

PERSONAL CONTROL BELIEFS
WITHIN CORRECTIONAL SETTINGS

By

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The study was designed to examine the construct personal control within correctional institutions contrasted by their relative opportunity structures. Cross-sectional samples of inmates from four male and three female settings served as subjects. Personal control correlated as predicted with a large number of other personality variables drawn largely from social learning theory, including freedom of movement, alienation, attitude toward deviance, self-esteem, interpersonal trust, attitude toward prison behaviors, and attitude toward institutional opportunity and authority structures.

Personal control beliefs were distributed over correctional settings such that 1) inmates from high opportunity correctional environments held significantly stronger beliefs in personal control than inmates from low opportunity environments; 2) majority inmates' beliefs were significantly stronger than minority inmates' beliefs; and 3) there was a significant positive correlation between personal control and socio-economic status.

Examination of changes in personal control beliefs as a function of length of stay in prison failed to significantly support the hypothesis of curvilinearity. Instead, a number of significant linear relationships between personal control and length of stay variables obtained with various inmate samples.

Group consensus on appropriate behaviors discriminated among inmate groups by institution, by living unit, and by ethnic group within institutions. The power of this discrimination was supported by the finding of positive relationships between personal control and group consensus in each level of analysis. A nonsignificant positive relationship obtained between personal control and institution population size.

While high personal control beliefs were generally predictive of inmate success in the environment, further analysis indicated that high personal control inmates in high consensus environments were more successful than their counterparts in low consensus environments. Success differences between personal control groups in low consensus environments tended to be nonsignificant.

INTRODUCTION

The Construct Personal Control

Joe (1971), Lefcourt (1966a, 1972), Phares (1976), Rotter (1966), and Swanson (1970a) have reviewed the theory and research related to a hypothetical dimension of personality referred to variously as personal control, locus of control, internality-externality, effectance, and personal efficacy. They suggest it is a variable of widespread predictive utility, noting that it has received an enormous amount of attention in a wide variety of research settings with a multitude of subject populations. Rotter (1975) reports well over 600 published research studies as well as countless unpublished theses, dissertations, and papers.

In essence, the concept of personal control refers to an individual's expectations that the consequences of his actions are contingent upon his own behaviors and attributes. It is held that the individual who perceives these contingencies accurately may learn to manipulate his environment in order to achieve his desired goals. The individual who fails to perceive these contingencies is more likely to attribute the consequences of his behavior to fate, luck, chance, systematic forces, or powerful others.

Personal control is seen as a variable of great import to the understanding of an individual's interactions with his environment and with others. The individual who has perceived the contingencies

between his behavior and his desired rewards would be expected to have learned to control and manipulate his environment. Thus, there is an increased possibility that that individual will adapt to more socially desirable behavior in order to achieve his goals. Likewise, the individual who perceives no contingency between his behavior and his desired rewards may be unwilling, or even unable, to conform to societal demands. That individual's behavior may become less goal-oriented and more random.

The largest portion of the research on the construct personal control has been in the study of individual differences in personality. Julian B. Rotter is in the forefront in this research effort. In his monograph describing his research on the topic, he suggested that "consistent individual differences exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal control to reward in the same situation" (1966, p.1). The personal control concept emerged from a comprehensive theoretical framework known as social learning theory (Rotter, 1954; Rotter, 1966; Rotter, Chance, and Phares, 1972), and was considered to be of "major significance in understanding the nature of learning processes in different kinds of learning situations" (1966, p.1).

Before turning to a description of some of the significant research on the construct personal control, and in order to fully understand its significance in explaining human behavior, it is now necessary to delineate the theoretical and conceptual framework from which it is derived. Theoretical Background. Within social learning theory, any behavior is the result of a selection, choice, or decision process. The choice of

behavior is based upon which action has the highest expectation of maximizing valued consequences for the actor in that particular situation. In order to account for the occurrence of any specific behavior, there must be knowledge of the following: that the behavior is in the repertoire of the actor (that it has been learned); the expectations of the actor that that behavior will lead to specific outcomes; the value of those outcomes for the actor; and the various outcomes available in that situation.

Thus, the basic concepts in Rotter's theory are: 1) expectation (E), which refers to the actor's subjective probability that a specific behavior will lead to the occurrence of a specific outcome(s) or reinforcement(s); 2) reinforcement value (RV), which refers to the actor's degree of preference for the specific outcomes(s) or reinforcement(s) which are contingently related to behavior; 3) behavior potential (BP), which refers to the probability of the occurrence of a behavior, or the relative strength of the tendency to respond in a particular manner; and 4) the psychological situation, which refers to the actor's meaningful environment and represents the actor's immediate context of action.

These fundamental terms generate Rotter's descriptive formula, stated in its most simple form:

$$BP = f(E \& RV).$$

The formula reads: the potentiality of any behavior occurring in a given situation is some function (probably multiplicative) of the expectancy that that behavior in that situation will lead to a particular outcome and the value of the outcome for the actor in that situation.

Thus, social learning theory regards expectancies as prime determinants of behavior; reinforcement alone does not explain behavior adequately. In other words, an individual's behavior is determined not only by the reinforcement received through goal achievement but also by whether that individual expects his behavior to lead to specific goals. Moreover, expectancies that certain behaviors will lead to reinforcement are increased by successes in one's past experiences and decreased by past failures. Thus, expectancies for behavioral outcomes are, in large part, learned through past experiences.

Another factor about expectancies should be considered before returning to a discussion of the construct personal control. Social learning theory recognizes that behavior is determined both by situation-specific factors and by general factors. With regard to expectancies, when individuals are in novel situations, generalized expectancies are expected to be more potent determinants of expectancy than will be specific expectancies which are based purely upon prior experience in that situation. On the other hand, when an individual is greatly experienced in a particular situation, generalized expectancies should have relatively little potency and specific expectancies in that situation should be dominant.

Generalized expectancies are derived from the assumption in social learning theory that individuals categorize situations along various dimensions of similarity. It is assumed that individuals can categorize situations in a limitless number of ways, thus allowing for the development of a limitless number of generalized expectancies. Rotter suggests that these hypothetical dimensions of personality take

on "functional properties and make up one of the important classes of variables in personality description" (1966, p.2). The end result is that such generalized expectancies, coupled with specific expectancies and reinforcement values, act to influence the choice of behavior.

One such relatively consistent generalized expectancy is the degree to which an individual believes in internal or external control of reinforcement--whether the individual believes what happens to him is under personal control or is attributable to luck, fate, chance, powerful others, etc. It is held that this belief in personal control, dependent as it is upon one's reinforcement history, is a generalized personality construct that can be quantified and used in conjunction with other social learning theory variables to understand and predict complex human behavior. Let us now focus upon some of the relevant research on this concept.

Review of the Literature--The Significance of Variables Related to Personal Control

As noted above, the construct personal control has been a particularly robust one for researchers. Some of the relevant findings will now be discussed. The hypotheses which they lead to will be specified in more detail at the conclusion of this chapter.

Relation to Personality

Belief in personal control has been shown to be associated with a wide range of personality variables. Joe (1971), in his extensive review of the research on personal control, concludes that "the most significant evidence for the construct validity of the internal-external control concept lies in the area of personality functioning" (p.634). One personality variable derived directly from social learning theory

that is very important for belief in personal control is the individual's perception of the opportunity structures available to him. Rotter called this variable freedom of movement. If the individual perceives the environment to be one characterized by opportunity, he will be more likely to hold high expectations of goal attainment. Thus, this individual should have developed a feeling of mastery over his environment.

Jessor, Young, Young, and Tesi (1970), in a cross-cultural study of Italian drinking behavior in Rome, Palermo, and Boston, reported upon the relationship between expectations for goal attainment and personal control. The predicted relationships obtained in all three cities (Rome, $r = .38$; Palermo, $r = .28$; and Boston, $r = .30$). Jessor, Graves, Hanson, and Jessor (1968), in a southern Colorado community, found that in adults the correlation between expectations and personal control was .28, and for high school students, the correlation between expectation for academic recognition and personal control was .14. All of the above correlations, with the exception of the final one cited, were significant at the .05 level or better. In two other studies, Nelson and Phares (1971) and Strassberg (1973), using different measures, found that a lower expectancy of achievement of valued goals was associated with externality.

While the correlations here reported are somewhat low, it does appear that persons who believe they control their own outcomes will also tend to hold high expectations that they will reach their goals.

A concept with some similarity to the construct personal control is that of alienation. Seeman (1959) described five aspects of this concept, the first of which appears to be most similar to personal

control and the second of which may be a direct result of the first. The five aspects of alienation are: 1) powerlessness, the expectancy that one's own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of his personally valued outcomes or reinforcements; 2) meaninglessness, a low expectancy that satisfactory predictions can be made about future outcomes; 3) normlessness, a belief that socially proscribed behaviors are required to achieve valued goals; 4) isolation, a rejection of socially valued goals; and 5) self-estrangement, the dependence of behavior upon expected future goals rather than upon current intrinsic ones. A person who experiences a belief in personal control in their life would be unlikely to also experience a feeling of alienation. On the other hand, a person who felt that the rewards of life were independent of his own actions or characteristics would be likely to feel a sense of meaninglessness, isolation, and estrangement from others--in short, a sense of alienation.

In a study of alienation and social learning, Seeman (1963) presented materials relating to correctional matters to prison inmates. Inmates low on the alienation measure retained the information pertinent to parole significantly better than inmates high on the alienation measure. In the Jessor et al. (1970) study cited above, alienation predicted expectations for goal attainment better than personal control (r 's ranging from $-.37$ to $-.51$). This was also the case with the Jessor et al. (1968) study in Colorado where the correlation between expectations and alienation for adults was $-.35$. In the same study, internal control correlated negatively with social isolation ($r = -.45$).

A person who feels able to deal effectively with his environment should also have a belief in his own abilities and self-worth. He should

develop a sense of power and self-acceptance. In a study of 891 college students, Hersch and Scheibe (1967) reported that internals described themselves as more active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent, and effective. In addition, they reported the following relationships with externality, all significant at the .05 level or better: Self-Acceptance, $r = -.17$; Self-Confidence, $r = -.18$; and Adjustment, $r = -.10$.

The Coleman Report (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld, and York, 1966) strikingly underlined the significant positive relationship between belief in personal control and positive conceptions of own ability and interest in school work among white and black school children. Studying 144 members of the Detroit labor force, Douvan and Walker (1956) reported a positive correlation between a "sense of effectiveness" and satisfaction over outcome of life plans ($r = .28$).

Fitch (1970) also reported a low significant positive rank-order correlation between locus of control and self-esteem, with low self-esteem subjects tending to score as externals. All these findings point toward the conclusion that persons who believe in personal control also tend to think more highly of themselves.

Persons who believe they exercise some control over their environment tend to experience other people in their environment as facilitative or helpful to them. People are generally seen as benevolent and trustworthy. Their behavior is seen as more lawful and predictable. Rotter defines interpersonal trust as "an expectance held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (1967, p.651).

Hamsher, Geller, and Rotter (1968) found a high correlation between I-E scores and subject's willingness to accept the findings of

the Warren Commission Report. Miller and Minton (1969) found that externals were more apt to violate experimental instructions than were internals. They also reported a low significant correlation between externality and machiavellianism. Therefore, there is evidence that suggests a relationship between mistrust or suspicion and personal control. The findings suggest that persons who believe in personal control will also tend to trust others.

Certain behavioral dispositions and/or styles of interactions with the environment should be related to belief in personal control. If a person believes that he will be able to gratify his goals he should be less willing to engage in behavior that is socially judged as being deviant in order to maximize his chances of reaching his goals. He would be more likely to believe that by exercising the conventional means he believes are open to him, he can avoid the dangers inherent in employing the deviant means. Therefore it is suggested that his attitude toward deviant behavior would be negative in nature.

Jessor et al. (1968) reported no significant relationship between personal control and attitude toward deviance in either their high school or adult age samples. However, Wood, Wilson, Jessor, and Bogan (1966), with a sample of prisoners, supported the hypothesis. They suggested that it may be that individuals believing in personal control simply are able to perceive the possibility of punishment for engaging in deviant behaviors. Even though these findings are inconclusive, logic continues to suggest that a person who believes in personal control also tends to be intolerant of deviant behavior. Further research on this relationship is needed.

Another group of personality variables that should have some direct relationship with personal control are concerned with an individual's attitude toward his own situation. Two aspects of this attitudinal set are: 1) prescriptions for behavior of self and important others in the environment; and 2) how the individual perceives and defines the nature of his environment or situation. It is expected that persons who believe in personal control prescribe behaviors which increase the likelihood of reward and decrease the likelihood of punishment. They should do this for themselves as well as for important other people in their environment. This has been supported in previous research by Swanson (1968).

It is expected that a person who believes in personal control should perceive and define the nature of his environment as one of greater opportunity with the significant people therein benevolent and helpful. It has been suggested that a person who perceives his environment as hostile and its people as malevolent could still believe in personal control if he felt capable of overcoming the environmental obstacles. However, it follows that if a person perceives his environment as more friendly and richer in opportunity, he should be more likely to develop a belief in personal control. This has been supported by Wood et al. (1966) with a prison population and by Swanson (1968), in a partial replication of the Wood et al. (1966) study.

There, as has been suggested in previous research, it appears that individuals who believe in personal control tend to have more positive attitudes toward their situation. More specifically, they tend to prescribe behaviors for themselves and for others that maximize reward and minimize punishment. And they tend to perceive their environment as opportunity-rich and the people in it as friendly.

Distribution of Personal Control Within Social Settings

Just as persons who perceive their environments as rich in opportunity should believe in personal control, it should also be true that environments that are, in fact, relatively high in opportunity should contain individuals who believe more strongly in personal control than environments that are, in fact, relatively low in opportunity.

However, since Jessor et al. (1968) suggested that the institutionalized means of achieving goals emphasized by our culture are unevenly distributed in our society, "the lower social strata and certain subgroups, notably racial and ethnic minorities, represent disadvantaged locations with respect to opportunity" (1968, p.55). Therefore, it is expected that persons of ethnic/minority or lower socioeconomic status should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons of majority or higher socioeconomic status.

Much of the work on social antecedents to personal control supports a relationship with social class and ethnicity. The implication is that lower social class or minority individuals have relatively little access to social mobility, significant power, or material advantages and this lack of opportunities manifests itself in higher externality. Franklin (1963) studied a nationally stratified sample of 1000 cases and reported a significant correlation between socioeconomic class and personal control. The higher the socioeconomic class the more the person believed in personal control. Battle and Rotter (1963) studied sixth and eighth grade children and reported that lower socioeconomic, as well as black, children were more external than higher socioeconomic or white children, respectively.

Using six different measures relating to personal control, Lefcourt and Ladwig (1965, 1966) found black prison inmates more external than comparable groups of white prison inmates. However, Kiehlbauch (1967) was unable to show significant differences between black and white reformatory inmates, although there was a trend toward greater externality among blacks.

Coleman et al. (1966) studied a nationally stratified sample of school children and, among other measures, employed a measure of personal control. They reported that black children believed in personal control to a lesser extent than did white children. Moreover, this variable was far more predictive of school achievement for black children than it was for white children.

Scott and Phelan (1969), in a tri-ethnic study of unemployable persons on the welfare rolls, found whites more internal than either blacks or Mexican-Americans, and Mexican-Americans slightly more external than blacks. Other studies that support the greater externality of blacks relative to whites include Lessing (1969), Shaw and Uhl (1971), Strickland (1972), and Zytoskee, Strickland, and Watson (1971).

While these studies have all supported the hypothesized relationship between personal control and minority and socioeconomic status, other studies have failed to do so. Gore and Rotter (1963) failed to find a significant association between personal control and socioeconomic class. They surmised that the limited range of social classes in their subject population could have been responsible for this finding. Studying university psychology students, Rotter (1966) also attributed the lack of significant relationship between social class and personal control to sample homogeneity. Swanson (1968) studied the resocialization

process in a correctional setting. His sample included four ethnic populations (Anglo, Black, Indian, and Spanish-American), and he failed to find any significant differences in personal control among these groups. Jessor et al. (1968) also reported a failure to find significant differences among ethnic groups on their personal control measure. While some findings of no significant difference are no doubt related to sample homogeneity, Jessor et al. (1968) and Swanson (1968, 1970a, 1970b) suggest an even greater possibility is the weakness of the personal control measure utilized.

The published findings, therefore, on the distribution of personal control within the social settings offer both support and disagreement with the suggested relationships. Possible reasons for the disagreement have been proposed. It is felt that the questions relating to environmental opportunity differences and minority and social class differences bear further testing.

Changes in Personal Control Beliefs

The extensive influence of belief in personal control upon personality and behavior has been suggested. It is important to understand the conditions which influence the development of personal control beliefs. The simplest reason for change in belief in personal control may stem from age change. Penk (1969) reports that among children internality typically increases with age. Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965), in a study on academic achievement, noted a tendency toward externality in the third grade, and increasing internality to a maximum in the eighth and tenth grades, with a return to externality in the twelfth grade. They suggest that perhaps the look toward the uncertainties beyond graduation from high school tends to externalize students' beliefs about personal control.

Kiehlbauch (1967), in a cross-sectional study of reformatory inmates reported a similar curvilinear relationship between personal control and length of stay in the reformatory. Inmates were external at the beginning of their term, more internal in the middle of their stay, with a reversion to externality just prior to release. His conclusion that a curvilinear relationship exists between personal control beliefs and environmental uncertainties seems clear. To support the interpretation of this curvilinear function, Kiehlbauch noted that he did not find the return to a more external belief among inmates who had been assigned to a work release program and had already had some meaningful contact with the outside world before their release.

There is evidence suggesting that personal control beliefs may be somewhat dependent upon the social climate of the times. Changes have been observed in college students' scores on personal control measures over the past decade. Schneider (1971) and Phares (1976) report that several studies across the country have shown students to become significantly more external since the publication of Rotter's I-E Scale in 1966. Speculation for this drift towards externality has centered on the sense of alienation on campuses attributable to national issues such as the Vietnam conflict or Watergate.

