(0.201) **	-0.568 (-0.202)	(0.200) **	-0.834 (-0.299)	(0.145) ***	-0.829 (-0.297)	(0.144) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	-0.280 (-0.108)	(0.180)	-0.309 (-0.120)	(0.180) +				
Past Crime	-0.082 (-0.021)	(0.251)	-0.028 (-0.007)	(0.251)				
Age	-0.118 (-0.059)	(0.117)	-0.101 (-0.050)	(0.116)				
Male	0.647 (0.103)	(0.366) +	0.614 (0.098)	(0.364) +	0.686 (0.114)	(0.310) *	0.667 (0.111)	(0.307) *
White	-0.234 (-0.041)	(0.572)	-0.177 (-0.031)	(0.569)				
Asian	-0.012 (-0.002)	(0.588)	-0.079 (-0.012)	(0.585)				
Other	1.148 (0.107)	(0.772)	1.328 (0.124)	(0.773) +				
Mom Education	-0.165 (-0.102)	(0.113)	-0.195 (-0.120)	(0.113) +				
Dad Education	0.283 (0.175)	(0.111) *	0.291 (0.180)	(0.110) **	0.157 (0.100)	(0.076) *	0.144 (0.092)	(0.075) +
Low Income	-0.197 (-0.022)	(0.515)	-0.238 (-0.027)	(0.512)				
Self-efficacy	0.086 (0.102)	(0.065)	0.081 (0.096)	(0.065)				
Self-esteem	-0.002 (-0.003)	(0.043)	-0.003 (-0.005)	(0.043)				

Table 3: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
# Talk Problems	-0.066 (-0.019)	(0.203)	-0.071 (-0.021)	(0.201)				
Help Often	-0.485 (-0.135)	(0.224) *	-0.474 (-0.132)	(0.223) *	-0.345 (-0.097)	(0.174) *	-0.329 (-0.092)	(0.173) +
Probability Negative Traits	-4.291 (-0.150)	(1.775) *	-3.391 (-0.118)	(1.824) +	-3.387 (-0.117)	(1.571) *	-2.695 (-0.093)	(1.589) +
Constant	4.905	(4.139)	4.344	(4.122)	5.329	(1.876) **	5.517	(1.864) **
N	226		226		297		297	
R-Squared	0.502		0.511		0.356		0.3674	
Adj R-Squared	0.426		0.433		0.329		0.3383	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 4: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Hit at Different Levels of Self-Aspects (Hyp 1)

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	3.835	0.044	0.016	2.773
1	3.973	0.040	0.014	2.778
2	4.111	0.037	0.013	2.772
3	4.249	0.033	0.012	2.748
4	4.388	0.029	0.011	2.695
5	4.526	0.026	0.010	2.597
6	4.664	0.022	0.009	2.435
7	4.802	0.019	0.009	2.187
8	4.941	0.015	0.008	1.847
9	5.079	0.012	0.008	1.430
10	5.217	0.008	0.009	0.976
11	5.356	0.005	0.009	0.532
12	5.494	0.001	0.010	0.133
13	5.632	-0.002	0.011	-0.207
14	5.770	-0.006	0.012	-0.488
15	5.909	-0.009	0.013	-0.717
16	6.047	-0.013	0.014	-0.904
17	6.185	-0.016	0.015	-1.058
18	6.323	-0.020	0.017	-1.184
19	6.462	-0.023	0.018	-1.289
20	6.600	-0.027	0.020	-1.378
21	6.738	-0.030	0.021	-1.453
22	6.876	-0.034	0.022	-1.517
23	7.015	-0.037	0.024	-1.573
24	7.153	-0.041	0.025	-1.622
25	7.291	-0.045	0.027	-1.664

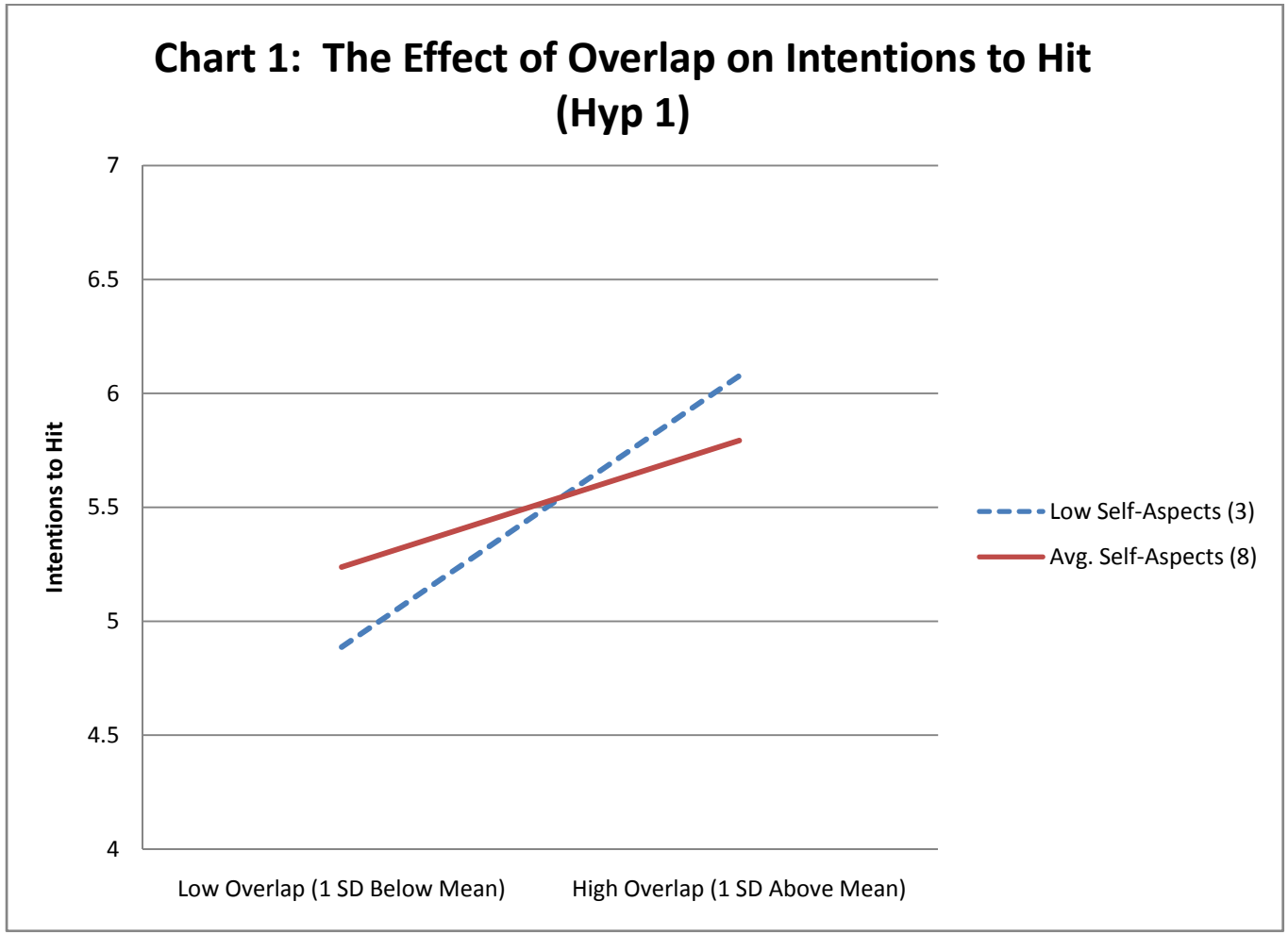
Chart 1: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Hit (Hyp 1)
Intentions to Hit
7
6.5
6
5.5
5
4.5
4
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Avg. Self-Aspects (8)

Many of the control variables were significant in the theoretically expected direction (See Model 1, Full Model). Consistent with general strain theory, perceiving the antagonist's behavior as unjustified led to greater intentions to offend. Those who have a history of hitting others, those who have a negative label self, those who are high in negative emotionality, those who have highly educated fathers, and males were more likely to report they would hit the other person. It is unclear why father's education level would positively influence offending. Those who are high in constraint, believe hitting others is wrong, who have family who would help out with problems, and who had a higher probability of selecting negative traits are less likely to intend to offend. Moral beliefs against fighting exerted the strongest effect (beta = -0.211).

I substituted the H statistic in Reduced Model 2 to determine whether this variable affected intentions to hit (Analyses Not Shown). As expected, self-complexity measured in this way did not affect intentions to offend in the fighting scenario.

Next I test hypothesis 1 in the shoplifting scenario. Students were unlikely to report they would shoplift, resulting in a skewed variable. Therefore, the log of intentions to shoplift was taken to reduce skewness in this variable. Self-complexity does not affect intentions to shoplift even in the reduced model (See Table 5, Model 2). Overlap and the number of aspects do not independently affect intentions to shoplift either.

Those who perceived the situation as unfair and who have friends who have shoplifted were more likely to say they would shoplift in this scenario. Once again, those who have fathers with higher levels of education were more likely to report they would

shoplift. Those high in constraint, those with mothers with higher education levels, and those who believe shoplifting is wrong were less likely to intend to shoplift. Moral beliefs were the most important predictor in this model as well (beta = -0.332).

No clear explanation exists for why father's education increases the likelihood of crime while mother's education inhibits crime. It may be that more highly educated fathers put extra pressure on their children to succeed. Students may therefore try to succeed socially and academically through crime and deviance.

As expected, self-complexity measured with the H statistic did not impact whether the sample responded they would shoplift in this scenario.

Table 5: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.009 (-0.047)	(0.011)	-0.005 (-0.030)	(0.012)	0.001 (0.004)	(0.009)	0.003 (0.015)	(0.009)
Percent Overlap	-0.002 (-0.050)	(0.003)	-0.002 (-0.055)	(0.003)	0.000 (-0.012)	(0.002)	-0.001 (-0.019)	(0.002)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.077)	(0.001)			0.000 (0.057)	(0.000)
Unfair	0.066 (0.196)	(0.020) **	0.067 (0.200)	(0.020) ***	0.048 (0.147)	(0.016) **	0.049 (0.149)	(0.016) **
Grades Important	0.021 (0.040)	(0.034)	0.021 (0.040)	(0.034)				
Shoplift	0.023 (0.064)	(0.025)	0.023 (0.064)	(0.025)				
Academic Strain	0.003 (0.014)	(0.015)	0.003 (0.012)	(0.015)				
Trait Anger	-0.010 (-0.050)	(0.016)	-0.005 (-0.026)	(0.017)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.025 (-0.044)	(0.039)	-0.023 (-0.040)	(0.039)				
Self Label	0.023 (0.112)	(0.015)	0.024 (0.114)	(0.015)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.027 (-0.017)	(0.146)	-0.057 (-0.037)	(0.148)				
Constraint	-0.230 (-0.152)	(0.124) +	-0.228 (-0.151)	(0.124) +	-0.212 (-0.142)	(0.080) **	-0.212 (-0.142)	(0.080) **
Close to Family	0.026 (0.025)	(0.071)	0.020 (0.019)	(0.071)				
School Commitment	-0.012 (-0.032)	(0.026)	-0.011 (-0.029)	(0.026)				

Table 5: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Grades	0.079 (0.097)	(0.057)	0.070 (0.086)	(0.057)				
Involvement	0.019 (0.053)	(0.023)	0.012 (0.034)	(0.023)				
Situational Morals	-0.361 (-0.332)	(0.084) ***	-0.366 (-0.337)	(0.084) ***	-0.448 (-0.408)	(0.063) ***	-0.449 (-0.408)	(0.063) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.016 (0.018)	(0.068)	0.012 (0.013)	(0.068)				
Criminal Peers	0.181 (0.168)	(0.081) *	0.176 (0.164)	(0.081) *	0.191 (0.187)	(0.057) ***	0.190 (0.186)	(0.057) ***
Age	0.023 (0.041)	(0.035)	0.019 (0.034)	(0.035)				
Male	0.106 (0.062)	(0.108)	0.102 (0.060)	(0.107)				
White	0.002 (0.001)	(0.170)	-0.011 (-0.008)	(0.170)				
Asian	0.173 (0.104)	(0.172)	0.186 (0.112)	(0.172)				
Other	0.060 (0.022)	(0.228)	0.018 (0.007)	(0.231)				
Mom Education	-0.057 (-0.132)	(0.034) +	-0.052 (-0.120)	(0.034)	-0.035 (-0.081)	(0.028)	-0.033 (-0.076)	(0.028)
Dad Education	0.058 (0.132)	(0.034) +	0.055 (0.127)	(0.034)	0.060 (0.140)	(0.028) *	0.061 (0.141)	(0.028) *
Low Income	-0.214 (-0.096)	(0.152)	-0.209 (-0.094)	(0.152)				
Self-efficacy	0.009 (0.042)	(0.019)	0.011 (0.049)	(0.019)				

Table 5: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Self-esteem	-0.005 (-0.035)	(0.012)	-0.006 (-0.040)	(0.012)				
# Talk Problems	-0.013 (-0.013)	(0.059)	-0.012 (-0.013)	(0.059)				
Help Often	0.018 (0.018)	(0.069)	0.021 (0.021)	(0.069)				
Probability Negative Traits	0.218 (0.029)	(0.509)	0.084 (0.011)	(0.521)				
Constant	1.386	(1.213)	1.591	(1.224)	3.051	(0.383) ***	3.034	(0.383) ***
N	202		202		259		259	
R-Squared	0.488		0.492		0.397		0.3996	
Adj R-Squared	0.395		0.396		0.377		0.3779	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Next, I examine the relationship between self-complexity and intentions to drink alcohol (See Table 6). In the full model, neither self-complexity nor its individual components predict intentions to drink in this stressful situation. When the model was reduced to include the most important predictors, the interaction term is significant and negative (See Reduced Model 2). This indicates that as expected those who are lower in self-complexity (fewer self-aspects with more overlap), are more likely to drink if they were to experience this situation. To more fully explore this interaction effect, I calculate the effect of overlap on intentions to drink at different numbers of self-aspects (See Table 7). While the sign is in the predicted direction, overlap does not significantly increase the likelihood of intending to drink for those with few self-aspects. Contrary to expectations, increases in overlap reduce the likelihood of intentions to drink for those with 10 self-aspects and over. It appears that having many self-aspects may only prove to be advantageous when individuals view themselves similarly among them. Overlap may be beneficial because when individuals view themselves very differently among so many self-aspects, they have a hard time meeting their obligations. Therefore, individuals can only reap the benefits of having more self-aspects if they view themselves similarly. Chart 2 demonstrates the positive, although not significant slope when self-aspects are low and the negative relationship between overlap and drinking when self-aspects are at 18.

Those who viewed the situation as unfair, had drank 4 or more alcoholic beverages in less than 2 hours, and who have friends who drink were more likely to intend to drink in this scenario. Moral beliefs against drinking negatively impacted the

likelihood of intending to drink. As with the fighting and shoplifting scenario, moral beliefs exerted the strongest effect in this model (beta = -0.430). Finally, when H was substituted in the reduced model, it did not affect intentions to drink as expected.

Table 6: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.004 (0.006)	(0.030)	-0.004 (-0.006)	(0.031)	-0.003 (-0.005)	(0.025)	-0.016 (-0.025)	(0.026)
Percent Overlap	-0.002 (-0.013)	(0.008)	-0.002 (-0.010)	(0.008)	-0.008 (-0.054)	(0.006)	-0.006 (-0.043)	(0.006)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.002 (-0.056)	(0.002)			-0.003 (-0.093)	(0.001) *
Unfair	0.154 (0.145)	(0.055) **	0.152 (0.143)	(0.055) **	0.159 (0.148)	(0.043) ***	0.148 (0.137)	(0.043) ***
Grades Important	0.020 (0.011)	(0.100)	0.023 (0.013)	(0.100)				
Past Crime	0.340 (0.281)	(0.072) ***	0.348 (0.287)	(0.073) ***	0.326 (0.269)	(0.059) ***	0.324 (0.266)	(0.059) ***
Academic Strain	-0.015 (-0.020)	(0.042)	-0.015 (-0.019)	(0.042)				
Trait Anger	0.069 (0.102)	(0.048)	0.062 (0.091)	(0.048)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.065 (0.033)	(0.111)	0.055 (0.028)	(0.112)				
Self Label	0.069 (0.094)	(0.043)	0.065 (0.087)	(0.043)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.281 (-0.052)	(0.392)	-0.256 (-0.048)	(0.393)				
Constraint	-0.572 (-0.105)	(0.355)	-0.596 (-0.110)	(0.355) +				
Close to Family	-0.104 (-0.029)	(0.201)	-0.084 (-0.023)	(0.202)				
School Commitment	0.012 (0.010)	(0.072)	0.012 (0.010)	(0.072)				

Table 6: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Grades	-0.199 (-0.071)	(0.159)	-0.172 (-0.061)	(0.161)				
Involvement	-0.060 (-0.048)	(0.065)	-0.045 (-0.036)	(0.067)				
Situational Morals	-1.015 (-0.430)	(0.146) ***	-1.014 (-0.429)	(0.146) ***	-1.200 (-0.497)	(0.110) ***	-1.204 (-0.499)	(0.109) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.082 (0.036)	(0.131)	0.089 (0.039)	(0.131)				
Criminal Peers	0.260 (0.111)	(0.146) +	0.263 (0.112)	(0.146) +	0.282 (0.119)	(0.111) *	0.309 (0.130)	(0.110) **
Age	0.129 (0.069)	(0.098)	0.133 (0.071)	(0.098)				
Male	0.008 (0.001)	(0.291)	0.002 (0.000)	(0.291)				
White	-0.230 (-0.043)	(0.503)	-0.219 (-0.041)	(0.503)				
Asian	0.160 (0.027)	(0.499)	0.119 (0.020)	(0.500)				
Other	-0.311 (-0.033)	(0.638)	-0.248 (-0.026)	(0.640)				
Mom Education	-0.043 (-0.028)	(0.095)	-0.055 (-0.035)	(0.096)				
Dad Education	0.142 (0.093)	(0.092)	0.142 (0.093)	(0.092)				
Low Income	-0.257 (-0.032)	(0.435)	-0.282 (-0.035)	(0.435)				
Self-efficacy	-0.015 (-0.019)	(0.054)	-0.018 (-0.023)	(0.055)				

Table 6: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Self-esteem	-0.023 (-0.045)	(0.035)	-0.025 (-0.047)	(0.035)				
# Talk Problems	0.243 (0.076)	(0.168)	0.234 (0.073)	(0.168)				
Help Often	0.065 (0.020)	(0.191)	0.066 (0.020)	(0.190)				
Probability Negative Traits	-1.085 (-0.040)	(1.468)	-0.675 (-0.025)	(1.517)				
Constant	5.334	(3.382)	5.189	(3.383)	5.844	(0.596) ***	5.848	(0.592) ***
N	235		235		303		303	
R-Squared	0.592		0.594		0.536		0.5437	
Adj R-Squared	0.530		0.530		0.526		0.5329	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 7: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Drink at Different Levels of Self-Aspects (Hyp 1)

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	5.348	0.017	0.012	1.353
1	5.437	0.014	0.011	1.233
2	5.527	0.011	0.010	1.084
3	5.617	0.008	0.009	0.898
4	5.706	0.006	0.008	0.662
5	5.796	0.003	0.008	0.364
6	5.886	0.000	0.007	-0.008
7	5.975	-0.003	0.006	-0.452
8	6.065	-0.006	0.006	-0.944
9	6.155	-0.009	0.006	-1.432
10	6.244	-0.011	0.006	-1.852
11	6.334	-0.014	0.007	-2.169
12	6.424	-0.017	0.007	-2.380
13	6.513	-0.020	0.008	-2.510
14	6.603	-0.023	0.009	-2.584
15	6.692	-0.025	0.010	-2.622
16	6.782	-0.028	0.011	-2.638
17	6.872	-0.031	0.012	-2.642
18	6.961	-0.034	0.013	-2.638
19	7.051	-0.037	0.014	-2.630
20	7.141	-0.040	0.015	-2.619
21	7.230	-0.042	0.016	-2.607
22	7.320	-0.045	0.017	-2.595
23	7.410	-0.048	0.019	-2.583
24	7.499	-0.051	0.020	-2.572
25	7.589	-0.054	0.021	-2.561

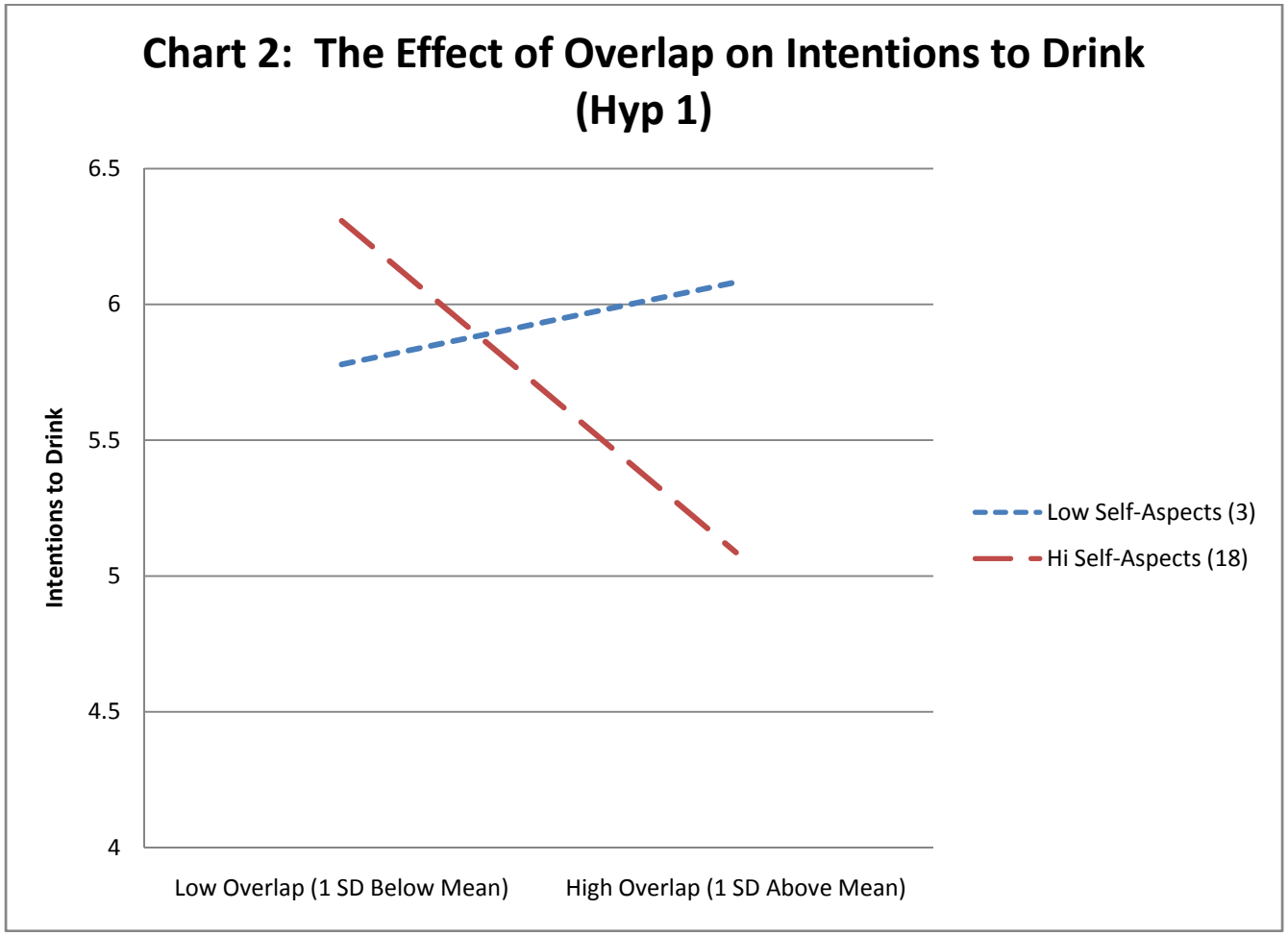
Chart 2: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Drink (Hyp 1)
Intentions to Drink
6.5
6
5.5
5
4.5
4
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Hi Self-Aspects (18)

Next, I investigate the effect of self-complexity on intentions to use drugs. This variable was logged to reduce skewness. Contrary to intentions to drink, self-complexity does not impact the likelihood of intending to use drugs in the full or reduced model (See Table 8). Neither overlap nor the number of aspects influence intentions to use drugs. These findings suggest that self-complexity may buffer the effect of strain on only certain types of crime. For example, respondents read the same stressful situation and answered on two outcomes, drinking and using drugs. Level of self-complexity only affected the decision to drink. As expected, the H statistic did not affect drug use.

Viewing the situation as unfair, using marijuana in the past, being depressed on average in the past week, and being Asian are positively related to intentions to use drugs (See Table 8, Full Model 1). Only moral beliefs against drug use negatively predicted intentions to offend. Past use of marijuana was the most important predictor in this model (beta = 0.410).

Table 8: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.005 (-0.026)	(0.009)	-0.004 (-0.022)	(0.009)	-0.002 (-0.011)	(0.007)	-0.002 (-0.011)	(0.007)
Percent Overlap	-0.003 (-0.070)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.071)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.058)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.058)	(0.002)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.000 (0.017)	(0.000)			0.000 (-0.002)	(0.000)
Unfair	0.051 (0.161)	(0.016) **	0.051 (0.162)	(0.016) **	0.039 (0.128)	(0.012) ***	0.039 (0.127)	(0.012) ***
Grades Important	-0.019 (-0.038)	(0.028)	-0.020 (-0.039)	(0.028)				
Past Crime	0.167 (0.410)	(0.025) ***	0.167 (0.410)	(0.025) ***	0.186 (0.460)	(0.019) ***	0.186 (0.460)	(0.019) ***
Academic Strain	-0.006 (-0.027)	(0.012)	-0.006 (-0.027)	(0.012)				
Trait Anger	0.002 (0.010)	(0.014)	0.003 (0.014)	(0.014)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.065 (0.113)	(0.032) *	0.066 (0.114)	(0.032) *	0.035 (0.066)	(0.021) +	0.035 (0.066)	(0.021) +
Self Label	0.008 (0.038)	(0.012)	0.009 (0.040)	(0.013)				
Negative Emotionality	0.026 (0.016)	(0.112)	0.024 (0.015)	(0.112)				
Constraint	-0.147 (-0.093)	(0.099)	-0.144 (-0.092)	(0.100)				
Close to Family	0.022 (0.021)	(0.058)	0.020 (0.019)	(0.058)				
School Commitment	0.015 (0.041)	(0.021)	0.016 (0.041)	(0.021)				

Table 8: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Grades	-0.054 (-0.065)	(0.045)	-0.057 (-0.069)	(0.046)				
Involvement	0.017 (0.047)	(0.018)	0.015 (0.042)	(0.018)				
Situational Morals	-0.190 (-0.287)	(0.043) ***	-0.189 (-0.286)	(0.043) ***	-0.252 (-0.385)	(0.030) ***	-0.252 (-0.385)	(0.030) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.003 (0.005)	(0.038)	0.002 (0.004)	(0.038)				
Criminal Peers	0.069 (0.107)	(0.045)	0.068 (0.105)	(0.045)				
Age	0.015 (0.028)	(0.028)	0.015 (0.028)	(0.028)				
Male	0.096 (0.057)	(0.083)	0.097 (0.058)	(0.083)				
White	0.110 (0.071)	(0.142)	0.108 (0.070)	(0.142)	0.151 (0.097)	(0.096)	0.151 (0.098)	(0.096)
Asian	0.241 (0.138)	(0.143) +	0.243 (0.139)	(0.143) +	0.290 (0.167)	(0.103) **	0.290 (0.167)	(0.103) **
Other	-0.041 (-0.015)	(0.179)	-0.048 (-0.017)	(0.180)	-0.002 (-0.001)	(0.146)	-0.001 (0.000)	(0.147)
Mom Education	0.001 (0.002)	(0.027)	0.002 (0.004)	(0.028)				
Dad Education	0.035 (0.078)	(0.028)	0.036 (0.079)	(0.028)				
Low Income	-0.027 (-0.011)	(0.123)	-0.024 (-0.010)	(0.124)				
Self-efficacy	0.009 (0.039)	(0.016)	0.010 (0.041)	(0.016)				

Table 8: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Self-esteem	-0.004 (-0.025)	(0.010)	-0.004 (-0.025)	(0.010)				
# Talk Problems	-0.027 (-0.028)	(0.047)	-0.025 (-0.027)	(0.048)				
Help Often	-0.064 (-0.065)	(0.055)	-0.064 (-0.065)	(0.055)				
Probability Negative Traits	0.069 (0.008)	(0.445)	0.040 (0.005)	(0.454)				
Constant	0.682	(0.963)	0.691	(0.966)	0.869	(0.181) ***	0.869	(0.181) ***
N	224		224		298		298	
R-Squared	0.632		0.632		0.581		0.5806	
Adj R-Squared	0.572		0.570		0.568		0.566	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In the final scenario, I examined the relationship between self-complexity and intentions to cheat (See Table 9). No significant interaction was detected. In three out of four models, having more aspects led to a higher likelihood of intending to cheat, in opposition to what would be expected. The H statistic did not affect intentions to cheat as expected.

Those who had cheated in the past, those who are close to their family, and who have highly educated fathers were more likely to say they would cheat if they were the main character in this scenario. It is interesting that so many social control variables lead to a higher likelihood of offending. It may be that pressure to succeed academically from the family results in cheating, especially in an academically challenging environment. Also, those who have many self-aspects may choose to cheat because they are busy with many other priorities. Finally, moral beliefs against cheating and having more people to talk to reduced intentions to cheat with moral beliefs exerting the strongest effect (beta = -0.468).

Table 9: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.056 (0.099)	(0.034)	0.065 (0.114)	(0.036) +	0.049 (0.082)	(0.024) *	0.049 (0.081)	(0.025) *
Percent Overlap	0.002 (0.017)	(0.009)	0.002 (0.011)	(0.009)	0.000 (0.004)	(0.006)	0.001 (0.004)	(0.006)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.048)	(0.002)			0.000 (-0.004)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.012 (0.009)	(0.079)	0.009 (0.007)	(0.079)				
Grades Important	-0.009 (-0.005)	(0.120)	-0.009 (-0.005)	(0.120)				
Past Crime	0.582 (0.262)	(0.154) ***	0.576 (0.260)	(0.155) ***	0.605 (0.269)	(0.101) ***	0.605 (0.269)	(0.102) ***
Academic Strain	-0.039 (-0.052)	(0.052)	-0.038 (-0.051)	(0.052)				
Trait Anger	0.072 (0.110)	(0.053)	0.081 (0.122)	(0.055)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.174 (-0.094)	(0.131)	-0.159 (-0.085)	(0.133)				
Self Label	0.074 (0.105)	(0.049)	0.076 (0.109)	(0.049)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.048 (-0.010)	(0.458)	-0.117 (-0.023)	(0.468)				
Constraint	-0.192 (-0.039)	(0.398)	-0.158 (-0.032)	(0.401)				
Close to Family	0.858 (0.249)	(0.236) ***	0.853 (0.247)	(0.237) ***	0.507 (0.149)	(0.140) ***	0.508 (0.150)	(0.141) ***
School Commitment	-0.033 (-0.025)	(0.097)	-0.033 (-0.025)	(0.097)				

Table 9: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Grades	-0.045 (-0.016)	(0.193)	-0.070 (-0.025)	(0.197)				
Involvement	0.030 (0.023)	(0.082)	0.022 (0.017)	(0.083)				
Situational Morals	-1.419 (-0.468)	(0.215) ***	-1.452 (-0.479)	(0.220) ***	-1.602 (-0.555)	(0.129) ***	-1.601 (-0.555)	(0.130) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	-0.136 (-0.050)	(0.193)	-0.148 (-0.055)	(0.194)				
Criminal Peers	0.287 (0.099)	(0.214)	0.270 (0.093)	(0.216)				
Age	0.079 (0.041)	(0.119)	0.071 (0.037)	(0.119)				
Male	-0.232 (-0.041)	(0.343)	-0.244 (-0.043)	(0.344)				
White	-0.006 (-0.001)	(0.602)	-0.020 (-0.004)	(0.604)				
Asian	-0.158 (-0.028)	(0.602)	-0.139 (-0.025)	(0.604)				
Other	-0.704 (-0.075)	(0.796)	-0.773 (-0.082)	(0.803)				
Mom Education	-0.003 (-0.002)	(0.113)	0.006 (0.004)	(0.114)				
Dad Education	0.193 (0.124)	(0.115) +	0.184 (0.118)	(0.115)	0.079 (0.055)	(0.058)	0.078 (0.055)	(0.059)
Low Income	0.265 (0.033)	(0.503)	0.270 (0.034)	(0.504)				
Self-efficacy	0.056 (0.072)	(0.064)	0.057 (0.073)	(0.064)				

Table 9: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat (Excluding severity of strain and situational emotions)

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Self-esteem	-0.045 (-0.091)	(0.042)	-0.043 (-0.087)	(0.042)				
# Talk Problems	-0.440 (-0.139)	(0.193) *	-0.423 (-0.133)	(0.195) *	-0.315 (-0.105)	(0.124) *	-0.315 (-0.106)	(0.124) *
Help Often	-0.360 (-0.109)	(0.243)	-0.365 (-0.111)	(0.243)				
Probability Negative Traits	-1.091 (-0.041)	(1.770)	-1.547 (-0.058)	(1.884)				
Constant	7.376	(4.223) +	7.811	(4.274) +	9.179	(0.802) ***	9.175	(0.804) ***
N	174		174		301		301	
R-Squared	0.599		0.601		0.528		0.5284	
Adj R-Squared	0.512		0.510		0.517		0.5155	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Does Self-Complexity Moderate the Relationship Between Prior Strain and Prior Crime Excluding Trait Emotions?

Next I evaluate hypothesis 1 using past crime as the dependent variable. I present several tables for each model. I predict each crime without including control variables. Next, I present a table that includes all relevant major causes of crime as control variables. I then present a reduced model which only includes the significant variables. I discuss significant interactions based on the model without controls. In cases where the substantive results differ when controls are included, I discuss these differences.

I test hypothesis 1 through examining the three-way interaction of strain, the number of self-aspects, and overlap arguing that when strain is high, the number of self-aspects are low, and overlap is high, an individual will be more likely to engage in crime than when someone has many self-aspects with little overlap.[38]

As can be seen in Model 1, Table 10, those with more self-aspects were less likely to have committed serious crime in the past year. As predicted by GST, strain positively predicts crime. In Model 2, I examine the interaction between overlap and strain arguing that strain should be more likely to lead to crime among those with more overlap. This interaction is not significant. Next, I examine the interaction between aspects and overlap expecting that the effect of strain on crime should be weaker when someone has more self-aspects. This interaction is not significant.

[38] The slope is calculated from the following formula: b at $(X_2, X_3) = b_1+b_4X_2 + b_5X_3 + b_7X_2X_3$. The standard error for a three-way interaction is calculated with the following formula: $s[b \text{ at } (X_2, X_3)] = var(b_1) + X_2^2 *var(b_4) + X_3^2*var(b_5) + X_2^2*X_3^2*var(b_7) + 2*X_2*cov(b_1,b_4) + 2*X_3*cov(b_1,b_5) + 2*X_2*X_3*cov(b_4,b_5) + 2*X_2*X_3*cov(b_1,b_7) + 2*X_2^2*X_3*cov(b_4,b_7) + 2*X_2X_3^2*cov(b_5,b_7)$.

Finally, I examine the three-way interaction arguing that the effect of strain on crime depends on both the number of self-aspects and the amount of overlap. As can be seen in Model 4, Table 10, this interaction is significant. The three-way interaction is also significant when controlling for potential causes of crime (See Table 11). In order to determine the conditional relationship between self-complexity and strain, I chose values for both aspects and overlap. Specifically, I examined the effect of strain on crime at different levels of self-aspects for overlap at 100%, one standard deviation above the mean, one standard deviation below the mean, and for no overlap (See Table 12).

