

ASSESSING THE CONSTRUCT OF NARCISSISM IN FEMALE JUVENILE OFFENDERS:  
FURTHER EXAMINATION OF THE NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY –  
JUVENILE OFFENDER

by

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ABSTRACT

The construct of narcissism, particularly the dimension of maladaptive narcissism, has been linked to numerous psychological and behavioral problems (e.g., Barry, Grafeman, Adler, & Pickard, 2007; Washburn, McMahon, King, Reinecke, & Silver, 2004). Much research has been done examining the narcissism construct in males, and often these results are generalized to females. A gender gap exists in the narcissism literature, particularly in regards to the juvenile offender population. The current study examined narcissism as it presents in female juvenile offenders using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO; Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000). Additionally, the current study examined the construct validity of the NPI-JO with female juvenile offenders as the NPI-JO has only been validated with male juvenile offenders.

The NPI-JO and the Behavior Assessment System for Children - 2nd edition, Self-Report of Personality - Adolescent (BASC-2 SRP-A) were administered to female juvenile offenders. It was hypothesized that the NPI-JO factors found using the current sample of female juvenile offenders would differ from those NPI-JO factors found in a previous sample of male juvenile

offenders (i.e., Calhoun et al., 2000). Secondly, it was hypothesized that the NPI-JO would demonstrate construct validity in the female juvenile offender sample through cross-validation with the BASC-2 SRP-A scales. Seven factors were identified through principal component analysis and both hypotheses were supported. Significant findings, implications, and future research directions are discussed.

**INDEX WORDS:** Narcissism, juvenile offenders, females, Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender

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## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Susan and Kyle Gallivan, my sister, Clare Gallivan, and last, but most certainly not least, my husband, Adam. I could not have done this without all of your love and support!

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	v
LIST OF TABLES .....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	ix
CHAPTER	
1 Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	1
Purpose of the Study .....	2
Definitions of Terms .....	4
Hypotheses .....	4
2 Review of Related Literature .....	6
Juvenile Offender Population and Mental Health.....	6
Female Juvenile Offenders .....	9
Narcissism Construct .....	13
NPI-JO .....	28
BASC-2 SRP-A .....	29
Rationale for the Current Study .....	30
3 Methodology .....	31
Participants.....	31
Materials .....	32

Procedure .....	34
4 Results.....	36
Research Hypothesis 1 .....	36
Research Hypothesis 2 .....	41
5 Discussion.....	47
Overview of Findings and Implications.....	47
Limitations and Future Research .....	50
REFERENCES .....	53
APPENDICES	
A NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY – JUVENILE OFFENDER .....	63

## LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance for NPI-JO .....	37
Table 2: Rotated Component Matrix of Component/Factor Loadings for NPI-JO .....	38
Table 3: Intercorrelations Between NPI-JO Factors/Components/Scales .....	40
Table 4: Correlations Between BASC-2 SRP-A Scores and NPI-JO Scores .....	43
Table 5: NPI-JO Items Divided By Factor .....	44

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Scree Plot for NPI-JO Demonstrating Seven Components/Factors .....	37

## CHAPTER 1

### **Introduction**

#### **Statement of the Problem**

Juvenile delinquency in the United States is a nation-wide problem with significant consequences for the juvenile offenders themselves and society as a whole. According to data collected by the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting program and analyzed by Puzzanchera and Adams (2011), there was an estimated 1,906,600 juvenile arrests in 2009. Arrest data are best thought of as an indication of entry into the juvenile justice system as they do not, by nature, indicate the number of individuals arrested or the number of crimes committed (Puzzanchera & Adams, 2011). Using this reasoning, in the year 2009 alone, it can be surmised that approximately 2 million juveniles entered the juvenile justice system, becoming part of a population that is vulnerable, underserved, and at risk for future additional negative outcomes (Puzzanchera & Adams, 2011).

The majority of the juveniles who enter the juvenile justice system suffer from mental health problems, which are a risk factor for delinquent behavior (Teplin, Abram, McClelland, Dulcan, & Mericle, 2002). Moreover, certain personality characteristics, such as maladaptive narcissism, have been associated with the perpetration of juvenile delinquent behavior (e.g., C.T. Barry, Frick, Adler, & Grafeman, 2007). Those interested in preventing negative outcomes for youth and those committed to social justice, counseling psychologists in particular, want to be able to identify those adolescents most at risk for delinquent behavior and initiate prevention efforts. Additionally, those individuals already involved in the juvenile justice system are in need

of continued attention in order to remediate their current problems and prevent them from re-offending. Furthermore, as female juvenile offenders are a traditionally overlooked portion of the juvenile offender population, more research needs to be done in examining how the personality characteristics associated with juvenile delinquency are expressed in females.

Undoubtedly, the identification of personality characteristics associated with juvenile delinquency is an important factor in informing juvenile delinquency prevention efforts as well as the treatment of juvenile offenders. Validating the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO; Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000) in a sample of female juvenile offenders and examining how the construct of narcissism as measured by the NPI-JO manifests itself in female juvenile offenders as compared to male juvenile offenders will help inform these efforts.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Historically, counseling psychology as a profession focuses on certain defining roles such as remediation, development, and prevention (Gelso, Williams, & Fretz, 2014). Remediation refers to helping individuals overcome their problems through various methods such as psychotherapy and assessment. While the focus in the remediation role is on fixing problems, counseling psychologists are always operating from one of the most important themes in counseling psychology – focusing on an individual’s strengths (Gelso, Williams, & Fretz, 2014). The developmental role of counseling psychology expands on this central theme of focusing on individual strengths by helping individuals identify and, more importantly, *enhance* their potentials across the lifespan. Finally, the prevention role in counseling psychology refers to taking steps to avoid the development of problems in the future (Gelso, Williams, & Fretz, 2014).

Of these defining counseling psychology roles and themes, those that are most relevant to the purpose of the current study are prevention and focus on strengths. Identifying adolescents at risk for juvenile offending such as those endorsing the personality trait of maladaptive narcissism can help foster prevention efforts so these adolescents do not enter the juvenile justice system. Additionally, as there are adaptive aspects of narcissism (C.T. Barry, Frick et al., 2007), fostering these characteristics in juvenile offenders may lead to development of other strengths.

Another feature of counseling psychology that is relevant to the current study is counseling psychology's long history with psychometrics and assessment. Beginning with James McKeen Cattell's mental tests, counseling psychology forged the way for the assessment of individual differences (Benjamin, 2007). This focus allowed psychologists to be on the forefront of the vocational guidance movement, which began in the early 20th century as a result of urbanization, and the creation of new jobs. Additionally, concerns about juvenile delinquency also spurred on the vocational guidance movement (Benjamin, 2007). Psychologists, such as Harry Hollingworth, argued that they were best suited to help individuals find the career that was best for them as data gathered from individual differences assessment, such as intellectual and personality testing, could be used to connect individuals with appropriate jobs (Benjamin, 2007).

The focus on assessment continued with the advent of World War II. Counseling psychology began to truly organize itself at this point in history. Counseling psychologists were involved in vocational testing, screening, and placement testing in the military during the war, as well as after the war when veterans were in need of jobs outside of the military (Benjamin, 2007; Gelso, Williams, & Fretz, 2014). Due to counseling psychology's historical focus on psychometrics and assessment, specifically that of individual differences, the current study is particularly relevant to the discipline of counseling psychology itself.

The current study examines the construct of narcissism in a sample of female juvenile offenders in an attempt to address the gap in the literature on gender differences in the manifestation of narcissism as it relates to juvenile delinquency. Specifically, this study explores the construct validity of narcissism as measured by the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO; Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000) in a female sample, as this instrument has yet to be validated in such a sample.

### **Definitions of Terms**

**Juvenile offender.** For the purposes of the current study, a juvenile offender refers to an individual under the age of 18 who has been found guilty of a criminal offense.

**Status offense.** Crimes committed by a certain group of people that if others committed would not be a crime (i.e., juveniles vs. adults).

**Property offense.** Crimes that are committed against an individual's property and do not involve force or threat of harm to another person (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998).

**Assault:** Unlawful intentional infliction, or attempted or threatened infliction, of injury upon the another person (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998).

### **Hypotheses**

The hypotheses for the current study are as follows:

Null hypothesis 1: The factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do not differ from the factors found in a previous sample of male juvenile offenders (i.e., Calhoun et al., 2000).

Research hypothesis 1: The factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do differ from the factors found in a previous sample of male juvenile offenders (i.e., Calhoun et al., 2000).

Null hypothesis 2: The identified factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do not represent the overall construct of narcissism (i.e., the NPI-JO does not have construct validity with female juvenile offenders) because they do not correlate significantly with the Behavior Assessment System for Children – Second Edition – Self-Report of Personality – Adolescent form (BASC-2 SRP-A) scales.

Research hypothesis 2: The identified factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do represent the overall construct of narcissism (i.e., the NPI-JO does have construct validity with female juvenile offenders) by correlating significantly with the BASC-2 SRP-A form scales.

## CHAPTER 2

### **Review of Related Literature**

#### **Juvenile Offender Population and Mental Health**

Juvenile offenders in the United States are those individuals under the age of eighteen who have been found guilty of a criminal offense. Ultimately, this is an underserved, and mostly misunderstood, population. The juvenile offender population is a vulnerable one, particularly in regards to mental health problems, which are a known pathway to the risk of juvenile offending behavior (e.g., Grisso, 2008; Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010).

In one of the most comprehensive examinations of the prevalence of mental health problems in detained juvenile offenders, Teplin, Abram, McClelland, Dulcan, and Mericle (2002) utilized a randomly selected and stratified sample of 1829 youth (1172 males, 657 females) detained in a juvenile detention facility in Illinois and determined the six-month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric diagnoses. They found that, overall, 66.3% of males and 73.8% of females met criteria for any psychiatric disorder diagnosis. Even when excluding conduct disorder, a common diagnosis found among juvenile offenders, 60.9% of males and 70% of females still met criteria for a psychiatric diagnosis. Additionally, the authors found that 18.7% of males and 27.6% of females met criteria for an affective disorder diagnosis, 21.3% of males and 30.8% of females met criteria for an anxiety disorder diagnosis, 16.6% of males and 21.4% of females met criteria for an attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder diagnosis, 41.4% of males and 45.6% of females met criteria for a disruptive behavior disorder diagnosis, and 50.7%

of males and 46.8% of females met criteria for a substance use disorder diagnosis (Teplin et al., 2002).

The likelihood of being diagnosed with a certain disorder varied by gender. For example, in the Teplin et al. (2002) sample, females were found to have a significantly greater chance than males of being diagnosed with a psychiatric disorder. More specifically, females were more likely to be diagnosed with an affective disorder, a major depressive episode, an anxiety disorder, panic disorder, separation anxiety disorder, and substance use disorders with the exception of alcohol and marijuana substance use disorders (Teplin et al., 2002, p.1136).