Another research thrust underlining the importance of understanding personal control belief changes has a more clinical tone. MacDonald (1971) has suggested that shifting clients' beliefs in the internal direction is important in rehabilitation work, and Lefcourt (1966b) has written of the importance of encouraging an internal locus of control in psychotherapy. Gillis and Jessor (1970) report that

patients showing improvement in psychotherapy also showed greater tendencies toward internal beliefs than their untreated group of patients.

Therefore, it has been shown that personal control beliefs are flexible and seem to be influenced by a variety of change-agents. Some research suggests that environmental factors are related to personal control beliefs. Another line of research supports the conclusion that interpersonal factors influence changes in personal control beliefs. Clinicians have shown a preference for developing stronger beliefs in personal control among their patients and have developed strategies to facilitate this process. It can be concluded that researchers and clinicians alike attach a great deal of significance to those factors that operate so as to effect changes in personal control beliefs over time.

Environmental Influences

It has been suggested that one of the central factors involved in a belief in personal control concerns the individual's belief in the predictability of his environment and the persons in it, such that as the predictability of an environment increases, personal control beliefs of persons within that environment should also increase. This thesis will be discussed from the vantage point of the normative structure of an environment and its suggested relation to personal control beliefs. In addition, the potential importance of the variable of population size to the normative structure will be described.

The normative structure of a sociocultural environment refers to the influence of the reference group in setting standards, or norms, for the behavior or beliefs of an individual. "Norms are not simply average or modal behaviors; instead...norms are to be construed as

socially defined standards or expectations about what are appropriate modes of action in various social situations" (Jessor et al., 1968, p.60). In an environment where there is considerable consensus or agreement among its members about appropriate behaviors or beliefs, the individual would tend to feel more comfortable and attuned to the predictiveness of that environment.

On the other hand, Durkheim (1951) defined anomie as a property of a sociocultural system in which norms are no longer operative or effective guides to action. The individual's sense of social cohesion and social orderliness is weakened and the predictiveness of his environment is lessened. The lack of consensus or agreement among members about the prescriptions and the proscriptions for behavior lead to the condition where no one knows how to behave or what to expect from others. Since the individual has difficulty predicting the outcomes or reinforcements of his behavior, it is difficult to develop a belief in personal control.

Moreover, as Merton (1957) has suggested, in a state of anomie individuals perceive that they are unable to attain their valued goals by legitimate behaviors, thus experiencing an increased pressure to attain those goals by illegitimate means. This produces further tension and breakdown in the behavioral prescriptive and proscriptive structures.

The importance of the normative structure to the construct personal control seems considerable. Swanson (1968) compared the amount of consensus on behavioral prescriptions as measured by a six-scale, sixty item measure of attitudes toward prison behaviors given to all inmates in a correctional setting. This normative measure was pertinent to behavior of both staff and inmates. Swanson was most interested in how group influence or group consensus on these attitudes might influence an inmate

to change in a rehabilitative direction. While he found that majority group consensus was greater than minority group consensus, and that clear differences between prison dormitories could be obtained, he failed to show the predicted relationships with personal control. It seems important to restudy this question with another sample population. Therefore, it will be maintained that to the degree that there is normative cohesion (or consensus on what are appropriate behaviors) in a social system, to that degree it becomes easier for an individual to predict the outcomes and reinforcements of his behavior with consistency. The individual thus finds it easier to develop a belief in personal control. Conversely, to the degree there is normative inconsistency, the more difficult it becomes for a person to make those predictions and the less likely it is the individual will develop a belief in personal control.

Finally, it is proposed that as the number of the persons within an environment (the gross population size) increases, the degree of personal control within that environment decreases. This is suggested from Zimbardo's (1969) discussion of the theoretical and empirical underpinnings of a hypothetical construct he calls deindividuation. His research findings support the contention that group size is directly related to the experience of anonymity and the lack of social evaluation and sanction: "If others can't identify or single you out, they can't evaluate, criticize, judge, or punish you, thus there need be no concern for social evaluation" (1969, p.255).

It appears then that the person engulfed in a large anonymous social system would be more likely to adopt an external frame of reference for understanding the locus of his reinforcements, whereas the

individual residing in a smaller unit would be more likely to experience the social intimacy with others in that environment and "learn the ropes" more quickly. Thus, that individual will be more likely to develop a belief in the predictability of outcomes of his behavior.

Alternative Conceptualizations of Personal Control

Rotter's original conceptualization of personal control was as a bipolar unidimensional concept with external control at one end of the continuum balanced by internal control at the other. The terms were defined in this manner: "Internal control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby under personal control; external control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behaviors in certain situations and therefore beyond personal control" (Rotter, Seeman, and Liverant, 1962, p.473).

However, Rotter (1966) later clouded the above definitions by including a world view in his definition of personal control (i.e. the personal belief about the reinforcement contingencies for the generalized other). A growing number of researchers and theorists have called into question the unidimensionality of a concept that includes both the personal as well as the generalized other (Swanson, 1970a). Dies (1968), suggesting that major aspects of personal control are not measured by Rotter's I-E Scale, concludes the scale is weighted toward social and political factors rather than toward personal factors.

Gurin, Gurin, Lao, and Beattie (1969) and Lao (1970) suggest that the concept of internal-external control has no simplistic application to Black youth. They factor analyzed the I-E Scale responses of

1695 Black students and found four independent factors. The first two they labelled Control Ideology and Personal Control. Respectively, these referred to the generalized other and personal dimensions of control suggested above. The third factor, System Modifiability, referred to the degree the individual believed that war, racial discrimination, and other worldwide problems could be attenuated. The fourth factor, Race Ideology, contained most of the race-related items.

Mirels (1970) performed a varimax rotation on the I-E measure of 316 college students. He also reports the identification of two factors, one concerned with personal factors of control, the other concerned with the more general factors of control over political and world affairs. Taken together, these findings suggest that Rotter's I-E instrument has some inherent conceptual weaknesses that bring into question the validity of a unidimensional personal control construct. Instead, they strongly suggest the notion that personal control may be a multi-dimensional construct, at least in the sample populations studied thus far.

Swanson (1970a), in a comprehensive literature review, has suggested that additional conceptual imprecisions in the personal control concept involve the over-generalized definition of control and the assumption that internality is the polar opposite of externality. Specifically, he suggests that a person may be internal in one need area and, at the same time, external in another. Thus, a definition of personal control which cuts across need areas is necessarily weakened. For example, it is easy to imagine a very accomplished student who always receives A's as well as the plaudits of his teachers. This identical student, at the same time, remains socially isolated and conspicuously unsuccessful in his heterosexual endeavors. His perception may well be that his academic

accomplishments (need for achievement) are due to his diligent study habits and his quick mind (internal locus of control), while his heterosexual failures (need for affection) are due to poor luck in meeting the right girl, the impersonal quality of the university setting, etc. (external locus of control). The logic of the position that an individual is either internal or external in all situations and/or all need areas is easily refutable.

The final conceptual weakness to be discussed concerns the hypothesized polar opposition of internal and external loci of control. Rotter assumed that a person who attributed his rewards and his punishments to his own efforts would also deny any influence of luck and chance. This view oversimplifies human nature. The ingredients of any goal achievement can, at once, be seen as a degree of individual efforts, a little luck, some chance, and perhaps the influence of some systematic outside force.

All of these conceptual difficulties have a serious bearing on two separate issues which are important to this study. The first of these concerns Rotter's notions of the relationship between adjustment (a term that shall here be redefined as "success in the environment") and perceived locus of control. The second concerns the difficulties in making valid and reliable measurements of the construct personal control. Each of these concerns will now be discussed.

Success in the Environment

One area of the research literature on personal control that is replete with confusing and contradictory findings is that area concerned with the relationship between personal control and adjustment. Rotter (1966) has suggested that hypothesis of a curvilinear relationship between personal control and adjustment. He theorized that those

individuals who were extremely internal may have such a Napoleonic viewpoint as to their own control capacities as to be seriously maladjusted. Likewise, those who were extremely external may believe that everything is beyond their control and they become vegetatively helpless and hopeless. Even though the research findings of the past decade have not supported his hypothesis (Phares, 1976), he recently maintained this is due to instrument insensitivity and restricted subject samples (Rotter, 1975), rather than to an inadequate theoretical formulation.

Phares (1976) agrees that research samples have not typically included the extremes in scores and thus there has not been an adequate testing of Rotter's hypothesis. Moreover, Phares suggests that the criteria of adjustment have never been agreed upon in various studies and have too often reflected the researcher's personal biases. He suggests that future research operationalize its definitions of adjustment in a more concrete, behaviorally oriented manner.

Instead of supporting the curvilinearity notion, much of the research has suggested a linear relationship between personal control and measures of adjustment. It appears that those persons who believe in personal control tend to exhibit more initiative in looking for those behavioral alternatives which lead to successful positive outcomes in controlling their environments (Phares, 1965; Seeman, 1963; Seeman and Evans, 1962). Hersch and Scheibe (1967) reported that internal college students were more effective as volunteer workers in a mental hospital setting than were external students. In a prison population, Wood et al. (1966) found a significant relationship between illegitimate, deviant, or troublemaking behavior and belief in personal control. These findings suggest that individuals believing in personal control tend to get into

less trouble in their environments and have a higher expectation that they will achieve their goals. Moreover, they are likely to be perceived by others in their environment as leaders, or as successful models, and as more socially inclined. Finally, as has been suggested earlier, they should be less alienated. Taken together, this cluster of variables can be viewed as measuring "success in the environment."

While it is concluded that internals are, in general, more successful than externals, it is suggested that this difference should be small and reflective of a certain crudeness in conceptualization. This follows from the earlier discussion of some of the conceptual weaknesses inherent in treating personal control as a unidimensional variable operating consistently across need areas and situations. Swanson (1970a) has suggested that some environments demand of an individual a specific internal or external position. He suggests that the person who is able to represent his situation most veridically may indeed be the most successful person. For example, in an environment characterized by its externalizing qualities, an internal individual may not be as successful as an external who represents the situation most veridically. Conversely, in an environment characterized by its internalizing qualities, an external should not be as successful as his internal counterpart. While these two formulations hold the environment constant, the related formulations with control beliefs constant can be stated in the following fashion: The internal individual residing in an external environment should be less successful than the internal in an internal environment. And, the external individual residing in an internal environment should not be as successful as the external in an external environment.

Some examples may make these formulations more clear. Let us suppose we have two persons in an externalizing situation, one internal and the other external. For the purposes of illustration, let us further suppose our two individuals are black men who seek membership in the Ku Klux Klan. In this situation, a belief denying personal control may be a totally rational conclusion based upon the objective reality of the situation, whereas a belief in personal control may be an extreme illogicism. Clearly, the individual likely to be most successful in coping with this hypothetical situation should be the one who is able to represent the objective reality of the situation most veridically.

Another example should suffice. Let us suppose we have two more individuals, both of whom possess strong beliefs in personal control. Let us place one in an environment where the objective reality is that the individual does control the outcomes of his behavior. The other we shall place in an environment where the objective reality is that the individual does not control the outcomes of his behavior. Which of these two should be most successful in their respective environments? Clearly, the individual whose phenomenal reality departs from the objective reality would be predicted as being less successful.

It can be seen that these formulations are somewhat in competition with Rotter's hypothesized curvilinear relationship between personal control and adjustment. One means of studying the relationship between personal control and success in the environment from these two theoretical viewpoints is to employ a normative structure assessment to predict the environmental demands for specific control positions. Internal environments could be defined as ones in which there exists normative consensus, while external environments could be defined as lacking in consensus.

Internal and external scoring individuals could then be located in their internal or external environments and the subsequent relationships could be delineated.

Measurement of Personal Control

Some of the conceptual imprecisions in the personal control construct have been discussed above. In a comprehensive methodological study designed to clarify some of these ambiguities, Swanson (1970b) developed alternative control measures and compared their predictive utility and scale characteristics to that of the widely used Internal-External Control Scale, developed by Rotter et al. (1962). Swanson varied his measures by five need domains, by locus of control (self, chance, or systematic powerful forces), and by self versus other orientation in the wording of the scale items. Using prison inmates as subjects, only modest improvements in scale characteristics and in prediction of various personality and behavioral variables resulted with the specificity of the various subscales. Therefore, it is suggested that a generalized, non-need area specific measure of internal-external control may be the most suitable personal control measurement device, at least for use in correctional settings.

Choice of Research Setting

It is the overall aim of this research project to study the interrelationships between the personal control construct and a number of personality, behavioral, and systems variables. To best understand these interrelationships as they operate in their real-life manner, a natural community seemed best for experimental study. However, in order to be optimal for study, it was felt the community must be sufficiently self-contained so as to provide some control of the number of agents of change influencing its members.

Correctional settings were selected as ideal for this study. There is nothing contrived about these natural research settings. Real-life sanctions and reinforcements are at play in their everyday functioning. Moreover, correctional institutions offer the degree of control necessary to carry on meaningful research. They are relatively self-contained, they contain populations small enough to permit data collection on a large enough scale, and they may contain various sub-cultures within the larger organization.

Since the influence of contrasting institutional control and/or opportunity structures upon the construct personal control seemed so pertinent, six correctional environments were selected for inclusion in this study. These settings were selected so as to insure variation in the personal freedoms allowed the inmates and the number of rules and regulations imposed upon them. Thus the shades of sociocultural variation are provided by these contrasting correctional settings.

Application to Corrections

That this study achieves practical relevance to the field of corrections is readily apparent. Among the most pressing social problems currently facing our complex society are the related concerns of crime and corrections. Policy-makers and lay citizens alike decry the rising crime rate and point with particular frustration to the individuals who come to the attention of the criminal justice system for the second, third, fourth, fifth...time. With the recidivism rate unacceptably high, there is almost universal agreement that the institutions whose mandate is the management and correction of the convicted criminal offender are largely ineffective in rehabilitating the offender

(Lipton, Martinson, and Wilks, 1975). In recent times, however, the problem has crescendoed to new heights as the number of convicted offenders has increased. Prison facilities are often severely overcrowded and woefully understaffed--a condition often remedied by early release programs distasteful to large segments of the general population.

Given that there are sidely held doubts about the effectiveness of current corrections facilities, programs, and techniques, and given that society will almost certainly continue to demand punishment/treatment/correction of the offender, those charged with the responsibility of resocializing the offender would seem to be especially pressured to develop and refine truly "corrective" environments. In order to devise innovative and effective procedures that will encourage adjustment to our society, these policy-makers and practitioners are in need of accurate knowledge about the correctional environments which they currently manage. Research is needed to understand, evaluate, and retool the correctional environment.

The Research Plan

This study contributes to the understanding of correctional environments by identifying variables important to changing attitudes and behaviors of the convicted offender. Previous understanding of the criminal justice system has been most often limited by the lack of theoretical frameworks and methodological consistency. This research is grounded in a comprehensive theoretical design based upon the formulations of Rotter (1954) and Jessor et al. (1968), as well as the work of Swanson (1968, 1970a, 1970b, 1973a, 1973b) in this area. This study is a part of a larger research effort, the purpose of which is to embed the understanding of

various correctional strategies in a comprehensive network of personality, sociocultural, behavioral, and systems variables. The focus of this research endeavor centers upon the construct personal control as it relates to this complex of variables.

The overall research plan for this study is to compare and contrast selected cross-sectional samples of male and female inmates from contrasting correctional institutions. One criteria for distinguishing correctional settings is that of opportunity. High opportunity institutions having high staff/inmate ratios, more diverse program alternatives, and positive incentives in controlling behavior, are contrasted with low opportunity institutions having low staff/inmate ratios, less diverse program alternatives, and negative incentives in controlling behavior.

In order to provide a comprehensive background in which the research hypotheses of this study can be interrelated and understood more clearly, it is now necessary to describe the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings from which this study is derived.

Social Learning Theory in the Field

Jessor et al. (1968) have developed a field theory elaboration of basic social learning theory and have coordinated it with Merton's (1957) sociological opportunity theory, suggesting that high objective opportunity for reward in a social system will enhance individual feelings of high expectation for reward. Including the conceptualizations of Cloward and Ohlin (1960), Cohen (1955), and Sutherland (1955), Jessor et al. developed three predictor systems of variables in an attempt to understand and explain deviant behavior. The three predictor systems were: 1) the personality system, which included the perceived opportunity structure, the personal belief structure, and the personal control structure;

2) the sociocultural system, which included the opportunity structure, the normative structure, and the social control structure; and 3) the socialization system, which included the parental reward structure, the parental belief structure, and the parental control structure. As can be quickly noticed by examining the specific structures contained within the three systems, these predictor systems were conceptualized in parallel fashion so that relevant aspects of the personality could be related to relevant aspects of the environment. The socialization system was construed as including those processes that lie at the interface, and mediate between, the personality and the sociocultural systems.

This study contains variables quantified from each of these predictor systems. Let us now turn to a description of the predictor systems contained within this research.

Following the conceptualization of Jessor et al. (1968), the personality system consists of three structures: the structure of perceived opportunity, the belief structure, and the personal control structure. Each structure is related to the development and occurrence of anti-social behavior (Jessor et al., 1968; Mobley and Swanson, 1972; and Swanson, 1973b).

The structure of perceived opportunity includes the needs of the individual and the expectation he has for fulfilling those needs. Low expectations for attaining valued goals have been shown to be an important determinant of crime, delinquency, and troublemaking in prison (Mobley and Swanson, 1972; Mobley and Swanson, 1974; Swanson, 1973a; Swanson, 1973b; Wood et al., 1966). Two perspectives are utilized in this structure: 1) perceived opportunity for the attainment of long-future goals such as achievement, love and affection, independence, recognition,

and family life; and 2) perceived opportunity within the prison context, for such things as vocational training, interpersonal development, understanding of self and relationships with authority.

The belief structure includes three cognitive orientations which have been conceptualized as important to the understanding of criminality and conformity. The belief in personal control refers to the person's attribution of causality to himself and his behavior or to capricious factors such as luck, fate, or chance. It is held that to the degree that the individual believes that the consequences of his actions are dependent upon his own behavior, to that degree he should engage in planned, directed goal-oriented work (Mobley and Swanson, 1972; Rotter, 1966; Swanson, 1968, 1970b; Swanson, 1973a, 1973b; Wood et al., 1966). The second belief alienation refers to social estrangement, the feelings of isolation from others, and lack of meaning felt for traditional life roles such as marriage, work, and friendship. An individual with such a cognitive orientation should demonstrate a lessening of productive activity and a withdrawal from active, goal-seeking behavior (Jessor et al., 1968; Jessor et al., 1970; Swanson, 1973a, 1973b). The third belief interpersonal trust refers to the belief that one can rely and depend upon others to facilitate the attainment of life goals rather than act as a frustration or a block to the attainment of such goals (Hamsher et al., 1968; Hochreich and Rotter, 1970).