Table 10: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.0209	(0.0100) *	0.0213	(0.0103) *	0.0226	(0.0100) *	0.0267	(0.0105) *
Number of Aspects	-0.0844	(0.0404) *	-0.0848	(0.0405) *	-0.0780	(0.0404) *	-0.0604	(0.0421)
Percent Overlap	-0.0096	(0.0074)	-0.0094	(0.0075)	-0.0081	(0.0075)	-0.0005	(0.0085)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0005	(0.0030)			0.0007	(0.0035)
Overlap x Strain					0.0005	(0.0005)	0.0002	(0.0005)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0021	(0.0024)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0004	(0.0002) *
Constant	-0.4953	(0.1531) ***	-0.4975	(0.1537) ***	-0.5488	(0.1574) ***	-0.6063	(0.1559) ***
Alpha	1.4578	(0.1982)	1.4577	(0.1982)	1.4331	(0.2002)	1.3426	(0.2048)
N	261		261		261		261	
Log-Likelihood	208.06		207.85		200.31		189.65	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.017		0.017		0.020		0.034	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

As expected, strain leads to more serious crime when self-aspects are low and individuals have complete overlap among these self-aspects (See Table 12). As the amount of overlap decreases, so does the effect of strain on crime at lower numbers of self-aspects (See Models 1-4, Table 12). For individuals with no overlap among few self-aspects, the effect of strain on crime is slightly negative (See Model 4). The relationship between strain and crime becomes negative and significant when self-aspects are high regardless of overlap, indicating that having more self-aspects counteracts the effect of strain on serious crime at these high levels (See Models 1-3).

Table 11: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Full Model)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.0157	(0.0118)		0.0112	(0.0125)		0.0177	(0.0115)		0.0129	(0.0117)	
Number of Aspects	-0.0554	(0.0467)		-0.0585	(0.0455)		-0.0532	(0.0449)		-0.0383	(0.0434)	
Percent Overlap	-0.0166	(0.0108)		-0.0189	(0.0110)	+	-0.0203	(0.0111)	+	-0.0259	(0.0110)	*
# of Aspects x Strain				-0.0035	(0.0031)					-0.0046	(0.0030)	
Overlap x Strain							0.0006	(0.0005)		0.0003	(0.0005)	
# of Aspects x Overlap										-0.0010	(0.0027)	
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										-0.0004	(0.0002)	*
Self Label	0.0892	(0.0631)		0.0845	(0.0626)		0.0916	(0.0608)		0.0902	(0.0542)	+
Negative Emotionality	0.5212	(0.5050)		0.5945	(0.5117)		0.5087	(0.4883)		0.6599	(0.4623)	
Constraint	-1.1023	(0.4695)	*	-1.1128	(0.4641)	*	-1.0623	(0.4610)	*	-1.1230	(0.4239)	**
Close to Family	0.0664	(0.2207)		0.0770	(0.2204)		0.0798	(0.2174)		0.1226	(0.2064)	
School Commitment	0.0014	(0.0789)		-0.0162	(0.0798)		0.0025	(0.0764)		0.0217	(0.0737)	
Grades	-0.3819	(0.2055)	+	-0.3959	(0.2013)	*	-0.3650	(0.1986)	+	-0.4020	(0.1822)	*
Involvement	0.0599	(0.0811)		0.0671	(0.0814)		0.0452	(0.0790)		0.1136	(0.0810)	
Morals	0.2474	(0.0800)	**	0.2538	(0.0792)	***	0.2530	(0.0775)	***	0.2235	(0.0735)	**
Friends' Morals	-0.1481	(0.0605)	*	-0.1393	(0.0603)	*	-0.1633	(0.0602)	**	-0.1506	(0.0560)	**
Criminal Peers	0.1505	(0.0747)	*	0.1659	(0.0757)	*	0.1367	(0.0726)	+	0.1251	(0.0686)	+
Age	0.0040	(0.1212)		0.0077	(0.1201)		0.0205	(0.1187)		0.0177	(0.1127)	
Male	0.7108	(0.3825)	+	0.7506	(0.3811)	*	0.7092	(0.3672)	+	0.6768	(0.3371)	*
White	-1.1634	(0.6170)	+	-1.1363	(0.6056)	+	-1.1258	(0.5914)	+	-0.8161	(0.5316)	
Asian	-1.1150	(0.6276)	+	-1.1414	(0.6208)	+	-1.0226	(0.6113)	+	-0.8876	(0.5602)	
Other	-1.4981	(0.7583)	*	-1.4218	(0.7474)	+	-1.3778	(0.7354)	+	-1.3151	(0.6753)	+
Mom Education	0.4663	(0.1412)	***	0.4491	(0.1407)	***	0.4628	(0.1372)	***	0.4408	(0.1293)	***
Dad Education	-0.0305	(0.1342)		0.0001	(0.1360)		-0.0207	(0.1307)		0.0202	(0.1256)	
Low Income	-0.1789	(0.7900)		-0.0178	(0.8022)		-0.1776	(0.7769)		-0.0571	(0.7707)	
Self-efficacy	-0.1222	(0.0723)	+	-0.1065	(0.0736)		-0.1043	(0.0713)		-0.1042	(0.0658)	
Self-esteem	0.1391	(0.0482)	**	0.1330	(0.0478)	**	0.1371	(0.0463)	**	0.1596	(0.0466)	***
# Talk Problems	-0.3271	(0.2342)		-0.3502	(0.2331)		-0.3096	(0.2283)		-0.4167	(0.2179)	+
Help Often	-0.0115	(0.2410)		0.0012	(0.2394)		-0.0212	(0.2363)		0.0158	(0.2215)	
Probability Negative Traits	2.7234	(1.5994)	+	3.2125	(1.6767)	+	3.2267	(1.5802)	*	4.2000	(1.5386)	**

Table 11: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Full Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Constant	-2.1873	(4.8851)	-2.7143	(4.8801)	-3.1069	(4.7767)	-4.1621	(4.4689)
Alpha	-0.1985	(0.4479) ***	-0.2493	(0.4622) ***	-0.3342	(0.4967) ***	-0.9055	(0.7827) ***
N	175		175		175		175	
Log-Likelihood	-143.47		-142.84		-142.80		-139.11	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.215		0.218		0.218		0.239	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In sum, strain has the strongest effect on serious crime when self-aspects are extremely low and overlap is extremely high, as expected. The effect of strain on crime becomes weaker as the degree of overlap decreases as expected. Interestingly, having more self-aspects eventually results in a negative relationship between strain and crime and this is more so the case with individuals who have numerous self-aspects (See Table 12, Model 1).

The reduced model which only includes significant control variables shows that in some cases, having more overlap leads to a higher likelihood of committing serious crime (See table 13). The interactions are not significant in this reduced model. It is difficult to determine why these results are different. The sample size likely affects the different findings among these models predicting serious crime.

Table 12: The Effect of Strain on Serious Crime at Different Levels of Aspects with complete overlap and no overlap

Model 1: Overlap = 100%					Model 2: Overlap = 55.33% (1 SD Above the Mean)				
# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test	# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	-8.429	34.399	13.586	2.532	0	-2.958	18.985	7.496	2.533
1	-7.625	30.454	11.910	2.557	1	-2.784	16.809	6.571	2.558
2	-6.820	26.508	10.280	2.579	2	-2.610	14.633	5.672	2.580
3	-6.016	22.562	8.721	2.587	3	-2.436	12.456	4.812	2.589
4	-5.212	18.616	7.279	2.558	4	-2.262	10.280	4.017	2.559
5	-4.407	14.670	6.038	2.429	5	-2.088	8.104	3.332	2.432
6	-3.603	10.724	5.148	2.083	6	-1.914	5.927	2.841	2.087
7	-2.798	6.779	4.805	1.411	7	-1.740	3.751	2.651	1.415
8	-1.994	2.833	5.121	0.553	8	-1.566	1.575	2.825	0.557
9	-1.189	-1.113	5.993	-0.186	9	-1.392	-0.602	3.306	-0.182
10	-0.385	-5.059	7.223	-0.700	10	-1.218	-2.778	3.984	-0.697
11	0.420	-9.005	8.658	-1.040	11	-1.044	-4.954	4.776	-1.037
12	1.224	-12.951	10.214	-1.268	12	-0.870	-7.131	5.633	-1.266
13	2.028	-16.896	11.842	-1.427	13	-0.696	-9.307	6.531	-1.425
14	2.833	-20.842	13.516	-1.542	14	-0.522	-11.484	7.455	-1.540
15	3.637	-24.788	15.222	-1.628	15	-0.348	-13.660	8.395	-1.627
16	4.442	-28.734	16.949	-1.695	16	-0.174	-15.836	9.348	-1.694
17	5.246	-32.680	18.692	-1.748	17	0.000	-18.013	10.310	-1.747
18	6.051	-36.625	20.446	-1.791	18	0.174	-20.189	11.277	-1.790
19	6.855	-40.571	22.210	-1.827	19	0.348	-22.365	12.250	-1.826
20	7.660	-44.517	23.980	-1.856	20	0.522	-24.542	13.227	-1.855
21	8.464	-48.463	25.756	-1.882	21	0.696	-26.718	14.206	-1.881
22	9.268	-52.409	27.537	-1.903	22	0.870	-28.894	15.188	-1.902
23	10.073	-56.355	29.321	-1.922	23	1.044	-31.071	16.172	-1.921
24	10.877	-60.300	31.108	-1.938	24	1.218	-33.247	17.158	-1.938
25	11.682	-64.246	32.898	-1.953	25	1.392	-35.423	18.145	-1.952

Table 12: The Effect of Strain on Serious Crime at Different Levels of Aspects with complete overlap and no overlap

Model 3: Overlap = 19.30 % (1 SD Below the Mean)					Model 4: Overlap = 0%				
# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test	# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	1.455	6.552	2.582	2.537	0	3.819	-0.107	0.056	-1.914
1	1.120	5.803	2.264	2.563	1	3.212	-0.092	0.049	-1.882
2	0.786	5.054	1.955	2.585	2	2.605	-0.077	0.042	-1.830
3	0.451	4.305	1.659	2.595	3	1.998	-0.061	0.035	-1.743
4	0.117	3.556	1.385	2.567	4	1.391	-0.046	0.029	-1.585
5	-0.218	2.807	1.149	2.442	5	0.784	-0.030	0.024	-1.289
6	-0.552	2.058	0.980	2.100	6	0.177	-0.015	0.020	-0.748
7	-0.887	1.309	0.914	1.431	7	-0.430	0.001	0.019	0.032
8	-1.221	0.560	0.974	0.575	8	-1.037	0.016	0.021	0.767
9	-1.556	-0.189	1.138	-0.166	9	-1.644	0.031	0.025	1.245
10	-1.891	-0.938	1.371	-0.684	10	-2.251	0.047	0.031	1.513
11	-2.225	-1.687	1.644	-1.027	11	-2.858	0.062	0.037	1.664
12	-2.560	-2.436	1.939	-1.257	12	-3.465	0.078	0.044	1.753
13	-2.894	-3.185	2.248	-1.417	13	-4.071	0.093	0.051	1.810
14	-3.229	-3.934	2.565	-1.534	14	-4.678	0.109	0.059	1.848
15	-3.563	-4.683	2.889	-1.621	15	-5.285	0.124	0.066	1.875
16	-3.898	-5.432	3.217	-1.689	16	-5.892	0.140	0.074	1.894
17	-4.233	-6.181	3.548	-1.742	17	-6.499	0.155	0.081	1.909
18	-4.567	-6.930	3.881	-1.786	18	-7.106	0.170	0.089	1.920
19	-4.902	-7.679	4.216	-1.821	19	-7.713	0.186	0.096	1.929
20	-5.236	-8.428	4.552	-1.852	20	-8.320	0.201	0.104	1.936
21	-5.571	-9.177	4.889	-1.877	21	-8.927	0.217	0.112	1.942
22	-5.905	-9.926	5.227	-1.899	22	-9.534	0.232	0.119	1.947
23	-6.240	-10.675	5.566	-1.918	23	-10.141	0.248	0.127	1.951
24	-6.574	-11.424	5.906	-1.935	24	-10.748	0.263	0.135	1.954
25	-6.909	-12.173	6.245	-1.949	25	-11.355	0.278	0.142	1.957

Table 13: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Reduced Model)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.0304	(0.0114)	**	0.0295	(0.0117)	*	0.0308	(0.0114)	**	0.0328	(0.0122)	**
Number of Aspects	-0.0532	(0.0431)		-0.0519	(0.0431)		-0.0512	(0.0433)		-0.0168	(0.0475)	
Percent Overlap	-0.0252	(0.0109)	*	-0.0260	(0.0112)	*	-0.0258	(0.0111)	*	-0.0261	(0.0117)	*
# of Aspects x Strain				-0.0012	(0.0031)					-0.0023	(0.0034)	
Overlap x Strain							0.0001	(0.0005)		0.0000	(0.0006)	
# of Aspects x Overlap										0.0035	(0.0026)	
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										-0.0002	(0.0002)	
Constraint	-1.1067	(0.4246)	**	-1.1002	(0.4258)	**	-1.0968	(0.4250)	**	-0.9826	(0.4242)	*
Grades	-0.2622	(0.1842)		-0.2659	(0.1847)		-0.2542	(0.1855)		-0.2855	(0.1882)	
Morals	0.2086	(0.0720)	**	0.2103	(0.0720)	**	0.2064	(0.0721)	**	0.1897	(0.0726)	**
Friends' Morals	-0.1339	(0.0629)	*	-0.1295	(0.0640)	*	-0.1352	(0.0628)	*	-0.1182	(0.0639)	+
Criminal Peers	0.1663	(0.0761)	*	0.1739	(0.0790)	*	0.1634	(0.0765)	*	0.1648	(0.0792)	*
Male	0.4644	(0.3821)		0.4737	(0.3843)		0.4732	(0.3826)		0.4813	(0.3873)	
White	-1.7225	(0.5351)	***	-1.7363	(0.5378)	***	-1.7084	(0.5354)	***	-1.5438	(0.5481)	**
Asian	-1.5946	(0.5364)	**	-1.6185	(0.5416)	**	-1.5699	(0.5407)	**	-1.5124	(0.5439)	**
Other	-1.9269	(0.7010)	**	-1.9137	(0.7022)	**	-1.9048	(0.7026)	**	-1.8343	(0.6986)	**
Mom Education	0.4770	(0.1181)	***	0.4725	(0.1188)	***	0.4764	(0.1178)	***	0.4929	(0.1217)	***
Self-efficacy	-0.1758	(0.0705)	*	-0.1726	(0.0711)	*	-0.1722	(0.0713)	*	-0.1597	(0.0721)	*
Self-esteem	0.1262	(0.0460)	**	0.1231	(0.0467)	**	0.1252	(0.0459)	**	0.1244	(0.0470)	**
Probability Negative Traits	2.3539	(1.7065)		2.4708	(1.7491)		2.4727	(1.7412)		2.2391	(1.7741)	
Constant	0.8679	(2.2583)		0.7946	(2.2684)		0.7601	(2.2796)		0.1550	(2.3201)	
Alpha	0.4001	(0.2872)	***	0.4044	(0.2868)	***	0.3935	(0.2885)	***	0.3541	(0.2914)	***
N	197			197			197			197		
Log-Likelihood	-174.17			-174.09			-174.13			-172.74		
Pseudo R-Squared	0.169			0.169			0.169			0.176		

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Next, I examine the effect of the interactions on prior property crime. As expected, total strain increases the likelihood of engaging in this type of crime (See Table 14, Model 1). Model 2 includes the interaction between strain and the number of aspects which is positive and significant. After calculating the effect of strain on crime at different levels of self-aspects, it appears that when self-aspects are high, strain is more likely to lead to property crime (See Table 15). Therefore, in the absence of strain, having more self-aspects reduces the count of crime but when strain is present, more self-aspects increases the likelihood of property crime.

Model 3 shows that the interaction between overlap and strain is not significant. Model 4 reveals that the three-way interaction between strain, self-aspects, and overlap is significant. I examine the effect of strain on property crime at different levels of self-aspects holding overlap constant. I explore this relationship when individuals have no overlap, overlap is a standard deviation below the mean, overlap is a standard deviation above the mean, and at perfect overlap (See Tables 16). Strain exerts a stronger effect on crime when individuals have few self-aspects with complete overlap (See Model 1). Strain positively affects crime when aspects are low and overlap is below average but the effect is greater for those who are low in self-complexity in both components (See Model 3). Finally, strain is more likely to lead to crime when individuals have many self-aspects with no overlap among them and least likely when individuals have very few self-aspects and no overlap (See Model 4).

I fail to find the same interaction effects in the full model including numerous control variables (See Table 17). When I examine the effect of the interactions on

property crime including only those controls that significantly predict this type of crime, I find a similar patterns as when no controls are included (See Table 18).

Table 14: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.0173	(0.0103) +	0.0236	(0.0110) *	0.0171	(0.0103) +	0.0274	(0.0117) *
Number of Aspects	-0.0782	(0.0350) *	-0.0920	(0.0369) *	-0.0775	(0.0353) *	-0.0744	(0.0400) +
Percent Overlap	-0.0181	(0.0079) *	-0.0165	(0.0080) *	-0.0179	(0.0079) *	-0.0126	(0.0087)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0059	(0.0033) +			0.0086	(0.0041) *
Overlap x Strain					0.0001	(0.0005)	-0.0002	(0.0006)
# of Aspects x Overlap							-0.0002	(0.0024)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0003	(0.0002) +
Constant	0.0240	(0.1494)	-0.0379	(0.1511)	0.0179	(0.1541)	-0.0753	(0.1530)
Alpha	1.5847	(0.1587)	1.5579	(0.1592)	1.5837	(0.1589)	1.5188	(0.1603)
N	268		268		268		268	
Log-Likelihood	536.55		522.86		528.09		505.83	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.0154		0.0205		0.0154		0.0275	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 15: The Effect of Strain on Property Crime at Different Levels of Self-Aspects

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	2.102	-0.025	0.026	-0.986
1	1.831	-0.019	0.023	-0.856
2	1.560	-0.013	0.020	-0.682
3	1.290	-0.007	0.017	-0.444
4	1.019	-0.002	0.014	-0.110
5	0.749	0.004	0.012	0.354
6	0.478	0.010	0.011	0.951
7	0.207	0.016	0.010	1.580
8	-0.063	0.022	0.011	2.055
9	-0.334	0.028	0.012	2.297
10	-0.605	0.034	0.014	2.374
11	-0.875	0.040	0.017	2.372
12	-1.146	0.046	0.020	2.340
13	-1.417	0.052	0.022	2.300
14	-1.687	0.057	0.025	2.259
15	-1.958	0.063	0.029	2.222
16	-2.228	0.069	0.032	2.188
17	-2.499	0.075	0.035	2.158
18	-2.770	0.081	0.038	2.132
19	-3.040	0.087	0.041	2.108
20	-3.311	0.093	0.044	2.087
21	-3.582	0.099	0.048	2.069
22	-3.852	0.105	0.051	2.052
23	-4.123	0.111	0.054	2.037
24	-4.394	0.116	0.058	2.024
25	-4.664	0.122	0.061	2.011

Table 16: The Effect of Strain on Property Crime at Different Levels of Aspects and Overlap

Model 1: Overlap = 100%					Model 2: Overlap = 55.33% (1 SD Above the Mean)				
# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test	# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	-3.446	24.240	13.406	1.808	0	0.335	13.352	7.393	1.806
1	-3.188	21.071	11.853	1.778	1	0.171	11.608	6.536	1.776
2	-2.931	17.902	10.355	1.729	2	0.007	9.863	5.710	1.727
3	-2.673	14.733	8.940	1.648	3	-0.158	8.119	4.930	1.647
4	-2.416	11.564	7.654	1.511	4	-0.322	6.375	4.221	1.510
5	-2.158	8.395	6.573	1.277	5	-0.486	4.631	3.626	1.277
6	-1.901	5.226	5.814	0.899	6	-0.650	2.886	3.207	0.900
7	-1.644	2.057	5.510	0.373	7	-0.814	1.142	3.039	0.376
8	-1.386	-1.112	5.735	-0.194	8	-0.979	-0.602	3.163	-0.190
9	-1.129	-4.281	6.433	-0.665	9	-1.143	-2.346	3.547	-0.661
10	-0.871	-7.450	7.473	-0.997	10	-1.307	-4.091	4.120	-0.993
11	-0.614	-10.619	8.733	-1.216	11	-1.471	-5.835	4.815	-1.212
12	-0.356	-13.787	10.132	-1.361	12	-1.635	-7.579	5.586	-1.357
13	-0.099	-16.956	11.620	-1.459	13	-1.800	-9.323	6.406	-1.455
14	0.158	-20.125	13.166	-1.529	14	-1.964	-11.067	7.258	-1.525
15	0.416	-23.294	14.753	-1.579	15	-2.128	-12.812	8.133	-1.575
16	0.673	-26.463	16.368	-1.617	16	-2.292	-14.556	9.023	-1.613
17	0.931	-29.632	18.003	-1.646	17	-2.456	-16.300	9.925	-1.642
18	1.188	-32.801	19.655	-1.669	18	-2.620	-18.044	10.836	-1.665
19	1.446	-35.970	21.318	-1.687	19	-2.785	-19.789	11.753	-1.684
20	1.703	-39.139	22.991	-1.702	20	-2.949	-21.533	12.675	-1.699
21	1.960	-42.308	24.672	-1.715	21	-3.113	-23.277	13.601	-1.711
22	2.218	-45.477	26.358	-1.725	22	-3.277	-25.021	14.531	-1.722
23	2.475	-48.646	28.049	-1.734	23	-3.441	-26.766	15.463	-1.731
24	2.733	-51.815	29.745	-1.742	24	-3.606	-28.510	16.398	-1.739
25	2.990	-54.984	31.444	-1.749	25	-3.770	-30.254	17.335	-1.745

Table 16: The Effect of Strain on Property Crime at Different Levels of Aspects and Overlap

Model 3: Overlap = 19.30 % (1 SD Below the Mean)					Model 4: Overlap = 0				
# of Aspects	**Intercept**	**Slope**	**SE**	**T-test**	**# of Aspects**	**Intercept**	**Slope**	**SE**	**T-test**
0	3.385	4.569	2.542	1.798	0	5.018	-0.135	0.064	-2.113
1	2.880	3.974	2.248	1.768	1	4.331	-0.114	0.056	-2.045
2	2.376	3.379	1.964	1.721	2	3.645	-0.094	0.048	-1.945
3	1.872	2.784	1.696	1.642	3	2.959	-0.073	0.041	-1.790
4	1.367	2.189	1.453	1.507	4	2.272	-0.053	0.034	-1.538
5	0.863	1.594	1.248	1.277	5	1.586	-0.032	0.029	-1.121
6	0.359	0.999	1.104	0.905	6	0.899	-0.012	0.025	-0.467
7	-0.145	0.404	1.046	0.386	7	0.213	0.009	0.024	0.370
8	-0.650	-0.191	1.088	-0.175	8	-0.474	0.029	0.026	1.134
9	-1.154	-0.786	1.219	-0.644	9	-1.160	0.050	0.030	1.647
10	-1.658	-1.381	1.416	-0.975	10	-1.847	0.070	0.036	1.942
11	-2.163	-1.976	1.654	-1.195	11	-2.533	0.091	0.043	2.108
12	-2.667	-2.571	1.919	-1.340	12	-3.219	0.111	0.050	2.204
13	-3.171	-3.166	2.200	-1.439	13	-3.906	0.132	0.058	2.263
14	-3.676	-3.761	2.493	-1.509	14	-4.592	0.152	0.066	2.300
15	-4.180	-4.356	2.793	-1.559	15	-5.279	0.173	0.074	2.325
16	-4.684	-4.951	3.099	-1.598	16	-5.965	0.193	0.082	2.342
17	-5.188	-5.546	3.409	-1.627	17	-6.652	0.214	0.091	2.353
18	-5.693	-6.141	3.721	-1.650	18	-7.338	0.234	0.099	2.362
19	-6.197	-6.736	4.036	-1.669	19	-8.025	0.255	0.108	2.368
20	-6.701	-7.331	4.353	-1.684	20	-8.711	0.275	0.116	2.373
21	-7.206	-7.926	4.671	-1.697	21	-9.397	0.296	0.124	2.376
22	-7.710	-8.521	4.991	-1.707	22	-10.084	0.316	0.133	2.379
23	-8.214	-9.116	5.311	-1.716	23	-10.770	0.337	0.141	2.381
24	-8.719	-9.711	5.632	-1.724	24	-11.457	0.357	0.150	2.382
25	-9.223	-10.306	5.954	-1.731	25	-12.143	0.377	0.158	2.383

Table 17: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Full Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	-0.0221	(0.0140)	-0.0182	(0.0142)	-0.0228	(0.0139) +	-0.0145	(0.0154)
Number of Aspects	-0.0374	(0.0489)	-0.0395	(0.0509)	-0.0381	(0.0487)	-0.0362	(0.0533)
Percent Overlap	0.0038	(0.0129)	0.0047	(0.0128)	0.0030	(0.0129)	0.0093	(0.0138)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0038	(0.0036)			0.0051	(0.0047)
Overlap x Strain					0.0004	(0.0007)	0.0001	(0.0008)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0016	(0.0036)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0004	(0.0003)
Self Label	0.0524	(0.0718)	0.0576	(0.0718)	0.0519	(0.0713)	0.0618	(0.0714)
Negative Emotionality	0.8693	(0.5542)	0.8451	(0.5539)	0.9018	(0.5521)	0.8296	(0.5418)
Constraint	-0.6504	(0.5457)	-0.5607	(0.5529)	-0.6027	(0.5490)	-0.4666	(0.5524)
Close to Family	-0.1870	(0.3128)	-0.2058	(0.3117)	-0.1817	(0.3109)	-0.2095	(0.3097)
School Commitment	-0.1168	(0.1118)	-0.1188	(0.1111)	-0.1235	(0.1110)	-0.0986	(0.1100)
Grades	0.0220	(0.2693)	0.0641	(0.2725)	0.0324	(0.2670)	0.0828	(0.2729)
Involvement	0.0396	(0.0997)	0.0199	(0.1001)	0.0293	(0.0997)	0.0897	(0.1114)
Morals	-0.1457	(0.1009)	-0.1539	(0.1013)	-0.1316	(0.1030)	-0.1788	(0.1060) +
Friends' Morals	0.0777	(0.0798)	0.0696	(0.0800)	0.0667	(0.0807)	0.0731	(0.0795)
Criminal Peers	0.2907	(0.0968) **	0.2721	(0.0977) **	0.2876	(0.0968) **	0.2337	(0.0987) *
Age	-0.2330	(0.1498)	-0.2502	(0.1511) +	-0.2273	(0.1488)	-0.2544	(0.1503) +
Male	-0.0505	(0.4575)	-0.1296	(0.4623)	-0.0154	(0.4572)	-0.0805	(0.4639)
White	-1.1075	(0.8018)	-1.1122	(0.7940)	-1.0185	(0.8060)	-0.7483	(0.8218)
Asian	0.1007	(0.7931)	0.0712	(0.7893)	0.1920	(0.7986)	0.3632	(0.8007)
Other	-0.1649	(0.8994)	-0.2682	(0.9050)	-0.1082	(0.8958)	-0.0444	(0.9218)
Mom Education	0.0566	(0.1519)	0.0796	(0.1525)	0.0590	(0.1511)	0.0738	(0.1504)
Dad Education	0.1052	(0.1666)	0.0717	(0.1689)	0.1148	(0.1665)	0.0421	(0.1696)
Low Income	0.7076	(0.7522)	0.5631	(0.7603)	0.7158	(0.7461)	0.4304	(0.7673)
Self-efficacy	0.1591	(0.0989)	0.1523	(0.0983)	0.1705	(0.1001) +	0.1596	(0.0987)
Self-esteem	-0.0441	(0.0628)	-0.0391	(0.0622)	-0.0446	(0.0616)	-0.0358	(0.0608)
# Talk Problems	-0.5773	(0.2852) *	-0.5681	(0.2841) *	-0.5508	(0.2870) +	-0.5598	(0.2867) +
Help Often	0.3085	(0.2940)	0.3063	(0.2926)	0.2983	(0.2928)	0.2940	(0.2954)
Probability Negative Traits	2.1218	(2.2059)	1.5785	(2.2260)	2.2678	(2.2053)	1.7176	(2.3717)

Table 17: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Full Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**
Constant	3.0538	(5.6766)	3.3825	(5.6921)	2.1876	(5.8026)	2.6730	(5.7266)
Alpha	0.9605	(0.2214) ***	0.9416	(0.2228) ***	0.9456	(0.2236) ***	0.8950	(0.2261) ***
N	179		179		179		179	
Log-Likelihood	-193.15		-192.62		-192.97		-191.08	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.127		0.129		0.128		0.136	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 18: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Reduced Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.0020	(0.0111)	0.0107	(0.0121)	0.0015	(0.0110)	0.0128	(0.0121)
Number of Aspects	-0.0909	(0.0369) *	-0.1243	(0.0424) **	-0.0893	(0.0368) *	-0.1204	(0.0435) **
Percent Overlap	-0.0103	(0.0083)	-0.0082	(0.0086)	-0.0096	(0.0083)	-0.0009	(0.0100)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0077	(0.0036) *			0.0089	(0.0038) *
Overlap x Strain					0.0004	(0.0005)	0.0001	(0.0006)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0018	(0.0028)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0003	(0.0001) +
Criminal Peers	0.2847	(0.0579) ***	0.2735	(0.0578) ***	0.2812	(0.0575) ***	0.2529	(0.0579) ***
# Talk Problems	-0.3407	(0.2114)	-0.2929	(0.2087)	-0.3026	(0.2162)	-0.2270	(0.2117)
Constant	-1.0118	(0.5974) +	-1.1767	(0.5932) *	-1.1284	(0.6169) +	-1.3035	(0.6048) *
Alpha	1.2631	(0.1892) ***	1.2258	(0.1892) ***	1.2498	(0.1910) ***	1.1748	(0.1928) ***
N	220		220		220		220	
Log-Likelihood	-255.82		-253.22		-255.53		-251.53	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.061		0.071		0.062		0.077	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Finally, I examine the relationship between self-complexity and prior minor drug and alcohol related crimes (See Tables 19-21). I find that as expected, strain predicts more drug related crime (See Table 19). Contrary to expectations, overlap in self-aspects reduces the likelihood of engaging in these types of crime. Although this effect is not found in the models that include control variables (See Tables 20 and 21). It may be that those who view themselves differently among their self-aspects experience role strain. This type of strain may be dealt with through drugs and alcohol use. Therefore, those who do not experience this type of role strain because their self-aspects are related, are less likely to engage in this type of strain. The three-way interaction was not significant in any of the models, excluding or including control variables.[39]

[39] These interactions were also not significant when I ran these models with negative binomial regression.

Table 19: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.1963	0.0522	***	0.1956	0.0521	***	0.1965	0.0527	***	0.1935	0.0527	***
Number of Aspects	-0.1668	0.1802		-0.1687	0.1800		-0.1666	0.1804		-0.0705	0.1934	
Percent Overlap	-0.0864	0.0437	*	-0.0846	0.0438	*	-0.0863	0.0441	+	-0.0823	0.0443	+
# of Aspects x Strain				-0.0062	0.0125					-0.0109	0.0138	
Overlap x Strain							-3.8E-05	0.0023		0.0001	0.0025	
# of Aspects x Overlap										0.0146	0.0097	
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										-0.0003	0.0005	
Constant	7.5946	0.7798	***	7.6151	0.7801	***	7.5972	0.7951	***	7.6041	0.7930	***
N	258			258			258			258		
Pseudo R-Squared	0.0096			0.0097			0.0096			0.0112		

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 20: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Full Model)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.059	(0.048)		0.060	(0.048)		0.058	(0.048)		0.059	(0.050)	
Number of Aspects	0.148	(0.162)		0.160	(0.164)		0.147	(0.161)		0.186	(0.170)	
Percent Overlap	-0.031	(0.042)		-0.031	(0.041)		-0.033	(0.042)		-0.031	(0.042)	
# of Aspects x Strain				0.005	(0.010)					0.002	(0.011)	
Overlap x Strain							0.001	(0.002)		0.001	(0.002)	
# of Aspects x Overlap										0.005	(0.009)	
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										0.000	(0.000)	
Self Label	0.566	(0.230)	*	0.567	(0.230)	*	0.562	(0.230)	*	0.578	(0.234)	*
Negative Emotionality	0.186	(1.755)		0.224	(1.756)		0.224	(1.754)		0.172	(1.769)	
Constraint	-0.909	(1.794)		-0.979	(1.798)		-0.840	(1.795)		-0.826	(1.824)	
Close to Family	-1.276	(1.012)		-1.267	(1.012)		-1.339	(1.016)		-1.329	(1.019)	
School Commitment	-0.729	(0.361)	*	-0.725	(0.361)	*	-0.763	(0.365)	*	-0.741	(0.367)	*
Grades	0.251	(0.800)		0.267	(0.800)		0.237	(0.799)		0.178	(0.814)	
Involvement	-0.268	(0.320)		-0.300	(0.327)		-0.314	(0.328)		-0.291	(0.357)	
Morals	-0.971	(0.326)	**	-0.976	(0.326)	**	-0.930	(0.332)	**	-0.971	(0.338)	**
Friends' Morals	0.170	(0.268)		0.154	(0.270)		0.134	(0.274)		0.134	(0.276)	
Criminal Peers	1.929	(0.315)	***	1.900	(0.320)	***	1.930	(0.315)	***	1.899	(0.323)	***
Age	0.766	(0.491)		0.754	(0.491)		0.781	(0.491)		0.745	(0.496)	
Male	0.111	(1.536)		0.072	(1.538)		0.148	(1.535)		0.026	(1.550)	
White	3.779	(2.638)		3.785	(2.641)		3.945	(2.661)		3.882	(2.710)	
Asian	-2.524	(2.761)		-2.525	(2.762)		-2.260	(2.797)		-2.238	(2.806)	
Other	2.430	(3.184)		2.458	(3.187)		2.727	(3.224)		2.441	(3.263)	
Mom Education	0.727	(0.518)		0.762	(0.522)		0.729	(0.518)		0.748	(0.524)	
Dad Education	-0.039	(0.562)		-0.043	(0.562)		0.007	(0.567)		0.021	(0.570)	
Low Income	4.010	(2.470)		4.020	(2.470)		4.126	(2.476)	+	4.175	(2.481)	+
Self-efficacy	0.373	(0.266)		0.367	(0.266)		0.398	(0.268)		0.399	(0.270)	
Self-esteem	-0.015	(0.177)		-0.006	(0.178)		-0.014	(0.177)		-0.015	(0.179)	
# Talk Problems	0.961	(0.854)		0.974	(0.854)		0.991	(0.855)		1.020	(0.857)	
Help Often	-0.890	(1.042)		-0.924	(1.044)		-0.896	(1.040)		-0.890	(1.045)	
Probability Negative Traits	-15.206	(8.808)	+	-15.873	(8.934)	+	-15.582	(8.864)	+	-16.590	(8.996)	+

Table 20: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Full Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**
Constant	-9.086	(17.606)	-8.606	(17.620)	-10.114	(17.664)	-8.661	(17.798)
N	170		170		170		170	
Log-Likelihood	-463.84		-463.72		-463.63		-463.34	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.151		0.151		0.151		0.152	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 21: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Reduced Model)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.0324	(0.0441)	0.0319	(0.0441)	0.0336	(0.0442)	0.0271	(0.0445)
Number of Aspects	0.1215	(0.1453)	0.1140	(0.1466)	0.1240	(0.1455)	0.1944	(0.1590)
Percent Overlap	-0.0174	(0.0384)	-0.0172	(0.0384)	-0.0174	(0.0384)	-0.0200	(0.0387)
# of Aspects x Strain			-0.0037	(0.0101)			-0.0086	(0.0109)
Overlap x Strain					-0.0006	(0.0020)	-0.0012	(0.0022)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0138	(0.0079) +
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							0.00003	(0.0004)
Self Label	0.5836	(0.2126) **	0.5791	(0.2128) **	0.5811	(0.2127) **	0.6434	(0.2150) **
School Commitment	-0.5310	(0.3112) + **	-0.5287	(0.3111) + **	-0.5208	(0.3127) + **	-0.5728	(0.3125) + **
Morals	-1.0360	(0.2771) * **	-1.0198	(0.2805) * **	-1.0484	(0.2798) * **	-0.9856	(0.2856) * **
Criminal Peers	1.8844	(0.2655) *	1.9014	(0.2696) *	1.8796	(0.2658) *	1.8811	(0.2694) *
Probability Negative Traits	-13.3495	(8.0771) +	-12.9953	(8.1266)	-13.1595	(8.0974)	-14.0862	(8.1768) +
Constant	15.1892	(6.6840) *	14.8339	(6.7528) *	15.3307	(6.6958) *	14.4784	(6.7594) *
N	204		204		204		204	
Log-Likelihood	-591.31		-591.24		-591.26		-589.65	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.108		0.108		0.108		0.110	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Sub-Hypothesis 1a: Are those who are lower in self-complexity more likely to perceive strain as being more severe than those who are higher in self-complexity?