Females in the juvenile justice system, clearly, are at a greater risk of developing mental health disorders, and, as a result, greater efforts must be made to create and promote gender-specific treatment and prevention options. Furthermore, Abram, Teplin, McClelland, and Dulcan (2003) specifically examined comorbidity in psychiatric disorders in juvenile offenders. Using the same sample as Teplin and colleagues (2002), Abram et al. (2003) found that there was a significant difference in the prevalence of comorbid disorders between genders. 56.5% of females met criteria for two or more of the following disorders as compared to only 45.9% of males: major depressive disorder, dysthymia, psychotic disorder, panic disorder, separation anxiety disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder, and other substance use disorders (Abram et al., 2003). Compared to a study done by R.E. Roberts, C.R. Roberts, and Xing (2007) who examined rates of DSM-IV diagnoses in a random sample of 4175 community youth not involved in the juvenile justice system and found only a 17.1% rate of diagnosis of any psychiatric disorder in their sample, it is clear that those juveniles involved in the juvenile justice system are indeed suffering from mental illness at a much greater rate than those juveniles not

involved in the system, and mental health concerns are a risk factor for delinquent behavior. Greater prevention efforts and treatment options must be made available to this vulnerable population.

**Personality traits and juvenile offending behavior.** Certain personality and behavior traits have been found to be significantly associated with delinquent behavior. A general overview of some of these traits is presented here. The personality construct of psychopathy is generally described as a personality construct that involves a “deficient affective experience, aggressive, ego-centered interpersonal style, lack of remorse and shame, a sense that social rules do not apply to oneself, an inability to feel empathy toward the suffering of others, and participation in a wide range of deviant behaviors...” (Vaughn, Newhill, DeLisi, Beaver, & Howard, 2008, p. 241.) Often in research, the construct of psychopathy is closely related to the personality construct of narcissism, specifically maladaptive narcissism. Those individuals possessing psychopathic traits tend to engage in repeated, violent offending behaviors, and it is interesting to note that the development of psychopathy has been associated with the experience of trauma in childhood (Campbell, Porter, & Santor, 2004; Grigorenko, 2012).

Moreover, the concept of callous-unemotional traits is closely related to the constructs of psychopathy and narcissism. Callous-unemotional traits (e.g., absence of guilt, restricted display of emotion, failure to show empathy, interpersonally manipulative use of others) have been associated with juvenile offending behavior and recidivism (Frick, Cornell, C.T. Barry, Bodin, & Dane, 2003; Grigorenko, 2012; Kennedy, Burnett, Edmonds, 2011). Frick et al. (2003) reported that in a sample of 98 community youth, individuals with callous-unemotional traits and conduct problems demonstrated more varied and a greater number of conduct problems at a 1-year follow up screening than did those individuals who presented without callous-unemotional traits and

only conduct problems (Frick et al., 2003). Additionally, those individuals with callous-unemotional traits and conduct problems demonstrated higher levels of aggression and self-reported delinquent behavior (Frick et al., 2003, p. 457). In addition to these personality traits, Miller and Lynam (2001) in their meta-analysis of models of personality and antisocial behavior found that those individuals who engaged in antisocial behavior tended to be low in the personality trait of Agreeableness (i.e., tend to not get along well with or are indifferent to others; self-centered). Also, they found that those who engaged in antisocial behavior were low in the personality trait of Conscientiousness (i.e., tend to lack motivation, be impulsive) (Miller & Lynam, 2001, p.780). These findings correspond to other findings elaborated on above.

### **Female Juvenile Offenders**

In 2009, females accounted for 30% of all juvenile arrests (Puzzanchera & Adams, 2011). Though some have argued that female delinquent behavior has recently begun to steadily increase as evidenced by the increasing arrest rates, most have now agreed that this increase in female arrests is not due to an actual increase in offending behavior in females, but instead to changes in arrest laws and law enforcement policy (Zahn, Brumbaugh, et al., 2008; Zahn, Hawkins, Chiancone, & Whitworth, 2008). For example, certain status offenses involving a domestic dispute between a female juvenile and a family member could now be classified as simple assault, and thus result in an arrest (Zahn, Brumbaugh, et al., 2008; Zahn, Hawkins, Chiancone, & Whitworth, 2008).

In general, female delinquent behavior varies from male delinquent behavior in specific ways. Female delinquent behavior tends to be less chronic and less serious than boys and girls tend to most often engage in minor offenses, such as status offenses (Snyder & Sickmund, 2006; Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010). Furthermore, female juvenile offending behaviors tend to occur in

specific contexts, some of which vary from male juvenile offending behavior contexts, and some of which do not. Zahn, Brumbaugh, and colleagues' (2008) review of the literature, which is part of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention's (OJJDP) Girls Study Group project, indicated that female adolescent violence tends to occur in the following contexts: a) "girls tend to fight with their peers in order to gain status, to defend their sexual reputation, and in self-defense against sexual harassment"; b) "girls fight more at home with parents than do boys, who engage more frequently in violence outside the household," and girls' violence against family members is "multidimensional"; c) girls' fighting in school tends to result from "teacher labeling, in self-defense, or out of a general sense of hopelessness"; d) "girls in disadvantaged neighborhoods are more likely to perpetrate violence against others because of the increased risk of victimization, [...] parental inability to counteract negative community influences, and lack of opportunities for success"; and e) "girls associated with primarily male gangs exhibit more violence than those in all-female gangs [...]" (Zahn, Brumbaugh, et al., 2008, p. 15-16).

Most of the research concerning juveniles involved in the juvenile justice system has traditionally focused on males as males tend to engage in more delinquent and antisocial behaviors, particularly more violent behaviors (Guerra et al., 2008; Hoge & Robertson, 2008; Snyder & Sickmund, 2006; Williams, Tuthill, & Lio, 2008). However, this lack of research has consequently left those wanting to treat and prevent female juvenile offending behavior at a loss as to how best to proceed with female juvenile offenders, so much so that some often do not even want to work with female juvenile offenders (Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2013). Luckily, in recent years, scholarship concerning female juvenile offending has increased (e.g., Calhoun, Bartolomucci, & McLean, 2005; Chesney-Lind & Pasko, 2013; Hawkins, Graham, Williams, & Zahn, 2009; Leve, Chamberlain, Kim, & Smith, 2012; Woolard, 2004; Zahn, Agnew, et al.,

2010; Zahn, Brumbaugh, et al., 2008), providing valuable resources for practitioners and policy makers who want to affect change in the juvenile justice system through prevention, treatment, and policy. The subsections that follow provide a more detailed picture of how female juvenile offenders differ from male juvenile offenders.

**Risk factors for delinquency.** In addition to mental health concerns being a risk factor for delinquent behavior, there are many other risk factors that researchers have identified as important to consider in the development of delinquent behavior for both males and females. For example, some overall risk factors for delinquent/antisocial behaviors include “family dynamics and parenting practices”, “academic failure and problems at school”, “antisocial peer group associations”, “substance abuse”, “use of leisure time”, “personality/behavior traits”, and “antisocial attitudes, values, and cognitions” (Hoge & Robertson, 2008, p. 263-266). Other risk factors for delinquency that equally affect both genders are family dynamics, involvement in school, neighborhood effects (e.g., living in a neighborhood with significant poverty increases the likelihood that an individual will engage in delinquent behavior), sexual and physical maltreatment, neglect, and how available community programs are to an individual (Zahn, Hawkins, et al., 2008, p. 4; Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010).

There are numerous risk factors for juvenile delinquent behavior in general, but some of these risk factors vary in their effects by gender (Guerra, Williams, Tolan, & Modecki, 2008; Silverthorn, Frick, & Reynolds, 2001). Certain risk factors that affect girls’ risk for delinquency more so than boys are early onset of puberty (especially if the girl comes from a disadvantaged neighborhood and has a family with poor relationship dynamics), sexual abuse/assault (overall, females have a greater rate of exposure to the sexual abuse/assault risk factor than males),

depression and anxiety, and romantic partners who engage in delinquent behavior (Zahn, Hawkins, et al., 2008, p.4; Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010).

**Resiliency/protective factors against delinquency for females.** Additionally, researchers from the OJJDP's Girls Study Group (Hawkins et al., 2009) examined self-report data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health for resiliency factors which helped to protect females from engaging in delinquent behavior. Resiliency is defined as the ability to succeed or adapt in spite of experiencing adverse events that could have lead to negative outcomes (Hawkins et al., 2009, p.2). In general, their findings indicated that the following were protective factors against certain delinquent behaviors: the presence of a caring adult during adolescence, school success (as measured by GPA), and religiosity (Hawkins et al., 2009, p. 5-8). The presence of a caring adult was protective against status offenses, gang membership, selling drugs, property offenses, and assault (Hawkins et al., 2009, p. 6). School success was protective against status offenses, gang membership, property offenses, and assault (Hawkins et al., 2009, p. 6). Religiosity was protective against selling drugs (Hawkins et al., 2009, p.6).

**Female juvenile offenders and mental health.** Mental health problems are risk factors in general for delinquency for both male and female juveniles (Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010). However, females involved in the juvenile justice system are more likely to have a psychiatric disorder diagnosis than their male counterparts (Teplin et al., 2002). Specifically, female juveniles are diagnosed at higher rates for depression, anxiety, and posttraumatic stress disorder than are male juveniles (Zahn, Agnew, et al., 2010).

Dixon, Howie, and Starling (2004) explored the variable of psychopathology in female juvenile offenders using a sample of 100 female juvenile offenders who were matched by age

and socioeconomic status with a comparison group of 100 females. The authors found that the female juvenile offenders exhibited significantly higher rates of psychopathology than the comparison group. In particular, the female juvenile offenders demonstrated significantly higher rates of conduct disorder (91% vs. 1%,  $p < .001$ ), substance abuse disorders (85% vs. 5%,  $p < .001$ ), depression (55% vs. 25%,  $p < .001$ ), and posttraumatic stress disorder (37% vs. 4%,  $p < .001$ ), and 78% of the female juvenile offenders in the sample met criteria for three or more disorders (Dixon et al., 2004, p. 1150). Finally, the authors demonstrated that the number of disorders with which an individual was diagnosed was “the most significant factor associated with offender status” (Dixon et al., 2004, p. 1150). This study provides further evidence of the fact that mental health problems are significant risk factors for delinquent behavior among juveniles, particularly for females. Much more work is needed to prevent, address, and remediate these problems in juvenile offenders so that their chances of continuing to engage in delinquent behavior in adulthood are greatly lessened.

### **Narcissism Construct**

The construct of narcissism has a long and varied history in the discipline of psychology. First theorized in 1925 by Waelder (1925) as a narcissistic character type and later by Freud in 1931 as a personality type (Freud, 1914/1957), narcissism was further conceptualized as a personality disorder by psychoanalytic psychologists Kernberg (e.g., 1975) and Kohut (e.g., 1971) (Levy, Chauhan, Clarkin, Wasserman, & Reynoso, 2009). Their conceptualizations of narcissism, which first appeared in the third edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1980), formed the basis of narcissistic personality disorder. The current criteria for narcissistic personality disorder (NPD), as articulated in the fifth edition of the American Psychiatric Association’s Diagnostic

and Statistical Manual (DSM-5; APA, 2013) define NPD as a “pervasive pattern of grandiosity (in fantasy or behavior), need for admiration, and lack of empathy, beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts” (APA, 2013, p. 669). In addition to this definition, an individual must fulfill at least five of the following nine criteria to be eligible for a NPD diagnosis:

- 1) has a grandiose sense of self-importance (e.g., exaggerates achievements and talents, expects to be recognized as superior without commensurate achievements)
- 2) is preoccupied with fantasies of unlimited success, power, brilliance, beauty, or ideal love
- 3) believes that he or she is “special” and unique and can only be understood by, or should associate with, other special or high-status people (or institutions)
- 4) requires excessive admiration
- 5) has a sense of entitlement, i.e., unreasonable expectations of especially favorable treatment or automatic compliance with his or her expectations
- 6) is interpersonally exploitative, i.e., takes advantage of others to achieve his or her own ends
- 7) lacks empathy: is unwilling to recognize or identify with the feelings and needs of others
- 8) is often envious of others or believes that others are envious of him or her
- 9) shows arrogant, haughty behaviors or attitudes (APA, 2013, p. 669)

These criteria were based for the most part on psychoanalytic/psychodynamic theory emerging from clinical practice, predominantly without empirical examination (Levy et al., 2009).