The final structure contained within the personality system is the personal control structure. Included here are three variables that directly regulate criminality and conformity. Attitude toward deviance has been shown to be the most consistent predictor of delinquency among youth (Mobley and Swanson, 1972; Swanson, 1973a). Future-time perspective

is predictive of goal-oriented contributive behavior. The third variable, attitude toward earning a living, discriminates between work-release programs as well as state prison systems that differ in the utilization of prison industries and vocational training (Swanson, 1973a).

The sociocultural system includes three aspects of the prison environment, each providing a source of influence for personality and behavioral change. The formal structure, conceptualized as the opportunity structure, includes formal program policies, staff attitudes and behavior, and the objective opportunity provided the inmates for personal development. The informal structure, termed the normative structure, includes inmate prescriptions for staff treatment, staff custody, and staff punishment, as well as for inmate self-improvement, inmate avoiding trouble, and inmate opposition. Contact with the outside community, conceptualized as the social control structure, is similar to the differential association approach of Sutherland (1955), in which delinquent or socially acceptable behavior is learned, depending upon the behavior of one's role models.

The socialization system is that set of variables which stand at the interface of the personality and the environment. Personality thus depends upon the process of socialization or enculturation and this approach is exemplified by such terms as "patterned exposure," "training," "modeling," and "learning." The informal socializations which take place on an incidental basis in everyday living, the consequences of exposure to formal or informal role models, etc.--these are examples of the socialization system processes in need of further understanding.

Hypotheses

The literature on the construct personal control has been reviewed. A number of related variables have been discussed and their expected relationships with personal control have been delineated. Correctional institutions have been chosen as research settings with inmates as subjects. Hypothesized relationships involving personal control are ordered into five categories: 1) Relation to Personality; 2) Distribution of Personal Control Within Social Settings; 3) Changes in Personal Control Beliefs; 4) Environmental Influences; and 5) Success in the Environment.

The hypotheses for this research are the following:

1. Relation to Personality

- A. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with expectations for goal attainment.
- B. Belief in personal control should correlate negatively with alienation.
- C. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with self-esteem.
- D. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with interpersonal trust.
- E. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with an intolerant attitude toward deviance.
- F. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with prescriptions for behaviors which maximize staff rewards and negatively with prescriptions for behaviors which maximize staff punishments.

- G. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with favorable attitudes toward environmental opportunity and authority structures.
- 2. Distribution of Personal Control Within Social Settings
 - A. Persons living in environments defined as relatively high in opportunity should believe in personal control to a greater extent than persons living in environments defined as relatively low in opportunity.
 - B. Persons of ethnic or minority status should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons of Anglo or majority status.
 - C. Persons of lower socioeconomic status should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons of higher socioeconomic status.
- 3. Changes in Personal Control Beliefs
 - A. Belief in personal control bears a curvilinear relationship with a person's length of stay in a novel and confining environment such that belief in personal control is minimized upon entry and again upon exit from that environment.
- 4. Environmental Influences
 - A. Persons residing in an environment where there is low consensus on what are appropriate behaviors should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons residing in an environment where there is high consensus.
 - B. Persons residing in environments which contain small numbers of people should believe in personal control

to a greater extent than persons residing in environments which contain large numbers of people.

5. Success in the Environment

- A. Belief in personal control should be positively correlated with measures related to success in the environment.
- B. Within environments characterized by low consensus on appropriate behavior, persons who do not believe in personal control should be more successful than persons who believe in personal control. Conversely, within environments characterized by high consensus on appropriate behavior, persons who believe in personal control should be more successful than persons who do not believe in personal control.
- C. Persons who believe in personal control and reside in environments with high consensus on appropriate behavior should be more successful than their counterparts in environments with low consensus. Conversely, persons who do not believe in personal control and reside in environments with low consensus on appropriate behavior should be more successful than their counterparts in environments with high consensus.

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects were sampled from six correctional institutions located in Florida, Colorado, and Kentucky. Five institutions were state facilities, three of which were for male offenders and two for female offenders. The sixth institution, in Kentucky, was a co-correctional federal facility.

Data for this study were gathered in conjunction with a larger research effort entitled "Socialization after Childhood: A Longitudinal Examination of Contrasting Correctional Institutions for Male and Female Offenders." This study was based upon data gathered in the second year of the larger project. During the second year of data collection, a random sample of inmates, stratified by race, was drawn from population rosters provided by the institutions. All subjects who had participated in the first year of the project were included and all new subjects had been incarcerated for one year or less. The subject sample for this study included 538 inmates. Of these, 381 were males and 156 were females. Of the male sample, 56% were White, 37% were Black, and 7% were non-Black minorities (Mexican American, Cuban American, American Indian). Of the female sample, 42% were White, 53% were Black, and 5% were non-Black minorities.

Correctional officers were selected to rate certain aspects of inmate success in the environment. While the procedures employed to

select correctional officers did not insure a random sample, the sample was considered to be representative of the overall group of officers for the following reasons. Rating forms were given to supervisory personnel with instructions that they be completed by the officers who were most experienced on the various housing units and who knew the inmates best. Further instructions were given to the effect that officers participating as raters should represent both day and evening shifts as well as first line supervisory personnel. Sixty-two correctional officers from five institutions were included in the sample. Ratings by correctional officers from the sixth institution, the Men's Correctional Institution of Colorado, were lost during the data collection process.

Inmates rated by correctional officers constituted a random sample of those selected for the larger study, with the constraint that ten or fewer inmates from each housing unit be drawn into the sample. This was done to keep the number of inmates to be rated by each correctional officer at a manageable level. This resulted in an original $N = 250$. Of these, 196 actually participated in the larger study and were therefore eligible for analysis. The remaining 54 inmates had declined to participate in the larger study when informed that the study was of a voluntary nature. Of the 196 inmate subjects who actually did participate in the larger study, ratings were made on 131 males and 63 females, and as well on 89 Whites, 85 Blacks, and 7 other minority subjects.

Institutions

Institutions were selected for their contrasting opportunity structures. An attempt was made in the selection process to maximize environmental contrasts, so that the research results would be generalizable to the largest possible correctional population.

Institution 1

Florida Correctional Institution for Men (FCIM) at Lowell, Florida, is a medium/minimum security institution. Security measures are relatively unobtrusive. The facility is surrounded by one fence and a manned control booth where a single officer is posted to monitor and control individuals entering or leaving the compound. The average sentence for an inmate is approximately one and one-half years, predominately for victimless crimes and property crimes. The institution is geared toward vocational and educational programs and the stated program goals are toward the reintegration of the inmate into community life. The staff/inmate ratio was approximately 1/5 at the time of data collection.

The institution has a designed housing capacity of 250. At the time of data collection, the inmate population was about 300, as a double-wide mobile home had been set up as an honor unit for those inmates that were in work-release programs. Other inmates were all housed in the same building consisting of four dormitories with bunk beds. Inmates were randomly assigned to each living area. The sample included 69 inmates drawn from all of the four dormitories.

Institution 2

Union Correctional Institution (UCI) at Raiford, Florida, is a medium/maximum security facility for male offenders. This institution is surrounded by three fences, one of which is electrified, and manned gun

towers. The average sentence is approximately 10 years and the most prevalent types of offense are crimes associated with violence, such as murder, rape, or armed robbery. Most of the programs offered are custodial in nature with less than 50% of the population engaged in educational or vocational programs. The orientation of the institution is toward conformity and obedience. At the time of data collection, the staff/inmate ratio was approximately 1/9.

The inmates are housed in two main buildings. One building contains dormitories with single and bunk beds, and individual rooms. Assignment to living areas represents a reward-type structure, based upon staff recommendations. The institution's designed housing capacity is 1400 inmates. At the time of the data collection, the population was just under 2000 inmates. Consequently, nearly every housing unit was seriously overcrowded. The sample at this institution included 196 inmates drawn from 17 living areas.

Institution 3

Men's Correctional Institution of Colorado (ColoM) at Canon City, Colorado, is a medium security institution for male offenders. The facility is surrounded by fence with control towers at the entrance. The institution was beginning to receive more violent offenders at the time of data collection and security measures were being increased. Thus, the institution's previous efforts toward re-education and development were being de-emphasized. The staff/inmate ratio was approximately 1/10 at the time of data collection.

Inmates are housed in dormitories with single beds or blocks of single cells. Assignment to living area is by choice. This institution had a housing capacity of 454 and at the time of data collection, the population was crowded. The sample from this institution included 61 inmates drawn from two living areas.

Institution 4

Florida Correctional Institution for Women (FCIF) at Lowell, Florida, is the only correctional institution for female offenders in Florida. It is a minimum/maximum security institution housing all female offenders. The facility is surrounded by a double fence. The average sentence is approximately two years. The orientation is toward re-education and development and the programs are geared to assist reintegration into community life. There is a diversity of vocational and educational programs offered. The staff/inmate ratio was approximately 1/4 at the time of data collection.

Inmates are housed in three types of structures: cells, dormitories, and trailers. Housing assignment is based on security risk. The designed capacity for FCIF is 400 inmates but at the time of data collection, there were more than 600 inmates. The sample from this institution included 77 inmates drawn from seven living areas.

Institution 5

Women's Correctional Institution of Colorado (ColoF) at Canon City, Colorado, is the only correctional institution for female offenders in Colorado. It contains all security levels and all offender types. The facility is surrounded by fence. Halls and entrances are monitored by television cameras. The average sentence is approximately two and one-half years. The orientation of this institution is toward re-education and development. However, the programs offered are less varied than the other female institution sampled in Florida. The staff/inmate ratio was 1/3 at the time of data collection.

Inmates at ColoF are housed in identical single rooms, with housing assignments made on a random basis. The institution is designed

to house 90 inmates and at the time of data collection, the population was 77. The sample from this institution included 32 inmates drawn from one living area.

Institution 6

Federal Correctional Institution (LexM and LexF) at Lexington, Kentucky, contrasts markedly with each of the other institutions included in this study. The population of this federal institution is approximately 600, with 400 males and 200 females (hence, the designations LexM and LexF for the male and female populations respectively). Security is down-played in this setting but a taboo against sexual behavior is strictly enforced. Considerable emphasis is placed upon giving the inmates rich educational and vocational opportunities. Each inmate is employed or is in school each day. A large professional social service staff supplements a well-trained correctional staff. The staff/inmate ratio was approximately 1/2 at the time of data collection.

Housing in this institution is not crowded and ranges from private and semi-private rooms to four-person rooms. In addition, therapeutic communities are offered to those who desire or need this experience. The sample from this institution included 100 inmates, of which 53 were males and 47 were females. Inmates were drawn from five living areas, one of which houses both male and female offenders.

As stated above, six correctional institutions, three male, two female, and one co-correctional, were selected so as to maximize the contrasts in their respective opportunity structures. Three members of the research staff who were involved in the data collection process in each of these institutions independently ranked the male and the female institutions "as to the opportunities they provide in such areas

as interpersonal development, vocational development, and academic development." The following is the average ranking of the environmental differences among the six institutions. (Note: LexM and LexF were treated as separate institutions.) The average Spearman rank-order correlation for ranking male institutions was $r_s = .984$, and for female institutions, $r_s = .945$ (N's too small to achieve significance).

Male Institutions

	<u>Avg. Rank</u>	
LexM	1	Defined as the highest opportunity structure among the male institutions in the study.
FCIM	2.5	Defined as a medium opportunity structure.
ColoM	2.5	Defined as a medium opportunity structure.
UCI	4	Defined as the lowest opportunity structure among the male institutions in the study.

Female Institutions

LexF	1	Defined as the highest opportunity structure among the female institutions in the study.
FCIF	2.33	Defined as a low opportunity structure.
ColoF	2.67	Defined as a low opportunity structure.

Instruments

The data collection procedures involved in this study were group administered questionnaires requiring the subject to self-report about behavior, personality attributes, formal and informal interactions, as well as demographic variables. The questionnaire included a large

number of measures previously developed or modified for use with prison populations. Many of these measures have been derived directly or indirectly from social learning theory, as developed by Rotter (1954). The scales to be used include the following:

Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors

This scale was developed by Swanson (1968, 1970b, 1973a) to measure the shared attitudes of inmate groups about the appropriateness of different behaviors in a correctional setting. In addition, the scale may be utilized as a measure of individual orientation toward particular prison behaviors. Six subscales represented inmate-recommended, or inmate-prescribed, behaviors for staff and inmates in each of three contrasting types of correctional institutions: those oriented toward punishment of the inmate, those oriented toward custody of the inmate, and those oriented toward treatment of the inmate (Street, 1965). Twenty-nine items described staff and inmate behavior appropriate for each of the three situations. Subjects were asked to respond to these 29 behavioral descriptions on a five-point continuum: absolutely should, should, may or may not, should not, and absolutely should not. Items were scored so that a high score meant a prescription (recommendation) of its orientation and a low score, a proscription. The six subscales arranged in pairs appropriate to each of the three situations were as follows: Staff Punishment-Inmate Opposition, Staff Custody-Inmate Avoiding Trouble, and Staff Treatment-Inmate Self-Improvement. The items composing these paired scales represented behaviors ranging from less to more cooperative. The six scales are listed below and are followed by an example of an item from that scale. Scott's (1960) Homogeneity Ratio (H.R.) and Cronbach's (1954) Alpha, as reported by Swanson

(1968, 1970b) in previous research with these scales, are included as an indicator of the internal consistency of these measures. (A copy of the complete instrument can be found in Appendix A.)

Staff Orientation

1. Staff Punishment (SPU)

Staff members see to it that inmates have a hard time here to make up for what they did on the outside.
(H.R.'s were .28 and .30 in previous research and Alpha's were .79 and .75.)

2. Staff Custody (SCU)

Staff members see an inmate as someone to be controlled.
(H.R.'s were .20 and .16 in previous research and Alpha's were .68 and .53.)

3. Staff Treatment (STR)

Staff members try to teach an inmate skills that will help on the streets.
(H.R.'s were .32 and .32 in previous research and Alpha's were .82 and .78.)

Inmate Orientation

1. Inmate Opposition (IOP)

Inmates cause as much trouble as they can.
(H.R.'s were .38 and .38 in previous research and Alpha's were .86 and .81.)

2. Inmate Avoiding Trouble (IAT)

Inmates try to get along by keeping their mouth shut around the staff.
(H.R.'s were .16 and .17 in previous research and Alpha's were .58 and .58.)

3. Inmate Self-Improvement (ISI)

An inmate really tries to learn something in work release that will be of use later.
(H.R.'s were .31 and .29 in previous research and Alpha's were .82 and .74.)

Definition of Situation

This measure was developed by Wood et al. (1966) and modified by Swanson (1968, 1970b, 1973a). Containing 36 items, this measure reflected six attitudinal orientations toward the institutional environment. Subjects were asked to respond to each item on a five-point continuum: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree. Four scales with 22 total items represented the individual's definition of the institutional opportunity structure. These included: Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity, Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development, Definition of Personal Commitment, and Value of Commitment. The sum of these four measures yielded an overall definition scale. The two remaining scales, with a total of 12 items, reflected the orientation toward the institution as an authority structure. These were the Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations and the Attitude Toward Authority Figures scales. The sum of these two scales yielded an Attitude Toward Authority in General measure. The 36 items were presented in scrambled order with five buffer items interspersed among them. Half of the items were reverse-worded so as to balance the effect of acquiescence set. The scales were scored so that a high score represented a favorable attitude and a low score represented an unfavorable attitude.

The four opportunity and two authority subscales are listed below followed by an item from that scale and by H.R.'s and Alpha's obtained in previous research (Swanson, 1968, 1970b). (See Appendix B for a copy of this instrument.)

The opportunity items were divided among four subscales:

1. Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity (PID)

By the time most people leave this place they have a better idea of what they want out of life than they had before.

(H.R.'s were .23 and .36 in previous research and Alpha's were .64 and .74.)

2. Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development (SID)

If you don't learn anything else here, at least you learn how to get along with others.

(H.R.'s were .21 and .20 in previous research and Alpha's were .61 and .60.)

3. Definition of Personal Commitment (DPC)

An institution like this is a place where a person can get his or her feet on the ground and begin to make a fresh start.

(H.R.'s were .16 and .41 in previous research and Alpha's were .53 and .74.)

4. Value of Commitment (VOC)

Whether you like it or not, at least you have a chance to learn something useful while you're here.

(H.R.'s were .27 and .26 in previous research and Alpha's were .68 and .68.)

The overall definition scale (DEF) was the sum of the above four subscales. H.R.'s were .21 and .26 in previous research and Alpha's were .86 and .68.

The authority items were divided between two subscales:

1. Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations (ATR)

Like most other things, there are probably some good reasons for most of the regulations on the book.

(H.R.'s were .25 and .33 in previous research and Alpha's were .66 and .75.)

2. Attitude Toward Authority Figures (ATA)

Officers are trying to help inmates even though they're getting after them all the time.

(H.R.'s were .27 and .31 in previous research and Alpha's were .69 and .72.)

These two subscales were summed to form an Attitude Toward Authority in General (AGA) scale. H.R.'s for this scale were .22 and .28 in previous research and Alpha's were .77 and .82.

Attitude Toward Deviance (ATD)

This scale measured the degree to which the respondent tolerated or proscribed deviant behavior (Mobley and Swanson, 1972). It consisted of 36 behavioral descriptions of socially defined deviant acts of varying severity. Respondents read each statement and checked one of eight possible responses indicating their degree of tolerance for the behavior described. Responses ranged from "serious enough for the death penalty" to "not serious at all, nothing wrong with it." Responses were scored so that the higher the score, the more intolerant of socially defined deviance.

An example of an item from the Attitude Toward Deviance scale is listed below and is followed by the internal consistency data obtained in previous research. (See Appendix C for a copy of this instrument.)