As can be seen in Table 22, the number of self-aspects appears to directly influence perceptions of the severity of strain in the fighting scenario while the amount of overlap is insignificant. As expected, those who have more aspects are less likely to take the antagonist's behavior personally than those who have fewer self-aspects. In the second model, I examine the interaction between the number of aspects and overlap to see if self-complexity affects perceptions of strain. Contrary to expectations, the interaction is non-significant even when examining the reduced model which includes only the significant control variables. Therefore, having more aspects may reduce the impact of strain but the degree of overlap is irrelevant. It may be that the presence of additional aspects is enough to reduce the perceptions of the severity of strain regardless of whether these aspects are similar. As expected, self-complexity as measured by the H statistic was not significant (Analyses Not Shown).

Very few of the control variables were significant in these models. Actual experience with strain did not influence perceptions of strain which may not be surprising if strain is situational.[40] In other words, perceptions of the severity of strain may only be affected by the particular strain rather than unrelated strains. Those who are higher in trait anger were more likely to perceive strain as severe. Trait anger exerted the strongest effect (beta = 0.240). Asians were more likely to take the behavior personally than blacks ($p<0.10$). Finally, contrary to expectations, those who are higher in self-esteem perceived the strain as more severe. While self-esteem should enable the individual to

[40] I ran the model controlling for relationship related strain and also total strain. The substantive results were the same. Therefore, I present the model with relationship strain controlled because it minimizes missing values.

more effectively deal with the problem, it may be that the strain in this scenario threatens self-esteem. Those who are higher in self-esteem may lose self-esteem if his or her significant other leaves him or her. Therefore, this threat to self-esteem may be perceived as more severe.

Table 22: Linear Regression of Perceptions of the Severity of Strain

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.067 (-0.127)	(0.033) *	-0.066 (-0.124)	(0.034) +	-0.058 (-0.109)	(0.030) +	-0.058 (-0.109)	(0.031) +
Percent Overlap	-0.002 (-0.014)	(0.009)	-0.002 (-0.015)	(0.009)	0.006 (0.049)	(0.007)	0.006 (0.049)	(0.007)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.000 (0.011)	(0.002)			0.000 (0.000)	(0.002)
Relationship Strain	0.039 (0.072)	(0.035)	0.040 (0.073)	(0.036)				
Trait Anger	0.140 (0.240)	(0.050) **	0.141 (0.241)	(0.050) **	0.149 (0.263)	(0.036) ***	0.149 (0.263)	(0.036) ***
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.084 (0.051)	(0.120)	0.085 (0.052)	(0.120)				
Constraint	0.068 (0.014)	(0.352)	0.067 (0.014)	(0.353)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.063 (-0.014)	(0.433)	-0.067 (-0.014)	(0.435)				
Grades Important	0.034 (0.023)	(0.105)	0.032 (0.022)	(0.105)				
Graduate School	-0.032 (-0.013)	(0.159)	-0.033 (-0.014)	(0.159)				
Age	0.018 (0.011)	(0.103)	0.017 (0.011)	(0.103)				
Male	0.089 (0.018)	(0.327)	0.093 (0.019)	(0.328)				
White	0.635 (0.139)	(0.489)	0.630 (0.138)	(0.491)	0.202 (0.045)	(0.410)	0.202 (0.045)	(0.412)
Asian	0.892 (0.173)	(0.510) +	0.894 (0.173)	(0.512) +	0.647 (0.127)	(0.452)	0.647 (0.127)	(0.453)

Table 22: Linear Regression of Perceptions of the Severity of Strain

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Other	0.612 (0.070)	(0.702)	0.596 (0.068)	(0.711)	0.358 (0.041)	(0.609)	0.358 (0.041)	(0.618)
Low Income	0.359 (0.055)	(0.435)	0.358 (0.054)	(0.436)				
Self-efficacy	-0.024 (-0.034)	(0.062)	-0.023 (-0.034)	(0.062)				
Self-esteem	0.088 (0.195)	(0.039) *	0.088 (0.194)	(0.039) *	0.063 (0.141)	(0.029) *	0.063 (0.141)	(0.029) *
# Talk Problems	-0.041 (-0.015)	(0.186)	-0.040 (-0.015)	(0.186)				
Help Often	-0.072 (-0.024)	(0.199)	-0.072 (-0.024)	(0.200)				
Probability Negative Traits	1.707 (0.074)	(1.597)	1.650 (0.071)	(1.638)				
Constant	1.161	(3.249)	1.194	(3.262)	2.480	(1.269) +	2.480	(1.271) +
N	271		271		292		292	
R-Squared	0.103		0.103		0.081		0.0811	
Adj R-Squared	0.031		0.027		0.058		0.0551	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Next, I examine whether self-complexity affects perceptions of whether prior strain bothered the individual on average. As can be seen in Table 23 in models 1 and 2, neither self-complexity nor its individual components affect perceptions of total prior strain. The interaction is insignificant in the reduced model as well.

Strain is more likely to bother those who report higher numbers of days of being depressed on average. Those who are higher in negative emotionally are also bothered more by strain ($p<.10$). As expected, those who view grades to be important were more likely to perceive strain as severe. Experiencing many strains that bother the individual may impact the ability of individuals to achieve higher grades which is likely a core part of Emory students' identities. Females and whites were more likely to report that strains bothered them on average than males or blacks. Finally, those who are older are more likely to be bothered by strain on average. Being depressed is the strongest predictor of perceiving strain as severe (beta = 0.268).

Surprisingly, the amount of strain experienced in the past year did not influence the degree to which strain bothered respondents. One would expect as individuals experience more strain, they will be bothered more because of the cumulative impact of strain.

Table 23: Linear Regression of Perceptions of Prior Strain

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.002 (0.020)	(0.005)	0.004 (0.037)	(0.006)	0.004 (0.035)	(0.005)	0.004 (0.043)	(0.005)
Percent Overlap	0.000 (-0.010)	(0.002)	0.000 (-0.013)	(0.002)	0.000 (0.011)	(0.001)	0.000 (0.007)	(0.001)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.000 (0.067)	(0.000)			0.000 (0.032)	(0.000)
Total Strain	0.001 (0.030)	(0.002)	0.001 (0.025)	(0.002)				
Trait Anger	0.009 (0.080)	(0.009)	0.010 (0.089)	(0.009)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.084 (0.268)	(0.020) ***	0.086 (0.274)	(0.020) ***	0.073 (0.242)	(0.016) ***	0.073 (0.244)	(0.016) ***
Constraint	0.097 (0.108)	(0.059)	0.096 (0.106)	(0.059)				
Negative Emotionality	0.122 (0.138)	(0.073) +	0.119 (0.134)	(0.073)	0.105 (0.117)	(0.049) *	0.104 (0.117)	(0.049) *
Grades Important	0.049 (0.177)	(0.017) **	0.048 (0.174)	(0.017) **	0.060 (0.216)	(0.014) ***	0.060 (0.214)	(0.014) ***
Graduate School	-0.007 (-0.015)	(0.026)	-0.007 (-0.016)	(0.026)				
Age	0.034 (0.110)	(0.017) *	0.032 (0.106)	(0.017) +	0.022 (0.072)	(0.015)	0.021 (0.069)	(0.015)
Male	-0.296 (-0.319)	(0.054) ***	-0.290 (-0.313)	(0.054) ***	-0.284 (-0.302)	(0.048) ***	-0.281 (-0.299)	(0.048) ***
White	0.143 (0.165)	(0.081) +	0.136 (0.157)	(0.081) +	0.169 (0.194)	(0.069) *	0.166 (0.190)	(0.069) *
Asian	0.075 (0.077)	(0.084)	0.078 (0.079)	(0.084)	0.028 (0.028)	(0.075)	0.029 (0.029)	(0.075)

Table 23: Linear Regression of Perceptions of Prior Strain

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Other	0.160 (0.099)	(0.115)	0.141 (0.087)	(0.116)	0.146 (0.083)	(0.105)	0.135 (0.077)	(0.107)
Low Income	-0.047 (-0.038)	(0.072)	-0.049 (-0.040)	(0.072)				
Self-efficacy	0.005 (0.036)	(0.010)	0.005 (0.035)	(0.010)				
Self-esteem	0.007 (0.085)	(0.006)	0.007 (0.084)	(0.006)				
# Talk Problems	0.023 (0.045)	(0.031)	0.025 (0.049)	(0.031)				
Help Often	0.017 (0.030)	(0.033)	0.016 (0.028)	(0.033)				
Probability Negative Traits	-0.184 (-0.041)	(0.275)	-0.253 (-0.056)	(0.282)				
Constant	0.763	(0.538)	0.802	(0.539)	1.853	(0.380) ***	1.873	(0.382) ***
N	259		259		303		303	
R-Squared	0.341		0.345		0.303		0.3036	
Adj R-Squared	0.286		0.287		0.279		0.2773	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In sum, those who are lower in self-complexity or those with few self-aspects with more overlap, are no more likely to perceive strain as severe as those who are higher in self-complexity contrary to sub-hypothesis 1a. However, having more self-aspects was found to reduce perceptions of the severity of strain in the fighting scenario. It may be that individuals who have more self-aspects have more coping resources and/or social support even when aspects may be similar which reduces perceptions of strain. Neither, self-complexity, nor its individual components, affected whether prior strain bothered the individual. Therefore, mixed support was found for sub-hypothesis 1a.

Sub-Hypothesis 1b: Are those lower in self-complexity more likely to experience higher levels of anger, frustration, and depressed mood as a result of strain than individuals higher in self-complexity?

Next, I address sub-hypothesis 1b, whether those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to experience higher levels of anger, frustration, and depressed mood than those who are higher in self-complexity. Lower self-complexity individuals should be more susceptible to the emotional effects of stress because they should be more likely to perceive strain as severe and also because negative emotions should be more likely to spill over into other self-aspects for those with closely related identities.

Fighting Scenario

In Table 24, I show the results for factors that influence anger emotions in the fighting scenario. The anger variable is slightly skewed but logging the dependant variable aggravates the problem. Therefore, I use the untransformed variable. In the full

model, I include all possible control variables that may affect emotional reactions to strain. Neither component of self-complexity (aspects nor overlap) are significantly related to anger. In the second model including the control variables, the interaction between the number of self-aspects and the degree of overlap is not significant.

As expected, believing the antagonist's behavior in the fighting situation is unjustified and personal increases anger (See Table 24, Full Model 1). Also, those who are higher in trait anger reported higher levels of situational anger. Finally, older students were less likely to report that they would be very angry if they experienced the situation presented. Taking the behavior of the character personally exerted the strongest effect in this model (beta = 0.238).

Table 24: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.002 (0.005)	(0.024)	-0.006 (-0.015)	(0.025)	0.002 (0.004)	(0.022)	-0.007 (-0.017)	(0.022)
Percent Overlap	0.001 (0.006)	(0.006)	0.001 (0.014)	(0.007)	0.002 (0.024)	(0.005)	0.004 (0.036)	(0.005)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.002 (-0.085)	(0.001)			-0.002 (-0.096)	(0.001) +
Unjustified	0.116 (0.117)	(0.062) +	0.119 (0.120)	(0.062) +	0.094 (0.097)	(0.054) +	0.101 (0.104)	(0.054) +
Take Personally	0.224 (0.283)	(0.050) ***	0.224 (0.283)	(0.050) ***	0.227 (0.289)	(0.045) ***	0.223 (0.284)	(0.045) ***
Trait Anger	0.075 (0.163)	(0.037) *	0.069 (0.151)	(0.037) +	0.083 (0.184)	(0.025) ***	0.083 (0.183)	(0.024) ***
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.012 (-0.010)	(0.086)	-0.017 (-0.014)	(0.086)				
Constraint	-0.023 (-0.006)	(0.238)	-0.013 (-0.003)	(0.237)				
Negative Emotionality	0.313 (0.084)	(0.319)	0.344 (0.092)	(0.320)				
Male	-0.294 (-0.075)	(0.240)	-0.325 (-0.083)	(0.240)				
Age	-0.183 (-0.142)	(0.075) *	-0.178 (-0.138)	(0.075) *	-0.120 (-0.096)	(0.066) +	-0.112 (-0.089)	(0.066) +
White	0.244 (0.067)	(0.358)	0.276 (0.076)	(0.358)				
Asian	0.217 (0.054)	(0.371)	0.207 (0.051)	(0.371)				
Other	0.374 (0.053)	(0.524)	0.478 (0.068)	(0.529)				

Table 24: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	-0.058 (-0.011)	(0.313)	-0.050 (-0.010)	(0.312)				
Relationship Strain	0.034 (0.080)	(0.025)	0.030 (0.070)	(0.025)				
Self-esteem	0.005 (0.013)	(0.029)	0.005 (0.015)	(0.029)				
Self-efficacy	0.025 (0.046)	(0.044)	0.026 (0.047)	(0.044)				
# Talk Problems	0.082 (0.038)	(0.136)	0.073 (0.034)	(0.136)				
Help Often	-0.030 (-0.013)	(0.146)	-0.029 (-0.012)	(0.146)				
Probability Negative Traits	-0.817 (-0.045)	(1.178)	-0.471 (-0.026)	(1.202)				
Constant	5.718	(2.363) *	5.530	(2.363) *	6.280	(1.461) ***	6.087	(1.460) ***
N	271		271		308		308	
R-Squared	0.229		0.235		0.191		0.1995	
Adj R-Squared	0.168		0.171		0.175		0.1809	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

It may be that in including so many variables, the overall sample is reduced significantly, affecting the likelihood of detecting an interaction. Therefore, I ran two additional models that included only the significant control variables. Eliminating the non-significant controls actually increased the adjusted R-square by approximately 1 percent. In this more parsimonious model, the interaction is negative and significant ($p<0.10$). I calculate the effect of the amount of overlap on levels of anger at different numbers of self-aspects (See Table 25). As expected, when someone has very few self-aspects (less than 4), an increase in overlap results in stronger levels of anger. In other words, someone who is low in self-complexity is more likely to report stronger levels of anger as a result of the situational strain. In order to illustrate this relationship more precisely, I graph the effect of overlap on the number of aspects at one standard deviation below the mean of overlap and one standard deviation above. I graph the effect of overlap for individuals who have 3 self-aspects and for individuals who have 8 self-aspects. As shown in Table 25 and in Chart 3, as the number of aspects increases, the effect of overlap on anger becomes smaller. Although the relationship between overlap and anger is no longer significant at 4 self-aspects and above, the effect of overlap on anger becomes negative at high numbers of self-aspects.

Table 25: The effect of overlap on anger at different levels of self-aspects for fighting scenario

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	5.422	0.019	0.011	1.790
1	5.486	0.017	0.010	1.764
2	5.551	0.016	0.009	1.728
3	5.615	0.014	0.008	1.674
4	5.680	0.012	0.007	1.596
5	5.744	0.010	0.007	1.481
6	5.809	0.008	0.006	1.314
7	5.873	0.006	0.006	1.080
8	5.938	0.004	0.005	0.775
9	6.002	0.002	0.005	0.415
10	6.067	0.000	0.005	0.041
11	6.131	-0.002	0.006	-0.303
12	6.196	-0.004	0.006	-0.590
13	6.260	-0.006	0.007	-0.818
14	6.325	-0.007	0.008	-0.992
15	6.389	-0.009	0.008	-1.125
16	6.454	-0.011	0.009	-1.228
17	6.518	-0.013	0.010	-1.307
18	6.583	-0.015	0.011	-1.370
19	6.647	-0.017	0.012	-1.420
20	6.712	-0.019	0.013	-1.461
21	6.776	-0.021	0.014	-1.495
22	6.841	-0.023	0.015	-1.523
23	6.905	-0.025	0.016	-1.546
24	6.970	-0.027	0.017	-1.567
25	7.034	-0.029	0.018	-1.584

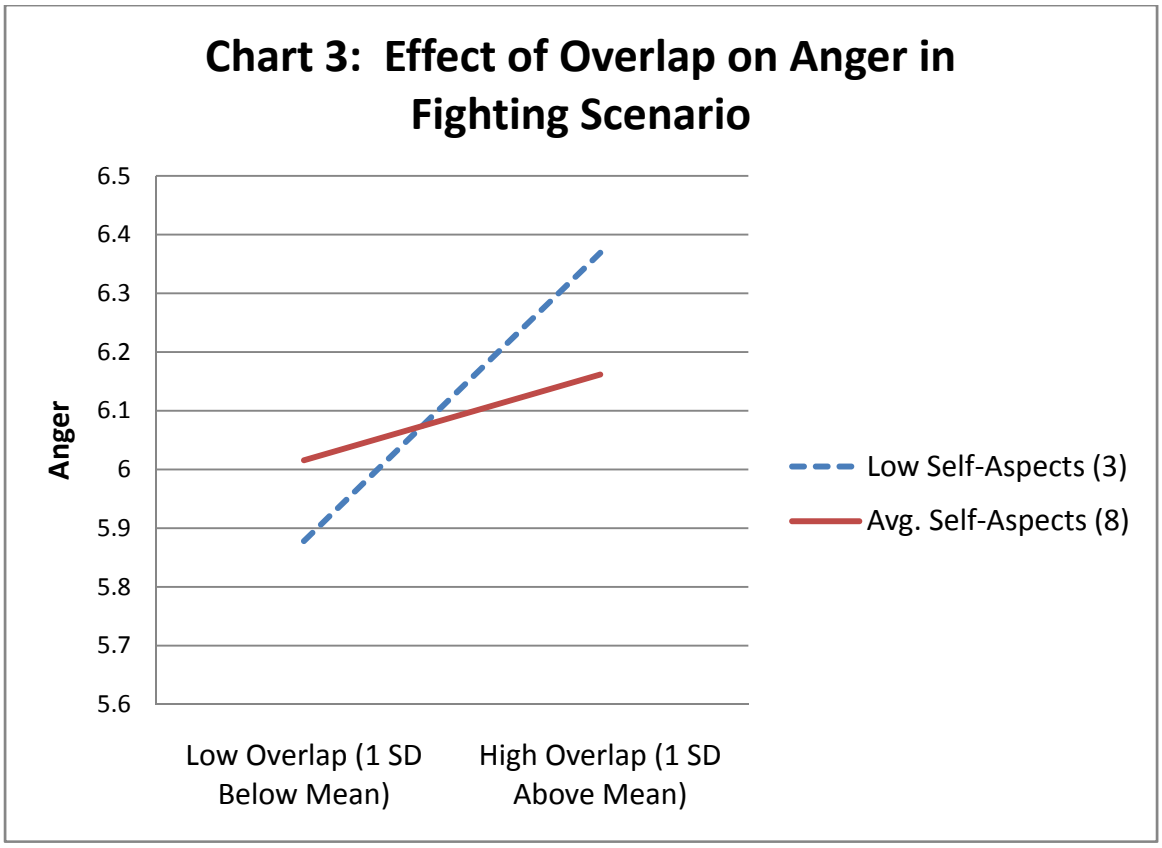
Chart 3: Effect of Overlap on Anger in Fighting Scenario
Anger
6.5
6.4
6.3
6.2
6.1
6
5.9
5.8
5.7
5.6
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Avg. Self-Aspects (8)

Next, I examine factors that influence frustration in the fighting scenario. Logging this slightly skewed variable aggravates the problem so the untransformed variable is used. Neither aspects nor overlap lead to higher levels of frustration (See Table 26, Full Model 1). The interaction term is not significant in the model including extraneous controls.

Few control variables influence the level of frustration. Although, as expected, those who view the fighting scenario as unjust and would take the behavior of the antagonist personally were more likely to respond that they would be frustrated in this situation (See Table 26, Full Model 1). Females were more likely to feel frustrated by this scenario than males.

Table 26: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.012 (0.030)	(0.025)	0.003 (0.008)	(0.025)	0.008 (0.018)	(0.023)	-0.003 (-0.007)	(0.023)
Percent Overlap	0.002 (0.018)	(0.007)	0.003 (0.027)	(0.007)	0.004 (0.038)	(0.005)	0.005 (0.050)	(0.005)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.002 (-0.096)	(0.001)			-0.002 (-0.112)	(0.001) *
Unjustified	0.119 (0.122)	(0.063) +	0.123 (0.125)	(0.063) +	0.095 (0.099)	(0.055) +	0.103 (0.108)	(0.055) +
Take Personally	0.185 (0.238)	(0.051) ***	0.185 (0.238)	(0.051) ***	0.201 (0.260)	(0.045) ***	0.197 (0.254)	(0.045) ***
Trait Anger	0.050 (0.110)	(0.038)	0.044 (0.097)	(0.038)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.030 (0.024)	(0.088)	0.024 (0.019)	(0.088)				
Constraint	0.078 (0.021)	(0.242)	0.089 (0.024)	(0.242)				
Negative Emotionality	0.043 (0.012)	(0.326)	0.077 (0.021)	(0.326)				
Male	-0.413 (-0.107)	(0.245) +	-0.447 (-0.116)	(0.245) +	-0.335 (-0.087)	(0.210)	-0.363 (-0.094)	(0.209) +
Age	-0.112 (-0.088)	(0.077)	-0.107 (-0.084)	(0.076)				
White	-0.089 (-0.025)	(0.365)	-0.053 (-0.015)	(0.365)				
Asian	-0.216 (-0.054)	(0.379)	-0.227 (-0.057)	(0.378)				
Other	-0.649 (-0.094)	(0.535)	-0.533 (-0.077)	(0.539)				

Table 26: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	-0.259 (-0.051)	(0.319)	-0.250 (-0.050)	(0.318)				
Relationship Strain	0.040 (0.096)	(0.026)	0.035 (0.084)	(0.026)				
Self-esteem	0.007 (0.020)	(0.029)	0.008 (0.022)	(0.029)				
Self-efficacy	0.024 (0.043)	(0.045)	0.024 (0.045)	(0.045)				
# Talk Problems	0.073 (0.034)	(0.139)	0.063 (0.029)	(0.139)				
Help Often	-0.020 (-0.009)	(0.149)	-0.019 (-0.008)	(0.149)				
Probability Negative Traits	0.159 (0.009)	(1.201)	0.545 (0.030)	(1.225)				
Constant	5.586	(2.410) *	5.377	(2.408) *	5.410	(0.433) ***	5.391	(0.431) ***
N	271		271		314		314	
R-Squared	0.170		0.178		0.108		0.12	
Adj R-Squared	0.104		0.109		0.094		0.1028	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In the model excluding the non-significant controls, self-complexity is significant and negative. After examining the effect of overlap on frustration at different levels of aspects, the pattern mirrors that of anger. For those with few self-aspects, higher amounts of overlap lead to more frustration as expected (See Table 27). Chart 4 illustrates the effect higher amounts of overlap have on frustration when self-aspects are low (3 aspects), medium (8 aspects), and high (22 aspects). Below 7 self-aspects, the relationship between overlap and frustration is positive and significant. As with anger, higher amounts of overlap lead to lower levels of anger when self-aspects are high, and for this emotion, the effect is significant (See Table 27 and Chart 4). It is unclear why overlap would serve as a protective factor against negative emotions at higher levels of aspects. Possibly when someone has many self-aspects, they experience less role strain when their aspects are very similar. Therefore, individuals are less likely to be frustrated because they have more self-aspects and experience less role strain because these roles and identities are similar.

Table 27: The effect of overlap on frustration at different levels of self-aspects for fighting scenario

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	4.538	0.024	0.011	2.112
1	4.618	0.021	0.010	2.091
2	4.699	0.019	0.009	2.058
3	4.780	0.017	0.008	2.007
4	4.861	0.015	0.008	1.928
5	4.941	0.012	0.007	1.808
6	5.022	0.010	0.006	1.629
7	5.103	0.008	0.006	1.372
8	5.183	0.006	0.005	1.030
9	5.264	0.003	0.005	0.623
10	5.345	0.001	0.006	0.197
11	5.426	-0.001	0.006	-0.198
12	5.506	-0.003	0.006	-0.531
13	5.587	-0.006	0.007	-0.797
14	5.668	-0.008	0.008	-1.004
15	5.749	-0.010	0.009	-1.163
16	5.829	-0.012	0.010	-1.288
17	5.910	-0.015	0.011	-1.385
18	5.991	-0.017	0.012	-1.463
19	6.071	-0.019	0.013	-1.526
20	6.152	-0.021	0.014	-1.577
21	6.233	-0.024	0.015	-1.620
22	6.314	-0.026	0.016	-1.656
23	6.394	-0.028	0.017	-1.687
24	6.475	-0.030	0.018	-1.713
25	6.556	-0.033	0.019	-1.735

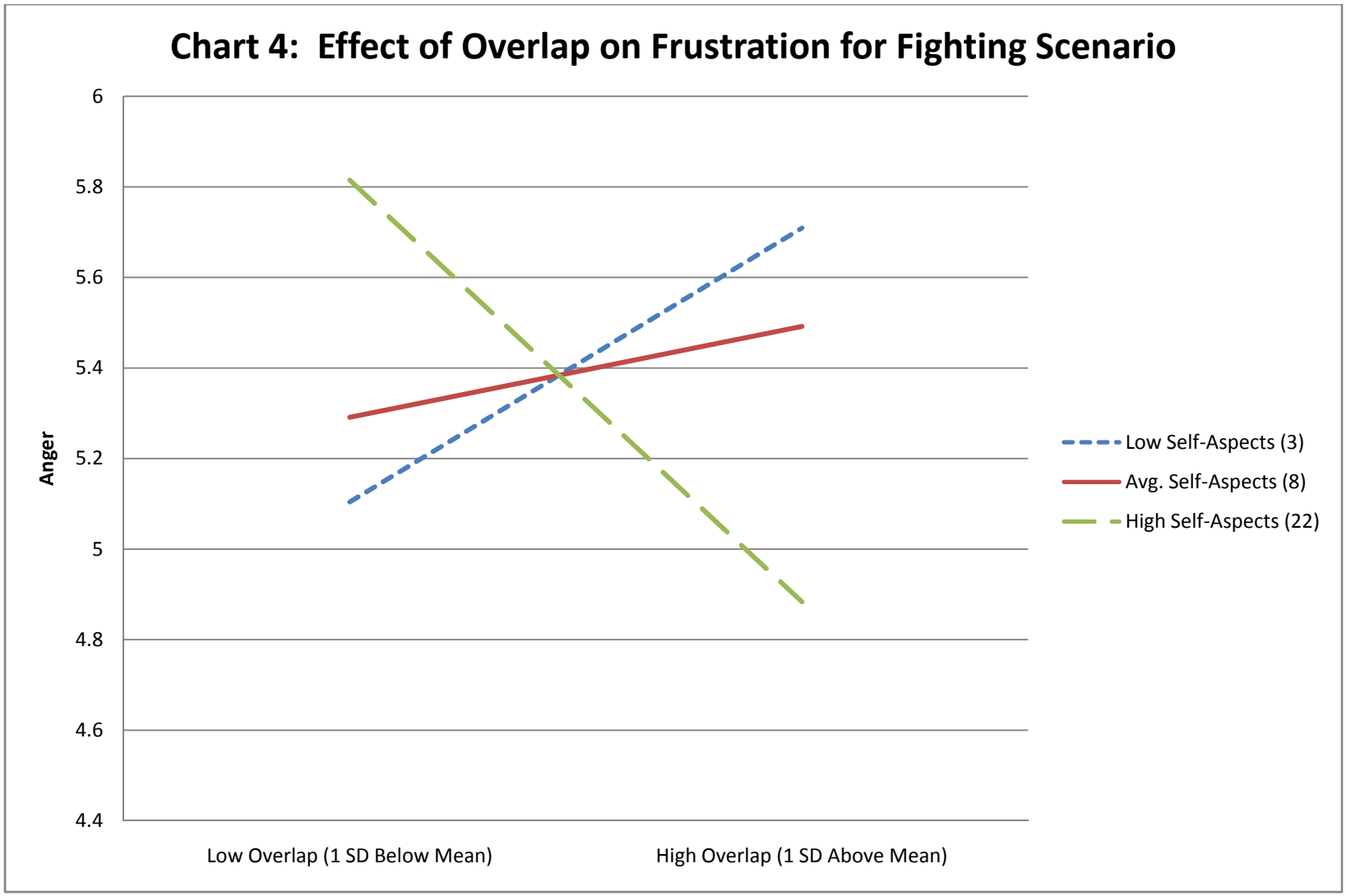
Chart 4: Effect of Overlap on Frustration for Fighting Scenario
Anger
6
5.8
5.6
5.4
5.2
5
4.8
4.6
4.4
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Avg. Self-Aspects (8)
High Self-Aspects (22)

Finally, I examine the relationship between self-complexity and depression in the fighting scenario (See Table 28). Neither self-complexity, nor its components, affects levels of depression in any of the models. This finding is not entirely unexpected given that the fighting scenario presents strain that should be more likely to lead to anger than depression. Self-complexity should only affect emotional reactions to strain, and since depression is not a common emotional reaction to this kind of intentional and personal strain, then a strong relationship between the two should not exist.

Those who said they would take the situation personally and those who were depressed in the past week were more likely to say they would be depressed if they experienced this situation. In addition, older students were less likely to report that they would be depressed. Finally, whites and Asians were more likely to say they would feel depressed than African Americans (See Table 28).

Table 28: Linear Regression Predicting Depressed Mood in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.007 (0.014)	(0.032)	0.008 (0.015)	(0.033)	0.007 (0.013)	(0.029)	0.010 (0.018)	(0.030)
Percent Overlap	-0.006 (-0.049)	(0.008)	-0.006 (-0.049)	(0.009)	-0.002 (-0.013)	(0.007)	-0.002 (-0.016)	(0.007)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.000 (0.005)	(0.002)			0.001 (0.024)	(0.001)
Unjustified	-0.025 (-0.020)	(0.080)	-0.025 (-0.020)	(0.080)				
Take Personally	0.262 (0.260)	(0.065) ***	0.262 (0.260)	(0.065) ***	0.272 (0.267)	(0.055) ***	0.272 (0.268)	(0.055) ***
Trait Anger	-0.073 (-0.125)	(0.048)	-0.072 (-0.125)	(0.049)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.191 (0.118)	(0.112) +	0.191 (0.119)	(0.112) +	0.328 (0.205)	(0.087) ***	0.329 (0.206)	(0.088) ***
Constraint	0.417 (0.088)	(0.308)	0.417 (0.088)	(0.309)				
Negative Emotionality	0.222 (0.047)	(0.418)	0.219 (0.046)	(0.420)				
Male	-0.491 (-0.098)	(0.313)	-0.489 (-0.098)	(0.315)				
Age	-0.284 (-0.172)	(0.098) **	-0.284 (-0.173)	(0.098) **	-0.211 (-0.130)	(0.088) *	-0.214 (-0.132)	(0.088) *
White	1.139 (0.248)	(0.473) *	1.136 (0.247)	(0.475) *	1.076 (0.230)	(0.404) **	1.063 (0.227)	(0.405) **
Asian	0.984 (0.192)	(0.488) *	0.984 (0.192)	(0.489) *	0.964 (0.184)	(0.441) *	0.965 (0.184)	(0.442) *
Other	0.576 (0.064)	(0.686)	0.568 (0.064)	(0.695)	0.720 (0.077)	(0.612)	0.677 (0.072)	(0.621)

Table 28: Linear Regression Predicting Depressed Mood in Fighting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	-0.174 (-0.027)	(0.412)	-0.175 (-0.027)	(0.413)				
Relationship Strain	0.032 (0.059)	(0.033)	0.033 (0.060)	(0.033)				
Self-esteem	-0.057 (-0.125)	(0.037)	-0.057 (-0.125)	(0.037)				
Self-efficacy	-0.018 (-0.026)	(0.058)	-0.018 (-0.026)	(0.058)				
# Talk Problems	-0.024 (-0.009)	(0.177)	-0.023 (-0.009)	(0.177)				
Help Often	-0.051 (-0.017)	(0.190)	-0.051 (-0.017)	(0.191)				
Probability Negative Traits	1.661 (0.072)	(1.529)	1.634 (0.071)	(1.566)				
Constant	8.798	(3.077) **	8.814	(3.088) **	5.645	(1.872) **	5.709	(1.881) **
N	269		269		302		302	
R-Squared	0.199		0.199		0.169		0.1692	
Adj R-Squared	0.134		0.131		0.146		0.1436	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

As expected, self-complexity as measured by the H statistic does not affect levels of frustration and anger. However, higher levels of self-complexity, as measured by H, does lead to higher levels of a depressed mood ($p<0.10$). Previous studies have found that the H statistic is highly correlated with the number of self-aspects and that having more aspects may lead directly to a depressed mood because of role strain (Rafaeli-Mor and Steinberg 2002; Woolfolk et al. 1995). It seems plausible that in the current study, the H statistic is capturing role strain as well as the spill over process.

Shoplifting Scenario

Contrary to expectations, the number of aspects, the amount of overlap, nor the interaction term predicted anger in the shoplifting scenario as seen in the full and reduced models (See Table 29).

As expected, those who viewed the situation as unfair in the shoplifting scenario were more likely to experience anger (See Model 1, Full Model). Somewhat surprising, no other control variables were significant. The only two variables with high correlations are self-esteem and self-efficacy ($r=0.64$). The vif's were all under 4 indicating that multicollinearity is likely not causing the lack of significance in the models.

Table 29: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.050 (0.089)	(0.036)	0.047 (0.084)	(0.037)	0.050 (0.088)	(0.032)	0.052 (0.091)	(0.033)
Percent Overlap	0.005 (0.035)	(0.009)	0.005 (0.037)	(0.009)	0.009 (0.068)	(0.007)	0.009 (0.066)	(0.007)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.001 (-0.024)	(0.002)			0.000 (0.016)	(0.002)
Unfair	0.193 (0.188)	(0.067) **	0.194 (0.188)	(0.067) **	0.200 (0.197)	(0.056) ***	0.200 (0.198)	(0.056) ***
Grades Important	0.127 (0.083)	(0.107)	0.128 (0.084)	(0.107)				
Trait Anger	0.061 (0.100)	(0.054)	0.058 (0.096)	(0.054)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.139 (0.083)	(0.126)	0.135 (0.081)	(0.126)				
Constraint	0.113 (0.023)	(0.366)	0.114 (0.023)	(0.366)				
Negative Emotionality	0.117 (0.025)	(0.458)	0.131 (0.027)	(0.460)				
Male	0.126 (0.025)	(0.345)	0.115 (0.022)	(0.347)				
Age	0.043 (0.026)	(0.108)	0.045 (0.027)	(0.109)				
White	-0.673 (-0.141)	(0.536)	-0.660 (-0.138)	(0.538)				
Asian	-0.506 (-0.095)	(0.555)	-0.508 (-0.095)	(0.556)				

Table 29: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Other	0.034	(0.758)	0.072	(0.766)				
	(0.004)		(0.008)					
Low Income	-0.501	(0.446)	-0.500	(0.447)				
	(-0.076)		(-0.076)					
Academic Strain	-0.013	(0.050)	-0.012	(0.050)				
	(-0.018)		(-0.018)					
Self-esteem	0.018	(0.041)	0.018	(0.041)				
	(0.038)		(0.038)					
Self-efficacy	0.052	(0.064)	0.052	(0.064)				
	(0.072)		(0.072)					
# Talk Problems	0.030	(0.199)	0.026	(0.199)				
	(0.010)		(0.009)					
Help Often	0.027	(0.212)	0.030	(0.213)				
	(0.009)		(0.010)					
Probability Negative Traits	1.568	(1.745)	1.707	(1.791)				
	(0.063)		(0.068)					
Constant	-1.134	(3.485)	-1.225	(3.501)	3.804	(0.318) ***	3.800	(0.319) ***
N	263		263		312		312	
R-Squared	0.104		0.104		0.053		0.0536	
Adj R-Squared	0.030		0.026		0.044		0.0413	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Contrary to expectations of sub-hypothesis 1b, the number of aspects, overlap, nor the interaction increased levels of frustration in the shoplifting scenario (See Table 30).

In the full model excluding the interaction term, viewing grades as important led to higher levels of frustration as expected. Being higher in trait anger marginally predicts lower levels of frustration ($p<0.10$). Since frustration has been found to be related to anger, it is unclear why trait anger has a negative relationship with feelings of frustration. Females reported higher levels of frustration than males. Those who are higher in self-efficacy were less likely to say they would be frustrated in this scenario as would be anticipated given that these individuals should feel they have more control over their lives to deal with problems. Finally, having more people to talk to about problems led to more frustration. Perhaps having more people to talk to increases negative emotions rather than decreasing them because peers remind the individual of the strain.