Despite initial conceptualizations of narcissism that focused heavily on pathological aspects of the construct, recent narcissism research has demonstrated narcissism as primarily a personality trait containing both adaptive and maladaptive aspects (i.e., multidimensional) that can best be understood as a continuum (e.g., C.T. Barry, Frick, & Killian, 2003; C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007; Brown, Budzek, & Tamborski, 2009; Cain, Pincus, & Ansell, 2008; Emmons, 1984; Horton, 2011; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Washburn, McMahon, King, Reinecke, & Silver, 2004). This definition is widely endorsed, particularly by social and personality psychologists (Cain et al., 2008). Narcissistic traits become pathological as their expression becomes maladaptive, inflexible, and persistent across many contexts, and causes significant functional impairment and distress (APA, 2013, p.670). Moreover, many researchers (e.g., Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008) assert that mean trait narcissism levels have increased in recent generations. Twenge et al. (2008), using 85 samples between the years 1979 and 2006, reported that American college students' mean total Narcissistic Personality Inventory scores have increased by a standard deviation of 0.33 since 1982, a substantial increase.

Narcissism as a personality trait is characterized by a grandiose sense of self-importance, superiority, and entitlement, accompanied by a fragile, unstable self-esteem easily affected by the reactions of others (C.T. Barry, Grafeman et al., 2007; Horton, 2011; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998; Sandstrom, 2011). There is an essential need to maintain one's views of positive self-worth, possibly through interpersonal exploitative behaviors and aggression if one receives negative feedback from others (e.g., Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Paradoxically, individuals with narcissistic tendencies are preoccupied with receiving admiration from others, though their tendency for antagonistic

interpersonal behaviors basically guarantees the opposite reaction from others (Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991). Interestingly, narcissism is one of the few personality traits whose expression is significantly impacted by the feedback of others.

Raskin and Hall (1979) created a measure of narcissism based on the DSM-III criteria and called it the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI). The measure was later shortened from 54-items to 40-items by Raskin and Terry in 1988, and it is the 40-item version that we know as the NPI today. The NPI is the most widely used and empirically supported assessment of the construct of narcissism in research. However, though it was originally created using the NPD diagnostic criteria, it is not a diagnostic tool; its primary purpose is to identify individual differences in narcissistic tendencies in nonclinical adult populations (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Moreover, the NPI is considered to be a measure of overt narcissism, capturing more of the grandiose, entitled, and interpersonally manipulative aspects of the construct, as opposed to the covert, vulnerable aspects of narcissism (Washburn et al., 2004).

Narcissism, as measured by the NPI, is considered a continuous, multidimensional construct, and studies using adult samples have demonstrated the distinction between its adaptive and maladaptive components (e.g., Emmons, 1984, 1987; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Raskin and Terry (1988) performed a principal component analysis on the NPI that resulted in seven factors/scales: Authority, Exhibitionism, Superiority, Vanity, Exploitativeness, Entitlement, and Self-Sufficiency. The factors labeled Exploitativeness, Entitlement, and Exhibitionism were considered maladaptive components of narcissism because of their relationship with emotional difficulties and behavior problems such as aggression (e.g., Kernberg, 1975); the factors labeled Authority and Self-Sufficiency were considered to be adaptive components because of their

direct relationship with self-esteem (C.T. Barry, Frick et al., 2007; Emmons, 1984, 1987; Kernberg, 1975; Kohut, 1971; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Emmons (1984) performed his own factor analysis and proposed that the narcissism construct was best conceptualized as containing four factors which he called Leadership/Authority, Self-Absorption/Self-Admiration, Superiority/Arrogance, and Exploitativeness/Entitlement. Emmons (1987) considered maladaptive narcissism to be encapsulated in the Exploitativeness/Entitlement factor. Further, the distinction between maladaptive and adaptive aspects of narcissism has also been empirically demonstrated in juvenile samples using slightly amended versions of the NPI in order to make the measure applicable to younger populations (C.T. Barry, Frick et al., 2007; C.T. Barry et al., 2003; C.T. Barry, Grafeman et al., 2007; Washburn et al., 2004). This concept will be discussed further in the following sections.

**Narcissism, self-esteem, and aggression.** At first review, the constructs of narcissism and self-esteem seem to be one and the same as the constructs are often positively correlated with one another, though this is most likely a product of the fact that narcissism is multidimensional (i.e., adaptive narcissism is positively associated with self-esteem but maladaptive narcissism is not) (C.T. Barry, Frick et al., 2007; C.T. Barry et al., 2003; Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Sandstrom, 2011; Washburn et al., 2004). However, various studies have demonstrated that the two are indeed distinct constructs (e.g., C.T. Barry et al., 2003; T.D. Barry, Thompson, C.T. Barry, Lochman, Adler, & Hill, 2007; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), with self-esteem and narcissism interacting to produce different outcomes as opposed to outcomes produced by only one construct (C.T. Barry et al., 2003; C.T. Barry, Grafeman et al., 2007; C.T. Barry & Malkin, 2010; C.T. Barry, Pickard, & Ansel, 2009). Overall, the important

distinction between the two constructs is that narcissism is particularly associated with the importance of being perceived as “better than” others while also being admired by others. High self-esteem, or global self-esteem in general, does not necessarily include this preoccupation with interpersonal comparison. In contrast to narcissism, self-esteem is considered to be only an individual’s overall self-evaluation or sense of worth (C.T. Barry, Grafeman et al., 2007; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin et al., 1991; Washburn et al., 2004; Witt, Donnellan, & Trzesniewski, 2011).

In regards to the relationship between narcissism, aggression, and self-esteem in adults and youth, the literature presents varying results, with some researchers advocating for a direct relationship between low self-esteem and aggression independent of the variable of narcissism (e.g., Donnellan, Trezeniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi, 2005) and others insisting that it is the interaction between unstable, threatened high self-esteem (i.e., an ego-threat) and narcissism that is most influential in producing aggression and other externalizing behaviors (e.g. Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Further, some assert that the relationship between self-esteem and narcissism as it relates to externalizing behaviors may change with age, as some studies have found the interaction between self-esteem and narcissism to be directly related to subsequent externalizing behaviors in children and adolescents (e.g., C.T. Barry et al., 2003; Lau, Marsee, Kunimatsu, & Fassnacht, 2011; Witt et al., 2011) while other studies have not found this interaction in college aged students or adults (e.g., Donnellan et al., 2005; Witt et al., 2011). Though the specific pathways are somewhat unclear, what is clear is that there is a definite relationship between aspects of narcissism, self-esteem, and externalizing, antisocial behaviors such as aggression in adults and juveniles.

Baumeister, Smart, and Boden (1996), in a review of the literature relating self-esteem, narcissism (i.e., inflated self-appraisal), and violence, presented their theory of threatened egotism (i.e., “highly favorable opinions of self that are disputed by a person or circumstance”) (p.5) and its relation to violence/aggression/antisocial behavior. They proposed that, contrary to the belief that low self-esteem causes violent behavior, those individuals who possess an unstable, fragile high self-esteem (i.e., narcissists), when given negative feedback that they perceive as a threat to their self-worth, are more likely to aggress than those who are not narcissists. This threatened egotism theory was later empirically evaluated by Bushman and Baumeister (1998) through experimental manipulation and found to hold true. It was the combination of high levels of narcissism and threatened egotism that resulted in aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

Additionally, Morf and Rhodewalt (2001), in their self-regulatory theory of narcissism, described a similar process based on the empirical results of Rhodewalt and Morf (1998) that narcissists were susceptible to more increases in self-esteem if they received positive feedback on an IQ test as well as more decreases in self-esteem if they received negative feedback, in contrast to non-narcissists. In their self-regulatory theory of narcissism, Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) stated that narcissists’ inflated sense of self-esteem is susceptible to sudden increases and decreases, depending on feedback received from others. Due to this tendency towards lability, narcissists are constantly striving to maintain their self-esteem through various intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, and when their self-esteem is threatened, they may attempt to reestablish their former level of self-esteem through aggression (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). In this way, narcissists’ aggressive behaviors could be considered to be an adaptive form of mood regulation (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Washburn et al., 2004).

Relating these findings to juveniles, C.T. Barry, Frick, and Killian (2003), explored the relationship of narcissism and self-esteem to conduct problems in juveniles. They used a modified version of the NPI for juveniles, called the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Children (NPIC), and used the corresponding items of the NPI Entitlement, Exploitativeness, and Exhibitionism subscales as a measure of maladaptive narcissism. They used the corresponding items of the NPI Authority and Self-Sufficiency subscales as a measure of adaptive narcissism. Using a sample of 98 nonreferred juveniles (mean age = 11.9 years; SD = 1.68 years), and purposely over sampling for juveniles at risk for aggressive and antisocial behaviors, C.T. Barry and colleagues (2003) found that self-esteem level moderated the relationship between narcissism and conduct problems such that juveniles with low self-esteem and a high overall narcissism level demonstrated the highest rates of behavioral problems (C.T. Barry et al., 2003). Furthermore, those juveniles high in maladaptive narcissism were most likely to exhibit conduct problems. Self-esteem was negatively correlated with maladaptive narcissism and positively (though not significantly) correlated with adaptive narcissism. In C.T. Barry, Pickard, and Ansel (2009), the positive relationship between adaptive narcissism and self-esteem was found to be significant. The study by C.T. Barry and colleagues (2003) was the first to reveal the importance of examining the varying facets of multidimensional NPI narcissism in juveniles, as maladaptive and adaptive narcissism are differentially related to self-esteem and behavioral problems in juveniles (C.T. Barry et al., 2003; C.T. Barry & Wallace, 2010).

Witt and colleagues (2011) replicated the Barry et al. (2003) results in that they found adolescents possessing high narcissism and low self-esteem demonstrated the most aggressive behaviors. Witt and colleagues (2011) additionally found that adaptive narcissism components (i.e., authority and self-sufficiency) did not independently predict aggressive behaviors.

Interestingly, C.T. Barry, Grafeman, Adler, and Pickard (2007), did not find a relationship between maladaptive narcissism and self-esteem in a sample of at-risk adolescents.

Corroborating and elaborating on this result, T.D. Barry, Thompson, C.T. Barry, Lochman, Adler, and Hill (2007), in a sample of 160 moderately to highly aggressive juveniles (mean age = 10 years, SD = 7 months), demonstrated that psychopathy-linked narcissism was not significantly associated with overall self-esteem, and narcissism was an important predictor of conduct problems, proactive aggression, and reactive aggression in juveniles. These studies further illustrate the ideas that narcissism and self-esteem are distinct constructs, the distinction between adaptive and maladaptive narcissism is an important one, and that narcissism plays an important role in predicting aggressive behaviors in juveniles. Additionally, the varying results of the relationship between self-esteem and narcissism indicate that the relationship is complex and most likely, non-linear (C.T. Barry, Grafeman et al., 2007).