Kidnapping someone and holding them for ransom. (check one)

1. ___ Serious enough for the death penalty.
2. ___ Serious enough to put a person in prison for life.
3. ___ Serious enough to put a person in prison for several years.
4. ___ Serious enough to put a person in prison for about a year.
5. ___ Serious enough to put a person on probation for about a year.
6. ___ Serious enough to give a person a good warning.
7. ___ Not serious enough to punish a person in any way.
8. ___ Not serious at all, nothing wrong with it.

(H.R. obtained in previous research was .33 and Alpha was .94.)

Alienation (AL)

This scale measured social estrangement, the feeling of isolation from others, and lack of meaning felt for traditional life roles

(Jessor et al., 1968). It included 8 items which elicited the respondent's level of agreement with a statement indicative of alienation. Responses were indicated on a four-point continuum: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. The higher the score, the more alienated the subject.

An example of an item from this scale is listed below and is followed by the internal consistency data obtained in previous research with this scale. (See Appendix D for a copy of this instrument.)

I often find it difficult to feel involved in the things
I'm doing.
(H.R. in previous research was .25 and Alpha was .80.)

Interpersonal Trust (IPT) and Self-Esteem (EST)

Items from these two scales were combined into one 30 item questionnaire. Fourteen items composed the Interpersonal Trust measure and 8 items composed the Self-Esteem measure. Half of the items for each scale were reverse-worded to balance for effects of acquiescence set. Eight additional items were included as buffer items designed to obscure the purpose of the test.

The Interpersonal Trust scale was an additive measure in which a high score indicated the individual believes he can rely and depend upon others to facilitate, rather than frustrate, the attainment of his goals. The scale was modified from Rotter's 1967 scale in order that it would be appropriate for use with prison inmates (Hamsher et al., 1968; Nelson, 1975; Rotter, 1967).

The Self-Esteem instrument, originated by Rosenberg (1962), was a unidimensional scale measuring self-acceptance. This scale was also scored so that the higher the score, the greater the subject's self-esteem.

Both scales employed Likert categories of strongly agree, mildly agree, agree and disagree equally, mildly disagree, and strongly disagree. Example items from both scales are included below along with internal consistency data obtained in previous related research with these measures. (See Appendix E for a copy of this instrument.)

Interpersonal Trust (IPT)

In dealing with strangers a person is better off being very careful until you are sure you can trust them.
(H.R. obtained in related research was .17 and Alpha was .82.)

Self-Esteem (EST)

I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
(Rosenberg, 1962, reports a scale reproducibility coefficient of .92 and a test-retest reliability over two weeks of .85.)

Freedom of Movement (FM)

This scale measured a generalized expectancy of goal attainment. It was developed by Jessor et al. (1968) and modified and expanded by Swanson (1970b, 1973a). This instrument was an 11 item scale, with each item asking the subject how sure he was about something in the future. The subject responded on a four-point continuum: very sure, pretty sure, not too sure, and not sure at all. The higher the score, the more certain was the subject of attaining his goals.

An example item from the FM scale is listed below and is followed by internal consistency data obtained in previous related research. (See Appendix F for a copy of this instrument.)

When you think about what you really expect to happen in the future, how sure are you that your life will work out the way you want it to?
(H.R.'s in previous research were .26 and .36 and Alpha's were .85 and .90.)

Personal Control (PC)

This scale measured the degree to which the individual saw his

rewards as contingent upon his behavior and/or attributes. It was a modified version of a scale developed by Swanson (1970b) as a "generalized non-need area specific measure of internal-external control, including two types of externality: chance and systematic powerful others." Following each of eight statements, the subject responded on a five-point continuum: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree. The scale was scored so that the higher the score, the greater the perceived internality of the subject.

An example item for the PC scale is listed below and is followed by internal consistency data obtained in previous research.

Most of the unhappy things in my life have happened because I was unlucky enough to be in the wrong place at the wrong time.

(H.R.'s in previous research were .20 and .22 and Alpha's were .93 and .73. This compares favorably with data reported by Swanson, 1970b, using Rotter's I-E Scale: H.R. = .11 and Alpha = .73.)

(See Appendix G for a copy of this instrument.)

In addition to these instruments, inmates completed forms requesting extensive demographic data. This information included age, sex, race, family background, educational background, and prior criminal record, etc.

The internal consistency of these instruments has been demonstrated in previous research. The validity of these instruments has been examined in previous research as well. Rosenberg (1962) reported convergent validity on the Self-Esteem scale as it correlated from .65 and .83 with several similar measures and with clinical assessment. Swanson (1968), in studying the relationships obtained among the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measures, the Definition of Situation measures, and the Personal Control measure, established a strong sense of construct validity

of these measures. He reported that 78% of the interrelationships among the scales followed the predicted result, while all of the nonpredicted relationships obtained with the Staff Punishment and the Staff Custody measures.

Swanson (1970b) established the construct validity of a number of control measures, including a form of the present Personal Control measure. He reported the measures were predictive of the following personality measures included in this research: Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors, Definition of Situation, Freedom of Movement, and Attitude Toward Deviance. Finally, McCown (1975) examined the construct validity of most of the present instruments. She studied the obtained relationships between Personal Control and the following measures: Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors, Definition of Situation, Freedom of Movement, Attitude Toward Deviance, Alienation, and Interpersonal Trust. All correlations obtained in the predicted direction. Of 18 correlations, 12 were significant. All nonsignificant relationships obtained with the Definition of Situation measures. Thus, a strong sense of construct validity has typically been the case in previous work with these scales.

Correctional officer data, here construed as pertinent to inmate success in the environment, was collected by means of ratings booklets, each containing no more than ten inmate names to be rated. Four dimensions were rated: Maladjustment, Association, Leadership, and Anonymity. The last dimension was used to eliminate those ratings of inmates unknown to the correctional officer. Six items provided information on the four dimensions: three items made up the Maladjustment scale and one item for each of the other three scales. The three items of the Maladjustment scale asked for ratings of inmates on three five-point scales, ranging

from Model Inmate to Troublemaker, Very Well Adjusted to the Institution to Very Poorly Adjusted, and Would Adjust Very Well to Society if Released to Would Adjust Very Poorly. The Association item asked how the inmate spends his time, Always Alone to Always with Others. The Leadership item asked whether the inmate Is Never a Leader to Always Leads, and the Anonymity item asked how well known the inmate was to the rater, Very Well to Hardly At All.

Each inmate was rated by three officers on the six item scale. Ratings for each dimension were then collapsed across raters yielding a Maladjustment scale of nine items (three items rated by each of three officers), and Association, Leadership, and Anonymity scales of three items each (one item rated by each of three officers). Of the 196 inmates rated by the staff and also participating in the larger study, those who obtained an average score of "Hardly at All" or higher were dropped from the analysis, resulting in a final N = 178.

These scales were developed and utilized in previous research utilizing the population used in this study (Morton, 1976), where the internal consistency of the four collapsed scales was reported as follows: Maladjustment (H.R. was .509 and Alpha was .902); Association (H.R. was .282 and Alpha was .541); Leadership (H.R. was .398 and Alpha was .664); and Anonymity (H.R. was .262 and Alpha was .513). (See Appendix H for a complete copy of the rating scales.)

Procedure

The data were collected by a research team who administered an elaborate self-report questionnaire to subjects in each of the six correctional institutions. Testing sessions were approximately one and

one-half to two hours in length and included approximately 20-30 inmates. Sessions were held in large multi-purpose rooms within the institutional confines. Each section of the questionnaire was carefully explained to the inmate groups and individuals who required it received individual assistance in understanding the instructions. Inmates were told that their participation was voluntary and that the confidentiality of their responses was assured.

Staff ratings were acquired by giving the correctional staff ratings booklets accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research and asking their assistance. The names of ten selected inmates were contained in each booklet, two names to a page, with the pages randomly sorted in the various booklets and the names randomly sorted on the pages. All booklets were returned by correctional staff within the two to three days allotted for the completion of the ratings.

Before studying the hypothesized relationships among the scales, the internal consistency of all measures was examined in terms of scale homogeneity (Scott's Homogeneity Ratio, 1960) and scale reliability (Cronbach's Alpha, 1954). Where necessary, scales were purified by removing those items that correlated with the total score on the remaining items at a magnitude of less than .15.

The discriminant validity of the purified scales was examined by comparing the purity of each measure with other related measures. The rationale of the method employed follows. If two measures were related while, at the same time, somehow different from each other, then it was expected that their respective reliability coefficients would be greater than their correlation coefficient. In other words, to the degree that a measure had a reliability coefficient (Alpha) greater than its average

correlation (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients) with related constructs, to that degree was it measuring an independent construct.

The construct validity of the purified scales was examined by studying the obtained Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients among the scales. For example, the construct validity of the personal control measure was examined by studying its relationships with the other variables. (Hypotheses 1A through 1G dealt with the predicted relationships between personal control and these variables.)

The effects of the various institutional environments upon the personal control measure (hypothesis 2A) was determined by comparing inmates from the four male settings and the three female settings. Differences in mean scores on the personal control measure were assessed by means of t-tests.

The effect of ethnic or minority status upon belief in personal control (hypothesis 2B) was determined by comparing inmates of the various ethnic groups. Differences in mean scores on the personal control measure for White, Black, and non-Black minority group members (Mexican American, Cuban American, and American Indian) were assessed by means of t-tests. These differences were examined among inmate populations within and across correctional institutions.

The analysis by socioeconomic status (SES) was conducted by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (hypothesis 2C). A SES Index was computed for each subject using a two-factor formula (Hollingshead, 1957). The SES Index resulted from assigning factor scores to subject questionnaire responses about educational and occupational history, multiplying these factor scores by assigned factor weights, and summing the results. The SES Index was then correlated

with Personal Control scores. Analyses were conducted by sex, by race, and by institution.

The relationship between changes in personal control beliefs and length of stay within the institutional confines (hypothesis 3A) was examined in three separate analyses. In the first analysis, the length of time at present prison was correlated with Personal Control scores. This analysis was done by sex, by race, and by institution.

The remaining two analyses were conducted by comparing cross-sectional samples of inmates. In the first of these, the ratio of length of time at present prison/length of present sentence was computed for each subject. These ratios were then trichotomized yielding three cross-sectional samples: inmates in the beginning phase of their sentence, inmates in the middle phase of their sentence, and inmates in the final phase of their sentence. Trichotomization was conducted by institution. Differences in mean Personal Control scores for these groups were examined by t-tests.

In the final analysis of the relationship between personal control beliefs and time within the institutional setting, subject samples were composed of inmates whose length of stay in the institution had been six months or less, whose length of stay was within six months of the expected time remaining in prison, and whose expected time remaining in prison was six months or less. Group differences in mean Personal Control scores for these subjects were examined by means of t-tests. Analyses were conducted by sex.

Measuring group consensus on appropriate behaviors was important for hypotheses 4A, 5B, and 5C. In analyzing consensus, the major concern was the strength of the group consensus regardless of its directionality.

This was measured by percent of respondents in the modal category for each item contained in the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure and by the amount of variance around the group's item mode, or subcultural norm. (This measure was Jessor et al.'s (1968) operational definition of anomie.) Summing the variance for all items yielded the group consensus measure--the measure of anomie based on the subcultural norm.

The measure of group consensus was computed by institution, by living unit, and by ethnic group within institutions. Within each analysis, groups were ranked ordinally by degree of consensus. The relationship of these consensus rankings with mean Personal Control scores for the respective groups (hypothesis 4A) was assessed by means of Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients.

Analysis of the relationship between population size and personal control beliefs (hypothesis 4B) was examined by ranking institutions by population size. The relationship of these rankings with mean Personal Control scores for each institution was assessed by means of Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients.

Success in the environment was conceptualized to include the following variables: freedom of movement, alienation, number of times rewarded by staff in the past year, number of disciplinary reports received in the past year, and staff ratings of maladjustment, association, and leadership. The relationship of each of these seven measures with the Personal Control measure was analyzed by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (hypothesis 5A).

Subjects, within institutional or dormitory environments ranked ordinally by group consensus on appropriate behaviors, were classed as high personal control subjects or low personal control subjects by

whether their Personal Control score fell above or below the median for subjects within that environment. Environments were also dichotomized by median split on the degree of consensus. Differences in mean success scores for the two personal control samples in both high and low consensus environments were analyzed by means of t-tests (hypothesis 5B).

Additionally, mean success scores for high personal control subjects from high consensus environments were compared with mean success scores for high personal control subjects from low consensus environments. In the same manner, low personal control subjects from low consensus environments were compared with low personal control subjects from high consensus environments. These analyses of differences were conducted by t-test (hypothesis 5C).

RESULTS

Internal Properties of the Scales

The internal consistency of the scales utilized in the present research was examined with regard to scale homogeneity and reliability. Scott's (1960) Homogeneity Ratio (H.R.) was used to obtain a measure of scale homogeneity. This statistic, which is not influenced by scale length, indicates the degree to which each item is measuring the same attribute and is computed as the weighted average interitem correlation. An H.R. of .33 provides for the optimal discrimination among subjects if the items are split with a probability of .5 of passing or failing. As the H.R. becomes greater than .33, this indicates redundancy of scale items. On the other hand, as the H.R. becomes smaller than .33, this indicates the scale items may be measuring different attributes altogether.

Cronbach's (1954) Alpha was used to obtain a measure of scale reliability. This statistic, which is sensitive to both scale length and homogeneity, provides an indication of the precision with which the scale measures the intended attribute. Since Alpha treats each item as a separate test of the attribute being measured and computes the degree of correlation between them it can be viewed as an estimate of the scale's correlation with an equivalent test.

Finally, the item score to scale score correlation for each item was computed to determine the contribution of each item to the

particular scale. Items with correlations to scale scores of a magnitude less than .15 were eliminated in order to strengthen and purify the scales. One item was removed from each of the following scales: Interpersonal Trust, Self-Esteem, and Personal Control. The internal properties of the purified scales are reported in Table 1. It can be seen that all scales have sufficient internal consistency and reliability, with the possible exception of Interpersonal Trust, which had a somewhat weaker H.R. of .173, but with thirteen items an adequate Alpha of .73.

Validity

The discriminant validity of the scales was established by examining the relationships among the scales. The purity of each measure was compared with all other related measures. If two measures were related while, at the same time, somehow different from each other, then it was expected that their respective reliabilities would be higher than their correlation. To the degree that a measure had a reliability coefficient greater than its average correlation with related constructs, to that degree was it considered to be measuring an independent construct. Tables 2, 3, and 4 show the comparison of the estimate of reliability (Alpha) with the average interscale correlation for related measures for the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measures, the institutional opportunity and authority measures, and the remaining individual difference measures, respectively. (It should be noted that in Table 3, the Overall Definition of Situation scale as well as the Attitude Toward Authority in General scale have been omitted since these measures are composed of items pooled from the other Table 3 scales.)

Table 1. Internal Properties of Purified Scales

	<u>N</u>	<u>No. Items Included</u>	<u>Cronbach's Alpha</u>	<u>Scott's H.R.</u>
SPU	533	5	.744	.370
IOP	536	5	.727	.350
SCU	536	4	.587	.263
IAT	535	5	.616	.245
STR	536	5	.728	.353
ISI	534	5	.674	.294
PID	531	4	.712	.383
SID	531	4	.669	.340
DPC	530	4	.750	.429
VOC	533	5	.729	.354
DEF	534	17	.904	.358
ATR	530	4	.756	.442
ATA	530	4	.734	.409
AGA	530	8	.819	.363
ATD	521	36	.933	.294
AL	524	8	.817	.360
ITP	502	13	.730	.173
EST	501	8	.776	.318
FM	496	11	.901	.452
PC	500	7	.723	.275

Note: N's vary due to missing data.

Table 2. Intercorrelations Among
Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors Measures

	A	B	C	D	E	F
A	(.744)					
B	.311	(.727)				
C	.497	.109	(.587)			
D	.252	.429	.310	(.616)		
E	-.388	-.305	-.121	-.211	(.728)	
F	-.271	-.386	-.039	-.173	.454	(.674)
Average Interscale Correlation:						
	.344	.308	.215	.275	.296	.265

where A = Staff Punishment

B = Inmate Opposition

C = Staff Custody

D = Inmate Avoiding Trouble

E = Staff Treatment

F = Inmate Self-Improvement

Note: Estimate of reliability appears in parentheses.

Table 3. Intercorrelations Among
Institutional Opportunity and Authority Scales

	A	B	C	D	E	F
A	(.712)					
B	.637	(.669)				
C	.706	.563	(.750)			
D	.751	.525	.622	(.729)		
E	.403	.303	.484	.369	(.756)	
F	.552	.378	.626	.467	.554	(.734)
Average Interscale Correlation:						
	.610	.481	.600	.547	.423	.515

where A = Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity

B = Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development

C = Definition of Personal Commitment

D = Value of Commitment

E = Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations

F = Attitude Toward Authority Figures

Note: Estimate of reliability appears in parentheses.

Table 4. Intercorrelations Among
Remaining Individual Difference Variables

	A	B	C	D	E	F
A	(.933)					
B	.030	(.817)				
C	.115	-.197	(.730)			
D	-.066	-.443	-.031	(.776)		
E	.079	-.329	.129	.519	(.901)	
F	.045	.408	.161	.389	.273	(.723)
Average Interscale Correlation:						
	.067	.281	.127	.290	.266	.255

where A = Attitude Toward Deviance

B = Alienation

C = Interpersonal Trust

D = Self-Esteem

E = Freedom of Movement

F = Personal Control

Note: Estimate of reliability appears in parentheses.

The intercorrelations of the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors scales are reported in Table 2. In all cases the estimate of reliability for each scale is greater than the average correlation with the remaining scales. Moreover, in all cases the estimate of reliability for each scale was greater than each correlation with remaining scales. The average estimate of reliability for the six measures was .679 and the average mean scale intercorrelation was .284. All of these factors point toward substantial discriminant validity for each of these scales.

The intercorrelations of the institutional opportunity and authority measures are reported in Table 3. As was true with the scales in Table 2, the estimate of reliability for each scale in this grouping was greater than the average correlation with the remaining scales. However, closer examination of Table 3 reveals some overlap between the scales. Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity, column A in Table 3, correlated with Definition of Personal Commitment, the Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development, and the Value of Commitment scales at approximately the same magnitude as its estimate of reliability and thus failed to achieve discriminant validity when compared with these other scales. By the same criteria, the Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development scale was not distinguishable from Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity, nor was Definition of Personal Commitment distinguishable from Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity, nor was Value of Commitment distinguishable from Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity.