Table 30: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.011 (-0.036)	(0.019)	-0.016 (-0.053)	(0.020)	0.002 (0.007)	(0.018)	0.001 (0.002)	(0.018)
Percent Overlap	0.006 (0.077)	(0.005)	0.006 (0.084)	(0.005)	0.004 (0.048)	(0.004)	0.004 (0.051)	(0.004)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.001 (-0.083)	(0.001)			0.000 (-0.022)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.026 (0.044)	(0.037)	0.026 (0.045)	(0.037)				
Grades Important	0.212 (0.242)	(0.059) ***	0.215 (0.246)	(0.059) ***	0.229 (0.256)	(0.051) ***	0.230 (0.256)	(0.051) ***
Trait Anger	-0.049 (-0.141)	(0.029) +	-0.053 (-0.153)	(0.030) +	-0.003 (-0.009)	(0.023)	-0.003 (-0.010)	(0.023)
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.040 (-0.042)	(0.069)	-0.045 (-0.048)	(0.069)				
Constraint	-0.082 (-0.030)	(0.201)	-0.084 (-0.030)	(0.200)				
Negative Emotionality	0.379 (0.140)	(0.251)	0.405 (0.150)	(0.252)				
Male	-0.499 (-0.171)	(0.190) **	-0.523 (-0.180)	(0.190) **	-0.479 (-0.157)	(0.172) **	-0.485 (-0.159)	(0.173) **
Age	0.034 (0.036)	(0.059)	0.038 (0.040)	(0.059)				
White	0.372 (0.138)	(0.294)	0.401 (0.149)	(0.294)				
Asian	0.031 (0.010)	(0.303)	0.029 (0.010)	(0.303)				
Other	-0.053 (-0.011)	(0.416)	0.022 (0.004)	(0.420)				

Table 30: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	0.166	(0.244)	0.171	(0.243)				
	(0.045)		(0.046)					
Academic Strain	0.025	(0.027)	0.025	(0.027)				
	(0.064)		(0.063)					
Self-esteem	0.023	(0.023)	0.024	(0.023)				
	(0.087)		(0.090)					
Self-efficacy	-0.058	(0.035) +	-0.058	(0.035)	-0.034	(0.026)	-0.033	(0.027)
	(-0.144)		(-0.142)		(-0.080)		(-0.079)	
# Talk Problems	0.196	(0.109) +	0.190	(0.109) +	0.237	(0.093) *	0.236	(0.093) *
	(0.119)		(0.115)		(0.142)		(0.141)	
Help Often	0.015	(0.117)	0.021	(0.116)				
	(0.009)		(0.012)					
Probability Negative Traits	0.423	(0.943)	0.690	(0.965)				
	(0.030)		(0.050)					
Constant	5.361	(1.912) **	5.197	(1.913) **	6.584	(0.840) ***	6.583	(0.842) ***
N	264		264		305		305	
R-Squared	0.156		0.162		0.124		0.1243	
Adj R-Squared	0.086		0.089		0.104		0.1037	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Finally, I explore the influence of self-complexity on feelings of a depressed mood in the shoplifting scenario. Self-complexity did not affect feelings of depression in this situation, as shown in both the full model and the reduced model (See Table 31). Only perceptions of strain impacted feelings of being depressed. Specifically, those who viewed the situation as unfair and who believed grades were important to them were more likely to feel depressed in this situation.

Table 31: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.014 (0.024)	0.036	0.016 (0.028)	0.037	0.046 (0.079)	0.032	0.050 (0.084)	0.033
Percent Overlap	-0.012 (-0.089)	0.010	-0.012 (-0.091)	0.010	-0.007 (-0.054)	0.007	-0.008 (-0.058)	0.008
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.021)	0.002			0.001 (0.030)	0.002
Unfair	0.174 (0.162)	0.068 *	0.173 (0.162)	0.068 *	0.242 (0.228)	0.058 ***	0.243 (0.229)	0.059 ***
Grades Important	0.180 (0.113)	0.109 +	0.179 (0.112)	0.109	0.233 (0.151)	0.085 **	0.232 (0.150)	0.085 **
Trait Anger	0.011 (0.017)	0.054	0.013 (0.020)	0.055				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.202 (0.116)	0.128	0.204 (0.118)	0.128				
Constraint	0.250 (0.050)	0.373	0.251 (0.050)	0.374				
Negative Emotionality	0.335 (0.067)	0.473	0.323 (0.064)	0.475				
Male	-0.226 (-0.042)	0.353	-0.215 (-0.040)	0.355				
Age	-0.173 (-0.100)	0.111	-0.175 (-0.101)	0.111				
White	0.650 (0.131)	0.546	0.637 (0.129)	0.549				
Asian	0.690 (0.125)	0.564	0.691 (0.125)	0.565				
Other	0.857 (0.090)	0.785	0.822 (0.086)	0.794				

Table 31: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Shoplifting Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	0.481	(0.453)	0.479	(0.454)				
	(0.071)		(0.070)					
Academic Strain	-0.042	(0.050)	-0.042	(0.051)				
	(-0.058)		(-0.058)					
Self-esteem	0.028	(0.042)	0.028	(0.042)				
	(0.058)		(0.057)					
Self-efficacy	-0.018	(0.066)	-0.019	(0.066)				
	(-0.025)		(-0.025)					
# Talk Problems	-0.059	(0.204)	-0.056	(0.204)				
	(-0.020)		(-0.019)					
Help Often	0.133	(0.217)	0.130	(0.218)				
	(0.041)		(0.040)					
Probability Negative Traits	2.544	(1.754)	2.424	(1.799)				
	(0.100)		(0.095)					
Constant	2.135	(3.568)	2.211	(3.583)	1.487	(0.685) *	1.492	(0.686) *
N	263		263		310		310	
R-Squared	0.135		0.136		0.093		0.0942	
Adj R-Squared	0.064		0.061		0.082		0.0793	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In sum, no support for sub-hypothesis 1b was found for the shoplifting scenario. In addition, when the models were run with the H statistic, no significant results were revealed. Finally, very few of the control variables significantly affected emotions in the shoplifting scenario.

Drug/Alcohol Use Scenario

Neither, self-complexity nor its individual components significantly influenced anger in the drug/alcohol use scenario (See Table 32). The interaction term is negative and close to significant at the 0.10 level in the reduced model ($p=0.12$) which, if significant, would suggest that overlap leads to more anger when the number of self-aspects are low.

As can be seen in Full Model 1, perceptions of strain influence feelings of anger in the drug/alcohol use scenario. Specifically, those who perceived the situation as unfair and who strongly believe that grades are important to them were more likely to say they would be angry if they were the main character in this scenario. Also, those who are higher in negative emotionality reported stronger feelings of anger. Finally, those who were more likely to select negative traits were less likely to report that they would feel angry in this situation. This finding is only marginally significant in one model ($p<0.10$).

Table 32: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.004 (-0.008)	(0.028)	-0.012 (-0.024)	(0.028)	-0.003 (-0.006)	(0.026)	-0.012 (-0.023)	(0.026)
Percent Overlap	0.004 (0.032)	(0.007)	0.004 (0.037)	(0.007)	0.005 (0.041)	(0.006)	0.005 (0.044)	(0.006)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.002 (-0.079)	(0.001)			-0.002 (-0.083)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.229 (0.276)	(0.051) ***	0.228 (0.274)	(0.050) ***	0.222 (0.270)	(0.043) ***	0.217 (0.263)	(0.043) ***
Grades Important	0.175 (0.130)	(0.086) *	0.180 (0.134)	(0.086) *	0.261 (0.198)	(0.068) ***	0.265 (0.201)	(0.068) ***
Trait Anger	0.046 (0.088)	(0.042)	0.041 (0.077)	(0.043)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.029 (0.020)	(0.100)	0.019 (0.013)	(0.100)				
Constraint	0.455 (0.107)	(0.289)	0.452 (0.107)	(0.289)				
Negative Emotionality	0.773 (0.187)	(0.360) *	0.804 (0.194)	(0.360) *	1.097 (0.261)	(0.228) ***	1.080 (0.257)	(0.227) ***
Male	-0.116 (-0.026)	(0.272)	-0.151 (-0.034)	(0.273)				
Age	0.034 (0.023)	(0.086)	0.038 (0.026)	(0.086)				
White	-0.161 (-0.039)	(0.416)	-0.129 (-0.031)	(0.416)				
Asian	-0.374 (-0.080)	(0.431)	-0.392 (-0.084)	(0.430)				
Other	-0.258 (-0.033)	(0.591)	-0.158 (-0.020)	(0.595)				

Table 32: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	-0.396 (-0.070)	(0.349)	-0.389 (-0.068)	(0.349)				
Academic Strain	0.047 (0.078)	(0.039)	0.047 (0.078)	(0.039)				
Self-esteem	0.017 (0.042)	(0.033)	0.018 (0.044)	(0.033)				
Self-efficacy	-0.049 (-0.078)	(0.051)	-0.048 (-0.077)	(0.051)				
# Talk Problems	0.055 (0.022)	(0.157)	0.045 (0.018)	(0.157)				
Help Often	-0.190 (-0.071)	(0.167)	-0.182 (-0.068)	(0.167)				
Probability Negative Traits	-2.401 (-0.113)	(1.362) +	-2.015 (-0.095)	(1.392)	-1.677 (-0.078)	(1.223)	-1.296 (-0.060)	(1.245)
Constant	-0.864	(2.737)	-1.028	(2.736)	-0.150	(0.747)	-0.136	(0.745)
N	264		264		311		311	
R-Squared	0.259		0.264		0.212		0.2184	
Adj R-Squared	0.198		0.2		0.197		0.2003	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Contrary to sub-hypothesis 1b, the number of aspects, the amount of overlap, and the interaction did not affect levels of frustration experienced in the drinking/drug use scenario (See Table 33, Full and Reduced Models). Only perceptions of strain affected the degree of frustration reported in this scenario. Level of frustration was influenced by perceptions of fairness with those who perceived the situation as more unfair expressing more frustration. Those who believed that grades were very important were more likely to say they would be frustrated if they experienced this situation.

Table 33: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.022 (-0.057)	(0.023)	-0.027 (-0.070)	(0.024)	-0.006 (-0.016)	(0.022)	-0.013 (-0.031)	(0.022)
Percent Overlap	-0.002 (-0.023)	(0.006)	-0.002 (-0.019)	(0.006)	0.000 (0.003)	(0.005)	0.001 (0.011)	(0.005)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.001 (-0.055)	(0.001)			-0.001 (-0.071)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.182 (0.267)	(0.043) ***	0.181 (0.265)	(0.043) ***	0.178 (0.259)	(0.037) ***	0.173 (0.251)	(0.037) ***
Grades Important	0.189 (0.172)	(0.072) **	0.193 (0.175)	(0.072) **	0.248 (0.227)	(0.058) ***	0.252 (0.230)	(0.058) ***
Trait Anger	0.030 (0.070)	(0.036)	0.027 (0.063)	(0.036)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.008 (0.007)	(0.085)	0.003 (0.003)	(0.085)				
Constraint	0.332 (0.095)	(0.246)	0.330 (0.095)	(0.247)				
Negative Emotionality	0.214 (0.063)	(0.305)	0.229 (0.067)	(0.306)				
Male	-0.304 (-0.083)	(0.231)	-0.322 (-0.088)	(0.232)				
Age	0.012 (0.010)	(0.073)	0.014 (0.012)	(0.073)				
White	0.101 (0.030)	(0.349)	0.128 (0.038)	(0.350)				
Asian	-0.045 (-0.012)	(0.363)	-0.047 (-0.012)	(0.363)				
Other	-0.484 (-0.075)	(0.499)	-0.418 (-0.065)	(0.505)				

Table 33: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	-0.156	(0.297)	-0.149	(0.298)				
	(-0.033)		(-0.032)					
Academic Strain	0.005	(0.033)	0.004	(0.033)				
	(0.009)		(0.008)					
Self-esteem	0.007	(0.028)	0.007	(0.028)				
	(0.020)		(0.021)					
Self-efficacy	-0.013	(0.043)	-0.013	(0.043)				
	(-0.025)		(-0.025)					
# Talk Problems	0.008	(0.133)	0.000	(0.133)				
	(0.004)		(0.000)					
Help Often	0.223	(0.142)	0.228	(0.143)				
	(0.101)		(0.103)					
Probability Negative Traits	-0.475	(1.162)	-0.255	(1.190)				
	(-0.027)		(-0.015)					
Constant	2.123	(2.334)	2.046	(2.337)	4.361	(0.469) ***	4.362	(0.469) ***
N	266		266		315		315	
R-Squared	0.199		0.202		0.131		0.1356	
Adj R-Squared	0.134		0.133		0.12		0.1216	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Unexpectedly, the number of aspects positively affected depressed moods in the drug/alcohol use scenario (See Table 34). Overlap and self-complexity did not affect levels of depression in this scenario. These findings are puzzling because numerous studies find that those who are higher in self-complexity are less depressed after experiencing strain than those who are lower in self-complexity. Because failing an exam when it is one's own fault should lead to inner directed emotions such as a depressed mood, those who have few self-aspects with high overlap should be affected more emotionally. It may be that respondents who listed many self-aspects feel they would be more depressed in this situation because they have competing role obligations and failing an exam is an indicator of this role strain.

As shown in Full Model 1, those who felt that grades were important were more likely to report being depressed. Asians and those of other races were more likely to say they would be depressed than African Americans. Finally, contrary to expectations, having family available to help with problems led to more depression. It is possible that when individuals perceive more available help from family, they also are very attached to these others and fear disappointing them when they fail to do well on an exam. Feeling grades are important had the strongest impact on depressed feelings (beta = 0.244).

Table 34: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.056 (0.102)	0.031 +	0.061 (0.112)	0.032 +	0.071 (0.127)	0.030 *	0.069 (0.124)	0.031 *
Percent Overlap	-0.006 (-0.044)	0.009	-0.006 (-0.047)	0.009	-0.011 (-0.082)	0.007	-0.011 (-0.081)	0.007
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.039)	0.002			0.000 (-0.013)	0.002
Unfair	0.073 (0.076)	0.059	0.074 (0.077)	0.059	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 ***	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 ***
Grades Important	0.376 (0.244)	0.097 ***	0.372 (0.241)	0.098 ***	0.469 (0.305)	0.084 ***	0.470 (0.306)	0.084 ***
Trait Anger	0.060 (0.098)	0.049	0.063 (0.102)	0.050				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.123 (0.073)	0.115	0.128 (0.076)	0.116				
Constraint	0.182 (0.037)	0.334	0.187 (0.038)	0.335				
Negative Emotionality	0.468 (0.097)	0.417	0.456 (0.095)	0.418				
Male	-0.060 (-0.012)	0.310	-0.039 (-0.008)	0.312				
Age	-0.058 (-0.035)	0.100	-0.061 (-0.036)	0.100				
White	0.667 (0.140)	0.454	0.643 (0.135)	0.456	0.862 (0.179)	0.419 *	0.869 (0.180)	0.421 *
Asian	0.907 (0.168)	0.490 +	0.911 (0.169)	0.491 +	1.143 (0.212)	0.455 *	1.141 (0.211)	0.456 *
Other	1.516 (0.163)	0.670 *	1.446 (0.155)	0.680 *	1.799 (0.186)	0.634 **	1.824 (0.189)	0.644 **

Table 34: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Drinking/Drug Use Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Academic Strain	-0.032 (-0.046)	(0.046)	-0.032 (-0.046)	(0.046)				
Self-esteem	-0.041 (-0.086)	(0.038)	-0.042 (-0.087)	(0.038)				
Self-efficacy	-0.031 (-0.042)	(0.058)	-0.030 (-0.042)	(0.058)				
# Talk Problems	0.028 (0.010)	(0.180)	0.035 (0.012)	(0.180)				
Help Often	0.386 (0.125)	(0.193) *	0.382 (0.123)	(0.193) *	0.140 (0.045)	(0.171)	0.141 (0.045)	(0.171)
Probability Negative Traits	-0.121 (-0.005)	(1.582)	-0.339 (-0.014)	(1.620)				
Constant	0.776	(3.171)	0.850	(3.176)	0.580	(0.811)	0.565	(0.815)
N	270		270		304		304	
R-Squared	0.240		0.241		0.145		0.1451	
Adj R-Squared	0.182		0.18		0.125		0.1219	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Self-complexity as measured by H does not affect anger or frustration, but positively affects depression in the drug/alcohol use scenario. The H statistic is highly correlated with the number of aspects so this finding probably reflects role strain related to having more self-aspects (r=0.66).

In sum, no support was found for sub-hypothesis 1b in this scenario. As with the shoplifting scenario, perceptions of how severe or unfair strains are appear to be very important in predicting negative emotions.

Cheating Scenario

Contrary to sub-hypothesis 1b, those who are lower in self-complexity were no more likely than those higher self-complexity to react to the academic related strain in the cheating scenario with anger (See Table 35). The number of aspects and overlap also did not affect anger emotions in this vignette (See Model 1, Full Model).

Those who viewed it as unfair that the professor is unable to answer questions that will be on the test reported stronger feelings of anger (See Table 35). Trait anger also influenced situational anger. Surprisingly, experiencing more academic strain in the past 12 months led to weaker feelings of anger. Perhaps those who have been under a lot of academic strain in the past 12 months believed that this situation would not produce much anger because they are desensitized to this type of strain. As anticipated, those who are higher in self-efficacy reported weaker feelings of anger in the cheating scenario.

Table 35: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.031 (0.058)	(0.033)	0.039 (0.072)	(0.034)	0.029 (0.052)	(0.031)	0.034 (0.062)	(0.032)
Percent Overlap	0.010 (0.079)	(0.009)	0.010 (0.073)	(0.009)	0.007 (0.057)	(0.007)	0.007 (0.051)	(0.007)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.002 (0.064)	(0.002)			0.001 (0.050)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.214 (0.172)	(0.079) **	0.219 (0.176)	(0.079) **	0.231 (0.184)	(0.071) ***	0.232 (0.185)	(0.071) ***
Grades Important	0.171 (0.111)	(0.104)	0.165 (0.107)	(0.104)				
Trait Anger	0.117 (0.193)	(0.051) *	0.123 (0.202)	(0.051) *	0.133 (0.221)	(0.038) ***	0.134 (0.222)	(0.038) ***
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.008 (0.005)	(0.121)	0.015 (0.009)	(0.121)				
Constraint	-0.374 (-0.076)	(0.357)	-0.369 (-0.075)	(0.357)				
Negative Emotionality	0.171 (0.036)	(0.442)	0.148 (0.031)	(0.443)				
Male	0.041 (0.008)	(0.332)	0.073 (0.014)	(0.333)				
Age	-0.061 (-0.037)	(0.103)	-0.065 (-0.039)	(0.103)				
White	0.192 (0.040)	(0.505)	0.140 (0.029)	(0.508)				
Asian	0.525 (0.098)	(0.526)	0.518 (0.097)	(0.526)				
Other	0.568 (0.063)	(0.723)	0.450 (0.050)	(0.733)				
Low Income	-0.196 (-0.030)	(0.429)	-0.209 (-0.032)	(0.429)				

Table 35: Linear Regression Predicting Anger in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Academic Strain	-0.089 (-0.128)	0.049) +	-0.089 (-0.127)	0.049) +	-0.056 (-0.082)	0.040)	-0.056 (-0.082)	0.040)
Self-esteem	0.041 (0.087)	0.040)	0.040 (0.086)	0.040)				
Self-efficacy	-0.141 (-0.196)	0.062) *	-0.141 (-0.196)	0.062) *	-0.108 (-0.153)	0.045) *	-0.110 (-0.154)	0.045) *
# Talk Problems	-0.013 (-0.004)	0.190)	0.001 (0.001)	0.190)				
Help Often	0.103 (0.033)	0.207)	0.092 (0.030)	0.207)				
Probability Negative Traits	0.446 (0.018)	1.669)	0.098 (0.004)	1.706)				
Constant	3.819	(3.368)	3.917	(3.369)	3.581	(1.377) **	3.586	(1.377) **
N	265		265		296		296	
R-Squared	0.166		0.17		0.135		0.1368	
Adj R-Squared	0.098		0.098		0.117		0.1158	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

As with anger, no support is found for hypothesis 1b, that those lower in self-complexity will experience higher levels of frustration than those higher in S-C (See Table 36). The components of self-complexity (aspects and overlap) do not affect levels of frustration in the cheating scenario either (See Model 1, Full and Reduced Model).

Perceptions of strain did predict levels of frustration. Specifically, those who viewed the situation as unfair and felt grades were important were more likely to report higher levels of frustration in the cheating scenario. Trait emotions such as trait anger and being depressed on average also led to higher levels of frustration. Finally, females were more likely to respond with frustration in this situation.

Table 36: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.010 (0.024)	(0.025)	0.013 (0.030)	(0.026)	0.010 (0.022)	(0.023)	0.014 (0.032)	(0.023)
Percent Overlap	0.001 (0.008)	(0.007)	0.001 (0.006)	(0.007)	-0.003 (-0.024)	(0.005)	-0.003 (-0.030)	(0.005)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.025)	(0.001)			0.001 (0.047)	(0.001)
Unfair	0.188 (0.190)	(0.060) **	0.190 (0.192)	(0.060) **	0.240 (0.244)	(0.053) ***	0.242 (0.246)	(0.053) ***
Grades Important	0.207 (0.169)	(0.080) **	0.205 (0.167)	(0.080) *	0.189 (0.157)	(0.064) **	0.187 (0.156)	(0.064) **
Trait Anger	0.064 (0.132)	(0.039)	0.065 (0.135)	(0.039) +	0.098 (0.207)	(0.026) ***	0.099 (0.209)	(0.026) ***
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.174 (0.131)	(0.092) +	0.176 (0.133)	(0.092) +	0.137 (0.108)	(0.069) *	0.141 (0.111)	(0.069) *
Constraint	-0.246 (-0.063)	(0.269)	-0.244 (-0.063)	(0.269)				
Negative Emotionality	0.527 (0.138)	(0.336)	0.520 (0.136)	(0.337)				
Male	-0.524 (-0.127)	(0.253) *	-0.514 (-0.125)	(0.255) *	-0.531 (-0.130)	(0.217) *	-0.515 (-0.126)	(0.218) *
Age	0.075 (0.057)	(0.079)	0.074 (0.056)	(0.079)				
White	0.484 (0.127)	(0.392)	0.469 (0.123)	(0.394)				
Asian	0.419 (0.099)	(0.403)	0.417 (0.098)	(0.404)				
Other	0.579 (0.081)	(0.553)	0.543 (0.076)	(0.561)				

Table 36: Linear Regression Predicting Frustration in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	0.218	(0.332)	0.214	(0.333)				
	(0.041)		(0.041)					
Academic Strain	-0.014	(0.037)	-0.014	(0.037)				
	(-0.026)		(-0.026)					
Self-esteem	0.015	(0.030)	0.015	(0.030)				
	(0.040)		(0.039)					
Self-efficacy	-0.020	(0.047)	-0.020	(0.047)				
	(-0.035)		(-0.035)					
# Talk Problems	-0.091	(0.144)	-0.087	(0.145)				
	(-0.040)		(-0.038)					
Help Often	0.135	(0.157)	0.131	(0.157)				
	(0.054)		(0.053)					
Probability Negative Traits	-0.102	(1.270)	-0.211	(1.301)				
	(-0.005)		(-0.011)					
Constant	0.365	(2.564)	0.394	(2.570)	2.216	(0.628) ***	2.195	(0.628) ***
N	264		264		305		305	
R-Squared	0.239		0.239		0.235		0.237	
Adj R-Squared	0.176		0.173		0.217		0.2164	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Finally, I explore the relationship between depressed moods and self-complexity in the stressful situation that leads to cheating. Similar to the drug/alcohol use scenario, having more aspects leads to higher levels of depressed mood (See Table 37). Also similarly, self-complexity as measured by H is positively related to depressed moods in the cheating situation. Overlap and the interaction term do not impact the level of depressed moods. Viewing grades as important and being Asian was related to more depression. Experiencing more academic strain in the past 12 months and being higher in self-esteem led to lower levels of depressed mood.

As with anger in the cheating scenario, higher levels of academic strain appear to decrease the likelihood of feeling depressed. Those who have experienced more academic strain in the past are probably less likely to experience as strong of negative emotions as those who have not experienced as much academic strain because strain's effect on negative emotions probably diminishes over time.

Table 37: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.078 (0.142)	0.033 *	0.081 (0.147)	0.034 *	0.088 (0.158)	0.031 **	0.089 (0.160)	0.032 **
Percent Overlap	0.005 (0.038)	0.009	0.005 (0.036)	0.009	0.005 (0.034)	0.008	0.004 (0.033)	0.008
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.023)	0.002			0.000 (0.010)	0.002
Unfair	0.061 (0.049)	0.077	0.063 (0.050)	0.078				
Grades Important	0.243 (0.156)	0.102 *	0.241 (0.155)	0.102 *	0.275 (0.175)	0.087 **	0.274 (0.175)	0.088 **
Trait Anger	0.063 (0.102)	0.050	0.065 (0.105)	0.050				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.100 (0.059)	0.118	0.102 (0.061)	0.119				
Constraint	0.054 (0.011)	0.346	0.056 (0.011)	0.347				
Negative Emotionality	0.595 (0.122)	0.432	0.586 (0.121)	0.434				
Male	-0.355 (-0.068)	0.324	-0.343 (-0.066)	0.327				
Age	-0.088 (-0.052)	0.101	-0.089 (-0.053)	0.101				
White	0.480 (0.100)	0.494	0.461 (0.096)	0.497	0.118 (0.025)	0.431	0.112 (0.023)	0.433
Asian	1.038 (0.193)	0.514 *	1.036 (0.192)	0.515 *	0.491 (0.091)	0.471	0.491 (0.091)	0.472
Other	1.142 (0.125)	0.707	1.099 (0.120)	0.718	0.732 (0.080)	0.627	0.714 (0.078)	0.637

Table 37: Linear Regression Predicting Depression in Cheating Scenario

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Low Income	0.386 (0.058)	(0.419)	0.381 (0.057)	(0.420)				
Academic Strain	-0.082 (-0.117)	(0.047) +	-0.082 (-0.117)	(0.047) +	-0.028 (-0.041)	(0.042)	-0.028 (-0.040)	(0.042)
Self-esteem	-0.090 (-0.189)	(0.039) *	-0.090 (-0.190)	(0.039) *	-0.143 (-0.303)	(0.028) ***	-0.144 (-0.303)	(0.028) ***
Self-efficacy	0.029 (0.040)	(0.061)	0.029 (0.040)	(0.061)				
# Talk Problems	0.179 (0.062)	(0.185)	0.185 (0.063)	(0.186)				
Help Often	-0.011 (-0.003)	(0.202)	-0.015 (-0.005)	(0.203)				
Probability Negative Traits	-0.514 (-0.021)	(1.627)	-0.644 (-0.026)	(1.668)				
Constant	2.886	(3.293)	2.921	(3.300)	6.844	(1.303) ***	6.854	(1.307) ***
N	266		266		285		285	
R-Squared	0.214		0.215		0.16		0.1596	
Adj R-Squared	0.150		0.147		0.135		0.1321	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In sum, very little support for sub-hypothesis 1b was found for 3 out of 4 of the scenarios. Partial support was found for self-complexity influencing negative emotions in the fighting scenario in the reduced models. As expected, overlap leads to higher levels of anger and frustration for those with few self-aspects. Interestingly, more overlap leads to lower levels of frustration when the number of self-aspects is high.

Contrary to expectations, in the drug/alcohol use and cheating scenario, having more self-aspects leads to higher levels of depression suggesting that in some situations, having more roles and identities may lead to more negative emotions. It is likely that when individuals have many self-aspects, they experience role strain and role conflict resulting in difficulty completing tasks and experiencing competing expectations and obligations to fulfill as part of these roles and identities. Therefore, in some instances, having more self-aspects may be a liability.

Consistent support was found for the influence of severe and unjust strain leading to negative emotions. Severity of strain is captured by taking the behavior of the antagonist personally in the fighting scenario and viewing grades as important (an important identity for many Emory students) in the other three scenarios. Believing these situations were unfair or unjust also consistently led to stronger negative emotions in the scenarios.

Sub-Hypothesis 1c: Are those lower in self-complexity more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity controlling for perceptions of strain and negative emotions?

I argue that higher levels of self-complexity should reduce crime because these individuals should be less likely to perceive strain as severe, negative emotions are less likely to spill over into other self-aspects, and because S-C serves as a coping resource beyond these effects. Below, I test whether self-complexity serves as a coping resource through predicting intentions to offend and prior crime controlling for the severity of strain and negative emotions.

Fighting Scenario

As can been seen in Table 38, Full Model 1 and 2, the number of aspects, overlap, nor the interaction term are significant which is not surprising given the large number of cases lost from the sample due to listwise deletion. Therefore, I present the reduced model that includes only those significant control variables. As expected, self-complexity affects the likelihood of offending. Specifically, I examine the conditional effect of the degree of overlap on intentions to hit at different numbers of self-aspects. As anticipated, those who are lower in self-complexity were more likely to say they would hit the person depicted in the scenario (See Table 39). This finding signifies that S-C serves as a coping resource above and beyond its effect on perceptions of strain and negative emotions. Higher overlap in self-aspects significantly increases the likelihood of intentions to offend when someone has less than 8 self-aspects. In order to more clearly illustrate this relationship, I display in Chart 5 the slopes for those with very few self-aspects and someone with an average number of self-aspects. When individuals have an average number of self-aspects, overlap does not significantly affect intentions to offend. This finding is not surprising because these individuals would be neither high nor low in self-complexity.

Table 38: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.002 (0.003)	(0.037)	-0.010 (-0.016)	(0.037)	0.029 (0.045)	(0.030)	0.014 (0.023)	(0.031)
Percent Overlap	0.006 (0.039)	(0.009)	0.007 (0.047)	(0.009)	0.011 (0.070)	(0.008)	0.012 (0.076)	(0.008)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.003 (-0.085)	(0.002)			-0.003 (-0.083)	(0.001) +
Situational Anger	0.417 (0.265)	(0.100) ***	0.394 (0.250)	(0.101) ***	0.420 (0.270)	(0.075) ***	0.402 (0.258)	(0.075) ***
Situational Frustration	-0.043 (-0.027)	(0.101)	-0.044 (-0.028)	(0.101)				
Situational Depression	-0.100 (-0.083)	(0.073)	-0.106 (-0.087)	(0.072)				
Take Personally	-0.029 (-0.023)	(0.078)	-0.012 (-0.009)	(0.079)				
Unjustified	0.264 (0.161)	(0.094) **	0.263 (0.161)	(0.094) **	0.155 (0.105)	(0.069) *	0.160 (0.108)	(0.069) *
Hit	0.453 (0.146)	(0.175) **	0.469 (0.151)	(0.175) **	0.515 (0.155)	(0.161) **	0.526 (0.158)	(0.160) ***
Relationship Strain	-0.023 (-0.032)	(0.039)	-0.026 (-0.036)	(0.039)				
Trait Anger	-0.036 (-0.051)	(0.055)	-0.048 (-0.069)	(0.055)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.201 (0.096)	(0.129)	0.190 (0.091)	(0.129)				
Self Label	0.127 (0.162)	(0.053) *	0.119 (0.151)	(0.053) *	0.065 (0.082)	(0.043)	0.061 (0.077)	(0.043)
Negative Emotionality	0.987 (0.170)	(0.486) *	1.058 (0.183)	(0.487) *	0.546 (0.095)	(0.304) +	0.538 (0.094)	(0.303) +

Table 38: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Constraint	-0.666 (-0.115)	(0.385) +	-0.695 (-0.120)	(0.384) +	-1.075 (-0.190)	(0.305) ***	-1.092 (-0.193)	(0.304) ***
Close to Family	0.310 (0.082)	(0.226)	0.330 (0.088)	(0.226)				
School Commitment	-0.021 (-0.016)	(0.086)	-0.021 (-0.015)	(0.086)				
Grades	-0.081 (-0.027)	(0.186)	-0.044 (-0.015)	(0.187)				
Involvement	-0.059 (-0.045)	(0.077)	-0.040 (-0.030)	(0.078)				
Situational Morals	-0.624 (-0.223)	(0.195) **	-0.608 (-0.217)	(0.195) **	-0.748 (-0.268)	(0.138) ***	-0.747 (-0.268)	(0.138) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	-0.196 (-0.076)	(0.175)	-0.216 (-0.084)	(0.175)				
Past Crime	-0.051 (-0.013)	(0.245)	-0.014 (-0.003)	(0.245)				
Age	-0.104 (-0.052)	(0.115)	-0.096 (-0.048)	(0.115)				
Male	0.702 (0.113)	(0.355) *	0.670 (0.108)	(0.354) +	0.827 (0.137)	(0.296) **	0.811 (0.135)	(0.295) **
White	-0.248 (-0.044)	(0.570)	-0.188 (-0.033)	(0.570)				
Asian	-0.157 (-0.025)	(0.586)	-0.191 (-0.030)	(0.585)				
Other	0.864 (0.081)	(0.759)	1.017 (0.096)	(0.764)				
Mom Education	-0.197 (-0.122)	(0.109) +	-0.221 (-0.137)	(0.110) *	-0.156 (-0.095)	(0.094) +	-0.164 (-0.100)	(0.094) +

Table 38: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Hit

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Dad Education	0.239 (0.148)	(0.108) *	0.248 (0.154)	(0.108) *	0.180 (0.115)	(0.091) *	0.178 (0.114)	(0.091) +
Low Income	-0.473 (-0.054)	(0.500)	-0.500 (-0.057)	(0.499)				
Self-efficacy	0.069 (0.081)	(0.063)	0.066 (0.078)	(0.063)				
Self-esteem	-0.016 (-0.030)	(0.042)	-0.019 (-0.033)	(0.042)				
# Talk Problems	-0.143 (-0.042)	(0.197)	-0.139 (-0.041)	(0.196)				
Help Often	-0.563 (-0.157)	(0.216) **	-0.556 (-0.154)	(0.216) *	-0.283 (-0.079)	(0.167) +	-0.271 (-0.076)	(0.166)
Probability Negative Traits	-3.708 (-0.130)	(1.712) *	-3.066 (-0.107)	(1.765) +	-3.234 (-0.111)	(1.489) *	-2.738 (-0.094)	(1.513) +
Constant	4.415	(4.068)	4.163	(4.061)	4.499	(1.799) *	4.694	(1.797) **
N	224		224		296		296	
R-Squared	0.553		0.558		0.428		0.4341	
Adj R-Squared	0.472		0.475		0.4		0.4038	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 39: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Hit at Different Levels of Self-Aspects

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	3.354	0.033	0.015	2.164
1	3.463	0.030	0.014	2.176
2	3.572	0.028	0.013	2.182
3	3.681	0.025	0.012	2.175
4	3.791	0.023	0.011	2.149
5	3.900	0.020	0.010	2.090
6	4.009	0.017	0.009	1.983
7	4.118	0.015	0.008	1.810
8	4.227	0.012	0.008	1.563
9	4.336	0.010	0.008	1.250
10	4.445	0.007	0.008	0.902
11	4.554	0.005	0.009	0.556
12	4.663	0.002	0.009	0.242
13	4.773	0.000	0.010	-0.027
14	4.882	-0.003	0.011	-0.251
15	4.991	-0.005	0.012	-0.435
16	5.100	-0.008	0.013	-0.585
17	5.209	-0.010	0.015	-0.708
18	5.318	-0.013	0.016	-0.810
19	5.427	-0.016	0.017	-0.895
20	5.536	-0.018	0.019	-0.967
21	5.645	-0.021	0.020	-1.028
22	5.755	-0.023	0.021	-1.081
23	5.864	-0.026	0.023	-1.126
24	5.973	-0.028	0.024	-1.166
25	6.082	-0.031	0.026	-1.200

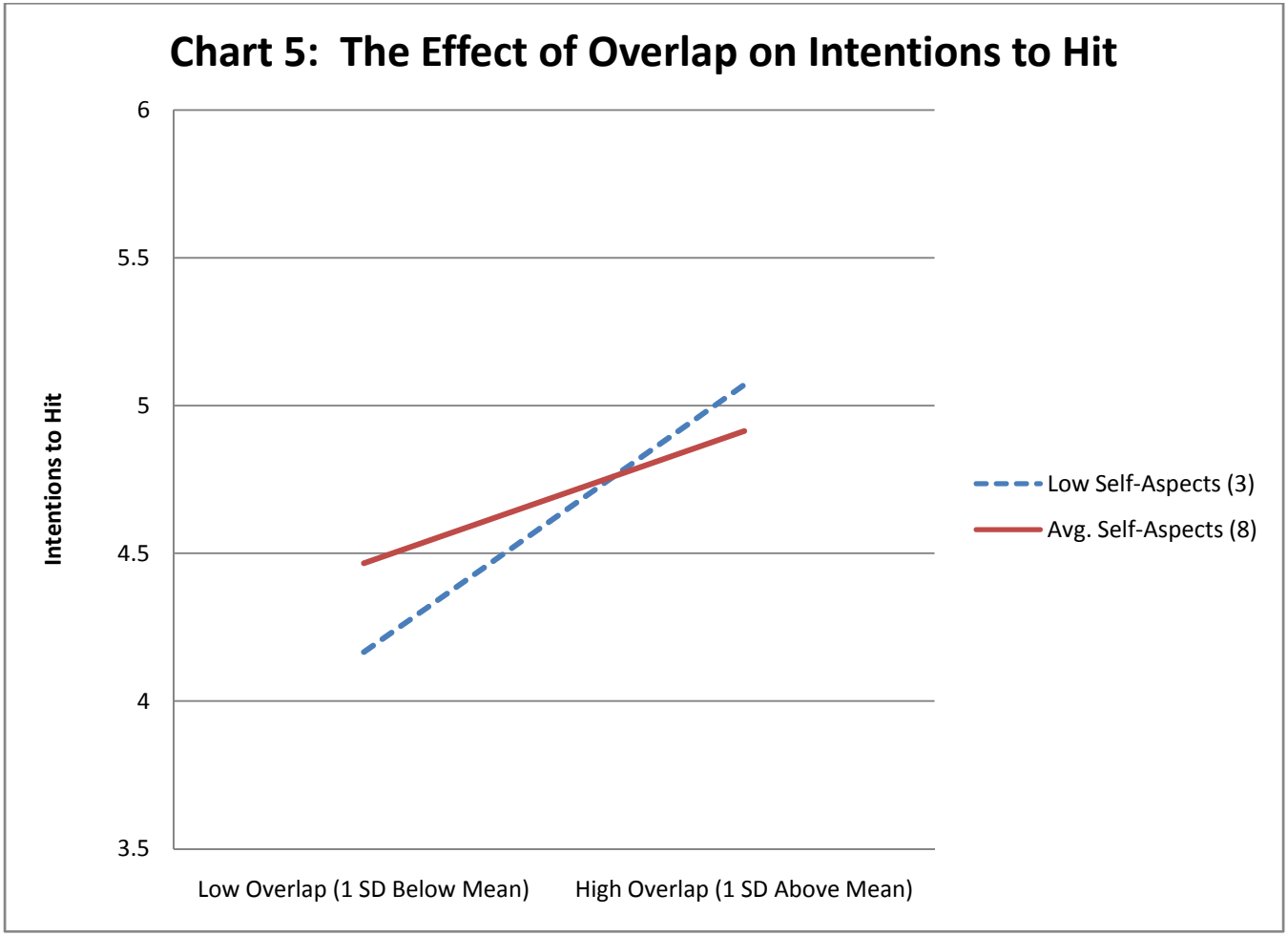
Chart 5: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Hit
Intentions to Hit
6
5.5
5
4.5
4
3.5
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Avg. Self-Aspects (8)

A number of control variables predicted intentions to hit another person mostly in the theoretically expected direction (See Table 38). Those who responded with the scenario with higher levels of anger were more likely to intend to hit the antagonist in the fighting scenario. This situational emotion exerted the strongest effect in the model (beta = 0.265). Believing that the character's behavior was unjustified also led to a higher likelihood of intending to offend as anticipated. Those who had hit someone in the past 12 months, those with a more negative label of self, and males were more likely to say they would behave in this way. As expected, those who are higher in negative emotionality and lower in constraint were more likely to indicate they would hit the other person in this situation. Those with strong moral beliefs against hitting others, those who receive help from family members more often, and those who describe themselves more negatively were less likely to intend to offend. Those who describe self negatively may be less likely to hit another person because this characteristic is correlated with being depressed on average (r=0.20), being depressed in the fighting situation (r=0.12), and having a lower self-esteem (r=0.17) which may result in a higher likelihood of withdrawal type behaviors rather than active behaviors. Finally, mother's education level reduced crime while father's education level increased intentions to offend. It is unclear why an increase in father's education would increase the likelihood of offending.