A final consideration in regards to the varying results found in the literature on narcissism, self-esteem, and aggression relates to the concept of defensive egotism (Sandstrom, 2011). Defensive egotism is a term used to describe a specific type of discrepant high self-esteem manifested in an individual who possesses high *explicit* self-esteem, but also possesses low *implicit* self-esteem (Sandstrom, 2011, p.108-109). Defensive egotism is a concept essentially synonymous with narcissism, demonstrated by the fact that individuals with high explicit but low implicit self-esteem tend to exhibit higher levels of narcissism (Ziegler-Hill, 2006). This instability of self-esteem (not simply high self-esteem or low self-esteem) is what triggers aggressive behaviors, and research has, for the most part, missed the important concept of implicit self-esteem, instead relying on straightforward measures of explicit self-esteem (Sandstrom, 2011). Sandstrom (2011) argued that the discrepancy between implicit and explicit

self-esteem may clarify varying research findings on narcissism, self-esteem, and aggression, and prove to be the common link among these important constructs.

**Narcissism, juveniles, and juvenile delinquency.** An important issue to consider in the study of narcissism is how the construct is expressed in younger populations (i.e., juveniles) as compared to adults. Because of its multidimensional, complex nature, the personality trait of narcissism has been examined in relation to numerous manifestations of behavioral maladjustment and adjustment in juvenile populations. Some of these associations, particularly externalizing problem behaviors and narcissism, have already been discussed, but they will be elaborated on here.

Much of the research examining narcissism in juvenile populations has been done with the NPI, or slightly amended versions of the NPI, in order to make the measure more applicable to juvenile populations, such as the Narcissistic Personality Inventory for Children (NPIC; C.T. Barry et al., 2003) and the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO; Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000). In regards to narcissism's relationship with behavioral problems, narcissism, as assessed by the NPI or NPIC, is associated with conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder, juvenile delinquency, and aggression (C.T. Barry et al., 2003; C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007; C.T. Barry, Wallace, & Guelker, 2011; Washburn et al., 2004). Additionally, narcissism has been found to be significantly related to internalizing problems, varying by the dimension of narcissism measured (e.g., Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000). Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, and Bradshaw (2000), using their modified version of the NPI for juvenile offenders (NPI-JO; Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender) and a sample of male juvenile offenders, found significant negative correlations between the Authority/Superiority factor of the NPI-JO and social stress, anxiety, depression,

sense of inadequacy, and emotional symptomology, as measured by the Behavioral Assessment System for Children (BASC-SRP; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 1992; Washburn et al., 2004). This result indicates that adaptive narcissism is negatively associated with internalizing problems.

Results from Washburn et al. (2004), who used a sample of 233 juveniles (mean age = 12.52 years, SD = 1.15) and the NPI, further indicate a relationship between components of narcissism and internalizing problems in juveniles. In their study, they found that the NPI consisted of three differing factors: Adaptive Narcissism, Exhibitionism, and Exploitativeness. Washburn et al. (2004) found a significant positive association between Exhibitionism and internalizing symptoms; they explained this result as an indication of the negative social ramifications of Exhibitionism which could result in internalizing problems (Washburn et al., 2004, p.257), further demonstrating the paradoxical nature of aspects of narcissists' behaviors (Raskin et al., 1991). Washburn et al. (2004) also found Exploitativeness in narcissism moderated the negative association between internalizing problems and self-esteem, such that those juveniles who had higher Exploitativeness scores demonstrated greater internalizing symptoms regardless of their level of self-esteem; whereas, juveniles with lower Exploitativeness scores demonstrated the usual negative correlation between self-esteem and internalizing problems (Washburn et al., 2004, p.257). So, in the case of the young juvenile "manifesting a high level of narcissistic exploitativeness, high self-esteem may not be protective against internalizing problems" (Washburn et al., 2004, p. 257). These findings add to the research that demonstrates the differentiation between maladaptive and adaptive aspects of narcissism and their relationship to internalizing problems. Although narcissism as a whole is important to consider in its relationships with other personality and behavioral constructs, research has found the maladaptive aspects of narcissism to be particularly predictive of and associated with

behavioral maladjustment, such as juvenile delinquency (C.T. Barry, Wallace, & Guelker, 2011; Calhoun et al., 2000).

In the construct of psychopathy, narcissism is considered to be “an interpersonal and affective facet” (Vaughn, Newhill, DeLisi, Beaver, and Howard, 2008, p. 240). Specifically with a sample of detained female juvenile offenders ( $N = 94$ , mean age = 15.4 years,  $SD = 1.1$  years), Vaughn and colleagues (2008) demonstrated that as a facet of the psychopathy construct, ASPD narcissism was significantly related to and a significant predictor of the delinquent behaviors violence and theft. These results evidence the fact that narcissism is an important factor in juvenile delinquency. Additionally, the authors found that narcissism was positively related with internalizing problems in females, particularly depression, anxiety, and paranoid ideation. Taken as a whole, this indicates that there is a relationship between narcissism and internalizing problems in juvenile offenders, although this relationship may differ across genders as well as the specific aspect of the narcissism construct and its manifestation.

C.T. Barry, Frick, and colleagues (2007) examined the effects of narcissism on juvenile delinquency in a longitudinal study lasting three years. Using a community-based sample of juveniles who resided in a high-risk environment ( $N = 98$ , mean age = 11.9 years,  $SD = 1.68$  years), C.T. Barry and colleagues hypothesized that maladaptive components of narcissism, but not adaptive components, would be predictive of future delinquent behavior when controlling for other known risk factors for delinquent behavior (e.g., callous-unemotional traits, earlier conduct problems, impulsivity, and dysfunctional parenting) (C.T. Barry, Frick, et al., 2007, p. 510). They found that maladaptive narcissism (i.e., Entitlement, Exhibitionism, and Exploitativeness) was a significant, unique predictor of self-reported delinquency at yearly follow-ups for three years, even when controlling for other known risk factors for delinquent behavior (C.T. Barry,

Frick, et al., 2007). Maladaptive narcissism was associated positively with other known risk factors for delinquent behavior, such as callous-unemotional traits, impulsivity, and previous conduct problems, as expected. Adaptive narcissism was significantly associated with maladaptive narcissism, but, overall, adaptive narcissism was not predictive of, or correlated with, future delinquency. Additionally, adaptive narcissism was not associated with other known risk factors for delinquent behavior, evidencing the multidimensional nature of the narcissism construct in juveniles. C.T. Barry, Frick, and colleagues' (2007) results regarding parenting practices and narcissism were weak, and the authors strongly suggested further exploration of parenting practices and the development of narcissism as their results are correlational, but their initial results indicate a significant positive relationship between maladaptive narcissism and negative parenting practices. This association was not found for adaptive narcissism. Also, they found "maladaptive narcissism to be particularly predictive of delinquency in the presence of negative parenting" (C.T. Barry, Frick, et al., 2007, p. 508). However, again, these parenting results should be interpreted with great caution (C.T. Barry, Frick, et al., 2007).

Narcissism's association with juvenile delinquency is further illustrated in C.T. Barry, Grafeman, and colleagues' (2007) work. In a sample of 349 at-risk for delinquency juveniles between the ages of 16 and 18 (mean age = 16.7 years, median age = 17 years) "who were participating in a 22-week military-style intervention program for youth who have dropped out of school" (C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007, p. 936), they examined the relationships between narcissism, self-esteem, and delinquency. They hypothesized that narcissism would be significantly related to delinquency, and that low self-esteem would be associated with delinquency as well. Finally, they hypothesized that adaptive and maladaptive aspects of

narcissism would be differentially related to the other constructs examined (C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007, p. 935).

Using the NPIC to measure narcissism, C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al.'s (2007) results demonstrated that overall narcissism and self-esteem were positively associated; however, when the results were examined in further detail, they discovered that it was specifically adaptive narcissism that was positively correlated with self-esteem, and maladaptive narcissism was not related to self-esteem at all. In regards to juvenile delinquency, only narcissism was significantly positively related to delinquency and aggression; specifically, maladaptive narcissism was exclusively significantly positively related to and significantly predicted delinquency and aggression. When maladaptive narcissism was included in analyses, adaptive narcissism was no longer significantly related to delinquency and aggression, demonstrating that it is really maladaptive narcissism that is important when examining juvenile delinquency. Self-esteem was not related to delinquency or aggression (C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007, p. 939).

Finally, in a summary study of research done regarding the assessment and manifestation of youth narcissism, C.T. Barry and Wallace (2010) discussed the premise that narcissistic tendencies assessed in youth and adolescence may not remain throughout adulthood. It is important, therefore, to recognize personality factors such as narcissism as additional areas to focus on in prevention efforts, hopefully averting the development of more serious behavior and personality problems into adulthood (C.T. Barry & Wallace, 2010). Additionally, in this same study using a sample of 117 adolescents (only 15 of which were female; mean age = 17.1 years,  $SD = .93$  years) who had dropped out of school and were enrolled in an intervention program, C.T. Barry and Wallace (2010) found that ASPD (Antisocial Process Screening Device, a measure including psychopathy-linked narcissism; Frick & Hare, 2001) narcissism was

indicative of antisocial behavior, and was “the only narcissism variable to be significantly positively related to parent-reported conduct problems” (C.T. Barry & Wallace, 2010, p. 485). Maladaptive narcissism, as measured by the NPIC, was also significantly positively correlated with delinquency (C.T. Barry & Wallace, 2010). The aforementioned studies strongly indicate that the impact of the personality trait of narcissism is an important variable to consider in the etiology of juvenile delinquency.

**Gender differences in narcissism.** Foster, Campbell, and Twenge (2003) ( $N = 3445$ , mean age = 24.5 years,  $SD = 9.1$  years), in their examination of narcissism across varying ages, countries, and cultures, found that overall, men report more narcissism than women, indicated by higher total scores on the NPI (Foster et al., 2003). However, very few studies explicitly examine gender differences in NPI assessed narcissism or any other type of narcissism. Tschanz, Morf, and Turner (1998), using Emmons’ (1984/1987) four factor model of the NPI, examined gender differences in the construct of narcissism in samples of university undergraduates. As a reminder, Emmons’ (1984/1987) four factor model includes Leadership/Authority, Self-Absorption/Self-Admiration, Superiority/Arrogance, and Exploitativeness/Entitlement. The authors used a multi-sample analysis method which allowed them to examine the specific differences between the factors by gender. Basing their hypotheses on gender-role social norms such as women being expected to be “tender, compassionate, warm, sympathetic, sensitive and understanding” (Tschanz et al., 1998, p. 864), Tschanz and colleagues (1998) proposed that expressions and manifestations of entitlement and exploitativeness would be less prominent in the construct of narcissism in females than males as illustrated by being less related to the other three factors of the construct. Their hypothesis was found to hold true; there were significant

gender differences in the Exploitativeness/Entitlement factor covariances with the other three Emmons NPI factors.