Among these four scales, which represent the institutional opportunity structures, the average estimate of reliability and the average mean scale intercorrelations was .634. The weak discriminant

validity among these measures suggests that they could successfully be treated as one scale. On the other hand, examination of the remaining two scales shows that they possessed stronger discriminant validity. Both the Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations scale and the Attitude Toward Authority Figures scale were distinguishable from each of the other scales.

The intercorrelations among the remaining scales dealing with personality attributes utilized in this study are reported in Table 4. In all cases, the estimate of reliability for each scale was greater than each correlation with the remaining scales. The average estimate of reliability for these six individual difference measures was .813 and the average mean scale intercorrelation was .214. Thus, Table 4 indicates these measures possessed substantial discriminant validity.

The construct validity of these scales was established by examining the intercorrelations among the scales. For purposes of this examination, the six subscales contained within the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure were treated as indicators of individual orientation. The institutional opportunity and authority measures were all scored in the direction of positive adaptation, i.e., a high score reflected a definition of opportunity or benign authority, as were the Personal Control measure, the Attitude Toward Deviance measure, the Interpersonal Trust measure, the Self-Esteem measure, the Freedom of Movement measure, and the positive attitude scales, Staff Treatment and Inmate Self-Improvement. The only exceptions were the Alienation measure and the following four negative attitude scales: Staff Punishment, Inmate Opposition, Staff Custody, and Inmate Avoiding Trouble. Therefore, it was expected that all those scales scored in a direction of positive

adaptation would correlate directly with each other and inversely with the four negative Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors subscales and the Alienation measure.

Table 5 reports the intercorrelations among all the scales utilized in this research. Of these 190 correlations, the hypothesized pattern obtained in 87% of the cases. Of the remainder, the majority (20 of 25, or 80%) obtained in the relationships within the Staff Punishment and Staff Custody scales. Since the predicted relationships obtained in the majority of cases, strong support was found for the construct validity of these measures.

Relation of Personal Control to Other Personality Variables

Research hypotheses are restated here and the results are reported.

Hypothesis 1A. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with expectations for goal attainment.

Table 5 shows the obtained correlation coefficient for the relationship between personal control belief and the freedom of movement, or expectation of goal attainment, variable was .273 (492), $p < .01$. Those inmates who believe they control their own outcomes and reinforcements also tend to expect they will succeed in reaching their goals.

Hypothesis 1B. Belief in personal control should correlate negatively with alienation.

As predicted, an inverse correlation obtained for the relationship between belief in personal control and alienation, with $r = -.408$ (497), $p < .01$. This was the coefficient of largest magnitude of any of the relationships between Personal Control and the other personality variables. The inmate who believes that the rewards of life are independent

Table 5. Intercorrelations Among All Scales

	SPU	10P	SCU	IAT	STR	ISI	P1D	S1D	DPC	VOC	DEF	ATR	ATA	AGA	ATD	AL	JPT	EST	FM	PC	
SPU	.744																				
10P	.311	.727																			
SCU	.497	.109	.587																		
IAT	.252	.429	.310	.616																	
STR	.388	.305	.121	-.211	.728																
ISI	-.271	-.356	-.039	-.173	.454	.674															
P1D	.101	.202	.230	-.213	.112	.237	.712														
S1D	-.013	-.164	.145	-.150	.116	.284	.637	.669													
DPC	.120	.222	-.211	-.263	.125	.192	.706	.563	.750												
VOC	.100	-.198	.200	-.197	.085	.199	.751	.585	.622	.729											
DEF	.078	.248	.206	-.247	.123	.251	.708	.786	.851	.804											
ATR	-.007	-.387	.073	-.376	.185	.147	.403	.383	.494	.369	.457	.756									
ATA	.108	.257	.179	-.250	.023	.044	.552	.378	.426	.467	.554	.734									
AGA	.057	.273	.142	-.358	.157	.110	.539	.384	.428	.473	.544	.686	.619								
ATD	.120	-.311	.177	-.066	.207	.242	.150	.174	.244	.112	.183	.281	.167	.266	.933						
AL	.145	.104	.138	.281	-.111	-.020	-.191	-.174	-.124	-.050	-.167	-.242	-.165	-.234	.030	.817					
JPT	.187	-.124	.133	-.204	-.067	-.047	.295	.177	.347	.271	.309	.330	.405	.416	.115	-.197	.730				
EST	-.156	-.059	-.161	-.217	.094	.066	.118	.114	.060	.049	.102	.090	.051	.082	-.066	-.443	-.031	.776			
FM	.024	-.143	.064	-.091	.148	-.268	.211	-.204	.216	-.252	.142	.164	.173	.079	-.329	.329	.329	.329	.519	.901	
PC	-.168	-.213	-.289	-.336	.124	.094	.107	.087	.096	.073	.116	.314	.119	.250	.045	-.408	.161	.389	.273	.723	
	(.497)	(.499)	(.499)	(.498)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.499)	(.499)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)	(.497)

Note: Estimate of reliability on diagonal, N in parentheses.

of his own actions or characteristics tends also to experience a feeling of social isolation and estrangement from others.

Hypothesis 1C. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with self-esteem.

The correlation between the Personal Control measure and the Self-Esteem measure obtained as predicted, with $r = .389$ (488), $p < .01$. This correlation coefficient ranks second only to that between Personal Control and Alienation in terms of its magnitude. Inmates who experience a belief in their own capabilities and who thus feel able to deal effectively with their environment also tend to hold self-accepting postures. They tend to value themselves more highly and feel more positively about their own abilities.

Hypothesis 1D. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with interpersonal trust.

The correlation for the relationship between Personal Control and Interpersonal Trust obtained as predicted, with $r = .161$ (488), $p < .01$. This finding suggests that inmates who believe in personal control tend also to see others as trustworthy and reliable. While this relationship obtained for all inmates, it was of greater magnitude among female inmates than among male inmates, with $r = .309$ (138), $p < .01$ for females and $r = .102$ (349), $p < .05$ for males.

Hypothesis 1E. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with an intolerant attitude toward deviance.

The predicted relationship between belief in personal control and attitude toward deviance failed to occur. Instead, the correlation coefficients were near zero, indicating a random nonsignificant relationship. For all inmates, $r = .045$ (492); for males, $r = .074$ (351); and for females, $r = -.026$ (139). These findings failed to support

the prediction that inmates holding a belief in personal control would proscribe involvement in criminal behavior.

Hypothesis 1F. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with prescriptions for behaviors which maximize staff rewards and negatively with prescriptions for behaviors which maximize staff punishments.

Treating the six subscales contained in the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure as indications of individual orientation, we will now examine their relationships with the Personal Control measure. The Staff Treatment and the Inmate Self-Improvement scales represent behavior of staff and inmates, respectively, appropriate for a correctional institution oriented toward treatment of the inmate. An inmate who prescribes these behaviors would be oriented towards maximizing staff rewards for himself. On the other hand, the Staff Custody and Inmate Avoiding Trouble subscales represent staff and inmate behaviors oriented toward confinement of the inmate, while the Staff Punishment and the Inmate Opposition subscales represent behaviors of an institutional environment organized toward punishment of the inmate. An inmate who prescribes the orientations of these four scales would be prescribing behaviors which maximize punishments.

All correlations with belief in personal control obtained in the predicted fashion. Personal Control correlated positively with Staff Treatment, with $r = .124$ (499), $p < .01$, and also correlated positively with Inmate Self-Improvement, with $r = .094$ (497), $p < .05$. Personal Control correlated negatively with Staff Custody, with $r = -.289$ (499), $p < .01$, and correlated negatively with Inmate Avoiding Trouble, with $r = -.336$ (498), $p < .01$. Personal Control also achieved a significant inverse relationship with Staff Punishment, with $r = -.168$ (497), $p < .01$,

and with Inmate Opposition, with $r = -.213$ (499), $p < .01$. These findings strongly support the prediction that individual inmates who maintain a belief in personal control will prescribe, or recommend, behaviors for themselves and for the correctional staff that will tend to increase the likelihood of cooperation and reward and decrease the likelihood of opposition and punishment.

Hypothesis 16. Belief in personal control should correlate positively with favorable attitudes toward environmental opportunity and authority structures.

Attitudes toward the opportunity structures of the correctional environments studied were measured by five different scales. The fifth scale was composed of all items from the other four. Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r = .107$ (497), $p < .05$. Opportunity for Social/Interpersonal Development correlated at the level of $r = .097$ (497), $p < .05$. Definition of Personal Commitment correlated at the level of $r = .096$ (497), $p < .05$, while the correlation between Personal Control and Value of Commitment failed to achieve significance, with $r = .073$ (499). The correlation between Personal Control and the Value of Commitment scale did achieve significance for female subjects, with $r = .189$ (139), $p < .05$. The overall Definition scale correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r = .116$ (499), $p < .01$. These results indicate that inmates who hold beliefs in personal control also tend to see their environments as richer in opportunity.

Inmate attitudes toward the authority structures of their correctional environments were measured by three scales. These were the Attitude Toward Rules and Regulation, the Attitude Toward Authority Figures, and the Attitude Toward Authority in General scales. The final

scale was composed of the items of the previous two. Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r = .314$ (497), $p < .01$. Attitude Toward Authority Figures correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r = .119$ (497), $p < .01$. The overall authority measure also correlated positively with belief in personal control at the level of $r = .250$ (497), $p < .01$. The results suggest that, among inmate populations, belief in personal control is associated with positive attitudes toward environmental authority structures and the authority figures therein.

Seen in their total, the results of these correlational analyses suggested a strong sense of construct validity for the Personal Control measure. Belief in personal control of reinforcements was shown to be associated with a wide range of other personality variables, including expectations for goal attainment, alienation, self-esteem, and interpersonal trust. It was also associated with prescriptions for behaviors which maximize rewards and minimize punishments. Finally, it was associated with perceptions of enriched environmental opportunities as well as benign environmental authority.

Distribution of Personal Control Within Social Settings

Hypothesis 2A. Persons living in environments defined as relatively high in opportunity should believe in personal control to a greater extent than persons living in environments defined as relatively low in opportunity.

Based upon the rankings of the environmental opportunities reported earlier, the four male and the three female correctional institutions were defined as to the level of opportunities available to their residents. It will be remembered that among male institutions, LexM was defined as

the highest in opportunity, UCI was the lowest, with FCIM and ColoM falling in the intermediate range. Among the female institutions, LexF was defined as the highest in opportunity while FCIF and ColoF were both defined as low opportunity environments.

It was expected that mean personal control beliefs within the respective institutions would correspond with these various defined levels of opportunity, such that those institutions defined as high in opportunity would differ most markedly with those institutions defined as low in opportunity. The results are contained in Table 6.

Among male institutions weak significant differences in mean Personal Control scores obtained between the LexM sample and the FCIM and UCI samples, respectively. Other differences between male samples were all nonsignificant. Among female institutions, the pattern of differences was somewhat more clear-cut. The LexF sample differed with the FCIF sample at the .005 level and with the ColoF sample at the .10 level. These findings tended to support the hypothesis, especially when the differences in environmental opportunity were in the sharpest relief.

Hypothesis 2B. Persons of ethnic or minority status should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons of Anglo or majority status.

The distribution of belief in personal control among ethnic groups was examined among inmate populations within and across the seven correctional institutions. Table 7 contains the results of this examination when all subjects were grouped together. White inmates exhibited the strongest belief in personal control, with the non-Black minority groups and the Black sample following in that order. As predicted, significant differences obtained between the White and Black groups ($p < .001$) and

Table 6. Differences in Personal Control Measure Within Four Male and Three Female Correctional Institutions

		<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>				<u>Significance</u>			
<u>Male Institutions</u>		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
<u>LexM</u>	<u>FCIM</u>			<u>CoLoM</u>	<u>UCI</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>2</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>3</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>4</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>4</u>
X	25.1667	23.8257	24.2364	24.0030		t=1.55	t=1.04	t=1.59	t=-0.48
σ	4.3380	4.6432	4.6227	4.8975		p<.10	N.S.	p<.10	N.S.
	(N=46)	(N=65)	(N=55)	(N=191)					t=0.33 N.S.
<u>Female Institutions</u>		1	2	3		1	2	3	
<u>LexF</u>	<u>FCIF</u>			<u>CoLoF</u>		<u>vs</u> <u>2</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>3</u>	<u>vs</u> <u>3</u>	
X	26.1112	23.6712	24.5357			t=2.99	t=1.46	t=-0.78	
σ	3.5634	5.1187	4.8951			p<.005	p<.10	N.S.	
	(N=44)	(N=70)	(N=30)						

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.

N.S.--difference not significant at the .10 level or better.

Table 7. Ethnic Differences in Personal Control Measure
Across Seven Correctional Institutions

<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>		<u>W</u>		<u>Significance</u>		
	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Non-Black</u>	<u>Minority</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>
X	25.5157	23.0511	23.3889		<u>vs</u>	<u>vs</u>
σ	4.4922	4.5375	4.9470		<u>NB</u>	<u>NB</u>
	(N=254)	(N=184)	(N=36)		t=2.44	t=-0.38
					p<.05	N.S.

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.

N.S.--difference not significant at the .05 level or better.

between the White and non-Black minority group sample ($p < .05$). The difference between the Black inmates and members of the other minorities sample failed to achieve significance.

The results of the analysis within correctional environments are contained within Table 8. Within all institutions except LexF, the differences between majority and minority ethnic samples on the Personal Control measure are in the predicted direction. However, in only the three Florida institutions did these differences achieve significance (all at the .01 level). It should be noted that only in the Colorado institutions did the sample size of the non-Black minorities group allow inclusion in the analysis.

Hypothesis 2C. Persons of lower socioeconomic status should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons of higher socioeconomic status.

The relationship between Personal Control and socioeconomic status was examined by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. The results are contained in Table 9. A significant coefficient obtained when all inmates were included in the correlational analysis, with $r = .112$ (437), $p < .05$. Further analysis showed that the power of this correlation was largely contributed by the female sample, with $r = .183$ (122), $p < .05$, whereas the relationship for males was not significant. Analyses by race and by institution also found nonsignificant coefficients of correlation.

Changes in Personal Control Beliefs

Hypothesis 3A. Belief in personal control bears a curvilinear relationship with a person's length of stay in a novel and confining environment such that belief in personal control is minimized upon entry and again upon exit from that environment.

Table 8. Ethnic Differences in Personal Control Measure
Within Seven Correctional Institutions

<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>				<u>Significance</u>			
		<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Non-Black Minority</u>	<u>W vs B</u>	<u>W vs NB</u>	<u>B vs NB</u>
FCIM	X	25.5428	22.2900	---	t=2.83	---	---
	σ	4.2032 (N=35)	4.3408 (N=23)	---	p<.01		
UCI	X	25.2766	22.8562	---	t=3.29	---	---
	σ	4.3906 (N=94)	5.0667 (N=76)	---	p<.01		
ColoM	X	24.5555	23.2000	22.8000	t=0.68	t=1.24	t=0.19
	σ	5.0622 (N=36)	4.0249 (N=5)	3.5839 (N=10)	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
LexM	X	25.9655	25.2823	---	t=0.55	---	---
	σ	4.1703 (N=29)	3.4525 (N=13)	---	N.S.		
FCIF	X	26.5000	21.8861	---	t=3.78	---	---
	σ	4.8812 (N=24)	4.5218 (N=41)	---	p<.01		
ColoF	X	25.5714	25.1667	24.0000	t=0.22	t=0.71	t=0.57
	σ	5.3308 (N=14)	2.7869 (N=6)	4.1952 (N=6)	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
LexF	X	25.8333	25.8750	---	t=-0.03	---	---
	σ	4.2183 (N=18)	3.4429 (N=24)	---	N.S.		

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.
N.S.--difference not significant at the .05 level or better.

Table 9. Correlations Between Personal Control
and Socioeconomic Status

	<u>Values of r</u>
All Inmates (N=437)	.112 (p<.05)
<u>By Sex</u>	
Males (N=314)	.085 (N.S.)
Females (N=122)	.183 (P<.05)
<u>By Race</u>	
Whites (N=235)	.008 (N.S.)
Blacks (N=158)	.073 (N.S.)
Non-Black Minorities (N=33)	.138 (N.S.)
<u>By Institution</u>	
FCIM (N=59)	.217 (N.S.)
UCI (N=172)	.070 (N.S.)
ColoM (N=48)	.237 (N.S.)
LexM (N=35)	-.269 (N.S.)
FCIF (N=64)	.113 (N.S.)
ColoF (N= 23)	.299 (N.S.)
LexF (N= 35)	.109 (N.S.)

Note: N.S.--coefficient not significant at the .05 level
or better.

Before examining the above hypothesis in light of the results of this study, it seemed instructive to first examine the relationships between personal control beliefs and a number of variables concerned with an inmate's length of stay within correctional environments. Table 10 contains the obtained correlations between Personal Control scores and four such variables. Analyses were done by sex, by race, and by institution.

The four length of stay variables included in this analysis were: 1) length of time at present prison (LT); 2) expected time remaining in prison (ET); 3) length of present sentence (LS); and 4) percent of sentence served (PERSEN). Examination of Table 10 reveals that when all subjects were grouped for analysis, only the correlation between Personal Control and ET achieved significance, with $r = -.121$ (436), $p < .05$. Among all inmates, as the expected time remaining in prison decreases, personal control beliefs tend to increase. This relationship held for male subjects with $r = -.136$ (306), $p < .05$, and as well as for Blacks, with $r = -.222$ (160), $p < .01$, but failed to hold for females, Whites, and the non-Black minority sample. Among female inmates the only relationship achieving significance was between Personal Control and LT, with $r = -.178$ (138), $p < .05$. For females, it appears that as length of time in prison increases, personal control beliefs decrease. Two significant correlations obtained with White subjects. Personal Control correlated with PERSEN at the level of $r = -.152$ (247), $p < .05$, and with LS at the level of $r = .133$ (248), $p < .05$. These results suggest that Caucasian inmates with longer sentences tend to hold stronger beliefs in personal control and that as the percent of their sentence served increases, their beliefs in personal control become weaker.