Shoplifting Scenario

Next, I present linear regression models predicting intentions to shoplift (See Table 40). The log of this variable was taken to reduce skewness. Self-complexity does not appear to be an important factor in whether people decide to shoplift as shown in the

full model and the reduced model. The number of aspects and overlap also fail to predict intentions to shoplift.

Believing that the professor's policy is unfair increased the likelihood that respondents would shoplift if they experienced this situation. Those who are higher in constraint and strongly believe that shoplifting is wrong were less likely to report that they would shoplift. Having friends who have shoplifted increased the likelihood of the respondents intending to behave similarly. Finally, higher levels of mother's education reduced intentions to offend while higher levels of father's education increased intentions to offend. A similar relationship was found between intentions to hit and father's educational attainment.

Table 40: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.004 (-0.021)	(0.012)	0.001 (0.006)	(0.012)	0.001 (0.004)	(0.009)	0.003 (0.015)	(0.009)
Percent Overlap	-0.002 (-0.054)	(0.003)	-0.002 (-0.059)	(0.003)	0.000 (-0.012)	(0.002)	-0.001 (-0.019)	(0.002)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.101)	(0.001)			0.000 (0.057)	(0.000)
Situational Anger	0.006 (0.020)	(0.022)	0.006 (0.018)	(0.022)				
Situational Frustration	-0.032 (-0.056)	(0.040)	-0.030 (-0.052)	(0.040)				
Situational Depression	-0.028 (-0.090)	(0.021)	-0.028 (-0.089)	(0.021)				
Unfair	0.071 (0.215)	(0.021) ***	0.073 (0.220)	(0.021) ***	0.048 (0.147)	(0.016) **	0.049 (0.149)	(0.016) **
Grades Important	0.037 (0.072)	(0.036)	0.038 (0.073)	(0.035)				
Shoplift	0.024 (0.067)	(0.025)	0.024 (0.066)	(0.025)				
Academic Strain	0.004 (0.017)	(0.015)	0.003 (0.012)	(0.015)				
Trait Anger	-0.010 (-0.050)	(0.017)	-0.003 (-0.017)	(0.017)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.015 (-0.026)	(0.039)	-0.011 (-0.019)	(0.039)				
Self Label	0.020 (0.098)	(0.015)	0.021 (0.103)	(0.015)				
Negative Emotionality	0.018 (0.012)	(0.149)	-0.025 (-0.016)	(0.151)				

Table 40: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Constraint	-0.209 (-0.139)	(0.124) +	-0.208 (-0.138)	(0.123) +	-0.212 (-0.142)	(0.080) **	-0.212 (-0.142)	(0.080) **
Close to Family	0.014 (0.013)	(0.071)	0.006 (0.005)	(0.071)				
School Commitment	-0.017 (-0.045)	(0.026)	-0.016 (-0.043)	(0.026)				
Grades	0.087 (0.106)	(0.058)	0.076 (0.092)	(0.058)				
Involvement	0.014 (0.039)	(0.023)	0.004 (0.013)	(0.024)				
Situational Morals	-0.370 (-0.343)	(0.083) ***	-0.379 (-0.351)	(0.083) ***	-0.448 (-0.408)	(0.063) ***	-0.449 (-0.408)	(0.063) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.004 (0.005)	(0.069)	-0.002 (-0.002)	(0.069)				
Criminal Peers	0.151 (0.141)	(0.082) +	0.143 (0.134)	(0.082) +	0.191 (0.187)	(0.057) ***	0.190 (0.186)	(0.057) ***
Age	0.006 (0.011)	(0.035)	0.001 (0.001)	(0.035)				
Male	0.094 (0.055)	(0.111)	0.087 (0.051)	(0.111)				
White	0.038 (0.025)	(0.173)	0.023 (0.015)	(0.172)				
Asian	0.202 (0.122)	(0.173)	0.222 (0.134)	(0.173)				
Other	0.165 (0.057)	(0.232)	0.108 (0.038)	(0.234)				
Mom Education	-0.057 (-0.133)	(0.034) +	-0.051 (-0.118)	(0.034)	-0.035 (-0.081)	(0.028)	-0.033 (-0.076)	(0.028)

Table 40: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Shoplift

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Dad Education	0.059 (0.135)	(0.034) +	0.055 (0.126)	(0.034)	0.060 (0.140)	(0.028) *	0.061 (0.141)	(0.028) *
Low Income	-0.158 (-0.071)	(0.157)	-0.152 (-0.068)	(0.157)				
Self-efficacy	0.012 (0.054)	(0.019)	0.014 (0.064)	(0.019)				
Self-esteem	-0.002 (-0.015)	(0.012)	-0.003 (-0.020)	(0.012)				
# Talk Problems	0.004 (0.004)	(0.061)	0.004 (0.004)	(0.060)				
Help Often	0.016 (0.017)	(0.069)	0.021 (0.022)	(0.068)				
Probability Negative Traits	0.185 (0.025)	(0.525)	0.003 (0.000)	(0.536)				
Constant	1.652	(1.239)	1.930	(1.247)	3.051	(0.383) ***	3.034	(0.383) ***
N	199		199		259		259	
R-Squared	0.504		0.512		0.397		0.3996	
Adj R-Squared	0.402		0.407		0.377		0.3779	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Drug/Alcohol Use Scenario

I examine the effect of self-complexity on intentions to drink alcohol (See Table 41). The interaction, self-aspects, nor overlap influenced intentions to drink in the full model. When I remove the variables that clearly did not predict intentions to drink, the interaction between the number of self-aspects and overlap is significant and negative. After exploring the effect of overlap on intentions to drink at different levels of self-aspects, I find a similar pattern as the fighting scenario. Although not quite reaching significance at the 0.10 level, the sign between overlap and intentions to drink is positive as expected when self-aspects are low (See Table 42 and Chart 6). In addition, at higher levels of self-aspects, higher amounts of overlap led to a lower likelihood of intending to drink. This finding is somewhat surprising because individuals with more self-aspects who view themselves similarly among them, are only partially higher in self-complexity. It may be that when individuals are juggling 17 self-aspects or more, then self-aspects only buffer the effect of stress on intentions to offend if they are similar. When people have such a large number of self-aspects, then viewing self differently between these will probably increase stress because they may have competing expectations with which to contend.

Table 41: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.007 (-0.011)	(0.031)	-0.013 (-0.020)	(0.031)	-0.019 (-0.029)	(0.025)	-0.028 (-0.044)	(0.026)
Percent Overlap	0.000 (0.000)	(0.008)	0.000 (0.001)	(0.008)	-0.001 (-0.004)	(0.006)	0.000 (0.002)	(0.006)
# of Aspects x Overlap			-0.002 (-0.049)	(0.002)			-0.002 (-0.074)	(0.001) +
Situational Anger	0.168 (0.131)	(0.077) *	0.165 (0.128)	(0.077) *	0.135 (0.105)	(0.056) *	0.126 (0.097)	(0.056) *
Situational Frustration	0.026 (0.016)	(0.096)	0.028 (0.018)	(0.096)				
Situational Depression	0.117 (0.104)	(0.060) +	0.118 (0.105)	(0.060) +	0.116 (0.103)	(0.048) *	0.119 (0.105)	(0.048) *
Unfair	0.103 (0.097)	(0.056) +	0.103 (0.096)	(0.056) +	0.089 (0.083)	(0.044) *	0.083 (0.077)	(0.044) +
Grades Important	-0.042 (-0.024)	(0.101)	-0.038 (-0.022)	(0.101)				
Past Crime	0.347 (0.287)	(0.070) ***	0.354 (0.292)	(0.071) ***	0.307 (0.253)	(0.058) ***	0.305 (0.252)	(0.057) ***
Academic Strain	-0.015 (-0.020)	(0.041)	-0.014 (-0.018)	(0.042)				
Trait Anger	0.062 (0.090)	(0.047)	0.056 (0.081)	(0.048)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.032 (0.016)	(0.109)	0.021 (0.011)	(0.109)				
Self Label	0.057 (0.077)	(0.043)	0.054 (0.073)	(0.043)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.544 (-0.101)	(0.388)	-0.515 (-0.096)	(0.389)				

Table 41: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Constraint	-0.714 (-0.131)	(0.349) *	-0.733 (-0.135)	(0.350) *	-0.818 (-0.150)	(0.226) ***	-0.801 (-0.147)	(0.225) ***
Close to Family	-0.109 (-0.030)	(0.198)	-0.095 (-0.026)	(0.199)				
School Commitment	-0.008 (-0.006)	(0.072)	-0.008 (-0.006)	(0.072)				
Grades	-0.176 (-0.061)	(0.157)	-0.154 (-0.053)	(0.159)				
Involvement	-0.064 (-0.051)	(0.063)	-0.051 (-0.041)	(0.065)				
Situational Morals	-1.067 (-0.448)	(0.144) ***	-1.067 (-0.448)	(0.144) ***	-1.167 (-0.482)	(0.107) ***	-1.172 (-0.484)	(0.107) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.131 (0.058)	(0.129)	0.139 (0.061)	(0.129)				
Criminal Peers	0.286 (0.122)	(0.143) *	0.288 (0.123)	(0.143) *	0.247 (0.105)	(0.107) *	0.266 (0.112)	(0.107) *
Age	0.147 (0.078)	(0.096)	0.151 (0.080)	(0.096)				
Male	0.098 (0.017)	(0.285)	0.091 (0.016)	(0.285)				
White	-0.293 (-0.055)	(0.495)	-0.295 (-0.055)	(0.495)				
Asian	0.162 (0.027)	(0.493)	0.112 (0.019)	(0.496)				
Other	-0.288 (-0.030)	(0.642)	-0.240 (-0.025)	(0.644)				
Mom Education	-0.012 (-0.008)	(0.093)	-0.023 (-0.015)	(0.094)				

Table 41: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Drink

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Dad Education	0.099	(0.090)	0.100	(0.090)				
	(0.064)		(0.065)					
Low Income	-0.222	(0.426)	-0.249	(0.427)				
	(-0.028)		(-0.031)					
Self-efficacy	-0.016	(0.053)	-0.018	(0.053)				
	(-0.020)		(-0.023)					
Self-esteem	-0.019	(0.034)	-0.020	(0.034)				
	(-0.037)		(-0.038)					
# Talk Problems	0.229	(0.163)	0.224	(0.163)				
	(0.071)		(0.070)					
Help Often	0.011	(0.189)	0.011	(0.189)				
	(0.003)		(0.003)					
Probability Negative Traits	-0.899	(1.434)	-0.546	(1.479)				
	(-0.033)		(-0.020)					
Constant	5.556	(3.303) +	5.388	(3.308)	7.696	(0.993) ***	7.681	(0.988) ***
N	232		232		297		297	
R-Squared	0.625		0.627		0.581		0.5862	
Adj R-Squared	0.561		0.561		0.568		0.5718	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 42: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Drink at Different Levels of Self-Aspects

# of Aspects	Intercept	Slope	SE	T-test
0	7.197	0.019	0.012	1.581
1	7.254	0.017	0.011	1.523
2	7.311	0.015	0.010	1.449
3	7.368	0.012	0.009	1.350
4	7.425	0.010	0.008	1.218
5	7.482	0.008	0.007	1.042
6	7.538	0.006	0.007	0.809
7	7.595	0.003	0.006	0.512
8	7.652	0.001	0.006	0.159
9	7.709	-0.001	0.006	-0.220
10	7.766	-0.004	0.006	-0.582
11	7.823	-0.006	0.007	-0.891
12	7.880	-0.008	0.007	-1.134
13	7.937	-0.010	0.008	-1.316
14	7.994	-0.013	0.009	-1.450
15	8.051	-0.015	0.010	-1.547
16	8.108	-0.017	0.011	-1.618
17	8.165	-0.020	0.012	-1.671
18	8.222	-0.022	0.013	-1.711
19	8.279	-0.024	0.014	-1.742
20	8.336	-0.026	0.015	-1.766
21	8.393	-0.029	0.016	-1.785
22	8.450	-0.031	0.017	-1.800
23	8.507	-0.033	0.018	-1.812
24	8.564	-0.035	0.019	-1.822
25	8.621	-0.038	0.021	-1.830

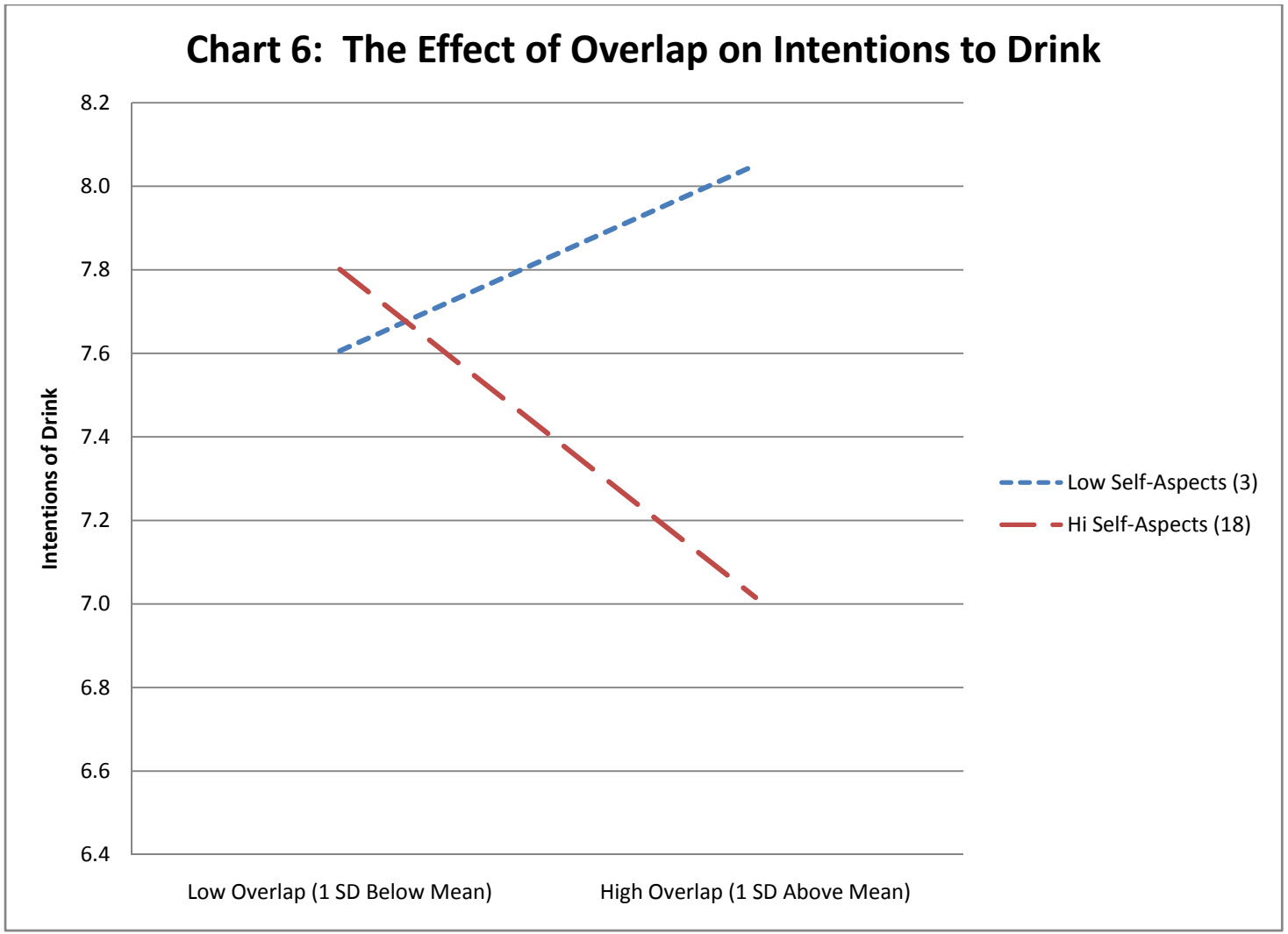
Chart 6: The Effect of Overlap on Intentions to Drink
Intentions of Drink
8.2
8.0
7.8
7.6
7.4
7.2
7.0
6.8
6.6
6.4
Low Overlap (1 SD Below Mean)
High Overlap (1 SD Above Mean)
Low Self-Aspects (3)
Hi Self-Aspects (18)

The control variables followed the theoretically predicted patterns. Specifically, expressing more situational anger and depressed mood, believing the situation is unfair, having a history of binge drinking, and having friends that drink all increased the likelihood of intentions to drink. Being higher in constraint and believing drinking is wrong lowered the likelihood of intending to drink. Moral beliefs against drinking is the strongest predictor of intending to drink (beta = -0.448).

I present linear regression models predicting the log of intentions to use drugs to reduce skewness in this variable (See Table 43). The number of aspects and overlap did not predict intentions to use drugs (See Full Model 1). No interaction effects were detected for drug use either in the full or reduced model.

Those who said they would be depressed in this scenario, viewed the situation as unfair, had used marijuana in the past, and were depressed on average were more likely to say they would use drugs. Believing drugs are wrong reduced the likelihood of intending to use drugs.

Table 43: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	-0.007 (-0.037)	(0.009)	-0.006 (-0.033)	(0.009)	-0.004 (-0.021)	(0.007)	-0.004 (-0.024)	(0.007)
Percent Overlap	-0.003 (-0.074)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.075)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.061)	(0.002)	-0.003 (-0.058)	(0.002)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.000 (0.020)	(0.000)			0.000 (-0.016)	(0.000)
Situational Anger	0.036 (0.096)	(0.023)	0.037 (0.098)	(0.023)				
Situational Frustration	-0.026 (-0.056)	(0.027)	-0.026 (-0.057)	(0.027)				
Situational Depression	0.036 (0.108)	(0.018) *	0.036 (0.109)	(0.018) *	0.020 (0.062)	(0.013)	0.021 (0.063)	(0.013)
Unfair	0.045 (0.142)	(0.017) **	0.045 (0.142)	(0.017) **	0.039 (0.125)	(0.012) ***	0.038 (0.123)	(0.012) **
Grades Important	-0.031 (-0.062)	(0.030)	-0.032 (-0.063)	(0.030)				
Past Crime	0.168 (0.413)	(0.025) ***	0.168 (0.413)	(0.025) ***	0.179 (0.441)	(0.019) ***	0.179 (0.441)	(0.019) ***
Academic Strain	-0.007 (-0.029)	(0.012)	-0.007 (-0.029)	(0.012)				
Trait Anger	-0.001 (-0.003)	(0.014)	0.000 (0.001)	(0.014)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.056 (0.096)	(0.032) +	0.057 (0.098)	(0.033) +	0.034 (0.066)	(0.021) +	0.034 (0.064)	(0.021)
Self Label	0.010 (0.048)	(0.013)	0.011 (0.050)	(0.013)				
Negative Emotionality	-0.012 (-0.007)	(0.114)	-0.016 (-0.010)	(0.115)				

Table 43: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Constraint	-0.145 (-0.092)	(0.100)	-0.142 (-0.091)	(0.101)				
Close to Family	0.031 (0.030)	(0.058)	0.030 (0.029)	(0.058)				
School Commitment	0.007 (0.020)	(0.021)	0.008 (0.020)	(0.022)				
Grades	-0.057 (-0.067)	(0.047)	-0.060 (-0.071)	(0.047)				
Involvement	0.016 (0.045)	(0.018)	0.014 (0.040)	(0.018)				
Situational Morals	-0.193 (-0.290)	(0.043) ***	-0.192 (-0.289)	(0.043) ***	-0.266 (-0.400)	(0.031) ***	-0.267 (-0.401)	(0.031) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	0.009 (0.016)	(0.038)	0.009 (0.014)	(0.038)				
Criminal Peers	0.066 (0.102)	(0.045)	0.064 (0.100)	(0.045)				
Age	0.022 (0.040)	(0.028)	0.021 (0.039)	(0.028)				
Male	0.092 (0.055)	(0.083)	0.094 (0.055)	(0.083)				
White	0.049 (0.031)	(0.144)	0.047 (0.030)	(0.145)				
Asian	0.173 (0.099)	(0.147)	0.177 (0.101)	(0.148)				
Other	-0.137 (-0.048)	(0.186)	-0.144 (-0.051)	(0.187)				
Mom Education	0.002 (0.004)	(0.028)	0.003 (0.006)	(0.028)				

Table 43: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Use Drugs

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Dad Education	0.038	(0.028)	0.038	(0.028)				
	(0.084)		(0.085)					
Low Income	-0.021	(0.124)	-0.017	(0.125)				
	(-0.009)		(-0.007)					
Self-efficacy	0.013	(0.016)	0.013	(0.016)				
	(0.055)		(0.057)					
Self-esteem	-0.002	(0.010)	-0.002	(0.010)				
	(-0.013)		(-0.013)					
# Talk Problems	-0.021	(0.047)	-0.020	(0.048)				
	(-0.022)		(-0.021)					
Help Often	-0.069	(0.056)	-0.068	(0.056)				
	(-0.070)		(-0.069)					
Probability Negative Traits	0.219	(0.450)	0.187	(0.458)				
	(0.027)		(0.023)					
Constant	0.575	(0.965)	0.590	(0.968)	1.000	(0.165) ***	1.005	(0.166) ***
N	221		221		301		301	
R-Squared	0.645		0.646		0.583		0.5833	
Adj R-Squared	0.581		0.579		0.573		0.5719	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Cheating Scenario

Finally, I examine the effect of self-complexity on the likelihood of cheating controlling for perceptions of the severity of strain and situational emotions (See Table 44). Somewhat surprisingly, those who described more self-aspects were more likely to respond that they would cheat in this scenario (See Model 1, Reduced Model). Neither overlap nor the interaction term affect intentions to cheat. It is possible that someone with more self-aspects realize that they have many important parts of their life that take up time that could prevent them from studying for an exam. Therefore, people with numerous self-aspects may see cheating as a viable option when they are busy with other priorities.

Not surprising, prior experience cheating and having a deviant label of self predicts higher intentions to cheat. Believing cheating is wrong reduces cheating intentions, exerting the strongest effect. Being closer to family increases the likelihood of saying one would cheat. It may be that Emory students are under a lot of pressure to succeed academically from their parents and choose cheating as a way to live up to expectations. Finally, having more non-family members one can talk to about problems reduces the likelihood of cheating intentions.

Table 44: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Number of Aspects	0.054 (0.095)	(0.035)	0.063 (0.110)	(0.037) +	0.048 (0.080)	(0.024) *	0.047 (0.079)	(0.024) +
Percent Overlap	0.001 (0.009)	(0.009)	0.001 (0.004)	(0.010)	0.003 (0.018)	(0.006)	0.003 (0.019)	(0.006)
# of Aspects x Overlap			0.001 (0.046)	(0.002)			0.000 (-0.008)	(0.001)
Situational Anger	0.116 (0.110)	(0.075)	0.114 (0.107)	(0.076)				
Situational Frustration	-0.094 (-0.072)	(0.104)	-0.094 (-0.072)	(0.104)				
Situational Depression	0.034 (0.032)	(0.075)	0.036 (0.034)	(0.076)				
Unfair	0.008 (0.006)	(0.082)	0.005 (0.004)	(0.082)				
Grades Important	-0.008 (-0.004)	(0.122)	-0.007 (-0.004)	(0.122)				
Past Crime	0.574 (0.259)	(0.156) ***	0.569 (0.257)	(0.157) ***	0.543 (0.240)	(0.101) ***	0.544 (0.240)	(0.101) ***
Academic Strain	-0.027 (-0.037)	(0.053)	-0.027 (-0.036)	(0.053)				
Trait Anger	0.062 (0.094)	(0.054)	0.071 (0.107)	(0.056)				
Avg # of Days Depressed	-0.165 (-0.089)	(0.132)	-0.150 (-0.081)	(0.134)				
Self Label	0.090 (0.129)	(0.050) +	0.092 (0.131)	(0.050) +	0.078 (0.111)	(0.031) *	0.078 (0.110)	(0.031) *
Negative Emotionality	0.002 (0.000)	(0.466)	-0.066 (-0.013)	(0.477)				

Table 44: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Constraint	-0.101 (-0.020)	(0.407)	-0.072 (-0.015)	(0.410)				
Close to Family	0.864 (0.251)	(0.238) ***	0.859 (0.249)	(0.239) ***	0.576 (0.169)	(0.138) ***	0.578 (0.170)	(0.139) ***
School Commitment	-0.057 (-0.043)	(0.100)	-0.058 (-0.044)	(0.100)				
Grades	-0.058 (-0.021)	(0.197)	-0.082 (-0.030)	(0.200)				
Involvement	0.027 (0.020)	(0.083)	0.018 (0.014)	(0.085)				
Situational Morals	-1.365 (-0.450)	(0.219) ***	-1.398 (-0.461)	(0.225) ***	-1.541 (-0.532)	(0.133) ***	-1.539 (-0.531)	(0.134) ***
Situational Friends' Morals	-0.134 (-0.049)	(0.194)	-0.146 (-0.054)	(0.196)				
Criminal Peers	0.288 (0.099)	(0.217)	0.272 (0.093)	(0.219)				
Age	0.105 (0.055)	(0.121)	0.097 (0.051)	(0.122)				
Male	-0.303 (-0.054)	(0.353)	-0.314 (-0.056)	(0.354)				
White	-0.003 (-0.001)	(0.605)	-0.018 (-0.004)	(0.607)				
Asian	-0.220 (-0.039)	(0.607)	-0.204 (-0.036)	(0.609)				
Other	-0.740 (-0.079)	(0.802)	-0.806 (-0.086)	(0.809)				
Mom Education	0.020 (0.013)	(0.115)	0.029 (0.019)	(0.116)				

Table 44: Linear Regression Predicting Intentions to Cheat

	Full Models				Reduced Models			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)	Coeff (Beta)	(SE)
Dad Education	0.177	(0.116)	0.168	(0.117)				
	(0.114)		(0.108)					
Low Income	0.349	(0.510)	0.356	(0.511)				
	(0.043)		(0.044)					
Self-efficacy	0.068	(0.065)	0.069	(0.065)				
	(0.087)		(0.088)					
Self-esteem	-0.038	(0.043)	-0.036	(0.043)				
	(-0.078)		(-0.073)					
# Talk Problems	-0.420	(0.196) *	-0.404	(0.198) *	-0.335	(0.123) **	-0.335	(0.123) **
	(-0.132)		(-0.127)		(-0.111)		(-0.112)	
Help Often	-0.381	(0.247)	-0.384	(0.248)				
	(-0.116)		(-0.117)					
Probability Negative Traits	-1.386	(1.795)	-1.819	(1.906)				
	(-0.052)		(-0.069)					
Constant	5.989	(4.333)	6.410	(4.384)	8.520	(0.863) ***	8.510	(0.866) ***
N	173		173		307		307	
R-Squared	0.606		0.608		0.538		0.5382	
Adj R-Squared	0.509		0.507		0.527		0.5258	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

In sum, some limited support was found for sub-hypothesis 1c. Specifically, I argue that self-complexity should predict intentions to offend even when controlling for the severity of strain and situational emotions, because S-C serves as an additional coping resource when dealing with strain. Once again, the findings for the fighting scenario provided the strongest results. Those who are lower in self-complexity were more likely to believe they would respond to this situation through hitting the other person. No support was found for the shoplifting or cheating scenario. For the cheating scenario, having more self-aspects predicted intentions to cheat contrary to expectations that self-aspects would be one component that would reduce intentions to cheat. Partial support was found for intentions to drink but not intentions to use drugs. Although not significant, the relationship between overlap and intentions to drink is positive at low levels of self-aspects. Contrary to expectations, higher amounts of overlap predicted lower intentions to drink among those with many self-aspects. As expected, self-complexity as measured by H was not significant in any of the models predicting intentions to offend.

Does Self-Complexity Moderate the Relationship Between Prior Strain and Prior Crime?

In this section, I examine sub-hypothesis 1c with cross-sectional data; specifically I examine whether those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to engage in crime as a result of strain than those who are higher in self-complexity controlling for trait emotions. I test this argument through examining the three-way interaction of strain, the number of self-aspects, and overlap arguing that when strain is high, the number of

self-aspects are low, and overlap is high, an individual will be more likely to engage in crime than when someone has many self-aspects with little overlap. I also examine the two-way interaction terms between strain and the number of aspects and strain and the degree of overlap. Strain should be less likely to lead to crime when someone has many aspects. Likewise, strain should be less likely to lead to crime when overlap is low.

As can be seen in Full Model 1, Table 45, those with more overlap were less likely to have committed serious crime in the past year contrary to expectations. In Model 3 and 4, I examine the interaction between aspects and strain and overlap and strain. These interactions are not significant.

Finally, I examine the three-way interaction arguing that the effect of strain on crime depends on both the number of self-aspects and the amount of overlap. As can be seen in Model 4, Table 45, this interaction is significant. In order to determine the conditional relationship between self-complexity and strain, I choose values for both aspects and overlap. Specifically, I examined the effect of strain on crime at different levels of self-aspects for overlap at 100%, one standard deviation above the mean, one standard deviation below the mean, and for no overlap (See Table 12 Above). As shown in hypothesis 1, those who have few self-aspects and high overlap were more likely to respond to strain with serious crime.

Table 45: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.0129	(0.0117)	0.0103	(0.0122)	0.0135	(0.0117)	0.0104	(0.0116)
Number of Aspects	-0.0433	(0.0448)	-0.0475	(0.0440)	-0.0448	(0.0442)	-0.0357	(0.0423)
Percent Overlap	-0.0190	(0.0101) +	-0.0206	(0.0103) *	-0.0203	(0.0105) +	-0.0244	(0.0107) *
# of Aspects x Strain			-0.0025	(0.0029)			-0.0034	(0.0030)
Overlap x Strain					0.0002	(0.0005)	-0.0001	(0.0006)
# of Aspects x Overlap							-0.0007	(0.0027)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0004	(0.0002) *
Trait Anger	0.0969	(0.0613)	0.0881	(0.0614)	0.0898	(0.0630)	0.0856	(0.0581)
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.1530	(0.1377)	0.1425	(0.1393)	0.1490	(0.1365)	0.0831	(0.1332)
Self Label	0.0805	(0.0587)	0.0764	(0.0586)	0.0830	(0.0582)	0.0914	(0.0525) +
Negative Emotionality	0.2540	(0.5231)	0.3431	(0.5328)	0.2705	(0.5192)	0.5331	(0.4910)
Constraint	-1.2164	(0.4457) **	-1.2185	(0.4430) **	-1.1926	(0.4446) **	-1.2253	(0.4093) **
Close to Family	0.0707	(0.2150)	0.0750	(0.2150)	0.0741	(0.2131)	0.1412	(0.2018)
School Commitment	-0.0207	(0.0785)	-0.0357	(0.0803)	-0.0174	(0.0781)	0.0073	(0.0749)
Grades	-0.3761	(0.2021) +	-0.3816	(0.1997) +	-0.3763	(0.2002) +	-0.3967	(0.1863) *
Involvement	0.0446	(0.0764)	0.0512	(0.0771)	0.0396	(0.0763)	0.1125	(0.0800)
Morals	0.2660	(0.0773) ***	0.2735	(0.0772) ***	0.2677	(0.0766) ***	0.2390	(0.0739) ***
Friends' Morals	-0.1624	(0.0574) **	-0.1567	(0.0575) **	-0.1660	(0.0576) **	-0.1560	(0.0541) **
Criminal Peers	0.1476	(0.0717) *	0.1599	(0.0734) *	0.1410	(0.0723) +	0.1112	(0.0689)
Age	0.0784	(0.1216)	0.0776	(0.1217)	0.0830	(0.1209)	0.0798	(0.1168)
Male	0.8467	(0.3679) *	0.8592	(0.3659) *	0.8332	(0.3641) *	0.8241	(0.3369) *
White	-1.0748	(0.6241) +	-1.0606	(0.6199) +	-1.0416	(0.6185) +	-0.8317	(0.5672)
Asian	-0.8186	(0.6333)	-0.8466	(0.6337)	-0.7697	(0.6352)	-0.7007	(0.5943)
Other	-1.0787	(0.7550)	-1.0354	(0.7509)	-1.0481	(0.7493)	-1.1857	(0.7045) +
Mom Education	0.5173	(0.1347) ***	0.5038	(0.1353) ***	0.5115	(0.1339) ***	0.4932	(0.1278) ***
Dad Education	-0.1015	(0.1306)	-0.0761	(0.1341)	-0.0956	(0.1299)	-0.0400	(0.1256)
Low Income	-0.0460	(0.7670)	0.0481	(0.7737)	-0.0562	(0.7622)	-0.0036	(0.7550)
Self-efficacy	-0.0693	(0.0696)	-0.0601	(0.0705)	-0.0650	(0.0694)	-0.0729	(0.0638)
Self-esteem	0.1379	(0.0499) **	0.1338	(0.0500) **	0.1391	(0.0497) **	0.1632	(0.0503) ***
# Talk Problems	-0.3142	(0.2281)	-0.3334	(0.2275)	-0.3055	(0.2271)	-0.3887	(0.2192) +

Table 45: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Help Often	-0.0108	(0.2297)	-0.0064	(0.2287)	-0.0117	(0.2277)	0.0314	(0.2120)
Probability Negative Traits	2.2445	(1.6301)	2.6298	(1.7186)	2.4557	(1.6731)	3.4810	(1.6469) *
Constant	-5.1091	(4.9619)	-5.3799	(4.9780)	-5.4226	(4.9600)	-6.8978	(4.7058)
Alpha	-0.5452	(0.5708) ***	-0.5796	(0.5905) ***	-0.6013	(0.6110) ***	-1.2440	(1.0961) ***
N	170		170		170		170	
Log-Likelihood	-137.13		-136.76		-137.04		-133.70	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.230		0.232		0.230		0.249	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Next, I examine the effect of the interactions on serious crime in the model only including significant control variables. As shown in Model 1, Table 46, higher levels of strain leads to a higher likelihood of engaging in serious crime as expected by GST. Those who are higher in overlap were less likely to report engaging in serious crime, contrary to expectations. The two-way interactions between strain and aspects and strain and overlap were not significant (See Models 2 and 3). Finally, in the reduced model, the three-way interaction was not significant.