It is of interest to note, however, that even though the means of each factor and the NPI aggregate score were statistically significantly higher for males than females, overall, the differences in the means across genders was small (Tschanz et al., 1998). This suggests that gender differences in the overall construct of narcissism, at least as assessed by the NPI, remain small and do not drastically change the conceptualization of narcissism itself. In other words, females and males appear to be more similar than different regarding total narcissism, and perhaps it is more in the overt, behavioral manifestations of narcissism, specifically exploitativeness and entitlement, and other specific dimensions of the construct, where the difference is found between the genders, than in the overall construct itself (Tschanz et al., 1998, p. 869). Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) agree on this final point, stating that it is more socially acceptable for men to use stereotypical narcissistic explicit means of exploitation and expressing their interpersonal grandiosity, whereas “females presumably are forced to meet their narcissistic goals through more subtle, indirect, and affiliative means that conform with expectations for their sex role” (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001, p. 191). Undoubtedly, more empirical research is needed to more fully understand the variations in the expression of narcissism across genders, and the current study aimed to address this gender gap in the literature.

### **NPI-JO**

Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, and Bradshaw (2000), in an attempt to examine the personality construct of narcissism in juvenile offender population and validate a measure of narcissism for use in this population, created the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO). The NPI-JO is a slightly revised version of the NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988);

the authors revised the wording of the items to a third-grade reading and comprehension level in order to make sure that the internal validity of the instrument remained intact (Calhoun et al., 2000). The authors utilized a sample of 125 male juvenile offenders detained at a southeastern regional juvenile detention center (mean age = 15.02,  $SD = 1.39$ ), the age range of which was 13-17 years.

Using a principal component analysis method, seven factors were discovered: Control/Vanity, Authority/Superiority, Exhibitionism, Leadership, Uniqueness, Need for Approval/Acknowledgement, and Exploitativeness. These factors are slightly different from those found in the original factor analysis of the NPI done by Raskin and Terry in 1988, lending some support to the idea that the construct of narcissism presents differently in a juvenile offender population (Calhoun et al., 2000). Additionally, the authors examined the construct validity of the NPI-JO by cross-validating factors found in the NPI-JO with the Behavior Assessment System for Children- Self-Report of Personality (BASC-SRP; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 1992) scales. Overall, their correlations indicated that the NPI-JO was indeed measuring the construct of narcissism in juvenile offenders, and lent support to the multidimensionality of narcissism's expression in a juvenile sample (i.e., NPI-JO measures both adaptive and maladaptive aspects of narcissism) (Calhoun et al., 2000, p. 573.)

### **BASC-2 SRP-A**

The Behavior Assessment System for Children – Second Edition – Self-Report of Personality – Adolescent form (BASC-2 SRP-A; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004) is a widely used personality measure that assesses both maladaptive and adaptive aspects of personality in individuals aged 12-21. The clinical scales (Anxiety, Attention Problems, Attitude to School, Attitude to Teachers, Atypicality, Depression, Hyperactivity, Locus of Control, Sensation

Seeking, Sense of Inadequacy, and Social Stress) measure maladaptive aspects of behavior. The adaptive scales (Interpersonal Relations, Relations with Parents, Self-Esteem, and Self-Reliance) appropriately enough, measure adaptive aspects of behavior. Though the BASC-2 SRP-A does not explicitly measure the construct of narcissism, the NPI-JO factors' correlations with the adaptive and clinical scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A could indicate adaptive and maladaptive aspects of narcissism. Calhoun et al. (2000) used this reasoning in their use of the BASC SRP in their NPI-JO validation study with male juvenile offenders, and that is the reasoning for the use of the BASC-2 SRP-A in the current study with female juvenile offenders. For example, Calhoun et al. (2000) found that Authority/Superiority (NPI-JO factor) was negatively correlated with BASC SRP clinical scales such as Social Stress, Anxiety, and Depression, but was positively correlated with the adaptive scales of Interpersonal Relationships, Self-Esteem, and Self-Reliance (Calhoun et al., 2000, p. 573). This indicated that Authority/Superiority was most likely an indicator of adaptive narcissism as the BASC SRP adaptive scales it was correlated with demonstrated healthy behaviors.

### **Rationale for the Current Study**

Calhoun and colleagues' (2000) study is the only study to date that has explicitly examined the validity of the NPI-JO, and this was done with a sample consisting entirely of male juvenile offenders. Based on the research previously discussed regarding possible gender differences in the expression of the narcissism construct (e.g., Tschanz et al., 1998), especially as it relates to overt manifestations of the construct, it is imperative that the NPI-JO be examined and validated in a sample of female juvenile offenders. The current study aimed to explore the construct validity of narcissism in the NPI-JO as well as examine the presentation of narcissism in a sample of female juvenile offenders.

## CHAPTER 3

### **Methodology**

#### **Participants**

Participants consisted of female juveniles who are involved in the juvenile justice system (i.e., juvenile offenders), residing in the community, and who had been referred to the Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program (JCAP) by their probation officer for individual or group counseling. Also, a portion of participants consisted of female juvenile offenders detained at the Sandersville Regional Youth Detention Center (RYDC) in Sandersville, Georgia. The University of Georgia Juvenile Counseling and Assessment Program is comprised of faculty, masters-level, and doctoral-level students. JCAP works with juveniles involved in the juvenile justice system of Georgia and provides various clinical services such as individual counseling, group counseling, in-home family counseling, and psychological evaluations. JCAP provides a multifaceted approach, using the juvenile justice, school, and community systems in collaboration with the mental health services provided (Calhoun, Glaser, & Bartolomucci, 2001). The purpose of the project is to provide juvenile offenders with access to mental health services, psychoeducation, knowledge regarding possible resources, and ultimately a decrease in delinquent behavior (Kadish, Glaser, Calhoun, & Risler, 1999).

The current sample consisted of 72 female juvenile offenders. Forty-four (61.1% of the total sample) of these females were JCAP community clients and 28 (38.9% of the total sample) were detained in the Sandersville RYDC. The mean age of the participants was 14.8 years ( $SD = 1.32$ ), with an age range of 12 to 17 years. Sixty-seven of the total 72 participants reported their

race/ethnicity. Of those 67 participants, 62.5% were African-American, 12.5% were Caucasian, 11.1% were Hispanic, 2.8% were Biracial, 1.4% were Middle Eastern, and 2.8% were Cuban American.

## **Materials**

**Narcissistic personality inventory – juvenile offender.** The Narcissistic Personality Inventory – Juvenile Offender (NPI-JO; Calhoun, Glaser, Stefurak, & Bradshaw, 2000) is a 40-item, self-report measure was designed to assess narcissism in juvenile offenders. It is a slightly revised version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988) made applicable to juvenile offenders by changing the wording and reading level of the items. The reading level of the NPI-JO is a third-grade reading level. Each item contains two statements, and participants are asked to choose which of the two statements describes themselves most accurately. If the participant endorses the more narcissistic response of the two statements for an item, the item is scored as a “1”. If the participant endorses the non-narcissistic response, the item is scored as a “0”. A total NPI-JO score is the sum of all the endorsed narcissistic responses. The current study utilized the resulting scales/factors/components from its female juvenile offender sample, and these identified factors are discussed in Chapter 4. The internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach’s alpha) of the entire measure in the current sample ( $N = 72$ ,  $M = 19.82$ ,  $SD = 6.03$ ) was .79.

**Behavior assessment system for children – second edition.** The Behavior Assessment System for Children - Second Edition (BASC-2; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004) is a “multimethod, multidimensional system used to evaluate the behavior and self-perceptions of children and young adults aged 2 through 25 years” (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004, p. 1). The entire system is composed of the Teacher Rating Scale (TRS), the Parent Rating Scale (PRS), the

Self-Report of Personality (SRP), the Structured Developmental History (SDH), and the Student Observation System (SOS). For the current study, only the Self-Report of Personality – Adolescent form (BASC-2 SRP-A) was used. This form is intended for ages 12 through 21 and contains 176 items. The BASC-2 SRP-A takes approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete and uses a Likert scale format (“Never”, “Sometimes”, “Often”, “Almost Always”) or True/False format for each item. The BASC-2 SRP-A was scored using the BASC-2 scoring software program.

The BASC-2 SRP-A contains the following validity indexes/scales: the F Index, which measures consistently endorsed negative items (also called the “faking bad” index); the Consistency Index, which measures random responding; a Response Pattern Index, which indicates when an individual has responded in a haphazard, inattentive manner; the L Index, which indicates if the individual has consistently endorsed positive items (also called the “faking good” index); and the V index, which measures the extent to which nonsensical items were endorsed, indicating that the results of the measure may not be valid (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004).

The BASC-2 SRP-A contains both Clinical and Adaptive Scales in order to assess both maladaptive and adaptive aspects of an individual’s behavior. On the Clinical Scales, T-scores ranging from 60 to 69 are considered to be in the At-Risk range, and T-scores of 70 or higher are considered to be in the Clinically Significant range. On the Adaptive Scales, T-scores ranging from 31 to 40 are considered to be in the At-Risk range, and T-scores of 30 or lower are considered to be Clinically Significant. The mean scale scores (T-scores) and standard deviations that follow each scale name are those found in the current female juvenile offender sample ( $N = 72$ ).

The Clinical Scales included on the BASC-2 SRP-A are the following: Anxiety ( $M = 54.24$ ,  $SD = 12.22$ ), Attention Problems ( $M = 58.42$ ,  $SD = 11.17$ ), Attitude to School ( $M = 54.44$ ,  $SD = 13.77$ ), Attitude to Teachers ( $M = 55.00$ ,  $SD = 12.46$ ), Atypicality ( $M = 51.11$ ,  $SD = 11.59$ ), Depression ( $M = 56.01$ ,  $SD = 12.80$ ), Hyperactivity ( $M = 52.60$ ,  $SD = 11.48$ ), Locus of Control ( $M = 56.06$ ,  $SD = 12.34$ ), Sensation Seeking ( $M = 49.26$ ,  $SD = 7.48$ ), Sense of Inadequacy ( $M = 56.61$ ,  $SD = 12.70$ ), Social Stress ( $M = 50.53$ ,  $SD = 11.79$ ), and Somatization ( $M = 53.24$ ,  $SD = 12.02$ ). Additionally, the Adaptive Scales are the following: Interpersonal Relations ( $M = 51.85$ ,  $SD = 8.79$ ), Relations with Parents ( $M = 43.35$ ,  $SD = 12.45$ ), Self-Esteem ( $M = 50.51$ ,  $SD = 9.78$ ), and Self-Reliance ( $M = 47.74$ ,  $SD = 9.64$ ) (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). From these individual scales (and their resulting scores), Composite Scales (and scores) are formed. Again, the mean scale scores (T-scores) and standard deviations that follow each scale name are those found in the current female juvenile offender sample ( $N = 72$ ). The Composite Scales are as follows: School Problems ( $M = 53.90$ ,  $SD = 11.75$ ), Internalizing Problems ( $M = 55.17$ ,  $SD = 12.97$ ), Inattention/Hyperactivity ( $M = 56.36$ ,  $SD = 11.51$ ), Personal Adjustment ( $M = 47.76$ ,  $SD = 9.65$ ), and the Emotional Symptoms Index ( $M = 54.22$ ,  $SD = 12.24$ ) (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004).

### **Procedure**

Participants were referred to JCAP by their Department of Juvenile Justice probation officers for individual counseling, group counseling, or family counseling. A JCAP counselor was then assigned the referral and scheduled an intake session with the referred youth and her parent/legal guardian. The youth and her parent/legal guardian completed an intake packet at this session which consisted of various clinical and research measures that included the NPI-JO and the BASC-2 SRP-A relevant to the current study. The youth and her parent/legal guardian

indicated their consent for the JCAP project to use the measures by signing an IRB-approved Research Consent form. After the intake session, the assigned JCAP counselor then gave copies of the NPI-JO measure and the scored BASC-2 SRP-A measure to the principal investigator of the current study.