Table 10. Correlations Between Personal Control and Length of Stay Variables

	Values of r			
	<u>LT</u>	<u>ET</u>	<u>LS</u>	<u>PERSEN</u>
<u>All Inmates</u>	-.013 (N=478) N.S.	-.121 (N=436) p<.05	.022 (N=470) N.S.	-.059 (N=467) N.S.
<u>By Sex</u>				
Males	.055 (N=339) N.S.	-.136 (N=306) p<.05	.009 (N=333) N.S.	-.046 (N=330) N.S.
Females	-.178 (N=138) p<.05	-.086 (N=129) N.S.	.054 (N=136) N.S.	-.090 (N=136) N.S.
<u>By Race</u>				
Whites	.060 (N=252) N.S.	-.059 (N=237) N.S.	.133 (N=248) p<.05	-.152 (N=247) p<.05
Blacks	-.066 (N=181) N.S.	-.222 (N=160) p<.01	-.072 (N=176) N.S.	.029 (N=176) N.S.
Non-Black Minorities	.152 (N=34) N.S.	-.077 (N=30) N.S.	-.117 (N=35) N.S.	.030 (N=34) N.S.
<u>By Institution</u>				
FCIM	.054 (N=62) N.S.	-.272 (N=58) p<.05	-.045 (N=59) N.S.	.076 (N=59) N.S.
UCI	.047 (N=182) N.S.	-.156 (N=159) p<.05	.029 (N=181) N.S.	-.054 (N=179) N.S.
ColoM	.228 (N=53) N.S.	-.007 (N=51) N.S.	.201 (N=51) N.S.	-.270 (N=51) N.S.
LexM	.187 (N=42) N.S.	-.351 (N=38) p<.05	-.426 (N=42) p<.01	.229 (N=41) N.S.

Table 10 - continued

	<u>Values of r</u>			
	<u>LT</u>	<u>ET</u>	<u>LS</u>	<u>PERSEN</u>
FCIF	-.159 (N=69) N.S.	-.093 (N=65) N.S.	.134 (N=69) N.S.	-.103 (N=69) N.S.
CoIoF	-.103 (N=27) N.S.	.232 (N=26) N.S.	.192 (N=26) N.S.	-.256 (N=26) N.S.
LexF	-.214 (N=42) N.S.	.026 (N=38) N.S.	.001 (N=41) N.S.	-.237 (N=41) N.S.

Note: N.S.--coefficient not significant at the .05 level or better.

The analysis by institution reveals that for three of the four male institutions, correlations between ET and Personal Control achieved significance at the .05 level or better, failing to achieve significance only in the ColoM sample. The only other significant correlation was within the LexM subject sample where a relatively strong inverse relationship existed between Personal Control and LS, with $r = -.426$ (42), $p < .01$.

We will now turn to an examination of the research hypothesis stated above. Table 11 contains results of an analysis of differences in personal control beliefs among cross-sectional samples of inmates within the seven institutional environments. Inmates within each institution were classified in one of three groups according to the percentage of their sentence served so that there were approximately equal numbers of inmates in each group. Differences in personal control beliefs among subjects in the beginning phase, in the middle phase, and in the final phase of their sentences were assessed by means of t-tests.

Only two of the seven institutions demonstrated a significant difference in Personal Control between inmate samples in different phases of their sentences. Within FCIM, inmates in the beginning phase of their sentence held significantly weaker beliefs in personal control than did inmates in the middle phase of their sentence ($t = -2.2485$, $p < .05$). This was the only significant difference supportive of the hypothesis. Within the LexM institution, inmates in the final phase of their sentence held significantly stronger beliefs in personal control than did inmates in the middle phase of their sentence ($t = -2.4391$, $p < .05$).

One additional analysis was accomplished in order to shed further light on the research hypothesis. In this analysis, an attempt was made

Table 11. Differences in Personal Control
Among Inmate Samples Classed by Phase of Sentence
Being Served Within Seven Correctional Institutions

<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>				<u>Significance</u>		
	1	2	3	1	1	2
	1st Phase	2nd Phase	3rd Phase	$\frac{vs}{2}$	$\frac{vs}{3}$	$\frac{vs}{3}$
FCIM	X 22.1176 σ 4.1515 (N=17)	25.5714 5.3157 (N=21)	23.8571 4.0036 (N=21)	t=-2.25 p<.05	t=-1.30 N.S.	t=1.18 N.S.
UCI	X 24.7667 σ 5.3563 (N=60)	23.7667 4.7439 (N=60)	23.7724 4.5749 (N=59)	t=1.08 N.S.	t=1.09 N.S.	t=-0.01 N.S.
ColoM	X 25.0000 σ 4.3925 (N=18)	22.6250 2.9637 (N=16)	24.1176 6.0092 (N=17)	t=1.87 N.S.	t=0.49 N.S.	t=-0.91 N.S.
LexM	X 25.5113 σ 4.6456 (N=15)	23.6923 3.4733 (N=13)	26.9231 3.2777 (N=13)	t=1.18 N.S.	t=-0.94 N.S.	t=-2.44 p<.05
FCIF	X 24.9091 σ 4.6282 (N=22)	23.3187 6.3152 (N=23)	22.7500 4.5325 (N=24)	t=0.97 N.S.	t=1.60 N.S.	t=0.35 N.S.
ColoF	X 26.0000 σ 4.0927 (N=9)	25.6667 4.2426 (N=9)	21.7500 5.8979 (N=8)	t=0.17 N.S.	t=1.71 N.S.	t=1.55 N.S.
LexF	X 26.8750 σ 4.1292 (N=16)	25.8791 4.1103 (N=11)	25.2857 2.3674 (N=14)	t=0.62 N.S.	t=1.31 N.S.	t=0.43 N.S.

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.
N.S.--difference not significant at the .05 level or better.

to maximize the differences among three cross-sectional samples in terms of their time in prison. The first sample contained those inmates whose time in prison had been six months or less. The second sample included inmates whose time in prison was within six months of their expected time remaining. The third sample was composed of those inmates whose expectation was that they would be released within six months. In order to be classified within any of the three groups, the additional requirement was made that an inmate had to have a sentence of 13 months or more. This prevented any one inmate from being classified in more than one group. Table 12 contains the results of the analysis of differences in Personal Control among male and female inmates within these three samples.

The predicted pattern of change in personal control beliefs was that they would be strongest in the middle phase sample and more externalized in the entry and exit phase samples. Looking at Table 12, we see that this pattern held for both male and female samples. However, only one significant difference occurred between the respective samples. Among male inmates, Personal Control differed significantly between the entry sample and the middle phase sample with the middle phase sample holding stronger beliefs in personal control ($t = -1.9832, p < .05$). All other difference tests failed to achieve significance.

Environmental Influences

Consensus on appropriate behaviors was measured by the percent of respondents in the modal category and by summing the variance around each item mode for all items in the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure. The measurement of consensus was accomplished by institution,

Table 12. Differences in Personal Control
Among Male and Female Samples
with Maximized Time-In-Prison Differences

<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>					<u>Significance</u>		
		1	2	3	1 vs 2	1 vs 3	2 vs 3
<u>Males</u>	X	24.0156	25.5625	25.2335	t=-1.98	t=-1.24	t=0.35
	σ	4.7123 (N=64)	3.5425 (N=48)	3.5345 (N=20)	p<.05	N.S.	N.S.
<u>Females</u>	X	24.2963	25.0476	23.8000	t=-0.51	t=0.30	t=0.72
	σ	5.1506 (N=27)	5.0147 (N=21)	5.9789 (N=20)	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.

N.S.--difference not significant at the .05 level or better.

1 = Inmates whose time at present prison was 6 months or less.

2 = Inmates whose time at present prison was within six months
of the expected time remaining in prison.

3 = Inmates whose expected time remaining in prison was 6 months
or less.

by living unit, and by ethnic group within institutions. We will now look at these measures of consensus within the three analyses.

Institutions

Looking at Table 13, we see the measures of consensus for the seven institutions. The scale item is first presented and is followed by the item mode, the percent of respondents in the modal category, and the variance around the group's own mode. For example, for item one "Inmates cause as much trouble as they can," all seven institutions were highly proscriptive of this behavior. FCIF had the highest percentage of inmates in the modal category while LexF had the lowest amount of variance around its own mode. UCI showed the greatest amount of variance and thus demonstrated the least amount of consensus among the seven institutions on this item. Looking across the items, note that the institutions remained fairly consistent in their choice of group modes, but varied in their degree of consensus. Looking now at the total variance on the Inmate Opposition items, we see that ColoF inmates exhibited the least amount of variance around their own modal category, while FCIM inmates exhibited the greatest amount of variance. Thus, on the behaviors described within the Inmate Opposition scale, ColoF residents had the most consensus and the FCIM sample had the least consensus. Looking at the overall measure of group consensus on the last page of Table 13, we see that ColoF inmates had the lowest total amount of variance around all item modes while FCIF inmates had the highest amount. Thus, within this analysis, the ColoF institution was characterized as the environment with the greatest consensus on appropriate behaviors while the FCIF institution was characterized as the environment with the least consensus on appropriate behaviors.

Table 13. Measure of Group Consensus Derived from the
Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors Items
for Seven Institutions

		<u>Inmate Opposition</u>						
<u>Item</u>		<u>FCIM</u>	<u>UCI</u>	<u>ColoM</u>	<u>LexM</u>	<u>FCIF</u>	<u>ColoF</u>	<u>LexF</u>
1. Inmates cause as much trouble as they can.	M	4	5	4,5	5	5	4	4
	%	47	44	38	49	57	45	46
	V	1.132	1.198	.968	1.226	.908	.548	.533
8. Inmates lie to an officer if they can get away with it.	M	3	4	3	3	5	3	3,4
	%	36	39	43	41	34	57	40
	V	1.246	1.258	1.286	.941	3.026	.500	.851
14. Inmates goof off while they are in school.	M	4	4	4	5	4	4	4
	%	51	46	50	40	46	55	63
	V	1.087	.716	.677	1.327	.671	.824	.717
28. Inmates work it out so they can con the staff.	M	3	4	3	3	4	4	4
	%	40	49	41	46	47	48	53
	V	1.132	1.031	1.051	.923	.797	.533	.533
34. An inmate tries to get around as many of the rules as possible.	M	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
	%	39	47	39	45	41	53	37
	V	2.179	1.272	1.443	.961	.878	.567	1.217
Total Variance on Inmate Opposition:		6.776	5.475	5.425	5.378	6.280	2.972	3.851
		<u>Staff Treatment</u>						
3. Staff members try to help inmates take a new look at their life.	M	1	1	2	1	2	2	2
	%	47	45	44	54	51	43	39
	V	.985	1.197	.825	.904	.711	.733	.674
9. Staff members try to understand an inmate's problems.	M	2	1	1,2	1	1	1	1
	%	41	45	42	56	55	42	60
	V	1.324	1.207	.984	.962	1.117	1.742	.733
15. Staff members take a personal interest in inmates here.	M	2	2	2	1	2	2	2
	%	43	35	37	42	38	48	46
	V	1.493	1.052	1.517	1.250	1.636	1.387	.674
22. Staff members help inmates to plan their future on the outside.	M	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	%	37	45	42	45	37	35	42
	V	1.471	.979	.729	.667	1.440	2.065	.844

Table 13 - continued

<u>Item</u>		<u>FCIM</u>	<u>UCI</u>	<u>CoIoM</u>	<u>LexM</u>	<u>FCIF</u>	<u>CoIoF</u>	<u>LexF</u>
29. Staff members try to teach an inmate skills that will help on the outside.	M	2	1	2	1	1,2	2	1
	%	45	53	45	53	42	42	53
	V	.836	1.125	.783	.980	.763	.903	1.128

Total Variance on Staff Treatment:

6.109 5.560 4.838 4.763 5.667 6.830 4.053

Inmate Avoiding Trouble

4. Inmates try to get along by keeping their mouth shut around the staff.	M	1,2	3	2	3	2	2	4
	%	27	31	33	31	32	33	27
	V	1.636	1.492	1.825	1.615	1.667	1.800	2.356

16. An inmate tries to steer clear of the staff.	M	2	3	3	4	4	3	4
	%	31	35	34	40	35	58	41
	V	1.691	1.128	1.242	1.038	2.230	.889	1.478

23. Inmates try to find the easiest job they can.	M	3	3	3	3	4	3	3
	%	39	45	51	55	37	55	51
	V	1.043	.984	1.467	.804	1.547	1.000	.778

30. An inmate keeps to oneself as much as possible.	M	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	%	39	38	39	41	38	53	40
	V	1.015	1.157	1.017	.824	1.173	.667	1.222

35. Inmates act like their stay here is just a matter of waiting out time.	M	3	4	4	4	4	3,4	4
	%	40	44	47	39	42	32	41
	V	1.106	1.108	1.133	.902	1.278	1.161	1.130

Total Variance on Inmate Avoiding Trouble:

6.491 5.769 6.684 5.183 7.895 5.517 6.964

Staff Custody

2. Staff members only concern themselves with keeping the inmate from causing them trouble.	M	4	4	5	5	4	4	4
	%	40	29	33	42	32	33	56
	V	1.788	1.897	2.165	2.170	2.342	1.500	1.422

5. Staff members act like their main job is to keep things running smoothly.	M	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	%	42	38	32	34	34	37	33
	V	1.776	1.862	2.667	2.509	1.895	2.833	1.848

Table 13 - continued

<u>Item</u>		<u>FCIM</u>	<u>UCI</u>	<u>CoIoM</u>	<u>LexM</u>	<u>FCIF</u>	<u>CoIoF</u>	<u>LexF</u>
10. Staff members act as if their main job is preventing escape.	M	4	4	4	4	4	4	5
	%	32	30	42	35	41	38	31
	V	1.809	1.859	1.306	1.462	1.539	1.226	4.178
17. Staff members see an inmate as someone to be controlled.	M	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
	%	42	36	47	37	41	55	42
	V	1.167	1.391	1.186	1.385	1.413	.806	1.000
Total Variance on Staff Custody:		6.540	7.009	7.794	7.526	7.189	6.365	8.448
<u>Staff Punishment</u>								
6. Staff members push inmates till they break.	M	5	4	4	4	5	4	5
	%	48	50	52	48	48	58	46
	V	1.652	.742	.661	.519	1.792	.419	1.457
11. Staff members are rough with inmates to show them who's boss.	M	4	4	5	4,5	5	5	5
	%	40	41	44	40	49	45	54
	V	1.412	.808	1.607	.769	2.493	1.613	1.043
18. Staff members see to it that inmates have a hard time here to make up for what they did on the outside.	M	4	5	5	5	5	4	5
	%	39	52	43	42	57	52	57
	V	1.130	1.585	2.344	2.077	1.195	.742	1.227
24. Staff members remind inmates that they are in here to pay for their crimes.	M	4	4	4	4	5	4	4
	%	38	45	44	31	43	55	41
	V	1.191	.937	1.148	1.255	2.622	1.161	.977
31. Staff members send an inmate to segregation even for little things.	M	4	4	4	4	5	4,5	4,5
	%	49	42	42	43	39	42	42
	V	.791	.691	.814	.569	2.373	.581	.837
Total Variance on Staff Punishment:		6.176	4.763	6.574	5.189	10.475	4.516	5.541
<u>Inmate Self-Improvement</u>								
7. An inmate really tries to learn something in work release that will be of use later.	M	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	%	57	53	63	55	63	58	74
	V	.884	.705	1.032	.902	.592	.516	.261

Table 13 - continued

Item		FCIM	UCI	ColoM	LexM	FCIF	ColoF	LexF
19. Inmates do the best work they can when they are on a work detail.	M	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	%	43	54	47	44	46	42	42
	V	.812	.802	.633	.923	.645	.677	.756
25. Inmates try to figure out how to get along with other inmates while they are in here.	M	1,2	2	2	1	1	2	2
	%	41	48	58	46	49	58	56
	V	.721	.725	.475	1.200	.747	.419	.511
32. Inmates do their best to cooperate when they are assigned to work with another inmate.	M	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
	%	46	53	54	51	47	57	62
	V	.746	.637	.508	.549	.773	.433	.378
36. Inmates spend a lot of time thinking while they are in here about how to get along on the outside.	M	1	2	2	1	1	2	1
	%	46	43	44	53	52	65	60
	V	1.000	.824	.729	1.078	1.027	.452	.956

Total Variance on Inmate Self-Improvement:

4.163 3.693 3.377 4.652 3.784 2.497 2.862

Measure of Group Consensus (Overall Variance):

36.255 32.369 34.692 32.691 41.290 28.697 31.719

Note: M = Group Mode, where 1 = absolutely should

2 = should

3 = may or may not

4 = should not

5 = absolutely should not.

% = Percentage of group in modal category.

V = Variance around the group's item mode.

Living Units

Seventeen living units, each with 15 or more respondents, were included in this analysis. Table 14 presents the total amounts of variance around the mode of all items in each of the six subscales for each living unit. Inspection of Table 14 reveals considerable variation in the amount of variance around the item modes within various institutional living areas. FCIF Stowe had the least amount of total variance while FCIF Tubman had the greatest amount of total variance. Thus, these two living units represented the extreme conditions of group consensus on appropriate behaviors within this sample. Therefore, among these living units, FCIF Stowe was characterized as an environment where there was the greatest consensus on appropriate behaviors (or was the least anomic unit) and FCIF Tubman was characterized as an environment where there was the least consensus on appropriate behaviors (or scored highest on this index of anomie).

Ethnic Groups Within Institutions

The group consensus measure was computed for ethnic groups within six institutions. Groups from the ColoF institution were excluded due to insufficient sample sizes. Each of the twelve ethnic samples included in this analysis had 10 or more respondents. A Black sample and a White sample were included from five of the institutions. From ColoM, a White sample and a sample composed of non-Black minority subjects were included.

Table 15 contains the variance calculations for each ethnic sample. As in Table 14, Table 15 shows only the total amounts of the variance around the modes of all items in each of the six subscales. It can be seen that in all institutions, with the exception of LexM, the variance total was greater for the minority sample than for the majority sample.