In sum, support was found for the three-way interaction in the full model only. Strain has the strongest effect on crime when self-aspects are extremely low and overlap is extremely high, as expected. The effect of strain on crime becomes weaker as the degree of overlap decreases as expected. Interestingly, having more self-aspects eventually results in a negative relationship between strain and crime and this is more so the case with individuals who have numerous self-aspects (Model 1, Table 12).

Table 46: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Serious Crime (Reduced Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.0281	(0.0115)	*	0.0268	(0.0118)	*	0.0283	(0.0115)	*	0.0312	(0.0124)	*
Number of Aspects	-0.0413	(0.0434)		-0.0399	(0.0434)		-0.0398	(0.0436)		-0.0009	(0.0473)	
Percent Overlap	-0.0204	(0.0105)	+	-0.0210	(0.0106)	*	-0.0205	(0.0105)	*	-0.0218	(0.0109)	*
# of Aspects x Strain				-0.0016	(0.0031)					-0.0032	(0.0035)	
Overlap x Strain							0.0001	(0.0005)		0.0000	(0.0006)	
# of Aspects x Overlap										0.0046	(0.0026)	+
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										-0.0002	(0.0002)	
Constraint	-1.1797	(0.4376)	**	-1.1642	(0.4395)	**	-1.1700	(0.4384)	**	-1.0245	(0.4375)	*
Grades	-0.1940	(0.1927)		-0.2019	(0.1936)		-0.1908	(0.1927)		-0.2529	(0.1958)	
Morals	0.1737	(0.0737)	*	0.1766	(0.0739)	*	0.1712	(0.0742)	*	0.1587	(0.0746)	*
Friends' Morals	-0.1601	(0.0644)	*	-0.1551	(0.0651)	*	-0.1609	(0.0643)	*	-0.1382	(0.0645)	*
Criminal Peers	0.1511	(0.0790)	+	0.1615	(0.0822)	*	0.1485	(0.0796)	+	0.1564	(0.0823)	+
Male	0.2013	(0.3687)		0.2101	(0.3698)		0.2120	(0.3708)		0.2601	(0.3728)	
White	-1.9352	(0.5643)	***	-1.9534	(0.5681)	***	-1.9231	(0.5659)	***	-1.7211	(0.5770)	**
Asian	-1.6750	(0.5538)	**	-1.7027	(0.5582)	**	-1.6567	(0.5581)	**	-1.5938	(0.5611)	**
Other	-1.4543	(0.6801)	*	-1.4434	(0.6814)	*	-1.4483	(0.6795)	*	-1.4384	(0.6766)	*
Mom Education	0.4879	(0.1230)	***	0.4821	(0.1238)	***	0.4865	(0.1229)	***	0.5098	(0.1263)	***
Self-esteem	0.0442	(0.0384)		0.0419	(0.0388)		0.0442	(0.0383)		0.0510	(0.0392)	
Constant	0.8506	(2.1870)		0.7962	(2.1913)		0.8399	(2.1786)		0.1076	(2.2069)	
Alpha	0.5677	(0.2779)	***	0.5731	(0.2775)	***	0.5631	(0.2790)	***	0.5060	(0.2821)	***
N	199			199			199			199		
Log-Likelihood	-179.48			-179.35			-179.45			-177.31		
Pseudo R-Squared	0.146			0.147			0.146			0.157		

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Next I examine the relationship between strain and property crime at different levels of aspects and overlap with all possible control variables (See Table 47). I present four models. The first includes only the main effects of strain, overlap and aspects on property crime. The second model explores the interaction between aspects and strain followed by model three which examines the interaction between overlap and strain. The final model presents the interaction between all three variables.

As predicted by general strain theory, those who experience more strain are more likely to engage in crime. None of the interactions are significant in the full model.

Table 47: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	-0.0264	(0.0145) +	-0.0224	(0.0145)	-0.0279	(0.0145) +	-0.0151	(0.0161)
Number of Aspects	-0.0425	(0.0527)	-0.0429	(0.0551)	-0.0461	(0.0529)	-0.0386	(0.0585)
Percent Overlap	0.0050	(0.0135)	0.0058	(0.0133)	0.0049	(0.0134)	0.0135	(0.0145)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0051	(0.0039)			0.0077	(0.0051)
Overlap x Strain					0.0005	(0.0007)	0.0001	(0.0009)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0029	(0.0039)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0004	(0.0002)
Trait Anger	-0.0550	(0.0792)	-0.0367	(0.0803)	-0.0643	(0.0803)	-0.0068	(0.0847)
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.3214	(0.1837) +	0.3458	(0.1773) +	0.3283	(0.1845) +	0.3664	(0.1838) *
Self Label	0.0697	(0.0714)	0.0756	(0.0703)	0.0697	(0.0708)	0.0821	(0.0699)
Negative Emotionality	1.1314	(0.6558) +	1.0347	(0.6537)	1.2192	(0.6692) +	0.8995	(0.6670)
Constraint	-0.4395	(0.5794)	-0.3800	(0.5709)	-0.3694	(0.5872)	-0.2677	(0.5649)
Close to Family	-0.3512	(0.3331)	-0.3479	(0.3246)	-0.3522	(0.3302)	-0.3382	(0.3189)
School Commitment	-0.1537	(0.1211)	-0.1429	(0.1186)	-0.1626	(0.1202)	-0.1141	(0.1181)
Grades	0.0948	(0.2790)	0.1416	(0.2811)	0.1017	(0.2767)	0.1758	(0.2827)
Involvement	0.0281	(0.1013)	0.0027	(0.1021)	0.0109	(0.1032)	0.0816	(0.1128)
Morals	-0.1228	(0.1016)	-0.1365	(0.1018)	-0.1063	(0.1038)	-0.1684	(0.1062)
Friends' Morals	0.0809	(0.0819)	0.0676	(0.0817)	0.0685	(0.0824)	0.0700	(0.0801)
Criminal Peers	0.3181	(0.1031) **	0.2853	(0.1027) **	0.3170	(0.1034) **	0.2453	(0.1028) *
Age	-0.2589	(0.1596)	-0.2773	(0.1594) +	-0.2558	(0.1581)	-0.2628	(0.1577) +
Male	0.1320	(0.4870)	0.0513	(0.4856)	0.1635	(0.4852)	0.1435	(0.4862)
White	-0.8209	(0.8668)	-0.8401	(0.8509)	-0.6898	(0.8768)	-0.5714	(0.8947)
Asian	0.4825	(0.8530)	0.3919	(0.8389)	0.6345	(0.8757)	0.6218	(0.8766)
Other	0.3604	(0.9682)	0.2081	(0.9652)	0.4623	(0.9769)	0.3648	(1.0103)
Mom Education	0.0331	(0.1589)	0.0740	(0.1587)	0.0310	(0.1580)	0.0719	(0.1575)
Dad Education	0.0530	(0.1733)	0.0037	(0.1749)	0.0710	(0.1746)	-0.0383	(0.1801)
Low Income	0.7329	(0.7754)	0.6236	(0.7706)	0.7494	(0.7700)	0.4773	(0.7735)
Self-efficacy	0.1900	(0.1010) +	0.1860	(0.0991) +	0.2065	(0.1038) *	0.2008	(0.1003) *
Self-esteem	-0.0359	(0.0651)	-0.0274	(0.0638)	-0.0368	(0.0642)	-0.0295	(0.0619)
# Talk Problems	-0.6586	(0.3024) *	-0.6589	(0.3007) *	-0.6257	(0.3035) *	-0.6191	(0.3007) *

Table 47: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Help Often	0.3300	(0.3028)	0.3321	(0.2978)	0.3211	(0.3016)	0.3324	(0.3006)
Probability Negative Traits	1.1370	(2.4252)	0.4469	(2.3940)	1.2049	(2.4030)	-0.0018	(2.5508)
Constant	1.3603	(5.8750)	1.5667	(5.8237)	0.3087	(6.0136)	0.1379	(5.8847)
Alpha	0.9366	(0.2250) ***	0.8950	(0.2288) ***	0.9211	(0.2270) ***	0.8299	(0.2345) ***
N	174		174		174		174	
Log-Likelihood	-185.00		-184.11		-184.78		-182.11	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.138		0.142		0.139		0.151	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 48 shows the effect of the interactions on prior property crime with only those control variables found to be significant. As expected, having more self-aspects reduces the likelihood of having committed property crime in the past 12 months. Model 2 includes the interaction between strain and the number of aspects which is positive and significant. After calculating the effect of strain on crime at different levels of self-aspects, it appears that when self-aspects are high, strain is more likely to lead to crime (See Table 15 Above). Therefore, in the absence of strain, having more self-aspects reduces the count of crime but when strain is present, more self-aspects increases the likelihood of property crime.

Model 3 in Table 48, shows that the interaction between overlap and strain is not significant. Model 4 reveals that the three-way interaction between strain, self-aspects, and overlap is significant. I examine the effect of strain on crime at different levels of self-aspects holding overlap constant. I explore this relationship when individuals have no overlap, overlap is a standard deviation below the mean, overlap is a standard deviation above the mean, and perfect overlap (See Table 16 Above). Strain exerts a stronger effect on crime when individuals have few self-aspects with complete overlap (See Model 1, Table 16). Strain positively affects crime when aspects are low and overlap is below average but the effect is greater for those who are low in self-complexity in both components. Finally, strain is more likely to lead to crime when individuals have many self-aspects with no overlap among them and least likely when individuals have very few self-aspects and no overlap (See Model 4, Table 16).

Table 48: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Property Crime (Reduced Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	-0.0089	(0.0115)	0.0006	(0.0123)	-0.0096	(0.0115)	0.0035	(0.0124)
Number of Aspects	-0.0774	(0.0378) *	-0.1169	(0.0431) **	-0.0767	(0.0376) *	-0.1138	(0.0441) **
Percent Overlap	-0.0083	(0.0087)	-0.0055	(0.0089)	-0.0078	(0.0087)	0.0017	(0.0103)
# of Aspects x Strain			0.0096	(0.0039) *			0.0106	(0.0040) **
Overlap x Strain					0.0004	(0.0006)	0.0000	(0.0006)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0021	(0.0028)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0003	(0.0001) +
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.1576	(0.1205)	0.2350	(0.1265) +	0.1583	(0.1208)	0.2188	(0.1220) +
Negative Emotionality	0.8689	(0.4417) *	0.8362	(0.4390) +	0.8640	(0.4386) *	0.8243	(0.4297) +
Criminal Peers	0.3034	(0.0588) ***	0.2845	(0.0581) ***	0.2980	(0.0585) ***	0.2639	(0.0581) ***
Self-efficacy	0.0524	(0.0574)	0.0646	(0.0583)	0.0604	(0.0584)	0.0714	(0.0583)
# Talk Problems	-0.3067	(0.2146)	-0.2687	(0.2113)	-0.2645	(0.2209)	-0.2035	(0.2138)
Constant	-5.0411	(2.1600) *	-5.4912	(2.1499) *	-5.3132	(2.1890) *	-5.6794	(2.1262) **
Alpha	1.2021	(0.1914) ***	1.1461	(0.1919) ***	1.1902	(0.1930) ***	1.0813	(0.1968) ***
N	216		216		216		216	
Log-Likelihood	-248.73		-245.16		-248.46		-243.35	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.072		0.085		0.073		0.092	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Finally, I examine the relationship between self-complexity and prior minor drug and alcohol related crimes (See Table 49 and 50). In the full model including all control variables, no significant effects are found for any of the interactions. In addition, when examining the more parsimonious model, no significant interaction effects were detected.

In sum, some limited support was found for hypothesis 1-c when examining prior offending behavior for the serious and property crime scale. No support was found for self-complexity affecting drug/alcohol related crime either directly or in the presence of strain.

Table 49: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)		Coeff	(SE)	
Total Strain	0.061	(0.049)		0.062	(0.049)		0.060	(0.050)		0.057	(0.051)	
Number of Aspects	0.149	(0.164)		0.156	(0.167)		0.147	(0.165)		0.195	(0.176)	
Percent Overlap	-0.033	(0.041)		-0.034	(0.041)		-0.034	(0.041)		-0.032	(0.041)	
# of Aspects x Strain				0.002	(0.010)					0.00002	(0.0116)	
Overlap x Strain							0.0004	(0.002)		0.0003	(0.0025)	
# of Aspects x Overlap										0.0075	(0.0093)	
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain										-0.0002	(0.0004)	
Trait Anger	-0.019	(0.266)		-0.004	(0.275)		-0.026	(0.269)		0.038	(0.287)	
Avg # of Days Depressed	1.268	(0.559)	*	1.256	(0.561)	*	1.262	(0.560)	*	1.318	(0.570)	*
Self Label	0.515	(0.229)	*	0.516	(0.229)	*	0.516	(0.229)	*	0.549	(0.233)	*
Negative Emotionality	0.045	(2.177)		0.008	(2.183)		0.088	(2.190)		-0.219	(2.227)	
Constraint	-1.414	(1.812)		-1.457	(1.821)		-1.404	(1.813)		-1.385	(1.836)	
Close to Family	-1.456	(1.025)		-1.439	(1.027)		-1.468	(1.027)		-1.434	(1.031)	
School Commitment	-0.925	(0.383)	*	-0.923	(0.383)	*	-0.931	(0.384)	*	-0.901	(0.386)	*
Grades	0.403	(0.803)		0.410	(0.804)		0.397	(0.804)		0.287	(0.817)	
Involvement	-0.334	(0.319)		-0.350	(0.327)		-0.345	(0.327)		-0.335	(0.355)	
Morals	-0.882	(0.328)	**	-0.884	(0.328)	**	-0.870	(0.336)	*	-0.917	(0.343)	**
Friends' Morals	0.137	(0.268)		0.129	(0.271)		0.129	(0.273)		0.136	(0.275)	
Criminal Peers	1.985	(0.317)	***	1.969	(0.323)	***	1.983	(0.317)	***	1.950	(0.326)	***
Age	0.899	(0.498)	+	0.898	(0.497)	+	0.901	(0.498)	+	0.873	(0.500)	+
Male	-0.154	(1.569)		-0.156	(1.570)		-0.155	(1.569)		-0.266	(1.577)	
White	4.540	(2.677)	+	4.497	(2.685)	+	4.587	(2.692)	+	4.300	(2.755)	
Asian	-1.232	(2.794)		-1.262	(2.798)		-1.144	(2.844)		-1.125	(2.860)	
Other	4.310	(3.325)		4.270	(3.331)		4.368	(3.344)		3.774	(3.409)	
Mom Education	0.953	(0.521)	+	0.973	(0.528)	+	0.953	(0.521)	+	0.988	(0.530)	+
Dad Education	-0.237	(0.566)		-0.241	(0.566)		-0.224	(0.571)		-0.225	(0.573)	
Low Income	4.479	(2.476)	+	4.485	(2.476)	+	4.495	(2.477)	+	4.610	(2.480)	+
Self-efficacy	0.463	(0.273)	+	0.462	(0.273)	+	0.469	(0.275)	+	0.492	(0.277)	+
Self-esteem	0.060	(0.181)		0.064	(0.181)		0.061	(0.181)		0.063	(0.182)	
# Talk Problems	0.692	(0.869)		0.711	(0.873)		0.701	(0.870)		0.773	(0.875)	

Table 49: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Full Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**	**Coeff**	**(SE)**
Help Often	-0.879	(1.044)	-0.893	(1.046)	-0.873	(1.044)	-0.819	(1.050)
Probability Negative Traits	-18.646	(8.670) *	-18.980	(8.808) *	-18.646	(8.674) *	-19.949	(8.860) *
Constant	-14.840	(17.911)	-14.729	(17.912)	-15.145	(17.999)	-14.594	(18.036)
N	165		165		165		165	
Log-Likelihood	-446.26		-446.23		-446.24		-445.83	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.157		0.157		0.157		0.158	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Table 50: Tobit Regression Predicting Minor Alcohol and Drug Crimes (Reduced Model with Trait Emotions)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)	Coeff	(SE)
Total Strain	0.059	(0.048)	0.059	(0.048)	0.060	(0.048)	0.054	(0.049)
Number of Aspects	0.070	(0.144)	0.068	(0.145)	0.075	(0.145)	0.149	(0.161)
Percent Overlap	-0.048	(0.040)	-0.048	(0.040)	-0.048	(0.040)	-0.050	(0.040)
# of Aspects x Strain			-0.0016	(0.0100)			-0.0040	(0.0109)
Overlap x Strain					-0.0008	(0.0021)	-0.0010	(0.0024)
# of Aspects x Overlap							0.0103	(0.0081)
Overlap x # of Aspects x Strain							-0.0001	(0.0004)
Avg # of Days Depressed	0.493	(0.505)	0.496	(0.505)	0.514	(0.507)	0.576	(0.510)
Self Label	0.685	(0.219) **	0.683	(0.219) **	0.678	(0.220) **	0.723	(0.223) ***
School Commitment	-0.520	(0.314) +	-0.519	(0.314) +	-0.505	(0.316)	-0.529	(0.316) +
Morals	-0.986	(0.279) ***	-0.979	(0.282) ***	-1.002	(0.281) ***	-0.983	(0.287) ***
Criminal Peers	1.659	(0.272) ***	1.667	(0.277) ***	1.656	(0.272) ***	1.646	(0.277) ***
Age	0.710	(0.472)	0.711	(0.472)	0.702	(0.472)	0.604	(0.477)
White	4.875	(2.302) *	4.877	(2.302) *	4.779	(2.311) *	4.540	(2.344) +
Asian	-2.160	(2.416)	-2.151	(2.416)	-2.320	(2.446)	-2.287	(2.480)
Other	2.600	(3.165)	2.614	(3.166)	2.534	(3.167)	1.944	(3.199)
Mom Education	0.541	(0.405)	0.533	(0.408)	0.535	(0.405)	0.583	(0.408)
Low Income	4.289	(2.133) *	4.282	(2.133) *	4.229	(2.137) *	4.289	(2.130) *
Self-efficacy	0.241	(0.213)	0.241	(0.213)	0.232	(0.214)	0.255	(0.217)
Probability Negative Traits	-16.087	(8.315) +	-15.933	(8.368) +	-15.882	(8.316) +	-16.771	(8.424) *
Constant	-11.003	(13.704)	-11.168	(13.744)	-10.384	(13.778)	-9.415	(13.851)
N	189		189		189		189	
Log-Likelihood	-533.44		-533.43		-533.36		-532.55	
Pseudo R-Squared	0.128		0.128		0.128		0.129	

Note: Interaction terms are centered

Note: Female, African American, and Household Income Above $50,000 are the Reference Categories

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

Some limited support was found for each of the hypotheses. Specifically support was found for hypothesis 1 for the fighting and drinking scenario. Partial support was found for self-complexity affecting perceptions of the severity of strain. Self-complexity was also found to affect emotional reactions to strain for the fighting scenario. Finally, some support was found for sub-hypothesis 1c for intentions to fight and intentions to drink. See Table 51 for a summary of all significant findings.

Table 51: Summary Table

	Hyp 1 Intentions to Offend			Sub-Hyp 1a Severity of Strain	Sub-Hyp 1b Situational Emotions				Sub-Hyp 1c Intentions to Offend		
	Fighting	Drinking	Cheating	Fight Personal	Fight Anger	Fight Frustration	Drug/Alcohol Depress	Cheat Depress	Fighting	Drinking	Cheating
Number of Aspects	ns	ns	pos *	neg +	ns	ns	pos *	pos **	ns	ns	pos *
Percent Overlap	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
# of Aspects X Overlap	neg *	neg *	ns	ns	neg +	neg *	ns	ns	neg +	neg +	ns

+p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001, two-tailed test

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, I argue that the effect of strain on negative emotions and crime should be stronger for those lower in self-complexity. Those who are lower in self-complexity should experience more negative emotions because they perceive strain as more severe and because negative emotions should be more likely to spill over into more self-aspects. In addition, those who are lower in self-complexity should be more likely to engage in crime because they have fewer coping resources than those higher in self-complexity.

I find some support for hypothesis 1, that those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to offend than those who are higher in self-complexity. When I exclude negative emotions and perceptions of the severity of strain in the model, I find that those who are lower in self-complexity were more likely to intend to hit another person. In addition, I find partial support for the benefits of high self-complexity for intentions to drink. When individuals have many self-aspects, then higher overlap leads to a lower likelihood of intending to drink in the stressful situation presented. It appears that as expected, more aspects are beneficial in reducing crime, but only when overlap is higher, rather than lower. Neither self-complexity nor its components (aspects and overlap) affected intentions to shoplift or intentions to use drugs. Contrary to expectations, an increase in the number of aspects leads to a higher likelihood of cheating. In sum, mixed support was found for hypothesis 1 when examining intentions to offend.

I also examined the effect of self-complexity on prior serious, property, and drug/alcohol related crime excluding situational emotions and perceptions of the severity

of strain. I find that as expected, strain is more likely to lead to serious crime when individuals have few self-aspects with higher overlap.

In the reduced model, I find that having more aspects was related to less property crime. In addition, I find a significant interaction between strain and the number of aspects for property crime. Interestingly, the relationship between strain and property crime is positive and significant for individuals with an average number of self-aspects (approximately 8) and above. It is unclear why strain would lead to a greater number of property crimes when the number of aspects are average or above. It may be that self-aspects represent a type of strain because those who feel they have more meaningful roles and identities may have a difficult time meeting demanding obligations. Therefore, this interaction is really showing how two types of strain combine to increase the likelihood of property crime.

The three-way interaction between strain, number of aspects, and overlap was also significant in this reduced model. As predicted, for those who have few self-aspects and high overlap, strain leads to more property crime. On the other end of the spectrum, for those who have many self-aspects and overlap that is a standard deviation below the mean, strain leads to lower property crime levels.

Self-complexity, the number of self-aspects, and the amount of overlap did not affect the likelihood that people had engaged in drug and alcohol related offenses in the past.

Next, I investigated the reasons for why self-complexity would influence crime. I evaluated three reasons for why self-complexity affects crime including its effects on the perceptions of the severity of strain, the spill over of negative emotions, and its ability to

serve as a coping resource. I find limited support for each of these sub-hypotheses with most support found in the fighting scenario. First I examine the relationship between self-complexity and the perceptions of the severity of strain. I find that those who described more self-aspects were less likely to take the protagonist's behavior personally in the fighting scenario. Neither overlap nor the interaction were significant, however. Therefore, only one component of S-C is necessary to reduce perceptions of stress. Contrary to sub-hypothesis 1a, neither self-complexity nor its components affect how much respondents felt that prior strain bothered them.

I found partial support for sub-hypothesis 1b, that those who are lower in self-complexity report higher levels of anger, frustration, and depressed mood as a result of strain than those who are higher in S-C. Once again, I find support for this assertion in the fighting scenario. As expected, those who are lower in S-C reported higher levels of anger and frustration than those who are higher in self-complexity. Interestingly, when individuals have a large number of self-aspects (over 21), then overlap leads to lower levels of frustration in the fighting scenario. No support for the benefits of higher self-complexity when faced with strain were found in the shoplifting, alcohol/drug use, or cheating scenario.

Some support was found for sub-hypothesis 1c that self-complexity affects crime because it is a coping resource. Specifically, those who are lower in self-complexity were more likely to intend to fight and drink. Overlap in aspects led to a higher likelihood of intending to fight for those with fewer self-aspects. Although not quite reaching significance, the same direction of effect was found for intentions to drink. In the drinking scenario, the effect of overlap on drinking became significant and negative at

17 self-aspects indicating that offending is less likely when self-aspects are high (as expected) and overlap is high (contrary to expectations). This finding mirrors the effect of overlap on frustration in the fighting scenario.

Finally, I examined the relationship between strain, self-complexity, and prior crime controlling for trait emotions. I find mixed support when examining the effect of prior strain on prior serious crime when self-complexity is low. Unexpectedly, higher levels of overlap was related to individuals committing fewer serious crimes. As expected, strain positively affected crime for those with few self-aspects and high overlap.

Self-complexity was only important in the reduced model. Specifically, self-aspects negatively predicted property crime indicating the benefits of being higher in self-complexity for this dimension. Contrary to expectations, aspects interacted with strain so that strain lead to more crime when aspects are average or higher. It appears that more aspects reduce crime without the presence of strain but increases property crime when strain is present. The three-way interaction revealed that strain was more likely to lead to property crime for individuals with few aspects and high overlap as anticipated.

Finally, as with hypothesis 1, the number of aspects, the degree of overlap, nor any of the two-way or three-way interactions affected prior drug and alcohol related offenses.

Overall, the findings from this study were mixed. The majority of support was found for the scenario leading to assault. The situation described in this scenario led to stronger levels of anger than the other three situations. It is not surprising that respondents reported such high levels of anger because the relationship related strain

threatens the individual more so than the other stressful scenarios. In this scenario, someone is verbally and physically aggressive towards the main character and tries to take the character's significant other. The other scenarios focus on a situation when someone is running late for an exam, a situation where someone fails to adequately study for an exam, and someone who feels he or she cannot do well on an exam because the professor is incompetent. Only the situation in the fighting scenario demonstrates a strain that threatens the individual personally. It may be that self-complexity is more important for strains that affect the individual in multiple ways. For example, the individual is presented with negative stimuli (insulted and physically threatened) and also fears losing something they value (a romantic relationship). The other scenarios narrowly focus on a situation where someone fails to achieve a positively valued goal (doing well on an exam). While doing well in school may be extremely important to the individual, the romantic strain presented in the fighting vignette includes multiple types of strain that directly threatens the individual.

Some support was found for the stressful situation which led to drinking. The character in this scenario decides to drink because he or she failed an exam. It is unclear what this type of strain has in common with the strain presented in the fighting scenario. Future studies should explore how self-complexity interacts with particular types of strain to determine which types of strains more likely affect emotional and behavioral reactions.

In some cases, more overlap was detrimental to emotional and behavioral outcomes and in others overlap was beneficial. Similarly, having more aspects was mostly beneficial but sometimes not. For example, those who had more self-aspects were more likely to say they would cheat. It is somewhat puzzling why having numerous self-

aspects that overlap in content would reduce negative emotions and crime. Block (1961) found that more role variability or viewing oneself differently in different contexts leads to more maladjustment. Similarly, Donahue et al. (1993) focus on how viewing the self differently among roles may lead to depression because the self is fragmented. While Block and others focus on the direct relationship between the self-concept and outcomes rather than the conditioning effect, it may be that this explains why individuals are better off with more overlap when they have many self-aspects in times of stress.

Also, others have found that being higher in self-complexity leads directly to more depression in the absence of stress (Woolfolk et al. 1995). Perhaps in some cases, being higher in self-complexity may become a source of strain which leads directly to negative outcomes. Too many roles with little overlap may lead to role strain and role conflict. Therefore, having more overlap when you have so many roles may help individuals cope with strain. Thoits (1995) also notes that when people view their work and family roles as unrelated, they are more likely to experience role conflicts and experience feelings of failure in these roles (Thoits 1995: 59; Simon 1995).

Clearly, the relationship between self-complexity and outcomes is complicated. It seems that it is not advantageous to be low in self-aspects and high in overlap. In some circumstances as expected, those who have fewer self-aspects with more overlap do experience more negative emotions and intend to offend or have offended in the past. However, when individuals are mixed in terms of self-complexity such as having many self-aspects and high overlap, or having few self-aspects with low overlap, the relationship is less clear. Future research should assess in what situations aspects and overlap work independently and when being low or high on one characteristic is likely to

reduce negative emotions and crime. In addition, future research should explore other self-concept structures to see if they can shed some light on these mixed findings. For example, it may be that low self-complexity, in terms of having few self-aspects and high overlap, leads to negative outcomes as expected. At very high levels of self-aspects, overlap may reduce emotional reactions to stress because the individual has a clear, consistent view of self. In other words, the individual does not have a fragmented view of self. As Donahue et al. (1993) argue, a fragmented self negatively affects well-being.

A. Limitations

Several methodological limitations may have resulted in mixed findings. First, no study to my knowledge has measured self-complexity through a web-based survey. Some studies have used the computer but the task was more similar to Linville's measurement in that respondents grouped words together and labeled them afterwards. Other studies have had respondents list roles or identities first on paper and then choose adjectives to describe them. I attempted to retain the strengths of both procedures through having students list their self-aspects first and then select adjectives afterwards on the computer. Because of the ease of listing self-aspects on the computer, the mean was higher in this study compared to other studies affecting the measurement of level of self-complexity in this study compared to others. Also, the way that self-aspects are created is very different. In this study they were listed first, as opposed to being created in a card sorting task. Future studies should compare varying procedures for measuring self-complexity to determine if these procedures affect the results.

In addition, I intentionally allowed respondents to define self-aspects as roles, identities, goals, activities, values, etc. similar to Linville and others' studies. They could

list up to 25 self-aspects. Some respondents may not have understood what was meant by self-aspect. For example, a few respondents only listed adjectives such as honest and happy. There is no way to know if this is really how respondents organize their self-concept or if they misunderstood the question. In addition, a couple of people listed 25 self-aspects. There is also no way to know how providing space for more or less self-aspects would have affected how many were listed.

In sum, while it is not clear how these measurement issues affected my results, it is likely that they affected level of self-complexity. If respondents interpreted the directions differently, then some may appear to be more complex while others appear to not be as complex. It may be that they interpreted the directions differently which would affect the measurement of their level of self-complexity.

This study must also be interpreted with caution because hypothetical emotions and behavior may not mirror actual emotions and behavior. For the most part, the significant predictors of hypothetical emotions and intentions to offend are in the theoretically expected directions and have been found in other studies utilizing other methods. In addition, efforts were made to ensure that the scenarios were realistic for the sample. Although some indicated they did not feel the more serious situations were realistic, respondents felt very confident in their answers. Nonetheless, researchers should examine the relationship between self-complexity and crime in a laboratory setting in which actual strain can be manipulated.

B. Directions for Future Research

Future studies should focus on a variety of directions. For example, they should look at how self-complexity affects perceptions of unfairness as well as perceptions of

the severity of crime. Unfortunately, this study did not include a measure of perceptions of severity in 3 out of 4 scenarios. Future studies should include more detail measures of perceptions of severity. Also, exploratory analyses indicate that S-C may be an important predictor of perceptions of unfairness. I find that self-complexity does affect perceptions of unfairness in the drug/alcohol use scenario, and self-complexity does affect anger and frustration without this variable. Because this relationship disappears when perceptions of unfairness are included, then it seems that these perceptions mediate the relationship between S-C and negative emotions in this scenario. The interactions are negative suggesting that those who are lower in self-complexity are more likely to view the drug/alcohol use scenario as unfair and thus experience more anger and frustration.

In addition, future studies should examine what factors affect the level of self-complexity. The majority of studies produced in social psychology and clinical psychology focus on how self-complexity may moderate the effect of strain on outcomes such as physical and mental well being. Future research should also focus on how and why some people develop high self-complexity and others do not. For example, Abela and Veronneau-McArdle (2002) find that seventh graders have higher levels of self-complexity than third graders indicating that S-C increases as children age. In addition, Conway and White-Dysart (1999) find correlational evidence that greater attentional resources in terms of processing speed and memory recall are related to higher self-complexity. Steinberg et al. (2003) find that abused women were lower in self-complexity than a matched control group of nonabused women indicating that S-C may be stunted by life experiences. Future studies may focus on how increased experiences

affect self-complexity and moreover, whether only pro-social experiences are important or whether all experiences are important.

In addition, I argue that self-complexity is related to social control and social support processes. Future studies should examine whether one factor causes the other by following individuals over time. In addition, social class may be related to self-complexity explaining why some lower class individuals engage in crime while others do not. Future studies should also examine this relationship.

Future studies should also examine the relationship between self-complexity and other causes of crime. For example, it is likely that those who are lower in self-complexity are more susceptible to the influences of delinquent and pro-social peers. When peers pressure the individual to conform this may represent a type of strain. Individuals who are lower in self-complexity should experience higher levels of negative emotions as a result of this pressure and/or ridicule received by peers because the peer self-aspect makes up a larger portion of self and overlaps with other parts of the self.

As noted above, more work needs to examine how the measurement of self-complexity affects the research findings. For example, Kalthoff and Neimeyer (1993) find that when they measured self-complexity in several different ways, only Linville's operationalization of S-C resulted in the buffering effect even though all three methods try to measure complexity of the self. This study embarked upon a unique method for capturing self-complexity likely resulting in respondents describing more self-aspects. More studies should be conducted to compare various ways of capturing self-complexity.

In addition, while respondents were asked to only list self-aspects that were meaningful or important to them, some aspects may be more important than others.

Future studies should specifically focus on the level of importance of self-aspects to determine if overlap in the more important roles and identities affect emotions more than overlap in less important self-aspects. For example, if something negative occurs at school which overlaps with other self-aspects but none of these aspects are very important to the individual, then the negative emotions experienced may not be as strong. One way in which this may be accomplished is to only include self-aspects as part of self-complexity if they are described as very important on a scale rating the importance of these roles, identities, etc.

Extensions of this study should also investigate the relationship specific self-aspects and specific types of strain. For example, in this study, strains focused on relationships and academics. Respondents who do not view being a boyfriend or girlfriend or being a student as important to them, may not be affected by these types of strain. Therefore, their level of self-complexity would not be expected to buffer the effect of these types of strain on negative emotions and crime. Future studies should focus on those respondents who identify self-aspects that match up with types of strain to determine whether overall S-C is important or specific overlap among self-aspects.

On the other hand, it may be that self-complexity is important for overall emotional and behavioral reactions. Extensions of the research may include examining whether self-complexity affects emotional reactions and intentions to offend for all scenarios combined.

Researchers may also consider exploring the interaction between positive and negative self-complexity and negative emotions and crime. One way this might be accomplished is through creating a score for the degree of overlap among positively

valenced traits and negatively valenced traits. Respondents may also be asked how positively or negatively they view the self-aspects they described. Researchers could then create a measure of negative self-complexity, positive self-complexity and overall self-complexity and compare the effects.

Finally, future studies should also examine whether other conceptualizations of the self-concept can contribute to general strain theory. Many of these other self-concept structures focus on the direct relationship between the self-concept and well-being. It is possible that they may prove to be an important moderator between strain and negative emotions and strain and crime. Also, they may also affect negative emotions and crime directly which may lead to crime or deviance. For example, some self-concept measures have been found to affect levels of depression directly. As shown in some studies, feeling depressed may be alleviated through drug and alcohol use. Therefore, it is likely that these other concepts may make contributions to the field of criminology as well as self-complexity.

Regardless of the mixed findings, this study has contributed to criminology and general strain theory in particular. Self-complexity or one of its components affects perceptions of strain, negative emotions, and offending in some cases. Nonetheless, much work remains to be done to explain when self-complexity is beneficial in reducing crime and why components sometimes operate in opposite directions from theoretically expected.

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VIII. APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Self-Complexity Calculations

H Statistic

Below I review two individuals drawn from my sample where respondents self-labeled their aspects and chose the traits they believed applied to each aspect.

Appendix Table 2a: Low Self-Complexity Individual Measured by H (subject 325)

	Son (A)	Brother (B)	Boyfriend (C)	Friend (D)
Caring	1			
Compassionate		1		
Determined				1
Friendly			1	
Generous				1
Happy		1	1	
Honest		1	1	1
Loyal	1		1	
Optimistic	1			

1 = yes believes trait describes that aspect

H is calculated with the following formula: $H = \log_2 n - (\Sigma_i n_i \log_2 n_i)/n$ where n refers to the number of attributes available to sort and n_i refers to the number of traits that fall into possible group combinations. In order to calculate the H statistic for this hypothetical card sort, I need to know the number of available traits to choose from (n) and the possible group combinations of the selected traits (n_i). In my sample, the number of available traits is 42. Next I need to determine the group combinations of the traits used. There are 15 possible group combinations: A, B, C, D, AB, AC, AD, BC, BD, CD, ABC, ABD, ACD, BCD, and ABCD. I then need to determine the number of traits sorted into each unique group combination. For group A (the son self-aspect) 2 unique

traits were selected including caring and optimistic. In group B, 1 unique trait was selected, compassionate, and in group C, 1 unique trait was selected, friendly. For group D (the friend aspect), 2 unique traits were listed. No unique traits were selected in both groups A and B. Loyal was selected for groups A and C. No unique traits were selected in the "son" and "friend" self-aspect (AD). Happy was selected for aspects B and C. Groups B and D and C and D did not have any unique traits. Finally, honest was selected in the brother, boyfriend, and friend aspect (BCD). No unique traits were selected in the ABC, ABD, or ACD group combination. No unique traits were selected in all four aspects. Finally, 33 traits were not included in any group. When a group combination does not have any traits, it is excluded from the formula.