Additionally, data was collected at the Sandersville Regional Youth Detention Center (RYDC) in Sandersville, Georgia, in a group format. Measures for the current study were collected as well as measures for other JCAP research projects. Two JCAP counselors presented each of the measures to the group, and were available for questions if the participants had any while completing the measures. Participants could choose to opt out of completing the instruments if they desired with no penalty. Only females completed the measures for the current study.

## CHAPTER 4

### Results

#### Research Hypothesis 1

Regarding the first research hypothesis, that the factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do differ from the factors found in a previous sample of male juvenile offenders (i.e., Calhoun et al., 2000), a principal component analysis was performed on the 40 NPI-JO items using varimax rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy ( $KMO = .44$ ) indicated that the sample size was small and might not be adequate (Field, 2009). Some, but not all, of the KMO values for individual items were above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009). Despite concern over a small sample size, Bartlett's test of sphericity,  $\chi^2(780) = 989.78, p = .000$ , was significant, indicating that the correlations between the items were sufficiently large for principal component analysis to be performed.

After examining the resulting scree plot (see Figure 1) seven factors/components were identified (Field, 2009; Green & Salkind, 2008). This is the same number of factors as the original NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988) and in Calhoun and colleagues' (2000) NPI-JO study. Results for these seven factors/components indicated that the percentage of nonredundant residuals with absolute values greater than .05 was 49%, which is acceptable, as this percentage should be less than 50% (Field, 2009). Combined, the seven factors accounted for 48.63% of the variance in the responses to the items. Initial eigenvalues and percentages of variance accounted for by each factor/component are presented in Table 1. As illustrated in the rotated component/factor matrix (see Table 2), all individual item factor/component loadings were above

the criterion level of an absolute value of .30, thus all 40 items were retained. Table 5 lists the 40 NPI-JO items as they load onto each factor/component/scale. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each factor/component/scale, and new factor/component/scale names were created by examining overall themes expressed in the items loading onto each factor/component/scale.

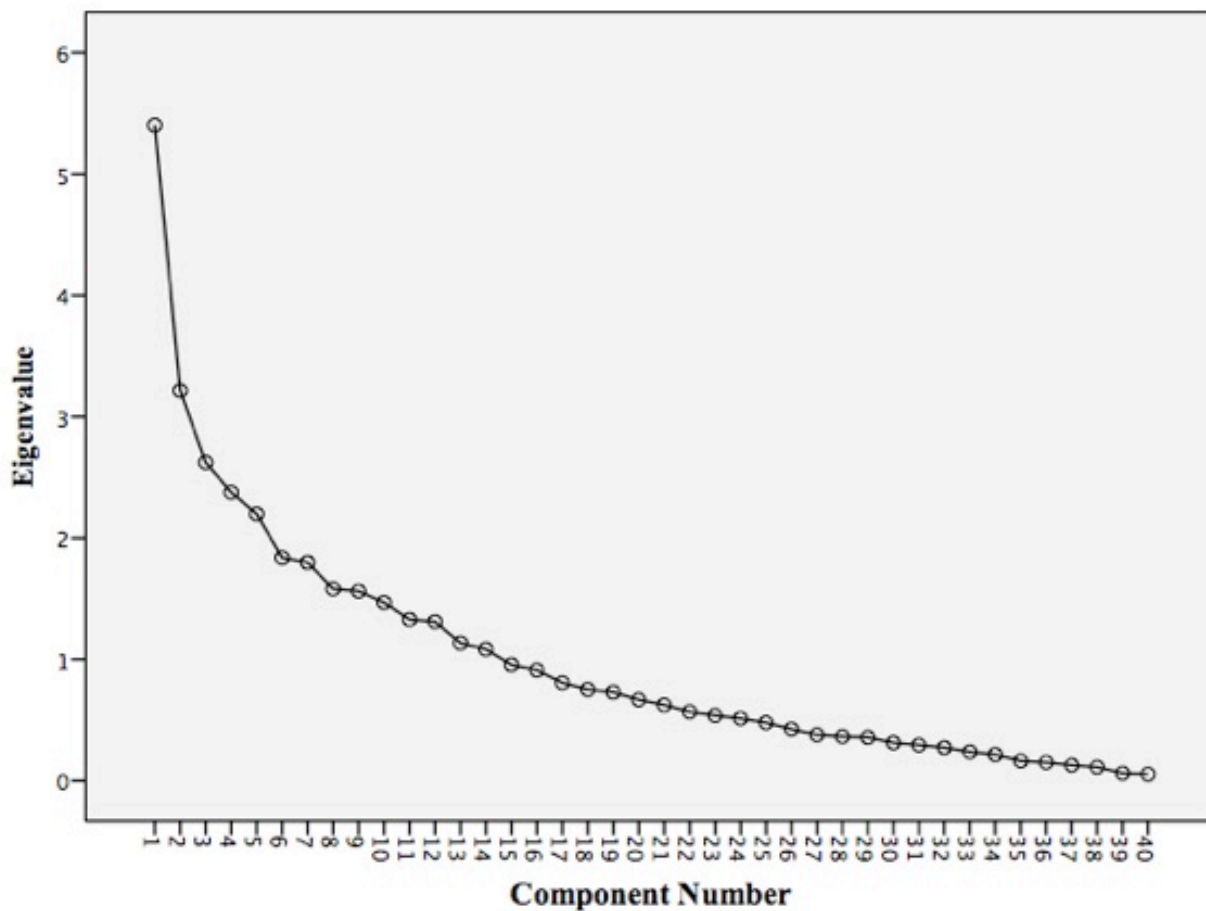


Figure 1

Scree Plot for NPI-JO Demonstrating Seven Components/Factors

Table 1

Eigenvalues and Percentages of Variance for NPI-JO

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Initial eigenvalues	5.40	3.22	2.62	2.38	2.20	1.84	1.80

Percentage of variance accounted for	13.51	8.04	6.57	5.94	5.50	4.60	4.50
Cumulative percentage of variance	13.51	21.55	28.10	34.04	39.54	44.13	48.63

Note: Factor 1 = Authority/Control, Factor 2 = Vanity/Superiority, Factor 3 = Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking, Factor 4 = Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency, Factor 5 = Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement, Factor 6 = Uniqueness, Factor 7 = Exhibitionism

Table 2

Rotated Component Matrix of Component/Factor Loadings for NPI-JO

	Component/Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Item27	<b>.715</b>	.088	.209	-.219	-.208	-.002	.222
Item13	<b>.679</b>	.014	.129	-.100	-.268	-.204	.135
Item33	<b>.675</b>	.106	.164	-.233	.225	.040	-.098
Item30	<b>.538</b>	.041	.040	.287	.122	.170	.141
Item12	<b>.523</b>	.018	-.105	-.391	.125	.210	.177
Item31	<b>.485</b>	.222	.193	.194	.010	-.051	-.347
Item32	<b>.483</b>	.195	.403	-.125	-.062	.061	-.078
Item7	<b>.387</b>	.239	.095	.243	-.036	.122	.157
Item14	<b>.380</b>	-.113	-.044	.098	.204	-.193	.065
Item4	-.100	<b>.703</b>	-.036	.022	.082	.204	-.043
Item10	.119	<b>.597</b>	.029	.058	.064	.010	.089
Item26	-.202	<b>.537</b>	-.270	.110	-.153	.064	.245
Item19	.214	<b>.520</b>	.261	.152	-.289	-.037	.012
Item23	.220	<b>.474</b>	-.116	-.062	.175	-.009	.219
Item11	.229	<b>.435</b>	-.059	.219	.158	-.109	.033
Item15	.163	<b>.432</b>	.332	.087	-.402	-.237	.073
Item35	.320	<b>.403</b>	.218	.162	.141	.325	-.227
Item38	.321	-.069	<b>.651</b>	-.080	.261	.049	-.137
Item18	-.064	-.011	<b>.632</b>	.100	.065	.353	.066
Item20	.051	.054	<b>.618</b>	.036	.105	.092	.078
Item37	.084	-.121	<b>.539</b>	-.049	.206	-.291	.421
Item6	.288	-.215	<b>.440</b>	.009	-.086	.025	-.107
Item2	-.037	.029	.126	<b>.626</b>	.039	.027	.062
Item25	.105	-.192	-.027	<b>-.615</b>	-.076	-.008	-.174
Item24	.227	-.188	.169	<b>-.480</b>	.178	-.051	.178

Item39	.009	.059	.008	<b>-.476</b>	.435	.133	.152
Item22	-.072	.426	-.125	<b>-.451</b>	.217	-.104	.005
Item1	.324	.006	-.136	<b>.446</b>	.133	.108	.124
Item8	.030	.058	-.271	<b>.322</b>	.089	-.049	-.200
Item21	.054	-.032	.079	.126	<b>.747</b>	-.139	.076
Item36	.288	.201	.174	-.070	<b>.633</b>	.160	.012
Item3	.180	-.352	-.104	.123	<b>-.450</b>	.133	.110
Item5	-.219	.245	.266	.281	<b>.388</b>	-.008	-.194
Item34	.134	.313	.321	.064	<b>.367</b>	-.300	.264
Item9	.107	.036	.223	.089	-.002	<b>.749</b>	.045
Item40	.176	.129	-.095	.209	-.002	<b>.673</b>	.311
Item16	.181	.074	-.101	.230	.062	<b>-.599</b>	.166
Item29	.018	.087	.026	.138	.104	.001	<b>.709</b>
Item28	.241	.212	.065	-.053	-.060	.133	<b>.627</b>
Item17	.142	.199	.419	-.025	-.301	-.237	<b>.423</b>

Note: Values in bold are above .30 level and illustrate the items loading onto each factor/component. Factor 1 = Authority/Control, Factor 2 = Vanity/Superiority, Factor 3 = Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking, Factor 4 = Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency, Factor 5 = Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement, Factor 6 = Uniqueness, Factor 7 = Exhibitionism

Factor 1 ( $M = 4.60$ ,  $SD = 2.57$ ) was labeled Authority/Control as these items were characterized by the individual's desire to be in a position of authority and control in regards to others. Factor 2 ( $M = 4.14$ ,  $SD = 2.00$ ) was labeled Vanity/Superiority as these items demonstrated the individual's self-absorption with appearance as well as a need to be recognized as being "better than" others. Factor 3 ( $M = 1.67$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ) was labeled Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking as these items were characterized by an exaggerated need to be acknowledged and approved of by others. Factor 4 ( $M = 3.82$ ,  $SD = 1.12$ ) was labeled Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency as these items denoted an extreme confidence in the individual's abilities and worth as well as the belief that the individual inherently deserves special privileges. Factor 5 ( $M = 2.28$ ,  $SD = 1.28$ ) was labeled Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement as these items were characterized by the individual's desire to be a leader without acknowledging the importance of appropriate restraint. Factor 6 ( $M = 1.33$ ,  $SD = .89$ ) was labeled Uniqueness as these items

reflected an inflated sense of self. Finally, factor 7 ( $M = 1.99$ ,  $SD = .93$ ) was labeled Exhibitionism as these items appear to measure a desire to be the center of attention. Table 3 presents the correlations between each factor/component/scale and the total score of the NPI-JO.