Table 15. Measure of Group Consensus Derived from the
Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors Items
for Ethnic Groups Within Six Institutions

<u>Group</u>	<u>IOP</u>	<u>STR</u>	<u>IAT</u>	<u>SCU</u>	<u>SPU</u>	<u>ISI</u>	<u>Overall Variance</u>
FCIM-White	4.973	4.229	5.618	4.334	5.657	2.943	27.754
FCIM-Black	8.559	8.920	7.898	8.645	9.518	4.713	48.253
UCI-White	4.054	4.789	5.022	7.487	4.215	3.366	28.933
UCI-Black	7.139	7.353	8.097	13.300	6.873	5.267	48.029
ColoM-White	3.527	4.612	4.909	7.500	5.972	2.684	29.204
ColoM-NonBlack Minority	10.134	6.266	9.067	14.738	10.800	3.267	54.272
LexM-White	4.903	5.019	5.148	7.775	5.644	4.613	33.102
LexM-Black	3.677	4.258	5.472	7.765	5.526	4.779	31.477
FCIF-White	6.000	2.208	6.083	4.500	4.000	3.459	26.250
FCIF-Black	6.668	10.606	9.606	11.624	12.145	3.712	54.361
LexF-White	2.416	3.787	6.700	4.932	4.466	3.145	25.446
LexF-Black	5.060	4.691	8.176	10.894	5.814	3.154	37.789

Thus, minority groups tended to demonstrate less consensus on appropriate behaviors than did White samples. Among White samples, LexF had the highest consensus ranking while LexM had the lowest. Among minority samples, LexM-Black had the highest consensus ranking while FCIF-Black and ColoM-NonBlack minorities had the lowest.

We will now return to an examination of the hypothesized relationship between personal control and consensus.

Hypothesis 4A. Persons residing in an environment where there is low consensus on what are appropriate behaviors should believe in personal control to a lesser extent than persons residing in an environment where there is high consensus.

In order to examine this hypothesis, the measures of group consensus within each analysis were ranked ordinally by degree of consensus. The relationship of these consensus rankings with mean Personal Control scores for the respective groups was assessed by means of Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients.

In the analysis by institution, degree of consensus and Personal Control correlated at the level of $r_s = .750$, $p < .05$. In the analysis by living unit, degree of consensus correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r_s = .630$, $p < .01$. In the analysis by ethnic group within institutions, degree of consensus correlated with Personal Control at the level of $r_s = .740$, $p < .01$. Thus, there is strong, consistent support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4B. Persons residing in environments which contain small numbers of people should believe in personal control to a greater extent than persons residing in environments which contain large numbers of people.

Institutions were ranked by population size. The relationship of these rankings with mean Personal Control scores for the institutions

was examined by Spearman rank-order correlation coefficients. Table 16 contains the results of this analysis. The coefficient of correlation, $r_s = .572$, failed to achieve significance at the .05 level.

Success in the Environment

Hypothesis 5A. Belief in personal control should be positively correlated with measures related to success in the environment.

Success in the environment was defined to include the following variables: freedom of movement (FM), alienation (AL), number of times rewarded by staff in the past year (REWARD), number of disciplinary reports received in the past year (DR), and staff ratings of maladjustment (MALAD), association (ASSOC), and leadership (LEADER). Each of the seven measures of success were correlated with the Personal Control measure. Table 17 contains the Pearson product-moment correlations which obtained.

Personal Control correlated most highly with FM and with AL, with $r = .273$ and $r = -.408$, respectively (both significant at the .01 level or better). Significant relationships in the predicted direction (at the .05 level or better) also obtained between Personal Control and DR ($r = -.088$) as well as between Personal Control and MALAD ($r = -.156$). Relationships with REWARD, ASSOC, and LEADER failed to achieve significance. The results demonstrated that inmates who believe in personal control tended to hold high expectations of goal attainment, feel less alienated, receive fewer disciplinary reports, and were more likely to behave in ways to be seen as model inmates by the correctional staff.

Table 16. Personal Control and Population Size
of Seven Correctional Institutions

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Pop. Size</u>	<u>Pop. Rank</u>	<u>PC Rank</u>	<u>Mean PC Score</u>
FCIM	300	3	6	23.8257
UCI	1993	7	5	24.0030
CoLoM	453	5	4	24.2364
LexM	400	4	2	25.1667
FCIF	600	6	7	23.6712
CoLoF	74	1	3	24.5357
LexF	200	2	1	26.1112

Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient: $r_s = .572$, not significant at the .05 level or better.

Table 17. Correlations Between Personal Control and
Success in the Environment Measures

	<u>Correlation with Personal Control</u>
FM	.273 p<.01 (N=492)
AL	-.408 p<.01 (N=497)
REWARD	-.007 N.S. (N=421)
DR	-.088 p<.05 (N=444)
MALAD	-.156 p<.05 (N=165)
ASSOC	.065 N.S. (N=165)
LEADER	-.089 N.S. (N=165)

Note: N.S.--coefficient not significant at the .05 level or better.

Hypothesis 5B. Within environments characterized by low consensus on appropriate behavior, persons who do not believe in personal control should be more successful than persons who believe in personal control. Conversely, within environments characterized by high consensus on appropriate behavior, persons who believe in personal control should be more successful than persons who do not believe in personal control

Two separate analyses examined this hypothesis. In the first of these, living units were used as the relevant environment while in the second analysis, correctional institutions were employed. In both analyses, inmates, within living units or institutional environments, were classed as high personal control or low personal control by whether their Personal Control score fell above or below the median for inmates within their particular environment. This allowed comparison of inmate success differences among peers and also produced roughly equivalent group N's. Environments were also dichotomized by median split on the degree of consensus on appropriate behavior. Nine living units were classified as low consensus environments and eight were classified as high consensus environments. The low consensus group included FCIF Tubman, FCIF Keller, ColoM Dorm, FCIM Dorm D, LexM Younity, UCI East I Floor, UCI East D Floor, FCIF Bethune, and UCI East A Floor. The high consensus living units included FCIF Stowe, ColoM Cell House, LexM-F Renaissance, LexF Honor Alley, ColoF Single Rooms, LexM Anteaues, FCIM Dorm C, and UCI East 2T.

Three institutional environments were classified as low consensus and four were classified as high consensus. The low consensus group included FCIF, FCIM, and ColoM while the high consensus group consisted of ColoF, LexF, UCI, and LexM.

Table 18 contains the results of the examination by living units and Table 19 contains the results of the examination by institutions. Looking at Table 18, we see that in comparing the success measures of high and low personal control groups within low consensus living units, only two differences achieved significance, both counter to the predicted direction. Low personal control inmates were less likely to hold expectations of goal attainment ($t = 3.4961$, $p < .001$) and more likely to feel alienated ($t = -4.0020$, $p < .0001$) than high personal control inmates. However, even though the differences were statistically nonsignificant, low personal control inmates received more rewards and fewer disciplinary reports from the staff, who viewed them as more adjusted and more social with other inmates. While not significant, this result was in the predicted direction.

Within high consensus living units, the comparison of personal control groups yielded more significant differences, all of which were in the predicted direction. Again, high personal control inmates held higher expectations of goal attainment ($t = 2.5158$, $p < .02$) and were less alienated ($t = -5.4509$, $p < .0001$). However, they were also more likely to be perceived as adjusted ($t = -2.4754$, $p < .02$) and as being more social among their inmate peers than were low personal control inmates ($t = 2.2030$, $p < .04$). Though the differences were nonsignificant, high personal control inmates also received more rewards and fewer disciplinary reports from the staff, the reverse of the low personal control group.

Looking at Table 19, we see that contrary to prediction, in low consensus institutions low personal control inmates held lower expectations of goal attainment ($t = 3.2296$, $p < .01$) and were more alienated

Table 18. Success of Dichotomized Personal Control Groups Within Low and High Consensus Living Units

		<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>							
		FM	AL	REWARD	DR	MALAD	ASSOC	LEADER	
<u>Low Consensus Living Units</u>									
1. High PC		X 34.1833	17.1016	4.7812	.6618	31.9783	8.5000	12.3913	
	σ	5.7492 (N=72)	4.1597 (N=74)	7.7837 (N=64)	.9241 (N=68)	3.8390 (N=23)	1.6989 (N=23)	2.1049 (N=23)	
2. Low PC		X 30.2411	20.2080	9.3714	.5000	31.4565	8.6304	12.0000	
	σ	7.8578 (N=76)	5.2848 (N=77)	21.8215 (N=70)	1.3270 (N=70)	7.2647 (N=23)	2.1224 (N=23)	2.3549 (N=23)	
<u>High Consensus Living Units</u>									
3. High PC		X 35.3522	16.1603	11.7895	.3069	29.1618	8.3529	10.3971	
	σ	5.3190 (N=111)	3.4049 (N=113)	19.6078 (N=95)	1.1112 (N=101)	6.0437 (N=34)	2.2581 (N=34)	2.6821 (N=34)	
4. Low PC		X 33.4157	18.8209	9.7024	.3789	33.5829	7.0714	11.5476	
	σ	5.9543 (N=105)	3.8278 (N=108)	19.9063 (N=84)	.6869 (N=95)	6.6655 (N=21)	1.9892 (N=21)	2.2243 (N=21)	
				<u>Significance</u>					
1	vs 2	t=3.50 p<.001	t=-4.02 p<.001	t=-1.65 N.S.	t=0.83 N.S.	t=0.30 N.S.	t=-0.23 N.S.	t=0.59 N.S.	
3	vs 4	t=2.52 p<.02	t=-5.46 p<.001	t=0.71 N.S.	t=-0.55 N.S.	t=-2.48 p<.02	t=2.20 p<.04	t=01.72 N.S.	
3	vs 1	t=1.27 N.S.	t=-1.50 N.S.	t=3.17 p<.01	t=-2.21 p<.05	t=-2.99 p<.01	t=-0.48 N.S.	t=-3.24 p<.01	
2	vs 4	t=-3.07 p<.01	t=1.96 p<.05	t=-0.09 N.S.	t=0.70 N.S.	t=-1.01 N.S.	t=2.52 p<.02	t=0.66 N.S.	

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.
N.S.--difference not significant at .05 level or better.
Dichotomization of Personal Control within living units.

Table 19. Success of Dichotomized Personal Control Groups
Within Low and High Consensus Correctional Institutions

		<u>Means and Standard Deviations</u>						
		FM	AL	REWARD	DR	MALAD	ASSOC	LEADER
<u>Low Consensus Institutions</u>								
1. High PC	X	34.6561	18.3467	11.3117	.4941	30.6906	8.0882	11.5882
	σ	5.5157 (N=87)	4.2734 (N=90)	22.1539 (N=77)	.9338 (N=85)	5.6561 (N=34)	2.1230 (N=34)	2.6442 (N=34)
2. Low PC	X	31.5169	20.0419	9.7111	.6278	31.3979	8.0833	11.5714
	σ	7.6744 (N=99)	4.3946 (N=102)	22.3054 (N=90)	1.4954 (N=94)	7.3917 (N=42)	1.9566 (N=42)	2.7108 (N=42)
<u>High Consensus Institutions</u>								
1. High PC	X	34.5456	16.3533	7.9120	.2734	31.1837	8.2755	10.4694
	σ	5.4503 (N=145)	3.8250 (N=146)	17.7727 (N=125)	.8202 (N=128)	4.7475 (N=49)	1.8173 (N=49)	2.2785 (N=49)
2. Low PC	X	31.5950	19.8488	7.5039	.3650	33.4688	7.6652	11.0250
	σ	6.6106 (N=159)	4.7438 (N=158)	17.7742 (N=129)	.7941 (N=137)	4.8166 (N=40)	2.2343 (N=40)	2.0316 (N=40)
		<u>Significance</u>						
	t	3.23	-2.71	0.46	-0.72	-0.47	0.01	0.03
	p	<.01	<.01	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
	t	4.26	-7.10	0.18	-0.92	-2.24	1.40	1.21
	p	<.001	<.001	N.S.	N.S.	p<.05	N.S.	N.S.
	t	-0.04	-3.46	-1.13	-1.57	0.47	0.60	-1.58
	N.S.	N.S.	p<.001	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
	t	-0.18	0.35	0.78	1.42	-1.19	0.61	0.79
	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.

Note: All t-tests are two tailed.

N.S.--difference not significant at .05 level or better.
Dichotomization of Personal Control within institutions.

($t = -2.7069, p < .01$). While differences in the other success measures failed to achieve significance, they all ran in the direction opposite from prediction. Within high consensus institutions, again the differences between personal control groups were more pronounced and occurred in the predicted direction. High personal control inmates held higher expectations of goal attainment ($t = 4.2600, p < .001$), were less alienated ($t = -7.0964, p < .001$), and were more likely to be perceived as adjusted by the correctional staff ($t = -2.2408, p < .05$). Though nonsignificant, other success score differences (DR, REWARD, and ASSOC) ran in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis 5C. Persons who believe in personal control and reside in environments with high consensus on appropriate behavior should be more successful than their counterparts in environments with low consensus. Conversely, persons who do not believe in personal control and reside in environments with low consensus on appropriate behavior should be more successful than their counterparts in environments with high consensus.

Tables 18 and 19 also contain the results of the examination of this hypothesis. Looking at Table 18, it can be seen that the comparison of success score differences between high personal control inmates in high consensus living units and their counterparts in low consensus units yielded a number of significant results. As predicted, high personal control inmates in high consensus units reported receiving more rewards ($t = 3.1704, p < .01$) and fewer disciplinary reports ($t = -2.2051, p < .05$), and were more likely to be perceived as adjusted by the staff ($t = -2.9913, p < .01$). However, the staff was also less likely to perceive them as leaders ($t = -3.2405, p < .01$). Though nonsignificant, differences on the FM and AL measures occurred in the predicted direction.

The comparison of low personal control groups yielded three significant differences among the success measures. Two of these ran counter to prediction. Low personal control inmates within low consensus living units held lower expectations of goal attainment ($t = -3.0656$, $p < .01$) and were more alienated ($t = 1.9647$, $p < .05$) than their counterparts in high consensus units. However, they were more likely to be viewed by the staff as being more socially active among their inmate peers ($t = 2.5153$, $p < .02$).

Looking at Table 19, it can be seen that each comparison of success score differences between low personal control groups in low and high consensus institutions failed to achieve statistical significance. However, on 5 of the 7 success measures (REWARD, DR, MALAD, ASSOC, and LEADER), differences were in the predicted direction. Only one significant difference obtained in the comparison of high personal control groups. High personal control inmates in high consensus institutions were less likely to feel alienated ($t = -3.4635$, $p < .001$) than were their counterparts in low consensus institutions. Only 2 of the differences on the remaining 6 success measures (DR and ASSOC) obtained in the predicted direction.

DISCUSSION

Drawing heavily from social learning theory, a large number of personality variables were included in this study. The internal properties of the scales measuring these variables were examined in an attempt to demonstrate their reliability and homogeneity. After purification by removal of items with low correlations to scale scores, all scales offered sufficient reliability of measurement of the intended construct. Likewise, with the possible exception of Interpersonal Trust, all scales were sufficiently homogeneous.

The discriminant and construct validities of the scales were inspected by examining the intercorrelations which obtained among the scales. The discriminant validity of the scales was examined by comparing the purity of each measure with all other related measures. The six subscales of the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure were discriminately valid. Likewise, the prison inmates who served as subjects in this research were able to differentiate among the following measures: Attitude Toward Rules and Regulations, Attitude Toward Authority Figures, Attitude Toward Deviance, Alienation, Interpersonal Trust, Self-Esteem, Freedom of Movement, and Personal Control. Examination of the results revealed some overlap among the scales measuring the inmates' perceptions of the institutional opportunity structure: Opportunity to Develop a Personal Identity, Opportunity for Social/ Interpersonal Development, Definition of Personal Commitment, and Value of Commitment.

A strong sense of construct validity of the scales was established. Of the 190 intercorrelations among the scales utilized in this research, 25 failed to occur in the predicted direction. Twenty of these obtained with the Staff Punishment and Staff Custody subscales of the Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors measure. Therefore, it can be said that overall support was found for the construct validity of these scales.

All of the personality variables correlated as hypothesized with personal control, demonstrating the salience of this concept in correctional settings. Belief in personal control was predictive of expectations for attaining goals, feelings of self-esteem and interpersonal trust, intolerant attitudes toward deviant behavior, favorable attitudes toward positive behavior in the prison environment, and favorable attitudes toward the opportunity and authority structures of the prison environment. Personal control beliefs were negatively related with feelings of alienation and with favorable attitudes toward negative behaviors in the prison environment. Not only do these relationships suggest strong construct validity for the personal control concept, but they also suggest that a great deal of importance should be attached to developing or maintaining an inmate's sense of personal efficacy within the prison environment.

Correctional authorities are advised to create environments in which beliefs in personal control are enhanced. Instead of environments where the experiences of external domination define institutional life, efforts should be directed toward development of environments in which predictable patterns between inmate behavior and subsequent outcomes predominate. Inmates would be more likely to develop expectancies for control when these contingency relationships become clear to

them. Features of unpredictability would be best removed from correctional environments.

The findings related to the distribution of personal control beliefs over correctional settings generally obtained as predicted. Personal control beliefs were distributed across correctional settings such that inmates who lived within institutions rich in opportunities for interpersonal, vocational, and academic development held stronger beliefs in personal control than inmates who resided within institutional environments relatively devoid of such opportunities. This was true when the highest opportunity male institution included in the study (LexM) was contrasted with the lowest opportunity male facility (UCI), and also when the rich environment of LexF was contrasted with the relatively deprived environments of FCIF and ColoF. These findings suggest that inmates who reside in relatively enriched environments are more likely to develop positive patterns of personality adaptation than are inmates who reside in environments which are more oriented toward security or custody.

As predicted, personal control beliefs were distributed among inmate ethnic groups such that Whites held stronger beliefs than both Blacks and members of other minority groups. However, when this difference was examined within the seven institutional settings, only in the three Florida institutions did the difference achieve significance. This suggests the possibility of a strong regional influence upon the distribution of personal control beliefs among inmate ethnic groups, and is consistent with the reported findings of no significant differences among the Colorado populations studied by Jessor et al. (1968) and Swanson (1968). Furthermore, this finding carries with it the implication

that correctional institutions, and perhaps the Florida institutions in particular, should be oriented toward developing some special programmatic effort in the area of helping minority group inmates develop stronger beliefs in personal efficacy.