Therefore, H = log2 of 42 – [(2 log2 of 2) + (1 log2 of 1) + (1 log 2 of 1) + (2 log2 of 2) + (1 log2 of 1) + (1 log2 of 1) + (1 log2 of 1) + (33 log2 of 33)]/42

H = 5.39-(2 + 0 + 0 + 2 + 0 + 0 + 0 +166.47)/42

H = 5.04-4.06 = 1.3

Appendix Table 2b: High Self-Complexity Individual Measured by H (subject 283)

	Friend	Young Woman	Sister	Student	Girlfriend	Daughter	Element of Social Change
Ambitious		1		1			
Caring	1	1	1		1	1	1
Compassionate	1	1			1	1	1
Confident			1	1	1	1	1
Creative							1
Curious				1			
Determined		1		1			1
Driven		1		1			1
Easygoing	1			1			
Focused				1			1
Friendly	1	1			1	1	
Fun					1		
Generous					1	1	
Hardworking				1		1	1
Helpful	1	1		1		1	
Happy			1		1	1	
Honest	1	1	1		1	1	1
Humorous	1		1		1	1	
Intelligent		1	1				1
Lovable	1		1		1	1	1
Loyal	1	1			1		1
Mature		1	1	1	1	1	1
Open-minded	1	1	1	1		1	1
Lazy			1				
Optimistic	1	1		1	1	1	1
Passionate		1		1	1		
Responsible		1		1	1		1
Polite				1			
Anxious				1			
Clumsy					1		
Indecisive					1		
Insecure					1		
Selfish			1			1	
Arrogant				1			
Disorganized				1		1	
Passive						1	
Procrastinator				1			
Unique		1				1	1
Stubborn		1		1	1		

Appendix Table 2b demonstrates someone who is higher in self-complexity as measured by the H statistic. This hypothetical person identified seven meaningful aspects in their life with some overlap in each aspect. In this example, 127 group combinations must be considered. This individual is higher in self-complexity than the prior example (H = 4.67). Therefore, the H statistic should be higher when an individual describes his or herself with more aspects and in less redundant ways.

Overlap

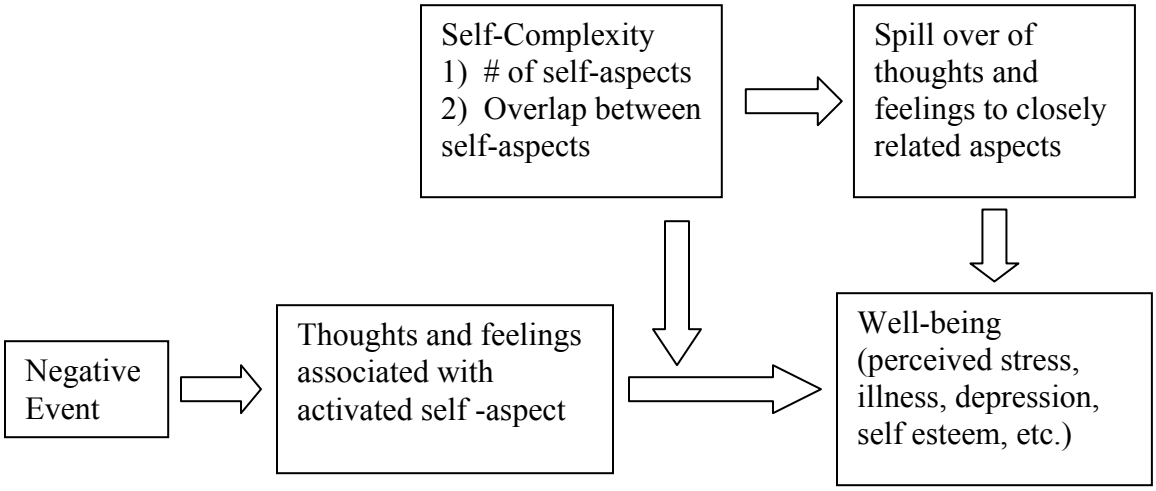
The overlap statistic is calculated with the following formula: $OL = \sum_i(\sum_j C_{ij})T_i/n*(n-1)$. In this formula, C refers to the number of common traits endorsed in the two aspects that are being compared while T refers to the total number of traits endorsed in the referent aspect and n denotes the total number of aspects the person listed. In the example of my low complexity individual above, there are 12 pair-wise comparisons: AB, AC, AD, BA, BC, BD, CA, CB, CD, DA, DB, DC. When examining groups A and B, they have no traits in common. Groups A and C have 1 trait in common which is divided by 3, or the number of traits endorsed in group A. Groups A and D and B and A have no traits in common. Groups B and C have 2 traits in common which is divided by the 3 traits that were endorsed in group B. When group C is the referent group, then the 3 common traits is divided by 4 which is the total number of traits endorsed in group C.

Therefore, (0+.33+0+0+.67+.33+.25+.5+.25+0+.33+.33)/12 = .25.

For the second individual who is higher in self-complexity according to the H statistic there are 42 pair-wise group comparisons to consider. The overlap statistic for this individual is 0.501 and the number of aspects is 7.

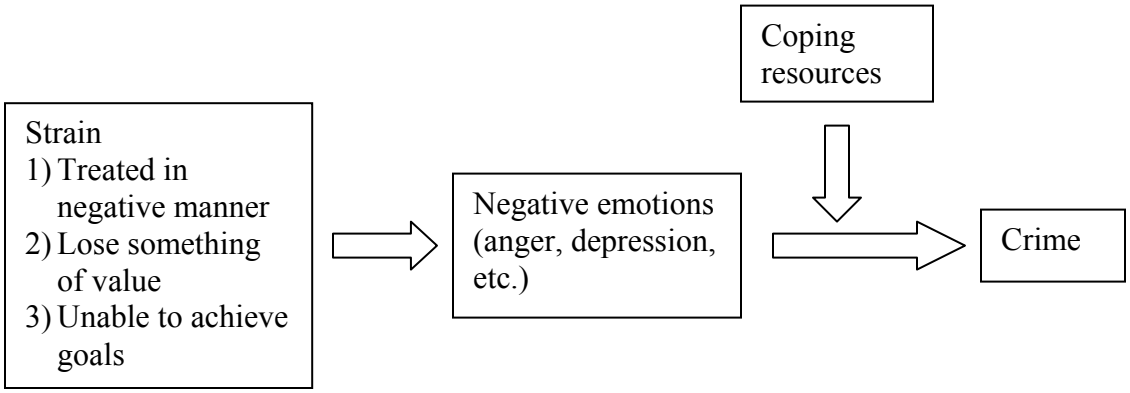
These two examples illustrate the necessity of measuring the number of aspects and overlap separately. According to the H statistic, the second subject is high in self-complexity (H = 4.67 compared to the mean for this study of 3.56). She has a fair degree of overlap in how she views herself (overlap = 0.501 compared to the mean of 0.373) indicating she is lower in self-complexity for this component. By contrast, the first subject is lower in self-complexity according to the H statistic (H = 1.334). However, when examining the overlap statistic, he appears to be more complex because he views himself more differently in each aspect (overlap = 0.25). Both subjects are below average in the number of aspects they list (mean number of aspects = 8.269). Because the H statistic provides the most information on an individual when he or she is equally likely to choose a trait or not choose a trait, the second subject scored higher in self-complexity. The probability of this individual selecting a trait is 0.384 while the probability of the first subject selecting a trait is 0.077. As stated before, H will be higher when someone has an equal probability of selecting a trait or not selecting a trait than when someone either selects all of the traits or none of the traits. Someone who selects many of the same traits between his or her aspects will have a higher degree of overlap in these aspects indicating lower complexity of self. Someone who selects fewer unique traits across self-aspects will have less overlap. Because the spill over of negative emotions is more likely to occur when individuals view themselves similarly, the overlap statistic is better able to capture this process than the H statistic. Assuming that respondents have an adequate selection of traits to choose from to describe their self-aspects, then examining the overlap statistic, the number of aspects listed, and the interaction between the two should adequately capture the spill over process.

Appendix 2: Model of Self-Complexity



Appendix 3: Model of General Strain Theory

(Adapted from Agnew 2006)



Appendix 4: Mean Valence for Trait Adjectives used in Self-Complexity Measure

		Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Positive					
	ambitious	2.000	0.855	0	3
	caring*	2.683	0.610	1	3
	compassionate	2.643	0.692	0	3
	confident*, **	2.000	0.796	0	3
	creative*	2.214	0.951	0	3
	curious*	1.500	0.917	0	3
	determined	2.000	0.775	0	3
	driven	2.024	0.841	0	3
	easygoing	1.952	0.882	0	3
	focused	1.857	0.872	0	3
	friendly*	2.429	0.831	0	3
	Fun**	2.262	0.964	0	3
	generous**	2.357	0.906	0	3
	Happy**	2.643	0.656	1	3
	hardworking*	2.317	0.789	1	3
	helpful	2.286	0.742	1	3
	honest*	2.595	0.734	0	3
	humorous*	2.098	0.944	-1	3
	intelligent*	2.500	0.741	0	3
	Lovable**	2.262	0.828	0	3
	loyal	2.524	0.804	0	3
	mature*	1.738	0.939	0	3
	open-minded*	2.357	0.879	-1	3
	optimistic**	2.262	0.798	0	3
	passionate	2.190	0.890	0	3
	polite	1.952	0.909	0	3
	responsible*	2.476	0.594	1	3
	unique	1.833	0.961	0	3
Negative					
	anxious**	-1.286	0.835	-3	1
	clumsy	-1.190	1.110	-3	2
	disorganized*	-1.976	0.924	-3	0
	insecure*	-1.780	0.791	-3	0
	judgmental	-2.119	0.889	-3	0
	lazy*	-1.714	1.111	-3	0
	passive	-1.333	0.979	-3	1
	procrastinator*	-1.262	1.106	-3	2
	scared	-1.214	0.925	-3	0
	selfish**	-2.317	0.850	-3	0
	stubborn*	-1.429	1.085	-3	1
Neutral					
	shy*	-0.500	0.804	-2	1

*Appeared in Linville's word list

**Appeared on other self-complexity study list

Appendix 5: Correlation Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Fight Anger	1										
2	Shoplift Anger	0.1669*	1									
3	Drug Anger	0.2872*	0.3911*	1								
4	Cheat Anger	0.1269*	0.4212*	0.3656*	1							
5	Fight Frustration	0.5116*	0.1727*	0.1660*	0.0758	1						
6	Shoplift Frust	0.1949*	0.3661*	0.3358*	0.1606*	0.2390*	1					
7	Drug Frustration	0.2015*	0.1574*	0.5804*	0.1317*	0.1980*	0.3913*	1				
8	Cheat Frustration	0.2162*	0.2997*	0.3161*	0.5358*	0.1608*	0.3879*	0.3186*	1			
9	Fight Depression	0.1726*	0.1480*	0.1533*	0.1457*	0.2929*	0.1213*	0.1387*	0.1711*	1		
10	Shoplift Depress	0.1083*	0.3035*	0.2175*	0.3464*	0.1136*	0.2764*	0.1303*	0.2927*	0.3052*	1	
11	Drug Depression	0.1433*	0.1682*	0.3978*	0.2710*	0.1201*	0.2529*	0.3714*	0.3933*	0.3586*	0.5226*	1
12	Cheat Depression	0.1467*	0.2481*	0.3314*	0.4221*	0.1473*	0.2026*	0.2186*	0.4879*	0.3315*	0.5284*	0.5847*
13	Fight Hit	0.3601*	0.0426	0.0956	-0.022	0.1359*	-0.073	-0.046	-0.0036	-0.0518	-0.0343	-0.012
14	Shoplift Steal	0.0617	0.0087	-0.071	0.1326*	-0.0399	-0.1965*	-0.1590*	-0.0232	-0.0245	-0.0014	-0.0013
15	Drug Drink	0.0415	0.1074*	0.1396*	0.1126*	-0.0509	0.029	0.0366	0.0308	0.0721	-0.0215	0.1057*
16	Drug Use	0.0641	0.0647	0.0485	0.101	-0.0535	-0.0393	-0.0477	-0.0212	0.0536	0.0031	0.0419
17	Cheat Copy	0.0999	0.1151*	0.0401	0.1207*	0.0442	-0.0662	-0.0639	0.0043	0.1216*	0.0383	0.0808
18	Fight Personal	0.3721*	0.1674*	0.1140*	0.1248*	0.2918*	0.1846*	0.1359*	0.2324*	0.2991*	0.1800*	0.1962*
19	Fight Unjustified	0.2154*	0.0712	-0.0079	0.005	0.2185*	0.2100*	0.1577*	0.0987	0.1296*	0.1566*	0.1468*
20	Grades Important	0.2122*	0.1934*	0.2430*	0.1830*	0.1139*	0.2884*	0.2377*	0.2672*	0.0092	0.1884*	0.2638*
21	Shoplift Unfair	0.0851	0.2356*	0.2075*	0.2696*	0.0376	0.1294*	0.1329*	0.2064*	0.1494*	0.2488*	0.2368*
22	Drug Unfair	0.1485*	0.0407	0.3340*	0.1683*	0.1272*	0.0545	0.2965*	0.1478*	0.1206*	0.0296	0.1949*
23	Cheat Unfair	0.1138*	0.0723	0.1697*	0.2615*	0.057	0.1693*	0.1931*	0.3169*	0.0667	0.1170*	0.1985*
24	Fight Confident	0.0628	0.0823	0.0619	-0.0494	0.1358*	0.1171*	0.0852	-0.0001	-0.0493	-0.0042	-0.0675
25	Shoplift Confident	-0.0539	0.0021	0.0651	-0.1295*	0.0547	0.1098*	0.1284*	-0.0187	-0.1133*	-0.1183*	-0.0599
26	Drug Confident	-0.0263	0.0288	0.101	-0.1289*	0.0955	0.1828*	0.2178*	-0.0253	-0.005	-0.0657	-0.01
27	Cheat Confident	-0.0488	-0.0117	-0.01	-0.1339*	0.0324	0.0872	0.1175*	0.0222	-0.1421*	-0.0762	-0.0571
28	Fight Realistic	0.1472*	0.2459*	0.1776*	0.0966	0.1021	0.0706	0.0466	0.0289	0.0226	-0.0101	-0.0118
29	Shoplift Realistic	-0.0438	0.2214*	0.0943	0.1885*	0.021	0.1581*	0.0928	0.1994*	0.0135	0.1	0.0714
30	Drug Realistic	0.1994*	0.1641*	0.2868*	0.1114*	0.1422*	0.2376*	0.2152*	0.1468*	0.1425*	0.1248*	0.2081*

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
31	Cheat Realistic	0.1339*	0.1331*	0.1804*	0.0957	0.0923	0.2283*	0.1313*	0.1540*	0.0302	0.0205	0.0997
32	Aspects (centered)	0.016	0.047	-0.0167	0.0647	0.0283	0.0495	0.0161	0.0852	0.0161	0.0578	0.1377*
33	% Overlap (cent'd)	0.025	0.0807	0.0023	0.037	0.0611	0.0726	0.0155	0.005	-0.0071	-0.0556	-0.0736
34	Interaction	-0.0946	0.0115	-0.1021	0.0078	-0.0943	-0.0076	-0.0851	0.0166	-0.0142	0.0248	-0.0247
35	Prior Hit	0.0378	-0.0414	0.0963	0.0257	0.0161	-0.0739	0.1408*	0.0411	0.0016	-0.0659	0.0279
36	Prior Shoplift	-0.0023	-0.0178	-0.0483	0.0502	0.0369	-0.0578	-0.1352*	-0.0279	-0.0132	-0.0434	-0.0341
37	Prior Drink	-0.063	-0.0906	-0.0749	-0.1241*	-0.0954	0.028	-0.0332	-0.1174*	-0.0879	-0.1712*	-0.0694
38	Prior Pot Use	0	-0.0356	-0.0849	-0.0462	0.0034	0.0553	-0.0705	-0.0924	-0.0558	-0.0775	-0.0813
39	Prior Cheat	0.0125	0.0334	0.0032	-0.0039	-0.0367	-0.0263	-0.0469	-0.0332	-0.0239	-0.051	-0.0212
40	Academic Strain	0.1613*	0.0491	0.1951*	0.0455	0.1037	0.1003	0.0835	0.1330*	0.1407*	0.0328	0.1272*
41	Discrimin'n Strain	-0.0287	0.0431	-0.0232	0.0215	-0.0452	-0.0412	-0.0952	0.0175	-0.0036	0.0151	-0.0567
42	Living Arr'ts Strain	0.0785	0.0146	0.0614	0.0236	0.0539	0.0222	0.0603	0.1060*	0.1233*	-0.0006	0.0659
43	Financial Strain	0.0161	-0.0037	0.0135	-0.0584	0.0741	0.0317	0.047	0.011	0.0797	0.0255	0.1135*
44	Family Strain	0.0458	0.0405	0.0647	0.035	0.0303	0.0804	0.0178	0.1426*	0.1851*	0.1714*	0.1529*
45	Romantic Strain	0.1089*	-0.0477	0.031	-0.0427	0.0946	-0.0035	0.0194	0.0105	0.077	-0.1008	-0.0003
46	Friend Strain	0.0237	0.0658	0.0322	0.0236	0.0346	0.0061	0.0391	0.0918	0.1065*	0.0971	0.0674
47	Other Strain	0.0826	0.0347	-0.0083	-0.0616	0.1172*	0.017	0.0209	-0.0274	0.0559	0.0132	0.0652
48	Victimiz'n Strain	-0.0617	-0.0565	-0.1090*	0.0405	-0.1172*	-0.1320*	-0.1023	-0.0059	-0.0228	-0.0964	-0.0645
49	Work Strain	-0.0012	0.0558	0.0487	0.0609	0.0401	-0.0151	0.0178	0.0888	0.0956	0.0945	0.004
50	Strain Total	0.1237*	0.0508	0.0806	0.0234	0.1157*	0.0525	0.0428	0.1137*	0.1914*	0.0702	0.1163*
51	Trait Anger	0.2521*	0.1672*	0.2700*	0.2383*	0.1627*	0.1085*	0.1736*	0.3028*	0.1719*	0.1628*	0.2639*
52	Depress Average	0.0238	0.1034	0.1033	0.0771	0.0353	0.0381	0.0355	0.1662*	0.1804*	0.1644*	0.1668*
53	Self Label	0.086	0.018	-0.0134	-0.0396	0.052	-0.0695	-0.0776	-0.0136	0.0912	-0.0425	-0.0246
54	Constraint	0.0711	0.0859	0.1	0.0169	0.0829	0.1080*	0.1496*	0.0417	0.0136	0.0499	0.0573
55	Neg Emotionality	0.1960*	0.1209*	0.2826*	0.1939*	0.0899	0.099	0.1385*	0.2874*	0.2002*	0.1864*	0.2822*
56	Attach to Parents	0.0128	0.0133	-0.0353	0.0154	-0.0434	-0.1200*	0.0101	-0.0499	0.0349	-0.0405	-0.0559
57	Family Close	0.0049	0.0344	0.0272	-0.0269	-0.0305	-0.0244	0.1229*	0.0277	0.0553	-0.0432	-0.0111
58	School Commit'nt	0.0293	0.0513	0.1425*	0.0697	-0.0771	0.0058	0.0512	0.0617	0.0161	0.0637	0.1194*
59	Grades	-0.0324	-0.0522	-0.0458	0.0367	-0.1093*	-0.0296	-0.0404	0.0404	0.0315	0.0974	0.0836
60	Involve Total	-0.0172	0.0501	0.0177	0.0005	-0.0352	-0.0314	0.0192	-0.0004	0.0049	0.0829	0.0905
61	Fight Morals	-0.1223*	-0.0353	-0.0987	-0.0125	-0.0669	0.041	0.0545	-0.0132	0.0755	0.0004	-0.0238

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
62	Shoplift Morals	-0.0474	0.035	0.0592	-0.0579	0.0113	0.0746	0.1165*	-0.0352	-0.0756	-0.0503	-0.0493
63	Drink Morals	0.0309	-0.1124*	-0.0199	-0.0207	0.0527	-0.0889	0.0894	0.0479	-0.0522	0.0035	0.0025
64	Drug Morals	-0.0325	-0.0316	0.0488	0.001	0.1083*	-0.0194	0.1107*	0.0487	-0.0058	0.0635	0.0635
65	Cheat Morals	-0.1229*	-0.0644	-0.0788	-0.1182*	-0.0561	0.0751	0.0489	0.0148	-0.0898	-0.0155	-0.0752
66	Morals	-0.0937	-0.0784	-0.0383	-0.0674	0.0181	0.0091	0.1272*	0.0211	-0.0367	0.0038	-0.0201
67	Peers Fight	-0.0069	-0.0332	-0.0745	-0.0925	-0.0319	-0.1046	-0.1008	-0.1217*	-0.1653*	-0.1128*	-0.1527*
68	Peers Shoplift	0.0978	0.026	0.044	0.0604	-0.0096	-0.0691	-0.0455	-0.0035	-0.044	-0.0424	0.0121
69	Peers Drug Use	0.041	0.0031	-0.0012	-0.0424	0.0356	0.0644	-0.0322	-0.0462	-0.0178	-0.0731	-0.0162
70	Peers Drink	0.0382	-0.0208	-0.0335	-0.026	-0.0274	0.0651	-0.0677	-0.0212	-0.0068	-0.0005	0.0135
71	Peers Cheat	0.1593*	0.0598	0.0474	-0.0241	0.0688	0.0227	-0.0472	-0.1122	0.0125	-0.0572	-0.03
72	Peer Fight Morals	-0.1163*	0.0677	0.0104	0.0668	-0.0713	0.0983	0.09	0.0763	0.1177*	0.0248	0.0542
73	Peer Steal Morals	0.01	0.04	0.0594	0.0424	0.0063	0.1153*	0.1622*	0.0879	0.0388	0.0429	-0.0056
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.0654	-0.051	-0.0709	-0.0054	-0.0121	-0.0912	0.0729	-0.0445	-0.0353	-0.053	-0.0926
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.0362	-0.0128	-0.0067	0.0099	0.045	-0.0662	0.0455	0.0532	0.0519	0.0345	0.0178
76	Peer Cheat Morals	-0.1146*	-0.0049	-0.0266	-0.0486	-0.0491	0.0416	0.1003	0.0478	-0.0679	0.0467	-0.0031
77	Age	-0.1415*	0.0235	-0.0855	-0.0744	-0.0975	0.0329	-0.0623	0.0087	-0.1220*	-0.081	-0.1053*
78	Mom Education	-0.0175	-0.0215	0.0225	0.0265	-0.0445	0.0176	0.1090*	-0.0229	-0.0036	-0.0418	0.0177
79	Dad Education	0.0982	0.0252	0.0838	0.0175	0.0575	-0.0198	0.1289*	-0.0508	0.0719	-0.012	0.0458
80	Household Income	0.037	0.0209	0.0449	-0.0055	-0.01	0.0439	0.0806	0.0008	0.0847	-0.0891	-0.0479
81	Self-efficacy	-0.0634	-0.0558	-0.1873*	-0.2357*	-0.0276	-0.0435	-0.0875	-0.2150*	-0.2089*	-0.1966*	-0.2785*
82	Self-esteem	-0.055	-0.0377	-0.1254*	-0.1150*	-0.003	-0.0306	-0.068	-0.1809*	-0.1966*	-0.1158*	-0.2378*
83	# Talk Problems	-0.0025	-0.0302	-0.004	-0.0206	0.0497	0.1019	0.0794	-0.0302	0.0156	-0.0412	-0.009
84	Help Often	0.0049	0.02	0.0032	0.0253	-0.0089	0.0529	0.093	0.0654	-0.0132	0.004	0.0272

	Correlation Matrix	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
9	Fight Depression											
10	Shoplift Depress											
11	Drug Depression											
12	Cheat Depression	1										
13	Fight Hit	-0.0523	1									
14	Shoplift Steal	0.0533	0.2716*	1								
15	Drug Drink	0.0472	0.1730*	0.2471*	1							
16	Drug Use	0.0062	0.2355*	0.3648*	0.6190*	1						
17	Cheat Copy	0.0433	0.2325*	0.4509*	0.2336*	0.2584*	1					
18	Fight Personal	0.1504*	0.2019*	0.074	0.0409	0.0153	0.0929	1				
19	Fight Unjustified	0.077	0.1356*	-0.0295	-0.0083	-0.0598	0.0089	0.3574*	1			
20	Grades Important	0.2058*	0.0016	-0.0189	-0.0737	-0.1523*	0.0116	0.076	0.1026	1		
21	Shoplift Unfair	0.2298*	0.0684	0.2599*	0.1574*	0.1664*	0.2268*	0.1383*	0.0118	0.1263*	1	
22	Drug Unfair	0.1282*	0.073	0.1088*	0.1180*	0.0774	0.1712*	0.1076*	0.0002	0.1001	0.2748*	1
23	Cheat Unfair	0.1665*	0.0132	-0.0543	-0.0625	-0.1188*	0.104	0.0916	0.1257*	0.2334*	0.2053*	0.2245*
24	Fight Confident	-0.035	0.1044*	-0.0214	-0.0335	-0.0407	0.0508	0.0653	0.2107*	0.08	0.008	0.0023
25	Shoplift Confident	-0.0714	-0.0399	-0.2516*	-0.0545	-0.0657	-0.1598*	-0.0382	0.0507	0.0494	-0.085	0.0287
26	Drug Confident	-0.0924	-0.0975	-0.2362*	-0.1386*	-0.1226*	-0.0712	-0.0404	0.0678	0.0112	-0.0864	-0.0071
27	Cheat Confident	-0.0854	-0.041	-0.1445*	-0.0723	-0.0413	-0.1205*	-0.0602	0.0627	0.0021	-0.0715	-0.0239
28	Fight Realistic	-0.0584	0.1953*	-0.0009	0.0838	0.0311	0.0473	0.0281	0.0621	0.0949	0.0631	0.1226*
29	Shoplift Realistic	0.1360*	-0.0117	0.2394*	0.1507*	0.0855	0.0823	0.0313	0.1187*	0.0922	0.1693*	0.083
30	Drug Realistic	0.1586*	0.0162	0.048	0.3120*	0.2211*	0.0879	0.0827	0.1465*	0.1023	0.1753*	0.2230*

	Correlation Matrix	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
31	Cheat Realistic	0.0963	0.0793	0.0247	0.1331*	0.0552	0.2237*	0.1091*	0.1684*	0.085	0.1311*	0.1069*
32	Aspects (centered)	0.1190*	-0.0416	-0.061	-0.0549	-0.1171*	0.0478	-0.0757	0.0327	0.0012	0.0402	0.0147
33	% Overlap (cent'd)	-0.0389	-0.0489	-0.1085	-0.0845	-0.1430*	-0.0365	0.0422	0.0386	0.0164	0.0166	0.075
34	Interaction	-0.0429	-0.1315*	0.0005	-0.0335	0.0189	-0.0548	-0.002	0.0583	0.0342	-0.0426	-0.0959
35	Prior Hit	0.0086	0.1898*	0.0631	0.0649	0.0374	0.0285	0.0026	0.0328	-0.0128	0.0102	0.0328
36	Prior Shoplift	0.0005	0.1463*	0.4204*	0.1306*	0.3020*	0.2583*	0.0796	0.0313	-0.0368	0.1444*	0.006
37	Prior Drink	-0.1436*	0.0549	0.0657	0.5373*	0.3265*	0.1054*	-0.0149	0.0537	-0.087	0.0056	-0.0444
38	Prior Pot Use	-0.1232*	0.0608	0.1442*	0.3649*	0.6246*	0.0981	0.0348	0.0151	-0.1690*	0.0796	-0.0767
39	Prior Cheat	-0.0583	0.1416*	0.1988*	0.0752	0.1179*	0.4852*	0.0697	-0.0734	0.0393	0.1080*	0.0694
40	Academic Strain	0.096	0.1109*	0.1038	0.0495	0.049	0.1987*	0.0633	-0.0772	0.0678	0.0862	0.1828*
41	Discrimin'n Strain	0.0352	0.1467*	0.2155*	0.0508	0.0985	0.0739	-0.0048	0.0117	0.0632	0.1035	0.0312
42	Living Arr'ts Strain	0.0622	-0.0083	-0.034	0.086	-0.0003	0.0394	0.067	0.0302	0.0394	0.0604	-0.0026
43	Financial Strain	0.0506	0.0302	0.0678	0.0361	0.1114*	0.0386	0.0994	0.0396	0.0262	0.1327*	-0.0019
44	Family Strain	0.1640*	0.1333*	0.1408*	0.0544	0.1088*	0.1271*	0.0834	0.088	0.0968	0.1276*	0.0546
45	Romantic Strain	0.0009	0.1333*	0.1275*	0.1848*	0.0956	0.0986	0.0745	0.0638	0.0645	0.0598	0.0718
46	Friend Strain	0.0748	0.0054	0.0646	-0.0048	-0.0238	0.0656	0.0708	0.0271	0.0662	0.0276	0.0247
47	Other Strain	0.0419	-0.0238	-0.0194	-0.0468	-0.091	-0.051	0.0258	0.0068	-0.0105	-0.0712	0.0553
48	Victimiz'n Strain	-0.0317	0.0348	0.2030*	0.1463*	0.1402*	0.1237*	-0.0485	-0.0426	0.0837	0.1144*	0.0542
49	Work Strain	0.1216*	0.0186	0.0284	-0.0613	0.0248	-0.0455	0.0619	0.0592	0.0381	0.0487	-0.0362
50	Strain Total	0.1322*	0.1625*	0.1829*	0.1203*	0.1674*	0.1295*	0.1363*	0.029	0.1155*	0.1789*	0.1077
51	Trait Anger	0.2489*	0.1950*	0.0904	0.1478*	0.0882	0.1724*	0.2201*	0.0641	0.2339*	0.1737*	0.1717*
52	Depress Average	0.1936*	0.1035	0.1569*	0.1776*	0.2401*	0.0774	0.0836	-0.021	-0.0157	0.1411*	0.024
53	Self Label	-0.0139	0.3349*	0.3711*	0.4203*	0.3997*	0.3535*	0.1066*	-0.0499	-0.1770*	0.1371*	0.0419
54	Constraint	0.0287	-0.2848*	-0.3189*	-0.3327*	-0.3666*	-0.2139*	0.0588	0.1120*	0.3386*	-0.0655	0.0403
55	Neg Emotionality	0.2567*	0.2872*	0.1725*	0.1786*	0.1380*	0.1869*	0.1375*	-0.0151	0.1328*	0.2343*	0.0866
56	Attach to Parents	-0.0693	-0.0771	-0.1371*	-0.0123	-0.0462	0.0557	-0.0595	0.0079	-0.02	-0.0332	0.025
57	Family Close	-0.0236	-0.1039	-0.0927	0.0051	-0.0656	0.0585	-0.1011	0.0553	0.0309	-0.0801	0.0914
58	School Commit'nt	0.103	-0.1564*	-0.1695*	-0.1426*	-0.1422*	-0.1484*	-0.0987	-0.0597	0.3683*	0.0074	-0.0395
59	Grades	0.0078	-0.1591*	-0.0642	-0.0333	-0.0651	-0.1632*	-0.0276	-0.0317	0.1804*	-0.0744	-0.0826
60	Involve Total	0.0678	-0.1383*	-0.0482	-0.1246*	-0.0933	-0.0288	0.0063	-0.0158	0.0422	0.0124	0.1195*

	Correlation Matrix	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
61	Fight Morals	-0.0029	-0.4375*	-0.1379*	-0.0573	-0.075	-0.1062*	-0.0709	-0.0566	0.0104	0.0086	-0.0066
62	Shoplift Morals	-0.0801	-0.1420*	-0.5333*	-0.1758*	-0.2895*	-0.3299*	-0.0769	-0.0035	0.1554*	-0.0908	-0.1192*
63	Drink Morals	0.0904	-0.1049*	-0.1323*	-0.6371*	-0.3877*	-0.1926*	-0.0976	0.0062	0.1073*	-0.1300*	0.0327
64	Drug Morals	0.1141*	-0.1833*	-0.2430*	-0.4752*	-0.6278*	-0.1828*	-0.0563	-0.0334	0.2249*	-0.1184*	0.0177
65	Cheat Morals	-0.049	-0.2719*	-0.4542*	-0.1607*	-0.2063*	-0.6611*	-0.0651	-0.0279	0.0013	-0.2404*	-0.1678*
66	Morals	0.0317	-0.3575*	-0.4355*	-0.5111*	-0.5214*	-0.4359*	-0.1232*	-0.0409	0.1600*	-0.1765*	-0.0583
67	Peers Fight	-0.1521*	0.2688*	0.2522*	0.1315*	0.2188*	0.1513*	-0.0127	-0.0217	-0.001	-0.1019	0.0456
68	Peers Shoplift	0.028	0.1782*	0.4076*	0.0849	0.2026*	0.2589*	0.0156	-0.0184	0.0205	0.0808	0.0573
69	Peers Drug Use	-0.1074*	0.1703*	0.2040*	0.3911*	0.4693*	0.2200*	0.0506	0.0411	-0.0849	0.1071	-0.0315
70	Peers Drink	-0.1289*	0.0946	0.1018	0.4029*	0.2197*	0.1059*	0.0949	0.0783	0.0607	0.049	-0.0149
71	Peers Cheat	-0.0215	0.1519*	0.2316*	0.0946	0.0904	0.4082*	0.0862	-0.0444	0.0447	0.0811	0.0232
72	Peer Fight Morals	0.0861	-0.3636*	-0.1518*	-0.0407	-0.0896	-0.068	-0.0572	-0.0317	0.0304	0.0071	-0.097
73	Peer Steal Morals	0.0368	-0.1852*	-0.3597*	-0.0916	-0.1335*	-0.2280*	0.0301	-0.0029	0.1075*	-0.0724	-0.0507
74	Peer Drink Morals	0.0311	-0.1083*	-0.0426	-0.3426*	-0.1806*	-0.1523*	-0.0891	-0.0276	-0.0149	-0.0539	-0.0085
75	Peer Drug Morals	0.1402*	-0.1451*	-0.0891	-0.3714*	-0.3471*	-0.1590*	-0.0684	-0.0516	0.1025	-0.0435	-0.0132
76	Peer Cheat Morals	0.0286	-0.2058*	-0.1859*	-0.0804	-0.1588*	-0.3935*	-0.085	-0.0169	0.0041	-0.0882	-0.0457
77	Age	-0.072	-0.1382*	-0.1581*	0.0106	-0.0302	-0.0824	-0.0381	0.044	-0.1487*	-0.1053*	-0.1868*
78	Mom Education	-0.0757	-0.0687	0.0152	0.0727	0.0859	0.0419	-0.0339	-0.0607	0.0705	0.0276	0.0895
79	Dad Education	-0.0183	0.0301	0.0491	0.0937	0.1023	0.0824	-0.0434	-0.0493	0.0133	0.0332	0.1285*
80	Household Income	-0.0949	-0.043	-0.0258	0.1692*	0.067	0.0307	-0.0038	0.0229	0.0211	-0.0277	0.0547
81	Self-efficacy	-0.2608*	-0.0944	-0.1299*	-0.1760*	-0.1016	-0.1230*	-0.1109*	0.0484	-0.0313	-0.2133*	-0.1307*
82	Self-esteem	-0.2737*	-0.0696	-0.1085*	-0.1797*	-0.1526*	-0.1110*	0.0064	0.1086*	-0.0487	-0.2209*	-0.0681
83	# Talk Problems	-0.0405	-0.0696	-0.0551	0.1657*	0.0458	-0.0636	-0.0535	0.0633	-0.1217*	-0.0167	0.0804
84	Help Often	-0.0081	-0.1287*	-0.0851	-0.0382	-0.1806*	-0.0558	-0.034	0.0641	0.0571	-0.0737	-0.0242