Table 3

## Intercorrelations Between NPI-JO Factors/Components/Scales

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Factor 1	-						
Factor 2	.34**	-					
Factor 3	.36**	.04	-				
Factor 4	.19	.06	.09	-			
Factor 5	.22	.21	.32**	.28*	-		
Factor 6	.21	.26*	.10	-.12	.13	-	
Factor 7	.29*	.34**	.27*	.05	.12	.25*	-
NPI-JO Total Score	.79**	.63**	.55**	.36**	.55**	.39**	.53**
Number of Items	9	8	5	7	5	3	3

Note: \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < 0.05$ . Factor 1 = Authority/Control, Factor 2 = Vanity/Superiority, Factor 3 = Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking, Factor 4 = Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency, Factor 5 = Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement, Factor 6 = Uniqueness, Factor 7 = Exhibitionism

In order to examine the internal consistency and reliability of each of the scales as well as the overall measure, Cronbach's alphas were generated for each scale and the NPI-JO. As stated previously, the Cronbach's alpha for the entire NPI-JO measure was .79. This is comparable to Calhoun et al.'s (2000) original NPI-JO study that found an overall NPI-JO Cronbach's alpha of .81. The Cronbach's alphas of each of the factors are as follows: Factor 1 had a Cronbach's alpha of .75; Factor 2 had a Cronbach's alpha of .70; Factor 3 had a Cronbach's alpha of .67; Factor 4 had a Cronbach's alpha of .06; Factor 5 had a Cronbach's alpha of .40; Factor 6 had a Cronbach's alpha of .14; and Factor 7 had a Cronbach's alpha of .50. It should be noted that Factor 4 had eight cases excluded because those individuals did not fill out the items loading onto that factor. Additionally, Factor 5 had six cases excluded from analysis and consisted of

only five items. Also, Factor 6 consisted of only three items. Another point to consider is that though .70 to .75 is usually the recommended cutoff range for Cronbach's alpha, it is common and acceptable for measures used in research settings to have Cronbach's alphas as low as .50 (Fink & Kosecoff, 1998). It is likely that with an increased sample size, the internal consistency of the factors/scales with the lowest Cronbach's alphas would improve. Based on the fact that a principal component analysis with the current sample of 72 female juvenile offenders resulted in differing NPI-JO factors than those found in a sample of male juvenile offenders, the first research hypothesis is supported.

## **Research Hypothesis 2**

In order to test the second research hypothesis, that the identified factors of the NPI-JO in the present sample of female juvenile offenders do represent the overall construct of narcissism (i.e., the NPI-JO does have construct validity with female juvenile offenders) by correlating significantly with the BASC-2 SRP-A scales, a cross-validation between the seven identified NPI-JO factors and the BASC-2 SRP-A scales was performed. NPI-JO factor scores were calculated using the 'sum scores by factor' method (DiStefano, Zhu, & Mîndrilă, 2009). By using this method, average scores for each factor can be calculated and compared across factors, even though the factors may have a different number of items, because it keeps the original scale of measurement (DiStefano, Zhu, & Mîndrilă, 2009). Thus, the factor scores calculated using this method are easy to understand and interpret. The correlations between the BASC-2 SRP-A scale scores and the NPI-JO factor scores are presented in Table 4.

Factor 1 was significantly positively correlated with Sensation Seeking and School Problems. Factor 2 was significantly negatively associated with Social Stress, Anxiety, Sense of Inadequacy, Somatization, Internalizing Problems, and the Emotional Symptoms Index. Factor 2

was significantly positively correlated with Interpersonal Relations and Self-Esteem. Factor 3 was significantly positively correlated with Atypicality, Somatization, Internalizing Problems, Attention Problems, Hyperactivity, and Inattention/Hyperactivity. Factor 4 was significantly positively associated with Locus of Control. Factor 5 was significantly negatively correlated with Anxiety and the Emotional Symptoms Index. Factor 5 was also significantly positively correlated with Self-Esteem, Self-Reliance, and Personal Adjustment. Factor 6 and Factor 7 were not significantly correlated to any BASC-2 SRP-A scales. The NPI-JO total score was significantly positively correlated with Sensation Seeking.

Based on the aforementioned significant correlations of the NPI-JO factors with the BASC-2 SRP-A scales, it appears that there is initial evidence for the construct validity of the NPI-JO in a sample of female juvenile offenders. Though the correlations are small, they indicate an appropriate pattern that illustrates the construct of narcissism. Thus, the second research hypothesis is supported.

Table 4

## Correlations Between BASC-2 SRP-A Scores and NPI-JO Scores

BASC-2 Scales	NPI-JO Factors/Scales							NPI-JO Total Score
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	
Attitude To School	.214	.030	.176	.218	.006	-.086	.147	.196
Attitude To Teachers	.194	-.028	.091	.057	-.092	-.110	.166	.096
Sensation Seeking	<b>.306**</b>	.114	.084	.147	-.050	.165	.163	<b>.255*</b>
<b>School Problems</b>	<b>.282*</b>	.031	.160	.182	-.051	-.052	.195	.215
Atypicality	.115	-.173	<b>.317**</b>	.078	-.073	-.142	.188	.076
Locus Of Control	.134	-.147	.090	<b>.275*</b>	-.115	-.039	.080	.063
Social Stress	.066	<b>-.281*</b>	.110	.057	-.194	-.104	.056	-.076
Anxiety	.008	<b>-.305**</b>	.169	-.123	<b>-.252*</b>	-.094	.094	-.132
Depression	.160	-.116	.204	.131	-.058	-.044	.166	.111
Sense Of Inadequacy	.025	<b>-.344**</b>	.221	.084	-.200	-.097	.131	-.070
Somatization	.176	<b>-.305**</b>	<b>.322**</b>	.088	.070	-.005	.067	.094
<b>Internalizing Problems</b>	.113	<b>-.290*</b>	<b>.246*</b>	.103	-.139	-.084	.133	.010
Attention Problems	.158	-.098	<b>.241*</b>	.128	-.145	.021	.192	.120
Hyperactivity	.217	-.070	<b>.343**</b>	-.068	-.058	.034	.183	.161
<b>Inattention / Hyperactivity</b>	.209	-.096	<b>.333**</b>	.031	-.112	.032	.214	.158
<b>Emotional Symptoms Index</b>	.036	<b>-.311**</b>	.186	-.004	<b>-.238*</b>	-.126	.091	-.098
Relations With Parents	-.201	-.133	-.030	-.136	.146	-.060	-.173	-.166
Interpersonal Relations	.097	<b>.318**</b>	-.124	-.039	.168	.102	-.125	.141
Self-Esteem	.029	<b>.271*</b>	-.037	.059	<b>.276*</b>	.147	.068	.195
Self-Reliance	.069	.189	-.132	.193	<b>.236*</b>	.137	.006	.167
<b>Personal Adjustment</b>	-.020	.199	-.107	.017	<b>.286*</b>	.100	-.092	.096

Note: \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*  $p < 0.05$ . Values in bold are significant. BASC-2 scales in bold are composite scales. Factor 1 = Authority/Control, Factor 2 = Vanity/Superiority, Factor 3 = Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking, Factor 4 = Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency, Factor 5 = Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement, Factor 6 = Uniqueness, Factor 7 = Exhibitionism

Table 5

## NPI-JO Items Divided By Factor

Factor 1 = Authority/Control

27. A. I like to be in control of things. \*  
B. I don't really care about being the person in control.
13. A. It's easy for me to control other people. \*  
B. I don't feel comfortable being in control of other people.
33. A. When I am in a group, I like to be the leader. \*  
B. I don't care if I'm the leader or not.
30. A. I really like to be the center of attention. \*  
B. It makes me feel uncomfortable to be the center of attention.
12. A. I like being in charge of other people. \*  
B. I don't mind following others.
31. A. I can live my life anyway I want to. \*  
B. People can't always live their lives the way they want.
32. A. Being in charge doesn't mean much to me.  
B. People always seem to realize that I am in charge. \*
7. A. I prefer to be just like other people.  
B. I like to be the center of attention. \*
14. A. It is really important that others show me the respect I deserve. \*  
B. I usually get the respect that I deserve.

Factor 2 = Vanity/Superiority

4. A. When people say good things about me, sometimes I get embarrassed.  
B. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so. \*
10. A. I am not sure that I would make a good leader.  
B. I think that I am a good leader. \*
26. A. It embarrasses me when people tell me good things about myself.  
B. I like it when people tell me I look good or I have done a good job. \*
19. A. My body is nothing special or great.  
B. I like to look at my body. \*
23. A. Sometimes I tell good jokes or stories.  
B. Everybody always likes to hear my jokes or stories. \*

11. A. I'm not shy about asking for what I want. \*  
B. I wish I were not such a shy person when it comes to asking for things I want.
15. A. I don't really like to show off my body.  
B. I like to show off my body. \*
35. A. People only sometimes believe what I tell them.  
B. I can make people believe anything I want them to. \*

Factor 3 = Need for Acknowledgement / Attention-Seeking

38. A. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out. \*  
B. I don't mind if people don't notice me.
18. A. I just want to be pretty happy.  
B. I want others to think that I am special and great. \*
20. A. I try not to show off.  
B. I will show off if I get the chance. \*
37. A. I wish someone would someday write a story about my life. \*  
B. I don't like people getting into my business for any reason.
6. A. I can usually talk my way out of trouble. \*  
B. I usually accept the consequences of my behavior.

Factor 4 = Entitlement / Self-Sufficiency

2. A. I like it when others brag about good things I have done. \*  
B. I don't like it when others brag about my accomplishments.
25. A. I don't think I get as much as I should in life. \*  
B. I am usually satisfied with what I get in life.
24. A. I expect a lot from other people. \*  
B. I like doing good things for other people.
39. A. Things come easier to me than to other people. \*  
B. There is a lot I can learn from other people.
22. A. I sometimes get other people to help me when I do things.  
B. I almost always do things on my own. \*
1. A. I'm good at getting people to do things my way. \*  
B. I am not good at getting people to do things my way.
8. A. I will do really well in life. \*  
B. Doing well in life is not really important to me.

Factor 5 = Leadership / Self-Aggrandizement

21. A. I always know what I am doing. \*  
B. Sometimes I am not sure what I am doing.
36. A. I was born a good leader. \*  
B. It takes a long time to learn to be a good leader.
3. A. I would do almost anything if you dared me. \*  
B. I am a pretty careful person.
5. A. The thought of me ruling the world scares me.  
B. If I ruled the world, it would be a better place. \*
34. A. I am going to be a great person. \*  
B. I hope I am going to be successful.

Factor 6 = Uniqueness

9. A. I am no better or worse than most people are.  
B. I think I am a special person. \*
40. A. I am just as good as everybody else.  
B. I am a really great person. \*
16. A. I can read people really well. \*  
B. People are sometimes hard to understand.

Factor 7 = Exhibitionism

29. A. I like to look at myself in the mirror a lot. \*  
B. I don't really care to look at myself in the mirror too often.
28. A. I don't care much about wearing clothes that are in style.  
B. I like to start new fads or styles in clothes. \*
17. A. If I know what I am doing, then I am willing to make choices or decisions.  
B. I like to make choices or decisions no matter what the situation. \*

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Note: \* indicates narcissistic response for each pair.