The findings related to the distribution of beliefs in personal control over the range of inmate socioeconomic status also obtained as predicted. Inmates with poorer educational and occupational backgrounds were somewhat less likely to develop strong personal control beliefs. Socioeconomic status was most predictive of personal control among female inmates. Again, this finding suggests that a specific population, in this case lower socioeconomic status females, should be viewed as a target group for special programmatic efforts to assist in the development of more positive personality adaptation.

Few consistent trends emerged from the data in the analysis of the relationship between personal control beliefs and length of stay variables. Perhaps the most instructive were some of the findings relating personal control to expected time remaining in prison and length of time in prison. When all inmates were grouped together and for the male sample as well as for the Blacks, the expectation of early release from prison was the best predictor of personal control. Perhaps when in involuntary confinement, the strongest predictor of personal efficacy for these groups is release. For females, the best predictor of personal control was the time already spent in prison such that as time in prison increased, personal control beliefs were diminished.

The hypothesis of a curvilinear relationship between personal control and length of stay with personal control beliefs strongest in the middle segment of an inmate's time in prison failed to be strongly supported. Only when the differences in the length of stay variables

were maximized did the results obtain in the predicted direction, though nonsignificantly. Reasons for why these results conflict with the findings of Kiehlbauch (1967) remain unclear. Since both studies employed a cross-sectional design in assigning inmates to the different time groups, perhaps future research could best clarify the issue by employing a longitudinal design.

An attempt was made to discriminate among inmate groups by measuring the level of group consensus on appropriate staff and inmate behaviors. The consensus measure did discriminate among inmate samples by institution, by living unit, and by ethnic group within institutions. The power of this discrimination was supported by the finding of the predicted relationships between level of group consensus and personal control. This suggests that standards for appropriate institutional behavior must be made clear for staff as well as the inmate population.

A limitation of the method used to measure group consensus is that it was only summative in nature. All individual scores were treated as equal, a technique which ignored other important individual difference factors which may greatly influence individual influence upon group consensus. Such individual characteristics as leadership status, power status, or intelligence level may have some bearing upon influence within a group. As well, the current method ignored the staff in measuring consensus. It is entirely conceivable that staff prescriptions and proscriptions could have considerable influence upon the group consensus measure. Future research may best determine the nature of group consensus and its influence upon group members by taking into account these considerations and by adopting a longitudinal design. (It should be cautioned, however, that these sociometric measurements may be very

difficult to obtain within correctional settings due to the inmates' pronounced reluctance to describe the intricacies of their informal relationship structures.) Personal control as well as other personality variables presumed sensitive to the socialization process could be measured at group entry and again at later times.

The findings on the relationship between institutional population size and personal control indicate the relationship obtained in the predicted direction, even though nonsignificantly. Perhaps a larger sample of institutional settings would be needed in order to fully confirm that individuals living in larger, more anonymous institutional environments are less likely to believe in personal control. Had population figures for individual living units in the present sample been available, the analysis would have been completed at this level and perhaps the hypothesis may have received fuller support.

As predicted, persons who believe in personal control are more successful, in general, than persons who do not hold such beliefs. However, the results of this study do lend support to the notion that there are inherent conceptual weaknesses in treating the personal control construct as a unidimensional variable operating consistently across need areas and situation. As Swanson (1970a) has suggested, there is evidence to support the notion that some environments demand of an individual a specific control position and that it is the veridicality of personal disposition and the objective situation that is the best predictor of success in the environment.

Using group consensus on appropriate behavior as the environmental characteristic which demanded a particular control position, it was found that the highly significant differences in success between high and low

personal control inmates in high consensus settings were washed out in low consensus settings. This finding suggests the possibility that personal control beliefs are important predictors of success only in environments where there is high consensus on recommended, or prescribed, behavior. In low consensus situations, it appears that low personal control inmates have "caught up" with their high personal control peers.

The contribution of the consensus factor was made even more clear when high personal control inmates from high consensus settings were compared with high personal control inmates from low consensus settings. Living in a high consensus situation is apparently an important factor in the ultimate success of persons who do believe in the personal control of their own reinforcements. They respond by holding higher expectations of goal attainment and by feeling less alienated than their counterparts in low consensus situations.

On the other hand, there is less evidence supporting the notion that low personal control inmates respond to the consensus factor in the same manner. Whether they lived in high or low consensus settings seemed to make much less difference in terms of their environmental success. These findings again are supportive of the suggestion that personal control is not unidimensional in nature and that low personal control belief (externality) is not the polar opposite of high personal control belief (internality).

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Appendix A. Attitude Toward Prison Behaviors

1. Inmates cause as much trouble as they can.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

2. Staff members only concern themselves with keeping the inmate from causing them trouble.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

3. Staff members try to help inmates take a new look at their life.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

4. Inmates try to get along by keeping their mouth shut around the staff.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

5. Staff members act like their main job is to keep things running smoothly.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

6. Staff members push inmates till they break.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

7. An inmate really tries to learn something in work release that will be of use later.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

8. Inmates lie to an officer if they can get away with it.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

9. Staff members try to understand an inmate's problems.

ABSOLUTELY		MAY OR	SHOULD	ABSOLUTELY
SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY NOT	NOT	SHOULD NOT

10. Staff members act as if their main job is preventing escapes.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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11. Staff members are rough with inmates to show them who's boss.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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12. Black inmates treat black and white inmates the same.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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13. A white inmate only teams up with another white.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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14. Inmates goof off while they are in school.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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15. Staff members take a personal interest in the inmates here.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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16. An inmate tries to steer clear of the staff.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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17. Staff members see an inmate as someone to be controlled.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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18. Staff members see to it that inmates have a hard time here to make up for what they did on the outside.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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19. Inmates do the best work they can when they are on a work detail.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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20. A white keeps away from blacks as much as possible.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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21. A black tries to get along with a white in their dorm.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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22. Staff members help inmates to plan their future on the outside.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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23. Inmates try to find the easiest job they can.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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24. Staff members remind inmates that they are in here to pay for their crimes.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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25. Inmates try to figure out how to get along with other inmates while they are in here.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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26. White inmates treat black and white inmates the same.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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27. A white tries to get along with a black in their dorm.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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28. Inmates work it out so they can con the staff.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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29. Staff members try to teach an inmate skills that will help on the streets.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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30. An inmate keeps to oneself as much as possible.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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31. Staff members send an inmate to segregation even for little things.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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32. Inmates do their best to cooperate when they are assigned to work with another inmate.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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33. Whites do their best to cooperate when they are assigned to work with a black.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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34. An inmate tries to get around as many of the rules as possible.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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35. Inmates act like their stay here is just a matter of waiting out time.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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36. Inmates spend a lot of time thinking while they are in here about how to get along on the outside.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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37. A black only teams up with another black.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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38. Blacks do their best to cooperate when they are assigned to work with a white.

ABSOLUTELY SHOULD	SHOULD	MAY OR MAY NOT	SHOULD NOT	ABSOLUTELY SHOULD NOT
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Appendix B. Definition of Situation

1. Recreation activities are not a very important part of the program at this place.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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2. It's easy to forget how to get along with people after you've been locked up--like in here.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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3. It would be better to have a new gymnasium rather than a new vocational shop building.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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4. By the time most people leave this place they have a better idea of what they want out of life than they had before.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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5. Even if they started giving week-end passes, the number of escape attempts probably would not change much.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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6. The only reason there are so many regulations here is because they like to have more ways to be able to bust you.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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7. Persons who are mixed up when they get here can be helped by the time they leave.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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8. No matter what they tell you, pulling time does more harm than good.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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9. If you don't learn anything else here, at least you learn how to get along with others.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
10. If they showed better movies at this institution, more persons would want to see them.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
11. The training you get here can make it easier to get a job on the outside.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
12. The main reason for regulations is so that the officers can have their way.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
13. In here they're always telling you what you've done wrong, not what you've done right.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
14. When people live close together like in this place you learn to see the other person's point of view.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
15. By the time persons have been through the routine here, they are not sure who they are anymore.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
16. Officers are trying to help inmates even though they're getting after them all the time.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
17. It would be a good idea to have dances with other institutions every now and then.
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | NEITHER AGREE
NOR DISAGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|----------|----------------------|

18. Whether you like it or not, at least you have a chance to learn something useful while you're here.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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19. Most officers at this institution don't care much about you as long as you stay out of trouble.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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20. When you're finished pulling time here, you're really not very far from where you started.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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21. Persons are sent to a place like this to get them out of the way, not to help them.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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22. What you learn in a place like this about getting along with other people sure won't help you on the outside.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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23. If there were fewer rules, there would probably be less trouble around here.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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24. An institution like this is a place where a person can get his or her feet on the ground and begin to make a fresh start.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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25. Even though a lot is said about training and education, it doesn't really amount to much here.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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26. Some of the officers in here get their kicks out of ordering inmates around.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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27. It's hard to admit it, but the reason for a place like this is to help people stay out of trouble the next time.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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28. Like most other things, there are probably some good reasons for most of the regulations on the book.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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29. The results of this questionnaire probably won't tell anybody anything.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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30. The people in here would be interested to hear more about this research.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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31. Most of the people who check off answers in this booklet probably thought about most of the questions fairly carefully.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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Appendix C. Attitude Toward Deviance

Note: Each item precedes the following checklist:

1. Serious enough for the death penalty.
2. Serious enough to put a person in prison for life.
3. Serious enough to put a person in prison for several years.
4. Serious enough to put a person in prison for about a year.
5. Serious enough to put a person on probation for about a year.
6. Serious enough to give a person a good warning.
7. Not serious enough to punish a person in any way.
8. Not serious enough at all, nothing wrong with it.

ARE THESE BEHAVIORS SERIOUS ENOUGH SO THAT WE SHOULD PUNISH THOSE WHO DO THEM?

1. Kidnapping someone and holding them for ransom. (check one)
2. Shooting a gun into a building. (check one)
3. Buying or receiving stolen property. (check one)
4. Stealing an automobile. (check one)
5. Using a fake or phony credit card or one that belongs to someone else. (check one)
6. Attacking someone with a knife, gun, or any other object that may be used as a weapon. (check one)
7. Jaywalking. (check one)
8. Selling heroin. (check one)
9. Excessively beating and seriously hurting one's children. (check one)
10. Breaking into a store or office to steal things. (check one)
11. Carrying a concealed weapon. (check one)
12. Breaking into someone's home to steal things. (check one)
13. Possessing heroin. (check one)
14. Selling speed or LSD. (check one)
15. Using a weapon to rob someone. (check one)
16. Selling marijuana or hashish. (check one)

17. Robbing someone without using a weapon. (check one)
18. Making loud noises and doing things in public that annoy and disturb people. (check one)
19. Forging or passing worthless checks. (check one)
20. Spitting on the sidewalk. (check one)
21. Forcibly raping someone. (check one)
22. Indecently exposing oneself in public. (check one)
23. Possessing dangerous explosives. (check one)
24. Intentionally taking another person's life. (check one)
25. Having sexual relations with a person of the opposite sex who is younger than 16 years old. (check one)
26. Driving a car while intoxicated from alcohol. (check one)
27. Intentionally setting a house, store, or office on fire. (check one)
28. Possession of illegal firearms. (check one)
29. Possessing speed or LSD. (check one)
30. Accidentally taking another person's life. (check one)
31. Possessing marijuana or hashish. (check one)
32. Operating a still. (check one)
33. Counterfeiting money. (check one)
34. Attempting to blow up a house, store, or office. (check one)
35. Deserting one's spouse and children. (check one)
36. Having sexual relations with someone who is of the same sex. (check one)

Appendix D. Alienation

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
1. I sometimes feel uncertain about who I really am.	SA	A	D	SD
2. It's hard to know how to act most of the time since you can't tell what people expect.	SA	A	D	SD
3. I often feel left out of things that others are doing around here.	SA	A	D	SD
4. It seems to me that each person has to solve their own problems alone, since you can't really count on other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5. Most people don't seem to accept me when I'm just being myself.	SA	A	D	SD
6. I often find it difficult to feel involved in the things I'm doing.	SA	A	D	SD
7. Hardly anyone I know is interested in how I really feel inside.	SA	A	D	SD
8. I often feel alone when I am with other people.	SA	A	D	SD

Appendix E. Interpersonal Trust and Self-Esteem

1. More people are becoming two-faced now than ever before.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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2. In dealing with strangers a person is better off being very careful until you are sure you can trust them.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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3. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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4. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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5. The average law enforcement officer is as guilty of breaking the law as the average inmate.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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6. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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7. Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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8. As pointed out by recent books and movies our morals seem to be getting worse in this country.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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9. The courts are a place where we can all get fair treatment.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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10. No matter what people say, most people are primarily interested in their own welfare.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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11. My future in the outside society seems very promising.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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12. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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13. Most people would be horrified if they knew how much of what they hear and see is untrue compared to what's really happening.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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14. Most prison staff are really sincere in their promises.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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15. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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16. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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17. It is more important that people achieve happiness than that they achieve greatness.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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18. Most people can be trusted to tell the truth about how much they know.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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19. One should not attack the political beliefs of other people.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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20. People really have to be alert in this world or someone is likely to take advantage of them.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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21. I certainly feel useless at times.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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22. A good leader molds the opinions of the group he or she is leading rather than merely following the wishes of members of the group.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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23. At times I think I am no good at all.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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24. Most salesmen are honest in describing their products.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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25. Education in this country is not really preparing young men and women to deal with the problems of the future.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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26. The students now going to college are going to find it more difficult to find good jobs when they graduate than did the college graduates of the past.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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27. Most repairmen will not overcharge even if they think you don't know much about their line of work.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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28. One should not attack the religious beliefs of other people.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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29. Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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30. If inmates knew what was going on among prison officials, they would have more reason to be frightened than they now seem to be.

STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	AGREE AND DISAGREE EQUALLY	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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Appendix F. Freedom of Movement

1. When you think about what you really expect to happen in the future, how sure are you that your life will work out the way you want it to?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
2. Think about your family for a moment. How sure do you feel that things can work you the way you want them as far as your family or family life is concerned?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
3. Think about your job or your work. How sure do you feel that things can work out the way you want as far as your job or work is concerned?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
4. How sure do you feel that the way you do things will be respected by others?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
5. How sure do you feel that people you like want to spend time with you?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
6. How sure are you that people you know will have a high opinion of you?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
7. When you think about your future realistically, how sure are you of being a respected member of the community in which you'll be living?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
8. When you think about your future realistically, how sure are you of having enough money to live the way you'd like to?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
9. When you think about your future realistically, how sure are you of being able to settle down in whatever place you most prefer?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL
10. When you think about your future realistically, how sure are you of having the kind of life that's interesting rather than routine?
VERY SURE PRETTY SURE NOT TOO SURE NOT SURE AT ALL

11. When you think about your future realistically, how sure are you that you can stay out of prison.

VERY SURE

PRETTY SURE

NOT TOO SURE

NOT SURE AT ALL

Appendix G. Personal Control

1. Most of the unhappy things in my life have happened because I was unlucky enough to be in the wrong place at the wrong time.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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2. Getting what I want out of life really depends on whether the right people like me or not.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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3. Getting what I want out of life depends mainly on getting the breaks and having the right people on my side.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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4. Generally when I say that the cards are stacked against me, it's just an excuse for the fact that I didn't really work for the things I wanted.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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5. In the long run what I do doesn't really determine what happens to me.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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6. What happens to me is really a matter of luck.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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7. I know that if the right people don't like me, it doesn't matter what I'll do, I'll never win.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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8. Getting what I want out of life depends upon working to get it.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
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Appendix H. Ratings of Inmates

(Inmate Name) _____

1. Would you rate this person as a:

MODEL INMATE	GOOD INMATE	AVERAGE INMATE	PROBLEM INMATE	TROUBLE- MAKER
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2. How well do you think this person has adjusted to life in this institution?

VERY WELL	WELL	AVERAGE	POORLY	VERY POORLY
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3. How well do you think this person would adjust to the outside society if he were released within the next six months?

VERY WELL	WELL	AVERAGE	POORLY	VERY POORLY
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4. How does this person spend his time?

ALWAYS ALONE	SELDOM WITH OTHERS	SOMETIMES WITH OTHERS	OFTEN WITH OTHERS	ALWAYS WITH OTHERS
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5. Some inmates become inmate leaders. Would you say this person:

IS NEVER A LEADER	SELDOM LEADS	SOMETIMES LEADS, SOMETIMES NOT	OFTEN LEADS	ALWAYS LEADS
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6. How well would you say you know this person.

VERY WELL	WELL	ABOUT AS WELL AS AVERAGE	NOT SO WELL	HARDLY AT ALL
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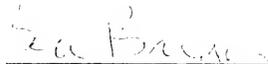
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Douglas Joseph Freeman was born on October 8, 1948, in Shenandoah, Iowa, and received his early education in the public schools of that rural community. He attended Wheaton College in Wheaton, Illinois, for two years and after two additional years at the University of Nebraska at Lincoln, he graduated with the A.B. degree in psychology and philosophy in 1971.

Mr. Freeman began graduate training in clinical psychology and community psychology at the University of Florida in the fall of 1971. He received the M.A. degree in 1973. From 1973 to 1975 he was employed as the Coordinator of Training and Education at the Gainesville, Florida, Suicide and Crisis Intervention Service. In 1976 he completed a 12-month internship in clinical psychology and community psychology at the Malcolm Bliss Mental Health Center, St. Louis, Missouri.

Mr. Freeman is married to Suzanne Cole Freeman. They have one child, named Emily.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



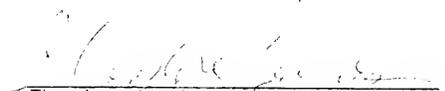
Ben Barger, Chairman
Professor of Psychology and Clinical
Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



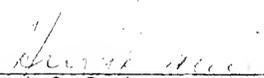
Richard M. Swanson, Cochairman
Associate Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Theodore Landsman
Professor of Psychology and Counselor
Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Hugh C. Davis
Professor of Clinical Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

June 1977

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