	Correlation Matrix	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
9	Fight Depression											
10	Shoplift Depress											
11	Drug Depression											
12	Cheat Depression											
13	Fight Hit											
14	Shoplift Steal											
15	Drug Drink											
16	Drug Use											
17	Cheat Copy											
18	Fight Personal											
19	Fight Unjustified											
20	Grades Important											
21	Shoplift Unfair											
22	Drug Unfair											
23	Cheat Unfair	1										
24	Fight Confident	0.0756	1									
25	Shoplift Confident	0.0746	0.4059*	1								
26	Drug Confident	0.1270*	0.4748*	0.5341*	1							
27	Cheat Confident	0.1103*	0.4243*	0.5399*	0.5373*	1						
28	Fight Realistic	0.1712*	0.1566*	0.0697	0.0606	0.0725	1					
29	Shoplift Realistic	0.1542*	0.1183*	0.1117*	0.0439	0.1068*	0.1478*	1				
30	Drug Realistic	0.1905*	0.1474*	0.1151*	0.1518*	0.0629	0.2468*	0.3717*	1			

	Correlation Matrix	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
31	Cheat Realistic	0.1828*	0.2079*	0.1825*	0.1984*	0.2374*	0.2208*	0.3514*	0.4594*	1		
32	Aspects (centered)	0.1917*	0.1110*	0.0931	0.1567*	0.0831	0.0442	0.0942	0.1357*	0.1023	1	
33	% Overlap (cent'd)	0.1028	0.1472*	0.0759	0.2360*	0.1140*	0.1425*	0.0031	0.0888	0.0136	0.0049	1
34	Interaction	-0.0558	-0.0748	-0.0351	-0.0424	-0.0381	-0.0872	-0.0036	-0.0074	-0.0325	-0.2167*	0.1158*
35	Prior Hit	0.0488	0.0389	0.0304	0.012	-0.0031	0.0441	0.0978	0.0754	0.0283	-0.0373	0.0321
36	Prior Shoplift	-0.0651	0.0318	-0.0461	-0.1261*	-0.0755	-0.0975	0.097	0.0448	0.0033	-0.0959	-0.0811
37	Prior Drink	0.0015	0.0399	0.0206	-0.0185	0.0067	-0.0229	-0.0383	0.0776	0.0542	-0.0544	0.0138
38	Prior Pot Use	-0.0865	0.0493	0.0182	-0.013	0.0281	-0.0964	0.0099	0.1086*	0.0071	-0.1110*	-0.0382
39	Prior Cheat	0.0454	-0.0256	-0.1387*	-0.0925	-0.1146*	0.0358	-0.1024	0.0023	0.1218*	-0.0687	0.0916
40	Academic Strain	0.1355*	0.0623	0.0494	0.1013	0.0336	0.1029	-0.0241	0.2059*	0.0883	0.0647	0.1455*
41	Discrimin'n Strain	-0.0706	-0.008	-0.0056	-0.0724	-0.1367*	0.0661	0.0943	0.0963	0.0125	0.0652	0.0952
42	Living Arr'ts Strain	0.0821	-0.0391	-0.0307	0.0613	-0.029	-0.0686	-0.1080*	0.0486	-0.0504	0.0878	0.1712*
43	Financial Strain	0.0501	0.0521	0.1044	0.1058*	0.1330*	0.0669	0.0133	0.1063*	0.0311	0.0134	0.1636*
44	Family Strain	0.1294*	-0.0189	-0.0627	-0.0541	-0.0722	0.0716	0.0636	0.1529*	0.0813	0.0028	0.075
45	Romantic Strain	0.0931	0.1060*	0.0472	0.0908	-0.0128	0.1525*	0.049	0.1169*	0.1390*	0.0563	0.1714*
46	Friend Strain	0.0877	0.014	0.0083	0.0014	0.0161	0.1296*	0.0311	0.0506	0.0222	0.0789	0.1675*
47	Other Strain	0.0203	-0.0614	0.0035	-0.1064*	-0.0039	-0.0016	-0.023	0.0305	-0.0156	0.0573	0.0318
48	Victimiz'n Strain	0.0732	0.0113	0.045	-0.0365	-0.0377	-0.0001	0.0669	0.0765	0.0318	0.0743	-0.0247
49	Work Strain	0.0612	-0.006	0.0313	-0.0225	-0.0574	0.0515	0.0907	0.031	-0.0845	-0.0028	0.013
50	Strain Total	0.1304*	0.0677	0.0463	0.0434	0.0164	0.1361*	0.0672	0.1970*	0.0607	0.0519	0.2328*
51	Trait Anger	0.0385	0.044	-0.0456	-0.0619	-0.0942	0.0628	0.0578	0.1588*	-0.0009	-0.0556	-0.0902
52	Depress Average	0.0093	-0.0393	-0.0184	-0.0963	-0.0665	-0.0022	0.0683	0.1496*	-0.0188	0.0296	0.0298
53	Self Label	-0.0821	-0.0309	-0.0989	-0.1271*	-0.1230*	-0.0057	0.0346	0.1537*	0.1096*	-0.0755	-0.1520*
54	Constraint	0.1652*	0.1223*	0.1476*	0.1990*	0.1285*	0.1303*	-0.0455	0.032	0.0211	0.1031	0.1918*
55	Neg Emotionality	0.018	-0.0061	-0.0899	-0.0733	-0.0919	0.0041	0.0534	0.1601*	0.0184	-0.034	-0.1229*
56	Attach to Parents	0.0505	-0.0265	0.0117	0.0153	-0.0688	0.0583	-0.0392	-0.0118	0.0623	0.026	0.0717
57	Family Close	0.0382	0.1111*	0.0471	0.1457*	0.1150*	0.0727	-0.0181	-0.0184	0.0356	0.1245*	0.053
58	School Commit'nt	0.0952	0.041	0.014	0.0722	0.0225	0.0676	-0.0542	-0.0124	0.0433	0.1048	0.0348
59	Grades	-0.0853	-0.0839	-0.1252*	-0.1483*	-0.1534*	-0.0837	-0.0454	-0.1175*	-0.0978	-0.0046	-0.0927
60	Involve Total	0.0812	-0.0367	-0.0116	0.0001	-0.0407	0.0271	-0.0823	-0.0004	0.0192	0.1889*	0.1587*

	Correlation Matrix	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
61	Fight Morals	-0.0278	-0.1392*	-0.0213	-0.0091	0.0286	-0.053	0.0084	0.0072	-0.0425	0.099	-0.0182
62	Shoplift Morals	0.055	0.0344	0.2005*	0.1752*	0.1015	0.1308*	-0.1044*	-0.1042	-0.068	0.0013	0.1048
63	Drink Morals	0.103	0.0424	0.0307	0.0972	0.0701	-0.0362	-0.0599	-0.1349*	-0.0967	0.0623	0.0958
64	Drug Morals	0.1018	0.0418	0.0246	0.1349*	0.0919	0.0089	-0.0803	-0.1364*	-0.0676	0.0634	0.1217*
65	Cheat Morals	-0.0943	-0.0396	0.1140*	0.1038	0.1489*	-0.0571	-0.0676	-0.1001	-0.1749*	0.0138	0.1144*
66	Morals	0.0488	-0.0274	0.095	0.1457*	0.1328*	-0.0082	-0.0921	-0.1578*	-0.1448*	0.0785	0.1194*
67	Peers Fight	-0.0649	0.0248	0.0359	-0.094	-0.0203	0.0211	0.0248	-0.0131	0.0071	-0.1799*	0.0519
68	Peers Shoplift	-0.0504	-0.0736	-0.0572	-0.1405*	-0.0593	-0.0634	0.0821	0.0459	0.0584	-0.1574*	0.0361
69	Peers Drug Use	-0.0121	0.0002	-0.0417	-0.0428	-0.0642	0.0406	0.0417	0.2143*	0.0843	-0.0157	0.0383
70	Peers Drink	0.0051	0.0426	0.0072	-0.0495	-0.078	-0.0018	-0.0151	0.1309*	0.0615	0.0291	0.0145
71	Peers Cheat	-0.0099	-0.0477	-0.1102	-0.1129	-0.1302*	0.0172	-0.0964	0.0673	0.1098	-0.0695	-0.0179
72	Peer Fight Morals	-0.0984	-0.0793	-0.0464	0.0071	-0.0269	-0.0527	-0.075	-0.0559	-0.0061	0.0709	-0.0233
73	Peer Steal Morals	0.0566	0.0477	0.0716	0.0878	0.0824	0.1362*	-0.081	-0.0734	-0.0734	-0.0462	0.0672
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.0856	-0.017	0.0168	0.0291	0.0792	0.0239	-0.0006	-0.1908*	-0.0885	-0.0392	0.0042
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.0648	-0.0003	-0.0261	0.0296	0.0372	-0.0413	-0.0535	-0.2113*	-0.0789	-0.0397	-0.044
76	Peer Cheat Morals	-0.084	0.0357	0.0301	0.0844	0.1354*	-0.031	-0.0133	-0.0422	-0.1042	0.0155	0.0949
77	Age	-0.0287	0.0707	0.1332*	0.0966	0.1506*	-0.0848	0.0098	-0.0908	0.0039	0.0058	0.0193
78	Mom Education	-0.0081	-0.1034	-0.0466	-0.0617	-0.0838	-0.0117	-0.021	-0.0237	0.1274*	-0.0343	0.059
79	Dad Education	-0.004	-0.019	-0.0796	-0.0182	-0.0058	0.0331	0.0221	0.0607	0.1475*	-0.011	0.0511
80	Household Income	0.0693	0.0121	-0.0644	0.0586	0.005	0.0759	-0.031	0.0744	0.1652*	-0.0754	0.0013
81	Self-efficacy	-0.0624	0.1571*	0.1419*	0.1932*	0.2604*	0.0613	-0.0982	-0.1122*	0.0146	0.0185	0.1430*
82	Self-esteem	-0.0569	0.1054	0.1635*	0.1530*	0.1863*	0.0128	-0.088	-0.0925	-0.0075	0.0517	0.1658*
83	# Talk Problems	-0.0349	0.0283	0.0109	0.0524	0.0768	0.0013	-0.0841	0.052	0.0795	0.0639	0.0803
84	Help Often	0.1230*	0.0679	0.0388	0.1125*	0.0858	0.0612	-0.0701	0.0031	-0.0021	0.0849	0.1028

	Correlation Matrix	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
9	Fight Depression											
10	Shoplift Depress											
11	Drug Depression											
12	Cheat Depression											
13	Fight Hit											
14	Shoplift Steal											
15	Drug Drink											
16	Drug Use											
17	Cheat Copy											
18	Fight Personal											
19	Fight Unjustified											
20	Grades Important											
21	Shoplift Unfair											
22	Drug Unfair											
23	Cheat Unfair											
24	Fight Confident											
25	Shoplift Confident											
26	Drug Confident											
27	Cheat Confident											
28	Fight Realistic											
29	Shoplift Realistic											
30	Drug Realistic											

	Correlation Matrix	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
31	Cheat Realistic											
32	Aspects (centered)											
33	% Overlap (cent'd)											
34	Interaction	1										
35	Prior Hit	0.0224	1									
36	Prior Shoplift	0.0149	0.0261	1								
37	Prior Drink	0.0686	0.0196	0.0947	1							
38	Prior Pot Use	0.0505	0.0402	0.2409*	0.5234*	1						
39	Prior Cheat	0.0063	0.2360*	0.1851*	0.1340*	0.1563*	1					
40	Academic Strain	-0.0268	0.0985	0.0358	-0.07	-0.0217	0.2555*	1				
41	Discrimin'n Strain	-0.0511	0.0709	0.1524*	0.0525	0.1248*	0.1586*	0.1401*	1			
42	Living Arr'ts Strain	0.1621*	0.0682	-0.0565	0.1132*	-0.0135	0.1305*	0.2937*	0.1570*	1		
43	Financial Strain	0.0565	0.1720*	-0.0023	0.0342	0.1560*	0.0629	0.2528*	0.0747	0.2994*	1	
44	Family Strain	0.0328	0.2422*	0.05	0.0768	0.1186*	0.2027*	0.3650*	0.2260*	0.3237*	0.2829*	1
45	Romantic Strain	-0.1052	0.0404	0.0147	0.2070*	0.1420*	0.1092*	0.2479*	0.2368*	0.1974*	0.2576*	0.2964*
46	Friend Strain	0.0887	0.0889	-0.0653	0.0694	0.0077	0.0857	0.2284*	0.0993	0.2742*	0.1378*	0.2634*
47	Other Strain	0.1229*	0.1381*	0.0499	0.0194	-0.0103	0.1270*	0.1194*	0.0865	0.0653	-0.0466	0.044
48	Victimiz'n Strain	-0.0175	0.1414*	0.0583	0.1437*	0.1498*	0.1692*	0.1475*	0.2841*	0.1923*	0.1645*	0.2909*
49	Work Strain	0.02	0.1124*	0.0525	-0.0242	0.027	0.0085	0.0878	0.1967*	0.0983	0.1201*	0.1674*
50	Strain Total	0.0738	0.1979*	0.0585	0.1124*	0.1702*	0.2550*	0.5905*	0.3671*	0.5870*	0.5934*	0.7158*
51	Trait Anger	-0.0279	0.1656*	0.0163	0.0335	0.0558	0.1894*	0.2221*	0.1104*	0.2395*	0.1591*	0.2645*
52	Depress Average	-0.0758	0.1471*	0.0845	0.0372	0.1653*	0.0837	0.3175*	0.2090*	0.1942*	0.2732*	0.3388*
53	Self Label	-0.0553	0.2307*	0.2594*	0.3299*	0.3594*	0.3012*	0.1460*	0.2688*	0.1192*	0.1025	0.2177*
54	Constraint	-0.0001	-0.1441*	-0.1949*	-0.2673*	-0.3200*	-0.1543*	-0.0589	-0.088	-0.0564	-0.0769	-0.1951*
55	Neg Emotionality	-0.0025	0.2005*	0.041	0.0264	0.075	0.1128*	0.2829*	0.1862*	0.2767*	0.1707*	0.3031*
56	Attach to Parents	-0.023	-0.1798*	-0.0705	-0.0639	-0.0795	0.0012	-0.0421	-0.058	-0.1410*	-0.1801*	-0.3624*
57	Family Close	0.0571	-0.1776*	-0.0848	0.0287	-0.0991	-0.0639	-0.0179	-0.0926	-0.0652	-0.0595	-0.2592*
58	School Commit'nt	0.0686	-0.1009	-0.1146*	-0.2062*	-0.2114*	-0.1854*	-0.0794	-0.0636	0.0283	-0.1187*	-0.1160*
59	Grades	0.1139*	-0.1121*	-0.1	0.0641	0.0017	-0.1282*	-0.3588*	-0.0847	0.0027	-0.1313*	-0.066
60	Involve Total	0.1385*	-0.0639	-0.0256	-0.1043	-0.0783	0.0618	0.0902	0.1293*	0.0945	-0.0232	0.0014

	Correlation Matrix	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
61	Fight Morals	0.0203	-0.1462*	-0.0712	-0.0571	-0.0671	-0.0909	-0.0904	-0.0631	-0.0619	-0.0716	-0.0616
62	Shoplift Morals	0.0508	-0.0793	-0.3520*	-0.053	-0.1892*	-0.1912*	-0.1412*	-0.102	-0.0197	-0.0582	-0.1266*
63	Drink Morals	-0.0746	0.0305	-0.1068*	-0.4420*	-0.2919*	-0.0524	-0.0171	-0.0785	-0.043	-0.024	0.0141
64	Drug Morals	-0.0381	-0.0154	-0.2544*	-0.3756*	-0.5206*	-0.0554	0.0321	-0.1113*	0.02	-0.047	-0.0346
65	Cheat Morals	0.0762	-0.1416*	-0.2503*	-0.0871	-0.1280*	-0.4169*	-0.2212*	-0.2119*	-0.0912	-0.0539	-0.2089*
66	Morals	0.0044	-0.0997	-0.3039*	-0.3559*	-0.4014*	-0.2276*	-0.1239*	-0.1737*	-0.0637	-0.0789	-0.1143*
67	Peers Fight	0.0964	0.2125*	0.3068*	0.1391*	0.2108*	0.2006*	0.0819	0.2021*	-0.0684	0.0854	0.0909
68	Peers Shoplift	0.0405	0.0627	0.4208*	0.1401*	0.1725*	0.2110*	0.065	0.1937*	0.0142	0.0106	0.0971
69	Peers Drug Use	0.0412	0.0151	0.1838*	0.5070*	0.5584*	0.1903*	0.0575	0.1550*	0.0617	0.1548*	0.1213*
70	Peers Drink	0.1013	-0.0565	0.0875	0.5127*	0.3480*	0.1116*	-0.0355	0.1340*	0.0764	0.0493	-0.0044
71	Peers Cheat	-0.0161	0.1011	0.2650*	0.2214*	0.1359*	0.4037*	0.1763*	0.1258*	0.0739	0.0335	0.1525*
72	Peer Fight Morals	-0.0514	-0.2087*	-0.0924	-0.1070*	-0.1108*	-0.0442	-0.0017	-0.068	0.0357	-0.0771	0.0039
73	Peer Steal Morals	0.0242	-0.0831	-0.2610*	-0.1080*	-0.1140*	-0.1578*	-0.0272	-0.1617*	0.0238	-0.0645	-0.0373
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.0258	0.0184	-0.0466	-0.3008*	-0.1903*	-0.1019	-0.0852	-0.0662	-0.0826	-0.0145	-0.0068
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.0278	-0.0284	-0.1285*	-0.4134*	-0.3887*	-0.1474*	-0.0149	-0.1036	-0.0271	-0.0497	-0.0106
76	Peer Cheat Morals	0.023	-0.1013	-0.1366*	-0.1097*	-0.1157*	-0.2381*	-0.0574	-0.1224*	0.0019	-0.0142	-0.0549
77	Age	0.0799	-0.0956	-0.0016	-0.041	-0.0041	-0.1152*	-0.0572	-0.0906	-0.1607*	0.0874	-0.1415*
78	Mom Education	-0.0756	0.0056	0.093	0.0702	0.0702	0.0774	-0.0253	0.0533	0.0269	-0.1624*	0.0574
79	Dad Education	-0.095	-0.0696	0.05	-0.0018	0.0352	0.0734	0.0131	-0.0275	0.0199	-0.1580*	-0.0327
80	Household Income	0.0045	-0.0173	-0.0181	0.1702*	0.0626	0.0582	-0.0204	-0.0875	-0.0295	-0.2467*	0.023
81	Self-efficacy	0.078	-0.0944	-0.0619	0.0011	-0.0051	-0.0277	-0.1969*	-0.1572*	-0.1869*	-0.0922	-0.2270*
82	Self-esteem	0.042	-0.0831	0.0049	-0.0245	-0.0629	-0.0425	-0.2638*	-0.1783*	-0.1670*	-0.1180*	-0.2542*
83	# Talk Problems	-0.0343	-0.1140*	0.0024	0.1632*	0.087	0.023	-0.014	-0.0437	0.0729	-0.0361	-0.0283
84	Help Often	0.0391	-0.0507	-0.0105	-0.0413	-0.0811	0.0598	0.0632	-0.0689	-0.0511	-0.0473	-0.1321*

	Correlation Matrix	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
9	Fight Depression											
10	Shoplift Depress											
11	Drug Depression											
12	Cheat Depression											
13	Fight Hit											
14	Shoplift Steal											
15	Drug Drink											
16	Drug Use											
17	Cheat Copy											
18	Fight Personal											
19	Fight Unjustified											
20	Grades Important											
21	Shoplift Unfair											
22	Drug Unfair											
23	Cheat Unfair											
24	Fight Confident											
25	Shoplift Confident											
26	Drug Confident											
27	Cheat Confident											
28	Fight Realistic											
29	Shoplift Realistic											
30	Drug Realistic											

	Correlation Matrix	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
31	Cheat Realistic											
32	Aspects (centered)											
33	% Overlap (cent'd)											
34	Interaction											
35	Prior Hit											
36	Prior Shoplift											
37	Prior Drink											
38	Prior Pot Use											
39	Prior Cheat											
40	Academic Strain											
41	Discrimin'n Strain											
42	Living Arr'ts Strain											
43	Financial Strain											
44	Family Strain											
45	Romantic Strain	1										
46	Friend Strain	0.0846	1									
47	Other Strain	0.0632	0.0952	1								
48	Victimiz'n Strain	0.3919*	0.0788	0.0228	1							
49	Work Strain	0.0248	0.1515*	0.0398	0.2255*	1						
50	Strain Total	0.5882*	0.3637*	0.1416*	0.4849*	0.2878*	1					
51	Trait Anger	0.0631	0.1828*	0.0899	0.1244*	0.0866	0.2887*	1				
52	Depress Average	0.1877*	0.2216*	-0.0007	0.1408*	0.1755*	0.3758*	0.3120*	1			
53	Self Label	0.2822*	0.0785	-0.0175	0.2570*	0.0177	0.2875*	0.2057*	0.2249*	1		
54	Constraint	-0.0212	0.0336	0.0204	-0.1093*	-0.0072	-0.1404*	-0.0724	-0.2075*	-0.4548*	1	
55	Neg Emotionality	0.1742*	0.1537*	-0.0168	0.1589*	0.0983	0.3528*	0.6575*	0.3969*	0.2811*	-0.2425*	1
56	Attach to Parents	-0.0567	-0.0396	0.0235	-0.098	-0.1255*	-0.2744*	-0.1924*	-0.1814*	-0.1202*	0.2873*	-0.2261*
57	Family Close	-0.0574	-0.1080*	-0.007	-0.1339*	-0.1751*	-0.1823*	-0.1545*	-0.2208*	-0.1307*	0.2660*	-0.1938*
58	School Commit'nt	-0.0757	0.022	-0.0141	-0.0718	-0.0846	-0.1125*	-0.0446	-0.2046*	-0.3010*	0.3919*	-0.0799
59	Grades	-0.1091*	-0.033	-0.0024	0.0022	-0.0148	-0.1792*	-0.0264	-0.1422*	-0.1321*	0.1422*	-0.1125*
60	Involve Total	-0.0329	0.1341*	0.2090*	0.0064	0.0079	0.0831	-0.0472	-0.0427	-0.1284*	0.2089*	-0.063

	Correlation Matrix	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
61	Fight Morals	-0.1852*	-0.0274	0.0299	-0.0636	-0.0584	-0.1749*	-0.1398*	0.0471	-0.1764*	0.1716*	-0.2201*
62	Shoplift Morals	-0.0085	-0.0256	-0.0157	-0.1631*	-0.0647	-0.1783*	-0.1044	-0.1488*	-0.3732*	0.3502*	-0.1706*
63	Drink Morals	-0.1313*	-0.0021	0.0502	-0.0797	0.0543	-0.0607	-0.0565	-0.1363*	-0.3185*	0.2511*	-0.103
64	Drug Morals	-0.0408	0.0522	0.0654	-0.0855	-0.0002	-0.101	-0.034	-0.1683*	-0.4008*	0.4065*	-0.1081*
65	Cheat Morals	-0.1587*	-0.0091	-0.0031	-0.1601*	-0.0304	-0.2130*	-0.2180*	-0.1632*	-0.4119*	0.2784*	-0.2812*
66	Morals	-0.1693*	-0.0004	0.0561	-0.1689*	-0.0228	-0.2213*	-0.1669*	-0.1760*	-0.5233*	0.4516*	-0.2736*
67	Peers Fight	0.1882*	0.0511	0.1116*	0.1922*	0.1022	0.1651*	0.0465	0.0573	0.3330*	-0.1791*	0.0547
68	Peers Shoplift	0.1693*	0.0573	0.104	0.2080*	0.1066	0.1765*	0.1657*	0.0518	0.2885*	-0.2082*	0.1566*
69	Peers Drug Use	0.2605*	0.0784	0.0898	0.2664*	-0.0128	0.2572*	0.0862	0.1368*	0.3822*	-0.2413*	0.0901
70	Peers Drink	0.2184*	0.0064	0.0788	0.1881*	-0.0832	0.1004	0.0533	-0.0273	0.2233*	-0.1815*	0.049
71	Peers Cheat	0.1267*	0.1737*	0.2252*	0.2278*	0.1022	0.1995*	0.1663*	0.0401	0.3265*	-0.1216	0.1155
72	Peer Fight Morals	-0.2068*	-0.0094	-0.0335	-0.1957*	-0.0352	-0.1363*	0.0034	0.1091*	-0.2121*	0.1259*	-0.0826
73	Peer Steal Morals	-0.1057	-0.0265	-0.0944	-0.1810*	-0.0159	-0.0954	-0.0247	-0.1066*	-0.2924*	0.1566*	-0.1500*
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.1928*	0.0201	-0.0671	-0.1941*	0.0693	-0.0996	-0.0975	-0.0879	-0.1725*	0.0599	-0.1381*
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.2105*	-0.0111	-0.0664	-0.2374*	0.0528	-0.1005	-0.0653	-0.1228*	-0.2741*	0.1276*	-0.1031
76	Peer Cheat Morals	-0.1572*	0.0113	-0.0963	-0.2346*	-0.053	-0.0926	-0.1052	0.022	-0.2390*	0.1348*	-0.1659*
77	Age	0.044	-0.1348*	0.01	-0.0383	0.0075	-0.1071	-0.1983*	-0.0986	-0.1581*	0.0827	-0.1341*
78	Mom Education	0.0412	0.0421	0.0741	0.0049	-0.1349*	0.016	-0.0721	-0.0429	0.0003	0.01	-0.0837
79	Dad Education	0.0534	-0.0526	0.1258*	-0.0299	-0.1609*	0.003	-0.0544	-0.031	-0.0232	0.0125	-0.1128*
80	Household Income	0.0405	0.039	0.0881	0.0023	-0.1076*	-0.0535	0.0275	-0.1173*	0.0825	0.0076	-0.0229
81	Self-efficacy	-0.0959	-0.1292*	0.0454	-0.0954	-0.0984	-0.2187*	-0.4682*	-0.4291*	-0.2140*	0.1808*	-0.5448*
82	Self-esteem	-0.0652	-0.072	0.0069	-0.1210*	-0.1308*	-0.2658*	-0.4377*	-0.4709*	-0.2148*	0.2630*	-0.5054*
83	# Talk Problems	0.0532	-0.0326	0.0779	-0.081	-0.1089*	-0.0101	-0.1076*	-0.0815	0.1378*	-0.0168	-0.1296*
84	Help Often	-0.0338	-0.0062	0.1344*	-0.1195*	-0.064	-0.104	-0.0871	-0.0963	-0.0811	0.2194*	-0.1067*

	Correlation Matrix	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
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28	Fight Realistic											
29	Shoplift Realistic											
30	Drug Realistic											

31	Cheat Realistic						
32	Aspects (centered)						
33	% Overlap (cent'd)						
34	Interaction						
35	Prior Hit						
36	Prior Shoplift						
37	Prior Drink						
38	Prior Pot Use						
39	Prior Cheat						
40	Academic Strain						
41	Discrimin'n Strain						
42	Living Arr'ts Strain						
43	Financial Strain						
44	Family Strain						
45	Romantic Strain						
46	Friend Strain						
47	Other Strain						
48	Victimiz'n Strain						
49	Work Strain						
50	Strain Total						
51	Trait Anger						
52	Depress Average						
53	Self Label						
54	Constraint						
55	Neg Emotionality						
56	Attach to Parents	1					
57	Family Close	0.4897*	1				
58	School Commit'nt	0.2088*	0.1564*	1			
59	Grades	0.0791	0.0083	0.3480*	1		
60	Involve Total	0.089	0.0402	0.1504*	0.0719	1	
61	Fight Morals	0.0354	0.054	0.1690*	0.0896	0.1560*	1

62	Shoplift Morals	0.1500*	0.0897	0.2043*	0.0526	0.0027	0.1470*	1				
63	Drink Morals	-0.0046	-0.0205	0.1338*	-0.0244	0.1195*	0.0619	0.0919	1			
64	Drug Morals	0.0845	0.0919	0.1597*	0.0298	0.0897	0.099	0.3290*	0.6211*	1		
65	Cheat Morals	0.0183	0.0547	0.2004*	0.1572*	0.0943	0.1981*	0.4660*	0.2166*	0.2546*	1	
66	Morals	0.0785	0.0761	0.2657*	0.0914	0.1485*	0.4867*	0.5653*	0.6903*	0.7765*	0.6224*	1
67	Peers Fight	0.0369	-0.0064	-0.1485*	-0.1320*	-0.0044	-0.2798*	-0.2031*	-0.0679	-0.1340*	-0.2170*	-0.2664*
68	Peers Shoplift	-0.0796	-0.0742	-0.1335*	-0.0763	-0.0462	-0.2065*	-0.4004*	-0.0418	-0.1653*	-0.3692*	-0.3283*
69	Peers Drug Use	0.0643	0.0525	-0.1520*	-0.0026	0.0002	-0.1273*	-0.1810*	-0.3313*	-0.4631*	-0.2258*	-0.4410*
70	Peers Drink	0.1192*	0.1453*	-0.0431	0.1558*	0.06	-0.1133*	-0.0557	-0.3677*	-0.2128*	-0.1143*	-0.2884*
71	Peers Cheat	-0.013	-0.0418	-0.1953*	-0.1065	0.0543	-0.0955	-0.2396*	-0.0733	-0.0312	-0.4386*	-0.2464*
72	Peer Fight Morals	0.0677	0.0845	0.1450*	0.0563	0.1284*	0.6173*	0.1629*	0.0771	0.1070*	0.1667*	0.3533*
73	Peer Steal Morals	0.0486	-0.0109	0.1063*	0.1026	-0.0072	0.2129*	0.4415*	0.0691	0.2092*	0.3325*	0.3669*
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.0811	-0.0249	0.0593	-0.0561	-0.02	0.1679*	0.0807	0.4994*	0.2637*	0.1749*	0.3957*
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.0587	0.0117	0.1213*	0.0014	0.0065	0.1148*	0.1477*	0.4530*	0.4815*	0.1852*	0.4632*
76	Peer Cheat Morals	-0.0546	0.0342	0.1101*	0.0464	-0.0199	0.2204*	0.2368*	0.1068*	0.1497*	0.4547*	0.3440*
77	Age	0.0517	0.099	0.0046	0.0063	-0.0926	0.0075	0.1891*	-0.1214*	-0.0149	0.1508*	0.0429
78	Mom Education	0.1749*	0.0539	0.0981	0.1535*	0.1044	0.1121*	0.002	-0.0453	-0.0346	0.0041	0.0139
79	Dad Education	0.1788*	0.0825	0.0671	0.1272*	0.1052	0.0515	-0.0519	-0.0167	0.0001	-0.0034	0.0025
80	Household Income	0.1751*	0.1058	0.0589	0.0646	0.0746	0.1121*	0.0045	-0.1159*	-0.0779	-0.049	-0.0463
81	Self-efficacy	0.2075*	0.2267*	0.1080*	0.0972	0.0734	0.0306	0.1412*	0.1646*	0.1390*	0.2105*	0.2130*
82	Self-esteem	0.2319*	0.2119*	0.1327*	0.2012*	0.0085	-0.0902	0.1077*	0.1136*	0.1533*	0.1566*	0.1314*
83	# Talk Problems	0.1691*	0.2196*	-0.0457	-0.0062	0.0766	0.0966	-0.0374	-0.1249*	-0.0547	0.0093	-0.0431
84	Help Often	0.3407*	0.4456*	0.0703	-0.0601	0.0716	0.0325	0.1100*	0.0489	0.1748*	0.0766	0.1347*

	Correlation Matrix	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77
1	Fight Anger											
2	Shoplift Anger											
3	Drug Anger											
4	Cheat Anger											
5	Fight Frustration											
6	Shoplift Frust											
7	Drug Frustration											
8	Cheat Frustration											
9	Fight Depression											
10	Shoplift Depress											
11	Drug Depression											
12	Cheat Depression											
13	Fight Hit											
14	Shoplift Steal											
15	Drug Drink											
16	Drug Use											
17	Cheat Copy											
18	Fight Personal											
19	Fight Unjustified											
20	Grades Important											
21	Shoplift Unfair											
22	Drug Unfair											
23	Cheat Unfair											
24	Fight Confident											
25	Shoplift Confident											
26	Drug Confident											
27	Cheat Confident											
28	Fight Realistic											
29	Shoplift Realistic											
30	Drug Realistic											

31 Cheat Realistic
32 Aspects (centered)
33 % Overlap (cent'd)
34 Interaction
35 Prior Hit
36 Prior Shoplift
37 Prior Drink
38 Prior Pot Use
39 Prior Cheat
40 Academic Strain
41 Discrimin'n Strain
42 Living Arr'ts Strain
43 Financial Strain
44 Family Strain
45 Romantic Strain
46 Friend Strain
47 Other Strain
48 Victimiz'n Strain
49 Work Strain
50 Strain Total
51 Trait Anger
52 Depress Average
53 Self Label
54 Constraint
55 Neg Emotionality
56 Attach to Parents
57 Family Close
58 School Commit'nt
59 Grades
60 Involve Total
61 Fight Morals

62	Shoplift Morals											
63	Drink Morals											
64	Drug Morals											
65	Cheat Morals											
66	Morals											
67	Peers Fight	1										
68	Peers Shoplift	0.4672*	1									
69	Peers Drug Use	0.3606*	0.3799*	1								
70	Peers Drink	0.2475*	0.2243*	0.6416*	1							
71	Peers Cheat	0.4122*	0.5680*	0.4836*	0.3325*	1						
72	Peer Fight Morals	-0.3630*	-0.2253*	-0.1929*	-0.1499*	-0.1638*	1					
73	Peer Steal Morals	-0.4210*	-0.5602*	-0.3188*	-0.1706*	-0.3940*	0.3642*	1				
74	Peer Drink Morals	-0.1493*	-0.1700*	-0.4379*	-0.5047*	-0.2542*	0.3528*	0.2800*	1			
75	Peer Drug Morals	-0.2781*	-0.2644*	-0.6453*	-0.4863*	-0.3006*	0.3233*	0.3849*	0.7223*	1		
76	Peer Cheat Morals	-0.3025*	-0.3886*	-0.3288*	-0.2339*	-0.6268*	0.3413*	0.4908*	0.4302*	0.4259*	1	
77	Age	-0.0119	-0.1925*	-0.1032	-0.0286	-0.2370*	0.0364	0.1536*	-0.0049	0.0235	0.1014	1
78	Mom Education	0.0931	0.0967	0.0961	0.1017	0.0234	0.1162*	0.019	-0.0098	0.0106	0.0387	-0.1064*
79	Dad Education	0.0095	0.024	0.0872	0.0536	0.0285	0.0802	0.0496	-0.0367	-0.0255	0.0318	-0.0719
80	Household Income	-0.005	0.0086	0.1584*	0.1472*	0.0759	0.1335*	0.0577	-0.1054	-0.0814	-0.0411	-0.0332
81	Self-efficacy	0.0063	-0.0818	-0.0366	0.0103	-0.094	-0.0272	0.0897	0.1059*	0.0809	0.09	0.1123*
82	Self-esteem	0.0499	-0.0789	-0.0177	0.0857	-0.0095	-0.1391*	0.0388	0.0039	0.0233	-0.0219	0.1438*
83	# Talk Problems	-0.0205	-0.0046	0.1054	0.1611*	-0.0125	0.1668*	-0.0122	0.056	-0.023	0.1019	-0.0014
84	Help Often	-0.04	-0.0303	0.0126	0.0929	0.0064	0.1309*	0.033	0.0274	0.0144	0.0334	0.0761

	Correlation Matrix	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
1	Fight Anger							
2	Shoplift Anger							
3	Drug Anger							
4	Cheat Anger							
5	Fight Frustration							
6	Shoplift Frust							
7	Drug Frustration							
8	Cheat Frustration							
9	Fight Depression							
10	Shoplift Depress							
11	Drug Depression							
12	Cheat Depression							
13	Fight Hit							
14	Shoplift Steal							
15	Drug Drink							
16	Drug Use							
17	Cheat Copy							
18	Fight Personal							
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59 Grades
60 Involve Total
61 Fight Morals

62	Shoplift Morals							
63	Drink Morals							
64	Drug Morals							
65	Cheat Morals							
66	Morals							
67	Peers Fight							
68	Peers Shoplift							
69	Peers Drug Use							
70	Peers Drink							
71	Peers Cheat							
72	Peer Fight Morals							
73	Peer Steal Morals							
74	Peer Drink Morals							
75	Peer Drug Morals							
76	Peer Cheat Morals							
77	Age							
78	Mom Education	1						
79	Dad Education	0.5996*	1					
80	Household Income	0.4224*	0.4524*	1				
81	Self-efficacy	0.0157	0.0423	0.0869	1			
82	Self-esteem	0	-0.0047	-0.0357	0.6437*	1		
83	# Talk Problems	0.1248*	0.1351*	0.2084*	0.096	0.0747	1	
84	Help Often	0.0492	-0.0091	0.081	0.1840*	0.1511*	0.3073*	1