## CHAPTER 5

### **Discussion**

The current study examined the construct validity of the NPI-JO as well as the presentation of narcissism in a sample of female juvenile offenders. Calhoun and colleagues (2000) created the NPI-JO in order to explore the construct of narcissism in juvenile offenders, however their study used a sample of exclusively male juvenile offenders. Previous research has indicated (e.g., Tschanz et al., 1998) potential gender differences in the manifestation of narcissism. Thus, although the Calhoun et al. (2000) study successfully validated the NPI-JO in their male sample, it was crucial that the instrument be examined and validated in a sample of female juvenile offenders as well. It was hypothesized that the NPI-JO factors found using the current sample of female juvenile offenders would differ from those NPI-JO factors found in a previous sample of male juvenile offenders. Secondly, it was hypothesized that the NPI-JO would demonstrate construct validity in the female juvenile offender sample through cross-validation with the BASC-2 SRP-A scales.

### **Overview of Findings and Implications**

A principal component analysis on the 40 NPI-JO items in the current sample of 72 female juvenile offenders resulted in seven factors/components/scales, the same number of factors found in the original NPI study (Raskin & Terry, 1988) and Calhoun and colleagues' (2000) initial NPI-JO validation study. The current study's factors were labeled the following: Authority/Control (factor 1), Vanity/Superiority (factor 2), Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking (factor 3), Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency (factor 4),

Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement (factor 5), Uniqueness (factor 6), and Exhibitionism (factor 7). As a review, the names of the seven factors found in the Calhoun et al. (2000) study using exclusively male juvenile offenders were Control/Vanity, Authority/Superiority, Exhibitionism, Leadership, Uniqueness, Need for Approval/Acknowledgement, and Exploitativeness. Though it is clear that the factors are similar across male and female juvenile offender samples, the factors did, in fact, differ in both names and the loadings of the items on each factor, thus supporting the first research hypothesis of the current study.

This outcome illustrates that, overall, the construct of narcissism retains its essential characteristics across genders, but the manifestations of some of these characteristics differ depending on gender. For instance, a notable difference is the lack of a distinct exploitativeness factor in the female juvenile offender sample. Moreover, the Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency factor had the lowest internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .06$ ) of all the identified factors in the current sample and had the weakest correlation with the overall NPI-JO score (see Table 3). It appears that, in female juvenile offenders, the expression of overt exploitativeness and entitlement are not as prominent manifestations of narcissism as they are in male juvenile offenders. These results corroborate Tschanz et al.'s (1998) finding of significant gender differences in the manifestation of entitlement/expoitativeness in the narcissism construct, and lend support to the general idea of gender differences in the construct which should be explored further.

In order to determine if the NPI-JO retained its construct validity in a sample of female juvenile offenders, the NPI-JO factor scores were correlated with the scale scores of the BASC-2 SRP-A (see Table 4). Several significant correlations indicate that the NPI-JO is a valid measure of narcissism in a female juvenile offender sample and illustrate narcissism's

multidimensionality. Authority/Control (factor 1) was significantly positively correlated with Sensation Seeking and School Problems, indicating the difficulties that may arise when an individual has an exaggerated desire to have authority and control of others as well as a tendency to take risks and seek excitement. Vanity/Superiority (factor 2) was significantly negatively associated with Social Stress, Anxiety, Sense of Inadequacy, Somatization, Internalizing Problems, and the Emotional Symptoms Index. Additionally, Vanity/Superiority was significantly positively correlated with Interpersonal Relations and Self-Esteem. This indicates that Vanity/Superiority is negatively associated with emotional symptomatology and positively associated with adaptive scales of the BASC-2 SRP-A, supporting the concept that there are adaptive components of the narcissism construct (e.g., C.T. Barry et al., 2003).

Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking (factor 3) was significantly positively correlated with Atypicality, Somatization, Internalizing Problems, Attention Problems, Hyperactivity, and Inattention/Hyperactivity. These significant correlations suggest that Need for Acknowledgement/Attention-Seeking represents a maladaptive component of narcissism in this population as the constant need for social approval may indicate the inherent instability of a narcissist's self-esteem/self-concept. Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency (factor 4) was significantly positively associated with Locus of Control illustrating the importance a narcissist places on feedback received from external sources, especially when determining one's self-esteem/self-concept. Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement (factor 5) was significantly negatively correlated with Anxiety and the Emotional Symptoms Index. Correspondingly, Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement was also significantly positively correlated with Self-Esteem, Self-Reliance, and Personal Adjustment. These correlations indicate that Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement may comprise an adaptive component of narcissism due to its negative associations with clinical scales of the

BASC-2 SRP-A (and thus emotional symptomatology) and its positive associations with adaptive scales. Finally, the NPI-JO total score was significantly positively correlated with Sensation Seeking, perhaps lending evidence to the association between narcissism, externalizing behavior problems, and impulsivity (e.g., C.T. Barry, Frick, et al., 2007). Ultimately, these significant correlations, though low, provide evidence for the construct validity of the NPI-JO in a female juvenile offender sample as they reflect a pattern consistent with the concept of narcissism. Based on the current study's results, the NPI-JO can be used as a valid measure of narcissism in the female juvenile offender population.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

The most important limitation of the current study was the small sample size. Despite diligent data collection efforts, a sample size of only 72 was acquired. This is a reflection of the fact that, although arrests of female juveniles may be increasing because of policy changes, the majority of the juvenile offender population is still male (Puzzanchera & Adams, 2011; Zahn, Brumbaugh, et al., 2008; Zahn, Hawkins, Chiancone, & Whitworth, 2008). The small sample size inevitably decreased the power of the analyses, and thus the results of the analyses should be considered with that caveat. Another limitation, most likely a result of the small sample size, is the low internal consistencies/reliabilities of the Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency scale, the Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement scale, and the Uniqueness scale (Cronbach's alphas of .06, .40, and .14, respectively). These low internal consistencies must be considered when determining the utility of these subscales as they currently stand.

An additional limitation of the current study is the use of the BASC-2 SRP-A for cross-validation. The BASC-2 SRP-A is not a direct measure of narcissism. Though the BASC-2 SRP-A scale correlations with the NPI-JO scales demonstrate a pattern of narcissistic characteristics,

the results of the cross-validation may not be as strong as they may be if a direct measure of narcissism were used, such as the Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI; Pincus, Ansell, Pimentel, Cain, Wright, & Levy, 2009).

Further, it is crucial to remember that the NPI-JO, like the original NPI, was not designed to be an instrument used in assessment and diagnosis (Calhoun et al., 2000; Raskin & Terry, 1988). It is an instrument to be used for research/empirical reasons only, primarily investigating the presentation of the narcissism construct in juvenile offender populations. Consequently, the results of this study should only be generalized to female juvenile offender populations, and not to female juveniles who have not been involved in the juvenile justice system.

There are many directions for future research following the results of the present study. First and foremost, it is essential that the current findings be replicated in a larger sample. A larger sample size would most likely increase the low Cronbach's alphas of the Entitlement/Self-Sufficiency scale/factor, the Leadership/Self-Aggrandizement scale/factor, and the Uniqueness scale/factor, as previously mentioned, and increase the internal consistency and reliability of the entire NPI-JO using a female juvenile offender sample. Secondly, it would be informative to use the PNI (Pincus et al., 2009) for cross-validation with the NPI-JO as opposed to the BASC-2 SRP-A because the PNI is a direct, validated narcissism measure. Cross-validating the NPI-JO with the PNI could strengthen the argument that the NPI-JO is indeed measuring the narcissism construct.

Additionally, exploring how the NPI-JO performs in a sample of both female and male juvenile offenders and comparing the NPI-JO results with the types of offenses and recidivism rates could further inform juvenile offender interventions. Finally, as research demonstrates that

it is the maladaptive components of narcissism that are linked to juvenile delinquency and other behavioral problems (e.g., C.T. Barry, Frick, et al., 2007; C.T. Barry, Grafeman, et al., 2007), creating and validating a version of the PNI for juvenile offenders would perhaps provide a clearer picture of how maladaptive narcissism contributes to juvenile delinquency. Results of these studies could inform the juvenile delinquency and narcissism literature by further clarifying the relationships between multidimensional personality variables such as narcissism and juvenile offending behavior and also could help those working with juvenile offenders provide informed, effective interventions.

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## APPENDIX A

## NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY – JUVENILE OFFENDER

*Directions*

In each of the following pairs of attitudes, choose the one that you **most agree** with. Mark your answer by placing an X next to the phrase which best describes you. Only mark **one answer** for each sentence pair.

	A	B
1	I'm good at getting people to do things my way.	I am not good at getting people to do things my way.
2	I like it when others brag about good things I have done.	I don't like it when others brag about my accomplishments.
3	I would do almost anything if you dared me.	I am a pretty careful person.
4	When people say good things about me, sometimes I get embarrassed.	I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
5	The thought of me ruling the world scares me.	If I ruled the world, it would be a better place.
6	I can usually talk my way out of trouble.	I usually accept the consequences of my behavior.
7	I prefer to be just like other people.	I like to be the center of attention.
8	I will do really well in life.	Doing well in life is not really important to me.
9	I am no better or worse than most people are.	I think I am a special person.
10	I am not sure that I would make a good leader.	I think that I am a good leader.
11	I'm not shy about asking for what I want.	I wish I were not such a shy person when it comes to asking for things I want.
12	I like being in charge of other people.	I don't mind following others.
13	It's easy for me to control other people.	I don't feel comfortable being in control of other people.
14	It is really important that others show me the respect I deserve.	I usually get the respect that I deserve.
15	I don't really like to show off my body.	I like to show off my body.
16	I can read people really well.	People are sometimes hard to understand.
17	If I know what I am doing, then I am willing to make choices or decisions.	I like to make choices or decisions no matter what the situation.
18	I just want to be pretty happy.	I want others to think that I am special and great.

19		My body is nothing special or great.		I like to look at my body.
20		I try not to show off.		I will show off if I get the chance.
	<b>A</b>		<b>B</b>	
21		I always know what I am doing.		Sometimes I am not sure what I am doing.
22		I sometimes get other people to help me when I do things.		I almost always do things on my own.
23		Sometimes I tell good jokes or stories.		Everybody always likes to hear my jokes or stories.
24		I expect a lot from other people.		I like doing good things for other people.
25		I don't think I get as much as I should in life.		I am usually satisfied with what I get in life.
26		It embarrasses me when people tell me good things about myself.		I like it when people tell me I look good or I have done a good job.
27		I like to be in control of things.		I don't really care about being the person in control.
28		I don't care much about wearing clothes that are in style.		I like to start new fads or styles in clothes.
29		I like to look at myself in the mirror a lot.		I don't really care to look at myself in the mirror too often.
30		I really like to be the center of attention.		It makes me feel uncomfortable to be the center of attention.
31		I can live my life anyway I want to.		People can't always live their lives the way they want.
32		Being in charge doesn't mean much to me.		People always seem to realize that I am in charge.
33		When I am in a group, I like to be the leader.		I don't care if I'm the leader or not.
34		I am going to be a great person.		I hope I am going to be successful.
35		People only sometimes believe what I tell them.		I can make people believe anything I want them to.
36		I was born a good leader.		It takes a long time to learn to be a good leader.
37		I wish someone would someday write a story about my life.		I don't like people getting into my business for any reason.
38		I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out.		I don't mind if people don't notice me.
39		Things come easier to me than to other people.		There is a lot I can learn from other people.
40		I am just as good as everybody else.		I am a really great person.